Linguistic Research 32(3), 573-606 DOI: 10.17250/khisli.32.3.201512.003

On the syntax of multi-focused fragment answers in Korean: An oblique merge analysis*

Daeho Chung

(Hanyang University)

Chung, Daeho. 2015. On the syntax of multi-focused fragment answers in Korean: An oblique merge analysis. *Linguistic Research* 32(3), 573-606. As observed in the literature (Park 2005, 2013, Park and Shin 2014, Ku and Cho 2014, among others), focus elements in a multi-focused fragment answer in Korean behave asymmetrically depending on their positions: Focus elements in a non-final position retain their dependent markers, while those in the final position optionally delete them. This paper first shows that the restriction is merely a subcase of a superordinate constraint, which states that a focus element in a non-final position pied-pipes the minimal node that dominates it and c-commands the following focus element(s), whereas a focus element in the final position optionally pied-pipes its dominating node(s). It is argued then that the pied-piping for non-final focus elements is caused by an economy-driven oblique merge operation that clusters elements with a focus feature before the complex focus element formed in this way moves to the focus licensing functional phrase. Focus clustering due to the same oblique merge operation is attested in other constructions containing multiple focus elements. (Hanyang University)

Keywords dependent marker (DM), focus clustering, focus feature, multi-focused fragment answer (MFFA), oblique merge, percolation, pied-piping

^{*} Earlier versions of this work were presented at Hansung Workshop on Ellipsis and Illusion at Sono Village, Hongchon, on July 27, 2015 and at the 17th Seoul International Conference on Generative Grammar at Kyung Hee University, on August 07, 2015. I thank all the audience at both occasions, specially Hiroshi Ayoyagi, Sun-Woong Kim, Heejeong Ko, Doo-won Lee, Gui-Sun Moon, Jong-Un Park, Myung-Kwan Park, Omer Preminger, Hae-Kyung Wee, and Hang-Jin Yoon for their valuable comments and questions. I also thank Ken Eckert, Julie Henderson and anonymous reviewers of *Linguistic Research* for their helpful feedbacks. All errors are solely mine, however. This work was supported by the Ministry of Education of the Republic of Korea and the National Research Foundation of Korea (NRF-2015S1A5A2A01012853)

1. Introduction

Multi-focused fragment answers (MFFAs) in Korean have received a great deal of attention in the literature, especially as to how they are syntactically derived. Discussions mostly center around the locality between the surviving elements (Park 2005, 2013, Park and Shin 2014, among others), and around the asymmetric behaviors that the final vs. non-final focus elements in MFFAs display with respect to the retention or omission of the so-called dependent markers (DMs) they carry (Park 2005, 2013, Park and Shin 2014, Ku and Cho 2014, among others). This paper first points out that the generalizations made in the previous studies, especially about the locality between surviving elements and about the distribution of the DMs that survivors bear, are either incorrect or not general enough. Then it observes MFFAs in Korean are subject to a superordinate generalization that captures the morphological and syntactic restrictions. More concretely, a focus element in a non-final position pied-pipes the minimal node that dominates it and c-commands the following focus element(s), while the focus element in the final position optionally pied-pipes the node(s) that contains it.

To explain the superordinate generalization, this paper proposes that the focus elements obliquely merge for an economy reason before the complex focus expression formed in this way moves to the SPEC of FocP *a la* Merchant's (2001, 2004) move-followed-by-TP-ellipsis analysis of fragments. The proposed oblique merge analysis is shown to nicely account for the syntactic and morphological restrictions that MFFAs display and to arguably accommodate syntactic behaviors that various other multi-elemental focus constructions display.

This paper is organized as follows. Section 2 revisits major generalizations made in the literature, especially as to the locality between survivors in MFFAs and the distribution of DMs. Generalizations made in the literature as to the locality will be shown to be incorrect in this section. Section 3 observes that the generalization made in the literature as to the distribution of DMs is not general enough. MFFAs are in fact shown to be subject to a superordinate generalization. Section 4 tries to provide an explanation of the superordinate generalization. It will be proposed that survivors in MFFAs obliquely merge within TP due to a Probe-Goal/Agree relation between the focus features carried by the survivors before the complex focus element formed in this way moves to the functional category FocP. In Section 5, various other

focus-related constructions with multiple focus elements are shown to behave like MFFAs regarding the superordinate generalization, supporting the oblique merge analysis provided in Section 4. Section 6 discusses some theoretical implications.

2. Crucial generalizations revisited

2.1 Omission or retention of DMs

A WH-question in Korean can be answered with a fragment sentence as in (1B2) and (1B2), as well as with a full sentence as in (1B1) below:

(1) A:	John-i Mary-eykey		mwues-ul		cwu-ess-ni?
	JNom	MDat	what-Acc		give-Pst-QE
	'What die	d you give to	Mary	/?'	
B1:	John-i	Mary-eykey	sakw	v a- lul	cwu-ess-ta
	JNom	MDat	apple-Acc		give-Pst-DE
	'John gav	ve Mary an ap	ple.'		
B2:	sakwa -lul		B3:	sakwa	
	apple-Acc		apple		
	'An apple	e.'	'An ap		ple.'

The focus element (bold faced) in a fragment answer may or may not retain its DM (case morphemes or postpositional particles), as shown in the variations in (1B2) and (1B3), respectively, as was discussed in Morgan (1989), M.-K. Park (1998), B.-S. Park (2005, 2013), Ahn and Cho (2011, 2012), Ahn (2012), and Kim (2015), among many others.

Fragment answers may be composed of multiple elements, when the antecedent WH-question includes multiple WH-phrases. One prominent restriction that such a construction displays is that the surviving elements in the final position retain or omit its DM, while those in an non-final position must retain their DMs (Park 2005, 2013, Park and Shin 2014, Ku and Cho 2014. cf. Choi and Yoon 2009), as exemplified in (2) and (3), and schematically represented in (4):

(2) A:	Cheli-ka nwukwu-eykey mwues-	ul cwu-ess-ni?
	ChNom who-Dat what-A	cc give-Pst-QE
	'What did Cheli give to whom?	
B1:	Yengi-eykey sakwa-lul	B2: Yengi-eykey sakwa
	YDat apple-Acc	
B3:	*Yengi sakwa-lul	B4: *Yengi sakwa
(3) A:	nwu-ka nwukwu-eykey mwu	es-ul cwu-ess-ni?
	who-Nom who-Dat what	-Acc give-Pst-QE
	'Who gave whom what?'	
B1:	John-i Mary-eykey sakwa-lul	B2: John-i Mary-eykey sakwa
	JNom MDat apple-Acc	
B3:	* John- i Mary sakwa- lul	B4: *John Mary-eykey sakwa-lul
B5:	*John-i Mary sakwa	B6: *John Mary-eykey sakwa
B7:	*John Mary sakwa-lul	B8: *John Mary sakwa
(4) [2	XP _{non-final} *(-DM) YP _{final} (-DM)] ¹	(XP/YP = WH-Correlates)

The restriction on DMs seems robust (but see footnotes 3 and 4 for some speaker variations), but it will be shown to be merely a subcase of a superordinate generalization in Section 3.

¹ There are some elements, e.g., temporal expressions like *ecey* 'yesterday' and *onul* 'today', that inherently resist DMs but are able to function as non-final focus elements in MFFAs:

(i)	A:	John-i	encey	nwukwu-eykey	mwu	es-ul	ewu-ess-ni?	
		JNom	when	who-Dat	what	-Acc	give-Pst-QE	
		'When did	John give what to whom?"					
	B1:	ecey	Mary-eyl	key sakwa-lul	B2:	ecey	Mary-eykey	sakwa
		yesterday	MDat	apple-Acc		yesterday	MDat	apple
		'An apple to Mary yesterday.'						

Thus, the constraint in (4) is on the retention or omission of a DM rather than on its presence or absence.

2.2 Locality between focus elements in MFFAs

It is noted in the literature, though not in unison, that MFFAs are subject to a certain locality condition. Park and Shin (2014) claim that, based on the examples like (5) below, the surviving elements are to belong to the same clause.

- (5) (=Park and Shin 2014: 18, their (33))
 - A: **nwu**-ka [Cheli-ka **nwukwu**-lul ttayli-ess-ta-ko] malha-ess-ni? Who-Nom Ch.-Nom who-Acc hit-Pst-DE-C say-Pst-QE 'Who said that Cheli hit who?'
 - B: {*Yengi-ka Cinwu(-lul)/} (kuliko Songi-ka Minwu(-lul)
 Y.-Nom C.(-Acc) and S.-Nom M.(-Acc)
 (Intended) 'Yengi said that Cheli hit Cinwu (and Songi said that Cheli hit Minwu).'

Notice, however, that a different judgment is reported in Park (2005), according to whom surviving elements can be extracted out of different clauses. Examples like (6) are acceptable, though not perfect, and examples like (7) sound almost perfect.

- (6) A: enu kyoswu-ka hakkwacang-eykey [pro mwusun which professor-Nom chairperson-Dat which kwamok-ul kaluchi-ko siph-ta-ko] malha-ess-ni? subject-Acc teach-want-DE-C say-Pst-QE 'Which professor said to the chairperson that she or he wanted to teach which subject?'
 - B: Kim kyoswu-ka thongsalon-ul
 K. professor-Nom syntax-Acc
 (Intended) 'Professor Kim said to the chairperson that he wanted to teach syntax.'
- (7) A: Cheli-ka nwukwu-eykey [nwu-ka o-n-ta-ko] ha-ess-ni?
 Ch.-Nom who-Dat who-Nom come-Pres-DE-C say-Pst-QE
 'To whom did Cheli say that who was coming?'
 - B: Yengi-eykey Songi-ka

Y.-Dat S.-Nom (Intended) 'Cheli said to Yengi that Songi was coming.'

As far as the brackets in the examples mark clausal boundaries, the same clause condition does not seem to be respected. Thus, the ungrammatical status (or plausibly low acceptability) of (5B) should not be due to the same clause condition, but to some other (probably processing) constraint.²

Park (2005, 2013) instead claims that there is an island boundary condition, based on the examples like (8). However, the island boundary condition does not seem to be robust, either, when we consider examples like (9) below.

(8) (=Park 2005: 94, his (43))

- A: **nwu-**ka [ecey **mwues-**ul san salam-ul] manass-ni? who-Nom yesterday what-Acc bought person-Acc met-Q 'Who met a person who bought what yesterday?'
- B: ***John-i chayk-**ul John-Nom book-Acc 'John met a person who bought a book yesterday.'
- (9) A: Cheli-ka nwukwu-eykey [eti-ey sa-nun chinkwu-lul] Ch.-Nom who-Dat where-at live-PNE friend-Acc sokayha-ess-ni? introduce-Pst-OE 'To whom did Cheli introduce the friend who lives where?' B1: Yengi-eykey [Seoul-ey sa-nun chinkwu-lul] Y.-Dat S.-at live-PNE friend-Acc 'A friend who lives in Seoul to Yengi.' B2: Yengi-eykey [Seoul-ey sa-nun chinkwu] B4: Yengi-eykey [Seoul-ey] B3: Yengi-eykey [Seoul-ey sa-nun]
 - B5: Yengi-eykey [Seoul]

² It will be an interesting research topic to find out exactly what causes the difference in acceptability between the examples like (5) and the ones like (6) and (7). As far as (6) is concerned, the existence of a null element co-indexed with the clause-external WP may facilitate the interpretation, as pointed out by one of the journal reviewers. But what is clear from (6) and (7) is that the same clause condition does not work in its literal sense.

Not only (9B1) but also (9B2~B5) are all acceptable, though not perfect.³ The acceptability of (9B3~5) indicates that MFFAs obey neither the clause mate condition nor the island boundary constraint.

3. A superordinate generalization

B5: *[Seoul]

Now consider (10) below, which is identical to (9) except for the inverted word order of the dative NP and the accusative NP:

(10)	A:	Cheli-ka [eti-ey	sa-nun chinkw	u-lul] nwukwu -eykey
		ChNom where-at	live-PNE frien	d-Acc who-Dat
		sokayha-ess-ni?		
		introduce-Pst-QE		
	B1:	[Seoul-ey sa-nun	chinkwu-lul]	Yengi-eykey
		Sat live-PNE	friend-Acc	YDat
	B2:	*[Seoul-ey sa-nun	chinkwu]	Yengi-ekey
	B3:	*[Seoul-ey sa-nun]	l	Yengi-eykey
	B4:	*[Seoul-ey]		Yengi-eykey

(10B2~5) and (9B2~5) differ in grammaticality.⁴ A similar contrast emerges when

Yengi-eykey

³ One of the journal reviewers disagrees with the acceptability judgment of the examples in (9B3-9B5) and other similar examples in Section 3. However, most of my consultants judge these examples to be basically grammatical, though not perfect. Another journal reviewer (and Myung-Kwan Park (p.c.) as well) admits the contrast between (8) and (9) and she or he suspects that the contrast might be related to the edge effect: Elements at the left edge of a domain tend to behave unusually any way. In contrast, Doo-won Lee (p.c.) also admits the contrast but suspects that adjacency may play a role: For an MFFA to be legitimate, the WH-correlates have to be adjacent to each other. The explanation in terms of an edge effect, however, will have difficulty accounting for the fact that the edge effect disappears when a WH-correlate stays at the left edge of a non-final focus element. (See Section 3.) The account in terms of adjacency will also face difficulty accounting for the fact that two WPs do not have to be adjacent, especially in non-island contexts, as in (6), for example.

⁴ One of the journal reviewers claims that examples like (10B2) are basically grammatical, though degraded due to a processing problem: With the case marker dropped, the relative clause may be interpreted as an element that modifies *Yengi*. I believe, however, that the processing problem should not arise, or at least should be minimal, due to the existence of the question clause in the

WH-correlates are embedded within a simplex NP, as in (11) and (12), which are alike except for the word order of the accusative NP and dative NP:

- (11) A: Cheli-ka mwues-ul [nwukwu-uy oppa-eykey] cwu-ess-ni?Ch.-Nom what-Acc who-Gen brother-Dat give-Pst-QE'What did Cheli give to whose brother?
 - B1: sakwa-lul Yengi-uy oppa-eykey B2: sakwa-lul Yengi-uy oppa apple-Acc Y.-Gen brother-Dat 'An apple to Mary's brother.'
 - B3: sakwa-lul Yengi-uy B4: sakwa-lul Yengi

immediate discourse context. Moreover, even when such a modification relation is hardly conceivable, as in the following example, the judgement seems to remain the same:

(i) A:	nwu-l	ka	ecey	[etiey	se	sikha-nun	ko	nchwung-tul-uy
	who-N	lom	yesterday	where	e in	habit-REL	ins	sect-Pl-ACC
	thukci	ng-ul]		etten	haksa	ayng-tul-eyke	ey	selmyengha-ess-ni?
	charac	eteristi	cs-Acc	which	stude	nt-Pl-Dat		explain-Pst-QE
	'Who	expla	ined the	character	istics	of the insec	cts	that inhabit where to which
	studen	nts yes	sterday?					
B:	Kim	kyosv	vu-ka	[nuph	ci-ey	sesikha-nun	ı	konchung-tul-uy
	K.	profes	ssor-Nom	swam	p-at	inhabit-REI	_	insect-Pl-Gen
	thukci	ng*(-ı	.l)]	yuchiwe	nsang-	tul-eykey		
	charac	eteristi	c-Acc	kinderga	rtener	-Pl-Dat		
	'Profe	ssor K	Kim (expla	ained) the	chara	acteristics of	the	insects that inhabit in swamps
	kinder	garten	ers.'					

As the verb *sesikha* 'to inhabit' does not take a [+human] argument, there should be no chance that the relative clause modifies *yuchiwensayng-tul* 'kindergartners'.

to

If one still accepts examples like (iB) with the case marker dropped, I suspect that she or he belongs to a group of speakers who freely drop structural case markers, regardless of the case type (Nominative or Accusative) or of the position (the complement position or else). Kim (2015) reports such a dialect. In contrast, Hong (1994, 2004, 2015), Ahn and Cho (2006b, 2007), and Park and Shin (2014) report a different generalization: Case markers can drop only in canonical complement positions, while those in canonical subject positions must be pronounced. Apparent case drop examples in other positions are often attested, but they are attributed to some discourse function like (hanging) topic or left-dislocation, which does not have to bear case markers from the beginning. See Ahn and Cho (2007), among others.

MFFAs like (10B2) become acceptable when a pause is put between the two focus elements, as pointed out by the same journal reviewer. I agree with the reviewer in this respect. It is not clear for the moment, though, why pauses improve the acceptability. Pauses may have to do with hanging topic or left-dislocation. This work simply reports the judgment on MFFAs with no pause inbetween.

(12) A:	Cheli-ka [nwukwu-uy	oppa-eykey]	mwues-ul	cwu-ess-ni?
	ChNom who-Gen	brother-Dat	what-Acc	give-Pst-QE
B1:	Yengi-uy oppa-eykey sa	akwa-lul B2:	Yengi-uy oppa	-eykey sakwa
	YGen brother-Dat a	apple-Acc		
B3:	*Yengi-uy s	akwa-lul B4:	*Yengi	sakwa-lul

The genitive phrase must accompany its head noun when it is contained in the first position, as in (12).⁵ In contrast, no such restriction applies when it is contained in the final position, as in (11).

The same is true when the relative clause is a WH-correlate, as exemplified below;⁶

⁵ One of the reviewers judges examples like (11B3) (and (13B2) below) to be totally unacceptable as MFFAs. According to the reviewer, a genitive phrase cannot function as a fragment answer at all, not even as a single-elemental fragment:

(i)	A:	Cheli-ka	nwukwu-uy	oppa-lul	manna-ess-ni?		
		ChNom	who-Gen	brother-Acc	see-Pst-QE		
	'Whose brother did Cheli see?'						
	B1:	(*)Yengi-u	у.				
		YGen					
		(Intended)	'He met Yengi	's brother.'			

However, there exist not a few examples in which fragment sentences end with a genitive marker or with a relative clause ending in the corpus data provided by National Institute of Korean Language (https://ithub.korean.go.kr/user/corpus/corpusSearchManager.do). As far as these corpus examples are natural utterances, there seems to be no reason for such expressions not to be used as fragment answers. Admittedly, examples like (iB1) are not perfect, but they qualitatively differ from examples like (iB2) in which a genitive marked phrase appears in a non-final position.

(i) B2: Yengi-uy *(oppa-lul) manna-ess-ta. Y.-Gen brother-Acc meet-Pst-DE (Intended) 'He met Yengi's brother.'

6

Also (iB1) becomes much better when the antecedent question clause takes an echo-question ending: *manna-ess-ta-ko*? instead of *manna-ess-ni*?

- As pointed out by Lee (2009) and Yoon and Lee (2009), pre-nominal (or relative) clauses can appear as a right dislocated position as well, though not in a sentence-medial position:
 - (i) na-to anay-ka philyoha-ta, yeppu-ko chakha-n
 I-also wife-Nom necessary-DE pretty-and good-PNE
 'I need a wife, pretty and good.'

(13) A:	nwukwu-eykey	etten	anay-ka	philyoha-ni?
	who-Dat	which	wife-Nom	necessary-QE
	'What kind of w	vife is neo	cessary to w	hom?'
B1:	John-eykey [[]	yeppu-ko	chakha-n]	anay]-ka
	JDat p	pretty-and	good-PNE	wife-Nom
	'A wife that is	pretty and	l good (is n	ecessary) to John.'
B2:	John-eykey [y	eppu-ko	chakha-n]	
	JDat p	oretty-and	good-PNE	
(14) A:	etten anay-k	a nwu	kwu- eykey	philyoha-ni?
(14) A:	-			philyoha-ni? necessary-QE
(14) A:	-	om who	-Dat	necessary-QE
	which wife-N	om who vife is neo	-Dat cessary to w	necessary-QE /hom?'
	which wife-N 'What kind of w	om who vife is neo nakha-n]	-Dat cessary to w anay]-ka	necessary-QE /hom?' John-eykey
	which wife-N 'What kind of w [[yeppu-ko ch pretty-and go	om who vife is neo nakha-n] pod-PNE	-Dat cessary to w anay]-ka wife-Nom	necessary-QE /hom?' John-eykey
B1:	which wife-N 'What kind of w [[yeppu-ko ch pretty-and go	fom who vife is neo nakha-n] pod-PNE pretty and	-Dat cessary to w anay]-ka wife-Nom l good (is n	necessary-QE /hom?' John-eykey JDat ecessary) to John.'
B1:	which wife-N 'What kind of w [[yeppu-ko ch pretty-and go 'A wife that is p	fom who wife is nee nakha-n] pood-PNE pretty and nakha-n]	-Dat cessary to w anay]-ka wife-Nom l good (is n John-eyk	necessary-QE /hom?' John-eykey JDat ecessary) to John.'

The relative clause must accompany its head noun when it is contained in the first position, as in (14). In contrast, no such restriction applies when it is contained in the final position, as in (13).

An overarching generalization that covers (8)~(14) will be like (15):

(15) The C-command Condition between Focus Elements in MFFAs The focus element (WH-Correlate) in the first position pied-pipes the minimal node that dominates it and c-commands the focus element in the second position, while the focus element in the second position optionally pied-pipes its dominating node(s).

(ii) A: ne-nun etten anay-ka philyoha-ni? you-Top which wife-Nom necessary-QE 'What kind of wife do you need?'
B: na-nun yeppu-ko chakha-n *(anay-ka) philyoha-ta. I-Top pretty-and good-PNE wife-Nom necessary-DE 'I need a wife that is pretty and good.'

MFFAs may have more than two elements. Consider the discourse example in (16), which is identical to (9) except that the answers in (16) have an additional focus element, i.e., *ecey* 'yesterday', corresponding to the WH-phrase *encey* 'when' in the antecedent question clause:⁷,⁸

(16) A:	John-i nwukw	u-eykey [eti-ey	sal-nun	chinkwu]-lul				
	JNom who-D	at v	where-at	live-PNE	friend-Acc				
	encey sokayha-	ess-ni?							
	when introduce-Pst-QE								
	'To whom did J	ohn introdu	ice the f	riend who	b lives where?'				
B1:	Mary-eykey [Seo	ul-ey sal-	nun	chinkwu]	-lul ecey				
	MDat S	in live	-PNE	friend-Ac	c yesterday				
	'the friend who	lives in Se	oul to M	lary yeste	erday'				
B2:	*Mary-eykey	[Seoul-ey	sal-nun	chinkw	ru] ecey				
B3:	*Mary-eykey	[Seoul-ey	sal-nun]	ecey				
B4:	*Mary-eykey	Seoul-ey			ecey				
B5:	*Mary-eykey	Seoul			ecey				

A focus element in a non-final and non-initial position behaves like an initial focus element with respect to pied-piping. Thus, (15) is revised as follows:⁹

(17) The C-command Condition between Focus Elements in MFFAs

A focus element (WH-Correlate) in a non-final position pied-pipes the minimal node that dominates it and c-commands the focus element(s)

(i) A: The teacher is going to fax a student's GPA to a company.B1: Whose GPA to which company?B2: Whose to which?

⁷ One of the reviewers judges (16B2) to be more ore less acceptable. I suspect the reviewer belongs to the group of speakers who freely delete structural case markers, as mentioned in footnote 4.

⁸ The final WP in (16A) is an adjunct, as pointed out by one of the journal reviewers, and the accusative expression is believed to have left its original position. Thus, the c-command relation in (15) and (17) is to hold at the "surface" level.

⁹ As one of the reviewers suspects, the generalization made in (17) does not seem to apply cross-linguistically. Piped piping is not obligatory in a language like English, for example, which allows NP deletion. Thus, (iB2) as well as (iB1) is a proper response to (iA) below:

that follows, while the focus element in the final position optionally pied-pipes its dominating node(s).

(17) can be schematically represented as in (18), in which α , β , and γ are WH-Correlates, the solid circles indicate an obligatory pied-piping, and the dotted circle indicates an optional pied-piping.

(18) Obligatory vs. Optional Pied-Piping of WH-Correlates (α, β, γ)



The restriction on DMs, schematically represented in (4), can be subsumed under (17), given that DMs project as independent heads, along the lines of Ahn and Cho's (2006a) head analysis of case morphemes, and Yoon's (1994, 1997) and M.-K. Park's (1994) head analysis of verbal affixes.¹⁰ Under the syntactic head analysis of affixes, case-marked expressions like *John-i/lul* 'John-Nom/Acc', *John-eykey* 'John-Dat' or post-positional expressions like *Seoul-eyse* 'Seoul-at' will have the structures in (19). Thus, when KPs or PPs function as surviving elements in an MFFA, they will have the representation in (20) with respect to pied-piping.

¹⁰ Interestingly, Ahn, An, Choi, Hwang, Kim, and Jeon (2011) argue that nominal affixes are syntactic heads, while verbal affixes are not.



Now the restriction on the retention or omission of DMs attested, for example, in (2) and (3), can be subsumed under the restriction described in (17). In all the legitimate MFFA examples thus far, focus elements in a non-final position are appropriately pied-piped so that the c-command condition may be fulfilled between surviving elements. In all the star-marked MFFA examples, in contrast, focus elements in a non-final position have not undergone an appropriate pied-piping process such that a survivor in a non-final position cannot c-command the following survivors.

A question may arise as to the size of pied-piping. Notice that pied-piping itself does not help. Consider the example in (10) again. The first focus element i.e., *Seoul*, pied pipes all the elements in the relative clause IP/CP in (10B3), and all the element in the PP in (10B4), but the answers remain ungrammatical. To be grammatical, the focus element has to pied-pipe all the elements of a node that is high enough to c-command the following focus element, as in (10B1) and (10B2). In contrast, the final focus element may or may not pied-pipe other elements, as can be seen in (9). The focus element pied-pipes the elements up to the whole relative clause construction in (9B1), up to the relative clause in (9B2), up to an NP in (9B3), and up to a PP in (9B4). (9B5) is an instance where no pied-piping takes

place at all. All the examples in (9B1)~(9B5) are basically grammatical.

The requirement for non-final focus elements to pied-pipe all the elements of a certain dominating node will be hardly explained by a theory that merely deals with the retention or deletion of DMs. Such a theory could not properly accommodate the contrast between (9) vs. (10), between (11) vs. (12), and between (13) vs. (14), especially the illicitness of the examples like (10B4) and (12B3). Section 4 will try to account for the overarching generalization in (17).

4. Towards an explanation: A focus clustering approach

According to Merchant (2001, 2004), fragments are produced due to a focus movement followed by TP-ellipsis. Bearing a focus feature, fragment remnants move to the SPEC of the focus phrase (FocP) and subsequently TP, complement of Foc, gets deleted at PF. For example, the fragment answers in (1B2) and (1B3), repeated below, will be derived as in (21) and (22), respectively:¹¹

(1) A:	John-i Mary-eykey		mwues-ul	cwu-ess-ni?
	JNom	MDat	what-Acc	give-Pst-QE
	'What die	d you give to	Mary?'	
B1:	John-i	Mary-eykey	sakwa- lul	cwu-ess-ta
	JNom	MDat	apple-Acc	give-Pst-DE
	'John gav	ve Mary an ap	ple.'	
B2:	sakwa- lul		B3: sakwa	
	apple-Acc		apple	
	'An apple	e.'	'An ap	ople.'

¹¹ I simply follow Merchant's (2001, 2004) derivation of fragments. Of course, there are alternative approaches like a direct interpretation approach to fragments (Ginzburg and Sag 2000, Culicover and Jackendoff 2005, Kim 2015, among many others) and a hybrid approach (Ahn and Cho 2011, 2012, Ahn 2012, Park and Shin 1914, among others). It is often claimed in the literature (e.g., Ahn and Cho 2011, 2012, Ahn 2012, etc.) that case-marked fragments in Korean have full sentential sources and are derived by TP-ellipsis, while caseless fragments do not have an internal sentence structure and they are directly interpreted. According to this criterion, MFFAs in Korean seem to be elliptically derived, regardless of the case property of the focus element in the final position. This is so as far as focus elements in non-final positions are required to retain their case morphemes.

(21) a. Focus Assignment
[TP John-i Mary-eykey <u>sakwa[+F]</u>-lul cwu-ess-ta]]
b. Focus Movement
[FP [<u>sakwa[+F]</u>-lul]_i [F F [TP John-i Mary-eykey t_i cwu-ess-ta]]]
c. TP-ellipsis
[FP [<u>sakwa[+F]</u>-lul]_i [F F [<u>TP John-i Mary-eykey t_i cwu-ess-ta]]]

(22) a. Focus Assignment
[TP John-i Mary-eykey <u>sakwa[+F]</u>-lul cwu-ess-ta]]
b. Focus Movement
[FP [<u>sakwa[+F]]</u>_i [F F [TP John-i Mary-eykey t_i-lul cwu-ess-ta]]]
c. TP-ellipsis
[FP [<u>sakwa[+F]]</u>_i [F F [TP John-i Mary-eykey t_i-lul cwu-ess-ta]]]
</u>

Let us now turn to how the MFFA in a language like Korean is derived. We assume that MFFAs are produced very much like fragment answers composed of a single element in that the focus elements in MFFAs move to the SPEC of FocP and subsequently TP gets deleted. However, we argue that MFFAs involves one additional operation: The focus elements in an MFFA get clustered before they move to the SPEC of FocP. Thus, MFFAs are derived as schematically represented in (23), where XP and ZP are two surviving elements:

Focus elements first get clustered within TP, as represented in (23b). The focus cluster, i.e., a complex expression composed of two focus elements, now moves to the SPEC of FocP, just as in the case of single membered fragment answers, as in (21c) and (22c). Then TP gets deleted, producing MFFAs, as in (23d).

A system with a clustering process seems to be more economical than a system

without it. Suppose there are two elements, β and χ , bearing a formal feature [+F] that has to be syntactically linked to its corresponding feature at a functional category, as schematically represented below:

(24)
$$Foc_{[+F]}$$
 ... $[_{XP...} \beta_{[+F]}$... $[_{YP}$... $\gamma_{[+F]}$...

If there were no clustering of β and χ , then the complete Probe-Goal relation would have to involve at least 3 maximal categories: XP for the relation between the Foc head and β , and XP and YP for the relation between the Foc head and χ . Clustering β and χ reduces the number of the maximal projections involved. The complete Probe-Goal relation will involve two maximal projections: YP for the relation between β and χ , and XP for the relation between the Foc head and the complex expression β - χ , which is in the position of β . Other things being equal, a clustering option should be preferred.

Clustering of focus elements is analogous to the so-called WH-clustering according to which WH-phrases get clustered within TP before they undergo WH-movement to the SPEC of CP in the so-called II-A languages like Bulgarian, Korean, Japanese, and German. (See Rudin 1988, Watanabe 1992, Saito 1994, Sohn 1994, Grewendorf 2001, Sabel 2001, among others. cf. Gärtner and Michaelis 2014, who claim that WH-clustering takes place universally.) In a language like Korean and Japanese, the so-called additional WH-effects can be nicely accounted for by this WH-clustering hypothesis. Consider the following Japanese examples, cited from Saito 1994: 205):

(25) a. *John-wa [PP [IP Mary-ga sono hon-o naze katta] J.-Top M.-Nom that book-Acc why bought kara] okotteru no? since angry 0 'Give me the reason such that John is angry because Mary bought that book for that reason' b. ?John-wa [PP [IP Mary-ga nani-o katta] kara] naze J.-Top M.-Nom what-Acc why bought since okotteru no? angry Q

'Give me things and reasons such that John is angry because Mary bought the respective thing for the respective reason'

The adjunct *naze* 'why' in (25a) (or the null operator associated with it, *a la* Watanabe 1992) would have to move by itself, displaying an island effect. In contrast, *naze* in (25b) can move to the nominal WH-phrase *nani-o*, producing a complex WH-phrase, whose functional status is not an adjunct anymore. Not being an adjunct, the WH-cluster does not display an island effect.¹²

Focus elements in MFFAs similarly undergo a clustering procedure such that focus elements get clustered within IP/TP, before the cluster formed in this way undergoes focus movement to the SPEC of FocP. What causes the clustering in MFFAs? I assume that there is a formal feature [+F] in each of the remnants in MFFAs, most probably a focus feature, that induces the clustering.¹³

Clustering of surviving elements takes place step by step, in a bottom-up fashion, as schematically represented in (26) below:



Clustering I

¹² Omer Preminger (p.c.) suspects that the contrast between (25a) and (25b) can also be accounted for in terms of Richards' (1998) principle of minimal compliance: One of the two WPs in (25b), i.e., the argument WP, satisfies the WH-licensing condition, figuratively paying out the required tax, and thus the adjunct WP's violation of the licensing condition can be overlooked. However, Hiroshi Ayoyagi (p.c.) points out that (25b) is judged to be acceptable even when the argument WP is replaced by a non-WH focal element, which indicates that some sort of focus feature is relevant in the saving effect. Furthermore, the saving effect disappears when the adjunct WP is not adjacent to the argument WP, which indicates that the principle of minimal compliance is irrelevant to the saving effect.

¹³ See section 5 for the observation that various other focus-related constructions are similarly constrained with respect to the generalization made in (17).

Otherwise the obligatory pied-piping property of a WH-Correlate in a medial position could not be explained. For example, if α attracts β and γ , then the pied-piping property of β will not be guaranteed.

What happens when WH-Correlates are embedded, as in represented in (27)? In (27), a does not directly c-command β or γ , and β does not directly c-command γ . Thus, the [+F] feature in a and the one in β percolate up to XP and YP, respectively. Now the percolated [+F] feature in XP and the one in YP c-command β/γ and γ , respectively.



The focus feature in a non-final focus position percolates to cluster WH-correlates in MFFAs. A node with a [+F] feature has to be pronounced.¹⁴ Due to the focus feature percolation in (27), for example, $\alpha_{[+F]}$ pied-pipes all other elements in XP; $\beta_{[+F]}$ pied-pipes all other elements in YP.

The mechanism of focus feature percolation basically based on Selkirk's (1995) F-assignment rules in (29):

- (29) F-Assignment Rules (Selkirk 1995: 555)
 - a. Basic Focus Rule
 - An accented word is F-marked.
 - b. Focus Projection
 - (i) F-marking of the head of a phrase licenses the F-marking of

¹⁴ This is orthogonal to the idea of (E)-givenness by Schwarzschild 1999 and Merchant (2001), according to whom what needs to be licensed is not a focused element but an elided one.

the phrase: $[_{XP} X_F] \rightarrow [_{XP} X_F]_F$

(ii) F-marking of an internal argument of a head licenses the f-marking of the head:
 [H COMPL_F] → [H_F COMPL_F]

According to (29b), the focus feature of a head or its internal argument percolates up to the maximal projection. However, as was convincingly shown in Büring (2006), F-marking on a phrase XP does not necessarily require an accent on its head X^0 or its internal argument only; Rather any element dominated by XP (including an external argument and an adjunct) can percolate its F-marking to its mother node. If this is true, (29) has to be modified as in (30), where any dependent of a head, not simply its internal argument, is able to transfer its focus feature to its head, as follows:

- (30) F-Assignment Rules (Revised)
 - a. Basic Focus Rule

An accented word is F-marked.

- b. Focus Projection
 - (i) F-marking of the head of a phrase licenses the F-marking of the phrase:

 $[_{XP} X_F] \rightarrow [_{XP} X_F]_F$

(ii) F-marking of a dependent of a head licenses the f-marking of the head:

 $[H DEPENDENT_F] \rightarrow [H_F DEPENDENT_F]$

(30) is identical to (29) except for the change made in (bii).

Let us now examine how the focus clustering analysis accounts for the restrictions that MFFAs display. It can first account for the asymmetry between final vs. non-final focus elements with respect to the retention or omission of DMs, as follows. For example, MFFAs in (2), repeated below, will have the derivation in (31):

(2) A:	Cheli-ka nwu	kwu- eykey mwues- ul	l cv	wu-ess-ni?	
	ChNom who	-Dat what-Acc	c gi	ive-Pst-QE	
	'What did Ch	eli give to whom?			
B1:	Yengi-eykey	sakwa-lul	B2:	Yengi-eykey	sakwa
	YDat	apple-Acc			
B3:	*Yengi	sakwa-lul	B4:	*Yengi	sakwa

(31) a. Due to (30a) [TP John-i Mary[+F]-eykey sakwa[+F]-lul cwu-ess-ta]
b. Due to (30bii) and (30bi): [TP John-i Mary-eykey[+F] sakwa[+F]-lul cwu-ess-ta]

Bold faced elements, *Mary* and *sakwa*, are F-marked due to (30a). [+F] on *Mary* percolates up to *Mary-eykey* in order to attract [+F] on *sakwa*, due to (30bii) and (30bi). [+F] on *sakwa* may or may not percolate, as there is no other focus element to attract. When it does percolate, the derivation proceeds as follows, producing (2B1):

(31) c. Focus Clustering

 $[_{TP} John-i [[Mary-eykey_{[+F]}] [sakwa-lul_{[+F]}]_i] t_i cwu-ess-ta]$

d. Focus Movement to SPEC-FocP

 $[FP [[Mary-eykey_{[+F]}] [sakwa-lul_{[+F]}]_i]_j [F F [TP John-i t_j t_i cwu-ess-ta]]]$

e. TP-ellipsis

 $[_{FP} [[Mary-eykey_{[+F]}] [sakwa-lul_{[+F]}]_i]_j [_{F'} F [_{TP} John-i t_j t_i - cwu-ess-ta]]]$

When [+F] on *sakwa* does not percolate, the derivation proceeds as follows, producing (2B2):

(31) c'. Focus Clustering

[TP John-i [[Mary-eykey_[+F]] [sakwa_[+F]]_i] t_i-lul cwu-ess-ta] d'. Focus Movement to SPEC-FocP [FP [[Mary-eykey_[+F]] [sakwa_[+F]]_i]_j [F F [TP John-i t_i t_i-lul

```
cwu-ess-ta]]]
e'. TP-ellipsis
[<sub>FP</sub> [[<u>Mary-eykey<sub>[+F]</sub>]</u> [<u>sakwa<sub>[+F]</sub>]</u><sub>i</sub>]<sub>j</sub> [<sub>F'</sub> F [<del>TP</del>-John-i t<sub>j</sub>-t<sub>i</sub>-lul
cwu-ess-ta]]]
```

If [+F] on *Mary* fails to percolate, then clustering is unavailable due to the c-command failure. This will lead to an economy violation, as the multiple focus elements have to be directly linked to the head of FocP that has a [+F] feature. This accounts for the ungrammatical status of (2B3) and (2B4).

The final vs. non-final contrast with respect to pied-piping (e.g., (9) vs. (10); (11) vs. (12); (13) vs. (14)) can be similarly accounted for in terms of the proposed clustering analysis. Reconsider the contrast between (11) and (12), repeated below:

- (11) A: Cheli-ka mwues-ul [nwukwu-uy oppa-eykey] cwu-ess-ni?Ch.-Nom what-Acc who-Gen brother-Dat give-Pst-QE'What did Cheli give to whose brother?
 - B1: sakwa-lul Yengi-uy oppa-eykey B2: sakwa-lul Yengi-uy oppa apple-Acc Y.-Gen brother-Dat 'An apple to Mary's brother.'
 - B3: sakwa-lul Yengi-uy B4: sakwa-lul Yengi
- (12) A: Cheli-ka [**nwukwu**-uy oppa-eykey] **mwues**-ul cwu-ess-ni? Ch.-Nom who-Gen brother-Dat what-Acc give-Pst-QE
 - B1: **Yengi**-uy oppa-eykey **sakwa**-lul B2: **Yengi**-uy oppa-eykey **sakwa** Y.-Gen brother-Dat apple-Acc
 - B3: ***Yengi**-uy **sakwa**-lul B4: ***Yengi sakwa**-lul

The MFFAs in (11) will be derived as follows:

(32) Derivations of (11B1) ~ (11B4)

a. Due to (30a)
[TP John-i <u>sakwa[+F]</u>-lul [Mary[+F]-uy oppa-eykey] cwu-ess-ta]

b. Due to (30bii) and (30bi):
[TP John-i <u>sakwa-lul[+F]</u> [Mary[+F]-uy oppa-eykey] cwu-ess-ta]

[+F] on *sakwa* percolates up to *sakwa-lul* to attract [+F] on *Mary*. [+F] on *Mary* may or may not percolate, as there is no other focus element to attract. When it does percolate up to the dative NP, the derivation produces (11B1), as follows:

(32) c. Focus Clustering

 $[_{TP}$ John-i [[sakwa-lul_[+F]] [Mary-uy oppa-eykey_[+F]]_i] t_i cwu-ess-ta] d. Focus Movement to SPEC-FocP

 $[_{FP} [[\underline{sakwa-lul}_{[+F]}] [\underline{Mary-uy oppa-eykey}_{[+F]}]_i]_j [_{F'} F [_{TP} John-i t_j t_i cwu-ess-ta]]]$

e. TP-ellipsis

 $\begin{bmatrix} FP & [[sakwa-lul_{[+F]}] & [Mary-uy oppa-eykey_{[+F]}]_i]_j & [F & F & [FP & John-i & t_j & t_i \\ \hline cwu-ess-ta_j] \end{bmatrix}$

When [+F] on *Mary* does not percolate, the derivation produces (11B4), as follows:

(32) c'. Focus Clustering

 $[_{TP}$ John-i $[[\underline{sakwa-lul}_{[+F]}]$ $[\underline{Mary}_{[+F]}]_i]$ t_i-uy oppa-eykey cwu-ess-ta]

d'. Focus Movement to SPEC-FocP

 $[FP [[sakwa-lul_{[+F]}] [Mary_{[+F]}]_i]_j [F F [TP John-i t_j t_i-uy oppa-eykey cwu-ess-ta]]]$

e'. TP-ellipsis

 $[FP [[\underline{sakwa-lul}_{[+F]}] [\underline{Mary}_{[+F]}]_i]_j [F F [\underline{HP}-John-i t_j-t_i-uy oppa-eykey cwu-ess-ta]]]$

[+F] on *Mary* may percolate up to *Mary-uy oppa* or *Mary-uy*, producing (11B2) and (11B3), respectively.

MFFAs in (12) will be derived as follows.

(33) Derivations of (12B1) and (12B2)

a. Due to (30a)

[TP John-i [Mary[+F]-uy oppa-eykey] sakwa[+F]-lul cwu-ess-ta]

- b. Due to (30bii) and (30bi):
 - [TP John-i [Mary-uy oppa-eykey[+F]] sakwa[+F]-lul cwu-ess-ta]

[+F] on *Mary* percolates up to *Mary-oppa-eykey* in order to attract [+F] on *sakwa*. [+F] on *sakwa* may or may not percolate, as there is no other focus element to attract. When it does percolate, the derivation produces (12B1), as follows:

(33) c. Focus Clustering

[TP John-i [[Mary-uy oppa-eykey_[+F]] sakwa-lul_[+F]]_i] t_i cwu-ess-ta]

d. Focus Movement to SPEC-FocP

 $[_{FP} [[\underline{Mary-uy oppa-eykey}_{[+F]}] \underline{sakwa-lul}_{[+F]}]_i]_j [_{F} F [_{TP} John-i t_j t_i cwu-ess-ta]]]$

e. TP-ellipsis

 $[_{FP} [[Mary-uy oppa-eykey_{[+F]}] \underline{sakwa-lul}_{[+F]}]_i]_j [_F F [_{TP} John-i t_j t_i cwu-ess-ta]]]$

If, however, [+F] on *sakwa* does not percolate, the derivation produces (12B2), as follows:

(33) c'. Focus Clustering

[TP John-i [[Mary-uy oppa-eykey_[+F]] [sakwa_[+F]]_i] t_i-lul cwu-ess-ta]

d'. Focus Movement to SPEC-FocP

 $[FP [[Mary-uy oppa-eykey_{[+F]}] [sakwa_{[+F]}]_i]_j [F F [TP John-i t_j t_i-lul cwu-ess-ta]]]$

e'. TP-ellipsis

 $[FP [[Mary-uy oppa-eykey_{[+F]}] [sakwa_{[+F]}]_i]_j [F F [_{TP} John-i t_j - t_i-lul ewu-ess-ta]]]$

When [+F] on *Mary* does not percolate high enough to c-command the following focus element, the derivation crashes, accounting for the ungrammatical status of (12B3) and (12B4).¹⁵

¹⁵ The contrast between (9) vs. (10) and between (13) vs. (14) can be similarly accommodated, as the reader is invited to verify.

5. Other multi-elemental focus constructions

It was assumed in the previous section that the focus feature is responsible for the clustering of focus elements. Then the expectation is that other multi-focused constructions are similarly constrained with respect to the syntactic relation between focus elements. The expectation seems to be borne out, as there are several focus-related constructions that are similarly restricted.

Pseudo-cleft constructions generally allow a simple focus element, but there are speakers who accept multi-elements in the focus position. Even for these lenient speakers, the generalization made in (17) seems to work, as follows:

- (34) a. John-i cwu-n kes-un [Mary-eykey chayk]-i-ta.¹⁶
 J.-Nom give-PNE thing-Top M.-Dat book-Cop-DE
 'What John gave was books to Mary.'
 - b. *John-i cwu-n kes-un [Mary chayk]-i-ta
 - c. John-i cwu-n kes-un [chayk-ul Mary-eykey]-i-ta
 - d. *John-i cwu-n kes-un [chayk Mary-eykey]-i-ta

As the contrast between (34a, c) vs. (34b, d), the non-final focus element must retain its DM. The final element may bear a non-structural case morpheme, though not a structural case morpheme due to the property of the Korean copula.

As pointed out in Hartmann (2000) and Ha (2008), the so-called right node raising construction (RNR) involves some sort of contrastive focus. More concretely, the elements prior to the RNR target are supposed to have a contrastive focus interpretation. For example, compare (35a) and (35b) below:

(35) a. na-nun John-ul Mary-eykey, Tom-ul Sue-ekey sokayha-ess-ta. M.-Dat T.-Acc S.-Dat introduce-Pst-DE I-Top J.-Acc 'I introduced John to Mary, and Tom to Sue.' b. *na-nun John-ul Mary-eykey, Tom-ul Mary-eykey, I-Top J.-Acc M.-Dat T.-Acc M.-Dat sokayha-ess-ta. introduce-Pst-DE 'I introduced John to Mary, and Tom to Mary.'

¹⁶ No structural case marker can precede the copula in Korean.

Both *John* and *Mary* in (35a) have a contrastive focus reading (as they are contrasted with *Tom* and *Sue* in the second conjunct.) In contrast, *John* in (35b) has a contrastive focus (as opposed to *Tom* in the second conjunct), but *Mary* cannot have such a contrastive focus reading, as there is no appropriate contrasting element in the second conjunct.

Interestingly, the grammaticality of multi-elemental RNRs varies depending on the retention or omission of the DMs of the contrastive focus elements. As in the MFFA, the focus element in the last position may delete its DM, while the focus element in a non-final position must retain its DM, as shown below:

(36)	a. na-nun	John -ul	Mary-eykey	, Tom-	-ul	Sue-eke	y sokay	ha-ess-ta.
	I-Top	JAcc M	Dat	TAcc	S.	Dat	introduc	e-Pst-DE
	b. *na-nun	John- ul	Mary-eykey	,				
	c. na-nun	John- ul	Mary-eykey	,				
	d. *na-nun	John- ul	Mary-eykey	,				
(37)	a. na-nun	Mary-eyk	ey John -u	l, Sue-e	ekey	Tom- ul	sokaył	na-ess-ta.
		100	. .	a b	m			DDD

$(\mathcal{O}, \mathcal{O})$		in and y eyney		••)	
	I-Top	MDat	JAcc SDat	TAcc	introduce-Pst-DE
	b. *na-nun	Mary-eykey Jo	o hn -ul,		
	c. na-nun	Mary-eykey Jo	o hn- ul ,		
	d. *na-nun	Mary-eykey Jo	ohn- ul ,		

All the ungrammatical sentences (36) and (37) are the ones where the focus element in the first position has deleted its DM, regardless of whether the focus element in the last position retains or deletes its DM.

The contrast between (38) vs. (39) below indicates that the RNR behaves like the MFFA with respect to pied-piping: The focus element in the first position must pied-pipe other elements, while the one in the final position does not have to:

(38)	a. na-nun	John- ul	Mary-uy tongsa	yng-eykey ,
	I-Top	JAcc	MGen brothe	r-Dat
	Tom-ul	Sue-uy	tongsayng-ekey	sokayha-ess-ta.
	TAcc	SGen	brother-Dat	introduce-Pst-DE
	'I introdu	uced John	to Mary's brothe	er, Tom to Sue's brother.'

	b. *na-nun	Mary-uy	tongsayng	g- eykey	John- ul,	
	c. *na-nun	Mary-uy	tongsayng-eykey		John-ul,	
	d. *na-nun	Mary-uy-	tongsayng	g-eykey	John-ul,	
(39)	a. na-nun	John- ul	Mary-uy	tongsay	ng-eykey,	
	I-Top	JAcc	MGen	brother-	-Dat	
	Tom-ul	Sue-uy	tongsayng	g-ekey	sokayha-ess-t	a.
	TAcc	SGen	brother-D	Dat	introduce-Pst-	-DE
	'I introdu	iced John	to Mary's	s brother	r, Tom to Su	e's brother.'
	b. na-nun	John- ul	Mary-uy	tongsay	ng- eykey ,	
	c. na-nun	John- ul	Mary-uy	tongsay	ng-eykey ,	•
	d. na-nun	John- ul	Mary-uy-	tongsay	ng-eykey ,	•

Let us now turn to the so-called right dislocation construction (RDC). Although it is not easy to define the semantic property of post-verbal elements in RDCs, they seem to bear some sort of focus feature, as they provide some additional information or clarify the proposition. Ko (2014, 2015), for example, argues that at least post-verbal argument elements bear a specificational focus reading. Thus they are supposed to behave like MFFAs, which seems to be borne out.

In a so-called gapless RDC, as in (40) below, DMs are free to be deleted. In a gapped RDC, structural case markers can be deleted, as in (41a) below, while other DMs are hardly deleted, as in (41b) below, probably due to the deletion-up-to-recoverability principle. Note that postpositions carry some semantic content, while structural case morphemes carry little semantic content.

(40)	a. John-i	Tom-ul	Mary-eykey	sokayha-ess-ta,	Tom(-ul)	
	JNom	TAcc	MDat	introduce-Pst-DE	TAcc	
	'John introduced Tom to Mary.'					
	b. John-i	Tom-ul	Mary-eykey	sokayha-ess-ta,	Mary(-eykey)	
	JNom	TAcc	MDat	introduce-Pst-DE	MDat	

(41) a. John-i e_i Mary-eykey sokayha-ess-ta, Tom(-ul)_i
 J.-Nom M.-Dat introduce-Pst-DE T.-Acc
 'John introduced Tom to Mary.'

b. John-i Tom-ul e_i sokayha-ess-ta, Mary*?(-eykey)_i J.-Nom T.-Acc introduce-Pst-DE M.-Dat

In multi-elemental RDCs, post-verbal elements in a non-final position must retain their DM, while post-verbal elements in the final position retain or delete their DM, depending on the RDC type. Consider the gapless RDC examples in (42) and (43) and gapped RDC examples in (44) and (45) below:

(42)	a. John-i	Tom-ul	Mary-eykey	sokayha-ess-ta,
	JNom	TAcc	MDat	introduce-Pst-DE
	Tom-ul	Mary-ey	key	
	TAcc	MDat		
	'John int	roduced 7		
	b, Tor	n-ul Mai	ry- eykey	
	c. *, T	om- ul N	/lary-eykey	
	d. *, T	om- ul N	/lary- eykey	
(43)	a. John-i	Mary-ey	key Tom-ul	sokayha-ess-ta,
	JNom	MDat	TAcc	introduce-Pst-DE
	Mary-ey	key Ton	n-ul	
	MDat	ТА	Acc	

'John introduced Tom to Mary.'

b.,Mary-eykey Tom-uł

c. *...., Mary-eykey Tom-ul

d. *...., Mary-eykey Tom-ul

- (44) a. John-i e_i e_j sokayha-ess-ta, Tom-ul_i Mary-eykey_j J.-Nom introduce-Pst-DE T.-Acc M.-Dat 'John introduced Tom to Mary.'
 - b. *?....., Tom-ul_i Mary-eykey_j
 - c. *...., Tom-ul_i Mary-eykey_j
 - d. *...., Tom-ul_i Mary-eykey_j

(45) a. John-i e_i e_j sokayha-ess-ta, Mary-eykey_i Tom-ul_j
J.-Nom introduce-Pst-DE M.-Dat T.-Acc
'John introduced Tom to Mary.'
b., Mary-eykey_i Tom-ul_j
c. *...., Mary-eykey_i Tom-ul_j
d. *...., Mary-eykey_i Tom-ul_j

Gapless RDCs behave like MFFAs with respect to the obligatory vs. optional pied-piping. Post-verbal elements in a non-final position induce pied-ping, while those in the final position does not have to:¹⁷

(46)	a. John-i	Tom-ul	Mary-uy	tongsayng-eykey	sokayha-ess-ta,		
	JNom	TAcc	MGen	brother-Dat	introduce-Pst-DE		
	Tom-ul	Mary-uy	tongsayn	g-eykey			
	TAcc	MGen	brother-D	Dat			
	'John introduced Tom to Mary's brother.'						
	b, To	m-ul Mary	v-uy tong	sayng- eykey			
	c, Tom-ul Mary-uy tongsayng-cykey						
	d, Tom-ul Mary-uy tongsayng-eykey						
(47)	a. John-i	Tom-uy	tongsayn	g-ul Mary-eykey	sokayha-ess-ta,		
	JNom	TGen	brother-A	Acc MDat	introduce-Pst-DE		
	Tom-uy tongsayng-ul Mary -eykey						
	TGen brother-Acc MDat						
	'John introduced Tom's brother to Mary.'						
	b. *, Tom- uy tongsayng- ul Mary -eykey						
	c. *, To	o m- uy to	ongsayng-u	H Mary-eykey			
	d. *, To	om- uy t o	ongsayng-u	H Mary-eykey			

Reduced WH-questions are subject to the same restrictions. Consider the following examples:

¹⁷ Gapped RDCs do not allow a non-pied-piped version of the focus element in the final position, probably due to the deletion-up-to-recoverability principle.

- (48) A: John-i nwukwunka-lul nwukwunka-eykey sokayha-ess-ta.
 J.-Nom someone-Acc someone-Dat introduce-Pst-DE 'John introduced someone to someone.'
 - B1: **nwukwu**-lul **nwukwu**-eykey? who-Acc who-Dat
 - B2: nwukwu-lul nwukwu-eykey?
 - B3: *nwukwu-łuł nwukwu-eykey?
 - B4: *nwukwu-tuł nwukwu-eykey?
- (49) A: John-i nwukwunka-eykey nwukwunka-lul sokayha-ess-ta.
 J.-Nom someone-Dat someone-Acc introduce-Pst-DE 'John introduced someone to someone.'
 - B1: **nwukwu**-eykey **nwukwu**-lul? who-Dat who-Acc
 - B2: nwukwu-eykey nwukwu-łuł?
 - B3: *nwukwu-eykey nwukwu-lul?
 - B4: *nwukwu-eykey nwukwu-lul?

Reduced WH-questions display a similar restriction as to pied-piping as well. As shown in the contrast between (50) and (51) below, WH-phrases in a non-final position need to be pied-piped, while those in the final position do not have to be:

(50) A:John-i nwukwunka-lul nwukwunka-uy tongsayng-eykey J.-Nom someone-Acc someone-Gen brother-Dat sokayha-ess-ta. introduce-Pst-DE 'John introduced someone to someone's brother.' B1: nwukwu-lul nwukwu-uy tongsayng-eykey? who-Acc brother-Dat who-Gen B2: nwukwu-lul nwukwu-uy tongsayng-eykey?

- B3: nwukwu-lul nwukwu-uy tongsayng-eykey?
- B4: nwukwu-lul nwukwu-uy tongsayng-eykey?

(51)	A:	John-i n	wukwunka-uy	tongsayng-lul	nwukwunka-eykey
		JNom s	omeone-Gen	brother-Acc	someone-Dat
		sokayha-es	s-ta.		
		introduce-P	Pst-DE		
		'John intro	duced someone	s brother to son	neone.'
	B1:	nwukwu -uy	tongsayng-u	ul nwukwu -eyke	y?
		who-Gen	brother-Acc	who-Dat	
	B2:	* nwukwu -u	ıy tongsayng-ı	11 nwukwu-eyke	y?
	B3:	* nwukwu -u	ıy tongsayng-u	l nwukwu- eyke	y?
	B4:	*nwukwu-t	ıy tongsayng-ı	d nwukwu-eyke	y?

We have seen in this section that various focus-related constructions such as pseudo-cleft constructions, RNRs, RDCs, and reduced WH-questions display the same restriction as the MFFAs do, when they involve multiple elements in the relevant focus position. Thus, our assumption that the focus feature is somehow responsible for the oblique merge between elements bearing a focus feature seems to be on the right track.

6. Some theoretical implications

It was observed in this paper that focus bearing survivors in Korean MFFAs show different behaviors as to the focus feature percolation depending on their syntactic positions. As summarized in (17), the focus feature of a focus element in a non-final position has to be percolated up to a dominating node that is high enough to c-command/attract the following focus element, while that of a focus element in the final position does not have to be. This generalization is shown to be well accounted for when the focus bearing elements in the MFFA get clustered before the complex focus element formed in this way undergoes focus movement to the functional category FocP and subsequently TP gets deleted.

Given that the oblique merge analysis of the MFFA in Korean is on the right track, there are some theoretical implications. One is that caseless fragment answers do not necessarily receive a direct/pragmatic interpretation, especially when they function as the final element of an MFFA. Cf. Ahn and Cho (2011, 2012) and Ahn

(2012). Notice that focus elements in a non-final position retain their DMs and thus have to be assumed to have a full syntactic structure. Thus, there is no *a priori* reason for a simplex fragment answer not to be elliptically derived. Of course, such a simplex fragment answer may entertain a direct/pragmatic interpretation option as well.

Another theoretical implication is that, contra the thesis that only heads function as Probe (Chomsky, 2001, 2004, Frampton and Gutmann, 2000, cf. Pesetsky and Torrego 2001, 2004, and Rezac 2003), maximal projections can function as Probe, as far as they bear a relevant feature appropriately percolated so as to c-command the feature in Goal. In a sense, it is a desirable result, as syntax will become simpler when it does not have to care about the projectional (X° vs. XP) status of an element that participates in a Probe-Goal relation. It suffices that Probe and Goal have a legitimate syntactic relation.

A third implication is that derivation proceeds in a bottom-up fashion, which is required for accounting for MFFAs with three or more focus elements. Otherwise, the obligatory pied-piping for focus elements in a medial position could not be explained.

References

- Ahn, Hee-Don. 2012. *Cokakmwun yenkwu: Yengewa hankwukelul cwungsimulo* (A study on fragments: Focused on English and Korean). Seoul, Korea: Hankwukmwunwhasa.
- Ahn, Hee-Don, Duck-Ho An, Jung-Yun Choi, Jong-Bai Hwang, Ji-Hyon Kim and Moongee Jeon. 2011. Morphological processing of final endings and pre-final endings in Korean: Evidence from priming experiments. *The Journal of Linguistic Science* 59: 181-202.
- Ahn, Hee-Don and Sungeun Cho. 2006a. Layered nominal structures: Implications for caseless nominals. Korean Journal of Linguistics 31(2): 165-185.
- Ahn, Hee-Don and Sungeun Cho. 2006b. Unpronounced case markers and apparent subjectobject asymmetry. *Studies in Modern Grammar* 43: 55-80.
- Ahn, Hee-Don and Sungeun Cho. 2009. Non-case-marked wh-phrases and left-dislocation. In Kleanthes K. Grohmann and Phoevos Panagiotidis (eds.), Selected papers from the 2006 cyprus syntaxfest, 29-62. UK: Cambridge Scholars publishing.
- Ahn, Hee-Don and Sungeun Cho. 2011. Notes on two types of fragments. *Linguistic Research* 28(1): 19-35.

- Ahn, Hee-Don and Sungeun Cho. 2012. On caseless fragments in Korean. Studies in Modern Grammar 10: 25-47.
- Büring, Daniel. 2006. Focus projection and default prominence. In Valéria Molnár and Susanne Winkler (eds.), *The architecture of focus*, 321-346. Berlin; New York: Mouton De Gruyter.
- Choi, Youngju and James Yoon. 2009. Fragments with and without articulated constituents of LF. In Anisa Schardi, Martin Walkow and Muhammad Abdurrahman (eds.), *Proceedings of the 38th Annual Meeting of the North East Linguistic Society*, 177-188.
- Chomsky, Noam. 2001. Derivation by phase. In Michael Kenstowicz (ed.), Ken Hale: A life in language, 1-52. Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press.
- Chomsky, Noam. 2004. Beyond explanatory adequacy. In Adriana Belletti (ed.), Structueres and beyond, 104-131. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Culicover, Peter and Ray Jackendoff. 2005. Simpler syntax. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Frampton, John, and Sam Gutmann. 2000. Agreement is feature sharing. Manuscript. Northeastern University, Boston.
- Gärtner, Hans-Martin and Jens Michaelis. 2014. In defense of generalized wh-clustering. In Rrebekah Baglini, Timothy Grinsell, Jonathan Keane, Adam Roth Singerman, and Julia Thomas (eds.), CLS 46(1), Proceedings of the 46th Annual Meeting of the Chicago Linguistic Society: The Main Session, 137-146. The Chicago Linguistic Society, Chicago, IL, 2014.
- Ginzburg, Jonathan and Ivan A. Sag. 2000. *Interrogative investigations: The form, meaning, and use of English interrogatives.* Stanford, CA: CSLI Publications.
- Grewendorf, Günther. 2001. Multiple wh-fronting. Linguistic Inquiry 32: 87-122.
- Hartmann, Katharina. 2000. Right node raising and gapping: Interface conditions on prosodic deletion. John Benjamins: Amsterdam.
- Ha, Seungwan. 2008. *Ellipsis, right node raising, and across-the-board movement.* PhD Dissertation, Boston University.
- Hong, Yong-Tcheol. 1994. Incorporation theory and the distribution of case morphemes. *Studies in Generative Grammar* 4: 1-43.
- Hong, Yong-Tcheol. 2004. Omission and absence of case morpheme in Korean [in Korean]. French Language Education 18: 295-314.
- Hong, Yong-Tcheol. 2015. Absence of case marker in the complement position of the noun head and satisfaction of visibility condition by adjacency [in Korean]. *Studies in Generative Grammar* 25(3): 603-629
- Kim, Jong-Bok. 2015. Fragments in Korean: A direct interpretation approach. Studies in Generative Grammar 25(3): 703-733.
- Ko, Heejeong. 2014. Right dislocation as specificational focus. Talk presented at Workshop on Korean-Japanese Linguistics at SNU, Oct 17, 2014, Seoul National University.
- Ko, Heejeong. 2015. Two ways to the right: A hybrid approach to right-dislocation in

Korean. Language Research 51(1): 3-40.

- Ku, Na-yeon and Sae-Yeon Cho. 2014. Marker, index, and multiple fragment answers in Korean. *Studies in Generative Grammar* 24(3): 591-612.
- Lee, Chung-hoon. 2009. Hankwuke hwupochwung kwumwunuy kwuco (The structure of Korean after-thought constructions). *Emwunyenkwu* 142: 31-54.
- Merchant, Jason. 2001. The syntax of silence. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Merchant, Jason. 2004. Fragments and ellipsis. Linguistic and Philosophy 27(6): 661-738.
- Morgan, Jerry. 1989. Sentence fragments revisited. In Bradley Music, Randolph Graczyk, and Caroline Wiltshire (eds.), CLS 25. Parasession on Language in Context, 228-241. Chicago Linguistic Society, Chicago, IL.
- Park, Bum-Sik. 2005. Locality and identity in ellipsis. PhD Dissertation, University of Connecticut.
- Park, Bum-Sik. 2013. Multiple fragment answers in Korean. *Linguistic Research* 30(3): 453-472.
- Park, Myung-Kwan. 1994. A morpho-syntactic study of Korean verbal inflection. PhD Dissertation, University of Connecticut.
- Park, Myung-Kwan. 1998. Sluicing in English and Korean. Handout presented at the Linguistic Society of Korea Winter Workshop.
- Park, Myung-Kwan and Ui-Jong Shin. 2014. On the syntax of multiple fragments in Korean. *Studies in Modern Grammar* 80: 1-22.
- Pesetsky, David, and Esther Torrego. 2001. T-C movement: Causes and consequences. In Michael Kenstowicz (ed.), *Ken Hale: A life in language*, 355-426. Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press.
- Pesetsky, David, and Esther Torrego. 2004. Tense, case, and the nature of syntactic categories. In Jacqueline Guéron and Jacqueline Lecarme (eds.), *The syntax of time*, 495-537. Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press.
- Rezac, Milan. 2003. The fine structure of cyclic agree. Syntax 6: 156-182.
- Rudin, Catherine. 1988. On multiple questions and multiple *wh*-fronting. *Natural Language* and Linguistic Theory 6: 445-501.
- Sabel, Joachim. 2001. Deriving multiple head and phrasal movement: The cluster hypothesis. *Linguistic Inquiry* 32: 532-547.
- Saito, Mamoru. 1994. Additional-wh effects and the adjunction site theory. Journal of East Asian Linguistics 3: 195-240.
- Schwarzschild, Roger. 1999. GIVENness, avoid F and other constraints on the placement of focus. *Natural Language Semantics* 7(2): 141-177.
- Selkirk, Elisabeth. 1995. Sentence prosody: Intonation, stress, and phrasing. In John A. Goldsmith (ed.), *Handbook of phonological theory*, 550-569. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Sohn, Keun-Won. 1994. Adjunction to argument, free ride and a minimalist program. In Masatoshi Koizumi and Hiroyuki Ura (eds.), *Formal Approaches to Japanese Linguistics*

1, MIT Working Papers in Linguistics 24: 315-334. Department of Linguistics and Philosophy, MIT. Cambridge, MA.

- Watanabe, Akira. 1992. Subjacency and S-structure movement of *wh*-in-situ. *Journal of East* Asian Linguistics 1: 255 - 291.
- Yoon, James Hye-Suk. 1994. Korean verbal inflection and checking theory. The Morphology-syntax Connection: MIT Working Papers in Linguistics 22: 251-270.
- Yoon, James Hye-Suk. 1997. Coordination (a)symmetries. In Susumu Kuno *et al.* (eds.), *Harvard Studies in Korean Linguistics* 7: 3-32. Seoul, Korea: Hanshinmwunhwasa.
- Yoon, J. Hye-Suk and Wooseung Lee. 2009. The architecture of right dislocation in Korean and Japanese. Ms. University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign.

Daeho Chung

Department of Language and Culture Hanyang University 55 Hanyangdaeyhak-lo, Sangnok-gu, Ansan-si Gyeonggi-do, 426-791, Korea E-mail: cdaeho@hanyang.ac.kr

Received: 2015. 10. 12. Revised: 2015. 12. 15. Accepted: 2015. 12. 15.