

# On What an Adnominal Appendix Modifies in Korean Adjunct RDCs

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## Abstract

This work addresses the question of how adnominal appendices in the adjunct right dislocation construction (ADJ-RDC) in Korean resolve their modification relation. The main points made in this paper are: (i) Ko's (2014, 2015) account in terms of assimilating the ADJ-RDC to a parasitic gap construction does not gain much support; (ii) a proximity based approach more adequately describes the facts; (iii) proximity can be overridden by focus information; and (iv) given a designated default focus position in Korean, the role of proximity can be subsumed under the role of focus. Thus, a unified focus based account is provided.

## 1 Introduction

This work addresses the question of how post-verbal adnominal adjuncts (ADAs in short) resolve their modification relation in Korean adjunct-type right dislocation constructions (ADJ-RDCs). To the best of my knowledge, Ko (2014, 2015) first brought up this issue seriously. She makes two interesting observations that Korean ADJ-RDCs display: They exhibit a subject-object asymmetry and a CED effect<sup>1</sup> when an ADA is associated with the head noun in the host clause. As the two properties are typically observed in the parasitic gap construction (PGC) as well, she assimilates the ADJ-RDC to a PGC and proposes a sideward movement analysis in which the so-called adjunct

domain (composed of an adnominal phrase and its head noun) is concatenated with the host clause and the head noun moves sideward to the host clause. The current work illustrates, however, that the parallelism of ADJ-RDC and PGC is not compelling, neither theoretically nor empirically. Instead, this paper observes that some sort of proximity principle and focus information interplay to resolve the modification relation in the ADJ-RDC involving an ADA.

This paper is organized as follows. Section 2 briefly reproduces Ko's (2014, 2015) account in terms of assimilating the ADJ-RDC to a PGC. Section 3 shows that her account is not fully supported, despite apparent similarities between the two constructions. Section 4 tries to account for the restrictions that the ADJ-RDC displays in terms of interplay of a proximity principle and focus information. Section 5 suggests a unified focus-based analysis. Section 6 concludes the paper.

## 2 Ko's (2014, 2015) Concatenation & Sideward Movement Analysis

According to Ko (2014, 2015), an ADJ-RDC with an ADA results from a combination of two syntactic processes: concatenation and sideward movement.<sup>2</sup> First, the so-called adjunct domain that consists of an adnominal phrase and its head is concatenated with a host clause, along the lines of Hornstein and Nunes' (2008) analysis of adjunct structures. Then the head of the adjunct domain moves sideward to

eventually function as an appendix first undergoes a leftward movement to the specifier of a focus phrase, and then the remnant (the host clause) undergoes a leftward movement to the specifier of a topic phrase. Such a hybrid approach to RDCs may face an immediate problem as there exists a mixed form of appendices, as discussed in Chung (2015).

<sup>1</sup> The CED (Condition on Extraction Domain) states that extraction is possible out of a complement, but not out of a subject or an adjunct (Huang 1982).

<sup>2</sup> Argument-type RDCs are differently derived in Ko (2014, 2015). They start with a mono-clausal structure and two movement operations apply to them: An argument that will

the host clause, analogously to Nunes' (2004) derivation of the PGC. For example, the ADJ-RDC in (1) has the derivational processes schematically illustrated in (2a, b):

- (1) na-nun [han sonyen]-ul manna-ess-e  
 I-Top one boy-Acc meet-Pst-DE  
 [acwu ttoktok-hako calsayngki-n]  
 very smart-and handsome-RC  
 'I met a boy who is very smart and handsome.'

(2) a. **Concatenation**

I met ^ [[very smart and handsome] [a boy]]

b. **Sideward movement**

I [a boy]<sub>i</sub> met ^ [[very smart and handsome]  
 e<sub>i</sub> ]

Ko (2014, 2015) observes that ADJ-RDCs, just like PGCs, display a subject-object asymmetry and a CED effect. Based on these observations, she proposes a sideward movement analysis of ADJ-RDCs with an ADA. She takes examples like (3) and (4) to show that ADJ-RDCs are sensitive to the grammatical function. An ADA can be associated with an object, but not with a subject. A similar restriction seems to apply in the licensing of a parasitic gap (PG), as shown in (5) and (6), where a PG can be associated with an object trace, but not with a subject trace.

- (3) (adapted from Ko 2015, her (61)) *Subject-object asymmetry: relative clause*

Cheli-ka **Yengi-lul** manna-ess-e  
 C.-Nom Y.-Acc meet-Pst-DE  
 [RC **ppalkah-ko khun moca-lul ssu-n.**]  
 red-and big hat-Acc wear-RC  
 'Cheli met Yengi, who wears a big red hat.'  
 [who=Yengi; \*who=Cheli]

- (4) (adapted from Ko 2015, her (62)) *Subject-object asymmetry: genitive-marked phrase*

a. Cheli-ka **apeci-lul** manna-ess-e **Yengi-uy**  
 C.-Nom father-Acc meet-Pst-DE Y.-Gen  
 'Cheli met Yengi's father.'

b. \***Apeci-ka** Cheli-lul manna-ess-e  
 father-Nom C.-Acc meet-Pst-DE

**Yengi-uy**

Y.-Gen

'Yengi's father met Cheli.'

- (5) (=Nunes 2004: 109, his (55a))

\*I wonder [which man]<sub>i</sub> e<sub>i</sub> called you before you met PG<sub>i</sub>.

- (6) (=Nunes 2004, 95: his 16a))

[Which man]<sub>i</sub> did you file e<sub>i</sub> without reading PG<sub>i</sub>.

Ko (2014, 2015) also points out that the ADJ-RDC and the PGC behave alike in that they both display a CED effect. An ADA can be associated with a direct object but not with an element embedded under it, as the contrast between (7) and (8) shows, which seems to be analogous to the contrast in PGCs between (9) and (10):

- (7) (adapted from Ko 2015: 33, her (59)) *Lack of LBC*

Na-nun [ \_\_\_ cha]-lul pilliesse

I-Top car-Acc borrowed

[**Yengi-uy emma-uy** ]

Y.-Gen mother-Gen

'I borrowed Yengi's mother's car.'

- (8) (adapted from Ko 2015: 33, her (60))

*Emergence of LBC due to embedding*

\*Na-nun [ [ \_\_\_ **emma-uy** ] cha-lul]

I-Top mommy-Gen car-Acc

pilli-ess-e **Yengi-uy.**

borrow-Pst-DE Y.-Gen

'I borrowed Yengi's mother's car.'

- (9) (=Ko 2015: 31, her (57)) *PG and lack of CED effects*

a. PG+subject island

Which politician did [**pictures of** \_\_\_<sub>PG</sub> ]

upset \_\_\_ ?

b. PG+adjunct island

Which paper did you read \_\_\_ [**before filing**  
 \_\_\_<sub>PG</sub> ] ?

- (10) (=Ko 2015: 31, her (58)) *Emergence of CED effects with PG*

a. \*Which politician did you criticize \_\_\_  
 [before [**pictures of** \_\_\_<sub>PG</sub> ] upset the  
 voters]?

b. \*Which book did you finally read \_\_\_ [after  
 leaving the bookstore [**without finding**  
 \_\_\_<sub>PG</sub> ]]?

Under Ko's (2014, 2015) system, an ADA in the ADJ-RDC is to be associated with the object head in the host clause. The system works fine with the data up to now. However, it will be shown in the next section that the parallelism between the ADJ-RDC and PGC does not always hold.

### 3 Evidence against the ADA-PG Parallelism

This section will show that the parallelism between the ADJ-RDC and PGC claimed in Ko (2014, 2015) does not seem to be fully motivated. The subject-object asymmetry in particular is shown not to be compelling, neither theoretically nor empirically. (The CED effect will be briefly discussed later in Section 4.)

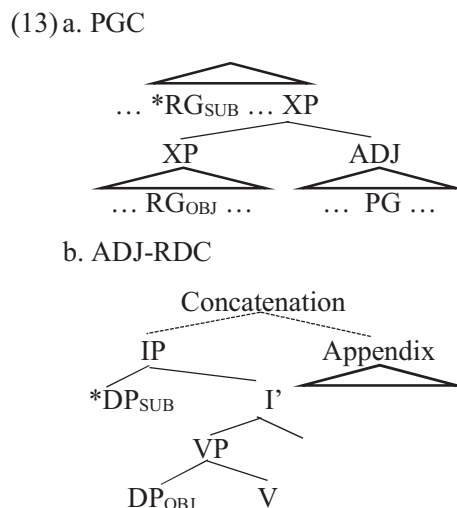
First, subject gaps do license PGs, given an appropriate structural relation. Although there exists a clear contrast between sentences like (5) and those like (6), the contrast may not be based on the grammatical function of the real gap. Notice that, as was observed by Taraldsen (1981) and Engdahl (1983), subject gaps (as well as object gaps) can license PGs, given an appropriate structural relation, as exemplified below:

- (11) (=Engdahl 1983: 21, her (60))  
 Which Caesar did Brutus imply \_\_\_ was no good while ostensibly praising \_\_\_<sub>PG</sub>?  
 (12) (=Engdahl 1983: 21, her (61))  
 Who did you say John’s criticism of \_\_\_<sub>PG</sub> would make us think \_\_\_ was stupid?

In (11), the subject gap in the embedded clause can license the PG in the adjunct clause, if the *while* clause is regarded as being attached to the matrix VP, not to the embedded VP. Also in (12), the subject gap in the embedded clause can license the PG contained in the subject of a higher clause. Thus the licensing condition does not care about the grammatical function of the real gap. Rather an anti-c-command condition is respected, as was first proposed by Engdahl (1983). The real gaps in (11) and (12) do not c-command the PGs. As far as the PG licensing is not sensitive to the grammatical function of the real gap (at least not to an anti-subject condition), but to a structural (c-command) relation, the presumed parallelism between the ADJ-RDC and the PGC does not sustain.

Second, even if the grammatical function were assumed to be relevant, it would be hard to structurally capture the relevance under Ko’s (2014, 2015) own structure. Notice that the structural relation that holds between a real gap and a PG in

the PGC does not hold between an ADA and the associated head noun in the host clause, as schematically represented below:



As illustrated in (13a), the ‘subject-object asymmetry’ in the PGC as observed in the contrast between (5) and (6) can be accounted for in terms of a structural relation, i.e., by an anti-c-command relation between the real gap and the PG. However, the presumed ‘subject-object asymmetry’ in the ADJ-RDC as observed in the contrast between (3) and (4) cannot be explained in this way with (13B). Notice that neither the subject nor the object c-commands the ADA in the structure.<sup>3</sup>

Third, empirically, the subject association reading is not absolutely banned. It is readily available, given pragmatically appropriate situations, as in (14) below, which is cited from Chung (2015: 750, his (24)):

- (14) **ceysam-uy senswu-ka** kummeytal-ul  
 third-Gen player-Nom gold;medal-Acc  
 tta-ess- ta, [**hwuposenswu myengtan-ey-to**  
 win-Pst-DE backup;player list-to-even  
**mos-kki-ten]**  
 not-belong-PNE  
 ‘A third player, who was not even listed as a backup player, won the gold medal.’

The ADA in (14), which is required to be predicated of a human being due to its pragmatic property, can

<sup>3</sup> This relation holds, no matter how ‘concatenation’ is interpreted, as far as the ADA (or more precisely the so-called

adjunct domain) is concatenated with the whole of the host clause.

be associated with the subject, but not with the object. In contrast, in sentences like (3), where the ADA is potentially compatible with both subject and object, the ADA tends to be associated with the object. What is clear from the discussion is that the subject association is not absolutely banned, although the subject association is much more difficult when both subject and object can be potentially associated with the ADA.

Fourth, there are cases where the subject association is preferred or even uniquely available. Compare (15a) and (15b). The two are identical to each other, except that the object has undergone scrambling in the latter.

- (15) a. *Cheli-ka* [**Yengi-lul**]  
 C.-Nom Y.-Acc  
*sangtayha-lke-ya*,  
 compete;with-will-DE  
 [<sub>RC</sub> **kacang kyenghemmanh-un**].  
 most experienced-RC  
 ‘Cheli will compete with Yengi, who is the most experienced.’  
 [\*who=Cheli; who=Yengi]
- b. [*Yengi-lul*]<sub>i</sub> **Cheli-ka** *e*<sub>i</sub>  
 Y.-Acc C.-Nom  
*sangtayha-lke-ya*,  
 compete;with-will-DE  
 [<sub>RC</sub> **kacang kyenghemmanh-un**].  
 most experienced-RC  
 ‘Cheli will compete with Yengi, who is the most experienced.’  
 [who=Cheli; ??who=Yengi]

In a canonical SOV order, as in (15a), the subject association reading is hardly available. In an OSV order due to scrambling, as in (15b), however, the ADA is more readily associated with the subject: The object association is much more degraded. The contrast shows that the grammatical function does not matter in the modification relation in ADJ-RDCs.

There are even cases where the subject association is uniquely available. Consider the following dialogue:

- (16) A: *nwu-ka* *Yengi-lul*  
 who-Nom Y.-Acc  
*sangtayha-lke-ya?*  
 compete;with-will-QE  
 ‘Who will compete with Yengi?’

- B: **Cheli-ka** *e*; *sangtayha-lke-ya*,  
 C.-Nom compete;with-will-DE  
 [<sub>RC</sub> **kacang kyenghemmanh-un**].  
 most experienced-RC  
 ‘Cheli will compete with Yengi, who is the most experienced.’  
 [who=Cheli; \*who=Yengi]

*Cheli-ka* in (16B) will receive information focus as it corresponds to the *WH*-phrase *nwu* ‘who’ in (16A). The object in (16B) is suppressed as it is given information from (16A). In such a case, the ADA is associated with the subject, but not with the suppressed object. Even when the object is overtly realized, the object association reading is hardly available, as shown in (17B) below:

- (17) A: (=16A)  
 B: **Cheli-ka** *Yengi-lul* *sangtayha-lke-ya*,  
 C.-Nom Y.-Acc compete;with-will-DE  
 [<sub>RC</sub> **kacang kyenghemmanh-un**].  
 most experienced-RC  
 ‘Cheli will compete with Yengi, who is the most experienced.’  
 [who=Cheli; \*?who=Yengi]

To sum up, Ko’s (2014, 2015) account of the restrictions that the ADJ-RDC display in terms of assimilating the ADJ-RDC to a PGC does not seem to be fully supported, despite some syntactic similarities between the two constructions. The subject-object asymmetry in particular does not hold, given appropriate pragmatic situations, discrediting Ko’s (2014, 2015) derivation of the ADJ-RDC in terms of concatenation of a host clause plus an adjunct domain followed by a sideward head noun movement.

#### 4 Proximity and Focus

What is then responsible for the facts discussed in the previous sections? It will be shown in this section that some sort of proximity principle plays an active role in the choice of the right element to be associated with the ADA. Another point to be made in this section is that the proximity principle can be overridden by focus.

ADAs in ADJ-RDCs seek to be associated with the closest possible focus element. Let us first consider the interpretation facts in (3), (4), and (15b), repeated below:

- (3) (adapted from Ko 2015, her (61)) *Subject-object asymmetry: relative clause*  
 Cheli-ka **Yengi-lul** manna-ess-e  
 C.-Nom Y.-Acc meet-Pst-DE  
 [<sub>RC</sub> **ppalkah-ko khun moca-lul ssu-n.**]  
 red-and big hat-Acc wear-RC  
 ‘Cheli met Yengi, who wears a big red hat.’  
 [who=Yengi; \*who=Cheli]
- (4) (adapted from Ko 2015, her (62)) *Subject-object asymmetry: genitive-marked phrase*  
 a. Cheli-ka **apeci-lul** manna-ess-e **Yengi-uy**  
 C.-Nom father-Acc meet-Pst-DE Y.-Gen  
 ‘Cheli met Yengi’s father.’  
 b. \***Apeci-ka** Cheli-lul manna-ess-e  
 father-Nom C.-Acc meet-Pst-DE  
**Yengi-uy**  
 Y.-Gen  
 ‘Yengi’s father met Cheli.’
- (15) b. [Yengi-lul]<sub>i</sub>; **Cheli-ka** e<sub>i</sub>  
 Y.-Acc C.-Nom  
 sangtayha-lke-ya,  
 compete;with-will-DE  
 [<sub>RC</sub> **kacang kyenghemmanh-un.**]  
 most experienced-RC  
 ‘Cheli will compete with Yengi, who is the most experienced.’  
 [who=Cheli; ??who=Yengi]

In (3) and (4), the objects are linearly closer to the ADAs than the subjects are. In contrast, in (15b), where the object has undergone scrambling, the subject becomes closer to the ADA. The ADAs are associated with the closer elements in the host clause. The association of an ADA with a head noun in the host clause is blocked or at least less preferred when another dependent intervenes between the head noun and the predicate. Thus the subject association reading in (3) and (4b) and the object association reading in (15b) are unavailable or drastically degraded.

In a similar vein, the strength of association in a dative construction changes depending on the word order variations. Consider the following examples:

- (18) Cheli-ka Yengi-lul **Songi-eykey**  
 C.-Nom Y.-Acc S.-Dat  
 sokayha-ess-ta,  
 introduce-Pst-DE  
 [<sub>RC</sub> **ppalkah-ko khun moca-lul ssu-n.**]  
 red-and big hat-Acc wear-RC  
 ‘Cheli introduced Yengi to Songi, who wears a big red hat.’ [who=Songi; ?who=Yengi]
- (19) Cheli-ka Songi-eykey **Yengi-lul**  
 C.-Nom S.-Dat Y.-Acc  
 sokayha-ess-ta,  
 introduce-Pst-DE  
 [<sub>RC</sub> **ppalkah-ko khun moca-lul ssu-n.**]  
 red-and big hat-Acc wear-RC  
 ‘Cheli introduced Yengi to Songi, who wears a big red hat.’ [?who=Songi ; who=Yengi]

In (18), which has an accusative-dative word order in the host clause, the ADA prefers to be associated with the dative element, which is closer to it. In contrast, in (19), where the order of the internal arguments is reversed, the ADA prefers to be associated with the accusative element, conforming to the proximity principle.

Also observe that the object association reading in (3) becomes severely degraded when an adjunct is added after the object, as shown in (20) below:

- (20) \*? Cheli-ka **Yengi-lul** hakkyo-eyse  
 C.-Nom Y.-Acc school-at  
 manna-ess-e  
 meet-Pst-DE  
 [<sub>RC</sub> **ppalkah-ko khun moca-lul ssu-n.**]  
 red-and big hat-Acc wear-RC  
 ‘Cheli met Yengi at school, who wears a big red hat.’

When neutrally uttered, (20) hardly produces an object association reading. (As will be discussed later in this section, this reading can reemerge when some manipulation is made as to the focus feature.) The low acceptability of (20) can be attributed to a proximity violation.

Let us now consider the case where the proximity principle appears to be violated, as in the examples like (14), (16) and (17), repeated below:

(14) **ceysam-uy senswu-ka** kummeytal-ul  
 third-Gen player-Nom gold;medal-Acc  
 tta-ess- ta, [**hwuposenswu myengtan-ey-to**  
 win-Pst-DE backup;player list-to-even  
**mos-kki-ten**]  
 not-belong-PNE  
 ‘A third player, who was not even listed as a backup  
 player, won the gold medal.’

(16) A: **nwu-ka** Yengi-lul  
 who-Nom Y.-Acc  
 sangtayha-lke-ya?  
 compete;with-will-QE  
 ‘Who will compete with Yengi?’  
 B: **Cheli-ka** e<sub>j</sub> sangtayha-lke-ya,  
 C.-Nom compete;with-will-DE  
 [**RC kacang kyenghemmanh-un**].  
 most experienced-RC  
 ‘Cheli will compete with Yengi, who is  
 the most experienced.’  
 [who=Cheli; \*who=Yengi]

(17) A: (=16A)  
 B: **Cheli-ka** Yengi-lul sangtayha-lke-ya,  
 C.-Nom Y.-Acc compete;with-will-DE  
 [**RC kacang kyenghemmanh-un**].  
 most experienced-RC  
 ‘Cheli will compete with Yengi, who is the  
 most experienced.’  
 [who=Cheli; \*?who=Yengi]

In these examples, the ADA appears to be associated with the subject, crossing over the object, violating the proximity principle.

Then the question that arises is why the violation of the proximity principle is tolerated in such examples. It seems to be the case that focus overrides the proximity principle. In (16B) and (17B), the subject bears an information focus feature, which is clear from the discourse context of a content question and answer pair. Thus, a more distant element can basically be associated with the ADA, when it receives focus. In sentences like (14) as well, focus seems relevant. Due to the pragmatic property, the expression *cey sam-uy X* ‘a third X’ generally receives focus. Notice that (14) becomes unacceptable if focus is forced to fall on the object, as shown in (21), which is identical to (14), except that the object receives a pitch accent, indicated by upper case letters:

(21) \*?**ceysam-uy senswu-ka** KUMMEYTAL-ul  
 third-Gen player-Nom gold;medal-Acc  
 tta-ess- ta, [**hwuposenswu myengtan-ey-to**  
 win-Pst-DE backup;player list-to-even  
**mos-kki-ten**]  
 not-belong-PNE  
 ‘A third player, who was not even listed as a backup  
 player, won the gold medal.’

The association of the ADA with the subject becomes impossible when such a focus element intervenes between the two.

Likewise, the proximity principle that used to constrain sentences like (20) can be overridden by focus. Thus, the object or even the subject in (20) can come to be associated with the ADA, when focus falls on appropriate elements. Compare (20), with the dialogues in (22)~(24):

(22) A: **Cheli-ka** Yengi-lul **eti-eyse**  
 C.-Nom Y.-Acc where-at  
 manna-ess-ni?  
 meet-Pst-QE  
 ‘Where did Cheli meet Yengi?’  
 B: #**Cheli-ka** Yengi-lul **HAKKYO-eyse**  
 C.-Nom Y.-Acc school-at  
 manna-ess-e  
 meet-Pst-DE  
 [**RC ppalkah-ko khun moca-lul ssu-n**]  
 red-and big hat-Acc wear-RC  
 ‘Cheli met Yengi at school, who wears a big  
 red hat.’ [\*?who=Cheli, \*? Who=Yengi]

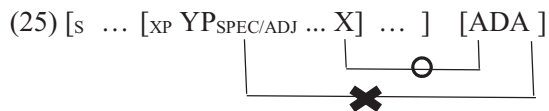
(23) A: **Cheli-ka** **nwukwu-lul** hakkyo-eyse  
 C.-Nom who-Acc school-at  
 manna-ess-ni?  
 meet-Pst-QE  
 ‘Who Cheli meet at school?’  
 B: **Cheli-ka** **YENGI-lul** hakkyo-eyse  
 C.-Nom Y.-Acc school-at  
 manna-ess-e  
 meet-Pst-DE  
 [**RC ppalkah-ko khun moca-lul ssu-n**]  
 red-and big hat-Acc wear-RC  
 ‘Cheli met Yengi at school, who wears a big  
 red hat.’ [\*?who=Cheli; Who=Yengi]

(24) A: **nwu-ka** Yengi-lul hakkyo-eyse  
 Who-Nom Y.-Acc school-at  
 manna-ess-ni?  
 meet-Pst-QE  
 ‘Who met Yengi at school?’

B: **CHELI-ka** Yengi-lul hakkyo-eyse  
 C.-Nom Y.-Acc school-at  
 manna-ess-e  
 meet-Pst-DE  
 [<sub>RC</sub> **ppalkah-ko khun moca-lul ssu-n**]  
 red-and big hat-Acc wear-RC  
 ‘Cheli met Yengi at school, who wears a big  
 red hat.’ [who=Cheli; \*?who=Yengi]

When focus falls on the adjunct, as in (22B), neither the subject nor object association reading is available. However, when focus falls on the object as in (23B) or on the subject as in (24B), the proximity principle can be overridden, producing an object association reading or a subject association reading. These data indicate that an ADA tends to be associated with a focused element, even crossing an intervening non-focus element. Thus, the ADA association shows more respect to focus than to proximity.

The CED effect in the contrast between (7) and (8) can be accounted for by the proximity principle, as the closest candidate to be associated with the ADA will be the head noun, rather than the specifier or adjunct, as schematically represented below:



As far as XP has a head final structure, X is closer to the ADA than its specifier or adjunct is. Thus, an ADA is more readily associated with the head than with the specifier or adjunct.

However, extra focus on a non-head element, e.g., on the specifier, obviates or at least weakens the CED effect, as exemplified in (26B) below:<sup>4</sup>

(26) A: **nwukwu-uy** yekwen-i  
 who-Gen passport-Nom  
 tonantangha-ess-ni?  
 be;stolen-Pst-QE

‘Whose passport was stolen?’

B: **KIM KYOSWU-uy** yekwen-i  
 K. professor-Gen passport-Nom  
 tonantangha-ess-e,  
 be;stolen-Pst-DE  
**[nayil mikwuk-ulo ttena-ki-lo. ha-n]**  
 tomorrow US-to leave-decide-RC  
 ‘Professor Kim’s passport was stolen, (the  
 person) who decided to leave for the States  
 tomorrow.’

In (26B), *KIM KYOSWU* ‘Professor Kim’ is a specifier of the subject DP, but it can be associated with the ADA, as it receives focus. Of course, when focus falls on the head noun, such a CED obviation does not obtain, as shown below:

(27) A: Kim kyoswu-uy **etten mwulken-i**  
 K. professor-Gen which thing-Nom  
 tonantangha-ess-ni?  
 be;stolen-Pst-QE  
 ‘Which thing of Prof. Kim was stolen?’

B: #Kim kyoswu-uy **YEKWEN-i**  
 K. professor-Gen passport-Nom  
 tonantangha-ess-e,  
 be;stolen-Pst-DE  
**[nayil mikwuk-ulo ttena-ki-lo. ha-n]**  
 tomorrow US-to leave-decide-RC  
 ‘Professor Kim’s passport was stolen, (the  
 person) who decided to leave for the States  
 tomorrow.’

The focused head noun *YEKWEN* ‘passport’ blocks the association of the ADA with the specifier *Kim kyoswu* ‘Prof. Kim’.

This section has observed the following two. First, proximity plays an active role in locating the associated head noun of the ADA in Korean ADJ-RDCs. The proximity based approach more adequately describes the modification relation than the grammatical function based approach. Second, proximity can be overridden by focus information

<sup>4</sup> Chung (2015) also points out that the CED can be violated, taking the following example:

(i) (=Chung 2015: 750, his (23))  
 a. [[Kim kyoswu-uy [ceyca]-uy nonwmun]-i LI-ey  
 K. professor-Gen student-Gen article-Nom LI-in  
 silli-ess-ta.  
 get;published-Pst-DE  
 ‘Professor Kim’s student’s article was published in LI.’

b. [[ e<sub>i</sub> [ceyca]-uy nonwmun]-i LI-ey silli-ess-ta,  
 [Kim kyoswu-uy]<sub>i</sub>]

Focus falls on *ceyca* ‘student’ in (ib) to have the relevant reading. When *nonwmun* ‘paper’ or *LI* receives focus, however, such a CED obviation does not obtain.

such that an ADA can be associated with a more distant element when the latter receives focus.

## 5 A Unified Focus Based Explanation

It is worth asking whether there is any way to unify the proximity principle and the focus overriding effect. If there is any possibility to unify the two at all, the former has to be subsumed under the latter for the obvious reason that the proximity principle can be obviated. Then the question is whether the data covered by the proximity principle can be subsumed under the focus based approach. The answer seems to be positive, if it is assumed, basically following Kim (1985), Jo (1986), Lee (1992), and Park (2003), that there is a default focus position in Korean, i.e., the position that immediately precedes the verb.

In fact, it is widely held that in SOV languages the immediately pre-verbal element tends to have the greatest focus. According to Kim (1988), there are various SOV languages extensively distributed from Asia Minor through the Far Eastern region of the Eurasian Continent that follow this pattern: Dravidian languages (Telugu, Laccadive Malayalam, and Tamil), Indo-Aryan languages (Dogri, Bengali, Gujarati, and Hind-Urdu), Sino-Tibetan languages (Sherpa), Altaic languages (Turkish and Mongolian); and Altai-like languages (Japanese and Korean). (See also discussions made in Kuno 1978, Hankamer 1979, Erguvanli 1984, Givón 1984, Comrie 1984, Herring and Paolillo 1995, among others.) Kim (1988) generalizes this tendency as the follows:<sup>5</sup>

### (28) Linear Order Focus Hypothesis

If L is a rigid head-final language in its basic word order, the rhematic focus of a sentence of L is most likely in the position immediately preceding the finite verb. (Kim 1988: 150)

With the default focus position in mind, let us consider the following schematic structure that Korean ADJ-RDCs will take:

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<sup>5</sup> At the latter part of the same article, Kim (1988) does not distinguish rigid and non-rigid head-final languages, as far as they are 'harmoniously head-final' languages of Greenberg's (1966) Type XXIII, and proposes a more neutral hypothesis, as follows:

(29) [ ...  $\alpha$  ...  $\beta$  ...  $\gamma$  Pred], [Appendix]

In a neutral situation, only  $\gamma$  will receive focus. Thus the ADA in the appendix position will be associated with  $\gamma$ . The facts described under the proximity principle in Section 4 will be dealt with in this way. When extra focus falls on  $\alpha$  or  $\beta$ , however, the appendix can be associated with these focused elements, covering the focus overriding data discussed in Section 4.

## 6 Summary and Concluding Remarks

This work has illustrated that the ADJ-RDC/PGC parallelism is not compelling, weakening Ko's (2014, 2015) concatenation-followed-by-sideward-head-movement analysis of the Korean ADJ-RDC. Instead, proximity and focus are shown to play more active roles in the resolution of the modification relation in the ADJ-RDC. Furthermore, given the designated default focus theory proposed in Kim (1985) and Jo (1986) among others, the role of proximity can be subsumed under the role of information focus.

Various issues remain unaddressed in this paper. In particular, this work has not provided an exact syntactic structure of the ADJ-RDC, except pointing out that Ko's (2014, 2015) derivation based on the presumed parallelism between the ADJ-RDC and the PGC does not gain much support. Definitely further research needs to be conducted to decide whether all the facts described in this paper fit into one of the syntactic structures proposed thus far in the literature (See Ko 2015 for an excellent summary and references cited there) or if a new syntactic structure has to be provided.

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- (i) If a language has a harmoniously head-final property, the information flow principle will not apply beyond the verbal head of the sentence. (Kim 1988: 162)

According to (i), the default (primary) focus in SOV languages falls on the immediately pre-verbal position, while post-verbal elements are predicted not to bear focus.



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