Asymmetry in Emphatic Topicalization

Josef Bayer

“Die Betonung des Satzeingangs aber entspringt der Erregung des Sprechenden”
Otto Behaghel (1932), Deutsche Syntax, vol. IV

1. The Phenomenon

Southern German of the Austro-Bavarian type is known for its disrespect of the Doubly-Filled-COMP Filter (DFCF). Wh-questions and relative clauses are generally formed by moving the wh-phrase or the relative operator to the specifier of an overt complementizer. The examples in (1) and (2) from Bayer (1984) illustrate the construction:

(1) a. I woaß ned wer daß des dōa hot
    I know not who that this done has
    ‘I don’t know who did this’

b. I woaß ned wiavui daß-a kriagt
    I know not how-much that-he gets
    ‘I don’t know how much he will get’

(2) a. Der Mantl den wo i kafft hob
    the coat which that I bought have
    ‘The coat which I bought’

b. Des Audo des wo i mecht
    the car which that I want
    ‘The car which I would like to have’

In Bayer (1984) the phrase structure of these constructions was represented in the S, S', S" system, and it was assumed that there are two complementizers, one of which (COMP2) hosts the operator while the other (COMP1) is filled with the complementizer. The shortcomings of this analysis are easily
avoided under the phrase structure which Chomsky (1986a) suggests in *Barriers*. This phrase structure extends X'-syntax to functional elements such as COMP (henceforth C). Under this implementation, COMP1 corresponds to C and COMP2 to SpecCP, the specifier of the maximal projection of the head C. Bavarian and Standard German can then be argued to have the same underlying structure, the difference being that Standard German rejects simultaneous filling of C and SpecCP. Since Bavarian does not respect the DFCF, it is not surprising to see that movement to SpecCP is not confined to wh- and relativization operators. Consider the following examples, of which (3a,b) are from Bayer (1984), (3c) is from Weiß (1998) and (3d) is a datum from a corpus which is reported in Lutz (1997):

(3) a. Da Xaver daß an Mantl kafft hot hot neamad glaubt
   the Xaver that a coat bought has has nobody believed
   ‘As for Xaver, nobody believed that he bought a coat’

   b. An Mantl daß da Xaver kafft hot hot neamad glaubt
   a coat that the Xaver bought has has nobody believed
   ‘As for a coat, nobody believed that Xaver bought one’

   c. Da Hans ob kummt woß-e ned
   the Hans whether comes know-I not
   ‘As for Hans, I don’t know whether he will come’

   d. An Fünfer daß-e kriag häid-e ned g’moant
   a five that-I get had-I not thought
   ‘As for a grade five, I didn’t think I would get one’

The phenomenon central to the present article is that – contrary to the examples in (1) in which the DFC-complement appears in post-verbal or “extraposed” position – this kind of topicalization is only possible if the CP-complement is topicalized itself. It is strictly impossible in CPs which occupy the post-verbal position (in traditional terminology the *Nachfeld*). The data in (4) are all the more puzzling because the *Nachfeld* is the canonical position for a finite complement and is considered by many syntacticians to be its base position:

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1 The construction seems to also be possible in other dialects which don’t observe the DFCF with respect to wh-movement, such as Alemannic and more northeastern varieties such as Franconian and Thuringian, but seems to be far less widespread in these dialects. For recent discussion, see Weiß (to appear).
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(4) a. *Neamad hot glaubt, da Xaver daß an Mantl kafft hot
     nobody has believed the Xaver that a coat bought has
b. *Neamad hot glaubt, an Mantl daß da Xaver kafft hot
     nobody has believed a coat that the Xaver bought has
c. *I woaß ned, da Hans ob kummt
     I know not the Hans whether comes
d. *I häid ned g’moant, an Fünfer daß-e kriag
     I had not thought a five that-I get

This restriction on topicalization across C has remained unexplained in the sense that no agreement has so far been reached among syntacticians as to the description of the phrase structure.²

The rest of this article is organized as follows: In section 2 I present a review of two classes of earlier accounts. In section 3 I refer to the differences between topicalization as movement to SpecCP and left dislocation. In section 4 it is suggested that the topicalization in question is an indicator of illocutionary force which I argue is implemented in a functional projection. The core of my analysis and some of its consequences are presented in section 5. Previous accounts have mainly been concerned with a parasitic-gap construction that is intimately connected with the kind of topicalization seen in (3). I will show in section 6 that the account developed up to section 5 is compatible with and provides new evidence for the ATB-approach to parasitic gaps. The results are summarized in section 7.

2. Previous Attempts at an Explanation

The simplest imaginable analysis would be one in which the topicalization facts in (3) simply result from the Bavarian disrespect of the DFCF. In that case, it is crucial to assume that the moved XP targets SpecCP in the same

² One reviewer tells me that according to an Austrian informant constructions such as those in (4) are acceptable for "some speakers of Upper Austrian". Given the sharp ungrammaticality that arises for myself and all the other Bavarian speakers I could consult, I find this surprising. At this moment I can only leave this for further investigation.
way as a wh-phrase targets SpecCP. But then the difference between (1)/(2) and (4) must be made to follow from something else. Alternatively, one may argue that the parallelism between topicalization and wh-movement is only apparent, and that the underlying structures are in fact rather different. Both directions have been explored already. The argumentation has in various cases been determined by the fact that the observed type of topicalization seems to be responsible for parasitic gap constructions which are found in Bavarian, and to which we will turn in section 6. Proponents of the SpecCP theory are Felix (1985), Grewendorf (1988) and Bayer (1988). Proponents of an alternative theory are von Stechow & Sternefeld (1988) as well as Weiss (1998), who closely follows them. They suggest that the topicalized constituent in (3) is not in the specifier of its immediate CP but is in fact part of the matrix clause. In my presentation I partially rely on a review of the earlier work by Lutz (1997). I take the liberty of leaving Felix (1985) aside because his primary concern is the parasitic gap phenomenon, whereas my primary concern here is an explanation of the topicalization asymmetry (TA).

2.1 Top in SpecCP

Grewendorf (1988:254ff.) as well as Bayer (1988) follow the conservative assumption that XPs which are topicalized to the immediate left of C are in SpecCP. While Bayer (1988) does not try to come to grips with the TA, Grewendorf does. He suggests that the asymmetry derives from a restriction on government according to which SpecCP of a clausal complement in post-verbal position is governed, whereas it is ungoverned if CP is topicalized. Grewendorf proposes a principle according to which only a lexically ungoverned Vorfeld position may be occupied by XP, and which he makes sure does not apply if XP is +wh and undergoes wh-agreement. Attractive as such a solution may appear within the GB-framework, its attractiveness relies on a central relation that has been given up in the successor of that theory, the Minimalist Program (Chomsky 1995): government. If one is justified in assuming that government has ceased to play the role it used to play, it cannot be responsible for the restriction at hand. But let us concentrate

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3 Of course, I believe that a proper account will also have to say something about the parasitic gap construction, and I hope to be able to say something sensible at the end of this article, but I want to emphasize that parasitic gaps are not in the focus of my discussion.
more on empirical arguments. In Bavarian, like in any other variety of German, certain verbs allow V2-complements such as *Ich glaube [den Hans, hat die Polizei t₁ erwisch]t* (*I believe Hans has been caught by the police*). Since *den Hans* arguably occupies SpecCP (in which the finite verb has raised to C), extra provisos would have to be invoked to prevent government of the Vorfeld here. Such provisos do not appear to be quite natural or plausible. A conclusive argument against an explanation based on government comes, however, from cases which exhibit the very same TA while not involving government according to any standard theoretical implementation. Consider the examples in (5) and (6), both of which involve adjunct clauses of a certain type, namely if- and as-clauses:

(5) a. *Da Xaver wenn hoam kummt kriagt-a wos z’ essn*
    the Xaver if home comes gets -he something to eat
    ‘As for Xaver, if he comes home, he will get something to eat’
    b. *Da Xaver kriagt twos z’ essn der wenn hoam kummt*
       the Xaver gets something to eat he if home comes

(6) a. *An Xaver wia-s g’seng hom hom-sa -se recht*
    the Xaver as -they seen have have-they-REF really
    g’freit
    rejoiced
    ‘As for Xaver, when they saw him they were really happy’
    b. *Sie hom se recht g’freit an Xaver wia-s g’seng hom*

Since adjunct CPs as initiated by wenn or wia (Standard German wie) are un governed by definition, Grewendorf’s explanation can hardly be tenable. I suspect that the TA is independent of government and thereby of lexical selection, argument or adjunct status.

2.2 Topic/Focus in the Matrix CP

Von Stechow & Sternefeld (1988:387f.) propose an entirely different solution which cannot rely on Grewendorf’s central point because the data von Stechow and Sternefeld are looking at primarily involve topicalizations in
adjuncts. Their considerations are based on examples in Felix (1985) such as the following:\(^4\)

\[(7)\]

\begin{enumerate}
\item a. I bin glei b’suffa \([\text{wenn-e des Bier no trink}]\)
   \[\text{I am immediately drunk if I this beer still drink}\]
   ‘I’ll be drunk right away if I continue drinking this beer’
\item b. *I bin glei b’suffa \([\{\text{des Bier}\}, \text{wenn-e no t}_i \text{ trink}]\)
\item c. I bin \([\text{wenn-e des Bier no trink}]\) glei b’suffa
\item d. *I bin \([\{\text{des Bier}\}, \text{wenn-e no t}_i \text{ trink}]\) glei b’suffa
\item e. \([\{\text{Des Bier}\}, \text{wenn-e no t}_i \text{ trink}]\) bin-e glei b’suffa
\end{enumerate}

(7c,d) show that the same contrast as before occurs if the dependent CP is in clause-medial position. The wenn-clause in (7c) is ok when parenthetically inserted, but as (7d) shows, it ceases to be ok when an XP has been moved to the specifier of the wenn-clause. Only when the topicalization in front of C occurs in a CP which is likewise topicalized do we find a grammatical result.

In their account, von Stechow & Sternefeld consider the topicalized constituent to be \textit{focused}. This is in an interesting conflict with Grewendorf’s representations in which the very same type of constituent is considered to be a \textit{topic}. If \textit{topic} and \textit{focus} are mutually exclusive notions, one of the analyses should be wrong. A more benevolent interpretation is possible, however, according to which the notion \textit{focus} is not necessarily restricted to quantificational structure and the standard analysis in terms of variable binding. According to Erteschik-Shir (1997:70), a new topic is introduced in out-of-the-blue sentences by a phonologically stressed phrase. Thus, phonological prominence, which is clearly required in the construction under investigation, should not prevent us from considering the preposed elements to be topics (of some sort).\(^5\) And indeed, the preposed elements pass classical tests for both, topic- and focushood (cf. Erteschik-Shir 1997:14). Discourses in which the preposed element has already been mentioned are well formed, i.e., the usual aboutness relation which topics are subject to is observed. To see this, consider the following discourse:

\(^4\) I take the liberty of turning examples from published sources which do not strike me as quite idiomatic for one reason or the other into what I take to be proper colloquial standard in my own dialect.

\(^5\) Non-salient elements which can never bear stress such as \textit{es} (‘it’) or \textit{man} (‘one’) are banned from this position.
(8) A: Wos hom-s g’sagt, wia-s an Xaver wieder g’seng hom?
     what have-they said as-they the Xaver again seen have
     ‘What did they say when they saw Xaver again?’
B: An Xaver wia-s g’seng hom hom-sa-se recht g’freit       (=6a)
     ‘As for Xaver, when they saw him they were really happy’

It is also possible to test in the opposite direction. Potential foci (in the sense of quantificational structure) must correspond to a variable as initiated by a constituent question. Normally, the constituent that can be questioned is focus. Consider now the dialogue in (9):

(9) A: Wos fir -a Notn host g’moant daß-st kriagst?
     what for-a grade have (you) thought that-you get
     ‘Which grade did you think you would get?’
B: An Oanser daß-e kriag how -e g’moant
     a one that-I get have -I thought
     ‘Grade one I thought I would get’

It appears here that the preposed XP an Oanser, which supplies the new information, can also function as the binder of a variable trace, i.e., as a focus. This fact, or perhaps the mere fact that the preposed element is prosodically prominent, has led various researchers to consider it to be a focus; cf. von Stechow & Sternefeld (1988), Lutz (1997) and Weiß (1998). However, given that one test shows that the preposed XP is a topic, while the other test shows that it is a focus, there is a contradiction because something cannot be topic and focus simultaneously. I think this conflict can be resolved if it is realized that the movement to the immediate left of C is not focus-driven movement but something else. Notice that the construction in (9B) is not at all essential for answering (9A) successfully. The answer could equally well be I hob g’moant, daß-e an Oanser kriag (‘I thought that I would get a one’). The focality of the filler an Oanser (in the sense of “new information”) is already checked in the middle field; thus, the constituent must have been raised still higher for an independent purpose. I will return to this issue. At this point we conclude that where the preposed element has been termed focus this notion makes sense only if it is identified with prosodic prominence, and not if the position is associated with semantic aspect of the
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notion “focus”. The motivation for looking at the preposed and stressed XP as a focus constituent seems to have yet another source. As mentioned earlier, the construction under consideration has been considered to be intimately connected with the parasitic gap phenomenon. Starting from Felix’ (1985) original analysis, von Stechow & Sternefeld as well as Lutz (1997) consider it essential that the extracted element c-commands both the parasitic gap (e) and the real gap (t) in (10):  

(10) An Karl1 wenn-e t1 dawisch daschlog-e e1  
\[ \text{the Karl}_{\text{acc}} \text{ if } \text{-I get kill } \text{-I} \]  
‘If I get hold of Karl, I’ll kill him’

Von Stechow & Sternefeld (1988:387) conclude on the basis of these data that the Bavarian root clause has an additional Vorfeld position for focused constituents. Their analysis provides an insight which is of central importance to my own account, namely that this additional position is only available in root clauses. The proposed structure of (7e) is given in (11):  

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6 In short, the pre-C position is as neutral w.r.t. topic and focus as the pre-\(V_{\text{fin}}\) position of an ordinary German V2 clause. For concreteness I assume that the focus feature of a constituent may have been checked before another feature of the same constituent is checked in a higher domain. This is absolutely standard, as one can see in those cases where an NP first moves to an A-position to get its Case feature checked and then moves on to get its wh-feature or some other feature checked.

7 It seems obvious that the trace is in the topicalized clause, while the parasitic gap is in the root clause. Only the latter can be replaced by a personal pronoun. However, cf. Lutz (1997:section 3.4) for a controversial discussion of this issue.

8 Von Stechow & Sternefeld use the S, S’, S° system. More recent considerations of functional categories in phrase structure suggest that the finite verb of the root clause \(\text{bin}\) is in \(C°\) and the adjunct \(\text{CP}\) as well as the focus phrase \(\text{das Bier}\) are in two specifiers of \(C°\).
If this point can be established, the deviant examples (4a–d) and (7b,d) are ruled out as desired. Unfortunately, the von Stechow & Sternefeld analysis does not specify how the relatedness of the root clause to this position could be derived. It is left as a stipulation, and as such it reduces to a restatement of the facts. Technical problems with their analysis have been noticed by Lutz (1997): One problem is that the analysis violates the Adjunct Condition, according to which nothing may be extracted from an adjunct. However, the Adjunct Condition is respected in Bavarian in the same way as in Standard German. Another problem is that the preposed/focused constituent is predicted to successfully bind in to the domain c-commanded by it. But the deviance of the examples in (12) signals that this prediction is in disagreement with the facts:

(12) a. *Kõa Mensch₁ wenn t₁ b’suffa is foit eam₁ wos
   no man if drunk is falls him something
   g’scheids er⁻
   useful in
   intended: ‘Nobody has good ideas when he is drunk’

   b. *A jeder Mensch₁ wenn t₁ niachdan is foit eam₁ wos
   a every man if sober is falls him something
   g’scheids er⁻
   useful in
   intended: ‘Everyone has good ideas when he is sober’

Contrary to what (11) may suggest, quantified NPs (QNPs) such as in (12) cannot bind a pronominal variable in the matrix clause.
Considerations of this kind have led Lutz (1997) to propose two separate structures for what he refers to as the “focus construction” and the “parasitic gap construction”. Let me continue to concentrate on the former and postpone discussion of the latter to section 6. Lutz follows Brandt et al. (1992), who claim that the displaced element cannot be in SpecCP because SpecCP may be occupied by a wh-phrase, and that therefore the only possibility is adjunction to CP. On the basis of this, in my view unmotivated, suggestion he proposes the structure in (13):

\[
(13) \quad [_{\text{CP FOCUS}_1} \quad _{\text{CP ... \, t}_1 \, ...}] 
\]

The argument against movement to SpecCP obviously rests in part on a confusion about the word \textit{wann}. While in Standard German \textit{wann} always means ‘at what time’, in many Bavarian varieties it is homophonous with the conditional particle \textit{wenn} (‘if’).\footnote{For instance, example (i), which is a phonetic variant of (7e), should not lead to the conclusion that the preposed XP is beyond SpecCP. The example is clearly a conditional.}

(i) \quad [\text{Des Bier}], \quad \text{wann}-e \quad \text{no \, t}_1 \quad \text{trink} \quad \text{bin}-e \quad \text{glei} \quad \text{b’suffa}
\textit{this beer \, if \, -I \, still \, drink \, am-I \, directly \, drunk}

Both Lutz (1997) and Weiß (1998) point to (constructed) examples in which \textit{wann} must be interpreted as a wh-phrase, and as such should occupy SpecCP rather than C. Given that for the speaker the conditional \textit{wenn} and the temporal \textit{wann} may not be fully distinct due to the ambiguity of the form /\textit{van}/, one would have to search for more convincing examples. The only other case that seems to be frequently attested is \textit{wia}:

(ii) \quad [\text{B ‘Mutter}], \quad \text{wia \, t}_1 \quad \text{des \, g’heat} \quad \text{hot \, is-s \, ganz \, naarisch \, woan}
\textit{the mother \, as \, this \, heard \, has \, is-s \, completely \, furious \, become}
‘As/when mother heard this, she became really furious’

But in this case, \textit{wia} is clearly not interpreted as ‘in which manner’ but rather as the particle ‘as’. While some of the details may remain murky, there can be no doubt that whenever an unambiguously maximal wh-phrase occupies SpecCP, preposing – adjunction to CP – leads to an ungrammatical result, e.g.:

(iii) a. \quad *[\text{Da Xaver}], \quad \text{wohi} \quad \text{t}_1 \quad \text{zong} \quad \text{is \, woaß-e \, ned}
\textit{the Xaver \, where-to \, moved \, has \, know-I \, not}

b. \quad *[\text{Da Xaver}], \quad \text{in wäichan} \quad \text{Haus \, t}_1 \quad \text{wohnt} \quad \text{woaß-e \, ned}
\textit{the Xaver \, in which \, house \, resides \, know-I \, not}

Therefore I think that in the cases at hand adjunction to CP is neither necessary nor desirable. The minority of examples which seem to invite such a solution are either built on misunderstand-
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If trace-binding cannot take place under any other relation than c-command, as Lutz assumes, i.e., if m-command plays no role here, (13) successfully prevents the derivation of the examples in (12). On the other hand, however, the fact that (13) is confined to the left periphery of the matrix clause must still be made to follow from some other principle. Lutz briefly considers Rizzi’s (1997) proposal of a more articulate structure of the left periphery of the clause in which more functional heads are available than under the received standard analyses of German in terms of CP, and he also considers Chomsky’s (1995) suggestion that there may be multiple specifiers, if one head carries different features which need to be checked by different phrases. His remarks are too short to allow any firm conclusions, but they point in a promising direction as I will try to show in the following. Lutz’ adjunction analysis in (13) suffers from a conceptual problem, because it leaves unexplained why only Bavarian but not Standard German too should have this construction. The conservative approach according to which movement targets SpecCP, however, connects to the well-known difference with respect to the DFCF.

The arguments that can be raised against von Stechow & Sternefeld’s as well as Lutz’ analyses indicate that the conservative solution in terms of movement to SpecCP may have been abandoned too quickly. What follows should be seen as an attempt to push the conservative approach as far as possible. If successful, the analysis will enable us to retain the closest possible connection between the DFC- and the top/foc-construction, because the latter will simply be an instantiation of the former.

3. Topicalization versus Left Dislocation

It is widely known that German has left dislocation (LD), i.e., cases in which an XP seems to be left-adjointed to a V2-clause in which SpecCP hosts a pronoun that is coindexed with XP. (14) shows some examples of V2 root clauses with LD. The examples in (15) show that no TA arises here:

ings or should be investigated more carefully before an adjunction analysis is adopted. For instance, movement across warum ('why') leads to a more acceptable construction than those in (iii), but this class also shows special behavior elsewhere; cf. Rizzi (1990), Hornstein (1995) and § 3.1 of Bayer (to appear), among others.
Topicalization in the face of embedding as in (15) is obviously possible because the V2-complement has root properties.\(^\text{10}\) The TA-effect can, however, be witnessed in those cases in which LD applies to a C-headed CP. In Standard German such cases are only possible with a focused resumptive pronoun in situ. The examples in (16) and (17) demonstrate this with argument and adjunct CPs respectively. In each case, the LD-topic carries a rising contour and is separated from CP by a prosodic break, which I indicate with a double slash:

(16) a. [Den Hans\(_1\) // [daß er den\(_1\) kennt]] glaube ich nicht
\(\text{the Hans that he him knows believe I not}\)
‘As for Hans, that he knows HIM, I don’t believe’

b. *Ich glaube nicht [den Hans\(_1\) // [daß er den\(_1\) kennt]]

(17) a. [Den Hans\(_1\) // [wenn du den\(_1\) siehst]] sag ihm er soll mich
\(\text{the Hans if you him see tell him he should me call}\)
‘As for Hans, if you see HIM, tell him he should call me’

b. *Sag ihm er soll mich anrufen [den Hans\(_1\) // [wenn du den\(_1\) siehst]]

\(^{10}\) Cf. Heycock (2000).
As already suggested by the prosodic break, the LD-topic must be outside SpecCP, which is expected in those varieties of German which respect the DFCF. This impression is corroborated by the fact that such constructions are not possible with quantified NPs (QNPs) in LD-position which cannot receive a referential interpretation. QNPs which give clear results are those which involve the operators jeder (‘each’) kein (‘no’):

(18)  a. *[Jeden/keinen Studenten // [daß er den1 kennt]] glaube ich nicht
    each/no student that he him knows believe I not
    b. *[Jeden/keinen Studenten // [wenn du den1 siehst]] dann sag
       each/no student if you him see then tell
       ihm er soll mich anrufen
       him he should me call

Although the LD-examples from Standard German show the TA, the Bavarian topicalizations under consideration are different in showing neither the prosodic break nor the semantic restriction nor the resumptive pronoun. We have already seen that the Bavarian examples which give rise to TA do not invoke resumptive pronouns. There is also no indication of a prosodic break. According to prosodic information, the topic is entirely part of the CP proper. The following examples show that QNPs can be topicalized too:

(19)  a. Neamad1 wenn t1 kummt, no is-s aa ned recht
    nobody if comes then is-it also not good
    ‘If nobody shows up at all, it isn’t ok either’
    b. A jeder1 daß t1 so deppert is glaub -e ned11
       a everyone that so stupid is believe -I not
       ‘I don’t think that everybody is that stupid’

Thus, the construction is distinguished from LD by three factors: prosody, lack of a resumptive pronoun, and the semantic nature of the topic. It can be no accident that according to this list the Vorfeld patterns exactly with the Bavarian topics:

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11 The fact that there is an indefinite determiner in front of jeder does not affect the semantics. In Bavarian the use of determiners is in general much more widespread and obligatory than in the standard language.
I take this to be strong evidence that the Bavarian topics which give rise to TA are indeed in SpecCP and not in a higher position such as an LD-position.

4. Emphatic Topicalization as an Indicator of Illocutionary Force

We have seen above that both the notions topic and focus may be slightly confusing in connection with the construction under consideration. The preposed element must bear stress but seems to be neutral with respect to topicality or focushood in the semantic sense. What is the common feature that is shared by all the elements that undergo such preposing into SpecCP? I want to suggest here that it is emphasis, and that the proper notion should be “emphatic topicalization”, where “topicalization” simply refers to the fact that the effect of emphasis is achieved by preposing to SpecCP. I admit that emphasis – or more appropriately Erregung (‘excitement’) in Behaghel’s term – is not a well-defined notion in linguistic theory, as it can be achieved by a variety of grammatical means. Nevertheless it seems to be true that this form of topicalization is the grammar’s reflex of the speech act to be performed and is as such on a par with German constructions involving modal particles like aber, denn, doch, ja, etc. Modal particles supply features which interact with other features such as [wh], yielding a wide range of illocutionary forces.12 As Doherty (1985: 64) points out, modal particles are root clause indicators of illocutionary force or, in her terminology, epistemic meaning. Embedded clauses which are modified in this way lead to illform-

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edness unless the root predicate is a verb (e.g. of speaking) that permits a quotational reading:

(21)  

\[ a. \text{Konrad ist } \{ja / doch\} \text{ verreist} \]
\[ \text{Konrad is PRT / PRT traveled-away} \]
\[ \text{‘Konrad is out of town’} \]

\[ b. *\text{Nina nimmt an, daß Konrad } \{ja / doch\} \text{ verreist ist} \]
\[ \text{Nina assumes that Konrad PRT / PRT traveled-away is} \]

\[ c. \text{Nina } \{\text{sagt / meinte}\}, \text{ daß Konrad } \{ja / doch\} \text{ verreist sei} \]
\[ \text{Nina said / gave the opinion that Konrad ... ... ... be}_\text{subj} \]

Obviously, particles like \textit{ja} and \textit{doch} are indicators of an attitudinal meaning that cannot be activated unless the particle has access to a root(like) clause. According to Cinque’s (1998) universal hierarchy of functional heads which provide positions for adverbs, the highest projection is reserved for speech act indicators.

If emphatic topicalization belongs to the class of grammatical means of force projection in the sense of Rizzi (1997), its root clause property and strict left peripherality are not surprising. (22) shows that a V2-clause with emphatic topicalization can be in the scope of a manner-of-speaking predicate just like the complement with a modal particle in (21c).

(22)  

\[ B'\text{Fanny hot g’moant }[[\text{da Hans ob } \text{kummt} ] \text{ wissat i ned}] \]
\[ \text{the Fanny has thought the Hans whether comes knew}_\text{subj I not} \]
\[ \text{‘Fanny uttered the opinion that as for Hans I wouldn’t know whether he would show up’} \]

Thus, although it seems to be difficult to elucidate the semantics and pragmatics of emphasis and emphatic topicalization, it seems equally clear that the syntax reserves for them a specific space in phrase structure. If we adopt the view that this space is defined by a functional head, the head responsible for emphatic topicalization must be to the extreme left. In the next section I will develop an account which specifies the activation of emphasis by topicalization to SpecCP. The relevant feature will be dubbed \textit{[etop]}. 
5. The Syntactic Nature of Emphatic Topicalization

5.1 The Feature [etop]

If we want to push the conservative approach of movement to SpecCP to its limits, we have to assume a feature in C to which a phrase from within the clause is moved to check a corresponding feature. A phrase which bears the feature [etop] is moved to C if the language permits C to bear the feature [etop] too. The DFC-phenomenon of Bavarian syntax shows that something similar is independently needed if we want to keep to the widely accepted analysis according to which a wh-phrase may move to SpecCP although the C-position is filled with a complementizer. Recall that neither wh-movement to SpecCP nor emphatic topicalization is allowed in the standard language if C is lexicalized. Let me therefore propose a low-level parametric difference between Standard German and Bavarian according to which the complementizers of Bavarian may bear the features [wh] and [etop], whereas the complementizers of the standard language cannot.\textsuperscript{13} As we were able to demonstrate in (16) and (17), the standard language does show emphatic topicalization, thus giving rise to the TA-effect. The difference is that the topicalized phrase cannot have been moved to SpecCP as shown by various tests. The topicalized phrase seems to be adjoined to CP. From a Minimalist perspective it is more plausible to assume a spec-head relation in this case too, albeit one in which the feature [etop] is associated with a zero head.\textsuperscript{14} This form of emphatic topicalization can also be used in Bavarian. Let me therefore suggest that the feature [etop] may be associated with a zero head in all varieties of German, whereas it can be associated with a class of overt complementizers only in Bavarian. This class of complementizers consists of \textit{daß}, \textit{ob}, \textit{wenn/wann}, \textit{wie} and \textit{sobald} (corresponding to \textit{daß}, \textit{ob}, \textit{wenn/wann}, \textit{wie} and \textit{sobald} in the standard language). These elements

\textsuperscript{13} Within Rizzi’s (1991) Criterion approach one could say that Bavarian complementizers are either positively or negatively specified for [wh] and [etop], whereas those of the standard language are always negatively specified for these features. Here I assume that there are only positive specifications of features. Negative specification amounts to the absence of a feature, which means that no checking can take place.

\textsuperscript{14} Notice that in the embedded clause of Standard German a wh-phrase moves to SpecCP whose head C must be zero.
are lexically compatible with the feature [etop] such that this feature may be added in the numeration or not; *daβ* may in addition be enriched with the feature [wh]. If *daβ* is endowed with [wh], a wh-phrase will move toward SpecCP, checking its wh-feature against *daβ*. If *daβ*, *ob*, *wenn/wann*, *wia* and *bat* are endowed with [etop], an etop-phrase will move toward SpecCP checking its etop-feature against the respective head. The parametric difference that exists between Bavarian and Standard German with respect to the DFCF is summarized in table 1, in which we adopt the convention that α and β can freely adopt the values + or –.15

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Standard German</th>
<th>Bavarian</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>∅</td>
<td>αwh, βetop</td>
<td>αwh, βetop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>daβ</em></td>
<td>-</td>
<td>αwh, βetop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>ob</em></td>
<td>-</td>
<td>αetop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>wenn/wann</em></td>
<td>-</td>
<td>αetop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>wie</em></td>
<td>-</td>
<td>αetop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>(so)bald</em></td>
<td>-</td>
<td>αetop</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tab. 1

Table 1 determines that both Standard German and Bavarian allow sentences in which the wh-phrase corresponds to no overt head. Both varieties equally allow constructions such as those in (16a) and (17a). According to the present proposal, (16a) has the partial structure in (23), in which the etop layer is completely above CP.16

(23)  \([\text{etopP den Hans}_1 [\text{etop } \emptyset] [\text{CP } daβ \text{ er den}_1 \text{ kennt}]])\ldots

15 In terms of the present theory, the minus value amounts to the absence of the feature; thus, to say that *daβ* is [βetop] is a way of saying that *daβ* can bear the feature [etop] or not.

16 The question here is how the feature [etop] can be checked in this case. There being a pronoun in situ, it is not plausible to assume that the left-dislocated phrase is moved. It rather seems to be base-generated where we see it. It remains to be shown how it acquires its Case and how it can be subject to feature checking for the feature [etop]. I have to leave these questions for future research. One reviewer suggests that \([\text{Den Fritz}_1 [\text{wer t}_1 \text{ kennt}]] \text{ weiß ich nicht} \) (the Fritz acc who knows, know I not) is grammatical in certain varieties of Bavarian. In my speech it clearly is not. The only grammatical option for me would be to resort to the resumptive pronoun strategy as in \([\text{Den Fritz}_1 [\emptyset [\text{wer den}_1 \text{ kennt}]] \text{ weiß ich nicht}].\)
Bavarian *ob, wenn/wann, wie* and *(so)bald* are incompatible with a wh-feature, but are compatible with an etop-feature.¹⁷ This amounts to structures in which CP coincides with EtopP, the emphatically topicalized phrase now being in SpecCP/SpecEtopP. Example (3a) then receives the partial structural description in (24):

(24) \[CP/etopP \text{da } Xaver}_1 \ [C'/etop' \ [C/etop \text{daß}] \ [IP \ t_1 \text{ an Mantl kafft hot}]] ... \]

With respect to the feature [etop] the rest of the set of complementizers seen in table 1 behaves accordingly in Bavarian.

### 5.2 Feature Combination and Wh-Scope

The feature specification of Bavarian *daß* seen in table 1 suggests that α and β may choose the positive value simultaneously. The result would be an emphatic wh-construction. Given that in Bavarian both [etop] and [wh] can be associated with SpecCP and the moved phrase binds a trace (and not a resumptive pronoun as in the LD-cases), no semantic conflict with the non-referentiality of a wh-phrase is expected. As example (25) shows, the combination of the features [etop] and [wh] indeed leads to a well-formed result. The emphatic nature of the question is signaled by stress and is indicated here with capital letters on the wh-phrase:

(25) \[WER}_1 \ [daß \ t_1 \text{ sein Hund ned fiadat}]]_2 \ hot-a \ g’moant t_2? \]
\[\text{‘WHO did he think does not feed his dog?’} \]

This example differs from cases of regular wh-movement in interesting ways.¹⁸ Notice first that according to the conservative approach which I am

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¹⁷ As Hoekstra (1993) points out, there are Dutch dialects in which the corresponding interrogative complementizer *of* is compatible with the wh-feature. Since *ob* and *of* are interrogative, a more fine-grained distinction would have to distinguish between [+interr, –wh] for all German varieties and Standard Dutch and [+interr, +wh] for the Dutch dialects Hoekstra describes.

¹⁸ Regular wh-movement would be as in (i):

(i) \[Wer}_1 \ [hot [-a \ g’moant [t'_1 \ [daß [t_1 \text{ sein Hund ned fiadat}]]]]? \]
\[\text{‘WHO has-he thought that his dog not feeds’} \]
trying to defend here, the wh-phrase has not been moved into the root clause; it rather remains part of an embedded CP which has undergone movement to SpecCP of the root clause. As it stands, it is not at all obvious why the entire clause should be an interrogative. But notice that it has to be an interrogative. If it were an assertion, it could never be grammatical. The reason is that the attitude verb moana (‘mean’, ‘think’) is incompatible with a wh-complement as seen in the ungrammaticality of *Er hot g’moant [wer daβ sein Hund ned fiadat] (‘*He thought who does not feed his dog’). Indeed, (25) turns into an ungrammatical declarative as soon as the stress on the wh-element is removed and shifted elsewhere, e.g. to Hund as in (26):

(26) *[Wer [ daß [t1 sein HUND ned fiadat] ]] hot-a g’moant?
    ‘He thought who does not feed his dog?’

The topicalized CP is then interpreted in its pre-movement position, and wh-scope gets activated in this lower position and not at all in the root. Thus, somehow (25) must be such that the wh-operator has scope over the entire clause. We have the interesting situation that the wh-phrase reaches matrix scope without moving into the matrix itself. Wh-scope is rather obtained by a combination of CP pied-piping and stress on the wh-phrase. I would like to suggest here that this is due precisely to the fact that the wh-phrase may in addition to [wh] carry the feature [etop]. If emphatic topicalization is a root phenomenon as we have argued in section 4, and if the phrase which gives rise to emphatic topicalization is itself a wh-phrase, we expect matrix wh-scope. However, the missing link is still to understand how [etop] and [wh] can be activated in the root clause without the phrases which carry these features actually moving there. To fill this gap, I will in the next section develop an account in terms of pied-piping which will also enable us to give an explanation of the TA-effect.

Notice that (25) is not an echo question. The topicalized clause is subordinated, and the wh-phrase is in SpecCP. This is normally not the constellation which allows an echo interpretation. Thanks to Susanne Trissler for pointing this out to me.
5.3 Pied-Piping

We can substantiate the claim that [etop] is a root feature by considering recent proposals as to a more fine-grained articulation of the C-system. According to Rizzi (1997), the C-system is “the interface between propositional content (expressed by the IP) and the superordinate structure (a higher clause or, possibly, the articulation of discourse, if we consider a root clause).” The structure proposed by Rizzi is given in (27).20

(27) \[\text{ForceP} \ldots [\text{Force}^\circ [\text{TopP}^*] \ldots [\text{Top}^\circ [\text{FocP} \ldots [\text{Foc}^\circ [\text{TopP}^*] \ldots [\text{Top}^\circ [\text{FinP} \ldots [\text{Fin}^\circ \text{IP}]]]]]]]]\]

Most relevant for our concern is the suggestion that ForceP is the highest projection of the clause. If emphasis is a pragmatic feature that can be imposed on the primary illocutionary force of the utterance, its place in ForceP is expected. There is an important difference, however, between the features that are subsumed under Force. The quote from Rizzi (1997) suggests that in a subordinate clause the highest projection of the C-system mediates between the subordinate clause and its minimally superordinate clause, while in a root clause the highest projection of the C-system mediates between the root clause and the discourse. Closer scrutiny reveals, however, that force in the narrower sense of speech act theory can only be the latter.21 Imperatives, exclamatives, etc. are generally not selected by predicates but depend directly on discourse.22 Assuming that [etop] is part of the force features associated with the C-system, we expect feature checking by movement to SpecCP (or in Standard German to the specifier of a separate projection for...

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19 Thanks to reviewer 2 for helping me remove certain unclear formulations in this section w.r.t. the role of features in the derivations I propose. My proposal is certainly not fully compatible with standard minimalist assumptions in Chomsky (1995). For lack of space I cannot discuss the differences here.

20 This phrase structure has mainly been developed to account for word order data in Italian and French. The asterisk on TopP indicates that TopP can be iterated.

21 For wh-sentences a sharp distinction has to be drawn between the formal feature [wh] and the contentive feature for interrogativity. Various clause types which are subsumed under [wh] have nothing to do with interrogativity. There are likewise interrogatives which appear in declarative mood (with rising intonation). Clear examples are also root yes/no questions, which differ formally from their embedded counterparts which are introduced by a complementizer such as if or whether (German ob).

22 As has been pointed out in the text already (cf. section 4), the complexity of the issue is enhanced by the fact that certain predicates in German may show root properties. But it is debatable whether we are dealing with genuine subordination in these cases.
Asymmetry in Emphatic Topicalization

21

a left-dislocated e-topic above C). If we are right in assuming that [etop] is a root feature, the result of such simplex movement does not yield a grammatical output as long as the CP in which this movement takes place is not identical with the root clause. The examples in (4), which have the structure seen in (28), are such that emphatic topicalization has taken place in the embedded CP, while the root clause remains unaffected.

(28)

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{rootCP} \\
\text{CP}_{[\text{etop}]} \\
\text{XP}\_1 \\
\text{[etop]} \\
\text{C'}_{[\text{etop}]} \\
\text{C}_{[\text{etop}]} -\text{int} \\
\text{IP} \\
\text{t}_1
\end{array}
\]

The feature [etop] resides in C° and therefore projects to C’ and CP, but no further. An important question is this: If [etop] is a root feature which arguably has interpretive import, why should it be part of the feature structure of C? In my view, the answer must be that [etop] cannot be an interpretable feature in C. This makes it similar to a moved wh-phrase in a non-root clause of a partial-movement construction where we also find a wh-phrase in a position in which its wh-feature cannot be interpretable.23 I assume that [etop] is a formal feature that may be freely inserted in C, be it interpretable

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23 (i) Was glaubst du [wen ich gesehen habe]  
what believe you whom I seen have  
‘Who do you believe I have seen?’  
(ii) *Du glaubst [wen ich gesehen habe]  
(i) shows that wh has moved to SpecCP of the embedded clause, although it cannot be interpreted there, as suggested by the ill-formedness of (ii). Obviously the wh-part has to be attracted by the root wh-element because only there can it be interpreted.
there or uninterpretable. Once in C, [etop] will attract XP for checking, a process after which XP loses its corresponding feature. This process leaves the embedded CP with the feature [etop] which is likewise uninterpretable because it resides in a constituent distinct from the force system associated with the root clause. In order to activate [etop] in the root clause, the embedded CP has to move to the specifier of the root clause. This leads to the grammatical output seen in the examples in (3), the structure of which is given in (29):

\[(29)\]
\[
\text{rootCP}_{[\text{etop}]}
\]
\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{CP}_{[\text{etop}]}
\
\text{C'}_{[\text{etop}]}
\
\text{C}_{[\text{etop}]} + \text{int}
\
\text{IP}
\
\text{V}_{\text{fin}}
\
\text{... t}_{\text{CP}}
\end{array}
\]

The requirement that [etop] be a root feature has been met here by pied-piping the entire CP (which already bears the so far uninterpretable feature [etop]) to the specifier of the root CP. Since force can only be associated with the root-CP (or its equivalent in a quasi-quotative context), checking the [+]etop CP against the head C_{[etop]} leads to the feature’s interpretability. In the head of the root CP, [etop] has become part of the force system in the same way as wh may have become part of interrogative force in a root-question.

This analysis, which I believe is the only feasible one, leads to two questions in connection with the minimalist theory I am subscribing to. The first question is how pied-piping should be possible at all after the phrase marked [etop] has been checked against the complementizer of the embedded clause. The second question is why instead of the minimal phrase marked [etop] the entire CP should move, i.e., why pied-piping should be allowed, if the same effect could be achieved by movement of a smaller phrase. Let me try to answer these questions in the following two sections.
5.3.1 How is Pied-Piping Possible?

According to our assumptions, the movement seen in (28) is motivated by feature checking: Both C and XP bear the feature [etop], and XP will get rid of [etop] as soon as it is in SpecCP. As a result, it is now the embedded CP which bears the feature [etop]. This feature cannot be interpreted, however, unless it is the feature of a root CP. Assume now that [etop] may also be part of the feature complex associated with the head of the root CP. This is the place to which the finite verb moves. We know that the V2 property is strongly connected to clausal typing: Imperatives, yes/no interrogatives and conditionals in German rely on I-to-C movement, and obviously the feature of wh-clauses which specifies the ForceP for interrogativity is also dependent on I-to-C. I take this as a motivation for proposing the principle in (30), which makes our earlier assumption that emphatic topicalization is a root phenomenon more precise:

(30) [etop] cannot be interpreted unless it is part of the featural complex associated with \([C I]\).

The Principle of Full Interpretation (Chomsky 1986b) dictates that any information that remains in a representation be interpretable. As we saw, [etop] in the \(da\beta\)-CP is not. Thus, the \(da\beta\)-CP has to undergo movement to the specifier of the root CP (which is headed by the raised V+I). This kind of process is familiar: In the course of the derivation the formal features are deleted up to interpretability. If we are right, movement can be triggered by purely formal requirements before the final step is reached in which [etop] – now being interpretable – remains.

5.3.2 Why Pied-Piping?

The next question that needs to be answered is why the pied-piping option can be chosen if the same effect could be achieved by simply moving the phrase which primarily bears the feature [etop] to the specifier of the root CP.\(^{24}\) Notice that roughly the same semantic effect as in (3) can be achieved by simply moving the e-topic phrase alone.

\(^{24}\) I am not aware of an economy principle that favors the movement of small constituents over the movement of larger constituents of the same syntactic type, but it is not unlikely that such a prin-
(31) a. Da Xaver₁ hot neamad glaubt [daβ t₁ an Mantl kafft hot]  
   the Xaver has nobody believed that a coat bought has  
   ‘As for Xaver, nobody believed that he bought a coat’

b. An Mantl₁ hot neamad glaubt [daβ da Xaver t₁ kafft hot]  
   a coat has nobody believed that the Xaver bought has  
   ‘As for a coat, nobody believed that Xaver bought one’

c. Da Hans₁ woaβ-e ned [ob t₁ kummt]  
   the Hans know-I not whether comes  
   ‘As for Hans, I don’t know whether he will come’

d. An Fünfer₁ häid-e ned g’moant [daβ-e t₁ kriag]  
   a five had-I not thought that-I get  
   ‘As for grade five, I didn’t think I would get one’

If pied-piping is a last-resort operation that applies in avoidance of a violation of principles of grammar, we would expect (31) rather than (3). Why is it then that both options exist? One reason might be that pied-piping enables us to apply emphatic topicalization even in cases in which movement of the smaller XP would be blocked by the Adjunct Condition. This can be seen in the difference between (32a) (which is identical to (5a)) and (32b):

(32) a. Da Xaver₁ wenn t₁ hoam kummt kriagt-a wos z’  
   the Xaver if home comes gets -he something to essn  
   ‘As for Xaver, if he comes home, he will get something to eat’

b. *Da Xaver₁ kriagt(-a) wos z’ essn [wenn t₁ hoam  
   the Xaver gets (-he) something to eat if home  
   kummt]  
   comes

Under the present theory, pied-piping of the adjunct clause as seen in (32a) could be seen as an option which is chosen if direct movement of the critical XP (here da Xaver) would violate the restriction against movement from adjunct clauses. But even then, the question remains as to why the pied-piping principle could play a role in considerations of derivational economy. A principle like that could be seen as a natural extension of the idea that covert movement or feature movement be preferred over move-alpha.
option may still be chosen where XP-movement is legitimate, as is the case in the examples in (31). My suggestion is that the difference between (3) and (31) rests on a difference in the numerations with which the respective derivations start. In examples of type (3), in which we see pied-piping, the complementizer of the embedded CP bears the feature [etop], which, however, cannot be interpreted in this position whence the entire CP undergoes movement to the left periphery of the root CP. The difference in the numeration underlying examples of type (31) is that the complementizer of the embedded CP does not bear the feature [etop]; only the C-position of the root CP does. As a consequence, XP does not move for checking to the specifier of the CP which minimally contains it. It rather moves directly to the specifier of the root CP to check the feature [etop]. In order to make this possible we must assume the operation *Form Chain*, which has been suggested by Chomsky & Lasnik (1993). This operation is distinct from move-alpha because under the *Form Chain* approach, long movement may rest on a single instance of movement, independent locality conditions (such as *Minimal Links*) taking care of the well-formedness of the resulting chain. The difference between direct movement of XP to SpecCP of the root clause and movement of the embedded CP to SpecCP of the root clause by pied-piping then boils down to a difference in the respective numerations underlying the derivations, which can be described as in (33):

(33)  

a. The *Form Chain* option

\[
[\text{rootCP}_{\text{etop}} \ldots \text{[CP} \ldots \text{XP}_{\text{etop}} \ldots \text{]]}
\]

b. The *Pied-Piping* option

\[
[\text{rootCP}_{\text{etop}} \ldots \text{[CP}_{\text{etop}} \ldots \text{XP}_{\text{etop}} \ldots \text{]]}
\]

One may ask why XP cannot move out of the lower CP and directly move on to the root CP such that pied-piping would still be avoided, despite the difference in terms of numerations. There is a theoretical as well as an em-

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25 Reprinted as chapter 1 of Chomsky (1995); see p. 44.
empirical answer. The theoretical answer is that once XP has checked its feature against [etop] in C, it becomes inert for further movement as conditioned by [etop]. The empirical answer is that whenever movement of XP to SpecYP is observed, further movement of XP (to SpecZP) appears to be blocked. Since Ross (1967) this has been known as the Freezing Effect.\footnote{See also more recent considerations of the Freezing Effect in Müller (1997) and Bayer (1999). With respect to semantics, the clearest effect of freezing is the scope of operators. Once an operator has reached a scope position, its scope can never be altered. For details see Bayer (1996) as well as Bayer & Grosu (2000).}

Movement of the domain in which XP-motion has taken place is widely attested, however. In the present account this is expected since the feature that functions as the “checker” may still remain active in the sense that it must undergo movement itself in order to reach a position at which it can attain full interpretation. If we are right in arguing that emphatic topicalization is a root phenomenon, pied-piping of CP to the specifier of the root clause is a way of satisfying the semantic needs of the feature [etop].

5.3.3 Recursive Pied-Piping

Grewendorf (1988:256) observes that emphatic topicalization may apply recursively. His example is given in (34). According to our theory, it has the derivation seen in (35a) through (35d):

(34) Da Peter daß bled is, daß-e g’sagt hom soi, is glatt g’long

the Peter that stupid is that-I said have should is straightly lied

‘As for Peter, it is a straight lie that should have said that he is stupid’

(35) a. \([\text{CP is glatt g’long}\ [\text{CP daß-e g’sagt hom soi}\ [\text{CP daß da Peter bled is }]]]\)

b. \([\text{CP is glatt g’long}\ [\text{CP daß-e g’sagt hom soi}\ [\text{CP da Peter₁ daß t₁ bled is }]]]\)

c. \([\text{CP is glatt g’long}\ [\text{CP [CP da Peter₁ daß t₁ bled is]₂ daß-e g’sagt hom soi t₂}]]\]

d. \([\text{CP [CP da Peter₁ daß t₁ bled is]₂ daß-e g’sagt hom soi t₂}]]\) is glatt g’long t₃} \]
The derivation is driven by repeated checking of the feature \([\text{etop}]\), which is attributed to C in each cycle. Since \([\text{etop}]\) can only be interpreted at the root CP, the process of topicalization must carry on until the root is reached. The steps \((35a)\) through \((35c)\) cannot surface because the feature \([\text{etop}]\) cannot be interpreted yet; only \((35d)\) can.

In section 2 we have seen that emphatic topicalization is allowed in certain adjunct clauses. The example in \((36)\) shows that recursive pied-piping may also apply under the involvement of adjuncts of this type:

\[(36)\] An Fünfer daß-e kriagt hob wenn der Vater ned merkt
\[\begin{align*}
a five & \text{ that-I gotten have if the father not notices} \\
\text{bin-e f} & \text{roh} \\
\text{am-I happy}
\end{align*}\]

‘As for grade five, I am happy, if father does not notice that I've gotten one’

The recursivity observed in constructions like \((34)\) and \((36)\) strongly supports the analysis in terms of pied-piping of CP.

5.3.4 Free Ride

Example \((25)\) has demonstrated that the scope of \([\text{wh}]\) can be extended to the root CP, although – according to my proposal – the \(\text{wh-phrase}\) remains in the specifier of the embedded CP. The example is repeated here for convenience:

\[(25)\] [WER₁ [ daß [ t₁ sein Hund ned fiadat]]₂] hot-a g’moant t₂?

\[\begin{align*}
\text{who that his dog not feeds has-he meant} \\
\text{WHO did he think does not feed his dog?}
\end{align*}\]

The embedded CP is headed by \(\text{daß}\). Since this CP is selected by a verb which is incompatible with a \(\text{wh-complement}\), \(\text{daß}\) can be assumed to lack a \(\text{wh-feature}\). On the other hand it may contain the feature \([\text{etop}]\). If the \(\text{wh-phrase wer}\) is marked \([\text{wh, etop}]\), it will move to \(\text{SpecCP}_{\text{etop}}\) giving \([\text{wh}]\) a “free ride” (cf. Chomsky 1995). The embedded CP is now marked \([\text{wh, etop}]\) and will move on to the specifier of the root CP, where the feature \([\text{etop}]\) can be interpreted. Under the realistic assumption that the features \([\text{etop}]\) and \([\text{wh}]\) do not exclude each other, the root CP can in addition bear
the feature [wh]. Thus, if the head of the root CP is marked [wh], the relevant part of the raised CP’s representation can appear in reconstructed position in such a way that the wh-part of *wer* is stripped off, essentially leaving an indefinite. Thus, wh-scope has been obtained by pied-piping the embedded CP due to a feature that is entirely independent of the feature [wh]. We see a property of the system here which I think speaks favorably for the modular character of a grammar in which semantic effects may be achieved as a consequence of morphosyntactic necessity.

6. Parasitic Gaps

Let me finally consider parasitic gaps (PG) as briefly introduced above by example (10), which is repeated here:

(10) An Karl₁ wenn-e t₁ dawisch daschlog-e e₁  
    *the Karl*acc if -I get kill -I  
    ‘If I get hold of Karl, I'll kill him’

As Lutz (1997) notes, it is unclear how the PG e₁ can be licensed if its binder – the emphatically topicalized phrase – remains in SpecCP of the topicalized clause. This seems to challenge the analysis we have presented above. In the rest of this article, I want to sketch a solution that preserves the present analysis while removing the observed incompatibility.

Let me start with an observation from Bayer (1988) about the Bavarian PG-constructions which I take to be of central importance for an adequate account. As the minimal pair in (37) shows, the presence of the resumptive adverb *dann* (‘then’) destroys the licensing of the PG. (37a) is grammatical because of the presence of the clitic pronoun -n (which is the reduced form of German *ihn*). The PG-construction in (37b), in which we see a gap instead of the clitic pronoun, is, however, sharply ungrammatical:

(37) a. An Karl₁ wenn-e t₁ dawisch dann daschlog-e -n₁  
    *the Karl*acc if -I get then kill -I-him  
    ‘If I get hold of Karl, then I'll kill him’
b. *An Karl₁ wenn-e t₁ dawisch dann daschlog-e e₁

As I have argued in Bayer (1988), the primary licensing of the PG can therefore not be due to the topicalized phrase in the preposed CP, but must be connected to the position in which the element dann occurs. This leads us to the account suggested in Contreras (1984) and Chomsky (1986a), according to which the PG is bound by a null operator (OP), and there is a process of chain composition as indicated by the dotted line in (38):

$$\text{(38) } X₃ \ldots t₁ \ldots [\text{OP}_2 \ldots e₂ \ldots] \quad \text{where } 1 = 2$$

Applied to (37b), the argument would be that if the position for OP is occupied by dann, the PG (e₂) remains unbound.

The examples in (19) have shown that a quantified NP can be moved to SpecCP by emphatic topicalization. The failure of binding which was observed in (12) demonstrates that the QNP is not in a position “high enough” for c-commanding the pronoun which could be a potential variable. The examples are repeated here:

(19) a. Neamad₁ wenn t₁ kummt, no is-s aa ned recht

‘If nobody shows up at all, it isn’t ok either’

b. A jeder₁ daß t₁ so deppert is glaub -e ned

‘I don’t think that everybody is that stupid’

(12) a. *Kõa Mensch₁ wenn t₁ b’suffa is foit eam₁ wos

‘Nobody has good ideas when he is drunk’
b. *A jeder Mensch, wenn t1 niachdan is foit eam, was
g’scheids ei’
useful in
intended: ‘Everyone has good ideas when he is sober’

In spite of emphatic topicalization, the scope of the QNP is confined to the minimal clause from which it has been moved. This is exactly what the theory presented so far makes us expect. But consider now the following examples of PG-constructions with QNPs, which are taken from Lutz (1997):

(39) a. A jede Hund t1 wann t1 sei’ Fuada kriagt wedelt e1
mit’n Schwanz
a every dog when his food gets wags
with-the tail
‘Every dog, when it gets food, wags its tail’

b. Kõa Hund t1 wenn t1 g’schlong wead traut se e1
no dog when beaten becomes ventures REFL
no amoi zur Tür rei’
yet once to-the door in
‘No dog, if beaten, dares to enter the door once again’

As Lutz observes, the QNP now has scope over the matrix clause, a fact which at first sight seems to be in blatant conflict with our suggestion that the QNP is an emphatic topic which is in the specifier of the topicalized adjunct CP. This conflict has led Lutz to propose different phrase structures for the PG-construction and for what he calls the “focus construction” (cf. (13) above). These two constructions are shown in (40):
(40)  a. The focus construction according to Lutz (1997)

```
CP_1
   CP_2
   focus_3
   CP_2
   C_1'
   IP

   t_3
   V+I
```

b. The PG-construction according to Lutz (1997)

```
CP_1
   XP_3
   C'_1
   CP_2
   C_1
   C'_1
   IP

   (focus_3)
   OP_3
   e_3
   V+I
   t_3
```

For reasons I cannot discuss here, Lutz assumes that in the PG-construction the PG is in the adjunct clause, and the actual trace is in the matrix clause (see also note 6). He remains neutral as to the attachment of XP_3 and CP_2, which I represent here as part of a multiple specifier construction for merely expository reasons. It is important for Lutz to express the fact that the leftmost XP c-commands both the PG and the real gap. He manages to retain a connection with the construction in (40a) by postulating an empty operator (OP) in the position where normally the emphatically topicalized (in Lutz’
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The terminology “focus”) phrase is found. The adjunct CP must somehow be in the left periphery. Otherwise examples like those in (41) – which are modeled after (39) – would be expected to be grammatical not only with a pronoun (here with the clitic -a for ‘he’) but also with a gap (here e₁):

(41) a. A jeda Hund₁ wedelt – wann-{a₁ /*e₁} se Fuada kriagt –
   t₁ mit’n Schwanz
   with-the tail
   a every dog wags if it his food gets

b. Kõa Hund₁ traut se – wenn-{a₁ /*e₁} g’schlong wead –
   t₁ no amoi zur Tür re
   yet once to-the door in
   no dog ventures REFL when it beaten become

(41a,b) show that the adjunct clause can be used parenthetically, but never under the condition of PG-licensing. How would the left-peripherality of the adjunct clause in the PG-construction follow if the structure were as in (40b), i.e., if the adjunct were essentially a parenthetical? My suggestion is to keep the parenthetical constructions in (41) apart and account for the PG-construction by deviating as little as possible from the general analysis according to which the emphatically topicalized XP remains in the specifier of the adjunct CP.

In order to do this, I return to an analysis of the PG-construction that has been proposed by Huybregts & van Riemsdijk (1985). These authors suggest analyzing PG-constructions in terms of an Across the Board (ATB) rule application. ATB rule application has been intended for coordinate constructions.²⁷ An application to the PG-phenomenon requires two things: Firstly, the clauses from which simultaneous leftward movement takes place must conform to the parallelism that normally holds in coordinate constructions, and secondly, there must be independent evidence that the hypotactic construction resembles or can be reanalyzed as a paratactic construction.²⁸ Parallelism as observed in the Dutch and English cases Huybregts & van Riemsdijk had in mind is clearly given in the Bavarian cases too. The

²⁸ For the kind of reanalysis required here, Huybregts & van Riemsdijk (1985:10) have coined the term “insubordination”.
grammaticality difference between (37a) and (37b) shows that the PG has to be bound by a null operator. If it is bound by a null operator, the emphatically topicalized XP and its trace form a parallel chain. As to the second requirement, there is evidence that the conditional introduced by *wenn*, which forms the core of the Bavarian PG-constructions, shows signs of parataxis. If I was right about the core configuration of the Bavarian PG-construction in Bayer (1988), the topicalized conditional CP cannot occupy SpecCP but must be either adjoined to CP or merged into the specifier of another head. Given our overall account, let us assume that the latter is the case. SpecCP is then filled by the null operator OP, and there is a higher projection ZP which licenses the interpretability of the feature [etop].

\[
\begin{align*}
(42) & \quad \text{Spec} & \quad \text{ZP} & \quad \text{Z'} \\
\text{CP}_2 & \quad \text{C}_2' & \quad \text{Z} & \quad \text{CP}_1 \\
\text{XP}_3 & \quad \text{IP} & \quad \varnothing & \quad \text{Spec} & \quad \text{C}_1' \\
& \quad \text{wenn} & \quad \varnothing & \quad \text{OP}_4 & \quad \epsilon_4
\end{align*}
\]

where $3 = 4$

---

29 Consider the examples (i) through (iii) from Standard German, of which (iii) is taken from König & van der Auwera (1986). In (i), the conditional occupies SpecCP, while in (ii) and (iii) it precedes SpecCP:

(i) Wenn das mein Hund wäre, bekommen er keinen Zucker
If that were my dog, it would not get any sugar

(ii) Wenn das mein Hund wäre, dann bekommen er keinen Zucker

(iii) Wenn das mein Hund wäre, er bekommen keinen Zucker

In the terminology of König & van der Auwera (1986), (i) shows *integration* of the conditional by having it right in the *Vorfeld* of a V2-clause; (ii) shows *resumption* by *dann*, which arguably occupies the position which hosts the conditional CP in (i); (iii) shows *non-integration* by putting a topic in SpecCP instead of the resumptive *dann*. In this case, the conditional appears to be completely separated from the root.

30 For support of the idea that conditionals are topics, see Haiman (1978).
The chains (XP₃, t₃) and (OP₄, e₄) show the required parallelism, and the positioning of the two clauses CP₂ and CP₁ conforms to the phrase structure that is standardly assumed for coordinate constructions in antisymmetric syntax and its predecessors. My suggestion is that ATB applies to CP₂ and CP₁ in such a way that the head of the original chain, here XP₃, is adjoined to ZP, licensing the null operator, here OP₄. According to Lasnik & Stowell (1991), who adopt the Contreras/Chomsky chain composition analysis of PG, OP is not a quantifier but a name-like null operator, in their terminology a null-constant or a null R-expression. Assuming that by moving a non-referential phrase (QNP, wh-phrase), ATB identifies OP as the head of the parasitic chain, and (42) turns into the structure seen in (43):

It is important to notice here that the leftward adjunction of XP to ZP is not the result of emphatic topicalization but the result of ATB. We predict that it applies only in cases where two clauses are involved which exhibit the necessary parallelism. The deviance of examples like (12a,b) is expected because the required parallelism is lacking, and the ATB process cannot apply. In (12a,b) we find a pronoun instead of a gap, which would be bound by OP. Thus, since OP is lacking, the ATB process cannot apply, and the QNP of the conditional clause remains in SpecCP. As a consequence, the bound variable interpretation of the pronoun is unavailable.

31 Cf. Kayne (1994) and references given therein.
Bavarian quantified sentences provide independent evidence for the correctness of this analysis. As predicted by Lasnik & Stowell, movement of a QNP gives rise to crossover or weak crossover (WCO) effects, but movement of the null operator does not (or only gives rise to “weakest” CO). To see that this prediction is borne out, consider the pair of examples in (44):

\[(44) \text{a. } ?^* \text{An jedn Hund_1 wann sei\_1 Herr_1 t_1 ziagt [OP_1 packt e_1} \]
\[\text{a every dog_{acc} if his master pulls grabs d’Wuat]} \]
\[\text{the rage intended: ‘Every dog gets enraged, if its master pulls it’} \]
\[\text{b. An jedn Hund_1 wann-st t_1 ziagst [OP_1 druckt sei_1} \]
\[\text{an every dog_{acc} if -you pull presses his Hoisbandl e_1]} \]
\[\text{throat-band} \]
\[\text{‘Every dog is troubled by his collar if you pull it (=the dog)’} \]

Movement of the QNP to the specifier of wann in (44a) elicits a WCO violation. However, movement of OP to the specifier of the root clause in (44b) does not.

To summarize, we have shown that the dilemma that has been revealed by Lutz (1997) can be avoided by having an ATB-rule apply to the output of emphatic topicalization. To the extent that the ATB-approach to the PG-phenomenon is tenable in general, it seems to serve as the most parsimonious and straightforward extension of my analysis of emphatic topicalization as the phrase structure for emphatic topicalization can be monotonously expanded.
7. Summary

The empirical starting point of this article was a topicalization asymmetry (TA) which holds in Bavarian and similar Southern German dialects. The topicalization of this kind applies in a dependent clause, but is only possible if the embedded clause itself is topicalized to the left periphery of the root clause. My conjecture was that the observed topicalization is possible because Bavarian lacks the Doubly-Filled-COMP Filter (DFCF). Once the phenomenon is connected to the lack of the DFCF, however, there seem to be two major questions. One question is why there should be the TA (while there is no such asymmetry with respect to regular wh-movement); another is how this kind of topicalization can license parasitic gaps (PGs) if the moved element remains in the embedded clause and thus fails to c-command the PG. To approach the first question, I suggested that the topicalization involved is an emphatic topicalization, and should as such be characterized as a property of the illocutionary force of the utterance. Since illocutionary force is syntactically a root phenomenon and is – at least in the western languages – located in the left periphery of the root CP, it could be argued that emphatic topicalization is only semantically successful if it can access the root CP. We have argued at length that there is a formal feature [etop] which can be checked by a C-head but can only be interpreted if it is associated with the force system, which by definition is part of the root. The feature [etop] can access the root clause although it remains in the specifier of the embedded CP if CP moves to the specifier of the root clause, – essentially a case of pied-piping. To answer the second question, we suggested that in Bavarian PG-constructions the basic configuration of emphatic topicalization remains the same, the difference being that an Across-the-Board (ATB) rule applies to both CPs simultaneously. The viability of this approach is supported by the fact that SpecCP of the root clause (in which we located the PG) must be able to host a null operator by which the PG can be locally bound. Once SpecCP is occupied by the resumptive element dann, no PG can be licensed.

The conceptual advantage of the present approach is that hardly any tampering with the concept of the German Vorfeld was necessary, and virtually all the relevant differences between Standard German and Bavarian could be
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derived from a low-level parametric difference according to which the standard language obeys the DFCF while Bavarian does not.

References


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