

A Variation in Features on *Wh*-Phrases and C

Youngroung Kim
(Woosuk University)

Kim, Youngroung. 2005. A Variation in Features on *Wh*-Phrases and C. *The Linguistic Association of Korea Journal*, 13(1), 173-191. Languages differ as to where they place the *wh*-phrase in simple *wh*-questions. English obligatorily moves the *wh*-phrase to Spec, CP in overt syntax. It has been also known that other languages like Chinese differ radically in that they apparently never move the *wh*-phrase to Spec, CP in overt syntax. I will compare the variation of features on *wh*-phrases and C, revealed in English and Chinese, with the aim of identifying the parameter responsible for variation between their features. Based on the work of Huang (1982), Lasnik & Saito (1982), Cheng (1991), Chomsky (2000), Pesetsky (2000), as well as the work of Pesetsky & Torrego (2001), I am to find out whether there is a generalization in features on *wh*-phrases and C in English-type and Chinese-type languages. It is true that there have been dissensions concerning the EPP feature on C. By comparing the cross-linguistic properties on C, we can find a clue in shedding light on the real nature of the property.

Key words: features, *wh*-phrases, phases, Agree, EPP, *wh*-particle, Clause Typing Hypothesis

1. Introduction

It has been said that languages, including English and Chinese, vary in whether they exhibit overt *wh*-movement. The level of application of *wh*-movement is another instance of parametric variation. In English, *wh*-phrases can and often must be moved before Spell-out¹⁾; and in Chinese and Japanese there is *wh*-movement after Spell-out. Consider

the following sentences.

- (1) English
 What did Tom give to whom?
- (2) Chinese
 Tom gei shei shenme?
 Tom give whom what
 "Tom gave whom what?"
- (3) Japanese
 Tom-ga dare-ni nani-o ageta no?
 Tom whom what gave
 "Tom gave whom what?"

It seems that there is no overt movement of *wh*-phrases in Chinese and Japanese as seen in (2) and (3); and that one *wh*-phrase raises in English as seen in (1)²⁾.

The theory of LF states this variation in terms of where *wh*-movement takes place in grammar. However, it is true that deeper questions concerning this typology have not been fully addressed. For example, why is it that in Chinese, but not in English, *wh*-phrases move only in LF?³⁾ One possible answer to the question may be derived

1) In French *wh*-phrases may move before Spell-out or they may be left in situ:

- (i) Tu as dit quoi?
 you have said what
 'What did you say?'
- (ii) A qui as-tu donné l'argent?
 to whom have-you given the money
 'To whom have you given the money?' (Aoun et al., 1981)

2) Pesetsky (2000) claims that there are at least three kinds of operations: overt phrasal movement, covert phrasal movement, and feature movement. Phrasal movement is a movement where a whole phrase raises to a Spec position. Regarding the distinction between covert phrasal movement and feature movement, he claims that there is a way to distinguish between the two operations in English, saying the Antecedent-Contained Deletion does this job.

3) In this connection, we can also raise a question like, why is it that in

from Nishigauchi's (1990) and Li's (1992) studies of the various uses of *wh*-phrases. It is well known that *wh*-words in Chinese and Japanese, in addition to their uses as question words, may also be used as existential or universal quantifiers, though in English they are used as question words. With such facts in mind, this paper aims to find out a clue for the real features on *wh*-phrase and C through the comparison of different or common properties and features in English and Chinese. This is because, to reveal what are the real feature on *wh*-phrases and C in English and Chinese, we have to compare different and even common syntactic properties shown in the two languages.

2. *WH*-Phrases and C Features in English

2.1. Lasnik and Saito (1984)

It has been known that *wh*-phrases are also quantifiers and they are thus non-referential like ordinary quantificational NPs (QNP). In English-type languages, *wh*-phrases move to [Spec, CP] and in standard semantic treatments, *wh*-questions are represented in quantificational schemas⁴). Let us consider the following sentence.

- (4) Who_i did John see t_i?
 (5) (Which x: x a person) (did John see x)?

The logical form of (4) can be expressed as (5). *Wh*-movement not only provides for a quantificational schema suitable for interpretation, but also fulfills a selectional requirement in syntax. Consider the following:

- (6) a. What_i does John think Mary bought t_i?
 (6) b. *John thinks what_i Mary bought t_i

Polish but not in French, all *wh*-phrases have to be fronted in overt syntax?

4) In GB, *wh*-phrases used to be operators binding variables at LF, like other QNPs.

- (7) John thinks Mary bought what
 (8) a. *What_i does John wonder Mary bought t_i?
 (8) b. John wonders what_i Mary bought t_i
 (9) John wonders Mary bought what
 (10) a. What_i does John remember Mary bought t_i?
 (10) b. John remembers what_i Mary bought t_i
 (11) John remembers Mary bought what

We see that (11) may be mapped into a direct question or a statement containing an indirect question as seen in (10a) and (10b); that (7) must surface as a direct question; and that (9) must surface as a statement containing an indirect question as in (8b). The differences in grammaticality among (6), (8), and (10) are clearly to be attributed to the selectional properties of the matrix verbs: *think*-type verbs select declarative clauses, *wonder*-type verbs select an indirect question, and *remember*-type verbs select either, as their complements. These differences are not directly observable in (7), (9), and (11), since in each of these sentences the *wh*-phrases *what* is contained in the embedded clause, but the relevant generalization is captured after *wh*-phrase movement takes place by the requirement that each verb either requires, prohibits, or permits a question phrase in the Spec of its complement CP, i.e. *think*:+____[-wh], *wonder*:+____[+wh], and *remember*:+____[±wh]. In other words, *wh*-movement provides for a level of representation where the relevant selectional requirements may be stated.

It has been observed that in English, a subject *wh*-in-situ may fail to display locality effects. Consider English multiple questions:

- (12) Who remembers why who bought the books?
 (13) Who remembers whether who went to the movies?

These sentences are well-formed if the embedded subject is paired with the matrix subject, but not if it is paired with the embedded *wh*-phrase (cf. **Why did who buy the books?*, **What did who buy?*)⁵). English and Chinese do not differ in allowing subject long extraction at LF⁶). Let us

consider the following examples:

- (14) a. To whom did George give what?
 (14) b. Why did George see whom?

Both sentences in (14) contain two *wh*-phrases. It is not possible in English for two *wh*-phrases to be fronted in the same clause⁷⁾. In the examples in (14), the second *wh*-phrase remains in its base position, in situ. However, the unmoved *wh*-phrase is like any other *wh*-phrase: it lacks specific reference. It is desirable that all *wh*-phrases be treated as operators binding variables. In (14a), we are not merely questioning who was the receiver of the thing given, but we also question what is being given. The answer to a question like (14a) will treat the *wh*-phrases as a pair. One might expect answers like (15a) but not (15b) or (15c):

- (15) a. George gave the letter to Miss Marple and the
 postcard to William
 (15) b. *To Miss Marple
 (15) c. *The letter
 (16) [_{CP} what_i, to whom_j [_{IP} George gave x_i x_j]]

For the LF representation of the example in (14a), it is proposed that

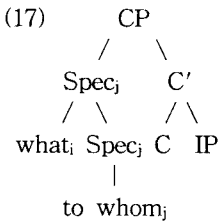
5) On the matrix paired-list reading, the embedded subject does not exhibit any ECP effect

6) The real difference seem to lie between overt movement where long extraction of the subject is excluded, and LF movement where it is not. Tiedeman (1990) suggests that the difference stems from the nature of proper government, which should be defined in linear terms at S-Structure, but in pure structural terms at LF. This has the effect that subjects are properly governed by I at LF but not at S-Structure, since I occurs to the right of subjects.

In the meantime, Huang (1993) proposed that the possibility of long subject extraction follows from the assumption that the LF-created trace in [Spec, IP] can be deleted freely in the presence of a trace in VP-internal subject position, in accordance with general consideration of economy of representation.

7) [Spec, CP] dominates only one position, and *wh*-adjunction to IP is argued to be excluded in English unlike in Polish (Hegeman, 1991: 449).

the *wh*-phrase which is in situ also moved to [Spec, CP] where it is associated for its interpretation with the phrase which had already been moved to [Spec, CP], by what is referred to as *wh*-absorption. The movement of a *wh*-element to adjoin to an already moved *wh*-element is often called *wh*-raising. Given that there is only one position in [Spec, CP] we assume that *what* is moved to an adjoined position, adopting a modified version of Lasnik and Saito's (1984) analysis:



Before Spell-out, *to whom_j* moves into [Spec, CP]. We assume that this element determines the index, *j*, of [Spec, CP]. The adjoined element *what* has no influence on the index of [Spec, CP]: *to whom_j* is the head of [Spec, CP].

2.2. Chomsky (2000)

It has been noted that an Irish English dialect spoken in Ulster allows quantifiers to be floated with *wh*-phrases. Quantifiers of *wh*-phrases can be left behind if the place is where the *wh*-phrases are positioned during derivations, as seen in the following example:

- (18) a. What_i all_j did he say (that) he wanted t_i t_j?
 - (18) b. What_i did he say (that) he wanted t_i all_j?
 - (18) c. What_i did he say all_j (that) he wanted t_i t_j?
- (McClosky 2000a: 61)

(18a) and (18b) show that the floated quantifier *all* can be put in the original position of *what* or in spec of the matrix CP where *what*

raises. These data show that (18c) shows that *all* can be left behind at the spec of the embedded CP, which suggests that *what* first moved to spec of the embedded CP. Thus, some languages explicitly exhibit successive-cyclic movement of *wh*-phrases.

Given the examples in (18) in terms of Chomsky's (2000) phase, *wh*-phrases cannot move to the designated CP at one fell swoop but must drop at intermediate CPs first, because CPs are phases. So unless *wh*-phrases somehow manage to reach the spec of the closest CP, they will not subsequently raise. This is because syntax cannot attract phrases out of completed *phases* except their heads and specs according to the Phase-Impenetrability Condition⁸). Therefore, when *wh*-phrases move across clauses, successive-cyclic movement is obligatory.

With regard to the question that what kind of feature attracts a *wh*-phrase from the clause of an intermediate movement, Chomsky (2000) claims that the EPP features do this job. In connection with successive-cyclic movement of *wh*-phrases, Chomsky says that complementizers optionally have the EPP features which demand that some phonetically overt phrases should appear at the Spec of the complementizers. That is why *wh*-phrases can move to Spec of C and can raise to the next higher phrase⁹).

2.3. Pesetsky & Torrego (2001)

Pesetsky & Torrego (2001) argue that the EPP is a sub-feature of the uninterpretable feature, saying that in *wh*-questions, C has interpretable Q and uninterpretable WH features, and that WH features are classified into two groups: one is *uWH*(+EPP) and the other is

8) Phase Impenetrability Condition

Any goal in the (c-command) domain of a phase head is impenetrable to a probe outside the phase. This can be paraphrased as follows: Feature matching reaches no further than the specifier of an embedded phase (Radford, 2004: 293).

9) According to David (2003), C has optionally defective. This can be interpreted as a mechanism to justify the successive-cyclic movement of *wh*-phrases.

$uWH(-EPP)$.

Pesetsky & Torrego (2001) assume that: Two items, *probe* and *goal*, are involved in a checking relationship. Uninterpretable features are removed through checking in the *probe-goal* relations¹⁰⁾. This operation is called *Agree*¹¹⁾. However, there is one condition for *Agree* to take place. Both a *probe* and a *goal* must have uninterpretable features. This is presumably because computation can only access uninterpretable features. Unless both a *probe* and a *goal* have uninterpretable features, computation cannot see or find them in the first place.

One important feature in Pesetsky & Torrego (2001) is that the EPP is a sub-feature of uninterpretable features. Thus, if an uninterpretable feature of *probe* has an EPP, phrasal movement of *goal* to Spec of *probe* must take place. If not, *Agree* takes place and a *goal* remains in situ. For example, in the case of *wh*-constructions, Pesetsky & Torrego assume that C has +Q and uWH and *wh*-phrases have +WH and uQ ¹²⁾. Accordingly, uWH of C is uninterpretable, specifying its value and deleting the entire feature by copying +WH of *wh*-phrases. The same holds in the case of uQ of *wh*-phrases. uWH of C in English has an EPP so that phrasal movement must happen, whereas languages whose uWH of C has no EPP so that *Agree* must take place. As a result, English is a *wh*-movement language. Pesetsky & Torrego (2001) attribute the distinction between overt and covert phrasal movement to language-specified phonological rules. Pesetsky (2000) claims that *wh*-phrases in Chinese go through covert phrasal movement rather than *Agree*, though Chinese is an in-situ language. In this sense, Chinese and English are in the same group because *wh*-phrases in both languages are moved in the form of a phrase¹³⁾. But according to the

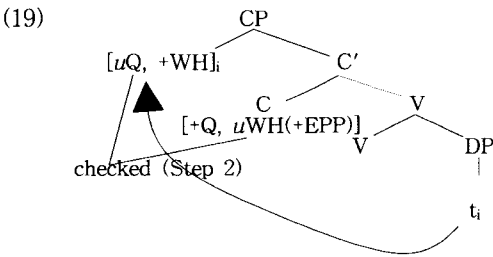
10) As long as these two are in the same phase, the checking is carried out even if they are not in a local relationship.

11) This is compared to "feature movement" in Pesetsky (2000). One notable thing about *Agree* is that it does not involve any movement and it is just copying (or matching, in Chomsky's terminology) from (values of) interpretable features to (unspecified values of) uninterpretable ones, which deletes uninterpretable features.

12) "*u*" denotes that the feature in question is uninterpretable.

language-specific phonological rules, Chinese requires its speakers to pronounce *wh*-phrases in in-situ positions whereas English demands that its speakers pronounce *wh*-phrases in positions where they are raised. This is how Pesetsky & Torrego distinguish overt and covert phrasal movements. That is, they argue that (i) the distinction between phrasal movement and *Agree* depends on whether uninterpretable features of *probe* have an EPP or not and (ii) the distinction between overt and covert movements is due to language-specific phonological rules.

Considering that removing uninterpretable features is the main task of syntax, there must be some kind of interaction between the C and the *wh*-phrase because they have complementary features with regard to Q and WH. One way is to raise the *wh*-phrase to the C overtly as in English and we have seen that the overt movement is caused by the EPP. Therefore, following Pesetsky & Torrego (2001), this relation in the English-type language can be expressed as follows:



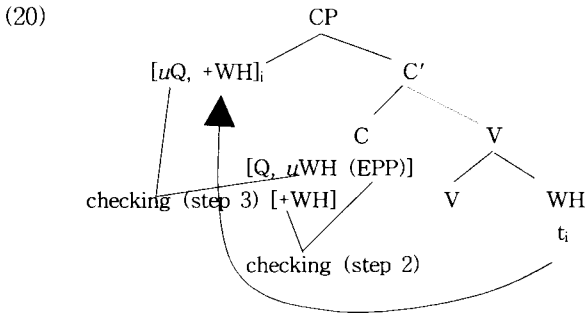
Due to the EPP of *uWH*, the *wh*-phrase must overtly raise to C as in step 2. *uQ* indicates that this uninterpretable Q feature is checked and becomes syntactically null. In fact, Pesetsky & Torrego (2001) claim that there are two kinds of EPP: +EPP and -EPP. They distinguish

13) Pesetsky (2000) argues that the five languages should be classified as follows:

- Group 1: Bulgarian, English, Chinese
- Group 2: German
- Group 3: Japanese

movement languages from in-situ languages with the two EPP. That is, if a language has +EPP, *wh*-movement takes place, but if it has -EPP, no movement takes place. However, in the present approach, we assume that there is no difference with regard to complementizers across languages and the difference arises because of *wh*-particles at C. That is, two kinds of EPP is not necessary.

The case of in-situ languages like Chinese is represented as follows:



In (20), the step 1 is the same as that of (19), which implies that the initial settings are the same in every language. In step 2, a *wh*-particle directly merges with C. Since Merge is preferred to Move, Merge of the *wh*-particle rather than the Move of the *wh*-phrase is adopted. I assume that *wh*-particles have some interpretable WH features which are not enough to function as *wh*-phrases but sufficient to check the EPP, so when a *wh*-particle merges with C, the EPP of *uWH*(EPP) in C is checked. Due to this, overt movement of the *wh*-phrase is now suppressed. In step 3, the *wh*-particle is omitted for the sake of exposition. Here the *wh*-phrase is moved covertly so that we cannot see or hear it. This is the case in in-situ languages like Chinese.

3. WH-Phrases and C Features in Chinese

As noted above, *wh*-words in Chinese may also be used as existential or universal quantifier, though in English they are used as question

words only. Thus depending on different contexts the phrase *shenme* in Chinese may have an interrogative, universal, or existential reading:

- (21) Ni xiang mai shenme (ne)?
 you want buy what Q
 "What do you want to buy?"
- (22) wo shenme dou mai
 I everything all buy
 "I will buy everything"
- (23) wo bu xiang mai shenme
 I not want buy anything
 "I don't want to buy anything"
- (24) ni xiang mai shenme ma?
 you want buy something Q
 "Would you like to buy something?"
- (25) ta dagai mai-le shenme le
 he probably buy-Perf something Part
 "He probably bought something"

A *wh*-word is interpreted as an existential quantifier in a negative or affective context (23-24), or minimally a context where the truth of a proposition is not positively asserted (25); as a universal quantifier in the context of the adverb *dou* "all"; and as a question word otherwise. The exact quantificational force of a *wh*-word is therefore not inherently fixed, but determined by its context¹⁴. One answer to why *wh*-phrase in Chinese must stay in situ may then be that they must be in the domain of some appropriate binder before Spell-out in order to be interpreted as interrogative phrases. If they were moved to [Spec, CP] before Spell-out outside of the domain of an unselective binder, they would be left uninterpreted. One way to execute this idea is to invoke a rule that assigns a *wh*-phrase the features of a universal, existential, or

14) This reminds one of a similar property of indefinite NPs, as treated in Lewis (1975) and Heim (1982), whose quantificational force seems to vary depending on the type of adverbs of quantification that "unselectively" bind them.

interrogative quantifier under an appropriate binder. Once the appropriate features are assigned, the *wh*-phrases may then be subjected to the appropriate LF-movement process like QR or *wh*-movement.

Cheng (1991) observes that the lack of syntactic *wh*-movement in a given language generally correlates with the availability of question particles in that language. For example, in Mandarin Chinese yes/no questions require the final particle *ma*, and direct *wh*-questions and disjunctive questions may optionally take the particle *ne*.

English, on the other hand, does not have question particles, and *wh*-movement is obligatory in this language. Cheng (1991:30) proposes a theory of Clausal Typing¹⁵⁾ to account for this correlation.

Cheng's (1991) Clause Typing Hypothesis can be reinterpreted as the instruction on how to check the EPP features. In other words, the EPP of C can be checked either by merging a *wh*-particle with C or moving a *wh*-phrase to spec of C. Therefore, it is natural that she follows her observation: "In-situ languages have (overt or covert) *wh*-particles. Languages with *wh*-particles are in-situ languages" (Cheng 1991: 24).

According to her theory, all interrogative clauses must be typed as such by some marking within the CP constituent, and languages may type a clause as a *wh*-question by base-generating a question particle under CP, or by moving a *wh*-phrase into its Spec. Question particles in Chinese thus not only unselectively bind *wh*-words and give them their interrogative force, but also serve to type clauses as interrogatives. The lack of syntactic *wh*-movement in Chinese type languages then comes from the existence of question particles in them, and from the principle of economy of derivation. Economy considerations also prohibit English-type languages (or any language) from overtly moving more than one *wh*-phrase into [Spec, CP]. Movement of the second *wh*-phrase, like that of all *wh*-phrases in Chinese, must be delayed until LF, where it is motivated by other considerations like scope and the

(14) Clause Typing Hypothesis

Every clause needs to be typed. In the case of typing a *wh*-question, either a *wh*-particle in C^0 is used or else fronting of a *wh*-word to the spec of C^0 is used thereby typing a clause through C^0 by Spec-head agreement.

wh-Criterion. As Cheng (1991) shows, her proposal has significant implications for the analysis of other languages, some of which she discusses in detail, including those with apparent cases of optional movement and multiple fronting, and it has other theoretical consequences yet to be fully addressed.

4. Findings

Through the basic syntactic differences of the two languages, we can more clearly elucidate the features on *wh*-phrases and C, revealing the syntactic and inherent different properties in English and Chinese. With regard to the variant properties of the features on *wh*-phrases and C, shown in English and Chinese, can be expressed as follows:

As for the use of *wh*-words, *wh*-words in Chinese, in addition to their uses as question words, may also be used as existential or universal quantifiers, though in English they are used as question words. We should make clear whether the exact quantificational force of a *wh*-word is inherently fixed or determined by a context. This implies that when we make an approach to the features on *wh*-phrases and C, it is imperative for us to take into consideration their syntactic uses different in English and Chinese.

The examples in (6-11) show that the differences in grammaticality are attributed to the selectional properties of matrix verbs. The selection restrictions imply that there should be relations between matrix verbs and the features on *wh*-phrases and C both in English and Chinese. In addition, there are also relations among embedded subjects, matrix subjects, and embedded *wh*-phrases. This also leads to the interactions of the features on *wh*-phrases and C.

Subject extraction, both in English and Chinese, does not differ in allowing subject long extraction at LF. There have been different views of this extraction. Huang (1993) claimed that long subject extraction follows from the fact that the LF-created trace in [Spec, IP] can be deleted freely in the presence of a trace in VP-internal subject position,

in accordance with general consideration of economy of representation. It has been noted that the real difference seem to lie between overt movement and LF movement. Tiedeman (1990) suggests that the difference stems from the nature of proper government, which should be defined in linear terms before Spell-out, but in pure structural terms at LF.

Given the LF representation of a sentence containing two *wh*-phrases like (14a), we see that, following Lasnik & Saito (1984), the *wh*-phrase which is in situ also moved to [Spec, CP] where it is associated for its interpretation with the phrase which had already been moved to [Spec, CP]. This argument is supported by the fact that the answer to the question like (14a) should be (15a), not (15b, c). However, there arises a problem: What kind of feature attracts a *wh*-phrase from the clause of an intermediate movement. Chomsky (2000) claims that it is done by the EPP features. Chomsky has extended this analysis to cover the successive-cyclic movement of *wh*-phrases, by introducing an ambiguous mechanism that the embedded C optionally defective. Complementizers optionally have the EPP features which demand that some phonetically overt phrases should appear at the spec of the complementizers. That is why *wh*-phrases can move to spec of C and can raise to the next higher phrase.

Pesetsky & Torrego (2001) claim that the EPP is a sub-feature of uninterpretable features. Thus, if an uninterpretable feature of *probe* has an EPP, phrasal movement of *goal* to spec of *probe* must take place. If not, *Agree* takes place and a *goal* remains in situ. Pesetsky (2000) claims that *wh*-phrases in Chinese go through covert phrasal movement rather than *Agree* though Chinese is an in-situ language. In this sense, Chinese and English are in the same group because *wh*-phrases in both languages are moved in the form of a phrase

Concerning the lack of syntactic *wh*-movement, Cheng (1991) observes that the lack of syntactic *wh*-movement in a given language generally correlates with the availability of question particles in that language. In Mandarin Chinese yes/no questions require the final particle *ma*, and direct *wh*-questions and disjunctive questions may optionally take the

particle *ne*. English, on the other hand, does not have question particles, and *wh*-movement is obligatory in this language. In this connection, Cheng (1991:30) proposes a theory of Clausal Typing. We see that the Clause Typing Hypothesis can be reinterpreted as the instruction on how to check the EPP features. In other words, the EPP of C can be checked either by merging a *wh*-particle with C or moving a *wh*-phrase to spec of C. Therefore, it is natural that the follow her observation: "In-situ languages have overt or covert *wh*-particles."

5. Conclusion

We have examined how the distinction between overt and covert movement arises and attributed the distinction to the existence of *wh*-particles at C, which is originally proposed by Cheng (1991). In particular, the existence of *wh*-particles check the EPP so that overt movement of *wh*-phrases is suppressed.

EPP is a part of uninterpretable feature. Both *probes* and *goals* must have interpretable and uninterpretable features in order to initiate *Move*. We have assumed that C has +Q and *uWH* (EPP) whereas *wh*-phrases have *uQ* and +WH. That is, *uWH*(EPP) of C is not enough to cause *Move*. The C must have an interpretable feature to be paired with an uninterpretable one of *wh*-phrase.

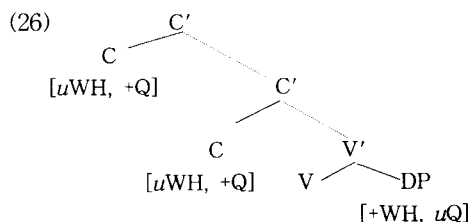
Following Chomsky (2000) and Pesetsky & Torrego (2001), it is possible to account for why some languages require overt movement of *wh*-phrases and others require a covert movement. The EPP features on C, which normally cause overt movement of *wh*-phrases can be checked if some additional elements are merged with the C and check the EPP features.

As the EPP can be checked either with *Move* or *Merge*, we are able to claim that the classification of languages into the movement and the in-situ groups is the existence of *wh*-particles on C. That is, if a language has a *wh*-particle and the particle merges with C, then overt movement of *wh*-phrases can be prohibited, because the EPP of C is checked with *Merge* of a *wh*-particle. This is the case with in-situ

languages like Chinese. On the other hand, if a language has no *wh*-particle, overt movement of *wh*-phrases must take place, because the EPP of C is checked with Move of *wh*-phrases and no other option is available. This is the case with movement languages like English.

It is revealed that Pesetsky & Torrego basically (2001) follow Pesetsky (2000) in assuming that a few kinds of complementizers are necessary and the analysis of in-situ *wh*-phrases differs from language to language. Feature movement in Pesetsky (2000) corresponds to Agree in Pesetsky & Torrego (2001). Thus, in-situ *wh*-phrases adopt Agree in English and Chinese. According to Hisashi (2002), new problems arise when we assume Pesetsky & Torrego (2001).

First, there is a problem with their analysis of long-distance movement of *wh*-phrases. As in English, in the case of *wh*-movement languages, the connection between C and *wh*-phrases is made with successive-cyclic movement of *wh*-phrases. If *wh*-phrases move covertly, we expect them to do the same as English, to induce successive-cyclic movement. Thus, there is no problem in this case. This is illustrated as follows:



Assume (26) is a structure for long-distance questions in in-situ languages. Then, Agree between the embedded C and the in-situ *wh*-phrase is supposed to take place first. Then, *uWH* of the embedded C and *uQ* of the *wh*-phrases are checked and deleted. A problem is then what can check *uWH* of the matrix C. *+WH* of the *wh*-phrase is well beyond the reach because the embedded clause is a phase. To deal with this problem, Pesetsky & Torrego claim that *uWH* of the embedded C remains even after being checked. More seriously, *uQ* of

the *wh*-phrase in (26) can never enter a checking relation with +Q of the matrix C.

I claim that the movement of *wh*-phrases in sentences containing two *wh*-phrases can be accounted for by accepting Lasnik and Saito's (1984) analysis, which is referred to as *wh*-absorption. This analysis addresses the problems arising in *wh*-phrase movement in English and Chinese.

With regard to futures on C, when we accept Chomsky's (2000) proposal on the EPP, this can give us a generalization in features on *wh*-phrases and C both in English-type and Chinese-type languages. This means that, when we find a proper device for feature checking on *wh*-phrases and C, we do not have to resort to Pesetsky & Torrego (2001) and Cheng's (1991) Clause Typing Hypothesis saying that Chinese requires question particles and English does not have question particles. I claim that the Clause Typing Hypothesis can be reinterpreted as a device to check the EPP features. Thus, when we accept Lasnik and Saito's (1984) *wh*-absorption and Chomsky's (2000) EPP, we can find a generalization in accounting for the features on *wh*-phrases and C in English and Chinese.

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Youngroun Kim
Dept. of English, Woosuk University
Samrye-Up, Wanju-Gun, Chonbuk, 565-701
T: +82-63-290-1336
E-mail: youngkim@woosuk.ac.kr

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