The syntactic category of deadjectival nouns in German: Evidence from relative clause formation

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1. Introduction

- German: Two strategies to derive (abstract) nouns from adjectives:
  
  (1) derivational suffixes (e.g. -heit/-keit/-tum);
  
  (2) conversion

- Only (2) is productive in present-day German (cf. lexical gaps like *Gutheit ‘good+HEIT’, *Hochheit ‘high+HEIT’, *Gekauftheit ‘buy++HEIT’ *Besserkeit ‘better+KEIT’ etc.). (2) can apply to adjectives (including participles) and their comparative/superlative forms:

  (3) a. gut ‘good’ → das Gute ‘the good’, besser ‘better’ → das Bessere ‘the better’,
      best- ‘best’ → das Beste ‘the best’
  
  b. sehend ‘seeing’ → der Sehende ‘the one who sees’, erlebt ‘experienced’ → das Erlebte
     ‘what has been experienced’, gekauft ‘bought’ → das Gekaufte ‘what has been bought’

- The forms in (3) typically refer to (instantiations) of properties, or to persons/things that are characterized by a certain property.

- The products of (2) exhibit a set of special properties that raise questions concerning their categorial status and internal syntactic structure (cf. Kester 1996a,b, Sleeman 2013, McNally & Swart 2015 on Dutch; Alexiadou 2011, 2015 on Spanish/Greek/English).

Nominal properties

- syntactic distribution typical of nouns
- presence of determiners/determiner-like elements, cf. (4)
- adjectival modification, similar to nouns, cf. (5)

(4) a. das/viele/alles Gute
    the/much/all good (weak inflection)
  
  b. ein/viel/nichts Gutes
    a/much/nothing good (strong inflection)

(5) a. das vermeintliche/einzige/vollständige Neue
    the alleged/only/complete new (one)
  
  b. das vermeintliche/einzige/vollständige Opfer
    the alleged/only/complete victim/sacrifice
\textit{Adjectival properties}

- alternation between strong and weak inflection, cf. (4)
- possibility of adverbial modification, cf. (6)
- retention of case-assigning properties (complements carry dative/accusative case instead of genitive), cf. (7)
- presence of prenominal anaphors, cf. (8) vs. (9)

(6) a. das sehr/vermeintlich/einzig/vollständig Neue the very/allegedly/only/completely new (one)
   b. *das sehr/vermeintlich/einzig/vollständig Opfer the very/alleged/only-complete victim/sacrifice

(7) die dem König Treuen the.PL the.DAT king faithful.PL

(8) die einander Liebenden the each other loving ones

(9) a. *die einander Fans/Brüder the each other fans/brothers
    b. die Fans/Brüder von einander the fans/brothers of each other

- Kester (1996a,b), Panagiotidis (2002), McNally & Swart (2015): Special ‘mixed’ properties can be accounted for if a silent nominal element is assumed. Under this analysis, the adjective does not undergo a category change, but retains its role as an attributive element:

(10) \([\text{das Gute N}_\varnothing]\)

- Sleeman (2013), Alexiadou (2011, 2015): Relevant deadjectival nouns represent genuine nominalizations; ‘mixed’ properties follow from the presence of both nominal and adjectival functional structure in the internal make-up of these forms (giving rise to the impression of different degrees of ‘nouniness’ at the surface).
- Some arguments against the presence of a silent noun (see also Sleeman 2013 and Alexiadou 2015 on Dutch and English, respectively):
- Especially for mass readings, it is often difficult to think of a (lexical) noun that can plausibly fill the position after the adjectival element:

(11) Gutes hat die Sache nicht bewirkt.
    good has the affair not caused
    ‘The affair has not caused anything good.’
• This is particularly clear in combination with certain determiners/quantifiers such as *nichts where the addition of a lexical noun seems to lead to ungrammaticality:

(12) *nichts gutes Wasser/Obst/Gold/Zeug
    nothing good water/fruit/gold/stuff

• In contrast to lexical nouns, gender is not merely a grammatical category, but has a semantic effect: neuter forms refer to abstract, non-animate entities, while masc./fem. forms refer to persons:\(^1\)

(13) das Schöne vs. der/die Schöne
    the.NEUT beautiful the.MASC/the.FEM beautiful (= a beautiful person)

• This talk:
  ❖ Relativization facts possibly provide a window into the categorial properties of deadjectival nouns (further support for an account in terms of nominalization).
  ❖ Alternation between d- and wh-relative clauses in German (neuter singular) reflects categorial properties of the antecedent (Brandt & Fuß 2014): was is used as a default relativizer that signals the absence of an appropriate lexical nominal antecedent.
  ❖ Nominalized positives and superlatives do not behave similarly (only the latter strongly favor relativization by means of was).
  ❖ The alternation between d- and wh-relativizers provides evidence for a more fine-grained subclassification of deadjectival nouns.

• Structure of the talk:
  ❖ Section 2 argues that the choice between *das and was is governed by categorial properties of the head of the relative clause (N\text{[neuter singular]} \rightarrow *das)
  ❖ Section 3 presents findings of a corpus study on the use of *das vs. was in relative clauses modifying deadjectival nouns.
  ❖ Section 4 develops a theoretical account that attributes variation between *das and was to structural differences in the internal make-up of different deadjectival forms.
  ❖ Section 5 wraps up and provides a concluding summary.
  ❖ Section 6 discusses a set of related phenomena and remaining open questions.

\(^1\) Furthermore, note that in earlier stages of German, deadjectival nouns of the type discussed here were derived by overt derivational morphology (cf. Paul 1919: 106).
2. das vs. was in relative clauses

- In German, relative clauses that modify a nominal element are typically introduced by a so-called d-pronoun that inflects for case (assigned in the relative clause) and agrees in gender and number with the head of the relative clause (cf. e.g. Duden 2009: 302):²

(14) a. der Mann, der schlält
   the man that.MASC.NOM sleeps
b. der Mann, den Peter getroffen hat
   the man that.MASC.ACC Peter met has
c. der Mann, dem Peter vertraut
   the man that.MASC.DAT Peter trusts
d. die Frau, die Peter getroffen hat
   the woman that.FEM.ACC Peter met has
e. das Auto, das Peter fährt
   the car that.NEUT.ACC Peter drives
f. die Männer/Frauen/Autos, die Peter gesehen hat
   the men/women/cars that.PL Peter seen has

- With a certain set of neuter antecedents, the d-pronoun is replaced by the wh-pronoun was (cf. e.g. Duden 2009:1031f.; see Citko 2004 and Broekhuis & Keizer 2012 for related phenomena in Polish and Dutch, respectively):

(15) a. **indefinites/quantifiers:** alles ‘everything’, eines ‘one thing’, vieles ‘many things’, etwas ‘something’, ...
b. **demonstratives:** das ‘that’, dasjenige ‘that thing’, dem ‘that.DAT’, ...
c. **deadjectival nouns:** das Gute ‘the good (thing)’, das Beste ‘the best’ etc.

(16) a. **Alles, was** die Zuschauer dort sehen, ist Lug und Trug.
   ‘Everything that the spectators see there is lies and deception.’
   (NON13/JAN.07012 Niederösterreichische Nachrichten, 17.01.2013, NÖN Großformat, Ressort: Meinungen; PRO & KONTRA)
b. **Das, was** wir machen, ist **das, was** uns gefällt.
   ‘What we do is what we like.’
   (BRZ07/JUN.06447 Braunschweiger Zeitung, 04.06.2007; &#8222;Das, was wir machen, ist das, was uns gefällt&#8223;)
c. **Das Beste, was** Microsoft heute tun kann, ist, Yahoo zu kaufen.
   ‘The best that Microsoft can do today is to buy Yahoo.’
   (HAZ08/NOV.01608 Hannoversche Allgemeine, 08.11.2008, S. 15; Microsoft lässt Yahoo abblitzen)

² An alternative albeit less frequent and stylistically marked option consists in using inflected forms of the wh-pronoun welche ‘which’ to introduce relative clauses. Welch- has a similar distribution as d-forms and is typically confined to the written language.
• The use of *was* in relative clauses is an MHG/ENHG innovation (cf. Paul 1920: 206ff.).
• In some Low German dialects, it has completely ousted *das*; in a subset of these dialects, it seems to have turned into a relative complementizer similar to English *that* (Weise 1917, Fleischer 2005):

(17) a. *dat Peerd, wat ik köfft heb*  
    the *horse. NEUT what I bought have* (Wiesen hann 1936: 27)

b. *da màn, wât dâr we:r*  
    dhe *man. MASC what there was* (Pirk 1928: 26-27)

c. *Alle Mannslüd wat dor sind ...*  
    all men what there are (Bock 1933: 104)

• Related developments can be observed in oral/colloquial Standard German varieties, where *was* is used instead of *das* with all kinds of neuter antecedents:

(18) Dann braucht mir Mama bald keine Bücher mehr vorzulesen  
    *then needs me mum soon no books anymore read-out*  
    – dann kann ich selbst lesen.  
    *then can I on my own read*

Zum Beispiel *das Buch, was* Mama mir geschenkt hat.  
    *for example, the book what mum given has*  
    ‘for example, the book that mum gave me as a present’

(RHZ98/AUG.12146 Rhein-Zeitung, 25.08.1998; HEUTE: SCHULANFANG)

2.1 Earlier proposals
• Paul (1920), Curme (1922), Behaghel (1928): early attempts to provide a principled description of the circumstances that determine pronoun choice in relative clauses.

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*was* is triggered by semantic properties of the head noun such as indefiniteness or genericity, in particular where reference is to matter with mass-like properties (Paul 1920, and in particular Curme 1922).

“*[was is employed] If the antecedent is a word of general or indefinite meaning, or expresses a collective idea, such as *das, einiges, eins, das einzige, etwas* (or *was*), *solches, ein anderes, nichts, mehreres, manches, viel(es), allerhand, allerlei, das bißchen, wenig, genug*, an ordinal, as *das Erste, das Zweite*, with especial frequency *alles*, also a neuter abstract noun or adjective-substantive (das Schöne the beautiful, &c., especially a superlative, *das Beste that which is best*), also a neuter noun denoting a material or a collective idea, provided the reference is to an indefinite mass or amount: [...]” (Curme 1922:198)
a. Er verzweifelt überhaupt an allem Heil, was der Menschheit he despairs generally of all salvation what the mankind durch die Gesellschaft zuteil werden kann. through the society bestowed be can
‘He despairs of all salvation that the society can bestow on mankind.’
(Albert Geiger in Die Nation, 10th March, 1900; Curme 1922: 198)

b. Um ihn her war alles Getier lebendig, was auf der Heide die around him about was all creatures alive what on the heath the Junischwüle auszubrüten pflegt.
June-stuffiness to-breed uses
‘Around him, all creatures, that the stuffiness of June uses to breed on the heath, were alive.’
(Theodor Storm, Ein grünes Blatt; Curme 1922: 199)

was is used when the relative clause lacks a proper nominal antecedent (Behaghel 1928).

“Die Relativsätze, denen im Hauptsatz kein stützendes Glied entspricht oder deren stützendes Glied durch eine nicht individuelle Größe³ gebildet wird, werden im allgemeinen durch was eingeleitet, nachdem einmal dieses als Relativ aufgetreten ist. Zu den nicht individuellen Größen gehören es, das, dasjenige, dasselbe, dieses, solches, sowie die indefiniten Pronomina, ferner die substantivierten Adjektiva: […]”
(Behaghel 1928:725f.)

‘Those relative clauses that lack a corresponding supporting member in the main clause or those the supporting member of which is not instantiated by an individual measurement, are usually introduced by was, once this element has become available as relativizer. Among the non-individual measurements are es ‘it’, das ‘that’, dasjenige ‘that thing’, dasselbe ‘the same’, dieses ‘this’, solches ‘such’, as well as the indefinite pronouns, and also nominalized adjectives […]’

2.2 Lexical nouns trigger das

  i. Impact of semantic properties of the head noun (as suggested by Curme 1922): mass vs. count nouns
  ii. Impact of the absence/presence of a lexical head noun with the properties [neuter, singular] (Behaghel 1928)

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³ Behaghel’s notion of individuelle Größe ‘individual measurement’ seems to correspond to an individuatable lexical noun with descriptive semantic content.
2.2.1 Mass nouns

- Search for 12 neuter gender mass nouns\(^4\) without determiner (to exclude effects of individuation):

\[(20) \text{ Water/Geld/... , das/was...} \]

\[\text{water/money that/what...}\]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>das</th>
<th>was</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Geld, Wasser etc.</td>
<td>5.297</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(99.3%)</td>
<td>(0.7%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Distribution of das vs. was after mass nouns (DeReKo, Archiv W-Gesamt, 1.5.2015)

The distinction between mass and count nouns does not seem to be relevant for the choice between das and was.

2.2.2 Presence vs. absence of a lexical head noun

- Frequency of das/was in combination with selected elements that require relativization by means of was (determiner/demonstrative: das ‘the, that’; indefinites/quantifiers: alles ‘all, everything’, vieles ‘many, much’, nichts ‘nothing’; deadjectival noun: das einzige ‘the only thing’):

![Bar chart showing the distribution of das and was with different elements.]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>was</th>
<th>das</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>das + N</td>
<td>4.432</td>
<td>8.621</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alles</td>
<td>9.190</td>
<td>3.082</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alles + N</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vieles</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>4.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nichts +N</td>
<td>290</td>
<td>1.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nichts</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>2.650</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>das einzige</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>204.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>das einzige +N</td>
<td>305</td>
<td>305.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1: Impact of the presence/absence of N with elements that require the relativizer was (DeReKo, Connexor-Teilarchiv, June 2014)\(^5,6\)

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\(^5\) The rare examples of the type nichts+N all involve deadjectival nouns (nichts Gutes/Schönes ‘nothing good/beautiful’ etc.), which allow relativization by means of was (see below for details).

\(^6\) It seems that in German, the distinction between restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses does not influence the choice between das and was (in contrast to Dutch, cf. Broekhuis & Keizer 2012).
2.2.3 Noun ellipsis

- **Apparent problem:** Certain indefinites/quantifiers (*jedes* ‘each’, *eines* ‘one thing’ *keines* ‘none’) always trigger *das*, independent of the absence/presence of a lexical noun:

  ![Figure 2: D-elements that always trigger *das*](image-url)

  - **Observation:** In all instances of *jedes/eines/keines, das* found in the corpus, the lexical restriction of the quantifier corresponds to an element previously mentioned in the immediate discourse context (see also Duden 2009: 1032; Citko 2004 on Polish):

  (22) Ein richtiges Fußballspiel. **Keines, das** ich nur im Fernsehen anschauen kann, sondern eines auf Rasen, eines, bei dem ich am Rand stehen und mitfeiern kann. (BRZ10/MAR.05983 Braunschweiger Zeitung, 12.03.2010;)

  - **Assumption:** *jedes/keines/eines* require the presence of a silent lexical noun, the identity of which can be reconstructed from the discourse context (an instance of noun ellipsis):^7

Note that the form of the quantifier in (22) deviates from the form which appears with an overt noun (*‘keines Fußballspiel vs. kein Fußballspiel’ no football match*). However, this does not militate against an analysis in terms of ellipsis, since similar effects are observed in connection with split noun phrases:

(i) Geld habe ich [keines/kein __] mehr.

money have I none anymore
The ‘exceptional’ behavior of certain indefinites/quantifiers (jedes/eines/keines) can be attributed to the presence of an elided lexical noun ⇒ relativization by means of das

- ‘Exceptional’ occurrences of the sequence …das, das point to the same conclusion, namely, that use of das forces interpretation in terms of an elided N:

(24) Didi Senft kommt daher wie das Duracell-Häschen aus der Werbung. Didi Senft comes around like the Duracell bunny from the commercials

Das Duracell-Häschen, das am längsten trommelt.
that Duracell bunny that the longest drums
(T06/JUN.04743 die tageszeitung, 26.06.2006, S. 5; Didi, der Teufel)

- In contrast, no reconstructable noun is present in the case of das, was... . Instead, the syntactic-semantic role of N appears to be filled directly by the relative clause.

(25) Das, was möglicherweise auf Berlin zukommt, ist im Land Bremen that what possibly for Berlin is.in.store is in-the country Bremen seit Jahren Realität.

for years reality
(B01/JUN.43830 Berliner Zeitung, 01.06.2001; Firmenberater sanieren den "Konzern Bremen" [S. 21])

2.3 Analysis: was as a default relativizer (Brandt & Fuß 2014)

- Basic proposal: The choice between d- and wh-morphology is determined in the course of the syntactic derivation, depending on whether the relativizer enters into an agreement relation with a lexical head noun (see also Boef 2012 on Dutch, Wiese 2013 on German).

- Core assumptions:
  (i) (Inherent) gender is the defining characteristic of lexical nouns,8
  (ii) The more specified exponent das is used in cases where the relativizer picks up a gender feature via agreement with a lexical nominal antecedent.
  (iii) Elsewhere, was is inserted.

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8 Note that the present proposal differs from the approach taken by Brandt & Fuß (2014), who follow Baker (2003) and assume that the defining characteristic of lexical nouns consists in the presence of a criterion of identity (a so-called referential index) that sets them apart from other lexical categories:

“The idea in a nutshell is that only common nouns have a component of meaning that makes it legitimate to ask whether some X is the same (whatever) as Y. This lexical semantic property is the precondition that makes nouns particularly suited to the job of referring.” (Baker 2003: 95f.)

Brandt & Fuß further assume, again following Baker (2003: 137), that relative pronouns contain a slot for a referential index that provides a criterion of identity and is identified with the referential index of the head noun of the RC (under agreement). Under the present proposal, identity between the relative head and the RP is achieved via syntactic agreement in gender features.
2.3.1 Syntax

- An attributive RC is merged as the sister of the head element (Chomsky 1965, and more recently Platzack 2000).
- In RCs, (gender/number) agreement between the head noun and the relative pronoun (RP) is established in the syntax by an Agree relation:

  (26) \[ \text{head} \quad [c' \quad \text{RP}; \quad [c' \quad \text{C} \quad [\text{TP} \quad \ldots \quad t \quad \ldots]]] \quad \uparrow \text{AGREE} \]

2.3.2 The feature content of RP and the exponents related to das vs. was

- Standard assumptions: RP contains a category feature, an operator feature \([\text{op}]\) and a set of phi-features (person, number, gender, case).
- Accordingly, the feature content of RP can be characterized as in (27) (features that await valuation in the course of the syntactic derivation are marked as ‘uF’):

  (27) \[ \text{RP} \quad [D, \quad \text{Op}, \quad \text{Person}, \quad \text{Number}, \quad \text{uCase}, \quad \text{uGender}] \]

- The gender feature is determined via agreement with the head noun. Case is assigned and valued internal to the RC.
- Focusing on the das/was alternation, there are two possible outcomes of the syntactic derivation, dependent on whether the RP acquires a gender feature from a lexical noun:

  

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9 See Zeijlstra (2012, 2013) for the idea that agreement involves a relation between a probe and a higher, c-commanding goal. Cf. Heck & Cuartero (2011) for an alternative mechanism based on downward agree that accomplishes agreement between head noun and relative pronoun-relative clause; see also Sternehfeld (2008). Additional questions concern e.g. the nature of the feature that renders N active as a goal for upward Agree. One likely candidate is the case feature of N which is still unvalued at the point where the RC is merged with N (see Heck & Cuartero 2011 for related considerations). Downward agreement between the relative operator can also be assumed if a matching analysis of relatives clauses is adopted, in which the relativizer contains an NP which is deleted under identity with the head of the relative clause (Chomsky 1965, Sauerland 1998, 2003).

10 [person] might be left unspecified if it is assumed that third person expresses the absence of positively specified person features (cf. e.g. Benveniste 1950, 1966). Number seems to play a special role: On the one hand, the finite verb of the RC agrees in number with the RP, which suggest that the RP is inherently specified for number. On the other hand, the RP agrees in gender and number with the head noun, which suggests that number must be checked by the relevant agreement operation. So it seems that agreement does not only involve feature valuation, but also matching of two already valued features.

11 The feature structures in (28) assume decomposition of the phi-features, person, number, gender, and case, making use of a binary system of more abstract features (basically following Bierwisch 1967; cf. Blevins 1995 and Wiese 1999 for slightly revised systems), including \([\pm 1, \pm 2]\) for person (where 3rd person corresponds to the absence of person specifications), \([\pm \text{plural}]\) for number, \([\pm \text{masculine, \pm feminine}]\) for gender, and the following system of case distinctions based on the features \([\pm \text{oblique, \pm object}]\):

(i) a. nominative: \([-\text{obl}, -\text{obj}]\)
b. accusative: \([-\text{obl}, +\text{obj}]\)
c. dative: \([+\text{obl}, +\text{obj}]\)
d. genitive: \([+\text{obl}, -\text{obj}]\)
b. [D, Op, –pl, –obl, –obj/+obj, Gender: __]

2.3.3 Spelling out RP

• Background: Realizational model of grammar (abstract morpho-syntactic features are supplied with phonological exponents post-syntactically, cf. Halle & Marantz 1993).
• The distribution of das vs. was is accounted for by different featural specifications of the Vocabulary items that are used to realize relative pronouns/operators:

b. [+Op, –obl] ↔ /vas/

• das signals [Op], a category feature and neuter gender; in contrast, was is a pure focus/scope marker (cf. e.g. Bayer & Brandner 2008, Grewendorf 2012).12
• Under the assumption that the insertion of phonological exponents is governed by some form of the Elsewhere Condition (Kiparsky 1973, 1982; Halle 1997), the distribution of das and was can be correctly described:

(30) a. das Buch, das du list
    the book that you read
b. alles, was du list
    all what you read

• (30a): RC is merged with a lexical noun. Both vocabulary items are compatible with the insertion context (RP containing a valued gender feature). According to the Elsewhere Condition, however, the more specified exponent must be used ⇒ insertion of das.
• (30b): RC is merged with a determiner/quantifier (presumably of the category D). The RP does not receive a gender feature in the syntax; as a result, das does not match the insertion context since it requires the presence of valued gender features ⇒ insertion of the pure operator marker was, which is underspecified for [gender].

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12 An argument in favor of the existence of a separate series of relative pronouns (specified for Op) comes from the observation that certain attributive genitive forms such as deren (genitive plural) are unambiguous relative markers, which cannot be used as demonstratives. Furthermore, both das and was are taken to be specified for [–obl], the feature shared by nominative and accusative. Note, however, that the situation is more complex, which perhaps suggests that das and was carry different case specifications. (i) below shows that was but not das is compatible with contexts where dative case is assigned by a preposition:

(i) a. ein Ergebnis, mit dem/*das Peter zufrieden war
    a result with that.datetime/that Peter satisfied was
b. Ich frage mich, mit was Peter zufrieden wäre.
    I ask myself with what Peter satisfied would-be

However, was is not compatible with verbal dative (‘Was vertraust du? ‘What do you trust?’). Possibly, this can be attributed to a visibility condition on oblique cases which was fails to satisfy (in cases such as (ib) one might assume that the visibility condition is fulfilled by the preposition, which can be analyzed as a phonological realization of oblique case, cf. e.g. Caha 2009).
• This analysis facilitates a unified treatment of different types of RCs, which all have in common that they that lack an appropriate (overt) nominal antecedent:
  ❖ attributive was-relatives
  ❖ free relatives\textsuperscript{13}
  ❖ continual relative clauses (“weiterführende Relativsätze”), which modify a matrix event or proposition
  ❖ relative clauses referring to quote-like expressions (translations, in particular):

(31) a. [Wer wagt], gewinnt.
    who.NOM dares wins

b. [Wen das Abenteuer lockt], sollte einen Abstecher
    who.ACC the adventure lures should a side-trip
    in die Wüste wagen.
    into the desert dare

(N00/DEZ.59381 Salzburger Nachrichten, 21.12.2000, Ressort: Kultur; Petra - geheimnisvolle Felsenstadt)

c. [Was der Mann auch anpackt], funktioniert.
    what the man ever tackles works
    ‘Whatever the man tackles, works.’
    (HAZ09/AUG.02148 Hannoversche Allgemeine, 14.08.2009;)

d. [Wem das nicht passt], kann nach Hause gehen.
    who.DAT that not suits can to home go

(HMP12/JUN.00623 Hamburger Morgenpost, 07.06.2012, S. 36; Claus “Bubu” Bubke “Hier bin ich das Gesetz” - Ex-Kult-Zeugwart ist jetzt der Herr der Kunstrasenplätze - Er schwärmt von Stani und trauert alten Zeiten nach)

(32) Wie bei allen anderen Mannschaftssportarten nahmen die Starken
    as with all other team sports took the strong
    Rücksicht auf die Schwächeren, [was den Spass für alle garantierte].
    regards for the weak what the fun for all guaranteed

(A09/OKT.06424 St. Galler Tagblatt, 23.10.2009, S. 52; Goldener Herbst im Simmental)

\textsuperscript{13} In addition, there is a somewhat archaic alternative construction type where an apparent free relative is introduced by a d-pronoun as in (i)

(i) [Der das sagt], muss es wissen.
    that.MASC.NOM that.NEUT says must it know
    ‘He who says so, must know it.’

Fuß & Grewendorf (2014) argue that d-free relatives exhibit a number of special properties that set them apart from wh-free relatives and suggest an analysis where a demonstrative pronoun is modified by a relative clause, leading to deletion of the relative pronoun under identity with the head element (an instance of syntactic haplology).
(33) a. Von disciplina wird der Begriff discipulus hergeleitet, from disciplina is the notion discipulus derived
was soviel wie Lehrling oder Schüler bedeutet. what so much as apprentice or pupil means
(A09/FEB.05129 St. Galler Tagblatt, 18.02.2009, S. 36; Geschichte prägt die Disziplin)
c. Wenn ein Fussballspieler das eigene Tor erwischt, so spricht der Romand von einem «autogoal», was soviel bedeutet wie das Deutschschweizer «Eigengoal». (A97/DEZ.39867 St. Galler Tagblatt, 06.12.1997, Ressort: TB-INL (Abk.); Wenn die Sprache Brücken schlägt)

2.3.5 Some further consequences of the analysis: wh-forms vs. d-forms

• d-forms:
(i) The insertion of d-forms is bound to the presence of a syntactic agreement relation between head noun and RP (valuation of [uGender]), which also serves to establish coreference between these two elements.
(ii) Grammatical gender (non-interpretable, resulting from agreement)

• wh-forms:
(i) was (and wh-forms more generally) is not dependent on a syntactic agreement relation with an antecedent (RP’s content is not affected by feature valuation in the syntax).
(ii) Gender distinction has a semantic effect: The absence of an antecedent with specified gender (and number) features frees up wh-forms to code a semantic (as opposed to grammatical gender) difference, namely, the difference between persons (wer) and non-persons (was), just as in interrogatives (cf. Wiese 2013).

• Absence of valued [gender] at the interfaces – repair via insertion of default values:
(a) At the interface to the morphological component, the absence of [gender] is interpreted as [neuter] (cf. e.g. Harley & Ritter 2002 for related considerations).
(b) At the interface to the semantic component, the absence of [gender] is interpreted as [-animate/human].

14 Further evidence suggesting that the connection between relative was and its antecedent is less tight than between a d-form and its antecedent: was apparently can be construed with different kinds of antecedents, leading to systematic ambiguities (see also Holler 2005: 96):
(i) Adrian hat alles gekauft, was Anton auch hat.
Adrian has everything bought what Anton also has
a. ‘Anton has bought everything, too.’ (reference to the matrix predicate/VP)
b. ‘Adrian has bought everything that Anton already owns.’ (reference to alles)
(ii) Adrian will in die Bretagne fahren, was Anton auch will.
Adrian wants to go to Brittany, what Anton also wants
a. ‘Adrian wants to go to Brittany, and Anton also wants that Adrian goes to Brittany (reference to the matrix proposition/IP)
b. ‘Adrian wants to go to Brittany, and Anton wants to go to Brittany, too.’ (reference to the matrix predicate/VP)
3. Deadjectival nouns

- Duden grammar (2009: 1032):
  „Die Form was steht überwiegend bei Bezug auf substantivierte Adjektive mit Genus Neutrum [...]. Die Form das kommt ebenfalls vor.“

  The form was ‘what’ prevails with reference to nominalized adjectives in the neuter gender [...]. The form das ‘that’ is also possible.

(34) «Denn nicht das Gute, das ich will, tue ich, sondern das Böse, das ich nicht will, das führe ich aus.» [...] the evil that I not want that carry I out
Wenn wir ehrlich sind uns gegenüber, wissen wir alle, if we honest are us against know we all
dass dieser Konflikt immer wieder in uns ist. Und dass es Kraft braucht, that this conflict always again in us is and that it strength requires
Mut, trotz diesem Widerstreit all das Gute, was wir zustande bringen, courage despite this conflict all the good what we accomplish
zu achten, zu verstärken.
to heed to strengthen
(SOZ06/FEB.03769 Die Südostschweiz, 18.02.2006; «Gutmensch» - ein Unwort)

- Thus, deadjectival nouns apparently differ from both lexical nouns (⇒ das) and determiners/quantifiers (⇒ was).
- However, a corpus study carried out in the DeReKo (W-Gesamt, November 2014) shows that the situation is actually even more complex. Three cases must be distinguished:

(35) Distribution of das/was with deadjectival nouns (neuter singular):
  a. anaphoric/elliptical readings ⇒ das
  b. (non-anaphoric) nominalized positives (das Gute ‘the good (one)’) ⇒ das & was
  c. (non-anaphoric) nominalized superlatives (das Beste ‘the best’): ⇒ was

3.1 Anaphoric/elliptical readings
(36) Das bisher bestehende Kraftwerk ist bekanntlich völlig überaltet
the yet existing power plant is as-is-known completely outdated
und muß schon allein aus Umweltgründen erneuert werden.
and must not alone for ecological reasons renewed be
Das neue, das Ende 1994 fertiggestellt sein soll,
the new [one] that at the end-of 1994 completed be should
wird nach dem neuesten Stand der Technik errichtet und bis zu 90 Prozent
will-be according to the latest state of technique built and up to 90 percent
weniger Schadstoffe an die Umwelt abgeben.
less pollutants to the environment release
(N93/MAR.08195 Salzburger Nachrichten, 05.03.1993; Heizkraftwerk Nord 88 Mill. Steurer)
Trainer Roger Hegi hält sein Team für das beste, manager Roger Hegi considers his team for the best
das er in St. Gallen bisher betreut hat.
that he in St. Gallen so far supervised has


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(alles/das/vieles)</th>
<th>das</th>
<th>was</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>gute/schöne/neue</td>
<td>20 (100%)</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>beste/schönste/neueste</td>
<td>135 (93,75%)</td>
<td>9 (6,25%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: das vs. was with deadjectival nouns (anaphoric/elliptical readings)

- Analysis: Again, the use of das can be attributed to the presence of an elided lexical head noun:

(38) ... Kraftwerk... [Das neue Kraftwerk [SRel das ...]]

3.2 Non-anaphoric readings: nominalized positives

(39) a. Aber auch ganz neue Ideen seien gerne willkommen und but also entirely new ideas are with pleasure welcome and oft sei es das Neue, was den Anstoß gebe, eingefahrene Fahrwasser often is it the new what the impetus give habitual fairways endlich zu verlassen.
finally to abandon
(REH97/JUL.03252 Rhein-Zeitung, 05.07.1997; Gute Ideen sind in der Tat gefragt)

b. In vielen Ländern Afrikas - wie auch Osteuropas - sind alte, überkommene Ordnungen oder Unordnungen im Umbruch oder sogar gestürzt. Das Neue, das sich aus solchen Veränderungen ergeben könnte, ist vielerorts allerdings noch nicht in Sicht.
(1992/JUN.24015 die tageszeitung, 24.06.1992, S. 16; Zensur in der neuen Weltunordnung)

- Nominalized positives (non-anaphoric readings): Variation between das and was; however, a quantitative analysis shows that das is actually more frequent than was in this context:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>das</th>
<th>was</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gute(s) ‘good’</td>
<td>490 (74%)</td>
<td>172 (26%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schöne(s) ‘beautiful’</td>
<td>132 (73.7%)</td>
<td>47 (26.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neue(s) ‘new’</td>
<td>502 (74.2%)</td>
<td>175 (25.8%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: das vs. was with nominlized positives (non-anaphoric/non-elliptical readings)
3.3 Non-anaphoric readings: nominalized superlatives

(40) Abschließend gibt Angela Merkel ihrer Überzeugung Ausdruck, as a last point expresses Angela Merkel her conviction „dass der Blick von oben auf die Erde das Schönste ist, that the view from above of the earth the most-beautiful is was es gibt“. what there exists (B06/JUL.52314 Berliner Zeitung, 21.07.2006, Ressort: Blickpunkt; „Wie klappt's mit dem Schlafen?”)

- Nominalized superlatives (non-anaphoric readings): strong preference for relativization by means of was (see also Cutting 1902).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>das</th>
<th>was</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Beste(s) ‘best’</td>
<td>413 (6.6%)</td>
<td>5838 (93.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schönste(s) ‘most beautiful’</td>
<td>86 (9.9%)</td>
<td>783 (90.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neueste(s) ‘newest’</td>
<td>11 (16.9%)</td>
<td>54 (83.1%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: das vs. was with nominlized superlatives (non-anaphoric/non-elliptical readings)

3.4 Semantic effects linked to the variation between das/was

- Observation: In connection with nominalized positives, the use of das as opposed to was gives rise to subtle semantic effects (Sanders 1879:279f., Cutting 1902, Curme 1922).
- The use of das sometimes has an individualizing/particularizing effect on the interpretation of the nominalized adjective.
- In contrast, the use of was has a generalizing effect, leading to an interpretation of the deadjectival nouns in terms of a general property, or a totality/collection of things:

(41) Ich verzeihe ihm das Böse, was er mir zugefügt hat I forgive him the evil what he me inflict has und künftig noch zufügen wird, in dankbarer Erinnerung an and in-the-future as well inflict will in grateful memory of das eine Gute, das (welches) er mir früher erwiesen hat. the one good that (which) he me previously bestow has (Sanders 1879: 279)

“Hier bezeichnet das Böse allgemein eine ganze Klasse, eine Gesammttheit von Unbildem = alles (das) Böse und daran schließt sich ganz richtig als Relativpron. das allgemeine was, dagegen ist das eine Gute eine bestimmte Wohllth, auf die sich ganz richtig das vereinzelnde Relativpronomen das oder welches bezieht.” (Sanders 1879: 279)

Here das Böse ‘the evil’ signifies a whole class in general, a totality of rigors = alles (das) Böse ‘all that evil’, which is entirely correctly followed by the generalizing was as relative pronoun. On the contrary, das eine Gute ‘the single good (thing)’ is a certain good deed, which the particularizing relative pronoun das or welches refers to in an entirely correct way.
• Further evidence – the impact of *alles*: Adding the quantifying element *alles* ‘all, every’ to a nominalized positive significantly increases the rate of relativization by means of *was*:¹⁵

(42) Für den Mundart-Dichter verkörpern die Früchte *alles Gute, was* for the dialect-poet embody the fruit all good what einen im Leben so passieren kann. Denn Zwetschgen bedeuten Glückseligkeit. to-one in life so happen can since plums mean happiness

(NUN12/NOV.00444 Nürnberger Nachrichten, 05.11.2012, S. 37; Bald regnet es Zwedschgä - Dialekt-Dichter Fitzgerald Kusz stellt seinen neuen Lyrikband vor)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th><em>das</em></th>
<th><em>was</em></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>(das, vieles)</em> Gute/Schöne/Neue</td>
<td>681 (84.6%)</td>
<td>124 (15.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>alles Gute/Schöne/Neue</em></td>
<td>96 (56.5%)</td>
<td>74 (43.5%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tabelle 5: Impact of *alles* ‘all’ on the relative frequency of *das* vs. *was* with nominalized positives (non-anaphoric readings)

• As noted by Curme (1922: 199), the qualitative difference between *das* and *was* can be used by the speaker to achieve certain communicative effects:

„It is possible that there is often here an intentional use of *das* or *welches* by way of differentiation, to refer to something definite, definite at least to the speaker. [...] We cannot, however, in many cases on account of the lack of clearness in the thought absolutely determine whether the *das* or *welches* is used merely as a survival of older usage to indicate a collective idea or something indefinite or general, or is employed intentionally in accordance with modern usage elsewhere, to refer to something definite."

4. Towards an analysis

• The general availability of the relativizer *was* in connection with deadjectival nouns suggests that at least in German, relevant forms do not involve the presence of a silent noun (*pace* Kester 1996a,b, Panagiotidis 2002, Matushansky 2008, among others). Otherwise, we would expect obligatory insertion of *das*, contrary to facts. This is particularly clear in the case of superlatives, where *was* emerges as the clearly preferred choice.

• Proposal: Relevant deadjectival forms are nominalizations formed by adding a category-defining nominal head *n* to an adjectival structure (cf. e.g. Sleeman 2013 on Dutch, Alexiadou 2011, 2015).

¹⁵ Interestingly, a similar effect can be observed in connection with mass nouns, which usually require relativization by means of *das* (> 99%). However, in cases where the mass noun is modified by the universal quantifier *alles* (e.g., *alles Wasser/Geld* etc. ‘all water/money’ etc.) the frequency of *was* drops to 80%.
• **Background**: Word formation in Distributed Morphology (Marantz 1997, 2001, 2007; Arad 2005; Embick 2010): ‘Lexical’ categories are decomposed into a category neutral atomic root and a category defining functional head:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{a. } 'N' & = n \\
\text{b. } 'V' & = v \\
\text{c. } 'A' & = a
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\sqrt{\text{DOG}} \quad n \\
\sqrt{\text{SEE}} \quad v \\
\sqrt{\text{NEW}} \quad a
\end{array}
\]

• **Nominalizations**: Category defining head \( n \) is added to internally complex words:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
n \\
\{v, n, a\} \quad n
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\sqrt{\text{ROOT}} \\
\{v, n, a\}
\end{array}
\]

• **Word formation from roots**: potentially idiosyncratic/non-predictable lexical meaning, semi-productive (lexical gaps);

• **Word-formation from words**: meaning is compositionally derived from the meaning of the pieces put together; fully productive.

• **Some remarks on gender**...

• **Recall**: Inherent/lexical gender features are the defining property of lexical nouns.

• **Lexical gender on nouns** results from the combination of \( n + \sqrt{\text{ROOT}} \) (cf. e.g. Lowenstamm 2007, 2012): \( n \)'s (non-interpretable) gender feature is valued/licensed under \( \text{Agree} \) with the lexical root.

\[
\begin{array}{c}
nP \\
n[\mu\text{GENDER}] \quad \sqrt{\text{GENDER}}
\end{array}
\]

### 4.1 Nominalized positives

• **Recall**: Gender is interpretable on deadjectival nouns (conversions): masc./fem. forms refer to persons, while neuter forms refer to abstract/animate entities.

• **Proposal/word formation from words**: If not merged directly with a root, \( n \) may host interpretable gender features (cf. Picallo 2008, Lowenstamm 2012 for related proposals)

• \( n \text{ conversion} \) comes in two variants linked to different interpretations:
(46) \( n_{\text{conversion}} \): gender specifications and referential properties
   a. [masc./fem.] \( \rightarrow \) person
   b. else \( \rightarrow \) abstract/non-animate

- **Variation between das/was**: Two sources for neuter gender on \( n_{\text{conversion}} \):
  (i) Gender features ([–masc./–fem.]) are added pre-syntactically to \( n \);
  (ii) Gender features ([–masc./–fem.]) are added post-syntactically to \( n \) (repair via insertion of default feature values)

- Both options lead to neuter gender at the surface, but...
- In the case of (i), the gender features on \( n \) are present throughout the syntactic derivation and can be accessed by an agreement relation between the relative pronoun and \( n_{\text{conversion}} \) heading the deadjectival noun \( \Rightarrow \) relativization by means of das
- In case (ii), \( n_{\text{conversion}} \) lacks gender features in the syntax. Therefore, the relative pronoun cannot pick-up gender features in the course of the derivation \( \Rightarrow \) insertion of the underspecified default relativizer was\(^{16}\)

**4.2 Nominalized superlatives**

- **General consideration**: Superlatives contain more functional structure characteristic of adjectival elements are therefore less ‘nominal’ than nominalized positives (note that presence of superlative morphology is often taken to be a defining property of adjectives).
- **Theoretical proposal**: The use of was in connection with superlatives is to be attributed to the presence of a universal quantifier in the internal structure of superlatives.
- Bobaljik (2012): The meaning of a superlative can be described as follows:

(47) more X than all others (X = a property)

- According to Bobaljik (2012: 5), the complex meaning expressed by (47) must be split into a component meaning ‘more’ (= a comparative head) and a component meaning (roughly) ‘than all (others)’ (= a ‘superlative’ head). The latter provides a standard of comparison containing a universal quantifier.\(^{17}\)

\(^{16}\) Note that this approach possibly provides a basis for explaining the observation that the use of a das-relative has an individualizing/particulating effect on the interpretation of the deadjectival head noun, if two further assumptions are made: (i) The difference between count and mass nouns is to be attributed to additional functional structure that is present with count nouns, that is, ClassP (Borer 2005), which is linked to individuation. (ii) ClassP requires the presence of gender features on \( n \). This set of assumptions provides a link between relativization by means of das and individuated readings of deadjectival nouns, in the sense that only deadjectival nouns derived by \( n [+\text{gender}] \) (which trigger \( d \)-relatives) can acquire individuated readings via addition of ClassP (see also Alexiadou 2015).

\(^{17}\) In languages like Russian, this meaning is transparently coded in the syntax (Bobaljik 2012: 61):
(i) positive: xoröš-ij comparative: luč-še superlative: luč-še vse-go/-x good-MASK.SG better-CMPR better-CMPR all-GEN.SG/-GEN.PL
• These two pieces of meaning correspond to a syntactic structure where the superlative head necessarily embeds the comparative (which in turn embeds an adjectival category):

(48)

```
     SPRLP
      /   \
     SPRL  CMRP P
        /     \  \n       CMPR   aP
          /   \  \
         a    a   
```

• Relevant nominalizations are formed by adding a category-defining n head:

(49)

```
     nP
    /  \n   n   SPRLP
    |   /   \  
   SPRL CMRP P
        /     \  \n       CMPR   aP
          /   \  
         a    a   
```

• Preference for *was* in connection with nominalized superlatives: The relative clause modifies the universal quantifier, which is located in the superlative category (recall that *alles* (almost) obligatorily selects *was* as a relativizer):

(50) das Beste, was ich kenne = ‘etwas, das besser ist als [alles (andere), [was ich kenne]]’

the best what I know ‘some X which is better than all (others) that I know’

• In (50), the relative clause provides the lexical restriction for the universal quantifier.
• **Question:** Why must the relative clause attach to the universal quantifier (and not to the higher nP/DP)?
• **Tentative answer:** Higher attachment (to nP or DP) does not yield the correct interpretation.
• In examples like ‘the best that I know’, the relative clause does not serve to single out a ‘best thing’ from a set of other best things, but rather identifies a best element (i.e., the element which exhibits a certain property to the highest degree) in a set of elements defined/delimited by the (predicate expressed by the) relative clause:\footnote{Note that this analysis does not predict that [+masc]/[+fem] nominalizations such as \textit{der Beste} ‘the best.MASC’ trigger relativization by means of wh-forms: 
\begin{enumerate}
\item \textit{der Beste, den ich kenne} ‘the best.MASC that I know’
\end{enumerate}
In cases like (i), the lexical restriction of the universal quantifier is furnished by the feature [+person] on the deadjectival noun. Accordingly, examples like (i) can be paraphrased as in (ii). Note as well that the most nearby natural language paraphrase of (ii) in German contains the masculine singular quantifier \textit{jeder} ‘each person’ which obligatory triggers relativization by means of d-pronouns.}

(51) Of all things that I know, X is the best.

5. Concluding summary
• The alternation between the relativizers \textit{das} and \textit{was} reflects categorial properties of the antecedent of the relative clause (Brandt & Fuß 2014):
  \begin{itemize}
  \item \textit{das} is inserted in the presence of a lexical head noun (characterized by specified gender features on \(n\))
  \item \textit{was} is the underspecified elsewhere case
  \end{itemize}
• As a result, wh-relativizers are confined to contexts where the head acquires its gender specification via a post-syntactic repair (insertion of default values: neuter singular).
• Certain indefinites and quantifiers (e.g. \textit{jedes} ‘each’, \textit{keines} ‘none’) require the presence of an empty noun (a case of ellipsis) and therefore select \textit{das}.
• \textbf{Deadjectival nouns:}
  \begin{itemize}
  \item Cases of noun ellipsis (‘anaphoric’ uses): \textit{das}
  \item Nominalized positives allow both \textit{das} and \textit{was}. The distinction between d- and wh-morphology can be used to express subtle semantic distinctions (e.g. individuation).
  \item Nominalized superlatives select \textit{was}.
  \end{itemize}
• The relativization facts provide an argument against analyses that posit the presence of a silent nominal head for deadjectival nouns.
• The different behavior of positives and superlatives w.r.t. relativization follow from structural differences in the internal make-up of the relevant nominalization structures:
  \begin{itemize}
  \item \textbf{Nominalized positives}: two sources for neuter gender on \(H\)-conversion:
    \begin{itemize}
    \item pre-syntactic insertion of gender features \(\Rightarrow\) \textit{das}
    \item post-syntactic insertion of gender features \(\Rightarrow\) \textit{was}
    \end{itemize}
  \item \textbf{Nominalized superlatives}: relative clause provides lexical restriction for universal quantifier linked to the category \textsc{superlative} (‘more than all (others)’) – relativization facts in superlatives can be reduced to the behavior of \textit{alles} ‘every, all’, which obligatorily triggers relativization by means of \textit{was}.
  \end{itemize}
6. Further issues

6.1 The restriction to *was*

- The use of wh-pronouns in RCs is subject to a curious restriction: Only the neuter form *was* can be used as a substitute for d-type relative pronouns, while non-neuter wh-forms (which signal case distinctions more clearly) are generally absent in restrictive RCs, even in cases that seem to lack a lexical head noun:

\[(52)\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{a. } & \text{der/jeder/keiner,} & \text{der/*wer} & \text{das liest} \\
& \text{the one/each.MASC/none.MASC} & \text{that.MASC.NOM/who.NOM} & \text{that reads} \\
\text{b. } & \text{der/jeder/keiner,} & \text{den/*wen} & \text{du kennst} \\
& \text{the one/each.MASC/none.MASC} & \text{that.MASC.ACC/who.ACC} & \text{you know} \\
\text{c. } & \text{der/jeder/keiner,} & \text{dem/*wem} & \text{du vertraust} \\
& \text{the one/each.MASC/none.MASC} & \text{that.MASC.DAT/who.DAT} & \text{you trust} \\
\text{d. } & \text{die/jede/keine,} & \text{die/*wer} & \text{das liest} \\
& \text{the one/each.FEM/none.FEM} & \text{that.FEM.NOM/who.NOM} & \text{that reads}
\end{align*}
\]

- This restriction is at first sight unexpected.
- Possible solution: elided nouns again...
- Above we have argued that there are good reasons to believe that in cases like (52) there is in fact a nominal head available that enters into an agreement relation with the relative pronoun.
- In support, note that quantifiers, similar to determiners and adjectives, agree in gender and number with their head noun:

\[(53)\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{a. } & \text{jeder Mann} \\
& \text{every-MASC.SG man.MASC.SG} \\
\text{b. } & \text{jede Frau} \\
& \text{every-FEM.SG woman.FEM.SG} \\
\text{c. } & \text{jedes Pferd} \\
& \text{every-NEUT.SG horse.NEUT.SG}
\end{align*}
\]

- These facts suggest that quantifiers, again similar to determiners and adjectives, do not possess any gender and number features of their own, but always receive relevant phi-specifications as a result of DP-internal concord with a lexical noun.

The presence of non-neuter inflectional features on a quantifier always implies the presence of a (possibly silent) lexical noun that acts as the actual head of the RC:

\[(54)\]

\[
[\text{DP der (Einzige)/jeder/keiner [NP N[+MASC,-PL]] [CPRel [DP DPres[+MASC,-PL]] i ... i ...]]]
\]

- As a result, the gender feature of the RP can always be identified with the gender feature of the (silent) head noun, leading to the insertion of d-type relative pronouns.
• A related question: What is the source of neuter gender in quantifiers such as *alles*, which require *was*-relatives?

• Recall: In these cases, the RC merges directly with the D-element (leading to wh-morphology since the RP cannot pick up a gender feature):

\[ \text{DP} \, \text{alles} \, [\text{CP} \, \text{Rel} \, [\text{DP} \, \text{Rel} \, \ldots \, \text{ti} \, \ldots]]] \]

• When a determiner fails to acquire gender features from a lexical noun as in (58), the resulting absence of gender specifications is automatically interpreted as neuter at the interfaces to the post-syntactic computation.\(^{19}\)

> Correlation between neuter gender and the availability of wh-pronouns: wh-pronouns are only possible in cases where the RC is directly merged with a head lacking inherent gender features. Due to the lack of a lexical head noun, the gender features of the D-element and the relative pronoun are identified with neuter gender by default (a postsyntactic repair operation).

### 6.2 Dative case on the relative pronoun

• Observation: If the relative pronoun is assigned dative in the relative clause, it can no longer be spelled out by *was*. Instead, the dative d-form *dem* must be used: \(^{20}\)

\[ \text{„} \text{Bush kennt die roten Linien und macht nichts, dem ich nicht zustimme“}, \]

Bush knows the red lines and does nothing that-DAT I not agree-with verrät Olmert der „Jerusalem Post“.

tells Olmert the Jerusalem Post

(BRZ08/JAN.03547 Braunschweiger Zeitung, 09.01.2008; Lobeshymnen auf den besten Freund)

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\(^{19}\) However, note that wh-pronouns introducing a free relative lack a nominal antecedent and thus cannot receive any phi-values from the immediate syntactic context. This suggests that the wh-pronoun enters the derivation with a fully specified phi-set (with the exception of case), similar to wh-interrogative pronouns. This seems to suggest that (relative) wh-pronouns differ generally from d-pronouns in that the former carry an inherent gender specification. Alternatively, we may assume that both types of pronoun carry a gender specification, leading to a slight revision of the above analysis in that gender is now treated on par with number (i.e., phi-agreement between the head noun and RP does not value gender and number features, but rather checks whether the respective values are compatible). I leave this issue open for future research.

\(^{20}\) A similar phenomenon can be observed in connection with genitival relative pronouns. However, it seems that in this case, *wessen* ‘wh-genitive’ is at least marginally possible (3 examples vs. 21 examples with *dessen* ‘d-genitive’; DeReKo, W-gesamt, 12.11.2014):

(i) Im Wald treibt ein böser Zwerg sein Unwesen. Er stiehlt *alles, dessen* er habhaft werden kann.

(M03/OKT.66020 Mannheimer Morgen, 08.10.2003; Märchenhaftes im Parktheater)

(ii) Ich kann dich nicht dafür bestrafen. Du hast meine Worte nicht respektiert; ich verachte dich, das ist *alles, wessen* ich noch fähig bin.«

(57) Denn fast alles, dem die King’s Singers auf ihrer Reise begegneten, wurde unter ihren Stimmen zum Kunstschatz und zum einschneidenden Erlebnis.
(B97/OKT.02543 Berliner Zeitung, 17.10.1997; Sechs englische Sänger Die King’s Singers sangen in der Philharmonie [S. 16])

(58) Differenziert äußerte sich die grüne Klubobfrau Madeleine Petrovic: "Einige Aspekte sind positiv, es gibt aber vieles, dem wir nicht zustimmen können."
(P92/DEZ.38294 Die Presse, 19.12.1992; Umstrittenes Gewerberecht)

- Examples such as (56)-(58) are judged as marked by some speakers; however, they are the only possible variant, since was is incompatible with (verbal) dative (vgl. *alles, was ich zustimme ‘everything I agree to’).\(^{21,22}\)
- Above, I have assumed that was is incompatible with oblique case ([op, –obl]). As a result, it cannot be used when the relative pronoun is assigned dative. This situation leads to a dilemma:
  (i) wh-forms cannot be inserted (was is incompatible with dative, wem requires a [+human antecedent])
  (ii) d-forms cannot be inserted either (no lexical head noun that may provide gender features)
- Speculation: Upon Vocabulary Insertion, this conflict is resolved by inserting the ‘more optimal’ candidate dem, which satisfies an additional visibility condition for oblique case (another instance of post-syntactic repair).

References


\(^{21}\) For some speakers, relevant examples improve when the head element is a dative as well:

(i) a. alles, dem ich zustimme
   everything-NOM/ACC that-DAT I agree-to
   b. allem, dem ich zustimme
   everything-DAT that-DAT I agree-to

\(^{22}\) Note that the dative wh-form wem is equally impossible in these contexts since it is reserved for [+animate/human] antecedents (possibly because of an inherent gender specification).


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