Floris Roelofsen, Nadine Theiler & Maria Aloni

A *semantic* account of the selectional restrictions of some (anti-)rogative verbs

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 - b. Bill knows whether Mary left / who left.

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TYPE DISTINCTION

Declarative/interrogative complements have different semantic types UNIFORMITY

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Declarative/interrogative complements have the same semantic type

	selectional restrictions	selectional flexibility
type distinction	1	×
uniformity	×	\checkmark

Today I will:

- 1 discuss a challenge for type-distinction-based accounts
- 2 sketch a uniform treatment of clause-embedding
- **3** propose an account of the selectional restrictions of **anti-rogatives**
- 4 review an account of *wonder*that*

TYPE-BASED ACCOUNTS

• Most previous work assumes a type distinction:

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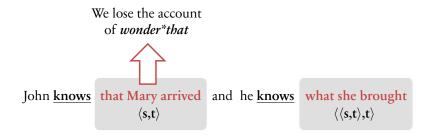
• Standard assumption:

- Declarative complements: type (s,t)
- Interrogative complements: type ((s,t),t)
- Account for selectional restrictions of (anti-)rogatives:
 - anti-rogatives **only take** complements of type (s,t)
 - rogatives only take complements of type ((s,t),t)

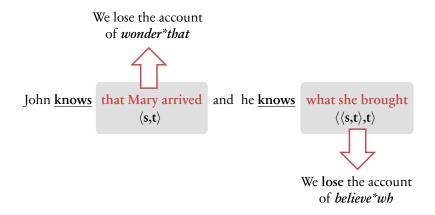
PROBLEM: TYPE-SHIFTING

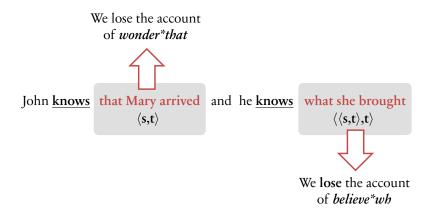
John knows that Mary arrived and he knows what she brought $\langle s,t \rangle$

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A type-based account cannot directly capture the selectional restrictions of **both** rogatives and anti-rogatives **at once**.

PART 2

A *uniform* treatment of clausal complements

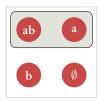
• In inquisitive semantics, both declarative and interrogative sentences denote sets of propositions.

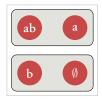
- In inquisitive semantics, both declarative and interrogative sentences denote sets of propositions.
- These propositions are exactly those pieces of information that resolve the issue raised by the sentence. They are called resolutions.

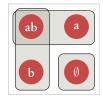
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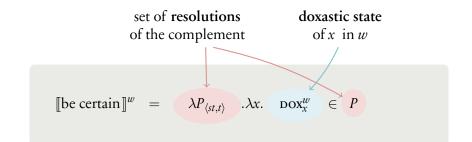


Who left?

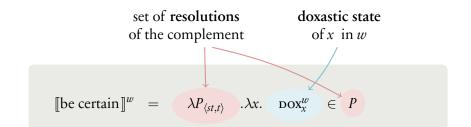
Ann left.

Did Ann leave?

RESPONSIVE VERBS

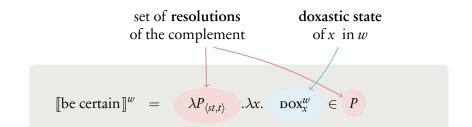


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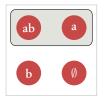


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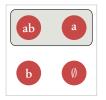


- (4) Mary is certain that John left. \rightsquigarrow True in *w* iff $\text{Dox}_m^w \subseteq \{w \mid \text{John left in } w\}$
- (5) Mary is certain whether John left. \rightsquigarrow True in w iff $\exists p \in \begin{cases} \{w \mid \text{John left in } w\}, \\ \{w \mid \text{John didn't leave in } w\} \end{cases}$ s.t. $\operatorname{Dox}_m^w \subseteq p$



Declarative complement meanings contain only one alternative, which typically doesn't cover the entire logical space.

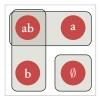
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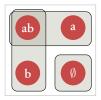
This captures the intuition that declaratives **provide** but don't request information.

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Who left?



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This captures the intuition that interrogatives request but don't provide information.

Who left?

PART 3

Selectional restrictions of *anti-rogative* verbs

- 1 Attitude verbs: e.g., believe, think, feel, expect, want, desire
- 2 Likelihood verbs: e.g., *seem*, *be likely*
- 3 Speech act verbs: e.g., *claim*, *suggest*
- **4** Truth-assessing verbs: e.g., *be true*, and *be false*

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Many of these have a property in common: they are neg-raising.

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 - .:. John believes that Mary didn't leave.

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Zuber (1982): all neg-raising verbs are anti-rogative.

Neg-raising verbs come with an excluded middle presupposition (Bartsch, 1973; Gajewski, 2007).

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- Presupposed and asserted content logically independent.
- Together they **imply** that John believes Mary didn't leave.

STATUS OF THE EXCLUDED-MIDDLE PRESUPPOSITION

- Neg-raising is **defeasible** (Bartsch, 1973):
 - (9) Bill doesn't know who killed Caesar. Bill isn't even sure whether or not Brutus and Caesar lived at the same time. So, naturally, Bill doesn't believe Brutus killed Caesar.

 → Bill believes Brutus didn't kill Caesar.

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- It can't be a semantic presupposition.
- However, it can't be purely pragmatic either, since there is no obvious semantic property determining if a verb is neg-raising (Horn, 1978).

✓ want /×desire (Horn, 1978)

✓ hope /×hoffen (Gajewski, 2007)

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- Simons (2001)'s explicit ignorance contexts:
 - (10) I don't know whether Bill even participated in the singing contest, but if he won, he's surely over the moon.
 - (11) I don't know whether anyone watered the plants, #but if it is Mary who did it, she probably gave them too much water.

$$\llbracket \text{believe} \rrbracket^w = \lambda P_{\langle \text{st}, t \rangle} . \lambda x : \underline{\text{dox}_x^w \in P} \lor \underline{\text{dox}_x^w \in \neg P} . \underline{\text{dox}_x^w \in P}$$

same as
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The negation is inquisitive negation:

$$\neg P := \{ p \mid \forall q \in P : p \cap q = \emptyset \}$$

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The effect of this presupposition depends on whether P is a declarative or an interrogative complement.

BELIEVE WITH DECLARATIVE COMPLEMENTS

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If *P* is the meaning of an **interrogative complement**, it covers the **entire logical space**.

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Whenever $[\![believe]\!]^w(P)(x)$ is defined, it is true. In other words, its assertive content is trivial relative to its presupposition.

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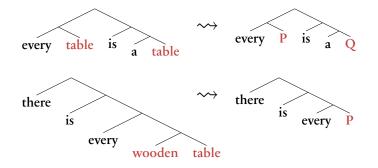
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- Gajewski (2002, 2008) proposes a notion to delineate systematic from non-systematic triviality: L-analyticity.
- L-analyticity, he argues, manifests as ungrammaticality:
 - (13) There is a/*every wooden table.

We need to distinguish between logical vocabulary and non-logical vocabulary (approximation: invariance conditions). logical: *every*, *if*, *is* non-logical: *table*, *brother* We need to distinguish between **logical vocabulary** and **non-logical vocabulary** (approximation: invariance conditions). **logical:** *every*, *if*, *is* **non-logical:** *table*, *brother*

Given a sentence with LF α , we construct a logical skeleton from α :

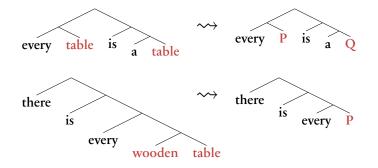
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S is ungrammatical if its LF contains an L-analytical constituent.

To show that the systematic triviality of *believe*wh* is a case of L-analyticity, we assume that:

1 Interrogative complements are headed by the interrogative marker ?:

$$\llbracket ? \rrbracket^{w} := \lambda P_{\langle \mathsf{st}, \mathsf{t} \rangle} . P \cup \neg P$$

e.g.
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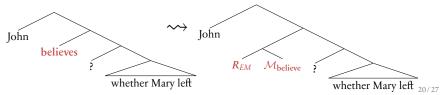
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Neg-raising attitude verbs are decomposed at LF into two predicates:
 R_{EM}, which is common to all neg-raising attitude verbs, and
 M_V, which is specific to the respective verb:



$\mathcal{M}_{V} \text{ is a function mapping an individual } x \text{ to a modal base.}$ e.g. $[\mathcal{M}_{\text{believe}}(j)]^{w} = \text{dox}_{j}^{w}$ $[\mathcal{M}_{\text{want}}(j)]^{w} = \text{BOUL}_{j}^{w}$

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 R_{EM} triggers the EM presupposition and connects \mathcal{M}_V to the subject and the complement meaning:

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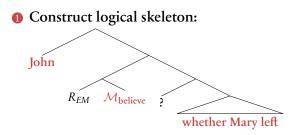
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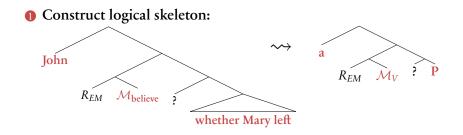
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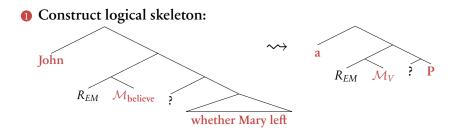
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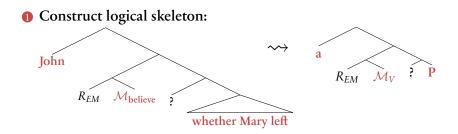
 \mathcal{M}_V is "contentful", hence **non-logical**. R_{EM} is **logical**.



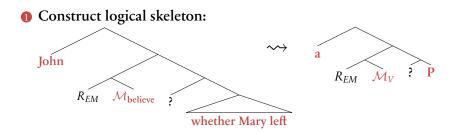




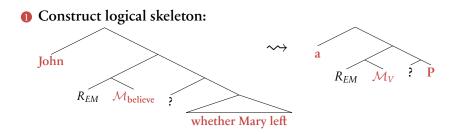
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True whenever defined = L-analytical. Hence, ungrammatical.

OTHER ANTI-ROGATIVES

- 1 Attitude verbs: e.g., believe, think, feel, expect, want, desire
- 2 Likelihood verbs: e.g., seem, be likely
- 3 Speech act verbs: e.g., *claim*, *suggest*
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Intuition: truth-assessing verbs operate purely on the informative content of their complement.

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So, if truth-assessing verbs take a complement which covers the entire logical space, this results in systematic triviality, too.

Accounting for *wonder***that*

At least three **subclasses** within the class of rogative verbs (cf., Karttunen, 1977):

- 1 Attitude verbs: e.g., wonder, be curious, investigate
- 2 Speech act verbs: e.g., ask, inquire
- **3** Verbs of dependency: e.g., depend on, be determined by



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• For example:

$$\operatorname{DOX}_{x}^{w} = \bigcirc^{\circ}_{\circ} & \Sigma_{x}^{w} = \bigcirc^{\circ}_{\circ} \\ \circ & \circ & \circ \\ \end{array}$$

$$\llbracket \text{wonder} \rrbracket^w := \lambda P . \lambda x.$$

$$\underbrace{\operatorname{Dox}_{x}^{w} \notin P}_{x \text{ isn't certain}} \land$$

 $\underbrace{\forall q \in \Sigma_x^w : q \in P}$

but wants to find out

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What happens when *wonder* takes a declarative complement *P*?

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- First conjunct: *x* isn't certain that *p*,
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This contradiction is systematic too, but is it also L-analytical?

CONCLUSION

- Assuming a type distinction between declarative and interrogative complements is not necessary for capturing the selectional restrictions of clause-embedding verbs.
- We have seen several examples of how these restrictions can instead be derived from the interplay between:
 - the semantic properties of the respective complements and
 - independently motivated features of the embedding verbs.

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WHAT IF THE EM INFERENCE IS NO PRESUPPOSITION?

- Romoli suggests the EM inference is a scalar implicature.
- If we adopt this view, we can't explain the anti-rogativity of neg-raisers in termss of **"if defined, then always true."**
- We then need a modified definition of L-analyticity, appealing to **local redundancy** rather than triviality.
- Gajewski himself actually suggests such a definition:

A sentence *S* is ungrammatical if its Logical Skeleton contains a nonlogical terminal element that is **irrelevant to determining the semantic value of** *S*.

Why doesn't suspending the EM presupposition fix the ungrammaticality of believe*whs?

- Because grammar, Gajewski assumes, is **blind** to the non-logical aspects of sentence meaning.
- Following Abusch, the EM presupposition arises from a **pragmatic default principle**, which can be suspended by the **context**.
- This **contextual information** falls into exactly the category of **non-logical meaning aspects**, to which grammar is blind.
- Hence, suspending the EM presupposition doesn't have an influence on grammaticality.

Why don't we treat all anti-rogative verbs like *be true*, i.e., assume that they operate purely on the informative content of their complements?

- Because to assume this for all verbs would be a stipulation.
- Which motivation do we have to assume that *believe* only operates on informative content, while *be certain* operates on inquisitive content?
- It is clear what (14) *would* mean if grammatical.

(14) *John believes whether Mary left.

• It isn't clear what (15) *would* mean if grammatical.

(15) *It is true whether Mary left.

HYBRID COMPLEMENTS

- (16) John believes that Mary lives in NYC and when she moved there.
 - We currently predict that (16) is grammatical.
 - The reason is that the complement in (16) is a **hybrid**: it both conveys information and requests information.
 - Our treatment of *believe*wh* relies on questions being uninformative though.
 - This is a real problem for our account.
 - One possible solution: treat conjunction of complements in terms of ellipsis.

(17) You won't believe who won!

This is not a very productive construction.

- It is limited to *believe*:
 - (18) *You won't think who won!
- It is limited to *wh*-interrogatives:

(19) *You won't believe if/whether Mary won!

• Moreover, *believe* in this construction becomes factive.

There is both empirical and conceptual independent support for the inquisitive negation operator:

- Conceptually, the operator is determined by exactly the same algebraic properties as the standard truth-conditional negation operator (Roelofsen, 2013).
- Empirical support comes, for instance, from the behavior of negation in sluicing constructions (AnderBois, 2014).

- (20) $x \text{ asked } \varphi$.
 - It's natural to assume that part of what (20) conveys is: x uttered a sentence φ which was inquisitive w.r.t. the CG in the context of utterance
 - (This is something that seems to be an inherent aspect of the speech act of asking)
 - This is impossible if φ is a declarative, because then it is bound to be non-inquisitive.

• Abusch (2002, 2010) assumes that soft triggers don't carry semantic presuppositions, but introduce sets of alternatives:

 $ALT(win) = \{ win, lose \}$

• Via pointwise composition, these alternatives manifest at the sentential level:

 $ALT(Mary won) = \{ won(m), lost(m) \}$

• A pragmatic default principle then requires the disjunction of the sentential alternatives to hold in the context of evaluation:

 \bigvee Alt(Mary won) = won(m) \lor lost(m)

This disjunction entails the soft presupposition:
 (won(m) ∨ lost(m)) ⇒ participated(m)

Gajewski (2007): neg-raising verbs are soft triggers.

 $ALT(believe(p)) = \left\{ \begin{array}{c} believe(p), \\ believe(\neg p) \end{array} \right\}$

Then the disjunctive closure gives us exactly the excluded middle presupposition:

 \bigvee ALT(believe(p)(j)) = believe(p)(j) \lor believe($\neg p$)(j)

- The defeasibility of neg-raising inferences is explained by the default-nature of the pragmatic principle.
- ► This treatment of neg-raising strikes a balance between context-dependence and lexical idiosyncrasy.