

# On the selectional restrictions of clause-embedding predicates

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*This talk is to a large extent based on joint work with  
Maria Aloni, Ivano Ciardelli, and especially Nadine Theiler*

WORKSHOP ON SEMANTIC UNIVERSALS IN THE MODAL DOMAIN  
DECEMBER 14 2018, LEIDEN UNIVERSITY

## CLAUSE-EMBEDDING PREDICATES

Some predicates take **both** declarative and interrogative complements:

- (1) a. Bill **knows** that Mary left.
- b. Bill **knows** whether Mary left / who left.

*RESPONSIVES*

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Others take **only interrogative** complements:

- (2) a. \*Bill **wonders** that Mary left.
- b. Bill **wonders** whether Mary left / who left.

*ROGATIVES*

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Others take **only interrogative** complements:

- (2) a. \*Bill **wonders** that Mary left.
- b. Bill **wonders** whether Mary left / who left.

ROGATIVES

Yet others **only declarative** complements:

- (3) a. Bill **believes** that Mary left.
- b. \*Bill **believes** whether Mary left / who left.

ANTI-ROGATIVES

## TWO APPROACHES

### TYPE DISTINCTION

Declarative/interrogative  
complements have  
**different semantic types**

### UNIFORMITY

Declarative/interrogative  
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	selectional restrictions	selectional flexibility
type distinction	✓	✗
uniformity	✗	✓

## Today:

- 1 Briefly discuss some limitations of the **type**-based approach
- 2 Survey some recent **uniform** accounts of
  - Anti-rogratives: *believe, hope*
  - Rogatives: *wonder, depend on*
- 3 Highlight some open issues that need to be investigated further

PART 1

# Limitations of the type-based approach

# TYPE-BASED APPROACH

- Many authors assume a type-distinction between declarative and interrogative complements.
- More specifically, it is usually assumed that:
  - Declarative complements are of **type**  $\langle s,t \rangle$
  - Interrogative complements are of **type**  $\langle \langle s,t \rangle, t \rangle$

Karttunen (1977); Heim (1994); Dayal (1996); Beck and Rullmann (1999)

Lahiri (2002); Spector and Egré (2015); among others

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- Assuming such a distinction, one could account for **selectional restrictions** by stipulating that:
  - anti-rogatives **only take** complements of type  $\langle s,t \rangle$
  - rogatives **only take** complements of type  $\langle \langle s,t \rangle, t \rangle$

## LIMITATION 1: TYPE-SHIFTING OBVIATES CLASH

John knows that Mary arrived and he knows what she brought

$\langle s, t \rangle$

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We lose the account  
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# LIMITATION 1: TYPE-SHIFTING OBVIATES CLASH

We lose the account  
of *wonder\*that*



John knows **that Mary arrived** and he knows **what she brought**

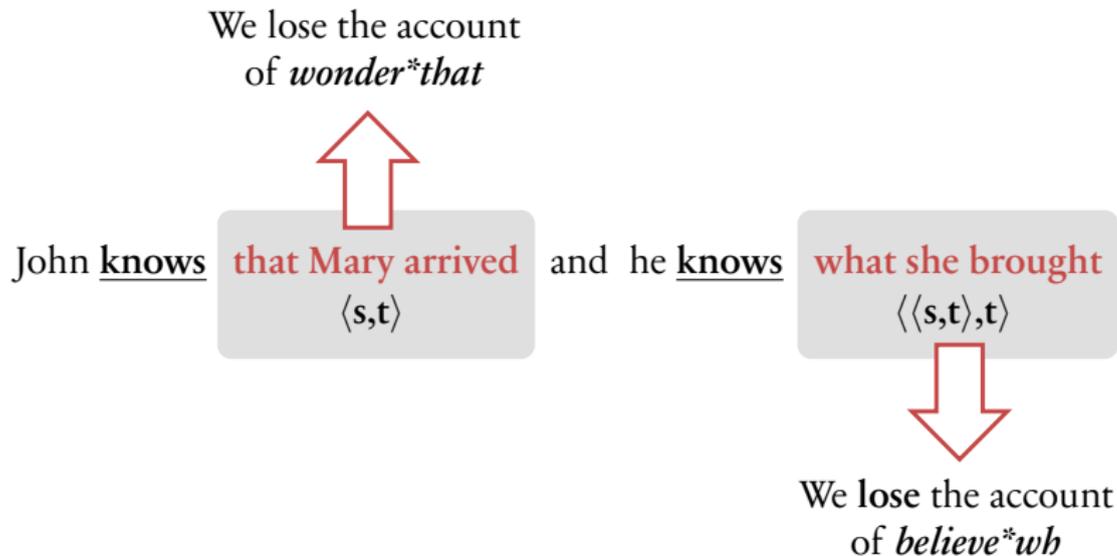
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We lose the account  
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# LIMITATION 1: TYPE-SHIFTING OBVIATES CLASH



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

## LIMITATION 2: EXPLANATORY VALUE

- It needs to be stipulated which predicates take complements of type  $\langle s,t \rangle$  and which take complements of type  $\langle \langle s,t \rangle, t \rangle$ .
- Therefore, the account only has explanatory value to the extent that these stipulations can be independently motivated.

That is, we want to link the selectional restrictions of (anti-)rogatives to independently observable semantic properties of these predicates.

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- Uegaki (2015a) suggests that a type-distinction between *know* and *believe* could indeed be independently motivated.
- But Theiler *et al.* (2018) discuss a number of open issues for this line of motivation.
- Perhaps these issues can be resolved. But as long as they remain open, the type-based approach has limited explanatory value.

PART 2

# Anti-rogatives

## ANTI-ROGATIVES: INITIAL CLASSIFICATION

- ① Likelihood predicates: e.g., *seem*, *be likely*
- ② Epistemic attitude predicates: e.g., *believe*, *think*, *feel*
- ③ Preferential attitude predicates: e.g., *want*, *desire*, *hope*
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- Why would such verbs not license interrogative complements?
  - Do they have some semantic property in common from which this may be derived?

## SOME RELEVANT SEMANTIC PROPERTIES

- So far, no unique semantic property has been identified that is common to all anti-rogorative predicates.
- However, it has been observed that several sub-classes do have common semantic properties which may explain their anti-rogorativity.
- In particular:

All **neg-raising** predicates are anti-rogorative.

(Zuber, 1982)

All **non-veridical preferential** predicates are anti-rogorative.

(Uegaki and Sudo, 2017)

## SOME RELEVANT SEMANTIC PROPERTIES

These two properties together cover three classes on our list:

- ① Likelihood predicates: e.g., *seem*, *be likely*
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All elements of class (1) and (2) and some of class (3) are **neg-raising**.

All elements of class (3) are **non-veridical preferential**.

## SOME RELEVANT SEMANTIC PROPERTIES

- Furthermore, recent work has argued that anti-rogativity can indeed be **derived** from each of these two properties.

(Theiler *et al.*, 2016, 2017, 2018; Uegaki and Sudo, 2017, 2018; Mayr, 2017; Cohen, 2017)

- I will illustrate how this can be done (without going into all the details).

# NEG-RAISING VIA AN EXCLUDED MIDDLE PRESUPPOSITION

Bartsch (1973) and Gajewski (2007) have argued that neg-raising predicates carry an **excluded middle presupposition**.

(4) John believes that Mary left.

↪ John believes that Mary left **or** he believes that she **didn't** leave.

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- Together they **imply** that John believes Mary didn't leave.

# COMBINING THE EXCLUDED MIDDLE PRESUPPOSITION WITH A UNIFORM TREATMENT OF CLAUSAL COMPLEMENTS

$$\llbracket \text{believe} \rrbracket^w = \lambda P_{\langle st,t \rangle} . \lambda x : \underbrace{\text{DOX}_x^w \in P}_{\text{light blue}} \vee \underbrace{\text{DOX}_x^w \in \neg P}_{\text{light red}} . \underbrace{\text{DOX}_x^w \in P}_{\text{light blue}}$$

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The negation is **inquisitive negation**:

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

For example:

$$P = \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline \circ & \circ \\ \hline \circ & \circ \\ \hline \end{array} \quad \neg P = \begin{array}{cc} \circ & \circ \\ \circ & \boxed{\circ} \end{array}$$

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

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identical!

vacuous

Whenever  $\llbracket \text{believe} \rrbracket^w(P)(x)$  is defined, it is true. In other words, its assertive content is **trivial relative to its presupposition**.

## L-ANALYTICITY

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- Gajewski (2002, 2008) proposes a notion that delineates systematic from non-systematic triviality: **L-analyticity**.
- L-analyticity, he argues, is perceived as **ungrammaticality**:
  - (6) Every table is a table. ‘plain’ tautology
  - (7) \*There is every table in the kitchen. L-analytical
- Theiler *et al.* (2017) show that **neg-raising** predicates with **interrogative** complements always yield **L-analyticity**.

## NON-VERIDICAL PREFERENTIAL PREDICATES

- **Non-veridical** preferential predicates are anti-rogative:  
(Uegaki and Sudo, 2017)
  - (8) a. Bill **hopes** / **wishes** that Mary left.
  - b. \*Bill **hopes** / **wishes** whether Mary left.
  - c. \*Bill **hopes** / **wishes** who left.
- By contrast, **veridical** preferential predicates, aka **emotive factives** are only anti-rogative to a milder degree.
- They generally license *wh*-complements (except *regret*), though *whether*-complements are still bad:
  - (9) a. Bill is **happy** / **surprised** that Mary left.
  - b. \*Bill is **happy** / **surprised** (about) whether Mary left.
  - c. Bill is **happy** / **surprised** (about) who left.

## NON-VERIDICAL PREFERENTIAL PREDICATES

- Can this pattern be derived from the semantics of preferential predicates?
- To see this, let us try to identify some general semantic properties of preferential predicates.
- First, consider cases with a **declarative complement**:
  - (10) Bill hopes that Mary left.
  - (11) Bill is happy that Mary left.
- When taking a declarative complement, preferential predicates convey that the proposition  $p$  expressed by the complement is in some sense preferable w.r.t. a set of alternatives for  $p$ .
- The relevant set of alternatives  $C$  is contextually determined, constrained by focus.

(Heim, 1994; Villalta, 2008, among others)

## NON-VERIDICAL PREFERENTIAL PREDICATES

- Now let's consider a case with an **interrogative complement**.
- We have to look at a veridical predicate because non-veridicals don't license interrogative complements.

(12) Bill is happy (about) who left.

- Here, the predicate conveys that the true answer  $p$  to the question expressed by the complement is preferred w.r.t. other answers to the question.
- So again, one proposition  $p$ , determined by the complement, is compared to a set of alternative propositions  $C$ , again partly determined by the complement.

# NON-VERIDICAL PREFERENTIAL PREDICATES

Romero (2015) and Uegaki and Sudo (2017) formalise this roughly as follows (I am simplifying here):

$$\llbracket \text{be happy}_C \rrbracket^w = \lambda Q_{\langle \text{st}, \text{t} \rangle} . \lambda x .$$

$$\exists p \in Q( \text{veridical} \wedge \text{preferential} )$$

veridical

preferential

(13) Bill is happy that Mary left.

(14) Bill is happy (about) who left.

# NON-VERIDICAL PREFERENTIAL PREDICATES

Uegaki and Sudo (2017) extend this to non-veridicals and note that this semantics predicts anti-rogativity:

$$\llbracket \text{hope}_C \rrbracket^w = \lambda Q_{\langle \text{st}, \text{t} \rangle} . \lambda x .$$

$$\exists p \in Q( \text{non-veridical} \wedge \text{preferential} ( \text{PREF}_x^w(p) > \text{AVE}(\{ \text{PREF}_x^w(p') \mid p' \in C \}) ) )$$

non-veridical

preferential

(15) Bill hopes that Mary left.

(16) \*Bill hopes who left. **trivial**

# ANTI-ROGATIVES OVERVIEW

- |  |          |
|--|----------|
| ① Likelihood predicates: e.g., <i>be likely</i>              | TRA/Mayr |
| ② Epistemic attitude predicates: e.g., <i>believe</i>        | TRA/Mayr |
| ③ Preferential attitude predicates: e.g., <i>hope</i>        | U&S      |
| ④ Truth-evaluating predicates: e.g., <i>be true</i>          | TRA      |
| ⑤ Speech act predicates: e.g., <i>assert, claim, suggest</i> |          |

Note that a theory of speech act predicates has to account for the difference between:

- **Anti-rogative** speech act predicates like *assert, claim, and suggest*;
- **Response** speech act predicates like *state, announce, and tell*.

This does not seem straightforward.

PART 3

# Rogatives

# ROGATIVE PREDICATES: CLASSIFICATION

Three **subclasses** (cf., Karttunen, 1977):

- ① Inquisitive predicates: *wonder, be curious, investigate*
- ② Dependency predicates: *depend on, be determined by*
- ③ Speech act predicates: *ask, inquire*

# WONDER

I will outline an account of *wonder* based on Uegaki (2015b) and Ciardelli and Roelofsen (2015).

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- $\text{INQ}_x^w$  is defined as a downward closed set of consistent information states, those that resolve the issues that  $x$  entertains.

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- To capture this, we need a representation of the things that an individual **would like to know**: her **inquisitive state**  $\text{INQ}_x$ .
- $\text{INQ}_x^w$  is defined as a downward closed set of consistent information states, those that resolve the issues that  $x$  entertains.
- Together, the states in  $\text{INQ}_x^w$  cover  $\text{DOX}_x^w$ :  $\bigcup \text{INQ}_x^w = \text{DOX}_x^w$

I will outline an account of *wonder* based on Uegaki (2015b) and Ciardelli and Roelofszen (2015).

Essentially: *wonder* = **not be certain** + **want to find out**

- To capture this, we need a representation of the things that an individual **would like to know**: her **inquisitive state**  $\text{INQ}$ .
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- Together, the states in  $\text{INQ}_x^w$  cover  $\text{DOX}_x^w$ :  $\bigcup \text{INQ}_x^w = \text{DOX}_x^w$
- For example:

$$\text{DOX}_x^w = \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline \circ & \circ \\ \hline \circ & / \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$\text{INQ}_x^w = \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline \circ & \circ \\ \hline \circ & \circ \\ \hline \end{array}$$

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

$\underbrace{\text{DOX}_x^w \notin P}$

$x$  isn't certain

$\wedge$

$\underbrace{\forall q \in \text{INQ}_x^w : q \in P}$

but wants to find out

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So: if *wonder* takes a declarative complement, the two conjuncts in the entry for the verb always become **contradictory**.

# ROGATIVES: OVERVIEW

- ① Inquisitive attitudes: e.g., *wonder*, *be curious* Uegaki / C&R
  - ② Dependency predicates: e.g., *depend on* Theiler *et al.* (2018)
  - ③ Speech act predicates: e.g., *ask*, *inquire* Theiler *et al.* (2018)
- The account for *depend on* is similar to that for *wonder*.
  - For *ask* and *inquire*, we may assume that the reported speech acts involve a **sincerity condition** requiring that the uttered sentence be inquisitive w.r.t. the common ground. This cannot be satisfied if the complement is declarative.
  - A challenging case is the contrast between *be curious* (rogative) and *interest* (responsive).

PART 4

# Further issues



## POLARITY SENSITIVITY

- Certain predicates don't like *whether*-complements in positive episodic sentences, while they do under **negation**:

(18) a. \*Bill is certain whether Mary left.  
b. Bill is not certain whether Mary left.

(19) a. \*Bill said whether Mary left.  
b. Bill didn't say whether Mary left.

- Mayr (2017) proposes that the environments in which these predicates license *whether*-complements are exactly those that license **NPIs**.
- Experimental data in van Gessel *et al.* (2018) sheds doubt on this generalization.
- Much further work is needed here, both empirically and theoretically.

# CONCLUSION

- The selectional restrictions of clause-embedding predicates can, at least in some cases, be **derived** from independently observable semantic properties of these predicates.
- Several issues remain open:
  - Anti-rogative *assert/claim* versus responsive *state/announce*
  - Rogative *be curious* versus responsive *interest*
  - Emotive factives like *surprise*, and especially *regret*
  - Polarity sensitive predicates like *be certain*
- Moreover, what we have seen is only part of a much wider landscape of selectional puzzles (involving mood, nominal arguments, exhaustivity, pair-list readings, root phenomena like auxiliary inversion and discourse particles, and more).

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- Moreover, what we have seen is only part of a much wider landscape of selectional puzzles (involving mood, nominal arguments, exhaustivity, pair-list readings, root phenomena like auxiliary inversion and discourse particles, and more).
- Hopefully, we'll know more by the end of the project!

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APPENDIX

# A uniform treatment of clausal complements

## SENTENCE MEANINGS IN INQUISITIVE SEMANTICS

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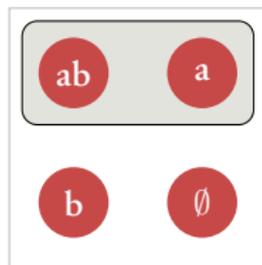
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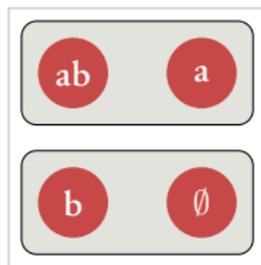
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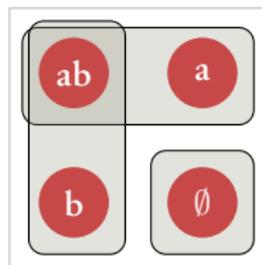
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Ann left.



Did Ann leave?



Who left?

# RESPONSIVE VERBS

set of resolutions  
of the complement

doxastic state  
of  $x$  in  $w$

$\llbracket \text{be certain} \rrbracket^w = \lambda P_{\langle st, t \rangle} . \lambda x . \text{DOX}_x^w \in P$

The diagram features a light gray rounded rectangle containing the semantic formula. Above the rectangle, two labels are positioned: 'set of resolutions of the complement' on the left and 'doxastic state of  $x$  in  $w$ ' on the right. A red arrow points from the first label to the lambda abstraction  $\lambda P_{\langle st, t \rangle}$ . A blue arrow points from the second label to the term  $\text{DOX}_x^w$ . A red arrow also points from the second label to the membership symbol  $\in$ . The terms  $\lambda P_{\langle st, t \rangle}$ ,  $\text{DOX}_x^w$ , and  $P$  are highlighted with light red, light blue, and light red circles, respectively.

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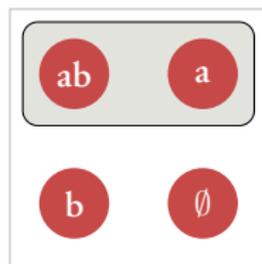
$\rightsquigarrow$  True in  $w$  iff  $\exists p \in \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \{w \mid \text{John left in } w\}, \\ \{w \mid \text{John didn't leave in } w\} \end{array} \right\}$  s.t.  $\text{DOX}_m^w \subseteq p$

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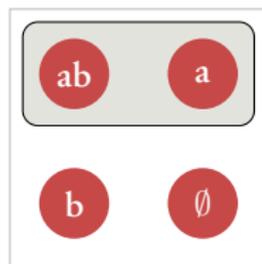


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Declarative complement meanings contain only **one alternative**, which typically **doesn't cover** the entire logical space.

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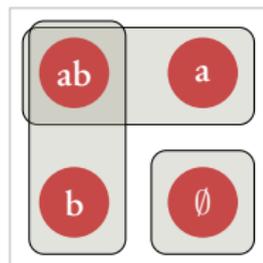
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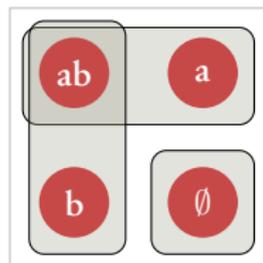


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