

Composing questions: A hybrid categorial approach

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- ① Why pursuing a categorial approach?
- ② Problems with traditional categorial approaches
- ③ Proposal: A hybrid categorial approach
- ④ Applications

1. Why pursuing a categorial approach?

What does a question denote?

Categorial approaches:	λ -abstracts
Hamblin Semantics:	sets of propositions (sets of possible answers)
Karttunen Semantics:	sets of propositions (sets of true answers)
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Short answers in discourse

- (1) Who did John see?
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| b. Mary. | (short answer) |

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- ▶ If it is **bare nominal**, it should be derivable from a question denotation.
 - ▶ If it is **covertly clausal**, it denotes a proposition and is derived by ellipsis.

Why pursuing a categorial approach?

Categorial approach

(Hausser & Zaefferer 1979, Hausser 1983, a.o)

A question denotes a λ -abstract. Short answers are possible arguments of a question.

$$(2) \quad \llbracket \text{who came} \rrbracket = \lambda x[\text{hmn}(x).\text{came}(x)]$$

$$\llbracket \text{who came} \rrbracket(\llbracket \text{John} \rrbracket) = \text{came}(j)$$

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A question denotes a set of propositions, each of which is a possible answer of this question. Short answers are covertly clausal and are derived by ellipsis.

$$(3) \llbracket \text{who came} \rrbracket = \{\hat{\ }came(x) : hmn(x)\}$$

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But, there are more independent reasons for pursuing a categorial approach.

1: Caponigro's generalization on free relatives and questions.

Free relatives (FRs)

When used as an FR, a *wh*-construction refers to a nominal short answer.

- (4) a. Mary ate [what John bought].
b. John went to [where he could get help].

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If a language uses the *wh*-strategy to form both questions and FRs, the *wh*-words found in FRs are always a **subset** of those found in questions. (Caponigro 2003)

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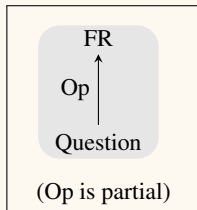
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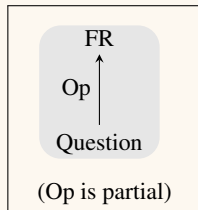
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- ☞ *Wh*-FRs are formed out of *wh*-questions.
- ☞ Short answers shall be semantically derivable from the root denotation of a question.



2: Quantificational variability effects

- (5) For the most part, John knows which students came.
≈ ‘For most of the students who did come, John knows that they came.’

2: Quantificational variability effects

- ▶ In most cases, the domain restriction of a matrix quantificational adverb can be formed by atomic **short** answers or **propositional** answers. (Lahiri 1991, 2002; Cremers 2016, a.o.)

(5) For the most part, John knows which students came.
≈ ‘For most of the students who did come, John knows that they came.’

(Context: *Among the consider four students, abc came but d didn't.*)

a. ✓ MOST x [$x \in \{a, b, c\}$] [J knows that x came]

b. ✓ MOST p [$p \in \{\hat{came}(a), \hat{came}(b), \hat{came}(c)\}$] [J knows p]

2: Quantificational variability effects (cont.)

- ▶ But, if the embedded questions has a **non-divisive** predicate, the domain restriction must be recovered based on a **short answer** (Schwarz 1994).
- (6) **For the most part**, John knows [Q who **formed the committee**].
≈ ‘For most of the committee members, John knows that they were in the committee.’

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- ✓ MOST x [$x \in AT(a \oplus b \oplus c)$] [J knows that x was in the committee]
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☞ Short answers must be derivable from the embedded question.

2: Quantificational variability effects (cont.)

- ▶ William (2000) salvages the proposition-based account by interpreting the embedded question with a **sub-divisive reading**,

(7) John knows which professors formed the committee
≈ ‘John knows which prof(s) x is such that x is part of the group of profs who formed the committee.’

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≈ ‘John knows which prof(s) x is such that x is part of the group of profs who formed the committee.’

a. $\llbracket \text{which} \rrbracket = \lambda A_{\langle e,t \rangle} \lambda P_{\langle e,t \rangle} \lambda p_{\langle s,t \rangle} . \exists x \in A [p = \lambda w . \exists y \in A [y \geq x \wedge P_w(y)]]$

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b. $\llbracket \text{which profs}_{@} \text{ f.t.b.q.} \rrbracket$
 $= \lambda p . \exists x [*prof_{@}(x) \wedge p = \lambda w . \exists y [*prof_{@}(y) \wedge y \geq x \wedge f.t.b.q._w(y)]]$
 $= \{ \lambda w . \exists y [*prof_{@}(y) \wedge y \geq x \wedge f.t.b.q._w(y)] : x \in *prof_{@} \}$
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- ▶ But, this sub-divisive reading is unavailable. Compare:

(8) a. Who is part of the professors who formed the committee, **for example**?
b. Which professors formed the committee, **# for example**?

Why pursuing a categorial approach?

Among the canonical approaches of question semantics, only categorial approaches can derive short answers from question roots semantically.

A full comparison of approaches to question semantics

	Categorial	Karttunen	Hamblin	Partition
Nominal short answers	✓	✗	✗	(✓)

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Nominal short answers	✓	✗	✗	(✓)
<i>Wh</i> -items as \exists -indefinites	✗	✓	✗	✗
Conjunctions of questions	✗	✓	✓	✓
Variations of exhaustivity	✓	✓	✓	✗

2. Traditional categorial approaches and their problems

Assumptions of traditional categorial approaches:

- ▶ A question denotes a λ -abstract.

- (9) a. $\llbracket \text{who came} \rrbracket = \lambda x[hmn(x).came(x)]$
b. $\llbracket \text{who bought what} \rrbracket = \lambda x\lambda y[hmn(x) \wedge thing(y).came(x)]$

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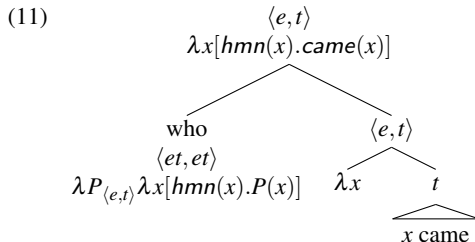
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- ▶ Composing a single-*wh* question:



1. Existential semantics of *wh*-words

- ▶ Defining the *wh*-determiner as a **λ -operator**, traditional categorial approaches cannot capture the existential semantics of *wh*-words.

$$(12) \quad \llbracket \text{wh-} \rrbracket = \lambda A \lambda f . \lambda x [A(x).f(x)]$$

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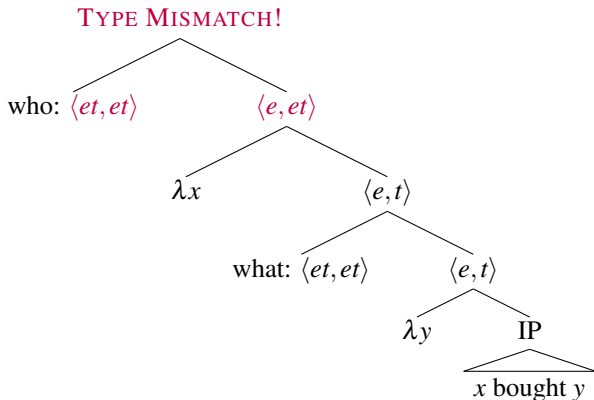
- ▶ Cross-linguistically, *wh*-words behave like **\exists -indefinites** in non-interrogatives.

(13) Mandarin

- Yuehan haoxiang jian-le **shenme-ren**.
John perhaps meet-PERF what-person
'It seems that John met **someone**.'
- Ruguo Yuehan jian-guo **shenme-ren**, qing gaosu wo.
If John meet-EXP what-person, please tell me.
'If John met **someone**, please tell me.'

2. Composing the single-pair reading of multi-*wh* suffers type mismatch.

$$(14) \llbracket \text{who bought what} \rrbracket = \lambda x \lambda y [hmn(x) \wedge \text{thing}(y).came(x)]$$



3. Coordinations of questions

- ▶ Conjunction and disjunction are standardly defined as **meet** and **join**. (Partee & Rooth 1983, Groenendijk & Stokhof 1989). Coordinated expressions must be of **the same conjoinable type**.

$$A' \sqcap B' = \begin{cases} A' \wedge B' & \text{if } A' B' \text{ are of type } t \\ \lambda x[A'(x) \sqcap B'(x)] & \text{if } A' B' \text{ are of some other conjoinable type} \\ \text{undefined} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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$$\begin{aligned} & \text{jump}_{\langle e,t \rangle} \sqcap \text{run}_{\langle e,t \rangle} \\ \# & \text{jump}_{\langle e,t \rangle} \sqcap \text{look-for}_{\langle e,et \rangle} \end{aligned}$$

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 d. *John and student $\# \text{LIFT}(\text{John})_{\langle et,t \rangle} \sqcap \text{student}_{\langle e,t \rangle}$
 $\# \text{John}_e \sqcap \text{student}_{\langle e,t \rangle}$

3. Coordinations of questions (cont.)

- ▶ But, categorial approaches assign different questions with different semantic types. Hence, they have difficulties in getting coordinations of questions.

- (16) a. John knows [[who came] _{$\langle e,t \rangle$} **and** [who bought what] _{$\langle e,et \rangle$}]
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- ▶ Questions can also be coordinated with declaratives:

(17) John knows [[who came] and [that Mary bought Coke]].

3. Coordinations of questions (cont.)

- ▶ Even if the coordinated questions are of the same conjoinable type, categorial approaches do not predict the correct prediction.

(18) John knows [$\langle e,t \rangle$ who voted for Andy] and [$\langle e,t \rangle$ who voted for Billy].
(Predicted reading: #‘John knows who voted for both Andy and Billy’.)

(19) \llbracket who voted for Andy and who voted for Billy \rrbracket
= \llbracket who voted for Andy $\rrbracket \sqcap \llbracket$ who voted for Billy \rrbracket
= $\lambda x[\text{hmn}(x).\text{vote-for}(x,a)] \sqcap \lambda x[\text{hmn}(x).\text{vote-for}(x,b)]$
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- ▶ Hamblin-Karttunen Semantics are also subject to this problem: conjunctions of questions would be analyzed as the intersection of two proposition sets.
- ▶ Inquisitive Semantics overcomes this problem. (Ciardelli & Roelofsen 2015, Ciardelli et al. 2017)

- ▶ We have to pursue a categorial approach, so as to capture:
 - ① Quantificational variability effects
 - ② Caponigro's generalization
 - ③ Other predicative embedded *wh*-constructions:
 - ▶ Question-Answer clauses in ASL
 - ▶ Mandarin *wh*-conditionals
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- 👉 **Goal:** To revive the categorial approach and overcome its problems.

3. Proposal: A hybrid categorial approach

Topical properties are λ -abstracts ranging over propositions. A topical property maps a short answer to a propositional answer.

(20) Which boy came?

a. $\mathbf{P} = \lambda x[\mathit{boy}_@ (x) = 1.\hat{\mathit{came}}(x)]$

b. $\mathbf{P}(j) = \hat{\mathit{came}}(j)$

$\text{Dom}(\mathbf{P})$	$\mathit{boy}_@$	the set of possible SAa
$\{\mathbf{P}(\alpha) : \alpha \in \text{Dom}(\mathbf{P})\}$	$\{\hat{\mathit{came}}(x) : x \in \mathit{boy}_@\}$	Hamblin set

1. The property domain:

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a. $\mathbf{P} = \lambda x[\mathit{boy}_@ (x) = 1.\hat{\text{came}}(x)]$

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BE converts an \exists -quantifier \mathcal{P} to its live-on set (viz. its quantification domain).

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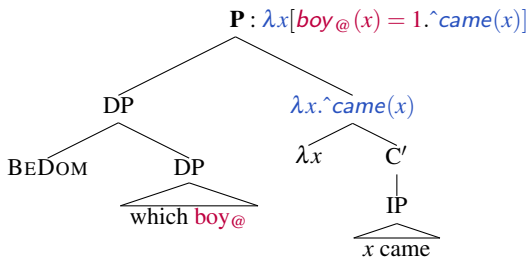
BEDOM converts a *wh*-item (an \exists -quantifier) into a domain restrictor

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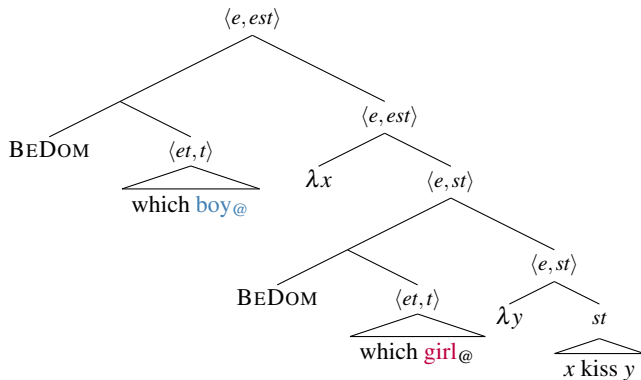


Proposal: Composing topical properties

BEDOM(\mathcal{P}) is type-flexible: $\langle \tau, \tau \rangle$

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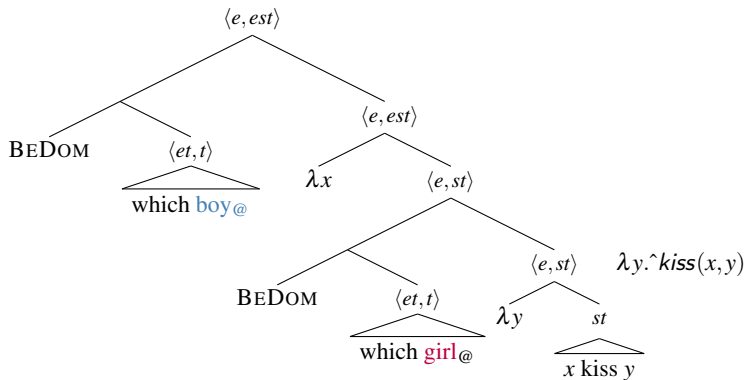


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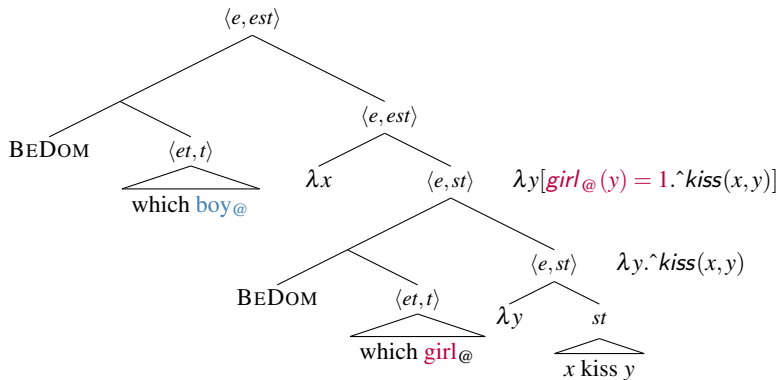


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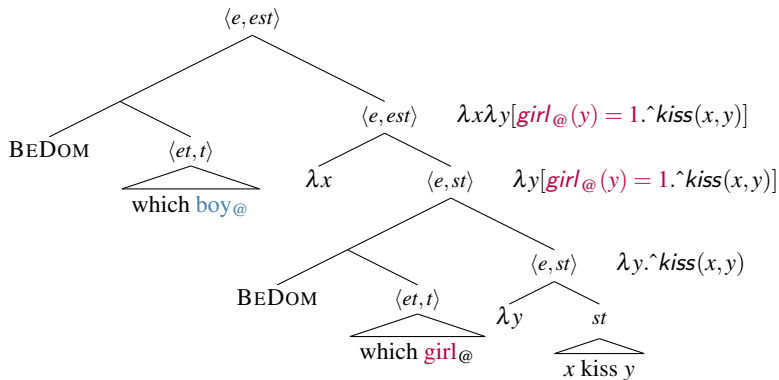


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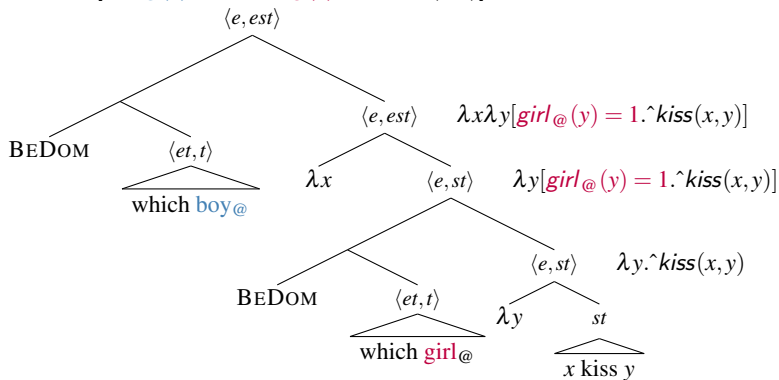
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$$\begin{aligned} & \lambda x [\text{boy}_{@}(x) = 1. \lambda y [\text{girl}_{@}(y) = 1. \hat{\wedge} \text{kiss}(x, y)]] \\ & = \lambda x \lambda y [\text{boy}_{@}(x) = 1 \wedge \text{girl}_{@}(y) = 1. \hat{\wedge} \text{kiss}(x, y)] \end{aligned}$$



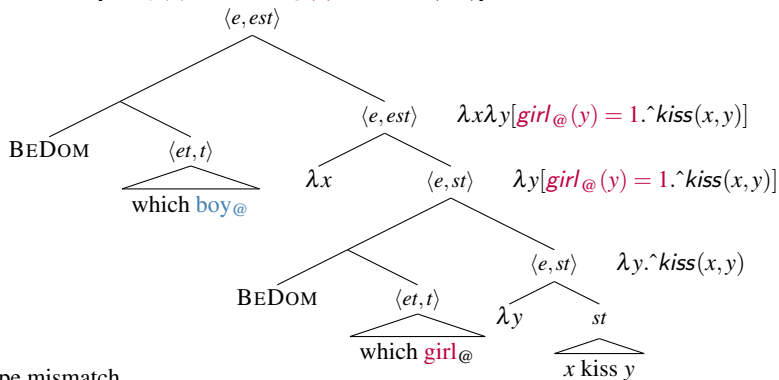
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No type mismatch.



a complete true answer

$\hat{\text{came}}'(a \oplus b) / a \oplus b$

f_{ch}
(choice function)

the set of complete true answers

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- ▶ **Note:** This tree is to demonstrate the derivation of answers, not a LF structure. f_{ch} and ANS are not necessarily syntactically present. They can be purely semantically active, or are lexically encoded within a question-embedding predicate/determiner.

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- ▶ **Fox (2013)**: a true answer is complete iff it is **maximally informative** (MaxI), namely, not asymmetrically entailed by any of the true answers.

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For propositional answers:

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For short answers:

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- ✓ Type-mismatch of composing multi-*wh* questions
- ✓ Getting short answers

Proposal: Interim summary

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- ✓ Type-mismatch of composing multi-*wh* questions
- ✓ Getting short answers
- ?? Getting coordinations of questions

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$$\begin{aligned}\llbracket A \text{ and } B \rrbracket &= A' \bar{\wedge} B' = \lambda \alpha [\alpha(A') \wedge \alpha(B')] \\ &= \lambda \alpha. \{A', B'\} \subseteq \alpha\end{aligned}$$

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The conjunctive is a meet applied to the Montague-lifted readings of the conjuncts.

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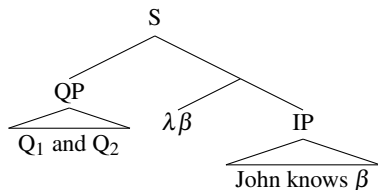
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This approach requires $\text{LIFT}(A')$ and $\text{LIFT}(B')$ to be of the same conjoinable type.

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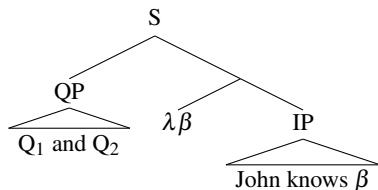
(28) John knows $[[Q_1 \text{ who came}] \text{ and } [Q_2 \text{ who bought what}]]$.



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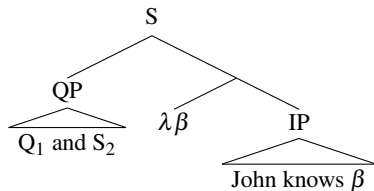


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(John knows who came, and John knows who bought what.)

► Likewise:

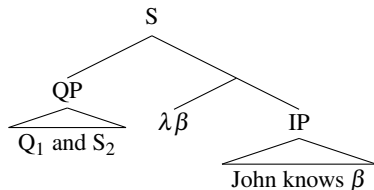
(29) John knows $[[Q_1 \text{ who came}] \text{ and } [S_2 \text{ that Mary bought Coke}]]$.



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- b. $[[S]] = (\lambda \alpha. [\alpha(Q'_1) \wedge \alpha(S'_2)])(\lambda \beta. \textit{know}(j, \beta))$
 $= (\lambda \beta. \textit{know}(j, \beta))(Q'_1) \wedge (\lambda \beta. \textit{know}(j, \beta))(S'_2)$
 $= \textit{know}(j, Q'_1) \wedge \textit{know}(j, S'_2)$
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Validation 1: [Q_1 and Q_2] > *surprise*

▶ *Surprise* is non-divisive:

- (30) John is **surprised** that [Mary went to Boston] and [Sue went to Chicago].
(He expected them go to the same city.)
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▶ *Surprise* is non-divisive:

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☞ Conjunctions of questions must scope above *surprise*.

Validation 2: $[Q_1 \text{ or } Q_2] > \textit{know}$

In (32-a), John needs to know the complete true answer of one of the questions, not just the disjunction of the complete true answers of the two questions.

(32) a. John knows [whether Mary invited *a*] **or** [whether Mary invited *b*].

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<i>Mary invite ...</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>a or b (or both)</i>
Fact	Yes	Yes	Yes
John's belief	?	?	Yes

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A challenging case

- ▶ The disjunction of questions seems can freely take scope above or below an **intensional predicate** (e.g., *wonder*, *investigate*). (Gr& S 1989)

(33) Peter wonders [Q₁whom John loves] or [Q₂whom Mary loves].

a. **Wide scope reading**

The speaker knows that Peter wants to know the answer to Q₁ or the answer to Q₂, but she is unsure to which question this answer is.

b. **Narrow scope reading**

Peter will be satisfied as long as he gets an answer to Q₁ or the answer to Q₂, no matter which one.

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- ▶ **Reply:** Decompose *wonder* into *wants to know* (Karttunen 1977, Guerzoni & Sharvit 2007, Uegaki 2015: chap. 2). The seeming narrow scope reading arises if the disjunction of questions scopes in between *want* and *know*.

(34) a. **Wide scope reading**

$[[Q_1 \text{ or } Q_2] \lambda\beta \text{ [Peter wants to know } \beta]]$

b. **Narrow scope reading**

$[\text{Peter wants } [[Q_1 \text{ or } Q_2] \lambda\beta \text{ [to know } \beta]]]$

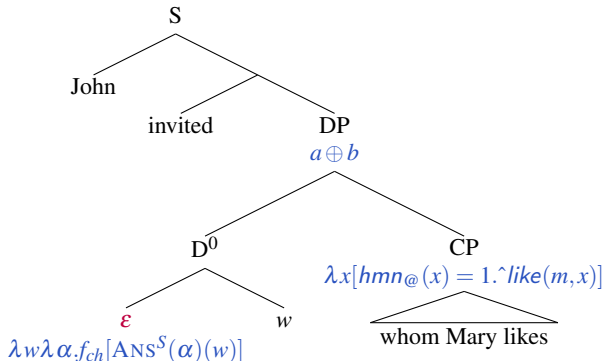
4. Applications

(See more applications in Xiang (2016: chap. 1).)

Application I: Free relatives

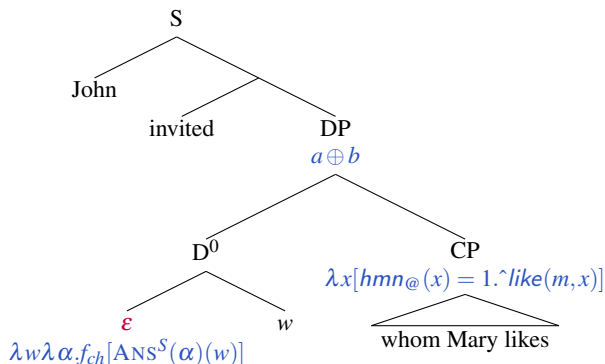
(35) John invited [whom Mary likes].

(Context: *Mary only likes Andy and Billy.*)



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Caponigro's generalization is captured:
wh-FRs are derived from *wh*-questions with the application of an ϵ -determiner.

Application II: Getting quantificational variability effects

The quantity adverb in an indirect question quantifies over either (i) or (ii):

- (i) the set of atomic subparts of some complete true **propositional** answer
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Based on a propositional complete true answer

- (36) $\llbracket \text{John mostly knows } Q \rrbracket^w = 1$ if and only if
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Based on a short complete true answer

- (37) $\llbracket \text{John mostly knows } Q \rrbracket^w = 1$ if and only if
 $\exists f_{\text{CH}} \exists x \in \text{ANS}^S(\llbracket Q \rrbracket)(w)[\text{MOST } y[y \in \text{AT}(x)]$
 $\quad \quad \quad [\text{know}_w(j, \lambda w'.y \leq f_{\text{CH}}[\text{ANS}^S(\llbracket Q \rrbracket)(w')])]]$
(For some x s.t. x is a MaxI true short answer of Q , most y in $\text{AT}(x)$ are s.t. John knows that y is a part of some particular MaxI true short answer of Q .)

Example

(38) For the most part, John knows [Q which professors formed the committee].

(Context: *The committee is formed by three professors abc*)

a. $\text{ANS}^S(\llbracket Q \rrbracket)(w) = \{a \oplus b \oplus c\}$

b. $\text{AT}(a \oplus b \oplus c) = \{a, b, c\}$

c. QV inference:

$$\lambda w. \exists f_{ch} [\text{MOST } y [y \in \{a, b, c\}] [\text{know}_w(j, \lambda w'. y \leq f_{ch} [\text{ANS}^S(\llbracket Q \rrbracket)(w')]])]$$

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- ▶ **Applications**
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This presentation is based on Xiang (2016: chapter 1) "Interpreting questions with non-exhaustive answers", Doctoral Dissertation, Harvard University.



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