

The Semantic Types of Clausal Complements

Tra semantica e sintassi: Il ruolo della linguistica storica

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Introduction

- Topic:
 - Clausal Complements
 - · Some ideas on the distribution and meaning
 - What can "formal" semantics contribute?
- Subtopics:
 - What is clausal complementation, and why should historical linguistics care?
 - Formal Semantics
 - Propositional attitudes: Mary believes that John is asleep.
 - Factivity: Mary believes / knows that John is asleep
 - Meaning composition factive determiners
 - De re / de se: John thinks he has a strange voice
 - Propositions and Events: Mary saw John leave.
 - Embedded illocutionary acts: Mary thinks John is asleep
 - Embedded questions
- Two recent typological treatments, to be mentioned:
 - Schmidtke-Bode, Karsten. 2014. Complement clauses and complementation systems: A crosslinguistic study of grammatical organization. Doct. diss. Friedrich-Schiller-Universität Jena.
 - Schmidtke-Bode, Karsten & Holger Diessel. 2017. Cross-linguistic patterns in the form, function and position of (object) complement clauses. Linguistics



WHAT IS CLAUSAL COMPLEMENTATION



- A clausal constituent occurs in the argument position of a predicate
- A special case of subordination:
- clausal argument is subcategorized by embedding predicate
- distinct from adverbial clauses as modifiers of verbal predicates
- distinct from relative clauses as modifiers of nominals
- distinct from free relatives, absolute constructions
- Relevant issues in clausal complementation:
- (root clauses, complementizer clauses, questions, imperatives?, Range of different clausal forms
- Participial and infinitive clauses, nominalizations)
 Range of different embedding predicates
- (verbal, adjectival, nominal)
- Which predicates and embedded clauses can be combined?
- Construction of meaning of predicate + clausal complement (compositional, constructional)
- Semantically equivalent embeddings of non-clauses
- pronominals I can't believe it/that
- concealed questions: He knows the time
- reponse particles: Creo que sí.)

And why should Historical Linguists care?



- Clausal complementation is an important phenomenon of language one of the central / universal? properties of the human language faculty (recursion: Clause within Clause)
- Evidence for subtle changes over time
- hypotaxis / parataxis
- changes in form and function of embedded clauses,
- changes in possible embedding predicates e.g. development and attricion of complementizers
- e.g. manner of speaking: Sie schluchzte, dass sie mich jetzt schon vermisse
- Evidence of ancient languages important:
- Unique features and combinations, cf. Cristofaro 2008 on Classical Greek
- Corpus evidence is often reasonably sufficient

FORMAL SEMANTICS



- Goal: Develop models that capture aspects of linguistic meaning
- Why?
- Derive predictions, check evidence, revise models, repeat ...
- Increase intended coverage of models (e.g. texts, communication)
- Things to be considered:
- Precision of models: Be certain what the model actually predicts
- Relation between meanings, e.g. inferences, incompatibilities
- Different status of meaning parts,
- and the mechanisms how they are derived e.g. presuppositions, implicatures, connotations
- Compositionality,
- meaning of complex expressions must be derivable from the parts
- Syntax/Prosody / Semantics relation, as a guide to how meanings are composed
- should make sense in terms of semantic models Language acquisition and processing data (behavioral, neuroscience)
- cf. work of Regine Eckardt (e.., 2006) Language change data should make sense in these models as well

Formal Semantics: Basic ideas

- History of ideas
- Gottlob Frege
- Rudolf Carnap, Richard Montague, David Lewis, Max Cresswell
- Barbara Partee, Gennaro Chierchia, Hans Kamp, Irene Heim, ...
- The very basic model
- We have a set of entities ("universe") $A = \{a_1, a_2, ...\}$
- Names identify certain entities, e.g. [John] = a₁, [Mary] = a₂
- Predicates identify certain sets of entities by mapping them to truth value 1, $\llbracket as leep \rrbracket = \llbracket a_1 \rightarrow 0, \ a_2 \rightarrow 1, \ a_3 \rightarrow 0, \ \ldots \rrbracket,$ abbr. \x[x is asleep]
- Transitive relations map entities to predicate meanings
- $\llbracket \textit{love} \rrbracket = [a_1 \rightarrow [a_1 \rightarrow 1, a_2 \rightarrow 0, a_3 \rightarrow 1, ...], \\ a_2 \rightarrow [a_1 \rightarrow 0, a_2 \rightarrow 1, a_3 \rightarrow 0, ...],$
- Predication consists in applying predicates / relations to names. resulting in truth values abbr. λyλx[x loves y]
- $\llbracket[Mary is as leep]\rrbracket = \llbracket as leep](\llbracket Mary \rrbracket) = [a_1 \rightarrow 0, a_1 \rightarrow 1, a_2 \rightarrow 0, ...](a_2) = 1$
- $\llbracket[Mary [loves John]]] = \llbracketlove](\llbracketJohn]](\llbracketMary]) = \llbracketknow](a_1)(a_2) = 0$



Formal Semantics: Propositions



- In the very basic model
- Considering different state-of-affairs possible worlds all true sentences mean the same (1) - and all false sentences too <math>(0)
- Set of possible worlds W
- Meanings as mapping from possible worlds:

-
$$\llbracket John \rrbracket$$
 = $\llbracket w_1 \rightarrow a_1, w_2 \rightarrow a_1, w_3 \rightarrow a_1, ... \rrbracket$, abbr. λw [John in w]
- $\llbracket as leep \rrbracket$ = $\llbracket w_1 \rightarrow [a_1 \rightarrow 0, a_2 \rightarrow 1, a_3 \rightarrow 0, ...]$,

abbr. \w\x[x is red in w]

- When applied to a particular possible world: truth value
 $$\begin{split} \llbracket [John is as leep] \rrbracket &= \lambda w \llbracket as leep \rrbracket (w) (\llbracket John \rrbracket (w)) \\ &= \llbracket w_1 \longrightarrow 0, \ w_2 \longrightarrow 1, \ \dots \end{bmatrix}, \end{split}$$
 abbr. \w[John in w is asleep in w]
- $\llbracket [John \ sleeps] \rrbracket (w_1) = 0$
- The meaning of a sentence a "proposition"
- Tells us the truth conditions: in which worlds is the sentence true or false?
- Often identified with the set of possible worlds at which the sentence is true
- Ultimately not sufficient: All tautologies and contradictions have the same meaning, to be neglected here.

PROPOSITIONAL ATTITUDES

- Dual role of propositions:
- Meaning of declarative sentences:
- $\llbracket [John is as leep] \rrbracket = \llbracket w_1 \rightarrow 0, w_2 \rightarrow 1, w_3 \rightarrow 0, \dots]$
- Object of propositional attitude verbs:
- Mary believes [that John is asleep]
- Modeling of propositional attitude verbs
- Relation between entity (believer) and proposition: [[Mary [believes [that John is asleep]]]]]:
- Hintikka 1962: [[believe]](w)([[John is asleep]])([[Mary]]) = 1 = [[believe]](w)([w₁→0, w₂→1, w₃→0, ...])(a₂) = 1 iff in w, a₂ considers the proposition [w₁→0, w₂→1, w₃→0, ...] to be true
- Belief als modal notion (quantification over possible worlds):
- In all worlds w' that are compatible with the beliefs of a in w
- the proposition p is true, i.e. p(w') = 1
- $\lambda w \forall w'[w' \in Bel(a_2, w) \longrightarrow p(w') = 1$
- $\lambda w \forall w'[w' \in Bel(a_2, w) \rightarrow [w_1 \rightarrow 0, w_2 \rightarrow 1, w_3 \rightarrow 0, ...](w') = 1]$



FACTIVITY

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- Knowledge:
- Knowledge as factive belief (Kiparsky & Kiparsky 1970)
- Mary knows that John is asleep \Leftrightarrow Mary believes that John is asleep
- Additional meaning component as a presupposition: and Mary is, in fact, asleep
- Mary doesn't know that John is asleep \Rightarrow Mary is, in fact, asleep
- Other cases of presupposition, e.g. additive particles John, too, is asleep. presupposes: Someone else is asleep

Presuppositions and Common Grounds

- A presupposition is a proposition that is treated as known to be true to the interlocutors by the speaker (Stalnaker, Beaver)
- Common Ground (CG)
- A CG is a set of propositions c that interlocutors consider shared information Claim of c: for all $p \in c$, p(real world) = 1
- The point of conversation is to add information to the the common ground
- $c + John is asleep. = c \cup {\lambdaw[John is asleep in w]}$
- Meanings as Context Change Potentials, functions from input CGs to output CGs (dynamic semantics; Stalnaker, Heim)
- $[John is asleep] = \lambda c[c \cup {\lambda w[John is asleep in w]}]$
- Presuppositions and common grounds
- Presupposed information is already present in input CG [John, too, is asleep]] =
- $Ac: Aw∃x≠John[x is asleep in w]∈c [c ∪ {Aw[John is asleep in w]}]$
- If this presupposition is not satisfied in the input CG: protest, or accommodation
- Presupposed information is projected (cf. Karttunen, Heim, Beaver)
- [It is not the case that John, too, is asleep] λ c: λ w∃x≠John[x is asleep in w]∈c [c ∪ { λ w¬[John is asleep in w]}]



The presupposition of factive predicates



- Applied to propositional attitudes:
- Believe
- [Mary believes that John is asleep]
- Knowledge: = $\lambda c[c \cup \lambda w \forall w'[w' \in Bel(w, Mary) \rightarrow \lambda w[John is asleep in w](w') = 1]]$
- [Mary knows that John is asleep]
- = λc: λw[John is asleep in w]∈c $[c \cup \lambda w \forall w'[w' \in Bel(w, Mary) \longrightarrow \lambda w[John is asleep in w](w') = 1]]$
- Other factive propositional attitudes, e.g. regrets referring to preferences [Mary regrets that John is asleep]
- = λc: λw[John is asleep in w]∈c
- $[c \cup \lambda w \forall w'[w] \in Prefer(w, Mary) \longrightarrow \lambda w[John is asleep in w](w') = 0]]$

MEANING COMPOSITION

- How are these meanings composed?
- What we have found:
- towards the proposition of the complement clause believe expresses that the subject referent has a propositional attitude
- but presupposes that the proposition is true. know expresses the same propositional attitude to the proposition,
- Question: Where does the additional presupposition come from?
- First possibility: From the meaning of the embedding predicate, as this is the only place of difference
- $\llbracket believe \rrbracket$ = λcλpλx[c ∪ {λw[∀w'∈Bel(w,x) → p(w')=1]}
- if there is a difference Second possibility: From the meaning of the embedded proposition, $\llbracket know \rrbracket = \lambda c \lambda p \lambda x: p \in c \ [c \cup \lambda w[\forall w' \in Bel(w,x) \longrightarrow p(w')=1]$
- [[that [John is asleep]]] = $\lambda c \in \{\lambda w[John is a sleep in w]\}$
- [[that_{fact} [John is asleep]]] = λcλw: λw[John is asleep in w]∈c

 $[c \cup {\lambdaw[John is asleep in w]}]$



Factive determiners



- Factive determiners, cf. Kastner 2015
- Example Daakie (Port Vato, Austronesian; Vanuatu), Krifka 2016
- Lising mwi 3SG.RE know kiibele [ke Enet mo know COMP.RE E. 3Su 3SG.RE sing koliet]]
- 'Lising knows that Enet sings.'
- Lising mwe deme [ka Enet bo koliet]
 L. 3SG.RE think COMP.IR E. 3SG.IR sing
 'Lising thinks that Enet sings'
- Lising mwe 'Lising held the wrong belief that Enet would sing mwe notselaane [ka Enet to kolie: 3SG.RE mistakenly.belief COMP.IR Enet 3SG.DIST sings koliet]]

Factive determiners: Classical Greek



- Determiners hóti (factive) vs. hōs (non-factive), cf. Cristofaro 2008
- Factive determiner hóti with indicative clause
- (14) ouk NEG know:3PL 120.2'They don't know that it was Hippias that was supreme' (Thucidides isasin hóti Hippías mèn [...] that Hippias PTCL êrche be.first.AOR:IND.3PL
- Non-factive deteminer *hos* with indicative clause

			(17)
PAST-arrive	egineto	the	oi
		PTCL	mèn
AOR IND SG		Lacedaemonians	$Lake da im\'onioi$
"	katà	say:3PL	$l \acute{e} gousi$
Į,	tèn		
Sinos	Samien	that	$h\bar{o}s$
			[]
]	the	ho
8	autoi	bow	krēt
PTCL	dè	1	er

'the Lacedaemonians say that the bowl arrived in Samos

- Two ways in which a proposition p can be part of a CG
- p is present in CG and assumed to be true, e.g. know, regret
- p is present as a topic in the CG: response-stance, e.g. deny, consider

How meanings compose



- In a language with distinct complementizers, what ensures that, e.g. know selects for that_{factive} clauses, believe selects for that_{nonfactive} clauses
- Cristorfaro 2008 argues for a constructional meaning,
- Such non-compositional assumptions are possible (cf. idioms), the complex meaning can be assigned only to the whole package
- but dispreferred, to be entertained only if compositional analysis is impossible
- assumption that syntactic parts contribute to meaning in a constant way Reason: We see syntactic structure as an instruction for semantic composition.
- Compositional derivation:
- Assume that know presupposes truth of complement:
- $\llbracket believe$] = $\lambda c \lambda p \lambda x [c ∪ {\lambda w [\forall w' \in Bel(w, x) → p(w')=1]}]$
- $\llbracket know \rrbracket = \lambda c \lambda p \lambda x: p \in c [c \cup \lambda w [\forall w' \in Bel(w, x) \longrightarrow p(w')=1]$
- Assume that that_{fact} presupposes truth of clause.
- · [[*that*_{fact}]] = λcλp: p∈c [p], [[*that*]] = λcλp [p]
- Well-known pragmatic principle "maximize presupposition" (Heim 1987),
- cf. choice of definite artice over indefinite article if uniqueness presupp. satisfied Hence: if $p \in c$, choose *know* and a *that*_{factive} clause due to maximize presupposition.

CONTENT INDIVIDUALS



- A new approach: Kratzer 2006, Keir Moulton 2011, Patrick Elliott 2016
- Propositional attitude predicates can subcategorize for individuals
- Example Mary believes the story / rumor (that John is a thief)
- Explanation: story, rumor etc. apply to entities that have propositional content
- Kratzer assumes that believe applies to such proposition containers in general (like container nouns like bottle that apply to things that have content, e.g. milk)
- Mary believes the story : Mary believes the propositional content of the story
- Generalization to other cases
- Embedding by that-clauses
- Mary believes that John is a thief. Mary holds the belief that John is a thief.
- analyzed as: Mary holds belief x, the content of x is specified by that-clause
- specifically: the content of x is compatible with the information of the that-clause $\forall w'[w] \in Dox(w)(x) \longrightarrow John is a thief in w']$
- Notice: modal quantification now resides in the complementizer
- Unifies verbal and nominal uses (believes that..., the belief that...)
- Treats complementizers as related to relativizers relevant for lg. history

DE RE / DE SE



- What is it?
- Two readings of John thinks that he has a nice voice.
- De re: John listenes to a voice recording, not knowing that this is his own voice he thinks that the person speaking on the recording has a strange voice,
- e.g. John said: "His voice is strange."
- De se: John considers his voice to be strange e.g. John said: "My voice is strange."
- ♦ How ist it expressed?
- Logophoric pronouns for de se readings, cf. Pearsons 2015, Ewe
- John bòu be yè / e nyi hovi
- J. thinks COMP LOG / 3SG COP stupid 'John thinks that he is stupid'
- Infinitive constructions with PRO subject
- John glaubt, PRO eine seltsame Stimme zu haben. only de se
- John glaubt, dass er eine seltsame Stimme hat. de se, de re, other person
- How can it be modeled?

Representation of de se

- Construction of the second
- Enrichment of clausal representation by perspective center z
- world + sign: "you are here!" (Lewis 1979, Chierchia 1990, Pearson 2015) Centered proposition, with logophoric anapher referring to perspective center z
- [[he_{log} has a strange voice]] = \lambda \lambda \lambda w [z has a strange voice in w]
- Propositional attitude predicates take perspectivized propositions
- Subject self-ascribes the property
- Formal implementation:
- Quantification over pairs of entities and worlds,
- <y,w'>∈Bel(w)(John) iff John considers w' true in w and John self-identifies with y
- [John thinks [he_{log} has a strange voice]]
- = $\lambda w V \langle y, w' \rangle [\langle y, w' \rangle \in Bel(w)(John) \rightarrow \lambda z \lambda w[z has a nice voice in w](y)(w')]]$
- Non-logophoric interpretation
- Regular anaphoric pronoun: free variable (to keep things simple)
- Interpretation as proposition:
- [[he_x has a strange voice]] = $\lambda w[x has a strange voice], x bound by John$
- [[hex has a strange voice]] = λzλw[x has a strange voice] Alternatively, a centered proposition:
- $\llbracket John_x$ thinks [he_{log} has a strange voice] \rrbracket = $\lambda w \forall \langle y, w' \rangle [\langle y, w' \rangle \in Bel(w)(John) \longrightarrow \lambda z \lambda w[John has a nice voice in w](y)(w')]]$

De se and PRO constructions



- De se interpretation and the syntax/semantics relation
- (not always with de se pronouns, cf. Pearsons 2015) With infinitival constructions, a de se reading is enforced
- Can be explained if infinitival constructions are analyzed as predicates
- $\llbracket to \rrbracket = \lambda R \lambda x \lambda w [R(w)(x)]$ [*have a strange voice*] = $\lambda w \lambda x [x has a strange voice in w], subject fills x position$
- Use of such meanings [[to have a strange voice]] = λxλw[x has a strange voice in w], no regular x position
- Fill object position of e.g. claim: John claims to have a strange voice: self ascription
- Also in commands: Mary ordered John to get her a beer. ascription of action to John Or generics: To have a strange voice is bothersom.
- Cf. Classical Greek, Cristofaro 2008:
- 5 oîmai believe:1SG and good:GEN knowledge:GEN kaí $kal\hat{e}s$ gàr **me** parà soù polles in.fact 1SG.ACC from you:GEN abundant:GEN soph íasparà soû plērōthēsesthai fill:PASS:FUT.INF $poll \hat{ar{e}}s$

out of you' (Plato, Symposium, 175e) ' I believe I will be filled with excellent wisdom drawn in abundance

PROPOSITIONS AND EVENTS

- Embedded propositions vs. events
- Propositions:
- Mary saw that John left / was leaving.
- Maria sah, dass Johann abgereist war / am Abreisen war.
- Events:
- Mary saw John leaving.
- Maria sah Johann abreisen.
- Maria sah, wie Johann abreiste.
- Events in grammar
- Davidson 1967, ... Maienborn 2011
- Representation of event sentences by event entities
- [John leave]] = λwλe[leaving(w)(e) ∧ AG(w)(e)=John]
- [John left]] = λw∃e[past(e,w) ∧ leaving(w)(e) ∧ AG(w)(e)=John]
- Embeddings:
- Event readings: visual contact with event that falls under event predicate
- Proposition readings: "inner" visual contact with proposition Aw =e'[see(w)(e')(Mary) ∧ Ae[leave(w)(e) ∧ AG(w)(e)=John](e')]
- realize as true due, often due to visual evidence
- λw[see(w)(λw'∃e[leave(w)(e) ∧ AG(w)(e)=John])]



Event embeddings: Meaning composition



- Event embeddings
- Gerundive or nominal expressions reduced clausal forms
- notional subject of embedded clause in the accusative
- Similar in Classical Greek (Cristofaro 2008): participial clauses
- (13)(a) kaí kaí \bar{e} gun \bar{e} eporaî min and the woman saw:3SG 3SG.ACC exiónta $gun\dot{\overline{e}}$

go.out:PRES.PTCPL-ACC.M.SG

'And the woman saw him go out' (Herodotus, 1.10.6)

- Cristotaro argues for a constructional meaning:
- perception verb + proposition: "realize" reading
- perception verb + participle clause: "perception" reading
- However, this can be treated by polysemy of embedding predicate
- seeing an entity, e.g. John saw Mary: visual contact with entity
- seeing an event, e.g. John saw Mary leave: visual contact with event
- seeing a proposition, e.g. John saw that Mary left: visual evidence for truth of proposition
- An interesting case: manner interrogatives
- insight in manner often requires direct experiential contact, but not necessarily so
- Die Polizei sah, wie die Einbrecher sich Zugang zu der Bank verschafften.

EMBEDDED ILLOCUTIONARY ACTS



- Embedded root clauses (Hopper & Thompson 1973, Heycock 2006)
- Lack of complementizer:
- Mary thinks / said John has left
- V2 in German, Scandinavian languages
- Maria glaubt / sagt, Johann ist abgereist. Restricted to non-factive predicates
- *Mary knows / regrets John has left.
- Cannot be in the scope of negation
- Mary didn't say / doesn't think that John has left
- *Mary didn't say / doesn't think John has left
- Sketch of explanation (Krifka 2014)
- Lack of complements, V2:
- Embedded clause is not a proposition, but an illocutionary act
- The embedded root clause is the main point of the utterance
- Embedding clause gives evidential motivation, similar to according-phrases:
- According to Mary, John has left.

Embedded illocutionary acts: modeling



- What is an illocutionary act, e.g. assertion?
- Distinction proposition / assertion (Frege 1879, 1918; Peirce 1905).
- φ: proposition, thought, bearer of truth values
- ⊢φ: claim that φ is true, a personal judgement, social commitment With a speech act, speaker undergoes a social commitment
- Modeling this as an act S_1 : John is a thief S_1 is now committed to the truth of the proposition: $S_1 \vdash \lambda w[J \text{ is a thief in } w]$
- Undergoing a commitment changes the world: new obligations
- cf. Szabolcsi 1982, Krifka 2014 Changes the Common Ground by adding a proposition / commitment
- Commitment changes and Common Grounds
- Assertion indicates two changes:
- c + S₁: John is a thief. = c \cup { λ w[J is a thief in w] $\cup \{S_1 \vdash \lambda w[J \text{ is a thief in } w]\}$
- Purpose of commitment: to convey a proposition φ , backed up by $S_1 \vdash \varphi$,
- In Krifka 2015: ϕ is triggered as conventional implicature of $S_1 \vdash \phi$

Adjusting commitments



- The level of commitment of assertion can be mitigated or enhanced while still trying to achieve adding a proposition to the CG (Wolf 2015)
- Adjusting level of commitment
- Invocation of authority:
- By God, John is a thief.
- Explicit performatives
- I swear, John is a thief.
- Commitment-level particles: German beileibe, Kiezdeutsch ischwör
- Adjusting the proposition speaker is committed to
- Epistemic weakening by particles
- Perhaps John is a thief.
- Johann ist wohl ein Dieb.
- Epistemic weakening by propositional attitudes:
- I believe John is a thief
- Evidential weakening
- Mary claims John is a thief Laut Maria ist Johann ein Dieb.

Role of embedded root



- Embedded root indicates what whould be added to the CG
- Explicit performative
- I swear, John is a thief. add 'John is a thief' to CG
- add 'S₁ is committed by oath to 'John is a thief' to CG
- Epistemically modified proposition I believe John is a thief: add 'John is a thief' to CG
- add 'S₁ is committed to 'S₁ believes 'John is a thief" to CG
- Evidentially modified proposition: Mary claims John is a thief: add 'John is a thief' to CG
- add 'S₁ is committed to 'Mary claims 'John is a thief" to CG
- This can explain:
- No negation, as this gives no motivation for adding the bare proposition
- *Ich glaube nicht, Johann ist ein Dieb.
- I don't believe John is a thief possible under neg raising: I believe John isn't a thief
- *Maria behauptet nicht, John ist ein Dieb.
- Restriction to non-factives, as factives already presuppose truth of proposition *Mary regrets, John is a thief.
- o.k.: I regret, we don't have salmon tonight. non-factive use

Modeling embedded root

- HUMBOLD TO THE REAL
- Explanation (for German, due to clear verb final / verb second distinction)
- Derivation without modification:
- Propositional level: IP
- [[] Johann ein Dieb ist]] = \mathcal{M}[J ist ein Dieb in w]
- CG modification:
- $\llbracket [c_{GP} Johann ist [p _ ein Dieb _]] = \lambda c[c \cup {\lambda w[J ist ein Dieb in w]}$
- Illocutionary Force:
- $\llbracket[F_{\text{proce}} \vdash [CGP Johann ist [P ein Dieb]]]$
- = $\lambda c[c \cup {\lambda w[J \text{ ist ein Dieb]}} \cup S_1 \vdash \lambda w[J \text{ ist ein Dieb in w]}]$
- Derivation with epistemic modification:
- CG modification:
- $\llbracket [c_{GP} Johann ist [l_P _ ein Dieb _]] \rrbracket = \lambda c[c \cup \{\lambda w[J ist ein Dieb in w]\}$
- Embedding by propositional attitude:
- [[_{CGP} Maria denkt [_{CGP} Johann ist ein Dieb]]]] = $\lambda c[c \cup {\lambda w[J ist ein Dieb in w]} \cup {\lambda w[M denkt in w: \lambda w[J ist ein Dieb in w]}]$
- Illocutionary force:
- [[_{ForceP} ⊢ [_{CGP} Maria denkt [_{CGP} Johann ist ein Dieb]]]]]
- = $\lambda c[c \cup {\lambda w[J ist ein Dieb in w]} \cup {\lambda w[M denkt in w: \lambda w[J ist ein Dieb in w]} \cup {S_1 \vdash {\lambda w[M denkt in w: \lambda w[J ist ein Dieb in w]}}$

Modeling embedded root



- $\mathbb{E}_{[c_{GP}} \vdash [c_{GP} Maria denkt [c_{GP} Johann ist ein Dieb]]]]$ = $\lambda c[c \cup {\lambda w[J ist ein Dieb in w]} \cup {\lambda w[M denkt in w: \lambda w[J ist ein Dieb in w]}$
- \cup {S₁ \vdash { λ w[M denkt in w: λ w[J ist ein Dieb in w]}]]
- In contrast, embedded non-root
- Complement clause
- [[_{CP} dass Johann ein Dieb ist]]] = λw[J ist ein Dieb in w]
- Embedding, CGP
- [[_{CGP} Maria denkt [_{CP} dass Johann ein Dieb ist]]]
 = λc[c ∪ {λw[M denkt in w: λw[J ist ein Dieb in w]}]
- Illocutionary force
- [[Forcep Haria denkt [cp dass Johann ein Dieb ist]]]]
- $\begin{array}{l} \lambda c[c \cup \{\lambda w[M \text{ denkt in } w: \lambda w[J \text{ ist ein Dieb in } w]\} \\ \cup \{S_1 \vdash \{\lambda w[M \text{ denkt in } w: \lambda w[J \text{ ist ein Dieb in } w]\}]\} \end{array}$
- Prediction:
- In Maria denkt, Johann ist ein Dieb, the proposition 'J is a thief' more salient
- Difference in anaphoric potential:
- S_1 : Maria denkt, dass Johann ein Dieb ist. S_2 : Das stimmt. (pref. Mary thinks so.)
- S₁: Maria denkt, Johann ist ein Dieb. - S₂: Das stimmt. (pref: J is a thief.)

EMBEDDED QUESTIONS

- Question embedding (cf. Groenendijk & Stokhof 1984):
- By predicates that also embed declaratives:
- Mary knows who is the thief.
- Mary knows whether / if John is the thief.
- By predicates that do not embed declaratives
 Mary wonders / asked who is the thief.
- Mary wonders / asked whether / if John is the thief.
- Question embedding under know etc.:
- Question denotes a set of propositions Q
- e.g. [*who is the thief*]] = 'J is the thief', 'Bill is the thief', ...'
- Embedding expresses quantification over true answers
- $\forall p[p \in Q \land p \text{ is true} \longrightarrow M \text{ knows that } p]$
- Explains why not with factive predicates, as they already presuppose truth
- *Mary regrets who came / whether John came
 Question embedding under wonder etc.:
- Not reducible to quantification over all true answers
- Evidence of illocutionary level, e.g. discourse particles denn
- Maria fragt sich, wer denn gekommen ist.



Concealed questions



- Embedding of nominals that are interpreted as questions:
- Example:
- John knows the time.
- John knows what the time is.
- Explanation (Heim 1979):
- The nominals in concealed questions are functional:
- [[time]] = \lambdat\w[t is the time of s w], s: situation
- This is similar to a question meaning
 [[who left]] = λxλw[person(x) ∧ x left in w]
- This explains why they embed under know.

Conclusion

- ND A VOBERLIN Y
- We have worked through a number of topics relating to clausal subordination
- relating to clausal subordination
- What is clausal complementation, and why should historical linguistics care?
- Formal Semantics
- Propositional attitudes: Mary believes that John is asleep
- Factivity: Mary believes / knows that John is asleep
- Meaning composition factive determiners
- Meaning composition factive determiners
 De re / de se: John thinks he has a strange voice
- Propositions and Events: Mary saw John leave
- Embedded illocutionary acts: Mary thinks John is
- Embedded illocutionary acts: Mary thinks John is asleep
- Embedded questions
- and the embedding predicates to describe the meanings of the embedded objects Formal semantics has developed reasonably rich and predictive models
- It is fruitful to use them in empirical research in typological and historical linguistics.



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