

Wh-quantification in Alternative Semantics

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(1) **Uses of Japanese *dare*:** (Shimoyama 2006:143)

<i>wh</i>	<i>da're</i>	interrogative 'who'
<i>wh</i> -MO(?)	<i>da're-mo</i>	universal 'everyone'
<i>wh</i> -DISJ	<i>da're-ka</i>	existential 'someone'
<i>wh</i> -EVEN	<i>dare-mo</i>	NPI 'anyone'
<i>wh</i> -CSP	<i>dare-demo</i>	free choice 'anyone'

Kuroda (1965:43) introduced the term “indeterminate” to refer to *wh*-words as “nouns that behave like a logical variable.”

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Many languages combine *wh*-phrases with other particles to form quantifiers.

- ▶ Two of the most common types of morphemes involved in *wh*-quantification are (a) disjunctors and (b) scalar focus particles (see e.g. Haspelmath 1997:157).

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I present a framework for the compositional semantics of alternatives which models various attested forms of *wh*-quantification, and helps us the prevalent use of disjunctors and focus particles in *wh*-quantification.

Wh-phrases (and disjunctions) introduce *alternatives* (Hamblin 1973 and many others). I adopt the view that these alternatives are formally the same as (Roothian) alternatives for the computation of focus (Beck 2006 a.o.).

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A: Focus particles (and disjunctions) are unique in quantifying over alternatives. (With some help,) they can quantify over alternatives introduced by *wh*-phrases, using their regular focus particle semantics.

- The approach derives common combinations such as *wh*-EVEN NPIs and *wh*-DISJ indefinites, as well as other combinations such as *wh*-CLEFT NPIs, *wh*-ONLY FCIs, and *wh*-COND-EVEN FCIs.
- Cross-linguistic differences in *wh*-quantification are due to (a) what (combinations of) operators are spelled out morphologically and (b) the syntactic distribution of the helping operators.

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Roadmap

- §1 Introduction
- §2 Alternative Semantics
- §3 The framework
- §4 Case studies
- §5 Variation

§2 Alternative Semantics

(2) **Alternative Semantics (Rooth 1985, 1992):**

We keep track of *two dimensions* of meaning. For any syntactic object α , we compute:

- a. the ordinary semantic value $\llbracket \alpha \rrbracket^0$; and
- b. the alternative set (or focus semantic value) $\llbracket \alpha \rrbracket^{\text{alt}}$, the set of all ordinary semantic values obtained by substituting alternatives for any F-marked subparts of α .

Roothian focus semantics

Consider the contrast below:

(3) Mary only bought a [sandwich]_F.

(4) Mary only [bought]_F a sandwich.

(3') $[[M \text{ bought a } [\text{sandwich}]_F]^{\circ} = \wedge M \text{ bought a sandwich} \quad (\textit{prejacent})$
 $[[M \text{ bought a } [\text{sandwich}]_F]^{\textit{alt}} = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \wedge M \text{ bought a sandwich} \\ \wedge M \text{ bought a pizza} \\ \wedge M \text{ bought a salad} \end{array} \right\} \quad \begin{array}{l} T \\ F \\ F \end{array}$

Alternative Semantics provides a recursive procedure for computing these alternative sets, often called "pointwise" or "Hamblin" composition.

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(5) $\left[\left[\text{only } \alpha \right] \right]^{\circ} = \lambda w . \forall q \in [\alpha]^{\text{alt}} (q \neq [\alpha]^{\circ} \rightarrow q(w) = 0)$
“All non-prejacent alternatives are false”
 \rightsquigarrow presupposition: $[\alpha]^{\circ}(w) = 1$

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Three details of note

1. Under this Roothian framework, any α satisfies $\llbracket \alpha \rrbracket^0 \in \llbracket \alpha \rrbracket^{\text{alt}}$. I codify this as a requirement that every clause satisfy (7):

(7) **Interpretability:** (based on Rooth 1992; Beck 2006)
To interpret α , $\llbracket \alpha \rrbracket^0$ must be defined and $\in \llbracket \alpha \rrbracket^{\text{alt}}$.

2. Focus particles are unique in being able to look at alternative sets ($\llbracket \dots \rrbracket^{\text{alt}}$). Other lexical items simply compose pointwise.
3. Once alternatives from a particular focus are “used” by a focus particle, those alternatives cannot be interpreted again by a higher operator. **All focus particles are “resetting”:**

(8) **Reset:**
 Op is “resetting” if it specifies $\llbracket Op \alpha \rrbracket^{\text{alt}} := \{ \llbracket Op \alpha \rrbracket^0 \}$.

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Neo-Hamblin question semantics

Hamblin 1973 proposed that the meaning of a question is the set of possible answer propositions.

$$(9) \quad \llbracket \text{Who does Alex like?} \rrbracket = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \wedge \text{Alex likes Bobby,} \\ \wedge \text{Alex likes Chris,} \\ \wedge \text{Alex likes Dana, \dots} \end{array} \right\}$$

Here I present a modern implementation of this idea in the Roothian two-dimensional semantics.

A *wh*-phrase has a set of possible values (\approx short answers) as its alternative set, with no defined ordinary semantic value (Ramchand 1997; Beck 2006):

- (10) $\llbracket who \rrbracket^o$ is undefined
 $\llbracket who \rrbracket^{alt} = \{x_e : x \text{ is human}\}$

Neo-Hamblin question semantics

(11) a. $\llbracket \text{Alex likes who} \rrbracket^{\circ}$ is undefined

b. $\llbracket \text{Alex likes who} \rrbracket^{\text{alt}} = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \wedge \text{Alex likes Bobby,} \\ \wedge \text{Alex likes Chris,} \\ \wedge \text{Alex likes Dana} \end{array} \right\}$

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An operator “lifts” the meaning in (11) into an Interpretable question meaning:

(12) **ALTSHIFT (Kotek 2016, 2019):**

a. $\llbracket [\text{ALTSHIFT } \alpha] \rrbracket^o = \llbracket \alpha \rrbracket^{\text{alt}}$

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Disjunction in Alternative Semantics

Alonso-Ovalle (2004) and Aloni (2007) propose that alternative sets are used for the interpretation of disjunction and its scope-taking, using a one-dimensional Hamblin semantics. They split disjunction into two steps:

1. A junctor head J (Den Dikken 2006 a.o.) creates an alternative set over its disjuncts;
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Let's translate this intuition into the two-dimensional Alternative Semantics framework. J forms an expression with no ordinary value, like *wh*-phrases:

(15) a. $\llbracket J \{ \text{Bobby, Chris} \} \rrbracket^o$ undefined

b. $\llbracket J \{ \text{Bobby, Chris} \} \rrbracket^{\text{alt}} = \{ \text{Bobby, Chris} \}$

(16) a. $\llbracket \text{Alex likes [Bobby or}_J \text{ Chris]} \rrbracket^o$ undefined

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(17) \exists with argument α :

a. $[[\exists \alpha]]^o = \vee [[\alpha]]^{\text{alt}}$

b. $[[\exists \alpha]]^{\text{alt}} = [[\alpha]]^{\text{alt}}$

(18) a. $[[\exists [A \text{ likes } [B \text{ or}_J C]]]]^o = \wedge A \text{ likes } B \vee A \text{ likes } C$

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A version of \exists which is “resetting” would fix this problem:

(19) \exists_{reset} with argument α :

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§3 The framework

The framework

A *wh*/J-containing clause has a non-singleton alternative set and no defined ordinary semantic value:

- (21) a. $\llbracket \llbracket_{\text{TP}} \dots \textit{wh}/\textit{J} \dots \rrbracket \rrbracket^{\text{o}}$ undefined
b. $\llbracket \llbracket_{\text{TP}} \dots \textit{wh}/\textit{J} \dots \rrbracket \rrbracket^{\text{alt}} = \{p, q, \dots\}$ (a set of propositions)

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- We can apply ALTSHIFT to (21) get an Interpretable question or apply \exists_{reset} to get an Interpretable existential/disjunctive proposition.

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- We could apply \exists to (21) to define an ordinary semantic value, but this result (22) will still violate Interpretability!

(22) a. $\llbracket \exists [\text{TP} \dots \text{wh}/\text{J} \dots] \rrbracket^0 = p \vee q \vee \dots$

b. $\llbracket \exists [\text{TP} \dots \text{wh}/\text{J} \dots] \rrbracket^{\text{alt}} = \{p, q, \dots\}$

- We can then apply a focus particle, which will fix the Interpretability problem, because it “resets” (8) the alternative set.
- Focus particles can't apply directly to (21) because there is no defined ordinary value (prejacent).

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§4 Case studies

§4.1 *Wh*-indefinites:

bare *wh* and *wh*-DISJ

§4.2 *Wh*-NPIs:

wh-EVEN and *wh*-CLEFT

§4.3 *Wh*-FCIs:

wh-ONLY and *wh*-COND-EVEN, etc.

Highlighting data from three Tibeto-Burman languages.

Since J-disjunctions and *wh*-phrases create similar meanings, a language could apply \exists_{reset} to a *wh*-containing clause.

- (23) a. $[[\exists_{\text{reset}} [\text{Alex likes who}]]]^0$
= $\wedge \text{Alex likes Bobby} \vee \text{Alex likes Chris} \vee \text{Alex likes Dana}$
= $\wedge \text{Alex likes someone}$
- b. $[[\exists_{\text{reset}} [\text{Alex likes who}]]]^{\text{alt}} = \{\wedge \text{Alex likes someone}\} \leftarrow \text{reset}$

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Bare *wh* indefinites

- ▶ We yield bare *wh* indefinites if:
 - $J \leftrightarrow$ disjunctive particle, e.g. “or”
 - $\exists_{\text{reset}} \leftrightarrow \emptyset$

Wh-disjunctor indefinites

As Haspelmath (1997), Bhat (2000), and others note, many languages use *wh*-phrases together with disjunctive particles as indefinites:

(24) **Some *wh*-disjunctor indefinites:**

		'who'	'someone'	
Hungarian	<i>ki</i>	<i>vala-ki</i>		(Szabolcsi 2015)
Japanese	<i>dare</i>	<i>da're-ka</i>		(Shimoyama 2006)
Kannada	<i>yaaru</i>	<i>yaar-oo</i>		(Amritavalli 2003)
Tiwa	<i>shar</i>	<i>shar-khi</i>		(Dawson to appear)

- ▶ In these languages, the pronunciation of disjunction reflects the use of \exists_{reset} , even in the absence of J:
 - J $\leftrightarrow \emptyset$
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Tiwa (Tibeto-Burman; Dawson 2019, to appear) offers a nice example of the disjunctive as the realization of (versions of) \exists_{reset} :

(25) **Two types of *wh*-indefinites (Dawson to appear):**

Maria *shar-pha/khí-go* lak mán-ga.

Maria who-KHI/PHA-ACC meet-PFV

‘Maria met someone.’

(26) **Wh-pha takes narrow scope; wh-khí takes wide scope:**

Chidî [*shar-pha/khí* sister]-go lak mán-a phi-gaido, Saldi khúp
if who-PHA/KHI sister-ACC meet-INF come-COND Saldi very
khâdu-gam.
happy-CF

‘If Saldi meets some nun, she would be very happy.’

a. -pha \Leftrightarrow if $>$ \exists : Meeting any nun will make Saldi happy.

b. -khí \Leftrightarrow $\exists >$ if: There is a nun that Saldi wants to meet.

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Wh-indefinites in Tiwa

- ▶ This correlates with the scope-taking behavior of two different disjunctions: *ba* and *khi*, related to *wh-pha* and *wh-khi*!

(27) ***Ba* disjunction takes narrow scope; *khi* takes wide scope:**

Mukton **ba/khi** Monbor phi-gaido, Saldi khâdu-gam.

Mukton BA/KHI Monbor come-COND Saldi happy-CF

'If Mukton or Monbor comes, Saldi would be happy.'

- ba* \Leftrightarrow if $>$ \vee : Saldi is in love with both Mukton and Monbor. She will be happy if either of them comes.
- khi* \Leftrightarrow $\vee >$ if: Saldi is in love with either Mukton or Monbor, but we don't know who. Whoever it is, if he comes to visit, Saldi will be very happy.

See Dawson 2018, to appear for additional scope facts.

- ▶ The uniform wide scope of *khi/wh-khi* and narrow scope of *ba/wh-pha* can be explained if *khi* and *ba/pha* realize different forms of \exists_{reset} :
 - \exists_{reset} with widest scope \leftrightarrow *khi*
 - \exists_{reset} with narrow scope \leftrightarrow *ba/pha*

NPIs have often been analyzed as involving an overt or covert *even*.

- ▶ **An NPI is an *even* associating with an indefinite.**

See e.g. Heim 1984; Krifka 1994; Lee and Horn 1995; Lahiri 1998; Chierchia 2013.

Here's our basic semantics for *even*, repeated from above:

$$(6) \quad \left[\begin{array}{c} \diagup \quad \diagdown \\ \text{even} \quad \alpha \end{array} \right]^{\circ} = \llbracket \alpha \rrbracket^{\circ}$$

\rightsquigarrow **presup.:** $\forall q \in \llbracket \alpha \rrbracket^{\text{alt}} [q \neq \llbracket \alpha \rrbracket^{\circ} \rightarrow \llbracket \alpha \rrbracket^{\circ} <_{\text{likely}} q]$
“The prejacent is the least likely alternative.”

The scalar meaning of *even* associated with an indefinite will be unsatisfiable, unless it's in a downward-entailing environment (Lahiri 1998), explaining NPI behavior (Ladusaw 1979).

(28) * [EVEN [I saw SOMEONE]]

$$[[I \text{ saw SOMEONE}]]^{\text{alt}} = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \wedge I \text{ saw someone,} \\ \wedge I \text{ saw many,} \\ \wedge I \text{ saw everyone} \end{array} \right\}$$

EVEN \sim ($\wedge I$ saw someone) $<_{\text{likely}}$ ($\wedge I$ saw many) and
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Tibetan (Erlewine and Kotek 2016) has *wh*-(one)-EVEN NPIs but bare *wh*-(one) are not indefinites.

(30) **Tibetan *wh*, indefinites, and NPIs:**

su 'who' *mi-gcig* "person-one" 'someone' *su-yang* 'anyone'
gare 'what' (*calag*)-*gcig* "(thing)-one" 'something' *gare-yang* 'anything'

- (31) ***Su-yang*** *slebs-ma-song* / **slebs-song*.
who-EVEN arrive-NEG-PRFV / *arrive-PRFV
'No one arrived.'

► Tibetan a free covert \exists but not \exists_{reset} .

(32) a. $[[\exists [\text{who arrived}]]]^0 = \wedge \text{someone arrived}$

b. $[[\exists [\text{who arrived}]]]^{\text{alt}} = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \wedge A \text{ arrived,} \\ \wedge B \text{ arrived,} \\ \wedge C \text{ arrived, ...} \end{array} \right\}$

× Violates Interpretability (7)!

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We can fix this Interpretability problem with EVEN, because it's resetting:

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EVEN $\rightsquigarrow \forall x [(\wedge \text{someone arrived}) <_{\text{likely}} (\wedge x \text{ arrived})]$
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We additionally need a downward-entailing operator to get a satisfiable presupposition:

(34) a. $\llbracket \text{EVEN} [\text{NEG} [\exists [\text{who arrived}]]] \rrbracket^o = \wedge \text{no one arrived}$
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Interpretable; Satisfiable (tautological) presupposition

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- (34) a. $\llbracket \text{EVEN} [\text{NEG} [\exists [\text{who arrived}]]] \rrbracket^{\circ} = \wedge \text{no one arrived}$
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- Interpretable; ○ Satisfiable (tautological) presupposition

- ▶ This explains why the use of EVEN is obligatory in *wh*-EVEN NPIs, even though the addition of EVEN does not make a contribution to the overall meaning expressed. **EVEN repairs the violation of Interpretability.**

Burmese forms *wh*-NPIs with a cleft semantics particle, *hma*:

(35) **Burmese *hma* (New and Erlewine 2018):**

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} \diagup \quad \diagdown \\ hma \quad \alpha \end{array} \right]^{\circ} = \lambda w . \llbracket \alpha \rrbracket^{\circ} (w)$$

\rightsquigarrow presup.: $\forall q \in \llbracket \alpha \rrbracket^{\text{alt}} [(q <_{\text{likely}} \llbracket \alpha \rrbracket^{\circ}) \rightarrow q(w) = 0]$
“All less likely alternatives are false.”

This is similar to the semantics for *it*-clefts in Velleman et al. 2012.

- (36) Nga-ga [*ba/* panthi]-ko-**hma ma-yu-keh-bu** /
1-NOM which apple-ACC-HMA NEG-take-PAST-NEG /
*yu-keh-deh.
*take-PAST-REAL
'I didn't take any apple(s).'

Wh-CLEFT NPIs can also be derived within our framework.

- **Burmese has free covert \exists but not \exists_{reset} .**

Let 1, 2, and 3 be apples in the context.

(37) a. $[[\exists [\text{I took which apple}]]]^0 = \wedge \text{I took 1} \vee \text{I took 2} \vee \text{I took 3}$

b. $[[\exists [\text{I took which apple}]]]^{\text{alt}} = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \wedge \text{I took 1,} \\ \wedge \text{I took 2,} \\ \wedge \text{I took 3} \end{array} \right\}$

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Now apply *hma* applying to (37), with and without higher negation:

(38) * $\llbracket \text{HMA} [\exists [\text{I took which apple}]] \rrbracket^{\circ} = \wedge \text{I took some apple}$

$\text{HMA} \rightsquigarrow \neg 1 \wedge \neg 2 \wedge \neg 3$

Interpretable;

Assertion incompatible with presupposition

(39) $\llbracket \text{NEG} [\text{HMA} [\exists [\text{I took which apple}]]] \rrbracket^{\circ}$

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Assertion compatible with presupposition

There are many different FCIs formed from *wh*-phrases with some particle (Giannakidou and Cheng 2006):

1. Wh-“modal particle”: e.g. English *who-ever*, Greek *opjos-dhipote*,...
2. Wh-DISJ: e.g. Korean *nwukwu-na* (Gill et al. 2006; Kim and Kaufmann 2006; Choi 2007; Choi and Romero 2008; a.o.)
3. Wh-THEN-ALSO: e.g. Dutch *wie den ook* (Rullmann 1996)

Here, I mention two patterns not mentioned in Giannakidou and Cheng 2006:

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(40) **Burmese *wh*-ONLY FCI:**

(Keely New, p.c.)

Nga [*bal* hin]-**beh** sar-lo ya-dal.
1 which dish-ONLY eat-C get-REAL
'I can eat any dish.'

- ▶ The use of an exhaustive particle (ONLY) in the expression of free choice can be understood under the exhaustification approach to free choice (Fox 2007), and can be modeled under this proposal. See Appendix A.

Chuj (Mayan; Kotek and Erlewine 2019) also forms FCIs with *wh* + ONLY.

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(41) **Tibetan *wh*-COP-COND-EVEN FCI:** (Erlewine 2019)

Mo.rang [*su yin-na*]-yang-la skad.cha bshad-gi-red.
she who COP-COND-EVEN-DAT speech talk-IMPF-AUX
[Pema is very friendly.] 'She talks to anyone.'

- ▶ *Even if* combinations are concessive conditionals, which can also form unconditionals. *Yin-na-yang* also functions as a concessive scalar particle. See Appendix B for my analysis.

And similarly in Dravidian (Rahul Balusu, yesterday)!

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And similarly in Dravidian (Rahul Balusu, yesterday)!

(41) **Tibetan *wh*-COP-COND-EVEN FCI:** (Erlewine 2019)

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§5 Accounting for variation

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Not all languages have the same range of *wh*-particle quantifier combinations. How do languages vary?

- 1 Differences in what (combinations of) operators are spelled out morphologically; and
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Different lexicalizations

We already saw this in §1: A disjunctive particle could morphologically realize J or \exists_{reset} , the two ingredients in boolean disjunction.

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Toba Batak *manang* (Erlewine 2017a)

Toba Batak (Austronesian; Indonesia) has a particle *manang* which forms disjunctions but also forms wh-NPI/FCIs.

(42) Man-uhor buku i [ho **manang** ahu].

ACT-buy book that 2sg MANANG 1sg

‘Either you or I bought the book.’

(43) Si Poltak (dang) mang-allang [**manang** aha].

PN Poltak NEG ACT-eat MANANG what

‘Poltak {doesn’t eat / eats} anything.’

► *manang* ↔ J or ∃. See Erlewine 2017a.

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Two disjunctors in Mandarin (Erlewine 2017b)

Mandarin has two disjunctors: *háishi* generally forms alternative questions, whereas *huòzhe* expresses logical disjunction, leading to proposals that *háishi* but not *huòzhe* has a [+wh] feature (Huang 1982, a.o.).

But the difference is neutralized in certain environments! These are, for many speakers, the same environments where *wh*-phrases also have non interrogative uses.

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Different syntactic restrictions

One example: In many languages with bare *wh* indefinites, they are limited to lower positions in the clause (Postma 1994; Bhat 2000).

(44) **Shoshone bare *wh* indefinites must be in-situ:**

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|----------------------------|---------------------------------|
| a. <i>Hakke</i> in puikka? | b. Ni kian <i>hakke</i> puikka. |
| who you saw | I perhaps who saw |
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§6 Conclusion

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Today I introduced a framework for productively understanding patterns of *wh*-quantification in two-dimensional Alternative Semantics.

- A few basic, independently motivated ingredients — *wh*, J , **ALTSHIFT**, \exists , and \exists_{reset} — can together model the behavior of many attested forms of *wh*-quantification.
- Crucial are the roles of **Interpretability** and **reset**. Both are assumed notions in previous work, but they hold the key to understanding the frequent use of focus particles and disjunction in *wh*-quantification.

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Q: Why are focus particles and disjunctors commonly involved in *wh*-quantification?

- A:**
- i. Focus particles are unique in the grammar in being able to access alternative sets ($[[\dots]]^{\text{alt}}$) (see e.g. Rooth 1992). (Disjunctive particles often spell out \exists_{reset} .)
 - ii. Focus particles are resetting, and therefore can repair violations of Interpretability, especially following the application of \exists .

The frequent use of focus particles in *wh*-quantification is unexplained by earlier approaches to *wh*-quantification such as Kratzer and Shimoyama 2002, which proposes various operators that quantify over alternatives which are unrelated to focus particles.

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Thank you! Questions?

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Appendix A: Burmese *wh*-ONLY FCI

(40) **Burmese *wh*-ONLY FCI:**

(Keely New, p.c.)

Nga [*bal hin*]-**beh** sar-lo ya-dal.

1 which dish-ONLY eat-C get-REAL

'I can eat any dish.'

I define a “pre-exhaustification” operator PREEXH which exhaustifies individual alternatives (see Chierchia 2013; Xiang 2016), leaving the ordinary denotation unchanged (45).

(Let EXH and ONLY here negate Innocently Excludable alternatives.)

Appendix A: Burmese *wh*-ONLY FCI

- (45) a. $\llbracket \text{PREEXH } \alpha \rrbracket^{\circ} = \llbracket \alpha \rrbracket^{\circ}$
b. $\llbracket \text{PREEXH } \alpha \rrbracket^{\text{alt}} = \left\{ \text{EXH}_{\text{C} = \llbracket \alpha \rrbracket^{\text{alt}}}(\mathbf{a}) : \mathbf{a} \in \llbracket \alpha \rrbracket^{\text{alt}} \right\}$
- (46) a. $\llbracket \llbracket \text{PREEXH } [\diamond [\exists [\text{I eat which dish}]]] \rrbracket \rrbracket^{\circ}$
= $\llbracket [\diamond [\exists [\text{I eat which dish}]]] \rrbracket^{\circ} = \diamond \text{ I eat some dish}$
b. $\llbracket \llbracket \text{PREEXH } [\diamond [\exists [\text{I eat which dish}]]] \rrbracket \rrbracket^{\text{alt}}$
= $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{EXH } \diamond \text{ I eat a,} \\ \text{EXH } \diamond \text{ I eat b, \dots} \end{array} \right\} = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \diamond \mathbf{a} \wedge \neg \diamond \mathbf{b}, \\ \diamond \mathbf{b} \wedge \neg \diamond \mathbf{a, \dots} \end{array} \right\}$

Appendix A: Burmese *wh*-ONLY FCI

ONLY applied to (45) results in the free choice inference:

$$(47) \quad \begin{aligned} & \llbracket \llbracket \text{ONLY} [\text{PREEXH} [\diamond [\exists [\text{I eat which dish}]]]] \rrbracket \rrbracket^0 \\ & = \neg(\diamond a \wedge \neg \diamond b) \wedge \neg(\diamond b \wedge \neg \diamond a) = \underline{\diamond a \wedge \diamond b} \quad (\text{given } \diamond \\ & \text{some}) \\ & \rightsquigarrow \diamond \text{ I eat some dish} \end{aligned}$$

Appendix A: Burmese *wh*-ONLY FCI

Without PREEXH, ONLY will (again) result in a triviality, as there are no Innocently Excludable alternatives.

But (47) predicts the free choice inference to be the at-issue content. This requires further investigation.

Appendix B: Tibetan *wh*-COP-COND-EVEN FCI

(41) **Tibetan *wh*-COP-COND-EVEN FCI:** (Erlewine 2019)

Mo.rang [su **yin-na**]-yang-la skad.cha bshad-gi-red.
she who COP-COND-EVEN-DAT speech talk-IMPf-AUX
[Pema is very friendly.] 'She talks to anyone.'

First, a syntactic puzzle: *wh-yin-na-yang* formally is a conditional clause (with EVEN) but in argument position. See especially the dative case in (41).

Appendix B: Tibetan *wh*-COP-COND-EVEN FCI

- ▶ I propose to adopt the Shimoyama 1999 E-type anaphora approach for (Japanese) head-internal relatives: The clause is adjoined above LF, with the argument position interpreted with an E-type pronoun.

- (48) a. Literal (41): She talks to [even if it's who] \Rightarrow
b. LF: [even if it's who_i], she talks to *them*_i
 \Rightarrow EVEN(if it's who_i, she talks to *them*_i)

(49) LF for (41): EVEN[α if \exists [they_i're *who*], she talks(HABITUAL) to them_i]

$[[\alpha]]^0 = \wedge$ if it's *someone*_i, she talks to them_i

$[[\alpha]]^{\text{alt}} = \{\wedge$ if it's x_i , she talks to them_i : x human}

Appendix B: Tibetan *wh*-COP-COND-EVEN FCI

- $\text{EVEN}(\alpha)$ asserts $\llbracket \alpha \rrbracket^0$: she talks to everyone (as long as they exist).
- Notice that the prejacent $\llbracket \alpha \rrbracket^0$ asymmetrically entails every proposition in $\llbracket \alpha \rrbracket^{\text{alt}}$. The presupposition of EVEN is thus satisfied.
- In addition, I propose that the assertion of $\llbracket \alpha \rrbracket^0$ instead of a more specific alternative in $\llbracket \alpha \rrbracket^{\text{alt}}$ yields a conversational implicature that ‘someone’ in the conditional clause can be verified by multiple (all?) individuals. This derives the free choice inference.

Appendix B: Tibetan *wh*-COP-COND-EVEN FCI

(50) * Episodic LF: EVEN[α if \exists [i_i 's what], he's eating i_i right now]

In this episodic situation, either the speaker knows what specifically is being eaten right now (maybe multiple things) — and therefore should be able to say a more specific alternative in $[[\alpha]]^{\text{alt}}$, contra the implicature above — or they can't be certain (and therefore shouldn't say, by Quality) that everything is being eaten right now ($[[\alpha]]^0$).