

Triggering Verbal Presuppositions

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Why do verbs give rise to the presuppositions they do?

- ◆ **Lexicalist approach** (Karttunen and Peters 1979, etc.):
Certain words carry a presupposition as part of their lexical meaning.
 - (1) *John **knows** that it is raining.*
 - *Carries a factive presupposition*
 - (2) *John **believes** that it is raining.*
 - *Does not carry a factive presupposition*
- ◆ Presuppositions are a completely arbitrary property of the lexical meaning.

Reasons for looking for a predictive mechanism

- **Non-detachability:** words that express a similar meaning stand with a similar presupposition (cf. Simons 2001)

(3) Has John **stopped** smoking?

(4) Has John **quit/finished/given up** smoking?

- **Cross-linguistically** stable phenomenon
(e.g. Levinson and Annamalai 1979. wrt. English and Tamil)

- **Presuppositions everywhere**

(5) If John killed Bill (at time t_1), then Mary is very sad.

Inference: Bill was alive at some time t_2 (before t_1).

A Pragmatic Approach

- at least some presuppositions have a conversational source
 - ◆ Stalnaker's (1974) suggestion: If an assertion contributes a heterogeneous meaning, one of the components of its entailed meaning gets presupposed

E.g: John knows that it is raining:
It is raining + John believes^{**} it is raining
 - ◆ **Rationale:** otherwise the hearer would not know *what the main point of the speaker's contribution* to the context is.
 - ◆ **But** Stalnaker (1974) makes no prediction as to which component of the meaning should get presupposed

Two Recent Proposals

1. Simons (2001):

- ◆ If A raises the question whether q, and q asymmetrically entails p, then A believes p

E.g: q=*John knows it is raining*

p= *it is raining*

- ◆ **Problem:** incorrect predictions

2. Abusch (2002, 2010):

- ◆ Some words have alternatives specified to them in the lexicon:

e.g. *stop | continue*

- ◆ We pragmatically presuppose that some of these is true:

John stopped smoking or John continued to smoke

→ What the disjunction still entails is the presupposition

- ◆ **Problem:** We still need a lexical stipulation

Preview of the general idea proposed here

Intuition: Entailments of a sentence S that are independent from the main point of S are presupposed.

- **The main point** of the sentence is given by those entailments that are by nature about the event time of the matrix predicate.
- The additional information that is entailed by a sentence but is not (or does not have to be) about the event time of the matrix predicate is **presupposed**.

Event times

- Following Partee (1973) I will assume that the event times of predicates are their arguments, and behave like a pronoun

(6) $\llbracket \text{came} \rrbracket = \lambda t_i. \lambda x. x \text{ came at } t_i$

(7) John came at t_6 .

- **Examples:**

(8) John knows (at time t_1) that it was raining (at time t_2)

Presupposition: it was raining (at time t_2)

(not about t_1 , if t_1 and t_2 don't overlap.)

(9) John stopped smoking (at time t_1)

Presupposition: John smoked at t_2 (where $t_2 < t_1$)

(not about t_1)

Canonical Temporal Representation

- **Canonical temporal representation:** is a sentence in which the independent temporal argument positions of sentences are filled by choosing any constant of the right type.

(10) John knows (at time τ_1) that it was raining (at time τ_2)

Let's call the original temporal arguments of a sentence TS-arguments and the ones that replace them CTS-arguments.

- (11) **The CT(S) equivalent p'** of an entailment p of S ($p =_{CTS} p'$)
- p itself, if p does not contain TS arguments
 - Otherwise p' is the proposition that p can be turned into by replacing its TS-arguments by the corresponding CTS-arguments.

The triggering mechanism

- An entailment p of S is presupposed if S has a CTS-representation such that the CTS-equivalent of p is not about the event time of the matrix predicate of CTS.

Illustration: Let's choose a τ_1 and τ_2 that do not overlap.

- (12) $S = \text{John knows at time } t_1 \text{ that it is raining at time } t_1$
- CTS: John knows at τ_1 that it is raining at τ_2
 - $S \models$ it is raining at t_1
 - It is raining at $t_1 \models_{\text{CTS}}$ it is raining at τ_2
 - it is raining at τ_2 is not about τ_1
 - therefore, S presupposes that it is raining at t_1

Being about an argument (FOL):

- Demolombe and Fariñas del Cerro (2000)
- ◆ to define aboutness, we first need to introduce the notion of **variants** of an interpretation with regard to an object c :
 - **Roughly speaking**, this is the set of interpretations M^c that only differ from M by the truth assignment of atomic sentences where c appears as an argument.
- ◆ A formula F is **about** an object c iff there are two models $\{M, M'\} \in M^c$ and $M \models F$ and $M' \not\models F$

Being about an argument (FOL):

■ An example

Let L be a language with a unique unary predicate symbol *tired*, and the constant symbols *Fido*, *John*, *Mary*.

Let M be an interpretation of L defined by:

$D = \{Fido, Mary, John, Sue\}$;

$i_M(Fido) = Fido$; $i_M(Mary) = Mary$; $i_M(John) = John$

$i_M(\text{is tired}) = \{ Fido, John, Sue \}$

- ◆ $S = Fido \text{ is tired}$ is **about** Fido, because there is an $M' \in M^{Fido}$, such that $M \models S$ and $M' \not\models S$, e.g. where $i_{M'}(\text{is tired}) = \{John, Sue\}$
- ◆ $F = John \text{ is tired}$ is not about Fido, because for every $M' \in M^{Fido}$, $M' \models F$

Being about an argument (FOL):

- ◆ *Fido is tired or Fido is not tired is not about Fido*, because for every $M' \in M^{\text{Fido}}$, $M' \models T$.
- ◆ *Every individual is tired is about Fido*, because there is an $M' \in M^{\text{Fido}}$ such that $M \models F$ and $M' \not\models F$, e.g. where $i_{M'}(\text{is tired}) = \{\text{John, Sue}\}$

Interestingly,

suppose originally in our example we had $i_M(\text{is tired}) = \{\text{Fido}\}$

- ◆ *Some individual is tired is about Fido*, because there is an $M' \in M^{\text{Fido}}$, such that $M \models F$ and $M' \not\models F$, e.g. where $i_{M'}(\text{is tired}) = \emptyset$

Being about an argument (possible worlds semantics)

- **Variants:** w, w' are c -variants iff they only differ in the interpretation of atomic sentences that contain an expression referring to c as an argument¹

- **Aboutness:**

A sentence S is **about** an object c iff there are two worlds w, w' which are c variants and $F(w)=1$ and $F(w')=0$

¹ I am assuming that the language does not contain expressions st. $A \leftrightarrow P(b)$, i.e. possible worlds are defined by the combinatorial possibilities of the elements in the language

The proposal

- The mechanism looks at the set of all the entailments of a sentence S , and checks if any of them are predicted to be presupposed.

Example:

S = John knows at t_1 that Mary is tired at t_1

- ◆ **Logical entailments:** $S \vee Q$ (if $S \models q$, then $q \models S \vee (q \wedge \neg S)$)
(Existential sentences: Someone knows that Mary is tired)

- ◆ **Lexical entailments:**

ϕ = John knows at t_1 that Mary is tired at t_1

ψ = John believes at t_1 that Mary is tired at t_1

χ = Mary is tired at t_1

The proposal

- An entailment p of S is presupposed if S has a CTS-representation such that the CTS-equivalent of p is not about the event time of the matrix predicate of CTS.

Illustration: Let's choose a τ_1 and τ_2 that do not overlap.

- (13) $S = \text{John knows at time } t_1 \text{ that it is raining at time } t_1$
- CTS: John knows at τ_1 that it is raining at τ_2
 - $S \models \text{it is raining at } t_2$
 - $\text{It is raining at } t_2 \models_{\text{CTS}} \text{it is raining at } \tau_2$
 - it is raining at τ_2 is not about τ_1
 - therefore, S presupposes that it is raining at t_1

The proposal

- An entailment p of S is presupposed if S has a CTS-representation such that the CTS-equivalent of p is not about the event time of the matrix predicate of CTS.

Compare: Let's choose a τ_1 and τ_2 that do not overlap.

- (14) $S = \text{John knows at time } t_1 \text{ that it is raining at time } t_1$
- CTS: John knows at τ_1 that it is raining at τ_2
 - $S \models \text{John believes at } t_1 \text{ that it is raining at } t_2$
 - John believes t_1 raining at $t_2 =_{\text{CTS}} \text{John believes } \tau_1 \text{ raining at } \tau_2$
 - that John believes τ_1 it is raining at τ_2 is *about* τ_1
 - S does **not** presuppose that John believes at t_1 it is raining at t_1

Know vs. Believe

ϕ = John **knows** that Mary is tired

$K = \{ \phi, \psi, \chi, \text{ Someone knows that Mary is tired, } \phi \vee \omega, \text{ etc. } \}$

- ◆ That Mary is tired is presupposed

ψ = John **believes** that Mary is tired

$K = \{ \psi, \text{ Someone believes that Mary is tired, } \psi \vee \omega, \text{ etc. } \}$

- ◆ Nothing is presupposed

Example: Stop

(15) **S= John** stopped **smoking** at t_1 .

ψ =John does not smoke at t_1

ϕ =John smoked at t_2 (where t_2 refers to some time before t_1)

χ =John stopped smoking at t_1 .

◆ Let's choose a τ_1 that does not overlap with t_1 or t_2

(16) **S= John** stopped **smoking** at t_1 .

a. CTS: John stopped smoking at τ_1

b. **SI= John** smokes at t_2 (where t_2 refers to some time before t_1)

c. John smokes at t_2 =_{CTS} John smokes at t_2

d. John smokes at t_2 is not about τ_1

e. therefore, **S** presupposes that John smokes at t_2

Compare: Kill

(17) John killed Bill at t_1

◆ Some lexical entailments:

φ =John killed Bill at t_1

ψ =Bill is dead at t_1

χ =Bill was alive at t_2

Entailments that are predicted to be presupposed: χ

(\approx change of state verbs)

Implicatives

(18) John managed to solve the exercise

(19) *John managed to solve the exercise tomorrow

- ◆ The tense argument of the embedded clause is not independent: it cannot be substituted by a new constant in the CT(S): only with that of the matrix tense.
- ◆ The complement is not predicted to be presupposed

Compare:

(20) John is happy to leave tomorrow

Adding common knowledge: Sortal Presuppositions

- The lexical entailment φ of (17) is not predicted to be presupposed:

(21) John knows that Mary is tired at t_1

$\varphi =$ John is sentient at t_1

- However, φ contextually entails (24):

(22) John is sentient in general

Gen t [C(j,t)] [sentient (j,t)]

- ◆ Generics do not express universal quantification over times (they allow exceptions, in fact not even a single verifying instance is needed, etc.)
- ◆ Therefore, the generic entailment of a sentence is not about the event time t_1 , hence (24) is predicted to be presupposed.

Conclusion

- A predictive mechanism for verbal presuppositions
- Certain entailments are distinguished: The entailments that are not necessarily about the event time.
- This triggering mechanism itself is context independent, but the pool of relevant entailments (candidates for presuppositions) is sensitive to common knowledge.

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Appendix 1: Fillmore's cases: *be right* vs. *be aware*

- (23) John **is right** that dinner is ready
asserts: Dinner is ready
presupposes: John believes that dinner is ready
- (24) John **is aware** that dinner is ready
asserts: John believes that dinner is ready
presupposes: Dinner is ready

The proposal predicts a factive presupposition for both. However, syntactically the two do not behave alike (cf. Schlenker 2008):

- (25) John is right in claiming that dinner is ready
 ψ =John claimed that dinner was ready (at a previous time)
 ϕ = John's claim is correct

Now (27) will presuppose both ψ and the factive entailment. The latter can be canceled however, if it contradicts the asserted meaning.

Appendix 2: Context sensitivity? Part-time triggers

Schlenker's (2006, 2010) case of context dependency:

(26) Mary has **announced** that she is pregnant

- ◆ **Case 1:** Mary is assumed to be reliable and therefore the context entails the truth of the embedded proposition
 - it is presupposed that Mary is pregnant
- ◆ **Case 2:** Mary is assumed to be unreliable (e.g. she is 7-years old) and therefore context does not entail the truth of the embedded proposition
 - it is *not* presupposed that Mary is pregnant
- ◆ **Here: At first blush,** it seems that when the embedded proposition is contextually entailed, it is also presupposed.

Context sensitivity? Part-time triggers

But look at the following example (from Schlenker 2006)

(27) George the butler has **announced** that dinner is ready

- ◆ **Case 3:** George is assumed to be superreliable (if He says $p \rightarrow p$, and if He does not say $p \rightarrow \text{not } p$)
 - it is *not* presupposed that dinner is ready
- ◆ The contextual inferences of part time triggers are not monotonic: It is not enough for the embedded proposition to be contextually entailed, to be presupposed. It also has to be the case that certain further entailments are not present.
- ◆ The present mechanism cannot predict such a non-monotonic pattern.
- ◆ Presumably, such inferences are due a different mechanism.

Appendix 3: *Regret*

(28) John regrets that it is raining

What does (30) presuppose?

- ◆ Kiparsky and Kiparsky (1970), Gazdar (1979): *it is raining*
- ◆ Klein (1975), Egré (2005): *John believes that it is raining*

■ Here: *regret* triggers a true factive presupposition.

(and assume that there is a mechanism that can weaken it in some cases, e.g. using the weakening mechanism proposed in Geurts (1999))

Appendix 4: Disjunctions

- ◆ An entailment P of S is expressible as $S \vee Q$, where $Q = P \wedge \neg S$.
 - ◆ Assuming that S is a sentence about c , is $S \vee Q$ about c ?
1. If $S \vee Q$ is a tautology, then the whole disjunction is not about c .
 2. If $S \vee Q$ is not a tautology, then the disjunction is about c .
[A disjunction is true in a world w if at least one of its disjuncts is true in w , and false if no disjuncts are true in w . Therefore the disjunction $S \vee Q$ will be about c if it is possible to find two c -variants st. one of them makes all the disjuncts $S \vee Q$ false, while the other makes at least one disjunct true. Since Q does not contain a disjunct that is entailed by S , and S is about c , it is possible to find two c -variants w, w' , st. $[[Q]]^w = [[Q]]^{w'} = 0$ and $[[S]]^w = 1$ and $[[S]]^{w'} = 0$. Thus $S \vee Q$ will be true in w and false in w' , and therefore $S \vee Q$ is about c .]

(Elements of W are assumed to be derived via the combinatorial possibilities of the elements in the language. E.g. if the language contains one individual, three 1-place predicates, and no other predicate, there will be exactly eight possible worlds in W .)

Example: Discover

(29) Peter discovered at t_1 that Mary is tired at t_1

ϕ =Mary is tired at t_1 (*\approx factives*)

ψ =Peter did not know that Mary is tired at t_2 (where $t_2 < t_1$)
(*\approx change of state verbs*)

→ ϕ and ψ are presupposed