Trace Conversion and Late Merger

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1 Trace Conversion

- Downstairs copies of moved quantificational DPs cannot be interpreted as-is at LF. Minimally, interpreting both copies would derive gibberish/unintended meanings:
 - (1) $[_{CP} \text{ someone } [\lambda_1 [\text{ should } [_{\nu P} \text{ someone stay at home }]]]]$
 - a. $[vP] = \lambda s \cdot \exists x [PERSON_s(x) \land STAY-HOME_s(x)]$
 - b. $[CP] = \lambda s$. $\exists y [PERSON_s(y) \land \forall s' [s' \in SHOULD(s) \rightarrow \exists x [PERSON_{s'}(x) \land STAY-HOME_{s'}(x)]]]$
- One influential idea about how these structures are rendered interpretable is that the downstairs copy is interpreted as an *anaphoric definite description*.^{1,2}

* Trace Conversion

The most well-known way to achieve this interpretation is Fox's *Trace Conversion*, a special LF rule that applies to the downstairs copy:

(2) TRACE CONVERSION

- a. Variable Insertion (Det) Pred \rightarrow (Det) [[Pred] [ID-n]]
- b. **Determiner Replacement** (Det) $[[Pred] [ID-n]] \rightarrow$ the [[Pred] [ID-n]]

(3) a.
$$[\![ID-n]\!]^g = \lambda x \cdot x = g(n)$$

b. $[the]^g = \lambda P : \underbrace{\exists ! x [P(x)]}_{\text{presupposition}} \cdot \underbrace{\iota x [P(x)]}_{\text{assertion}}$

• Example semantic derivation (simplified)



The nodes from DP^* upwards are defined iff CAT(g(1)) = 1.

- ¹ Engdahl (1980, 1986); Sauerland (1998, 2004); Fox (1999, 2002, 2003)
- ² In Schwarz's (2009) terminology, the downstairs copy is interpreted as a STRONG DEFINITE.

- a. $[[ID-1]]^g = \lambda x_e \cdot x = g(1)$
- b. $\llbracket \operatorname{NP} \rrbracket^g = \lambda x_e \cdot \operatorname{Cat}(x) \wedge x = g(1)$
- c. $\llbracket DP \rrbracket^g$ is defined only if $\exists !x[CAT(x) \land x = g(1)];$ where defined, $\llbracket DP \rrbracket^g = \iota x[CAT(x) \land x = g(1)]$
- d. $\llbracket \operatorname{VP} \rrbracket^g = \lambda y_e : \exists ! x [\operatorname{Cat}(x) \land x = g(1)] . \operatorname{Adopt}(\iota x [\operatorname{Cat}(x) \land x = g(1)])(y)$
- e. $[a \text{ child}]^g = \lambda P_{\langle e, t \rangle} . \exists z [CHILD(z) \land P(z)]$
- f. $[TP]^g$ is defined only if $\exists !x[CAT(x) \land x = g(1)];$ where defined, $[TP]^g = \exists z[CHILD(z) \land ADOPT(\iotax[CAT(x) \land x = g(1)])(z)]$
- g. $\left[2 \right]^{g} = \lambda y_{e} : \exists !x[\operatorname{cat}(x) \land x = y] . \exists z[\operatorname{child}(z) \land \operatorname{adopt}(\iota x[\operatorname{cat}(x) \land x = y])(z)]$
- h. $\llbracket every \operatorname{cat} \rrbracket^g = \lambda \mathbb{P}_{\langle e, t \rangle} : \forall y [\operatorname{cat}(y) \to \mathbb{P}(y)]$
- i. $\left[\left(1\right)\right]^{g} = \forall y [CAT(y) \rightarrow \exists z [CHILD(z) \land ADOPT(\iota x [CAT(x) \land x = y])(z)]]$ (the presupposition introduced by *the* is satisfied at this point)

Condition C

QR cannot bleed Condition C, which would be possible if the lower copy of QR were interpreted as a simplex variable lacking lexical material:

(5) *A different neighbor told **her**₁ every rumor about **Susan's**₁ parents. $\forall \gg \exists$

a. Trace Conversion: Predicted to be ungrammatical

* [[every rumor about **Susan's**₁ parents] λ_2 [a different neighbor told **her**₁ [the ID-2 rumor about **Susan's**₁ parents]]]

b. Simplex variable: Predicted to be grammatical [[every rumor about Susan's₁ parents] λ_2 [a different neighbour told her₁ t_2]]

Conservativity

Because the NP restrictor is also interpreted in the scope of the quantifier as a presupposition that projects, everything in the scope will necessarily be a member of the restrictor, thereby forcing quantifiers to be conservative:³

³ Fox (2001, 2002); Bhatt and Pancheva (2007)

(6) CONSERVATIVITY
 D(A)(B) ⇔ D(A)(A ∩ B)
 (e.g. Every cat is orange ⇔ Every cat is an orange cat)

(7) a. D(A)(B) = (by conservativity) b. $D(A)(A \cap B) =$ (by presupposition projection) c. $D(A)(A \cap [\lambda x : A(x) . B(x)]) =$ (by conserativity) d. $D(A)(\lambda x : A(x) . B(x)) =$ (by denotation of 'the') e. $D(A)(\lambda x . B(the [Ax]))$

Distribution w.r.t traces

Poole (2017, 2019) argues that strong definites are prohibited in higher-type positions, where English also prohibits traces (maybe). This follows if traces *are* strong definites.

2 Fox and Nissenbaum (1999)

• Puzzle

- Complements can be extracted from DP, but adjuncts cannot:
 - (8) a. [Of whom] did you see [a painting ___]?
 b. *?? { From where / by whom } did you see [a painting ___]?
- But both complements and adjuncts can be extraposed from DP:
 - (9) a. We saw [a painting ____] yesterday [of John].
 - b. We saw [a painting ____] yesterday { from the museum / by John }.
- This fact about extraposition is surprising under the assumption that extraposition uniformly involves movement of the *extraposed constituent* (EC).

* Fox and Nissenbaum's (1999) proposal

Complement extraposition is derived by movement of the EC. Adjunct extraposition is derived by post-QR merger:



• When is Late Merger possible?

- The classical version of Late Merger from Lebeaux (1988) assumes that Late Merger is possible as long as the Projection Principle is satisfied:

(11) **PROJECTION PRINCIPLE**

The subcategorization property of lexical items must be satisfied throughout the derivation.

- Fox and Nissenbaum instead argue that Late Merger is possible as long as the result is semantically interpretable.
- The lower copy in adjunct extraposition is interpretable via Trace Conversion. But this is only possible if the NP is not missing its (semantic) argument, as this would cause a type mismatch.

• Scope of host DP

When an EC is an adjunct, then, the scope of the source DP will be at least as high as the attachment site of EC. This prediction is borne out:

(12) Target sentences

- a. I looked (very intensely) for anything that would help me with my thesis.
- b. *I looked for [anything ____] very intensely [that will/would help me with my thesis].

(13) Control sentences

- a. I looked for [something ____] very intensely [that will (likely) help me with my thesis].
- b. I would buy [anything ____] without making a fuss [that will/would help me with my thesis].

• Definiteness

Complement extraposition is subject to definiteness restrictions (like ordinary complement extraction is), while adjunct extraposition is not:

(14) Definiteness restriction on complement extraction

- a. Who did Mary see [a (good) picture of ____]?
- b. ?? Who did Mary see [the (best) picture of ____]?

(15) Adjunct extraposition

- a. I saw [the (best) picture ____] yesterday [from the museum].
- b. I heard [the same rumor ____] yesterday [that you were spreading].

(16) Complement extraposition

- a. ??I saw [the (best) picture ____] yesterday [of the museum].
- b. ??I heard [the same rumor ____] yesterday [that you were quitting].

• Condition C

Complement extraposition does not bleed Condition C violations, while adjunct extraposition does:

(17) Adjunct extraposition

- a. ??I gave him_1 [an argument that supports **John's**₁ theory] yesterday.
- b. I gave **him**₁ [an argument ____] yesterday [that supports **John's**₁ theory].

(18) Complement extraposition

- a. ?? I gave him_1 [an argument that this sentence supports **John's**₁ theory] yesterday.
- b. ??I gave him_1 [an argument ____] yesterday [that this sentence supports John's₁ theory].

\Rightarrow Covert and overt operations

If covert and overt operations can be interspersed, there must be a "single-stream" syntax, where LF is not a distinct level of representation.

\Rightarrow Extension to ACD

Fox (2002) develops a theory of ACD based on this system of extraposition.

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