

Adèle Hénot-Mortier July 16, 2025

Dissertation Defense

What can make sentences bad?

- Sentences can be syntactically ill-formed.
- (1) * Ed told Jo that he likes herself.
- Sentences can be contradictory, or tautological.
- (2) a. # It's raining and it's **not** raining.
 - b. # It's raining or it's **not** raining.
- Sentences may out-of-the-blue contradict standard assumptions or expectations.
- (3) ?? Jo will bring **her alligator** to the LSA.

What is oddness?

 Sentences sometimes feel odd despite being informative, and perfectly "reasonable" is terms of what they implicitly assume.

Hurford Disjunction (HD):

- (4) # Jo studied in **Paris** or in **France**. (Hurford, 1974) Conveys: Jo studied in **France**.
- Oddness seems to come from how information is provided, rather than from its content.

Redundancy

- A prominent approach to sentences like (4), is based on REDUNDANCY.¹
- Both disjuncts of (4) convey the information that Jo studied in France.
- In fact, the entire disjunction is contextually equivalent to (5), which is strictly simpler!
- (4) # Jo studied in Paris or in France.
- (5) Jo studied in Paris or in France.

 $^{^1\}mathrm{Grice},\ 1975;\ \mathrm{Horn},\ 1984;\ \mathrm{Meyer},\ 2013;\ \mathrm{Katzir}$ and Singh, 2014; Mayr and Romoli, 2016; Kalomoiros, 2024, i.a.

Where Redundancy falls short

- Oddness can arise despite the non-existence of a simpler equally informative alternative:
- (6) ?? Jo studied in France or the Basque country. (Singh, 2008) Conveys: Jo studied in France or the Spanish Basque country.
- Sentences that are completely isomorphic contrast in terms of oddness (Mandelkern & Romoli, 2018; Kalomoiros, 2024).
- (7) Hurford Conditionals (**HC**):
 - a. If Jo studied in **France**, she did **not** study in **Paris**.
 - b. # If Jo did **not** study in **Paris**, she studied in **France**.

A new view of (implicit) questions

- The connecting thread of my dissertation is that many cases of oddness can be explained by considering that a good sentence has to be a good answer to a good question²
- I formalize this longstanding intuition by proposing a **compositional model of implicit questions**, which is:
 - directly sensitive to the **degree of specificity** conveyed by sentences;
 - and constrained by generalizations of familiar pragmatic principles.
- Under that view, assertive sentences are proposals to update beliefs, but also suggest ways to hierarchically organize such beliefs.
- You may see that as an extension of Dynamic Semantics at the pragmatic/inquisitive level.

 $^{^2}$ Rooth, 1985; D. Lewis, 1988; Rooth, 1992; Roberts, 1996; Büring, 2003; Katzir and Singh, 2015; Zhang, 2022, i.a.

Empirical advantages

- Making pragmatic constraints sensitive to both sentences and their implicit questions, captures cases like (4), (6) and (7), that together challenge standard REDUNDANCY-based approaches to oddness.
- Today, I will focus on two "Hurford" cases: disjunctions (4) and conditionals (7).
- (4) Hurford Disjunction (HD):# Jo studied in Paris or in France.
- (7) Hurford Conditionals (**HC**):
 - a. If Jo studied in **France**, she did **not** study in **Paris**.
 - b. # If Jo did **not** study in **Paris**, she studied in **France**.

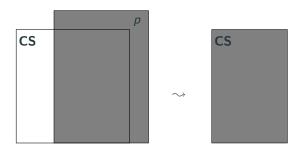
A Bizarre Adventure into Oddness

- 1. Give some background on assertions and questions.
- 2. Define how **implicit questions** are compositionally evoked by assertions, and show why this is an independent desideratum.
- 3. Capture Hurford **Disjunctions** (4) by rephrasing REDUNDANCY.
- 4. Capture Hurford Conditionals (7) by rephrasing Relevance.
- Discuss how implicit questions could help outside the domain of prototypically "odd" sentences.



Assertions and questions

- Assertions typically denotes propositions (sets of worlds).
- The set of worlds compatible with the premises of a conversation is called Context Set (CS).³
- Assertions update the CS by intersection.⁴



³Stalnaker, 1978.

⁴Stalnaker, 1978; Heim, 1982, 1983a, 1983b, i.a.

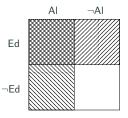
Standard question semantics

- Questions have been traditionally understood as the set of their possible answers, or "alternatives".⁵
- (8) $[Who did the readings?] = \{Ed, Al, Ed and Al, ...\}$
- Alternatives are not necessarily exclusive: if Ed and Al did the readings then Ed did the readings.
- Stronger alternatives, intuitively correspond to "better" answers.
- Given that questions are sets of propositions, how are they supposed to affect the CS?

⁵Hamblin, 1973; Karttunen, 1977.

Standard question pragmatics

- Questions induce a partition of the CS: just group together the worlds of the CS that agree on all alternatives.⁶
- The "groups" are called **cells**: they tell us which distinctions matter.



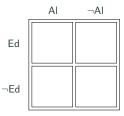
Step 1: Check how each world deals with the alternatives: defines *Al did the readings* and *defines Ed did the readings*.

We will only consider exhaustive and mutually exclusive alternatives,
 s.t. question semantics and question pragmatics in fact coincide.

⁶Groenendijk and Stokhof, 1984.

Standard question pragmatics

- Questions induce a partition of the CS: just group together the worlds of the CS that agree on all alternatives.⁶
- The "groups" are called **cells**: they tell us which distinctions matter.



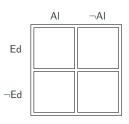
Step 2: Partition the CS by grouping worlds with the same "pattern".

We will only consider exhaustive and mutually exclusive alternatives,
 s.t. question semantics and question pragmatics in fact coincide.

⁶Groenendijk and Stokhof, 1984.

Answering questions

- Here the cells are *only Ed did the readings*, *only Al*, *Ed an Al*, and *neither*. Those are **maximal answers**.
- Union of cells, e.g. *Ed did the readings* (including *only Ed*, and *both*), are **non-maximal answers**.



• Questions *encode* maximal answers only. The non-maximal ones can be *derived* by union.

Constraints on question-answer pairs: Congruence

- It is widely accepted that the pairs formed by overt questions and answers are subject to constraints.
- On the semantic side, answer better be "congruent" with the question. This explains the pattern in (10).
- (9) QUESTION-ANSWER CONGRUENCE (Rooth (1992)'s version). For a pair $\langle Q, A \rangle$ to be well-formed, any alternative in $[\![Q]\!]$, must be obtainable from a substitution of A's focused material.
- (10) Who did the readings?
 - a. ED did the readings.
 - b. # Ed did the READINGS.

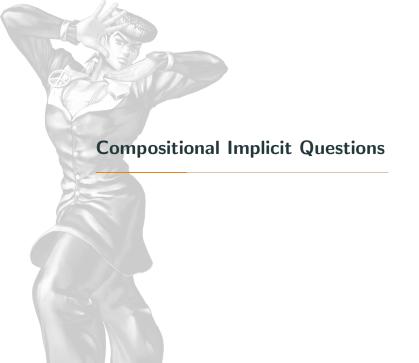
Constraints on question-answer pairs: Relevance

- Another constraint is Relevance, and spells out the intuition that questions drive what sort of information their answer should convey.
 - (11) RELEVANCE (Križ and Spector (2020)'s version). An answer is relevant to a question if it corresponds to a non-maximal union of cells.
- The idea that similar constraints are at play beyond overt QA pairs, has been around for a while,⁷ but the systematic link between assertions and questions is still poorly understood.

⁷D. Lewis, 1988; Roberts, 1996; Riester, 2019, i.a.

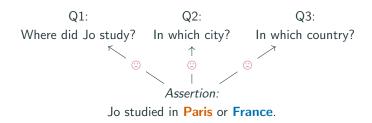
Preview: Oddness as question-answer Incongruence

- Recall oddness seems to arise from how information is conveyed, rather than from its content.
- I submit that this "how" it tied to which question we are trying to address.
- Oddness then arises from the interaction between assertions and the (implicit) question(s) they are trying to address.
- An odd sentence is a sentence that only gives rise to odd questions.



Constraining assertions and their implicit questions

- If odd sentence gives rise to odd questions, then the pragmatic module must then be sensitive to pairs formed by sentences and their implicit questions.
- Oddness then arises when none of the implicit questions evoked by a sentence, is felicitous, given that sentence.



A desideratum to guide our framework

- Assertions should evoke questions matching their level of specificity.
 This is obviously supported by overt QA pairs:
- (12) a. Where did Jo study? –{Paris, France}.
 - b. In which country did Jo study? -{#Paris, France}
 - c. In which city did Jo study? -{Paris, #France}
 - Basic alternative semantics does not fully capture this: generating a
 question from a proposition by replacing its focused material with
 same-type alternatives does not guarantee that the outputs will have
 same specificity.⁸
 - As a result, the evoked question may mix alternatives like Paris and France, giving rise to weird partitions.

⁸Assuming alternatives must be "relevant" does not really help either: one must then explain how relevance incorporates specificity.

Additional motivations for a specificity constraint

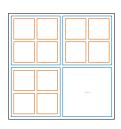
- Does question-answer Relevance help achieve the specificity desideratum? Not quite: both answer in (13) are unions of cells and as such Relevant, yet (13a) feels too-coarse grained.
- (13) In which country did Jo study?
 - a. # Western Europe
 - b. France, the UK, or Germany
 - Intuitively, (13a) evokes a *which area* question while (13b) evokes a *which country* question, and the former is coarser-grained than the latter.
 - We need a model of questions that encodes specificity relations between propositions – and questions themselves.

Questions as nested partition

- Question are modeled as nested partitions. Nesting is based on specificity:⁹ nested partitions are finer-grained than nesting partitions, meaning, Paris and France cannot be mixed up.
- A "fine-grained" question may then contain coarser-grained questions, meaning, a which city question structurally refines a which country question.







- (a) By-city partition.
- (b) By-country partition
- (c) Recursive partition.

 $^{^9}$ Specificity is formalized in the dissertation using Hasse diagrams for \vDash defined on complete sets of alternatives.

Useful notational variant: questions as Trees

- Nested partitions will be represented as trees. The layers of a question-tree have same specificity.
- Simplex sentences like *Jo studied in Paris* may then evoke nested "wh" questions-trees like 2a, or polar question trees like 2b.
- Their deepest layers matches the prejacent's specificity. 10

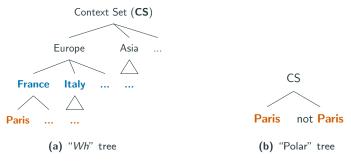


Fig. 2: Trees evoked by Jo studied in Paris.

¹⁰This recipe already get us the challenging "compatible" Hurford cases like (6), (almost) for free!

Benefits of trees beyond specificity encoding

- Implicit questions¹¹, and question trees¹² have been around for a while. Ippolito (2019) even discussed how specificity differences in trees could capture oddness.
- But none of the previous approaches leveraged the expressivity of a tree model, to render the idea that the questions evoked by a sentence, are compositionally derived from its LF.
- This is needed if one wants to make precise predictions about logically similar, but structurally different sentences, like Hurford Conditionals.
- We now introduce a set of rules for ¬, ∨, and conditionals, that apply to trees and recycle longstanding intuitions about these operators.

¹¹Carlson, 1985; von Stutterheim and Klein, 1989; Kuppevelt, 1995; van Kuppevelt, 1995; Ginzburg, 1996, 2012.

¹²Roberts, 1996; Büring, 2003; Onea, 2016; Ippolito, 2019; Riester, 2019; Zhang, 2022, i.a.

Flagging, and "negating" Questions Trees

- When a simple assertion evokes an implicit question tree, leaves entailing the assertion get flagged; flags track "at-issue" meaning, and are compositionally derived.
- Negating an assertion flips the flags on this assertion's trees.
 Flag-flipping is a layerwise complement set operation.

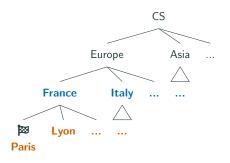


Fig. 3: A tree for Jo studied in Paris.

Flagging, and "negating" Questions Trees

- When a simple assertion evokes an implicit question tree, leaves entailing the assertion get flagged; flags track "at-issue" meaning, and are compositionally derived.
- Negating an assertion flips the flags on this assertion's trees.
 Flag-flipping is a layerwise complement set operation.

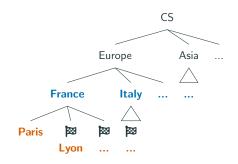


Fig. 4: A tree for Jo did not study in Paris.

Disjoining Questions Trees

- Disjunction fuses the trees evoked by the disjuncts, retaining only unions that are well-formed nested partitions.
- Set of flagged nodes are also merged.



Fig. 5: A tree for *Jo studied in*



France.

Fig. 7: A tree for #Jo studied in Paris or France.

Paris

Conditional Questions Trees

- Conditional are often taken to restrict the evaluation of the consequent to the worlds in which the antecedent holds.¹
- Therefore, we assume that conditional question-trees raise a question evoked by the consequent, only where the antecedent holds.
- Technically, conditionals "plug"
 consequent trees, into the
 flagged leaves of the antecedent
 trees keeping only the
 consequent's flags.

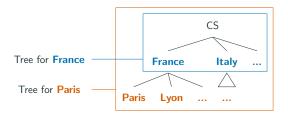


Fig. 8: A tree for *If Jo studied* in France, she did **not** study in Paris.

¹D. K. Lewis, 1975; Heim, 1982; Kratzer, 1986, 1991. i.a.

Interim Summary: expressivity

- Questions were modeled as nested partitions, represented as trees.
 Even if they look bulkier, they are just the inductive closure of an existing, incontroversial object: partitions of the CS.
- Trees are expressive enough to capture the intuition that some
 assertions (e.g. Paris, London) are more specific than others (e.g.
 France), in that they evoke more "ramified" trees. Specificity is
 made directly available to the pragmatic module.



• This will be exploited in two different ways when we deal with Hurford Disjunctions and Conditionals.

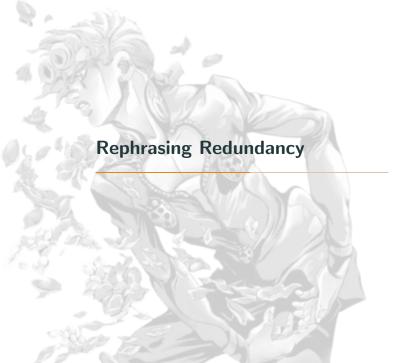
Interim Summary: transparency

- Disjunctions and conditionals can evoke different tree structures, independently of their assigned semantics:¹³
 - Disjunctive trees are formed with ∪, capturing the idea that disjuncts answer the same global question.¹⁴
 - Conditional trees are formed via an asymmetric ∩, capturing the idea that antecedents are restrictors.¹⁵
- This will allow us to capture the challenging contrast in Hurford Conditionals (and the absence thereof in Disjunctions) in an intuitive way.

¹³This makes the current approach crucially different from Inquisitive Semantics. (Mascarenhas, 2008; Ciardelli, 2009; Groenendijk and Roelofsen, 2009; Ciardelli and Roelofsen, 2017; Ciardelli et al., 2018; Zhang, to appear)

¹⁴Simons, 2001; Westera, 2020; Zhang, 2022.

¹⁵D. K. Lewis, 1975; Heim, 1982; Kratzer, 1986.



Back to Hurford Disjunctions

- (4) Hurford Disjunction (HD):# Jo studied in Paris or in France.
- In our framework, HDs evoke well-formed unions of trees evoked by the disjuncts. We can show that there is only one possibility, the one we computed before, repeated below.



Fig. 9: A tree for #Jo studied in Paris or France.

 Descriptively, the issue seem to come from the fact the are on the same path to the CS root – i.e. inquiring about Paris, already settles France.

Q-Non-Redundancy

- Recall Redundancy usually arises when a sentence has the same logical content as one of its simplifications.
- We generalize this to sentence-tree pairs: Q-REDUNDANCY arises for a sentence-tree pair, if a simplification of the sentence, yields an "equivalent" tree.
- Tree equivalence is understood as structural identity plus equality of minimal paths from the root to all .

Capturing HDs

- The HD Paris or France, is then odd because its only implicit tree, is equivalent to a tree evoked by the Paris-disjunct.
- The trees below have same structure, and both only need one path, from the CS root to Paris, to cover all .
- We captured the idea that inquiring about Paris, settles France "for free".



Fig. 10: A tree for #Jo studied in Paris or France.

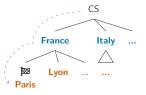
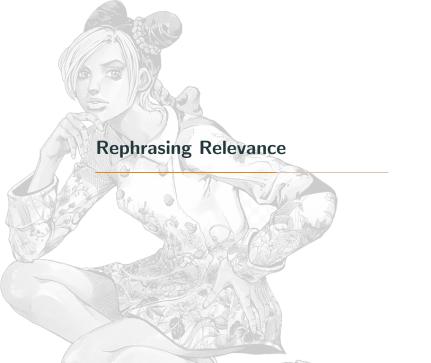


Fig. 11: A tree for *Jo studied in* **Paris**.

Additional remarks about Q-Non-Redundancy

- Unlike standard REDUNDANCY approaches, Q-Non-REDUNDANCY deems HDs odd due to their stronger disjunct; this is because Q-Non-REDUNDANCY is based on "settling" issues.
- Because Q-Non-Redundancy is sensitive to the entire tree compositionally evoked by a sentence, it captures long-distance interactions e.g. between France and Paris in (14)
- (14) Long-Distance Hurford Disjunction (Marty & Romoli, 2022):# Jo studied in Paris or London, or studied in France.
 - Outside Hurford Sentences, Q-Non-Redundancy covers paradigms unaccounted for by earlier approaches.
 - Q-Non-Redundancy being a constraint on sentence-tree pairs, it
 effectively rules-out trees evoked by a given sentence. It may
 conspire with other constraints, to eventually rule-out all the tree
 evoked by a sentence and make it odd.



The challenge of Hurford Conditionals

- HCs are isomorphic: both can be seen as p → ¬p⁺ or ¬p⁺ → p, with p⁺ ⊨ p and q⁺ ⊨ q, modulo double-¬ introduction and a variable change (Mandelkern & Romoli, 2018).
- (7) Hurford Conditionals (HC):
 - a. If Jo studied in **France**, she did **not** study in **Paris**.

$$\mathbf{p}
ightarrow \neg \mathbf{p}^+ \equiv \neg \underbrace{\left(\neg \mathbf{p}
ight)}_{\mathbf{q}^+}
ightarrow \underbrace{\neg \mathbf{p}^+}_{\mathbf{q}}$$

b. # If Jo did **not** study in **Paris**, she studied in **France**.

$$\neg \textcolor{red}{p^+} \rightarrow \textcolor{red}{p} \equiv \underbrace{(\neg \textcolor{red}{p^+})}_{q} \rightarrow \neg \underbrace{(\neg \textcolor{red}{p})}_{q^+}$$

Put differently, not Paris and France play symmetric roles.

the World				
not France	France			
not France	France and not Paris	Paris		
	Paris			

Describing the contrast in HCs

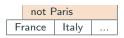
- (7) a. If Jo studied in France, she did not study in Paris.b. # If Jo did not study in Paris, she studied in France.
- Descriptively, (7a) and #(7b) only differ in:
 - (i) where **overt negation** is: having it in the antecedent triggers #.
 - (ii) how antecedents and consequents are **ordered in terms of specificity**: fine-to-coarse progressions are #.
- Kalomoiros (2024) exploited (i); we exploit (ii).
- This will make way for a more intuitive account, recycling the familiar concept of Relevance at the subsentential level.

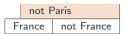
An account based on specificity: core intuition

- (7) a. If Jo studied in **France**, she did **not** study in **Paris**.
 - b. # If Jo did **not** study in **Paris**, she studied in **France**.
- (7a) talks about cities, in the France-domain defined by the antecedent. This domain fully rules out some cities, and rules in others. Nice cut!

France				
Paris	Lyon		Rome	

 (7b) talks about countries, in the not Paris-domain defined by the antecedent. This domain does not fully rule out any country – it only partially affects France. Bad cut!





Incremental Q-Relevance

- Conditionals "plug" a tree evoked by the consequent into the flagged leaves of the antecedent's tree.
- This plugging operation intersects all nodes of the consequent's tree, with the leaf it gets plugged into.
- Intersection must be Relevant in the following sense:
 - A leaf of the consequent's tree must be fully retained;¹
 - A leaf of the consequent's tree must be fully excluded.²



Fig. 13: A tree for *If Jo* studied in **France**, she did **not** study in **Paris**.

 $^{^1\}mathrm{Draws}$ from D. Lewis (1988)'s and Križ and Spector (2020)'s $\mathrm{ReLeVANCE}$

²Draws from Roberts (2012)'s RELEVANCE

Capturing felicitous HCs

(7a) If Jo studied in **France**, she did **not** study in **Paris**.

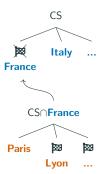


Fig. 14: A tree for *If Jo* studied in **France**, she did **not** study in **Paris**.

- A city-level tree gets plugged into a France-leaf.
- The leaves that remains are all French cities; this satisfies
 INCREMENTAL Q-RELEVANCE:
 - An original leaf, e.g. Paris, is fully retained;
 - An original leaf e.g. Rome, is fully excluded.
- (7a) is correctly predicted to be good.¹

 $^{^{1}\}mbox{lt}$ can be shown that $\mbox{Q-RedUNDANCY}$ doesn't get in the way.

Capturing odd HCs: case 1

(7b) If Jo did **not** study in **Paris**, she studied in **France**.

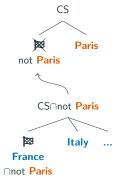


Fig. 15: A tree for *If Jo did* not *study in* Paris, *she studied in* France.

- A country-level tree gets plugged into a not Paris-leaf.
- The leaves that remains are all countries, but Franceis intersected with not Paris.
- This violates Incremental Q-Relevance, because none of the original leaves is fully excluded.
- What if we consider a by-city, "wh" tree for the antecedent instead?

Capturing odd HCs: case 2

(7b) If Jo did **not** study in **Paris**, she studied in **France**.

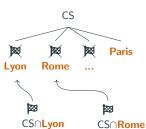


Fig. 16: A tree for *If Jo did* not study in Paris, she studied in France.

- A country-level tree gets plugged into a not Paris-leaf
- The leaves that remains are all smaller than countries in fact they get shrunk into city-leaves.
- This violates Incremental Q-Relevance, because no original leaf is fully retained.
- In sum (7b) is correctly predicted to be odd.¹

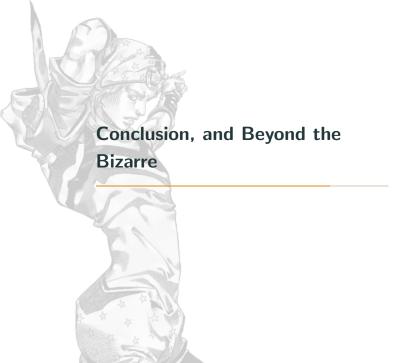
¹Considering "wh" trees for not Paris and/or polar trees for France, gets us back into Case 1 (previous slide) or Case 2 (this slide).

Additional remarks about Incremental Q-Relevance

- INCREMENTAL Q-RELEVANCE imposes that some, but not all
 distinctions introduced by the question being restricted, are retained;
 restriction must be faithful to the specificity of the original question,
 but also relevantly informative.
- The "incremental" character of the constraint piggybacks on the asymmetric definition assigned to conditional question-trees: the roles of the antecedent and consequent are asymmetric, and so are violations of Incremental Q-Relevance.

Specificity vs. negation as drivers of oddness?

- INCREMENTAL Q-RELEVANCE ends up capturing subtle asymmetries in "compatible" variants of HCs, whose oddness seems more specificity-sensitive (in a weaker sense) than negation-sensitive.
- This supports our view against Kalomoiros (2024)'s earlier view of HCs.
- (15) a. # If Jo did **not** study in **the Basque country**, she studied in **France**.
 - b. ? If Jo did **not** study in **France**, she studied in **the Basque country**.
 - c. # If Jo studied in **the Basque country**, he did **not** study in **France**.
 - d. If Jo studied in **France**, she did **not** study in **the Basque country**.



Where we are

- My dissertation is an attempt to devise a precise, systematic model
 of implicit questions, and of their degree of specificity.
- This in and of itself appears to be needed to reflect deep intuitions about the dynamics of conversation.
- Existing concepts (questions-as-partitions, REDUNDANCY, RELEVANCE) were **minimally "lifted"**:
 - Partitions were made recursive in the form of question-trees;
 - Pragmatic constraints were rephrased to apply to sentences and/or their implicit trees.
- From this framework, I derived oddness contrasts between sentences that approaches solely based on LFs and propositional meanings were not powerful enough to capture.¹⁶
- Beyond the cases discussed here, the dissertation explores the interaction between implicit questions, embedded implicatures, and the overt exhaustifier only.

¹⁶At the very least without under-the-hood assumptions.

And where we'd like to go

- I have ongoing work further exploring what a model of implicit questions has to say about:
 - Repairing operators which seem to target implicit question-trees: only, but, at least.¹⁷
 - How implicit question may drive overtness asymmetries between competing operators.¹⁸
- But a lot remains to be explored/fleshed out:
 - Oddness in conjunctions; 19
 - Presupposition projection, in relation to implicit questions;²⁰
 - Explicit questions (their own implicit import; how they shape oddness²¹);
 - Quantifications (especially modals in the context of Free Choice phenomena²²).

¹⁶Hénot-Mortier, 2025b, 2025c

¹⁷Hénot-Mortier, 2025a

¹⁸Haslinger, 2024

¹⁹Doron and Wehbe, 2024

²⁰Haslinger, 2023

²¹Kaufmann, 2016, i.a.



Selected references i



Hamblin, C. L. (1973). Questions in montague english. Foundations of Language, 10(1), 41–53.



Hurford, J. R. (1974). Exclusive or Inclusive Disjunction. Foundations of Language, 11(3), 409–411.



Grice, H. P. (1975). Logic and conversation. In D. Davidson (Ed.), The logic of grammar (pp. 64–75). Dickenson Pub. Co.



Lewis, D. K. (1975). Adverbs of quantification. In E. L. Keenan (Ed.), Formal semantics of natural language: Papers from a colloquium sponsored by the king's college research centre, cambridge (pp. 3–15). Cambridge University Press.



Karttunen, L. (1977). Syntax and Semantics of Questions. Linguistics and Philosophy, 1(1), 3–44. https://doi.org/10.1007/bf00351935



Stalnaker, R. (1978). Assertion. Syntax and Semantics (New York Academic Press), 9, 315–332.



Heim, I. (1982). The semantics of definite and indefinite noun phrases [Doctoral dissertation, UMass Amherst].

Selected references ii



Heim, I. (1983a, December). File change semantics and the familiarity theory of definiteness. In Meaning, use, and interpretation of language (pp. 164–189). DE GRUYTER. https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110852820.164



Heim, I. (1983b). On the projection problem for presuppositions. In M. Barlow, D. P. Flickinger, & M. T. Wescoat (Eds.), Proceedings of the second west coast conference on formal linguistics (pp. 114–126). Stanford University Department of Linguistics.



Groenendijk, J., & Stokhof, M. (1984). Studies in the semantics of questions and the pragmatics of answers [Doctoral dissertation, University of Amsterdam] [(Unpublished doctoral dissertation)].



Horn, L. (1984). Toward a new taxonomy for pragmatic inference: Q-based and r-based implicature. In D. Schiffrin (Ed.), Meaning, form, and use in context: Linguistic applications (pp. 11–42). Georgetown University Press.



Carlson, L. W. (1985). **Dialogue games: An approach to discourse analysis.** Kluwer Academic Publishers.



Rooth, M. (1985). **Association with focus [Doctoral dissertation].**



Kratzer, A. (1986). Conditionals. Chicago Linguistic Society (CLS), 22(2), 1-15.

Selected references iii



Lewis, D. (1988). Relevant Implication. Theoria, 54(3), 161–174. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1755-2567.1988.tb00716.x



von Stutterheim, C., & Klein, W. (1989). Referential movement in descriptive and narrative discourse. In R. Dietrich & C. F. Graumann (Eds.), Language processing in social context (pp. 39–76, Vol. 54). Elsevier. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-444-87144-2.50005-7



Kratzer, A. (1991). Modality. In A. von Stechow & D. Wunderlich (Eds.), Handbuch semantik (pp. 639–50).



Rooth, M. (1992). A theory of focus interpretation. Natural Language Semantics, I(1), 75–116. https://doi.org/10.1007/bf02342617





van Kuppevelt, J. (1995). Main structure and side structure in discourse. Linguistics, 33(4), 809-833. https://doi.org/10.1515/ling.1995.33.4.809



Ginzburg, J. (1996). Dynamics and semantics of dialogue. In J. Selignman & D. Westerstahl (Eds.), Language, logic and communication. CSLI.



Roberts, C. (1996).Information Structure in Discourse: Towards an Integrated Formal Theory of Pragmatics. Semantics and Pragmatics, 5, 1–69.

Selected references iv



Simons, M. (2001). Disjunction and Alternativeness. Linguistics and Philosophy, 24(5), 597–619. https://doi.org/10.1023/a:1017597811833



Büring, D. (2003). On D-Trees, Beans, and B-Accents. Linguistics and Philosophy, 26(5), 511–545. https://doi.org/10.1023/a:1025887707652



Mascarenhas, S. (2008). Inquisitive semantics and logic [Master's thesis, University of Amsterdam] [Manuscript, University of Amsterdam]. https://eprints.illc.uva.nl/id/eprint/825/1/MoL-2009-18.text.pdf



Singh, R. (2008). On the interpretation of disjunction: Asymmetric, incremental, and eager for inconsistency. *Linguistics and Philosophy*, 31(2), 245–260. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10988-008-9038-x



Ciardelli, I. (2009). Inquisitive semantics and intermediate logics [Master's thesis, University of Amsterdam]. https://projects.illc.uva.nl/inquisitivesemantics/assets/files/theses/

Ciardelli2009_InquisitiveSemanticsAndIntermediateLogics.pdf



Groenendijk, J., & Roelofsen, F. (2009). Inquisitive Semantics and Pragmatics.

Workshop on Language, Communication and Rational Agency.

https://projects.illc.uva.nl/inquisitivesemantics/assets/files/papers/
GroenendijkRoelofsen2009_ISP-Stanford.pdf

Selected references v



Ginzburg, J. (2012). The interactive stance. Oxford University Press.



Roberts, C. (2012).Information structure in discourse: Towards an integrated formal theory of pragmatics. Semantics and Pragmatics, 5. https://doi.org/10.3765/sp.5.6



Meyer, M.-C. (2013). Ignorance and grammar [Doctoral dissertation, Massachusetts Institute of Technology].



Katzir, R., & Singh, R. (2014). Hurford disjunctions: Embedded exhaustification and structural economy. Proceedings of Sinn und Bedeutung, 18, 201–216. https://ojs.ub.uni-konstanz.de/sub/index.php/sub/article/view/313



Katzir, R., & Singh, R. (2015). Economy of structure and information: Oddness, questions, and answers. Proceedings of Sinn und Bedeutung, 19, 322–339. https://doi.org/10.18148/sub/2015.v19i0.236



Kaufmann, M. (2016).Free Choice is a Form of Dependence. Natural Language Semantics, 24(3), 247–290. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11050-016-9125-4



Mayr, C., & Romoli, J. (2016). A puzzle for theories of redundancy: Exhaustification, incrementality, and the notion of local context. Semantics and Pragmatics, 9(7), 1–48. https://doi.org/10.3765/sp.9.7

Selected references vi



Onea, E. (2016, February). Potential Questions at the Semantics-Pragmatics Interface. BRILL. https://doi.org/10.1163/9789004217935



Ciardelli, I., & Roelofsen, F. (2017). Hurford's constraint, the semantics of disjunction, and the nature of alternatives. Natural Language Semantics, 25(3), 199–222. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11050-017-9134-y



Ciardelli, I., Groenendijk, J., & Roelofsen, F. (2018). Inquisitive Semantics. Oxford University Press. http://fdslive.oup.com/www.oup.com/academic/pdf/openaccess/9780198814788.pdf



Mandelkern, M., & Romoli, J. (2018). Hurford Conditionals. Journal of Semantics, 35(2), 357–367. https://doi.org/10.1093/jos/ffx022



Ippolito, M. (2019). Varieties of sobel sequences. Linguistics and Philosophy, 43(6), 633–671. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10988-019-09281-8



Riester, A. (2019, March). **Constructing QUD Trees.** In *Questions in Discourse* (pp. 164–193). BRILL. https://doi.org/10.1163/9789004378322_007



Križ, M., & Spector, B. (2020).Interpreting plural predication: Homogeneity and non-maximality. *Linguistics and Philosophy, 44*(5), 1131–1178. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10988-020-09311-w

Selected references vii



Westera, M. (2020). Hurford disjunctions: An in-depth comparison of the grammatical and the pragmatic approach. *Under review*.



Marty, P., & Romoli, J. (2022). Varieties of Hurford disjunctions. Semantics and Pragmatics, 15(3), 1–25. https://doi.org/10.3765/sp.15.3



Zhang, Y. (2022). New perspectives on inquisitive semantics [Doctoral dissertation, University of Maryland].



Haslinger, N. (2023). Pragmatic constraints on imprecision and homogeneity [Doctoral dissertation, Georg-August-Universität Göttingen].



Doron, O., & Wehbe, J. (2024). On the pragmatic status of locally accommodated presuppositions.



Haslinger, N. (2024). Context and linear order in redundant coordinations [Invited talk, BerlinBrnoVienna student workshop, Masaryk University in Brno].



Kalomoiros, A. (2024). An approach to Hurford Conditionals. Semantics and Linguistic Theory, 724–743. https://doi.org/10.3765/68bn3095



Hénot-Mortier, A. (2025a). Covert operators are picked to minimize qud-ambiguity: The view from pex and only. Sinn un Bedeutung 30.



Hénot-Mortier, A. (2025b). Exh and only don't really compete – they just answer different questions. Semantics and Linguistic Theory.

Selected references viii



Hénot-Mortier, A. (2025c). Repairing bad questions makes for good sentences: The case of but and at least. Proceedings of the 61st Annual meeting of the Chicago Linguistic Society.



Zhang, Y. (2025). QUD-mediated redundancy. Proceedings of the 29th Sinn und Bedeutung.

Appendix