

Quantifying into \textit{wh}-dependencies: Composing multi-\textit{wh} questions and questions with quantifiers

Yimei Xiang, Rutgers University

Abstract \textit{Wh}-questions with a quantificational subject have readings that seemingly involve quantification-into questions (called \textsc{QiQ} for short). This paper argues to unify the derivation of \textsc{QiQ}-readings and distinguish these readings from pair-list readings of multi-\textit{wh} questions. I propose that \textsc{QiQ}-questions and pair-list multi-\textit{wh} questions both involve a \textit{wh}-dependency relation, namely, that the trace of the subject-quantifier/\textit{wh} stands in an anaphoric relation with the trace of the object-\textit{wh}. In particular, in a pair-list multi-\textit{wh} question, the subject-\textit{wh} quantifies into an identity condition with respect to this \textit{wh}-dependency relation; in a \textsc{QiQ}-question, the subject-quantifier quantifies-into a predication condition with respect to this dependency. This subtle difference yields the contrast with respect to domain exhaustivity. I further argue that the seeming \textsc{QiQ}-effect in questions with quantifiers is derived by extracting a minimal proposition set that satisfies a quantificational predication condition. The possible values of this minimal set determine whether \textsc{QiQ}-readings are available and whether a question admits a pair-list answer and/or a choice answer.

Keywords Questions, quantifiers, multi-\textit{wh}, pair-list, functionality, uniqueness, domain exhaustivity, quantificational variability, categorial approaches, compositionality

1. Introduction

Questions with a subject universal quantifier (called $\forall$-questions for short henceforth) are ambiguous between individual readings, functional readings, and pair-list readings (Engdahl 1980, 1986). As exemplified in (1), the three readings expect answers naming an atomic movie, a Skolem function to atomic movies, and a list of boy-movie pairs, respectively.

(1) Which movie did every/each boy watch?
   a. Individual reading
      ‘For which movie $y$ is s.t. every boy watch $y$?’ ‘\textit{Spiderman}.’
   b. Functional reading
      ‘For which function $f$ to atomic movies is s.t. every-boy $x$ watched $f(x)$?’ ‘His favorite superhero movie.’
   c. Pair-list reading
      ‘For every boy $x$, [tell me] which movie did $x$ watch?’
      ‘\textit{Andy} watched \textit{Ironman}, \textit{Billy} watched \textit{Spiderman}, \textit{Clark} watched \textit{Hulk}.’

There are two general ways to think about the nature of the pair-list reading (1c). One way regards this reading as involving quantification-into questions (abbreviated as ‘\textsc{QiQ}’ henceforth) (Groenendijk and Stokhof 1984; Chierchia 1993; among others). An informal paraphrase for \textsc{QiQ}-readings is given in (2), where ‘Det’ stands for a determiner.

(2) Which movie did Det-boy(s) watch? (\textsc{QiQ}-reading)
   \approx ‘For Det-boy(s), [you tell me]/[I ask you] which movie did they watch?’

For questions with an existential indefinite (henceforth called $\exists$-questions), their \textsc{QiQ}-readings have
a choice flavor (Groenendijk and Stokhof 1984). For example, the choice reading (3b) asks to choose one/two of the relevant boys and specify the unique movie he/they watched. In contrast, questions with a negative quantifier (henceforth called no-questions) do not have QiQ-readings. For example, (4) cannot be responded by silence.

(3) Which movie did one/two of the boys watch?
   a. **Individual reading**
      ‘For which movie \( y \) is s.t. one/two of the boys watched \( y \)?’ ‘Ironman.’
   b. **Choice reading**
      ‘For one/two of the boys, [you tell me] which movie did he/they watch?’
      ‘Andy watched Ironman.’ / ‘Billy and Clark watched Spiderman.’

(4) Which movie did {no boy, none of the boys} watch?
   a. **Individual reading**
      ‘For which movie \( y \) is s.t. no boy watched \( y \)?’ ‘Revengers.’
   b. **Functional reading**
      ‘For which function \( f \) to atomic movies is s.t. no boy \( x \) watched \( f(x) \)?’
      ‘The movie recommended by their grandfather.’
   c. **QiQ-reading**
      ‘For no boy, [you tell me] which movie did they watch?’ [Silence]

The other way to group the aforementioned types of complex questions is to treat questions with pair-list readings uniformly. Similar to the ∀-question (1), the multi-wh question (5) also has a reading that requests to specify a list of boy-movie pairs. Accounts adopting this line of thinking either use the same LF to compose the ∀-question (1) and the corresponding multi-wh questions (5) (Engdahl 1980, 1986; Dayal 1996, 2017) or assign these two questions with the same root denotation (Fox 2012a,b).

(5) Which boy watched which movie?
   a. **Single-pair reading**
      ‘Which unique boy-\( x \)-to-movie-\( y \) pair is such that \( x \) watched \( y \)?’
      Andy watched Spiderman.
   b. **Pair-list reading**
      ‘What boy-\( x \)-to-movie-\( y \) pairs are such that \( x \) watched only \( y \)?’
      ‘Andy watched Ironman, Billy watched Spiderman, Clark watched Hulk.’

In sum, it is controversial whether we should treat questions with QiQ-readings (QiQ-questions henceforth) uniformly or questions with pair-list readings (pair-list questions henceforth) uniformly. This paper argues for the former option. On the one hand, pair-list readings of ∀-questions and multi-wh questions differ with respect to domain exhaustivity (Sect. 2.1). This contrast suggests that these two types of pair-list questions have different root denotations and procedures of composition.

1Functional readings are marginally acceptable for ∃-questions. For example, the fragment functional answer (iia) sounds under-informative. The boy who watched the movie has to be specified, as in (iib). I leave this puzzle open.

(i) Which movie did one of the boys watch?
   (w: Among the relevant boys, only Andy watched a movie, which was his favorite superhero movie — Ironman.)
   a. ?? His favorite superhero movie.
   b. Andy watched his favorite superhero movie.
On the other hand, the similarities between these two types of questions in form and meaning also suggest that their composition procedures should not be drastically different.

I propose that QiQ-questions and pair-list multi-\textit{wh} questions both involve a \textit{wh}-dependency relation, namely, the trace of the subject quantifier/\textit{wh} stands in an anaphoric/functional relation with the trace of the object-\textit{wh}. The core analysis is illustrated in (6). The \textit{wh}-dependency is realized by assigning an additional index (i.e., the index of the trace of the subject-\textit{wh}/quantifier) to the trace of the object-\textit{wh} (Sect. 4.1.1). I further assume that in (6a) the subject-quantifier quantifies into a predication (\textsc{pred}) condition with respect to this dependency relation, and that in (6b) the subject-\textit{wh} quantifies into an identity (\textsc{ident}) condition with respect to this dependency relation. As we will see in Sect. 6, the differences between these two quantifying-in operations can naturally explain the contrast between \textit{\forall}-questions and multi-\textit{wh} questions with respect to domain exhaustivity.

\begin{equation}
\begin{array}{ll}
\text{(6)} & \text{A general schema of composing complex questions} \\
\text{a. Which movie did } \text{Det-boy(s) watch?} & \text{ (QiQ-reading)} \\
& \ldots \text{[which-movie, } \ldots \text{Det-boy(s)} \text{]} \text{[\textsc{pred} } t_i \text{ watched } t_j \text{]} \\
\text{b. Which boy watched which movie?} & \text{ (Pair-list reading)} \\
& \ldots \text{[which-movie, } \ldots \text{which-boy} \text{]} \text{[\textsc{ident} } t_i \text{ watched } t_j \text{]} \\
\end{array}
\end{equation}

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 presents evidence against the view of unifying pair-list (\textit{\forall}- and multi-\textit{wh}) questions as well as evidence for the view of composing QiQ-questions uniformly. Section 3 lays out the technical challenges in composing QiQ-questions and the related semantic phenomena that this paper aims to account for. The phenomena include domain exhaustivity in \textit{\forall}-questions, point-wise uniqueness in pair-list questions with a singular-marked \textit{wh}-object, and quantificational variability effects in embeddings of pair-list questions. Section 4 reviews two influential approaches to composing pair-list questions, including the functionality-based approach of Dayal 1996 and the family-of-question approach of Fox 2012a,b. Section 5 introduces a hybrid categorial approach to question composition (Xiang 2016, To appear), which I use as a general framework of composing questions. Section 6 puts forward my central analysis of composing pair-list multi-\textit{wh} questions and QiQ-questions. The denotations and the composition procedures of these two types of questions will be presented in tandem. Section 7 accounts for the quantificational variability effects in embeddings of pair-list questions. Section 8 concludes.

2. Arguments for unifying the derivation of QiQ-readings

This section argues that pair-list \textit{\forall}-questions should be composed uniformly as other QiQ-questions, not as pair-list multi-\textit{wh} questions. On the one hand, when having pair-list readings, \textit{\forall}-questions are subject to a domain exhaustivity condition, while their multi-\textit{wh} counterparts are not (Sect. 2.1). This contrast suggests that these two types of questions should be interpreted and derived differently. On the other hand, evidence from syntactic distributions suggests that QiQ-questions have a uniform syntax — in these questions, QiQ-readings exhibit the same subject-object/adjunct asymmetry, and moreover, the distributional pattern of QiQ-readings is preserved in questions where the subject is a coordination of quantifiers (Sect. 2.2).
2.1. A contrast in domain exhaustivity

It is commonly thought that pair-list readings of multi-\textit{wh} questions and \textit{\forall}-questions are both subject to domain exhaustivity (Dayal 1996, 2002; among others). For a question with a \textit{wh}/\textit{\forall}-subject and a \textit{wh}-object, the domain exhaustivity condition says that every member of the set quantified over by the \textit{wh}/\textit{\forall}-subject must be paired with a member of the set quantified over by the \textit{wh}-object. For instance, in (1) and (5), repeated below, domain exhaustivity requires that every boy watched a (possibly different) movie. Moreover, since the object-\textit{wh} is singular-marked (viz., the \textit{wh}-complement is singular), the two questions are also subject to point-wise uniqueness, which says that each boy watched at most one movie.

(7) a. Which movie did every/each boy watch?
   b. Which boy watched which movie?

While the point-wise uniqueness effect is easy to attest, the domain exhaustivity effect is quite obscure. For example, in the multi-\textit{wh} question (7a), it is unclear which set of boys is quantified over by the subject-\textit{wh}; domain exhaustivity would be trivial if this quantification domain consists of only the boys who did watch a movie. To remove this confound, Fox (2012a) uses the pair of examples in (8), where the quantification domain of each \textit{wh}-phrase is explicitly specified. Fox claims that (8b) rejects a pair-list reading (in contrast to (8a)), arguing that this reading is rejected because the domain exhaustivity condition presupposed in a pair-list reading is contextually infelicitous — pairing four kids with three chairs yields that there will be multiple kids sitting on the same chair.

(8) a. Guess which one of the \textbf{three} kids will sit on which one of the \textbf{four} chairs.
   b. Guess which one of the \textbf{four} kids will sit on which one of the \textbf{three} chairs.

In contrast to the dominant view, I argue that pair-list multi-\textit{wh} questions are not subject to domain exhaustivity. First, pair-list multi-\textit{wh} questions can be felicitously used in contexts where domain exhaustivity is violated. In (9), the sentence copied from (8b) is fully acceptable and must be interpreted with a pair-list reading.

(9) (\textit{w}: Four kids are playing Musical Chairs and are competing for three chairs.)
   “Guess which one of the \textbf{four} kids will sit on which one of the \textbf{three} chairs.”
   \not\Rightarrow Each of the four kids will sit on one of the three chairs.

The game rules of Musical Chairs yield two conditions: (i) one of the four kids will not sit on any of the three chairs, and (ii) the rest three kids each will sit on a different chair. Condition (ii) ensures that the embedded multi-\textit{wh} question has a pair-list reading, not a single-pair reading. Condition (i) contradicts the domain exhaustivity inference that each of the kids will sit on one of the chairs. If pair-list multi-\textit{wh} questions were subject to domain exhaustivity, (9) would suffer a presupposition failure and would be infelicitous in the given context, contra fact.

Second, in contrast to their multi-\textit{wh} counterparts, pair-list \textit{\forall}-questions cannot be felicitously used in contexts where domain exhaustivity is violated. In the context in (10), the quantification domain of the subject-\textit{wh}/quantifier is greatly larger than that of the object-\textit{wh}. The multi-\textit{wh} question (10a) is fully acceptable, but the \textit{\forall}-question (10b) is not: (10b) presupposes that each candidate will get one of the jobs, contra fact.

(10) (\textit{w}: 100 candidates are competing for three job openings.)
a. ✓ “Guess which candidate will get which job.”
b. # “Guess which job will every candidate get.”

One might suggest that the domain exhaustivity condition of a multi-wh question can be associated with any of the wh-phrases, including also the object-wh. For example, in (9) and (10), it could be the case that domain exhaustivity requires every chair and every job to be taken by a kid and a candidate, respectively. However, this possibility is also ruled out: a pair-list multi-wh question can be uttered in a context where neither type of domain exhaustivity is satisfied. For example, the sentence (11) is felicitous, and it does not imply domain exhaustivity relative to boys or to girls.

(11) (w: Four boys and four girls will form four boy-girl pairs to perform in a dance competition, but only two of the pairs will get into the final round.)

“Guess which one of the four boys will dance with which one of the four girls in the final round.”

\[ \rightarrow \] Each of the four boys will dance with one of the four girls in the final round.

\[ \rightarrow \] Each of the four girls will dance with one of the four boys in the final round.

In conclusion, pair-list readings of \( \forall \)-questions are subject to domain exhaustivity, while pair-list readings of multi-wh questions are not. This contrast suggests that these two pair-list questions should be interpreted and composed differently.

2.2. Uniform distribution of QiQ-readings

The distribution of QiQ-readings uniformly exhibits a subject-object/adjunct asymmetry (May 1985, 1988; Chierchia 1991, 1993). As seen in (12) and (13), pair-list readings and choice readings are available if the non-wh quantifier serves as the subject while the wh-phrase serves as the object, and otherwise are unavailable. In (12b), the uniqueness inference triggered by the singular-marked wh-subject has to be interpreted with wide scope relative to the object universal quantifier. As for the \( \exists \)-questions in (13), despite that (13b) marginally admits a choice reading, (13a) is much more preferable if the questioner seeks for a choice answer.\(^2\) The subject-adjunct asymmetry is analogous, as illustrated in (14) and (15). Thus, unless there is compelling evidence to suggest otherwise, it is appealing to assume that QiQ-readings are derived uniformly.

(12) (w: Ten students made votes for three candidates. Each student voted for only one candidate. The questioner wants to know all of the student-candidate pairs)

a. Which candidate did every student vote for? (✓Pair-list)

b. # Which student voted for every candidate? (XPair-list)

\[ \sim \] Exactly one of the students voted for every candidate.

(13) (w: Ten students made votes for three candidates. Each student voted for only one candidate. The questioner is only interested in knowing one of the student-candidate pairs.)

a. Which candidate did one of the students vote for? (✓Choice)

Andy voted for the first candidate.

b. ? Which student voted for one of the candidates? (??Choice)

(14) (w: Each driver refueled at a nearby station exactly once.)

\(^2\)The reason why (13b) and (15) marginally admit choice readings might be that existential indefinites have more ways to take scope than universal quantifiers, such as through choice functions.
a. At which station did every driver refuel? (✓Pair-list)
b. #Which driver refueled at every gas station? (✗Pair-list)

(15) (w: Each driver refueled at a nearby station exactly once.)

a. At which station did [one of the drivers] refuel? (✓Choice)
b. ?Which driver refueled at [one of the nearby stations]? (✗Choice)

The view of unifying QiQ-readings is further supported by the interpretations of questions with a coordination of quantifiers. In (16a) where the subject is a conjunction of a universal quantifier and an existential indefinite, the pair-list reading associated with the universal quantifier and the choice reading associated with the existential indefinite are both preserved. This question can be understood as requesting to specify all boy-watch-movie pairs and one girl-watch-movie pair. In contrast, since negative quantifiers do not license QiQ-readings (recall (4)), coordinating a universal/existential quantifier with a negative quantifier blocks the QiQ-reading. For example, (16b) cannot be read as requesting to list all boy-watch-movie pairs and not to list any teacher-watch-movie pairs.

(16) a. Which movie did [each of the boys and one of the girls] watch? (✓QiQ)
b. Which movie did [each of the boys and none of the teachers] watch? (✗QiQ)
c. Which movie did [one of the girls and none of the teachers] watch? (✗QiQ)

3. Challenges and goals

Section 2 has laid out two goals for the rest of the paper: (i) to derive the QiQ-readings of questions with quantifiers uniformly, and (ii) to compose pair-list multi-wh questions in tandem with pair-list ∃-questions while explaining their contrast with respect to domain exhaustivity. However, it is not easy to come up with an analysis that achieves both goals. This section discusses the technical challenges that need to be overcome and the related semantic effects that need to be accounted for.³

First, for most frameworks of question semantics, the structure in (17) is ill-formed. The generalized quantifier ‘Det-boy’ take arguments of type ⟨e, t⟩ and can only quantify into a t-type expression. However, the contained open question ‘which movie did x watch’ is not of type t; instead, it has been treated, for example, as a set of propositions (of type ⟨st, t⟩) as in Hamblin-Karttunen Semantics, or as a one-place predicate/property (of type ⟨e, t⟩ or ⟨e, st⟩) as in categorial approaches.

(17) Which movie did Det-boy watch?
* [Det-boy λx e [which movie did x watch]]

There are two general strategies to solve this type-mismatch problem. One is to extract the domain of quantification of the subject-quantifier via a type-shifting operation (Groenendijk and Stokhof 1984; Chierchia 1993; Dayal 1996, 2017; among others). For example, Dayal extracts the quantification domain of a universal quantifier as extracting the unique minimal witness set of the quantifier. This strategy is feasible in principle but a bit ad hoc (see Sect. 4.1.2 and footnote 10).

The other strategy is to create a t-type node in the LF which the quantifier can quantify into. For example, in Partition Semantics (Groenendijk and Stokhof 1984) which defines the root denotation of a question as a partition of possible worlds, the formation of a partition involves a t-type node.

³This paper does not attempt to explain effects that more likely to be related to syntax in nature, such as the superiority effects and constraints of extractions/movements. See Kotek 2014, 2019 and the references therein for detailed discussions.
node expressing an identity condition. Alternatively, *Karttunen (1977)* and *Krifka (2001)* reduce quantification-into matrix questions into quantification-into question-embeddings. The two analyses based on partitions and question-embeddings overcome the type-mismatch problem but bring up other problems (for a review of these two analyses, see Appendices A and B). Instead, my proposal will follow *Fox (2012b)* in assuming that the root of a QiQ-question contains a $t$-type node that expresses a predication condition (Sect. 4.2 and 6.3).

Second, pair-list readings have a limited distribution in matrix QiQ-questions. In matrix questions, only subject each/every-phrases can license pair-list readings. For example, in the $\exists$-question (18) which has a numeral-modified indefinite *two of the students*, the seeming pair-list answer (18a) which distributes over two chosen students is actually an over-informative specification of a cumulative choice answer (18b) (*Moltmann and Szabolcsi 1994; Szabolcsi 1997a*). Questions with a plural the-phrase like (19) are analogous (*Srivastav 1991; Krifka 1991*).

(18) Who did two of the students vote for?
   a. Andy voted for Mary, and Billy voted for Jill.
   b. Andy and Billy voted for Mary and Jill. In particular, Andy voted for Mary, and Billy voted for Jill.

(19) Who did the students vote for?

The confound from cumulative answers can be removed by replacing the number-unmarked word *who* with a singular-marked *wh*-phrase, which triggers a uniqueness presupposition. In the following set of matrix questions, distributivity above uniqueness is possible only in (20a-b), where the subject quantifier is distributive in lexicon. In other cases, for example, the choice reading of the $\exists 2$-question (20c) presupposes that two of the students voted for the same candidate and only this candidate, conflicting with the context.

(20) I know that every student voted for a different candidate. Which candidate did ...
   a. ... every student vote for?  
   b. ... {each student, each of the students} vote for?  
   c. # ... all/most of the students vote for?  
   d. # ... two of the students vote for?  
   e. # ... two or more students vote for?  
   f. # ... the students vote for?

To account for the limited distribution of pair-list readings in matrix questions, many existing works on composing complex questions propose to derive pair-list readings in a way that crashes in questions with a non-universal quantifier (e.g., *Dayal 1996* and *Fox 2012b*; see Sect. 4 for details.) This strategy, however, comes with an expense of failing to account for choice readings of $\exists$-questions. In contrast, I argue that a subject-quantifier licenses pair-list readings only if this quantifier is lexically distributive and scopally productive. In this view, the limited distribution of pair-list naturally follows from the independently observed contrasts between distributive-universal quantifiers and the other quantifiers with respect to lexical distributivity and scoping (*Szabolcsi 1997b; Beghelli and Stowell 1997*; for details, see Sect. 6.3.2 and 6.3.4).

---

4Other than these two general strategies, Inquisitive Semantics also exempts from this type-mismatch problem because it defines declaratives and interrogatives uniformly as a set of sets of propositions (of type $\langle stt, t \rangle$) and generalized quantifiers as functions of type $\langle e, stt \rangle$. To my knowledge, this idea has not been explored extensively. For a possible direction, see *Ciardelli and Roelofsen (2018: Sect. 4.3.3)*.
Third, there are several semantic effects robustly observed with QiQ-questions and/or pair-list wh-questions. Section 2.1 has discussed two effects, including the uniqueness effect triggered by the singular-marked object-wh, as seen in all the sentences in (21), and the domain exhaustivity effect observed only in ∀-questions, as seen in (21a). These effects were not extensively considered until Srivastav 1991/Dayal 1996.

(21) a. Which movie did every/each boy watch?
   ⇝ For every boy x, x watched exactly one movie.

b. Which boy watched which movie?
   ⇝ For every boy x such that x watched any movie, x watched exactly one movie.

c. Which movie did one/two of the boys watch?
   ⇝ For some x such that x is one/two of the boys, x watched exactly one movie.

Moreover, embeddings of pair-list questions are subject to quantificational variability effects. As first observed by Berman (1991), question-embeddings modified by a quantificational adverbial (e.g., mostly, partly, for the most part, in part) commonly have a quantificational variability inference. As illustrated in (22) and (23), in paraphrasing such an inference, the quantification domain of the matrix quantity adverbial mostly can be thought of as (a) a set of propositions (Lahiri 1991, 2002; Cremers 2016), (b) a set of sub-questions (Beck and Sharvit 2002), or (c) a set of individuals or pairs (Xiang 2016, 2019b, To appear; Cremers 2018). This effect casts challenges to accounts such as Dayal 1996 which analyzes pair-list questions with a flat semantics (Sect. 4.1.2).

(22) Jill mostly knows [which students left].
   a. ⇝ For most p: p is a true proposition of the form⌜student-x left⌝, Jill knows p.
   b. ⇝ For most Q: Q is a question of the form⌜whether student-x left⌝, Jill knows Q.
   c. ⇝ For most x: x is an atomic student and x left, Jill knows that x left.

(23) Jill mostly knows [PAIR-LIST {which movie every boy watched.
                                       which boy watched which movie.}]
   a. ⇝ For most p: p is a true proposition of the form⌜boy-x watched movie-y⌝, Jill knows p.
   b. ⇝ For most Q: Q is a question of the form⌜which movie boy-x watched⌝, Jill knows Q.
   c. ⇝ For most ⟨x, y⟩: x is an atomic boy and y is an atomic movie and x watched y, Jill knows that x watched y.

4. Two general approaches to composing complex questions

There is a rich literature on composing pair-list multi-wh questions and questions with quantifiers. This section reviews two lines of approaches that have tackled both types of questions, including the functionality-based approaches which assume that these complex questions involve wh-dependencies, and the family-of-question approaches which define each of such questions as a family of sub-questions.5 I will especially focus on two influential accounts, namely, Dayal (1996, 2017) and Fox (2012a,b), because they successfully predict the domain exhaustivity and point-wise uniqueness effects in singular-marked ∀-questions, and because my analysis will take ingredients

5The core assumptions of these two approaches are compatible with each other. For example, Chierchia (1993) assumes wh-dependency while defining a QiQ-question as a family of questions. See details in footnote 10.
from these two accounts. For more extensive reviews, see the Appendices as well as Xiang 2016: chapter 5 and 6, Dayal 2017: chapter 4, and Ciardelli and Roelofsen 2018.

4.1. Function-based approaches

Functional readings of questions with quantifiers exhibit a clear functional dependency relation between the subject-quantifier and the object-\textit{wh}, called “\textit{wh}-dependency”. In example (1b), repeated below, the answer involves a pronoun interpreted as being bound by the subject-quantifier in the question.

(24) Which movie did every-boy\textsubscript{i} watch?  
    His, favorite superhero movie.

As for pair-list readings of questions, functionality-based approaches assume that \forall-questions and multi-\textit{wh} questions with pair-list readings also involve a \textit{wh}-dependency between the higher \forall/\textit{wh}-phrase and the lower \textit{wh}-phrase. In this view, for example, the pair-list answer (25a) specifies the graph of a Skolem function from the set that the higher \forall/\textit{wh}-phrase ranges over to the set that the lower \textit{wh}-phrase ranges over, as in (25b).

(25) Which movie did every boy watch?/ Which boy watched which movie?  
    Andy watched \textit{Ironman},  
    Billy watched \textit{Spiderman},  
    Clark watched \textit{Hulk}.  
    b. \text{f} = \begin{bmatrix}  
          a & \rightarrow & i \\
          b & \rightarrow & s \\
          c & \rightarrow & h 
        \end{bmatrix}

The functionality-based analysis was originally proposed only for \forall-questions (Engdahl 1980, 1986; Chierchia 1993), especially to account for the similar subject-object/adjunct asymmetry in their functional readings and their pair-list readings. This asymmetry is illustrated by the contrast between (26) and (27) (see also Sect. 2.2): functional readings and pair-list readings are available only if the universal quantifier is structurally higher than the \textit{wh}-phrase. Assuming functionality, one can explain this asymmetry in terms of Weak Crossover Violations or the Left-ness Constraint in binding and functionality (Chierchia 1993; Jacobson 1994; Williams 1994).

(26) Which woman did every boy invite?  
    a. Anna.  
    b. His mother.  
    c. Andy invited Mary, Billy invited Susi, Clark invited Jill.

(27) Which woman invited every boy?  
    a. Anna.  
    b. # His mother. (Intended: ‘Every-boy\textsubscript{i} was invited by his\textsubscript{i} mother.’)  
    c. # Andy invited Mary, Billy invited Susi, Clark invited Jill.

Further, Dayal (1996, 2017) extends the idea of functionality to pair-list multi-\textit{wh} questions. She points out that the corresponding relations expressed by pair-list answers are skolem functions — the correspondence can be one-to-one or many-to-one, but not one-to-many, as witnessed in (28). See also Caponigro and Fălăuş (To appear) for an extension of this approach to multi-\textit{wh} free relatives in Romanian.
Which student talked to which professor? (Dayal 2017: 96)

a. Alice talked to Professor Carl, and Bill talked to Professor Dan.
b. Alice and Bill both talked to Professor Carl.
c. # Alice talked to Professors Carl and Dan.

This paper does not take a position on whether the subject-object/adjunct asymmetry and the unavailability of one-to-many relations should be explained in terms of constraints in functionality. However, in section 6, providing a new compositional analysis, I will show that *wh*-dependency is independently needed to account for the contrast between multi-*wh* questions and ∀-questions with respect to domain exhaustivity.

4.1.1. *Wh*-dependency in basic functional questions

In the current dominant analysis, *wh*-dependencies in functional questions are derived by assuming a complex *wh*-trace (Groenendijk and Stokhof 1984; Chierchia 1993; among others). The tree diagram in (29) illustrates the LF schema for a functional ∀-question. In this LF, the *wh*-trace $l_f^i$ carries two indices, including:

(i) a functional index $i$, which is interpreted as an intensional functional variable $f$ (of type $⟨s,e⟩$) and is bound by the fronted object-*wh* which movie;

(ii) an argument index $j$, which is interpreted as an individual variable $x$ (of type $e$) and is bound by the subject-quantifier every boy.

With the above binding relations, the IP is interpreted as an open proposition expressing a quantificational functional dependency condition, read as ‘every boy $x$ watched $f(x)$’. The details of composition above IP are omitted for now because this part varies by the framework of question composition. For example, in Hamblin-Karttunen Semantics, the yielded root denotation of this question is a set of propositions of the form $⌜$every boy $x$ watched $f(x)$⌝ where $f$ is an intensional Skolem function to atomic movies (viz., $∀w[Ran(f_w(x)) ⊆ M_w]$), or equivalently, $∀w∀x ∈ \text{Dom}(f_w)[M_w(x)]$, as in (30). In categorial approaches, the yielded denotation is a property/predicate of these intensional Skolem functions, as in (31).

(29) Which movie did every boy watch? (Functional reading)
4.1.2. Dayal (1996, 2017) on composing pair-list questions

Dayal (1996, 2017) assumes that the two pair-list questions in (32) both denote a set of conjunctive propositions, and that each of the contained conjunctive propositions specifies a Skolem function \( f \) from the quantification domain of the \( \forall /wh \)-subject (namely, \( B_{@} \)) to the quantification domain of the \( wh \)-object (namely, \( M_{@} \)). This denotation yields domain exhaustivity since the function \( f \) takes the set of atomic boys as its domain.

\[ Q_{\text{multi-wh}} = \{ f \in [B_{@} \to M_{@}] \mid \lambda w. \forall x [B_{w}(x) \to W_{w}(x, f_{w}(x))] \} = \{ \lambda w. W_{w}(b_1, m_1) \land W_{w}(b_2, m_1), \lambda w. W_{w}(b_1, m_2) \land W_{w}(b_2, m_1), \lambda w. W_{w}(b_1, m_2) \land W_{w}(b_2, m_2) \} \]

Dayal assumes that both of the pair-list questions in (32) are composed via the LF (33). In this LF, both the subject-\( wh \)/quantifier and the object-\( wh \) are moved to the specifier of the projection of a functional C head \( C_{0 \text{func}} \).

---

8. \( @ \) stands for the actual world. For simplicity, here and henceforth, I assume that the extensions of the \( wh \)-complements are evaluated relative to the actual world.
The ontology of individuals assumes that a singular noun denotes a set of atomic entities, while a plural noun denotes a set consisting of both atomic and sum entities (Sharvy 1980; Link 1983). If an existential quantifier and extract out its quantification domain via the application of a Br-shifter (Partee 1986). The other way is to define a wh-phrase as a set of entities and derive its quantificational meaning via employing an ∃-shifter.

The composition precedes in three steps. First, the trace of the wh-object that carries two indices — a functional index \(i\) interpreted as an \(\langle e, e\rangle\)-type variable \(f\), and an argument index \(j\) interpreted as an \(e\)-type variable \(x\). The trace of the wh/∀-subject also carries the argument index \(j\). Abstracting the two indices at the edge of IP yields a two-place property (of type \(\langle e, est\rangle\)). As defined in (34a), this property maps a Skolem function \(f\) and an individual \(x\) to an open proposition that expresses a functional dependency relation between the subject and the object of watch. Second, as in (34b-c), the complex head \(C_{\text{func}}^0\) introduces domain and range arguments for the Skolem function \(f\) and creates a graph for \(f\). For \(q\) being the denotation of IP, the graph of a Skolem function \(f\) yielded by \(q\) is the conjunction of propositions of the form \(\forall x \in D\{q(f)(x)\}\) where \(x\) is in the domain of \(f\). Last, the sets that the ∃/wh-phrases range over are extracted by type-shifting operations (indicated by \(\uparrow_{\text{ts}}\)) and are passed to fill the range and domain arguments of \(C_{\text{func}}^0\). This composition yields a set of conjunctive propositions, as in (34d), each of which names a Skolem function defined for the set that the wh/∀-subject ranges over. This domain condition gives rise to a domain exhaustivity effect.

Finally, to account for the uniqueness effects of singular-marked wh-phrases, Dayal defines an answerhood-operator that presupposes the existence of the strongest true answer. The strongest true answer to a question is the true proposition in the Hamblin set of this question that entails all the true propositions in this set.

The ontology of individuals assumes that a singular noun denotes a set of atomic entities, while a plural noun denotes a set consisting of both atomic and sum entities (Sharvy 1980; Link 1983). If sums are defined in terms of part-hood relation, this ontology can be represented as in Figure 1. Letters \(abc\) each denotes an atomic boy. Lines indicate part of relations from bottom to top.
Accordingly, the Hamblin set of a singular-marked wh-question (36a) includes only propositions naming an atomic boy, while the Hamblin set of the corresponding plural-marked question (36b) includes also propositions naming a sum of boys. In a discourse where both Andy and Bill watched Hulk, the true answers are given in (36a'-b'). Note that the set (36b') has a strongest proposition \( \lambda w.W_w(a \oplus b, h) \) but (36a') does not; therefore, employing \( \text{Ans}_{\text{Dayal}} \) in (36a) gives rise to a presupposition failure. To avoid this presupposition failure, the singular-marked question (36a) can only be felicitously uttered in a world where only one of the children came, which therefore explains its uniqueness requirement.

\[
(36) \quad (w: \text{Among the considered boys, only Andy and Billy watched Hulk.})
\]

a. Which boy watched Hulk? \( a' \cdot \{ \lambda w.W_w(a, h), \lambda w.W_w(b, h) \} \)

b. Which boys watched Hulk? \( b' \cdot \{ \lambda w.W_w(a, h), \lambda w.W_w(b, h), \lambda w.W_w(a \oplus b, h) \} \)

In a pair-list questions, if singular-marked, the object-wh ranges over a set of atomic elements, and then the presupposition of \( \text{Ans}_{\text{Dayal}} \) entails point-wise uniqueness. For example, if in \( w_1 \) the boy \( b_1 \) watched only \( m_1 \) but \( b_2 \) watched both \( m_1 m_2 \), then the top two propositions in the Hamblin set \( Q \) in (32) are both true in \( w_1 \) but neither is stronger than the other; applying \( \text{Ans}_{\text{Dayal}}(w_1) \) to \( Q \) yields a presupposition failure.

The account of Dayal successfully predicts domain exhaustivity and point-wise uniqueness effects in singular-marked \( \forall \)-questions. In this account, domain exhaustivity comes from the lexical meaning of \( C_0^{\text{func}} \) and point-wise uniqueness comes from the conjunctive closure in \( C_0^{\text{func}} \) and the presuppositional \( \text{Ans}_{\text{Dayal}} \)-operator. This account also manages to keep the semantic type of questions low (i.e., single/double-wh questions and \( \forall \)-questions are uniformly of type \( \langle st, t \rangle \)), leaving space to tackle wh-constructions that are more complex (e.g., wh-triangles, multi-wh echo questions).

However, this account faces many problems. Conceptually, the composition involves a few ad hoc or problematic assumptions. First, the index abstractions are isolated from the moved wh-phrases and quantifiers. This way of abstracting indices is especially concerning since here the structure involves multiple abstractions — isolating the \( \lambda \)-operators from the moved phrases make the binding relations ambiguous. Second, the \( C_0^{\text{func}} \) is structure specific and is hard-wired with a complex meaning. It is unclear why a covert functional head should be interpreted as such and appear only in particular structures. Thus, Dayal is not fully satisfied with this approach and calls it the “crazy \( C_0 \) approach.”

Last, for \( \forall \)-questions in specific, it is implausible to move a non-interrogative phrase to the specifier of an interrogative CP (Heim 2012).

In addition to the above conceptual problems, this account also makes a couple of problematic empirical predictions. (Note that these problems are independent from assuming functionality.) First of all, composing pair-list \( \forall \)-questions and multi-wh questions based on the very same LF, this account predicts that the two types of pair-list questions are semantically equivalent. However, as argued in section 2.1, the two questions differ with respect to domain exhaustivity. As seen in (10),
repeated below, the multi-\textit{wh} question, but not the \forall-question, can be felicitously used in a context where domain exhaustivity is violated.

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textbf{(37)} (Context: \textit{100 candidates are competing for three job openings.})
  \begin{enumerate}
    \item “Guess which candidate will get which job.”
    \item \# “Guess which job will every candidate get.”
  \end{enumerate}
\end{itemize}

Second, this account does not extend to choice readings of \exists-questions. To avoid over-generating pair-list readings for \exists-questions (recall the limited distribution of pair-list from Sect. 3), Dayal stipulates that the quantification domain of a non-interrogative quantifier must be obtained as extracting the unique minimal witness set of this quantifier. Assuming a discourse domain with three boys \textit{abc}, Table 1 illustrates the minimal witness sets of the three basic generalized quantifiers. Observe that only the universal quantifier has a non-empty unique witness set, which is simply its smallest live-on set. In contrast, existential indefinites have multiple minimal witness sets. Negative quantifiers (and other decreasing quantifiers) have a unique minimal witness set but it is the empty set. With this stipulation, the LF (34) used for composing pair-list questions is unavailable for questions with a non-universal quantifier. Although this stipulation avoids over-generating pair-list readings in questions with a non-universal quantifier, it is \textit{ad hoc} and leaves choice readings of \exists-questions unexplained.

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textbf{(38)} \textbf{Live-on sets and witness sets} (Barwise and Cooper 1981)
  
  For any \( \pi \) of type \( \langle \text{et}, t \rangle \):

  \begin{enumerate}
    \item \( \pi \) lives on a set \( B \) if and only if \( \pi(C) \Leftrightarrow \pi(C \cap B) \) for any set \( C \);
    \item If \( \pi \) lives on \( B \), then \( A \) is a \textbf{witness set} of \( \pi \) if and only if \( A \subseteq B \) and \( \pi(A) \).
  \end{enumerate}

\end{itemize}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Generalized quantifier ( \pi )</th>
<th>Minimal witness set(s) of ( \pi )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>\textit{every/each boy}</td>
<td>{a, b, c}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\textit{one of the boys}</td>
<td>{a}, {b}, {c}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\textit{no boy}</td>
<td>\emptyset</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\textbf{Table 1: Illustration of minimal witness sets (with three relevant boys \textit{abc})}

Third, as pointed out by Lahiri (2002), defining a pair-list question as a set of conjunctive propositions, this account has difficulties in accounting for the quantificational variability effects in embeddings of pair-list questions. For example, the question-embedding sentence (39) implies a quantificational variability inference, which can be paraphrased as if the matrix quantity adverbial \textit{mostly} quantifies over a set of atomic propositions. However, these atomic propositions cannot be retrieved from the question denotation assumed in (32): from a conjunctive proposition, we cannot extract out its propositional conjuncts semantically.

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textbf{(39)} Jill mostly knows \([\text{PAIR-LIST}] \{ \text{which movie every boy watched}, \text{which boy watched which movie} \} \).
    \[ \leadsto \text{‘For most true propositions } p \text{ of the form } (\text{boy-}x \text{ watched movie-}y), \text{ Jill knows } p.‘ \]
\end{itemize}

To account for the quantificational variability effects, in an on-going work, Dayal (2016) proposes to get rid of the \( \bigcap \)-closure in \( C^{0}_{\text{func}} \) and analyze the root denotation of a pair-list question as a family of proposition sets. This revision manages to keep the atomic propositions alive, but it sacrifices the advantage of keeping the semantic type of questions low.
4.2. Family-of-questions approaches

Family-of-questions approaches regard a pair-list question as denoting a set/family of sub-questions (Hagstrom 1998; Preuss 2001; Fox 2012a,b; Nicolae 2013; Kotek 2014; Xiang 2016: chapter 5; among others). As exemplified in (40), if a simple single-*wh* question denotes a set of propositions, a family of questions denotes a set of sets of propositions.10

(40) (Context: *There are two relevant boys $b_1b_2$ and two relevant movies $m_1m_2$.*)

Which movie did every boy watch?/Which boy watched which movie?

\[
\{\lambda w.\text{W}_{\text{gr}}(x,y) \mid y \in M_{\text{gr}}\} \quad \{\lambda w.\text{W}_{\text{gr}}(b_1,m_1),\lambda w.\text{W}_{\text{gr}}(b_1,m_2)\} \\
\{\lambda w.\text{W}_{\text{gr}}(b_2,m_1),\lambda w.\text{W}_{\text{gr}}(b_2,m_2)\}
\]

The non-flat semantics assumed in (40) makes it easy to account for the quantificational variability effects in embeddings of pair-list questions. As in (41), the quantificational variability inference can be defined as if the matrix adverbial *mostly* quantifies over a set of sub-questions.

(41) Jill mostly knows \(\text{pair-list}\{\text{which movie every boy watched} \quad \text{which boy watched which movie}\}\).

\(\sim '\text{For most questions Q of the form } \lceil \text{which movie did boy-x watch?}\rceil, \text{Jill knows Q.'}\)

Fox (2012a,b) composes the two pair-list questions via different LFs that yield the very same root denotation. The LF of a pair-list multi-*wh* question is illustrated in (42). As *wh*-phrases are defined as existential indefinites (viz., \(\lceil\text{which boy}\rceil = \lceil\text{some boy}\rceil\)), this LF is read as ‘the set of $Q$ such that for some boy $x$, $Q$ is identical to $\lceil\text{which movie did $x$ watch?}\rceil$.’ This composition follows the Government and Binding style of Karttunen Semantics (Heim 1995) except that it treats the identity (Io-)operator type-flexible and allows this operator to be iterated.

(42) Which boy watch which movie? (Pair-list reading)

\[
[\text{CP}_2 \lambda Q_{(st,f)} \lceil \text{wh-boy@ } \lambda x_c [\text{Id } Q] [\text{CP}_1 \lambda p_{st} [\text{wh-movie@ } \lambda y_c [\text{Id } p] [\text{IP } x \text{ watch } y]]]]]]] \\
\text{a. } [\text{Id}] = \lambda \alpha \tau \lambda \beta \tau. \alpha = \beta \quad \text{(} \tau \text{ stands for an arbitrary type)}
\]

10 The analyses of Groenendijk and Stokhof (1984) and Chierchia (1993) are also family-of-questions approaches. They define a QQ-question as a family of sub-questions that quantify over a minimal witness set (mws) of the involved generalized quantifier $P$. A general schema of paraphrase is given in (i).

(i) \([\text{Which movie did $P_{\text{boy}}$ watch?}]_{QQ} = \{\lceil\text{which member of $A$ watched which movie}\rceil \mid \text{mws}(P, A)\}\)

However, the predictions made by these two accounts are quite different from the predictions of the non-flat semantics in (40). For example, Chierchia (1993) defines the sub-question as a set of propositions of the form $'\text{boy-x watched movie } f(x)'$, as in (ii). The denotations of the related $\forall / \exists$-questions are thus illustrated as in (iii). Chierchia further assumes that answering a family of sub-questions means answering one of the sub-questions (in contrast to Fox’s assumption that answering a family of sub-questions means answering all of the sub-questions). Since the existential quantifier *one of the boys* has multiple minimal witness sets, the $\exists$-question has a choice flavor. While this account naturally extends to $\exists$-questions, it cannot explain the effects of $\forall$-questions such as domain exhaustivity, point-wise uniqueness, and quantificational variability.

(ii) \([\text{Q}_2] = \{\lceil\lambda w.\text{W}_{\text{gr}}(x,f(x)) \mid x \in A, f \in [A \rightarrow B_{\text{gr}}]\} \mid \text{mws}(P, A)\}\)

(iii) (Context: *There are two relevant boys $b_1b_2$ and two relevant movies $m_1m_2$.*)

\(a. \quad [\text{Q}_2] = \{\lceil\lambda w.\text{W}_{\text{gr}}(b_1,m_1),\lambda w.\text{W}_{\text{gr}}(b_2,m_2),\lambda w.\text{W}_{\text{gr}}(b_1,m_2),\lambda w.\text{W}_{\text{gr}}(b_2,m_1)\}\}

\(b. \quad [\text{Q}_2] = \{\lceil\lambda w.\text{W}_{\text{gr}}(b_1,m_1),\lambda w.\text{W}_{\text{gr}}(b_1,m_2),\lambda w.\text{W}_{\text{gr}}(b_2,m_1),\lambda w.\text{W}_{\text{gr}}(b_2,m_2)\}\} \)
b. \( [IP] = \lambda w. W_w(x, y) \)

c. \( [C'_1] = [Id](p)([IP]) \)
\[= p = \lambda w. W_w(x, y) \]

d. \( [CP_1] = \lambda p. \exists y[M@_0(y) \land p = \lambda w. W_w(x, y)] \)
\[= \{ \lambda w. W_w(x, y) \mid M@_0(y) \} \]

e. \( [C'_2] = [Id](Q)([CP_1]) \)
\[= Q = \{ \lambda w. W_w(x, y) \mid M@_0(y) \} \]

f. \( [CP_2] = \lambda Q. \exists x[B@_0(x) \land Q = \{ \lambda w. W_w(x, y) \mid M@_0(y) \}] \)
\[= \{ \{ \lambda w. W_w(x, y) \mid y \in M@_0 \} \mid x \in B@_0 \} \]

The LF of the corresponding pair-list \( \forall \)-question is as in (43), read as ‘the unique minimal set \( K \) such that for every boy \( x \): \{\text{which movie did } x \text{ watch?}\} \) is a member of \( K \).’ The most important operations involved in forming this LF are (i) quantifying-into predication and (ii) minimization (a la Pafel 1999; Preuss 2001). For operation (i), the \( \forall \)-subject undergoes quantifier raising and quantifies into a predication condition yielded by applying a null predicative variable \( K \) to an open \( wh \)-question. This operation yields a universal predication condition, read as ‘for every boy \( x \): \{\text{which movie did } x \text{ watch?}\} \) is a member of \( K \).’ For operation (ii), the min-operator binds the \( K \) variable across the subject-quantifier every boy, returning the unique minimal \( K \) set that satisfies the universal predication condition. This minimal set is simply the set consisting of all the sub-questions of the form “\( \text{which movie did } x \text{ watch?}\).”

(43) Which movie did every boy watch? (Pair-list reading)

\[
\begin{align*}
[CP_2 \min \lambda K_{(st,l)} [\text{every-boy}_0 \lambda x_0 [K [CP_1 \lambda p_{sl} [\text{wh-movie}_0 \lambda y_0 ([[Id p] [IP x watch y]))]]]]] \\
\end{align*}
\]

a. \( [CP_1] = \{ \lambda w. W_w(x, y) \mid M@_0(y) \} \) (Composition is the same as in (42a-d))

b. \( [\min] = \lambda x_{(st,l)} \forall K_{(st,l)}[K \in a \land \forall K' \in a[K \subseteq K']] \)
\( a_K_{(st,l)} \).
\( [\min] (a) \) is the unique minimal set in \( a \) which is a subset of every set in \( a \), defined only if this minimal set exists. (Pafel 1999)

c. \( [CP_2] = [\min] (\lambda K.[\text{every boy}_0 \lambda x_0 K(\{ \lambda w. W_w(x, y) \mid M@_0(y) \}）) \)
\[= \{ \{ \lambda w. W_w(x, y) \mid y \in M@_0 \} \mid x \in B@_0 \} \]

Finally, on answerhood, Fox (2012a,b) assumes that answering a family of sub-questions means answering each of the contained sub-questions. In other words, answerhood is applied point-wise. As recursively defined in (44), the point-wise answerhood-operator imposes \( \text{Ans}_{Dayal} \) to each sub-question and returns the conjunction of the strongest true propositional answer of each sub-question. Since the fronted \( wh \)-phrase is singular-marked, the point-wise applied presupposition that every sub-question has a strongest true answer yields domain exhaustivity and point-wise uniqueness.

(44) Point-wise answerhood-operator (Fox 2012a)

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Ans}_{pw} = \lambda w \lambda Q. \left\{ \begin{array}{ll}
\text{Ans}_{Dayal}(w)(Q) & \text{if } Q \text{ is of type } (st,t) \\
\bigcap\{\text{Ans}_{pw}(w)(a) \mid a \in Q \} & \text{otherwise}
\end{array} \right.
\end{align*}
\]

Fox’s account has two advantages over the account of Dayal (1996, 2017). First, as discussed in (41), the non-flat semantics of pair-list questions can easily account for the quantificational variability effects in embeddings. Second, the composition is quite neat; it does not use any ad hoc composition rules or type-shifting rules or employ any complex operators. In composing the multi-\( wh \) question,
the same as assumed in Karttunen Semantics, the *wh*-phrases function as existential indefinites and quantify into an identity condition. In composing the ∀-question, the subject-quantifier functions as a regular generalized quantifier combining with a one-place predicate (of type ⟨e, t⟩) denoted by its sister node; hence, there is no need to stipulate a type-shifting operation to extract the quantification domain of the quantifier.

However, the account of Fox is subject to the same empirical problems as the account of Dayal (1996, 2017). First, defining pair-list ∀-questions semantically equivalent to their multi-*wh* counterparts, Fox also cannot explain the contrast with respect to domain exhaustivity. Second, this account does not extend to ∃-questions either. In composing questions with quantifiers, Fox uses the min-operator to obtain the unique minimal K set that satisfies the quantificational predication condition, which is unavailable if the predication is existentially quantified. For instance, for the ∃-question (45a), in a discourse with two relevant boys b₁ b₂, the smallest K sets satisfying the existential quantification condition (45b) are the two sets in (45c), yet neither set is a subset of the other.

(45) a. Which movie did one of the boys watch?
   b. \( \exists x [B_\Theta(x) \land \textnormal{[which movie did } x \textnormal{ watch?] }] \in K \)
   c. \{[\textnormal{which movie did } b_1 \textnormal{ watch?}]\}
   \{[\textnormal{which movie did } b_2 \textnormal{ watch?}]\}

5. **Formal theory: A hybrid categorial approach**

My general treatment of question composition follows the hybrid categorial approach developed in Xiang 2016, To appear. This approach follows traditional categorial approaches in assuming that questions denote functions but overcomes their technical problems in composition. Compared with proposition-based frameworks such as Hamblin-Karttunen Semantics, this framework allows to derive quantificational variability effects in embeddings of pair-list questions without having to assume a non-flat semantics (Sect. 7). Note that, however, assumptions made in later sections on the composition of the question nucleus are independent from this framework.

The hybrid categorial approach has three main ingredients. First, matrix and embedded questions uniformly denote functions from short answers to corresponding propositional answers, called “topical properties”. For example, the question in (46) denotes a function that maps each atomic boy \( x \) to the proposition that \( x \) came. As such, short answers are extractable from question denotations as meanings in the property domain. This assumption is basic in any categorial approach to question composition. It will be important for analyzing quantificational variability effects in embeddings of pair-list questions.

(46) a. \( \texttt{[which boy came?] } = \lambda x : B_\Theta(x) . \lambda w [C_w(x)] \)
   b. \( \texttt{[which boy came?] } (\texttt{[John]}) = B_\Theta(j) . \lambda w [C_w(j)] \)

Second, *wh*-phrases are existential quantifiers ranging over polymorphic sets. In extensional readings, the quantification domain of a phrase ‘*wh*-A’ consists of not only elements in the extension of the *wh*-complement \( \texttt{[A]}^w \) but also Skolem functions to \( \texttt{[A]}^w \), as in (47a). The lexical meaning for intensional readings of questions is defined analogously, as schematized in (47b).

(47) **The semantics of a *wh*-phrase** (Modified from Xiang To appear)
a. For extensional readings
\[
[[\text{wh-}A_w]] = \lambda P. \exists \alpha \in (\{P \mid \forall w[P(w) \subseteq \text{dom}(\text{wh-}w)]\} \cup \{f \mid \forall w[\text{ran}(f_w) \subseteq \text{dom}(\text{wh-}w)]\})[P(\alpha)]
\]
where \(\text{ran}(f) \subseteq \text{dom}(\text{wh-}w)\) if and only if \(\forall x \in \text{dom}(f)[\text{dom}(\text{wh-}w)(f(x))]\)

b. For intensional readings
\[
[[\text{wh-}\lambda w.A_w]] = \lambda P. \exists \alpha \in (\{P \mid \forall w[P(w) \subseteq \text{dom}(\text{wh-}w)]\} \cup \{f \mid \forall w[\text{ran}(f_w) \subseteq \text{dom}(\text{wh-}w)]\})[P(\alpha)]
\]

The above definitions treat \(\text{wh-}\)expressions as existential indefinites; in the composition of a \(\text{wh-}\)question, however, fronted \(\text{wh-}\)-phrases are type-shifted into type-flexible function domain restrictors via the application of a \(\text{BeDom-}\)operator. For any existential quantifier \(\pi\), \(\text{Be}(\pi)\) is the set that \(\pi\) ranges over (Partee 1986), and \(\text{BeDom}(\pi)\) is a function domain restrictor which combines with a function \(\theta\) and returns the function that is similar to \(\theta\) but is undefined for items not in \(\text{Be}(\pi)\).

(48) The \(\text{BeDom-}\)operator

For any \(\pi\) of type \(\langle \sigma t, t \rangle\) where \(\sigma\) is an arbitrary type, we have:

a. \(\text{Be}(\pi) = \lambda x. P(\lambda y. y = x)\)

b. \(\text{BeDom}(\pi) = \lambda \theta. \lambda t. P_t[\text{dom}(P) = \text{dom}(\theta) \cap \text{Be}(\pi)] \land \forall \alpha \in \text{dom}(P)[P(\alpha) = \theta(\alpha)]\)

For example, in the LF (49), ‘\(\text{BeDom}(\text{wh-boy}_@)\)’ combines with the ‘came’-property defined for all entities and returns the ‘came’-property defined only for entities that are atomic boys. The same as discussed in footnote 7, LF representations are translated into Ty2. World variables of nouns and predicates within the nucleus are abstracted at the edge of IP. The extension of the \(\text{wh-}\)restricter is evaluated relative to the actual world @.

(49) Which boy came?

\[
\lambda x. \text{BeDom}(x) \cdot \lambda w. \text{C}_w(x)
\]

Crucially, \(\text{BeDom}(\pi)\) is type-flexible — it can combine with any function of a \(\langle \sigma, ..., \rangle\) type where \(\sigma\) is the type of an element in \(\text{Be}(\pi)\). Type-flexibility makes it possible to compose a question regardless of whether the function denoted by the question nucleus is defined for individuals or functions, and regardless of how many \(\text{wh-}\)phrases there are in this question. Take the single-\(\text{wh}\) question (50) for example. This question has an individual reading if the fronted \(\text{wh-}\)-phrase binds an individual trace, as in (50a), and a functional reading if it binds an (intensional) functional trace, as in (50b).

(50) Which movie did every boy watch?

a. Individual reading

‘Which movie \(y\) is such that every boy watched \(y\)?’
(Intensional) functional reading

‘Which Skolem function $f$ to atomic movies is such that for every boy $x$, $x$ watched $f(x)$?’

The tree diagram in (51) illustrates the composition of a single-pair multi-wh question. ‘BeDom(wh-movie@)’ applies to a one-place property of type $\langle e, st \rangle$ defined for any individuals and returns a similar property defined only for atomic movies. Likewise, ‘BeDom(wh-boy@)’ applies to a two-place property of type $\langle e, \langle e, st \rangle \rangle$ defined for any individuals and returns a similar property defined only for atomic boys.

(51) Which boy watched which movie? (Single-pair reading)
Last, complete true answers of questions are obtained by applying the answerhood-operators in (52). Compared with the Ans\textsubscript{Dayal}-operator (35), the major difference is that the Hamblin set \(Q\) is replaced with a topical property \(P\), which can supply both propositional answers and short answers.\(^{11}\) These answerhood operators account for uniqueness effects in the same way as Ans\textsubscript{Dayal}.

(52) Answerhood-operators

a. For the complete true short answer
\[
\text{Ans}\textsuperscript{S}(w)(P) = \exists \alpha \in \text{Dom}(P)[w \in P(\alpha) \land \forall \beta \in \text{Dom}(P)[w \in P(\beta) \rightarrow P(\alpha) \subseteq P(\beta)]].
\]
b. For the complete true propositional answer
\[
\text{Ans}(w)(P) = P(\text{Ans}\textsuperscript{S}(w)(P))
\]

6. Proposal

In light of functionality-based approaches, I analyze pair-list readings of multi-\(\text{wh}\) questions and QiQ-readings of questions with quantifiers as extensional functional readings. For both types of questions, I assume that the composition involves a quantificational condition with respect to an open sentence of the form \(\langle x \ P \ f(x) \rangle\) (\(P\) stands for a two-place predicate) which expresses a functional dependency relation. In particular, the composition of a pair-list multi-\(\text{wh}\) question involves existential quantification of the subject-\(\text{wh}\) into an identity condition (à la Karttunen Semantics), while the composition of a QiQ-question involves the subject-quantifier quantifying into a predication condition (à la Fox 2012b). A general schema is as follows, repeated from (6):

(53) A general schema of composing complex questions

a. Which movie did Det-boy(s) watch? (QiQ-reading)

\[
\text{[which-movie; \ldots Det-boy(s); \{\text{vp; \ldots [vp \ t\_i watched t\_j]}\]}]
\]

\(^{11}\)Following Fox (2013), Xiang (2016, To appear) assumes a weaker definition of complete answers: a true answer to a question is complete as long as it is not asymmetrically entailed by any true answers to this question. This answerhood is assumed to account for mention-some readings of questions and free relatives. Since mention-some is not the focus of this paper, for easier comparisons with competing theories in composing complex questions, here I follow Dayal (1996, 2017) and define the complete true answer as the unique strongest true answer.
b. Which boy watched which movie?  
... [which-movie ... which-boy [\text{ident} ... [\forall p \ t_i watched f_i]]]  

The difference between these two quantifying-in operations is responsible of the contrast between multi-\textit{wh} questions and \textit{\forall}-questions with respect to domain exhaustivity. Moreover, the composition of QiQ-questions is uniform; it easily extends to \textit{\exists}-questions with choice readings.

In what follows, I will first give the root denotation of each type of questions (Sect. 6.1) and then show how to derive these denotations compositionally (Sect. 6.2 and 6.3).

### 6.1. Question denotations

I propose that pair-list readings and QiQ-readings of complex \textit{wh}-questions are extensional functional readings. For a question having one of these readings, it denotes a topical property (of type \textit{(ee, st)}) that maps (i) a Skolem function that maps entities to the set that the object-\textit{wh} ranges over to (ii) a conjunctive proposition that expresses the graph of this Skolem function. Formal illustrations of these denotations are given in (54-55) in tandem. In both illustrations, the (a)-denotations are represented in a way more convenient for comparison while the latter restricts also their domain. More specifically, in (54), the topical property of the multi-\textit{wh} question maps any Skolem function that maps entities to atomic movies to the graph of this function. In contrast, in (55), the topical property yielded by the corresponding QiQ-question is defined more restrictively only for Skolem functions that map Det-boy(s) to atomic movies, and this topical property maps each such Skolem function to the conjunction of a proposition set that quantifies over exactly Det-boy(s). The additional domain restriction in (55b), namely Det-B@ (Dom(f)), comes from the definedness condition of the value description in (55a): the quantificational predication condition Det-B@ (\lambda x.K(\lambda w.W_0(x, f(x))))), read as ‘for Det-boy(s) x, the proposition ‘x watch f(x)’ is a member of \textit{K’}, is defined only if the function \textit{f} is defined for Det-boy(s).

For a more concrete illustration of the QiQ-denotation, consider the related \textit{\forall}-question. If the ‘Det’ in (55) is every/each, the defined topical property is as follows:

\begin{align*}
(56) \quad [\text{which movie did every/each boy watch?}] \\
\Leftrightarrow \lambda f_{(e,e)}: \quad & \text{Ran}(f) \subseteq M_\text{B@}. \bigcap \{p \mid \exists \text{-B@} (\lambda x.p = \lambda w.W_0(x, f(x))) \} \\
\quad \text{(a') from \textit{\forall-obj}} \quad & \bigcap \{\lambda w.W_0(x, f(x)) \mid B_\text{B@}(x)\} \\
\Leftrightarrow \lambda f_{(e,e)}: \quad & \text{Ran}(f) \subseteq M_\text{B@}. \bigcap \{\lambda w.W_0(x, f(x)) \mid B_\text{B@}(x)\} \\
\quad \text{(a) from nucleus} \quad & \bigcap \{\lambda w.W_0(x, f(x)) \mid B_\text{B@}(x)\}
\end{align*}
In (56a), the input can be any function \( f \) from entities to atomic movies, and for each such input \( f \), the output is the conjunction of the set that consists of every proposition of the form "boy-\( x \) watch \( f(x) \)". Crucially, as represented explicitly in (56a'), this output inference is partial — the universal predication condition over the open sentence "boy-\( x \) watch \( f(x) \)" is defined only if \( f \) is defined for every boy in the discourse domain, which therefore yields domain exhaustivity. Finally, as in (56b), moving this definedness condition to the domain condition of the topical property yields that the input Skolem functions pair every boy with an atomic movie. In short, the topical property of the \( \forall \)-question is the same as that of the corresponding multi-\( \text{wh} \) question, except that it presupposes domain exhaustivity.

At this point, it should be clear why I pursue a functionality-based approach instead of a family-of-questions approach: the domain exhaustivity effect in a \( \forall \)-question comes from a definedness condition of applying quantification into an open sentence that expresses functional dependency. In family-of-question approaches, however, domain exhaustivity is attributed to an operation outside the question nucleus (e.g., the point-wise answerhood-operator as in the analysis of Fox 2012), which clearly cannot capture the semantic contrast between \( \forall \)-questions and multi-\( \text{wh} \) questions in terms of their structural differences.

6.2. Composing pair-list multi-\( \text{wh} \) questions

The tree diagram in Figure 2 illustrates the derivation of the root denotation of a pair-list multi-\( \text{wh} \) question. As marked in the tree diagram, this composition precedes in four steps. First, deriving functional dependency. Within IP, the argument variable of the complex functional trace of the object-\( \text{wh} \) is co-indexed with the trace of the subject-\( \text{wh} \), yielding an open proposition that expresses a functional dependency between the subject and object arguments of watch. Second, quantifying-into an identity condition. An identity (\( \text{Id} \)-)operator yields an identity relation between a covert variable \( p \) and the open sentence denoted by IP. At node 1, the subject-\( \text{wh} \), interpreted as an existential quantifier, binds the argument variable in IP across the \( \text{Id} \)-operator, yielding an existential identity condition with respect to a sentence expressing functional dependency. Third, creating a function graph. Abstraction of the variable \( p \) cross the existential identity condition yields the set of propositions of the form "boy-\( x \) watched \( f(x) \)". Conjoining this set of propositions by a \( \bigcap \)-closure yields the graph of the Skolem function \( f \). This \( \bigcap \)-closure can be considered as a function graph creator (Fgc) in the sense of Dayal (2017). Last, creating a topical property. Abstraction of the index of the functional variable yields a function (of type \( \langle ee, st \rangle \)) that maps each Skolem function to a proposition that describes the graph of this Skolem function. Further, the fronted DP "BeDom(\( \text{which movie} \)"") restricts the domain of this function and yields a similar function only defined for Skolem functions that range over atomic movies. The yielded function is the topical property of the multi-\( \text{wh} \) question.
Figure 2: Composition of the pair-list multi-\textit{wh} question \textit{which boy watched which movie?}

(57) Steps 1 & 2: Quantifying-into the identity condition of a functional dependency
   a. $[[\text{IP}]] = \lambda w. W_w(x_j, f_i(x_j))$
   b. $[[\text{IP}]] = \lambda \alpha \lambda \beta. \alpha = \beta$
   c. $[[C']] = [[\text{Id}(p)]]([[\text{IP}]])
   = p = \lambda w. W_w(x_j, f_i(x_j))$
   d. $[[\text{which boy}]] = \lambda P_{(\ell,t)}: \exists x[B@_@(x) \land p = \lambda w. W_w(x, f_i(x))]
   e. $[[1]] = [[\text{which boy}]]([[C']])
   = \exists x[B@_@ (x) \land p = \lambda w. W_w(x, f_i(x))]$

(58) Step 3: Creating a function graph
   a. $[[\text{CP1}]] = \lambda p. \exists x[B@_@ (x) \land p = \lambda w. W_w(x, f_i(x))]
   = \{\lambda w. W_w(x, f_i(x)) \mid B@_@ (x)\}$
   b. $[[2]] = \bigcap \{\lambda w. W_w(x, f_i(x)) \mid B@_@ (x)\}$

(59) Step 4: Creating a topical property
   $[[\text{CP2}]] = \lambda f_{(\ell,t)} : \text{Ran}(f) \subseteq \text{M@_@.} \bigcap \{\lambda w. W_w(x, f_i(x)) \mid B@_@ (x)\}$

It is worthy noting that, in contrast to basic functional questions, pair-list multi-\textit{wh} questions do not admit fragment functional answers like \textit{(60a)}. Instead, multi-\textit{wh} questions are only congruent with fragment answers that are lists of pairs of type $\langle se, se \rangle$ as in \textit{(60b)} (Kang 2012; Sharvit and Kang 2017). From the perspective of functionality-based approaches, as Chierchia (1993) argues, this gap shows that pair-list readings can be treated as special functional readings, but functional readings cannot be treated as special pair-list readings because the distribution of functional readings is more restrictive.

\footnote{Sharvit and Kang (2017) provide an explanation to why pair-list questions do not admit intensional functional answers. However the syntax of multi-\textit{wh} questions assumed by Sharvit and Kang is quite different from mine. I leave this issue open.}
(60) Which boy watched which movie?
   a. # His favorite superhero movie.
   b. Andy, Ironman, Billy, Spiderman, Clark, Hulk.

6.3. Composing QtQ-questions

The root denotation of the QtQ-question in (55) is uniformly composed based on the LF schema in Figure 3. In particular, as for the denotation in (55b), the condition on the range of the input Skolem functions (i.e., $f$ maps to atomic movies) is supplied by the fronted $wh$-phrase. All the rest, including the condition on the domain of the input Skolem function (namely, that $f$ is defined for Det-boy(s)) and the output proposition, are from the question nucleus (namely, the scope of the fronted $wh$-phrase). Observe that the four general steps in this composition are the same as those in the composition of a pair-list multi-$wh$ question. The following subsections will show how this composition schema derives each type of QtQ-readings.

Recall that questions with quantifiers admit both functional readings and QtQ-readings. The following compares the derivations of QtQ-readings and basic functional readings.

On the one hand, the same as basic functional readings, pair-list readings of questions involve a functional dependency relation between the subject-quantifier and the object-$wh$. To derive this
dependency, the fronted object-"wh "BeDom(which movie@') leaves a complex functional trace, whose argument index is bound by the subject-quantifier 'Det-boy(s)@'.

On the other hand, different from the case of a basic functional reading but the same as in a pair-list multi-"wh question, here the functional variable f in the complex functional trace is extensional (of type \langle ε, ε', \rangle, not \langle s, ee' \rangle). Moreover, here the nucleus involves two covert operations — predication and minimization. These operations are similar to what Fox (2012b) assumes for composing ∃-questions (see (43)), but they depart from Fox’s account in two aspects and yield desirable consequences in accounting for domain exhaustivity in ∃-questions and unifying the derivation of Q+Q-readings. First, in the presented analysis, the predication operation is applied to an open proposition \( \lambda w. W_w(x, f(x)) \) (as opposed to an open question). This proposition expresses a functional dependency between the arguments of watch. The binding of the variables x and f contribute to the derivation of domain exhaustivity (Sect. 6.3.1). Second, the minimization operator E-min is weaker than the min-operator that Fox adopts from Pafel (1999). As defined in (61) and illustrated in (62), the E-min-operator is lexically encoded with a choice function variable \( f_{cn} \) and does not presuppose uniqueness.\(^{13}\)

Replacing min with E-min makes the analysis extendable to ∃-questions (Sect. 6.3.2).

\[
(61) \quad \llbracket \text{E-min} \rrbracket = \lambda a_{\langle σ, t \rangle} : f_{cn}(\{K_{\langle σ, t \rangle} \mid K \in a \land \forall K' \in a[K' \not\subset K]\})
\]

(For a set of sets a: \( \llbracket \text{E-min} \rrbracket (a) \) is a set K s.t. K is in a and no set in a is a proper subset of K. \( f_{cn} \) stands for a free choice function variable.)

\[
(62) \quad \text{Let } a \text{ and } b \text{ be two distinct entities, } A = \{∅, \{a\}, \{b\}\}, \text{ and } B = \{\{a\}, \{b\}\}. \text{ Then we have:}
\]

a. \( \llbracket \text{MIN} \rrbracket (A) = \llbracket \text{E-min} \rrbracket (A) = ∅; \)

b. \( \llbracket \text{MIN} \rrbracket (B) \) is undefined;

c. \( \llbracket \text{E-min} \rrbracket (B) \) has two possible values: \{a\} and \{b\}.

6.3.1. Composing ∃-questions

This section presents the details of composing a pair-list ∃-question. The most important issues are to derive the pair-list reading and to account for the domain exhaustivity effect.

The LF is given in Figure 4. I divide the composition into four steps, in parallel to the composition of the corresponding pair-list multi-"wh question (Sect. 6.2). First, deriving functional dependency. The IP denotes an open proposition expressing a functional dependency relation, composed in exactly the same way as the IP in the corresponding multi-"wh question. Second, quantifying-into a predication condition. A null predicate K (of type \langle σ, ct \rangle where σ is an arbitrary type) combines with the open proposition denoted by IP, yielding a simple predication condition that this open proposition is a member of K. Next, the subject-quantifier every/each-boy@ quantifies into this predication condition, yielding a universal predication condition as stated in (63b). Crucially, this universal predication condition is defined only if f is defined for every boy, which yields domain exhaustivity. Third, creating a function graph. Abstracting the predicative variable K returns the set of K sets that satisfy the universal predication condition yielded from Node 1. These are the sets that contain all the propositions of the form \( 'βo-y-x watched f(x)' \), as in (64a). At Node γ, applying the minimizer E-min returns one of the satisfied minimal K sets. Among those satisfying the universal quantification predication, there is only one minimal set, namely, the set of the propositions of the form \( 'βo-y-x watched f(x)' \), as in (64b). At Node 2, this set of propositions is flattened by the application of a \( \text{env} \)-closure, returning a conjunctive proposition describing the graph of the function f,\(^{13}\) For readers who are familiar with Boolean Semantics, the E-min-operator is roughly the same as the collectivity raising operator in Winter 2001.
as in (64c). **Forth, creating a topical property.** The fronted ‘BeDom(which boy@)’ binds the f variable and restricts the range of f to the set of atomic boys. The possible inputs of this topical property are therefore Skolem functions that map each boy to an atomic movie, and the outputs are conjunctive propositions describing the graph of this function.

![Diagram](image_url)

**Figure 4:** Composition of the ∀-question *which movie did every boy watch?*

(63) Step 1 & 2: Quantifying-into the predication condition of functional dependency
a. [[IP]] = \( \lambda w.\mathcal{W}_w(x_j, f_j(x_j)) \)  
   (Equivalent to (57))
b. [[1]] = [[\text{every boy@}]](\( \lambda x.K(\lambda w.\mathcal{W}_w(x, f_i(x))) \))
   = \( \forall x \in B_@|K(\lambda w.\mathcal{W}_w(x, f_i(x))) \)  
   (defined only if \( \forall x \in B_@|x \in \text{Dom}(f) \))
   (For every boy x, the proposition ‘x watched f(x)’ is a member of K.)

(64) Step 3: Creating a function graph
a. \( \lambda K. [[1]] = \lambda K. \forall x \in B_@|\lambda w.\mathcal{W}_w(x, f(x)) \in K \)
   = \( \lambda K: \forall x \in B_@|x \in \text{Dom}(f), \{\lambda w.\mathcal{W}_w(x, f(x)) | B_@(x)\} \subseteq K \)
b. [[\gamma]] = [[\text{E-MIN}]](\( \lambda K. [[1]] \))
   = \( \forall x \in B_@|x \in \text{Dom}(f), \{\lambda w.\mathcal{W}_w(x, f(x)) | B_@(x)\} \)
c. [[2]] = \( \cap([[\text{E-MIN}]](\( \lambda K. [[1]] \))) \)
   = \( \forall x \in B_@|x \in \text{Dom}(f), \cap\{\lambda w.\mathcal{W}_w(x, f(x)) | B_@(x)\} \)

(65) Step 4: Creating a topical property
[[CP]] = \( \lambda f_{(e,t)}: \text{Ran}(f) \subseteq M_@ \land \forall x \in B_@|x \in \text{Dom}(f), \cap\{\lambda w.\mathcal{W}_w(x, f(x)) | B_@(x)\} \)

Step 2 of this composition — quantification-into predication — is especially important. First, it carries forward the advantage of Fox’s analysis that the subject-quantifier standardly combines with a one-place predicate of type \( \langle e, t \rangle \). In contrast to earlier accounts (e.g., Groenendijk and Stokhof 1984; Chierchia 1993; Dayal 1996, 2017), there is no need of assuming any type-shifting operation or making use of witness sets. Moreover, since here the subject-quantifier also binds the argument variable of the functional trace, the quantifying-in operation yields a presupposition that the Skolem function f...
is defined for Det-boy(s). For example, for the ∀-question, the universal predication condition (63b) is defined only if f is defined for every boy. This presupposition projects over CP, yielding domain exhaustivity for the ∀-question.

The explanation of domain exhaustivity crucially relies on the presence of a universal quantifier — the domain exhaustivity effect comes from the universal predication condition, and especially, the binding relation between a universal quantifier and the argument of the functional trace. Hence, this analysis does not over-predict domain exhaustivity for pair-list multi-where questions, the composition of which does not involve such a universal condition. For comparison, the family-of-questions approach of Fox (2012a,b) attributes domain exhaustivity to an operation outside the question nucleus — the point-wise answerhood-operator. Since the choice of answerhood is independent from the root structure/meaning of a question, the family-of-questions approach cannot explain the contrast in domain exhaustivity between ∀-questions and multi-where questions.

To sum up, the QiQ-reading of a ∀-question is [+d-exh,+pl,-ch]. It is subject to domain exhaustivity because the universal predication condition (Node 1) is defined only if f is defined for every boy. It expects a pair-list answer because the yielded eligible minimal K set (Node γ) is a non-singleton set ranging over multiple boys. It does not have a choice flavor because there is only one minimal eligible K set.

6.3.2. Composing ∃-questions

The composition of a choice ∃-question is in analogy to that of the pair-list ∀-question. Note 1 creates an existential predication condition over the open proposition \( \lambda w. W_w(x, f(x)) \), as in (66a). At Node γ, binding the K variable with the E-min-operator across the subject-indefinite one of the boys returns one of the minimal K sets that satisfy this existential predication condition. Crucially, different from the case of the ∀-question, here there are multiple eligible minimal K sets, each of which is a singleton set consisting of exactly one proposition of the form \( \exists \text{boy} \cdot \text{watch } f(x) \), as in (66b). \( (x = f_{ch}(B)) \) means that the boy x is chosen by a choice function variable f_{ch} encoded within the E-min-operator.) Each such minimal K set supplies a possible question denotation, which therefore gives rise to a choice flavor. The rest steps are the same as in the ∀-question.

\[(66) \begin{align*}
\text{Which movie did one of the boys watch?} \\
\lambda w. W_w(x, f(x)) & \in \{ \lambda w. W_w(x, f(x)) \} \\
\text{where } x & = f_{ch}(B).
\end{align*}\]

In contrast to that of a ∀-question, the QiQ-reading of an ∃-question is [−d-exh,−pl,+ch]. First, this reading is not subject to domain exhaustivity because the existential predication condition (66a) only requires f to be defined for at least one of the boys. Second, the possible answers are single-pairs,
not pair-lists, because the minimal \( K \) sets satisfying the existential predication condition are all singleton. Last, this reading has a choice flavor because there are multiple eligible minimal \( K \) sets.

The above discussion is for the \( \exists^1 \)-quantifier \textit{one of the boys}. The rest of this section extends this analysis to other \( \exists^n \)-quantifiers. Recall from Sect. 3 that pair-list readings are not available in matrix \( \exists \)-question. In (67c), for example, the \( \exists^2 \)-question cannot be interpreted with distributivity between quantification and uniqueness.

(67) I know that every student voted for a different candidate. Which candidate did ...
   a. ... every\( / \)each student vote for? \((\forall / \text{each} \gg i)\)
   b. ... one of the students vote for? \((\exists^1 \gg i)\)
   c. # ... two of the students vote for? \((\exists^2 \gg \text{each} \gg i)\)

To avoid over-generating pair-list readings, pioneering works such as Dayal 1996 and Fox 2012b simply derive pair-list readings in ways that would crash in questions with a non-universal quantifier. In Dayal’s analysis, the derivation of pair-list crashes because existential quantifiers do not have a minimal witness set. In Fox’s analysis, the derivation crashes because we cannot find the unique minimal set among the sets of sub-questions that satisfy an existential predication condition. However, these analyses come with an expense of not being able to account for choice readings of \( \exists \)-questions.

I propose that the determiner of the numeral-modified indefinite \textit{two of the boys} is not \( \exists^2 \) but rather \( \exists^1 \); in other words, the cardinal numeral \textit{two} is part of the restrictor of the determiner. With this assumption, the quantifier \textit{two of the boys} ranges over the set of entities that are pluralities of two boys, and it denotes a set of sets that contain at least one of such plural entities.

(68) a. \( \exists^2 \triangleq \text{def} \lambda P_{(e,t)}\lambda Q_{(e,t)}:|P \cap Q| = 2 \)
   b. \( \exists \triangleq \text{def} \lambda P_{(e,t)}\lambda Q_{(e,t)}:P \cap Q \neq \emptyset \)

This assumption is supported by the contrast between (69a-b): unlike distributive universal quantifiers such as \textit{every/each boy}, the existential quantifier \textit{two (of the) boys} can grammatically combine with a collective predicate. This fact shows that the quantifier \textit{two (of the) boys} is not distributive in lexicon, and more specifically, it should not be defined as existentially distributing over two atomic boys.

(69) a. Every/Each boy joined/*formed a team.
   b. Two (of the) boys joined/*formed a team.

The composition of \textit{two of the boys} precedes as in (70). First, \textit{of} combines with an entity denoted by the \textit{the}-phrase and returns a set of subparts of this entity. Next, the numeral \textit{two}, as a basic predicate restrictor, combines with a set of entities and returns a subset consisting of only the entities that have exactly two atomic \( \text{Ar} \) subparts, as in (70c-d). Finally, a covert existential determiner \( \emptyset \exists \) combines with this set-denoting NumP and returns an existential generalized quantifier (Link 1987).

(70) \textit{two of the boys}

Assume that the discourse domain has three boys \textit{abc}:
a. \[ [\text{the boys}] = a \oplus b \oplus c \]
b. \[ [\text{of}] = \lambda x_r \cdot \{ y \mid y \leq x \} \]
c. \[ [\text{two}] = \lambda Q_{(c,t)} \cdot \{ x \mid \# \text{At}(x) = 2 \land x \in Q \} \]
d. \[ [\text{two of the boys}] = \{ a \oplus b, b \oplus c, a \oplus c \} \]
e. \[ [\exists_{\exists} \text{two of the boys}] = \lambda P_{(c,t)} \cdot \exists x \cdot [\# \text{At}(x) = 2 \land \text{boys}(x) \land P(x)] = \lambda P_{(c,t)} \cdot \exists x \in \{ a \oplus b, b \oplus c, a \oplus c \} [P(x)] \]

Return to the composition of a matrix \( \exists \)-question. In the following, \( 2-\text{Bs@} \) abbreviates for the set of entities that are pluralities of two boys in the actual world. The same as in (66b), here the eligible minimal \( K \) sets yielded by the application of the \( \text{E-min} \)-operator are all singleton sets, each of these sets consists of a proposition of the form \( \forall x \text{ watch } f(x) \) where \( x \) is the plurality of two boys, as in (71b). Hence, the derived reading is \([-\text{pl}] \).

(71) Which movie did two of the boys watch? (QiQ-reading)
\[
[\text{BeDom}(\text{wh-movie@}) \lambda f_{(c,t)} \cdot \{ x \mid 1, \text{E-min } \lambda K 1 \text{ two-boys@ } \lambda x [K(\lambda w. \text{watch}_w f(x))] \} ]
\]
a. \[ [1] = \exists x \in 2-\text{Bs@} \{ K(\lambda w. \text{W}_w(x, f(x))) \} \]
b. \[ [\gamma] = [[\text{E-min}](\lambda K, [1])] = \{ \lambda w. \text{W}_w(x, f(x)), \text{ where } x = f_{\text{ch}}(2-\text{Bs@}) \} \]
c. \[ [2] = \lambda w. \text{W}_w(x, f(x)), \text{ where } x = f_{\text{ch}}(2-\text{Bs@}) \]
d. \[ [\text{CP}] = \lambda f_{(c,t)} : \text{Ran}(f) \subseteq M_{\text{ch}} \cdot \lambda w \{ \text{W}_w(x, f(x)) \}, \text{ where } x = f_{\text{ch}}(2-\text{Bs@}) \]}

In contrast to matrix \( \exists \)-questions, extensions and embeddings of \( \exists \)-questions sometimes admit pair-list readings (Szabolcsi 1997a; Beghelli 1997; also see Appendix B). For example, the sentence (72) is felicitous even if each boy watched a different movie. I assume that this embedding sentence has the LF in (72a) and is interpreted as in (72b). In this LF, the existential indefinite moves over the embedding verb \textit{know}, and its trace in the matrix clause is associated with a covert distributor \emph{each}, which yields the \textit{each} \( \gg \) \( i \) reading.

(72) Susi knows [which movie two of the boys watched].
\[
(\exists 2 \gg \text{each} \gg i)
\]
a. \[ [\exists_{\exists} \text{two-boys@}] \lambda x_c [\lambda e_c \{ \lambda y_c [\text{Susi knows which movie } y \text{ watched}] \}] \]
b. \[ \exists x [x \in 2-\text{Bs@ } \land \forall y \in \text{At}(x) [\{ \text{Susi knows which movie } y \text{ watched}] \} ] \]

In matrix \( \exists \)-questions, however, pair-list readings cannot be licensed by VP-\textit{each}. In (73), the meaning contribution of the distributor \emph{each} is just that the two chosen boys watched the movie separately, not that they watched possibly a different movie. The presented analysis explains the fact exactly: to derive a pair-list reading as in \( \forall \)-questions, the quantificational predication condition has to be distributive. Such distributivity arises only if (i) the quantifier itself is distributive, or (ii) if an additional distributor appears between the quantifier and the null predication operator \( K \). Condition (i) is easily seen in questions with an \emph{each} \( \land \) \emph{every} subject. Condition (ii) does not apply to English, because VP-\textit{each} can only be interpreted within IP as in (73a), not as high as in (73b).

(73) Which movie did two of the boys \textbf{each} watch?
\[
(\exists 2 \gg \text{each} \gg i)
\]
a. \[ \ldots 2 \cap [\text{E-min } \lambda K 1 \text{ two-boys@ } \lambda x_c [K [\lambda w] [\lambda y_c [\text{watch}_w f(y)]]]] \]
b. \[ \ast \ldots 2 \cap [\text{E-min } \lambda K 1 \text{ two-boys@ } \lambda x_c [\lambda y_c [K [\lambda w] [\text{watch}_w f(y)]]]] \]
6.3.3. Composing no-questions

Recall that negative quantifiers do not license QiQ-readings. For example, the no-question (74) cannot be responded by silence. This question admits only individual readings and functional readings.

(74) Which movie did [no boy, none of the boys] watch? (✓Individual, ✓Functional, ✗QiQ)
   a. Hulk.
   b. The movie that his grandpa recommended.
   c. # [Silence]

The proposed analysis easily explains the deviance of the QiQ-reading in a no-question. The minimal set that contains no proposition of the form \( \text{boy-}x \text{ watch } f(x) \) is simply the empty set, whose conjunction is undefined. Hence, composing the no-question (74) using the LF schema in Figure 3 yields a function that maps each input Skolem function to undefinedness. The main steps of the composition are given as follows:

(75) Which movie did no boy watch? (#QiQ-reading)

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{BeDom(wh-movie@)} A_f(e_x) & \left[ \gamma \right. \\
\text{E-min } \lambda K_{(s,t)} & \left[ 1 \text{ no-boy@ } \lambda x_r \left[ K(\lambda w.x\text{-watch}_w.f(x)) \right] \right] \\
\text{1} & \left. \left. \lambda P \langle e, t \rangle. \neg \exists x \left[ \# \text{At}(x) > 2 \land \text{Bs}@_r(x) \land P(x) \right] \right] \\
\text{E-min} & \left[ \lambda K. \left[ 1 \right] \right] = \emptyset \\
\text{2} & \text{is undefined}
\end{align*}
\]

6.3.4. Questions with a counting quantifier

It looks appealing and simple to extend the analysis in Sect. 6.3.3 for negative quantifiers to other decreasing quantifiers. For example, as seen in (76), decreasing quantifiers such as at most two boys and less than three boys also do not license QiQ-readings. The boy(s)-movie pair answer (76b) must be read in the same way as the individual answer (76a) except that the boy is named explicitly, and the uniqueness inference triggered by which movie must be interpreted globally.

(76) Which movie did [at most two, less than three] boys watch?

# ‘For [at most two, less than three] boys x, [tell me] which unique movie did x watch?’
   a. Hulk. (Intended: ‘Hulk is the only movie watched by [at most two, less than three] boys. The other movies were watched by more boys.’)
   b. Andy and Billy watched Hulk.
      i. ✓ Individual reading: ‘Hulk is the only movie watched by [at most two, less than three] boys, who are Andy and Billy. The other movies were watched by more boys.’
      ii. ✗ Choice reading: ‘Andy and Billy are two boys who both watched only Hulk.’

In Xiang 2019a, following Hackl (2000), I decomposed a decreasing quantifier into a negative determiner no and a set-denoting restrictor, as in (77). With this decompositional analysis, the unavailability of QiQ-readings in (76) can be explained in the same way as in (75).

(77) \([\text{at most two boys}@] = \lambda P_{(s,t)}. \neg \exists x [\# \text{Ar}(x) > 2 \land \text{Bs}@_r(x) \land P(x)]\)
b. \[ \langle \text{less than three boys} @ \rangle = \lambda P_{(c,t)} \cdot \exists x [\# \text{Ar}(x) \geq 3 \land \text{Bs}(x) \land P(x)] \]

However, the questions in (78) do not admit QiQ/choice-readings either, despite that the quantifiers \textit{at least two boys} and \textit{exactly two boys} are not decreasing. The same as in (76), here the uniqueness inference triggered by the singular-marked wh-object has to be interpreted above the subject-quantifier. This fact shows that the unavailability of QiQ-readings in (76) and (78) has nothing to do with the monotonicity pattern of the subject-quantifier.

(78) Which movie did \{at least, exactly\} two boys watch?  
\(\checkmark\) Individual, \(\checkmark\) Functional, \(\times\) QiQ

# 'For \{at least two, exactly two\} boys \(x\), [tell me] which unique movie did \(x\) watch?

In contrast to my old analysis, I now argue that the unavailability of QiQ-readings in (76) and (78) is due to a general syntactic constraint that counting quantifiers are scopally unproductive (Szabolcsi 1997b; Beghelli and Stowell 1997; among others). Beghelli and Stowell (1997) distinguish between the following four types of non-interrogative quantifiers and argue that they have different landing sites. In particular, counting quantifiers have very local scope and resist specific interpretations.

(79) **Types of non-interrogative quantifiers** (Beghelli and Stowell 1997)

a. Negative quantifiers: \textit{no}-NP.

b. Universal-distributive quantifiers: \textit{every/each}-NP

c. Grouping quantifiers: indefinites like \textit{a/some/several}-NP, bare-numeral quantifiers (e.g., \textit{one student, three students}), and \textit{the}-phrases.

d. Counting quantifiers: decreasing quantifiers headed with determiners like \textit{few, fewer than five, and at most six}; cardinality expressions with a modified numerals (e.g., \textit{more than five, between six and nine}).

To derive the QiQ-reading of a question with a quantifier, the quantifier must escape the IP and take scope above a null predicative operator \(\text{K}\). Counting quantifiers cannot land at such a high position and thus do not license QiQ-readings.

### 6.4. Summary

To sum up, pair-list readings of multi-wh questions and QiQ-readings of questions with quantifiers are special functional readings — the object-wh leaves a complex functional trace, in which the argument index is bound by the subject-wh/quantifier. As summarized in (80) and (81), for both types of questions, the composition of the question nucleus precedes in three steps: (A) indexations with the \textit{wh}/quantifier-traces yielding functional dependency; (B) the subject-\textit{wh}/quantifier quantifying-into an identity/predication condition of the dependency relation yielded by step (A); (C) conjoining a set of propositions that describes the function graph.

(80) Which boy watched which movie?

\[ ... \text{which-movie} @ \lambda f_{(c,t)} \langle c \cap \lambda P_{(s,t)} \langle s \text{ which-boy} @ \lambda x_e [\text{[Id } p][\lambda w.x \text{ watched}_w f(x)]])]] \]

(81) Which movie did Det-boy watch?

\[ ... \text{which-movie} @ \lambda f_{(c,t)} \langle c \cap \text{E-min} \lambda K_{(s,t)} [\langle s \text{ Det-boy} @ \lambda x_e [\text{K }[\lambda w.x \text{ watched}_w f(x)]])]]) \]

Table 2 compares the denotation of the question nucleus (viz., the denotation yielded at (C)) for the four related multi-wh or QiQ- questions.
Table 2: Comparing the denotation of the question nucleus

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject-type</th>
<th>Domain condition of f</th>
<th>Output value</th>
<th>D-exh</th>
<th>Pl</th>
<th>Ch</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>which boy</td>
<td>( \forall x \in B_{@} [x \in \text{Dom}(f)] )</td>
<td>( { \lambda w. x \text{-watch} w.f(x) \mid B_{@}(x) } )</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>every/each boy</td>
<td>( \exists x \in n-B_{@} [x \in \text{Dom}(f)] )</td>
<td>( { \lambda w. x \text{-watch} w.f(x) \mid B_{@}(x) } )</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n of the boys</td>
<td>( -\exists x \in B_{@} [x \in \text{Dom}(f)] )</td>
<td>( \emptyset )</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>none of the boy</td>
<td>( -\exists x \in B_{@} [x \in \text{Dom}(f)] )</td>
<td>( \emptyset )</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the three questions with a non-interrogative subject-quantifier, the quantificational predication condition yielded at (B) gives rise to a definedness condition that restricts the domain of the input Skolem function \( f \). In contrast, the multi-	extit{woh} question does not have this condition and therefore is not subject to domain exhaustivity.

The Q\(i\)Q-effect in questions with quantifiers is derived by extracting one of the minimal \( K \) sets that satisfy the quantificational predication condition yielded at (B). This analysis naturally explains the differences among the three Q\(i\)Q-questions with respect to the following three parameters:

(i) \([\pm \text{d-exh}]\): whether or not this reading is subject to domain exhaustivity.
   As in the \( \forall \)-question, the Q\(i\)Q-reading presupposes domain exhaustivity if the definedness condition of the quantificational predication condition requires \( f \) to be defined for every element in the set that the subject-quantifier ranges over.

(ii) \([\pm \text{pl}]\): whether or not this reading is pair-list.
   As in the \( \forall \)-question, the Q\(i\)Q-reading admits pair-list answers only if an extracted minimal \( K \) set is non-singleton.

(iii) \([\pm \text{ch}]\): whether or not this reading has a choice flavor.
   As in the \( \exists \)-question, the Q\(i\)Q-reading has a choice flavor only if there are multiple minimal \( K \) sets satisfying the quantificational predication condition yielded at (B).

In addition to pair-list \( \forall \)-questions and choice \( \exists \)-questions, this section has also explained why in many cases Q\(i\)Q-readings are unavailable. In questions with a negative quantifier (e.g., \textit{no boy}, \textit{none of the boys}), Q\(i\)Q-readings are semantically deviant because the only minimal \( K \) set satisfying a negative-quantificational predication condition is the empty set. In questions with a counting quantifier (e.g., \textit{two or more (of the) boys}), the LF used for deriving Q\(i\)Q-readings is unavailable because counting quantifiers are scope rigid.

7. Quantificational variability effects

As seen in Sect. 4.1.2, defining a pair-list question as a set of conjunctive propositions, the functionality-based approach of Dayal (1996, 2017) cannot account for the quantificational variability effects in embeddings of pair-list questions. Dayal defines the root denotation of single-pair and pair-list questions uniformly as a set of propositions; however, in paraphrasing the quantificational variability inference, the quantification domain of the matrix adverbial cannot be a set of atomic propositions as in (82a), because the propositions being conjoined cannot be extracted out from the conjunction of these propositions (Lahiri 2002). In contrast, family-of-questions approaches such as Fox 2012a,b can derive this inference by defining the quantification domain as a set of sub-questions as in (82b).

\[ (82) \quad \text{Jill mostly knows \{pair-list} \{ \text{which movie every boy watched} \text{ which boy watched which movie} \} \}. \]
a. \( \rightsquigarrow \) For most \( p \) s.t. \( p \) is a true proposition of the form \( \forall \text{boy}\cdot x \text{ watched movie}\cdot y \), Jill knows \( p \).

b. \( \rightsquigarrow \) For most \( Q \) s.t. \( Q \) is a question the form \( \forall \text{which movie}\cdot \text{boy}\cdot x \text{ watched} \), Jill knows \( Q \).

c. \( \rightsquigarrow \) For most \( (x, y) \) s.t. \( x \) is an atomic boy, \( y \) is an atomic movie, and \( x \) watched \( y \), Jill knows that \( x \) watched \( y \).

In addition to the proposition-based and the family-of-questions-based definitions, the hybrid categorial approach to question composition enables the option (82c), making it possible to derive the quantificational variability inference without defining pair-list questions with a non-flat semantics. In the proposed analysis, the root denotation of a pair-list question is a topical property that maps Skolem functions to conjunctive propositions. From this topical property, we can extract the boy-watch-movie pairs by retrieving the Skolem function that yields the strongest true answer to this question. For example, in a world where the boys \( b_1 b_2 b_3 \) watched the movies \( m_1 m_2 m_3 \) respectively, the strongest true short answer to the questions in (84) is the Skolem function (84a), and the atomic boy-watch-movie pairs are as in (84b).

\[
\text{(84) Which boy watched which movie? / Which movie did every boy watch?}
\]

\( (w: \text{The three relevant boys } b_1 b_2 b_3 \text{ watched the movies } m_1 m_2 m_3, \text{ respectively.}) \)

\[
a. \quad \text{Ans}^5(w)(\langle Q \rangle) = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \rightarrow m_1 \\ b_2 \rightarrow m_2 \\ b_3 \rightarrow m_3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{b. } \text{At}(\text{Ans}^5(w)(\langle Q \rangle)) = \begin{bmatrix} [b_1 \rightarrow m_1] \\ [b_2 \rightarrow m_2] \\ [b_3 \rightarrow m_3] \end{bmatrix}
\]

Xiang To appear provides two ways to define a quantificational variability inference based on short answers. Ignoring the complications needed for accounting for mention-some readings, I schematize these two definitions as in (85a-b).\(^{15}\) (For a compositional derivation of these conditions, see Cremers 2018.) In both definitions, the quantification domain of the matrix adverbial \textit{mostly} is a set of atomic functions.

\[
\text{(85) The quantificational variability inference of ‘Jill mostly knows } Q’.}
\]

a. \( \lambda w. \text{Most } \lambda f'[f' \in \text{At}(\text{Ans}^5(w)(\langle Q \rangle))][\text{know}_w(j, \langle Q \rangle)(f')] \)

\( \text{For most } \lambda f' \text{ such that } f' \text{ is an atomic subpart of the strongest true short answer to } Q, \text{ Jill knows the inference } \langle Q \rangle(f'). \)

b. \( \lambda w. \text{Most } \lambda f'[f' \in \text{At}(\text{Ans}^5(w)(\langle Q \rangle))][\text{know}_w(j, \lambda w'. f' \leq \text{Ans}^5(w')(\langle Q \rangle))] \)

\( \text{For most } \lambda f' \text{ such that } f' \text{ is an atomic subpart of the strongest true short answer to } Q, \text{ Jill knows that } f' \text{ is a subpart of the strongest true short answer to } Q. \)

In (85a), the scope of the adverbial \textit{mostly} says that Jill knows an atomic proposition, which is derived by applying the topical property of the embedded question to an atomic function. This definition works if the embedded \( Q \) is a multi-\textit{wh} question but not if it is a \textit{v}-question. The \textit{v}-question ‘which movie every boy watched’ presupposes domain exhaustivity, and therefore its topical property is only defined for functions that are defined for every boy; atomic functions such as \([b_1 \rightarrow m_1]\), however, are only defined for one of the boys.

\(^{15}\)Xiang (To appear) considers also mention-some readings of questions, where a question can have multiple complete true answers. Once mention-some reading is concerned, \( \text{Ans}^5(w)(Q) \) needs to be defined as a set of entities/functions, not one single entity/function.
Alternatively, in (85b), the scope of *mostly* says that Jill knows a sub-divisive inference. In the world described in (84), this sub-divisive inference is true if and only if in every world $w'$ that is compatible with Jill’s belief, the strongest true short answer of the embedded $\forall$-question in $w'$ is one of the seven Skolem functions list in the partition in Figure 5. In this partition, each cell stands for the set of worlds where the set of boy-watch-movie pairs is precisely as what is described by the contained Skolem function. The middle cell stands for the set of worlds that fully match the described scenario. Pairs conflicting with the described scenario are colored in gray. This sub-divisive inference is semantically equivalent to that Jill correctly identifies most of the boy-watch-movie pairs.

Figure 5: Illustration of the sub-divisive inference in the quantification scope of (85b)

8. Conclusions

In this paper, I pointed out that pair-list $\forall$-questions and their multi-$wh$ counterparts are semantically different — only the former are subject to domain exhaustivity. This difference suggests that the structure of composition of a pair-list $\forall$-question is distinct from that of its multi-$wh$ counterpart. Furthermore, the uniform syntactic constraints on distributing QiQ-readings show that QiQ-readings of matrix questions should be derived uniformly.

Influential accounts such as Dayal 1996, 2017 and Fox 2012a,b have not noticed the contrast between $\forall$- and multi-$wh$ questions with respect to domain exhaustivity. These accounts treat pair-list questions uniform and compose these questions with the same LF or with different LFs that yield the same root denotation. Moreover, to explain why only subject *every/each*-phrases license pair-list readings, these accounts derive pair-list readings in a way that crashes in questions with a non-universal quantifier. In consequence, they overly predict domain exhaustivity for multi-$wh$ questions and cannot extend to $\exists$-questions with choice readings.

The presented analysis has three parts. First, in light of functionality-based approaches, I proposed that QiQ-questions and pair-list multi-$wh$ questions both involve $wh$-dependencies — the subject-$wh$/quantifier binds the argument variable of the functional trace of the $wh$-object. In particular, in a pair-list multi-$wh$ question, the subject-$wh$ quantifies into an identity condition with respect to this $wh$-dependency relation; in a QiQ-question, the subject-quantifier quantifies-into a predication relation with respect to this dependency. This subtle difference is responsible of the contrast between $\forall$- and multi-$wh$ questions with respect to domain exhaustivity. Second, for questions with quantifiers in specific, inspired by Fox (2012b), I assumed that the seeming QiQ-effect is derived by extracting one of the minimal proposition sets that satisfy the quantificational predication condition. This analysis yields natural predictions as to which questions admit QiQ-readings and whether their QiQ-readings are subject to domain exhaustivity, admit pair-list answers, and have a choice flavor. Finally, adopting the hybrid categorial approach to compose questions, I have also overcome
the difficulty with the functionality-based analysis of Dayal 1996 in accounting for quantificational variability effects in embeddings of pair-list questions.

Appendix A. The partition-based approach

Partition Semantics is an exception to this type-mismatch problem. Groenendijk and Stokhof (1984: chapter 3) first analyze a pair-list \forall-question like (86) as a partition of possible worlds grouped in terms of which boy watched which movie. In the derivation of this denotation, the quantifier every boy quantifies into an identify condition (of type 1), which says that \( x \) watched the same movies in \( w \) and in \( w' \).

(86) Which movie did every boy watch?
\[
\lambda w \lambda w'. \forall x [B(x) \rightarrow \{ y \mid M(y) \land W_w(x,y) \}] = \{ y \mid M(y) \land W_{w'}(x,y) \}
\]

(\( w \) and \( w' \) are in the same partition cell if and only if for every boy \( x \), \( x \) watched the same movies in \( w \) and in \( w' \)).

However, Groenendijk and Stokhof themselves are not satisfied with this account since it does not extend to questions with a non-universal quantifier. For example, the predicted meaning for the \exists-question (87) is not a partition. Thus, Groenendijk and Stokhof ultimately pursues another family-of-question approach using witness sets (see footnote 10).

(87) Which movie did one of the boys watch?
\[
\lambda w \lambda w'. \exists x [B(x) \land \{ y \mid M(y) \land W_w(x,y) \}] = \{ y \mid M(y) \land W_{w'}(x,y) \}
\]

(\( w \) and \( w' \) are in the same partition cell if and only if for one of the boys \( x \), \( x \) watched the same movies in \( w \) and in \( w' \)).

For illustration, consider a discourse with two boys \( ab \) and two movies \( m_1m_2 \). The four worlds vary by which boy watched which movie. \( w_1w_2w_3 \) are grouped in one cell \( C_1 \): \( a \) watched the same movie in \( w_1 \) and \( w_2 \) (and \( b \) watched the same movie in \( w_1 \) and \( w_3 \)). Likewise, \( w_2w_3w_4 \) are in one cell \( C_2 \): \( b \) watched the same movie in \( w_2 \) and \( w_4 \). In addition, \( C_1 \) and \( C_2 \) are distinct cells because neither boy watched the same movie in \( w_1 \) and \( w_4 \). The world grouping in Fig. 6 is clearly not a partition: \( C_1 \) and \( C_2 \) are overlapped, both containing \( w_2 \) and \( w_3 \). Moreover, from this world grouping, we cannot identify which movie any of the boys watched. For example, if \( w_1 \) is the actual world, then \( C_1 \) is the cell which the actual world belongs to; however, based on \( C_1 \), we cannot decide on whether \( a \) watched \( m_1 \) (as in \( w_1w_2 \)) or he watched \( m_2 \) (as in \( w_3 \)).

\[
\begin{array}{c|c}
| w_1 & \{ (a, m_1), (b, m_2) \} \\
| w_2 & \{ (a, m_1), (b, m_1) \} \\
| w_3 & \{ (a, m_2), (b, m_2) \} \\
| w_4 & \{ (a, m_2), (b, m_1) \} \\
\end{array}
\quad
\begin{array}{c|c}
| w_1 & \{ (a, m_1), (b, m_2) \} \\
| w_2 & \{ (a, m_1), (b, m_1) \} \\
| w_3 & \{ (a, m_2), (b, m_2) \} \\
| w_4 & \{ (a, m_2), (b, m_1) \} \\
\end{array}
\]

Figure 6: World grouping yielded by (87)

In addition, this analysis inherits the theory-internal problems with Partition Semantics. For instance, Partition Semantics cannot explain the uniqueness effects of singular-marked \( wh \)-questions (Xiang To appear); likewise, the partition-based account cannot explain the point-wise uniqueness effects in pair-list \( \forall \)-questions.
Appendix B. The question-embedding approach

Another intuitive and framework-independent way to solve the type-mismatch in quantifying-into questions is to reduce matrix questions into question-embeddings and let the quantifier take scope over a covert question-embedding predicate (Karttunen 1977; Krifka 2001). The LF of Karttunen (1977) is given in (88).\(^{16}\) Basically, whatever the embedded question denotes, the question-embedding is a \(t\)-type expression which can be quantified into.

(88) Which movie did Det-boy(s) watch?
   \[\text{Det-boy(s)} \lambda x \text{[I-ask-you [which movie did x watch]]}\]

This analysis crucially requires the quantifier to take scope over the embedding predicate; however, the limited distribution of pair-list readings in matrix questions and intensional question-embeddings shows that this wide scope reading is not widely available.

In matrix questions, only every/each-phrases license pair-list readings. In question-embeddings, Szabolcsi (1997a) observes a contrast between intensional and extensional complements.\(^{17}\) In particular, in embeddings with an extensional predicate (e.g., know, find out), numeral-modified indefinites also license pair-list readings. For example, in a context with point-wise uniqueness, the sentences (89a-b) are felicitous and can be read with the following scopal pattern: ‘\(\exists 2 \gg \text{each} \gg \text{V} \gg \iota\)’ where ‘\(\text{V}\)’ stands for the embedding predicate. This reading can be derived from the LF (90): the existential indefinite takes wide scope relative to the embedding predicate know, and its closest trace in the matrix clause is associated with a covert distributor each. For more details, see section 6.3.2.\(^{18}\)

(89) Sue knew that every boy watched a different movie. In addition, ...
   a. Sue knew which movie each/two of the boys watched.
   b. Sue found out which movie each/two of the boys watched.

(90) Sue V-ed which movie two of the boys watched.
   \[\text{[two-of-the-boys} \lambda x \text{[[each} x \text{]} \lambda y \text{[Sue V-ed which movie y watched]]}\]

However, embeddings with an intensional predicate (e.g., ask, wonder) behave the same as matrix questions — only every/each-phrases license pair-list readings in these embeddings. For example, in (89a-b), the uniqueness inference must be interpreted with narrow scope relative to the embedding predicate cannot be distributed over two boys (ask \(\gg \iota \gg \exists 2\)). This fact shows that (89a-b) cannot have the LF (90). As Szabolcsi argues, it is possible that intensional verbs create weak islands, which prevent quantifiers in the embedded questions taking wide scope.

---

\(^{16}\)Krifka (2001) assumes the structure in (i) where the quantifier scopes over a speech act operator quest. This analysis exempts from the over-generation problem since Krifka assumes that speech acts cannot be disjoined. However, it also leaves the choice readings of 3-questions unexplained.

(i) Which movie did every boy watch?
   \[\text{[every-boy} \lambda x \text{[quest [which movie did x watch]]}\]

\(^{17}\)The intension-vs-extension qualification comes from Groenendijk and Stokhof (1984). In later works starting from Lahiri 2002, this division is re-labeled as ‘rogative’ versus ‘responsive’. Rogative predicates admit only interrogative complements, while responsive predicates admit also declarative complements.

\(^{18}\)Instead of using covert movement, Szabolcsi (1997a) derives the wide scope reading by type-lifting the interrogative complements of extensional predicates. Combining the type-lifted question-denotation (i) with an embedding predicate \(P\) yields a wide scope reading of the quantifier \(\pi\) relative to \(P\). Further, Szabolcsi argues that wonder-type predicates cannot select for lifted questions and hence that quantifiers in intensional complements cannot take wide scope.

(i) Complement of find out-type predicates: \(\lambda P.\pi(\lambda x.P(\text{which } y [x \text{ watched } y]))\)
(91) Sue knew that every boy watched a different movie. ...
   a. Sue wondered which movie each/two of the boys watched.
   b. Sue asked me which movie each/two of the boys watched.

In sum, QιQ-effects in matrix questions should not be treated as quantification into question-embeddings. Even if matrix questions were analyzed as embeddings with a covert ask, the quantifier in an embedded question cannot scope over the embedding predicate.

Acknowledgement [To be added ...]

References


Fox, Danny. 2012b. Pair-list with universal quantifiers. Class notes for MIT seminars.

Fox, Danny. 2013. Mention-some readings of questions. Class notes for MIT seminars.


