

Introduction to the Semantics of Conditionals

Conditionals in Decision Theory

Lecture 2

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Today (Day 2), we'll start with a brief recap of yesterday's material.

Before that, however...

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Please ask questions!

A “realistic” Newcomb case

Yesterday, we talked about the **Newcomb problem**. Here's a slightly more realistic case, which brings out many of the same features.

*Imagine you're wondering whether you have a specific heart condition. If you have the condition, then, unfortunately, you'll die prematurely. (Sorry!) You know that this condition is wide-spread among philosophers, although well-confirmed studies show there's no causal connection. (Perhaps, instead, the heart condition and a predilection for academia are symptoms of a common cause.) You must choose between a career as an academic and some other career—say, a career as an athlete. Additionally, you would prefer the life of an academic to the life of an athlete, both in the case in which you have the disease and the case in which you don't. But at the same time, you would **strongly** prefer to live a long life than a short one. What should you choose?*

The decision table

Here's the corresponding decision table:

	<i>Disease</i>	<i>No disease</i>
<i>Life as an academic</i>	<i>A fulfilling but short life</i>	<i>A fulfilling, long life</i>
<i>Life as an athlete</i>	<i>An unfulfilling and short life</i>	<i>An unfulfilling, long life</i>

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Question 1: Which option should you choose, intuitively?

Question 2: Which option does EDT recommend? How about CDT?

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Now let's assume that:

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Let's also assume that:

$$\begin{aligned} p(A \text{ short, fulfilling life} \mid \text{Life as an academic}) &\approx 1 \\ p(A \text{ long, unfulfilling life} \mid \text{Life as an athlete}) &\approx 1 \end{aligned}$$

Question: With this information, can you guess the answer?

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Question: With that in mind, then, what does CDT recommend?

(*Pssst!* We don't even need to do any calculations here. Why?)

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Today, we're going to be looking at the semantics of conditionals in general, and seeing, in particular, whether the standard semantics for counterfactual is up to this task.

Today's lecture:

- i. Semantics for conditionals
- ii. Indicative vs subjunctive
- iii. Similarity for subjunctives
- iv. Which conditionals for deliberation? DeRose's argument

Semantics for conditionals

The goal: a general semantics for *if-then* sentences in natural language.

- (1) a. If Frida danced, Maria danced.
- b. If you choose one box, you will win a million dollar.
- c. If you had not paid the extortionist, your windshield would have been broken.

Two problems about conditionals

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We'll start from the logical problem.

Our question, then: **what kind of logical operators are conditionals?**

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The basic elements of the model theory of a modal semantics are two:

- A domain $\mathcal{W}$ of possible worlds;
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Some basic semantic clauses for modal operators:

- (2) a. $\llbracket \Box A \rrbracket^w = 1$ iff $\forall w' \in \mathcal{W} : w' \mathcal{R} w, \llbracket A \rrbracket^{w'} = 1$
b. $\llbracket \Diamond A \rrbracket^w = 1$ iff $\exists w' \in \mathcal{W} : w' \mathcal{R} w, \llbracket A \rrbracket^{w'} = 1$

Rather than using accessibility relations, we will follow custom in the semantics literature and relativize interpretation to a **modal base** (Kratzer).

A modal base is just a function from a world to a set of accessible worlds, which we represent as a subscript '*f*' on the modal.

- (3) a. $\llbracket \Box_f A \rrbracket^w = 1$ iff $\forall w' \in f(w): \llbracket A \rrbracket^{w'} = 1$
b. $\llbracket \Diamond_f A \rrbracket^w = 1$ iff $\exists w' \in f(w): \llbracket A \rrbracket^{w'} = 1$

Basis of modal semantics

Via these clauses, we can give a semantics for modals irrespective of flavor.

- (4) a. Frida must be in Chicago. $\rightsquigarrow$ epistemic
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Both the occurrences of *must* in (4) can be given a unitary analysis:

$$(5) \quad \llbracket \text{must}_f A \rrbracket^{w,f} = 1 \text{ iff } \forall w' \in f(w): \llbracket A \rrbracket^{w',f} = 1$$

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Via a similar maneuver, we will use the same logical structure to analyze both indicative and subjunctive conditionals.

Strict conditional semantics

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A **strict conditional** is a necessitated material conditional.

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A first-pass analysis treats natural language conditionals as strict conditionals:

$$(6) \quad \llbracket A \rightarrow C \rrbracket^{w,f} = 1 \text{ iff } \forall w' \in f(w) \text{ s.t. } \llbracket A \rrbracket^{w',f} = 1, \llbracket C \rrbracket^{w',f} = 1$$

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Assuming that bare indicative conditionals default to epistemic flavor, and that epistemic flavor tracks knowledge of some relevant agents, we get:

- (7) a. If Frida danced, Maria danced.
b. $\llbracket (24a) \rrbracket^{w,f} = 1$ iff all worlds w' compatible with what is known in w such that Frida danced in w' are such that Maria danced in w'

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- (i) nonmonotonic inference patterns;
- (ii) the link between conditionals and probability.

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- Sobel sequences are predicted to be inconsistent by a strict semantics.
- Yet discourses like (8) are perfectly consistent.
- So strict conditional semantics makes incorrect predictions about conditional logic.

Argument #2: probability.

Plausibly, the probabilities of conditionals conform to some bridge principles.

Stalnaker's Thesis

For all Pr that model rational credence, and for all A, B :

$$Pr(A \rightarrow_{\text{ind}} B) = Pr(B \mid A) \quad (\text{if } Pr(A) > 0)$$

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- Stalnaker's Thesis is hard to vindicate as stated.
- But versions of it can be vindicated (Van Fraassen 1976, Kaufmann 2019, Bacon 2015, Goldstein and Santorio 2021, Khoo 2022, a.o.)

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- Example: suppose that we are throwing a fair die. We have:

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So: if some version of Stalnaker's Thesis holds, and entailment preserves probability, conditionals cannot be monotonic.

What is the alternative to strict semantics?

- A number of ways of framing what is essentially the same semantic idea (Stalnaker 1968, Lewis 1973, Kratzer 1977, 1981, 1986, 2012 a.o.)
 - i. ordering semantics;
 - ii. premise semantics;
 - iii. selection semantics;
 - ...
- Here we use **selection semantics**, as defined and developed by Stalnaker.

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An answer suggested by Ramsey in a famous footnote:

First, add the antecedent (hypothetically) to your stock of beliefs; second, [if the conditional is a counterfactual] make whatever adjustments are required to maintain consistency (without modifying the hypothetical belief in the antecedent); finally, consider whether or not the consequent is then true.

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- These are 'belief conditions' for conditionals.
- We can import this idea in a statement of truth conditions, by letting the semantics select a 'minimally different' world.

An informal statement of truth conditions on selection semantics:

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A **selection function** is a function $s : W \times \mathcal{P}(W) \mapsto \mathcal{P}(W)$ that maps a pair of a world and a set of worlds to a set of worlds.

- In particular: we use selection functions that select a singleton (or, equivalently, just a world).
- A **Stalnaker selection function** is a function that (i) selects a single world and (ii) is subject to certain conditions.

Selection semantics

A **Stalnaker model** includes a set of possible worlds $\mathcal{W}^-$ as well as an *absurd world* λ , which makes true every sentence. Let $\mathcal{W} = \mathcal{W}^- \cup \{\lambda\}$.

A function $s : \mathcal{W} \times \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{W}) \mapsto \mathcal{W}$ is a **Stalnaker selection function** iff

- i. If $\llbracket A \rrbracket$ is non-empty, $s(w, A) \in \llbracket A \rrbracket$

(**Inclusion**: the selected world makes the antecedent true, if at all possible.)

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- iii. If $w \in \llbracket A \rrbracket$, then $s(w, A) = w$

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(**Centering**: if the world of eval. makes the antecedent true, it is selected.)

- iv. For all A, A' : if $s(w, A) \in \llbracket A' \rrbracket$ and $s(w, A') \in \llbracket A \rrbracket$, then:
 $s(w, A) \in \llbracket A' \rrbracket = s(w, A') \in \llbracket A \rrbracket$

(**Consistency of selection**: the selection must be consistent for all choice of antecedents.)

Below is a semantics of conditional based on Stalnaker selection functions.

We relativize interpretation to three parameters: a world w , a modal base f , and a Stalnaker selection function s .

$$(9) \quad \llbracket A \rightarrow C \rrbracket^{w,f,s} = \text{true} \text{ iff } \llbracket C \rrbracket^{s(w,f(w) \cap \llbracket A \rrbracket),f,s} = \text{true}$$

In words: $A \rightarrow C$ is true relative to w , f , and s iff the selected A -world in $f(w)$ is a C -world.

- Selection semantics can be recast in terms of comparative similarity and orderings.
- In particular: a single-world selection semantics is equivalent to a semantics where worlds form a **linear ordering** (no ties and no incomparabilities).



Indicatives vs subjunctives

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- This gives us the general form of the truth conditions for conditionals (and fixes their logic).
- So: it solves Stalnaker's **logical problem**.

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- But: we still need to say what world is selected each time, i.e. what world counts as 'the most similar antecedent world'.
- This is what Stalnaker called '**pragmatic problem**' (and that today would be called 'the problem of specifying contextual parameters', or st like that).

A general point:

- There is no 'unique' notion of similarity;
- conditionals of different flavors will exploit different selection functions.

In particular, there is agreement on the following:

- The similarity relation exploited by indicatives is **epistemic**—it tracks facts determined by knowledge and evidence.
- The similarity relation exploited by subjunctives is **metaphysical**—it tracks facts determined by history and laws of nature.

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We already saw yesterday a key minimal pair:

- (10) a. If Shakespeare didn't write *Hamlet*, someone else did.
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So we know: there needs to be (at least) two types of similarity orderings.

- o Selection semantics gives the skeleton for the semantics in both cases.
- o But conditionals of different flavors exploit different selection functions.

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- Subjunctive conditionals are conditionals with **certain morphological markings, e.g. past tense (interestingly, a 'fake' one) in the antecedent, and *would* in the consequent**. (What has been called 'X-marking'.)

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- Moreover: we already noticed that *will*- and *would*-conditionals about the future can seem very similar in meaning.

- (12) a. If I take my umbrella, I will stay dry.
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- So how should we think of conditionals like (11)? This issue will come back when we consider DeRose on conditionals of deliberation.

Similarity for subjunctives

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Why similarity for subjunctives matters:

- Causal decision theory crucially relies on truth-conditions of counterfactuals.
- Some problems for CDT will hinge on theories of similarity for counterfactuals.

Similarity for subjunctives

A preliminary point: **backtrackers**.

Suppose you stand on the top of a building with no safety net below.

Me: We're high enough that, if you were to jump, you would die.

You: I don't have a death wish! If I were to jump, there would be a safety net, and I wouldn't die. (Gallow 2022)

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- So: we need to invoke context dependence. **The two counterfactuals are evaluated wrt different orderings.**
- In particular, the second one is a paradigm '**backtracker**': it involves an inference to what conditions would have had to obtain to bring about a certain outcome.
- This is **not** the kind of causal conditional we need in decision theory. So (following pretty much everyone else!) **we set backtrackers aside.**

Let's focus then on characterizing similarity for ordinary subjunctives, like (13).

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Question: **won't an intuitive notion of closeness do?**

Answer: **no.**

The nature of similarity



The counterfactual “If Nixon had pressed the button there would have been a nuclear holocaust” is true or can be imagined to be so. Now suppose that there never will be a nuclear holocaust. Then that counterfactual is, [on an analysis that employs a naïve similarity relation], very likely false. For given any world in which antecedent and consequent are both true it will be easy to imagine a closer world in which the antecedent is true and the consequent false. For we need only imagine a change that prevents the holocaust but that does not require such a great divergence from reality. (Fine 1975)

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Moral: **we cannot just rely on a naïve notion of similarity**.

The nature of similarity

In “Counterfactual Dependence and Time’s Arrow”, Lewis notices a fundamental asymmetry:

The way the future is depends counterfactually on the way the present is. If the present were different, the future would be different; and there are counterfactual conditionals, many of them as unquestionably true as counterfactuals ever get, that tell us a good deal about how the future would be different if the present were different in various ways. Likewise the present depends counterfactually on the past, and in general the way things are later depends on the way things were earlier.

Not so in reverse. Seldom, if ever, can we find a clearly true counterfactual about how the past would be different if the present were somehow different. Such a counterfactual, unless clearly false, normally is not clear one way or the other. It is at best doubtful whether the past depends counterfactually on the present, whether the present depends on the future, and in general whether the way things are earlier depends on the way things will be later.

- the present counterfactually depends on the past, but not *vice versa*;
- an account of similarity should build on this.

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Unfortunately: given minimal assumptions, we cannot assume that similarity requires **both** perfect match in history and perfect match with actual laws.

The nature of similarity

- Let L_w be the proposition that encodes all the laws of nature in w ;
- Let $H_{w,t}$ be the proposition that encodes all particular historical events in history in w , up to time t .
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Given this: **we have two options.**

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Lewis's criteria for similarity:

- (1) It is of the first importance to avoid big, widespread, diverse violations of law.
- (2) It is of the second importance to maximize the spatiotemporal region throughout which perfect match of particular fact prevails.
- (3) It is of the third importance to avoid even small, localized, simple violations of law.
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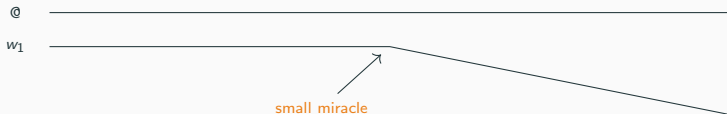
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So Lewis chooses:

- (i) perfect match in (past) history;
- (ii) (possibly) imperfect match in laws.

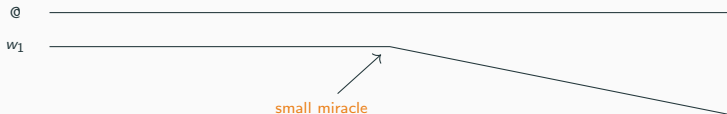
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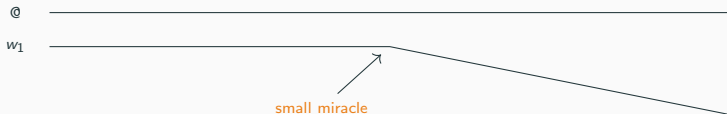


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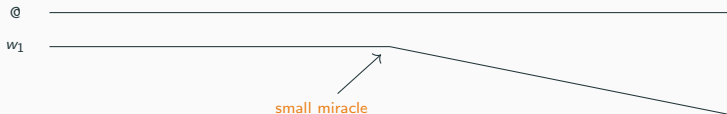


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- Worlds where laws perfectly match actual laws, but have a different history.
- Worlds with abrupt discrepancies in history (**bumps**).
- Worlds that involve major divergences from actual laws (**big miracles**).

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- History matches actual history until shortly before antecedent time;
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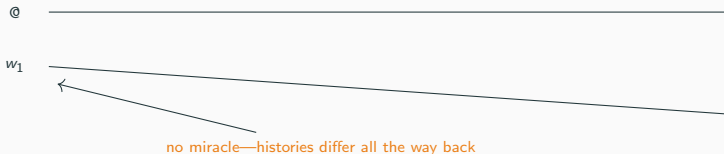
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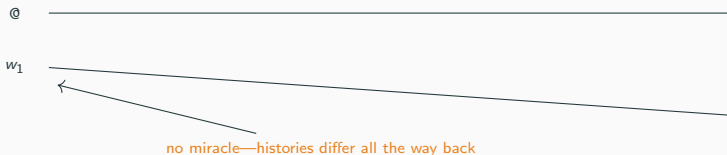
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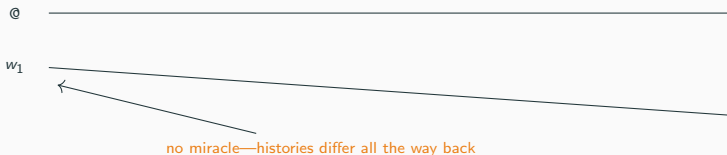


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What conditionals for deliberation?

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- But some other arguments can be made directly from the language of deliberation.

One argument we consider today: DeRose (2010).

DeRose (2010) considers (variants of) the following:

- (15)
- a. If I drive to work without filling up the tank, I will run out of petrol.
 - b. If I leave for my meeting 5 minutes before it starts, I will be late.
 - c. If the house is not painted, it will soon look quite shabby.

These all seem to be conditionals that would be useful in deliberation: to the extent that I have reason to believe one of them, then in so far as I desire its consequent to be true, I have reason to make (or to try to make, in cases where the truth of the antecedent is not completely up to me) its antecedent true.
(DeRose 2010)

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How good is this argument?

The logical form of will-conditionals

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- the meaning of *will*;
- the compositional semantics of conditionals.

The meaning of *will*.

- Traditionally, especially in tense logic, *will* is treated as a tense.
- But there are excellent arguments that *will* is actually a modal auxiliary.

We will consider two arguments for the claim that *will* is a modal.

Argument #1: modal subordination.

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It is well known that modal expressions can enter **anaphoric relations**.

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- The *would*-claim is understood as a conditional: it says that the wolf would eat the interlocutor *in the scenario in which the wolf comes in*.
- Hence the second sentence in the discourse is subordinated, in the relevant sense, to the first sentence.

Will: motivating a modal analysis

Crucially, as Klecha (2014) points out, *will* displays an analogous behavior:

- (17) a. If Katie travels to Berkeley, she will shop at Amoeba Records. She will buy a boxed set and a dozen used LPs. (Cariani 2021)
- b. The supplies might arrive tomorrow. It will be late in the day. (Cariani and Santorio 2018)
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Parallel sentences involving past tense cannot be forced to undergo subordination. Consider:

- (18) a. If Katie traveled to Berkeley, she shopped at Amoeba Records. She bought a boxed set and a dozen used LPs.
- b. The supplies might have arrived yesterday. It was late in the day.
- c. I hope he didn't go near that bomb! It exploded.

Argument #2: the acquaintance inference.

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Background: Predicates of personal taste, like *tasty*, *delicious*, and *good* and *great* in some uses, trigger an inference to the effect that the speaker has had a certain relevant kind of experience.

To see this, notice that the continuations in (19) are all pragmatically odd.

- (19)
- a. That sandwich is delicious, # but I haven't tried it.
 - b. Joan's book is great, # but I haven't read it.
 - c. The soup is disgusting, # but I haven't had it.

Will: motivating a modal analysis

Interestingly, this effect is suppressed under modals, including strong epistemic modals like *must* and *have to*.

- (20)
- a. That sandwich must/has to/should/... be delicious, but I haven't tried it.
 - b. Joan's book must/has to/should/... to be great, but I haven't read it.
 - c. The soup must/has to/should/... be disgusting, but I haven't had it.

Will: motivating a modal analysis

Interestingly, this effect is suppressed under modals, including strong epistemic modals like *must* and *have to*.

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- a. That sandwich must/has to/should/... be delicious, but I haven't tried it.
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Will patterns with modals.

- (21)
- a. That sandwich will be delicious, but I haven't tried it/won't try it.
 - b. Joan's book will be great, but I haven't read it/won't read it.
 - c. The soup will be disgusting, but I haven't had it/will not have it.

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The obvious suggestion: an analysis on which it quantifies or selects from metaphysical possibilities, similarly to subjunctive *would*.
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My favorite option: **a selection semantics**, which makes it very close to the semantics for *would*.

$$(22) \quad \llbracket \text{will } A \rrbracket^{w,f,s} = \text{true iff } \llbracket A \rrbracket^{s(w,s(f(w))),f,s} = \text{true}$$

The compositional semantics of conditionals.

- So far, we have presupposed that, at the level of logical form, conditionals simply involve a binary connective.

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- On the standard view, the **restrictor theory** (Kratzer 1981, 1986, 2012), conditionals (i) involve a modal auxiliary and (ii) *if*-clauses are used to restrict the modal.

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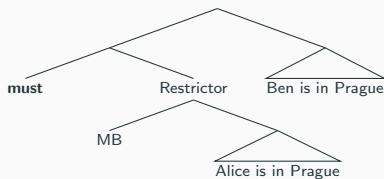
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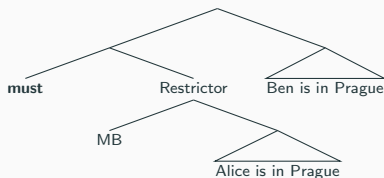
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- This doesn't make a difference at the level of truth conditions.
- Where it matters: predicting how conditionals and overt modals interact.

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(bare conditionals)?

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(25) If Maria danced, Frida danced.

- The standard view: they include a **covert epistemic modal**.
- So e.g. the logical form of (25) is:

(26) **MUST** [if Maria danced] [Frida danced]

Given this treatment of *will* and this LF for conditionals, we can make some observations about *will*-conditionals (following Ciardelli and Ommundsen 2025).

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We predict that (28) has two possible logical forms:

- **single modal:**

will [you strike the match][match lights]

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The LF of will-conditionals

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- **single modal:**

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Interestingly, **these two conditionals will differ in truth conditions!**

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- *will* is the main modal of the conditional;
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- covert MUST is the main modal of the conditional;
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So the prediction is: *systematically, will-conditionals have two readings!*

So: on one reading, *will*-conditionals are almost synonymous with subjunctives!

Indeed, this is what we have observed:

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So: on one reading, *will*-conditionals are almost synonymous with subjunctives!

Indeed, this is what we have observed:

- (29) a. If I strike this match, it will light.
b. If I were to strike this match, it would light.
- The only difference is that (29b) carries a ‘remoteness’ inference of sorts (Iatridou 2000).
 - What this is is a matter for another day.
 - The key thing: **both (29a) and (29b) have causal/metaphysical flavor.**

Back to DeRose's observation:

- (15)
- a. If I drive to work without filling up the tank, I will run out of petrol.
 - b. If I leave for my meeting 5 minutes before it starts, I will be late.
 - c. If the house is not painted, it will soon look quite shabby.
-
- DeRose is correct that conditionals in (15) are used in deliberation.
 - But we can explain why without concluding that indicatives in general are conditionals of deliberation.
 - We know that the conditionals in (15) are systematically ambiguous.
 - They are used in deliberation **when they are interpreted in their causal/metaphysical flavor** (i.e. the same flavor we find in subjunctives).

An ambiguity in will-conditionals

A general takeaway: the classical philosophical distinction between indicatives and subjunctives is way too crude.

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A better taxonomy (to be still refined) exploits two dimensions:

- modal flavor (epistemic vs metaphysical);
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A general takeaway: the classical philosophical distinction between indicatives and subjunctives is way too crude.

A better taxonomy (to be still refined) exploits two dimensions:

- modal flavor (epistemic vs metaphysical);
- remoteness (which might connect to... mood; see Mendes 2025).

	No remoteness effect	Remoteness effect
Epistemic	Bare cond, epistemic <i>will</i> -cond <i>If Frida danced, Maria danced</i> MUST [<i>if I strike</i>] [<i>will [it lights]</i>]	[empty?]
Metaphysical	metaphysical will-conditionals <i>will [if I strike] [it lights]</i>	<i>would</i> -conditionals <i>if I struck, it would light</i>