

A Two-Tiered Theory of the Discourse

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1. Introduction

In recent generative literature there has been a revival of interest in the Performative Hypothesis (Ross 1970)—the idea that discourse participants such as the speaker and the addressee are syntactically represented. Particularly influential is Speas and Tenny (2003), who expand the clause periphery by mapping the speaker and the addressee to certain functional projections above the CP. In the wake of their proposal, a number of syntacticians have launched the investigation of a variety of phenomena that were previously considered to have at best a marginal place in the syntax. With a few exceptions (Miyagawa 2012; Zu 2013), the discussion so far has mainly focused on the interpretation of syntactic objects, including pronominal elements and other indexicals (Baker 2008; Charnavel 2015; Giorgi 2010), discourse adverbs and particles (Haegeman and Hill 2013; Lam 2014; Woods 2014), as well as vocative phrases (Hill 2007, 2013). While they all share an underlying theme that the speaker and the addressee are arguments of some functional heads at the left periphery, it is not at all obvious that the functional heads in question, sometimes named the same in various proposals, are syntactically equivalent.

Building on the earlier work by Miyagawa (2012) and Zu (2013), the present paper is concerned with the morphosyntactic evidence for the structural representation of discourse participants. Moreover, it points out that the discourse-related phenomena that have been discussed in the syntax literature are not a homogeneous group, which explains why the previous proposals based on different empirical arguments are not mutually compatible. The goal of this paper is to refine Speas and Tenny’s framework so that it provides a uniform account for the full set of data that motivate a structural approach to the discourse. It is set up as follows. Section 2 summarizes the previous work on morphosyntactic agreement with non-thematic discourse participants. Such agreement necessitates a structural representation of the speaker and the addressee sketched in Section 3. Section 4 presents the so-called “conjunct marking” system in Newari, whereby a special verb form is used when its subject is co-indexed with a higher DP. In Section 5 I refine the structure proposed in Section 3 by adding another functional projection at the left periphery. I argue that there is a need to distinguish discourse participants, on the one hand, which are determined by the extra-linguistic context and are independent of the specific structures they are in, from the seat of knowledge, on the other, which is co-indexed with either the speaker or the addressee. Section 6 concludes.

2. Agreement with covert discourse participants in Basque and Jingpo

So far the strongest evidence for the syntactic presence of discourse participants come from languages in which the main predicate shows morphological agreement with the speaker or the addressee which are neither event participants nor overtly realized in syntax. Take Basque allocutive agreement for example. Allocutive agreement refers to a morphological property in which verbs inflect for the gender feature of the addressee. In Basque, allocutive forms are obligatorily used whenever the speaker talks to a familiar, non-thematic addressee. The following pair of Basque sentences are truth conditionally equivalent and completely synonymous.¹ The alternations are purely determined by allocutive agreement. The suffixes *k* and *n* indicate that the addressees of the two sentences differ in gender.

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1 List of abbreviations: 1/2/3, first/second/third person; ABS/DAT/ERG, absolutive/dative/ergative case; AUX: auxiliary; CONJ, conjunct marker; DECL, declarative; DISJ, disjunct marker; F/M, feminine/masculine; FUT, future tense; IMPF/PERF, imperfective/perfective; LOC, locative; PL/SG, plural/singular; POT, potential; PST, past tense; Q, question particle; REL, relative clause marker; TOP, topic marker.

1) Allocutive agreement in Basque (Oyharçabal 1993:92-93)

- a. Pette-k lan egin di-**k**
Peter-ERG worked 3.ERG-**M**

'Peter worked.'

(said to a male friend)

- b. Pette-k lan egin di-**n**
Peter-ERG worked 3.ERG-**F**

'Peter worked.'

(said to a female friend)

Speaker agreement, on the other hand, grammatically encodes the ϕ -features of a non-thematic speaker. In Jingpo (Tibeto-Burman, spoken in Myanmar), speaker agreement is optional. Whenever it is used, it establishes an intimate relation between the speaker and the subject (i.e., bonding). For instance, (2a) and (2b) are truth-conditionally equivalent and both can be used when a teacher reports to a principal about her students. What differs in the two sentences, however, is that (2b) indicates that the teacher and her students are on good terms (or at least she wants the principal to believe so) whereas (2a) has no such indication.²

2) Subject vs. speaker agreement in Jingpo (Dai 2010:5)

- a. Jongma du hkum ma-s-ai
student arrive complete PL-PERF-3:DECL

'The students have all arrived.'

(subject agreement, neutral)

- b. Jongma du hkum sa-**ga**-ai
student arrive complete PERF-**1PL**-DECL

'The students have all arrived.'

(speaker agreement, bonding)

One thing to note is that the discourse participants that are targeted by allocutive or speaker agreement cannot be overtly realized. In Basque any attempt to pronounce the non-thematic addressee is doomed to failure, regardless of its case marking (3).

3) The target of allocutive agreement must be covert in Basque (Oyharçabal 1993:104)

- (*Hi- \emptyset /k/ri) mintza ni-ai-teke-**k/n**
2SG-ABS/ERG/DAT speak 1SG.ABS-AUX-POT-**M/F**

'I can speak.'

In Jingpo, the overt first person pronoun cannot trigger speaker agreement (4a). It may be targeted by possessor agreement (4b), but in that case it becomes thematic. That is to say, in (4b) the speaker is necessarily the possessor and the sentence can only be uttered by the students' teacher. In contrast the speaker is not an event participant in (4a) and the sentence can be felicitously uttered by anyone who believes they have a close relationship with the students (e.g., a caring and loving janitor). Another difference between possessor agreement and speaker agreement is that the former, not targeting a discourse participant, does not carry any discourse functions. In (4b), there is no indication of a warm relationship between the possessor and the possessee, and thus no plurality requirement is posed by the agreement.³ The following contrast seems to suggest that the covertness of the speaker in (4a) is more related to its non-thematic status, rather than its status of being a discourse participant.

2 Note that speaker agreement in Jingpo is necessarily plural. Zu (2013) suggests that the plurality requirement is a by-product of bonding, not directly tied to speaker agreement. The same requirement also holds in English nurse-*we* constructions (*Are we/#Am I feeling better today?*) that establish a similar bonding relation between a nurse and his/her patient without displaying any agreement relation with the speaker. Interested readers should consult Zu (2013) for details. Also see Collins and Postal (2012) for a recent discussion of the plurality requirement of nurse-*we* constructions.

3 Note that Jingpo is an argument drop language and allows its possessors to be omitted.

- 4) The target of speaker agreement must be covert in Jingpo
- a. (*Ngai) jongma du hkum sa-**ga**-ai
I student arrive complete PERF-**1PL**-DECL
'The students have all arrived.'
(speaker agreement, covert speaker)
- b. (Ngai) jongma du hkum sa-**li**-ai
I student arrive complete PERF-**1SG.POSS**-DECL
'My students have all arrived.'
(possessor agreement, optional speaker)

Despite of the lack of an overt target, Miyagawa (2012) and Zu (2013) propose that allocutive agreement and speaker agreement should be treated on a par with morphosyntactic agreement for two reasons. First, the agreement with non-thematic speakers and addressees is morphologically identical to the agreement with thematic first and second person pronouns. The masculine gender marker *k* and the feminine gender marker *n* in Basque can also be used in agreement with second person ergative pronouns (5) or second person dative pronouns (6).

- 5) Basque ergative person agreement (Oyharçabal 1993:95)
- a. Lan egin dü-**k**
worked AUX-**2SG.ERG.M**
'You worked.'
(male 2nd person ergative subject)
- b. Lan egin dü-**n**
worked AUX-**2SG.ERG.F**
'You worked.'
(female 2nd person ergative subject)
- 6) Basque dative person agreement (Oyharçabal 1993:95)
- a. Gertatü ☉-zai-**k**
happened 3SG.ABS-AUX-**2SG.DAT.M**
'It happened to you.'
(male 2nd person dative object)
- b. Gertatü ☉-zai-**n**
happened 3SG.ABS-AUX-**2SG.DAT.M**
'It happened to you.'
(female 2nd person dative object)

Similarly in Jingpo, the agreement with the first person subject (7) and that with the speaker (2b) are spelled out the same.

- 7) Subject agreement with first person pronouns in Jingpo (Dai and Xu 1992:125,162)
- a. (Anhthe) masum lang hti sa-**ga**-ai
we three time read PERF-**1PL**.DECL
'We have read (it) three times.'
(subject agreement, optional speaker)
- b. Daina go (anhthe) yong datshin sa yu mo nga **ga**-ai.
tonight TOP we all movie go see plan IMPF **1PL**.DECL
'We all plan to go see a movie tonight.'
(subject agreement, optional speaker)

Given this fact, I assume that the non-thematic speaker/addressee and the thematic first/second person pronouns bear the same set of morphological features and can be treated alike in syntax.

Secondly, allocutive agreement and speaker agreement compete with morphosyntactic agreement. In Basque, when the addressee is an event participant (8a) allocutive agreement is not possible. In (8a) the addressee is the grammatical subject of the sentence and it triggers subject agreement. The allocutive form cannot be added to the verb in this case (8b).

- 8) Allocutive agreement and second person subject agreement are mutually exclusive (Oyharçabal 1993:101)
- a. Lan egin du-zue
worked AUX-2PL.ERG
'You(pl) worked.'
(agreement with 2nd person subject)
- b.*Lan egin di-na-zue
worked AUX-F-2PL.ERG
(Int.) 'You(pl) worked.'
(agreement with addressee and 2nd person subject)

Oyharçabal (1993:102) attributes the ungrammaticality of (8b) to a general property of Basque verb inflection. That is, in Basque agreement relations cannot overlap. The auxiliary only agrees with the same person once. (8b) is ungrammatical in the same way as (9) is. Basque generally allows its auxiliary to agree with two arguments, unless the two arguments refer to the same person.

- 9)*Mirailean ikusi gait-u-t
mirror.LOC seen 1PL.ABS-AUX-1SG.ERG
(Int.) 'I saw us in the mirror.'

It is worth noting that Oyharçabal's account is based on an implicit yet non-trivial assumption that the non-thematic addressee and the thematic second person pronoun in (8b) overlap in the same way as the two thematic first person pronouns in (9) do.

In Jingpo, there is also a general ban on double marking the same person. No sentence-final particle in the language inflect for two arguments that refer to the same person. This is evidenced by the empty cells in the following table.

Table 1: The perfective declarative sentence-final particles, first person subject (Dai and Xu 1992:280,287)

Subject	(Indirect) object	Singular	Plural
1	No object	<i>sangai</i>	<i>sagaai</i>
1	1	—	—
1	2	<i>sinde ai</i>	<i>masinde ai</i>
1	3	<i>se ai</i>	<i>mase ai</i>

In cases where both the subject and the object refer to the first person, the sentence-final particle only agrees with the subject (10).

- 10) Ngai anhte-hpe hkyen ton ya sa-ng-ai.
I we-OBJ prepare APPL PERF-1SG-DECL
'I have already prepared for us.'

The ban on double marking the same person extends to speaker agreement as well. That is, when the speaker is the grammatical subject only vanilla subject agreement is possible (11a). Recall that the speaker agreement, not subject agreement, poses plurality requirement on the sentence-final particle. However, when the first person singular pronoun occurs in the subject position the sentence-final particle has to agree with it in person (11a). In other words, speaker agreement is blocked in this case (11b). Following Oyharçabal (1993), I assume that the ban on double marking does not discriminate non-thematic discourse participants from their thematic counterparts.

- 11) Speaker agreement and first person subject agreement are mutually exclusive
- a. Ngai du sa-ng-ai.
I arrive PERF-1SG-DECL
'I have arrived.'
- b.*Ngai du sa-ga-ai.
I arrive PERF-1PL-DECL
(Int.) 'I have arrived.'

3. The Speech Act Projection

So far I have demonstrated that agreement with non-thematic discourse participants in Basque and Jingpo is morphosyntactic agreement because (i) it is spelled out in the same way as morphemes that agree with thematic first and second person pronouns, and (ii) it can be blocked by the agreement with thematic first or second person pronouns. To treat speaker agreement and allocutive agreement as morphosyntactic agreement, instead of, say, honorification marking⁴ which some may argue is not really agreement (Bobaljik and Yatsushiro 2006), we need to treat the speaker and the addressee as real syntactic objects. Following Haegeman and Hill (2013), I consider them as the arguments of the functional head S(peech)A(act), schematically represented in (12) below. This structure allows the main clause auxiliary to agree with syntactic subjects as well as discourse participants. The auxiliary originates at T and can trigger agreement with the syntactic subject *in situ*,⁵ but it can also move to a higher position to agree with the speaker or the addressee.

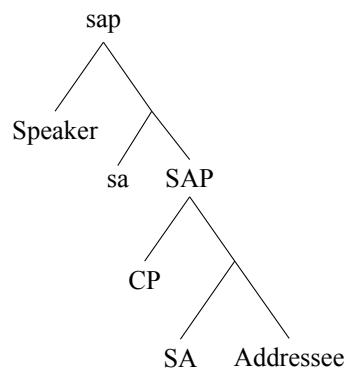
12) The Speech Act Projection

$$[{}_{saP} \text{SPEAKER}_{i\phi} \quad sa \quad [{}_{SAP} \text{ADDRESSEE}_{i\phi} \quad SA \quad [{}_{TP} \text{Subject}_{i\phi} \quad T_{u\phi} \quad \dots]]]$$

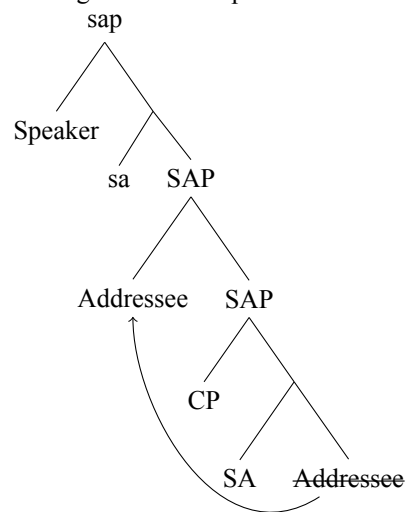
Oyharçabal (1993) notices that allocutive agreement is restricted to main clauses.⁶ Zu (2013) also points out that speaker agreement has not been attested in embedded clauses. I take that as a natural consequence of Speas and Tenny's hypothesis that there is one and only one saP per sentence. In other words, the saP cannot be embedded.

Though Haegeman and Hill's proposal is inspired by Speas and Tenny (2003), there is one crucial difference. Speas and Tenny (2003) argue that declarative and interrogative clauses are structurally different (13). More specifically, the addressee occurs in a low position that does not c-command the CP in declarative clauses (13a), and undergoes the so-called "interrogative flip" in questions and imperative clauses (13b).

13) a. Declaratives



b. Interrogatives and imperatives



I will argue in Section 5 that the two proposals differ in this way because they are designed to account for rather different phenomena. I propose that for cases of speaker and allocutive agreement, Haegeman and

4 This is not to say speaker agreement and allocutive agreement do not serve extralinguistic functions. Grammatical constructions involving discourse participants often express attitude, politeness or solidarity, or to provide ways for the speaker to characterize themselves to the addressee. However, their expressive power should not in any way disqualify them from being syntactically relevant.

5 Miyagawa (2012) argues that the unvalued ϕ -features always originate at C but can percolate down to T. In this paper I leave it open where exactly the ϕ -features start out.

6 See Antonov (2015) for a recent survey of allocutivity across languages.

Hill's structure is preferred, because the target of such agreement often remains the same across clause types. We have already seen that in declarative clauses the addressee (1) can be targeted for agreement. This is not possible if we adopt the structure (13a).

In the next section I present a different set of data that favors an account that treats declarative clauses and interrogative clauses differently. I will show that the two types of discourse-related phenomena were not sufficiently separated in the previous syntax literature. Haegeman and Hill (2013) and Speas and Tenny (2003) were each designed to account for one type, and neither can be readily extended to data of the other type.

4. The conjunct marking system in Newari

In Newari (Tibeto-Burman, spoken in Nepal), verb suffixes encode both tense and the so-called conjunct-disjunct distinction, first reported in Hale (1980) and later discussed in DeLancey (1992) and Hargreaves (2005), as summarized in the following table.

Table 2: Summary of verbal Inflection in Newari (Hargreaves 2005)

Verb suffixes	Past	Nonpast
Conjunct	<i>ā</i>	<i>e</i>
Disjunct	<i>a</i>	<i>i</i>

In main clauses, the “conjunct” verb form occurs with first person subjects in declarative clauses (14a) and second person subjects in interrogative clauses (15b), whereas the so-called “disjunct” verb form occurs elsewhere.

14) Main declarative clauses in Newari

- a. *ji ana wan-ā / wan-e*
 I there go-PST.CONJ go-FUT.CONJ
 ‘I went/will go there.’ (Decl: subject = speaker ... conjunct)
- b. *cha ana wan-a / wan-i*
 you there go-PST.DISJ go-FUT.DISJ
 ‘You went/will go there.’ (Decl: subject = addressee ... disjunct)
- c. *wa ana wan-a / wan-i*
 (s)he there go-PST.DISJ go-FUT.DISJ
 ‘(S)he went/will go there.’ (Decl: subject = 3rd ... disjunct)

15) Main interrogative clauses in Newari

- a. *ji ana wan-a / wan-i lā*
 I there go-PST.DISJ go-FUT.DISJ Q
 ‘Did/Will I go there? (I don't remember.)’ (Intr: subject = speaker ... disjunct)
- b. *cha ana wan-ā / wan-e lā*
 you there go-PST.CONJ go-FUT.CONJ Q
 ‘Did/Will you go there?’ (Intr: subject = addressee ... conjunct)
- c. *wa ana wan-a / wan-i lā*
 (s)he there go-PST.DISJ go-FUT.DISJ Q
 ‘Did/Will (s)he go there?’ (Intr: subject = 3rd ... disjunct)

The distribution of conjunct and disjunct verb forms is summarized in the following table. Conjunct marking is triggered by first person in declarative clauses and second person in interrogative clauses.

Table 3: The conjunct/disjunct marking in Newari main clauses

Local subject	Declarative	Interrogative
First person	Conjunct	Disjunct
Second person	Disjunct	Conjunct
Third person	Disjunct	Disjunct

The conjunct-disjunct distinction in Newari is not restricted to main clauses. They can be embedded as well. In complement clauses, the “conjunct” verb form occurs when the embedded subject and the matrix subject are co-indexed (16a), whereas the “disjunct” verb form occurs when the subjects of two adjacent clauses refer to different person (16b). Note that unlike in main clauses, the subject of a conjunct verb in complement clauses can be non-discourse participants.

- 16) a. wō: [wa ana wan-ā dhakā:] dhāla
 (s)he.ERG (s)he there go-PST.CONJ that said
 ‘(S)he_i said that (s)he_{i/*j} went there.’ (co-indexation)
- b. wō: [wa ana wan-a dhakā:] dhāla
 (s)he.ERG (s)he there go-PST.DISJ that said
 ‘(S)he_i said that (s)he_{*i/j} went there.’ (disjoint reference)

In complement clauses the subject of a conjunct verb can be a first person pronoun, if and only if the matrix subject is also a first person pronoun (17a).⁷ Conjunct marking is not possible in (17b) because its subject differs in person from the matrix subject.

- 17) a. jī: [ji gana won-e dhakā:] dhāla
 I.ERG I where go-PST.CONJ that said
 ‘Where did I say that I will go?’ (co-indexation)
- b. wō: [ji gana won-i dhakā:] dhāla
 (s)he.ERG I where go-PST.DISJ that said
 ‘Where did (s)he say that I will go?’ (disjoint reference)

We have already established in Section 3 that covert discourse participants are syntactically present at the left periphery. This allows us to provide a uniform account for the distribution of conjunct verbs in Newari—the conjunct verb form is used only when its subject is co-indexed with a higher DP. The subject of an embedded conjunct verb needs to refer to the matrix subject (18b), whereas the subject of a main conjunct verb needs to be co-indexed with a discourse participant (18a).

- 18) a. Main clauses: [_{saP} Discourse participant_i sa [_{TP} Main Subject_i T_{conj} ...
- b. Complement clauses: [_{vP} Matrix subject_i sa [_{TP} Embedded Subject_i T_{conj} ...

However, this account is not complete. We also need a proposal that allows the subject of the conjunct verb to choose between the speaker and the addressee. One possibility would be to abandon Strong Uniformity, and assume that in Newari the speech act (sa) head only takes the speaker as its argument in declaratives and the addressee as its argument in interrogatives. This is not ideal. For one thing, the discourse participants are always determined by the extra-linguistic context. It is not clear why would a sentence in any language lack a speaker or an addressee. Another possibility would be to assume that in Newari a mechanism similar to Speas and Tenny’s “interrogative flip” is at play. However, there is evidence to suggest that the asymmetry of declarative and interrogative clauses in Newari is not structural, but interpretational. One piece of evidence comes from cases like rhetorical questions. When the speaker asks questions that he/she knows the answer

⁷ *wh*-questions with the *wh*-phrase scoping into the main clause were elicited to avoid cases of direct quotation, e.g., *She said, “I will go.”*

to as in (19), the subject of the conjunct verb is co-indexed with the speaker instead of the addressee. This cannot be easily accounted for by the “interrogative flip” account.

19) Rhetorical questions in Newari (Hale 1980:100)

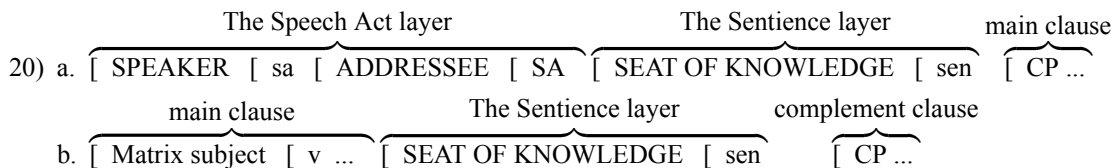
a. *ji ana wan-ā / wan-e lā*
 I there go-PST.CONJ go-FUT.CONJ Q
 ‘Did/Will I go there?’ = ‘Of course I did/will not.’

b. *cha ana wan-a / wan-i lā*
 you there go-PST.DISJ go-FUT.DISJ Q
 ‘Did/Will you go there?’ = ‘Of course you did/will not.’

In the next section I will maintain the intuition that the structure of the saP is universal and does not vary across clause types. I will demonstrate that the dilemma automatically disappears if we add a separate projection between the saP and the CP.

5. The Sentience Projection

Following Speas and Tenny (2003) I call the additional projection the Sen(tience)P, whose specifier hosts a DP, aka the seat of knowledge in their terms. It is co-indexed with the speaker in declarative clauses, and with the addressee in interrogative clauses. The two-tiered structure of the discourse is represented below.



Note that although the present proposal adopts Speas and Tenny’s terminology, they differ in many crucial aspects. For one thing, Speas and Tenny hypothesize that there is one and only one saP per sentence. Since for them the senP is dependent on the saP, this essentially means neither phrases can be embedded. However, in the present account, the SenP is embeddable, and occurs at the edge of all clauses.

In the previous section, I have shown that the conjunct verb form is used when its subject is co-indexed with a discourse participant (more specifically, the speaker in declarative clauses, and the addressee in interrogative clauses). However, if the interrogative clause is rhetorical (19), the subject of the conjunct verb needs to refer to the speaker instead of the addressee. This suggests that the reference of the seat of knowledge is not syntactically determined. In this paper I assume that the seat of knowledge is a logophorically sensitive PRO whose controller is determined in semantics.⁸ More in particular, I argue that the seat of knowledge always picks out the individual “whose mental state or attitude the content of the proposition describes,” and who has the capacity to evaluate the truth of the complement CP, aka, the logophoric center (Sells 1987:457).⁹ I assume that in Newari a conjunct marker is used only when its subject is co-indexed with the seat of knowledge. This explains why the conjunct verb is found in declarative clauses whose subject is first person and in interrogative clauses whose subject is second person, as shown below.

- 21) a. Declarative: Speaker_{*i*} ... Addressee ... Seat of knowledge_{*i*} ... Subject_{*i*} ... V_{conj}
 b. Interrogative: Speaker ... Addressee_{*i*} ... Seat of knowledge_{*i*} ... Subject_{*i*} ... V_{conj}

(21) also provides a uniform treatment for declarative clauses and rhetorical questions, since in both cases the speaker, rather than the addressee, is the individual that has the capacity to evaluate the truth of the proposition.

⁸ Farkas (1988) specifically argues that when there are two potential controllers, the choice is not based on syntactic hierarchy but semantics. Also see Landau (2013) for a more recent discussion of the semantic account for control.

⁹ For more in depth discussion of the syntax and semantics of the seat of knowledge, see Zu (in prep).

Recall that in the present account the senP is embeddable, and when occurs in embedded clauses, it can be independent from the saP. The only requirement for the seat of knowledge is that it needs to be bound by a higher DP, which can be either a discourse participant, or when the senP is embedded, the matrix subject (16).

Although Speas and Tenny (2003) agree that the reference of the seat of knowledge is not pre-determined, they did not elaborate on the specific mechanism involved. The syntax of the senP is fleshed out with more details in Tenny (2006). For her the seat of knowledge mechanically checks features with the closest c-commanding discourse participants (be it the speaker or the addressee). In order for the speaker to be able to agree with the seat of knowledge, the addressee needs to start out at a non-c-commanding position in declarative clauses. Only in interrogative clauses does the addressee moves to a position that immediately c-commands the senP. This proposal is problematic. Conceptually if the seat of knowledge co-varies with the structurally closest discourse participant, it remains unclear what motivates the senP in the first place. Empirically, Tenny's feature checking account would not predict the asymmetry between rhetorical questions and regular information-seeking questions.

We have seen that conjunct marking in Newari can be easily accounted for with a separate projection mediated between the saP and the main clause. What is more, there is also evidence to suggest that proposing the senP is not only convenient, but necessary. The present proposal predicts that the seat of knowledge can only be controlled by attitude holders. This is because non-attitude holders are not logophoric centers and thus cannot evaluate the truth of the complement proposition. For example, when the speaker utters (22), she needs to know at least two things: (i) that the embedded subject stayed at a house last year; and (ii) that the main clause subject went to the same house at a later time. The matrix subject Shyam, on the other hand, does not necessarily have the knowledge for either (i) or (ii). In the present account, this means the speaker rather than Shyam controls the seat of knowledge of the relative clause.

- 22) a. Shyam [wō: cwā: gu] chē wona.
 Shyam (s)he.ERG stay-PST.DISJ REL house went
'Shyam_i went to the house he_i stayed at last year.'
- b. Shyam [jī: cwan-ā gu] chē wona.
 Shyam I.ERG stay-PST.CONJ REL house went
'Shyam went to the house I stayed at last year.'

The structures for (22a) and (22b) are schematically represented below. The embedded seat of knowledge in both cases is controlled by the speaker of the utterance, not by the matrix subject. Therefore the conjunct marker is only possible in (23b), but not in (23a). In the latter case the seat of knowledge, being the speaker, is not co-indexed with the embedded subject, thus a disjunct marker is used instead.

- 23) a. Speaker_i ... Shyam_j went to the house [_{RC}PRO_i that he_j stayed_{disj} last year]
 b. Speaker_i ... Shyam_j went to the house [_{RC}PRO_i that I_i stayed_{conj} last year]

The contrast in (22) suggests that proposing an intermediate projection is necessary, without the mediation of the seat of knowledge, the co-indexation between the adjacent subjects would guarantee the use of a conjunct verb in (23a).

6. Conclusion

In this article, I have reviewed and evaluated the motivations for two projections above the CP, namely, the saP and the SenP. I argue that they differ in at least two aspects. First, the SenP is embeddable whereas the saP is not; Second, the SenP, but not the saP, is sensitive to the declarative-interrogative distinction. These two properties crucially distinguish two types of discourse-related phenomena, which was overlooked in the previous syntax literature.

Having established the two-tiered structure of the discourse, I take a closer look at each tier. I present morphosyntactic evidence to show that covert non-thematic discourse participants are syntactically present, and carry the same set of morphological features as their overt thematic counterparts. Both the speaker and the addressee can be targeted by morphosyntactic agreement, but the choice between the two is not determined

by specific clause types. This favors a uniform structure of the saP. The senP, on the other hand, is motivated by Newari conjunct marking which is sensitive to logophoricity. I propose that the referent of its specifier DP, the seat of knowledge, is identified with the logophoric center, i.e., the individual who is responsible for evaluating the truth of Sen's complement proposition. The said individual is by default the speaker in declarative clauses, and the addressee in interrogative clauses.

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