Lecture 8: Dynamic semantics

Elizabeth Coppock

Introduction to Semantics · EGG 2019

Outline

Projection problem

Semantic vs. pragmatic notions of presupposition Projection problem

Indefinites

Where we left off yesterday



Where we left off yesterday









	-		∂	\wedge	Т	F	#	\vee	T	F	#
Т	F	Т	Т	Т	Т	F	#	Т	Т	Т	#
F	T	F	#	F	F	F	#	F	T	F	#
#	#	#	#	#	#	#	#	#	#	#	#

	-		∂	\wedge	T	F	#	V	T	F	#
Т	F	Т	Т	 Т	Т	F	#	Т	Т	Т	#
F	T	F	#	F	F	F	#	F	Т	F	#
#	#	#	#	#	#	#	#	#	#	#	#

 $p \rightarrow q \equiv \neg p \lor q$

A semantic conception of presupposition

► A presupposes B (abbreviation: A ≫ B) iff: Whenever A is true or false, B is true.

Example:

 $[\partial(\exists x.\mathsf{Singer}(x)) \land \forall x.[\mathsf{Singer}(x) \to \mathsf{Smiled}(x)]] \gg \exists x.\mathsf{Singer}(x)$

A semantic conception of presupposition

► A presupposes B (abbreviation: A ≫ B) iff: Whenever A is true or false, B is true.

Example:

 $[\partial(\exists x.\mathsf{Singer}(x)) \land \forall x.[\mathsf{Singer}(x) \to \mathsf{Smiled}(x)]] \gg \exists x.\mathsf{Singer}(x)$

Cf. the definition of entailment:

 A entails B iff: Whenever A is true, B is true. A semantic conception of presupposition

► A presupposes B (abbreviation: A ≫ B) iff: Whenever A is true or false, B is true.

Example:

 $[\partial(\exists x.\mathsf{Singer}(x)) \land \forall x.[\mathsf{Singer}(x) \to \mathsf{Smiled}(x)]] \gg \exists x.\mathsf{Singer}(x)$

Cf. the definition of entailment:

 A entails B iff: Whenever A is true, B is true.

So presupposition is a species of entailment on this view.

A pragmatic conception of presupposition

Roughly speaking, the presuppositions of a speaker are the propositions whose truth he takes for granted as part of the background of the conversation. A proposition is presupposed if the speaker is disposed to act as if he assumes or believes that the proposition is true, and as if he assumes or believes that his audience assumes or believes that it is true as well. Presuppositions are what is taken by the speaker to be the common ground of the participants in the conversation, what is treated as their common knowledge or mutual knowledge.

(Stalnaker, 1978)

Presupposition and assertion à la Stalnaker

Stalnaker (1978):

- The context set is the set of possible worlds in the common ground.
- A proposition is presupposed if it holds in all of the worlds in the context set.
- A (successful) assertion shrinks the context set so that it only contains worlds compatible with the proposition expressed.

Example



Are these notions in conflict?

Karttunen (1973):

There is no conflict between the semantic and the pragmatic notions of presupposition. They are related, albeit different notions...

However, the results of this investigation suggest to me that the difficulties we face in trying to construct a coherent semantic definition for presupposition are even greater than in the case of the pragmatic notion.

How can we predict the presuppositions of a complex sentence from the presuppositions of its parts?

How can we predict the presuppositions of a complex sentence from the presuppositions of its parts?

Karttunen (1973) observed that this is not a trivial problem:

Plugs: A plug is a predicate that blocks off all the presuppositions of the complement sentence.

How can we predict the presuppositions of a complex sentence from the presuppositions of its parts?

Karttunen (1973) observed that this is not a trivial problem:

- Plugs: A plug is a predicate that blocks off all the presuppositions of the complement sentence.
- Holes: A hole is a predicate which lets all the presuppositions of the complement sentence become presuppositions of the matrix sentence.

How can we predict the presuppositions of a complex sentence from the presuppositions of its parts?

Karttunen (1973) observed that this is not a trivial problem:

- Plugs: A plug is a predicate that blocks off all the presuppositions of the complement sentence.
- Holes: A hole is a predicate which lets all the presuppositions of the complement sentence become presuppositions of the matrix sentence.
- **Filters**: A **filter** is a predicate which, under certain conditions, cancels some of the presuppositions of the complement.

(1) Fred stopped beating Zelda. \gg Fred beat Zelda.

- (1) Fred stopped beating Zelda. \gg Fred beat Zelda.
- (2) Bill asked Fred to stop beating Zelda. \Rightarrow Fred beat Zelda.

- (1) Fred stopped beating Zelda. \gg Fred beat Zelda.
- Bill asked Fred to stop beating Zelda.

 ⇒ Fred beat Zelda.

Other **verbs of saying**, or **perfomatives**: *say*, *mention*, *tell*, *ask*, *promise*, *warn*, *request*, *order*, *accuse*, *criticize*, *blame*, ...

- (1) Fred stopped beating Zelda. \gg Fred beat Zelda.
- Bill asked Fred to stop beating Zelda.

 ⇒ Fred beat Zelda.

Other **verbs of saying**, or **perfomatives**: *say, mention, tell, ask, promise, warn, request, order, accuse, criticize, blame, ...*

Bill believes that Fred stopped beating Zelda.
 Does this presuppose that Fred beat Zelda?
 Certainly that Bill believes that Fred beat Zelda...

Holes

- (5) Bill forced Fred to stop beating Zelda. >> Fred beat Zelda.

Holes

- (4) Fred didn't stop beating Zelda. \gg Fred beat Zelda.
- (5) Bill forced Fred to stop beating Zelda. >> Fred beat Zelda.
- (6) Bill knows that Fred stopped beating Zelda. \gg Fred beat Zelda.

(7) Tom's son is bald. \gg Tom has a son.

- (7) Tom's son is bald. \gg Tom has a son.
- (8) If baldness is hereditary, then Tom's son is bald. \gg Tom has a son.

- (7) Tom's son is bald. \gg Tom has a son.
- (8) If baldness is hereditary, then Tom's son is bald. \gg Tom has a son.



- (7) Tom's son is bald. \gg Tom has a son.
- (8) If baldness is hereditary, then Tom's son is bald. \gg Tom has a son.





presupposes

Tom has a son





If baldness is hereditary then his son is bald

presupposes

Tom has a son



Filtering condition for conditionals (first pass)

Let S stand for any sentence of the form

If A then B

- If $A \gg C$, then $S \gg C$.
- If $B \gg C$, then $S \gg C$, unless A = C.
Filtering with conditionals

If Fred has managed to kiss Cecilia then Fred will kiss Cecilia again

presupposes

Fred has kissed Cecilia

Filtering with conditionals

If Fred has managed to kiss Cecilia then Fred will kiss Cecilia again



Fred has kissed Cecilia

Filtering condition for conditionals (second pass)

Let S stand for any sentence of the form

If A then B

- If $A \gg C$, then $S \gg C$.
- If $B \gg C$, then $S \gg C$, unless A entails C.

Filtering with disjunction

Either Harry isn't married or Harry's spouse is no longer with him

presupposes

Harry has a spouse

Filtering with disjunction

Either Harry isn't married or Harry's spouse is no longer with him



Harry has a spouse

Filtering condition for disjunctions

Let S stand for any sentence of the form

Either A or B

- If $A \gg C$, then $S \gg C$.
- If $B \gg C$, then $S \gg C$, unless the negation of A entails C.

Filter: Conjunctions

- (10) Only Ann smokes >> Ann smokes.
- (11) Bill doesn't smoke, and (in fact) only Ann smokes. >> Ann smokes.
- Ann smokes heavily, but only Ann smokes.

 ⇒ Ann smokes.

Filter: Conjunctions

- (10) Only Ann smokes >> Ann smokes.
- Bill doesn't smoke, and (in fact) only Ann smokes.>> Ann smokes.
- Ann smokes heavily, but only Ann smokes.

 ⇒ Ann smokes.

Note: that Ann smokes is still entailed, but it is not presupposed:

(13) If Ann smokes heavily, but only Ann smokes, then exactly one ashtray will suffice.

Filtering with conjunctions

Ann smokes heavily and only Ann smokes

presupposes

Ann smokes

Filtering with conjunctions



Ann smokes

Filtering condition for conjunctions

Let S stand for any sentence of the form

A and B

- If $A \gg C$, then $S \gg C$.
- If $B \gg C$, then $S \gg C$, unless A entails C.

Filtering with disjunction

Either Geraldine isn't a Mormon or she no longer wears her holy underwear

presupposes

Geraldine has holy underwear

Filtering with disjunction

Either Geraldine isn't a Mormon or she no longer wears her holy underwear



Geraldine has holy underwear

Fact: Mormons wear holy underwear.



Filtering with disjunction

Either Geraldine isn't a Mormon or she no longer wears her holy underwear



Geraldine has holy underwear

Filtering condition for disjunctions

Let ${\it S}$ stand for any sentence of the form

Either A or B

- If $A \gg C$, then $S \gg C$.
- If B ≫ C, then S ≫ C, unless the negation of A, combined with world knowledge W entails C.

Summary

In context C:

- S = 'If A then B' If $B \gg P$ then $S \gg P$ unless: C + A entails P.
- S = A and B'If $B \gg P$ then $S \gg P$ unless: C + A entails P.
- S = A or B'If $B \gg P$ then $S \gg P$ unless: $C + \neg A$ entails P.

Summary

In context C:

- S = 'If A then B' If $B \gg P$ then $S \gg P$ unless: C + A entails P.
- S = 'A and B'If $B \gg P$ then $S \gg P$ unless: C + A entails P.
- S = A or B'If $B \gg P$ then $S \gg P$ unless: $C + \neg A$ entails P.

Karttunen (1974): Preuppositions must be satisfied in their **local context**.

	Local context for A	Local context for B
'If A then B'	С	C + A
'A and B'	С	C + A
'A or B'	С	$C + \neg A$

In what contexts are the presuppositions of a sentence satisfied?

Context C satisfies-the-presuppositions-of A just in case C entails all of the basic presuppositions of A.

Context *C* satisfies-the-presuppositions-of 'if *A* then *B*' just in case C + A entails all of the basic presuppositions of *B*.

In what contexts are the presuppositions of a sentence satisfied?

Context C admits A just in case C entails all of the basic presuppositions of A.

Context C admits 'if A then B' just in case C + A entails all of the basic presuppositions of B.

Does C admit If the king has a son, his son is bald?



Karttunen's conclusion

In this paper I have argued that a theory of presuppositions is best looked upon as a theory of constraints on successive contexts in a fully explicit discourse in which the current conversational context satisfies-the-presuppositions-of, or let us say from now on, admits the next sentence that increments it.

(Karttunen, 1974)

Outline

Projection problem

Indefinites

Special properties of indefinites File-card semantics Intro to DRT

Indefinites as existential quantifiers (Russell)

- (14) I found [a cat]. $\exists x [Cat(x) \land Found(i, x)]$
- (15) I didn't find [a cat]. $\neg \exists x [Cat(x) \land Found(i, x)]$

(16) I found $[a cat]_i$. Then it_i ran away.

(16) I found [a cat]_i. Then it_i ran away. $\exists x [Cat(x) \land Found(i, x)]$

(16) I found [a cat]_i. Then it_i ran away. $\exists x [Cat(x) \land Found(i, x)] \land RanAway(x)$

X

(16) I found $[a cat]_i$. Then it_i ran away.

 $\exists x [Cat(x) \land Found(i, x) \land RanAway(x)]$

This analysis was proposed by Geach [1962, 126ff]. It implies as a general moral that the proper unit for the semantic interpretation of natural language is not the individual sentence, but the text. [The formula] provides the truth condition for the bisentential text as a whole, but it fails to specify, and apparently even precludes specifying, a truth condition for the [first] sentence.'

(Heim, 1982, p. 13)

Against assigning truth conditions to whole discourses only

(17) A: A dog came in.B: What did it do next?

Karttunen's discourse referents

Karttunen (1976): "the appearance of an indefinite noun phrase establishes a *discourse referent* just in case it justifies the occurrence of a coreferential pronoun or a definite noun phrase later in the text."

Karttunen's discourse referents

- Karttunen (1976): "the appearance of an indefinite noun phrase establishes a *discourse referent* just in case it justifies the occurrence of a coreferential pronoun or a definite noun phrase later in the text."
- This definition allows the study of coreference to proceed "independently of any general theory of extralinguistic reference" (p. 367).

Discourse referents are mortal

(18) Bill didn't find $[a cat]_i$ and keep it_i. *It_i is black.

The "life span" of the discourse referent is limited within the scope of negation.

Lifespan differences

- (19) A_i dog came in. It_i lay down under the table.
- (20) *Every; dog came in. It; lay down under the table.
- (21) *No_i dog came in. It_i lay down under the table.

(From Heim's (1982) dissertation)

Donkey sentences

(22) If $[a cat]_i$ purrs, it_i is happy.
(22) If $[a cat]_i$ pures, it_i is happy. $[\exists x [Cat(x) \land Pures(x)] \rightarrow Happy(x)]$

X

(22) If $[a cat]_i$ purrs, it_i is happy.

 $\exists x [[\mathsf{Cat}(x) \land \mathsf{Purrs}(x)] \to \mathsf{Happy}(x)]$

Х

Donkey sentences

(22) If $[a cat]_i$ purrs, it_i is happy.

 $\forall x [[\mathsf{Cat}(x) \land \mathsf{Purrs}(x)] \to \mathsf{Happy}(x)]$

Donkey sentence: A sentence that contains an indefinite NP inside an if-clause or relative clause, and a pronoun which is outside that if-clause or relative clause, but is anaphorically related to the indefinite NPs.

- (23) If someone is in Athens, he is not in Rhodes.
- (24) If a man owns a donkey, he beats it.
- (25) Every man who owns a donkey beats it.

Geach's view

Geach: Indefinites just get a wide-scope universal interpretation under such circumstances.

Geach's view

Geach: Indefinites just get a wide-scope universal interpretation under such circumstances.

Under what circumstances, exactly? What on earth do relative clauses have to do with *if*-clauses?

Geach's view

Geach: Indefinites just get a wide-scope universal interpretation under such circumstances.

Under what circumstances, exactly? What on earth do relative clauses have to do with *if*-clauses?

Moreover, it doesn't work with just any relative clause:

(26) A friend of mine who owns a donkey beats it.

No wide-scope universal reading here.

The non-quantificational analysis of indefinites

Heim's idea: Indefinites have no quantificational force of their own, but are like variables, which may get bound by whatever quantifier there is to bind them.

Adaptability of indefinites

- (27) In most cases, if a table has lasted for 50 years, it will last for 50 more.
 ↔ Most tables that have lasted for 50 years will last for another 50.
- (28) Sometimes, if a cat falls from the fifth floor, it survives.
 ⇔ Some cats that fall from the fifth floor survive.

(29) If a person falls from the fifth floor, he or she will very rarely survive.
 ↔ Very few people that fall from the fifth floor survive.

i

Dynamic interpretation

- As a sentence or text unfolds, we construct a representation of the text using discourse referents.
- A pronoun picks out a discourse referent.
- An indefinite contributes a new referent, but has no quantificational force of its own. The quantificational force arises from the indefinite's environment.

A woman was bitten by a dog.

1	2
woman	dog
bitten by 2	bit 1

A woman was bitten by a dog. She hit him with a paddle.

1	2	3
woman	dog	paddle
bitten by 2	bit 1	used by 1 to hit 2
hit 2 with 3	was hit by 1 with 3	

A woman was bitten by a dog. She hit him with a paddle. It broke in half.

1	2	3
woman	dog	paddle
bitten by 2	bit 1	used by 1 to hit 2
hit 2 with 3	was hit by 1 with 3	broke in half

A woman was bitten by a dog. She hit him with a paddle. It broke in half.

The dog ran away.

1	2	3
woman	dog	paddle
bitten by 2	bit 1	used by 1 to hit 2
hit 2 with 3	was hit by 1 with 3	broke in half
	ran away	

Heim (1982): In order to establish the truth of a file, we must find a sequence of individuals that satisfies it.

A sequence of individuals satisfies a file (in a possible world) if the first individual in the sequence fits the description on card number 1 in the file (according to what is true in the world), etc.

A file is true (a.k.a. satisfiable) in a possible world iff it has there is a sequence that satisfies it in that world.

Example

$F = \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline F = & \hline 1 & \hline 2 & \hline 3 & \hline \\ \hline woman & \\ bitten by 2 & \\ hit 2 with 3 & \hline \\ was hit by 1 with 3 & \\ ran away & \hline \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline 3 & \hline \\ used by 1 to hit 2 & \\ broke in half & \\ \hline \\ \end{array}$

A sequence $\langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$ satsifies F in world w iff:

- a₁ is a woman in w
- a₂ is a dog in w
- a₃ is a paddle in w
- a_2 bit a_1 in w
- a_1 hit a_2 with a_3 in w
- a₃ broke in half in w
- a₂ ran away in w

Example

1	2	3
woman	dog	paddle
bitten by 2	bit 1	used by 1 to hit 2
hit 2 with 3	was hit by 1 with 3	broke in half
	ran away	

World 1	World 2
Pug bit Joan	Fido bit Joan
Joan hit Pug with Paddle	Joan hit Fido with Paddle
Paddle broke in half	Paddle broke in half
Pug ran away	Fido ran away

	Sequence 1	Sequence 2	Sequence 3
1	Joan	Pug	Sue
2	Fido	Pug	Pug
3	Paddle	Paddle	Paddle

Example

Informal representation of file:

[1: woman, bitten by 2][2: dog, bit 1]

The same file as a set of world-sequence pairs:

```
\begin{array}{ll} \{\langle w,a\rangle\colon &a(1) \text{ is a woman in }w\\ &a(1) \text{ was bitten by }a(2) \text{ in }w\\ &a(2) \text{ bit }a(1) \text{ in }w\\ &a(2) \text{ is a dog in }w\} \end{array}
```

Stalnaker: common ground = context set (possible worlds compatable with what the speaker presupposes)

Heim: common ground = "file" of the context. A file is not a set of possible worlds but it *determines* a set of possible worlds.

File Change Semantics

The meaning of a sentence will be a *file change potential*.

$$F + p = F'$$

means: The result of updating file F with logical form p is F'.

Novelty-Familiarity Condition

For every indefinite, start a new card; for every definite, update a suitable old card.

Discourse Representation Structures

Kind of like files with one big filecard.

A farmer owns a donkey



~ $\exists x \exists y [Farmer(x) \land Donkey(y) \land Owns(x,y)]$

Conditionals in DRT

If a farmer owns a donkey, then he beats it



~ $\forall x \forall y [[Farmer(x) \land Donkey(y) \land Owns(x, y)] \rightarrow Beats(x, y)]$

Definition of DRS

- Syntax: A DRS K consists of a pair (U_K, Con_K)
- U_K is a subset of *discourse referents* drawn from a set *R*.
- Con_K is a set of conditions, of the form x = y, $\nu(x)$, $\neg K$, $K_1 \rightarrow K_2$, etc.

Truth

Informally, a DRS K is true in a model M if there is a way of associating individuals in the universe of M with the discourse referents of K so that each of the conditions in K is verified in M.

An embedding is a function that maps discourse referents to individuals (like an assignment or sequence). More formally, a DRS is true in a model if there is an embedding that verifies it.

Verifying a DRS: Example



A function g verifies this DRS with respect to model M if:

- the domain of g contains at least x and y
- according to M it is the case that g(x) is a farmer, g(y) is a donkey, and g(x) owns g(y).

Verifying a negated condition

Pedro does not own a donkey.

$$x = p$$

$$\neg y$$
donkey(y)
owns(x,y)

Intuitively, this should be true if and only if there is no way to assign a value to x such that x is Pedro, and there is some individual y such that y is a donkey and x owns y.

Auxiliary notions

Compatibility

We say that two functions f and g are **compatible** if they assign the same values to those arguments for which they are both defined. I.e., f and g are compatible if for any a which belongs to the domain of both f and g:

$$f(a) = g(a)$$

Extension

g is called an extension of f if g is compatible with f and the domain of g includes the domain of f.

Verifying negated conditions

Pedro does not own a donkey.

$$\begin{tabular}{c} x & \\ x = p \\ \hline & \\ \neg \begin{tabular}{c} y \\ donkey(y) \\ owns(x,y) \end{tabular} \end{tabular} \end{tabular}$$

A function f verifies the negated condition iff:

- *f* verifies x = p, and
- There is no function g such that: (i) g extends f, and (ii) g verifies

$$\begin{array}{c} y \\ \text{donkey}(y) \\ \text{owns}(x,y) \end{array}$$

Verifying conditional conditions



To verify a conditional statement:

- 1. What kind of embedding would be necessary to verify the antecedent?
- 2. Must the consequent hold, given that embedding?

Verifying conditional conditions



Verification of a conditional condition

An embedding function f verifies a condition of the form $K \Rightarrow K'$ with respect to model M if and only if: For all extensions g of fthat verify K, there is an extension h of g that verifies K'.

Consequences

So:

- Unembedded indefinites get existential interpretation
- Indefinites acquire universal import in conditionals
- Indefinites can bind from antecedent to consequent

Semantics of Discourse Representation Structures

Embedding f verifies DRS K in model M iff:

 $M, f \models K$ iff $M, f \models c$ for each $c \in Con_K$ where the domain of f includes U_K .

Verification of conditions:

$$\begin{split} M, f &\models x = y \quad iff \quad f(x) = f(y) \\ M, f &\models \nu(x) \quad iff \quad f(x) \in I(\nu) \\ M, f &\models \neg K \quad iff \quad \text{for no } g \geq_{U_K} f, M, g \models K \\ M, f &\models K_1 \implies K_2 \quad iff \quad \forall g \geq_{U_{K_1}} f, \text{if } M, g \models K_1 \\ &\quad \text{then } \exists h \geq_{U_{K_2}} g, M, h \models K_2 \end{split}$$

where $f \ge_r g$ means "f extends g, and $Dom(f) = Dom(g) \cup r$ ".

Semantics of Discourse Representation Structures

Embedding f verifies DRS K in model M iff:

 $M, f \models K$ iff $M, f \models c$ for each $c \in Con_K$ where the domain of f includes U_K .

Verification of conditions:

$$M, f \vDash x = y \quad iff \quad f(x) = f(y)$$

$$M, f \vDash \nu(x) \quad iff \quad f(x) \in I(\nu)$$

$$M, f \vDash \neg K \quad iff \quad \text{for no } g \ge_{U_{K}} f, M, g \vDash K$$

$$M, f \vDash K_{1} \Rightarrow K_{2} \quad iff \quad \forall g \ge_{U_{K_{1}}} f, \text{if } M, g \vDash K_{1}$$

$$\text{then } \exists h \ge_{U_{K_{2}}} g, M, h \vDash K_{2}$$

where $f \ge_r g$ means "f extends g, and $Dom(f) = Dom(g) \cup r$ ".

Summary

In dynamic semantics, meanings are context change potentials.

Dynamic semantics provides:

- An insightful approach to the projection problem;
- An account of the anaphoric potential of indefinites, especially in donkey sentences.

- Heim, Irene. 1982. *The semantics of definite and indefinite noun phrases*: U. Mass Amherst dissertation.
- Karttunen, Lauri. 1973. Presuppositions of compound sentences. *Linguistic Inquiry* 4(2). 169–193.
- Karttunen, Lauri. 1974. Presuppositions and linguistic context. *Theoretical Linguistics* 1. 181–194.
- Stalnaker, Robert. 1978. Assertion. In *Syntax and semantics*, vol. 9, Academic Press.