

# Variables, pronouns, relative clauses, and movement

## 1 Notes on variables

### (1) Some math “sentences”:

- a.  $1 = 2 - 1$  a sentence with no variables; not context-sensitive
- b.  $n = 2 - 1$  a sentence with a variable; context-sensitive
- c.  $\forall n (2(n + 1) = 2n + 2)$  a sentence with a variable; *not* context-sensitive

- We say (1b) contains a *free variable* because the truth of the sentence depends on the context. In particular, the sentence is true iff the variable “ $n$ ” is interpreted as 1.
- The truth of sentence (1c), like (1a), does not depend on the context at all.

### (2) Some terminology, using (1c) as an example:

$$\underbrace{\forall n \left( \underbrace{2(n + 1)}_{\text{bound}} = \underbrace{2n + 2}_{\text{bound}} \right)}_{\text{binder}}$$

- *Binders* control the interpretation of a particular variable within a certain part of its structure, which we call its *scope*. Here,  $\forall$  binds the variable  $n$  in its scope.
- We call variables that are in the scope of a matching binder *bound variables*.

With this in mind, let’s revisit (3) from PS2 (H&K p. 10):

- (3) When is the following true?  $\{x : \{y : y \text{ likes } x\} = \emptyset\} = \{x : \{x : x \text{ likes } x\} = \emptyset\}$

Let’s call the mapping between free variables and their values *assignment*.

## 2 Pronouns

This free/bound terminology is useful for natural language as well:

- (4)
- a. John likes Mary. a sentence with no variables; not assignment-sensitive
  - b. John likes him. a sentence with a variable; assignment-sensitive
  - c. Every boy likes himself. a sentence with a variable; *not* assignment-sensitive

We’ll formalize this by giving each pronoun a numerical *index*. We’ll compute denotations relative to an *assignment function*, which is a function from the set of indices ( $\mathbb{N}$ ) to  $D_e$ .

### (5) Pronouns Rule (to be replaced later):

If  $\alpha$  is a pronoun,  $g$  is a variable assignment, and  $g(i)$  is defined, then  $\llbracket \alpha_i \rrbracket^g = g(i)$ .

(6) Suppose  $g$  is a function and  $g(3) = \text{Sam} \in D_e$ .

a.  $\llbracket \text{him}_3 \rrbracket^g = \text{Sam}$

b.  $\llbracket \text{John likes him}_3 \rrbracket^g = 1$  iff John likes Sam

**Q:** Does it matter what  $g$  returns for other values in (6)?

**A:** No. It might even be undefined for other values.

**Q:** Why did we use 3? Does the number matter?

**A:** The choice of number was arbitrary, but it is important whether or not we reuse numbers:

(7) a.  $\text{He}_2$  thinks that  $\text{he}_2$  is smart.

b.  $\text{He}_2$  thinks that  $\text{he}_7$  is smart.

**Q:** Does the assignment function affect other parts of the sentence?

**A:** No. “John” and “likes” are *constants*, meaning their values are the same no matter the assignment: for any assignment function  $f$ ,  $\llbracket \text{John} \rrbracket^f = \text{John}$ .

**Warning:** There’s a section of H&K (pp. 92–109) where they just use notation like  $\llbracket \text{him} \rrbracket^{\text{John}} = \text{John}$ , which only accommodates one variable at a time, but then they introduce their actual notation on page 110, which we use here.

### 3 Rules with assignments

In order to work with assignment functions, we need to modify all our existing rules so that they pass assignment functions. These definitions are based on H&K p. 95:

(8) **Terminal Nodes (TN):** (unchanged)

If  $\alpha$  is a terminal node,  $\llbracket \alpha \rrbracket$  is specified in the lexicon.<sup>1</sup>

(9) **Non-branching Nodes (NN):**

If  $\alpha$  is a non-branching node, and  $\beta$  is its daughter node, then, for any assignment  $g$ ,  $\llbracket \alpha \rrbracket^g = \llbracket \beta \rrbracket^g$ .

(10) **Functional Application (FA):**

If  $\alpha$  is a branching node,  $\{\beta, \gamma\}$  is the set of  $\alpha$ ’s daughters, then, for any assignment  $g$ , if  $\llbracket \beta \rrbracket^g$  is a function whose domain contains  $\llbracket \gamma \rrbracket^g$ , then  $\llbracket \alpha \rrbracket^g = \llbracket \beta \rrbracket^g(\llbracket \gamma \rrbracket^g)$ .

(11) **Predicate Modification (PM):**

If  $\alpha$  is a branching node,  $\{\beta, \gamma\}$  is the set of  $\alpha$ ’s daughters, then, for any assignment  $g$ , if  $\llbracket \beta \rrbracket^g$  and  $\llbracket \gamma \rrbracket^g$  are both of type  $\langle e, t \rangle$ , then  $\llbracket \alpha \rrbracket^g = \lambda x \in D_e . \llbracket \beta \rrbracket^g(x) = 1$  and  $\llbracket \gamma \rrbracket^g = 1$ .

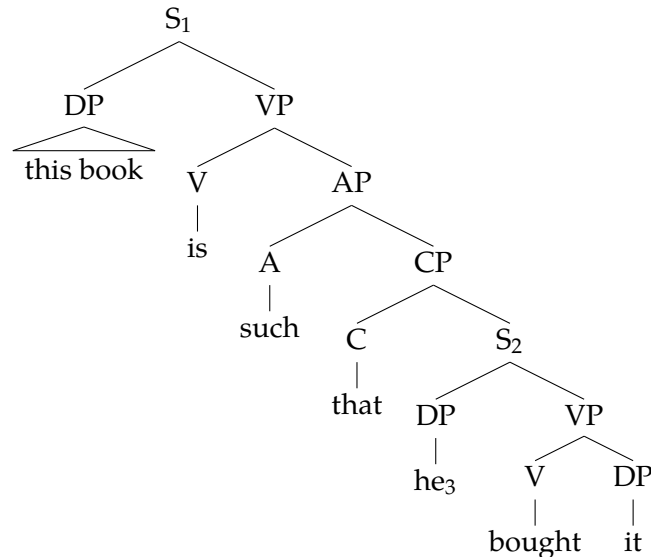
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<sup>1</sup>H&K proposes (p. 94) to still use  $\llbracket \alpha \rrbracket$  without an assignment function superscript for *constants*, i.e. if  $\llbracket \alpha \rrbracket^g$  is the same value for all assignment functions  $g$ .

## 4 Such that

The English expression *such that* allows us to construct some complex expressions.<sup>2</sup>

(12) <sup>?</sup> This book is such that he<sub>3</sub> bought it. (g(3) = John)



Here, (12) does not seem assignment-dependent. But the Principle of Compositionality states that  $\llbracket S_1 \rrbracket$  be computed based on the meaning of  $\llbracket S_2 \rrbracket$ , which contains a pronoun and is assignment-dependent.

**Idea:** *Such* binds *it*, doing the work of creating a *predicate* out of the assignment-dependent sentence "John bought it."

(13) **Such Rule (temporary):**<sup>3</sup>  
 $\llbracket \text{such}_i \gamma \rrbracket^g = \lambda x_e . \llbracket \gamma \rrbracket^{[i \mapsto x] \parallel g}$

$[i \mapsto x] \parallel g$  is the *combination* of functions  $[i \mapsto x]$  and  $g$ :

(14) **Definition: function combination**  

$$f \parallel g \equiv \lambda x . \begin{cases} f(x) & \text{if } x \in \text{domain}(f) \\ g(x) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
 Read "*f* or else *g*."

Let's compute  $\llbracket S_1 \rrbracket^g$  with the following global assignment function:  $g = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \mapsto \text{John} \\ 11 \mapsto \text{Tama} \end{bmatrix}$ .  
 Assume  $\llbracket \text{that} \rrbracket = \text{Id}$ .

**Warning:** H&K uses  $g^{x/i}$  notation for  $[i \mapsto x] \parallel g$ , but I think it's confusing so I don't use it.<sup>4</sup>

<sup>2</sup>Unfortunately, the use of *such that* sounds "unlyrical" (Quine, 1960, §23)... but we'll ignore that here.

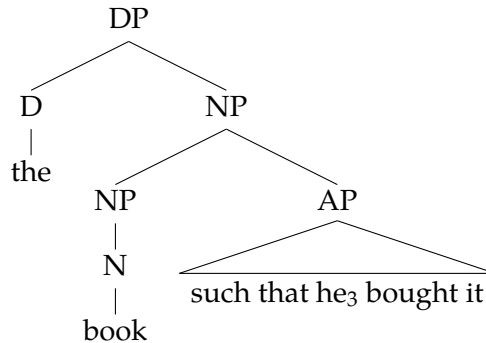
<sup>3</sup>"Such" does not have a type. That's why it can only be interpreted using the *Such* Rule.

<sup>4</sup>For one, I've also seen very similar notation " $g(x/a)$ " for a function that maps  $x$  to  $a$ , which is the reverse of

We can also use *such that* to construct (slightly awkward) *relative clauses*:

(15) ? the book such that he<sub>3</sub> bought it

The semantics for *such* above works perfectly fine here.



“...the peculiar genius of the relative clause is that it creates from a sentence ‘...x...’ a complex adjective summing up what that sentence says about *x*.” — Quine (1960, §23)

(16)  $\llbracket \text{the} \rrbracket = \lambda f : f \in D_{\langle e,t \rangle}$  and there is exactly one  $x$  such that  $f(x) = 1$ .  
the unique  $y$  such that  $f(y) = 1$

### Binding multiple variables:

(17) ? This book is such that he<sub>3</sub> bought it and then gave it to Sarah.

(18) ? the book such that he<sub>3</sub> bought it and then gave it to Sarah

### Binding no variables (vacuous binding):

(19) \* This book is such that today is Monday.

(20) \* the book such that today is Monday

The ungrammaticality of these examples shows that binding *no* variables is disallowed by the grammar. This is called *vacuous binding*.

## 5 Relative clauses and movement

Most relative clauses in English do not use *such that* and a pronoun, but instead involve a *gap*:

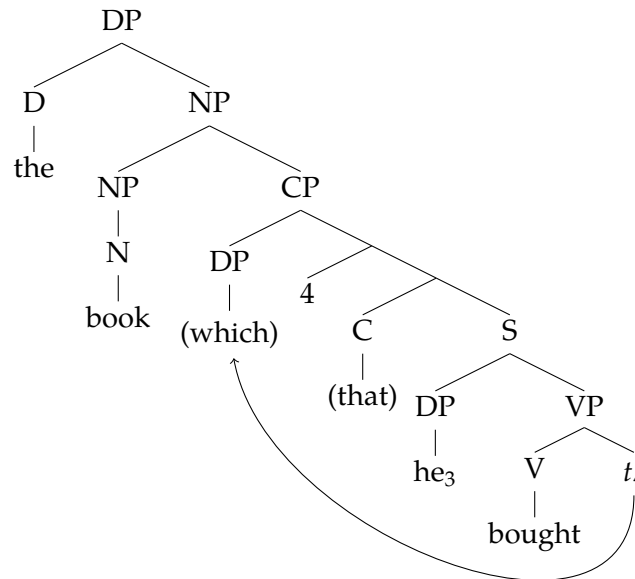
### (21) English relative clauses:

- a. the book he<sub>3</sub> bought \_\_\_\_\_
- b. the book which he<sub>3</sub> bought \_\_\_\_\_
- c. the book that he<sub>3</sub> bought \_\_\_\_\_
- d. \* the book which that he<sub>3</sub> bought \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_ what H&K mean in their *x/i*.

Such gapped relative clauses are analyzed as the result of *movement* of the relative pronoun (“which”) from the gap position to Spec,CP (Chomsky, 1977, and many others).<sup>5</sup>

Could traces be vacuous? Consider the meaning of  $\llbracket S \rrbracket$  here if  $\llbracket VP \rrbracket = \llbracket \text{bought} \rrbracket$ .



Instead:

(22) **The interpretation of movement:**

Pick an arbitrary index  $i$ .

- a. The base position of movement is replaced with a *trace* with index  $i$ :  $t_i$ .
- b. A *binder index*  $i$  is adjoined right under the target position of the movement chain.

(23) **Traces and Pronouns Rule (T&P):** replaces Pronouns Rule in (5)

If  $\alpha$  is a pronoun or trace,  $g$  is a variable assignment, and  $g(i)$  is defined, then  $\llbracket \alpha_i \rrbracket^g = g(i)$ .

(24) **Predicate Abstraction (PA):** (H&K p. 186 version) replaces *Such* Rule in (13)<sup>6</sup>

Let  $\alpha$  be a branching node with daughters  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$ , where  $\beta$  dominates only a numerical index  $i$ . Then, for any assignment  $g$ ,  $\llbracket \alpha \rrbracket^g = \lambda x . \llbracket \gamma \rrbracket^{[i \mapsto x] \parallel g}$ .

Let's compute the relative clauses in (21) with global assignment  $g = [3 \mapsto \text{John}]$ . Assume  $\llbracket \text{that} \rrbracket = \text{Id}$  and  $\llbracket \text{which} \rrbracket = \text{Id}$ .

## References

Chomsky, Noam. 1977. On *wh*-movement. In *Formal syntax*, ed. Peter Culicover, Thomas Wasow, and Adrian Akmajian, 71–132. New York: Academic Press.

Chomsky, Noam, and Howard Lasnik. 1977. Filters and control. *Linguistic Inquiry* 8:425–504.

Quine, Willard Van Orman. 1960. *Word and object*. Cambridge.

<sup>5</sup>Both the relative pronoun and complementizer “that” are then pronounced optionally. Following Chomsky and Lasnik (1977), we assume a “Doubly Filled COMP Filter” that states that both positions cannot be pronounced at the same time, explaining (21d).

<sup>6</sup>We can think of “such” as the pronunciation of a lexicalized binder index, not generated through movement.