

Pronouns and variable binding

1 Pronouns

Recall the “free” vs “bound” terminology for variables. This is useful for natural language sentences as well:

- (1) 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*. Let’s call the mapping between free variables and their values *assignment*. We’ll compute denotations relative to an *assignment function*, which is a function from the set of indices (\mathbb{N}) to D_e .

(2) **Pronouns Rule (to be replaced later):**

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

- (3) 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 (3)?

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:

- (4) a. He₂ thinks that he₂ is smart.
- b. He₂ thinks that he₇ 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.

2 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:

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

If α is a terminal node, $\llbracket \alpha \rrbracket$ is specified in the lexicon.¹

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

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

(7) **Functional Application (FA):**

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

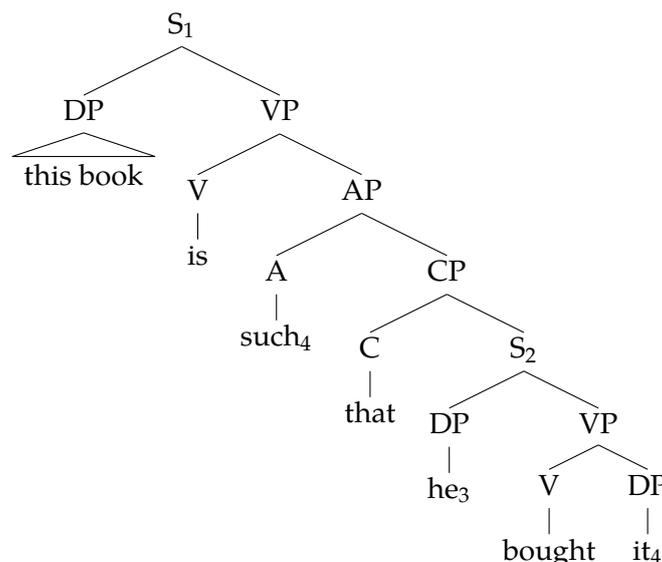
(8) **Predicate Modification (PM):**

If α is a branching node, $\{\beta, \gamma\}$ is the set of α '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 $\llbracket \gamma \rrbracket^g = 1$.

3 *Such that* relatives

The English expression *such that* allows us to construct relative clauses without movement.²

(9) ? This book is $such_4$ that he_3 bought it_4 . ($g(3) = \text{John}$)



¹H&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 .

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

Here, (9) 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.”

(10) **Such Rule (temporary):**³

$$\llbracket \text{such}_i \gamma \rrbracket^g = \lambda x_e . \llbracket \gamma \rrbracket^{[i \mapsto x] \parallel g}$$

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

(11) **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: $g = \left[\begin{array}{l} 3 \mapsto \text{John} \\ 11 \mapsto \text{Tama} \end{array} \right]$.

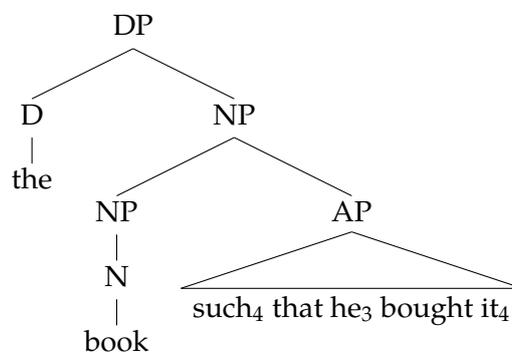
Assume $\llbracket \text{that} \rrbracket = \text{Id}$.

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.⁴

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

(12) ? the book such_4 that he_3 bought it_4

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



³“Such” does not have a type. That’s why it can only be interpreted using the *Such* Rule.

⁴For one, I’ve also seen very similar notation “ $g(x/a)$ ” for a function that maps x to a , which is the reverse of what H&K mean in their x/i .

4 Binding more or less than one variable

Binding multiple variables:

(13) ? This book is such₄ that he₃ bought it₄ and then gave it₄ to Sarah.

(14) ? every book such₄ that he₃ bought it₄ and then gave it₄ to Sarah

Binding no variables (vacuous binding):

(15) * This book is such₄ that today is Monday.

(16) * every book such₄ 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 Traces & Pronouns

(17) **The interpretation of movement (revised):** replaces the previous movement rule
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.

(18) **Traces and Pronouns Rule (T&P):** replaces Pronouns Rule in (2)
If α is a pronoun or trace, g is a variable assignment, and $g(i)$ is defined, then
 $\llbracket \alpha_i \rrbracket^g = g(i)$.

(19) **Predicate Abstraction (PA):** (H&K p. 186 version)
replaces previous rule for λ nodes in the tree and the *Such* Rule (10)⁵
Let α be a branching node with daughters β and γ , where β dominates only a numerical index i . Then, for any assignment g , $\llbracket \alpha \rrbracket^g = \lambda x . \llbracket \gamma \rrbracket^{[i \mapsto x]g}$.

We can use T&P and PA to compute a relative clause like (20). See tree on next page.

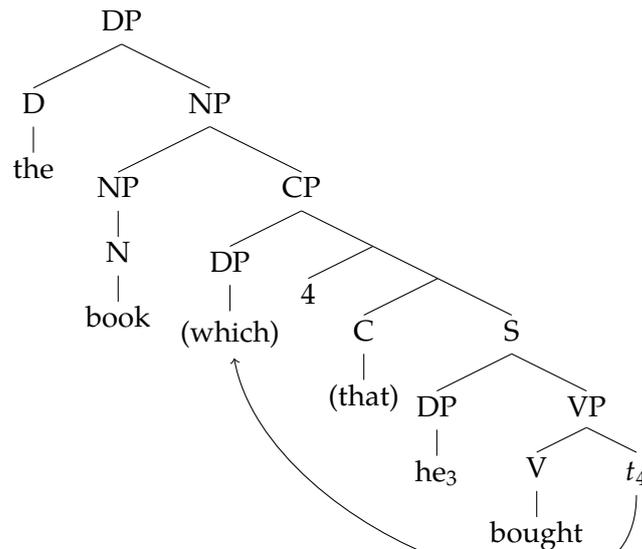
(20) the/every book that he₃ bought _____ (*he*₃ is free)

A motivation for thinking that traces and pronouns really are deeply related is the fact that relative clauses can simultaneously bind both traces and pronouns:

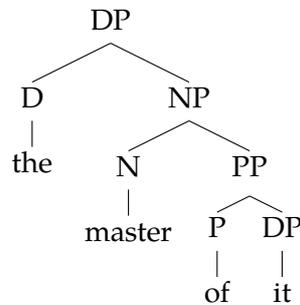
(21) the/every dog that greeted its(/his/her) master (Heim and Kratzer, 1998, p. 245)

Exercise: Compute (20) and (21).

⁵We can think of "such" as the pronunciation of a lexicalized binder index, not generated through movement.



Assume that "its master" is represented as "the master of it":



6 Variable binding

Quantifiers can also bind pronouns:

(22) Every boy loves his mother.

'Every boy is such that (x loves x 's mother).'

(23) No man noticed the snake next to him.

(Heim and Kratzer, 1998, p. 201)

'No man is such that (x noticed the snake next to x).'

Exercise: Compute (22) or (23). Notice that the VP-internal subject hypothesis makes a contribution.

Now consider the possible readings of (24):

- (24) A friend of his upset every boy.
- a. 'There is a friend of y that upset every boy.' ($his = y$ free)
 LF: [A friend of his₅] [7 [every boy] [6 t_7 upset t_6]]
- b. 'For every boy x , a friend of y upset x .' ($his = y$ free)
 LF: [Every boy] [3 [a friend of him₅] upset t_3]
- c. 'For every boy x , a friend of x upset x .' (his bound)
 LF: [Every boy] [3 [a friend of him₃] upset t_3]

► There is no surface scope reading (a friend > every boy) where his is bound.

7 Variable binding and scope

The examples in this section are from Fox (1999, p. 160), citing Lebeaux (1995).

- (25) a. [At least one soldier]₁ seems (to Napoleon) [t_1 to be likely t_1 to die in every battle].
 $\checkmark \forall > \exists, \checkmark \exists > \forall$
- b. [One soldier] is expected (by Napoleon) [t to die in every battle]. $\checkmark \forall > \exists, \checkmark \exists > \forall$

We could imagine the scope ambiguities above could involve (a) long QR of *every battle* and/or (b) reconstruction of the subject into a lower trace position. But notice:

- (26) a. [At least one soldier]₁ seems to himself₁ [t_1 to be likely t_1 to die in every battle].
 $*\forall > \exists, \checkmark \exists > \forall$
- b. [At least one soldier]₁ seems to his₁ commander(s) [t_1 to be likely t_1 to die in every battle].
 $*\forall > \exists, \checkmark \exists > \forall$
- c. [One soldier]₁ is expected by his₁ commander(s) [t_1 to die in every battle].
 $*\forall > \exists, \checkmark \exists > \forall$

► Variable binding requires the binding quantifier to take scope above the pronoun, restricting possibilities for scope-taking.

References

- Fox, Danny. 1999. Reconstruction, binding theory, and the interpretation of chains. *Linguistic Inquiry* 30:157–196.
- Heim, Irene, and Angelika Kratzer. 1998. *Semantics in generative grammar*. Malden, Massachusetts: Blackwell.

Lebeaux, David. 1995. Where does binding theory apply? In *University of Maryland working papers in linguistics* 3, 63–88.

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