Variables, pronouns, and scope

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:

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

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

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:

- (3) 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 .

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

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

- (5) Suppose *g* is a function and $g(3) = \text{Sam} \in D_e$.
 - a. $\llbracket him_3 \rrbracket^g = Sam$
 - b. $[John likes him_3]^g = 1$ iff John likes Sam

- **Q**: Does it matter what *g* returns for other values in (5)?
- 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:
- (6) a. He₂ thinks that he_2 is smart.
 - b. He_2 thinks that 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, [John]^f = John.

Warning: There's a section of H&K (pp. 92–109) where they just use notation like [[him]]^{John} = 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:

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

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

(8) Non-branching Nodes (NN):

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

(9) Functional Application (FA):

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

(10) **Predicate Modification (PM):**

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

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

4 *Such that* relatives

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

(11) [?] This book is such₄ that he₃ bought it₄. (g(3) = John)



Here, (11) does not seem assignment-dependent. But the Principle of Compositionality states that $[S_1]$ be computed based on the meaning of $[S_2]$, 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."

(12) Such Rule (temporary):³ $[[such_i \ \gamma]]^g = \lambda x_e \ . [[\gamma]]^{[i \mapsto x]||g|}$

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

(13) **Definition: function combination**

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

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

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

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

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

(14) [?] the book such₄ that he₃ bought it₄

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



Binding multiple variables:

- (15) [?] This book is such₄ that he_3 bought it₄ and then gave it₄ to Sarah.
- (16) [?] every book such₄ that he₃ bought it₄ and then gave it₄ to Sarah

Binding no variables (vacuous binding):

- (17) * This book is such₄ that today is Monday.
- (18) * 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

- (19) The interpretation of movement (revised): replaces last week's movement rulePick 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.
- (20) **Traces and Pronouns Rule (T&P):** replaces Pronouns Rule in (4) If α is a pronoun or trace, g is a variable assignment, and g(i) is defined, then $[\alpha_i]^g = g(i)$.
- (21) **Predicate Abstraction (PA):** (H&K p. 186 version)

replaces last week's rule for λ nodes in the tree and the *Such* Rule in (12)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, $[\![\alpha]\!]^g = \lambda x \cdot [\![\gamma]\!]^{[i \mapsto x]||g|}$.

what H&K mean in their x/i.

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

(22) the book that he₃ bought _____



Exercise: Compute (22).

6 Quantifier scope

(23) Everyone does not sleep (during class).

a. 1 iff
$$\forall x \in D_e \left[x \text{ is animate } \rightarrow \text{ it's not that } \underbrace{[x \text{ sleeps (during class)}]}_{\text{scope of not}} \right] \quad (\forall > not)$$

b. 1 iff it's not that $\left[\forall x \in D_e \ [x \text{ is animate } \rightarrow x \text{ sleeps (during class)}] \\ \underbrace{\forall x \in D_e \ [x \text{ is animate } \rightarrow x \text{ sleeps (during class)}]}_{\text{scope of } \forall} \right]_{\text{scope of } \forall}$
(not > \forall)

The two readings in (23) represent a *scope ambiguity*. There are two operators that "take scope"— \forall and negation—and one scope contains the other. We say \forall in (23a) takes *wider* scope, and write $\forall > not$ to indicate this.

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Recall from the problem set that there are advantages to adopting a VP-internal subject, interpreted through movement. We will adopt this here.







Exercise: Interpret this tree.

We call this the *inverse scope* interpretation. The process of "ignoring" movement at LF is called *syntactic reconstruction*.

References

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