

ACTL

INTRO TO FORMAL SEMANTICS

Lecture 1

17 October, 2014

Course info

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- All lecture material (including slides & homework) will be available on [Moodle](#)

Course info (cont.)

- This course is an introduction to **formal semantics**
 - Formal semantics uses **formal/mathematical/logical** concepts and techniques to study natural language semantics
 - Topics of this course: **quantification**
- Tentative plan
 - Lecture 1: Truth-conditions, compositionality
 - Lecture 2: Quantification in Predicate Logic vs. English
 - Lecture 3: Generalized Quantifiers
 - Lecture 4: Quantifier Scope
 - Lecture 5: Cross-linguistic variation, generics

What formal semanticists do

Syntax vs. Semantics

- **Syntax** = scientific study of **sentence structure**
 - Main data: **grammaticality judgments**
(= native speakers' intuitions about well-formedness)
 - Research questions include:
 - What are the principles behind the observed patterns of grammaticality judgments?
 - How do languages differ?
 - How do we acquire such knowledge?
- **Semantics** = scientific study of **meaning**
 - Main data: native speaker's intuitions about **meaning**
- **But what is meaning???**

Truth-conditional intuitions

- One important aspect of our semantic intuitions concerns the **truth** of declarative sentences

- A native speaker can tell when a given (grammatical) declarative sentence is **true** and when it is **false**

1) A yellow squirrel danced with a blue fox

- Truth-conditional intuitions underlie intuitions about

entailment:

- S_1 entails S_2 iff whenever S_1 is true, S_2 is also true

- e.g. 1) entails 2)

2) A squirrel danced with a fox

Truth-conditions

- To know the meaning of a sentence, you need to know its truth-conditions
 - **“A yellow squirrel danced with a blue fox”** is true if there is a yellow squirrel and a blue fox and the former danced with the latter; is false otherwise
 - Abbr.:
“A yellow squirrel danced with a blue fox” is true **iff** (=if and only if) there is a yellow squirrel and a blue fox and the former danced with the latter

Truth-conditions

- Generally,

“**S**” is true iff S is the case

- This looks trivial because so far the **object language** and **meta-language** are the same, i.e. English
- Consider a different object language. What are the truth-conditions of “**Aslan Tursundin igiz**” in Uyghur?
- In order to know the meaning of this sentence, you at least need to know its truth-conditions

Non-truth-conditional meanings

- NB: Truth-conditions are not everything there is to meaning!
 - Pragmatic inferences (incl. conversational implicatures)
 - 1) “Do you want to go to movies with us?”
“Well, I need to work” ~→ I cannot!
 - Conventional implicatures
 - 2) “Yasu is Japanese **but** rude”
~→ Japanese people are usually polite
- Proverbs/idioms, irony, etc. etc.

Syntax-semantics interface

- Q: What forms express what truth-conditional meanings?
(the form/syntax-meaning/semantics mapping)
- A native speaker knows the truth-conditions of sentences that they have not encountered before
 - 1) A pink squirrel kissed a transparent fox
 - 2) A transparent squirrel kissed a pink fox
- Since there are infinitely many such sentences, there must be some general mechanism that computes the truth-conditions of sentences based on their parts

Compositionality

- One way to make sense of this is the assumption that natural languages are **compositional**

- **The Principle of Compositionality:**

The meaning of a complex phrase (TP, VP, DP, etc.) is determined by

- the meanings of its parts; and
 - how they are combined
-
- E.g. if you know the meanings of “**pink**”, “**squirrel**” and how to put together, you know the meaning of “**pink squirrel**”

Compositional semantics

- We know the truth-conditions of sentences
- Assuming the principle of compositionality,
 - what kind of meanings do we need to assign to subsentential constituents? (e.g. “**pink squirrel**”)
 - what are the ways to combine such meanings?
- Formal semantics offers interesting answers to these questions
- It makes use of techniques developed by logicians to study artificial languages like Predicate Logic

Model-theoretic semantics

- The standard approach in formal semantics is called **model-theoretic**
- (alternatives include proof-theoretic semantics)
- In model-theoretic semantics, each phrase is given a meaning (called **denotation**) relative to a **model**
- A model is a set-theoretic structure of a certain kind, and is meant to represent a particular (possible) state of affairs
- The denotation of a phrase α relative to a model M is often written as $\llbracket \alpha \rrbracket^M$

Referring expressions

- For example, ‘referring expressions’ like proper names and definite descriptions are assigned **entities/individuals** as their denotations

• $\llbracket \text{David} \rrbracket^{M1} =$



$\llbracket \text{David} \rrbracket^{M2} =$



- And sentences are assigned **truth-values** (0/falsity or 1/truth)
 - $\llbracket \text{David is a football player} \rrbracket^{M1} = 0$
 - $\llbracket \text{David is a football player} \rrbracket^{M2} = 1$

Non-actual models

- A model represents a possible state of affairs and does not necessarily have to look like the actual state of affairs

• $\llbracket \text{David} \rrbracket^{M5} =$



• $\llbracket \text{David lives in Tuscany} \rrbracket^{M5} = 1$

Functional meanings

- The denotations of other kinds of phrases are generally taken to be **functions** of some kind, e.g.
 - $\llbracket [_{VP} \text{ speaks Hawaiian}] \rrbracket^M$ = the function that maps any entity x to 1 if x speaks Hawaiian in M , and to 0 if x does not speak Hawaiian in M
 - $\llbracket [_{VP} \text{ is British}] \rrbracket^M$ = the function that maps any entity x to 1 if x is British in M , and to 0 if x is not British in M
- (other non-functional semantic objects include degrees, time intervals, possible worlds, situations, etc. We won't discuss these in this course)

Frege's Conjecture

- Following Gottlob Frege's conjecture, it is assumed that meanings combine via **function application**
 - When two meanings combine, one of them is a function and the other one is its argument, and the result is the former applied to the latter

• i.e. $\left[\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{A} \\ \wedge \\ \mathbf{B} \quad \mathbf{C} \end{array} \right]^M = \llbracket \mathbf{B} \rrbracket^M (\llbracket \mathbf{C} \rrbracket^M) \text{ or } \llbracket \mathbf{C} \rrbracket^M (\llbracket \mathbf{B} \rrbracket^M)$

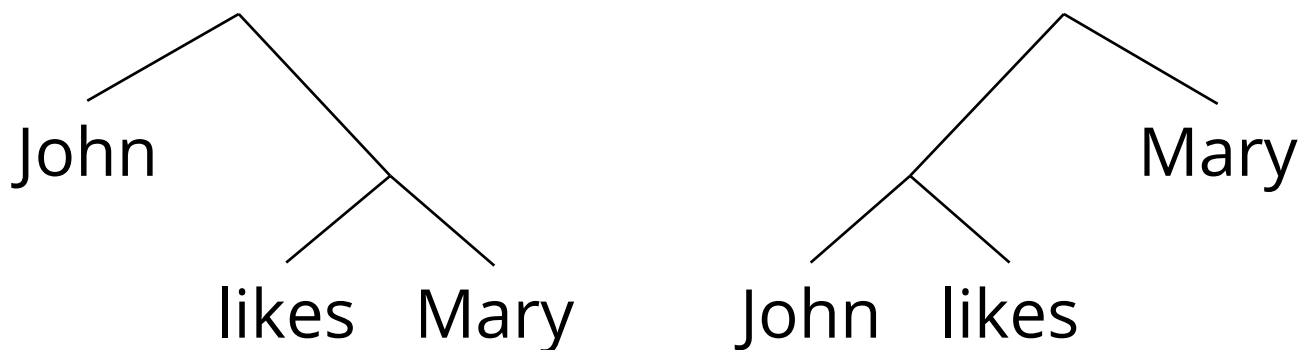
- E.g. $\llbracket \llbracket_{\text{TP}} \text{David} \llbracket_{\text{VP}} \text{is British} \rrbracket \rrbracket \rrbracket^{M1}$
= $\llbracket \llbracket_{\text{VP}} \text{is British} \rrbracket \rrbracket^{M1} (\llbracket \llbracket_{\text{TP}} \text{David} \rrbracket \rrbracket^{M1})$
= 1 if David Bowie is British in M1, and 0 otherwise

Expressions with constant denotations

- The denotations of expressions like “David” and “is British” vary across models
 - Who David is depends on the situation
 - Who is British depends on the situation
- But meanings of items like “and” and “every” should stay constant across models
- Formal semantics has lots of interesting things to say about such expressions
- In this course, we will analyze **quantificational expressions** like “every” and “no”

Role of syntax

- Semantics is inherently contingent on syntax
- If the structure were different, we would need to give different meanings
 - E.g., depending on which structure is right, we need a different semantics for “likes”



- We assume the kind of structure that syntacticians assume to be correct

Summary

- **Compositionality Principle**

The meaning of a complex phrase is determined by the meanings of its parts and how they are combined

- **Model-theoretic semantics** assigns each phrase a **denotation** relative to a **model**

- Meanings combine via **function application** (Frege's conjecture):

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{A} \\ \wedge \\ \mathbf{B} \quad \mathbf{C} \end{array} \right]^M = \llbracket \mathbf{B} \rrbracket^M (\llbracket \mathbf{C} \rrbracket^M) \text{ or } \llbracket \mathbf{C} \rrbracket^M (\llbracket \mathbf{B} \rrbracket^M)$$

- The resulting theory accounts for truth-conditions of arbitrary sentences (and their entailment patterns)

Quantification

Quantification

- Every natural language has **quantificational expressions** that are about ‘quantities’
 - 1) **One** syntactician bought **three** laptops
 - 2) **Every** semanticist speaks German
 - 3) **Few** phonologists are idiots
 - 4) **More** linguists **than** psychologists like teaching
 - 5) **20%** of the water is contaminated
 - 6) **Whenever** I come to UCL, I get depressed
 - 7) Honestly, I **often** go to Starbucks
 - 8) I am **required** to teach semantics

Quantification (cont.)

- If English didn't have quantificational expressions, how would you express the following?
 - 1) According to **one survey** of faculty salaries in **28 countries**, in **no country** are **academics** paid **as much as** their peers with **non-academic jobs**
- Quantification is essential to natural language and human cognition in general
 - How do natural languages express quantification?
 - How are the meanings of quantificational expressions acquired?

Syntax-semantics mapping

- Q: How do natural languages express quantification?
- English vs. Predicate Logic (see Lecture 2)
 - 1) a. No boy has a cat
b. $\neg \exists x[\text{boy}(x) \wedge \exists y[\text{cat}(y) \wedge \text{have}(x,y)]]$
 - 2) a. Every boy has a cat
b. $\forall x[\text{boy}(x) \Rightarrow \exists y[\text{cat}(y) \wedge \text{have}(x,y)]]$
- English vs. Japanese (see Lecture 5)
 - 3) **every** paper that **anybody** wrote
 - 4) **dare**-ga kaita **dono** ronbun-**mo**
who-nom wrote **which** article-??

Summary and look ahead

- **Key concepts**

- Truth-conditions
- Compositionality
- Quantification

- **Plan**

- Lecture 2: Quantification in Predicate Logic and how it differs from English
- Lecture 3: Generalized Quantifier Theory
- Lecture 4: Quantifier Scope
- Lecture 5: More on quantification in natural language