

Introduction to Hyperintensional Dynamic Semantics

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Review: Types of (Static) Hyperintensional Semantics

- Basic types from the logic:
 - t (truth values)
 - n (natural numbers)
- Basic static semantic types:
 - e (entities)
 - p (propositions)
- some nonbasic static semantic types:
 - $p_1 =_{\text{def}} e \rightarrow p$ (unary static properties)
 - $p_{n+1} =_{\text{def}} e \rightarrow p_n$ (n -ary static properties, $n > 1$)
 - $p_1 \rightarrow p$ (static generalized quantifiers)
 - $p_1 \rightarrow p_1 \rightarrow p$ (static determiners)

Review: Static Propositional Connectives and Quantifiers

- a. \vdash truth : p
- b. \vdash falsity : p
- c. \vdash not : $p \rightarrow \neg p$ (translates *it is not the case that*)
- d. \vdash and : $p \rightarrow q \rightarrow p \wedge q$ (translates *and*)
- e. \vdash or : $p \rightarrow q \rightarrow p \vee q$ (translates *or*)
- f. \vdash implies : $p \rightarrow q \rightarrow p \rightarrow q$ (translates episodic *if ... then*)
- g. \vdash exists_A : $(A \rightarrow p) \rightarrow p$
- h. \vdash forall_A : $(A \rightarrow p) \rightarrow p$
- i. \vdash entails : $p \rightarrow q \rightarrow p$
- j. $\vdash \equiv$: $p \rightarrow q \rightarrow q \rightarrow p$ (mutual entailment)

Axioms for Static Propositional Connectives

These axioms say that the type p is interpreted as a preboolean algebra relative to the entailment preorder. A is a type metavariable; p, q , and r variables of type p , x is of type A , and P of type $A \rightarrow p$.

- a. $\vdash \forall_p.p$ entails truth
- b. $\vdash \forall_p.\text{falsity}$ entails p
- c. $\vdash \forall_{p,q}.(p \text{ and } q)$ entails p
- d. $\vdash \forall_{p,q}.(p \text{ and } q)$ entails q
- e. $\vdash \forall_{p,q,r}((p \text{ entails } q) \wedge (p \text{ entails } r)) \rightarrow (p \text{ entails } (q \text{ and } r))$
- f. $\vdash \forall_{p,q}.p$ entails $(p \text{ or } q)$
- g. $\vdash \forall_{p,q}.q$ entails $(p \text{ or } q)$
- h. $\vdash \forall_{p,q,r}((p \text{ entails } r) \wedge (q \text{ entails } r)) \rightarrow ((p \text{ or } q) \text{ entails } r)$
- i. $\vdash \forall_{p,q}.(p \text{ implies } q) \text{ and } p$ entails q
- j. $\vdash \forall_{p,q,r}((r \text{ and } p) \text{ entails } q) \rightarrow (r \text{ entails } (p \text{ implies } q))$
- k. $\vdash \forall_p.(\text{not } p) \equiv (p \text{ implies falsity})$
- l. $\vdash \forall_p.(\text{not } (\text{not } p))$ entails p

Axioms for Static Propositional Quantifiers

- m. $\vdash \forall_x P.(P x)$ entails (exists P)
- n. $\vdash \forall_p P.(\forall_x.(P x)$ entails $p) \rightarrow ((\text{exists } P)$ entails $p)$
- o. $\vdash \forall_x P.(\text{forall } P)$ entails $(P x)$
- p. $\vdash \forall_p P.(\forall_x.p$ entails $(P x)) \rightarrow (p$ entails (forall $P))$

Review: Tonicity (1/2)

- Recall that if $\langle S, \sqsubseteq \rangle$ and $\langle P, \leq \rangle$ are two preordered sets, then $f : S \rightarrow P$ is called **monotonic** (resp. **antitonic**) iff for all $s, s' \in S$, if $s \sqsubseteq s'$ then $f(s) \leq f(s')$ (resp. $f(s') \leq f(s)$).
- f is called **tonic** if it is either monotonic or antitonic, and **atonic** otherwise.
- Linguists often say ‘upward monotonic’ for monotonic, and ‘downward monotonic’ for antitonic.

Review: Tonicity (2/2)

- If $f : S \rightarrow S \rightarrow P$ is a (curried) function, it is called **monotonic** (resp. **antitonic**) **in its first** (resp. **second**) **argument** iff, for each $r \in S$, the function $\lambda_s.f(s)(r)$ (resp. $\lambda_s.f(r)(s)$) is monotonic (resp. antitonic).
- The case we're interested in is where P is the set of (static) propositions (type p), \leq is entailment, S is the set of (static) properties (type $e \rightarrow p$), and \sqsubseteq is defined by

$$P \sqsubseteq Q =_{\text{def}} \forall x.(P \ x) \text{ entails } (Q \ x)$$

So the functions we are concerned with have type

$$(e \rightarrow p) \rightarrow (e \rightarrow p) \rightarrow p$$

namely, the type of (static) determiners.

Static Property Conjunction

- $\text{that} =_{\text{def}} \lambda_{PQx}.(P\ x) \text{ and } (Q\ x) : (e \rightarrow p) \rightarrow (e \rightarrow p) \rightarrow (e \rightarrow p)$
- Like propositional conjunction, static property conjunction is associative, commutative, and idempotent up to equivalence, i.e. for any three static properties P, Q, R :

$$(P \text{ that } Q) \text{ that } R \equiv P \text{ that } (Q \text{ that } R)$$

$$(P \text{ that } Q) \equiv Q \text{ that } P$$

$$(P \text{ that } P) \equiv P$$

Static Conservativity

- A static determiner d is called **(statically) conservative** iff, for all P, Q ,

$$(d P Q) \equiv (d P (P \text{ that } Q))$$

- Natural language static determiners are conservative, e.g.
A donkey brays iff a donkey is a donkey that brays.
Every donkey brays iff every donkey is a donkey that brays.
No donkey brays iff no donkey is a donkey that brays, etc.

Tonicity of Static Determiners

A static determiner is called:

$\uparrow \uparrow$ iff it is monotonic in both arguments

$\uparrow \downarrow$ iff it is monotonic in the first argument and antitonic in the second

$\downarrow \uparrow$ iff it is antitonic in the first argument and monotonic in the second

$\downarrow \downarrow$ iff it is antitonic in both arguments

$\uparrow \downarrow \uparrow$ iff it is atonic in the first argument and monotonic in the second.

Examples

$\uparrow \uparrow$ determiners: *a, some, several, many, at least n*

$\uparrow \downarrow$ determiners: *not every, not all*

$\downarrow \uparrow$ determiners: *every, all*

$\downarrow \downarrow$ determiners: *no, few, at most n*

$\uparrow \downarrow \uparrow$ determiner: *most*

Testing Tonicity of Determiners

The following (dis-)entailments are characteristic of a $\nabla \downarrow \uparrow$ determiner:

Most donkeys bray and snort entails *Most donkeys bray*.

Most donkeys bray does not entail *Most brown donkeys bray*.

Most brown donkeys bray does not entail *Most donkeys bray*.

Readings of *d farmer that owns a donkey beats it*

- Weak: *d farmer that owns a donkey owns a donkey and beats it* *or*
d farmer that owns a donkey beats a donkey that he owns
- Strong: *d farmer that owns a donkey beats every donkey that he owns*
- E-type: *d farmer that owns a donkey beats the donkey that he owns*
- Pair-quantification: For *d* pairs $\langle x, y \rangle$ where *x* is a farmer, *y* is a donkey, and *x* owns *y*, *x* beats *y*

Note: as we'll see, for some determiners, two or more of these readings might have identical truth conditions.

Which determiners allow which readings?

Why?

Conservativization

- We define

$$\mathbf{conserv} : ((e \rightarrow p) \rightarrow (e \rightarrow p) \rightarrow p) \rightarrow (e \rightarrow p) \rightarrow (e \rightarrow p) \rightarrow p$$

as follows:

$$\mathbf{conserv} =_{\text{def}} \lambda_{dPQ}.d P (P \text{ that } Q)$$

- Observations:
 - For all d , $\mathbf{conserv} d$ is conservative.
 - If d is conservative, then $\mathbf{conserv} d \equiv d$
 - $\mathbf{conserv}$ is idempotent u.t.e..
 - The notion of conservativity does *not* carry over straightforwardly to the dynamic setting.

The Uniqueness Condition

- The **uniqueness** condition is that no farmer own more than one donkey.
- If the uniqueness condition is satisfied, then the e-type reading gives the right truth conditions.
- But it's not clear what to say about the e-type reading when the uniqueness condition is *not* satisfied.
- Also, usually there is not much reason to think the uniqueness condition *is* satisfied.

The Consistency Condition

- The **consistency** condition is that every donkey-owning farmer treats all his donkeys the same way.
- Obviously the uniqueness condition is a special case of the consistency condition.
- When the consistency condition is satisfied, the weak and strong reading coincide and give the intuitively correct truth conditions.
- In the special case of uniqueness, the e-type reading coincides with these also.

The Pair-Quantification Reading

- This is the reading predicted by classical DRT/FCS.
- It coincides with the strong reading for $d = \textit{every}$.
- It coincides with the weak reading when $d = \textit{no}$, \textit{some} , or \textit{a} .
- It doesn't work at all for $d = \textit{most}$.
- Also, it doesn't work at all for $d = \textit{at least two}$, so the failure of the pair-quantification reading is not merely an issue of 'proportion'.
- In fact, the pair-quantification reading fails for nearly all determiners.
- Based on these considerations and the ones above about the e-type reading, Kanazawa suggests abandoning both the pair-quantification reading and the e-type reading as playing any role in the interpretation of donkey sentences.

Summary of Kanazawa's Empirical Claims (1/2)

- The interpretation of a donkey sentence is given by either the weak or the strong reading.
- The choice of determiner is the main factor that affects which readings are possible.
- More specifically, the key factor is the tonicity of the determiner.

Summary of Kanazawa's Empirical Claims (2/2)

- $\uparrow\uparrow$ determiners (*a, some, several, many, at least n*): weak reading only.
- $\downarrow\downarrow$ determiners (*no, few, at most n*): weak reading only.
- $\downarrow\uparrow$ determiners (*every, all*): strong reading preferred.
- $\uparrow\downarrow$ determiners (*not every, not all*): strong reading preferred?
- $\uparrow\downarrow\uparrow$ determiner (*most*): both readings possible:
Most people that owned a slave also owned his offspring.
(strong reading preferred)
Most men that have a quarter put it in the parking meter.
(weak reading preferred).

Where we are Going with This

- We accept Kanazawa's arguments for ignoring the e-type and pair-quantification readings.
- We agree with Kanazawa that for *most*, both weak and strong readings are available.
- But we reject his claim that the strong reading is 'preferred' for *every*.
- It seems that the strong reading for *every* and *most* is favored in cases where there is good reason to assume the consistency condition is satisfied.
- And so, we conclude that the only reading generated by the grammar should be the *weak* reading.
- Apparent strong 'readings' arise via pragmatic inference (e.g. based on consistency assumptions).
- We'll implement a weak-reading-only analysis of donkey sentences within **hyperintensional dynamic semantics (HDS)**.

Types for Contexts in HDS

- $c_\emptyset =_{\text{def}} p$ (nullary contexts)
- $c_n =_{\text{def}} e^n \rightarrow p$ (n -ary contexts, $n > 0$)

Example: the output context from an utterance in the (unrealistic!) null input context *truth of a farmer beats a donkey* is the binary context

$$\lambda_{x,y}.(\text{farmer } x) \text{ and } (\text{donkey } y) \text{ and } (\text{beat } x \ y)$$

- $c =_{\text{def}} \coprod_{n \in \mathbb{N}}.c_n$ (contexts)
- For $c \in c_n$, $|c| =_{\text{def}} n$ is the number of active discourse referents (DRs) in c .

About HDS Contexts

- Our contexts correspond roughly to Lewis/Stalnaker/Heim common grounds (CGs).
- The abstraction represents *indeterminacy* about the identity of the entities that the CG is about.
- Using abstraction rather than existential quantification obviates the need for scope extension or continuations to render DRs accessible for subsequent anaphora.
- It is also in the spirit of DRT and FCS that indefinites are fundamentally *nonquantificational*—a property shared with definites—though they have the same *type* as quantificational NPs.

Proffered Contents and Context Changes

- The type for proffered contents of declarative sentences and their associated context changes is:

$$k =_{\text{def}} c \rightarrow c$$

- For each proffered content $k \in k$, there is a natural number $|k|$ such that for every c in the domain of k ,

$$|k c| = |c| + |k|$$

Intuitively, $|k|$ is the number of discourse referents (DRs) that k introduces.

Dynamic Conjunction of Proffered Contents

- $\text{AND} : k \rightarrow k \rightarrow k$ is defined as follows:

$$k \text{ AND } h =_{\text{def}} \lambda_{c|(k \downarrow c) \wedge (h \downarrow (\text{cc } k \text{ } c))} \cdot \lambda_{\mathbf{x}|c, \mathbf{y}|k, \mathbf{z}|h} \cdot (k \text{ } c \text{ } \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \text{ and } (h \text{ } (\text{cc } k \text{ } c) \text{ } \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z})$$

- the function $\text{cc} : k \rightarrow k$ mapping proffered contents to their associated context changes is defined as follows:

$$\text{cc } k =_{\text{def}} \lambda_{c|k \downarrow c} \cdot \lambda_{\mathbf{x}|c, \mathbf{y}|k} \cdot (c \text{ } \mathbf{x}) \text{ and } (k \text{ } c \text{ } \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$$

The first conjunct is the carryover from the input context, and the second is the contribution from the proffered content itself.

- We can use cc to relate dynamic conjunction of proffered contents to composition of context changes:

$$o \vdash \forall_{kh} \cdot \text{cc } (k \text{ AND } h) = (\text{cc } k); (\text{cc } h)$$

Other Dynamic Semantic Types

- unary dynamic properties: $d_1 =_{\text{def}} n \rightarrow k$
- n -ary dynamic properties ($n > 1$) $d_{n+1} =_{\text{def}} n \rightarrow d_n$
- dynamic generalized quantifiers: $d_1 \rightarrow k$
- dynamic determiners: $d_1 \rightarrow d_1 \rightarrow k$

Dynamicization of Properties (1/2)

Dynamic properties can be defined by applying a **dynamicization** function $\mathbf{dyn}_n : p_n \rightarrow d_n$ to the static counterpart. For $n < 3$ these are:

$$\mathbf{dyn}_0 p =_{\text{def}} \lambda_c \lambda_{\mathbf{x}|c|} \cdot p$$

$$\mathbf{dyn}_1 P =_{\text{def}} \lambda_m \cdot \lambda_{c||c|>m} \cdot \lambda_{\mathbf{x}|c|} \cdot P \ x_m$$

$$\mathbf{dyn}_2 R =_{\text{def}} \lambda_{mn} \cdot \lambda_{c||c|>m,n} \cdot \lambda_{\mathbf{x}|c|} \cdot R \ x_m \ x_n$$

Dynamicization of Properties (2/2)

Examples:

$\text{COLD} =_{\text{def}} \mathbf{dyn}_0 \text{ cold} = \lambda_c. \lambda_{\mathbf{x}|c|}. \text{cold}$

$\text{DONKEY} =_{\text{def}} \mathbf{dyn}_1 \text{ donkey} = \lambda_m. \lambda_{c||c|>m}. \lambda_{\mathbf{x}|c|}. \text{donkey } x_m$

$\text{BEAT} =_{\text{def}} \mathbf{dyn}_2 \text{ beat} = \lambda_{mn}. \lambda_{c||c|>m,n}. \lambda_{\mathbf{x}|c|}. \text{beat } x_m x_n$

Dynamic Conjunction of Dynamic Properties

THAT : $d_I \rightarrow d_I \rightarrow d_I$ is defined as follows:

$$D \text{ THAT } E =_{\text{def}} \lambda_n.(D \ n) \text{ AND } (E \ n)$$

Unlike their static counterparts, dynamic conjunction (of both proffered contents and dynamic properties) are *not* commutative or idempotent u.t.e. (though they *are* associative u.t.e.).

That's because the two conjuncts are evaluated in different contexts.

As a consequence, the notion of conservativity does not transfer straightforwardly to the dynamic setting.

But maybe we won't need it?

Review of Dynamic Negation

Dynamic negation of proffered contents $\text{NOT} : k \rightarrow k$ is defined by $\text{NOT } k =_{\text{def}} :$

$$\begin{aligned} & \lambda_{c|k} \downarrow c . \lambda_{\mathbf{x}|c} . \text{not } (k \text{ } c \text{ } \mathbf{x}) \text{ (for } |k| = 0) \\ & \lambda_{c|k} \downarrow c . \lambda_{\mathbf{x}|c} . \text{not } (\text{exists}_{\mathbf{y}|k} . (k \text{ } c \text{ } \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})) \text{ (for } |k| > 0) \end{aligned}$$

And dynamic negation of dynamic properties $\text{NON} : d_1 \rightarrow d_1$ is defined as follows:

$$\text{NON } D =_{\text{def}} \lambda_n . \text{NOT } (D \text{ } n)$$

Dynamic Double Negation

- Dynamically negated proffered contents do not introduce any DRs:

$$\vdash \forall_k. |\text{NOT } k| = 0$$

- If $|k| = 0$, then

$$\vdash \text{NOT } (\text{NOT } k) \equiv k$$

- If $|k| = m > 0$, then

$$\vdash \text{NOT } (\text{NOT } k) \not\equiv k$$

- More specifically:

$$\vdash \text{NOT } (\text{NOT } k) \equiv \lambda_{c|k| \downarrow c}. \lambda_{\mathbf{x}|c|}. \text{exists}_{\mathbf{y}^m}. k \ c \ \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}$$

That is, dynamic double negation of a proffered content has the effect of (statically) existentially binding all the DRs that it introduces.

And another Thing ...

We define a function $^+ : c \rightarrow c$ that adds a new DR to an arbitrary context:

$$c^+ =_{\text{def}} \lambda_{\mathbf{x}|c|,y}.c \mathbf{x}$$

The Dynamic ‘Existential’ Quantifier

- The dynamic generalized quantifier EXISTS is defined as follows:

$$\text{EXISTS } D =_{\text{def}} \lambda_{c|(D \ |c|)\downarrow c^+}.D \ |c| \ c^+$$

- Crucially, the new DR $|c|$ depends on c , which is λ -bound but *not* existentially bound, just as in DRT and FCS.
- So there is no need for any kind of scope extension mechanism, or for continuations.

Example:

$$\text{EXISTS DONKEY} = \lambda_c.\lambda_{x|c|,y}.\text{donkey } y$$

Two Dynamic Determiners

- the dynamic indefinite determiner:

$$A D E =_{\text{def}} \text{ EXISTS } (D \text{ THAT } E)$$

- the dynamic negative determiner:

$$\text{NO } D E =_{\text{def}} \text{ NOT } (A D E)$$

- *Examples:*

$$\begin{aligned} & A \text{ donkey brays } \rightsquigarrow \\ A \text{ DONKEY BRAY} &= \lambda_c. \lambda_{\mathbf{x}|c}. \lambda_{y}. (\text{donkey } y) \text{ and } (\text{bray } y) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{No donkey brays } \rightsquigarrow \\ \text{NO DONKEY BRAY} &= \\ & \lambda_c. \lambda_{\mathbf{x}|c}. \text{not}(\text{exists}_y. (\text{donkey } y) \text{ and } (\text{bray } y)) \end{aligned}$$

The Definite Pronoun *It*, Intuitively

- Here's the intuition:
 - a. The definite pronoun *it* 'picks up' a DR, the 'antecedent', already in the input context.
 - b. The antecedent is practically entailed by the context to satisfy the 'descriptive content' of the pronoun (in this case, roughly speaking, being nonhuman).
 - c. In using the pronoun, the speaker publicly certifies that the context provides sufficient information for the addressee to resolve *which* DR is the antecedent.
- We handle (a) and (b) in the semantics of the pronoun.
- We dodge the pragmatic issues posed by (c) (the anaphoricity, or retrievability, or contextual felicity) by treating the pronoun as *ambiguous* with respect to which DR is its antecedent.

The Definite Pronoun *It*, Formally

- For each i , $it \rightsquigarrow$

$$\lambda_D \cdot \lambda_{c|(|c|>i) \wedge (c \text{ pentails } \lambda_{\mathbf{x}|c|} \cdot \text{nonhuman } x_i)} \cdot D \ i \ c$$

- These meanings are dynamic generalized quantifiers.
- Thus pronouns (like other definite NPs, and like indefinite NPs), have the same semantic type as quantificational NPs, even though there is nothing quantificational about them.
- *Example: It brays* $\rightsquigarrow IT_i \text{ BRAY} =$

$$\lambda_{c|(|c|>i) \wedge (c \text{ pentails } \lambda_{\mathbf{x}|c|} \cdot \text{nonhuman } x_i)} \cdot \lambda_{\mathbf{x}|c|} \cdot \text{bray } x_i$$

Two Unambiguous Donkey Sentences

- *A farmer that owns a donkey beats it* \rightsquigarrow

$A (\text{FARMER THAT}(\lambda_m.\text{A DONKEY (OWN } m))) (\lambda_m.\text{IT}_i (\text{BEAT } m)) =$
 $\lambda_c.\lambda_{\mathbf{x}|c|,y,z}.\text{(farmer } y) \text{ and (donkey } z) \text{ and (own } y z) \text{ and (beat } y w))$

where w is the i -th component of the tuple \mathbf{x} , y , z . When
 $i = |c| + 1$, then $w = z$ and we get:

$\lambda_c.\lambda_{\mathbf{x}|c|,y,z}.\text{(farmer } y) \text{ and (donkey } z) \text{ and (own } y z) \text{ and (beat } y z))$

- *No farmer that owns a donkey beats it* \rightsquigarrow

$\lambda_c.\lambda_{\mathbf{x}|c|}.\text{not(exists}_{y,z}.\text{(farmer } y) \text{ and (donkey } z) \text{ and (own } y z) \text{ and (b$

- These are the desired readings.

Two Donkey Sentences with Weak and Strong Readings

- a. *Every farmer that owns a donkey beats it.*
- b. *Most farmers that own a donkey beat it.*

How should we analyze these?

A First Attempt (1/2)

- An obvious analysis of *every* is to use a traditional semantics of which yields the strong reading:

$$\text{EVERY}_s =_{\text{def}} \lambda_{DE}.\text{NOT} (\text{A } D (\text{NON } E)) =$$

and then apply (the dynamic counterpart of) the conservativization operator to it to get another semantics for *every* that yields the weak reading:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{EVERY}_w =_{\text{def}} \lambda_{DE}.\text{NOT} (\text{A } D (\text{NON} (D \text{ THAT } E))) = \\ \lambda_{DE}.\text{NOT} (\text{EXISTS} (D \text{ THAT} (\text{NON} (D \text{ THAT } E)))) \end{aligned}$$

- But this strategy doesn't generalize to the case of *most*.

A First Attempt (2/2)

- Additionally, there's a technical problem (pointed out by Chierchia) of 'donkey doubling' arising from the fact that the weak reading of (a) is essentially analyzed as *every farmer that owns a donkey is a farmer that owns a donkey and beats it*: we end up with two different donkey DRs, and the pronoun can resolve to either one of them!
- Instead, we posit meanings for *every* and *most* that yield weak readings, and assume that the strong readings arise via pragmatic inference in the presence of background assumptions of consistency.

Weak *Every*

- we start with the previous definition of weak *every* and eliminate the ‘donkey doubling’ problem by doubly negating the restriction to prevent any DRs introduced in the relative clause from getting passed into the scope:

$$\text{EVERY}_w =_{\text{def}}$$

$$\lambda_{DE}.\text{NOT} (\text{A} (\text{NON} (\text{NON} D)) (\text{NON} (D \text{ THAT } E))) = \\ \lambda_{DE}.\text{NOT} (\text{EXISTS} ((\text{NON} (\text{NON} D)) \text{ THAT}(\text{NON} (D \text{ THAT } E))))$$

- This yields the right reading and solves the donkey doubling problem, but it has a kind of hokey, arbitrary look to it.
- How can we justify this theoretically?

Justifying Weak *Every* (1/2)

- We use as our model the natural hyperintensional generalization of Montague's definition for static *every*:

$$\text{every} =_{\text{def}} \lambda_{PQ}.\text{forall}_x.((P\ x)\ \text{implies}\ (Q\ x))$$

- Thus, we define:

$$\text{EVERY} =_{\text{def}} \lambda_{DE}.\text{FORALL}_n.((D\ n)\ \text{IMPLIES}\ (E\ n))$$

- Here the dynamic universal quantifier is defined as expected:

$$\text{FORALL} =_{\text{def}} \lambda_D.\text{NOT}\ (\text{EXISTS}\ (\text{NON}\ D))$$

- And dynamic implication, also as expected, is defined so that presuppositions of the consequent can be satisfied from the antecedent:

$$\text{IMPLIES} =_{\text{def}} \lambda_{kh}.\text{NOT}\ k\ \text{OR}\ (k\ \text{AND}\ h)$$

- Here dynamic disjunction is defined as in DMG:

$$\text{OR} =_{\text{def}} \lambda_{kh}.\text{NOT}\ ((\text{NOT}\ k)\ \text{AND}\ (\text{NOT}\ h))$$

Justifying Weak *Every* (2/2)

- From these definitions, we establish:

$$\text{EVERY} =_{\text{def}} \lambda_{DE}.\text{NOT} \\ (\text{EXISTS}_n(\text{NOT}(\text{NOT}(\text{NOT}(\text{NOT}(D\ n))))\text{AND}(\text{NOT}((D\ n)\text{AND}(E\ n))))$$

- But because the outer double negation is eliminable (why?), this is equivalent to

$$\lambda_{DE}.\text{NOT}(\text{EXISTS}_n((\text{NOT}(\text{NOT}(D\ n)))\text{AND}(\text{NOT}((D\ n)\text{AND}(E\ n)))) \\ \lambda_{DE}.\text{NOT}(\text{EXISTS}((\text{NON}(\text{NON}\ D))\ \text{THAT}(\text{NON}(D\ \text{THAT}\ E))))$$

which coincides with the amended semantics of weak *every*.