

# Semantic Theory Presuppositions (and Implicatures)

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(partly based on slides by Ivana Kruiff-Korbayova)

## A Reminder

### Final Exam:

The deadline for registration is 29.06.07

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## Three Levels of Meaning

- Assertions / truth-conditions
- **Conversational Implicatures**  
inferences that arise from observing or flouting the cooperative principle and conversational maxims.
- **Presuppositions**  
the requirements that the context must satisfy for the utterance to be interpretable at all.

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## Definite Descriptions

- An approximate meaning representation of definite noun phrases (definite descriptions) says that there is exactly one individual with a certain property:
  - *the*  
 $\Rightarrow \lambda F \lambda G \exists x (\forall y (F(y) \rightarrow x = y) \wedge G(x))$   
 $\Leftrightarrow \lambda F \lambda G \exists x (F(x) \wedge \forall y (F(y) \rightarrow x = y) \wedge G(x))$
  - *the chancellor*  
 $\Rightarrow \lambda G \exists x (\forall y (\text{chancellor}'(y) \rightarrow x = y) \wedge G(x))$
  - *the chancellor decides*  
 $\Rightarrow \exists x (\forall y (\text{chancellor}'(y) \rightarrow x = y) \wedge \text{decide}'(x))$
  - "there is exactly one chancellor, and he decides"

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## Definite Descriptions and Negations

- *It is not the case that the chancellor decides*
- A compositional analysis of the sentence leads to
  - $\neg\exists x(\forall y(\text{chancellor}'(y) \rightarrow x = y) \wedge \text{decide}'(x))$

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## Definite Descriptions and Negations

- *It is not the case that the chancellor decides*
- A compositional analysis of the sentence leads to
  - $\neg\exists x(\forall y(\text{chancellor}'(y) \rightarrow x = y) \wedge \text{decide}'(x))$
  - “Either there is no chancellor, or more than one, or there is exactly one chancellor and he doesn’t decide.”
- A correct representation for the sentence:
  - $\exists x(\forall y(\text{chancellor}'(y) \rightarrow x = y) \wedge \neg\text{decides}'(x))$
  - “There is exactly one chancellor, and he doesn’t decide.”

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## Presuppositions

- A sentence (containing a definite description) contains meaning information of two different types: the **presupposition** and the **assertion**.
  - **Presupposition**: the requirements that the context must satisfy so the utterance can be interpreted at all.
  - **Assertion**: the claims that are made, based on the context.
- *The chancellor decides*
  - $\exists x(\forall y(\text{chancellor}'(y) \rightarrow x=y) \wedge \text{decides}'(x))$
  - “There is exactly one chancellor, and he decides.”

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## Presuppositions and Negation

- Negation only applies to the assertion.
- The presupposition isn’t negated. It is projected “upwards,” outside of the usual rules of semantic composition.
  - $\exists x(\forall y(\text{chancellor}'(y) \rightarrow x=y) \wedge \neg\text{decides}'(x))$
  - “There is exactly one chancellor, and he doesn’t decide.”
- Such a “survival” of negation is the standard test for presuppositions: A sentence *S* presupposes *P* if *P* “follows” from both *S* and *it is not the case that S*.

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## Presupposition Triggers

- Definite noun phrases  
*The chancellor decides*  
>> *There is a chancellor* (and (s)he decides)
- Factive verbs  
*John regrets that Pola is married.*  
>> *Pola is married* (and John regrets that)
- Implicative verbs  
*John forgot to close the door.*  
>> *John intended to close the door.*

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## Presupposition Triggers

- Aspect  
*John has **stopped** smoking.*  
>> *John used to smoke* (and he has stopped doing it)  
*John opened the window **again**.*  
>> *John had already opened the window before* (repetitive)  
>> *The window was open before* (restitutive)
- Appositions / non-restrictive relative clauses.  
*John, a good friend of mine, studies CL.*  
>> *John is a good friend of mine* (and he studies CL).

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## Presupposition Triggers

- It-Clefts  
*It was John who ate the cake.*  
>> *Somebody ate the cake* (and it was John who did this)
- Sentence particles  
*Only John came to the party*  
>> *John came to the party* (and nobody else did).

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## Presupposition Projection

- Presuppositions “survive” not only negation, but also other kinds of embeddings
  - *The chancellor decides, **or** the states' prime ministers are responsible for decisions*  
>> There is a (exactly one) chancellor.
  - *John **possibly** regrets that Mary is married.*  
>> Mary is married.
  - *Mary **believes** that John has stopped smoking.*  
>> John used to smoke.

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## Presupposition Filtering

- But there are contexts that can “neutralise” or filter some presuppositions: they block projection of these presuppositions.
- *If John is out of town, then **his wife** is unhappy.*
  - presupposes: John is married / has a wife
- *If John is married, then **his wife** is unhappy.*
  - does not presuppose: John is married
- *If John is married, then **his daughter** is unhappy.*
  - presupposes: John has a daughter.

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## Presupposition Cancellation

- In the context of negation, presuppositions can be overwritten or “cancelled” by explicitly claiming that they are false:
- *John doesn't regret that Mary is married. Mary has no husband, and John knows about that.*
- *The king of France isn't bald. France is a republic.*

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## Detachability

- Presuppositions of sentences are generally detachable, i.e. it is possible to find another sentence expressing the same meaning but lacking the presupposition.
- *It wasn't John who ate the cake.*  
*John didn't eat the cake.*

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## Presuppositions: Summary

- Presuppositions are **triggered** by a number of different words and linguistic constructions, including definite noun phrases.
- Presuppositions behave differently than assertions in semantics construction: They are typically **projected unchanged**, rather than used in functional application.
- Projected presuppositions can be **filtered** in the semantic composition process, and can be **cancelled** by contextual knowledge.

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## Conversational Implicatures

- Basic claim: there is a set of “guidelines” for effective and rational use of language:
  - A general [cooperative principle](#)
  - Plus four [maxims of conversations](#)
- Conversational implicatures are inferences that arise from observing or flouting these rules.

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## Conversational Implicatures

- **The Cooperative Principle:**  
Make your contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged.
- **Four maxims of conversation:**  
Quality, Quantity, Relevance, Manner

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## Maxims of Conversation

- **Maxim of Quality:**  
Try to make your contribution one that is true, specifically:
  - do not say what you believe to be false
  - do not say that for which you lack evidence
- **Maxim of Quantity:**
  - Make your contribution as informative as is required for the current purposes of the exchange
  - Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.

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## Maxims of Conversation

- **Maxim of Relevance:**  
Make your contribution relevant
- **Maxim of Manner:**  
Be perspicuous, specifically:
  - avoid obscurity
  - avoid ambiguity
  - be brief (avoid prolixity)
  - be orderly

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## Conversational Implicatures

- Conversational implicatures (CI) are inferences beyond the semantic content of utterances that are derived from
  - i. adherence to the maxims (standard CIs)
  - ii. flouting or exploiting the maxims (non-standard CIs)

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## Examples

*A: I am out of petrol.*

*B: There's a garage just around the corner*

- implicature: it is open / A may obtain gas there
- B would infringe the maxim 'be relevant' unless he thinks that the garage is open and has petrol to sell.

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## Examples

*A: Where does C live?*

*B: Somewhere in the South of France.*

- Implicature: B does not know in which town C lives
- B's answer is less informative than required. This infringement of the maxim of quantity can only be explained by the supposition that being more informative would infringe the maxim of quality.

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## Further Examples

- Some of the boys went to the party
- Implicature: Not all of the boys went to the party
  
- You might have a cookie or an ice cream
- Implicature: ... but not both

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## Standard CIs

- If maxims can be assumed by hearer H to be observed by speaker S and S relies on H to amplify what's said by inference, the inferences drawn are called **standard CIs**.

A: *I am out of patrol*

B: *There's a garage just around the corner*

- implicature: it is open / A may obtain gas there

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## Non-standard CIs

- If S flouts the maxims in an obvious and deliberate way, H still assumes cooperation and draws the inferences needed to explain this violation. These are non-standard CIs.

A: *Where is Bill?*

B: *There's a yellow VW outside Sally's house.*

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## Properties of Conversational Implicatures

- Conversational implicatures are ...
  - Defeasible
  - Calculable
  - Non-conventional
  - Non-detachable

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## Defeasability

- An inference is defeasible if it is possible to cancel it by adding new premises to the original ones.
  - *John has three children*
    - truth-conditions: "at least three"
    - SCI: "at most three" (maxim of quantity)
  - *Has John two children?*
    - *Yes, even three.*
    - *John has two children, if not three.*
- The SCI that John has two children is explicitly cancelled.

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## Non-Detachability

- An inference is non-detachable if it is attached to the semantic content of what is said rather than to its linguistic form.
- That is, the same conversational implicatures hold for synonymous expressions e.g. the ironic interpretation of:
  - John is a genius.
  - John is a big brain.
  - John is an exceptionally clever human being.
  - NCSI: John is an idiot.

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## Calculatability

- Conversational implicatures are calculable in that it is possible to construct an argument of the type described above, showing how from
  - (i) the literal meaning of the utterance and
  - (ii) the cooperative principle and
  - (iii) the maxims,
- it follows that the hearer would make the inference in question to preserve the assumption of cooperation.

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## Non-Conventionality

- Conversational implicatures are non-conventional in that they are not part of the conventional meaning of an utterance. This is because:
  - CIs are defeasible (truth-conditional meaning isn't).
  - The literal meaning of an utterance needs to be known before its CIs can be computed
  - An utterance can be true while its CI is false

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