Logical Grammar: More Linear Grammar

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Where Do Predicative NPs Come From? (1/2)

- In order for sentences like *Chiquita is lazy* to get the right semantics, the predicational copula must predicate its complement's meaning to its subject's meaning.
- And so its own meaning must be the **predication** combinator $prd =_{def} \lambda_{xP} \cdot Px$:

 $\vdash \lambda_{st}.s \cdot \mathrm{is} \cdot t; A \multimap (A \multimap \mathrm{Prd}) \multimap \mathrm{S}; \mathsf{prd} \ (A \le \mathrm{NOM})$

But this won't work if the complement is an NP such as *Burrita*; we need a version of *Burrita* (or any other NP that could occur postcopularly) that has tectotype PrdN and a property meaning, in the present case $\lambda_x \cdot x$ equals b, where equals : $e \rightarrow e \rightarrow p$ is subject to the meaning postulate:

$$\vdash \forall_{xyw}.(x \text{ equals } y)@w \leftrightarrow (x = y)$$

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Where Do Predicative NPs Come From? (2/2)

There are a couple of ways to manage this, which are logically indistinguishable (because they are mutually derivable):

1. a nonlogical rule:

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash a; \operatorname{Neu}; b}{\Gamma \vdash a; \operatorname{PRO} \multimap \operatorname{PrdN}; \operatorname{\mathsf{equals}} b}$$

This is likely to look bad to a linguist because they expect rules to be general (or, in logical terms, schematic).

2. a lexical entry:

 $\vdash \lambda_s.s; \text{Neu} \multimap \text{PRO} \multimap \text{PrdN}; \text{equals}$

Lexical entries like this are reminiscent of 'null functional heads' in the transformational tradition.

Either way we can derive:

 $\vdash chiquita \cdot is \cdot burrita; S; \texttt{c} \text{ equals } \texttt{b}$

The term 'prepositional phrase' is used for (at least) three different kinds of expressions in English:

- 1. Pedro depends on Chiquita. (semantically vacuous)
- 2. **On Chiquita** is Pepito's favorite place to be. (refers to a location (spatiotemporal region))
- 3. Pepito is on Chiquita. (predicates being at a location)

Semantically Vacuous Prepositions

• PPs with specific semantically vacuous prepositions can be subcategorized for by verbs, e.g.

 $\vdash \lambda_s. \text{depend} \cdot s; \text{On} \multimap \text{PRO} \multimap \text{Bse}; \lambda_{yx}. \text{depend} x y$

• We analyze them as having different tectotypes, e.g. On, By, For, By, etc., with the meaning of the PP determined by the prepositional object:

$$\vdash \lambda_s. \text{on} \cdot s; \text{Acc} \multimap \text{On}; \lambda_x. x \qquad \vdash \text{chiquita}; \text{Acc}; \mathsf{c} \\ \vdash \text{on} \cdot \text{chiquita}; \text{On}; \mathsf{c}$$

• There doesn't seem to be any reason to consider different semantically vacuous prepositions as belonging to a common tectotype.

Nonpredicative Locative Prepositions

- Some prepositions combine with an NP to form an expression which refers to a certain location associated with the entity denoted by that NP.
- Let us call such expressions **locatives** (Loc) and such prepositions **nonpredicative locative** prepositions.
- Presumably they are (roughly speaking) some kind of NP, but we won't try to answer now the question of how to fit them into our ordering of basic tectotypes.
- Assuming that locations are certain kinds of entities, then the meaning of a locative preposition is a function that maps entities to an associated locations, e.g. ⊢ on : e → e, so that (on c) denotes the 'on Chiquita' location.
- So we have lexical entries like:

$$\vdash \lambda_s.\text{on} \cdot s; \text{Acc} \multimap \text{Loc}; \text{on}$$

Prepositions that Predicate Location (1/2)

- Many prepositions, here analyzed as of tectotype Acc → PrdP, can predicate:
 - 1. This present is **for** you.
 - 2. This book is **about** bats.
 - 3. Your argument is **without** merit.
- Among these are ones that predicate location of the subject denotation at a location associated with the denotation of the prepositional object:
 - 1. Pepito is on Chiquita.
 - 2. Chiquita is behind Pedro.
 - 3. Pedro is beside Maria.
- Let's call these **predicative locative prepositions**.

Prepositions that Predicate Location (2/2)

- It seems clear that the location at which a predicative locative PP locates the subject denotation is the **same** location as the one denoted by the corresponding nonpredicative locative PP.
- E.g. *Pepito is on Chiquita* locates Pepito at the location denoted by the nonpredicative locative PP *on Chiquita*
- We can analyze this correspondence with a nonlogical rule

 $\Gamma \vdash s; \operatorname{Loc}; l$

 $\Gamma \vdash s; \text{PRO} \rightarrow \text{PrdP}; \lambda_x. \text{at } x \ l$

or the equivalent lexical entry:

 $\vdash \lambda_s.s; \text{Loc} \multimap \text{PRO} \multimap \text{PrdP}; \lambda_{lx}. \text{at } x \ l$

 Note that this rule is nonlogical in a strong, semantic sense, because its meaning contribution involves the nonlogical constant at, and so is not a combinator, not even a logical constant.

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More about Nonlogical Rules

- More examples: rules that turn Ns into NPs; rules that turn NP S into relative clauses; rules for forming absolutives
- Do languages have lots of nonlogical rules, or just a few?
- Are nonlogical rules which are semantically nonlogical the norm or are they exceptional?
- Are the logical-constant meanings of NL nonlogical rules always linear?
- What is the range of possible non-logical meanings for NL nonlogical rules?

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Scope of Quantification NPs (QPs)

- There are as many approaches to this topic as there are syntactic framewords!
 - Chomskyan frameworks: quantifier raising, aka covert movement
 - Montague Grammar: quantifying in, aka quantifier lowering
 - type-logical grammar: Moortgat's **q**-combinator
 - HPSG: Cooper storage
- LG follows Oehrle (1994), which implements a version of quantifier lowering using β-reduction in the pheno calculus.

- For expository simplicity we ignore the subtypes of NPs and just call them NPs, but the quantification theory interacts correctly with the subtyping.
- As in CG generally, quantified nounphrases are analyzed syntactically not as NP but rather as a 'raised' type, and correspondingly in the semantics.
- In LG terms, that means tectotype $(NP \multimap S) \multimap S$, which we hereafter abbreviate as QP. and semantic type $p_1 \rightarrow p$.
- Correspondingly, determiners are not N → NP but rather N → QP (with corresponding semantic type p₁ → p₁ → p).

Scope of QPs in LG (2/2)

• In the simplest case where the QP is the subject of an intransitive, we get derivations lie the following:

$\vdash \lambda_{sf}.f \text{ (every } \cdot s); N \multimap QP; every}$	$\vdash \operatorname{donkey}; N; donkey$	
$\vdash \lambda_f.f \text{ (every } \cdot \text{donkey}); \text{QP}; \text{every donkey}$		$\vdash \lambda_s.s \cdot \text{brays}; \text{NP} \multimap S; \text{bray}$
⊢ every · donkey · brays: S: every donkey bray		

The interesting pheno β -reduction takes place in the last proof step.

• The truth conditions are given by following theorem of HS:

 $\vdash \forall_{PQw}.(\mathsf{every}\ P\ Q) @ W \leftrightarrow \forall_x (P\ x) @ w \to (Q\ x) @ w$

• So if our world is w_0 , then the sentence is true iff

 $\forall_x.(\mathsf{donkey}\ x)@w_0 \to (\mathsf{bray}\ x)@w_0$

More Examples

Working through these clarifies how the analysis of scope works.

1. Pedro beats every donkey.

Here, *every donkey* is the major premiss of the last proof step, and it gets 'lowered' into the object position.

- 2. Every farmer beats Chiquita. Here, to get started, we need to posit a trace for the subject. After the verb combines with the trace and the object, we bind the trace and then lower the QP into the subject position!
- 3. Every farmer beats a donkey. Here, depending on the analysis, we get two different semantics:
 - a. every farmer $(\lambda_x.a \text{ donkey } (\lambda y.x \text{ beat } y))$
 - b. a donkey $(\lambda_y.every \text{ farmer } (\lambda x.x \text{ beat } y))$

Control (1/3)

- We saw that the tectotype PRO is used in lexical entries for the unrealized subject of nonfinite verbs (and predicatives) where the subject plays a semantic role (and so dummy subjects are disallowed).
- This lets the verb 'communicate' how its subject should be realized as the subject or object of a higher raising verb.
- But expressions with a PRO subject requirement are not always complements of raising verbs. For example, they can themselves be subjects, as in *to err is normal*. Here the property of being normal is being predicated of another property (the property of erring).
- Expressions with a PRO subject requirement can also be complements of control verbs (or adjectives), which (in a sense to be made precise) 'identify' the unrealized subject semantically with one of their own arguments (either the subject or the object)

• Examples:

- 1. Chiquita tried to sing.
- 2. Pedro persuaded Chiquita to sing.
- Verbs like these are often analyzed as describing a relation between one or two entities and a proposition about one of those entities (in these examples, the proposition about Chiquita that she sings).
- That entity (here, Chiquita), or the corresponding argument position of the higher verb (subject of *tried* or object of *persuaded*), is said to *control* the PRO subject of the complement.
- In such cases the higher verb (or predicative adjective) is called a **control** verb.

Control (3/3)

- Control verbs are also called **equi** verbs because in early TG they were analyzed by a transformation ('equi-NP deletion') that deleted the complement subject (which was assumed to be identical with the controller).
- By comparison, raising verbs in TG were analyzed by a different transformation ('raising') that moved the complement subject to a higher position in the tree.
- As in G/HPSG, our LG analysis of control doesn't make a syntactic (= tectogrammatical) connection between the complement subject and the controller, but instead handles the connection in the semantics:

 $\vdash \lambda_{st}.s \cdot \text{tries} \cdot t; \text{Nom} \multimap (\text{PRO} \multimap \text{Inf}) \multimap \text{S}; \lambda_{xP}.\text{try} \ x \ (P \ x)$

 $\vdash \lambda_{stu.s} \cdot \text{persuades} \cdot t \cdot u; \text{Nom} \multimap \text{Acc} \multimap (\text{PRO} \multimap \text{Inf}) \multimap \text{S}; \lambda_{xyP} \text{.persuade } x \ y \ (P \ y)$

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Grand Finale

- We use everything we know to analyze an example of an **unbounded dependency** construction, traditionally known as **tough**-movement.
- How is it that all these sentences mean the same thing?
 - 1. To please John is easy for Mary.
 - 2. It is easy for Mary to please John.
 - 3. John is easy for Mary to please.

The last one is the hard one: how did *John* get into the main clause subject position?