Semantic composition

Chris Potts, Ling 130a/230a: Introduction to semantics and pragmatics, Winter 2024

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1 Overview

- This handout describes our core theory of semantic composition. It's a bare-bones theory, but still powerful in the sense that generalizing it to a wider range of sentences is straightforward.
- The theory is *guaranteed compositional* even by the strictest interpretation of the principle.
- The most important conceptual move is to interpret lexical items as sets and functions. Meanings might not literally *be* sets and functions, but, following Lewis's advice, we're hypothesizing that at least these *do what meanings do*.
- We need a bunch of rules in order to respect the syntactic structures. However, there are just a few rules of semantic composition and they are very simple.
- So, in essence, if you know the lexical meanings of your language and you can put them together according to the syntactic rules, then the only other concepts you need to be a full-fledged interpreter are a few simple semantic composition rules.
- The entire grammar presented here is implemented in very simple Python code here: https://web.stanford.edu/class/linguist130a/materials/semgrammar130a.py

2 Notation for describing functions

2.1 Functions

		Го	\mapsto	т]
$IS_EVEN(x)$		1	${}{}$ ${}{}$	F
1	$\mathbf{if} \ x \ \mathrm{mod} \ 2 = 0$	2	\mapsto	Т
2	return ⊺	3	\mapsto	F
3	else return F	L	÷	

 λx (T if $x \mod 2 = 0$ else F)

2.2 Function application

$$IS_EVEN(1) = F$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & \mapsto & T \\ 1 & \mapsto & F \\ 2 & \mapsto & T \\ 3 & \mapsto & F \\ \vdots & \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \end{pmatrix} = F$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \lambda x (T \text{ if } x \text{ mod } 2 = 0, \text{ else } F) \\ (T \text{ if } 1 \text{ mod } 2 = 0, \text{ else } F) \\ F \end{bmatrix}$$

3 Basic semantic objects

3.1 Truth values

T for truth and F for falsity.

3.2 Universe

The set of entities in our tiny possible world:



Apologies to Marge! Her hair is so tall that she would make this handout very long!

4 Semantic lexicon

4.1 PNs

Proper names are directly referential:

4.2 Ns

Nouns denote sets of entities (subsets of *U*):

~ ^

. ...NNM

$$(3) \quad [[student]] = \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \overbrace{} \\ \overbrace{a} \\ \overbrace{} \\ \atop\overbrace{} \\ \overbrace{} \\ \overbrace{} \\ \overbrace{} \\ \atop \overbrace{} \\ \overbrace{} \atop \overbrace{} \\ \overbrace{} } \\ \overbrace{} \\ \overbrace{\phantom{$$

$$(4) \quad [[parent]] = \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \swarrow \\ \swarrow \\ \swarrow \\ \end{array} \right\}$$

4.3 Intransitive Vs

Intransitive verbs also denote sets of entities (subsets of U):

(5)
$$[skateboards] = \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} & & \\ & & \\ \end{array} \right\}$$

(8) $[speaks] = \left\{ \begin{array}{c} & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ \end{array}, \begin{array}{c} & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ \end{array}, \begin{array}{c} & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ \end{array}, \begin{array}{c} & & \\ & & \\ \end{array} \right\}$

In our grammar, intransitive Vs will combine with the subject of the sentence to produce a truthvalued claim by testing whether the subject's denotation is a member of the verb's denotation.

Bart skateboards

Maggie skateboards

4.4 Transitive Vs

Transitive verbs denote functions from entities into sets of entities:

Important insight: once a transitive V combines with its object, it denotes a set of entities – semantically, it's just like an intransitive verb.

4.5 Adjectives

Adjectives combine with noun meanings to produce new noun meanings. The core of it is this very basic constituent structure:

You can see that we're treating the following as intersective adjectives:

(13)
$$[scholarly] = \lambda X \left(\left\{ \begin{array}{c} & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ \end{array} \right\} \cap X \right)$$

(14) $[distractible] = \lambda X \left(\left\{ \begin{array}{c} & & & \\ & & & \\ \end{array} \right\} \cap X \right)$
(15) $[hungry] = \lambda X \left(\left\{ \begin{array}{c} & & & \\ & & & \\ \end{array} \right\} \cap X \right)$

The same semantic types work for the other adjective types, but they don't use \cap or commit to the incoming *X* being true of the entities in the resulting set:

(17) $[alleged] = \lambda X : \{y \in U : \text{ someone claimed that } y \in X\}$

Basic semantic composition:

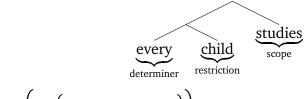
(19) [[hungry(scholarly(child))]] =

4.6 Negation

We would like a negation that operates on verb phrases like *skateboards* and *admires Maggie*:

(20) $\llbracket never \rrbracket = \lambda X \left(\right)$

4.7 Quantificational determiners



(21)
$$\llbracket every \rrbracket = \lambda X \Big(\lambda Y \Big(\mathsf{T} \text{ if } X \subseteq Y, \text{ else } \mathsf{F} \Big) \Big)$$

(22)
$$[[every(child)]] = \lambda Y (T \text{ if } [[child]] \subseteq Y, \text{ else } F)$$

(23)
$$[[every(child)(studies)]] = T$$
 if $[[child]] \subseteq [[studies]]$, else F

(24)
$$\llbracket some \rrbracket = \lambda X \Big(\lambda Y \Big(\mathsf{T} \text{ if } X \cap Y \neq \emptyset, \text{ else } \mathsf{F} \Big) \Big)$$

(25)
$$[no] = \lambda X \left(\lambda Y \left(\mathsf{T} \text{ if } X \cap Y = \emptyset, \text{ else } \mathsf{F} \right) \right)$$

(26)
$$\llbracket at \ least \ three \rrbracket = \lambda X \bigg(\lambda Y \bigg(\mathsf{T} \ \text{if } |X \cap Y| \ge 3, \ \text{else F} \bigg) \bigg)$$

(27)
$$[at most three] = \lambda X \Big(\lambda Y \Big(T \text{ if } , \text{ else } F \Big) \Big)$$

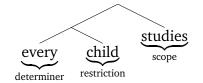
(28)
$$\llbracket most \rrbracket = \lambda X \left(\lambda Y \left(\mathsf{T} \text{ if } \frac{|X \cap Y|}{|X|} > \frac{1}{2}, \text{ else } \mathsf{F} \right) \right)$$

(29)
$$[\![between five and ten]\!] =$$

An imagined dialogue about quantificational determiners

(30) You defined quantificational determiners as denoting relations between sets of entities. Isn't that too complicated?

It is complicated, but it's not *too* complicated! It's the least complicated thing we could do! We really need the determiner to control both its restriction and its scope:



(31) But couldn't *every* just denote the universe *U*?

No way! We need to consider the role of the restriction: *every child*, *every scholarly parent*, and so forth.

(32) Ok, then let's say that *every student* picks out the set of students, and *every parent* the set of parents, and so forth. That would at least be somewhat simpler.

That still won't work! Suppose [[every student]] was the set of students, for example. What would we do about the verb phrase? We need [[every student skateboards]] to be false and [[every student speaks]] to be true. What are the criteria for making that distinction?

(33) The criteria could be subset, as you gave it. [[every student skateboards]] is F because the set of students is not a subset of the set of skateboarders, but [[every student speaks]] is T because the set of students is a subset of the set of things that speak. That's just like "if x is a student, then x skateboards". It seems intuitively correct.

Exactly! But that's just a rephrasing of the analysis we gave. You start with

T if
$$[student]$$
 ⊆ *Y*, else F

We explicitly bind the variable Y, as in

$$\lambda Y \Big(\mathsf{T} \text{ if } [\![student]\!] \subseteq Y, \text{ else } \mathsf{F} \Big)$$

This is intuitively a set of sets. That captures the variation we just noted in truth values for different verb phrases. And this is the meaning of *every student*. To get all the way back to <code>[[every]]</code>, we just bind the slot filled by <code>[[student]]</code>:

$$\lambda X \Big(\lambda Y \Big(\mathsf{T} \text{ if } X \subseteq Y, \text{ else } \mathsf{F} \Big) \Big)$$

This is what's in (21).

(34) Okay, you convinced me for *every*. But surely *no*, *no student*, etc., can all just denote the empty set. That seems intuitively like what *no* means: nothingness.

No, that won't work! Consider *no parent studies*. This is true in our possible world, but neither [*parent*] nor [*studies*] is the empty set in our possible world. It's their *intersection*

that is empty if this sentence is true. And we want to say that *in general*, and that's what our theory does. We can again start with a specific claim:

T if [parent] ∩ $[studies] = \emptyset$, else F

And then we back off to get [no parent]:

$$\lambda Y \Big(\mathsf{T} \text{ if } \llbracket parent \rrbracket \cap Y = \emptyset, \text{ else } \mathsf{F} \Big)$$

And once more to get the meaning we defined in (25):

$$\lambda X \Big(\lambda Y \Big(\mathsf{T} \text{ if } X \cap Y = \emptyset, \text{ else } \mathsf{F} \Big) \Big)$$

(35) I am starting to see that this is the least complicated thing we can do. And I also see that this basic set-up can work for lots of determiners. We start with our framework

$$\lambda X \Big(\lambda Y \Big(\mathsf{T} \text{ if } , \text{ else } \mathsf{F} \Big) \Big)$$

and then we just need to specify what the relation is for any given determiner. Yes!

(36) And, if I want to, I can start with a specific instance of what I want to capture, like

$$[[most students skateboard]] = T \text{ if } \frac{|[[student]] \cap [[skateboards]]|}{|[[student]]|} > \frac{1}{2}, \text{ else } F$$

and then just back out the variables with lambda binders, first for the scope:

$$[[most students]] = \lambda Y \Big(\mathsf{T} \text{ if } \frac{|[[student]] \cap Y|}{|[[student]]|} > \frac{1}{2}, \text{ else } \mathsf{F} \Big)$$

and then for the restriction:

$$\lambda X \left(\lambda Y \left(\mathsf{T} \text{ if } \frac{|X \cap Y|}{|X|} > \frac{1}{2}, \text{ else } \mathsf{F} \right) \right)$$

Beautiful! And remember to always do the binding in the order you did it: restriction outer (comes in first) and scope inside (comes in second). Some determiners are order-sensitive, like *most* and *every*.

5 Semantic grammar

(Lex) Given a leaf node X, $[\![X]\!]$ is looked up in the lexicon.

(NB) Given a syntactic structure
$$X$$
 , $[X] = [Y]$
 $|$
 Y

(S) Given a syntactic structure
$$S$$
, $[S] = T$ if $[PN] \in [VP]$, else F
 $\overrightarrow{PN VP}$

(A) Given a syntactic structure
$$NP_j$$
, $[NP_j] = [AP]([NP_i])$
 $AP NP_i$

(N) Given a syntactic structure
$$VP_j$$
, $[VP_j] = [never]([VP_i])$
never VP_i

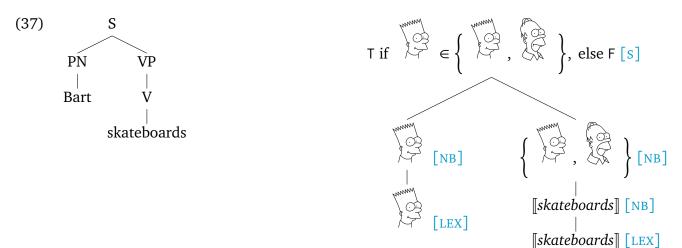
(TV) Given a syntactic structure VP ,
$$[VP] = [V]([PN])$$

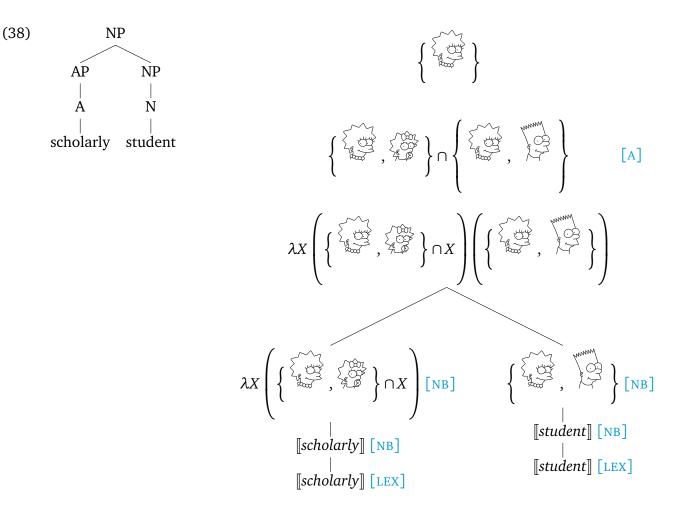
V PN

(Q1) Given a syntactic structure
$$QP$$
 , $[\![QP]\!] = [\![D]\!]([\![NP]\!])$
 D NP

(Q2) Given a syntactic structure S, [S] = [QP]([VP])QP VP

6 Illustrations





$$\left\{ \begin{array}{c} \overbrace{} & \overbrace{} & \overbrace{} & \overbrace{} & \overbrace{} \\ & \overbrace{} \\ & if y = & \overbrace{} & \overbrace{} & \overbrace{} & \overbrace{} & \overbrace{} & \overbrace{} \\ & if y = & \overbrace{} & \overbrace{} & \overbrace{} & \overbrace{} & \overbrace{} & \overbrace{} \\ & if y = & \overbrace{} & \overbrace{} & \overbrace{} & \overbrace{} & \overbrace{} \\ & if y = & \overbrace{} & \overbrace{} \\ & if y = & \overbrace{} & \overbrace{} \\ & if y = & if y = & \overbrace{} \\ & if y = & if y$$

