

Negation, modality, events, and truthmaker semantics

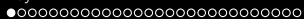
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Overview of the course

- Day 1: Davidsonian event semantics, problems with negation.
- Day 2: Situation semantics, negation as a modality.
- Day 3: Negative events in compositional semantics.
- Day 4: Event semantics as exact truthmaker semantics.
- Day 5: Propositions as sets of events, and negative individuals.



Day 1



Today's contents

- Negation in classical logic.
- Background on action sentences and event semantics.
- Generalization to states.
- The Davidsonian and Neo-Davidsonian approaches.
- The standard analysis of negation in event semantics.
- The puzzle surrounding negative perception reports.
- A scope paradox surrounding negation and the event quantifier.
- Maximal events and Krifka's negation.



Notation and terminology

- Terminology:
 - Sentence: a linguistic expression
 - Proposition: a (metaphysical) bearer of truth
- A sentence denotes a proposition in a natural language.
- Denotation of a phrase: $\llbracket _ \rrbracket$
(e.g., $\llbracket \text{There is a red bike} \rrbracket = \exists x. \text{red}(x) \wedge \text{bike}(x)$)
- Truth and falsity: T, F
- Logical symbols: $\wedge, \vee, \neg, \forall, \exists$
- Basic types: t (truth values), e (individuals), v (events), s (worlds)
- Functional types: $\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle$
(e.g., $\langle e, t \rangle, \langle \langle v, t \rangle, \langle v, t \rangle \rangle$)

Negation in classical logic

Two properties of classical logic

- ① any proposition is either true or false, and never both;
- ② the negation of a true sentence is false, and vice versa.

- Truth table of negation:

ϕ	$\neg\phi$
T	F
F	T

- (1) In event-less first-order logic:

- a. $\llbracket \text{Mary is running} \rrbracket = \textit{sleep}(\textit{Mary})$
- b. $\llbracket \text{Mary is not running} \rrbracket = \neg \textit{sleep}(\textit{Mary})$

De Morgan's laws and double negation elimination

- De Morgan's laws are valid in classical logic:

(2) a. $\neg(\phi \wedge \psi) \equiv (\neg\phi) \vee (\neg\psi)$

b. It's not (both raining and windy). \equiv It's either not raining or not windy.

(3) a. $\neg(\phi \vee \psi) \equiv (\neg\phi) \wedge (\neg\psi)$

b. It's not (either raining or windy). \equiv It's neither raining nor windy.

- Double negation elimination is also valid:

(4) a. $\neg(\neg\phi) \equiv \phi$

b. It's not (not raining). \equiv It's raining.

Natural language and classical logic

- Classical \wedge , \vee and \neg are usually taken to be at the core of the semantics of *and*, *or* and *not*.
- In this course, we work with *event semantics* and will study nonstandard interpretations of *not*.

The syntax of verbs: obligatory arguments

- Verbs are sometimes categorized according to their obligatory syntactic arguments.
 - Intransitive verbs:
 - (5) a. Mary is running.
 - b. $run(Mary)$
 - Transitive verbs:
 - (6) a. Mary is buttering a toast.
 - b. $\exists x. toast(x) \wedge butter(Mary, x)$
 - etc.

The syntax of verbs: optional modifiers

- In addition to a finite number of grammatically expected arguments, verbs can be modified by any number of modifiers:

(7) Jones buttered the toast in the bathroom with a knife at midnight.

- “most philosophers today would, as a start, analyze this sentence as containing a five-place predicate” (Davidson 1967b):

(8) $\exists x. \textit{knife}(x) \wedge \textit{butter}(\textit{Jones}, \textit{toast}, \textit{bathroom}, x, 0:00)$

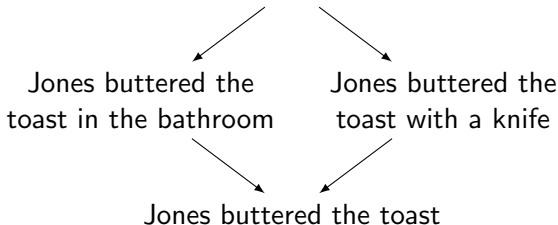
- Can you see any difficulties for this approach? (Hint: Think about entailments.)

The semantics of verbs: entailment patterns

(Davidson 1967b)

“If we go on to analyze ‘Jones buttered the toast’ as containing a two-place predicate, ‘Jones buttered the toast in the bathroom’ as containing a three-place predicate, and so forth, we obliterate the logical relations between these sentences”

Jones buttered the toast in the bathroom with a knife



The semantics of verbs: an additional implicit argument

- How could one design a system in which the corresponding entailments are guaranteed (and simple)?
- Davidson's solution:
 - Actions are first class citizens of the semantics;
 - Action verbs (e.g., *to butter*) lexicalize predicates that have an implicit argument denoting an action in addition to their traditional ones (subject, etc.);
 - Verbal modifiers (at least some of them; e.g., *in the kitchen*, *at midnight*) lexicalize predicates of actions.

Davidsonian event semantics

- Notation: e , e_1 , e_2 , etc., for events.

- (9) a. Jones buttered the toast in the bathroom with a knife at midnight. (= (7))
- b. $\exists e. \textit{butter}(e, \textit{Jones}, \textit{\iota toast}) \wedge \textit{in}(e, \textit{\iota bathroom}) \wedge$
 $\exists x. \textit{knife}(x) \wedge \textit{with}(e, x) \wedge \textit{at}(e, 0:00)$

- Entailments are given by conjunction elimination (e.g., $\phi \wedge \psi \vdash \phi$).

- (10) a. Jones buttered the toast in the bathroom with a knife.
- b. $\exists e. \textit{butter}(e, \textit{Jones}, \textit{\iota toast}) \wedge \textit{in}(e, \textit{\iota bathroom}) \wedge$
 $\exists x. \textit{knife}(x) \wedge \textit{with}(e, x)$

- (11) a. Jones buttered the toast in the bathroom at midnight.
- b. $\exists e. \textit{butter}(e, \textit{Jones}, \textit{\iota toast}) \wedge \textit{in}(e, \textit{\iota bathroom}) \wedge \textit{at}(e, 0:00)$

Events in linguistic analysis

- There is further empirical motivation for the introduction of events in linguistic analysis.

- Causation (a la Davidson 1967a):

- (12)
- Mary fell because she slipped on a banana peel.
 - $\exists e_1. fall(e_1, Mary) \wedge \exists x. banana_peel(x) \wedge \exists e_2. slip_on(e_2, Mary, x) \wedge cause(e_2, e_1)$

- Event anaphora (de Swart 1996):

- (13) Mary won_{e₁} the game. This_{e₁} occurred on a Friday.

- Perception reports (Higginbotham 1983):

- (14)
- John saw Mary leave.
 - $\exists e_1. leave(e_1, Mary) \wedge \exists e_2. see(e_2, John, e_1)$



Generalization to states

- Davidson (1967b) limited his analysis to actions.
- Since: generalization to *eventualities* (Bach 1986).
- In particular, to states (Parsons 1990):
 - (15) a. Mary is happy.
 - b. $\exists e. \textit{happy}(e, \textit{Mary})$
- In this course, we use “event” in a very general sense.

The Neo-Davidsonian approach

- Arity of a verbal predicate:
 - according to Davidson (1967b): $1 + \#\{\text{syn. args}\}$
 - according to Parsons (1990): 1

Syntactic arguments are treated similarly to optional verbal modifiers and are related to the event via *thematic roles* (“ θ -roles”).

- (16) a. [Mary]_{ag} buttered [a toast]_{th}.
 b. $\exists e. \text{butter}(e) \wedge \text{ag}(e) = \text{Mary} \wedge \exists x. \text{toast}(x) \wedge \text{th}(e) = x$

Thematic roles

- Thematic roles (Fillmore 1968, Jackendoff 1972): intuitively, semantic counterparts of the syntactic roles.
- The two notions are logically independent.
- Unergative verb:

- (17) a. [Mary]_{ag}^{subj.} talked.
 b. $\exists e. \textit{talk}(e) \wedge \textit{ag}(e) = \textit{Mary}$

- Unaccusative verb:

- (18) a. [The letter]_{th}^{subj.} arrived.
 b. $\exists e. \textit{arrive}(e) \wedge \textit{th}(e) = \iota \textit{letter}$

Thematic roles

- Active-passive alternation:

- (19) a. (i) [John]_{ag}^{subj.} broke [the window]_{th}^{obj.}.
 (ii) $\exists e. break(e) \wedge ag(e) = John \wedge th(e) = \iota window$
 b. (i) [The window]_{th}^{subj.} was broken by [John]_{ag}^{obj.}.
 (ii) $\exists e. break(e) \wedge ag(e) = John \wedge th(e) = \iota window$

- Causative-inchoative alternation:

- (20) a. (i) [John]_{ag}^{subj.} broke [the window]_{th}^{obj.}.
 (ii) $\exists e. break(e) \wedge ag(e) = John \wedge th(e) = \iota window$
 b. (i) [The window]_{th}^{subj.} broke.
 (ii) $\exists e. break(e) \wedge th(e) = \iota window$



The standard analysis of negation in event semantics

- (21) a. It is raining.
 b. $\exists e. \textit{rain}(e)$
- (22) a. It is not raining.
 b. $*_{(\text{too weak})} \exists e. \neg \textit{rain}(e)$
 c. $\neg \exists e. \textit{rain}(e)$

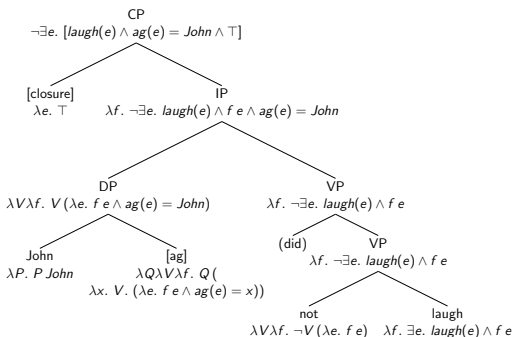
- Analysis: In a simple negated sentence, the negation outscopes the quantifier over events; no event is introduced.
- From a compositional point of view, this is not as simple as it might look.

Implementations of the standard analysis

- Kamp & Reyle (1993) work in Discourse Representation Theory (DRT);
 - the syntactic tree is processed (roughly) from top to bottom and turned into a DR Structure;
 - the conversion rules and the fact that the negation scopes over the VP ensures that \neg scopes over the event quantifier.
- de Groote & Winter (2015) work with Abstract Categorical Grammars (ACG);
 - two categories for verbal projections, a higher one and a lower one;
 - the quantifier over event is introduced by a covert operator, the *existential closure*, which is necessary to bridge the gap between the two categories;
 - negation applies to the higher category and thus scopes over the event quantifier.

Implementations of the standard analysis

- Champollion (2015) works with a more standard syntax-semantics interface;
 - the lexical entries of verbs include an event quantifier;
 - verbs and VPs denote generalized quantifier over events and their argument is used to send semantic material within the scope of the event quantifier.



First puzzle: negation and nonfinite perception reports

- Higginbotham (1983): How to interpret the negation in (24a)?

- (23)
- John sees Mary leave.
 - $\exists e_2. \textit{leave}(e_2) \wedge \textit{ag}(e) = \textit{Mary} \wedge \exists e_1. \textit{see}(e_1) \wedge \textit{exp}(e_1) = \textit{John} \wedge \textit{th}(e_1) = e_2$
- (24)
- John sees Mary not leave.
 - *_(too weak) $\exists e_2. \neg \textit{leave}(e_2) \wedge \textit{ag}(e_2) = \textit{Mary} \wedge \exists e_1. \textit{see}(e_1) \wedge \textit{exp}(e_1) = \textit{John} \wedge \textit{th}(e_1) = e_2$
 - *_(too weak) $\exists e_2. \neg [\textit{leave}(e_2) \wedge \textit{ag}(e_2) = \textit{Mary}] \wedge \exists e_1. \textit{see}(e_1) \wedge \textit{exp}(e_1) = \textit{John} \wedge \textit{th}(e_1) = e_2$
 - *_(e₂ free) $\neg [\exists e_2. \textit{leave}(e_2) \wedge \textit{ag}(e_2) = \textit{Mary}] \wedge \exists e_1. \textit{see}(e_1) \wedge \textit{exp}(e_1) = \textit{John} \wedge \textit{th}(e_1) = e_2$

- Answering this question is one of our goals.

For-adverbials and negation: the ambiguity

- Scope ambiguity between negation and *for*-adverbials:

(25) John didn't laugh for two hours. (Krifka 1989)

- a. It is not the case that John laughed for two hours.
- b. For two hours, John didn't laugh.

- *For*-adverbials check for *atelicity*. (*In*-adverbials check for *telicity*)

Atelicity: two views

The ontological view (e.g., Moens & Steedman 1988)

- Different kinds of sentences introduce intrinsically different kinds of entities (e.g., proper events, states, processes);
- sensibility to (a)telicity is sensibility to this ontology.

The algebraic view (e.g., Krifka 1989)

- The events introduced are taken from sets with different algebraic properties;
- sensibility to (a)telicity is sensibility to these properties.

For-adverbials and negation: a problem?

- (26) John didn't laugh for two hours. (= (25))
- It is not the case that John laughed for two hours.
 - For two hours, John didn't laugh.
- (26a) is not particularly challenging. But what about (26b)?
 - Standard analysis:

$$\llbracket \text{John didn't laugh} \rrbracket = \neg \exists e. \text{laugh}(e) \wedge \text{ag}(e) = \text{John}$$
 - In (26b),
 - (ontological view) what eventuality is checked for atelicity?
 - (algebraic view) what set is checked for atelicity?

Krifka's maximal events

- Krifka (1989) defends an algebraic view of (a)telicity.
- \leq denotes parthood between events (a partial order).
- For any set of events S , $\sqcup S$ is the least upper bound of S .

The *maximal event* at time t

$$\text{MXT}(t) = \sqcup\{e \mid \tau(e) \subseteq t\}$$

Krifka's solution to the problem: a nonstandard negation

- $\llbracket \text{not} \rrbracket_{\text{Krifka}} = \lambda P \lambda e. \exists t. e = \text{MXT}(t) \wedge \neg \exists e'. [e' \leq e \wedge P e']$
- $\llbracket \text{John (did) not laugh} \rrbracket =$
 $\lambda e. \exists t. e = \text{MXT}(t) \wedge \neg \exists e'. [e' \leq e \wedge \text{laugh}(e') \wedge \text{ag}(e') = \text{John}]$
- This is the set that is checked for atelicity by the *for*-adverbial in (27) when negation is in low position.

(27) John didn't laugh for two hours. (= (25))

Negation in nonfinite perception reports: paradox still unsolved

- Back to our first puzzle:

(28) John sees Mary not leave. (=(24a))

- With Kifka's negation?

(29) a. John sees an event that satisfies
 $\llbracket \text{not} \rrbracket_{\text{Krifka}} \llbracket \text{Mary leaves} \rrbracket$
 b. $\exists e_1. \exists e_2. \exists t. e_2 = \text{MXT}(t) \wedge$
 $\neg \exists e_3. [e_3 \leq e_2 \wedge \text{leave}(e_3) \wedge \text{ag}(e_3) = \text{Mary}]$
 $\wedge \text{see}(e_1) \wedge \text{ag}(e_1) = \text{John} \wedge \text{th}(e_1) = e_2$

- This translation is inappropriate: it leads to incorrect entailment patterns. Can you find one?

Maximal events do not help with perception reports

- Assume the formula is true:

$$(30) \quad \begin{aligned} &\exists e_1. \exists e_2. \exists t. e_2 = \text{MXT}(t) \wedge \\ &\neg \exists e_3. [e_3 \leq e_2 \wedge \text{leave}(e_3) \wedge \text{ag}(e_3) = \text{Mary}] \\ &\wedge \text{see}(e_1) \wedge \text{ag}(e_1) = \text{John} \wedge \text{th}(e_1) = e_2 \end{aligned}$$

- Assume that William does not sleep during t .
- Then, the following formula is also true!

$$(31) \quad \begin{aligned} &\exists e_1. \exists e_2. \exists t. e_2 = \text{MXT}(t) \wedge \\ &\neg \exists e_3. [e_3 \leq e_2 \wedge \text{sleep}(e_3) \wedge \text{ag}(e_3) = \text{William}] \\ &\wedge \text{see}(e_1) \wedge \text{ag}(e_1) = \text{John} \wedge \text{th}(e_1) = e_2 \end{aligned}$$

- This formula would be the translation of *John sees William not sleep*.
- In fact, while Krifka's negation introduces events, they have little to do with the negated predicates.

Day 1: Summary

- In traditional event semantics, sentences existentially quantify over events.
- This has been generalized from action sentences to other natural language constructions.
- *John saw Mary leave:*
 $\exists e_1 \exists e_2. \textit{see}(\textit{John}, e_1, e_2) \wedge \textit{leave}(e_2, \textit{Mary})$
- According to the standard analysis, the event quantifier takes scope below classical negation.
- This leaves little room for negated event descriptions such as *John saw Mary not leave.*
- Krifka (1989) introduced a nonstandard negation to deal with some temporal modifiers, but this does not really help with perception reports.



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