

On the referential capacity of language models: An internalist rejoinder to Mandelkern & Linzen

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1. Summary of Mandelkern & Linzen (2024)

1 In a recent paper, Mandelkern & Linzen (2024) — henceforth M&L — address
2 the question of whether language models’ (LMs) words refer. Their argument
3 draws from the externalist tradition in philosophical semantics, which views
4 reference as the capacity of words to “achieve ‘word-to-world’ connections”.
5 In the externalist framework, causally uninterrupted chains of usage, tracing
6 every occurrence of a name back to its bearer, guarantee that, for example,
7 ‘Peano’ refers to the individual Peano (Kripke 1980). This account is externalist
8 both because words pick out referents ‘out there’ in the world, and because
9 what determines reference are coordinated linguistic actions by members of
10 a community, and not individual mental states. The “central question to ask”,
11 for M&L, is whether LMs too belong to human linguistic communities, such
12 that words by LMs may also trace back causally to their bearers. Their answer
13 is a cautious “yes”: inputs to LMs are linguistic “forms with particular histories
14 of referential use”; “those histories ground the referents of those forms”; any
15 occurrence of ‘Peano’ in LM outputs is as causally connected to the individual
16 Peano as any other occurrence of the same proper name in human speech or
17 text; therefore, occurrences of ‘Peano’ in LM outputs refer to Peano.

18 In this commentary, we first qualify M&L’s claim as applying to a narrow
19 class of natural language expressions. Thus qualified, their claim is valid, and
20 we emphasise an additional motivation for that in Section 2. Next, we discuss
21 the actual scope of their claim, and we suggest that the way they formulate it
22 may lead to unwarranted generalisations about reference in LMs. Our critique
23 is likewise applicable to other externalist accounts of LMs (e.g., Lederman &
24 Mahowald 2024; Mollo & Millière 2023). Lastly, we conclude with a comment
25 on the status of LMs as members of human linguistic communities.

2. Machines under public scrutiny: Why reference matters

26 The question of whether artificially generated words refer is a significant one,
27 not least because, depending on our answers, we may or may not be able to
28 claim that LMs' outputs are true or false, or carry true or false presuppositions.
29 If a LM were to write a biography of Giuseppe Peano containing both true and
30 false elements, we would not be able to say that what is true is true and what
31 is false is false, if we took the proper name 'Peano' in the model's output *not*
32 to refer to *any* individual in the world. Denying that machine speech and text
33 *can* refer, or at least *be about* individuals and states of affairs, would undermine
34 the all-important public enterprise of evaluating LM's outputs for truth and
35 plausibility. In this sense, we suspect that recent arguments to the effect that,
36 as a matter of principle, LMs cannot recover meaning from training data and
37 infuse meaning into generated outputs (e.g., Bender & Koller 2020) could end
38 up shifting the burden of truth onto human interpreters to an extent that may
39 be problematic. If the string 'Peano taught in Bologna' does not mean or refer
40 to anything 'for' a model that generates it, then it would be false only in virtue
41 of interpretations it receives by human users: machine language would only
42 be evaluable in an arena of competing interpreters and interpretations, not
43 against the constraints of a language. One may reply that, minimally, we ought
44 to interpret LMs as we would any human member of a linguistic community:
45 'Peano taught in Bologna' is false when it is produced by human speakers, and
46 therefore must be false when generated by LMs too. This position is attractive,
47 but needs to be qualified. We will outline such a qualification in Section 5, but
48 before that we will examine M&L's arguments in greater detail.

3. "Words"? What words?

49 M&L's focus is on classical externalist examples: proper names and so-called
50 natural kind terms, such as 'Peano', 'water', etc. There is no mention of other
51 types of expressions in their article. This would not necessarily be a problem,
52 if it did not also invite the unwarranted generalisation that reference functions
53 in the same way for all or most 'words' in the language. We could not find a
54 statement by M&L that restricts the scope of their argument and conclusions
55 to only those classes of expressions to which broadly causal-historical theories
56 of reference apply (whether they also succeed, is a different issue; see below).

57 There are causal histories of usage for all words in a language, and there is
58 a *variety* of *ultimate anchors* for those histories. Not all such anchors are of the
59 ontological types that externalism favours. To lean on some classical textbook
60 examples, what would ‘democracy’, ‘love’, ‘mathematics’, ‘English’, etc. trace
61 back to, if anything? Not to entities and events in the world, but rather *concepts*
62 that organise information from cognitive and bodily states, (core) knowledge,
63 actions, and so forth. Or consider expressions that require a *situated speaker* for
64 felicitous production and interpretation, primarily indexicals, pronouns, and
65 demonstratives. What would ‘now’ and ‘here’ refer to in LMs’ outputs: where
66 is a LM, such that ‘here’ may be interpreted as denoting its current location in
67 space (Murphy 2016)? Personal pronouns are often only interpretable relative
68 to hypotheses about the speaker’s specific referential intentions: who are ‘us’
69 and ‘them’ in machine outputs, when LMs cannot form referential intentions?
70 M&L touch upon the question of whether current LMs could “learn to model
71 communicative intention in order to accurately predict upcoming words”, yet
72 this is distinct from the ability to *form* communicative intentions of one’s own
73 (Sperber & Wilson 2024). One could grant machines the capacity to generate
74 and maintain ‘simulacra’ that would appear to have communicative intentions
75 and other mental states, to the extent that LMs can “convincingly play the role
76 of a character that does” (Shanahan et al. 2023). That could reduce the risk of
77 anthropomorphising artificial dialogue systems, but it does not automatically
78 endow LMs’ outputs with viable referential properties in context: e.g., neither
79 the LM nor the simulacra it supports appear to occupy the sorts of spaces that
80 would make uses of ‘I’, ‘here’, etc. pick out contextually appropriate referents.
81 Externalist logic then applies to an important but narrow class of expressions.
82 In many cases, reference minimally requires a syntax or grammar interfacing
83 with conceptual-semantic, pragmatic, and general cognitive systems (Murphy
84 et al. 2024), and language users with communicative intentions (Scott-Phillips
85 2014), situated in social and physical space and time (Hinzen 2016).

4. Deeper problems with externalism

86 As noted above, M&L observe that LM inputs include “strings of symbols with
87 certain natural histories which connect them to their referents”. This concept
88 of ‘natural histories’ cannot be subject to much interrogation given its artificial
89 nature, particularly in the context of machine language, as there appears to be

90 nothing natural, nor historical, about linear strings of tokens, as considered by
91 current tokenisation algorithms. Tokens do not necessarily correspond to the
92 kinds of expressions or parts of expressions that can have causal histories, such
93 as characters, morphemes, and ‘words’ (Murphy 2024): e.g., the GPT-3.5 and
94 GPT-4 tokeniser breaks up the word ‘motionlessness’ into 14 characters and 2
95 tokens: ‘motion’ and ‘lessness’. But even ignoring the ‘unnaturalness’ of LMs’
96 lexical (non)compositions, deeper problems arise with the general externalist
97 thesis, endorsed by M&L, that “what grounds reference is the *natural histories*
98 of words: the causal-historical links between a speech community’s use of a
99 word and the word’s referent”. This formulation has been unpacked and, we
100 believe, thoroughly undermined in the literature (among others, see Chomsky
101 2000; Jackendoff 2002; Pietroski 2017, 2018; Baggio 2018; Murphy 2023).¹

102 Speech communities are appropriately underspecified notions for social
103 scientists, but not for those concerned with a biologically grounded theory of
104 language. What delimitations can we place on the notion of ‘community’, that
105 would help with explaining the semantic properties of a language, including
106 what words refer to? Coherent and coordinated linguistic actions by members
107 of a community are *constrained* by how our cognitive apparatus carves up and
108 conceptualises reality. Even if *first-order externalism* was true (the reference of
109 some linguistic expressions used by a speaker S is partly determined by factors
110 independent of S’s mental states; Cohnitz & Haukioja 2013), *meta-internalism*
111 would still be applicable (how an expression E in some utterance U by S refers,
112 and which theory of reference is true of E, are determined by S’s mental states
113 at the time of U). In fact, its negation has been convincingly argued to be “an
114 implausible view about semantics” (Cohnitz & Haukioja 2013). Facts about the
115 mind-brain must be invoked to explain *how* words refer: not *what they refer to*,
116 but *what determines what they refer to* (Block 1987; Carey 2009; Baggio 2018).

117 M&L claim that machines may achieve referential capacities by “standing
118 in the right kind of natural history to the referent”. They say that if a friend,
119 Luke, sends us the text message ‘Peano proved that arithmetic is incomplete’,
120 “his text *says something false*, namely something *about Peano*: that he proved
121 incompleteness. So Luke’s use of the word ‘Peano’ refers to Peano.” Of course,

¹ Relatedly, M&L review Putnam’s “striking” Twin Earth thought experiment. Several critiques have challenged Putnam’s argument (e.g., Chomsky 2000; Pietroski 2017, 2021; Murphy 2023).

122 we agree with this, even though we want to frame the observation differently.
123 Under the assumption that ‘Peano’ refers to Peano, in a language or an idiolect
124 where that is the case, that sentence is false. That is, in this context, Luke’s text
125 says something false according to our internal models of the world and how
126 our language capacity interfaces with them. We get the intuitive feeling that
127 Luke is — whether he wishes to or not, and whether what he says is true or not
128 — *referring to* Peano: our own generative inferences are *about* Peano. Different
129 cognitive models of the world, even possibly two idiolects or I-languages, can
130 conflict with respect to what words denote in conceptual or (core) knowledge
131 spaces. People can communicate not because they ‘share a language’ in which
132 words are (causally) connected to their referents, but rather because individual
133 I-languages overlap to an extent sufficient to make communication possible
134 (McGilvray 1998; Chomsky 2000; Segal 2000; Pietroski 2003; Baggio 2018).

135 M&L discuss cases where machines have been exclusively trained on the
136 kind of orthographic data that Luke may have received about Peano and other
137 historical figures. They write: “*The inputs to LMs are not just forms, but forms with*
138 *particular histories of referential use.* And those histories ground the referents of
139 those forms, whether or not you know them or have any kind of access to
140 them.” They then ask what the philosophical implications of this are. Yet, they
141 do not ask a more relevant question: would a LM trained only on photographs
142 and ‘tokens’ of ant trails accidentally spelling out English sentences yield any
143 philosophical import, even if it achieved comparable accuracy and fluency to
144 a model trained on Wikipedia, and regardless of whether it generated true or
145 false sentences about historical figures? We consider the answer fairly obvious.

146 Moreover, externalist theories of reference require additional stipulations
147 *in their favour*, where words can provide humans and machines with *extensions*
148 that have to be learned and tested continuously during processing. Extensions
149 can be fairly straightforwardly stated for some expressions, like proper names,
150 but are much harder to define for most others, including natural kind terms.
151 An alternative framework, provided by theoretical linguistics and internalist
152 philosophy of language (e.g., Jackendoff 2002; van Lambalgen & Hamm 2004;
153 Pietroski 2018, 2021; Baggio 2018; Pustejovsky & Batiukova 2019; Murphy
154 2023), assumes that lexical items (words) and their compositions are *algorithms*
155 that can instruct cognitive brain systems for thought, planning, reasoning, and

156 so forth.² Conversely, when we lexicalise a concept, we may subtly *change* it or
157 *reformat* it by placing it in a domain-specific intensional space (Pietroski 2018).

158 When we utter a sentence like (1), we are not necessarily presupposing any
159 connections to states of the external world, but to states within our own *models*
160 of the world, however one wants to construe such models:

161 (1) The previous emperor of Kansas is about to announce their new mixtape.

162 Language provides ‘truth-indications’, rather than truth-evaluations. Truth is
163 intimately and intrinsically a *syntactic* or *grammatical* phenomenon (Hinzen &
164 Sheehan 2013): only structures of a certain level of syntactic complexity may
165 be readily judged to be true or false (e.g., complex Tense Phrases, but not basic
166 Noun Phrases in isolation, which would require pragmatic enrichment).

167 Just as how there cannot be an entity that is simultaneously concrete and
168 abstract (Gotham 2016; Murphy 2023), there also cannot be events that exhibit
169 contradictory features.³ Consider an event where John and James are hunting
170 each other. We may say that the sentences in (2) accurately describe the event:

171 (2) a. John chased James athletically but not skillfully.

172 b. James chased John unathletically but skillfully.

173 However, no event could jointly host all of these features: an action cannot be
174 skillful and unskillful, a person cannot be athletic and unathletic at the same
175 time. This has less to do with properties of the ‘external world’, as assumed by
176 most externalists, than with peculiarities of human cognition (Pietroski 2005).
177 What kind of ‘natural history’ is required by LM inputs to achieve successful
178 reference to an extensional treatment of this event? What may be the ultimate
179 anchors, the endpoints of causal histories, for ‘athletical’ and ‘skillfull’? These
180 and other adjective types, along with the examples from Section 3 and others,
181 resist an externalist analysis. Externalism lacks general cognitive applicability,
182 putting aside even more fundamental considerations. Externalist accounts of
183 machine behaviour, which seek commensurability with human cognition, will
184 likewise be stymied. However, current LMs, unlike human minds and brains,

² This is different from Ludlow’s (2003) distinction between types of reference: lexical items can ‘refer’ to other cognitive systems, or they could refer to actual properties of the world.

³ The work of Gotham (2016, 2022) here provides a potent series of arguments in our favour.

185 cannot be understood (meta)internalistically either (Bever et al. 2023), lacking
186 as they do the kinds of cognitive systems required to constrain and infuse key
187 aspects of meaning into a sufficiently broad range of expressions.

188 Most of our objections apply throughout M&L’s paper. For example, they
189 consider the case of ants unintentionally carving out a long path that spells out
190 ‘Peano proved that arithmetic is incomplete’. In contrast, as above, we receive
191 a text from Luke saying the same thing. M&L remark that “Luke’s words mean
192 something definite on their own (regardless of whether you or anyone else
193 interprets them): namely, that Peano proved that arithmetic is incomplete.
194 What Luke said is false: it was Gödel who proved incompleteness. But Luke
195 said something, whereas the ants didn’t say anything at all.”

196 The claim that Luke’s words “mean something on their own” confuses the
197 external ‘sense data’ of orthographic patterns on a screen, or another material
198 support, with “meaningful words”, the *intensions* (internalised algorithms) we
199 trigger *from* such data (Baggio 2018; Murphy 2024).⁴ Luke said something true
200 only *if there was an utterance*, and only if this was his communicative intention:
201 the ‘words’ would not do any referring, for the same reason that orthographic
202 information ‘generated’ by the ants does not do any referring. Relatedly, ‘lion’
203 would not refer to anything in isolation (Hinzen 2016). Only when placed in a
204 particular grammatical configuration (e.g., ‘that lion’) can *we* refer *with it*.

205 The premise of M&L’s main argument is set on a problematic foundation.
206 They write: “We are interested in the question of whether the outputs of LMs’
207 are more like the ants’ patterns or like Luke’s text: do they merely *resemble*
208 meaningful sentences, or are they in fact meaningful sentences?” But what is
209 the difference between merely resembling a meaningful sentence and being
210 one? Luke’s message *also* ‘resembles’ a meaningful sentence: how do we know
211 that our phone is not infected by a virus or bug, and is genuinely showing the
212 results of a human’s communicative action? *Both* the ant’s trail and Luke’s text
213 provide the exact same type of data to our language faculty. Naturally, in the
214 case of Luke, we suspect that there was a referential intent, and so pragmatics

⁴ One of us (E.M.) once asked a literary theorist where they stood on the question of meaning. Where does it reside? In the text? Or in the mind of the reader? Is it socially constructed? Is it provided purely by ‘context’? The magnificent reply given after a thoughtful pause (“I think the text has some work to do”) gestures towards a widespread category mistake, consisting in seeing philosophical implications for reference in the surface forms of linguistic data.

215 kicks into action (Sperber & Wilson 2024). But the difference is in our internal
216 states, that are triggered by or accompany (similar) data (Hagoort 2023).

217 As noted in Section 3, language models patently lack the capacity to form
218 communicative intent, and so any such orthographic output from them could
219 only be truth-evaluable in relation to our own language capacity’s judgments.
220 M&L claim that “nearly all agree” that meaning requires reference, but this is
221 true only if we assume that the language faculty ‘indexes’ words to conceptual
222 entries for activation, composition, and inference. We do not have to stipulate
223 that words enjoy some kind of supra-natural ‘direct’ relationship to entities in
224 the external world, nor do we have to assume that they do so in virtue of their
225 existence in some extra-mental realm. Neither language models themselves
226 can refer, and nor can ‘their words’ refer. We consider these observations to
227 be fairly trivial from the standpoint of contemporary psycholinguistics and
228 theoretical linguistics, and we see little in the way of profound philosophical
229 import here. The question asked by M&L (“whether the word ‘Peano’ output
230 by the LM refers to Peano, or rather doesn’t refer at all”) rests on an invalid
231 notion of reference (Ludlow 2003; Murphy 2014). As was argued in the 1950s,
232 words do not refer; people (with intentions, world models, etc.) do (Strawson
233 1950). M&L speak of “referential contact with the external world”, which we
234 suspect to be unachievable in general by either humans or machines. With the
235 suggestion that machines can deploy words like ‘Peano’ to refer to the external
236 world, “there is a failure of that feeling for reality which ought to be preserved
237 even in the most abstract studies” (Russell 1905).

238 **5. Crawl out through the fallout: Machines in linguistic communities**

239 In the *Fallout* universe, the robot assistant Codsworth’s voice was taken from
240 a recording of a human being long since deceased. It animates the wasteland
241 with echoes of this voice, providing the illusion of it being part of a linguistic
242 community, when in fact it is only a stochastic reassembly of sampled speech.
243 The inclusion of LMs as *bona fide* members of linguistic communities is not
244 unlike Codsworth’s ability to bring up encyclopedia entries in its memory and
245 recite historical facts: both are based upon the artificial agents’ capacity to ‘role
246 play’, or simulate characters that appear to have the mental states that users of
247 these systems would impute to humans showing comparable behaviours. The

248 question is what counts as a ‘member of a linguistic community’: the LM, the
249 simulacra that the LM supports, both, or neither? LMs as such would be highly
250 atypical members of linguistic communities. They lack the ability to identify
251 themselves in social and physical space (e.g., through indexicals) and to form
252 intentions. Extending the notion of ‘linguistic community member’ to include
253 LMs can be a valuable conceptual engineering exercise, but it does not address
254 the issue whether LMs have the required status in *our* communities, such that
255 some of their ‘words’ can refer in the ways envisaged by externalist theories.

256 Recall that the pressing question is whether and how expressions, such as
257 proper names and natural kind terms, ‘refer’ in LMs outputs, such that we can
258 critically assess those outputs for truth and plausibility. This is urgent also in
259 connection with the growing use of language technologies in research (e.g., in
260 literature summarisation, or hypothesis generation), where assessing just how
261 ‘epistemically trustworthy’ LMs’ outputs are is key (Messerli & Crockett 2024).
262 Here, two ideas might be worth considering. The first is that it is *simulacra* that
263 would count as members of human linguistic communities. It is these virtual
264 characters, and not LMs, that we interact with through language, and it is the
265 quality of their outputs which we have to try to evaluate. If an AI summarises
266 scientific articles about electrons, we want to take ‘electron’ in its summaries
267 as ‘referring to’ electrons (a postulate in an explanatory scientific theory). The
268 same may apply to outputs of other tasks, such as hypothesis generation, and
269 to some other expressions (e.g., proper names, but not indexicals). Only then
270 would we be in a position to argue that a summary is not only good or bad qua
271 summary, but also contains true or false, plausible or implausible statements
272 about electrons. The *virtual* agent thus makes statements about the *real* world:
273 this makes it a more viable member of a linguistic community than, say, some
274 character in a science fiction book who talks about electrons, but whose claims
275 we could only assess in the fictional world of the novel, where electrons might
276 have properties they lack in the actual world or vice versa. However, from our
277 observations in Section 4 follow general qualms about reference, which would
278 make it difficult for us to accept the argument that even *some* of virtual agents’
279 words can *refer*, in the sense of “achieve ‘word-to-world’ connections”: LMs, *a*
280 *fortiori* the virtual agents they support, simply lack the mental structures that
281 mediate between language and the world, and that are necessary for people to
282 be able to refer to aspects of the world.

283 One way out is to argue that LM’s virtual agents are not able to refer, but
284 their outputs are *about* the same subject matters those claims would be about,
285 were they generated by humans. *Aboutness* is more directly applicable to LMs
286 than reference: LMs’ performance in topic modelling tasks is easily explained
287 by positing internal states that are less problematic philosophically, and that
288 do not invite unwarranted comparisons to human cognition. In the example
289 above, the AI’s text will be *about* electrons. This does not imply that the AI can
290 refer to electrons, only that the strings it generates *concern* electrons, for which
291 human language has a rigid designator in the term ‘electron’ (Hawke 2018).

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