In situ Interpretation without Type Mismatches
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Heim & Kratzer (H&K 1998)\(^1\), which we address here, claim (p.178) that quantified DPs in object position, as in (1), constitute a “type mismatch”.

(1) John offended every linguist

Quantified DPs are assigned a semantic type \(((e, t), t)\) in which they map properties, denotations of type \((e, t)\), to truth values, denotations of type \(t\). Properties are functions from entities to truth values. Ss like (1) are problematic for them since the transitive verb offend has type \((e, (e, t))\), not the type for properties but rather that of functions from entities to properties. So on H&K’s analysis neither offend nor every linguist is interpreted as a function whose domain contains the denotation of the other, so their interpretative mechanisms “are stuck” (H&K p.179) and cannot assign an interpretation to offend every linguist.

H&K adopt a Fregean solution to the problem by changing the syntax of (1) so that offend every linguist is not a logical constituent. Rather the syntactic object which is compositionally interpreted is (2), in which the DP every linguist has been moved:

(2) \(((\text{every linguist}), (n, (\text{John offended } t_0)))\)

The type mismatch problem disappears since every linguist, of type \(((e, t), t)\), now combines with an expression \((n, (\text{John offended } t_0))\) of type \((e, t)\). It denotes the function more usually denoted by \(\lambda x. \text{John offended } x\), which maps an entity \(b\) to the truth value of John offended \(x\) when the variable \(x\) is set to denote \(b\)^2.

H&K contrast their movement solution with one in which every linguist is interpreted in situ. The option they present involves assigning multiple types to quantified DPs. Every linguist would have type \(((e, t), t)\) when used as a subject, combining with an expression of
type (e,t) to form one of type t, but it has type ((e,(e,t)),(e,t)) when used as an object. There it maps binary relations, such as that denoted by offend, to properties, such as that denoted by offend every linguist. H&K acknowledge that the two approaches are sufficiently different on a global level to resist easy comparison. And they allow that it is “conceivable” that the two approaches are simultaneously useful. Then they present three “standard” (p. 193) arguments in favor of movement, offering no comparable merits of in situ approaches.

In this Reply I offer a more natural in situ analysis not involving multiple types, drawn from Keenan (1992, 1993) and Keenan & Westerståhl (1997). I argue that it is the natural, or default, interpretation of DPs. An analogue of movement is used for a variety of “marked” cases. These claims are compatible with Hornstein’s (1995) minimalist analysis in which movement is a “last resort requirement” (p.157).

**Formal preliminaries** It will behoove us to be explicit about the basics of defining functions, so we repeat here some information that many readers know, if just implicitly. A function F from a set A to a set B is a way of associating with each α in A a unique element β in B, and we say that F maps α to β and write F(α) = β. A is the domain of the function F, noted Dom(F), and B its codomain, Cod(F). The set {F(α)|α ∈ A} of values of F is the range of F. We use map as a synonym for function. In general to define a function F you must say: (1) what Dom(F) is, (2) what Cod(F) is, and (3) for each α ∈ Dom(F), what F(α) is. We note the set of functions from A into B as [A → B]. (B^A is more common, but hard to iterate).

For V any set and α_1,...,α_n n choices of elements from V, we write <α_1,...,α_n> for that sequence of length n, called an n-ary sequence, whose first coordinate is α_1, whose second is α_2,..., and whose n^{th} is α_n. e is the unique sequence of length 0. Now we define a simple function referred to in the sequel:

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Let $V$ be the two element set $\{a,b\}$ and $V^*$ the set of finite sequences of elements of $V$. So $V^* = \{e, <a>, <b>, <a,a>, <a,b>, \ldots\}$. We define a function $h$ which maps each non-empty such sequence to the result of deleting its last coordinate. Formally,

$$\text{Dom}(h) = V^* - \{e\}, \text{Cod}(h) = V^*, \text{and for all } n \geq 0, \ h(<\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_{n+1}>) = <\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_n>. \ \Box$$

So $h(<a,a,a>) = <a,a>$. Also $h(<a,a,b>) = <a,a>$. Note that for each $n \geq 0$, $h$ has all sequences of length $n+1$ in its domain, mapping each to a sequence of length $n$. But there is no sense in which $h$ is "ambiguous". We have well defined $h$ in giving its domain, $V^* - \{e\}$, its codomain, $V^*$, and in stating its unique value at each argument in its domain.

**Interpreting DPs** We consider first the model theoretic interpretation of the subject DPs in (4), where for notational uniformity we use 'Pn' for $n$-place predicate – they combine successively with $n$ arguments to form a $P0$ or zero place predicate (Sentence, IP, ...).

(4)

$$\begin{align*}
\text{P0} & \\
\text{DP} & \\
\text{P1} & \\
\text{all/most/some/no poets} & \text{daydream}
\end{align*}$$

As in H&K, P0s are of type $t$ and denote in the set $\{0,1\}$ of truth values ($0 = \text{False}$, $1 = \text{True}$) and P1s are of type ($e,t$), and so in a model with domain $E$, denote properties, functions from $E$ into $\{0,1\}$. Nouns like poet are also property denoting. We write the noun in upper case for the set of elements of $E$ the noun property maps to 1. So $\text{POET} \subseteq E$. Then, as in H&K, **Def 1** gives correct denotations (in upper case) for the Dets in (4). They map the subsets $A$ of $E$ to functions mapping properties to truth values.

**Def 1** For all subsets $A$ of $E$ and all properties $p$ from $E$ into $\{0,1\}$,

a. $\text{ALL}(A)(p) = 1$ iff $A \subseteq \{b \in E | p(b) = 1\}$

b. $\text{SOME}(A)(p) = 1$ iff $A \cap \{b \in E | p(b) = 1\} \neq \varnothing$ \hspace{1cm} ($\varnothing$ is the empty set)
c. \(\text{NO}(A)(p) = 1 \iff A \cap \{b \in E | p(b) = 1\} = \emptyset\)

d. \(\text{MOST}(A)(p) = 1 \iff |A \cap \{b \in E | p(b) = 1\}| > |A|/2\) \(\quad (|X| = \text{the cardinality of } X)\)

So \(\text{ALL}(POET)\) is true of the \textit{DAYDREAM} property iff each \(b \in \text{POET}\) is a \(b\) that \textit{DAYDREAM} is true of. That is, each poet daydreams. \(\text{SOME}(POET)\) maps \textit{DAYDREAM} to True iff the intersection of the set of poets with the set of objects that daydream is not empty. \textit{No poet daydreams} is true iff that set is empty. And \textit{Most poets daydream} is true iff the number of poets who daydream is greater than half the number of poets.

So we agree with H&K on the values that \(\text{ALL}(POET)\), etc. have at P1 denotations. But we differ from them in not claiming that the domain of those functions is \textit{just} the set of properties. Rather we will treat these functions as mapping \(Pn+1\) denotations, noted \(Pn+1\), to \(Pn\) (Pn denotations), all \(n\), just as our function \(h\) above took sequences of length \(n+1\) as arguments yielding sequences of length \(n\) as values, \textit{all} \(n\). The difference is that our new functions map each set of \(n+1\)-ary sequences to a set of \(n\)-ary sequences. And the crucial idea here is that the value of one of these functions at any \(Pn+1\) is uniquely determined by its values at the \(P1s\). So once we have defined one of these functions on the \(P1s\) (e.g. \(\text{ALL}(A)\), \(\text{MOST}(A)\), etc.) we have uniquely determined its values at all \(Pn+1s\). First let us formally define the sets \(Pn\) in which \(Pn\)'s denote (\(E\) is arbitrary and held constant throughout).

\textbf{Def 2}  
  i. \(P0 = \{0,1\}\) and   
  ii. for all \(n\), \(Pn+1 = [E \to Pn]\)

So \(P1\) is \([E \to \{0,1\}]\), \(P2\) is \([E \to P1] = [E \to [E \to \{0,1\}]]\), both as in H&K. And now we take the domain of the functions \(F\) we are defining to be \(\bigcup_{n \geq 0} Pn+1\), the set of \(n+1\)-ary relations, all \(n\). So all the unary relations, the maps from \(E\) into \(\{0,1\}\), are in that set. And all the binary relations (maps from \(E\) into the unary relations) are in that set, etc. The codomain of these
functions is $\bigcup_{n \geq 0} P_n$. And for each each $H \in P_{n+1}$, $F(H)$ is that element of $P_n$ given by:

\[ F(H(b_n)...(b_1) = \text{def } F(\lambda x(H(x)(b_n)...(b_1))) \]  

all $b_1,...,b_n \in E$

$F(H)$ takes $n$ arguments and so is a $P_n$. It maps those arguments to the same truth value $F$ maps the $P_1 \lambda x.H(x)(b_n)...(b_1)$ to. The values $F$ takes at $P_1$s can be anything we like, but once specified its values at all $P_n$s, $n > 1$, are determined by (5). Note: when $n = 0$, $P_0 = P_1 = [E \rightarrow \{0,1\}]$ and $F(H)$ is a truth value, $F(\lambda x(Hx))$. (Note that $\lambda x(Hx)$ is $H$).

To see that (5) yields correct results in a simple case let $John$ denote an element $j \in E$. Then, writing $[\cdot]$ for the usual compositional interpreting function,

\[ [[John admires all poets]] = ((\text{ALL}(\text{POET}))(\text{ADMIRE}))(j) \]

\[ = (\text{ALL}(\text{POET}))(\lambda x.\text{ADMIRE}(x)(j)) \]

\[ = 1 \text{ iff } \text{POET} \subseteq \{ b \in E | \text{ADMIRE}(b)(j) = 1 \} \]

(5) \[ \text{Def ALL, } \lambda \]

The last line says that $John \text{ admires all poets}$ iff each poet is a member of the set of objects John admires. The value that ALL(POET) assigns to the $P_2$ ADMIRE, line 1 above, is determined by the values it assigns to $P_1$s, line 2.

Elements of $\text{Den}_E(DP)$, the set of possible denotations of DPs over a domain $E$, will be called functions of type $<1>$. They reduce arity (adicity) by 1. The claim that DPs should be interpreted as type $<1>$ functions will be called The Rich DP Hypothesis (or just Rich DP). It differs from H&K's Move DP in which DPs only take properties as arguments. On Rich DP they take elements of $P_{n+1}$ as arguments, all $n$. And we note without proof:

**Theorem 1** For every $F$ from $P_1$ to $P_0$ there is exactly one element of $\text{Den}_E(DP)$ which takes the same values at the elements of $P_1$ as $F$ does. \[ \square \]

Thus we can define a type$<1>$ function $F$ by giving its values on the $P_1$s and saying that $F$ is
that type<1> function with those values on the P1s. On this understanding we might continue to write the type of DPs as ((e,t),t), though we might prefer a more transparent notation, such as (p_{n+1},p_n). Note that no type<1> function is "ambiguous", but each has a large domain.

**Some Linguistic Implications of the Rich DP Hypothesis**

1. An immediate, and encouraging, consequence of **Rich DP** is that we have at least a partial account for why English speakers utter DPs in object position. **Move DP** is, on reflection, quite discouraging. It says that to interpret transitive Ss like *John admires all poets* we must change the structure English provides so that *all poets* occurs outside the scope of *admires*.

   But why then does English use these structures? Why don’t we speak in LFs of the sort H&K provide? **Rich DP**, on which we interpret just the constituents of *John admires all poets*, provides an answer to this question, **Move DP** does not.

   Note that we are not impugning Frege’s achievement. He found, and found first, a solution to the problem of “multiple quantification” – it can be understood as iterated unary quantification. But Frege’s problem was to provide a foundation for mathematics. Ours is to model natural language. We might state our problem as “How can we interpret transitive Ss with Frege’s degree of logical adequacy using the structures natural language provides?”.

   Frege was free to make up structures to say what he wanted. We linguists lack that freedom.

2. A second merit of **Rich DP** is that it prompts us to look for (and find) new logical types of DPs. **Move DP** can only model object DPs that could be interpreted as subjects since they just map P1s to P0s. Now Keenan and Stavi (1986) showed that over a finite E all maps from P1 to P0 are denotable – for any such function F we can construct a (possibly quite tedious) DP which could be interpreted as F. But on **Rich DP** we consider functions from n+1-ary
relations to n-ary ones, in particular ones from binary to unary ones. A moment's reflection shows that the maps from $P_2 = [E \rightarrow \{0,1\}]$ to $P_1 = [E \rightarrow \{0,1\}]$ vastly outnumber those from $P_1$ to $P_0 = \{0,1\}$. Indeed for $|E| = n$ the latter number is just $2^k$, for $k = 2^n$. But the former number is $2^{nm}$, for $m = 2^j, j = n^2$. So in an $E$ with just two entities there are $2^{32}$ or about four thousand million maps from $P_2 \rightarrow P_1$. Only 16 of them are type $<1>$ (!).

2.1 DP Anaphors Are there not other object DPs, ones that do not occur as subjects (with the same interpretation) which enable us to denote some of these other maps from $P_2$ to $P_1$? There are. Two such classes, discussed in Keenan (1987a), are nominal (DP) anaphors and predicate anaphors. The former are illustrated by the italicized DPs in (7).

(7)  

a. No poet admires himself /only himself

b. John criticized every student but himself / no student but himself

c. John praised both himself and the teacher / neither himself nor any other student

d. Zakanya ta kula de kwikwiyo-n kanta
lioness she watch of cub-of herself
The lioness watched over her own cub

(Hausa; Brenda Clark pc)

(H&K, p.204)

Re (7d), languages with DP anaphors as opposed to clitic or verbal affix ones, commonly allow them to occur as possessors: Hindi, Japanese, Georgian, Chinese, Basque, Korean, Uzbek, and Hebrew are other examples. English disallows possessor anaphors (*She lost herself's wallet). Other languages may have designated anaphoric Dets not built as possessor’s of a DP. Here we class Latin suus, Russian svoi, and Norwegian sin.

Here first are plausible denotations for some of these anaphors†, writing SELF for the (gender neutral) denotation of himself, herself, etc. H is arbitrary in $P_2$, a is arbitrary in $E$:
\( (8) \)

\[ \text{a. } \text{SELF}(H)(a) = H(a)(a) \]

\[ \text{b. } (\text{ONLY SELF})(H)(a) = 1 \text{ iff for all } b \in E, \text{H}(b)(a) = 1 \text{ iff } b = a \]

\[ \text{c. } (\text{EVERY A BUT SELF})(H)(a) = 1 \text{ iff } a \in A \land \{ b \in A \mid \text{H}(b)(a) = 1 \} = A - \{a\} \]

**Theorem 2** (Keenan 1987c, 1992) For \(|E| \geq 2\), there is no type <1> function \( F \) such that \( F(H) = \text{SELF}(H) \) all \( H \in \mathbf{P2} \). Ditto for ONLY SELF, NO E BUT SELF, SELF’s CUBS,…

Theorem 2 says that the way SELF, etc. map \( \mathbf{P2} \) to properties is new – no type<1> function takes just those values at all \( \mathbf{P2} \)s. It is instructive to see why this is so. Imagine a situation in which we are talking only about people and (9a) is true. Then (9b) must hold, and its truth does not change upon replacing most poets by any type<1> DP:

\( (9) \)

\[ \text{a. John admires exactly the people who Bill trusts} \]

\[ \lambda x(\text{ADMIRE}(x)(\text{john})) = \lambda x(\text{TRUST}(x)(\text{bill})) \]

\[ \text{b. Therefore, John admires most poets if and only if Bill trusts most poets} \]

\[ (\text{MOST(POET)})(\lambda x(\text{ADMIRE}(x)(\text{john}))) = (\text{MOST(POET)})(\lambda x(\text{TRUST}(x)(\text{bill}))) \]

But (9b) does not follow if most poets is replaced with (only) himself, everyone but himself, etc: If John admires just Maud, Bill, Frida, Ben, and Sue, and those are just the people Bill trusts, then John admires himself is false, and Bill trusts himself is true. More formally, a type<1> h applied to \( \mathbf{P2} \)s \( F \) and \( G \) satisfies the invariance condition in (10a). “Anaphoric” functions like SELF, etc. do not, but they satisfy the weaker condition (10b).

\( (10) \)

\[ \text{a. For } a, b \in E, \text{ if } \lambda x(\text{F}(x)(a)) = \lambda x(\text{G}(x)(b)) \text{ then } h(\text{F})(a) = h(\text{G})(b) \]

\[ \text{b. For } a \in E, \text{ if } \lambda x(\text{F}(x)(a)) = \lambda x(\text{G}(x)(a)) \text{ then } h(\text{F})(a) = h(\text{G})(a) \]

As a particular case, (10b) says that (11) is a valid argument.

\( (11) \)

John admires exactly the people he (John) trusts

Ergo, John admires everyone but himself iff John trusts everyone but himself
Let us refer to DPAs which denote functions from $P_{n+2}$ to $P_{n+1}$ satisfying (10b) and failing (10a) for some choice of $E$, $F$ and $G$, anaphoric DPAs (DPAs). The italicized DPAs in (7) are DPAs. DPAs such as *Rosa* and *most students at UCLA* are non-anaphoric and will be called referentially autonomous, as their interpretation doesn’t depend on anything outside them.

DPAs greatly expand the number of denotable functions from $P_2$ to $P_1$, but still come nowhere close to the total (Keenan 1987a). The set of DPAs is isomorphic to $[E \to \text{Den}_b\text{DP}]$ and so can be easily counted. (This isomorphism maps SELF to that map sending each $b \in E$ to $I_b$, that GQ which maps each property $p$ to the truth value $p(b)$).

A third advantage of interpreting DPAs directly is more “traditional”: it provides a partial explanation for the ungrammaticality of the Ss in (12).

(12) *(Only) Himself*/Everyone but himself*/Both himself and the teacher fell asleep

If the subjects in (12) are interpreted as DPAs then the Ss should be ungrammatical since they are uninterpretable – DPAs require $P_2$ arguments and the $S$ provides none. Similarly for (13) providing that the transitive verb + object must form a $P_1$.

(13) *Himself*/Everyone but himself*/Both himself and the teacher [*in praised every student]

(Cf. Every student praised himself/everyone but himself/both himself and the teacher)

Since the Ss in (13) fail Principle A (*Anaphors are locally bound*) given the language specific stipulation that *himself*, etc. is an anaphor, Binding Theory (BT) makes a stronger predication: (13) is ungrammatical. Our conditional prediction is weaker. It only says that IF *himself*, etc. are interpreted as DPAs in (12) then the Ss are ungrammatical. Another option is that speakers change their interpretation of these expressions once they are in subject position. In simple cases in standard English this does not happen. But there are varieties of English where it does, such as Irish English (Keenan 1988; Filppula 1999:77 – 89) and various speech
communities in the American North East. Crucially *himself* in (14a) and the first occurrence of *herself* in (14b) are not interpreted as SELF but rather deictically, as the prominent male/female in context. The Japanese “reflexive” *zibun* is also used deictically (Keenan 1988):

(14) a. (Said to a co-worker who is arriving late to work) Irish English

- Watch it. Himself is in a lousy mood today. (Himself = the boss)

b. (You, shouting at me to hurry up)

- Wait a minute! Herself is getting herself ready. (Herself = my wife)

(15) a. Hanako-ga zibun-o utagatte-iru
    Hanako-nom -acc doubts
    *Hanako doubts herself* or *Hanako doubts Speaker*

b. Zibun-ga Hanako-o utagatta-iru
    -nom Hanako-acc doubts
    *Speaker doubts Hanako, *Hanako doubts herself.*

The correct generalization then concerns not simply the *distribution* of expressions like *himself/* *zibun* but also their *interpretations* in different positions, as our approach says. We turn now to a second new type of map from P2 to P1, *predicate anaphors* (PAs).

2.2 *Predicate Anaphors* are dependent on the P2 argument, as in (16c).

(16) a. Mary interviewed more/fewer poets than Sue knows

b. Mary knows more/fewer poets than Sue knows

c. Mary knows *more/fewer poets than Sue / exactly as many poets as Sue (does)*

The object of *read* in (16a) denotes a type<1> function, illustrated on P1s in (17).

(17) \((\text{MORE POET THAN SUE KNOW})(\text{CAME TO THE PARTY}) = 1 \iff \vert \{b|\text{KNOW}(b)(\text{sue})\} \vert > \vert \{b|(\text{CAME TO THE PARTY})(b)\} \vert\)

As a type<1> function its values at P2s are as in (18):

(18) \((\text{MORE POET THAN SUE KNOW})(\text{INTERVIEW})(a) = 1 \iff \ldots\)
\(|\text{POET} \cap \{b \in E|\text{INTERVIEW}(b)(a) = 1\}| > |\text{POET} \cap \{b \in E|\text{KNOW}(b)(\text{sue}) = 1\}|\)

(16b) is interpreted similarly to (16a), but in (16c) the second P2 knows is missing. A correct interpretation treats more poets than Sue as a P2 anaphor, mapping P2s to P1s as in (19):

(19) \((\text{MORE POETS THAN SUE})(F)(a) = 1 \iff |\text{POET} \cap \{b \in E|F(b)(a) = 1\}| > |\text{POET} \cap \{b \in E|F(b)(\text{sue}) = 1\}|\)

We note without proof the analogue of Theorem 2: No type<1> function takes just the values at P2s that MORE POET THAN SUE does. PAs require a Pn argument, \(n \geq 2\), so we have a partial semantic explanation for the ungrammaticality of (20b) (but none for why the missing P2 cannot be filled in deictically).

(20) a. Fewer students than John knows came to the party

b. *Fewer students than we know know Mary

(Intended: Fewer students than we know Mary)

2.3 Beyond the Frege Boundary DPAs and PAs are functions that map P2 to P1, but they are not type<1> as they cannot take P1s as arguments and so can’t cutscope a subject. And matters are much worse. Given type<1> functions F and G define FcG to be the type<2> function mapping each p in P2 to F(G(p)), a truth value. MOST(POET)\circ\text{NO}(\text{PLAY}) is an example, as in Most poets have written no plays. But English presents many subject-object pairs which determine type<2> functions which are provably not composites of any type<1> ones. Some examples are in (21). For others, plus proofs, see Keenan(1987c,1992):

(21) a. Different people like different things

b. All the students answered the same questions (on the exam)

c. John admires Mary but no one else admires anyone else

d. John doesn’t like Bill but everyone else likes everyone else
e. A certain number of teachers interviewed a much larger number of candidates

We have illustrated in situ interpretations for a variety of complex DPs. Many are not type<1> and hence not representable in the Fregean way H&K assume. We conclude with a discussion about what semantic representation would look like with DPs interpreted as type<1> functions. And to this end we must consider quantifier scope ambiguities.

4. Scope ambiguities H&K support Move DP with arguments from quantifier scope ambiguity, antecedent contained deletion (ACD), and bound-variable anaphora. The ambiguity argument is persuasive. It is based on primary semantic data which all theories must account for. The other two arguments are based on prior decisions about the representation of quantified phrases and deletion conditions.6

(22a) has the readings expressed in (22b) and (22c). (22c) is true if different manuscripts were read by different editors, but (22b) may fail in such cases.

(22) a. At least one editor read every manuscript

b. There was one editor who read all the manuscripts (ONS: Object Narrow Scope)

c. For each manuscript there was an editor who read it (OWS: Object Wide Scope)

The reader can verify that interpreting every manuscript in situ as a type<1> function yields the ONS reading, (22b). So we need a way to represent the OWS reading in (22c). The representation in (23), an insignificant variation of H&K’s notation, will do.

(23) (every manuscript)λx. at least one editor read x

(23) uses lambda abstraction, where for x a variable of any type α and φ an expression of any type β, λx.φ, abbreviated (x,φ), is of type (α,β), interpreted as a map from α type denotations to β type ones. In (23) x is of type e and at least one editor read x of type t, so (x.at least one editor read x) is of type (e,t), mapping an entity b to the truth value of at least one editor read
\(x\) when \(x\) is set to denote \(b\). So (23) is true iff the set of manuscripts is a subset of the set of \(b\)'s that \(\llbracket(x, \text{at least one editor read } x)\rrbracket\) maps to \(1\). To establish the truth of (23) we see that for each manuscript \(b\) we must choose an editor that read it – nothing prevents us from choosing different editors for different manuscripts.

So let us use lambda abstraction in forming possible semantic representations, \(sr\)'s, for English expressions. To be explicit: define the set \(SR\) of \(sr\)'s for English to be the set of English expressions closed under lambda abstraction and concatenation of lambda expressions of type \((\alpha, \beta)\) with expressions of type \(\alpha\) yielding ones of type \(\beta\). We assume variables of all types\(^7\). The elements of \(SR\) are compositionally interpreted with all DPs interpreted in situ. We use (24a,b) to represent the two scope readings of (22a).

(24)  
\(a. \) (ONS) \hspace{1cm} \text{At least one editor read every manuscript}  
\(b. \) (OWS) \hspace{1cm} \text{(every manuscript)(x, \text{at least one editor read } x)}

The \(sr\) in (24a) is string identical to the English expression (22a). But as an \(sr\) it is interpreted with every manuscript in situ and thus with narrow scope. In (24b) every manuscript of type ((e,t),t) concatenates with \((x, \text{at least one editor read } x)\) of type (e,t) and thus has at least one editor in its scope. No movement, only concatenation, is used in deriving (24b).

\(SR\) properly includes LF. It has lambda terms that abstract over variables deep in islands and hence represent the meaning of no English expression. It also allows vacuous binding – \((x, \phi)\) for \(\phi\) with no occurrences of \(x\). Our intent is simply that \(SR\) be rich enough to provide all the semantic representations we need. To represent the meanings of English expressions \(d\) we must associate with \(d\) a possibly empty set \(sr(d)\) of \(sr\)'s such that (1) each meaning of \(d\) is represented by one of the \(sr\)'s in \(sr(d)\), and (2) each \(sr\) in \(sr(d)\) expresses a meaning of \(d\). Following H\&K we would do this by moving every manuscript in (22a) to
some pre-subject position, possibly one of many (Beghelli and Stowell 1997) thereby deriving (24b) from (22a). To derive (24a) from (22a) no movement is needed.

In response to the pre-theoretical question “What class of formal objects might we use to represent the meanings expressible in English?” the naive sensible answer is “English expressions themselves”, since they are what we already use to express the meanings of English expressions. But a scientific shortcoming of this answer is that many English expressions are used to express more than one meaning, and in the interests of precision and clarity we want to represent each meaning unambiguously. One option is to simply augment the class of English expressions with some additional structure (such as lambda abstraction) and then associate each English expression d with a set sr(d) as above. We take this route to keep our sr’s as close as possible in form to the LFs adduced in H&K. But there are at least two other options: (1) as in Montague (1969) enrich the syntax of English so that different scope readings of Ss like (22a) are derived differently and then compositionally interpret the derivations. And (2) just give unambiguous paraphrases in ordinary English for each scope ambiguity, as we did in (22b) and (22c). So each sr(d) would just be a set of ordinary English expressions. But can we always make each element of each sr(d) unambiguous? Can we always disambiguate English in English? It would be unwise to assume that we can.

Now we can reconstruct the claim that the LFs associated with a given expression d are derivable from d by applying rules of the sort independently motivated in the overt syntax. But we can also do more. We can say that an expression such as (25a) fails to have an sr such as (25b) since any attempt to derive (25b) from (25a) violates a constraint on movement.

(25) a. The photographer who took most of the pictures sued the magazine

b. *(Most of the pictures)(x.the photographer who took x sued the magazine)
The sr (25b) is compositionally interpretable and would be true if many pictures were taken, each by a different photographer and most of the photographers sued the magazine. But (25a) is not true in such a case. Now we want to be able to exhibit the sr that (25a) would have if the movement constraint was not in force. We want this precisely to show that movement constraints are not semantically motivated, but are purely syntactic in nature. But H&K cannot do this, as the relevant sr, (25b) is not an LF as all ways of deriving it violate a movement constraint. We now present our general proposal concerning scope assignment:

The Principle of Natural Scope (PNS)

Referentially autonomous DPs can always be interpreted in situ. Some may also receive a wide scope interpretation, conditions permitting.

Type<1> DPs interpreted in situ have narrow scope relative to type<1> DPs which c-command them. So in transitive Ss the PNS implies that ONS (Object Narrow Scope) readings are always available; OWS ones may fail to be, and when available are often dispreferred to the ONS one. Further, many conditions disfavor or block OWS readings entirely (e.g. nominal and predicate anaphors). Few block an ONS reading. Elevating this observation to the status of a “Principle” is possibly original here, but the claim itself is not. For example “The scope interpretation that matches surface hierarchy often outshines the one that does not” (Szabolcsi 1997b:110)

Strict DPAs, PAs, and the object DPs in (21) are not referentially autonomous so the PNS does not apply to them. We are only concerned with DPs that can take P1s as arguments and thus which can have wide scope. The “conditions permitting” clause is a hedge. The empirical significance of the PNS depends on both the extent to which in situ interpretations predominate over wide scope ones and the extent to which we can state
explicitly the conditions which permit or block wide scope interpretations.

The PNS is a naturaleness constraint: it says that natural language does not mislead us by putting quantified DPs in positions where we cannot interpret them. Rather the natural interpretation of DPs is precisely one in which they are interpreted right where we say them. Other interpretations require more complicated, less natural, semantic representations. To adapt an adage "Language is subtle but she is not mean".

Below we provide some support for the PNS. A thorough study would have to treat the thousands of pairs of DPs built from the Dets presented in Keenan & Moss 1985 or Keenan & Stavi 1986. In addition boolean compounds of DPs would have to be treated, as well as transitive verbs of different sorts. We can not undertake such a study here, but we will note some common scope patterns which enable us to evaluate the PNS to some extent.

The choice of Dets is perhaps the single most crucial factor in determining the possibility of scope ambiguity in transitive clauses. For example, given that both ONS and OWS are available in (26a), we see that they are also available in (26b) and (26c), since the Dets are unchanged. But in (26) when no replaces at least one we lose the OWS reading.

(26)  
a. At least one editor read every manuscript ONS  OWS  
b. At least one student read every assignment ONS  OWS  
c. At least one judge read every brief ONS  OWS

(27)  
a. No editor read every manuscript ONS  *OWS  
b. No student read every assignment, etc. ONS  *OWS

The OWS analysis of (27a) is expressed by Every manuscript has the property that no editor read it. But speakers do not assert (27a) intending that meaning. Thus we cannot claim that every Y in object position may always take wide scope over Det X in subject position. It does
for Det = *at least one* but fails for Det = *no*. Thus (Ben-Shalom 1993) relative scope is a relation between expressions, here the subject and object DPs, not just a property of one or the other. The pattern in (27) generalizes (Liu 1990) to decreasing DPs:

(28)  
   a. Neither John nor Mary read every manuscript  
        ONS  *OWS  
   b. Less than half the editors read every manuscript  
        ONS  *OWS  
   c. Fewer than five editors read every manuscript  
        ONS  *OWS  
   d. None of the editors read every manuscript  
        ONS  *OWS  
   e. Not more than two editors read every manuscript  
        ONS  *OWS  
   f. No student’s advisor read every manuscript  
        ONS  *OWS

Can we generalize further over the Dets in object position? Surprisingly the judgments in (28) change little when *every* is replaced by *each*, known to seek wide scope in a variety of contexts (Hornstein 1995:237). Perhaps some of the *’s change to ?? or even ?, but ONS is the most available reading in all cases; So (29) is one pattern that supports the PNS:

(29)  
   Decreasing DPs in subject position tend to block OWS readings of universal DPs.

An additional range of cases in (30) seems to further support (29) and thus the PNS:

(30)  
   a. No pupil memorized more than two poems  
        ONS  *OWS  
   b. Neither John nor Mary / Less than half the pupils/  
        ONS  *OWS  

   None of the pupils / Not more than two pupils/  

   No pupil’s teacher memorized more than two poems

But it is known (Schlenker 2004) that modified numerals in object position resist wide scope:

(31)  
   a. Every pupil memorized more than four poems  
        ONS  *OWS  
   b. Every pupil memorized exactly four poems  
        ONS  *OWS  
   c. Every pupil memorized fewer than four poems  
        ONS  *OWS
So the pattern in (30) is independently predicted by (32), further supporting PNS:

(32) Modified numerical Dets in object position require or strongly prefer narrow scope

Also two place cardinal Dets (Keenan 1987b, Keenan & Moss 1985) resist wide scope:

(33) a. Every pupil read more poems than plays ONS *OWS
    b. Every pupil read fewer poems than plays ONS *OWS
    c. Every pupil read exactly as many poems as plays ONS *OWS
    d. Every pupil read twice/half as many poems as plays ONS *OWS

The OWS analysis of 33a) says that more poems than plays are such that every pupil read them. But speakers do not use (33a) with that meaning. So (34) further supports the PNS:

(34) Object DPs built from two place Dets prefer or require narrow scope

So far we have seen one example of a scope ambiguity and many examples of transitive Ss in which object DPs prefer or require narrow scope. And our one example of scope ambiguity only generalizes very slightly to other increasing subject DPs:

(35) a. More than two editors read every / each manuscript ONS OWS
    b. Some editor read every / each manuscript ONS ?OWS
    c. Either John or Mary read every / each manuscript ONS ??OWS / ?OWS

The strong preference in interpreting (35c) is that either John read every ms or that Mary did. The OWS would be true if John read only some and Mary read the others. With some other universal DPs in subject position the ONS and OWS readings are logically equivalent, whence we cannot make a case for a scope ambiguity:

(36) a. Every editor read every manuscript ONS = OWS
    b. Both John and Mary read every manuscript ONS = OWS

We have already seen that with decreasing subject and universal object we do not get the
OWS reading. The same holds for non-monotonic subjects:

(37) a. Exactly two editors read every manuscript ONS *?OWS

   b. Every editor but John read every manuscript ONS *OWS

   c. More students than teachers read every manuscript ONS *OWS

However the OWS reading improves slightly to ?OWS if each replaces every. Even so this pattern provides support for the PNS:

(38) ONS is preferred with non-monotonic subjects and universal objects

Further, Ss like (39) are classically scope ambiguous (consistent with the PNS but not specifically supportive of it) but Hornstein (1995:238) finds it to have only the ONS reading:

(39) Each / Every pupil recited a poem

My judgments agree with Hornstein’s. To support this we must specify what we mean in saying that an expression is semantically ambiguous. This is not the same as having a test for ambiguity, such as being derived from different deep structures (in early theories). The accuracy of a proposed test must still be evaluated against our primary intuitions (Does derivation from different DSs yield just the pretheoretically correct results?), just as a proposed rule of deduction (Derive Q from P and if P then Q) must be evaluated against our primary intuitions of entailment (A entails B iff B is true under all the conditions that make A true). Here is an attempt at a pretheoretical definition of semantic ambiguity:

(40) Definition An expression d is semantically ambiguous between meanings m₁, m₂,... iff a competent speaker who utters d sincerely (not in jest, ironically, etc.) intends to communicate just one of the mᵢ and a good faith addressee accepts this.

(40) is pretty subjective but seems consistent with classical clear cases. If you tell me that The chickens are ready to eat and I ask Do you mean they are cooked? Or that we should feed

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them? You cannot answer Hmmmm. I’m not sure. Such a response just means that you
didn’t understand what you said (so you’re not competent). Similarly suppose you report
that John told Bill he was bleeding and I query you with You mean John was bleeding? Or
Bill? Or some third party? I expect you to have an answer.

Contrast these cases with a pretheoretically clear case of vagueness or non-specificity.
You tell me that a student called while I was out and I respond Do you mean an Albanian
student? Your reaction should be one of puzzlement since nothing you said reveals an
intention to communicate the nationality of the student. Even if you wanted to say that an
Albanian student called, you did not in fact say that so the good faith addressee cannot be
expected to infer it. Thus, though the states of affairs in which an Albanian student called and
a non-Albanian one called are different, the sentence is not ambiguous according to the
nationality of the student(s).

Now suppose I assert (39) and you query Was it was the same poem? I can in this
case respond with Hmmmm. I’m not sure. I just know that each student recited a poem in
front of the class. So we can assert (39) without intending the OWS reading. Further, it
would I think be unreasonable to respond to your query with Of course, that’s what I just
said!, piqued that you didn’t understand that I meant the OWS reading. Even if I did I didn’t
give you enough lexical or syntactic information to infer that. I should have said something
like a certain poem, or at least one or some (not sm) poem. So let us consider (41):

(41) a. Every pupil recited a certain poem

    b. Every pupil recited some poem

    c. Every pupil recited one / two / five poems

a certain poem in (41a) can naturally scope over every pupil, though it admits a functional,
narrow scope interpretation as well (It can be true if every pupil recited his favorite poem, regardless of whether they differ or not). Now a certain is a "marked" form, contrasting with the simple indefinite article a. certain here is not an independently contentful adjective applying to poem, such as short or alliterative, so we expect that a certain will have a logical meaning which incorporates the meaning of a but which differs from it (by the Anti-Synonymy Principle "Different words have different meanings"). Assigning it wide scope accomplishes all these requirements. So this is a case of a marked expression having a marked meaning.

In (41b) some poem more strongly invites a wide scope interpretation. I believe this is in part because of the blocking effect of a. Had Speaker had intended ONS s/he would have used a or reduced sm. Again choosing the more marked form is associated with a more marked meaning. In (41c) I find it unproblematic to get the ONS reading, as do Beghelli & Stowell (1997:80) who find both OWS and ONS readings natural. A near paraphrase of (41c), on at least one reading, is The number of poems that every pupil recited was one / two / five. Still (41c) does admit an OWS interpretation easily. Additional support that it is not the only reading comes from anaphora. May (1985) observed that an object anaphorically bound to a subject cannot outscope the subject. There is no ambiguity in At least one student criticized everyone but himself. And if five poems in (41c) could only have wide scope it would be surprising that we could modify it as in (42).

(42) Every pupil_i read five poems of his_i choice

In sum the PNS receives significant empirical support and it provides an explanation for why objects typically scope under subjects.

Conclusion We have presented a formally explicit mode of direct, in situ interpretation of quantificational DPs that does not involve type mismatches or multiple type assignments.
Moreover it coincides with the interpretations H&K assign to DPs when they occur as subjects. Advantages of this way of interpreting DPs are that it accounts for why quantificational DPs occur in object position (like Names) and why narrow scope readings are favored over wide scope ones. It has also enabled us to find a variety of object DPs that cannot be interpreted as functions from properties to truth values and hence to which Move DP a la H&K cannot apply.
References


Liu, Feng-Hsi. 1990. *Scope Dependency in English and Chinese* PhD. Diss. UCLA


Footnotes

1. Less introductory works, such as van Benthem (1986) also find this type mismatch.

2. In \( \lambda x. \phi \) the symbol \( \lambda \) can be eliminated (as in H&K’s notation) without loss. We just need to know which variable has been abstracted, \( x \) in our example, and what its scope is, \( \phi \) here.

3. In effect an \( n \)-ary sequence of elements of \( V \) is a function \( \alpha \) from \( \{1,...,n\} \) into \( V \). Its \( i \)th coordinate is noted \( \alpha_i \), rather than \( \alpha(i) \). (In more formal treatments \( \text{Dom}(\alpha) \) is \( \{0,...,n-1\} \).)

4. The formation of these complex anaphors uses the same derivational processes as for DPs that are not properly anaphoric. So those processes would have to be extended to take anaphoric DPs as arguments. This is completely doable, but each case would have to be handled separately, as we have chosen anaphors built in syntactically different ways. See Szabolcsi (1987) and Jacobson (1999) for extensive discussion.

5. The required isomorphism \( h \) maps each DPA \( F \) to that map from entities to properties given by:

\[ h(F)(a)(p) = F(\{a\} \times p)(a) \]

6. H&K do not offer explicit arguments against interpreting anaphors directly as in (8). They do mention that possibility in an exercise. Their ACD argument is notation dependent, hence weak. That argument is that Ss like (i.c) should be derived by “VP deletion”, a rotational choice lacking natural motivation. The “deleted” VP \( read \ t \) must first be added in (!) after \( did \). Then \( every \ book \ that \ Sue \ did \ [read \ t] \) moves to clause initial position, leaving the VP following \( Mary \) as \( read \ t \). Now fiddle the numerical indices (omitted here) on the traces and the created VP can be made identical to the one following \( Mary \) and deleted. This derivation is simply painful to behold.

Interpreting (i.a,b) is unproblematic, each presents two type<1> DPs, the second with a relative clause. What is semantically missing (or “pro-verb” by did) in (i.c) is the P2 \( read \). Interpreting the gap (or \( did \)) as the preceding P2 as with Predicate Anaphors yields a correct interpretation without applying Move DP, as in Lappin (1992), cited in Hornstein (1995). For a
computational analysis that does not involve Move DP see Fox & Lappin (2004).

7. LF s for English will be drawn from SR, and LF s for other languages will be drawn from their SRs. So LF s for different languages will be different – not only will they contain different lexical items they normally have a different syntax (as in Hornstein 1995:185). This is unproblematic just as it is unproblematic to show in Elementary Logic that \((P \lor Q)\) and \(\neg(\neg P \land \neg Q)\) are logical paraphrases (true in exactly the same models) despite being syntactically quite different. Once we know how to show that distinct syntactic structures have the same meaning the pressure to make LF the same for all languages (Hornstein 1995:7-9) diminishes to zero.

8. Thanks to Sarah van Wagenen for discussion of this point.

9. This assumes a compositional semantic interpretation and it assumes that the c-command relations reflect the order of composition. For example it assumes we do not derive at least one editor read every manuscript by first deriving at least one editor read it and then substituting every manuscript for it.

10. Beghelli & Stowell (1997) claim that negative Ss such as Every student didn't read two poems just have the ONS reading, though OWS is available on the unnegated S. But my judgment is that this S can function as a direct denial of the ONS reading of Every student read two poems and thus does have an ONS reading.