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GENNARO CHIERCHIA

Logic in Grammar

Polarity, Free Choice, and Intervention

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GENNARO CHIERCHIA



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By the time this volume comes out, it will be thirty years since my dissertation, from which I’d like to quote the following passage:

The person to whom I owe the most is my wife Isa. Since we met, 15 years ago, she always was near me, carrying the burden of staying optimistic during various difficult times and keeping me up, often against myself, with her love. Now we also have little Gabriel to keep us up, especially at night. (Amherst, September 1983)

Gabe has just turned 30; and Tommaso and Matteo, who came later, are young adults, living their challenging and interesting lives. Isa’s wise and loving presence throughout was crucial in getting each one of us where we are. I have put her through many more trials since 1983, and those words are more true and heartfelt today than ever; certainly the only lasting legacy of my dissertation.

Cambridge, Mass.
July 8, 2012

Abbreviations

A	Alternative
AA	Anti-additive, Anti-additivity
API	Affective Polarity Item
ATV	Anti-Total Variation
DA	Domain alternative
DE	Downward Entailing
DN	Double Negation
DP	Determiner Phrase
EA	Enriched Assertion
EI	Epistemic Indefinite
EPP	Extended Projection Principle
FC	Free Choice
FCI	Free Choice Item
IE	Innocently Excludable, Innocent Excludability
LF	Logical Form
MC	Modal Containment
MH	Modal Horizon
NC	Negative Concord
NP	Negative Polarity
NPI	Negative Polarity Item
OS	Ordinary Scalar, Ordering Source
PIE	Proto-Indo-European
PP	Positive Polarity
PPI	Positive Polarity Item
PS	Polarity Sensitive, Polarity Sensitivity; Proper Strengthening; Polarity System
PSI	Polarity Sensitive Item
SA	Scalar Assertion
SDE	Strawson Downward Entailing
SE	Scale Economy
SI	Scalar Implicature

SNPI	Strong NPI
UE	Upward Entailing
UG	Universal Grammar
VP	Verb Phrase
WSC	Wide-Scope Constraint

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Introduction

For the purposes of the present work, we can think of language as a structure-building facility (i.e. a computational device that forms complex expressions out of a lexicon), interfaced with the ability to use such structures in drawing inferences (i.e. a natural logic). One of the general goals of this work is to investigate this interface. A well-known example of how syntax and logic interact is constituted by the system of Polarity Sensitive Items (PSIs), a.k.a the Polarity System. Here is a generalization pertaining to it that one is likely to encounter in textbooks and introductory lectures. Focus on the following inferential patterns. If I tell you that every time I ate pizza, I got sick, you won't have any trouble in figuring out that if I ever ate pepperoni pizza, I got sick. This is a “subset inference” (because the set of pepperoni pizza eaters is a subset of the set of pizza eaters). By the same token, if I tell you that over the past month, every time at lunch I ate pepperoni pizza, you'll thereby know that for the last month at lunch I ate pizza. This is a “superset inference”. In drawing these inferences we are crucially tapping the semantics of *every*. Structures of the form [Every NP VP (Verb Phrase)] give rise to subset inferences in the NP part (the restriction) and superset inferences in the VP part (the scope).

- (1) a. every pizza makes me sick \rightarrow every pepperoni pizza makes me sick
- b. every time at lunch I eat pepperoni pizza \rightarrow every time at lunch I eat pizza

Licensing superset inferences is a property that the scope of *every* shares with positive sentences (I ate pepperoni pizza \rightarrow I ate pizza). Licensing subset inferences is a property the restriction of *every* shares with negative sentences (I didn't eat pizza \rightarrow I didn't eat pepperoni pizza). A context that licenses subset inferences, like negation or the restriction of *every*, is called ‘Downward Entailing’ (DE). These

inferential properties are acquired spontaneously as part of figuring out what *every* and negation mean (= how they are used in natural reasoning). Now, it has long been known that languages have classes of items that are somehow sensitive in their distribution to precisely this kind of inferential properties. *Ever* is a case in point:

- (2) a. Every [person who **ever** ate pepperoni pizza from that place] [got sick]
- b. *Every [person who eats my pepperoni pizza] [will **ever** get sick]
- c. Every [person who eats my pepperoni pizza] [won't **ever** get sick]

It looks as though *ever* wants to be in DE environments, like the restriction of *every* (2a) or the scope of negation (2c), and is ungrammatical in non-DE environments, like the scope of *every* (2b). *Ever* is a typical *Negative Polarity Item* (NPI). *Any* works in parallel ways with respect to the structures in (2), but has a broader distribution, to be reviewed shortly. The existence of PSIs has been the object of intense study over the past 30 years. What immediately catches everybody's curiosity is why there should be a class of items that is restricted in its distribution to contexts that share the abstract property of being DE. What aspects of the grammar of *ever* or *any* makes them act that way? This question will be one of our central concerns.

Besides sharing with *ever* the desire to be in negative contexts, *any* also admits a class of uses that *ever* does not tolerate:

- (3) a. Pick any cake
- b. You may have any of these cakes
- c. *ever pick any cake
- d. *You may ever have any of these cakes

Those exemplified in (3a,b), where *any* is in the scope of imperatives or modals of possibility, are prototypical *Free Choice* (FC) uses. Uttering (3a,b) says that you are free to choose the relevant cake. The existence of items like *any* that have both *Negative Polarity* and *Free Choice* uses is also very widespread across languages, and understanding why constitutes a second central objective of our investigation. The main question in this connection is why and how *Polarity Sensitivity* and *Free Choice* phenomena are related. It is not obvious that items that want to be in DE environments should also often want to be in FC environments.

What makes FC phenomena particularly interesting is that they don't arise just with 'special' items like English *any* (or German *irgendein* or Italian *qualsiasi*), with a restricted distribution and morphemes specifically marked for FC uses. FC effects also arise with ordinary disjunction and, for that matter, plain vanilla indefinites like *some* or the indefinite article *a*.

- (4) a. Pick a cake
- b. Have wine or beer
- c. You may pick a cake
- d. You may have wine or beer

In all these cases it seems that I am giving my hearer permission to choose freely. If I say that you may pick a cake and add nothing else, I cannot then protest if you pick the apple pie rather than the cheese-cake. As we will see, the Free Choice interpretation of disjunction/plain indefinites in (4) does not readily derive from their lexical semantics: the semantics of the imperative/modal and the way they are put together. This makes them challenging. So in other words, FC phenomena are analytically challenging and affect quite generally a wide class of items, some of them marked with designated morphology, others not so marked. We will argue that FC phenomena have a strong empirical unity (i.e. they are induced in specific environments, and have an identical semantic import across such environments). The natural conjecture is that this is so because they are based on a unitary mechanism. Understanding the unity of FC phenomena is a third key goal of the present inquiry. Some authors have argued that the FC effect with disjunction and plain indefinites is an implicature, rather than an entailment. Implicatures are generally understood to be optional phenomena rooted in conversational dynamics rather than in principles of syntax and compositional semantics. If FC effects across ordinary indefinites and items with a dedicated morphology (*any/irgendein*) are empirically uniform, then the FC behavior of the latter should be viewed as an implicature as well.

The notion of implicature and its role in grammar is currently at the center of great controversy. Some researchers, including yours truly, have argued that at least some implicatures (namely the scalar ones) are rooted in the compositional part of the grammatical system, rather than in the post-compositional, conversationally driven part, as Grice had originally proposed. I wish I could stay away from such disputes, for the purposes of investigating the Polarity and Free Choice systems.

And there are indeed parts of what I am going to propose that are independent (or can be easily made independent) of any claim regarding the nature of scalar implicatures and scalar reasoning. But there are also aspects of the investigation of the Polarity System that simply cannot be excised from some investigation of the implicature system. In particular, if FC phenomena are uniform and display points of contact with scalar reasoning, we would simply be depriving ourselves of the possibility of understanding what is going on by excluding what has traditionally been seen as an implicature within our purview. So, some understanding of scalar reasoning and scalar implicatures simply has to be part of our inquiry (a fourth main goal).

Let me illustrate a further way in which implicatures may enter into an analysis of the Polarity System. A phenomenon that appears to be closely tied to polarity is Negative Concord, illustrated by the Italian examples in (5):

- (5) a. Nessuno non ha protestato
N-one not has protested
'everybody protested'
- b. Non ho detto niente a nessuno
(I) not have said N-thing to N-one
'I haven't said anything to anybody'

In (5a) both *nessuno* and *non* contribute a separate negation to the interpretation of the sentence, which therefore winds up having a "double negation" reading, as per the gloss. However, in (5b) there is only one semantically active negation, again as per the English gloss. So *nessuno* seems to contribute a semantic negation in (5a) but not in (5b), where it looks more like an agreement marker. Items like *nessuno* that display this kind of behavior are called "N-words". There is controversy on whether N-words are NPIs or not. We will side with those who argue that they are. But the point I want to make here is a different one. When N-words are made up of a quantificational element, like *nessuno* = NEG + *a/one*, it is always the logically weakest member of a scale (in this case, *uno* 'a/one') that is recruited. There are no N-words for numerals higher than one (something like NEG-two) or quantifiers like *most* or *every* (something like NEG-all). The question is why. To emphasize the puzzling nature of this restriction, consider that Italian has an N-word composed from the additive particle *anche* 'also', namely *neanche* = NEG-also, combining with a

variety of Noun Phrases, including Number Phrases (as in (6a)); but N-also usually cannot combine with numerals bigger than *one*. Something like (6b) is ungrammatical:

- (6) a. Non ho visto neanche un professore di matematica
 (I) not have seen N-also a professor of mathematics
 ‘I didn’t even see one math professor’
 b. *Non ho visto neanche due professori di matematica
 (I) not have seen N-also two professors of mathematics

The ban in (6b) is not due to some kind of weird morphosyntactic restriction on *neanche*, but seems to relate to the position of the numeral on the scale, as the following example illustrates:

- (7) quel problema non lo risolverebbero neanche due professori di matematica
 that problem not it-would solve N-also two math professors
 ‘Not even two math professors would solve that problem’

What makes (7) acceptable is construing *two math professors* as the lowest number of math professors that stands a chance of solving the problem. In other words, if the pragmatically salient scale of numerals is the regular one (viz. <one, two, ...>), then *neanche* can combine only with *one*. If the pragmatically salient scale has some other granularity (<n, n+a, ...>), then *neanche* can associate only with the smallest amount on such a scale. The point of this example is to show the robustness of the present generalization on N-words. Non-lowest amounts on a scale cannot be N-words, even when there is a construction which would make that in principle possible like *neanche*. Now there is an extensive and insightful literature on negative concord and N-words; we will incorporate several key ideas stemming from such literature in our proposal on N-words. But there is no sign of a robust explanation of this striking constraint.

Here is my hunch as to why this generalization holds. N-words want to be in a DE (or, in fact, in an even more strongly negative) environment. But when embedded in a DE environment, intermediate quantifiers on a scale tend to generate positive implicatures. Positive implicatures disrupt the DE character of the environment and N-words do not tolerate that. Let me elaborate on the various pieces of this intuition. Consider the dialogue in (8):