

CHARACTERIZING GENERICITY AND EPISTEMIC COMMITMENTS

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THE PLOT

Generics

Generic statements convey generalizations.

- Generalizations: non-accidental, principled characteristics of some (type of) individuals/situations.
- ➔ Essential to express the ways in which we view the world and how we reason about it.

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 - ▶ CGs with *kind* denoting NPs (e.g., Dahl 1995, Pelletier and Asher 1997): the regularity holds of the kind **and** across individual instances of that kind.
- (1) a. Triangles have three sides.
b. Birds fly.

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 - ▶ CGs with *kind* denoting NPs (e.g., Dahl 1995, Pelletier and Asher 1997): the regularity holds of the kind **and** across individual instances of that kind.
 - (1) a. Triangles have three sides.
 - b. Birds fly.
 - ▶ “Habituals”: CGs with object-denoting subjects, express a generalization over situations that are specified by the corresponding episodic predicate.
 - (2) a. Liz smokes after dinner.
 - b. The sun rises in the East.

The problem

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It is far from clear (*i*) what their truth-conditions are, and (*ii*) whether it is possible to provide a uniform analysis of all CG sentences, given the variety of conditions under which they are judged to be true.

- ❓ What counts as “non-accidental”? What counts as “principled”?
- ❓ What is “exceptional”?
- ❓ How do we form such generalizations?

...

Today

Question

Is it possible to provide a single unified semantics for CGs?

PROPERTIES OF CGS

1. Exceptions

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(3) Birds fly.

~> *in the general case...*

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- Others don't:

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#in the general case...

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- Some CGs allow exceptions:

(3) Birds fly.

↪ *in the general case...*

- Others don't:

(4) Triangles have three sides.

in the general case...

- Some CGs “integrate” the exception:

(5) Mosquitoes carry West Nile virus.

↪ *in the general case...*

2. Not about majorities

- Not any property that is true of a majority of a population guarantees the truthfulness of its corresponding generic statement.
- (6) Germans are right-handed.
- FALSE, even if it turns out to be the case that most Germans are right handed.

2. Not about majorities

- Not any property that is true of a majority of a population guarantees the truthfulness of its corresponding generic statement.
 - (6) Germans are right-handed.

FALSE, even if it turns out to be the case that most Germans are right handed.
- ➔ Being a minority does not preempt CGs (as in the ‘mosquitoes’ example above); being a majority is not sufficient for forming CGs.

3. Intensionality

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TRUE, even if the machine has never been used.

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- Some generalizations have never been, or may never be, actualized:
 - (7) This machine crushes oranges.
TRUE, even if the machine has never been used.
- Co-extension does not guarantee truth:
 - (8) a. Lions have manes.
TRUE even if only male lions have manes.
 - b. Lions are male.
FALSE even if the all and only the lions that are male have manes.

So...

- The problem is that the truth of a generic statement does not (solely) depend on quantity, i.e., they do not (just) depend on knowing **how many cases verify it**.
- There is a tension:
 - ▶ We have clear intuitions about what CG-statements are.
 - ▶ We do not know what the necessary conditions to form CGs are.
- ➔ We seem to understand generic statements, but we don't understand why we understand them.

TWO THEORIES

Question

Is it possible to provide a single unified semantics for CGs?

- **Null hypothesis**

CGs form a single class of sentence types constituting a unified phenomenon, for which a unified semantic analysis is possible and desirable.

Carlson (1995): two perspectives for a unified analysis

- The Rules & Regulations (R&R) perspective:
The truth of CGs depends on some causal structure or forces that are behind episodic instances in the world.
- (9)
- a. Bishops move diagonally. game rules
 - b. Tab A fits in slot B. operating instructions
 - c. The Vice-President succeeds the President. parliamentary rules

Carlson (1995): two perspectives for a unified analysis

- The Induction perspective:
CGs express inductive generalizations whose base is some observed set of instances. They are **inferential** generalizations based on patterns, as such they must be backed up by evidence.

(10) a. Birds fly.
 b. Liz smokes after dinner.

- Carlson (1995) favors the R&R approach, with reservations wrt. unification:

- (11) a. Rule descriptions: ✓R&R; ✗Ind.
Bishops move diagonally, In the UK one drives on the left...
- b. Non-actuality: ✓R&R; ✗Ind.
This machine crushes oranges, Tab A fits in Tab B...
- c. ILPs: ✓R&R; ✗Ind.
John is a bachelor/murderer...

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This machine crushes oranges, Tab A fits in Tab B...
- c. ILPs: ✓R&R; ✗Ind.
John is a bachelor/murderer...
- d. Habituals: ✗R&R; ✓Ind.
John smokes after dinner, Liz drives to work
- e. Inferential generalizations: ✗R&R; ✓Ind.
Crows are smaller than ravens....
- f. Gradability: ✗R&R; ✓Ind.
Dutchmen are good sailors, African marathoners run fast...
- g. Exceptions: ✗R&R; ✓Ind.
 (Categorically excluded from R&R.)

A NEW PERSPECTIVE

Overview

Question

Is it possible to provide a single unified semantics for CGs?

- Some linguistic expressions are dedicated (morphological) markers of certain type of inductive generalizations.
- Our focus: the stance that the cognitive agent takes on exceptions to the generically predicated property, which in turn correlates with different types of generalizations.

Focus on exceptions

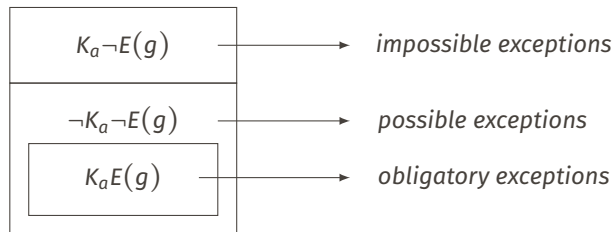
- **Fact**

For some generalization g , either there are exceptions to g , or there aren't; E ("has exceptions") induces a bipartition of the space of all g .

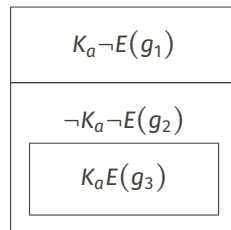
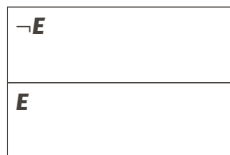
$\neg E$	g_1	g_2	g_3
E	g_4	g_5	g_6

Focus on exceptions

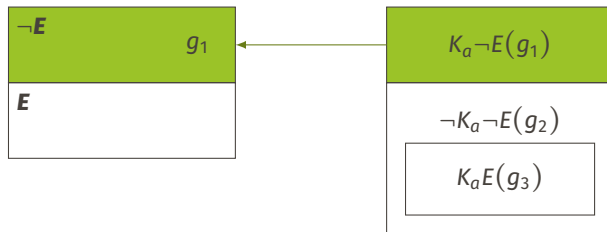
- Given that for any g , either $E(g)$ or $\neg E(g)$, a cognitive agent a may contend three hypotheses as to what a knows concerning the supporting evidence for g are: either a knows that g has exceptions, a knows that g hasn't exceptions, or a does not know.



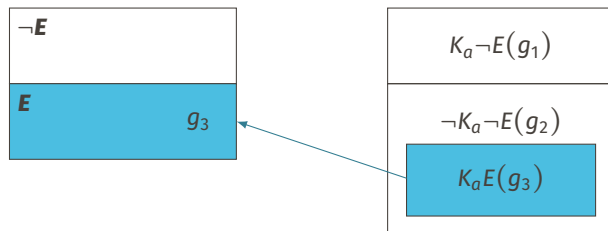
Focus on exceptions



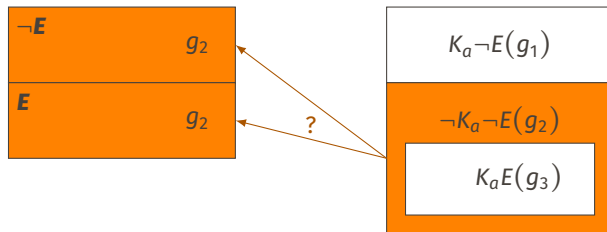
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Focus on exceptions



Focus on exceptions

- **General Hypothesis**

Learning of generalizations proceeds by either learning some R&Rs or by Induction.

- Different types of generalizations are amenable to one or other by virtue of the properties the relevant generalization is about; i.e. on its *base* (*sensu* Carlson 2008).

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- **General Hypothesis**

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❓ Where do R&R/Inductive CGs fall wrt. *E*?

Cf. Cohen (1999), Greenberg (2003), Pelletier (2010), Krifka (2013), Doron and Boneh (2013), a.o.

R&R Generalizations

- R&R generalizations permit no exceptions, no counter-instances; they live in $\neg E$.
 - They convey dispositions whose defining properties/conditions do not change, are taken to be tendentially stable.
 - For a cognitive agent a , the issue of exceptions with SG wrt. some episode p to does not meaningfully arise; call these **Strong Generalizations** (SG).
- (12) a. Triangles have three sides.
b. Cats are mammals.
c. This machine crushes oranges.
d. John is a bachelor.

Inductive Generalizations

- Inductive generalizations are **inferential**: by repeated observation of episodes $p_1 \dots p_n$, a pattern emerges.
- They are *ceteris paribus*.
 - (13) a. Birds fly.
 - b. John smokes after dinner.
 - c. Dutchmen are good sailors.
 - d. Typically books are paperback.
- Unlike SGs, these are **Weak Generalizations** (WG); the cognitive agent *a* cannot rule out the possibility of exceptions.

Caution

- ➔ There is no one-to-one correspondence between the presence/absence of exceptions and R&R/Induction:
- (14) a. $R\&R \Rightarrow$ no exceptions
b. No exceptions \nRightarrow R&R

Caution

- ⊕ There is no one-to-one correspondence between the presence/absence of exceptions and R&R/Induction:
 - (14) a. R&R \Rightarrow no exceptions
 - b. No exceptions \nRightarrow R&R
- Some “inductive” generalizations do not have exceptions:
 - (15) The sun rises in the East.
- ⊕ Although *ceteris paribus*, these generalizations *behave* as Strong Generalizations: they are not inferential anymore; *linguistically*, they pattern with Strong Generalizations.

A clarification

- (16) a. Triangles have three sides.
 b. The sun rises in the East.
 c. John smokes after dinner.
 d. Typically books are paperbacks.

Process	Generalization	Attitude wrt. E	
R&R	Strong	$K_a \neg E(g)$	(16a)
Induction	Strong	$K_a \neg E(g)$	(16b)
Induction	Weak	$\neg K_a \neg E(g)$	(16c)
Induction	Weak	$K_a E(g)$	(16d)

Overt markers of Weak Generalizations

- **Concrete Hypothesis**

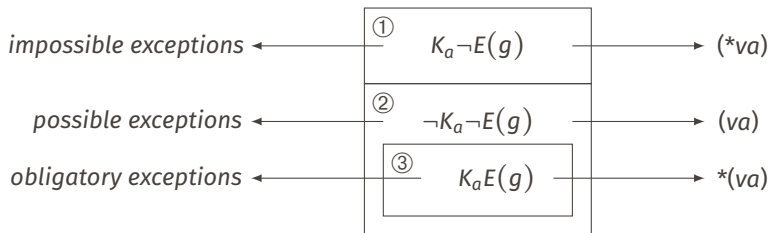
The weak/strong distinction is not just notional. The *linguistic reality* of such division is supported by the existence of expressions that pick out one sub-type.

- Up next: Czech verbal suffix *va*, which we take to be a generic marker of Weak Generalizations

We will not defend here that *va* is neither an IMPF nor HABITUAL marker; see earlier work by Hana Filip.

THE CZECH SUFFIX VA

Va and epistemic commitments to exceptions



- Va -generics stand for weak generalizations that require compatibility with exceptions; ② and ③: they signal that a is denying the existence of a relevant SG, thereby committing herself to either the knowledge of exceptions (③) or explicitly signaling her ignorance concerning the absence/presence of exceptions (②).

The Czech suffix *va*

- *Va* (and its allomorphic variants) is a verbal suffix that previous literature has labeled as a frequentative or iterative marker (e.g. Dahl 1995, where *va* is treated as a marker of imperfective aspect).
- Here we will take for granted that *va* is not just a marker of imperfectivity (*pace* Dahl 1995; see the critic in Filip and Carlson 1997 and Filip 2018).
- Generic-*va*: a verbal suffix conveying genericity not to be confused with its homonymous imperfective suffix *va*.

The Czech suffix *va*

(17) Imperfective vs. generic *va*

- | | | | |
|----|--|----|---|
| a. | psát
write.INF
episodic: to write/be writing
generic: to write as a habit | b. | psá vat
write.VA.INF
episodic: -
generic: to write as a habit |
| c. | přepisovat
ITER.write.IMPF.INF
episodic: to rewrite/be rewriting
generic: to rewrite as a habit | d. | přepiso vávat
ITER.write.IMPF.VA.INF
episodic: -
generic: to rewrite as a habit |
| e. | dávat
give.IMPF.INF
episodic: to give/be giving
generic: to give as a habit | f. | dává vat
give.IMPF.VA.INF
episodic: -
generic: to give as a habit |

1. Obligatorily generic

- Unlike formally unmarked generic statements (e.g. with imperfective aspect) *va* is unambiguously generic (Filip and Carlson 1997).

(18) a. *Honza sedí v hospdě.*

Jon sit.IMPV in pub

'Jon {is sitting / (usually) sits} in a bar.'

b. *Honza sedá**vá** v hospdě.*

Jon sit.VA in pub

'Jon {#is sitting / (usually) sits} in a bar.'

- Formally unmarked imperfectives behave as in English.
- ➔ Generic-*va* is *sufficient* but not *necessary* for CG.

2. Obligatory verifying instances

- *Va*-generics require that there be at least one verifying instance of the generically-predicated property in the actual world.

(19) a. *Tento stroj drtí pomeranče.*

this machine crushes oranges

'This machine crushes oranges.'

...✓'although we haven't used it yet.'

b. *Tento stroj drtívá pomeranče.*

this machine crush.VA oranges

'This machine crushes-*va* oranges.'

...✗'although we haven't used it yet.'

- ➡ Generic-*va* is ungrammatical in the absence of evidence.

3. Incompatibility with exceptionless CGs

- *Va*-generics are infelicitous with exceptionless generalizations such as analytical truths, constitutive and regulative rules, etc.

(20) a. *Trojuhelník { má / #mívá } tři strany.*
 triangle has has.VA three sides
 ‘Triangles have three sides.’

b. *V Anglii se { jezdí / #jezdívá } po levé straně.*
 in England REFL drive drive.VA on left side
 ‘In England one drives on the left.’

c. *Velryba { je / #bývá } savec.*
 whale is is.VA mammal
 ‘A whale is a mammal.’

- ➔ This makes generic-*va* different with Q-adverbs like *usually*, etc., which are oftentimes compatible with exceptions.

3. Incompatibility with universal-Q

- Similarly, *va*-generics are incompatible with universal quantification that uses up the same situation variable.

(21) # *Každou sobotu Honza sedává v hospodě*
each Saturday John sits.VA in pub
'Every Saturday John usually sits in the pub.'

4. Obligatory with positive-counterinstances

- Generic-*va* **must** be used to express generalizations that concern generic properties to which there are known *positive counterinstances* (Leslie 2008).

- (22) a. Books are paperbacks. FALSE
- b. Typically, books are paperbacks. TRUE

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b. Typically, books are paperbacks. TRUE

(23) a. *Knihy jsou brožované.*
book.PL.NOM be.IMPV paperb

‘Books are paperback.’ FALSE

b. *Knihy bývají brožované.*
book.PL.NOM be.VA paperb

‘Books tend to be paperback.’ TRUE

5. No frequency conveyed

- The semantic contribution of the suffix *va* cannot be reduced to an ordinary quantifier over situations (e.g. *most*, *usually*).
- i. *va* marks generic sentences that are true even if most instances do not satisfy the generically-predicated property.

(24) a. *Žraloci napadá**va**jí plavce.*

shark attack.VA bather

'Sharks may attack bathers.'

TRUE

b. *Žraloci obyčejně napadá**va**jí plavce.*

shark usually attack.VA bather

'Sharks tend to attack bathers.'

FALSE

5. No frequency conveyed

- The semantic contribution of the suffix *va* cannot be reduced to an ordinary quantifier over situations (e.g. *most*, *usually*).
- ii. *va* may freely occur with quantificational adverbs denoting low frequency, such as *rarely*.

- (25) a. *Ten šuplík bývá jen velmi zřídka zamčený.*
that drawer is.VA only very rarely locked
'That drawer used to be locked only very rarely.'
- b. # Usually the drawer is very rarely locked.

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6. Epistemic effects

- In cases where exceptions to the generically predicated property are not known, *va*-generics convey an additional epistemic meaning that the speaker is uncertain as to the extent to which the generality expressed by the proposition holds.

(26) *U každého domu bývá zahrada.*

at each house is.VA garden

'At each house, there tends to be a garden.'

↪ *in most situations, there is a garden next to each house*

(27) Felicity conditions of (26): Speaker *S* is committed to the following...

a. at least one house has a garden.

b. at least one house does not have a garden.

c. there is a house~garden pattern.

↪ *S* cannot commit herself to a stronger statement.

Summary

	Strong	Weak	<i>va</i>
Verifying instances	✗	✓	✓
Obligatory exceptions	✗	✓	✓
Positive counterinstances	✗	✓	✓
Low frequency	✗	✓	✓
Epistemic effect	✗	✓	✓

CONCLUSION

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- ➔ The key factor to understand the distinction between marked (*va*) and unmarked (*va*-less) CGs (and SG vs WG) is essentially modal (epistemic): they signal speaker's commitment to (the possibility of) exceptions.

Conclusion

- ➔ There is *linguistic evidence* for two types of CGs. It's not just a matter of on-the-surface non-uniformity of CGs; it is genuinely reflected in the semantic properties of marked/unmarked generics.
- ➔ The key factor to understand the distinction between marked (*va*) and unmarked (*va*-less) CGs (and SG vs WG) is essentially modal (epistemic): they signal speaker's commitment to (the possibility of) exceptions.
- ➔ No unification for all CGs.

Marked vs. unmarked forms

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- (28) The generically-predicated property FLY is understood as being true...
- a. of the kind BIRD (on the basis of individual birds to which the property of flying is attributed), and
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- a. of the kind BIRD (on the basis of individual birds to which the property of flying is attributed), and
 - b. of individual birds (on the basis of particular situations of flying by a stage of an individual bird).
- The formally **unmarked** Czech generic sentence *Ptáci létají* highlights (28a).
 - The formally **marked** generic sentence *Ptáci létávají* conveys (28b).

Other languages

- A number of languages have morphological devices available to signal CGs (often called “habituals”; Dahl 1995).
- Some examples (for more see Dahl 1995, 421).
 - ▶ Affixes on verbs: Swahili prefix *hu-*, Czech suffix *-va-*, West Greenlandic suffix *-sar-/-tar-*.
 - ▶ Reduplication of imperfective morphemes: Wolof.
 - ▶ Free forms in the verb’s auxiliary cluster: Georgian particle *xolme*, Swedish auxiliary verb *bruka*.
- ➔ It is a open question whether these too can be taken to signal Weak Generalizations and are not just mere “habituals” (in the more common frequency related sense).

About Gen

- **Notice that:**

- ▶ We have not said anything about the semantics of unmarked CGs.
- ▶ Not knowing the *actual* semantics of unmarked CGs greatly complicates any competition-based account of the epistemic effects of marked CGs.

About Gen

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 - ▶ Not knowing the *actual* semantics of unmarked CGs greatly complicates any competition-based account of the epistemic effects of marked CGs.
- What is the relation of *va* (and similar markers) to GEN?
- Assuming all R&R generics involve GEN, it is clear that *va* cannot be GEN; rather, it behaves like a “vanilla” Q-adverb specifically tailored to express Weak Generalizations.

Thank you!

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