Negation and disjunction in dynamic semantics

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Introduction and recap

Logic of change: definitions

Sentences express *updates*, i.e., functions from possibilities (world-assignment pairs), to sets of assignments.

(1) Random assignment:

$$\llbracket [x] \rrbracket^{w,g} = \{ h \mid h \text{ differs from } g \text{ at most at } x \}$$

i.e., $\{ h \mid g[x]h \}$

(2) Predication:

$$\llbracket[Sleep(x)]\rrbracket^{w,g} = \{g \mid g(x) \in I(Sleep)(w)\}$$

(3) Negation:

$$[\![\neg\phi]\!]^{w,g} := \{g \mid [\![\phi]\!]^{w,g} = \emptyset \}$$

(4) Dynamic conjunction:

$$\llbracket \phi ; \psi \rrbracket^{w,g} = \{ h \mid \exists i [i \in \llbracket \phi \rrbracket^{w,g} \land h \in \llbracket \psi \rrbracket^{w,i}] \}$$

Logic of change: abbreviations

- (5) Implication:
 - a. $\phi \to \psi := \neg(\phi; \neg \psi)$ b. $\llbracket \phi \to \psi \rrbracket^{w,g} = \{ q \mid \neg \exists h \lceil h \in \llbracket \phi \rrbracket^{w,g} \land \llbracket \psi \rrbracket^{w,h} = \emptyset \} \}$
- (6) Disjunction:
 - a. $\phi \lor \psi := \neg(\neg \phi; \neg \psi)$
 - b. $\llbracket \phi \lor \psi \rrbracket^{w,g} = \{ g \mid \llbracket \phi \rrbracket^{w,g} \neq \emptyset \lor \llbracket \psi \rrbracket^{w,g} \neq \emptyset \}$
- (7) Existential quantification:
 - a. $\exists x \phi := [x]$; ϕ
- (8) Universal quantification:
 - a. $\forall x \phi := [x] \rightarrow \phi$ (N.b., \forall can equivalently be defined as the dual of \exists)

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([x]; [Car(x)]; [Have(p,x)])

(10)
$$[\neg([x]; [Car(x)]; [Have(p,x)])]^{w,g} =$$

Negation is a test

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- It specifies a hypothetical update, and then imposes the condition that this update has an empty output.

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$$= \{g \mid Pearl doesn't have a car in w\}$$

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- Negation is a test
- It specifies a hypothetical update, and then imposes the condition that this update has an empty output.
- · Therefore, negation is externally static.

(11) Pearl might have a car.

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 $\Diamond([x]; [Car(x)]; [Have(p, x)])$

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- Therefore, epistemic possibility modals are externally static.

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    (14) [[(x]; [Car(x)]; [Have(p, x)]) ∨ [Happy(a)]]<sup>w,g</sup>
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Disjunction is a test

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Accessibility recap

	internally	externally	veridicality?
$\phi \wedge \psi$	dynamic	dynamic	veridical
$\neg \phi$	N/A	static	non-veridical
$\Diamond \phi$	N/A	static	non-veridical
$\phi \to \psi$	dynamic	static	non-veridical
$\phi \vee \psi$	static	static	non-veridical

- · Veridicality: A propositional operator is veridical iff it entails its prejacent.
- · A generalization: Non-veridical operators are externally static

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- · A generalization: Non-veridical operators are externally static
- Prediction: Anaphora to indefinites in the scope of non-veridical operators is not possible
- But there are many counterexamples in natural language...

Some counterexamples to the generalization from classical dynamic semantics

(15) Double negation (Karttunen 1976, Krahmer & Muskens 1995) It's not the case that there isn't a bathroom in this house. It is upstairs.

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 There might be a bathroom in this house. In fact, I just remembered that's the case. It is upstairs.

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- (17) Program disjunction (Groenendijk & Stokhof 1991)

 A professor or an assistant professor will attend the meeting of the university board.

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- (18) 'Bathroom-disjunctions' (Evans 1977, Barbara Partee)
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 There might be a bathroom in this house. It would be upstairs.

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- (19) Modal subordination (Roberts 1987)

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- (20) Inter-speaker disagreement (Hofmann 2019)
 A: There isn't a bathroom in this house.
 B: (What are you talking about?) It's upstairs.

program disjunction: Contextual

discourse-inferences, and

Double negation,

entailment

Double negation

- (21) a. It's not the case that there isn't [a bathroom] x .
 - b. It_x is upstairs.

Double negation

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b. It_x is upstairs.

• Question: Why do you think anaphora is possible here?

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 - b. It_x is upstairs.
- (22) a. There is $[a \ bathroom]^x$
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 - The (a) sentences make the anaphora in (b) possible.

- (21) a. It's not the case that there isn't [a bathroom] x . $\leadsto \neg(\neg([x]; [Bathroom(x)]))$ b. It's upstairs.
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The problem: Some of the inference rules of classical logic do not apply in dynamic semantics

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• In DS:
$$\neg\neg\phi \not\Leftrightarrow \phi$$

Existential statements in DS introduce Discourse Referents (DRS) via random assignment:

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 - · Recall, however, that negative statements in DS are tests; once a test, always a test.
 - This means that a doubly negated statement is also a test. Ipso facto, doubly negated statements don't introduce DRS, and the classical equivalence doesn't go through.
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Let's see why in more detail:

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The net result is that $\neg\neg\phi$ is always interpreted as a *test* of whether ϕ is true (i.e., has a non-empty output).

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• (26) introduces a new variable x (pointing to a bathroom), but (29) only tests whether such an update is possible.

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- (26) introduces a new variable *x* (pointing to a bathroom), but (29) only tests whether such an update is possible.
- They are truth-conditionally equivalent
- But their anaphoric potential is different

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Accessibility in DS is:

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- Doubly-negated existential statements have existential truth-conditions like their positive counterparts — but don't introduce DRS.

Accessibility in DS is:

- · Constrained by semantic representations; namely, the presence of negation.
- Not affected by truth-conditional inferences:
 The truth-conditional entailment of an existential statement does not enable anaphora

 (though maybe it should)

As we have seen, doubly-negated sentences can provide antecedents for anaphora:

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Double negation and anaphora

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 - · Question: Can you think of more examples?
 - Question: How could this problem be addressed?

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$$(32) \qquad \llbracket \neg \phi \rrbracket^{w,g} = \{ h \mid h \notin \llbracket \phi \rrbracket^{w,g} \}$$

Can you think of any alternative entries for negation that are possible to state in DPL?

(??) a. There might be a bathroom in this house.

b. #It is upstairs.

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- · Question: What is going on here?
- · Another case, where a representational generalization does not work
- The truth-conditional inference of (a + b) allows for anaphora in (c)

Groenendijk & Stokhof (1991) noticed that natural language disjunction isn't always externally static. Here is their counterexample (slightly modified).

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Another inference rule of classical logic:

- Disjunction elimination: If $\phi \to \chi$, and $\psi \to \chi$, then $(\phi \lor \psi) \to \chi$

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- In DS, both disjuncts truth-conditionally entail an existential statement [x], but we do not get the anaphoric potential of an existential
- · Once a test, always a test... Let's see why

No dynamic disjunction elimination

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- · Does not predict anaphora
- · Intuitively, both indefinites serve as antecedents to the anaphoric pronoun she.

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- · Let's see how this works in more detail...

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- So long as both indefinites carry the same variable index (in this case *x*), the output of the disjunction is guaranteed to be one in which *x* is introduced as a discourse referent.
- Discourse anaphora is licensed in the usual way.
- Question: does this account violate any constraints on semantic representations we've been assuming so far?

Program disjunction and external staticity

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- Program disjunction predicts that anaphora is possible, at a world w_a where the meeting took place and a, a professor, attended, because program disjunction amounts to an existential statement.
 - (39) $[[([x]; ProfAttend(x)) \cup Cancelled]]^{w_a, g} = \{ h \mid g[x]h, h(x) \in I(ProfAttend)(w) \}$ Since $[Cancelled]]^{w,g} = \begin{cases} g & \text{there no meeting in } w \\ \emptyset & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

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This exposes a conceptual flaw with DS — both program and ordinary disjunction capture the truth-conditional contribution of disjunction, but the anaphoric information expressed is different.

Anaphoric information is not straightforwardly constrained by truth-conditional contribution — there isn't a 'recipe' to determine the anaphoric contribution of a given logical operator.

So what do these three cases have in common?

- (29) a. It's not the case that there isn't a bathroom.
 - b. It is upstairs.
- (??) a. There might be a bathroom in this house.
 - b. In fact, I just remembered that's the case.
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- (??) a. A professor or an assistant professor will attend the meeting.
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And how are they different from cases with negation, modals, and disjunction that do not allow for anaphora?

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- · We need truth-conditional inferences to influence anaphoric accessibility
- \cdot On the left side, the existence of a witness to the existential x is contextually entailed
- On the right side, that is not the case
- · This generalization will serve as motivation for the solution we propose tomorrow

Bathroom-sentences and modal

subordination: Local contextual

entailment

Recall that disjunction in DS is internally static — anaphoric dependencies between disjuncts are (predicted to be) impossible.

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 - (43) Either there is no^x bathroom, or it_x's upstairs.
 - (44) Either Steven didn't order a^x pizza, or it_x's warming in the oven.
- We call such cases bathroom disjunctions (Roberts 1987, attributed to Barbara Partee)
- Question: Why do you think anaphora is possible here?

Bathroom disjunctions cont.

It's quite easy to see why DS doesn't capture bathroom disjunctions; DS disjunction simply tests whether either disjunct has a non-empty output at the input.

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= \{ g \mid [\neg([x]; [Bathroom(x)])]^{w,g} \neq \emptyset \lor [Upstairs(x)]^{w,g} \neq \emptyset \}
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Bathroom disjunctions cont.

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Consequently, the interpretation of the variable in the second conjunct is dependent on the assignment of the context.

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So, we might have expected bathroom disjunctions to be equivalent to corresponding donkey sentences:

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So, we might have expected bathroom disjunctions to be equivalent to corresponding donkey sentences:

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 - b. If there's a bathroom, then it's upstairs.

Intuitively, the two sentences *do* feel equivalent, but classical DS doesn't capture this.

• Here: $(\neg \phi \lor \psi) \not\Leftrightarrow (\phi \to \psi)$

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- · Semantic representation (/logical form) prevents internal anaphora
- Truth-conditional inferences cannot salvage this

Classical equivalences 2: Negating the first disjunct

It seems that anaphora is possible in bathroom disjunctions, because (in some sense), the second disjunct is interpreted in light of the negation of the first.

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It seems that anaphora is possible in bathroom disjunctions, because (in some sense), the second disjunct is interpreted in light of the negation of the first.

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Classical equivalences 2: Negating the first disjunct

It seems that anaphora is possible in bathroom disjunctions, because (in some sense), the second disjunct is interpreted in light of the negation of the first.

(47) Either there's no bathroom, or it's not true that there's no bathroom and it's upstairs.

Under this approach: The negation of the first disjunct provides a *local context* of interpretation for the second disjunct

We would be taking advantage the classical equivalence in (48):

(48)
$$\phi \lor \psi \Leftrightarrow \phi \lor (\neg \phi \land \psi)$$
 Therefore:
(49) $\neg \phi \lor \psi \Leftrightarrow \phi \lor (\neg \neg \phi \land \psi)$

But again, this won't work, because once we negate the first disjunct, we have a test!

Bathroom disjunctions and double negation

- If we were to develop a system in which doubly-negated sentences are equivalent to their positive counterparts wrt to anaphoric information, either of this strategies could be viable.
- Accounting for bathroom disjunctions, then, is closely tied to the problematic status of negation in Ds.

A generalization

(18) Either there isn't a bathroom in this house, or it's upstairs.

So... Does this fall under our previous generalization: Does this entail the existence of a referent to the indefinite?

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...What then?

Bathroom-anaphora are possible, if the negation of the first disjunct entails a witness to the existential (Evans 1977, Barbara Partee).

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Classical inference rule:

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- It's often assumed that the consequent of a conditional, is interpreted in light of the antecedent.
- Putting the disjunction together with the conditional antecedent locally entails the truth of the disjunct that introduces a discourse referent.

If an anaphor is itself embedded under a modal, it can have an antecedent in an externally static context:

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- Upcoming: another case showing that this inference of local contextual entailment can be accommodated

Accommodation of contextual entailment

Inter-speaker disagreement:

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- Interpreting *B*'s utterance as contradicting *A* cannot solve this, as long as we define accessibility on the level of semantic representations
- · But truth-conditionally, B's utterance implies that there is a bathroom
- A possible result: The inference of contextual entailment of a witness can be accommodated

Accessibility and licensing — When pronouns are possible

· Double negation, discourse-inferences, and program disjunction

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$\phi \wedge \psi$	dynamic	dynamic	veridical
$\neg \phi$	N/A	static	non-veridical
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$\phi \lor \psi$	static	static	non-veridical

Accounts for the basic generalizations about veridical operators, and out counterexamples

Inference and form

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- The notion of accessibility in DS relies too much on linguistic form,
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DS posits a richer notion of information state which is sensitive to the presence/absence of an indefinite.

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- But we also need truth-conditional inferences to affect accessibility.
- Modal subordination shows that any externally static operator can provide antecedents under the right conditions.
- We may want to get rid of externally static operators altogether, and derive anaphoric accessibility from the truth-conditional properties of our sentential operators

Truth-conditions of DN and BR anaphora

Gotham 2019 on uniqueness

Gotham (2019) pushes back against the conjecture that $\neg\neg\phi$ is truth-conditionally and anaphorically equivalent to ϕ , offering the following contrast (p. 144):

Gotham 2019 on uniqueness

- Gotham (2019) pushes back against the conjecture that $\neg\neg\phi$ is truth-conditionally and anaphorically equivalent to ϕ , offering the following contrast (p. 144):
 - (54) a. John owns a shirt. It's in the wardrobe.
 - b. ??It's not true that John doesn't own a shirt. It's in his wardrobe.
- · Gotham's empirical claim:
 - Let's assume that it's contextually entailed that if someone owns shirts, they own more than one.
 - (54a) is perfectly acceptable, since the existential statement is compatible with John owning multiple shirts.
 - (54b) is odd, because unlike its positive counterpart, the doubly-negated statement entails that *John owns exactly one shirt*.

Sage plant sentences and the E-type theory

A little historical background: prior to the development of DS, the main account of donkey and discourse anaphora was the E-type theory of Evans 1977, according to which pronouns are interpreted as *definite descriptions*.

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Sage plant sentences and the E-type theory

A little historical background: prior to the development of DS, the main account of donkey and discourse anaphora was the E-type theory of Evans 1977, according to which pronouns are interpreted as *definite descriptions*.

(55) John owns a shirt. [It=the shirt] is in the wardrobe.

One of the main arguments against Evans E-type theory was provided by Heim 1982; Definite descriptions semantically encode uniqueness, Heim's *sage plant* sentences involve donkey/discourse anaphora but are logically incompatible with uniqueness.

- (56) a. Steven ordered a^x pizza, and he_x ordered eight others along with it.
 - b. If Steven orders a^x pizza, he orders eight others along with it_x.

Sage plant sentences cont.

Although not the focus of our course, it's worth noting that the E-type account was subsequently improved to accommodate the absence of uniqueness by Heim 1990, but limited to donkey anaphora.

Sage plant sentences cont.

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Nevertheless, sage plant sentences are extremely useful for testing for (semantically-encoded) uniqueness inferences (Mandelkern & Rothschild 2020).

We can use sage plant sentences to show that doubly-negated sentences don't semantically encode uniquess:

Sage plant sentences cont.

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Nevertheless, sage plant sentences are extremely useful for testing for (semantically-encoded) uniqueness inferences (Mandelkern & Rothschild 2020).

We can use sage plant sentences to show that doubly-negated sentences don't semantically encode uniquess:

(57) It's not true that Steven didn't order a^x pizza, and furthermore he ordered eight others along with it_x.

Takeaway: uniqueness (or lack thereof)

Sage plant sentences suggest that doubly-negated existential statements have the same truth-conditions as their positive counterparts.

We don't however deny that there is a *reading* that entails (perhaps implicates?) uniqueness.

This is muddled by the fact that singular indefinites in positive contexts often implicate uniqueness (Spector 2007; cf. Gotham).

(58) Steven ordered a pizza. ⇒ Steven ordered exactly one pizza (as far as I know)

We won't have anything concrete to say in this course about how to derive this (optional) inference, or whether doubly-negated sentences have more robust uniqueness inferences than their positive counterparts.

Truth-conditions of bathroom disjunctions

- We haven't addressed the question of what the actual truth-conditions of bathroom disjunctions
- An analysis should not just account for the possibility of anaphora, but also get the truth-conditions right.
- In the following two slides, we'll argue against two notable claims concerning the truth-conditions of bathroom disjunctions:
 - · Uniqueness entailments (Gotham 2019).
 - · Universal readings (Krahmer & Muskens 1995).

Bathroom disjunctions and uniqueness

- Similarly to double-negation, Gotham (2019) suggests that bathroom sentences are associated with uniqueness inferences, on the basis of the following contrast (Gotham's judgement).
 - (59) a. John owns a shirt and it's in his wardrobe.b.???Either John doesn't own a shirt, or it's in his wardrobe.
- Exercise: formulate a sage plant sentence to test whether or not uniqueness is semantically entailed in bathroom disjunctions.

Bathroom disjunctions and uniqueness cont.

Here's one we made earlier:

(60) Either Steven didn't order a pizza, or he ordered 8 others along with it.

This sentence is logically incompatible with the putative (conditional) uniqueness entailment *if Steven ordered a pizza then he ordered exactly one* (see also Mandelkern & Rothschild 2020 on definite descriptions).

Universal readings?

The truth-conditions of bathroom disjunctions have also been discussed by Krahmer & Muskens (1995), who suggest that bathroom disjunctions have a *universal* reading.

- (61) Either there's no bathroom, or it's upstairs.
 - \Rightarrow every bathroom (if any) is upstairs

(It's interesting to note that this is what we expect given the conditional equivalence, due to Egli's corrolary, i.e., $\phi \lor (\neg \phi \to \psi)$).

Krahmer & Muskens report that (61) is *false* as soon as there's a bathroom that isn't upstairs.

Exercise: come up with a concrete example paired with a context designed to test this claim.

Existential readings?

Elliott (2023) argues that bathroom disjunctions *can* in fact have existential readings, meaning that universal truth-conditions are too strong.

(62) Context: we're wondering how Gabe paid for dinner.
Either Gabe doesn't have a credit card, or he paid with it.

The intuition here is that the sentence is *true* just so long as Gabe paid with a credit card of his, even if he has other credit cards which he didn't pay with.

(N.b., existential readings are a natural expectation if we opt for the conjunctive equivalence, i.e., $\phi \lor (\neg \phi \land \psi)$).

Exercise: can you come up with a context in which the sentence involving bathrooms receives an existential reading?

Recommended reading

- Gotham. "Double Negation, Excluded Middle and Accessibility in Dynamic Semantics". 2019.
- Krahmer & Muskens. "Negation and Disjunction in Discourse Representation Theory". 1995

Questions?

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