## Modality

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The notion of modality is almost inextricably intertwined with metaphysics, some kind of theory of what is real, what exists, and why (a theory of 'first causes'). At the center of the commonsensical theory is the real world, but the idea is that there exist, or at least there can exist, other worlds. This idea is most clearly supported by the commonsense notion that the world existed yesterday and will exist tomorrow, even if it will be slightly different from what it is like today. In 3.2 we already discussed that the current world $V_{n}$ requires two modal versions: $V_{b}$ for the past and $V_{a}$ for the future, and in 6.1 we will considerably refine this idea by describing a a nonstandard theory of the standard temporal modalities.

A central question of metaphysics is the existence of the things that are co-present in all worlds, the things that do not change. Are these collected in another world? Are there other worlds to begin with, and if there are, in what sense are they real? In 6.2 we use the same technique to introduce an ideal world $V_{d}$ where rules are kept, and investigate the real world in relation to this. In 6.3 we use an even simpler technique to bring epistemic modality in scope, and in 6.4 we reanalyze defaults.

### 6.1 Tense and aspect

In 3.2 we introduced the naive theory of time, and described how it requires at least one, and possibly two somewhat imperfect copies of $V_{n}$ to explicate word meaning. When we say that statements about these subworlds, and especially statements that involve more than one of these, have modal import, we rely on the broad family of theories known collectively as modal logic. (For a terse discussion, see S19:3.7, for a book-length one see Blackburn, Rijke, and Venema, 2001.)


Fig 6.1 depicts part of a two-way infinite graph, the nodes of which correspond to (full or partially specified) possible worlds and the directed edges depict the accessibility relation that obtains among these. The left-to-right direction corresponds to the flow of time, with nodes to the left (right) of the vertical line in the past (resp. future), and the vertical line itself marking now. The bulleted node is the real world, as of now, those above and below are alternative worlds at the same time. There is only limited movement across the horizontal timelines: not every past world is compatible with the present world, and not every future world is accessible from it.


Fig. 6.1: Modal accessibility

The sophisticated reader can find all kinds of faults with Fig. 6.1. How can we have a single (absolute) time that flows synchronously in all worlds? How do we know there are alternative timelines, rather than a single, fully deterministic one? What makes us think we could move across timelines? In response, let us reiterate the disclaimer we already made at the beginning of Chapter 3: linguistics and cognitive science, our primary tools here, are highly unlikely to contribute to contemporary cosmology, precisely because in physics we already assume things such as a continuous timeline (possibly with a singularity at the beginning) which go beyond the scope of the naive theory. No matter how much the study of the naive system contributes to a better understanding of early natural philosophy, especially the Presocratics, Zeno in particular, there is no reason to suppose that it can contribute to contemporary natural philosophy (physics, chemistry, biology, and so on) since the naive system is already insufficient to sustain integer arithmetic, let alone real numbers, functions, and higher mathematical constructs essential to the practice of science.

In fact there is no reason to believe that the commonsense theory is in any way trivial. A fuller mathematical reconstruction of the temporal aspects requires more sophisticated tools from mathematical logic and analysis than are generally employed in mathematical physics. (Readers who wish to refresh the standard modal concepts may find S19 Ex. 3.17-19 helpful.) Time instances are best seen as infinitesimal neighborhoods (called
monads in nonstandard analysis, and timelets in smooth analysis by Bell, 1988). Such a formulation goes a long way towards capturing some of the seemingly paradoxical properties of time instances: that they are discrete (monads corresponding to different time instances have no overlap), that they have no tangible beginning or end, that they have nonzero length yet ordinary time is suspended with a single timelet. For reasons that we will discuss shortly, we consider Lawvere-style smooth analysis, as opposed to Robinson-style nonstandard analysis, to offer a better formulation for the dynamic aspects of commonsense temporality.

Since normally it is verbs that carry tense marking, the expectation is that it will chiefly be verbs that require explicit temporal clauses. Perhaps surprisingly, temporal modality is already required to treat suffixes like -th (half, third, and quarter are irregular and not discussed here) which we must define by some unit that is getting divided (or broken up, as in Skt. bhinna): -th -ad -ias -ta part, in whole, before (divide). To conceptualize a fraction we must assume a preexisting unit. Again, this does not imply, or even suggest, that quarks, with fractional charges, must have originated by breaking electrons up - what the evidence shows is that the words for fractions post-date the words for integers, not that fermions post-date bosons.

A more typical entry, with extension in all three temporal slices, is pause, defined as lack action, before(action), after(action). Similar to fractions, which are tied to their units, pauses are inescapably tied to some action that is being paused. There are many relational nouns that only make sense only if some other entity is invoked, but these are typically in the same $V_{n}$ temporal slice, whereas the act of pausing requires the presence of activity both before and after. A particularly interesting case is provided by through, which we analyze as an adposition of fictive motion: before (=agt on side), in =pat, =pat has side, after(=agt on other(side)), =pat has side[other]. To understand this word, we need to invoke a full story about its object, a body (in the sense of 3.1) with two sides, and virtual movement that starts and ends outside this body, but is inside for a period.

To build a more refined formal language describing such cases, we introduce further notation, with $\pi_{i}$ defined as the projection of the polytope in $V_{i}$, for $i=b, n, a$. Since the default is now (event time), this is left unmarked in the lexicon, where only before and after are overtly marked. Typically these three projections are identical, especially for nouns, where we expect the realizations $\pi_{i}$ to be isomorphic in the spaces $V_{i}$. Only $15.5 \%$ of the defining vocabulary contains overt reference to before/after/cause_.

It is worth emphasizing, particularly to the reader familiar with the standard theory discussed in S19:3.7, that projecting from the joint polytope (or system of polytopes) in $V_{b} \times V_{n} \times V_{a}$ to one of the components $V_{b}, V_{n}$, or $V_{a}$ is not the same as the extension of a concept in the past, present, or future. Take a stable noun such as food : material, gen eat. It is quite possible (and historically common) for various things that were not considered food to become generally accepted as food, and conversely, for materials that were earlier considered suitable for eating to get off the menu. But such changes
are slow, adiabatic, and do not affect $V_{b}$ or $V_{a}$ which are best thought of as sharing the timelet with $V_{n}$.

Within the adiabatic approximation food is an eternal noun, a proper member of the deontic world $V_{d}$ that we will discuss in 6.2. This is true even though it is a commonsensical law of nature that food is perishable, i.e. no instance of food lasts long (though special efforts to salt/smoke or otherwise preserve it may extend its usable lifetime). This is one point where the modern theory, capable of distinguishing between instances and generics, is arguably superior to the naive theory. That said, we can still add a rule food is perishable by nonstandard methods without triggering a contradiction.

Since perishable means 'likely to decay quickly' (LDOCE) and decay is given as change [slow], after (lack health), we need to consider the timescales in more detail. When we say the magnetic field of the Earth decays, this is on a hundred thousand year or longer timescale, and can only be measured with sophisticated instruments. But even for ordinary decay processes from decaying buildings to decaying teeth a multi-year timescale is implied. When the LDOCE posits quick decay the implication is that for food, the process is quick relative to the multiyear timescale inherent in decay, just as the enormous flea discussed in 4.3 that is enormous only on a flea scale. As a practical matter, the timescale is weeks, possibly days or even a few hours, but certainly not minutes or seconds as we have with ordinary action verbs.

On the near-instantaneous timescale embodied in before/after, food does not change, or changes only with imperceptible speed. This is something well captured by smooth analysis, which reconstructs derivatives with the Kock-Lawvere Axiom:

If $D$ is the timelet around 0 , and $f$ is any function from $D$ to $\mathbb{R}$, there is a unique real number $a$ such that for all $d \in D$ we have $f(d)=f(0)+d \cdot a$

The axiom guarantees that within a single timelet all functions are linear 'linelets' with a unique tangent $a$. This lets us define derivatives at every instant $t$ as the unique real number $f^{\prime}(t)$ that satisfies $f(t+d)=f(t)+d \cdot f^{\prime}(t)$ for any $d$ in the same timelet as $t$. Notice that there are no higher derivatives that could be obtained by closer inspection of an infinitesimal neighborhood, in fact it is a characteristic property of smooth analysis, as opposed to nonstandard analysis, that infinitesimals $d$ (called minims in this theory) satisfy $d^{2}=0$. What we have in smooth analysis is a theory restricted to continuous functions, embodying the famous Leibnizian principle of natura non saltum facit 'there is no jump in nature'. To handle the case of food perishing, all we need to add is that the process is akin to the movement of the hour hand on a clock, possessing a derivative, but one that is too small to be perceptible. It is not that the derivative itself is a minim, it is measurable by instruments of sufficient precision to be an ordinary non-infinitesimal quantity, it's just that our senses do not offer this level of accuracy.

Where does this leave us in regards to pauses? The commonsensical, if ahistorical, answer is that we equate movement with nonzero derivative and conversely, we equate zero derivative with lack of motion. This is perhaps best illustrated by a ball bouncing against a hard surface: the idealization that distance from this surface is measured by $|t|$ is
simply not available, since at $t=0$ this function only possesses a left derivative -1 and a right derivative +1 . Rather, we have to assume that either the ball or the surface is not entirely rigid, that for the time of the impact the center of the ball actually approaches, and departs from, the surface in a smooth fashion. This function will have zero derivative at $t=0$ from either side. Therefore, the ball is pausing at the surface.

The geometrical picture associated with smooth analysis includes not just a clear picture of derivatives as the tangent function of the linelet angle, but also the idea that the entire curve is built from such linelets, just as a circle can be conceptualized as an infinite-degree polygon. The reader interested in how the entire apparatus of multivariate calculus can be built on smooth analysis is referred to (Bell, 2008). Here our goals are more modest: we concentrate on linking the naive theory embodied in language to early theories of natural philosophy, and consider the task of reconstructing modern physics entirely out of scope. A key element of the medieval theory of dynamics is the notion of impetus, what today we would define as speed times mass. It is impetus that endows objects with an intention to keep moving in the direction that they are already moving in. The use of impetus resolves the Aristotelian quandary of why a rock, once thrown, does not fall to the ground as soon as the hand is no longer supporting it, but rather follows a parabolic trajectory.

This much, while clearly insufficient for planetary motion (which will have to wait until Newton) is quite sufficient for Oresme, Buridan, and the great scholastic thinkers whose line actually goes back to Aristotle (via very significant Arab contributions that go well beyond mere transmission and commentary). To the extent that the picture provided by smooth analysis is highly intuitive, we begin to see the intellectual leap that separates second derivatives from linelets. Our intuition, grounded both in everyday experience and in linguistic cues, may readily supply the idea of local linearity (sometimes called micro-straightness), but this does not extend to second derivatives. Indeed, if two points of a curve are in the same timelet, they are also on the same linelet, so to build second derivatives we need to reify the derivative as a function on its own. (The very idea of time-distance diagrams goes only back to Oresme, Aristotle didn't have these at his disposal.)

The first person to wrestle with the issue was Zeno, and his paradoxes demonstrate quite clearly that certain commonsensical assumptions about time and space, if held jointly, will result in contradictions. The linguistic conception of time is discrete, but this immediately leads to the paradox of Dichotomy: a discrete system of instances cannot be dense, with a halfway point between any two instances. The standard solution is that time instances are indeed point-like, but we have infinitely many - nonstandard analysis endows these points with monads surrounding them while being disjoint from one another. In Robinson's version, monads have rich internal structure, in Lawvere's version, they are just tiny lines that can be characterized by their centerpoint (position) and direction (impetus). That we need some kind of continuous time for conceptual semantics is evident: in S19:3.3 we wrote

The key temporal notion in the prolepsis is not so much the idea of time itself as the idea of a process．It seems that humans（and in all likelihood，all mammals） are endowed with a perceptual mechanism that inevitably makes them perceive certain sensory inputs as processes．Try as we might，we cannot perceive the flight of the arrow as a series of states：what we see is a continuous process．The compulsion to do so is so strong that even truly discrete sequences of inputs， such as frames of a movie，will be perceived as continuous，as long as the frame rate is reasonably high，say $20 / \mathrm{sec}$ ．

More debatable is the concept of space，whether we see it as composed of small discrete voxels，or as a continuum．The egocentric coordinate system we discussed in 3.1 is actu－ ally neutral on the issue，presenting space as being composed from a few discrete regions like inside and outside but without any implication that movement within a single region is imperceptible．But Zeno＇s argument against the reification of space is still worthy of consideration：if everything has a place，what is the place of place？If there are voxels， can they be occupied by（parts of）physical bodies？If we suppose they can，where are the voxels themselves going to be？Again，it is the background assumptions behind the paradox that matter for us：clearly，Zeno is making the commonsensical assumptions that （i）two things cannot occupy the same space at the same time and（ii）a thing cannot be at two places at the same time．We will discuss each in turn．
place We begin our analysis by defining place as point，gen at．This is an atomic，point－ like entity＇where things can be＇as opposed to the conceptual \｛place\} schema we defined in 3．1，but it makes little difference whether we consider just the point or the voxel，the 3 －dimensional monad surrounding it：the import of（i）is still that no two objects can occupy it．This is considerably stronger than what our primitive negation element，lack，is capable of expressing，since lack is most natural in situations where some default expectation is not met（see 4．2），whereas in（i）we wish to express an absolute negative．How is this negative enforced？Everyday experience shows that this is done by one object either forcing the other one out，or by not letting the other one in．

Since an exception is provided by＇shapeless＇objects such as liquids and gases which， according to everyday experience，can in fact mix in the same place，instead of objects we will insist on solids，both in the 4 lang sense of firm／2215 and in the original LDOCE sense of＇having no holes or spaces inside＇．The requisite sense of solidity is easily defined by the uroboros vocabulary as lack empty（place／2326）in． （This will also help with firm objects like Matryoshka dolls which can in fact occupy the same place as far as their center of gravity is concerned．）This notion of solidity， actually quite close to the idealization of the convex rigid body that we rely on in classical mechanics，is sufficient for restating principle（i）as

```
{solid at place, other(solid) at place} cause_ move
```

Eq． 6.1 is a far cry from modern dynamics，where impulse is conserved in each di－ mension，so the resulting movement can be computed with great accuracy：here what
moves, the object, the other object, or perhaps both, is left underspecified. The reference to move in Eq. 6.1 makes clear that it is a constraint over different time instances that is responsible for (i), making what appears to be a static principle into a principle of (proto)dynamics. Principle (ii), to which we turn now, will be different: no movement is implied.

Since everyday (solid) objects extend over a volume, they actually can be at two places at once: the bridge is at the left side of the river, and also at the right side. To go further, we therefore need to restrict principle (ii) to point-like objects and to pointlike places. This departs from the general sense of place which permits overlapping or even containment: the tree is in the forest, the forest is in the country, so a single point, say the point of an arrowhead, can be both in the tree and in the country. Since 4 lang defines place as point, gen at and point as place, lack part_of we get the restriction both to point-like objects and point-like places for free. The knowledge engineer would probably state principle (ii) as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { point }_{1} \text { at } \text { point }_{2}, \text { point }_{1} \text { at } \text { point }_{3} \Rightarrow \text { point }_{2}=\text { point }_{3} \tag{6.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

While very familiar to contemporary thinking, Eq. 6.2 is much farther than we are prepared to go. Several notational conventions used in Eq. 6.2, though typical of the uniqueness statements used elsewhere, are beyond our formal language. First, the main connective $\Rightarrow$. We never offered a non-causal theory of implication, and in fact deduction in a system that carries smooth analysis is of necessity a weaker, intuitionistic type (Moerdijk and Reyes, 1991). Second, and perhaps more important, we don't have a theory of indexing, as will be clear for readers of 3.3. Finally, the equality symbol ' $=$ ', while close to negating our primitive other, is subtly different (more powerful). 4 lang makes a distinction between equal/191 azonos idem identyczny and equal/565 egyenlo3 aequalis rolwny and being other really means 'non idem' rather than 'non aequus'. To appreciate the distinction, consider Pappus' proof of Euclid I Prop 5 known as pons asinorum: given a triangle ABC with equal sides AB and AC , the angles at $B$ and $C$ must also be equal. Pappus simply considers the triangles $A B C$ and $A C B$ : in didactical terms, he 'lifts up' ABC, 'flips it over' to make ACB, and lays it down on the original. This kind of subtle leveraging the notions of identity and equality bothers many people precisely because of (ii): how can the same triangle be in two places at once?

Staying within the limitations of 4 lang, we need to say gen lack \{thing at place (two) \}. The number two is defined as number, one in, other in, follow one. Here we are free to ignore the ordinal aspect, which is irrelevant for our reconstruction of (ii):

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { gen lack \{point at point, point at other point\} } \tag{6.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

The syntactic mechanism will automatically identify the first three occurrences of point in Eq. 6.3, but not the third and the fourth since this is precisely what other means (see 1.6). One way to think about this is to consider principle (ii) part of the meaning of being at some location.
place point

It is worth emphasizing that a trivial extension of (ii), " $n$ things cannot be at $n+1$ places at the same time", is impossible to formulate within the limitations of 4 lang. It is of course quite possible to build better resourced systems, but sooner or later these will also run out of steam. An interesting case is provided by the obverse of (ii), the Pigeonhole Principle, which asserts that $n+1$ objects cannot be placed in $n$ boxes without putting at least two in the same box. Proving this using only a polynomial size proof (the total number or symbols of the formulae in the sequence) and keeping each formula at constant depth (unlimited fan-in) is simply not possible (Ajtai, 1994).

Here the question is not just why we cannot have $n$ objects in $n+1$ places at the same time, but rather why this general truth is hard to demonstrate already for $n=1$ ? Eq. 6.3 highlights the difficulty, not being at place (other). Since other is defined as different, which in turn was defined in 4.2 with the aid of Leibniz' Principle of Indiscernibles, it is true for any X that it cannot unify with other X . This is guaranteed not so much by the semantics of unification (where overriding certain values, especially defaults, is possible) as by the semantics of other - this is what being other means. The other schema depicted in Fig. 1.3 demands the coercion (as discussed in 3.3) of $X$ and other $X$ to one and other respectively. To see this word in action, consider passenger person, person[travel], person in vehicle, other(person) drive vehicle.

There is, perhaps, a more general lesson here: it is the lexical meaning of core elements, such as other, that drives the large-scale behavior of complex operations, such as unification, and not the other way around. Given that specific lexical behavior cannot be deduced from general principles, we may as well adopt a 'generators and defining relations' style of description.

### 6.2 The deontic world

Almost all (perhaps all) languages and cultures have some notion of another world, generally populated by powerful anthropomorphic beings, ranging from gods and angels to evil spirits and devils. The major exception is the
kind of disembodied use of higher forces that is taken for granted in Chinese metaphysics: "Thus to say that 'High heaven shook with anger' by no means implies that there is a man up above who shakes with anger; it is simply that the principle (li) is like this [that is, that crime deserves anger]." (Graham, 1958), p24, cited in S19:3:10.

It is this kind of Heaven, populated by principles (eternal laws) rather than by ghosts and spirits, that is closest to the deist metaphysics common in occidental philosophy starting with Edward Herbert's De Veritate. Broadly speaking, we use the same methodology relying on common notions (notitiae communes) (innate, universal semantics) as all rationalists from Herbert onwards (at least according to Chomsky's 1966 presentation of rationalist thought), but we don't undertake to faithfully reconstruct any of these
systems here. In S19:3 we offered an automata-theoretic reconstruction of the kind of patterns (rules, regularities) that we may consider central both for elementary guidance of behavior 'don't immerse your hand in boiling water' and for stating laws of nature 'unsupported objects will fall'. Here our main interest is explicating such statements in vector semantics, and we start with Yi-ch'uan's example
crime deserves anger.
For this purpose, it will be quite sufficient to define crime as action, illegal and trace illegal through bad for_ law to obtain action, bad for_ law. In fact, by tracing further bad as cause_ hurt we end up with an even more compact definition of crime: action, hurt law - this has the advantage that we don't have to get sidetracked with the issues of experiencer subjects (see 2.4) that the use of for_ would bring in tow.

The modal element is from deserve, defined as before (=agt DO <good>), should[after (=agt GET/1223 =pat)] where should means not just an option, but the right/1191 option, an idea that is central to the deontic modality. We could also analyze anger further as feeling, bad, strong, aggressive, but this would not take us further toward our goal, which is to express the pattern at hand as a normative rule.

In the world of norms, it's not just that the right thing should happen, but that it does happen, after (gen angry). It's not that there is a man above who shakes with anger, but rather that everybody, the generic subject, will. Putting all this together we obtain the 4 lang translation
before(action hurt law), after(gen angry)

Let us pause for a moment and observe that we have done a great deal more than translating Eq. 6.4 to Eq. 6.5 in that the target semantics is quite universal: for example Hungarian törvénysértés 'crime' is a compound that would be literally translated as lawhurting, and since hurt is defined as cause_ \{=pat has pain\}, offend we also obtain a semantic reading for English offence, namely that it is the law that is getting offended.

Given the pre- and post-conditions in Eq. 6.5, we can recognize this as an instance of the cause_ primitive discussed in 2.4 , so we obtain
(action hurt law) cause_ (gen angry)

This lends itself to further generalization on both sides. First, it is not just actions, but any form of hurt that causes anger, and second, gen angry is just a restatement of anger. Therefore, we obtain
hurt cause_ anger
as a truly general principle that has Eq. 6.4 as a consequence. By the definition of cause_ this amounts to the co-presence of hurt in $V_{b}$ and anger in $V_{a}$ or, in the two-state temporal model we have hurt in $V_{n}$ and anger in $V_{o}$. (Observe that in such a model not only does hurt cause anger, but anger also causes hurt, reminiscent of the
crime
illegal
bad
deserve
anger
hurt
unbreakable cycles of violence we see all too often in tribal societies, where new generations simply take up the grievances of their forbears and keep on fighting like the Hatfields and McCoys.)

It is precisely the lack of a long-term sustainable commonsense temporal model that leads to the metaphysical search for first causes. Commonsensical cause_ is simply the existence of a cause in one temporal model ( $V_{b}$ or $V_{n}$ as the case might be) and an effect in a subsequent model. Once this is coupled with some Parmenidean principle of out of nothing nothing comes we must continue the backward search for a sufficient reason: what caused the cause? What caused the cause of the cause? If the underlying temporal model is cyclic, as with Ecclesiastes, we end up with simple, irreducible cycles of eternal change: day causes night, night causes day, there is no beginning and no end.

The more general three-state model of past, present, and future depicted in Fig. 6.1 does not cycle back from future to past. Rather, the underlying commonsensical temporal model includes a notion of a (discrete) timeline with successive states (time instances), with present always being mapped on a single state, past as a half-line extending with the previous state, and future another half-line gradually consumed by the passing of time, much as a wheel rolling over a surface only touches a single point of the ground, leaving a half-line trace.

There is nothing in language that is probative about the precise nature of this timeline, and commonsensical reasoning must be replaced by some form of more structured philosophy to be able to reason about infinities. If the timeline is finite, at the first step we must suppose some self-necessitated being, or unmoved mover, giving us the Kalam cosmological argument, whose attraction lies precisely in the fact that it hews so closely to commonsensical notions.

This is not to say that any commonsensical system will prove the existence of god, but it is quite obvious that the existence of god or gods being, religion has, has power, er_ nature is compatible with common sense. As we have argued elsewhere (Kornai, 2010a), "once the names of major religious figures and the titles of sacred texts are treated as pointers to the encyclopedia, there remains nothing in the whole semantic field of Religion that is not definable in terms of non-religious primitives". In other words, religion is possible, but by no means necessary for a commonsensical worldview.

With this, we have arrived at a central problem of modal logic: what is possible, and what is necessary. Let us begin with a standard example of a non-existent being, the unicorn 'an imaginary animal like a white horse with a long straight horn growing on its head'. We know of no law of biology that would make unicorns impossible - after all, both white horses and animals with long straight horns exist. We may search for unicorns in the past (perhaps remains can be found) or in the future (perhaps genetic engineering will produce some), though not every world is accessible to such a search. Even under the most cautious definition of 'possible', we find things such as dinosaurs which we know to be possible, and at the same time know to be nonexistent in the real world. Mathematics furnishes many examples that we know to be absolutely impossible: no search in past
worlds or alternative timelines will ever produce an algorithm for squaring the circle by ruler and compass.

Altogether, non-existence has an absolute form, impossibility, and existence has a weaker form, possibility. It is therefore reasonable to look for an absolute form of existence, which we can call 'necessity'. Things that enjoy only a weaker form of existence, or what is the same, a weaker form of non-existence, are called contingent. Altogether, we can build a three-point scale of existence, with necessity at the top, impossibility at the bottom, and the contingents in the middle. As long as we assume the accessibility relation to be reflexive, everything that is real (here and now) is either possible or necessary, and everything that is not real (here and now) is either possible or impossible. Looking through the lexicon we see that having a name like unicorn is no guarantee of possibility, unless imaginary worlds are also accessible, in which case of course it is (see S19:5.6).

Having a proper name is no more a firm guarantee of possibility than being named by a common noun. Here we take the position that the entire linguistic subspace $L$ is composed of possible things, be they part of the basis (defining words) or be they expressed by more complex expressions. Where does that put us in relation to linguistic expressions that are known to designate impossible things, such as squaring the circle? The answer is that such expressions are also rigid designators (they mean the same thing in every possible world) it's just that they cannot be realized. The fact that something can be expressed in language is no guarantee that it's true or real.

In the naive theory, the type distinction between true and real is absent (cf. a true friend/a real friend). To bring this in line with contemporary logic where only wellformed formulas can be true/false and only objects can be real (there is never any doubt about the reality of a formula) requires a special predicate EXISTS whose typetheoretic signature is from matters ${ }^{1}$ to truth values. In 4 lang we define real and exist as synonyms: we have real igazi verus prawdziwy 1126 A exist and also exist van exsto bycl 2587 V real. Similarly, we define true as igaz verus prawdziwy 1125 A fact and fact as telny factum fakt 2323 N has proof [exist], something for which proof exists.

What constitutes proof? Again we eschew the modern proof-theoretic statement in favor of the naive theory, where proof is given by prove, and is a conjunction after (other(people) know =pat[true]), real ins_. Whatevera proof is, it is something that convinces others that its object is true and, moreover, it is an instrument (most effective means) to truth/reality. The most immediate proof of existence is supplied by our senses, compared to which scientific proof is effective only to the extent we consider scientific instruments more reliable than our senses. While our contemporary worldview considers scientific evidence to be superior to our senses, it is worth noting that in the age of science, many people insist that the Earth is flat, preferring the direct sensory evidence to more sophisticated theories.

[^0]real
exist
true
fact
proof
prove

Bodily feeling, proprioception, is the ultimate reality. This extends not just to strong signals of joy and pain, but to much weaker afferent signals pertaining e.g. to the status of our extremities: if my leg fell asleep it means it went numb. The physiological mechanism (restricted circulation, lack of oxygen, blocking of nerve path, etc.) is relevant only to the extent that a reasonable person must conclude that this is what is happening, no other conclusion is available. It is precisely this lack of choice in terms of explanatory mechanism that makes torture such an effective weapon: pain is real, as is joy. If 4 lang we have pain as bad, sensation, injury cause_ and injury as damage, body has, so pain/injury is tightly coupled to bodily sensation.

All of this is not to deny the existence of higher sentiments of joy and pain such as moral triumph and outrage. The claim here is that such higher sentiments are directly modeled on the direct, bodily sentiments, even if they are stronger, as they can be, when people withstand torture in the service of higher moral ideals. Again we follow the commonsensical notions that this is a matter of willpower, and will/132 is simply a synonym of want which is defined simply as =agt [feel [=agt need] ]. We have already seen that feel is bodily feeling, proprioception, and 4 lang skirts the issue of differentiating between needs and wants. (There is a culturally widespread theory that the two are subtly different, what you want is not necessarily what you need, and that you can't always get the former.)

The Swadesh list is a rich source of concepts with high universal presence: it is hard to imagine a language that doesn't have a word for river or mother, and perhaps even harder to imagine a world without rivers or mothers. There are no doubt such worlds exist, e.g. Mars is one, but the commonsensical theory that we are trying to model here loses its grip over these. There are two views of the deontic world, populated by eternal entities and governed by eternal laws, what we will call the large and the small view. Under the large view, every world of Fig. 6.1 is part of the deontic world, it is merely the case that some of them are inaccessible from the real world. The central deontic world $V_{D}$ is one where rules are kept, children have parents, sugar is white, caramel is brown, and so on. We will compare this to the default world in 6.4.

Under the small view, the only accessible ones are where the concepts are instantiated, making them truly rigid designators in a way proper nouns are not (see 8.1), in spite of the original Kripkean intent. Consider the louse. We can well imagine a world where lice are absent, in fact most of us desire to live in such a world. There is nothing in the definition 'a small insect that lives on the hair or skin of people or animals' that suggests that a world without lice is beyond our ken. A world without insects is a bit harder to imagine, certainly this would result in an unimaginable ecological catastrophe with the very survival of humanity in doubt. Compare this to mother 'parent, female' and notice that the absence of parents implies the absence of children (indeed, 4 lang defines parent by make child) and a whole different idea of human life pattern than what we have now, with concomitant loss of sense-making concerning a very broad swath of human languages (as spoken until this science-fictional future becomes reality) and concerning human cultures.

The closer we get to the core (defining) vocabulary the more we see the necessity of the concepts they name for meaningful discussion of any sort. In the vectorial perspective we can express this observation by saying that the special predicate EXISTS must be true for the basis vectors, but not necessarily for the entire space they span. The small view assumes that only things expressible in terms of this basis can exist. Most of them, like unicorns and lice, exist only contingently, but some of them, like mother, are necessary, if not for maintaining human life, at least for making sense of human discourse. The question must be asked: how do concepts like river, a Swadesh near-universal, but a defined word in 4 lang, behave? We have river folyol fluvius rzeka 848 N stream, has water, in valley but the defining terms don't all appear in the core vocabulary: stream is <water> flow and valley is land, low, between <mountain>, between <hill>. Altogether, this gives 'water flows between hills or mountains' where hill can be eliminated in favor of on land, high, mountain er_ to yield 'water flows on land between more high land'. Concepts of this kind are possible, but not necessary. Their necessity, such as it is, comes from the fact that their shared knowledge is a precondition of communication.

The large view also permits existents that are not definable in terms of the basis. We are very aware of such existents, e.g. Fourier series, but we have trouble conceptualizing them as being present in the same world where we find mothers. The problem is not that Fourier series are contingent: to the contrary, mathematicians are as convinced of their existence as they can be. The problem is that they don't obey ordinary laws of nature, e.g. they have no weight, color, energy, shape, position, etc. We may say, together with all mathematicians who find a realist ontology convenient, that such object exist in a Platonic world, one that is even accessible to the human mind, but the commonsensical theory, which is our object of inquiry in this volume, has no grip over such worlds.

Even so, the commonsensical view remains useful in understanding the commonsensical concepts of probability discussed in Chapter 5 and, remarkably, the concept of instrumentality. We begin with prior probability of a matter $X$, defined simply as the proportion of worlds within our experience (think of the 'reverse light cone' terminating in the bulleted world of Fig. 6.1) where $X$ obtained. To some extent, this is shrouded in lack of information, but if $l(X)=0$ this means that $\operatorname{EXIST}(\mathrm{X})$ is false in all prior worlds, and $l(X)=6$ means it is true in all of them. Current probability is a more mysterious notion precisely because we are attempting to estimate the proportion of existence across the vertical line of Fig. 6.1, those worlds that share the same time but, at the same time, worlds we don't really have access to. Much better to deal with future probability or rational expectation, which measures the proportion of existent $X \mathrm{~s}$ among the accessible future worlds.

As we shall see in 6.4, if no effort is made to change the outcome, matters continue on their default path: if $l(X)=5, X$ will continue to obtain, and if $l(X)=2, X$ will continue to not obtain. Further, no amount of effort can change $l(X)=0$ or $l(X)=6$ outcomes. This latter case, referred to as an act of God in the Anglo-American legal tradition, is delimited precisely because no human act could prevent it (when $l=6$ )
river
valley
hill

or bring it about (when $l=0$ ). The real scope of human intentions is in the middle, particularly at $l=3$, the broad domain where things are neither particularly likely nor particularly unlikely.

While the real world may be deterministic, the commonsensical world is certainly not: chance plays a big role, things can go many ways, and a key part of the human condition is that we don't know, some would say we cannot know, key events from the future. Accurate prediction of rare events is the hallmark of science, and Thales' predicting the eclipse of 585 BCE (this is now disputed, but see Couprie, 2004) is often described as the beginnings of science, as opposed to common sense. Be it as it may, John hoped to win the competition is different from John won the competition, and
hope desire want need
possible can
allow clearly the difference is lodged in hope, which is defined as desire, want, =agt think =pat[possible]. Next, desire is defined as feeling, want, and want as $=$ agt $[f e e l[=a g t$ need $]]$. After all these substitutions, hope is still a feeling (by the agent) of needing something, obviously still a modal, and by looking up need we are not getting any closer, since this is defined as =agt want. However, the condition on hope =agt think =pat [possible] is helpful, as possible is given by gen allow, can/1246. We defer the analysis of can to 6.4, because it is simply given as <do>, and it is the optionality of doing, marked by the $<>$, that does the real work there. However, we can continue with allow, which is defined as =agt [lack [=agt stop =pat] ]. Here the agent is gen, so possible means nothing (can) stop =pat, the object of the matrix agent's hope.

It is at this point of the analysis that the nondeterministic world-view comes into play: the mere fact that something can happen (there is no general force stopping it) doesn't in any way imply that it will happen. Fortunately, we are not restricted to hoping: we can improve the odds. Compare John hopes to win and After a year of relentless training, John hopes to win, or compare John hopes to keep the wolves at bay to With his rifle, John hopes to keep the wolves at bay. Altogether, instruments are tools that improve the chances of the desired outcome. Hope is good, but being prepared is better. Using our naive probability model, we see the immediate successor worlds of the current real world (see the arrows starting from the bullet in Fig. 6.1) as containing a distinguished default state, but for $l(X) \neq 0,6$ also many other states where the desired outcome $X$ obtains, and many where it does not. What we want to say is that the likeliness of the desired outcome is increased by instruments. Needless to say, it has to be an instrument fit for the purpose: With his hacksaw, John hopes to keep the wolves at bay is as dubious as With his rifle, John hopes to trim the beam.

We have instrument as object, work ins_, gen use, has purpose, at hand, and note that in the ins_ relation the instrument need not be a physical object, cf. John won by cheating. The prototypical instrument is a hand-held device with a specific purpose and this, seemingly accidental, aspect will be relevant for 6.3: what is near us is epistemologically certain. Our sense of touch is considered more reliable than our vision, which in turn is more reliable than our hearing. Our most reliable sense is is our proprioception: if we feel something, this overrides our auditory and visual
perceptions. By definition, feel is = pat in mind, =pat at body, =agt has body, =agt has mind, something that brings body and mind together in an act of perception. To feel something means that it is something right here, within the body schema, that is being brought to mind. Unlike things we hear, and even things we see, what we feel is something that cannot be denied.

To summarize, instruments are simply goal-oriented likeliness-increasing devices. This again illustrates a point we already made at the end of 6.1 : it is the lexical semantics of the elements such as the instrumental case marker ins_, defined as =pat make =agt [easy] that drives the way instruments are referred to in language, not some top-down theory (such as hierarchical ordering of thematic roles). This is not to say that conceptual definitions such as Fillmore's "The case of the inanimate force or object causally involved in the action or state identified by the verb" or Pānini's "most effective means" are useless. To the contrary, these are both powerful paraphrases for trying to get to the meaning of the instrumental marker, and for the analytically minded, they provide excellent guidance in trying to sort out what (if anything) can be considered an instrument in a given situation. Our own definitional attempt differs from these chiefly in being provided in a fully formalized language, in keeping with the overall plan of the work.

### 6.3 Knowledge, belief, emotions

We now try to articulate some fundamental assumptions about knowledge and belief. First, these are things in the head. Gordon and Hobbs, 2017 trace back the standard Theory of Mind (ToM) to Heider and Simmel, 1944, and here we follow in their footsteps to the extent feasible, but concentrate on how ToM is reflected in 4 lang. In this particular case, the definition of as thought as idea, in mind, relies on two notions we will analyze further, idea and mind, but readers of 3.1 will know that the spatial in relation is used in earnest: the mind is a $\{\mathrm{place}\}$, and thoughts are in it. This gets further specified by the longest definition in the entire core vocabulary:

```
mind tudat conscientia umysl1 2457 N
    human has, in brain, human has brain, think ins_,
    perceive ins_, emotion ins_, will ins_,
    memory ins_, imagination ins_
```

We will not do justice to the complex discussion that followed Premack and Woodruff, 1978 whether the the proper definition should include animal has rather than human has, but note that the tendency to typecast animals, machinery, and even simple household objects as 'having their own mind' is strong not just in children but adults as well.

We obtain our starting point, that thoughts are in the head, by transitivity of in: if thoughts are in the mind, the mind is in the brain, and the brain is in the head, thoughts are in the head. We use idea as a near-synonym of thought, defining it as in mind, think make. More interesting is the relation of the nominal thought and the transitive verb think, defined as
feel
ins_ s_

think gondol cogito mys1lec1 907 U
=pat in mind, =agt has mind
There is a subtle intransitive/transitive alternation often seen in psych verbs: if John thinks it is not necessarily the case that he is thinking of something - anybody who has ever struggled with putting thoughts into words will recognize the cases when the object cannot be formed easily, or at all. In English, the object of thought is typically expressed in a prepositional phrase, the agent thinks of something, or about something. This can easily be encoded by "Of" mark_ =pat or "about" mark_ =pat, but the cross-linguistic variability is such that we refrained from doing so.

Second, the thoughts in the head are ontologically just as well established as the objects/events/qualities in the real world. We follow Meinong (see Parsons, 1974 for a clear modern exposition) rather than Frege, who places thoughts in a 'second realm', the internal world of consciousness. We would like to strongly discourage the reader from thinking about this in New Age terms, how consciousness creates reality, etc. Rather, this is a straightforward explanation of the human capability to model all kinds of things, from alternative outcomes of actions (as required for weighing the fitness of instruments for this or that purpose) to predicting the behavior of other agents. Further, the evolutionary advantage conferred by modeling ability is overwhelming: in any competition for resources if A can model B but not conversely, A is far more likely to obtain the resource.

Third, the assumption of thoughts in the head being real inevitably leads to the conclusion that other things in the head, such as feelings, emotions, desires, ... must also be treated as real. This, of course, is everyday human experience, and the commonsensical theory of emotions views them as humors flowing through the body. To better articulate the commonsense theory we have already gone one step further, endowing feelings with direct, non-negotiable reality in proportion to the reliability of the sense that conveys them. At the top of this hierarchy stands proprioception, followed by touch, vision, smell, and hearing in this order. Thinking is generally considered less reliable than our senses, and this includes discounting our own thoughts in relation to the words of the sages. Whether we like it or not, this is precisely the advantage that traditionalism and revealed teachings have over rationalism.

At this point, the reader may wish to revisit the discussion of grammatical moods and logical modalities in S19:7.3, but for greater convenience we summarize the 4L logic approach used there, which relied on the introduction of two more truth values in addition to the standard T (true, T ) and F (false, $\perp$ ), called U (unknown) and D (unDecided). Negation, as standard, makes F out of T and T out of F. In 4L the negation of U is U , cf. Codd's 'missing data'. The modal operator K will mean known, or rather learned, and will be given by after ( T or F ).

The other nonstandard truth value, D , maps out the scope of agentive decisions and free will in terms of before and after. At any given time, the truth of a statement may depend on our own decision. Tomorrow morning I may drink tea, or I may not; this matter $X$ is unsettled in all theories of free will (except in the denialist version,
which takes all such matters to be deterministically set in advance). In 4L the negation of D is D : if I am undecided about something I must perforce be also undecided about its negation. D means a nondeterministic transition after, to T or F, but not to both, and in this regard it is not at all like the 'both' value of Belnap (1977). The operations $\neg, \wedge, \vee$ are defined by the truth tables given in Table 6.1 below.

\(\checkmark \left\lvert\, \begin{aligned} \& T U D F<br>\& \neg\end{aligned}\right.\)

| $\wedge$ T U D F | $\checkmark$ T U D F |
| :---: | :---: |
| T T U DF | T TTTT |
| U U U D F | UTUDU |
| D D D D F | D T D D D |
| F F F F F | F T U D F |

Table 6.1: Boolean operations in 4L

In 6.4 we will refine this simple theory of decision-making with a key observation: matters cannot stay undecided forever, not making a decision generally amounts to making a definite choice of letting the default operate. Certainly, if I defer the decision whether to drink tea until noon, this is for any observer quite indistinguishable from having made the positive determination not to drink any in the morning. We will use the modal operator $S$ to describe the process of settling on a decision, meaning after ( $T$ or $F$ ), where or carries the full force of the logical primitive "_ or _" mark_ choose. or

How is, then, the modal operator K , the act of learning, different from the modal operator $S$, the act of decisionmaking, especially as both satisfy after ( $T$ or F) ? The most salient difference is in the frequency of the outcomes: if no learning takes place, we generally assume positive statements to be false, whereas if no decision is made, we generally assume that the default will carry the day (be true). Since the everyday experience that we are surrounded by an ocean of falsity, with truth being a rare find, seems to extend even to scientific studies (Ioannidis, 2005), we see no need to argue the point about K in detail here, S will be discussed in 6.4.

Clearly, emotions are as real as other things in the head, and in fact electrocardiogrambased emotion recognition systems can reach remarkable accuracy (Hasnul et al., 2021). Subjectively there doesn't seem to be a significant difference between bodily sensations like feeling hot and emotions like feeling angry, and most of the 4 lang definitions for emotions eventually go back to feel =pat in mind, =pat at body, =agt has body, =agt has mind. This is true both for basic emotions listed in 4 lang such as anger feeling, bad, strong, aggressive or desire feeling, want, and for abstract categories such as feeling mental, other cause_, joy is_a, sorrow is_a, fear is_a, anger is_a and emotion state/77, in mind, feeling.
feel
anger
desire
feeling
emotion

Furthermore, the same holds for the entire emotion vocabulary, very much including words not explicitly listed in 4 lang such as grief 'extreme sadness, especially because someone you love has died' (LDOCE); 'very great sadness, especially at the death of are removed during the uroboros search, for example pity has the following definition: sorrow, \{other (person) suffer\} cause_, but we see no reason to trace these exhaustively, let alone to trace all emotionally loaded words one may wish to consider. Broadly speaking, the naive theory treats feelings along the Hippocrates/Galenus lines as vapors or liquids (humors) flowing through the body, and we see traces of this in the free use of several motion verbs with emotions as subjects joy flooded him, or his
 blood boiled etc. We offer a mechanism for uncovering such taxonomies by tracing the definitions to the core, but we do not offer a policy.

### 6.4 Defaults

Perhaps the cleanest statement of defaults comes from programming languages such as $\mathrm{C}++$, where function arguments can be equipped with default values. Other familiar examples include standard unix/linux utilities like 1 s , which will, when invoked with a directory path argument, list the contents of the directory in question, but will list the contents of the current working directory if invoked with no argument.

Natural language offers many similar examples, where a default object is assumed if no overt object is specified. Often the default object is highly unspecified as in eat $<$ food $>$, other times it is highly specific, as an expect <give birth>. On the unspecified end, we often find cognate objects as in sing a song, think a thought, ... and very weak subcategorization as in prove <something>. Neither of the extremes poses a great challenge to a modal treatment of defaults invoking the large deontic world $V_{D}$ or the small deontic world $V_{d}$ respectively. As a practical matter, over $6.3 \%$ of LDOCE definitions contain defaults encoded by the keyword especially, as in admit 'to say that you have done something wrong, especially something criminal' or rat-a-tat 'the sound of knocking, especially on a door'. 4 lang relies on defaults even more heavily, with $13.8 \%$ of the core definitions containing clauses demarcated by $\rangle$ (Rule 6 in 1.6).

We begin with a simple case, where the ambiguity is caused by predicating the default. Consider -ist as in pianist, receptionist, scientist, tourist, violinist. There is something of a slippery slope between characterizing a person for whom the notion expressed by the stem is important, as in Calvinist, Marxist, Unionist, abolitionist, activist, ..., -ist and naming a profession, as in archivist, anaesthetist, artist, .... 4 lang provides
person<profession>, think stem_[important], "_-ist" mark_ stem_.

In many cases, we are not sure whether the person is professional: arsonist, balloonist, philanthropist, .... That the default is profession job, before (educate for_) is clear from the fact that in these cases we tend to treat them as such, e.g. we assume that the arsonist is a career criminal, the balloonist has undergone rigorous training and flies balloons for a living, etc. We even have a word, amateur whose main use is to defease this implication. In the cases where it is hard to distinguish professionals from amateurs, the default profession takes precedence over the more general person.

Profession descriptors are a subset of person descriptors (as long as we don't insist on strict InstanceOf typing, see 4.5), so the lexical rule for -ist-suffixation operates the same way as the more static entries we quoted from LDOCE above. More challenging are those cases where there are two, seemingly disjunct defaults, as in bake <cake, bread>; drink <water, alcohol>; or can/1427 cylinder, metal, contain [<food>, <drink>]. Such entries resist the kind of analysis based on is_a, since neither cake/bread nor food/drink has a superordinate member that the subordinate (more specific) member could override.

To compare this to the Pāṇinian idea of "habitual, professional, or skilled" actors noted in 2.2 , we need to analyze what the three-way disjunction between habitual, professional, and skilled amounts to. For habitual, LDOCE offers 'usual or typical' in one sense, and 'as a habit that you cannot stop' in another. The distinction is carried back to habit 'something that you do regularly or usually, often without thinking about it because you have done it so many times before' versus 'a strong physical need to keep taking a drug regularly'. It appears we can do away with the compulsive sense, especially as the formations where it is most prevalent (chain-smoker, pill-popper) are synthetic to begin with. This leaves something like 'usual, typical, regular, done without thinking, done may times before' for habitual. For professional LDOCE offers 'doing a job for money rather than just for fun' and 'a job that needs special education and training, such as a doctor, lawyer, or architect'. Finally, for skilled it provides 'has the training and experience'.

It seems quite hard to disentangle the senses of professional and skilled as both require the before (educate for_) aspect that we used in the definition of profession. In modern society, 'need special education and training' really means education/training that provides a license: practicing law, medicine, or architecture without a license is criminalized, no matter how skilled the practitioner. This means we can collapse the second and third terms of the Pāninian disjunction (no doubt distinguishable back in his day) to just habitual or professional, perhaps adding to the latter an optional default clause <licensed> which must be omitted for employer, farmer, manager, ruler, waiter, etc. at least until regulations are further tightened.

It is clear that the range of the remaining two options overlaps greatly, but perhaps differently for nominals obtained by deverbal zero-suffixation (a device we have no need for, given the type-free nature of 4 lang ); by deverbal -er suffixation; and by denomi-
nal -ist suffixation. More important, the identification of these sub-meanings is post hoc, relying on the subdirection (see 2.2) rather than on the parts themselves. A habitual offender is simply a person who has offended many times before, there is no implication that they get paid for it, or that offending required any education or training, let alone licensing. If for our next outing, Jim will be the cook, this does not make him a professional cook, or even a skilled one, just one who assumes the role, quite possibly without the benefit of special education or training. It is precisely because of the post hoc nature of the choice between the habitual and the professional reading that the rule lacks productivity: we don't have a notion of the ??habitual sleeper not because nobody is trained in sleeping (some people with disorders actually are, but we don't consider them professionals for that) but because everybody is on the habitual branch of the definition of sleeper, eater, breather,... to begin with.

Returning to dual defaults, it is intuitively quite clear that we would want to follow Pānini and permit disjunction e.g. in bake cook/825, =pat [<bread>, <cake>], =agt cause_ =pat [hard] whose default object is either bread or cake, but not both. One way to resolve the issue would be the introduction of some abstract supercategory such as 'dough-based baked food' or 'victuals'. We call this the KR-style solution, as it is seen quite often in systems of Knowledge Representation. This is unattractive for most languages (cf. 5.3 for 'doors and windows' in Hungarian), especially as the first paraphrase sneaks in bake on the right-hand side of the definition, and the latter (together with its less current synonym 'aliments') defaults to food, whereas 'refreshments', at least in current usage, defaults to drinks. The KR-style solution also goes against the lexicographic principle of reductivity (see 1.2) that the definiens should be simpler than the definiendum.

The key to the treatment of defaults is to see them as triggers for spreading activation. We will discuss the activation process in greater detail in 7.4, but the general picture should already be clear: if a default is present in a lexical entry, it is active unless it gets defeased. At the discourse level, such activity is easily tested by the immediate, felicitous availability of definite descriptions. Compare I went to a wedding. The minister spoke harshly (Kálmán, 1990) to I went to a restaurant. \#The minister spoke harshly. The wedding script comes fully equipped with a slot for minister, but the restaurant script does not. In fact, one need not resort to the full conceptual apparatus of Schankian scripts or Fillmorean frames to see this, the lexical entry for wedding 'a marriage ceremony, especially one with a religious service' (LDOCE) already carries the religious service and its officator by default, whereas the entry for restaurant does not.

Under the view presented here, a restaurant is not fully defined by 'a place where you can buy and eat a meal' (LDOCE) because the same test I went to a restaurant. The waiter spoke harshly shows waiter to be available by definite description. The existence of a specific negative, self-service restaurant also points at the conclusion that waiters are present in restaurants by default, as are chefs, maître d's, busboys, tables, etc. The Oxford definition, 'a place where people pay to sit and eat meals that are cooked and served on the premises' shows the slots for cooks/chefs and servers/waiters, and sit and eat does
seem to imply the presence of a chair and a table. Whether the maître d' hôtel is a default feature of a restaurant seems very much culture-dependent, but a real restaurant, as we shall see in 7.2 , can hardly do without.

Let us return to conjoined defaults. Consider ash powder [<grey>, <white>, ash <black>], \{<wood> burn\} make. What is the default color of ash? The word ashen suggests 'pale gray' but an ashen face 'looking very pale because you are ill, shocked, or frightened' (LDOCE) is actually not grey, just pale. The larger encyclopedia, https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Shades_of_gray is already overwhelming, and a broader search leads to sites such as https://simplicable.com/new/ash-color which call into question even the Knowledge Representation-style solution relying on some technical term (in this case, grayscale).

There are cases like broadcast signal, <radio,television> receive where a KR-style solution is easy. Unlike aliments discussed above, where the defining word is lexicographically unreasonable, here we could use antenna, not just as something common to TVs and radios, but also as the instrument of both broadcasting and reception. But there remain cases like opponent person, oppose, <compete>, <in battle> where the defaults are rather contradictory between friendly competition and adversarial battle. In the spreading activation model we don't have to make early choices between polysemous senses or pretend that these involve a single abstract sense. Rather, the system can resolve later on which of the adjacent polytopes is meant.

We began S19:1.1 with two Fregean principles, the better known Compositionality, and that of Contextuality:

Never ask for the meaning of a word in isolation, but only in the context of a sentence.

In computational linguistics, relating word senses to contexts is known as the problem of Word-Sense Disambiguation, see Agirre and Edmonds (2007) for the state of the art before 2010. Perhaps the greatest step forward in solving the WSD problem was the introduction of dynamic embeddings that produce a word vector based on context. Unfortunately, this is a black box solution, and part of our goal here is to understand the mechanism of disambiguation. Defaults, contradictory defaults in particular, offer an important insight into the structure of lexical entries: while the basic structure is conjunctive, their joint activation, by spreading, is disjunctive. The broad agentive -er (cf. buyer, sleeper, ... rather than 'one who habitually stem-s', so there is no disjunction to consider. The more narrow agentive -er, and -ist are, perhaps just like in Sanskrit, ambiguous between the habitual and the professional readings (cf. smoker, exhibitionist for the former and plumber, pianist for the latter) but we see no supercategory that connects these two: rather, we see these as disjunctive by virtue of being defaults. The work is done by the person [<profession>] clause which defaults to profession. We have to do extra work to escape this conclusion in order to fall back on the default person, and this extra work is unrelated to any notion of habituality, since the pros
obviously 'do stem' habitually. In synthetic compounds teetotaler, navelgazer, ... we assume the work is done during the formation of the compound, in other cases we may have to bring in the compulsive aspect we chose to ignore above.

The entire network of lexical entries is remarkably tight. We have seen that from the uroboros core every word can be reached in three steps via the LDV and LDOCE. Three is the maximum: those familiar with the use of 4 lang can often write a one-step definition that relies only on the uroboros core. (By now, most readers will have seen enough examples and will understand the principles well enough to try themselves.) Since the average number of clauses within the V 2 uroboros set is 2.66 , if we let spreading proceed through any undirected 'associative' path, we may activate the entire vocabulary in 5-6 steps starting from the words of any sentence. Consider colorless green ideas sleep furiously. Color immediately activates sensation, light, red, green, blue; -less activates lack; green activates has, plant, and the already active color; idea activates in, mind, think, make;-s activates more; sleep activates rest, conscious, and the already active lack; furious activates angry, er_, gen. Only -ly, a pure category-changing affix, does not activate any element, as it is semantically empty. This is not to say that it entirely lacks a categorial signature: for English, -ly is clearly [AN]\D, but in 4 lang we wish to avoid the claim that operators turning adjectives or nouns into adverbs are universal.

In one step we have already activated 20 elements ( 2.86 per morpheme), and only four of these, er_, gen, and lack are primitives that resist further spreading, while in will invoke the entire place conceptual scheme (3.1). In fact, the morpheme count is somewhat arbitrary, as we should clearly add a nominative and an accusative marker, 3rd person singular, present, and perhaps other unmarked operators such as I declare to you. To limit combinatorial explosion we need to constrain spreading activation in various ways. First, it is clear that permitting activation in the other direction would be unwise, since one in seven words involve spatial in, almost one in three involve possessive has, some 40 involve comparative er_, some 60 involve negative lack, and the same number involve generic gen. Second, we need to enforce some condition of locality, in that it is cognitively implausible that the negative element explicit in colorless could reinforce the negative element implicit in sleep rest, lack conscious. We will return to spreading activation in 7.4, where we discuss how to implement locality by island parsing, but we note in advance that the key building block will be the construction in the sense of Berkeley Construction Grammar.

For the synthetic compounds in -er this superficially takes the form ( N V -er) ${ }_{N}$, e.g. in navel.gaze.er. Remarkably, the spreading analysis often leads through the unattested intermediary that we use use for agentive -er, ( V -er) $N$. Once this pattern is activated, the very frequent noun-noun compounding pattern ( $\mathrm{N} N$ ) $N$ can be spread to. In S19:6.4 we wrote

The algebraic approach (...) largely leaves open the actual contents of the lexicon. Consider the semantics of noun-noun compounds. As Kiparsky (1982) notes, ropeladder is 'ladder made of rope', manslaughter is 'slaughter under-
gone by man', and testtube is 'tube used for test', so the overall semantics can only specify that $N_{1} N_{2}$ is ' $N_{2}$ that is $V$-ed by $N_{1}$ ', i.e. the decomposition is subdirect (yields a superset of the target) rather than direct, as it would be in a fully compositional generative system.

This applies to entries like teetotaler which we analyze with an unattested agent noun totaler who totals (does always) the V-ing of tee (tea). Unsurprisingly (though not exactly predictably) the verb in question is drink, so we obtain 'one who always drinks tea'. While still a bit off the actual target 'one who abstains from drinking alcohol', this is close enough for memorization, and offers considerable economy relative to memorizing the entire definition.

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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ Recall that we use 'matter' as a cover term for objects and events/relations

