



$$(4) \quad \llbracket \text{SCALE} \rrbracket_{\langle n,t \rangle} = \lambda m_n [m \geq n] \qquad (5) \quad \llbracket \text{NUM} \rrbracket_{\langle \langle n,t \rangle, n \rangle} = \lambda P_{\langle n,t \rangle} [\text{MIN}(P)]$$

$$(6) \quad \llbracket \text{CL} \rrbracket_{\langle n, \langle \langle e,t \rangle, \langle e,t \rangle \rangle \rangle} = \lambda n_n \lambda P_{\langle e,t \rangle} \lambda x_e [*P(x) \wedge \#(P)(x) = n]$$

**Composition.** Combining the ingredients introduced above in a compositional fashion leads to the structures in (7)–(8). For instance, (7-a) can be interpreted as (7-b), i.e., due to application of MIN the interval  $[4, \infty)$  is turned into the integer 4. The resulting expression is, thus, of type  $n$  and can be used as a name of a number concept. On the other hand, (8-a) is an object-counting modifier interpreted, e.g., as (8-b). After the number slot in (6) is saturated by 4, we obtain an expression which, when applied to a predicate, yields a set of pluralities of entities that have the relevant property and whose cardinality equals 4.

$$(7) \quad \begin{array}{ll} \text{a.} & [\text{NUM SCALE}] \quad \text{ABSTR.COUNT} \\ \text{b.} & \llbracket (7\text{-a}) \rrbracket = 4 \end{array} \qquad (8) \quad \begin{array}{ll} \text{a.} & [\text{CL} [\text{NUM SCALE}]] \quad \text{OBJ.COUNT} \\ \text{b.} & \llbracket (8\text{-a}) \rrbracket = \lambda P_{\langle e,t \rangle} \lambda x_e [*P(x) \wedge \#(P)(x) = 4] \end{array}$$

**The non-terminal lexicalization model.** To account for the morphological patterns, we adopt the view that lexical entries link morphemes to potentially complex syntactic/semantic structures. Following Starke (2009), we assume that the Superset Principle allows a given morpheme to pronounce *any sub-constituent* contained in its lexical entry. For instance, a lexical entry such as (9-a) can also pronounce the structure in (9b) since this structure is its sub-constituent. Furthermore, we adopt the Elsewhere Principle, which states that when multiple items match a particular semantic structure, the more specific one, i.e., having fewer superfluous features, is chosen (Kiparsky 1973). Finally, we assume that there are no cardinals pronouncing only [SCALE], but we will independently justify its relevance based on the morphological evidence from Czech and Vurës (Malau 2016) as well as from suppletive forms and semantics of ordinals and multipliers.

$$(9) \quad \begin{array}{ll} \text{a.} & [\text{CL} [\text{NUM SCALE}]] \\ \text{b.} & [\text{NUM SCALE}] \end{array}$$

**Typology.** The proposed system is able to derive all the attested variation by treating different types of numerals as lexicalizations of different structures derived from the universal semantic components, see Table below. Symmetric numerals are stored as complete structures pronouncing all the three heads, which allows them to cover both the abstract-counting and the object-counting function, e.g., English *four*. A special case of symmetry is represented by idiosyncratic numerals, which have suppletive forms for the two functions, e.g., Maltese *mejn ~ żewġ* (the choice of *mejn* as the abstract-counting form is due to the Elsewhere Condition). On the other hand, asymmetric numerals lexicalize only the abstract-counting meaning, and thus require additional morphology in order to be able to be used as modifiers, e.g., a classifier in the case of Japanese *yon*. The fact that the inverse pattern is scarce is because it can only arise in a very particular configuration. Specifically, a numeral needs to be stored simply as SCALE, NUM needs to have an overt exponent, and [CL NUM] needs to be lexicalized as a null morpheme. As a result, abstract- and object-counting numerals are spelled out according to the inverse pattern. Finally, the system predicts two more very rare types of numerals PRED<sub>1</sub> (inverse numerals with  $\beta$  overtly realized) and PRED<sub>2</sub> (numerals with two affixes).

ABSTRACT		OBJECT		
SCALE	NUM	SCALE	NUM	CL
<i>four</i>	ENG 4	<i>four</i>		
<i>mejn</i>	MLT 2	<i>żewġ</i>		
<i>yon</i>	JPN 4	<i>yon</i>		<i>rin</i>
<i>taalat</i>	ARA 3	<i>taalat</i>		$\emptyset$
<i>X</i>	$\alpha$	PRED <sub>1</sub>	<i>X</i>	$\beta$
<i>X</i>	$\alpha$	PRED <sub>2</sub>	<i>X</i>	$\alpha$   $\beta$

The potential candidates for PRED<sub>1</sub> and PRED<sub>2</sub> are Abkhaz numerals 2–10 (Hewitt 1979, Chirikba 2010) and numerals in languages that allow for classifier stacking such as Akatek (Zavala 2000, Aikhenvald 2000), respectively.

**References.** Aikhenvald (2000) *Classifiers* • Bale & Coon (2014) *Classifiers are for numerals, not for nouns* • Bultinck (2005) *Numerous meanings* • Chirikba (2010) *Abkhaz* • Fassi Fehri (2018) *Constructing feminine to mean* • Hewitt (1979) • *Abkhaz* • Hurford (1998) *The interaction between numerals and nouns* • Kiparsky (1973) ‘Elsewhere’ in phonology • Krifka (1989) *Nominal reference, temporal constitution and quantification in event semantics* • Krifka (1995) *Common nouns* • Link (1983) *The logical analysis of plurals and mass terms* • Malau (2016) *A grammar of Vurës, Vanuatu* • Rothstein (2017) *Semantics for counting and measuring* • Starke (2009) *Nanosyntax* • Sudo (2016) *The Semantic role of classifiers in Japanese* • Zavala (2000) *Multiple classifier systems in Akatek (Mayan)*