Semantics and First-Order Predicate Calculus

11-711 Algorithms for NLP

17 November 2016

(With thanks to Noah Smith)

Key Challenge of Meaning

 We actually say very little - much more is left unsaid, because it's assumed to be widely known.

- Examples:
 - Reading newspaper stories
 - Using restaurant menus
 - Learning to use a new piece of software

Meaning Representation Languages

- Symbolic representation that does two jobs:
 - Conveys the meaning of a sentence
 - Represents (some part of) the world
- We're assuming a very literal, context-independent, inference-free version of meaning!
 - Semantics vs. linguists' "pragmatics"
 - "Meaning representation" vs some philosophers' use of the term "semantics".
- Today we'll use first-order logic. Also called First-Order Predicate Calculus. Logical form.

A MRL Should Be Able To ...

- Verify a query against a knowledge base: Do CMU students follow politics?
- Eliminate ambiguity: CMU students enjoy visiting Senators.
- Cope with vagueness: Sally heard the news.
- Cope with many ways of expressing the same meaning (canonical forms): The candidate evaded the question vs. The question was evaded by the candidate.
- Draw conclusions based on the knowledge base: Who could become the 45th president?
- Represent all of the meanings we care about

Model-Theoretic Semantics

- Model: a simplified representation of (some part of) the world: objects, properties, relations (domain).
- Non-logical vocabulary
 - Each element denotes (maps to) a well-defined part of the model
 - Such a mapping is called an interpretation

A Model

- Domain: Noah, Karen, Rebecca, Frederick, Green Mango, Casbah, Udipi, Thai, Mediterranean, Indian
- Properties: Green Mango and Udipi are crowded; Casbah is expensive
- Relations: Karen likes Green Mango, Frederick likes Casbah, everyone likes Udipi, Green Mango serves Thai, Casbah serves Mediterranean, and Udipi serves Indian
- n, k, r, f, g, c, u, t, m, i
- Crowded = $\{g, u\}$
- Expensive = {c}
- Likes = $\{(k, g), (f, c), (n, u), (k, u), (r, u), (f, u)\}$
- Serves = $\{(g, t), (c, m), (u, i)\}$

Some English

- Karen likes Green Mango and Frederick likes Casbah.
- Noah and Rebecca like the same restaurants.
- Noah likes expensive restaurants.
- Not everybody likes Green Mango.

- What we want is to be able to represent these statements in a way that lets us compare them to our model.
- Truth-conditional semantics: need operators and their meanings, given a particular model.

First-Order Logic

- Terms refer to elements of the domain: constants, functions, and variables
 - Noah, SpouseOf(Karen), X
- Predicates are used to refer to sets and relations;
 predicate applied to a term is a Proposition
 - Expensive(Casbah)
 - Serves(Casbah, Mediterranean)
- Logical connectives (operators):
 - \land (and), \lor (or), \neg (not), \Rightarrow (implies), ...
- Quantifiers ...

Quantifiers in FOL

- Two ways to use variables:
 - refer to one anonymous object from the domain (existential; ∃; "there exists")
 - refer to all objects in the domain (universal; ∀; "for all")

- A restaurant near CMU serves Indian food
 ∃ x Restaurant(x) ∧ Near(x, CMU) ∧ Serves(x, Indian)
- All expensive restaurants are far from campus
 ∀x Restaurant(x) ∧ Expensive(x) ⇒ ¬Near(x, CMU)

Inference

- Big idea: extend the knowledge base, or check some proposition against the knowledge base.
- Forward chaining with modus ponens: given α and $\alpha \Rightarrow \beta$, we know β .
- Backward chaining takes a query β and looks for propositions α and $\alpha \Rightarrow \beta$ that would prove β .
 - Not the same as backward reasoning (abduction).
 - Used by Prolog
- Both are sound, neither is complete by itself.

Inference example

Starting with these facts:

Restaurant(Udipi)

 \forall x Restaurant(x) \Rightarrow Likes(Noah, x)

• We can "turn a crank" and get this new fact:

Likes(Noah, Udipi)

FOL: Meta-theory

- Well-defined set-theoretic semantics
- Sound: can't prove false things
- Complete: can prove everything that logically follows from a set of axioms (e.g., with "resolution theorem prover")
- Well-behaved, well-understood
- Mission accomplished?

FOL: But there are also "Issues"

- "Meanings" of sentences are truth values.
- Only *first-order* (no quantifying over *predicates* [which the book does without comment]).
- Not very good for "fluents" (time-varying things, real-valued quantities, etc.)
- Brittle: anything follows from any contradiction(!)
- Goedel incompleteness: "This statement has no proof"!
 - (Finite axiom sets are incomplete w.r.t. the real world.)
- So: Most systems use its descriptive apparatus (with extensions) but not its inference mechanisms.

First-Order Worlds, Then and Now

- Interest in this topic (in NLP) waned during the 1990s and 2000s.
- It has come back, with the rise of semi-structured databases like Wikipedia.
 - Lay contributors to these databases may be helping us to solve the knowledge acquisition problem.
- Also, lots of research on using NLP, information extraction, and machine learning to grow and improve knowledge bases from free text data.
 - "Read the Web" project here at CMU.
- And: Semantic embedding/NN/vector approaches.

Lots More To Say About MRLs!

- See chapter 17 for more about:
 - Representing events and states in FOL
 - Dealing with optional arguments (e.g., "eat")
 - Representing time
 - Non-FOL approaches to meaning

Connecting Syntax and Semantics

Semantic Analysis

- Goal: transform a NL statement into MRL (today, FOL).
- Sometimes called "semantic parsing."
- As described earlier, this is the literal, contextindependent, inference-free meaning of the statement

"Literal, context-independent, inference-free" semantics

- Example: The ball is red
- Assigning a specific, grounded meaning involves deciding which ball is meant
- Would have to resolve indexical terms including pronouns, normal NPs, etc.
- Logical form allows compact representation of such indexical terms (vs. listing all members of the set)
- To retrieve a specific meaning, we combine LF with a particular context or situation (set of objects and relations)
- So LF is a function that maps an initial discourse situation into a new discourse situation (from situation semantics)

Compositionality

- The meaning of an NL phrase is determined by combining the meaning of its sub-parts.
- There are obvious exceptions ("hot dog," "straw man," "New York," etc.).

 Note: your book uses an event-based FOL representation, but I'm using a simpler one without events.

• Big idea: start with parse tree, build semantics on top using FOL with λ -expressions.

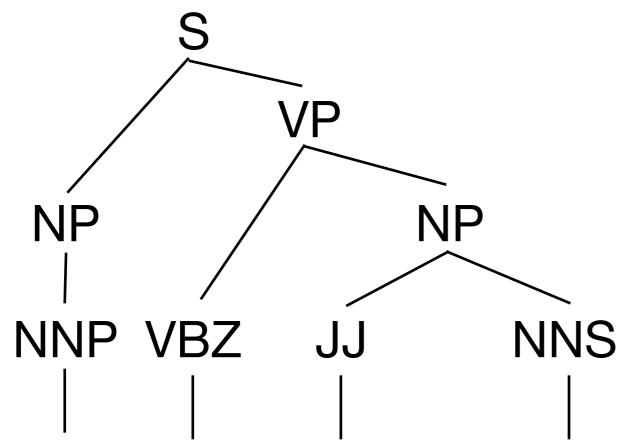
Extension: Lambda Notation

- A way of making anonymous functions.
- λx . (some expression mentioning x)
 - Example: λx.Near(x, CMU)
 - Trickier example: λx.λy.Serves(y, x)
- Lambda reduction: substitute for the variable.
 - (λx.Near(x, CMU))(LulusNoodles) becomes Near(LulusNoodles, CMU)

Lambda reduction: order matters!

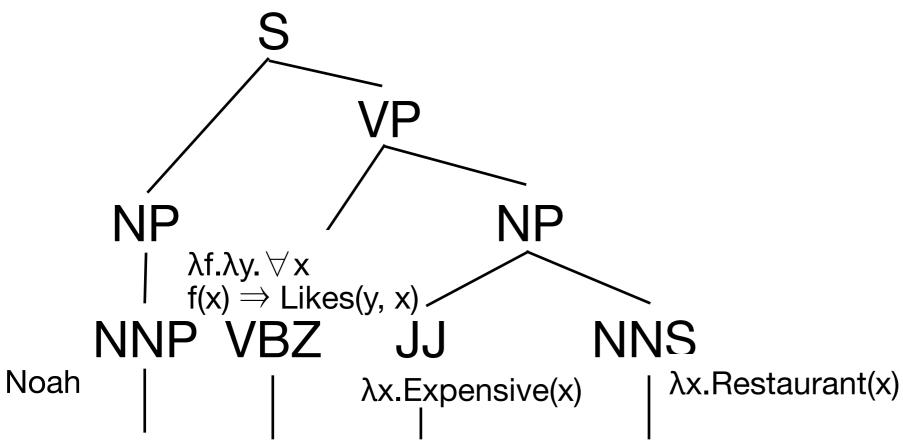
λx.λy.Serves(y, x) (Bill)(Jane) becomes λy.Serves(y, Bill)(Jane)
 Then λy.Serves(y, Bill) (Jane) becomes Serves(Jane, Bill)

λy.λx.Serves(y, x) (Bill)(Jane) becomes λx.Serves(Bill, x)(Jane)
 Then λx.Serves(Bill, x) (Jane) becomes Serves(Bill, Jane)



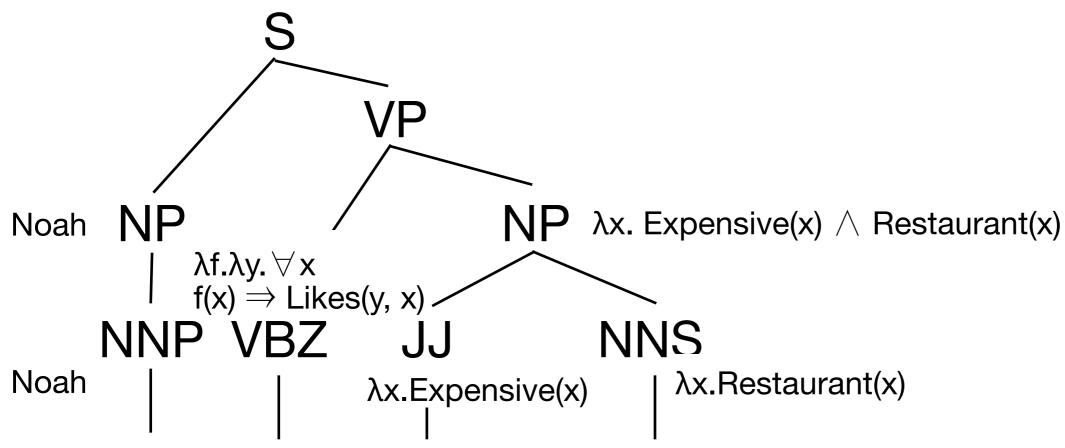
- Noah likes expensive restaurants.
- \forall x Restaurant(x) \land Expensive(x) \Rightarrow Likes(Noah, x)

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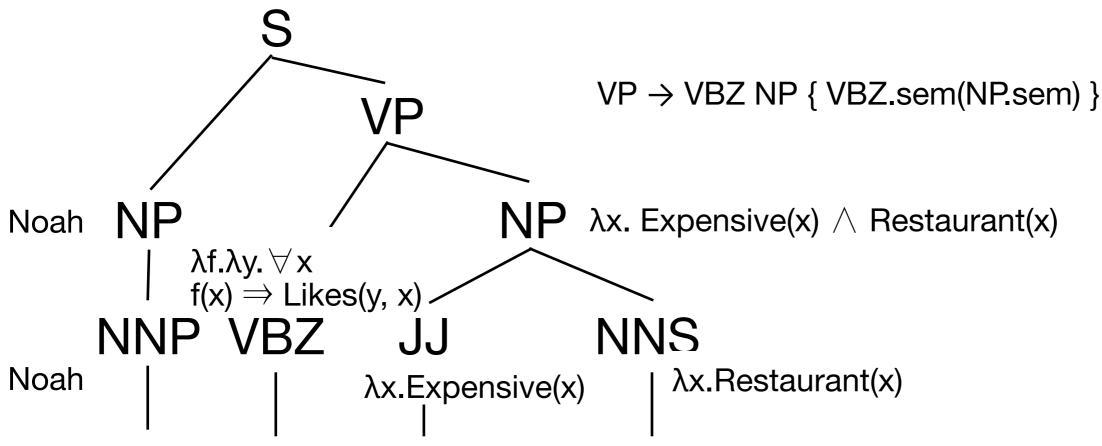


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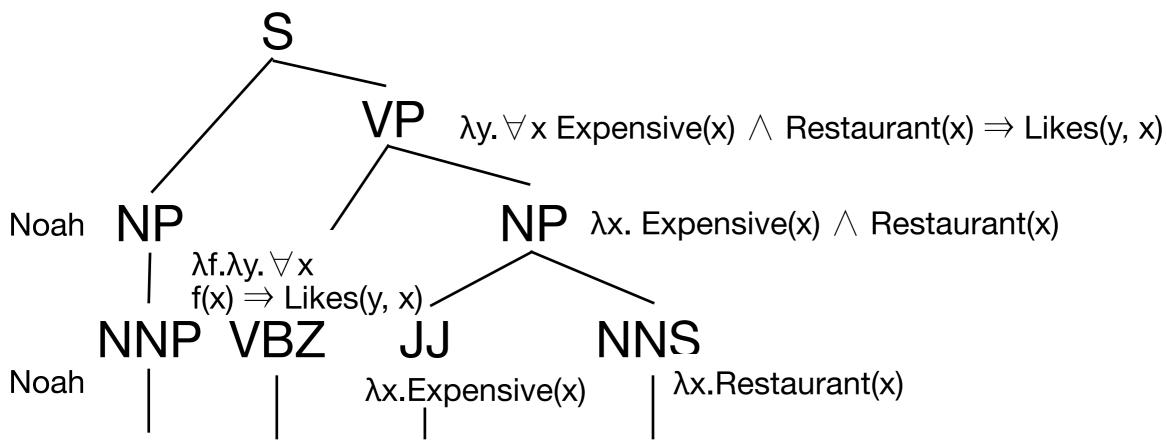
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```
S \Rightarrow \text{NP VP { VP.sem(NP.sem) }} VP \quad \lambda y. \ \forall x \ \text{Expensive}(x) \ \land \ \text{Restaurant}(x) \Rightarrow \text{Likes}(y, x) Noah \quad NP \quad NP \quad \lambda x. \ \text{Expensive}(x) \ \land \ \text{Restaurant}(x) NNP \quad VBZ \quad JJ \quad NNS \quad Noah \quad | \quad \lambda x. \text{Expensive}(x) \quad | \quad \lambda x. \text{Restaurant}(x)
```

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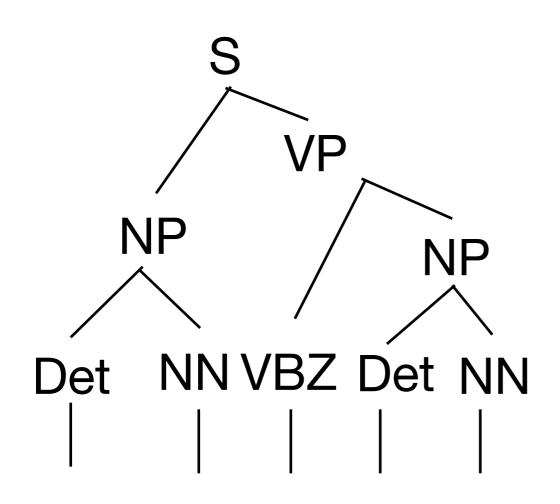
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Alternative (Following SLP)

- Noah likes expensive restaurants.
- \forall x Restaurant(x) \land Expensive(x) \Rightarrow Likes(Noah, x)

```
S → NP VP { NP.sem(VP.sem) }
```

Quantifier Scope Ambiguity



```
S \rightarrow NP VP { NP.sem(VP.sem) }

NP \rightarrow Det NN { Det.sem(NN.sem) }

VP \rightarrow VBZ NP { VBZ.sem(NP.sem) }

Det \rightarrow every { \lambda f. \lambda g. \forall u \ f(u) \Rightarrow g(u) }

Det \rightarrow a { \lambda m. \lambda n. \exists x \ m(x) \land n(x) }

NN \rightarrow man { \lambda v. Man(v) }

NN \rightarrow woman { \lambda y. Woman(y) }

VBZ \rightarrow loves { \lambda h. \lambda k. h(\lambda w. Loves(k, w)) }
```

Every man loves a woman.

• \forall u Man(u) $\Rightarrow \exists$ x Woman(x) \land Loves(u, x)

This Isn't Quite Right!

- "Every man loves a woman" really is ambiguous.
 - \forall u Man(u) $\Rightarrow \exists$ x Woman(x) \land Loves(u, x)
 - $\exists x \text{ Woman}(x) \land \forall u \text{ Man}(u) \Rightarrow \text{Loves}(u, x)$

- This gives only one of the two meanings.
 - Extra ambiguity on top of syntactic ambiguity
- One approach is to delay the quantifier processing until the end, then permit any ordering.

Quantifier Scope

- A seat was available for every customer.
- A toll-free number was available for every customer.
- A secretary called each director.
- A letter was sent to each customer.
- Every man loves a woman
 who works at the candy store.
- Every 5 minutes a man gets knocked down and he's not too happy about it.

What Else?

- Chapter 18 discusses how you can get this to work for other parts of English (e.g., prepositional phrases).
- Remember attribute-value structures for parsing with more complex things than simple symbols?
 - You can extend those with semantics as well.
- No time for ...
 - Statistical models for semantics
 - Parsing algorithms augmented with semantics
 - Handling idioms

Generalized Quantifiers

- In FOL, we only have universal and existential quantifiers
- One formal extension is type-restriction of the quantified variable: Everyone likes Udipi:

```
\forall x Person(x) \Rightarrow Likes(x, Udipi) becomes
```

- \forall x | Person(x).Likes(x, Udipi)
- English and other languages have a much larger set of quantifiers: all, some, most, many, a few, the, ...
- These have the same form as the original FOL quantifiers with type restrictions:

```
<quant><var>|<restriction>.<body>
```

Generalized Quantifier examples

Most dogs bark

```
Most x \mid Dog(x). Barks(x)
```

Most barking things are dogs

```
Most x \mid Barks(x) \cdot Dog(x)
```

The dog barks

```
The x \mid Dog(x). Barks(x)
```

The happy dog barks

```
The x | (Happy(x) \land Dog(x)) . Barks(x)
```

• Interpretation and inference using these are harder...

Speech Acts

- Mood of a sentence indicates relation between speaker and the concept (proposition) defined by the LF
- There can be operators that represent these relations:
 - ASSERT: the proposition is proposed as a fact
 - YN-QUERY: the truth of the proposition is queried
 - COMMAND: the proposition describes a requested action
 - WH-QUERY: the proposition describes an object to be identified

ASSERT (Declarative mood)

The man eats a peach

ASSERT(The x | Man(x) . (A y | Peach(y) . Eat(x,y)))

YN-QUERY (Interrogative mood)

Does the man eat a peach?

YN-QUERY(The x | Man(x) . (A y | Peach(y) . Eat(x,y)))

COMMAND (Imperative mood)

Eat a peach, (man).

COMMAND(A y | Peach(y) . Eat(*HEARER*,y))

WH-QUERY

- What did the man eat?
 - WH-QUERY(The x | Man(x) . (WH y | Thing(y) . Eat(x,y)))
- One of a whole set of new quantifiers for wh-questions:
 - What: WH x | Thing(x)
 - Which dog: WH x | Dog(x)
 - Who: WH x | Person(x)
 - How many men: HOW-MANY x | Man(x)

Other complications

- Relative clauses are propositions embedded in an NP
 - Restrictive versus non-restrictive: the dog that barked all night vs. the dog, which barked all night
- Modal verbs: non-transparency for truth of subordinate clause: Sue thinks that John loves Sandy
- Tense/Aspect
- Plurality
- Etc.