

Natural Language Processing (CSEP 517): Predicate-Argument and Compositional Semantics

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To-Do List

- ▶ Online quiz: due Sunday
- ▶ Jurafsky and Martin (2016); (Jurafsky and Martin, 2008, ch. 18), Steedman (1996)
- ▶ A4 due May 14 (Sunday)

Semantics vs. Syntax

Syntactic theories and representations focus on the question of which strings in \mathcal{V}^\dagger are in the language.

Semantics is about understanding what a string in \mathcal{V}^\dagger *means*.

Sidestepping a lengthy and philosophical discussion of what “meaning” is, we’ll consider two meaning representations:

- ▶ Predicate-argument structures, also known as event frames
- ▶ Truth conditions represented in first-order logic

Motivating Example: Who did What to Who(m)?

- ▶ Warren bought the stock.
- ▶ They sold the stock to Warren.
- ▶ The stock was bought by Warren.
- ▶ The purchase of the stock by Warren surprised no one.
- ▶ Warren's stock purchase surprised no one.

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- ▶ Warren **bought** the stock.
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Also, there was presumably a seller, only mentioned in one example.

In some examples, a separate “event” involving surprise did not occur.

Semantic Roles: Breaking

- ▶ Jesse broke the window.
- ▶ The window broke.
- ▶ Jesse is always breaking things.
- ▶ The broken window testified to Jesse's malfeasance.

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A breaking event has a BREAKER and a BREAKEE.

Semantic Roles: Eating

- ▶ Eat!
- ▶ We ate dinner.
- ▶ We already ate.
- ▶ The pies were eaten up quickly.
- ▶ Our gluttony was complete.

Semantic Roles: Eating

- ▶ Eat! (you, listener) ?
- ▶ We ate dinner.
- ▶ We already ate. ?
- ▶ The pies were eaten up quickly. ?
- ▶ Our gluttony was complete. ?

An eating event has an EATER and FOOD, neither of which needs to be mentioned explicitly.

Abstraction?

BREAKER $\stackrel{?}{=}$ EATER

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Both are actors that have some causal responsibility for changes in the world around them.

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Both are actors that have some causal responsibility for changes in the world around them.

BREAKEE $\stackrel{?}{=}$ FOOD

Both are greatly affected by the event, which “happened to” them.

Thematic Roles

(Jurafsky and Martin, 2016, with modifications)

AGENT	The waiter spilled the soup.
EXPERIENCER	John has a headache.
FORCE	The wind blows debris from the mall into our yards.
THEME	Jesse broke the window
RESULT	The city built a regulation-size baseball diamond.
CONTENT	Mona asked, “You met Mary Ann at a supermarket?”
INSTRUMENT	He poached catfish, stunning them with a shocking device.
BENEFICIARY	Ann Callahan makes hotel reservations for her boss.
SOURCE	I flew in from Boston.
GOAL	I drove to Portland.

Verb Alternation Examples: Breaking and Giving

Breaking:

- ▶ AGENT/subject; THEME/object; INSTRUMENT/PP_{with}
- ▶ INSTRUMENT/subject; THEME/object
- ▶ THEME/subject

Giving:

- ▶ AGENT/subject; GOAL/object; THEME/second-object
- ▶ AGENT/subject; THEME/object; GOAL/PP_{to}

Levin (1993) codified English verbs into classes that share patterns (e.g., verbs of throwing: throw/kick/pass).

Remarks

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- ▶ Fillmore (1968), among others, argued for semantic roles in linguistics.
- ▶ By now, it should be clear that the expressiveness of NL (at least English) makes semantic analysis rather distinct from syntax.
- ▶ General challenges to analyzing semantic roles:
 - ▶ What are the **predicates/events/frames/situations**?
 - ▶ What are the **roles/participants** for each one?
 - ▶ What algorithms can accurately identify and label all of them?

Semantic Role Labeling

Input: a sentence x

Output:

- ▶ A collection of **predicates**, each consisting of:
 - ▶ a label, sometimes called the **frame**
 - ▶ a span
 - ▶ a set of **arguments**, each consisting of:
 - ▶ a label, usually called the **role**
 - ▶ a span

In principle, spans might have gaps, though in most conventions they usually do not.

The Importance of Lexicons

Like syntax, any annotated dataset is the product of extensive development of conventions.

Many conventions are specific to particular words, and this information is codified in structured objects called **lexicons**.

You should think of every semantically annotated dataset as both the data and the lexicon.

We consider two examples.

PropBank

(Palmer et al., 2005)

- ▶ Frames are verb senses (later extended, though)
- ▶ Lexicon maps verb-sense-specific roles onto a small set of abstract roles (e.g., ARG0, ARG1, etc.)
- ▶ Annotated on top of the Penn Treebank, so that arguments are always constituents.

fall.01 (move downward)

- ▶ ARG1: logical subject, patient, thing falling
 - ▶ ARG2: extent, amount fallen
 - ▶ ARG3: starting point
 - ▶ ARG4: ending point
 - ▶ ARG_M-LOC: medium
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- ▶ Sales fell to \$251.2 million from \$278.8 million.
 - ▶ The average junk bond fell by 4.2%.
 - ▶ The meteor fell through the atmosphere, crashing into Palo Alto.

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fall.08 (fall back, rely on in emergency)

- ▶ ARG0: thing falling back
 - ▶ ARG1: thing fallen back on
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- ▶ World Bank president Paul Wolfowitz has fallen back on his last resort.

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- ▶ Many people keep falling for the idea that lowering taxes on the rich benefits everyone.

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FrameNet

(Baker et al., 1998)

- ▶ Frames can be any content word (verb, noun, adjective, adverb)
- ▶ About 1,000 frames, each with its own roles
- ▶ Both frames and roles are hierarchically organized
- ▶ Annotated without syntax, so that arguments can be anything

<https://framenet.icsi.berkeley.edu>

change_position_on_a_scale

- ▶ ITEM: entity that has a position on the scale
- ▶ ATTRIBUTE: scalar property that the ITEM possesses
- ▶ DIFFERENCE: distance by which an ITEM changes its position
- ▶ FINAL_STATE: ITEM's state after the change
- ▶ FINAL_VALUE: position on the scale where ITEM ends up
- ▶ INITIAL_STATE: ITEM's state before the change
- ▶ INITIAL_VALUE: position on the scale from which the ITEM moves
- ▶ VALUE_RANGE: portion of the scale along which values of ATTRIBUTE fluctuate
- ▶ DURATION: length of time over which the change occurs
- ▶ SPEED: rate of change of the value
- ▶ GROUP: the group in which an ITEM changes the value of an ATTRIBUTE

FrameNet Example

Attacks on civilians decreased over the last four months
change_position_on_a_scale

ITEM

DURATION

The ATTRIBUTE is left unfilled but is understood from context (i.e., “frequency”).

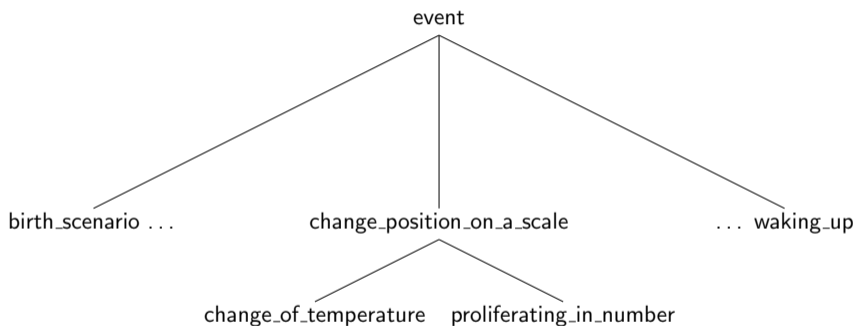
change_position_on_a_scale

Verbs: advance, climb, decline, decrease, diminish, dip, double, drop, dwindle, edge, explode, fall, fluctuate, gain, grow, increase, jump, move, mushroom, plummet, reach, rise, rocket, shift, skyrocket, slide, soar, swell, swing, triple, tumble

Nouns: decline, decrease, escalation, explosion, fall, fluctuation, gain, growth, hike, increase, rise, shift, tumble

Adverb: increasingly

change_position_on_a_scale



(birth_scenario also inherits from sexual_reproduction_scenario.)

Semantic Role Labeling Tasks

The paper that started it all: Gildea and Jurafsky (2002) used FrameNet lexicon (which includes prototypes, not really a corpus).

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The PropBank corpus is used directly for training/testing.

Conference on Computational Natural Language Learning (CoNLL) shared task in 2004, 2005, 2008, 2009, all PropBank-based.

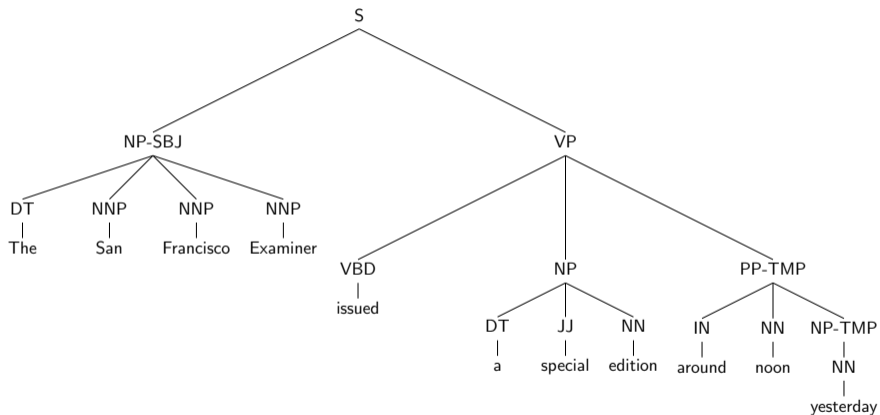
- ▶ In 2008 and 2009, the task was cast as a kind of dependency parsing.
- ▶ In 2009, seven languages were included in the task.

Methods

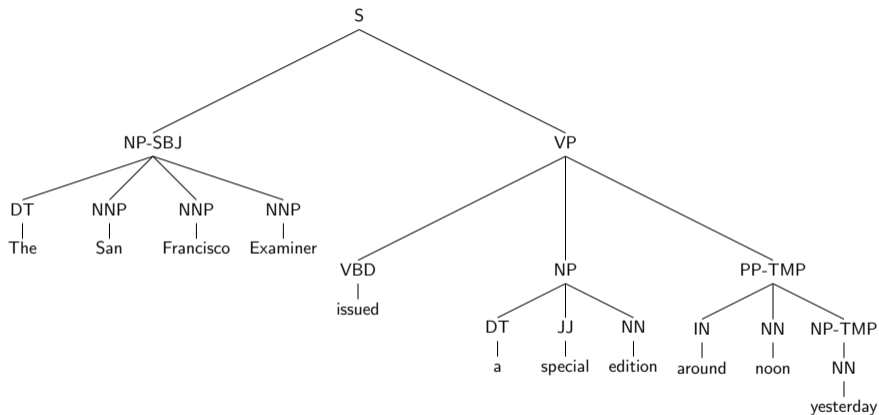
Boils down to labeling spans (with frames and roles).

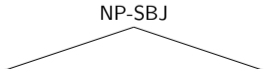
It's mostly about features.

Example: Path Features



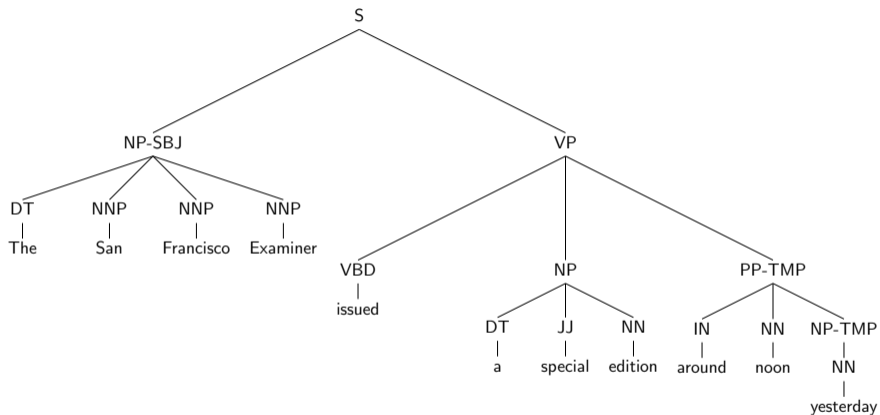
Example: Path Features

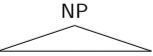


Path from  NP-SBJ
The San Francisco Examiner

to issued: NP↑S↓VP↓VBD

Example: Path Features



Path from  to issued: NP↑VP↓VBD

Methods: Beyond Features

The span-labeling decisions interact a lot!

- ▶ Presence of a frame increases the expectation of certain roles
- ▶ Roles for the same predicate shouldn't overlap
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Ensuring well-formed outputs:

- ▶ Using syntax as a scaffold allows efficient prediction; you're essentially labeling the parse tree (Toutanova et al., 2008).
- ▶ Others have formulated the problem as constrained, discrete optimization (Punyakanok et al., 2008).
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Current work:

- ▶ Some recent attempts to merge FrameNet and PropBank have shown promise (FitzGerald et al., 2015; Kshirsagar et al., 2015)

Related Problems in “Relational” Semantics

- ▶ **Coreference resolution:** which mentions (within or across texts) refer to the same entity or event?
- ▶ **Entity linking:** ground such mentions in a structured knowledge base (e.g., Wikipedia)
- ▶ **Relation extraction:** characterize the relation among specific mentions

Information extraction: transform text into a structured knowledge representation

- ▶ Classical IE starts with a predefined schema
- ▶ “Open” IE includes the automatic construction of the schema; see <http://ai.cs.washington.edu/projects/open-information-extraction>

General Remarks

Criticisms of semantic role labeling:

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- ▶ Relational semantics (e.g., semantic role labeling)

Next up, a third:

- ▶ Compositional semantics

Bridging the Gap between Language and the World

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Eventually (but not today):

- ▶ deal with non-literal meanings
- ▶ expressiveness across a wide range of subject matter

A (Tiny) World Model

- ▶ **Domain:** Adrian, Brook, Chris, Donald, Schultzy's Sausage, Din Tai Fung, Banana Leaf, American, Chinese, Thai
- ▶ **Property:** Din Tai Fung has a long wait, Schultzy's is noisy; Alice, Bob, and Charles are human
- ▶ **Relations:** Schultzy's serves American, Din Tai Fung serves Chinese, and Banana Leaf serves Thai

Simple questions are easy:

- ▶ Is Schultzy's noisy?
- ▶ Does Din Tai Fung serve Thai?

A (Tiny) World Model

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a, b, c, d, ss, dtf, bl, am, ch, th
- ▶ **Property:** Din Tai Fung has a long wait, Schultzy's is noisy; Alice, Bob, and Charles are human
Longwait = {dtf}, Noisy = {ss}, Human = {a, b, c}
- ▶ **Relations:** Schultzy's serves American, Din Tai Fung serves Chinese, and Banana Leaf serves Thai
Serves = {(ss, am), (dtf, ch), (bl, th)}, Likes = {(a, ss), (a, dtf), ...}

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A Quick Tour of First-Order Logic

- ▶ **Term:** a constant (ss) or a variable
- ▶ **Formula:** defined inductively ...
 - ▶ If R is an n -ary relation and t_1, \dots, t_n are terms, then $R(t_1, \dots, t_n)$ is a formula.
 - ▶ If ϕ is a formula, then its negation, $\neg\phi$, is a formula.
 - ▶ If ϕ and ψ are formulas, then binary logical connectives can be used to create formulas:
 - ▶ $\phi \wedge \psi$
 - ▶ $\phi \vee \psi$
 - ▶ $\phi \Rightarrow \psi$
 - ▶ $\phi \oplus \psi$
 - ▶ If ϕ is a formula and v is a variable, then quantifiers can be used to create formulas:
 - ▶ Universal quantifier: $\forall v, \phi$
 - ▶ Existential quantifier: $\exists v, \phi$

Note: Leaving out functions, because we don't need them in a single lecture on FOL for NL.

Translating Between FOL and NL

1. Schultzy's is not loud
2. Some human likes Chinese
3. If a person likes Thai, then they aren't friends with Donald
4. $\forall x, Restaurant(x) \Rightarrow (Longwait(x) \vee \neg Likes(a, x))$
5. $\forall x, \exists y, \neg Likes(x, y)$
6. $\exists y, \forall x, \neg Likes(x, y)$

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4. $\forall x, Restaurant(x) \Rightarrow (Longwait(x) \vee \neg Likes(a, x))$
Every restaurant has a long wait or is disliked by Adrian.
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Everybody has something they don't like.
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2. Some human likes Chinese $\exists x, \text{Human}(x) \wedge \text{Likes}(x, ch)$
3. If a person likes Thai, then they aren't friends with Donald
 $\forall x, \text{Human}(x) \wedge \text{Likes}(x, th) \Rightarrow \neg \text{Friends}(x, d)$
4. $\forall x, \text{Restaurant}(x) \Rightarrow (\text{Longwait}(x) \vee \neg \text{Likes}(a, x))$
Every restaurant has a long wait or is disliked by Adrian.
5. $\forall x, \exists y, \neg \text{Likes}(x, y)$
Everybody has something they don't like.
6. $\exists y, \forall x, \neg \text{Likes}(x, y)$
There exists something that nobody likes.

Logical Semantics

(Montague, 1970)

The denotation of a NL sentence is the set of conditions that must hold in the (model) world for the sentence to be true.

Every restaurant has a long wait or Adrian doesn't like it.

is true if and only if

$$\forall x, Restaurant(x) \Rightarrow (Longwait(x) \vee \neg Likes(a, x))$$

is true.

This is sometimes called the **logical form** of the NL sentence.

The Principle of Compositionality

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I.e., semantics is derived from syntax.

We need a way to express semantics of phrases, and compose them together!

λ -Calculus

(Much more powerful than what we'll see today; ask your PL professor!)

Informally, two extensions:

- ▶ **λ -abstraction** is another way to “scope” variables.
 - ▶ If ϕ is a FOL formula and v is a variable, then $\lambda v.\phi$ is a λ -term, meaning: an unnamed function from values (of v) to formulas (usually involving v)
- ▶ **application** of such functions: if we have $\lambda v.\phi$ and ψ , then $[\lambda v.\phi](\psi)$ is a formula.
 - ▶ It can be **reduced** by substituting ψ in for every instance of v in ϕ .

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Example:

$\lambda x.Likes(x, dtf)$ maps things to statements that they like Din Tai Fung

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Example:

$[\lambda x.Likes(x, dtf)](c)$ reduces to $Likes(c, dtf)$

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Example:

$\lambda x.\lambda y.Friends(x, y)$ maps things x to maps of things y to statements that x and y are friends

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Example:

$[\lambda x.\lambda y.Friends(x, y)](b)$ reduces to $\lambda y.Friends(b, y)$

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 - ▶ It can be **reduced** by substituting ψ in for every instance of v in ϕ .

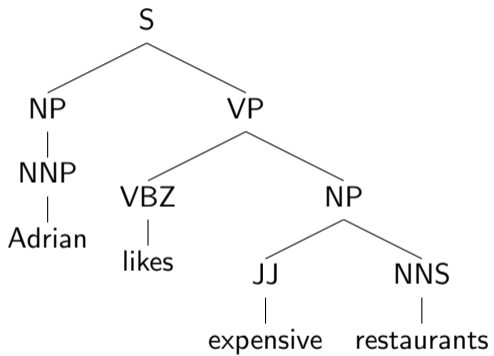
Example:

$[[\lambda x.\lambda y.Friends(x, y)](b)](a)$ reduces to $[\lambda y.Friends(b, y)](a)$, which reduces to $Friends(b, a)$

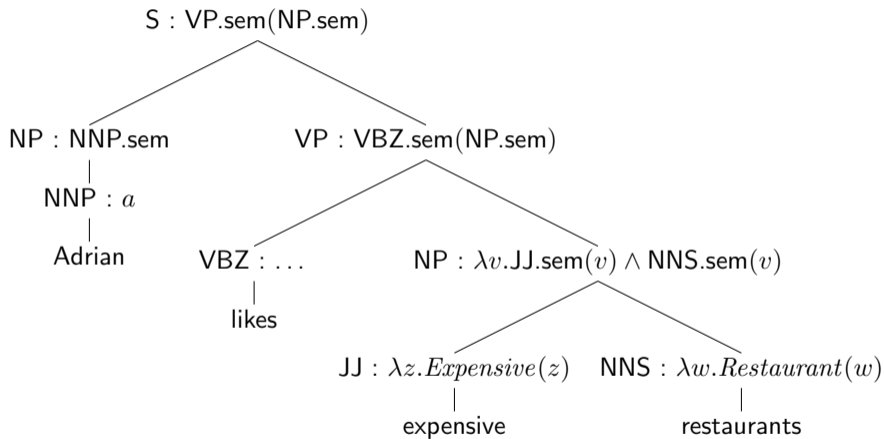
Semantic Attachments to CFG

- ▶ NNP \rightarrow Adrian $\{a\}$
- ▶ VBZ \rightarrow likes $\{\lambda f.\lambda y.\forall x f(x) \Rightarrow Likes(y, x)\}$
- ▶ JJ \rightarrow expensive $\{\lambda x.Expensive(x)\}$
- ▶ NNS \rightarrow restaurants $\{\lambda x.Restaurant(x)\}$
- ▶ NP \rightarrow NNP $\{NNP.sem\}$
- ▶ NP \rightarrow JJ NNS $\{\lambda x.JJ.sem(x) \wedge NNS.sem(x)\}$
- ▶ VP \rightarrow VBZ NP $\{VBZ.sem(NP.sem)\}$
- ▶ S \rightarrow NP VP $\{VP.sem(NP.sem)\}$

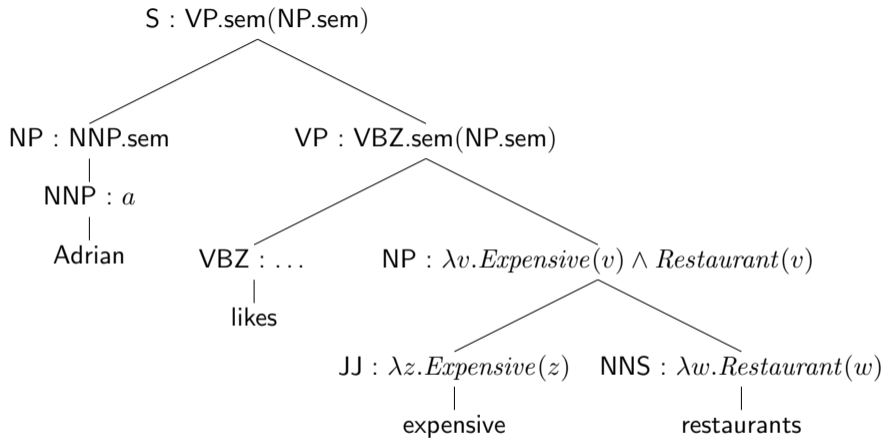
Example



Example

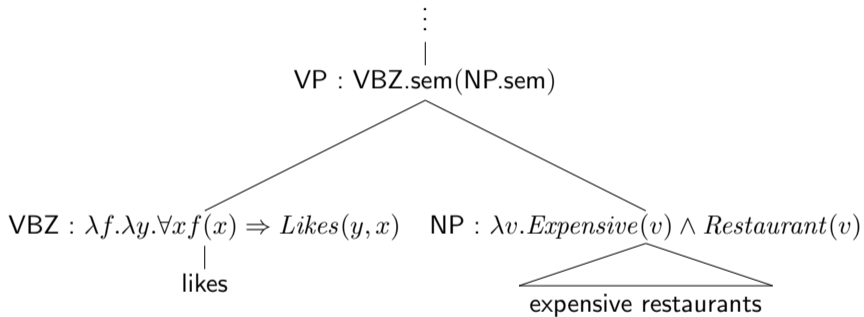


Example

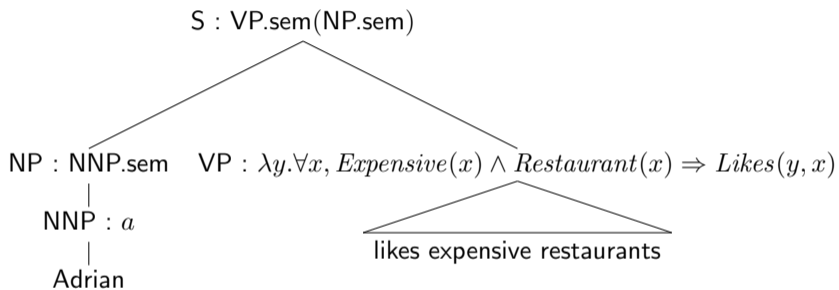


$$\lambda v. \left[\underbrace{\lambda z. \text{Expensive}(z)}_{\text{JJ.sem}} \right] (v) \wedge \left[\underbrace{\lambda w. \text{Restaurant}(w)}_{\text{NNS.sem}} \right] (v)$$

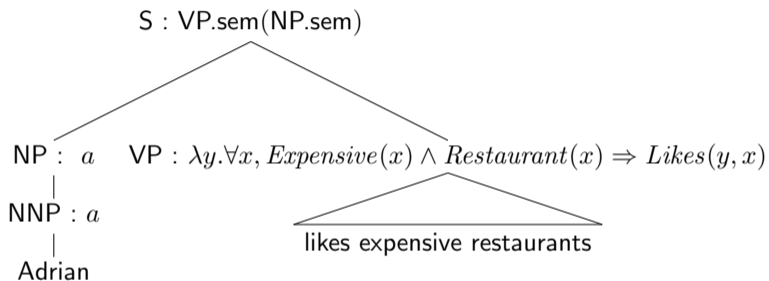
Example



Example

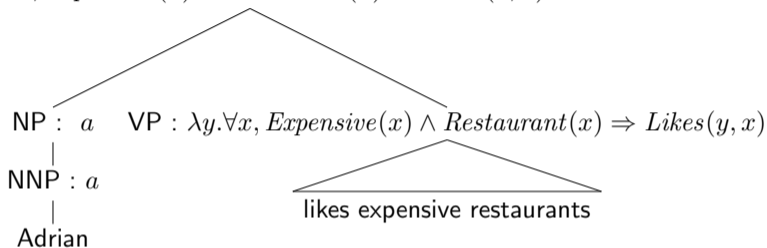


Example



Example

S : $\forall x, \text{Expensive}(x) \wedge \text{Restaurant}(x) \Rightarrow \text{Likes}(a, x)$

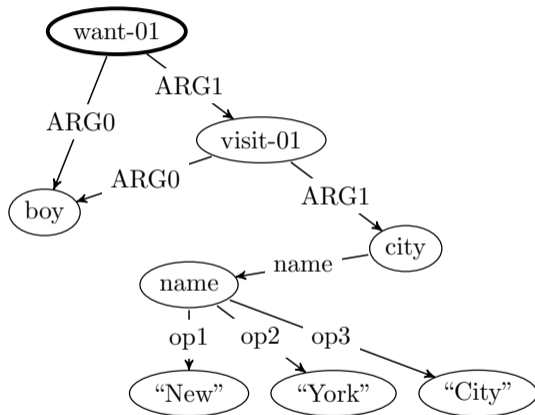


$$\left[\underbrace{\lambda y. \forall x, \text{Expensive}(x) \wedge \text{Restaurant}(x) \Rightarrow \text{Likes}(y, x)}_{\text{VP.sem}} \right] \left(\underbrace{a}_{\text{NP.sem}} \right)$$

$\forall x, \text{Expensive}(x) \wedge \text{Restaurant}(x) \Rightarrow \text{Likes}(a, x)$

Graph-Based Representations

Abstract Meaning Representation (Banarescu et al., 2013)



"The boy wants to visit New York City."

Designed for (1) annotation-ability and (2) eventual use in machine translation.

Combinatory Categorical Grammar

(Steedman, 2000)

CCG is a grammatical formalism that is well-suited for tying together syntax and semantics.

Formally, it is more powerful than CFG—it can represent some of the context-*sensitive* languages (which we do not have time to define formally).

CCG Types

Instead of the “ \mathcal{N} ” of CFGs, CCGs can have an infinitely large set of structured categories (called **types**).

- ▶ Primitive types: typically S, NP, N, and maybe more
- ▶ Complex types, built with “slashes,” for example:
 - ▶ S/NP is “an S, except that it lacks an NP to the right”
 - ▶ $S \backslash NP$ is “an S, except that it lacks an NP to its left”
 - ▶ $(S \backslash NP)/NP$ is “an S, except that it lacks an NP to its right, and its left”

You can think of complex types as functions, e.g., S/NP maps NPs to Ss.

CCG Combinators

Instead of the production rules of CFGs, CCGs have a very small set of generic **combinators** that tell us how we can put types together.

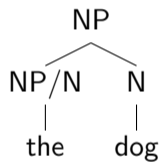
Convention writes the rule differently from CFG: $X \ Y \Rightarrow Z$ means that X and Y combine to form a Z (the “parent” in the tree).

Application Combinator

Forward ($X/Y \quad Y \Rightarrow X$) and backward ($Y \quad X \setminus Y \Rightarrow X$)

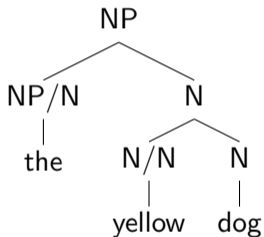
Application Combinator

Forward ($X/Y \quad Y \Rightarrow X$) and backward ($Y \quad X \backslash Y \Rightarrow X$)



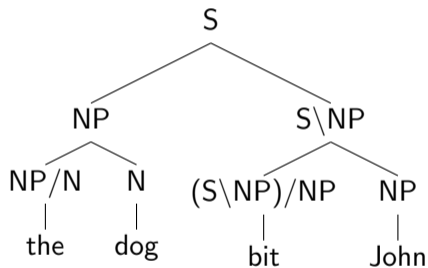
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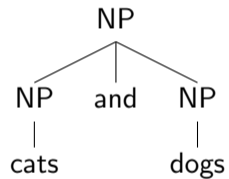
Application Combinator

Forward ($X/Y \quad Y \Rightarrow X$) and backward ($Y \quad X \backslash Y \Rightarrow X$)



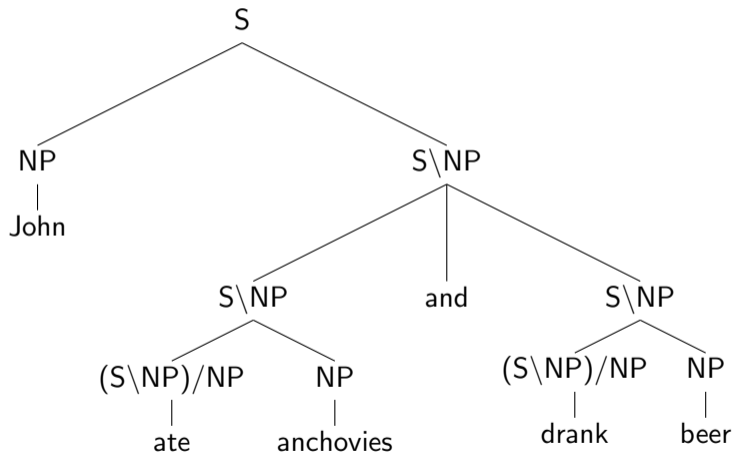
Conjunction Combinator

$X \text{ and } X \Rightarrow X$



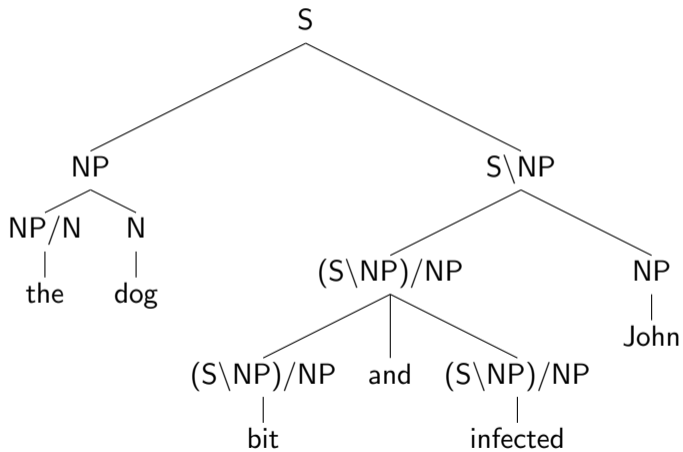
Conjunction Combinator

$X \text{ and } X \Rightarrow X$



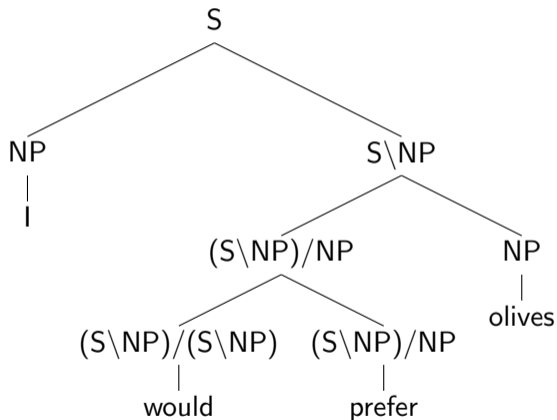
Conjunction Combinator

$X \text{ and } X \Rightarrow X$



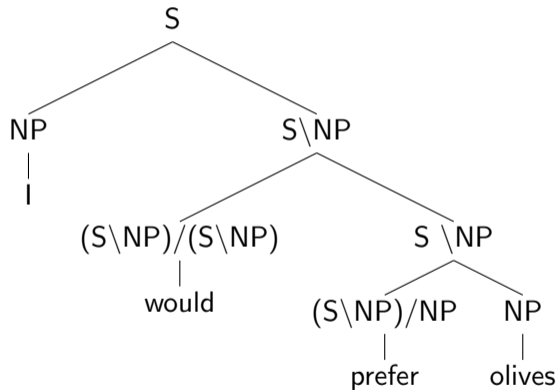
Composition Combinator

Forward ($X/Y \quad Y/Z \Rightarrow X/Z$) and backward ($Y \setminus Z \quad X \setminus Y \Rightarrow X \setminus Z$)



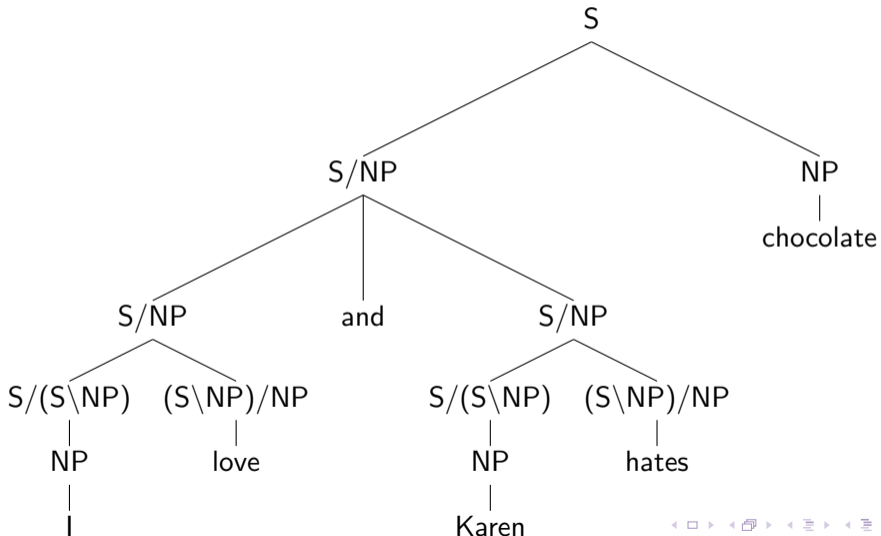
Composition Combinator

Forward ($X/Y \quad Y/Z \Rightarrow X/Z$) and backward ($Y \setminus Z \quad X \setminus Y \Rightarrow X \setminus Z$)



Type-Raising Combinator

Forward ($X \Rightarrow Y/(Y \setminus X)$) and backward ($X \Rightarrow Y \setminus (Y/X)$)



Back to Semantics

Each combinator also tells us what to do with the semantic attachments.

- ▶ Forward application: $X/Y : f \quad Y : g \Rightarrow X : f(g)$
- ▶ Forward composition: $X/Y : f \quad Y/Z : g \Rightarrow X/Z : \lambda x.f(g(x))$
- ▶ Forward type-raising: $X : g \Rightarrow Y/(Y \setminus X) : \lambda f.f(g)$

CCG Lexicon

Most of the work is done in the lexicon!

Syntactic and semantic information is much more formal here.

- ▶ Slash categories define where all the syntactic arguments are expected to be
- ▶ λ -expressions define how the expected arguments get “used” to build up a FOL expression

Extensive discussion: Carpenter (1997)

Some Topics We Don't Have Time For

- ▶ Tasks, evaluations, annotated datasets (e.g., CCGbank, Hockenmaier and Steedman, 2007)
- ▶ Learning for semantic parsing (Zettlemoyer and Collins, 2005) and CCG parsing (Clark and Curran, 2004a)
- ▶ Using CCG to represent other kinds of semantics (e.g., predicate-argument structures; Lewis and Steedman, 2014)
- ▶ Integrating continuous representations in semantic parsing (Lewis and Steedman, 2013; Krishnamurthy and Mitchell, 2013)
- ▶ Supertagging (Clark and Curran, 2004b) and making semantic parsing efficient (Lewis and Steedman, 2014)
- ▶ *Grounding* meaning in visual (or other perceptual) experience

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