Natural Language Processing (CSE 490U): Compositional Semantics

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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

- ▶ Domain: Adrian, Brook, Chris, Donald, Schultzy's Sausage, Din Tai Fung, Banana Leaf, American, Chinese, Thai 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 $Serves = \{(ss, am), (dtf, ch), (bl, th)\}, Likes = \{(a, ss), (a, dtf), \ldots\}$

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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, \ldots, t_n are terms, then $R(t_1, \ldots, t_n)$ 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:
 - $\blacktriangleright \phi \wedge \psi$
 - $\blacktriangleright \phi \lor \psi$
 - $\bullet \phi \Rightarrow \psi$
 - $ightharpoonup \phi \oplus \psi$
 - 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.

- 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. $\forall x, Restaurant(x) \Rightarrow (Longwait(x) \lor \neg Likes(a, x))$
- 5. $\forall x, \exists y, \neg Likes(x, y)$
- 6. $\exists y, \forall x, \neg Likes(x, y)$

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 $\neg Noisy(ss)$

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- 5. $\forall x, \exists y, \neg Likes(x, y)$ Everybody has something they don't like.
- 6. $\exists y, \forall x, \neg Likes(x, y)$ 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

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

is true.

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

The Principle of Compositionality

The meaning of a NL phrase is determined by the meanings of its sub-phrases.

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I.e., semantics is derived from syntax.

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

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

Informally, two extensions:

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

Example:

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

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

Informally, two extensions:

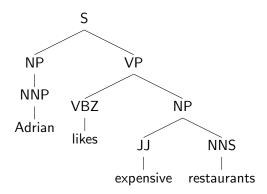
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 - ▶ If ϕ is a FOL formula and v is a variable, then $\lambda v.\phi$ is a λ -term, meaning: an unnamed function from values (of v) to formulas (usually involving v)
- ▶ **application** of such functions: if we have $\lambda v.\phi$ and ψ , then $[\lambda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

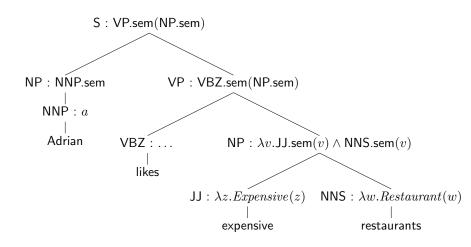
Example:

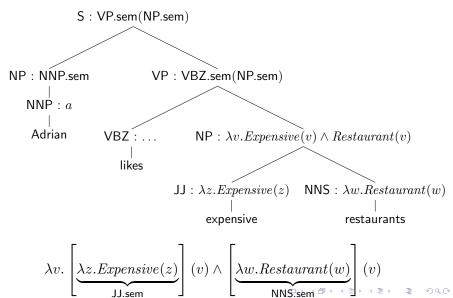
 $[[\lambda x.\lambda y.Friends(x,y)](b)](a)$ reduces to $[\lambda y.Friends(b,y)](a)$, which reduces to Friends(b,a)

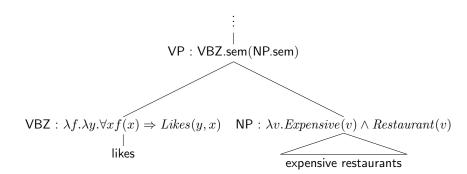
Semantic Attachments to CFG

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









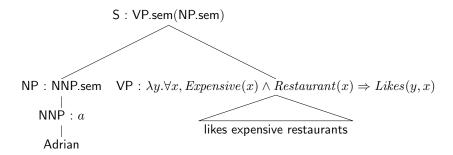
$$\mathsf{VP}:\ \lambda y. \forall x, Expensive(x) \land Restaurant(x) \Rightarrow Likes(y,x)$$

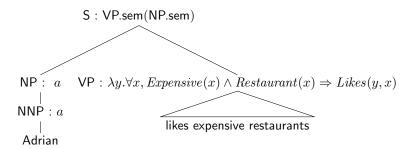
$$\mathsf{VBZ}:\ \lambda f. \lambda y. \forall x f(x) \Rightarrow Likes(y,x) \quad \mathsf{NP}:\ \lambda v. Expensive(v) \land Restaurant(v)$$

$$\mathsf{likes} \quad \underbrace{\left[\underbrace{\lambda f. \lambda y. \forall x f(x) \Rightarrow Likes(y,x)}_{\mathsf{VBZ.sem}}\right] \left(\underbrace{\lambda v. Expensive(v) \land Restaurant(v)}_{\mathsf{NP.sem}}\right)}_{\mathsf{NP.sem}}$$

$$\lambda y. \forall x \left[\lambda v. Expensive(v) \land Restaurant(v)\right](x) \Rightarrow Likes(y,x)$$

$$\lambda y. \forall x, Expensive(x) \land Restaurant(x) \Rightarrow Likes(y,x)$$





Adrian

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

$$\mathsf{NP}: \ a \quad \mathsf{VP}: \lambda y. \forall x, Expensive(x) \land Restaurant(x) \Rightarrow Likes(y,x)$$

$$\mathsf{NNP}: a \quad \qquad |$$

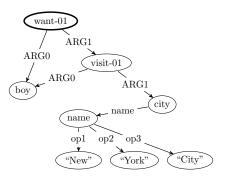
$$\mathsf{likes} \ \mathsf{expensive} \ \mathsf{restaurants}$$

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

 $\forall x, Expensive(x) \land Restaurant(x) \Rightarrow Likes(a, x)$

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 Categorial 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\NP is "an S, except that it lacks an NP to its left"
 - ► (S\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.

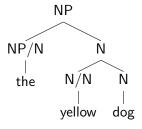
Convention writes the rule differently from CFG: $X \quad Y \Rightarrow Z$ means that X and Y combine to form a Z (the "parent" in the tree).

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

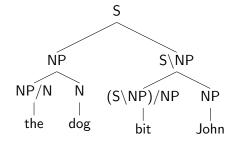
Forward ($X/Y \quad Y \Rightarrow X$) and backward ($Y \quad X \backslash Y \Rightarrow X$)



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

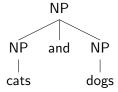


Forward ($X/Y \quad Y \Rightarrow X$) and backward ($Y \quad X \backslash Y \Rightarrow X$)



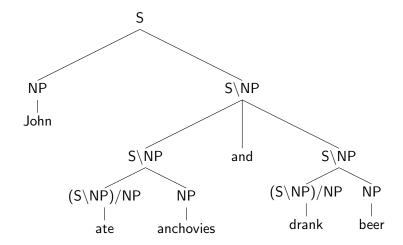
Conjunction Combinator

$$X$$
 and $X \Rightarrow X$



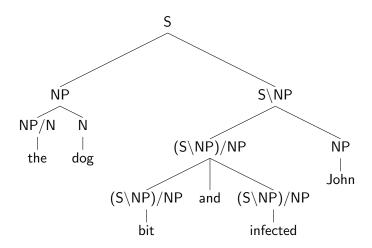
Conjunction Combinator

X and $X \Rightarrow X$



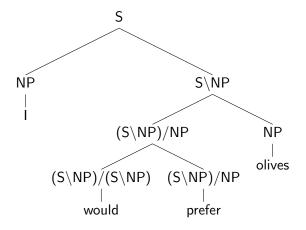
Conjunction Combinator

X and $X \Rightarrow X$



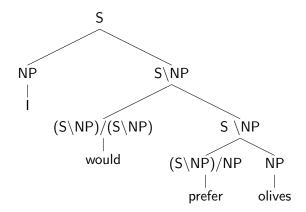
Composition Combinator

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



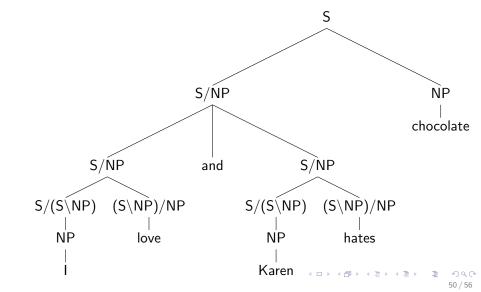
Composition Combinator

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



Type-Raising Combinator

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



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)

To-Do List

► Compositional semantics chapter in Jurafsky and Martin (2008).

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