

# **An Introduction to Formal Computational Semantics**

**CS224N/Ling 280**

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**May 23, 2000; revised 2008**

## A first example

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### Lexicon

*Kathy*, NP : **kathy**

*Fong*, NP : **fong**

*respects*, V :  $\lambda y.\lambda x.$ **respect**( $x, y$ )

*runs*, V :  $\lambda x.$ **run**( $x$ )

### Grammar

$S : \beta(\alpha) \rightarrow$  NP :  $\alpha$  VP :  $\beta$

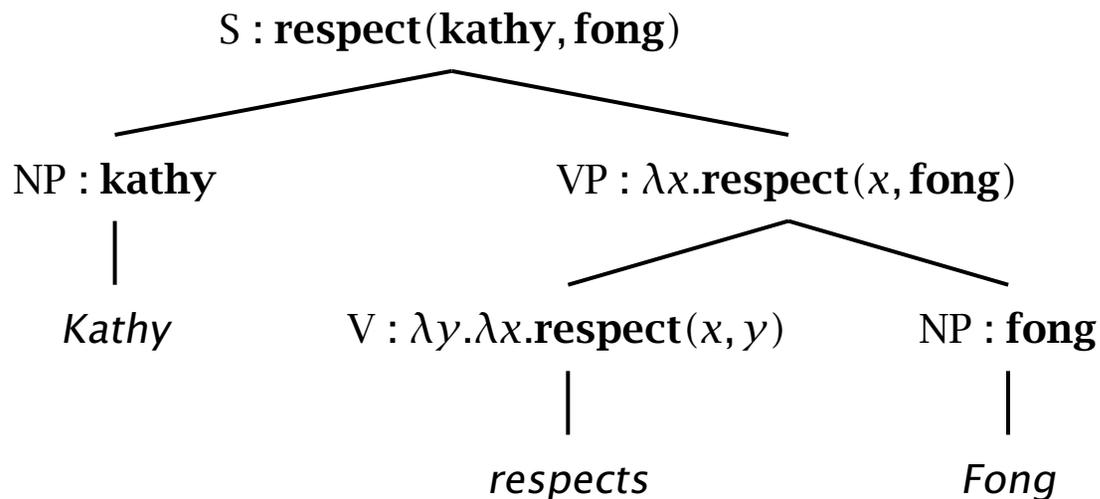
VP :  $\beta(\alpha) \rightarrow$  V :  $\beta$  NP :  $\alpha$

VP :  $\beta \rightarrow$  V :  $\beta$

# A first example

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- $[\text{VP respects Fong}] : [\lambda y. \lambda x. \text{respect}(x, y)](\text{fong})$   
 $= \lambda x. \text{respect}(x, \text{fong})$       $[\beta \text{ red.}]$

$[\text{S Kathy respects Fong}] : [\lambda x. \text{respect}(x, \text{fong})](\text{kathy})$   
 $= \text{respect}(\text{kathy}, \text{fong})$

## Database/knowledgebase interfaces

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- Assume that **respect** is a table *Respect* with two fields *respector* and *respected*
- Assume that **kathy** and **fong** are IDs in the database:  
*k* and *f*
- If we assert *Kathy respects Fong* we might evaluate the form **respect(fong)(kathy)** by doing an insert operation:

insert into *Respects*(*respector*, *respected*) values (*k*, *f*)

## Database/knowledgebase interfaces

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- Below we focus on questions like *Does Kathy respect Fong* for which we will use the relation to ask:  
select 'yes' from Respects where Respects.respecter =  $k$  and Respects.respected =  $f$
- We interpret “no rows returned” as ‘no’ = **0**.

## Typed $\lambda$ calculus (Church 1940)

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- Everything has a type (like Java!)
- **Bool**                                    truth values (**0** and **1**)
- Ind**                                    individuals
- Ind  $\rightarrow$  Bool**                    properties
- Ind  $\rightarrow$  Ind  $\rightarrow$  Bool**        binary relations
- **kathy** and **fong** are **Ind**
- run** is **Ind  $\rightarrow$  Bool**
- respect** is **Ind  $\rightarrow$  Ind  $\rightarrow$  Bool**
- Types are interpreted right associatively.
- respect** is **Ind  $\rightarrow$  (Ind  $\rightarrow$  Bool)**
- We convert a several argument function into embedded unary functions. Referred to as *currying*.

## Typed $\lambda$ calculus (Church 1940)

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- Once we have types, we don't need  $\lambda$  variables just to show what arguments something takes, and so we can introduce another operation of the  $\lambda$  calculus:

$\eta$  reduction [abstractions can be contracted]

$$\lambda x.(P(x)) \Rightarrow P$$

- This means that instead of writing:

$\lambda y.\lambda x.\mathbf{respect}(x, y)$

we can just write:

**respect**

## Typed $\lambda$ calculus (Church 1940)

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- $\lambda$  extraction allowed over any type (not just first-order)
- $\beta$  reduction [application]  
$$(\lambda x.P(\dots, x, \dots))(Z) \Rightarrow P(\dots, Z, \dots)$$
- $\eta$  reduction [abstractions can be contracted]  
$$\lambda x.(P(x)) \Rightarrow P$$
- $\alpha$  reduction [renaming of variables]

## Typed $\lambda$ calculus (Church 1940)

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- The first form we introduced is called the  $\beta, \eta$  long form, and the second more compact representation (which we use quite a bit below) is called the  $\beta, \eta$  normal form. Here are some examples:

$\beta, \eta$ normal form	$\beta, \eta$ long form
<b>run</b>	$\lambda x.\mathbf{run}(x)$
<b>every<sup>2</sup>(kid, run)</b>	<b>every<sup>2</sup>((<math>\lambda x.\mathbf{kid}(x)</math>), (<math>\lambda x.\mathbf{run}(x)</math>))</b>
<b>yesterday(run)</b>	$\lambda y.\mathbf{yesterday}(\lambda x.\mathbf{run}(x))(y)$

## Types of major syntactic categories

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- nouns and verb phrases will be properties (**Ind** → **Bool**)
  - noun phrases are **Ind** – though they are commonly type-raised to **(Ind** → **Bool**) → **Bool**
  - adjectives are **(Ind** → **Bool**) → **(Ind** → **Bool**)  
This is because adjectives modify noun meanings, that is properties.
  - Intensifiers modify adjectives: e.g, *very* in *a very happy camper*, so they're **((Ind** → **Bool**) → **(Ind** → **Bool**)) → **((Ind** → **Bool**) → **(Ind** → **Bool**))
- [honest!].

## A grammar fragment

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- $S : \beta(\alpha) \rightarrow NP : \alpha \quad VP : \beta$   
 $NP : \beta(\alpha) \rightarrow Det : \beta \quad N' : \alpha$   
 $N' : \beta(\alpha) \rightarrow Adj : \beta \quad N' : \alpha$   
 $N' : \beta(\alpha) \rightarrow N' : \alpha \quad PP : \beta$   
 $N' : \beta \rightarrow N : \beta$   
 $VP : \beta(\alpha) \rightarrow V : \beta \quad NP : \alpha$   
 $VP : \beta(\gamma)(\alpha) \rightarrow V : \beta \quad NP : \alpha \quad NP : \gamma$   
 $VP : \beta(\alpha) \rightarrow VP : \alpha \quad PP : \beta$   
 $VP : \beta \rightarrow V : \beta$   
 $PP : \beta(\alpha) \rightarrow P : \beta \quad NP : \alpha$

## A grammar fragment

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- *Kathy*, NP : **kathy**<sub>Ind</sub>
- Fong*, NP : **fong**<sub>Ind</sub>
- Palo Alto*, NP : **paloalto**<sub>Ind</sub>
- car*, N : **car**<sub>Ind</sub> → **Bool**
- overpriced*, Adj : **overpriced**<sub>(Ind → Bool) → (Ind → Bool)</sub>
- outside*, PP : **outside**<sub>(Ind → Bool) → (Ind → Bool)</sub>
- red*, Adj :  $\lambda P.(\lambda x.P(x) \wedge \mathbf{red}'(x))$
- in*, P :  $\lambda y.\lambda P.\lambda x.(P(x) \wedge \mathbf{in}'(y)(x))$
- the*, Det :  $\iota$
- a*, Det : **some**<sup>2</sup><sub>(Ind → Bool) → (Ind → Bool) → Bool</sub>
- runs*, V : **run**<sub>Ind → Bool</sub>
- respects*, V : **respect**<sub>Ind → Ind → Bool</sub>
- likes*, V : **like**<sub>Ind → Ind → Bool</sub>

## A grammar fragment

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- **in'** is **Ind**  $\rightarrow$  **Ind**  $\rightarrow$  **Bool**
- **in**  $\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda y. \lambda P. \lambda x. (P(x) \wedge \mathbf{in}'(y)(x))$  is **Ind**  $\rightarrow$  (**Ind**  $\rightarrow$  **Bool**)  $\rightarrow$  (**Ind**  $\rightarrow$  **Bool**)
- **red'** is **Ind**  $\rightarrow$  **Bool**
- **red**  $\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda P. (\lambda x. (P(x) \wedge \mathbf{red}'(x)))$  is (**Ind**  $\rightarrow$  **Bool**)  $\rightarrow$  (**Ind**  $\rightarrow$  **Bool**)



## Intersective adjectives

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- Syntactic ambiguity is spurious: you get the same semantics either way
- Database evaluation is possible via a table join

## Non-intersective adjectives

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- For non-intersective adjectives get different semantics depending on what they modify
- **overpriced(in(paloalto)(house))**
- **in(paloalto)(overpriced(house))**
- But probably won't be able to evaluate it on database!

## Why things get more complex

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- When doing predicate logic did you wonder why:
  - *Kathy runs* is **run(kathy)**
  - *no kid runs* is  $\neg(\exists x)(\mathbf{kid}(x) \wedge \mathbf{run}(x))$
- Somehow the NP's meaning is wrapped around the predicate
- Or consider why this argument doesn't hold:
  - Nothing is better than a life of peace and prosperity.  
A cold egg salad sandwich is better than nothing.

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A cold egg salad sandwich is better than a life  
of peace and prosperity.
- The problem is that *nothing* is a quantifier

## Generalized Quantifiers

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- We have a reasonable semantics for *red car in Palo Alto* as a property from **Ind**  $\rightarrow$  **Bool**
- How do we represent noun phrases like *the red car in Palo Alto* or *every red car in Palo Alto*?
- $\llbracket \iota \rrbracket (P) = a$  if  $(P(b) = \mathbf{1} \text{ iff } b = a)$   
undefined, otherwise
- The semantics for *the* following Bertrand Russell, for whom *the x* meant the unique item satisfying a certain description

## Generalized Quantifiers

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- *red car in Palo Alto*

select Cars.obj from Cars, Locations, Red where  
Cars.obj = Locations.obj AND

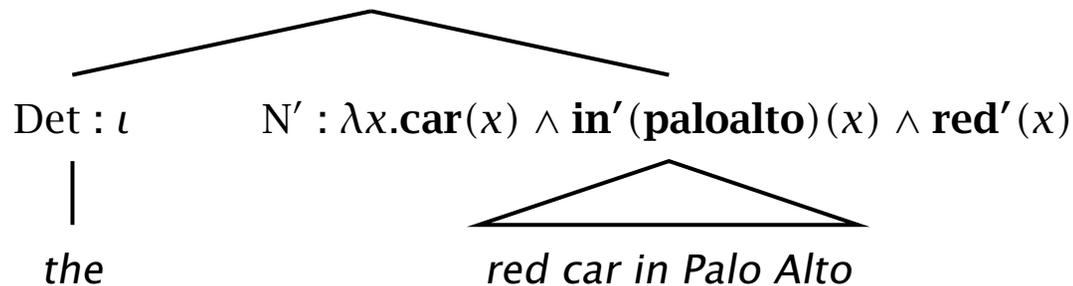
Locations.place = 'paloalto' AND Cars.obj = Red.obj

(here we assume the unary relations have one field,  
obj).

# Generalized Quantifiers

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- *the red car in Palo Alto*
- NP :  $\iota(\lambda x. \text{car}(x) \wedge \text{in}'(\text{paloalto})(x) \wedge \text{red}'(x))$



- *the red car in Palo Alto*  
select Cars.obj from Cars, Locations, Red where  
Cars.obj = Locations.obj AND  
Locations.place = 'paloalto' AND Cars.obj = Red.obj  
having count(\*) = 1

# Generalized Quantifiers

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- What then of *every red car in Palo Alto*?
- A generalized determiner is a relation between two properties, one contributed by the restriction from the  $N'$ , and one contributed by the predicate quantified over:

$$(\mathbf{Ind} \rightarrow \mathbf{Bool}) \rightarrow (\mathbf{Ind} \rightarrow \mathbf{Bool}) \rightarrow \mathbf{Bool}$$

- Here are some determiners

$$\mathbf{some}^2(\mathbf{kid})(\mathbf{run}) \equiv \mathbf{some}(\lambda x.\mathbf{kid}(x) \wedge \mathbf{run}(x))$$

$$\mathbf{every}^2(\mathbf{kid})(\mathbf{run}) \equiv \mathbf{every}(\lambda x.\mathbf{kid}(x) \rightarrow \mathbf{run}(x))$$

# Generalized Quantifiers

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- Generalized determiners are implemented via the quantifiers:

**every**( $P$ ) = 1 iff  $(\forall x)P(x) = 1$ ;

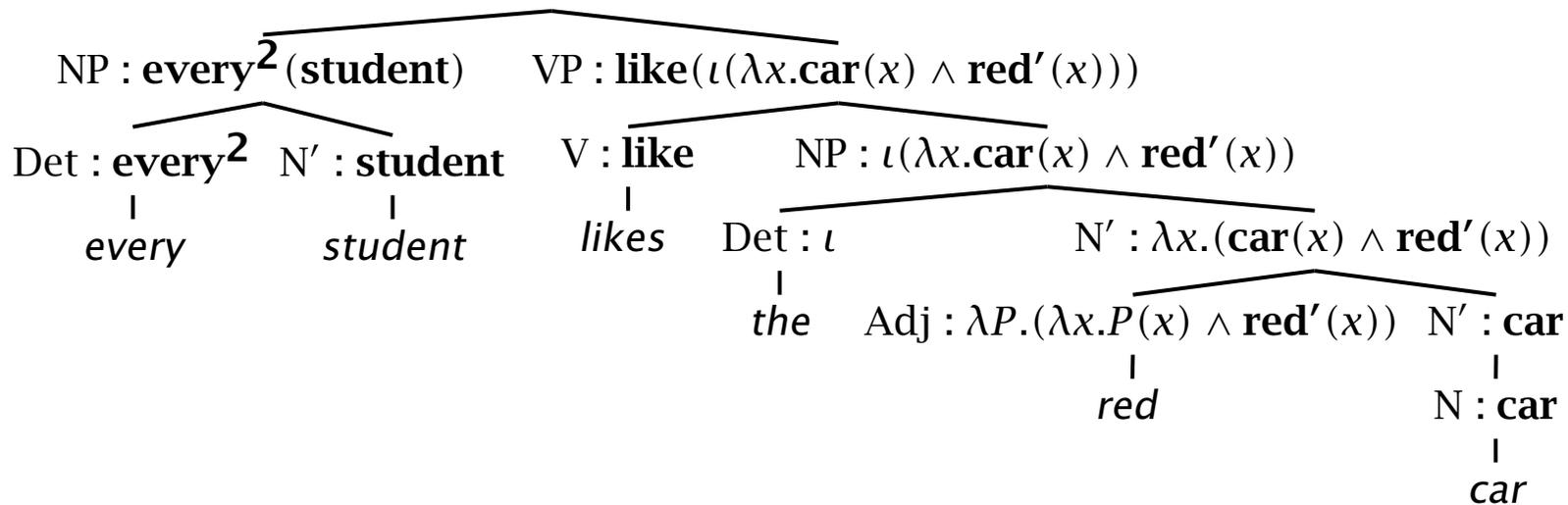
i.e., if  $P = \mathbf{Dom}_{\text{Ind}}$

**some**( $P$ ) = 1 iff  $(\exists x)P(x) = 1$ ; i.e., if  $P \neq \emptyset$

# Generalized Quantifiers

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- Every student likes the red car
- $S : \text{every}^2(\text{student})(\text{like}(\iota(\lambda x.\text{car}(x) \wedge \text{red}'(x))))$



## Representing proper nouns with quantifiers

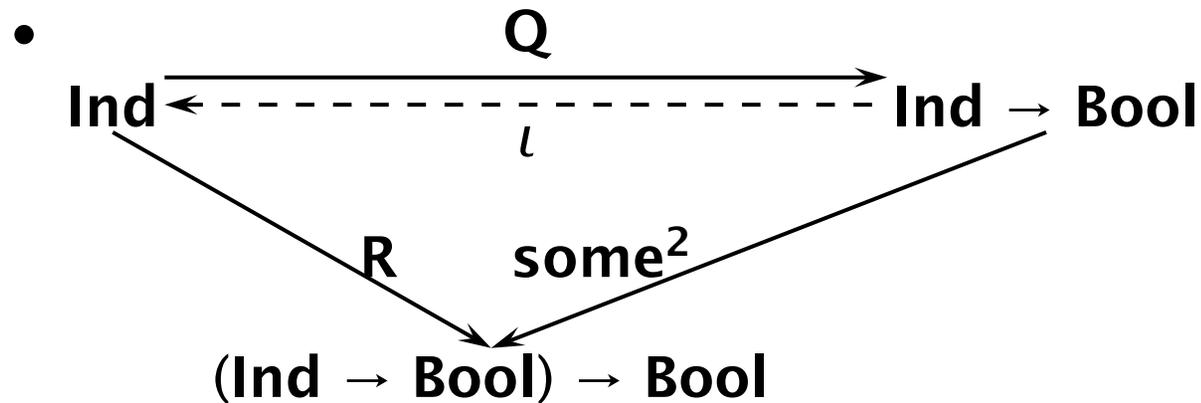
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- The central insight of Montague's PTQ was to treat individuals as of the same type as quantifiers (as type-raised individuals):
- *Kathy* :  $\lambda P.P(\mathbf{kathy})$
- Both good and bad
- The main alternative (which we use) is flexible *type shifting* – you raise the type of something when necessary.

# Nominal type shifting

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- Common patterns of nominal type shifting



- $R(x) = \lambda P.P(x)$   
 $\text{some}^2(P) = \lambda Q.(Q \cap P) \neq \emptyset$   
 $Q(x) = \lambda y.x = y$
- In this diagram,  $R$  is exactly this basic type-raising function for individuals.

## Noun phrase scope – following Hendriks (1993)

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**Value raising** raises a function that produces an individual to one that produces a quantifier. If  $\alpha : \sigma \rightarrow \mathbf{Ind}$  then  $\lambda x. \lambda P. P(\alpha(x)) : \sigma \rightarrow (\mathbf{Ind} \rightarrow \mathbf{Bool}) \rightarrow \mathbf{Bool}$

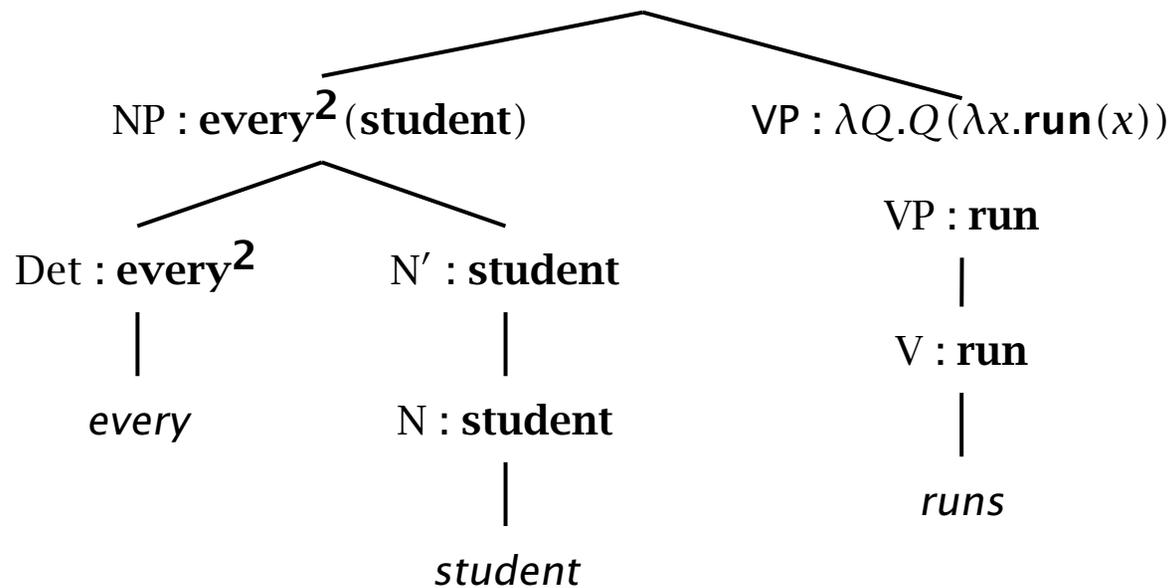
**Argument raising** replaces an argument of a boolean function with a variable and applies the quantifier semantically binding the replacing variable. If  $\alpha : \sigma \rightarrow \mathbf{Ind} \rightarrow \tau \rightarrow \mathbf{Bool}$  then  $\lambda x_1. \lambda Q. \lambda x_3. Q(\lambda x_2. \alpha(x_1)(x_2)(x_3)) : \sigma \rightarrow (\mathbf{Ind} \rightarrow \mathbf{Bool}) \rightarrow \mathbf{Bool} \rightarrow \tau \rightarrow \mathbf{Bool}$

**Argument lowering** replaces a quantifier in a boolean function with an individual argument, where the semantics is calculated by applying the original function to the type raised argument. If  $\alpha : \sigma \rightarrow ((\mathbf{Ind} \rightarrow \mathbf{Bool}) \rightarrow \mathbf{Bool}) \rightarrow \tau \rightarrow \mathbf{Bool}$  then  $\lambda x_1. \lambda x_2. \lambda x_3. \alpha(x_1)(\lambda P. P(x_2))(x_3) : \sigma \rightarrow \mathbf{Ind} \rightarrow \tau \rightarrow \mathbf{Bool}$

# Every student runs

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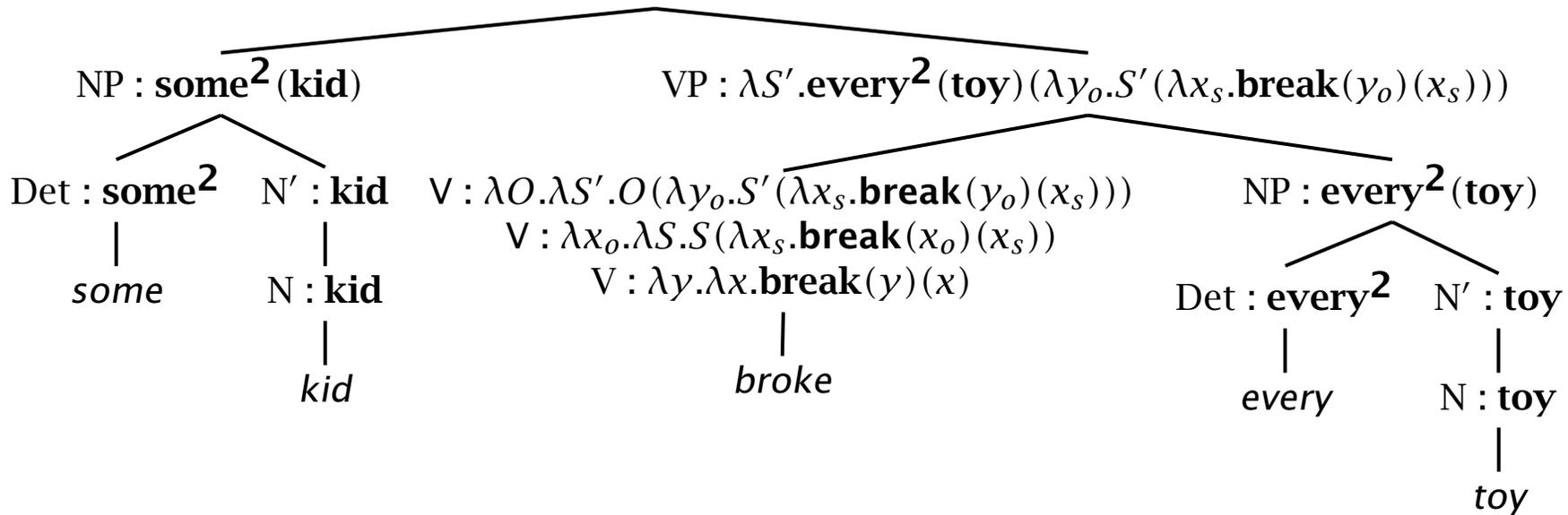
- $S : \text{every}^2(\text{student})(\text{run}) \equiv \text{every}(\lambda x.\text{student}(x) \rightarrow \text{run}(x))$



# Some kid broke every toy

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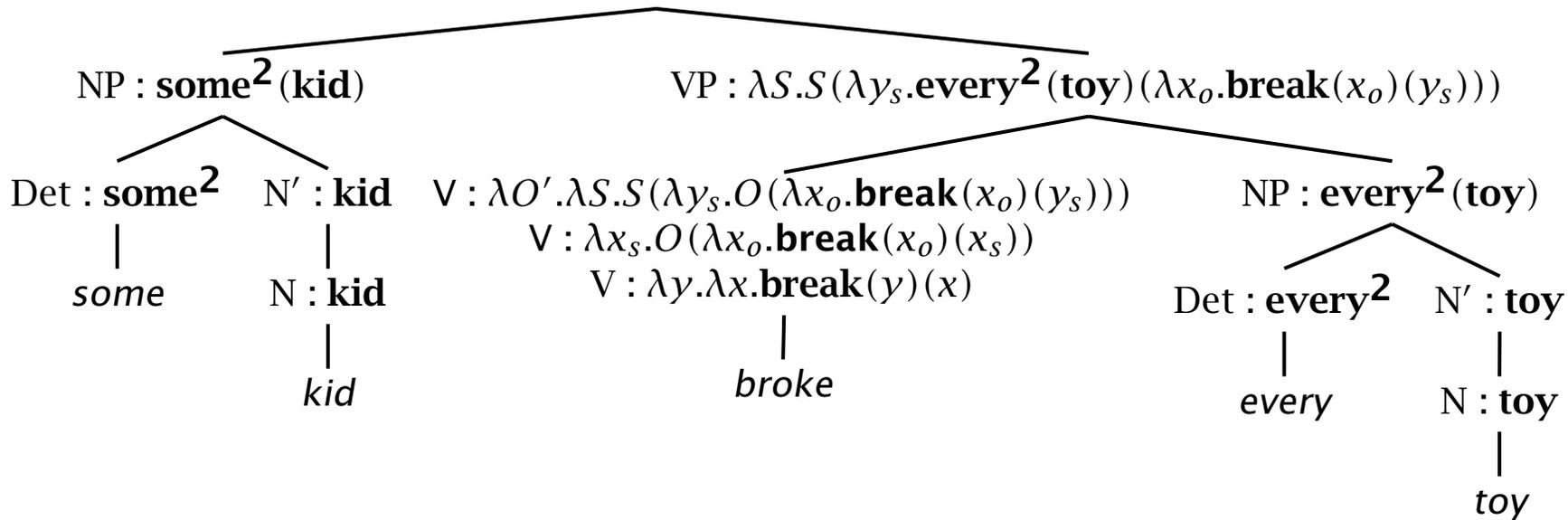
- $S : \text{every}^2(\text{toy})(\lambda y_o.\text{some}^2(\text{kid})(\lambda x_s.\text{break}(y_o)(x_s)))$



# Some kid broke every toy

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- $S : \text{some}^2(\text{kid})(\lambda y_s.\text{every}^2(\text{toy})(\lambda x_o.\text{break}(x_o)(y_s)))$



## Questions with answers!

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- A yes/no question (*Is Kathy running?*) will be something of type **Bool**, checked on database
- A content question (*Who likes Kathy?*) will be an *open proposition*, that is something semantically of the type *property* (**Ind**  $\rightarrow$  **Bool**), and operationally we will consult the database to see what individuals will make the statement true.
- We use a grammar with a simple form of gap-threading for question words

## Syntax/semantics for questions

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- $S' : \beta(\alpha) \rightarrow \text{NP}[wh] : \beta \quad \text{Aux} \quad S : \alpha$   
 $S' : \alpha \rightarrow \text{Aux} \quad S : \alpha$   
 $\text{NP}/\text{NP}_z : z \rightarrow e$   
 $S : \lambda z.F(\dots z \dots) \rightarrow S/\text{NP}_z : F(\dots z \dots)$

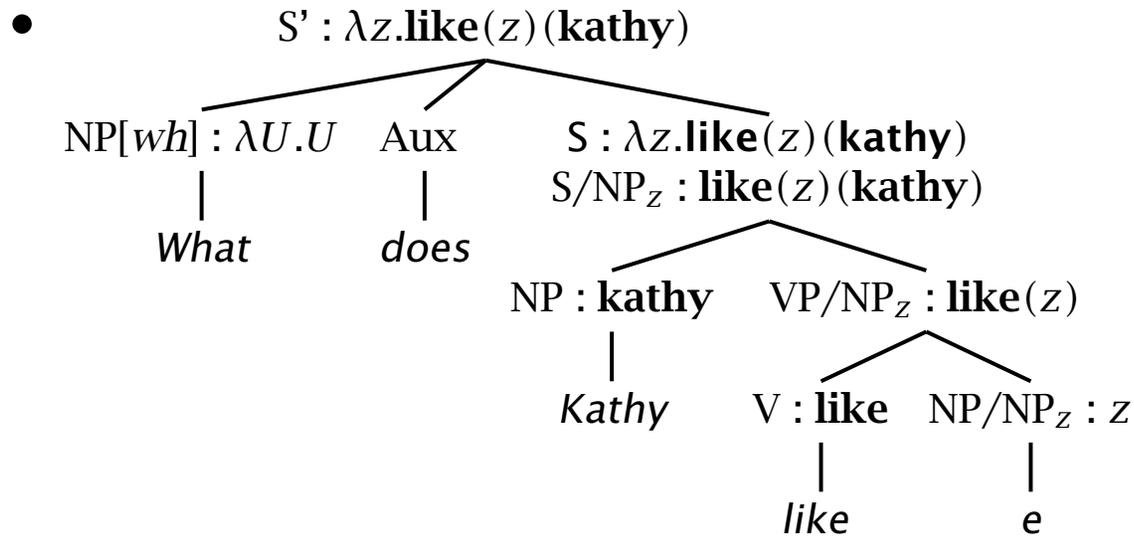
## Syntax/semantics for questions

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- *who*, NP[*wh*] :  $\lambda U.\lambda x.U(x) \wedge \mathbf{human}(x)$   
*what*, NP[*wh*] :  $\lambda U.U$   
*which*, Det[*wh*] :  $\lambda P.\lambda V.\lambda x.P(x) \wedge V(x)$   
*how\_many*, Det[*wh*] :  $\lambda P.\lambda V.|\lambda x.P(x) \wedge V(x)|$
- Where  $|\cdot|$  is the operation that returns the cardinality of a set (count).

# Question examples

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- select liked from Likes where Likes.liker='Kathy'



# Question examples

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- $S' : \lambda x. \mathbf{car}(x) \wedge \mathbf{like}(x)(\mathbf{kathy})$

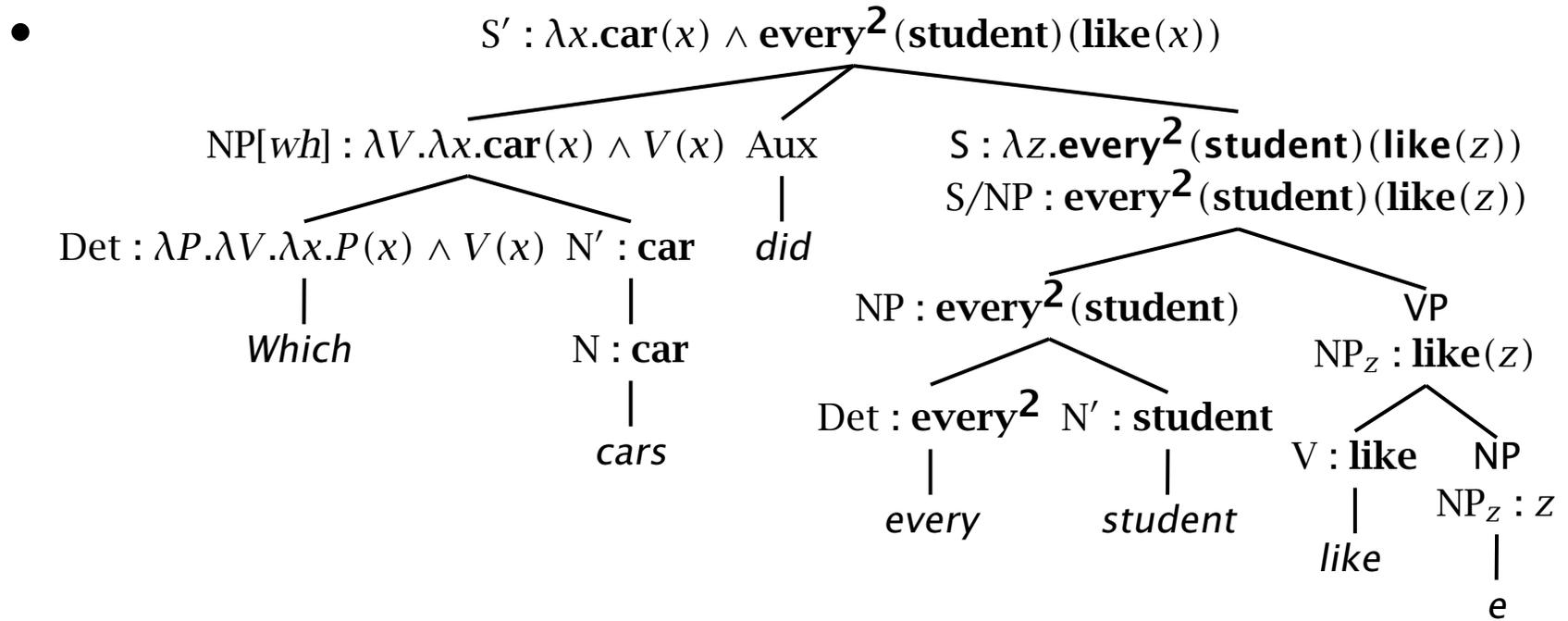
$NP[wh] : \lambda V. \lambda x. \mathbf{car}(x) \wedge V(x)$      $Aux$      $S : \lambda z. \mathbf{like}(z)(\mathbf{kathy})$   
 $S/NP : \mathbf{like}(z)(\mathbf{kathy})$

$Det : \lambda P. \lambda V. \lambda x. P(x) \wedge V(x)$      $N' : \mathbf{car}$      $did$

$Which$      $N : \mathbf{car}$      $NP : \mathbf{kathy}$      $VP/NP_z : \mathbf{like}(z)$

$cars$      $Kathy$      $V : \mathbf{like}$      $NP/NP_z : z$   
 $like$      $e$
- select liked from Cars, Likes where Cars.obj=Likes.liked AND Likes.liker='Kathy'

# Question examples



- ???

## Question examples

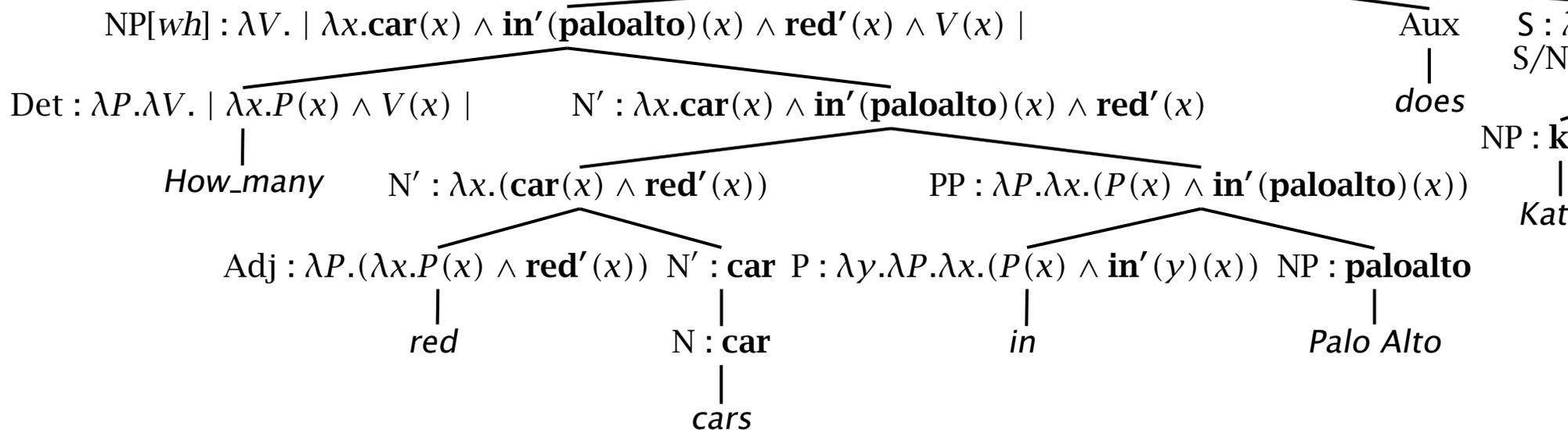
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- *How many red cars in Palo Alto does Kathy like?*
- `select count(*) from Likes,Cars,Locations,Reds where Cars.obj = Likes.liked AND Likes.liker = 'Kathy' AND Red.obj = Likes.liked AND Locations.place = 'Palo Alto' AND Locations.obj = Likes.liked`
- *Did Kathy see the red car in Palo Alto?*
- `select 'yes' where Seeings.seer = k AND Seeings.seen = (select Cars.obj from Cars, Locations, Red where Cars.obj = Locations.obj AND Locations.place = 'paloalto' AND Cars.obj = Red.obj having count(*) = 1)`

## How many red cars in Palo Alto does Kathy like?

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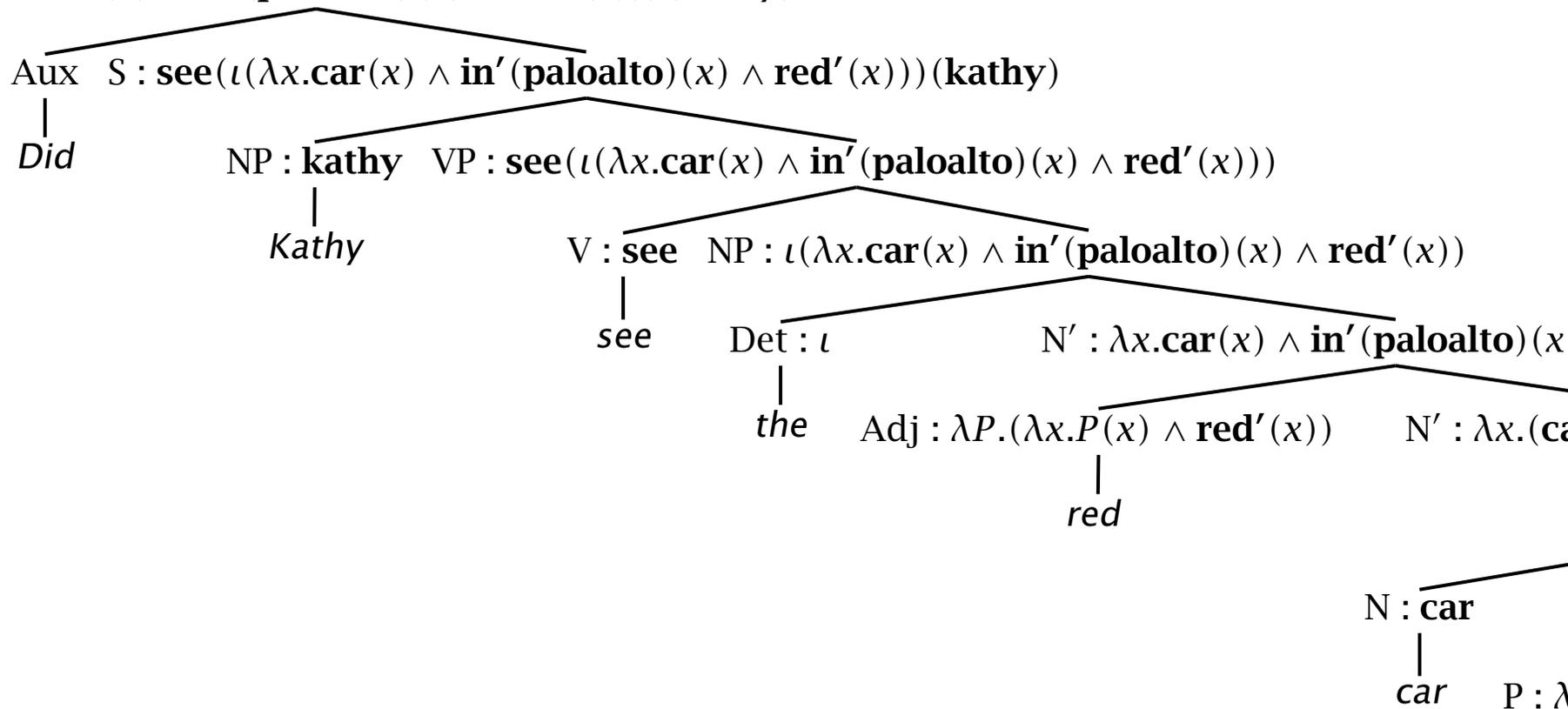
$S' : | \lambda x. \text{car}(x) \wedge \text{in}'(\text{paloalto})(x) \wedge \text{red}'(x) \wedge \text{like}(x)(\text{kathy})$



## Did Kathy see the red car in Palo Alto?

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$S' : \text{see}(\iota(\lambda x.\text{car}(x) \wedge \text{in}'(\text{paloalto})(x) \wedge \text{red}'(x)))(\text{kathy})$



## How could we learn such representations?

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- After disengagement for many years, there has started to be very interesting work in this area:
  - Luke S. Zettlemoyer and Michael Collins. 2005. Learning to Map Sentences to Logical Form: Structured Classification with Probabilistic Categorical Grammars. In *Proceedings of the 21st UAI*.
  - Yuk Wah Wong and Raymond J. Mooney. 2007. Learning Synchronous Grammars for Semantic Parsing with Lambda Calculus. In *Proceedings of the 45th ACL*, pp. 960–967.

## How could we learn such representations?

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- General approach (ZC05): Start with initial lexicon, category templates, and paired sentences and meanings:

What states border Texas?

$\lambda x.\mathbf{state}(x) \wedge \mathbf{borders}(x, \mathbf{texas})$

- Learn lexical syntax/semantics for other words and learn to parse to logical form (parse structure is hidden).
- They successfully do iterative refinement of a lexicon and maxent parser

## How can we reason with such representations?

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- Logical reasoning is practical for certain domains (business rules, legal code, etc.) and has been used (see Blackburn and Bos 2005 for background).
- But our knowledge of the world is in general incomplete and uncertain.
- There is various recent work on handling *restricted* fragments of first order logic in probabilistic models
  - Lise Getoor, Nir Friedman, Daphne Koller, Avi Pfeffer, Benjamin Taskar. 2007. Probabilistic Relational Models. In *An Introduction to Statistical Relational Learning*. MIT Press.

## How can we reason with such representations?

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- Undirected model:
  - Pedro Domingos, Stanley Kok, Daniel Lowd, Hoifung Poon, Matthew Richardson, Parag Singla. 2008. Markov Logic. In L. De Raedt, P. Frasconi, K. Kersting and S. Muggleton (eds.), *Probabilistic Inductive Logic Programming*, pp. 92–117. Springer.
- A recent attempt to apply this to natural language inference:
  - Chloé Kiddon. 2008. Applying Markov Logic to the Task of Textual Entailment. Senior Honors Thesis, Computer Science. Stanford University.
- Logical formulae are given weights which are grounded out in an undirected markov network