#### A first example

Kathy, NP : kathy  $S : \beta(\alpha) \rightarrow NP : \alpha \quad VP : \beta$  $Fong, NP: fong$   $VP: \beta(\alpha) \rightarrow V: \beta$  NP:  $\alpha$ *respects,*  $V : \lambda y.\lambda x.$ **respect** $(x, y)$  VP :  $\beta \rightarrow V : \beta$ runs, V : *λx.*run*(x)*

#### Lexicon Grammar

## A first example



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

 $[s$  Kathy respects Fong]:  $[\lambda x$ . respect $(x, f$ ong)](**kathy**) = respect(kathy,fong)

#### Database/knowledgebase interfaces

- Assume that respect is a table Respect with two fields respecter 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(respecter, respected) values (*k*, *f* )

#### Database/knowledgebase interfaces

- 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'  $= 0$ .

- 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  $\mathsf{Ind} \to \mathsf{Ind} \to \mathsf{Bool}$
- Types are interpreted right associatively. respect is  $\mathsf{Ind} \to (\mathsf{Ind} \to \mathsf{Bool})$
- We convert a several argument function into embedded unary functions. Referred to as currying.

- Once we have types, we don't need *λ* variables just to show what arguments something takes, and so we can introduce another operation of the *λ* calculus: *η* reduction [abstractions can be contracted]  $\lambda$ *x.*( $P(x)$ )  $\Rightarrow$   $P$
- This means that instead of writing:

*λy.λx.*respect*(x, y)*

we can just write:

respect

- *λ* extraction allowed over any type (not just first-order)
- *β* reduction [application]

 $(\lambda x.P(\cdots,x,\cdots))(Z) \Rightarrow P(\cdots,Z,\cdots)$ 

- *η* reduction [abstractions can be contracted]  $\lambda$ *x.*( $P(x)$ )  $\Rightarrow$  *P*
- *α* reduction [renaming of variables]

• The first form we introduced is called the *β,η* long form, and the second more compact representation (which we use quite a bit below) is called the *β,η* normal form. Here are some examples:



#### Types of major syntactic categories

- nouns and verb phrases will be properties (Ind  $\rightarrow$ Bool)
- noun phrases are **Ind** though they are commonly type-raised to (Ind  $\rightarrow$  Bool)  $\rightarrow$  Bool
- adjectives are (Ind  $\rightarrow$  Bool)  $\rightarrow$  (Ind  $\rightarrow$  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  $\rightarrow$  Bool)  $\rightarrow$  (Ind  $\rightarrow$  Bool))  $\rightarrow$  $((\text{Ind} \rightarrow \text{Bool}) \rightarrow (\text{Ind} \rightarrow \text{Bool}))$  [honest!].

## A grammar fragment

• 
$$
S: \beta(\alpha) \rightarrow NP : \alpha
$$
 VP :  $\beta$   
\nNP :  $\beta(\alpha) \rightarrow Det : \beta$  N' :  $\alpha$   
\nN' :  $\beta(\alpha) \rightarrow Adj : \beta$  N' :  $\alpha$   
\nN' :  $\beta(\alpha) \rightarrow N' : \alpha$  PP :  $\beta$   
\nN' :  $\beta \rightarrow N : \beta$   
\nVP :  $\beta(\alpha) \rightarrow V : \beta$  NP :  $\alpha$   
\nVP :  $\beta(y)(\alpha) \rightarrow V : \beta$  NP :  $\alpha$  NP :  $y$   
\nVP :  $\beta(\alpha) \rightarrow VP : \alpha$  PP :  $\beta$   
\nVP :  $\beta \rightarrow V : \beta$   
\nPP :  $\beta(\alpha) \rightarrow P : \beta$  NP :  $\alpha$ 

### A grammar fragment

```
• Kathy, NP : kathy<sub>Ind</sub>
  Fong, NP: fong<sub>Ind</sub>
  Palo Alto, NP: paloalto<sub>Ind</sub>
  car, N : car_{Ind \rightarrow} Bool
  overpriced, Adj : overpriced(Ind→ Bool)→(Ind→ Bool)
  outside, PP : outside(Ind→ Bool)→(Ind→ Bool)
  red, Adj: \lambda P.(\lambda x.P(x) \wedge red'(x))in, P: \lambda y. \lambda P. \lambda x. (P(x) \wedge in'(y)(x))the, Det : ι
   a, Det : some2
(Ind→ Bool)→(Ind→ Bool)→ Bool
  runs, V : run_{Ind} \rightarrow Boolrespects, V : respect<sub>Ind→ Ind→</sub> Bool
  likes, V : like<sub>Ind→ Ind→ Bool</sub>
```
#### A grammar fragment

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



# Model theory – A formalization of a "database"



Properties



 $\llbracket \textbf{respect} \rrbracket = \llbracket \lambda y. \lambda x. \textbf{respect}(x, y) \rrbracket = \begin{bmatrix} f \mapsto 0 \\ k \mapsto 1 \\ b \mapsto 0 \\ k \mapsto 1 \\ b \mapsto 0 \\ \end{bmatrix}$ 

 $[\![\lambda x.\lambda y.\text{respect}(y)(x)(b)(f)]\!] = 1$ 

#### Adjective and PP modification



#### Intersective adjectives

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

#### Non-intersective adjectives

- 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!



- NP: A man  $\sim$  3x.man(x) S: A man loves Mary  $\rightarrow$  \* love( $\exists x$ .man(x), mary)
- How to fix this?



Our first idea for NPs with determiner didn't work out: "A man"  $\rightarrow$   $\exists$ z.man(z) "A man loves Mary"  $\rightarrow \ast$  love( $\exists z \text{.}$ man(z), mary)

 $\exists z \cdot \text{man}(z)$  just isn't the meaning of "a man". But what was the idea after all? Nothing!

If anything, it translates the complete sentence "There is a man"

Let's try again, systematically...



What we want is:

"A man loves Mary"  $\sim$  3z(man(z)  $\wedge$  love(z,mary))

What we have is:

"man"  $\rightarrow$   $\lambda$ y.man(y) "loves Mary"  $\gg$   $\lambda$ x.love(x,mary)

How about:  $\qquad \exists z(\lambda y . \text{man}(y)(z) \wedge \lambda x . \text{love}(x , \text{mary})(z))$ Remember: We can use variables for any kind of term. So next:

 $\lambda\mathrm{P}(\lambda\mathrm{Q}. \exists\mathrm{z}(\mathrm{P}(\mathrm{z}) \wedge \mathrm{Q}(\mathrm{z}))) \quad <\sim\text{``A''}$ 

## Why things get more complex

- When doing predicate logic did you wonder why:
	- Kathy runs is run*(*kathy*)*
	- no kid runs is ¬*(*∃*x)(*kid*(x)* ∧ 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. A cold egg salad sandwich is better than a life of peace and prosperity.
- The problem is that *nothing* is a quantifier

- We have a reasonable semantics for red car in Palo Alto as a property from  $\mathbf{Ind} \to \mathbf{Bool}$
- How do we represent noun phrases like the red car in Palo Alto or every red car in Palo Alto?

• 
$$
\mathbb{L} \mathbb{I}(P) = a \text{ if } (P(b) = 1 \text{ iff } b = a)
$$

undefined, otherwise

• The semantics for the following Bertrand Russell, for whom the *x* meant the unique item satisfying a certain description

• 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).

- 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

- 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:

 $(Ind \rightarrow Bool) \rightarrow (Ind \rightarrow Bool) \rightarrow Bool$ 

• Here are some determiners

 $some<sup>2</sup>(kid)(run) \equiv some(\lambda x.kid(x) \wedge run(x))$  $every^2(kid)(run) \equiv every(\lambda x.kid(x) \rightarrow run(x))$ 

• Generalized determiners are implemented via the quantifiers:

```
every(P) = 1 iff (\forall x)P(x) = 1;
```

```
i.e., if P = Dom<sub>Ind</sub>
```
some $(P) = 1$  iff  $(\exists x)P(x) = 1$ ; i.e., if  $P \neq \emptyset$ 

• Every student likes the red car



#### Questions with answers!

- 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

• 
$$
S': \beta(\alpha) \rightarrow NP[wh] : \beta
$$
 Aux  $S : \alpha$   
\n $S': \alpha \rightarrow Aux S : \alpha$   
\n $NP/NP_Z : Z \rightarrow e$   
\n $S : \lambda Z.F(...Z...) \rightarrow S/NP_Z : F(...Z...)$ 

### Syntax/semantics for questions

- who,  $NP[wh]$ :  $\lambda U.\lambda x.U(x) \wedge$  human $(x)$ what, NP[wh] : *λU.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).



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



• select liked from Likes,Humans where Likes.liker='Kathy' AND Humans.obj = Likes.liked



• select liked from Cars,Likes where Cars.obj=Likes.liked AND Likes.liker='Kathy'



• ???

- 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( $\dot{r}$ ) = 1)

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

 $S' : \mathcal{X} \times \mathbf{car}(x) \wedge \mathbf{in'}(\mathbf{paloalto})(x) \wedge \mathbf{red'}(x) \wedge \mathbf{like}(x)(\mathbf{kathy})$ 



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



#### How could we learn such representations?

- 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 Categorial 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?

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

What states border Texas?

 $\lambda$ *x*.state $(x)$  ∧ borders $(x,$  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?

- 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?

- 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:
	- Chlo´e 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