A first example

Lexicon

Kathy, NP : **kathy**

Fong, NP: fong

respects, $V: \lambda y. \lambda x. \mathbf{respect}(x, y)$ $VP: \beta \rightarrow V: \beta$

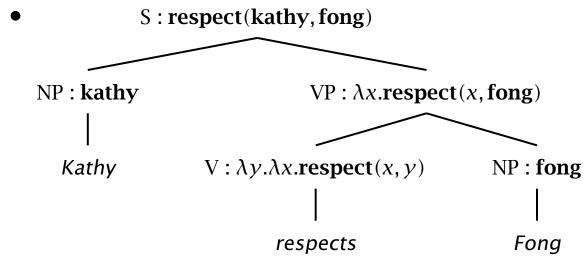
runs, $V: \lambda x.run(x)$

Grammar

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

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

A first example



- [VP respects Fong] : $[\lambda y.\lambda x.respect(x, y)]$ (fong)
 - = λx .respect(x, fong) [β red.]
 - [s Kathy respects Fong]: $[\lambda x.respect(x, fong)](kathy)$
 - = 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 → Bool properties

Ind → Ind → Bool binary relations

kathy and fong are Ind

run is Ind → Bool

respect is Ind → Ind → Bool

Types are interpreted right associatively.

respect is Ind → (Ind → 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:

$$\lambda y.\lambda x.respect(x, y)$$

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:

• β, η normal form β, η long form run $\lambda x.\text{run}(x)$ every²(kid, run) every²(($\lambda x.\text{kid}(x)$), ($\lambda x.\text{run}(x)$) yesterday(run) $\lambda y.\text{yesterday}(\lambda x.\text{run}(x))(y)$

Types of major syntactic categories

- 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

```
• 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

VP: \beta(\alpha) \rightarrow P: \beta \quad NP: \alpha
```

A grammar fragment

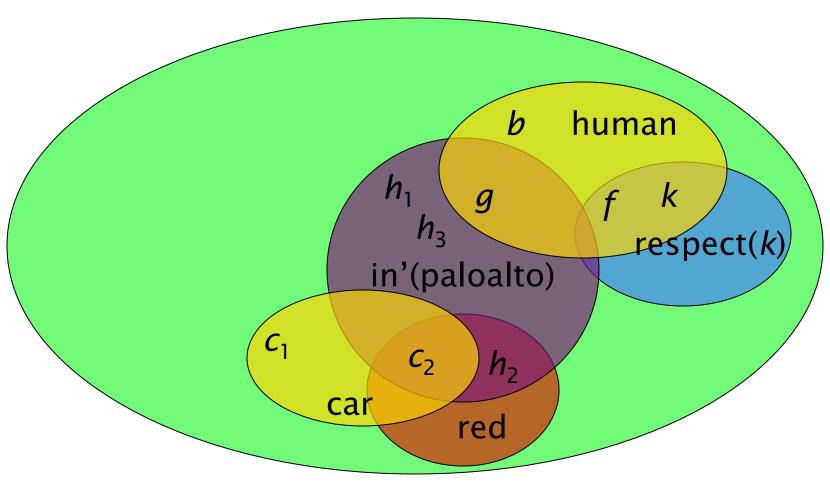
```
• Kathy, NP : kathy<sub>Ind</sub>
   Fong, NP: fong<sub>Ind</sub>
  Palo Alto, NP: paloalto Ind
  car, N: car<sub>Ind→</sub> Bool
  overpriced, \ Adj: overpriced_{(Ind \rightarrow \ Bool) \rightarrow (Ind \rightarrow \ Bool)}
  outside, PP: outside(Ind→ Bool)→(Ind→ Bool)
   red, Adj : \lambda P.(\lambda 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: some^2(Ind \rightarrow Bool) \rightarrow (Ind \rightarrow Bool) \rightarrow Bool
  runs, V: run<sub>Ind→</sub> Bool
  respects, V: respect<sub>Ind→</sub> Ind→ Bool
  likes, V: like<sub>Ind→</sub> Ind→ Bool
```

A grammar fragment

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



Model theory – A formalization of a "database"



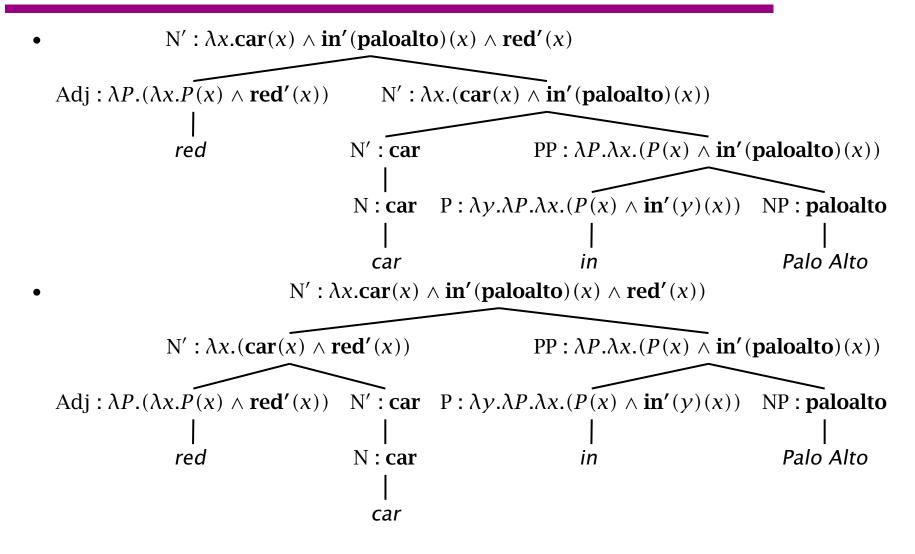
Properties

Curried multi-argument functions

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

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

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!



Adding more complex NPs

NP: A man \sim 3x.man(x)

S: A man loves Mary

~> * love(∃x.man(x),mary)

How to fix this?



Our first idea for NPs with determiner didn't work out:

"A man"

~> **3**z.man(z)

"A man loves Mary" ~> * love(\(\frac{1}{2}\).mary)

But what was the idea after all? Nothing!

∃z.man(z) just isn't the meaning of "a man".

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

Let's try again, systematically...

A solution for quantifiers

```
What we want is:
```

"A man loves Mary" ~> \(\frac{1}{2}\) \(\lambda\) love(z,mary))

What we have is:

"man" $\sim \lambda y.man(y)$

"loves Mary" $\sim \lambda x.love(x,mary)$

How about: $\exists z(\lambda y.man(y)(z) \land \lambda x.love(x,mary)(z))$

Remember: We can use variables for any kind of term.

So next:

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

Why things get more complex

- When doing predicate logic did you wonder why:
 - Kathy runs is run(kathy)
 - no kid runs is $\neg(\exists x)(\mathbf{kid}(x) \wedge \mathbf{run}(x))$
- 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.
 - 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 Ind → Bool
- How do we represent noun phrases like the red car in Palo Alto or every red car in Palo Alto?
- $[\![\iota]\!](P) = a$ if (P(b) = 1) iff b = a) undefined, otherwise
- The semantics for the following Bertrand Russell, for whom the x meant the unique item satisfying a certain description

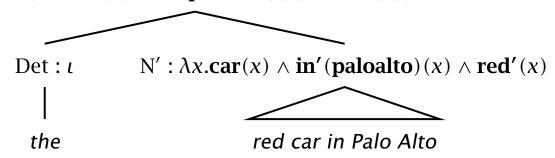
• red car in Palo Alto

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 : $\iota(\lambda x.\operatorname{car}(x) \wedge \operatorname{in'}(\operatorname{paloalto})(x) \wedge \operatorname{red'}(x))$



• 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:

Here are some determiners

some²(kid)(run)
$$\equiv$$
 some(λx .kid(x) \wedge run(x))
every²(kid)(run) \equiv every(λx .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_{Ind}
some(P) = 1 iff (\exists x)P(x) = 1; i.e., if P \neq \emptyset
```

- Every student likes the red car
- S: every²(student)(like($\iota(\lambda x.car(x) \land \land red'(x))$))

```
NP : \mathbf{every^2}(\mathbf{student}) \qquad VP : \mathbf{like}(\iota(\lambda x.\mathbf{car}(x) \wedge \mathbf{red'}(x)))
Det : \mathbf{every^2} \qquad N' : \mathbf{student} \qquad V : \mathbf{like} \qquad NP : \iota(\lambda x.\mathbf{car}(x) \wedge \mathbf{red'}(x))
= \mathbf{every} \qquad \mathbf{student} \qquad \mathbf{likes} \qquad Det : \iota \qquad N' : \lambda x.(\mathbf{car}(x) \wedge \mathbf{red'}(x))
= \mathbf{the} \qquad Adj : \lambda P.(\lambda x.P(x) \wedge \mathbf{red'}(x)) \qquad N' : \mathbf{car}
= \mathbf{red} \qquad N : \mathbf{car}
= \mathbf{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 → 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

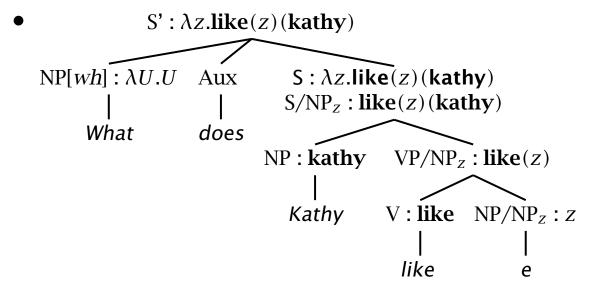
S' : \alpha \rightarrow Aux S : \alpha

NP/NP_Z : Z \rightarrow e

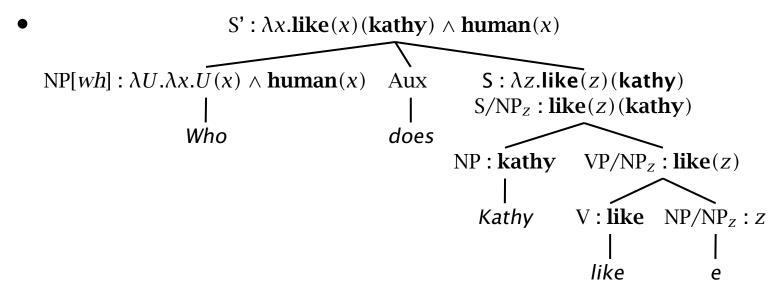
S : \lambda z.F(...z...) \rightarrow S/NP_Z : F(...z...)
```

Syntax/semantics for questions

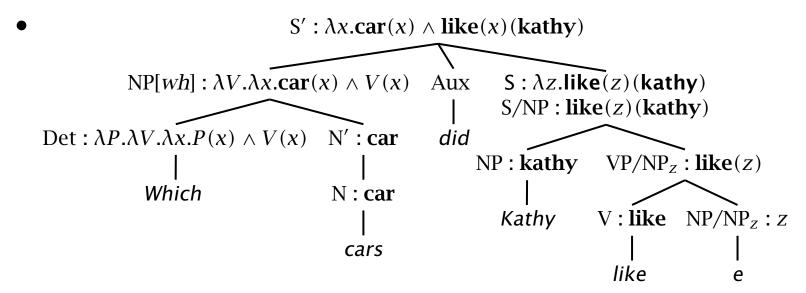
- who, NP[wh] : $\lambda U.\lambda x.U(x) \wedge \text{human}(x)$ what, NP[wh] : $\lambda U.U$ which, Det[wh] : $\lambda P.\lambda V.\lambda x.P(x) \wedge V(x)$ how_many, Det[wh] : $\lambda P.\lambda V.|\lambda x.P(x) \wedge V(x)|$
- Where | · | is the operation that returns the cardinality of a set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



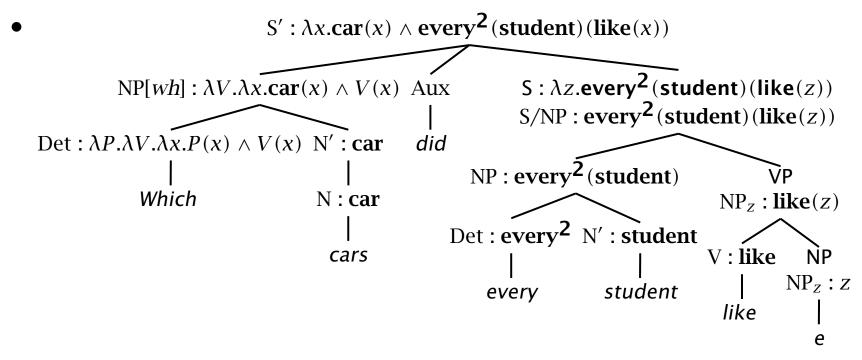
• select liked from Likes where Likes.liker='Kathy'



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



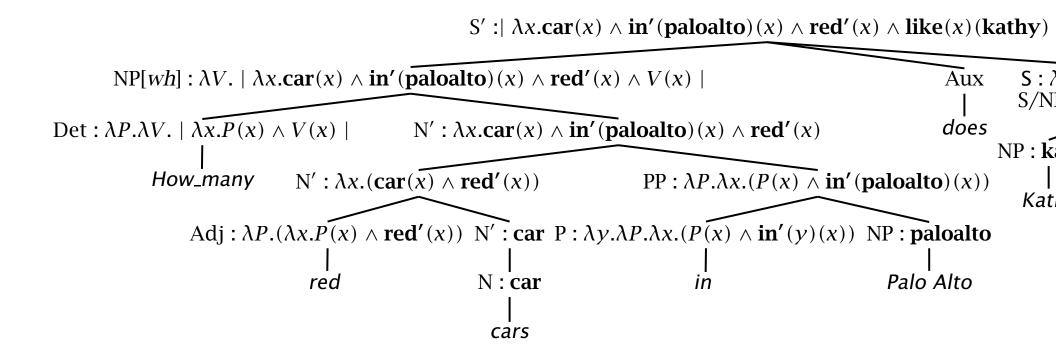
• select liked from Cars, Likes where Cars.obj=Likes.liked AND Likes.liker='Kathy'



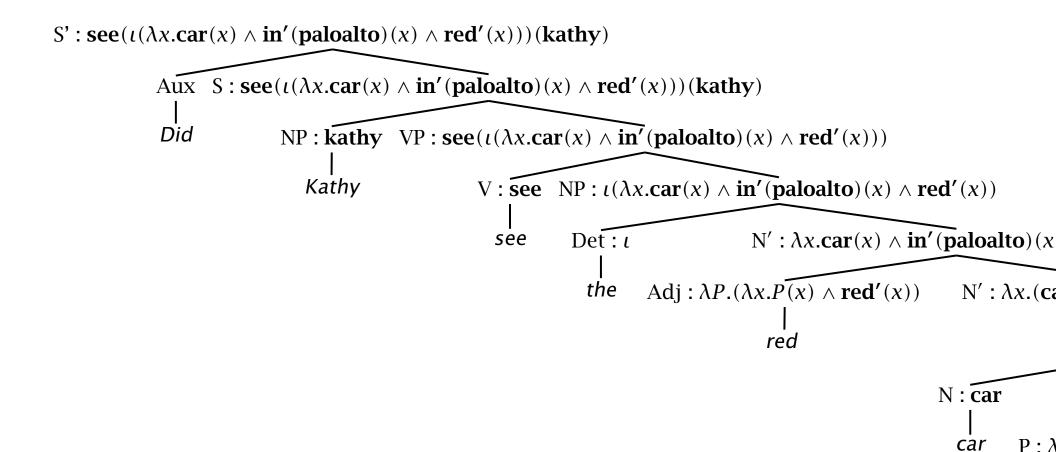
• ???

- 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(*) = 1)

How many red cars in Palo Alto does Kathy like?



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?

 λx .state(x) \wedge 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:
 - 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