

## Computational Semantics



CS224N

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(Borrows some slides from Mary Dalrymple,  
Jason Eisner, and Jim Martin)



## Why study computational semantics?

- Because everyone has been wanting to hear about this all course?!?
- Obvious high-level applications
  - Question answering
  - Information access
  - Talking to your pet robot
  - Speech user interfaces
  - Summarization
  - Translation
- The next generation of intelligent applications need deeper semantics than we have seen so far
  - Often you must understand well to be able to act



## Shallow vs. deep semantics

We can do more than people thought  
without deep linguistic analysis

This is *the* lesson of the last decade



## Shallow vs. deep semantics

But we can't do everything we would like



## Shallow vs. deep semantics

We can't do everything we would like:

- Not all tasks can ignore language structure/meaning
- Unsuitable if new text must be generated
- Unsuitable if machine must act rather than relying on user to interpret material written by the author of the document

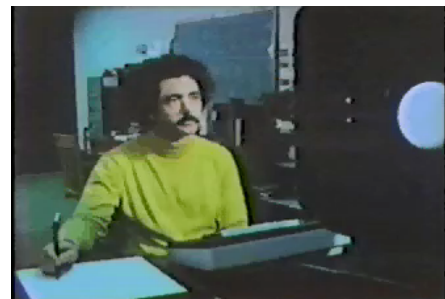
You get what you pay for:

- Cheap, fast, low-level techniques are appropriate when speed and volume are more important than accuracy
- Computationally expensive, higher-level techniques are appropriate when high-quality results are required



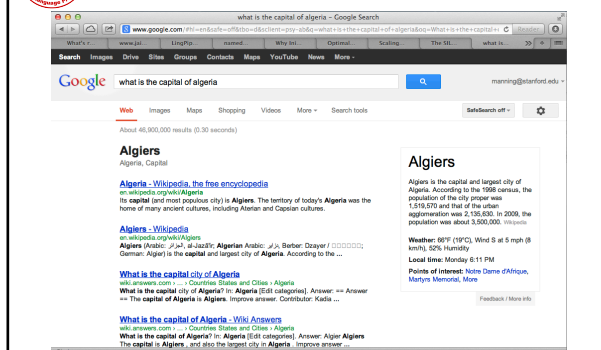
## SHRDLU

<http://hci.stanford.edu/winograd/shrdlu/>

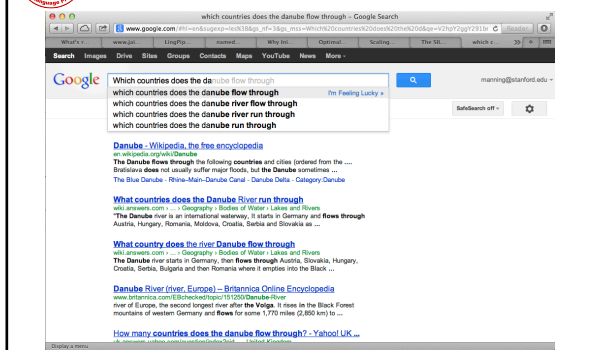




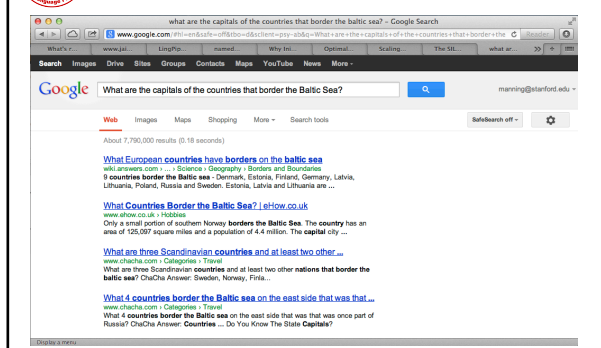
## Google: What is the capital of Algeria?



## Google: Which countries does the Danube flow through?



## Google: What are the capitals of the countries bordering the Baltic Sea?



## Apple Knowledge Navigator video (1987)



## Precise semantics. An early example: Chat-80

- Developed between 1979 and 1982 by Fernando Pereira and David Warren; became Pereira's dissertation
- Proof-of-concept natural language interface to database system
- Used in projects: e.g. Shoptalk (Cohen et al. 1989), a natural language and graphical interface for decision support in manufacturing
- Used in an AppliedNLP-2000 conference paper! [Asking about train routes and schedules – still live]
- Available in /afs/ir/class/cs224n/src/chat
  - UNFORTUNATELY THERE DOESN'T SEEM TO BE ANY PROLOG INTERPRETER ON ITS MACHINES NOW ☹



## Things you could ask...

- What is the total area of countries south of the Equator and not in Australasia?
- What is the average area of the countries in each continent?
- Is there more than one country in each continent?
- What are the countries from which a river flows into the Black\_Sea?
- Which country bordering the Mediterranean borders a country that is bordered by a country whose population exceeds the population of India?



## Chat-80 trace (small)

```

Question: What is the capital of
Australia?
Parse: 0.0sec.
whq
  $VAR
  1
  s
    np
      3+sin
      wh(B)
      []
      verb(be,active,pres+fin,[],pos)
      arg
        dir
        np
          3+sin
            np_head
            det(the(sin))
            []
            capital
            pp
            prep(of)
            np
              3+sin
              name(australia)
              []
            []
          Semantics: 0.0sec.
          answer([B]) :-
            capital(australia,B)
            canberra.

```



## The CHAT-80 Database

```

% Facts about countries.
% country(Country,Region,Latitude,Longitude,
%   Area (sqmiles), Population, Capital,Currency)
country(andorra,southern_europe,42,-1,179,
  25000,andorra_la_villa,franc_peseta).
country(angola,southern_africa,-12,-18,481351,
  5810000,luanda,?).
country(argentina,south_america,-35,66, 1072067,
  23920000,buenos_aires,peso).

capital(C,Cap) :- country(C,-,-,-,-,Cap,-).

```



## The CHAT-80 grammar

```

/* Sentences */
sentence(S) -> declarative(S), terminator(.).
sentence(S) -> wh_question(S), terminator(?).
sentence(S) -> yes_no_question(S), terminator(?).
sentence(S) -> imperative(S), terminator(!).

/* Noun Phrase */
np(np(Agmt,Pronoun,[],Agmt,NP_Case,def,_SetNil)) ->
  (is_pp(Set0),
  pers_pron(Pronoun_Agmt,C_Ase),
  (empty(Nil), role(Case,decl,NP_Case))).

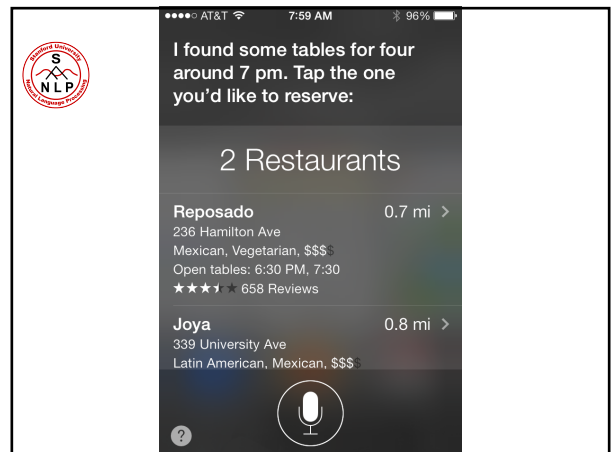
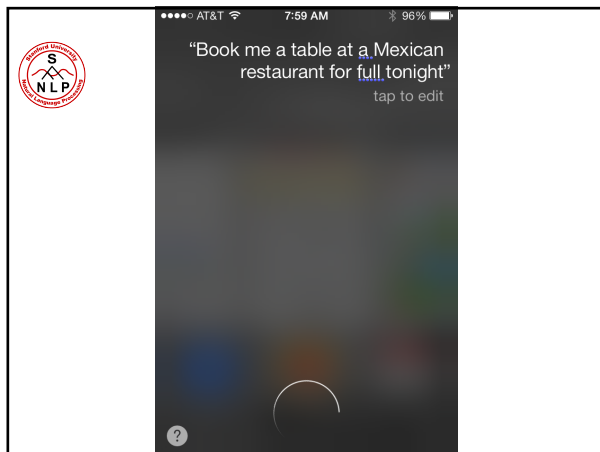
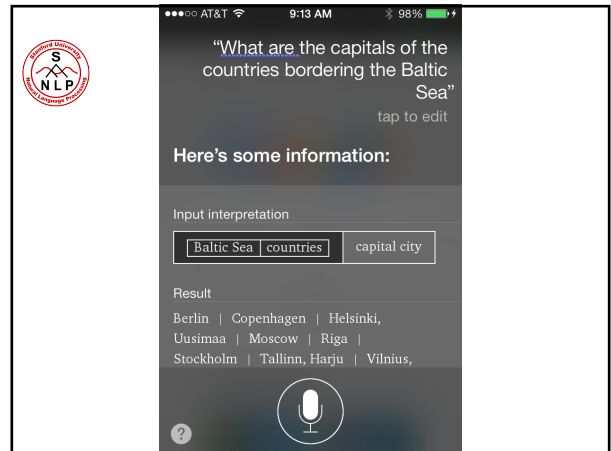
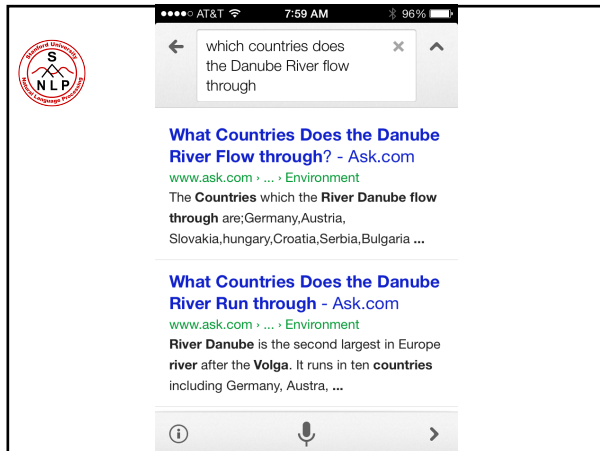
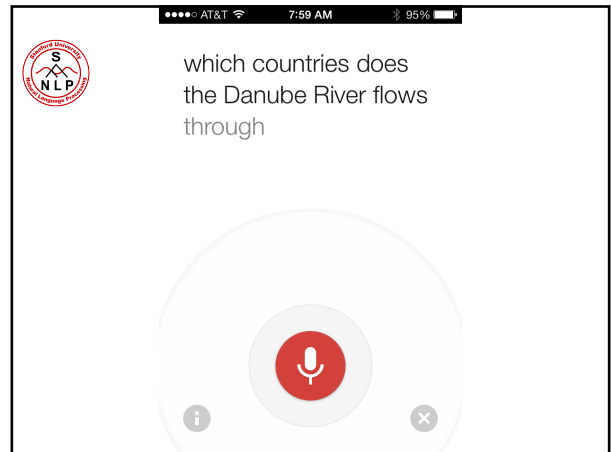
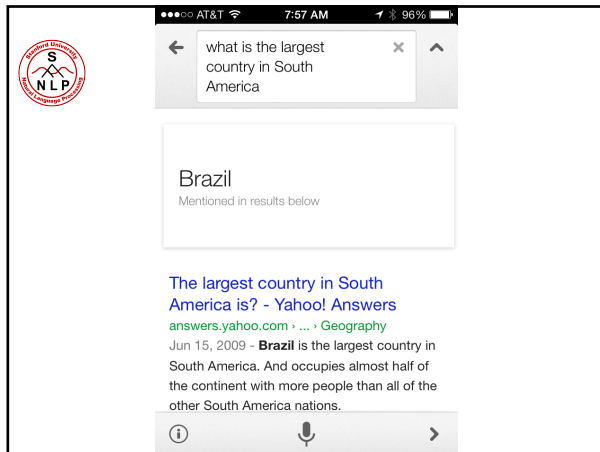
/* Prepositional Phrase */
pp(pp(Prep,Arg(Case,Set,MasK)) ->
  prep(Prep),
  (prep_case(NP_Case)),
  np(Arg,_NP_Case,_Case,Set,MasK).

```



## Fast-forward to 2015

- Siri
  - Google Now
  - Cortana
  - Amazon Echo / Alexa
  - Nuance Nina
  - Facebook M
- Speech is fast becoming the preferred mobile UI
- Satya Nadella (MSFT), NEXT Economy conference, Nov '15: "speaking and texting will be 'the new U.I.' for software."
- Natural Language Understanding becomes necessary





## Google's latest - Nov 16, 2015

<http://insidesearch.blogspot.com/2015/11/the-google-app-now-understands-you.html>

The Google app can now handle superlatives

"Who are the tallest Mavericks players?"

Second, we now understand questions with dates:

"What songs did Taylor Swift record in 2014?"

Finally, we're starting to understand some complex combinations:

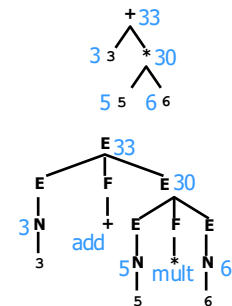
"What are some of Seth Gabel's father-in-law's movies?"

"What was the U.S. population when Bernie Sanders was born?"



## Programming Language Interpreter

- What is meaning of  $3+5*6$ ?
- First parse it into  $3+(5*6)$
- Now give a meaning to each node in the tree (bottom-up)

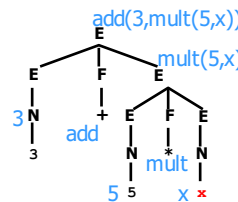


## More complex meanings

- How about  $3+5*x$ ?
- Don't know  $x$  at compile time
- "Meaning" at a node is a piece of code, not a number

- Form is "rule-to-rule" translation

- We provide a way to form the semantics of each parent in terms of the semantics of the children



## (Formal/Compositional) Computational Semantics

- Sentences: "John smokes."  
"Everyone who smokes snores."
- Syntactic Analyses:
- Semantics Construction: smoke(j)
  - Logic as meaning representation language
- Inference:  $\forall x. \text{smoke}(x) \rightarrow \text{snores}(x), \text{smoke}(j) \Rightarrow \text{snores}(j)$



## Logic: Some Preliminaries

### Three major kinds of objects

1. Booleans (Bool)
  - Roughly, the semantic values of sentences
2. Individuals/Entities (Ind)
  - Values of NPs, i.e., objects
  - Maybe also other types of entities, like times
3. Functions of various types
  - A function returning a boolean is called a "predicate"
    - e.g., frog(x), green(x)
    - A predicate defines a set of individuals that satisfy it
    - A one argument predicate is called a "property"
  - More complex functions return other functions!
  - Some functions take other functions as arguments! (Higher order functions.)



## Logic: Lambda Terms

- Lambda terms:
  - Let  $\text{square} = \lambda p. p * p$
  - Then  $\text{square}(3) = (\lambda p. p * p)(3) = 3 * 3$
  - Note:  $\text{square}(x)$  isn't a function! It's just the value  $x * x$ .
  - But  $\lambda x. \text{square}(x) = \lambda x. x * x = \lambda p. p * p = \text{square}$   
(proving that these functions are equal - and indeed they are, as they act the same on all arguments: what is  $(\lambda x. \text{square}(x))(y)?$ )
  - Let  $\text{even} = \lambda p. (p \bmod 2 == 0)$  a predicate: returns true/false
  - $\text{even}(x)$  is true if  $x$  is even
  - How about  $\text{even}(\text{square}(x))$ ?
  - $\lambda x. \text{even}(\text{square}(x))$  is true of numbers with even squares
    - Just apply rules to get  $\lambda x. (\text{even}(x * x)) = \lambda x. (x * x \bmod 2 == 0)$
    - This happens to denote the same predicate as  $\text{even}$  does



## Logic: Multiple Arguments

- All lambda terms have one argument
- But we can fake multiple arguments ...
- Suppose we want to write `times(5,6)`
- Remember: `square` can be written as  $\lambda x.\text{square}(x)$
- Similarly, `times` is equivalent to  $\lambda x. [\lambda y.\text{times}(x,y)]$
- Claim that `times(5)(6)` means same as `times(5,6)`
  - $\text{times}(5) = (\lambda x.\lambda y.\text{times}(x,y))(5) = \lambda y.\text{times}(5,y)$ 
    - If this function weren't anonymous, what would we call it?
  - $\text{times}(5)(6) = (\lambda y.\text{times}(5,y))(6) = \text{times}(5,6)$
- Referred to as "currying"



## Logic: Interesting Constants

- We have "constants" that name some of the entities and functions (e.g., `times`):
  - `GeorgeWBush` – an entity
  - `red` – a predicate on entities
    - holds of just the red entities: `red(x)` is true if `x` is red!
  - `loves` – a predicate on 2 entities
    - `loves(GeorgeWBush, LauraBush)`
    - Question: What does `loves(LauraBush)` denote?
- Constants used to define meanings of words
- Meanings of phrases will be built from the constants



## Compositional Semantics

- We've discussed what semantic representations should look like.
- **But how do we get them from sentences???**
- **First** - parse to get a syntax tree.
- **Second** - look up the semantics for each word.
- **Third** - build the semantics for each constituent
  - Work from the bottom up
  - The syntax tree is a "recipe" for how to do it
- **Principle of Compositionality**
  - The meaning of a whole is derived from the meanings of the parts, via composition rules



## A simple grammar of English

(in Definite Clause Grammar, DCG, form – as in Prolog)

sentence --> noun\_phrase, verb\_phrase.

noun\_phrase --> proper\_noun.

noun\_phrase --> determiner, noun.

verb\_phrase --> verb, noun\_phrase.

Proper\_noun --> [John]

verb --> [ate]

Proper\_noun --> [Mary]

verb --> [kissed]

determiner --> [the]

noun --> [cake]

determiner--> [a]

noun --> [lion]



## Extending the grammar to check number agreement between subjects and verbs

S --> NP(Num), VP(Num).

NP(Num) --> proper\_noun(Num).

NP(Num) --> det(Num), noun(Num).

VP(Num) --> verb(Num), NP(\_).

proper\_noun(s) --> [Mary].

noun(s) --> [lion].

det(s) --> [the].

noun(p) --> [lions].

det(p) --> [the].

verb(s) --> [eats].

verb(p) --> [eat].



## A simple DCG grammar with semantics

sentence(SMeaning) --> noun\_phrase(NPMeaning),  
verb\_phrase(VPMeaning), {combine (NPMeaning,  
VPMeaning, SMeaning)}.

verb\_phrase(VPMeaning) --> verb(VMeaning),  
noun\_phrase(NPMeaning), {combine (NPMeaning,  
VMeaning, VPMeaning)}.

noun\_phrase (NPMeaning) --> name(NPMeaning).

name(john) --> [john].

verb( $\lambda x.\text{jumps}(x)$ ) --> [jumps]

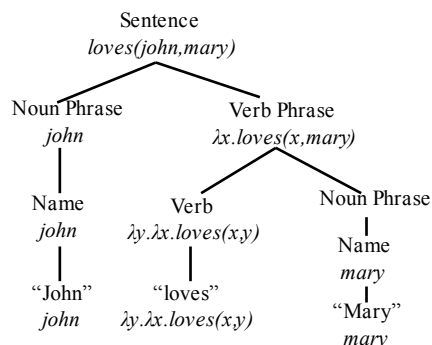
name(mary) --> [mary].

verb( $\lambda y.\lambda x.\text{loves}(x,y)$ ) --> [loves]

Combine(X, Y, Z) --> apply(Y, X, Z)



## Parse tree with associated semantics



## In detail: Beta-Reduction

$(\lambda y \lambda x. \text{love}(x,y))[\text{mary}][\text{john}]$   
 $\beta \Rightarrow (\lambda x. \text{love}(x,\text{mary}))[\text{john}]$   
 $\beta \Rightarrow \text{love}(\text{john},\text{mary})$



## Formal Compositional Semantics ...

- **Richard Montague** (1930-1971)
- "... I reject the contention that an important theoretical difference exists between formal and natural languages ..."



## Augmented CFG Rules

- We can also accomplish this just by attaching semantic formation rules to our syntactic CFG rules
- $$A \rightarrow \alpha_1 \dots \alpha_n \quad \{f(\alpha_1\text{-sem}, \dots, \alpha_n\text{-sem})\}$$
- This should be read as the semantics we attach to A can be computed from some function applied to the semantics of A's parts.
  - The functions/operations in the semantic rules can be restricted, falling into two classes
    - Pass the semantics of a daughter up unchanged to the mother
    - Apply (as a function) the semantics of one of the daughters of a node to the semantics of the other daughters



## How do things get more complex? (The former) GRE analytic section

- Six sculptures – C, D, E, F, G, H – are to be exhibited in rooms 1, 2, and 3 of an art gallery.
  - Sculptures C and E may not be exhibited in the same room.
  - Sculptures D and G must be exhibited in the same room.
  - If sculptures E and F are exhibited in the same room, no other sculpture may be exhibited in that room.
  - At least one sculpture must be exhibited in each room, and no more than three sculptures may be exhibited in any room.
- If sculpture D is exhibited in room 3 and sculptures E and F are exhibited in room 1, which of the following may be true?
  1. Sculpture C is exhibited in room 1.
  2. Sculpture H is exhibited in room 1.
  3. Sculpture G is exhibited in room 2.
  4. Sculptures C and H are exhibited in the same room.
  5. Sculptures G and F are exhibited in the same room.



## Logic: Interesting Constants

- **Generalized Quantifiers**
- **most** – a predicate on 2 predicates on entities
  - $\text{most}(\text{pig}, \text{big})$  = "most pigs are big"
  - Equivalently,  $\text{most}(\lambda x \text{ pig}(x), \lambda x \text{ big}(x))$
  - returns true if most of the things satisfying the first predicate also satisfy the second predicate
- similarly for other quantifiers
  - $\text{all}(\text{pig}, \text{big})$  (equivalent to  $\forall x \text{ pig}(x) \Rightarrow \text{big}(x)$ )
  - $\text{exists}(\text{pig}, \text{big})$  (equivalent to  $\exists x \text{ pig}(x) \text{ AND } \text{big}(x)$ )
  - can even build complex quantifiers from English phrases:
    - "between 12 and 75"; "a majority of"; "all but the smallest 2"



## Quantifier Order

- Groucho Marx celebrates quantifier order ambiguity:
  - In this country a woman gives birth every 15 min..  
Our job is to find that woman and stop her.
  - $\exists$ woman ( $\forall$ 15min gives-birth-during(woman, 15min))
  - $\forall$ 15min ( $\exists$ woman gives-birth-during(15min, woman))
  - Surprisingly, both are possible in natural language!
  - Which is the joke meaning?
    - (where it's always the same woman)



## Scope Needs to be Resolved!

*At least one sculpture must be exhibited in each room.*

The same sculpture in each room?

*No more than three sculptures may be exhibited in any room.*

**Reading 1:** For every room, there are no more than three sculptures exhibited in it.

**Reading 2:** Only three or less sculptures are exhibited (the rest are not shown).

**Reading 3:** Only a certain set of three or less sculptures may be exhibited in any room (for the other sculptures there are restrictions in allowable rooms).

- Some readings will be ruled out by being uninformative or by contradicting other statements
- Otherwise we must be content with distributions over scope-resolved semantic forms



## An alternative: Semantic Grammars

- A problem with traditional linguistic grammars is that they don't necessarily reflect the semantics in a straightforward way
- You can deal with this by...
  - Fighting with the grammar
    - Complex lambdas and complex terms, etc.
  - Rewriting the grammar to reflect the semantics
    - And in the process give up on some syntactic niceties
    - known as "Semantic grammars"
      - Simple idea, dumb name



## Lifer Semantic Grammars

- Example domain—access to DB of US Navy ships
  - S →  $\langle$ present $\rangle$  the  $\langle$ attribute $\rangle$  of  $\langle$ ship $\rangle$
  - $\langle$ present $\rangle$  → what is | [can you] tell me
  - $\langle$ attribute $\rangle$  → length | beam | class
  - $\langle$ ship $\rangle$  → the  $\langle$ shipname $\rangle$
  - $\langle$ shipname $\rangle$  → kennedy | enterprise
  - $\langle$ ship $\rangle$  →  $\langle$ classname $\rangle$  class ships
  - $\langle$ classname $\rangle$  → kitty hawk | lafayette
- Example inputs recognized by above grammar:
  - can you tell me the class of the Enterprise
  - what is the length of Kitty Hawk class ships
  - Many categories are not "true" syntactic categories
  - Words are recognized by their context rather than category (e.g. class)
  - Recognition is strongly directed
  - Strong direction useful for error detection and correction
    - G. Hendrix, E. Sacerdoti, D. Sagalowicz, and J. Slocum. 1978. Developing a natural language interface to complex data. ACM Transactions on Database Systems 3:105-147



## Semantic Grammar

- The term semantic grammar refers to the motivation for the grammar rules
  - The technology (plain CFG rules with a set of terminals) is the same as we've been using
  - The good thing about them is that you get exactly the semantic rules you need
  - The bad thing is that you need to develop a new grammar for each new domain
- Typically used in conversational agents in constrained domains
  - Limited vocabulary
  - Limited grammatical complexity
  - Syntactic parsing can often produce all that's needed for semantic interpretation even in the face of "ungrammatical" input – write fragment rules



## Semantic Grammars Summary

- Advantages:
  - Efficient recognition of limited domain input
  - Absence of overall grammar allows pattern-matching possibilities for idioms, etc.
  - No separate interpretation phase
  - Strength of top-down constraints allows powerful ellipsis mechanisms
- Disadvantages:
  - Different grammar required for each new domain
  - Lack of overall syntax can lead to "spotty" grammar coverage
    - E.g. fronting possessive in " $\langle$ attribute $\rangle$  of  $\langle$ ship $\rangle$ " to  $\langle$ ship $\rangle$  's
    - $\langle$ attribute $\rangle$  doesn't imply fronting in " $\langle$ crank $\rangle$  of  $\langle$ officer $\rangle$ "
  - Difficult to develop grammars past a certain size
  - Suffers from fragility





## Facebook Graph Search

- Uses a weighted context free grammar (WCFG) to represent the Graph Search query language:
- [start] => [users] \$1
- [users] => my friend(s) friends(me)
- [users] => friends of [users] friends(\$1)
- [users] => {user} \$1
- [users] => {user} {user-filter} intersect(\$1, \$2)
- [start] => [photos] \$1
- [photos] => photos of [users] photos(\$1)
- A terminal symbol can be an entity, e.g., {user}, {city}, {employer}, {group}; it can also be a word/phrase, e.g., *friends*, *live in*, *work at*, *members*, etc. A parse tree starts from [start] and expanding via rules to terminal symbols.

<https://www.facebook.com/notes/facebook-engineering/under-the-hood-the-natural-language-interface-of-graph-search/101514327330489>  
<http://spectrum.ieee.org/telecom/internet/the-making-of-facebooks-graph-search>

