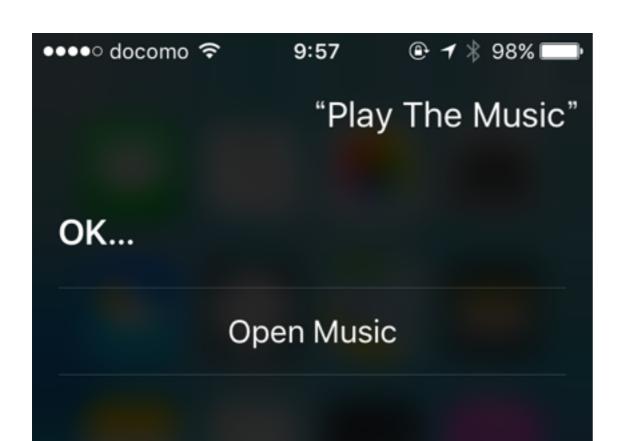
# Syntactic and semantic parsing for natural language understanding

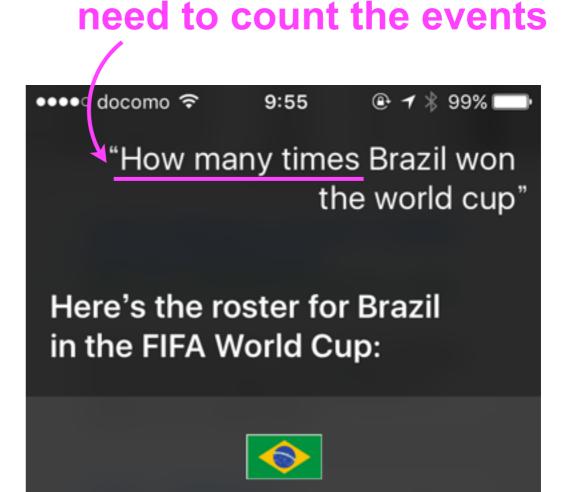
1. Introduction and Combinatory Categorical Grammars

Hiroshi Noji

# Natural language understanding?

- An ultimate goal of natural language processing (NLP)
- Example: dialogue system
  - current systems can understand some basic commands
  - but they cannot understand complex utterances people naturally use



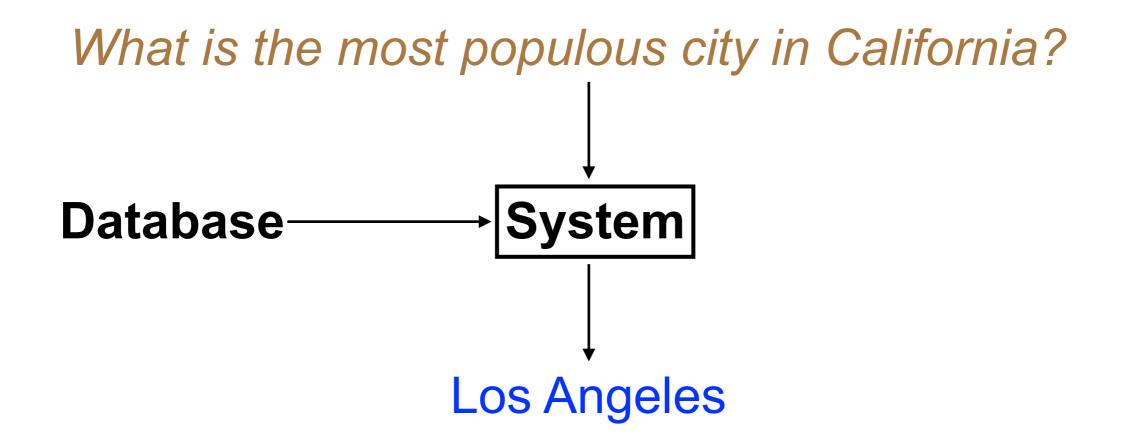


### Goal of this course

- Getting insights on the current state-of-the-art techniques around natural language understanding
- In particular, we focus on two NLP tasks related to language understanding
  - Question answering
  - Recognizing textual entailment (RTE)
  - These tasks require deep understanding of the text

### Question answering

- ▶ Main focus: question answering with external database
- System may convert an input question into a query to the database, and obtain the answer



# Recognizing textual entailment (RTE)

- ▶ Task: judge whether the input sentences (premise; 前提) semantically entail another sentence (hypothesis; 仮定)
  - Given P, H is true or false?
    - P Smoking in restaurants is prohibited by low in most cities in Japan
    - H Some cities does not allow smoking in public spaces
      - ⇒ true (entail), because most cities does not mean all cities
  - The best way of testing an NLP system's semantic capacity (Cooper, et al., 1994)
  - Applications: Summarization, QA on articles, etc.

### Approach

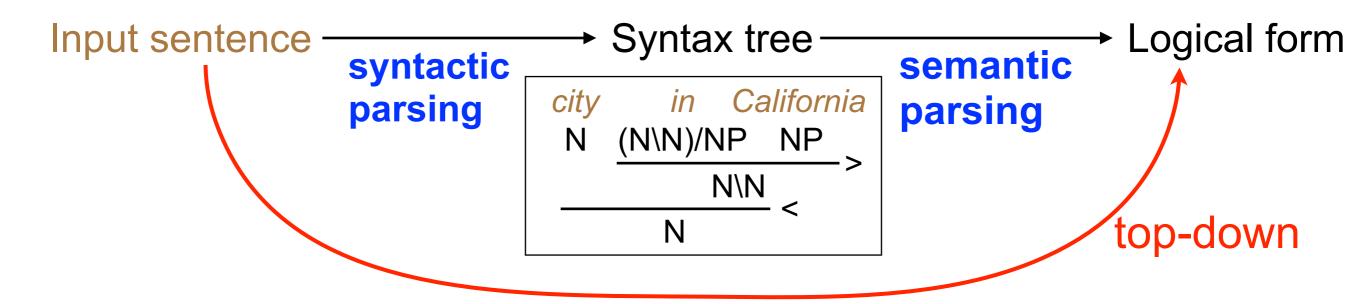
- In this course, we focus on a specific approach called semantic parsing on these tasks
- Semantic parsing:
  - Converting a natural language utterance into the corresponding meaning representation (typically some logical forms)
- ▶ Example in question answering:

What is the most populous city in California?

We may convert the output into other form (e.g., SQL) by some rules

### Two approaches for semantic parsing

- There are two different approaches broadly
- Bottom-up approach (also called non-grounding approach)
  - Given a sentence, first find its syntactic structure, and then convert it to a logical form



- Top-down approach (called grounding approach)
  - We do not use an external syntactic parser (direct conversion)

#### Both have pros and cons

#### Plan of the course

- Schedule and grading:
  - 4 lectures: 12/14 (today); 12/19 (Tue); 12/21 (Thu); 1/4 (Thu)
  - 100% grading by an assignment (report) given in the last lecture

#### Materials:

- Combinatory categorial grammar (CCG)
  - Linguistically-motivated grammar suitable for converting natural language into logical forms
- Techniques for efficient CCG parsing
- Bottom-up and top-down semantic parsing with CCG
- Semantic parsing without CCG (lightly-supervised approach), and challenges for the future research

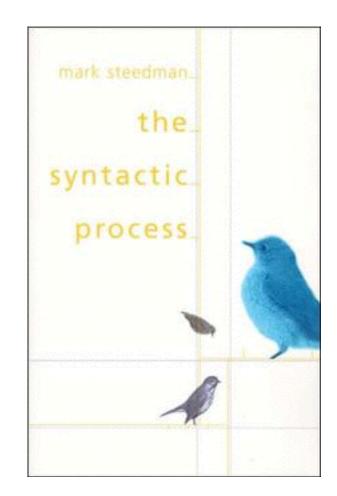
today

12/14

12/19, 1/4

### What is CCG?

- ▶ For NLP, Combinatory Categorical Grammar (CCG) is a grammar that makes computation of logical forms easier
- ▶ For linguistics, CCG is known as a lexicalized grammar, which recognizes mildly context-sensitive languages (slightly beyond context-free languages, on Chomsky hierarchy)
  - Formal linguists (syntacticians) are interested in the grammar that best fits the generative capacity of the human languages
  - CCG is one of such attempts
  - Other related grammars: HPSG, TAG, LFG



(MIT Press, 2000)

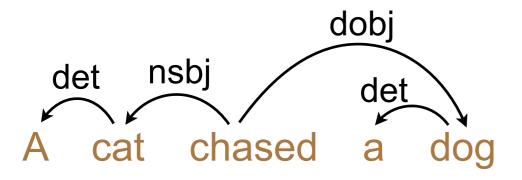
### Outline

- Brief introduction to (syntactic) parsing
  - Phrase structure and dependency grammars
- Combinatory Categorical Grammar (CCG)
  - First introduce Categorical Grammar (CG)
  - CCG can be obtained by extending CG
- Properties of CCG
  - Transparency to the logical form
  - Ability to handle long-distance dependencies

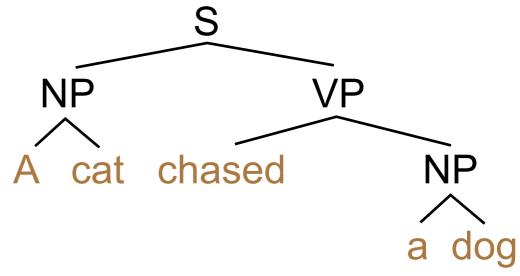
# What is (syntactic) parsing?

- Linguists like to use trees to describe the syntactic structure of the sentence
- Parsing is the problem to find the correct tree given an input sentence
- Different grammar describes a sentence in a different way

#### **Dependency grammar**



#### Phrase-structure grammar



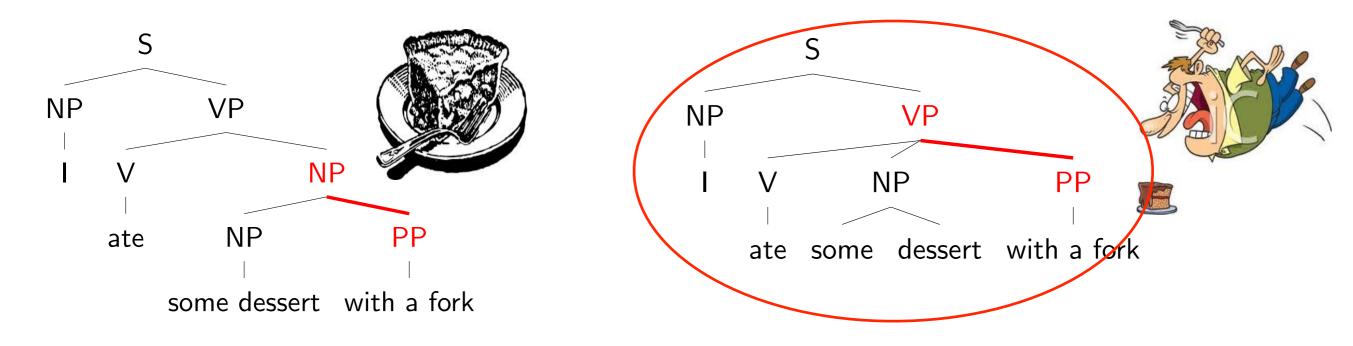
Focus: relationships between two words

**Focus: recursive structure** 

# Goal of parsing: disambiguation

- What is the correct tree?
- correct tree is the one corresponding to human interpretation
- Parsing aims at finding a tree that corresponds to human interpretation
- ▶ Example: PP-attachment ambiguity

I ate some dessert with a fork



### Statistical parsing since 2000's

- Current state-of-the-art parsers are mostly statistical parsers that learn the mapping from a sentence into a tree with supervised machine learning (recently deeplearning)
  - Typically we use 10,000~30,000 trees to train a parser
- Popular parsers:
  - English: Stanford parser <a href="https://stanfordnlp.github.io/CoreNLP/">https://stanfordnlp.github.io/CoreNLP/</a>
  - Japanese: CaboCha <a href="https://taku910.github.io/cabocha/">https://taku910.github.io/cabocha/</a>
- Today we do not touch on statistical disambiguation models
- We focus on the roles of grammars (syntax theory)

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### Categorical Grammar

- ▶ Fundamental units: Category
  - Atomic category: S, NP, N
  - Complex category:
    - consists of atomic categories and "/" "\"
    - X/Y means it accepts Y in the right and becomes X
    - X\Y means it accepts Y in the left and becomes X
- ▶ Example:
  - Intransitive verbs (e.g., walk): S\NP
  - Transitive verbs (e.g., eat): S\NP/NP

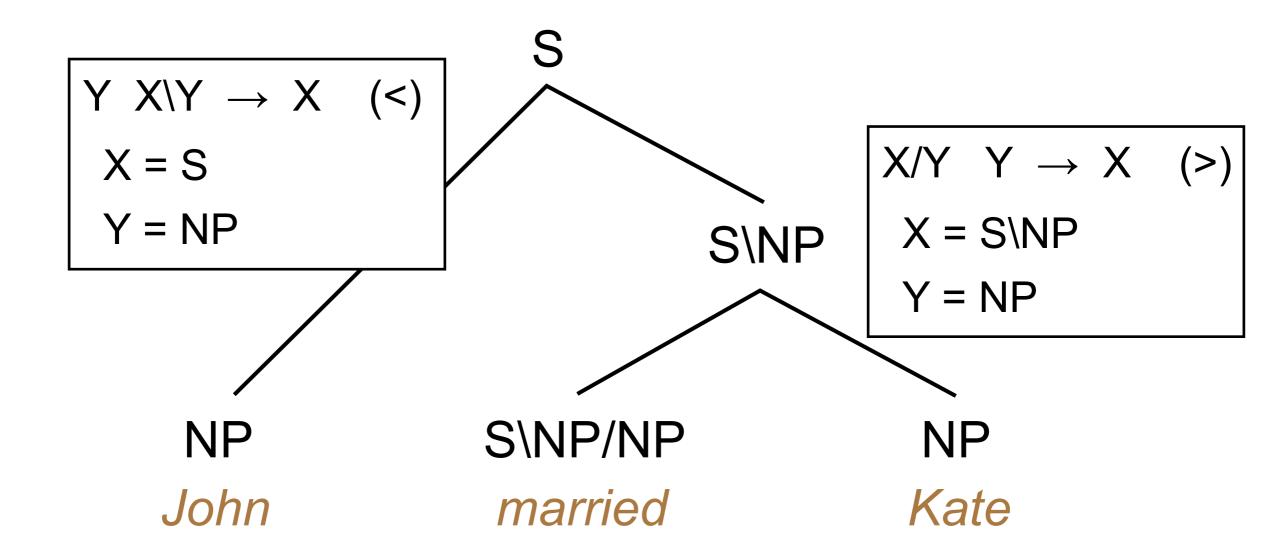
 $NP S NP \rightarrow S$ John walked

### Rules

- ▶ There are only two rules in CG
- ▶ Function application rules:
  - $\bullet X/Y Y \longrightarrow X (>)$
  - $Y X \setminus Y Y (<)$
- ▶ Example:
  - S/NP NP  $\rightarrow$  S
  - NP  $S \setminus P \rightarrow S$

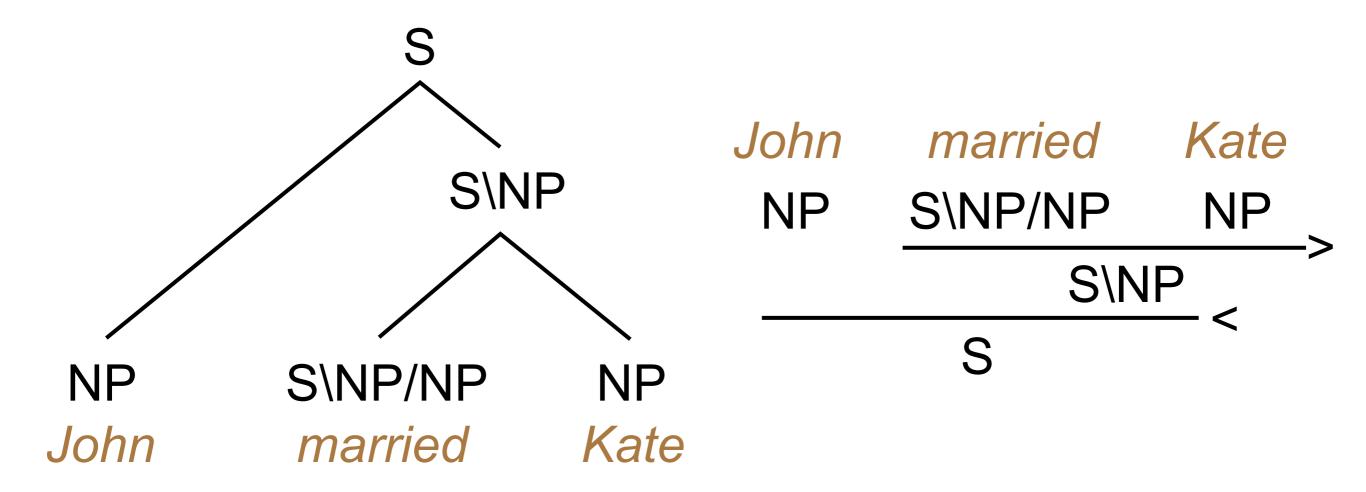
### How parsing proceeds

- Assign lexical categories to words
- Apply a rule to categories to build tree



### Parsing as derivation

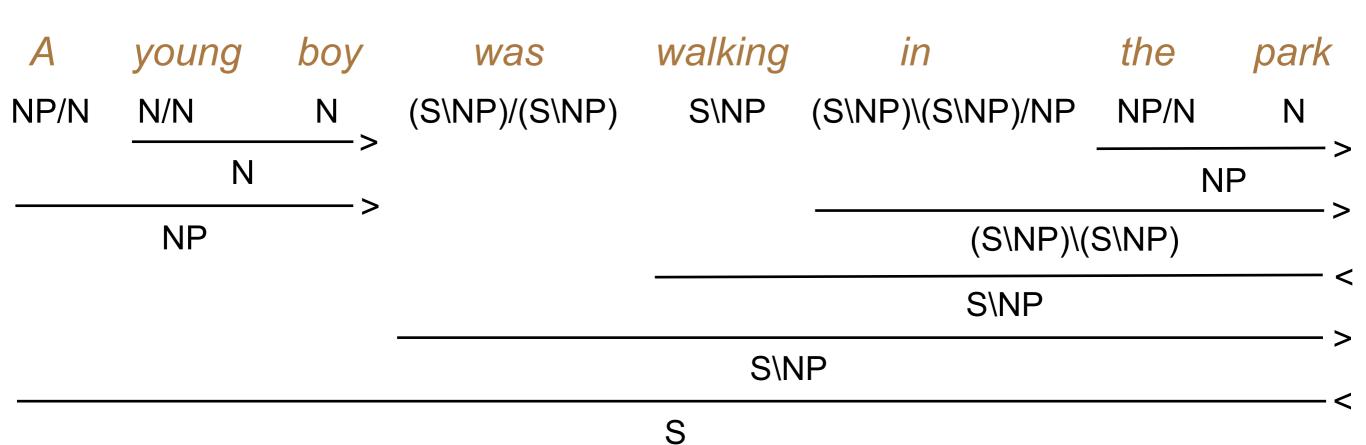
In CG and CCG, we usually write down a parsing process as a logical derivation of a proof



### Typical categories

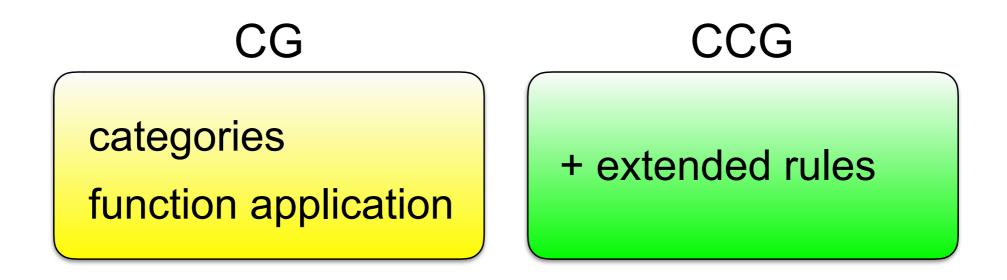
- Modifier have the category X/X or X\X
  - Adjective (a tall man, a great book): N/N
  - Adverb (He runs quickly): (S\NP)\(S\NP)
- Many other categories can be understood intuitively
  - We can understand S\NP as a category, who wants to become S
    but lacks NP in the right (intransitive verbs)
  - in "He walks in the park"?
    - (S\NP)\(S\NP)/NP
    - "the park" is NP
    - "in the park" becomes modifier modifying walks (S\NP)

### A bit complex case

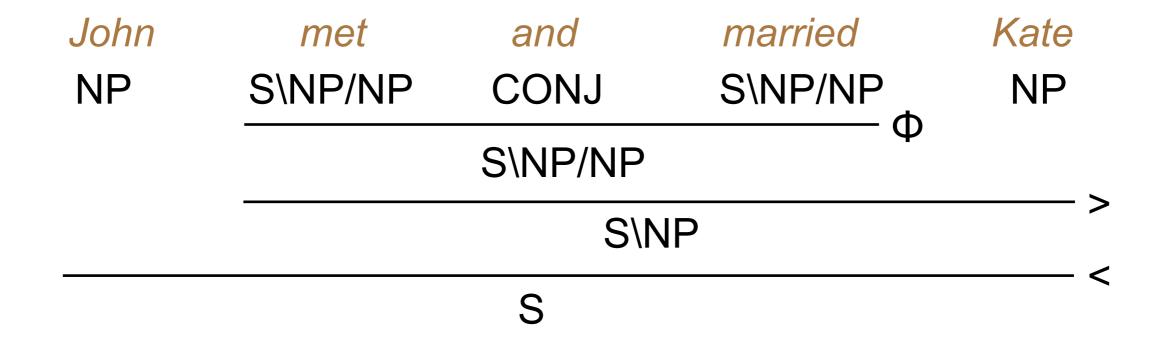


### CG to CCG

- Pure CG has only function application rules (<, >)
  - This is not sufficient to cover all linguistic phenomena
  - Formally, its generative capacity is equivalent to CFG
- CCG is a CG with some extended rules
  - Extended rules elegantly solve many problems of natural language syntax
    - e.g., coordination and long-distance dependencies

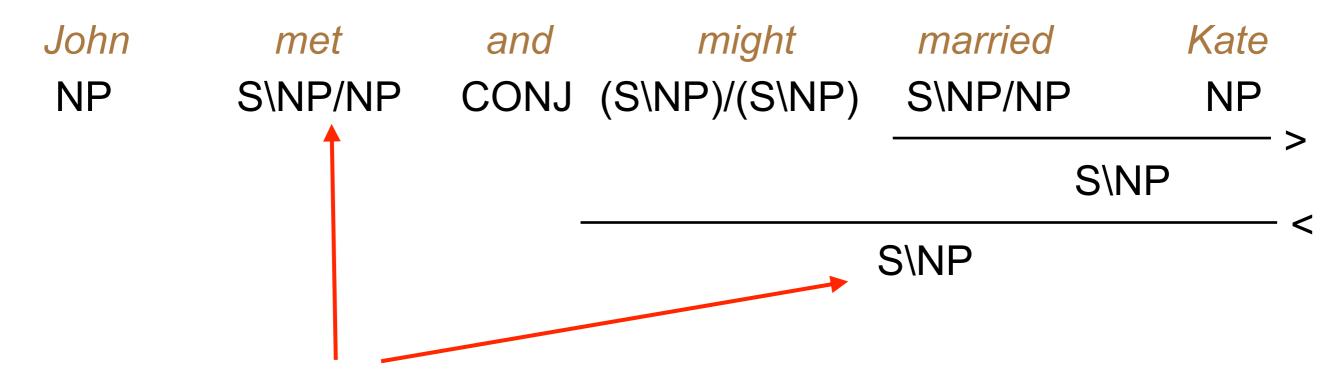


### Simple coordination



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Coordination rule: X \rightarrow X (\Phi)
```

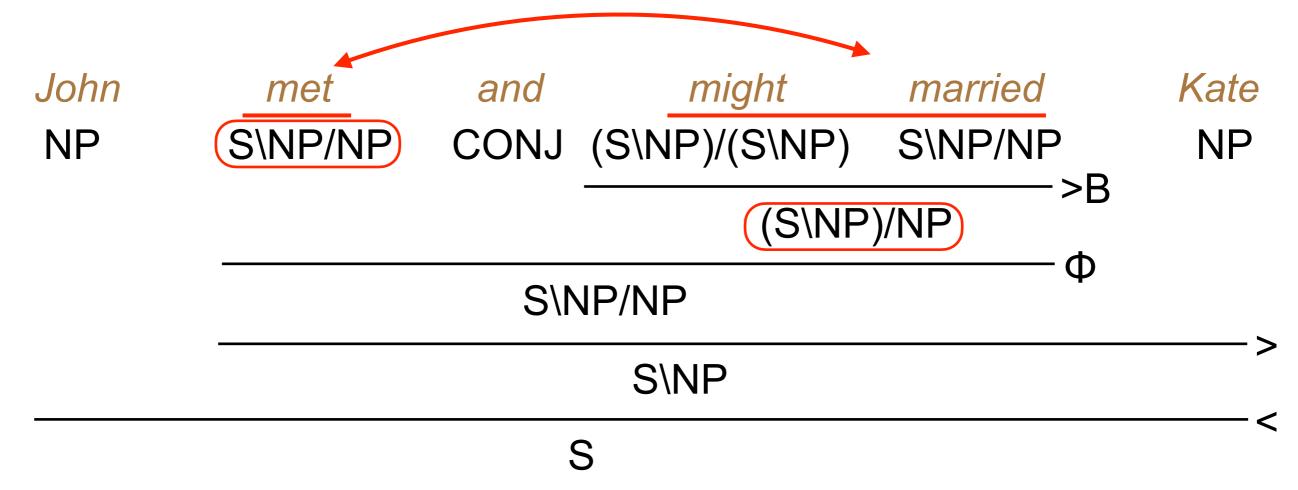
### Another coordination



Different categories

⇒ cannot apply coordination rule

### Function composition



▶ Idea: make the category of *might married* S\NP/NP, the same as *met* to apply the coordination rule

Function composition rule 
$$X/Y \quad Y/Z \quad \to \quad X/Z \quad (>B)$$
 
$$Y/Z \quad X/Y \quad \to \quad X/Z \quad ($$

# What does composition?

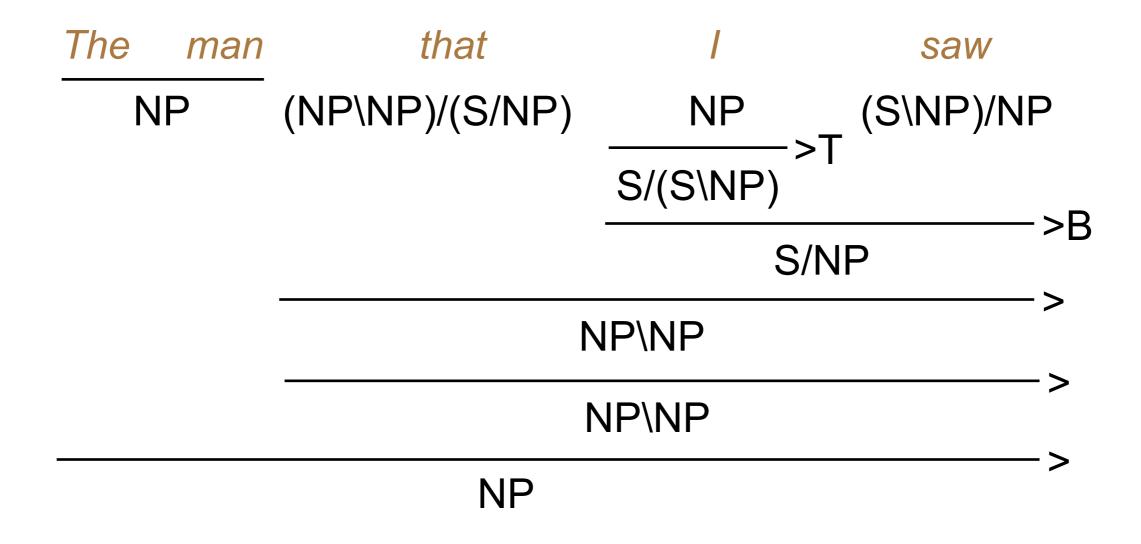
- It changes the order of function applications
- Originally, married has to take right NP (Kate), and then combines with might
- ▶ By composition, we can first combine *might* and *married*

# Another rule: type raising

```
Type raising rule  X \rightarrow T/(T\backslash X) \qquad (>T) \\ X \rightarrow T\backslash (T/X) \qquad (<T)
```

- ▶ T can be any category
- ▶ Example:  $NP \rightarrow S/(S\backslash NP)$  (>T)
  - X = NP, T = S
  - S/(S\NP) takes right S\NP (verb phrase) to become S
  - We can change the subject NP into a function receiving a verb phrase

### Type raising for relative clauses



- Type-raising and then forward composition enables the analysis of relative clauses (that, who, which)
- Again, it changes the order of filling arguments

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### What we want is logical forms

- Example:
  - Some woman ordered tea
  - Logical form: ∃x.(woman(x)∧∃y.(tea(y)∧order(x, y)))
- Different logical form for a sentence with different semantics
  - All women ordered coffee or tea
  - Logical form: ∀x.(women(x)→∃y.((tea(y)∨cofffee(y))∧order(x, y)))
- We can use these logical forms to calculate whether one sentence entails the other (next week)
- For QA, logical forms can be a query to DB

```
argmax(\lambda x.city(x) \land loc(x,CA), \lambda x.populous(x))
```

# CCG and logical forms

- One attractive property of CCG is its transparency between syntax and semantics (among syntactic theories)
- By assigning a logical form to each word, the sentence logical form can be obtained automatically
  - some: λFλG.∃x.(Fx∧Gx)
  - woman: λx.woman(x)

```
\frac{Some}{NP/N} \frac{woman}{N} > \frac{Ordered}{(S \backslash NP)/NP} \frac{\lambda y. tea(y)}{NP} |_{lex}
\frac{\lambda F \lambda G. \exists x. (Fx \wedge Gx) \quad \lambda x. woman(x)}{NP} > \frac{\lambda Q_1 \lambda Q_2. Q_2 (\lambda x. Q_1 (\lambda y. order(x, y)))}{S \backslash NP} \frac{\lambda F. \exists y. (tea(y) \wedge F(y))}{\lambda F. \exists y. (tea(y) \wedge F(y))} > \frac{\lambda Q_2. Q_2 (\lambda x. \exists y. (tea(y) \wedge order(x, y)))}{S} < \frac{\exists x. (woman(x) \wedge \exists y. (tea(y) \wedge order(x, y)))}{S}
```

tea

# Lexicon = category + logical form

- ▶ So far, each word (lexicon) is only associated with a category
  - e.g., likes: S\NP/NP
- In general, each word is associated with a category and its meaning representation (typically lambda expression)
  - likes: S\NP/NP: λy.λx.like(x,y)
- ▶ Each rule also defines how to calculate logical forms

```
Function application rules: X/Y: f Y: a \rightarrow X: fa (>) Y: a X/Y: f \rightarrow X: fa (<)
```

### Beta-reduction

When a rule is applied, the logical form is updated with betareduction

Iikes Bob  $SNP/NP: \lambda y. \lambda x. like(x,y) NP: bob$   $SNP: \lambda x. like(x,bob)$ 

- λy.λx.like(x,y) is a function that next takes y
- Forward application results in λy,λx.like(x,y) (bob)
- Substituting bob to y, we get λx.like(x,bob)

### Advantage of CCG

- Transparency between syntax and semantics (logical forms)
- Every rule defines the way to combine logical forms
- Point: we can define the way to combine logical forms because CCG only has a small number of rules
  - This is impossible for other grammars, e.g., ordinary phrase-structure grammars, where the number of rules is huge (> 100)

$$S \rightarrow NP \ VP$$
  $VP \rightarrow VP \ PP$   $NP \rightarrow DT \ NN$   $VP \rightarrow V \ NN$   $NP \rightarrow NP \ PP$   $VP \rightarrow V$   $NP \rightarrow DT$  ...

### Other rules with semantics

#### Function composition rule

```
X/Y: f Y/Z: g \rightarrow X/Z: \lambda x.f(g x) (>B)
```

$$Y \setminus Z : g \quad X \setminus Y : f \quad \rightarrow \quad X \setminus Z : \lambda x. f(g \ x) \quad ($$

#### Type raising rule

X: a 
$$\rightarrow$$
 T/(T\X):  $\lambda a.f a$  (>T)

X: a 
$$\rightarrow$$
 T\(T/X):  $\lambda a.f a$  (

# Spurious ambiguity

Important property of CCG: different syntax derivations lead to the same semantics

```
John
                                  married
                                                           Kate
         NP: john S\NP/NP: \lambda y.\lambda x.married(x,y) NP: kate
                                   S\NP: λx.married(x,kate)
                         S: married(john,kate)
         John
                                 married
                                                          Kate
        NP: john = S\NP/NP: \lambda y.\lambda x.married(x,y)
                                                         NP: kate
S/(S\NP): \lambda f.f(john)
               S/NP: λx.married(john,x)
```

S: married(john,kate)

### Beta-reduction in composition

```
S/(S\NP): \lambda f.f(john) S\NP/NP: \lambda y.\lambda x.married(x,y)
```

S/NP: λx.married(john,x)

#### Function composition rule

```
X/Y: f Y/Z: g \rightarrow X/Z: \lambda x.f(g x) (>B)
```

```
Y \setminus Z : g \quad X \setminus Y : f \quad \rightarrow \quad X \setminus Z : \lambda x. f(g \ x) \quad (<B)
```

x is already used so we avoid

```
λx'.λf.f(john) (λy.λx.married(y,x) (x'))
```

- $\Rightarrow \lambda x'.\lambda f.f(john) (\lambda x.married(x',x))$
- $\Rightarrow \lambda x'. (\lambda x.married(x',x)) (john)$
- $\Rightarrow \lambda x'.married(x',john) \Rightarrow \lambda x.married(x,john)$

### Messages

- In CCG, syntactic derivation itself is not meaningful
  - Rules are designed so that different derivations can lead to the same semantics
  - The semantics is irrelevant to the order of applications
  - Tree = "syntactic process" to obtain the semantics
- Important properties:
  - Transparency between syntax and semantics
  - Syntax is governed by a few rules, and is language independent
  - Much information is encoded into the lexicon, which is language dependent

some: NP/N:  $\lambda F \lambda G . \exists x . (Fx \land Gx)$ 

every: NP/N:  $\lambda F \lambda G. \forall x. (Gx \rightarrow Fx)$