

Natural Language Processing (CSE 447/547M): Compositional Semantics

Noah Smith

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University of Washington
`nasmith@cs.washington.edu`

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Bridging the Gap between Language and the World

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 - ▶ “can Karen eat at Schultzy’s?”

Eventually (but not today):

- ▶ deal with non-literal meanings
- ▶ expressiveness across a wide range of subject matter

A (Tiny) World Model

- ▶ **Domain:** Adrian, Brook, Chris, Donald, Schultzy's Sausage, Din Tai Fung, Banana Leaf, American, Chinese, Thai
- ▶ **Property:** Din Tai Fung has a long wait, Schultzy's is noisy; Alice, Bob, and Charles are human
- ▶ **Relations:** Schultzy's serves American, Din Tai Fung serves Chinese, and Banana Leaf serves Thai

Simple questions are easy:

- ▶ Is Schultzy's noisy?
- ▶ Does Din Tai Fung serve Thai?

A (Tiny) World Model

- ▶ **Domain:** Adrian, Brook, Chris, Donald, Schultzy's Sausage, Din Tai Fung, Banana Leaf, American, Chinese, Thai
a, b, c, d, ss, dtf, bl, am, ch, th
- ▶ **Property:** Din Tai Fung has a long wait, Schultzy's is noisy; Alice, Bob, and Charles are human
Longwait = {dtf}, Noisy = {ss}, Human = {a, b, c}
- ▶ **Relations:** Schultzy's serves American, Din Tai Fung serves Chinese, and Banana Leaf serves Thai
Serves = {(ss, am), (dtf, ch), (bl, th)}, Likes = {(a, ss), (a, dtf), ...}

Simple questions are easy:

- ▶ Is Schultzy's noisy?
- ▶ Does Din Tai Fung serve Thai?

A Quick Tour of First-Order Logic

- ▶ **Term:** a constant (ss) or a variable
- ▶ **Formula:** defined inductively ...
 - ▶ If R is an n -ary relation and t_1, \dots, t_n are terms, then $R(t_1, \dots, t_n)$ is a formula.
 - ▶ If ϕ is a formula, then its negation, $\neg\phi$, is a formula.
 - ▶ If ϕ and ψ are formulas, then binary logical connectives can be used to create formulas:
 - ▶ $\phi \wedge \psi$
 - ▶ $\phi \vee \psi$
 - ▶ $\phi \Rightarrow \psi$
 - ▶ $\phi \oplus \psi$
 - ▶ If ϕ is a formula and v is a variable, then quantifiers can be used to create formulas:
 - ▶ Universal quantifier: $\forall v, \phi$
 - ▶ Existential quantifier: $\exists v, \phi$

Note: Leaving out functions, because we don't need them in a single lecture on FOL for NL.

Translating Between FOL and NL

1. Schultzy's is not loud
2. Some human likes Chinese
3. If a person likes Thai, then they aren't friends with Donald
4. $\forall x, Restaurant(x) \Rightarrow (Longwait(x) \vee \neg Likes(a, x))$
5. $\forall x, \exists y, \neg Likes(x, y)$
6. $\exists y, \forall x, \neg Likes(x, y)$

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$\neg Noisy(ss)$

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4. $\forall x, \text{Restaurant}(x) \Rightarrow (\text{Longwait}(x) \vee \neg \text{Likes}(a, x))$
Every restaurant has a long wait or is disliked by Adrian.
5. $\forall x, \exists y, \neg \text{Likes}(x, y)$
6. $\exists y, \forall x, \neg \text{Likes}(x, y)$

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Everybody has something they don't like.
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Everybody has something they don't like.
6. $\exists y, \forall x, \neg \text{Likes}(x, y)$
There exists something that nobody likes.

Logical Semantics

(Montague, 1970)

The denotation of a NL sentence is the set of conditions that must hold in the (model) world for the sentence to be true.

Every restaurant has a long wait or Adrian doesn't like it.

is true if and only if

$$\forall x, Restaurant(x) \Rightarrow (Longwait(x) \vee \neg Likes(a, x))$$

is true.

This is sometimes called the **logical form** of the NL sentence.

The Principle of Compositionality

The meaning of a NL phrase is determined by the meanings of its sub-phrases.

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I.e., semantics is derived from syntax.

We need a way to express semantics of phrases, and compose them together!

λ -Calculus

(Much more powerful than what we'll see today; ask your PL professor!)

Informally, two extensions:

- ▶ **λ -abstraction** is another way to “scope” variables.
 - ▶ If ϕ is a FOL formula and v is a variable, then $\lambda v.\phi$ is a λ -term, meaning: an unnamed function from values (of v) to formulas (usually involving v)
- ▶ **application** of such functions: if we have $\lambda v.\phi$ and ψ , then $[\lambda v.\phi](\psi)$ is a formula.
 - ▶ It can be **reduced** by substituting ψ in for every instance of v in ϕ .

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Example:

$\lambda x.Likes(x, dtf)$ maps things to statements that they like Din Tai Fung

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Example:

$[\lambda x.Likes(x, dtf)](c)$ reduces to $Likes(c, dtf)$

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Example:

$\lambda x.\lambda y.Friends(x, y)$ maps things x to maps of things y to statements that x and y are friends

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Example:

$[\lambda x.\lambda y.Friends(x, y)](b)$ reduces to $\lambda y.Friends(b, y)$

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 - ▶ It can be **reduced** by substituting ψ in for every instance of v in ϕ .

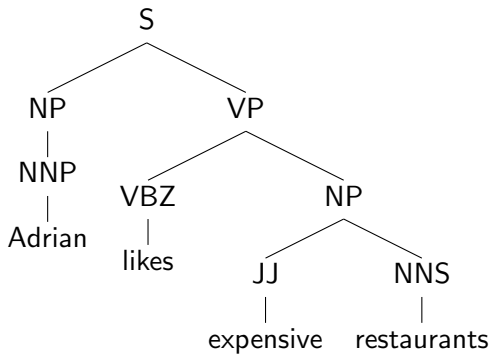
Example:

$[[\lambda x.\lambda y.Friends(x, y)](b)](a)$ reduces to $[\lambda y.Friends(b, y)](a)$, which reduces to $Friends(b, a)$

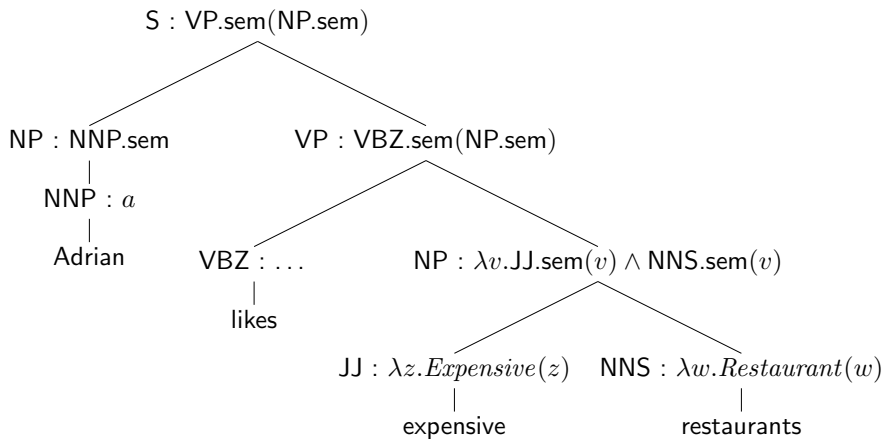
Semantic Attachments to CFG

- ▶ $\text{NNP} \rightarrow \text{Adrian } \{a\}$
- ▶ $\text{VBZ} \rightarrow \text{likes } \{\lambda f. \lambda y. \forall x f(x) \Rightarrow \text{Likes}(y, x)\}$
- ▶ $\text{JJ} \rightarrow \text{expensive } \{\lambda x. \text{Expensive}(x)\}$
- ▶ $\text{NNS} \rightarrow \text{restaurants } \{\lambda x. \text{Restaurant}(x)\}$
- ▶ $\text{NP} \rightarrow \text{NNP } \{\text{NNP.sem}\}$
- ▶ $\text{NP} \rightarrow \text{JJ NNS } \{\lambda x. \text{JJ.sem}(x) \wedge \text{NNS.sem}(x)\}$
- ▶ $\text{VP} \rightarrow \text{VBZ NP } \{\text{VBZ.sem}(\text{NP.sem})\}$
- ▶ $\text{S} \rightarrow \text{NP VP } \{\text{VP.sem}(\text{NP.sem})\}$

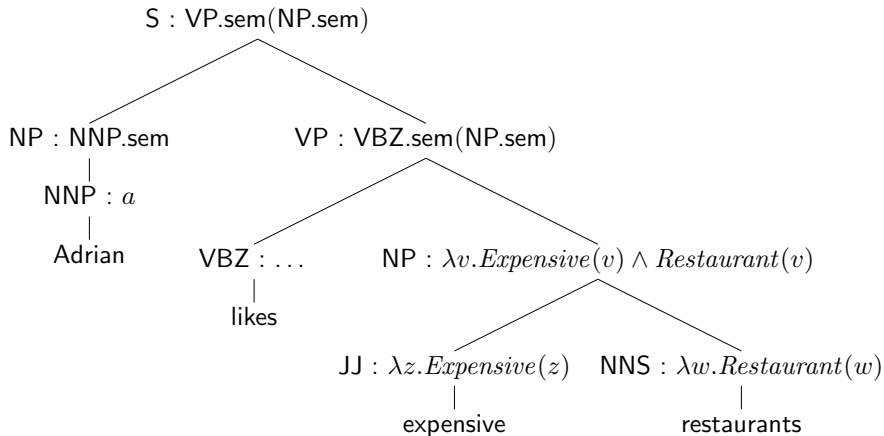
Example



Example

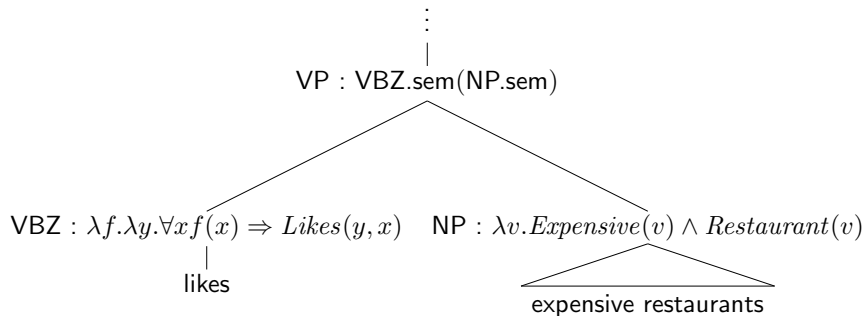


Example

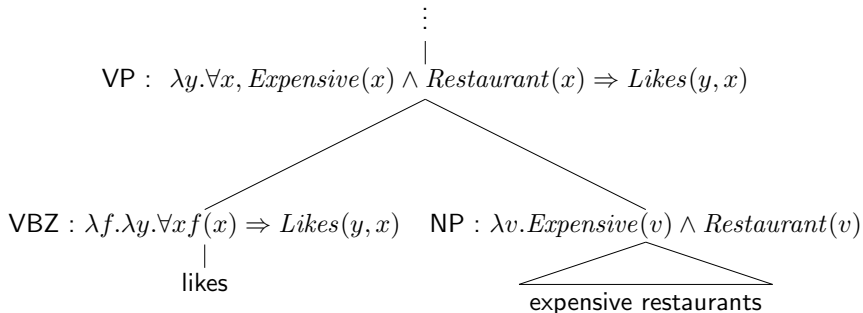


$$\lambda v. \left[\underbrace{\lambda z. \text{Expensive}(z)}_{\text{JJ.sem}} \right] (v) \wedge \left[\underbrace{\lambda w. \text{Restaurant}(w)}_{\text{NNS.sem}} \right] (v)$$

Example



Example

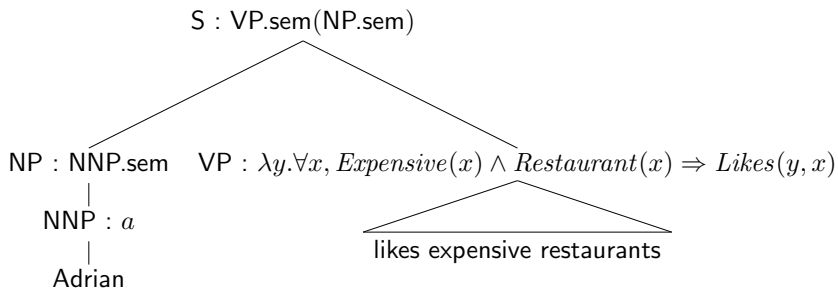


$$\left[\underbrace{\lambda f. \lambda y. \forall x f(x) \Rightarrow Likes(y, x)}_{VBZ.sem} \right] \left(\underbrace{\lambda v. Expensive(v) \wedge Restaurant(v)}_{NP.sem} \right)$$

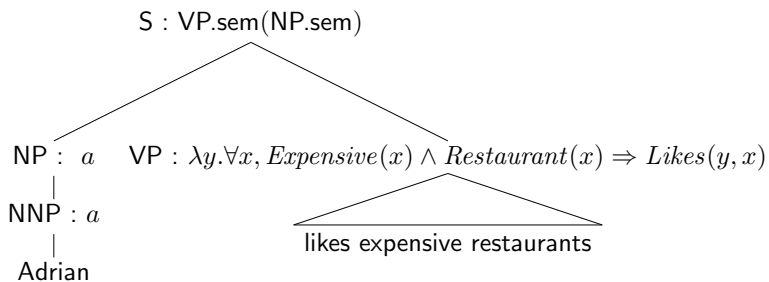
$$\lambda y. \forall x [\lambda v. Expensive(v) \wedge Restaurant(v)] (x) \Rightarrow Likes(y, x)$$

$$\lambda y. \forall x, Expensive(x) \wedge Restaurant(x) \Rightarrow Likes(y, x)$$

Example

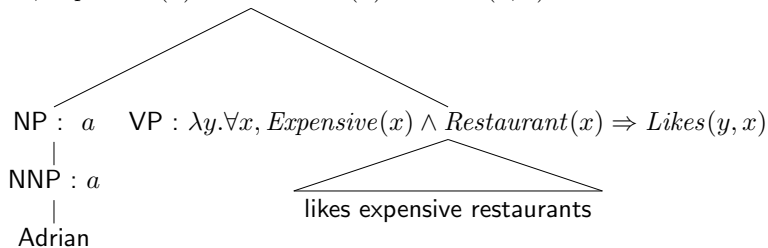


Example



Example

$S : \forall x, \text{Expensive}(x) \wedge \text{Restaurant}(x) \Rightarrow \text{Likes}(a, x)$

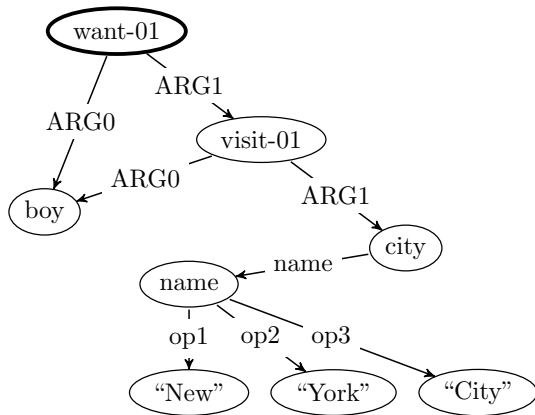


$$\left[\underbrace{\lambda y. \forall x, \text{Expensive}(x) \wedge \text{Restaurant}(x) \Rightarrow \text{Likes}(y, x)}_{\text{VP.sem}} \right] \left(\underbrace{a}_{\text{NP.sem}} \right)$$

$$\forall x, \text{Expensive}(x) \wedge \text{Restaurant}(x) \Rightarrow \text{Likes}(a, x)$$

Graph-Based Representations

Abstract Meaning Representation (Banarescu et al., 2013)



"The boy wants to visit New York City."

Designed for (1) annotation-ability and (2) eventual use in machine translation.

Combinatory Categorical Grammar

(Steedman, 2000)

CCG is a grammatical formalism that is well-suited for tying together syntax and semantics.

Formally, it is more powerful than CFG—it can represent some of the context-*sensitive* languages (which we do not have time to define formally).

CCG Types

Instead of the “ \mathcal{N} ” of CFGs, CCGs can have an infinitely large set of structured categories (called **types**).

- ▶ Primitive types: typically S, NP, N, and maybe more
- ▶ Complex types, built with “slashes,” for example:
 - ▶ S/NP is “an S, except that it lacks an NP to the right”
 - ▶ $S \backslash NP$ is “an S, except that it lacks an NP to its left”
 - ▶ $(S \backslash NP)/NP$ is “an S, except that it lacks an NP to its right, and its left”

You can think of complex types as functions, e.g., S/NP maps NPs to Ss.

CCG Combinators

Instead of the production rules of CFGs, CCGs have a very small set of generic **combinators** that tell us how we can put types together.

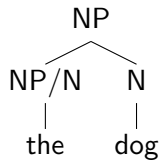
Convention writes the rule differently from CFG: $X \ Y \Rightarrow Z$ means that X and Y combine to form a Z (the “parent” in the tree).

Application Combinator

Forward $(X/Y \quad Y \Rightarrow X)$ and backward $(Y \quad X \backslash Y \Rightarrow X)$

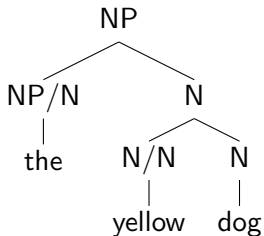
Application Combinator

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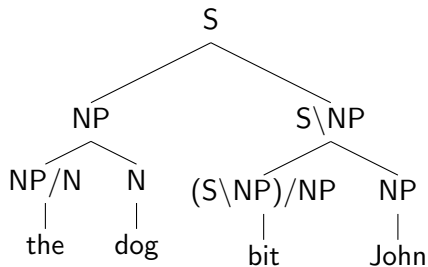
Application Combinator

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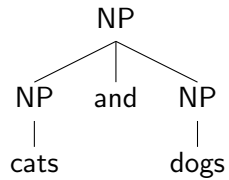
Application Combinator

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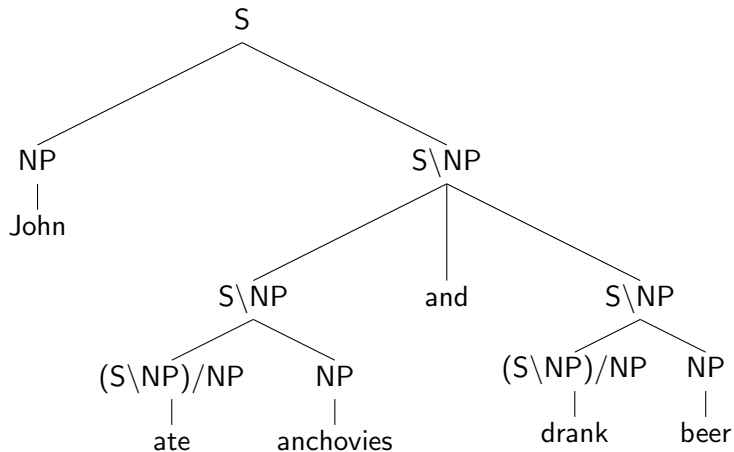
Conjunction Combinator

$X \text{ and } X \Rightarrow X$



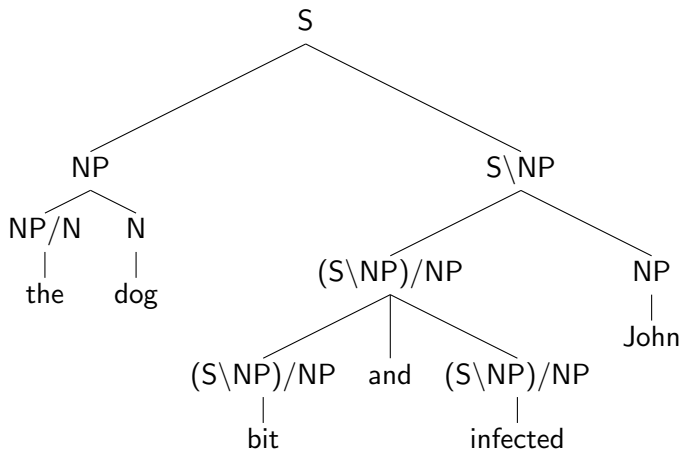
Conjunction Combinator

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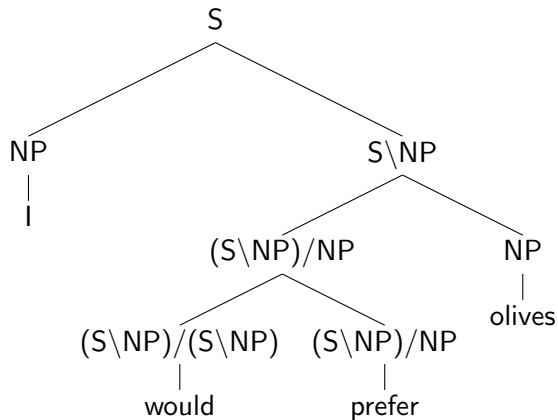
Conjunction Combinator

X and $X \Rightarrow X$



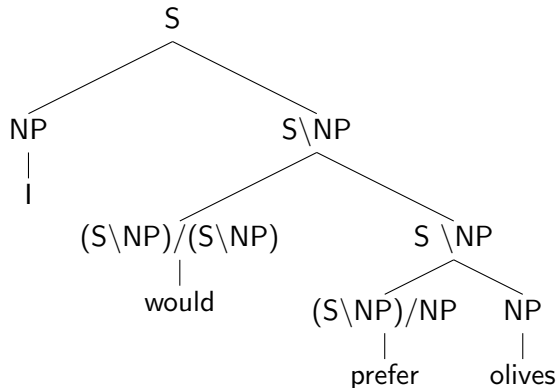
Composition Combinator

Forward $(X/Y \quad Y/Z \Rightarrow X/Z)$ and backward $(Y \backslash Z \quad X \backslash Y \Rightarrow X \backslash Z)$



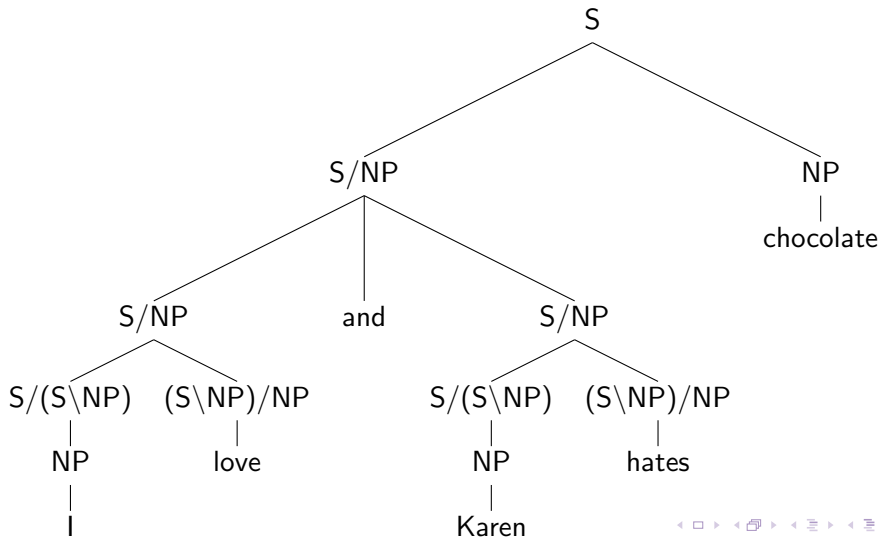
Composition Combinator

Forward ($X/Y \quad Y/Z \Rightarrow X/Z$) and backward ($Y \backslash Z \quad X \backslash Y \Rightarrow X \backslash Z$)



Type-Raising Combinator

Forward ($X \Rightarrow Y/(Y \backslash X)$) and backward ($X \Rightarrow Y \backslash (Y/X)$)



Back to Semantics

Each combinator also tells us what to do with the semantic attachments.

- ▶ Forward application: $X/Y : f \quad Y : g \Rightarrow X : f(g)$
- ▶ Forward composition: $X/Y : f \quad Y/Z : g \Rightarrow X/Z : \lambda x.f(g(x))$
- ▶ Forward type-raising: $X : g \Rightarrow Y/(Y \setminus X) : \lambda f.f(g)$

Most of the work is done in the lexicon!

Syntactic and semantic information is much more formal here.

- ▶ Slash categories define where all the syntactic arguments are expected to be
- ▶ λ -expressions define how the expected arguments get “used” to build up a FOL expression

Extensive discussion: Carpenter (1997)

Some Topics We Don't Have Time For

- ▶ Tasks, evaluations, annotated datasets (e.g., CCGbank, Hockenmaier and Steedman, 2007)
- ▶ Learning for semantic parsing (Zettlemoyer and Collins, 2005) and CCG parsing (Clark and Curran, 2004a)
- ▶ Using CCG to represent other kinds of semantics (e.g., predicate-argument structures; Lewis and Steedman, 2014)
- ▶ Integrating continuous representations in semantic parsing (Lewis and Steedman, 2013; Krishnamurthy and Mitchell, 2013)
- ▶ Supertagging (Clark and Curran, 2004b) and making semantic parsing efficient (Lewis and Steedman, 2014)
- ▶ *Grounding* meaning in visual (or other perceptual) experience

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