

Natural Language Processing

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Principle of Compositionality

- Speech sounds (or letters) form words
- Words follow each other, forming sequences
- sequences of words have an inner structure (syntax)
- meaning (semantics) can be derived from the structure

today

- consolidation:
 - Parsing (=syntactic analysis) with CFGs
 - Chomsky–Normal–Form
- compositional semantics
 - meaning representation with first–order logic
 - lambda calculus for meaning composition

Syntax and Parsing: Sentence structure and its analysis

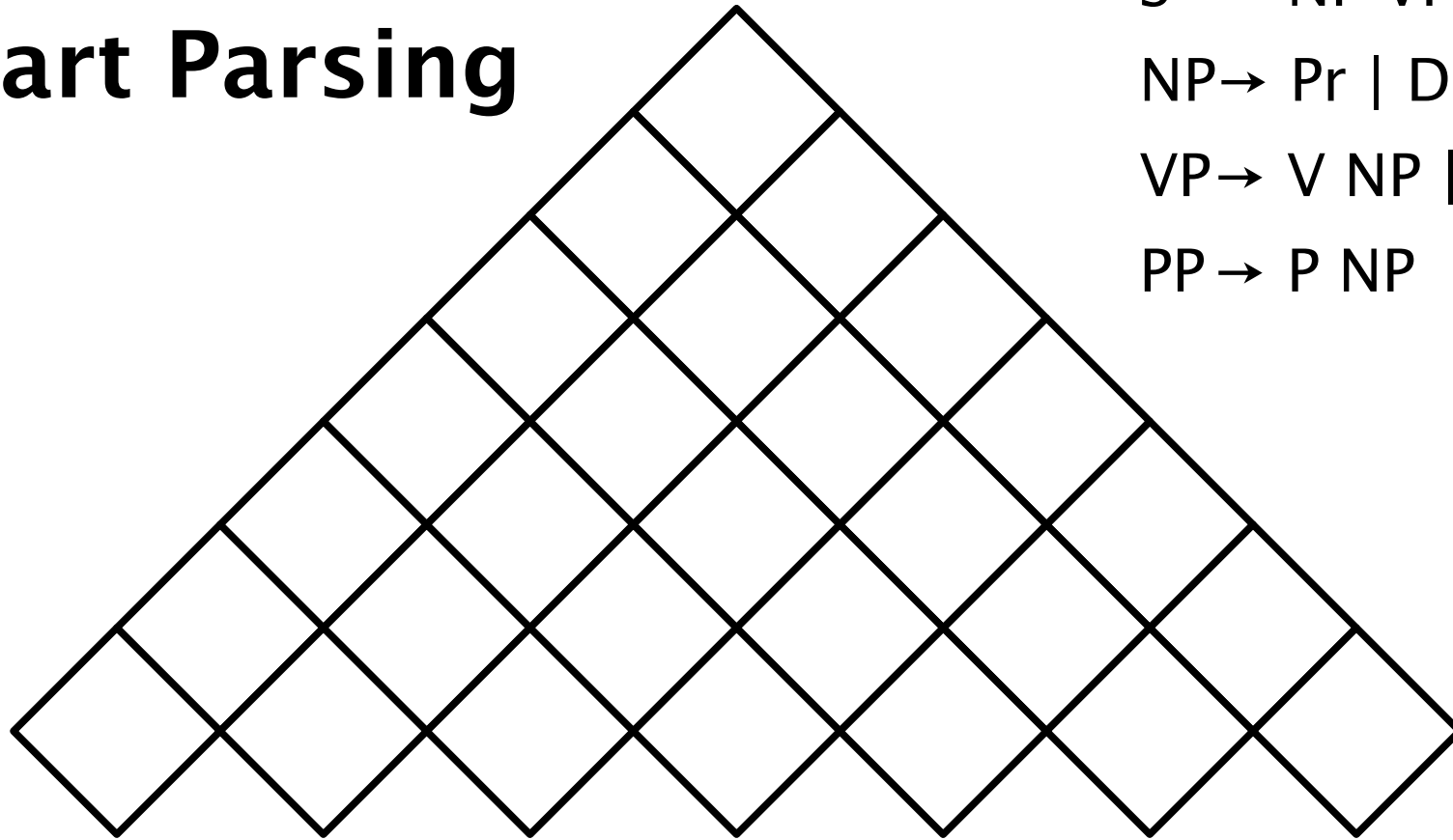
Chart Parsing

$S \rightarrow NP VP$

$NP \rightarrow Pr \mid Det N \mid NP PP$

$VP \rightarrow V NP \mid VP PP$

$PP \rightarrow P NP$



I saw her duck with the telescope

Chomsky–Normal–Form

- Rules follow one of two forms:
 - $A \rightarrow a$ (produces exactly one terminal)
 - $A \rightarrow B C$ (produces exactly 2 non-terminals)
- Linguistics/NLP also knows other rules:
 - $VP \rightarrow V NP NP$ (“kauft dem Kind ein Eis”)
“buys the child an ice-cream”

conjunctions and ellipses

“kauft dem Kind ein Eis und sich einen Eiskaffee”

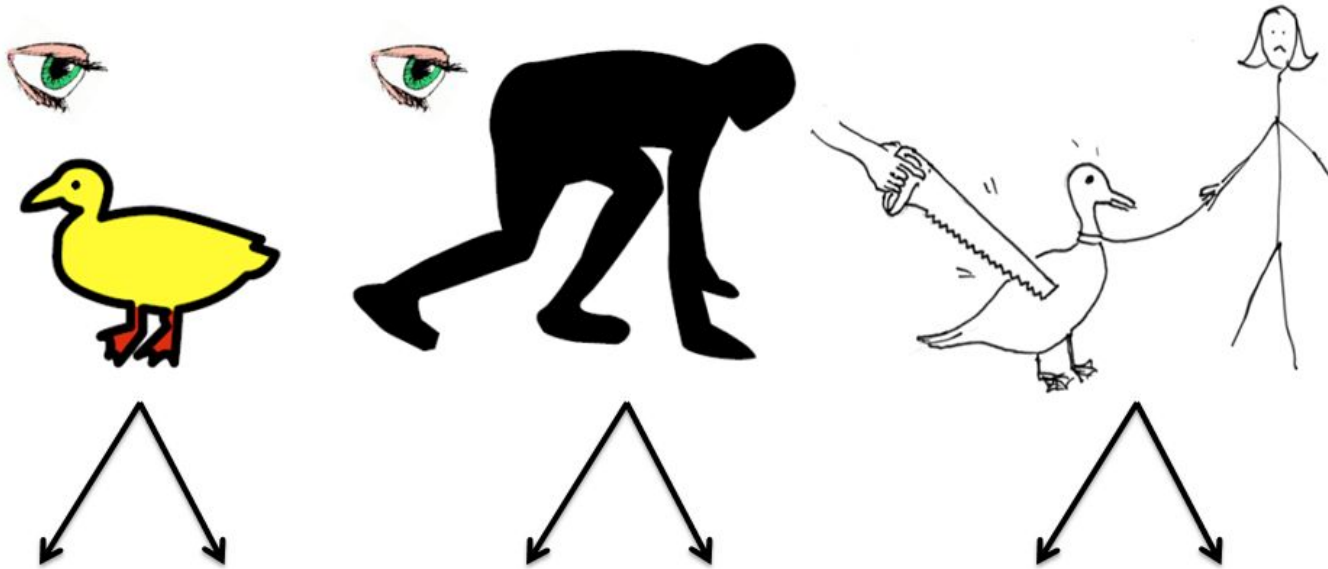
- VP → V NP NP (ditransitive verbs)
- VP → VP und VP (coordination)
- V → ε (omission of material)

normalize a grammar to be in CNF

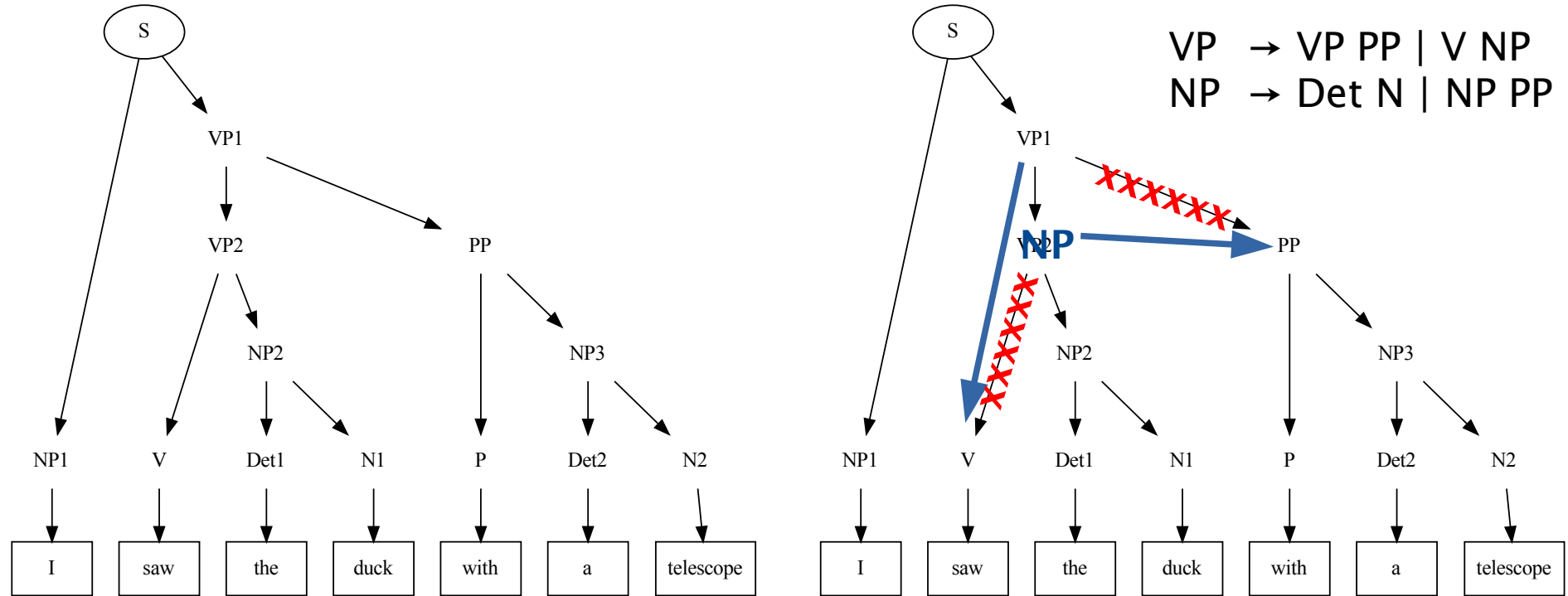
- remove terminals from “mixed” (T/NT) rules by replacing each T with a new NT
 - $VP \rightarrow VP \text{ Conj } VP$ $\text{Conj} \rightarrow \text{und}$
- rules with >2 NTs (on the right-hand-side) can be split into multiple rules:
 - $VP \rightarrow VP X$ $X \rightarrow \text{Conj } VP$
- ϵ productions: remove the NT that produces ϵ from all RHSs (it if always produces ϵ) or create alternate RHSs without the symbol
 - $VP \rightarrow V \text{ NP NP}$ $VP \rightarrow \text{NP NP}$
- chain rules: for unary rules $A \rightarrow B$, $B \rightarrow w$ add direct rule $A \rightarrow w$
 - this can be ignored because it's easy to extend CKY to handle such unary rules (although, strictly speaking, they are non-CNF rules)

Ambiguity in language

“I saw her duck with a telescope...”

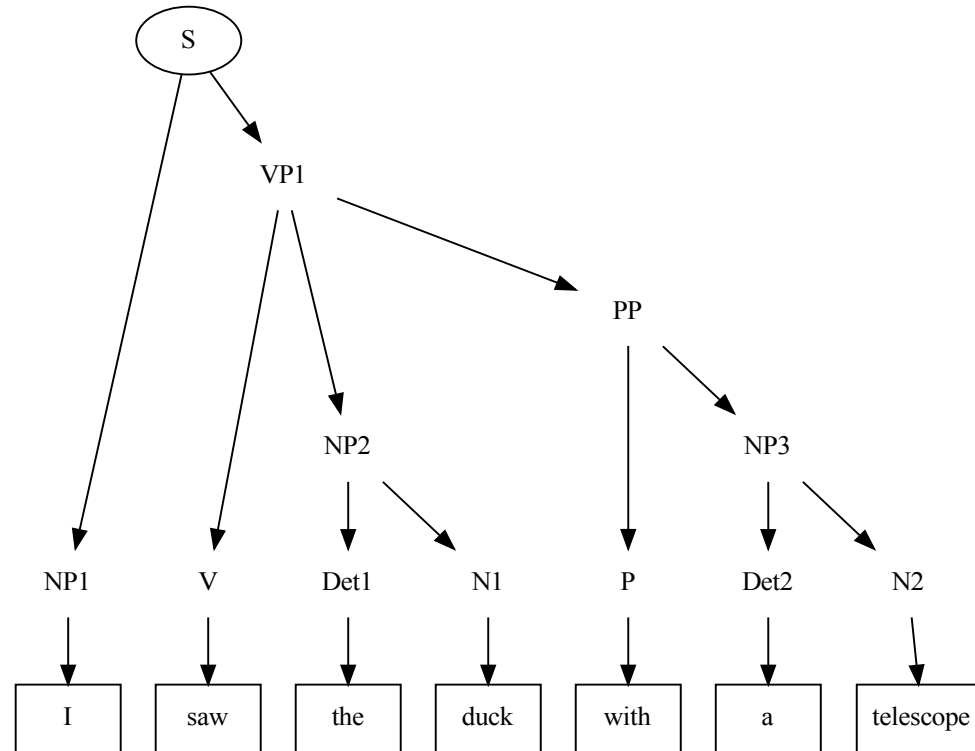


ambiguity in derivation trees

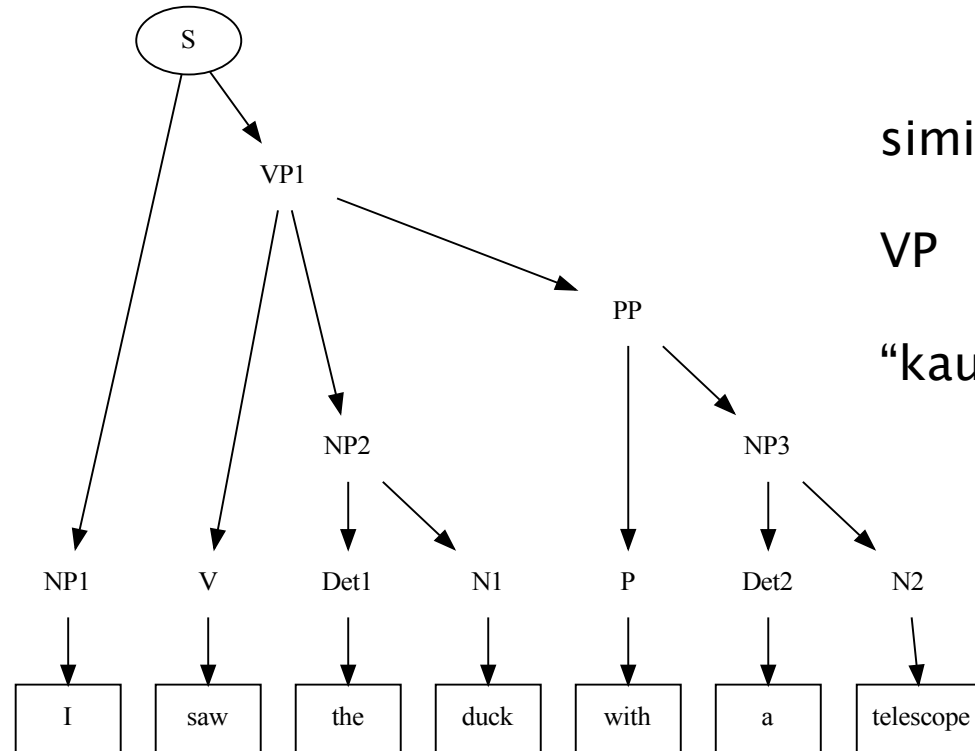


→ encode ambiguity by flattening trees

VP → V NP PP



→ encode ambiguity by flatening trees



VP → V NP PP

similarly:

VP → V NP NP

“kauft dem Kind ein Eis”

Parsing strategies

- (purely) top-down:
 - expand S until we find the full sentence (hopefully)
- bottom-up (Cocke-Kasami-Younger 1967)
 - check what can be combined (e.g. $NP \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow$ “the telescope”), hoping that we'll eventually get an S at the top
- mixed: left-corner parsing (Earley 1970)
 - expand S (top-down), such that the first (then second, third, ...) words fit the derived structure

$S \rightarrow NP VP$

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$VP \rightarrow V NP \mid V \mid VP PP$

$PP \rightarrow P NP$

I saw her duck with the telescope

limits of CFGs for syntax in NLP

- language contains structures which go beyond CFGs
(if you're looking for examples of highly complex language, Swiss German is often the language of choice)
 - see separate slide set
- agreement is difficult to model in CFGs
 - e.g.: subject–verb have to agree in person and number
→ solution: unification based grammars
- subcategorization, e.g. arity (number of open semantic slots) of verbs
 - *John found. *John disappeared the ring.

summary

- parse trees capture syntactic structure and help in deducing semantics / meaning
- CFGs are useful to describe the grammar of natural language (by and large)
- efficient computation of parse trees via dynamic programming

applications of CFGs

- most NLP applications profit from syntactic structure (it's, however, not always clear whether automatically derived structure yields a benefit)
- speech recognition grammars that can readily be semantically interpreted (e.g. in command&control applications)
- beyond NLP (e.g. parsing programming languages)

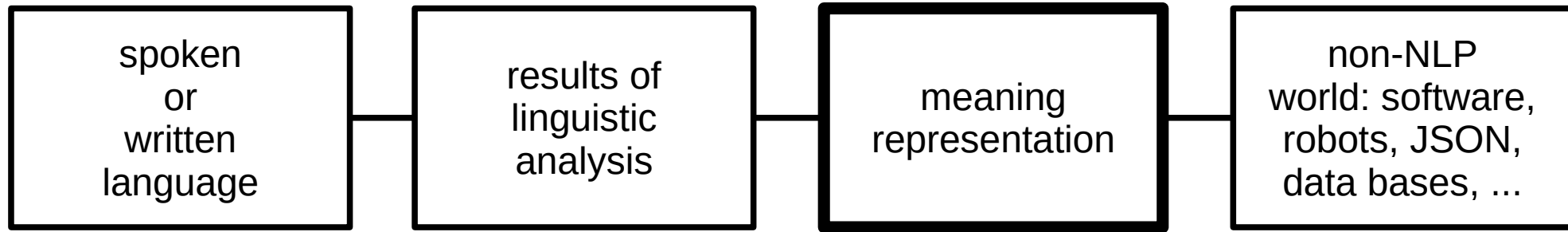
Compositional Semantics

The meaning of sentences.

The meaning of sentences.

- expressed in a meaning representation language
- should allow to express everything(?)
that can be written/spoken in a sentence
- represents knowledge about a part of the world
 - typically: objects, their properties, interrelations

meaning representation: linking natural language and the world



requirements for meaning representations

- represent knowledge about the world
- obtain knowledge from language
 - e.g. for a robot that interacts via language
- Question Answering
 - e.g. queries towards a knowledge base
- ambiguous and vague expressions
 - variability in linguistic expressivity
- fact checking
 - are statements in a text true according to our knowledge?
- argument checking
 - is a text coherent or does it contain contradictions? (regardless of our knowledge of the world)

model-based semantics

- model: simplified representation of the world (or a part thereof = domain):
objects, properties, relations
- today:
(simplified) predicate / first-order logic
- deduction that is “sound” (i.e., what can be derived is true, what is true can be derived)

first-order logic

- terms represent elements of the domain
 - constants (Peter, Klaus, ...) and variables (x, y, ...)
- predicates express properties (unary predicates) and relations (binary, ...)
 - human(x), likes(Peter, Klaus), likes(Peter, icecream), ...
 - predicates work on terms (but not on other predicates; hence first-order not higher-order logic)
- logical connectives: \wedge \vee \neg \Rightarrow (and, or, not, implies)
- quantifiers

quantifiers in first-order logic

- two ways of introducing a variable:
 - refer to any (but an existing) object in the domain
→ existential quantifier \exists
 - refer to all objects in the domain
→ universal quantifier \forall

example domain: restaurants

- “Gibt es ein vegetarisches Restaurant in der Altstadt?”
 $\exists x \text{ Restaurant}(x) \wedge \text{Küche}(x, \text{Vegetarisch}) \wedge \text{In}(x, \text{Altstadt})$
- “Restaurants nahe der Donau sind teuer oder schlecht.”
 $\forall x \text{ Restaurant}(x) \wedge \text{Nah}(x, \text{Donau}) \Rightarrow (\text{teuer}(x) \vee \text{schlecht}(x))$

example domain: restaurants II

- “die Mensa ist nicht laut.”
 $\neg \text{laut}(\text{Mensa})$
- “Manche Leute mögen Sushi.”
 $\exists x \text{ menschlich}(x) \wedge \text{mag}(x, \text{Sushi})$

logic-based (Montague)-semantics

(Richard Montague, say: Mon tuh gyoo)

- the *denotation* (=meaning) of a sentence is the set of constraints that are needed such that the sentence becomes true
- “Manche Leute mögen Sushi.”
is true, iff
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Augensuppe??

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compositionality of meaning

- constituents determine the meaning of a sentence
 - constituents are determined by syntax (context-free – or at least close!)
- we'll need to be able to express the (partial) meaning of constituents and be able to compose meaning from “sub-meanings”
- words are the smallest semantic units
 - humans store their meaning in a mental lexicon
- grammar rules come with additional rules for composing the meaning of their constituting constituents

partial meaning: Lambda calculus

- extends first-order logic with “partial formulae”
- Lambda creates an anonymous (unary) function
 - $\lambda x. \text{expression}$
 - examples:
 - $\lambda x. \text{mag}(x, \text{Sushi})$
 - $\lambda y. \lambda x. \text{mag}(x, y)$
- Lambda reduction: apply the anonymous function
 - $\lambda y. \lambda x. \text{mag}(x, y)(\text{Sushi}) = \lambda x. \text{mag}(x, \text{Sushi})$
 - $\lambda y. \lambda x. \text{mag}(x, y)(\text{Sushi})(\text{Timo}) = \text{mag}(\text{Timo}, \text{Sushi})$

semantic analysis

- general approach:
 - generate syntactic parse tree
 - look up meaning for each word (expression from lambda calculus)
 - many words will have multiple meanings
 - each grammar rule also has its meaning (in lambda calculus)
 - reconstruct the full formula (bottom-up)
 - potentially: resolve formula against world knowledge

Example

semantics: summary

- meaning representation is binding link between language and knowledge processing
 - language → meaning representation: analysis
 - meaning representation → language: generation
- represent formulae in first-order language
 - limitations such as a closed world assumption

Vielen Dank, Ihre Fragen?

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weiterführende Literatur

- Jurafsky and Martin (2009): Kapitel 15
- Eisenstein (2018): Natural Language Processing: Kapitel 12
- Carstensen et al. (2004): Abschnitt 3.6

Lehrziele

- die Studierenden erkennen die immense strukturelle Ambiguität natürlicher Sprache
- die Studierenden verstehen die Grundideen des Lambda-Kalküls und wie diese zur Modellierung der kompositionalen Semantik eingesetzt werden können
- den Studierenden sind die Beschränkungen der vorgestellten Modelle, mit Blick auf Kompositionalität und die Behandlung von Mehrdeutigkeit bewusst