

Week 11

Friday, August 12, 2016 14:12



11.1

11.01 Sentiment Analysis

NATURAL LANGUAGE PROCESSING

NLP

11.01 Sentiment Analysis

NATURAL LANGUAGE PROCESSING

Introduction to NLP

Sentiment Analysis

Popular

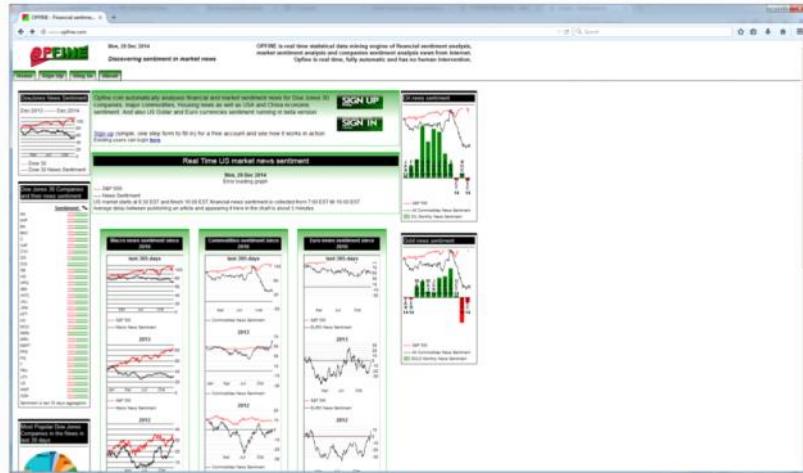
Reviews of *1Q84* by Haruki Murakami

- “*1Q84* is a tremendous feat and a triumph . . . A must-read for anyone who wants to come to terms with contemporary Japanese culture.”
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- Ambitious, sprawling and thoroughly stunning . . . Orwellian dystopia, sci-fi, the modern world (terrorism, drugs, apathy, pop novels)—all blend in this dreamlike, strange and wholly unforgettable epic.”
—Kirkus Reviews (starred review)

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Sentiment About Companies



Other Examples

- Movie reviews
- Product reviews
- Debates
 - www.createdebate.com

debates
=====

Introduction

- Many posts, blogs
- Expressing personal opinions
- Research questions
 - Subjectivity analysis → decide whether something is subjective
 - Polarity analysis (positive/negative, number of stars)
 - Viewpoint analysis (Chelsea vs. Manchester United, republican vs. democrat)
- Sentiment target
 - entity
 - aspect

Introduction

- Level of granularity
 - Document
 - Sentence
 - Attribute
- Opinion words
 - Base
 - Comparative (better, slower)



Introduction

- Just counting negative words is not enough
- Negation analysis

↓
Some are negated.

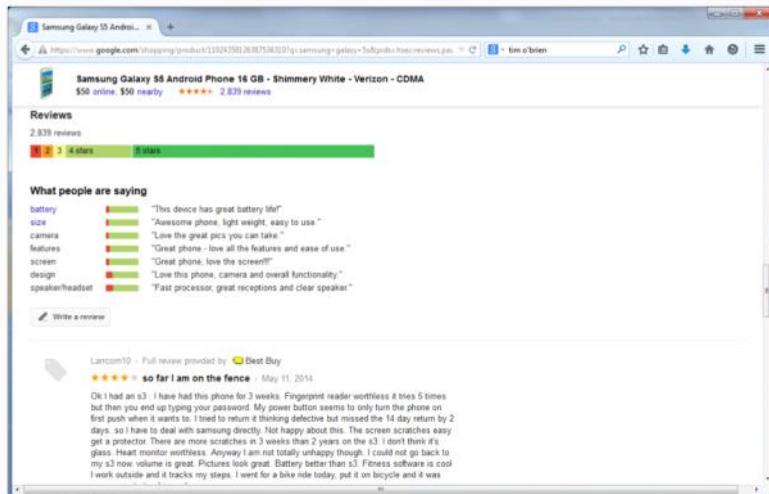
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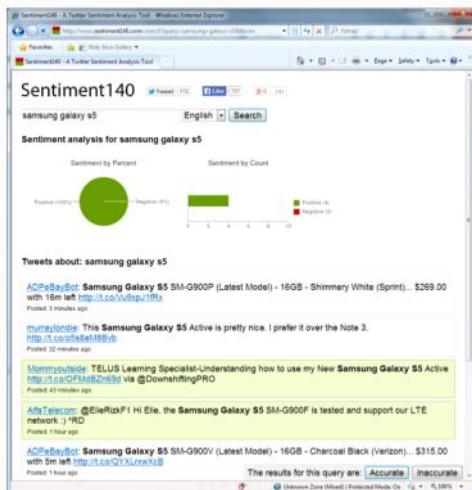
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Product Reviews



Twitter Sentiment



Problems

- Subtlety
 - Concession
 - Manipulation → 
 - Sarcasm and irony

SA as a Classification Problem

- Set of features
 - Words
 - Presence is more important than frequency
 - Punctuation
 - Phrases
 - Syntax
 - A lot of training data is available
 - E.g., movie review sentences and stars
 - <http://www.cs.cornell.edu/people/pabo/movie-review-data>
 - Techniques
 - MaxEnt ~~✓~~
 - SVM
 - Naive Bayes
- use as training dataset
Bob Pang
& Lillian Lee*

Resources

- CMU Twitter parser
 - <http://www.ark.cs.cmu.edu/TweetNLP/>



NLP



11.2



NLP

Introduction to NLP

Sentiment Lexicons

Sentiment Lexicons

- SentiWordNet
 - <http://sentiwordnet.isti.cnr.it/>
- General Inquirer
 - 2,000 positive words and 2,000 negative words
 - <http://www.wjh.harvard.edu/~inquirer/>
- LIWC
 - <http://www.liwc.net/>
- MPQA subjectivity lexicon
 - http://www.cs.pitt.edu/mpqa/subj_lexicon.html

manually built.

General Inquirer

- Annotations

- Strong Power Weak Submit Active Passive Pleasur Pain Feel Arousal EMOT Virtue Vice
 Ovrst Undrst Academ Doctrin Econ@ Exch ECON Exprsv Legal Milit Polit@ POLIT
 Relig Role COLL Work Ritual SocRel Race Kin@ MALE Female Nonadlt HU ANI PLACE
 Social Region Route Aquatic Land Sky Object Tool Food Vehicle BldgPt CommObj
 NatObj BodyPt ComForm COM Say Need Goal Try Means Persist Complet Fail NatrPro
 Begin Vary Increas Decreas Finish Stay Rise Exert Fetch Travel Fall Think Know
 Causal Ought Perceiv Compare Eval@ EVAL Solve Abs@ ABS Quality Quan NUMB ORD
 CARD FREQ DIST Time@ TIME Space POS DIM Rel COLOR Self Our You Name Yes No
 Negate Intrj IAV DAV SV IPadj IndAdj PowGain PowLoss PowEnds PowAren PowCon
 PowCoop PowAuPt PowPt PowDoct PowAuth PowOth PowTot RcEthic RcRelig RcGain
 RcLoss RcEnds RcTot RspGain RspLoss RspOth RspTot AffGain AffLoss AffPt AffOth
 AffTot WltPt WltTran WltOth WltTot WlbGain WlbLoss WlbPhys WlbPsyc WlbPt WlbTot
 EnlGain EnlLoss EnlEnds EnlOth EnlTot SklAsth SklPt SklOth SklTot TrnGain
 TrnLoss TranLw MeansLw EndsLw ArenaLw PtLw Nation Anomie NegAff PosAff
 SureLw If NotLw TimeSpc
- <http://www.webuse.umd.edu:9090/tags/>
 - Positive: able, accolade, accuracy, adept, adequate...
 - Negative: addiction, adversity, adultery, affliction, aggressive...

*Small section about
positive/negative
words*

Dictionary-based Methods

- Start from known seeds
 - e.g., happy, angry
- Expand using WordNet
 - synonyms
 - hyponyms
- Random-walk based methods
 - words with known polarity as absorbing boundary

Automatic Extraction of Sentiment Words

- Semi-supervised methods



Vasileios Hatzivassiloglou and Kathleen R. McKeown. 1997. Predicting the Semantic Orientation of Adjectives. ACL, 174–181

Molistic

- NACLO problem (2007)

Imagine that you have heard these sentences:

Jane is molistic and slatty.
 Jennifer is cluvious and brastic.
 Molly and Kyle are slatty but danty.
 The teacher is danty and cloovy.
 Mary is blitty but cloovy.
 Jeremiah is not only sloshful but also weasy.
 Even though frumsy, Jim is sloshful.
 Strungy and struffy, Diane was a pleasure to watch.
 Even though weasy, John is strungy.
 Carla is blitty but struffy.
 The salespeople were cluvious and not slatty.

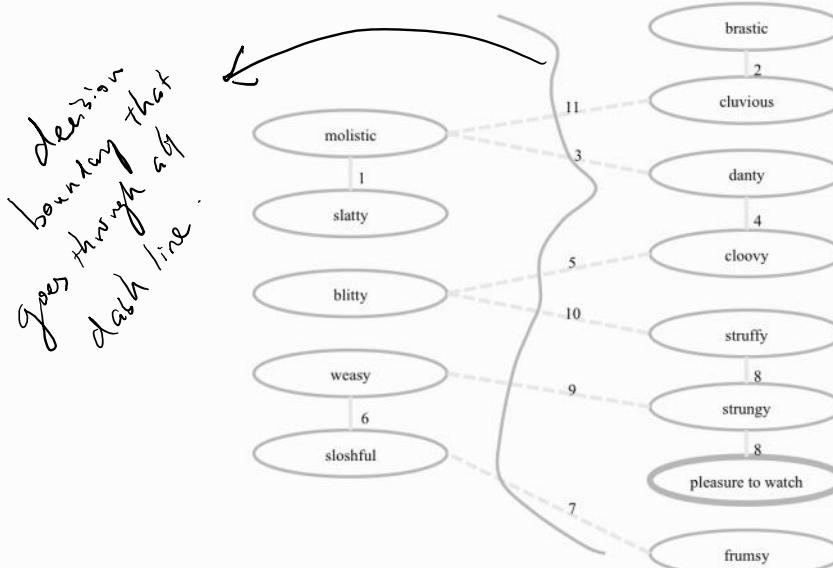
cluvious, brastic, danty
 ↓
 slatty, molistic, blitty.

A1. Then which of the following would you be likely to hear?

- a. Meredith is blitty and brastic.
- b. The singer was not only molistic but also cluvious.
- c. May found a dog that was danty but sloshful.

A2. What quality or qualities would you be looking for in a person?

- a. blitty
- b. weasy
- c. sloshful



PMI (Turney)

- PMI=pointwise mutual information
- Check how often a given unlabeled word appears with a known positive word (“excellent”)
- Same for a known negative word (“poor”)

$$\text{PMI}(word_1, word_2) = \log_2 \frac{\text{hits}(word_1 \text{ NEAR } word_2)}{\text{hits}(word_1)\text{hits}(word_2)}$$

Phy again
appear with
a known
positive
word

Dataset

- [http://www.cs.jhu.edu/~mdredze/datasets/
sentiment/](http://www.cs.jhu.edu/~mdredze/datasets/sentiment/)



NLP

fics with logic, philosophy, knowledge representation



11.3



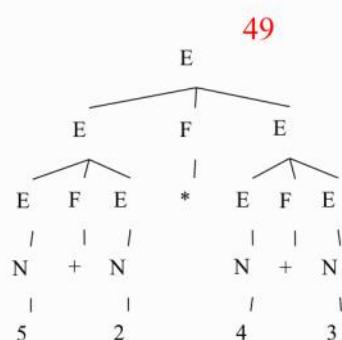
NLP

Introduction to NLP

Semantics

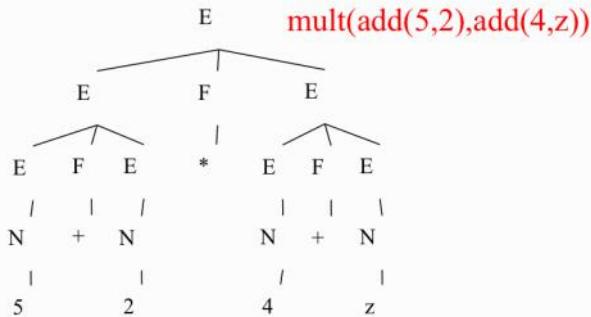
Semantics

- What is the meaning of: $(5+2)^*(4+3)$?
- Parse tree



Semantics

- What if we had $(5+2)^*(4+z)$?



What About (English) Sentences?

- Every human is mortal.
- ??

*What's the
meaning
of this sentence*

Representing Meaning

- Capturing the meaning of linguistic utterances using formal notation
- Linguistic meaning
 - “It is 8 pm”
- Pragmatic meaning
 - “It is time to leave”
- Semantic analysis:
 - Assign each word a meaning
 - Combine the meanings of words into sentences
- *I bought a book:*
 $\exists x, y: \text{Buying}(x) \wedge \text{Buyer}(\text{speaker}, x) \wedge \text{BoughtItem}(y, x) \wedge \text{Book}(y)$
Buying (Buyer=speaker, BoughtItem=book)

Entailment and Presupposition

- Entailment
 - One fact follows from another
 - “All cats have whiskers” and “Martin is a cat” entail the statement “Martin has whiskers”
 - “Martin has whiskers and a tail” entails “Martin has whiskers”
- Presupposition
 - “The Queen of Utopia is dead” presupposes that Utopia has a queen

Entailment and Presupposition

- NACLO problem from 2010
- Author: Aleka Blackwell
- <http://www.nacloweb.org/resources/problems/2010/M.pdf>
- <http://www.nacloweb.org/resources/problems/2010/MS.pdf>

Think about the meaning of the following sentence:

- (1) The 2010 Winter Olympics were in Canada.

Assuming that we only know sentence 1 to be true, is sentence 2 necessarily true?

- (2) The 2010 Winter Olympics were in Vancouver.

The answer is no. Assuming we only know sentence 1 to be true, the 2010 Winter Olympics could have taken place in any Canadian city, but not necessarily in Vancouver.

Now examine the relationship between sentences 3 and 4. Assuming sentence 3 is true, is sentence 4 now necessarily true?

- (3) The 2010 Winter Olympics were in Vancouver.
(4) The 2010 Winter Olympics were in Canada.

Now the answer is yes. Since Vancouver is a Canadian city, any event which occurs in Vancouver necessarily occurs in Canada.

The logical relationship which holds between sentences 3 and 4 is called an entailment. In formal terms, sentence A entails sentence B if whenever A is true, B is necessarily true. The entailment relationship is typically represented graphically this way: A ||- B.

Here are some more examples of the entailment relationship between sentences:

- (5) Shaun White is a Winter Olympian ||- Shaun White is an Olympian
(6) Shaun White is an Olympian ||- Shaun White is an athlete
(7) Shaun White won a gold medal ||- Someone won a gold medal

Notice that the entailment relationship must hold in the specified direction but will not necessarily hold in both directions. So, sentence 3 entails sentence 4 even though sentence 4 does not entail sentence 3.

Entailment and Presupposition

Now examine the relationship between sentences 8 and 9.

- (8) I did not see Shaun White win the gold medal in the 2010 Winter Olympics.
(9) Shaun White won the gold medal in the 2010 Winter Olympics.

Sentences 8 and 9 illustrate a relationship called presupposition. In this pair of sentences, the information presented in sentence 9 is what the speaker assumes (or presupposes) to be the case when uttering sentence 8. That is, to say "*I did not see Shaun White win the gold medal*" assumes the belief that Shaun White won a gold medal. In formal terms, sentence A presupposes sentence B if A not only implies B but also implies that the truth of B is somehow taken for granted. A presupposition of a sentence is thus part of the background against which its truth or falsity is judged. The presupposition relationship is typically represented graphically this way: A >> B

Here are some more examples of presuppositions (where the first sentence in each pair presupposes the second):

- (10) I regret not seeing Shaun White's gold medal run >> Shaun White had a gold medal run
(11) Shaun White continues to rule the halfpipe >> Shaun White had been ruling the halfpipe
(12) Snowboarding is now an Olympic sport >> Snowboarding was once not an Olympic sport

Entailment and Presupposition

For any given pair of sentences, the entailment and presupposition relationships may or may not hold, together or separately.

For each of the following possible combinations, your task is to provide one example of a pair of sentences with an explanation of your reasoning for proposing your pair of sentences as a valid and convincing example in each case.

- a. A pair of sentences in which sentence A **neither entails nor presupposes** sentence B.
- b. A pair of sentences in which sentence A **entails and presupposes** sentence B.
- c. A pair of sentences in which sentence A **presupposes but does not entail** sentence B.
- d. A pair of sentences in which sentence A **entails but does not presuppose** sentence B.

Answers

For any given pair of sentences, the entailment and presupposition relationships may or may not hold, together or separately.

- a. A pair of sentences in which sentence A **neither entails nor presupposes** sentence B.
- Shaun White is a Winter Olympian.
 - The 2010 Winter Olympics were in Vancouver.
- Explanation: Sentences A and B are unrelated.

Entailment: Given that sentence A is true, there is no way to know whether sentence B is true or false. If Shaun White is a Winter Olympian, the 2010 Winter Olympics may or may not have taken place in Vancouver. Thus, there is no entailment relationship between these two sentences.

Presupposition: When uttering sentence A, a speaker would not take sentence B for granted (or assume that sentence B is background information against which the truth or falsity of sentence A would be judged). A speaker would not utter "Shaun White is a Winter Olympian" and assume the belief/take for granted that the 2010 Winter Olympics were in Vancouver.

- b. A pair of sentences in which sentence A **entails and presupposes** sentence B.
- Shaun White continues to rule the halfpipe.
 - Shaun White had been ruling the halfpipe.

Entailment: If sentence A is true, sentence B is necessarily true. The entailment relationship between these sentences relies on the meaning of the verb *continue* – to *continue to rule* the halfpipe. Shaun White had to be ruling the halfpipe already. Thus, sentence A entails sentence B.

Presupposition: When uttering sentence A, a speaker would take sentence B for granted (or assume that sentence B is background information against which the truth or falsity of sentence A would be judged). A speaker who utters "Shaun White continues to rule the halfpipe" assumes the belief/takes for granted that Shaun White had been ruling the halfpipe. Thus, sentence A presupposes sentence B.

Entailment and Presupposition

- c. A pair of sentences in which sentence A **presupposes but does not entail** sentence B.
- I did not see Shaun White win the gold medal in the 2010 Winter Olympics.
 - Shaun White won the gold medal in the 2010 Winter Olympics.

Entailment: If sentence A is true, sentence B *may or may not* be true. The absence of an entailment relationship between these sentences relies on the words "did not see" – if it is true that I *did not see* Shaun White *win* the gold medal, then Shaun White *may or may not* have won the gold medal. Thus, sentence A does not entail sentence B.

Presupposition: When uttering sentence A, a speaker would take sentence B for granted (or assume that sentence B is background information against which the truth or falsity of sentence A would be judged). Specifically, a speaker who utters "I did not see Shaun White win the gold medal in the 2010 Winter Olympics" assumes the belief that Shaun White did actually win the gold medal in the 2010 Winter Olympics. Thus, sentence A presupposes sentence B.

Entailment and Presupposition

- d. A pair of sentences in which sentence A **entails** but **does not presuppose** sentence B.
- Shaun White did not win the gold medal in the 2010 Winter Olympics.
 - Shaun White did not both win the gold medal in the 2010 Winter Olympics and injure his ankle.

Entailment: If Shaun White did not win the gold medal in the 2010 Winter Olympics, then he necessarily did not *both* win that gold medal *and* injure his ankle, since he definitely did not win the gold medal. If one fact is not the case (the fact presented in sentence A), then both facts cannot be the case, either (the fact presented in sentence A + the new fact added to it in sentence B). Thus if sentence A is true, sentence B is *necessarily* true. Thus, sentence A entails sentence B.

Presupposition: When uttering sentence A, a speaker would not take sentence B for granted (or assume that sentence B is a background against which the truth or falsity of sentence A would be judged). Specifically, by uttering "Shaun White did not win the gold medal in the 2010 Winter Olympics" a speaker could not assume the belief that Shaun White did not both win the gold and injure his ankle, or that Shaun White either won a gold medal or injured his ankle. Whether Shaun White injured his ankle would not be information taken for granted when uttering "Shaun White did not win the gold medal in the 2010 Winter Olympics." Thus, sentence A does not presuppose sentence B.

NLP



NLP

Introduction to NLP

*Representing and Understanding
Meaning*

Understanding Meaning

- If an agent hears a sentence and can act accordingly, the agent is said to understand it
- Example
 - Leave the book on the table
- Understanding may involve inference
 - Maybe the book is wrapped in paper?
- And pragmatics
 - Which book? Which table?
- So, understanding may involve a procedure

Properties

- Verifiability
 - Can a statement be verified against a knowledge base (KB)
 - Example: does my cat Martin have whiskers?
- Unambiguousness
 - Give me the book
 - Which book?
- Canonical form
- Expressiveness
 - Can the formalism express temporal relations, beliefs, ...?
 - Is it domain-independent?
- Inference

Representing Meaning

- One traditional approach is to use logic representations, e.g., FOL (first order logic)
- One can then use theorem proving (inference) to determine whether one statement entails another

Logic rep.

Syntax of Propositional Logic

- The simplest type of logic
- The proposition symbols P_1, P_2, \dots are sentences
 - If S is a sentence, $\neg S$ is a sentence (negation)
 - If S_1 and S_2 are sentences, $S_1 \wedge S_2$ is a sentence (conjunction)
 - If S_1 and S_2 are sentences, $S_1 \vee S_2$ is a sentence (disjunction)
 - If S_1 and S_2 are sentences, $S_1 \Rightarrow S_2$ is a sentence (implication)
 - If S_1 and S_2 are sentences, $S_1 \Leftrightarrow S_2$ is a sentence (biconditional)

Propositional Logic in Backus Naur Form

- Sentence \rightarrow AtomicSentence | ComplexSentence
- AtomicSentence \rightarrow True | False | S | T | U ...
- ComplexSentence \rightarrow (Sentence)
 - | \neg Sentence
 - | Sentence \wedge Sentence
 - | Sentence \vee Sentence
 - | Sentence \Rightarrow Sentence
 - | Sentence \Leftrightarrow Sentence

Conjunction
disjunction

Operator Precedence

\neg (highest)
 \wedge
 \vee
 \Rightarrow
 \Leftrightarrow (lowest)

Translating Propositions to English

- A = Today is a holiday.
 - B = We are going to the park.
-
- $A \Rightarrow B$
 - $A \wedge \neg B$
 - $\neg A \Rightarrow B$
 - $\neg B \Rightarrow A$
 - $B \Rightarrow A$

(ορισμός)

Translating Propositions to English

- A = Today is a holiday.
 - B = We are going to the park.
-
- $A \Rightarrow B$
If today is a holiday, we are going to the park.
 - $A \wedge \neg B$
Today is a holiday and we are not going to the park.
 - $\neg A \Rightarrow \neg B$
If today is not a holiday, then we are not going to the park.
 - $\neg B \Rightarrow \neg A$
If we are not going to the park, then today is not a holiday.
 - $B \Rightarrow A$
If we are going to the park, then today is a holiday.

Semantics of Propositional Logic

- $\neg S$ is true iff S is false
- $S_1 \wedge S_2$ is true iff S_1 is true and S_2 is true
- $S_1 \vee S_2$ is true iff S_1 is true or S_2 is true
- $S_1 \Rightarrow S_2$ is true iff S_1 is false or S_2 is true
- i.e., is false iff S_1 is true and S_2 is false
- $S_1 \Leftrightarrow S_2$ is true iff $S_1 \Rightarrow S_2$ is true and $S_2 \Rightarrow S_1$ is true
- Recursively, one can compute the truth value of longer formulas

log: v, ~

Connectives

P	Q	$\neg P$	$P \wedge Q$	$P \vee Q$	$P \Rightarrow Q$	$P \Leftrightarrow Q$
F	F	T	F	F	T	T
F	T	T	F	T	T	F
T	F	F	F	T	F	F
T	T	F	T	T	T	T

*P false
Q true
P true
Q false
P false
Q false
P true
Q true*

Logical Equivalence

- $(\alpha \wedge \beta) \equiv (\beta \wedge \alpha)$ commutativity of \wedge
 $(\alpha \vee \beta) \equiv (\beta \vee \alpha)$ commutativity of \vee
 $((\alpha \wedge \beta) \wedge \gamma) \equiv (\alpha \wedge (\beta \wedge \gamma))$ associativity of \wedge
 $((\alpha \vee \beta) \vee \gamma) \equiv (\alpha \vee (\beta \vee \gamma))$ associativity of \vee
 $\neg(\neg\alpha) \equiv \alpha$ double-negation elimination
 $(\alpha \Rightarrow \beta) \equiv (\neg\beta \Rightarrow \neg\alpha)$ contraposition
 $(\alpha \Rightarrow \beta) \equiv (\neg\alpha \vee \beta)$ implication elimination
 $(\alpha \Leftrightarrow \beta) \equiv ((\alpha \Rightarrow \beta) \wedge (\beta \Rightarrow \alpha))$ biconditional elimination
 $\neg(\alpha \wedge \beta) \equiv (\neg\alpha \vee \neg\beta)$ de Morgan
 $\neg(\alpha \vee \beta) \equiv (\neg\alpha \wedge \neg\beta)$ de Morgan
 $(\alpha \wedge (\beta \vee \gamma)) \equiv ((\alpha \wedge \beta) \vee (\alpha \wedge \gamma))$ distributivity of \wedge over \vee
 $(\alpha \vee (\beta \wedge \gamma)) \equiv ((\alpha \vee \beta) \wedge (\alpha \vee \gamma))$ distributivity of \vee over \wedge

NLP



NLP

Introduction to NLP

First Order Logic

Properties of Propositional Logic

- Pros
 - Compositional
 - Declarative
- Cons
 - Limited expressive power
 - Represents facts

First Order Logic

- Used to represent
 - Objects – Martin the cat
 - Relations – Martin and Moses are brothers
 - Functions – Martin's age

First Order Logic

- $Formula \rightarrow AtomicFormula \mid Formula\ Connective\ Formula$
 $\quad \mid Quantifier\ Variable\ Formula \mid \neg Formula \mid$
 $\quad (Formula)$
- $AtomicFormula \rightarrow Predicate\ (Term\dots)$
- $Term \rightarrow Function\ (Term\dots) \mid Constant \mid Variable$
- $Connective \rightarrow \wedge \mid \vee \mid \Rightarrow$
- $Quantifier \rightarrow \forall \mid \exists$
- $Constant \rightarrow M \mid Martin$
- $Variable \rightarrow x \mid y \mid \dots$
- $Predicate \rightarrow Likes \mid Eats \mid \dots$
- $Function \rightarrow AgeOf \mid ColorOf \mid \dots$

Common Mistake (1)



- \Rightarrow is the main connective with \forall
- Common mistake: using \wedge as the main connective with \forall :

$\forall x \text{ Cat}(x) \wedge \text{EatsFish}(x)$

means “Everyone is a cat and everyone eats fish”

$$\overline{\forall x \text{ Cat}(x)} \wedge \text{EatsFish}(x)$$

Common Mistake (2)

- \wedge is the main connective with \exists
- Common mistake: using \Rightarrow as the main connective with \exists :

$\exists x \text{ Cat}(x) \Rightarrow \text{EatsFish}(x)$

is true if there is anyone who is not a cat!

First Order Logic

- NACLO problem from 2014
- Author: Ben King
- <http://www.nacloweb.org/resources/problems/2014/N2014-H.pdf>
- <http://www.nacloweb.org/resources/problems/2014/N2014-HS.pdf>

First Order Logic

(H) Bertrand and Russell (1/3) [10 points]

Teachers can be hard to understand sometimes. Case in point, the math teacher, Mr. Whitehead. Just this morning, he told the class, "It's not the case that if at least one student studied for the test, then every student failed the test." What does that even mean?

Well, the two new kids in the class, Bertrand and Russell, have come up with a plan to make sense of Mr. Whitehead's statements. They call it first-order logic (FOL), a way to map these confusing statements into an unambiguous representation. Bertrand says the whole system is built the idea of propositions, a statement that is either true or false. Propositions can be statements about people or things like `studied_for(john, test)` or `is_hard(test)`. Propositions can also be combined to make more complex statements with the following symbols:

Symbol	Example statement	Interpretation	Explanation
\neg	$\neg \text{studied_for}(\text{john}, \text{test})$	John did <u>not</u> study for the test.	The statement is true if and only if John did not study for the test.
\wedge	$\text{is_hard}(\text{test}) \wedge \text{is_long}(\text{test})$	The test is long <u>and</u> hard.	This statement is true whenever the test is long and the test is hard.
\vee	$\text{is_hard}(\text{test}) \vee \text{is_long}(\text{test})$	The test is long <u>or</u> hard.	This statement is true if the test is long, or if the test is hard, or both.
\Rightarrow	$\text{studied_for}(\text{john}, \text{test}) \Rightarrow \text{aced}(\text{john}, \text{test})$	If John studied for the test, <u>then</u> he aced it.	This is true if the statement on the right side of the arrow is always true whenever the statement on the left side of the arrow is true. If the statement on the left is false, then the whole statement is true by default (if John didn't study, we don't know how he did on the test).

"But," says Russell, "the most important part of first-order logic is the quantifiers." Quantifiers allow you to make general statements like Mr. Whitehead loves to do.

Symbol	Example statement	Interpretation	Explanation
\forall	$[\forall_x : \text{student}(x) \Rightarrow \text{studied_for}(x, \text{test})]$	Every student studied for the test.	The \forall symbol makes a statement about every possible object (whether a student or not). It temporarily gives it the name x to make such a statement. We use the \Rightarrow symbol because we don't want to make any claims about whether non-students studied.
\exists	$[\exists_x : \text{student}(x) \wedge \text{aced}(x, \text{test})]$	There exists at least one student who aced the test.	The \exists symbol makes the claim that there is at least one (possibly more) object in the universe, temporarily called x , that satisfies the statement listed.

Bertrand and Russell also note that there are also a couple other things we can say about individuals (but not propositions or quantifiers). For example, if the names Jonathan and Jon both refer to the same person, we can say $\text{Jon} = \text{Jonathan}$. If we want to emphasize that John and Jon are different people, we can say $\text{John} \neq \text{Jon}$.

H1. Translate Mr. Whitehead's statements into first-order logic by finding the proposition below that is equivalent to each statement and writing the letter of the proposition in the blank. Each statement has exactly one correct answer; not every proposition will be used.

(3)

- | | |
|---|---|
| D | Everyone either passed or failed the test. |
| E | Every student did not pass the test. |
| B | Exactly one student passed the test. |
| A | A student did not pass the test. |
| C | It is not the case that if at least one student studied for the test, then every student failed the test. |

- | | |
|----|---|
| A. | $[\exists_x : \text{student}(x) \wedge \neg \text{passed}(x, \text{test})]$ |
| B. | $[\exists_x : \text{student}(x) \wedge \text{passed}(x, \text{test}) \wedge [\forall_y : \text{passed}(y, \text{test}) \Rightarrow x = y]]$ |
| C. | $[\exists_x : \text{student}(x) \wedge \text{passed}(x, \text{test}) \wedge [\exists_y : \text{passed}(y, \text{test}) \wedge x = y]]$ |
| D. | $[\forall_x : \text{passed}(x, \text{test}) \vee \text{failed}(x, \text{test})]$ |
| E. | $\neg ([\exists_x : \text{student}(x) \wedge \text{studied_for}(x, \text{test})] \Rightarrow [\forall_x : \text{student}(x) \Rightarrow \text{failed}(x, \text{test})])$ |
| F. | $[\exists_x : \text{passed}(x, \text{test}) \wedge \text{failed}(x, \text{test})]$ |
| G. | $[\forall_x : \neg \text{student}(x) \Rightarrow \text{passed}(x, \text{test})]$ |
| H. | $[\exists_x : \text{student}(x) \wedge \text{studied_for}(x, \text{test})] \Rightarrow \neg [\forall_x : \text{student}(x) \Rightarrow \text{failed}(x, \text{test})]$ |
| I. | $\neg [\exists_x : \text{student}(x) \wedge \neg \text{passed}(x, \text{test})]$ |
| J. | $[\forall_x : \text{student}(x) \Rightarrow \neg \text{passed}(x, \text{test})]$ |

H2. Translate first-order logic propositions into their equivalent English sentences by finding the statement below that is equivalent to each proposition and writing the letter of the statement in the blank. Each proposition has exactly one correct answer; not every statement will be used.

$[\forall_x : \text{student}(x) \Rightarrow \text{studied_for}(x, \text{test})] \vee [\forall_y : \text{student}(y) \Rightarrow \text{passed}(y, \text{test})]$
$[\forall_x : \text{student}(x) \Rightarrow [\text{studied_for}(x, \text{test}) \vee \text{passed}(x, \text{test})]]$
$[\forall_x : (\text{test}(x) \wedge \text{long}(x)) \Rightarrow \text{hard}(x)]$
$[\exists_x : \text{test}(x) \wedge (\text{long}(x) \vee \text{hard}(x))]$
$[\forall_x : \text{test}(x) \wedge \neg (\text{long}(x) \wedge \text{hard}(x)) \Rightarrow \neg [\forall_y : \text{student}(y) \Rightarrow \text{failed}(y, x)]]$

- | | |
|----|---|
| A. | There is a test that is long or hard. |
| B. | If a test is not long and not hard, then every student did not fail it. |
| C. | Every student studied for or passed the test. |
| D. | Every test that is long is also hard. |
| E. | Every student studied for the test or every student passed the test. |
| F. | If there is a test that is hard or not long, then at least one student failed it. |
| G. | Every test is long and hard. |
| H. | If a test is not both long and hard, then not every student failed it. |

Solutions

1. D
 J
 B
 A
 E

2. E
 C
 D
 A
 H

Lambda Expressions

- Example

– $\text{inc}(x) = \lambda x \ x+1 \rightarrow \text{take argument } x \text{ and return } x+1$

– then $\text{inc}(4) = (\lambda x \ x+1)(4) = 5$

- Example

– $\text{add}(x,y) = \lambda x, \lambda y (x+y)$

– then $\text{add}(3,4) = (\lambda x, \lambda y (x+y))(3)(4) = (\lambda y (3+y))(4) =$

$3+4 = \underline{\underline{12}} \ ?!$

- Useful for semantic parsing (see later)

What does λ stand for?
function?
 λx expand.

NLP





NLP



Introduction to NLP

Knowledge Representation

Knowledge Representation

- Ontologies relationships between objects.
- Categories and objects
- Events
- Times
- Beliefs

Knowledge Representation

- Object
 - Martin the cat
- Categories
 - Cat
- Ontology
 - Mammal includes Cat, Dog, Whale
 - Cat includes PersianCat, ManxCat
- ISA relation
 - ISA (Martin,Cat)

object in a category
- AKO relation
 - AKO (PersianCat,Cat)

A kind of
- HASA relation
 - HASA (Cat, tail)

two obj. PersianCat is a kind of cat.
all cats have tails

Semantics of FOL

- FOL sentences can be assigned a value of *true* or *false*.

$\text{ISA}(\text{Milo}, \text{Cat}) = \text{true}$

- Milo is younger than Martin

$\text{<}(\text{AgeOf}(\text{Milo}), \text{AgeOf}(\text{Martin})) = \text{true}$

$\text{=}(\text{AgeOf}(\text{Milo}), \text{AgeOf}(\text{Martin})) = \text{false}$

Examples with Quantifiers

- All cats eat fish

$\forall x: \text{ISA}(x, \text{Cat}) \Rightarrow \text{EatFish}(x)$

Representing Events

- Martin ate
- Martin ate in the morning
- Martin ate fish
- Martin ate fish in the morning

One Possible Representation

- FOL representations
 - Eating1(Martin)
 - Eating2(Martin,Morning)
 - Eating3(Martin,Fish)
 - Eating4(Martin,Fish,Morning)
 - Meaning postulates
 - Eating4(x,y,z) \rightarrow Eating3(x,y)
 - Eating4(x,y,z) \rightarrow Eating2(x,z)
 - Eating4(x,y,z) \rightarrow Eating1(x)
- predicate. hard to get such predicates*
- many types & freq.
Can't exhaust all*

Example from Jurafsky and Martin

X Second Possible Representation

- Eating4(x,y,z)
 - With some arguments unspecified
- Problems
 - Too many commitments
 - Hard to combine Eating4(Martin,Fish,z) with Eating4(Martin,y,Morning)

Example from Jurafsky and Martin

✓ Third Possible Representation

- Reification
 - $\exists e: \text{ISA}(e, \text{Eating}) \wedge \text{Eater}(e, \text{Martin}) \wedge \text{Eaten}(e, \text{Fish})$

Example from Jurafsky and Martin

Representing Time

- Example

- Martin went from the kitchen to the yard
- ISA(e,Going) \wedge Goer(e,Martin) \wedge Origin (e,kitchen) \wedge Target (e,yard)

- Issue

- no tense information: past? present? future?

- Fluents

- A predicate that is true at a given time: $T(f,t)$

Representing Time

two events

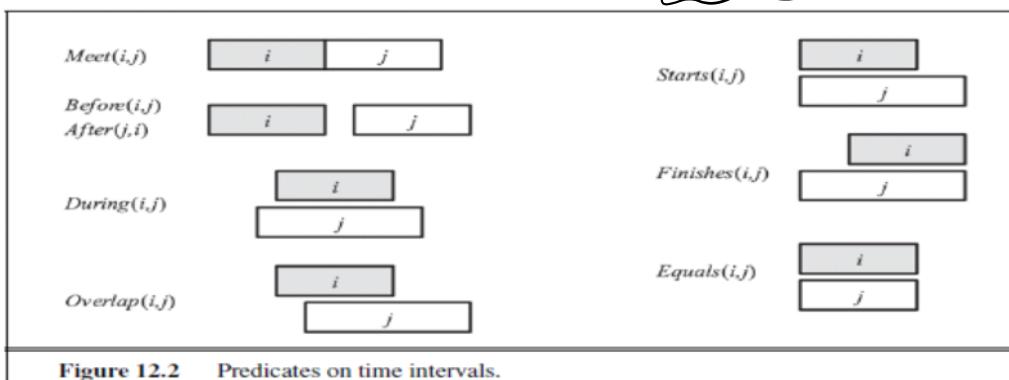
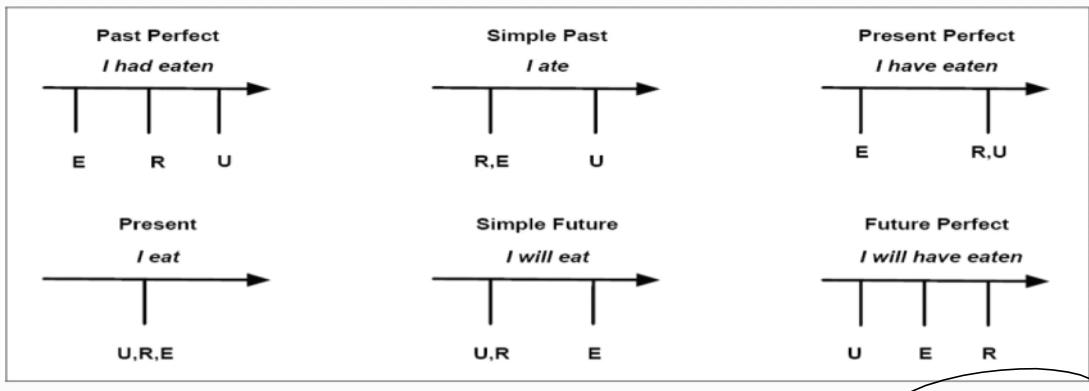


Figure 12.2 Predicates on time intervals.

Example from Russell and Norvig

Representing Time



Example from Jurafsky and Martin

Representing Beliefs

- Example
 - Milo believes that Martin ate fish
- One possible representation
 - $\exists e, b: \text{ISA}(e, \text{Eating}) \wedge \text{Eater}(e, \text{Martin}) \wedge \text{Eaten}(e, \text{Fish}) \wedge \text{ISA}(b, \text{Believing}) \wedge \text{Believer}(b, \text{Milo}) \wedge \text{Believed}(b, e)$
- However this implies (by dropping some of the terms) that "Martin ate fish" (without the Belief event)
- Modal logic
 - Possibility, Temporal Logic, Belief Logic

then this is not right. \rightarrow should read
more about
modal logic
to solve
this.

NLP



11.7

11.07 Inference

NATURAL LANGUAGE
PROCESSING



NLP

11.07 Inference

NATURAL LANGUAGE
PROCESSING



Introduction to NLP

Inference

Modus Ponens

- Modus ponens:

$$\begin{array}{c} \alpha \\ \alpha \Rightarrow \beta \\ \hline \beta \end{array}$$

- Example:

Cat(Martin)
 $\forall x: Cat(x) \Rightarrow EatsFish(x)$
EatsFish(Martin)

Inference

- Forward chaining
 - as individual facts are added to the database, all derived inferences are generated
- Backward chaining
 - starts from queries
 - Example: the Prolog programming language
- Prolog example
 - ```
father(X, Y) :- parent(X, Y), male(X).
parent(john, bill).
parent(jane, bill).
female(jane).
male(john).
?- father(M, bill).
```

Prolog

## Examples

The kinship domain:

- Brothers are siblings

$$\forall x, y \text{ Brother}(x, y) \Rightarrow \text{Sibling}(x, y)$$

- One's mother is one's female parent

$$\forall m, c \text{ Mother}(c) = m \Leftrightarrow (\text{Female}(m) \wedge \text{Parent}(m, c))$$

- “Sibling” is symmetric

$$\forall x, y \text{ Sibling}(x, y) \Leftrightarrow \text{Sibling}(y, x)$$

## Universal Instantiation

- Every instantiation of a universally quantified sentence is entailed by it:

$$\frac{}{\forall v \alpha}$$

$$\text{Subst}(\{v/g\}, \alpha)$$

for any variable  $v$  and ground term  $g$

- E.g.,  $\forall x \text{ Cat}(x) \wedge \text{Fish}(y) \Rightarrow \text{Eats}(x, y)$  yields:  
 $\text{Cat}(\text{Martin}) \wedge \text{Fish}(\text{Blub})$

## Existential Instantiation

- For any sentence  $\alpha$ , variable  $v$ , and constant symbol  $k$  that does not appear elsewhere in the knowledge base:

$$\frac{\exists v \alpha}{\text{Subst}(\{v/k\}, \alpha)}$$

- E.g.,  $\exists x \text{ Cat}(x) \wedge \text{EatsFish}(x)$  yields:

$$\text{Cat}(C_1) \wedge \text{EatsFish}(C_1)$$

provided  $C_1$  is a new constant symbol, called a Skolem constant

Skolem  
constant

## Unification

- If a substitution  $\theta$  is available, unification is possible
- Examples:
  - $p = \text{Eats}(x, y)$ ,  $q = \text{Eats}(x, \text{Blub})$ , possible if  $\theta = \{y/\text{Blub}\}$
  - $p = \text{Eats}(\text{Martin}, y)$ ,  $q = \text{Eats}(x, \text{Blub})$ , possible if  $\theta = \{x, \text{Martin}, y/\text{Blub}\}$
  - $p = \text{Eats}(\text{Martin}, y)$ ,  $q = \text{Eats}(y, \text{Blub})$ , fails because  $\text{Martin} \neq \text{Blub}$
- Subsumption
  - Unification works not only when two things are the same but also when one of them subsumes the other one
  - Example: All cats eat fish, Martin is a cat, Blub is a fish

unification  
 $p = \text{Eats}(x, y)$   
 $q = \text{Eats}(x, \text{Blub})$   
 $\theta = \{y/\text{Blub}\}$   
 $x = x$   
 $y = \text{Blub}$   
 $\text{Subsume!} \quad \{ \quad \}$   
 $\text{Blub} \quad \text{Eats}(x, \text{Blub})$   
 $\text{Martin} \quad \text{Eats}(\text{Martin}, y)$   
 $\text{Blub} \quad \text{Eats}(\text{Blub}, y)$   
 $\text{Blub} \quad \text{Blub} \quad \text{Blub}$   
 $\text{Blub} \quad \text{Blub} \quad \text{Blub}$

# NLP



11.8

## 11.08 Semantic Parsing

NATURAL LANGUAGE  
PROCESSING



# NLP

## 11.08 Semantic Parsing

NATURAL LANGUAGE  
PROCESSING



# Introduction to NLP

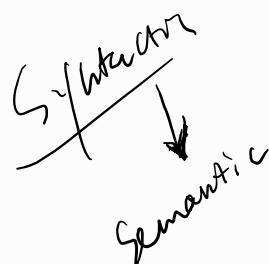
*Semantic Parsing*

## Semantic Parsing

- Converting natural language to a logical form
  - e.g., executable code for a specific application
- Example:
  - Airline reservations
  - Geographical query systems

## Stages of Semantic Parsing

- Input
  - Sentence
- Syntactic Analysis
  - Syntactic structure
- Semantic Analysis
  - Semantic representation



## Compositional Semantics

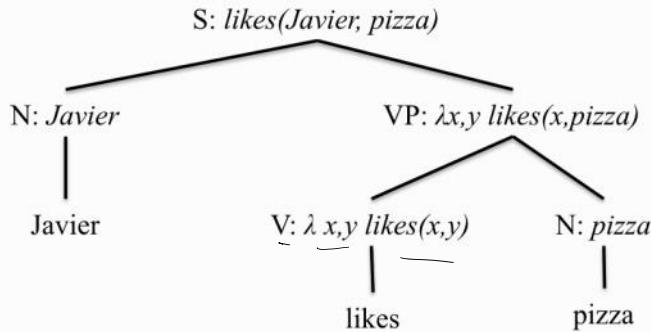
- Add semantic attachments to CFG rules
- Compositional semantics
  - Parse the sentence syntactically
  - Associate some semantics to each word
  - Combine the semantics of words and non-terminals recursively
  - Until the root of the sentence

## Example

- Input
  - Javier likes pizza
- Output
  - *like(Javier, pizza)*

## Semantic Parsing

- Associate a semantic expression with each node

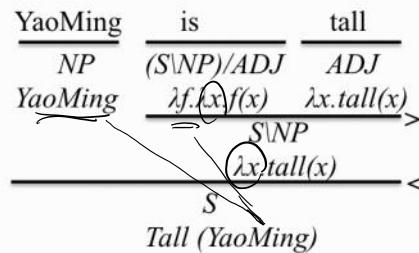


*Z. P. dependency  
parsing for  
gfn'*

## Using CCG (Steedman 1996)

- CCG representations for semantics

- $ADJ: \lambda x. tall(x)$
- $(S \setminus NP)/ADJ : \lambda f. \lambda x. f(x)$
- $NP: YaoMing$





- NACLO problem from 2014
- Authors: Jonathan Kummerfeld, Aleka Blackwell, and Patrick Littell
- <http://www.nacloweb.org/resources/problems/2014/N2014-O.pdf>
- <http://www.nacloweb.org/resources/problems/2014/N2014-OS.pdf>
- <http://www.nacloweb.org/resources/problems/2014/N2014-P.pdf>
- <http://www.nacloweb.org/resources/problems/2014/N2014-PS.pdf>

## CCG

One way for computers to understand language is by forming a structure that represents the relationships between words using a technique called Combinatorial Categorial Grammar (CCG). Computer scientists and linguists can use CCG to parse sentences (that is, try to figure out their structure) and then extract meaning from the structure.

As the name suggests, Combinatorial Categorial Grammar parses sentences by combining categories. Each word in a sentence is assigned a particular category; note that / and \ are two different symbols:

|       |               |
|-------|---------------|
| I     | NP            |
| books | NP            |
| sleep | S \ NP        |
| enjoy | (S \ NP) / NP |

# CCG

One way for computers to understand language is by forming a structure that represents the relationships between words using a technique called Combinatorial Categorial Grammar (CCG). Computer scientists and linguists can use CCG to parse sentences (that is, try to figure out their structure) and then extract meaning from the structure.

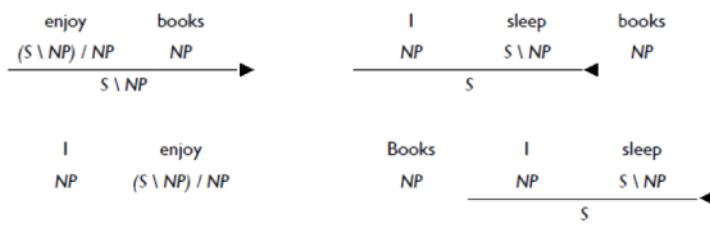
As the name suggests, Combinatorial Categorial Grammar parses sentences by combining categories. Each word in a sentence is assigned a particular category; note that / and \ are two different symbols:

|       |               |
|-------|---------------|
| I     | NP            |
| books | NP            |
| sleep | S \ NP        |
| enjoy | (S \ NP) / NP |

These categories are then combined in systematic ways. We will not explain how, but we will give you two successful parses...



...and four unsuccessful parses...



If a parse is successful, the sentence is declared "grammatical"; if not, the sentence is declared "ungrammatical".

# CCG

- O1. Using the above examples as evidence, figure out how CCG parses sentences, and describe it briefly here:
- O2. In the sentence "I enjoy long books", list all of the categories that, if assigned to "long", make the sentence have a successful parse.
- O3. Not every grammatical sentence of English will be declared "grammatical" by the process above. Using only the words "I", "books", "sleep", and "enjoy", form a grammatically correct English sentence that will fail to parse given the categories above. You don't have to use all four of the words.

## 11.08 Semantic Parsing

NATURAL LANGUAGE  
PROCESSING



## Answer

O1. CCG assigns a category to each word and constructs a parse by combining pairs of categories to form an S. Not all pairs of categories can combine. A pair is allowed to combine if one category (e.g. A) is contained within the category next to it (e.g. B / A) and lies on the side indicated by the slash (\ for left, / for right). When two categories combine, the result is a new category, taken from the left of the slash (B in this example).

O2. There are four categories that 'long' could have that would create a successful parse of 'I enjoy long books':

1. NP / NP
2. ((S \ NP) \ ((S \ NP) / NP)) / NP
3. ((S \ NP) / NP) \ ((S \ NP) / NP)
4. ((S / NP) \ NP) \ ((S \ NP) / NP)

The first of these is probably the most appropriate. Some possible reasons:

- It is by far the simplest. (After all, all our other categories are relatively simple.)
- It keeps the existing structure of the sentence (where "enjoy" combines with what follows it and then with what precedes it).
- "Long" describes "books" and not "enjoy", so it might make sense to keep them together.
- The first would be the only one to work if "long books" were in any other position.

O3. Possible answers: "I enjoy sleep", topicalized object sentences like "Books I enjoy" and "Sleep I enjoy".

This problem is a follow-up to problem O and has to be solved after that problem. Tok Pisin (also referred to as New Guinea Pidgin or Melanesian Pidgin) is a creole language spoken in the northern mainland of Papua New Guinea and surrounding islands. It is an official language and the mostly widely used language in the country, spoken by over 5 million people.

Many Tok Pisin words come originally from English – its name comes from “talk” and “pidgin”! -- but Tok Pisin isn’t just English. It has a distinct grammar and uses these words in different (but systematic!) ways.

P1. Below are sentences in Tok Pisin with a scrambled list of English translations. Match each sentence to its English equivalent.

|    |                               |  |
|----|-------------------------------|--|
| 1. | Brata bilong em i stap rit.   |  |
| 2. | Ol i stap dringim wara.       |  |
| 3. | Ol i ken ritim buk bilong mi. |  |
| 4. | Em i ritim buk pinis.         |  |
| 5. | Em i laik rit.                |  |
| 6. | Susa bilong em i ken rait.    |  |
| 7. | Susa bilong mi i boilim wara. |  |
| 8. | Wara i boil pinis.            |  |

|    |                            |
|----|----------------------------|
| A. | He has read the book.      |
| B. | My sister boils the water. |
| C. | They can read my book.     |
| D. | His sister can write.      |
| E. | His brother is reading.    |
| F. | The water has boiled.      |
| G. | He wants to read.          |
| H. | They are drinking water.   |

## CCG

P2. Translate the following Tok Pisin sentence into English:

Brata bilong mi i stap ritim buk bilong susa bilong mi.

---

P3. Translate the following English sentence into Tok Pisin:

Their sister wants to write a book.

---

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P4. Describing these words in terms of their CCG categories (introduced in Problem 0) highlights that these aren't English words combined according to English rules, but are Tok Pisin words combined according to Tok Pisin rules.

Match each Tok Pisin word to its CCG category. Some categories will be used more than once. The symbol  $S_b$  is short for 'Bare Clause'.

|     |         |  |
|-----|---------|--|
| 1.  | bilong  |  |
| 2.  | brata   |  |
| 3.  | boil    |  |
| 4.  | boilim  |  |
| 5.  | buk     |  |
| 6.  | dringim |  |
| 7.  | em      |  |
| 8.  | i       |  |
| 9.  | ken     |  |
| 10. | laik    |  |

|     |        |  |
|-----|--------|--|
| 11. | mi     |  |
| 12. | ol     |  |
| 13. | pinis  |  |
| 14. | stap   |  |
| 15. | raitim |  |
| 16. | rit    |  |
| 17. | ritim  |  |
| 18. | susa   |  |
| 19. | wara   |  |

|    |                                               |
|----|-----------------------------------------------|
| A. | NP                                            |
| B. | (NP \ NP) / NP                                |
| C. | (S \ NP) / (S <sub>b</sub> \ NP)              |
| D. | (S <sub>b</sub> \ NP)                         |
| E. | (S <sub>b</sub> \ NP) / NP                    |
| F. | (S <sub>b</sub> \ NP) \ (S <sub>b</sub> \ NP) |
| G. | (S <sub>b</sub> \ NP) / (S <sub>b</sub> \ NP) |

P5. Explain your answer.

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## CCG

P1.

|    |                               |   |
|----|-------------------------------|---|
| 1. | Brata bilong em i stap rit.   | E |
| 2. | Ol i stap dringim wara.       | H |
| 3. | Ol i ken ritim buk bilong mi. | C |
| 4. | Em i ritim buk pinis.         | A |
| 5. | Em i laik rit.                | G |
| 6. | Susa bilong em i ken rait.    | D |
| 7. | Susa bilong mi i boilim wara. | B |
| 8. | Wara i boil pinis.            | F |

|    |                            |
|----|----------------------------|
| A. | He has read the book.      |
| B. | My sister boils the water. |
| C. | They can read my book.     |
| D. | His sister can write.      |
| E. | His brother is reading.    |
| F. | The water has boiled.      |
| G. | He wants to read.          |
| H. | They are drinking water.   |

P2. My brother is reading my sister's book.

P3. Susa bilong ol i laik raitim buk.

# CCG

P4.

|     |         |   |
|-----|---------|---|
| 1.  | bilong  | B |
| 2.  | brata   | A |
| 3.  | boil    | D |
| 4.  | boilim  | E |
| 5.  | buk     | A |
| 6.  | dringim | E |
| 7.  | em      | A |
| 8.  | i       | C |
| 9.  | ken     | G |
| 10. | laik    | G |

|     |        |   |
|-----|--------|---|
| 11. | mi     | A |
| 12. | ol     | A |
| 13. | pinis  | F |
| 14. | stap   | G |
| 15. | raitim | E |
| 16. | rit    | D |
| 17. | ritim  | E |
| 18. | susa   | A |
| 19. | wara   | A |

|    |                                               |
|----|-----------------------------------------------|
| A. | NP                                            |
| B. | (NP \ NP) / NP                                |
| C. | (S \ NP) / (S <sub>b</sub> \ NP)              |
| D. | (S <sub>b</sub> \ NP)                         |
| E. | (S <sub>b</sub> \ NP) / NP                    |
| F. | (S <sub>b</sub> \ NP) \ (S <sub>b</sub> \ NP) |
| G. | (S <sub>b</sub> \ NP) / (S <sub>b</sub> \ NP) |

P5.

- A. Any noun or pronoun is category A (NP) because they can be used as a noun.
- B. The word "bilong" shows possession of the preceding NP by the following NP; therefore, it is (NP\NP)/NP. Also, the phrase [NP bilong NP] yields a noun phrase (NP).
- C. The word "i" is necessary for a grammatical sentence, so it is (S\NP)/(S<sub>b</sub>\NP). It wants a following verb phrase (indicated by (S<sub>b</sub>\NP)) and a preceding noun phrase (NP). NP+i+(S<sub>b</sub>\NP) forms a sentence.
- D. Each intransitive verb (boil and rit) can stand on its own as S<sub>b</sub>\NP, forming the verb phrase.
- E. Transitive verbs (boilim, dringim, raitim, ritim; the ones ending in -im), need a following NP, so they are categorized as (S<sub>b</sub>\NP)/NP, a verb phrase followed by a noun phrase.
- F. The verbs "stap," "ken," and "laik" precede the primary verb phrase and need another verb phrase to create an S<sub>b</sub>\NP, so they are the category (S<sub>b</sub>\NP)/(S<sub>b</sub>\NP).
- G. The verb "pinis" comes after the main verb, so it is of the category (S<sub>b</sub>\NP)\(S<sub>b</sub>\NP) which requires a (S<sub>b</sub>\NP) to precede it.

# GeoQuery (Zelle and Mooney 1996)

Earliest  
sys

What is the capital of the state with the largest population?

answer(C, (capital(S,C), largest(P, (state(S), population(S,P))))).

What are the major cities in Kansas?

answer(C, (major(C), city(C), loc(C,S), equal(S,stateid(kansas)))).

| Form            | Predicate                            | Type    | Form                | Example           |
|-----------------|--------------------------------------|---------|---------------------|-------------------|
| capital(G)      | G is a capital (city).               | country | countryid(Name)     | countryid(usa)    |
| city(C)         | C is a city.                         | city    | cityid(Name, State) | cityid(austin,tx) |
| major(X)        | X is major.                          | state   | stateid(Name)       | stateid(texas)    |
| place(P)        | P is a place.                        | river   | riverid(Name)       | riverid(colorado) |
| river(R)        | R is a river.                        | place   | placeid(Name)       | placeid(pacific)  |
| state(S)        | S is a state.                        |         |                     |                   |
| capital(C)      | C is a capital (city).               |         |                     |                   |
| area(S,A)       | The area of S is A.                  |         |                     |                   |
| capital(S,C)    | The capital of S is C.               |         |                     |                   |
| equal(V,C)      | variable V is ground term C.         |         |                     |                   |
| density(S,D)    | The (population) density of S is P   |         |                     |                   |
| elevation(P,E)  | The elevation of P is E.             |         |                     |                   |
| high_point(S,P) | The highest point of S is P.         |         |                     |                   |
| higher(P1,P2)   | P1's elevation is greater than P2's. |         |                     |                   |
| loc(X,Y)        | X is located in Y.                   |         |                     |                   |
| low_point(S,P)  | The lowest point of S is P.          |         |                     |                   |
| len(R,L)        | The length of R is L.                |         |                     |                   |
| next_to(S1,S2)  | S1 is next to S2.                    |         |                     |                   |
| size(X,Y)       | The size of X is Y.                  |         |                     |                   |
| traverses(S)    | R traverses S.                       |         |                     |                   |

*represented in the form*

# Zettlemoyer and Collins (2005)

a) What states border Texas  
 $\lambda x.state(x) \wedge borders(x, \text{texas})$

Utah := NP  
 Idaho := NP  
 borders :=  $(S \setminus NP)/NP$

b) What is the largest state  
 $\arg \max(\lambda x.state(x), \lambda x.size(x))$

c) What states border the state that borders the most states  
 $\lambda x.state(x) \wedge borders(x, \arg \max(\lambda y.state(y), \lambda y.\text{count}(\lambda z.state(z) \wedge borders(y, z))))$

$$\begin{array}{ll}
 \text{a)} \quad \begin{array}{c}
 \text{Utah} \qquad \text{borders} \qquad \text{Idaho} \\
 \frac{\frac{NP}{\text{utah}} \quad \frac{\frac{S \setminus NP}{NP}}{\frac{\lambda x \lambda y borders(y, x)}{\frac{(S \setminus NP)}{\lambda y borders(y, idaho)}}} \quad \frac{NP}{\text{idaho}}}{\frac{(S \setminus NP)}{\lambda y borders(y, idaho)}} < \\
 \hline
 S \qquad \qquad \qquad borders(\text{utah}, \text{idaho})
 \end{array} & \text{b)} \quad \begin{array}{ccccc}
 \text{What} & \text{states} & \text{border} & \text{Texas} & \\
 \frac{\frac{(S/(S \setminus NP))/N}{\lambda f \lambda g \lambda x f(x) \wedge g(x)}}{\lambda x.state(x)} & \frac{\frac{N}{\lambda x.state(x)}}{\frac{\frac{S/(S \setminus NP)}{\lambda g \lambda x.state(x) \wedge g(x)}}{\lambda y.borders(y, x)}} & \frac{\frac{NP}{\lambda x \lambda y borders(y, x)}}{\frac{NP}{\lambda y borders(y, \text{texas})}} & \frac{NP}{\text{texas}} & \\
 \hline
 S & \lambda x.state(x) \wedge borders(x, \text{texas}) & & &
 \end{array} \\
 \end{array}$$

## Zettlemoyer and Collins (2005)

|             |                                                                 |             |                                                                 |
|-------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------|-------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------|
| states      | $N : \lambda x.state(x)$                                        | states      | $N : \lambda x.state(x)$                                        |
| major       | $N/N : \lambda f.\lambda x.major(x) \wedge f(x)$                | major       | $N/N : \lambda f.\lambda x.major(x) \wedge f(x)$                |
| population  | $N : \lambda x.population(x)$                                   | population  | $N : \lambda x.population(x)$                                   |
| cities      | $N : \lambda x.city(x)$                                         | cities      | $N : \lambda x.city(x)$                                         |
| rivers      | $N : \lambda x.river(x)$                                        | rivers      | $N : \lambda x.river(x)$                                        |
| run through | $(S \backslash N P) / N P : \lambda x.\lambda y.traverse(y, x)$ | run through | $(S \backslash N P) / N P : \lambda x.\lambda y.traverse(y, x)$ |
| the largest | $N P / N : \lambda f. \arg \max(f, \lambda x.size(x))$          | the largest | $N P / N : \lambda f. \arg \max(f, \lambda x.size(x))$          |
| river       | $N : \lambda x.river(x)$                                        | river       | $N : \lambda x.river(x)$                                        |
| the highest | $N P / N : \lambda f. \arg \max(f, \lambda x.elev(x))$          | the highest | $N P / N : \lambda f. \arg \max(f, \lambda x.elev(x))$          |
| the longest | $N P / N : \lambda f. \arg \max(f, \lambda x.len(x))$           | the longest | $N P / N : \lambda f. \arg \max(f, \lambda x.len(x))$           |

Figure 6: Ten learned lexical items that had highest associated parameter values from a randomly chosen development run in the Geo880 domain.

# NLP