

Part II Technical background

Fausto Carcassi

10:40 - 12:30

(1h50m)

Plan

- Formal grammars (30m)
- Semantics for formal grammars (30m)
- Bayesian inference (30m)

9:00-10:20	Introduction: On the very idea of an LoT
10:40-12:30	Technical background
12:30-13:30	Lunch
13:30-15:00	Bayesian program induction (LOTlib3)
15:20-16:30	Case studies
16:30-17:00	Summary

What's a grammar

Start with a *language* (Typically, a natural language)

A notion of **well-formedness** independent of meaning

- E.g., '3 is more curious than the past table'
- We call this *grammatical* well-formedness.

We can build an **abstract device** to encode grammaticality

- Two types of such devices are popular: automata and formal grammars.
- There is a correspondence between automata and grammars!
- In the rest of the course we'll just use grammars.

Grammars: Infinite use of finite means

Four ingredients:

- 1. A finite set N of nonterminal symbols
- 2. A finite set Σ of terminal symbols
- 3. A finite set *P* of *production rules*
- 4. A symbol *S* in *N*: the *start symbol*

- 1. N (nonterminal symbols)
- 2. Σ (terminal symbols)
- *3. P* (production rules)

- 1. $\{S, x, y\}$
- 2. {a, b}
- 3. 1. $S \rightarrow x$
 - 2. $x \rightarrow xy$
 - $3. y \rightarrow a$
 - $4. x \rightarrow b$

4. S (start symbol)

Let's derive a sentence in this grammar!

- 1. N (nonterminal symbols)
- 2. Σ (terminal symbols)
- *3. P* (production rules)

- 1. $\{S, x, y\}$
- 2. {a, b}
- 3. 1. $S \rightarrow x$
 - 2. $x \rightarrow xy$
 - 3. by \rightarrow ba
 - $4. x \rightarrow b$

4. S (start symbol)

Let's derive a sentence in this grammar!

- 1. N (nonterminal symbols)
- 2. Σ (terminal symbols)
- *3. P* (production rules)

4. S (start symbol)

- 1. $\{S, x, y\}$
- 2. {a, b}
- 3. 1. $S \rightarrow x$
 - 2. $x \rightarrow xy$
 - 3. by \rightarrow ba
 - $4. x \rightarrow b$
 - 5. $b \rightarrow a$ **WRONG!** Why?

Let's derive a sentence in this grammar!

CFG - Context Free Grammars

Context-free grammar (CFGs) are grammars with rules of the form:

$$A \rightarrow \alpha$$

Where:

- A: single nonterminal symbol
- α : (possibly empty) string of terminals and/or nonterminals

PCFG - Probabilistic CFG

$$G = (N, \Sigma, P, S, \Pi)$$

- 1. N: nonterminal symbols
- 2. Σ: terminal symbols
- 3. P: production rules
- 4. S: start symbol
- 5. Π : probabilities on production rules

New: a function $\Pi: P \to \mathbb{R}$

- Conditional probability of applying rule $\alpha \to \beta$
- *Conditional* on the left side being α .

Every derivation has a probability of being derived

- The product of the probabilities of the applied rules.
- Higher probability to smaller trees

PCFG - Probabilistic CFG

- 1. N (nonterminal symbols)
- 2. Σ (terminal symbols)
- *3. P* (production rules)
- 4. S (start symbol)
- 5. Π (probabilities on production rules)

- 1. {S}
- 2. {a, b}
- 3. 1. $S \rightarrow aSa$ 0.3
 - $2. S \rightarrow bSb$ 0.3
 - $3. S \rightarrow e$ 0.2
 - $4. S \rightarrow a$ 0.1
 - $5. S \rightarrow b$ 0.1

Interpreting a grammar

Writing down functions

- 1, 2, 3, ..., +, %, 'every', 'some', ... **vs** x, y, z, ...
 - Unsaturated vs saturated (x + 1) vs (1 + 1)
- Unsaturated to function
 - f(x) = x+1
 - f(x) notation is *inconvenient*: forces us to name
- Solution: *lambda* expressions
 - Start with expression

x + 2

• Make λ expression w/ variable

 $\lambda x \cdot x + 2$

• Function from bound variable to the evaluated expression

Multiple λs and languages

- We can nest lambda expressions!
 - For instance:

 $\lambda y. \lambda x. x + y$

- Any expression can go inside
 - E.g., English:

 λx . x is a bird

• We'll mostly use variations of predicate logic.

The notation of λ -calculus

Notation for applying an argument to a function

- $\lambda x.P(x)$
- Apply argument N to function $\lambda x. P(x)$: $(\lambda x. P(x))N$
- β -reduction:
 - $(\lambda x. P(x))N$
 - Replace *N* in every occurrence of *x* and remove the lambda
 - P(N)
- We can also rename variables w/ alpha conversion (Let's ignore this)

Example of β reduction

•
$$\left(\left((\lambda x. \lambda y. x(y))\lambda z. P(z)\right)a\right)b$$

Substitute $\lambda z. P(z)$ for x into $\lambda y. x(y)$:

•
$$((\lambda y. \lambda z. P(z)(y))a)b$$

Substitute a for y in $\lambda z. P(z)(y)$

• $(\lambda z. P(z)(a))b$

Substitute *b* for z in P(z)(a):

• P(b)(a)

Compositional interpretation

Let's build an interpretation function for a grammar!

Associate each sentence with a meaning!

E.g., propositional logic

•
$$S \rightarrow p \mid q \mid (S \land S) \mid (S \lor S) \mid \neg S$$

Interpretation of basic symbols:

- $I_{\omega}(p) = True$
- $I_{\omega}(q) = \text{False}$
- $I_{(a)}(\wedge) = \lambda x \cdot \lambda y \cdot x = 1$ and y = 0
- $I_{\widehat{\omega}}(V) = \lambda x \cdot \lambda y \cdot x = 1 \text{ or } y = 0$
- $I_{\omega}(\neg) = \lambda x \cdot x = 0$

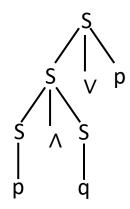
Compositional interpretation

Meaning of complex sentences:

If
$$\alpha$$
 has the form
$$\bigwedge_{\beta = \Lambda}^{S}$$
 then $I(\alpha) = (I(\Lambda)(I(\beta)) I(\gamma))$

Can you tell what the rules are for the other entries?

Example:



Bayesian inference

A motivating example

• Question: "Is my new haircut better than previous one?"

- You are completely unsure: 50/50
 - Mother of a friend says "Yes" —> new belief?
 - Your worst enemy says "Yes" -> new belief?
- You are pretty sure it's worse than it was: 90/10
 - Mother of a friend says "Yes" -> new belief?
 - Your worst enemy says "Yes" -> new belief?

What is at play?

- Prior
- Likelihood

The components of Bayes theorem

Posterior
$$P(H \mid D) = \frac{P(D \mid H)P(H)}{P(D)}$$
Evidence

Four ingredients in Bayes theorem:

1.	Posterior	Probability of hypothesis given data
----	-----------	--------------------------------------

- **2. Likelihood** Probability of the data *given* the hypothesis
- **3. Prior** Probability of the hypothesis, NOT conditioned on data
- **4. Evidence** Probability of the data, NOT conditioned on H

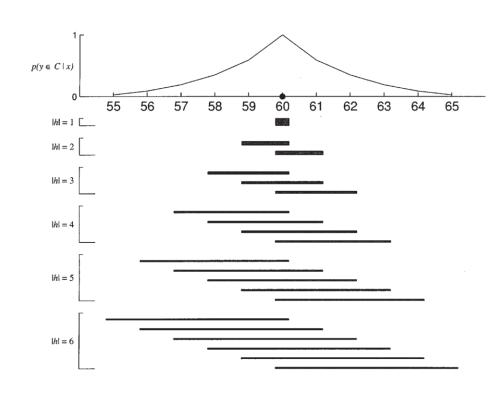
Case study: Simple category learning

Task: learn a category from examples.

- The space is simply the integers from 1 to 50
- The examples are numbers from the category
- The category is a *convex* region
- We get examples from inside the category

Bayesian category learning

- What's the space of hypotheses?
- What's the posterior, likelihood, and prior?
- What happens if we get more observations?

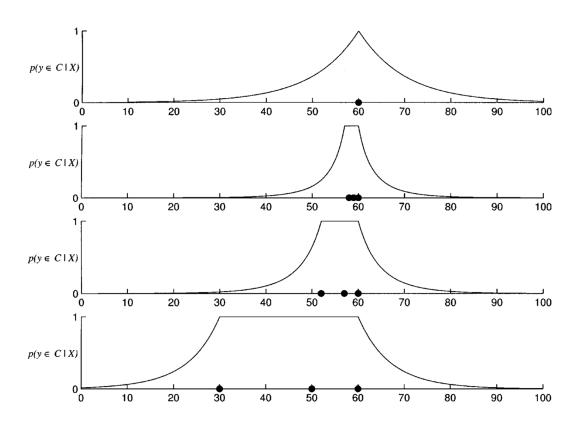


Tenenbaum & Griffiths (2001)

Case study: Simple category learning

Strong sampling -> size effect

- Can you see why intuitively?
- Can you see why formally?



Tenenbaum & Griffiths (2001)

Conclusions

We've learned about

- PCFGs
- their interpretation
- Bayesian category learning

We can use this as a model of the pLoT

• Can you see how?

Next session:

Combine into computational model!

Lunch!

9:00-10:20	Introduction: On the very idea of an LoT
10:40-12:30	Technical background
12:30-13:30	Lunch
13:30-15:00	Bayesian program induction (LOTlib3)
15:20-16:30	Case studies
16:30-17:00	Summary

If there's time left...

Language to grammar

- We've seen grammar -> language
- We can also go language -> grammar
- Let's try to write a grammar that produces all the palindromes in {a, b}*
 - 1. N (nonterminal symbols)
 - 2. Σ (terminal symbols)
 - 3. P (production rules) 3. 1. $S \rightarrow aSa$
 - 4. S (start symbol)

- 1. {S}
- 2. {a, b}
- - 2. $S \rightarrow bSb$
 - 3. $S \rightarrow e$
 - 4. $S \rightarrow a$
 - 5. $S \rightarrow b$

Language to grammar

• All strings with the form: a^nb^n

- 1. N (nonterminal symbols)
- 2. Σ (terminal symbols)
- *3. P* (production rules)
- 4. S (start symbol)

- 1. {S}
- 2. {a, b}
- 3. 1. $S \rightarrow aSb$
 - $2. S \rightarrow e$

Type theory

- For reasons that will become clear soon, we associate each of our expressions with a *type*.
- Let's define the set of types:
 - e and t are types
 - If σ and τ are types, then $< \sigma, \tau >$ is a type
 - Nothing else is a type
- And how to interpret them:
 - e refers to the set of individuals
 - t refers to the set of truth values
 - $< \sigma, \tau >$ refers to the set of functions from objects of type σ to objects of type τ

Type theory

Let's consider some expressions and what type they are:

- $\lambda x. P(x)$, where P is a predicate and x an individual.
 - < *e*, *t* >
- λx . λy . Q(x, y), where Q is a predicate with two arguments and x and y individuals
 - $< e, < e, t \gg$
- $\lambda X.X(a)$, where a is an individual and X is a predicate
 - $<\!< e, t >, t >$
- $\lambda X.\lambda Y.X(a) \wedge Y(a)$, where a is an individual and X and Y predicates
 - $<\!< e, t >$, $<\!< e, t >$, t >
- Basically, it can get as complicated as you want!

Type theory

In order to keep things tidy, we can put domain restrictions after a colon. Therefore, we can write the type of each argument of a lambda function as follows:

- $\lambda x: x \in e.P(x)$, where P is a predicate
- $\lambda x: x \in e. \lambda y: y \in e. Q(x, y)$, where Q is a predicate with two arguments
- $\lambda X: X \in \langle e, t \rangle X(a)$, where a is an individual
- $\lambda X: X \in \langle e, t \rangle \lambda Y: Y \in \langle e, t \rangle X(a) \wedge Y(a)$

Sometimes, you'll also see the type written as a subfix:

• $\lambda xe.P(x)$