Last Name:
Matriculation Number:
Seat:

## Exam

## Logic-Based Natural Language Semantics (LBS)

February, 21. 2023

|  | To be used for grading, do not write here |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
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| prob. | 1.1 | 1.2 | 2.1 | 2.2 | 2.3 | 3.1 | 3.2 | 3.3 | Sum | grade |
| total | 3 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 6 | 3 | 4 | 6 | 33 |  |
| reached |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

The "solutions" to the exam/assignment problems in this document are supplied to give students a starting point for answering questions. While we are striving for helpful "solutions", they can be incomplete and can even contain errors even after our best efforts.
In any case, grading student's answers is not a process of simply "comparing with the reference solution", therefore errors in the "solutions" are not a problem in this case.
If you find "solutions" you do not understand or you find incorrect, discuss this on the course forum and/or with your TA and/notify the instructors. We will - if needed - correct them ASAP.

## 1 Epistemology

## Problem 1.1 (True or False in Epistemology?)

Check if the following statements are true or false :Every observation is reproducible. - WrongKnowledge is always a belief. - CorrectA hypothesis needs to be minimal. - Wrong
No, theories need to be minimal, hypotheses don't

## Problem 1.2 (Epistemological Terms and their Relations)

Relate the terms

- phenomenon,
- proposition,
- hypothesis
to each other.


## 2 The Method of Fragments

## Problem 2.1

In the pipeline of syntactic processing, semantics construction, semantic/pragmatic analysis discussed in the LBS lecture, highlight and explain the role of context-free and compositional methods.

## Problem 2.2

Why are we often more interested in models rather than proofs in NLP scenarios?
Solution: Communicating a natural language utterance can be interpreted as a way of changing the world model of the hearer to a state, where it is consistent with the utterance and the previous model the hearer entertains.

Problem 2.3
When interpreting natural language utterances, the three problems abstraction, ambiguity and composition arise. Give an example each. Explain the concept briefly.

## Solution:

1. Abstraction describes the situation, where more than one utterance can have the same meaning: Synonyms like car and automobile have the same meaning
2. Ambiguity describes the situation, where one utterance can have more than one meaning, e.g. the word bank can denote a landscape feature or a financial institution.
3. Composition problems arise where the syntactical structure of an utterance does not directly correspond to the structure of the meaning representation. E.g. the sentence Every student sleeps has a different syntactic structure than the first-order logic representation $\forall x \cdot \operatorname{stud}(x) \Rightarrow \operatorname{sleep}(x)$.

## 3 GLIF

## Problem 3.1 (GF-based Translation)

How can we use GF to directly translate between natural languages?
Solution: We define concrete grammars $G_{1}, \ldots, G_{n}$ (one for each language $L_{i}$ ) that share one abstract grammar $G$. For a translation between $L_{i}$ and $L_{j}$, we parse using $G_{i}$ and linearize using $G_{j}$.

## Problem 3.2

You want to add the new operator "there are exactly three" $\exists$ 3 to your (first-order) logic. How can you do that using higher order abstract syntax (HOAS) in MMT? Explain the concept of HOAS in general, state the declaration in MMT surface syntax, and explain the intended semantics of the operator.

Solution: HOAS is an approach to represent the syntax of binders. Concretely, we use a (lambda) function (provided by the meta language) to, in this case, represent the $\exists^{3}$ binder:
exists_three : $(\iota \rightarrow 0) \rightarrow 0\left|\# \exists^{3} 1\right|$
We can interprete the argument of $\exists^{3}$, which is a unary predicate, as a set. Then $\exists^{3} S$ is supposed to state that the cardinality of $S$ is 3 .

## Problem 3.3 (PLNQ Proof Rules)

6 pt
Express the following rules of natural deduction in MMT.


## Solution:

```
andI : {A:O, B:O} \vdashA ->\vdashB ->\vdashA^ B |
implI : {A:o, B:o} (\vdashA ->\vdash,B) ->\vdashA=> B |
forallE : {A:\iota->o, B:\iota} \vdash\forallA ->\vdashA B |
existsE : {A:\iota->0,C:o} \vdash\existsA ->({c:\iota} \vdashA c ->\vdashC) ->\vdashC|
```


## Problem 3.4 (Extend a GLIF fragment)

Use and extend the GLIF implementation of a small fragment of the English language.

1. How would the sentence "John is happy" be processed by the implementation? Specify the abstract syntax tree and the results of the semantics construction (before and after $\beta$-reduction).
2. Extend the grammar (both abstract and concrete) to support more sentences. Concretely, you should add three rules:
(a) make_not_S to support negated sentences like "John isn't happy",
(b) cond_S to support conditional sentences like "John is happy if Mary is lucky",
(c) and_Adjective that combines two adjectives into a new one like "happy and lucky" (for simplicity, we do not use a separate category for adjectival phrases).
3. Complete the semantics construction for the new fragment and add the required logical connectives to the logic theory. For example, we expect the following results (your implementation may yield logically equivalent propositions):
(a) "John isn’t happy" $\mapsto \neg h(j)$
(b) "John isn't happy if Mary is lucky" $\mapsto l(m) \Rightarrow \neg h(j)$
(c) "Mary isn't happy and lucky" $\mapsto \neg(h(m) \wedge l(m))$
```
abstract Grammar = {
    cat
        S; -- sentence
        Name;
        Adjective;
    fun
        john: Name;
        mary: Name;
        happy: Adjective;
        lucky: Adjective;
        make_S : Name -> Adjective -> S;
        -- Add your code here:
```

```
}
concrete GrammarEng of Grammar = {
    lincat
        S = Str;
        Name = Str;
        Adjective = Str;
    lin
        john = "John";
        mary = "Mary";
        happy = "happy";
        lucky = "lucky";
        make_S n a = n ++ "is" ++ a;
        -- Add your code here:
    }
theory logic : ur:?LF =
    prop : type | # o |
    individual : type | # l|
    and : 0 ->0 ->0|# 1 ^ 2 |
    impl : ० ->o ->o |# 1 = 2 |
    // Add your code here: |
theory people : ur:?LF =
    include ?logic |
    j : l|
    m : l|
    h : l }->
    l : \iota->0 |
|
view SemanticsConstruction : .../Grammar.gf?Grammar -> ?people =
    S = o |
```

```
Name = \iota|
Adjective = \iota }->0
john = j |
mary = m |
happy = h |
lucky = l |
make_S = [n, a] a n |
// Add your code here: |
```


## 4 Discourse Semantics

Problem 4.1 (Ambiguity in Event Semantics)
Write down all readings of the sentence Peter chases the gangster in the red sportscar. in first-order logic using the event semantics approach.

Hint: You can invent any constants and predicates you want.
Solution: $\quad$ There are three readings

1. $\exists e . \exists c . \operatorname{chase}(e) \wedge \operatorname{redsportscar}(c) \wedge \operatorname{ag}(e$, peter $) \wedge \operatorname{pat}(e$, gangster $) \wedge$ in $($ peter,$c)$
2. $\exists e . \exists c . \operatorname{chase}(e) \wedge$ redsportscar $(c) \wedge \operatorname{ag}(e$, peter $) \wedge \operatorname{pat}(e$, gangster $) \wedge$ in(gangster, $c)$
3. $\exists e . \exists c . \operatorname{chase}(e) \wedge$ redsportscar $(c) \wedge \operatorname{ag}(e$, peter $) \wedge \operatorname{pat}(e$, gangster $) \wedge \operatorname{in}(e, c)$

Problem 4.2 (Dynamic Effects)

1. What is the (linguistic) difference between the following two discourses:
(a) There is a book that Peter does not own. It is a novel.
(b) * Peter does not own every book. It is a novel.

In particular, why is the second one not felicitous (i.e. OK)?
2. What is the problem when we try to model their meaning in first-order logic?

## Solution:

1. The second discourse is infelicitous as its first sentence does not introduce an antecedent for the pronoun $I t$ to pick up on.
2. The problem is that that the respective first sentences are logically equivalent: Their translations into first-order logic are
(a) $\exists x \cdot \operatorname{book}(x) \wedge \neg \operatorname{own}(p, x)$
(b) $\forall x \cdot \operatorname{book}(x) \Rightarrow \operatorname{own}(p, x) \Rightarrow$

Thus in first-order logic we cannot distinguish them.

Problem 4.3 (Modeling a Discourse as a DRS)

1. Represent the two sentences as separate DRSes.
2. How do you represent anaphora resolution here?
3. What happens if you merge them into into a single DRS.

## Hint: You can invent any predicates you want.

## Solution:

1. A student takes an exam.

| $U, V$ |
| :--- |
| student $(U)$ |

$\operatorname{exam}(V)$
take $(U, V)$
She is worried about it.

| $X, Y$ |
| :--- |
| $\operatorname{worry}(X, Y)$ |

2. In anaphor resolution we add two new conditions in the second DRS, yielding

| $X, Y$ |
| :--- |
| worry $(X, Y)$ |
| $U=X$ |
| $V=Y$ |

3. The merge operation makes a $D R S$ whose discourse referents and conditions are the unions of the argument $D R S e s$.

## 5 Modal Logic

Problem 5.1 pt
Given a multimodal logic with two modalities [1] and [2]. Evaluate the following formulae

1. $[1] X$,
2. $\langle 2\rangle X$,
3. $[1]\langle 2\rangle X$,
4. $\langle 1\rangle[2] X$,
5. $\langle 1\rangle(\neg X \wedge \neg\langle 1\rangle X)$.
in world $w$ in the following Kripke structure and briefly justify your answer. The solid arrows represent the accessibility relation for [1] and the dashed ones for [2]. Use the variable assignment $\varphi$ with


$$
\begin{aligned}
\varphi(w, X) & =\mathrm{T} \\
\varphi(a, X) & =\mathrm{T} \\
\varphi(b, X) & =\mathrm{F} \\
\varphi(c, X) & =\mathrm{F}
\end{aligned}
$$

Solution: The correct answers (without justifications) are:

1. $\mathcal{J}_{\varphi}^{w}([1] X)=\mathrm{F}$,
2. $\mathcal{J}_{\varphi}^{w}(\langle 2\rangle X)=\mathrm{T}$,
3. $\mathcal{J}_{\varphi}^{w}([1]\langle 2\rangle X)=\mathrm{F}$,
4. $\mathcal{J}_{\varphi}^{w}(\langle 1\rangle[2] X)=\mathrm{T}$,
5. $\mathcal{J}_{\varphi}^{w}(\langle 1\rangle(\neg X \wedge \neg\langle 1\rangle X))=\mathrm{T}$.
