#### Logic-Based Natural Language Processing

Prof. Dr. Michael Kohlhase

Knowledge Representation and -Processing Computer Science, FAU Erlangen-Nürnberg Michael.Kohlhase@FAU.de

2025-02-06



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  - explore how to model the *meaning of natural language* via transformation into *logical systems*
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- Theory in this course: We wild do so in an abstract, mathematical fashion, but concrete enough that we could implement all moving parts – NL grammars, semantics construction, and inference systems – in meta-grammatical/logical systems.
- Practice in PSNLP Project: We will implement them in the meta-grammatical/logical GLIF system (based on GF, MMT, and ELPI) in the Symbolic NLP Project (5 ECTS; lab work). (see me if you are interested)



#### Chapter 1 Preliminaries



# 1.1 Administrative Ground Rules

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- Content Prerequisites: The mandatory courses in CS@FAU; Sem 1-4, in particular:
  - course "Grundlagen der Logik in der Informatik" (GLOIN)
  - some of the CS Math courses "Mathematik C1-4" (IngMath1-4) (math tolerance)
  - algorithms and data structures
  - AI-1 ("Artificial Intelligence I")

(programming/complexity)

(for the logic part)



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#### Intuition:

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- This is what I assume you know!
- In many cases, the dependency of LBS on these is partial and "in spirit".
- If you have not taken these courses (or do not remember),
- read up on them as needed!
  - We can cover them in class

(take them with a kilo of salt)

(I have to assume something)

(programming/complexity)

(for the logic part)

(preferred, do it in a group) (if there are more of you)



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- If you have not taken these courses (or do not remember),
  - read up on them as needed! (preferred, do it in a group)
     We can cover them in class (if there are more of you)
- The real Prerequisite: Motivation, interest, curiosity, hard work. (LBS is non-trivial)
- > You can do this course if you want!

(We will help you)

(programming/complexity)

(take them with a kilo of salt)

(I have to assume something)

(for the logic part)



#### Overall (Module) Grade:

- Grade via the exam (Klausur)  $\sim 100\%$  of the grade.
- ▶ Up to 10% bonus on-top for an exam with  $\geq$  50% points. (< 50%  $\sim$  no bonus)
- ▶ Bonus points  $\hat{=}$  percentage sum of the best 10 prepquizzes divided by 100.



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- **Exam:** 60 minutes exam conducted in presence on paper (~ April 1. 2025)
- ( $\sim$  October 1. 2025) Retake Exam: 60 min exam six months later
- You have to register for exams in https://campo.fau.de in the first month of classes.
- Note: You can de-register from an exam on campo up to three working days before.



#### Preparedness Quizzes

- PrepQuizzes: Before every lecture we offer a 10 min online quiz the PrepQuiz – about the material from the previous week. (10:00-10:10; starts in week 3)
- Motivations: We do this to
  - keep you prepared and working continuously.
  - bonus points if the exam has  $\geq 50\%$  points
  - update the ALEA learner model.
- ► The prepquiz will be given in the ALEA system

- https://courses.voll-ki.fau.de/quiz-dash/lbs
- ► You have to be logged into ALEA! (via FAU IDM)
- You can take the prepquiz on your laptop or phone, ...
- ... in the lecture or at home ...
- ...via WLAN or 4G Network. (do not overload)
- Prepquizzes will only be available 10:00-16:10!

(primary) (potential part of your grade) (fringe benefit)



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### Next Week: Pretest

- Next week we will try out the prepquiz infrastructure with a pretest!
  - Presence: bring your laptop or cellphone.
  - Online: you can and should take the pretest as well.
  - Have a recent firefox or chrome (chrome: younger than March 2023)
  - Make sure that you are logged into ALEA

(via FAU IDM; see below)

- Definition 1.1. A pretest is an assessment for evaluating the preparedness of learners for further studies.
- ► **Concretely:** This pretest
  - establishes a baseline for the competency expectations in Al-1 and
  - tests the ALEA guiz infrastructure for the prepauizzes.
- Participation in the pretest is optional; it will not influence grades in any way.
- The pretest covers the prerequisites of AI-1 and some of the material that may have been covered in other courses.
- The test will be also used to refine the ALEA learner model, which may make learning experience in ALEA better. (see below)



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# 1.2 Getting Most out of LBS

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5

- ► Goal: Homework assignments reinforce what was taught in lectures.
- Homework Assignments: Small individual problem/programming/proof task
  - $\blacktriangleright$  but take time to solve (at least read them directly  $\rightsquigarrow$  questions)
- Didactic Intuition: Homework assignments give you material to test your understanding and show you how to apply it.
- A Homeworks give no points, but without trying you are unlikely to pass the exam.



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- ► Homeworks will be mainly peer-graded in the ALEA system.
- Didactic Motivation: Through peer grading students are able to see mistakes in their thinking and can correct any problems in future assignments. By grading assignments, students may learn how to complete assignments more accurately and how to improve their future results. (not just us being lazy)



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### LBS Homework Assignments - Howto

#### ► Homework Workflow: in ALEA

(see below)

- Homework assignments will be published on thursdays: see https://courses.voll-ki.fau.de/hw/lbs
- Submission of solutions via the ALEA system in the week after
- Peer grading/feedback (and master solutions) via answer classes.
- ▶ Quality Control: TAs and instructors will monitor and supervise peer grading.



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- ▶ Quality Control: TAs and instructors will monitor and supervise peer grading.
- **Experiment:** Can we motivate enough of you to make peer assessment self-sustaining?
  - ▶ I am appealing to your sense of community responsibility here ...
  - ▶ You should only expect other's to grade your submission if you grade their's

(cf. Kant's "Moral Imperative")

Make no mistake: The grader usually learns at least as much as the gradee.

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#### Homework/Tutorial Discipline:

- Start early! (many assignments need more than one evening's work) (talking & study groups help)
- Don't start by sitting at a blank screen
- Humans will be trying to understand the text/code/math when grading it.
- Go to the tutorials, discuss with your TA!

(they are there for you!)



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- Definition 2.1. Collaboration (or cooperation) is the process of groups of agents acting together for common, mutual benefit, as opposed to acting in competition for selfish benefit. In a collaboration, every agent contributes to the common goal and benefits from the contributions of others.
- In learning situations, the benefit is "better learning".
- Observation: In collaborative learning, the overall result can be significantly better than in competitive learning.
- **Good Practice:** Form study groups.

(long- or short-term)

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- 1.  $\triangle$  those learners who work most, learn most!
- 2. \land freeloaders individuals who only watch learn very little!
- It is OK to collaborate on homework assignments in LBS! (no bonus points)
- Choose your study group well! (We will (eventually) help via ALeA)

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- Attendance is not mandatory for the LBS course. (official version)
- ▶ Note: There are two ways of learning: (both are OK, your mileage may vary)
  - Approach B: Read a book/papers (here: lecture notes)
  - Approach I: come to the lectures, be involved, interrupt the instructor whenever you have a question.

The only advantage of I over  ${\sf B}$  is that books/papers do not answer questions

- Approach S: come to the lectures and sleep does not work!
- ▶ The closer you get to research, the more we need to discuss!





# 1.3 Learning Resources for AI-1

9



# Textbook, Handouts and Information, Forums, Videos

▶ (No) Textbook: Lecture notes at http://kwarc.info/teaching/LBS

- $\blacktriangleright$  I mostly prepare them as we go along (semantically preloaded  $\sim$  research resource)
- Please e-mail me any errors/shortcomings you notice. (improve for group)
- ► For GLIF: Frederik's Master's Thesis [Sch20]
- Classical Semantics/Pragmatics:
  - Primary reference for LBS: [CKG09]
  - also: [HHS07; Bir13; Rie10; ZS13; Sta14; Sae03; Por04; Kea11; Jac83; Cru11; Ari10]
- Computational Semantics: [BB05; EU10]
- StudOn Forum: https://www.studon.fau.de/crs4625835.html for
  - announcements, homeworks (my view on the forum)
  - questions, discussion among your fellow students
- Course Videos: at https://www.fau.tv/course/id/4076.html

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(in the FAU Library)

(your forum too, use it!)

(in the FAU Library)

### Practical recommendations on Lecture Videos

Excellent Guide: [Nor+18a] (German version at [Nor+18b])







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## ALEA in LBS

 $\blacktriangleright$  We assume that you already know the ALEA system from Al-1/2



#### Logic-Base Natural Language Semantics



KMRT) but not necessary.

The course is given in English.

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- $\blacktriangleright$  We assume that you already know the  $\rm ALEA$  system from Al-1/2
- Use it for

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- lecture notes
- flashcards
- course forum

(notes- vs slides-oriented)

(drill yourself on the LBS jargon/concepts) (questions, discussions and error reporting)

- solving and peer-grading homework assignments
- finding study groups
- practicing with targeted problems
- doing the prepquizzes

(you need not endure LBS alone) (e.g. from old exams) (before each lecture)



#### Chapter 2 An Introduction to Natural Language Semantics



- Definition 0.1. A natural language is any form of spoken or signed means of communication that has evolved naturally in humans through use and repetition without conscious planning or premeditation.
- ▶ In other words: the language you use all day long, e.g. English, German, ...
- Why Should we care about natural language?:
  - Even more so than thinking, language is a skill that only humans have.
  - It is a miracle that we can express complex thoughts in a sentence in a matter of seconds.
  - It is no less miraculous that a child can learn tens of thousands of words and complex syntax in a matter of a few years.





# 2.1 Natural Language and its Meaning

13



14

Question: What is "Natural Language Semantics"?



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- Definition 1.6 (Generic Answer). Semantics is the study of reference, meaning, or truth.



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- Definition 1.11 (Generic Answer). Semantics is the study of reference, meaning, or truth.
- Definition 1.12. A sign is anything that communicates a meaning that is not the sign itself to the interpreter of the sign. The meaning can be intentional, as when a word is uttered with a specific meaning, or unintentional, as when a symptom is taken as a sign of a particular medical condition Meaning is a relationship between signs and the objects they intend, express, or signify.
- Definition 1.13. Reference is a relationship between objects in which one object (the name) designates, or acts as a means by which to refer to – i.e. to connect to or link to – another object (the referent).
- Definition 1.14. Truth is the property of being in accord with reality in a/the mind-independent world. An object ascribed truth is called true, iff it is, and false, if it is not.



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- Definition 1.19. Truth is the property of being in accord with reality in a/the mind-independent world. An object ascribed truth is called true, iff it is, and false, if it is not.
- Definition 1.20. For natural language semantics, the signs are usually utterances and names are usually phrases.
- That is all very abstract and general, can we make this more concrete?
- Different (academic) disciplines find different concretizations.



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  - ▶ Platon  $\sim$  cave allegory, Aristotle  $\sim$  Syllogisms.
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(Michael Kohlhase vs. Odysseus)



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Eau

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15

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- Logic@AI/CS tries to define meaning and compute with them. (applied semantics)
  - makes syntax explicit in a formal language
  - defines truth/validity by mapping sentences into "world"
  - gives rules of truth-preserving reasoning

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(formulae, sentences) (interpretation) (inference)



- Idea: Machine translation is very simple! (we have good lexica)
- **Example 1.21.** Peter liebt Maria.  $\rightsquigarrow$  Peter loves Mary.
- A this only works for simple examples!
- Example 1.22. Wirf der Kuh das Heu über den Zaun. Arthrow the cow the hay over the fence. (differing grammar; Google Translate)
- **Example 1.23.** A Grammar is not the only problem
  - Der Geist ist willig, aber das Fleisch ist schwach!
  - Der Schnaps ist gut, aber der Braten ist verkocht!
- Observation 1.24. We have to understand the meaning for high-quality translation!



### Language and Information

- ► Observation: Humans use words (sentences, texts) in natural languages to represent and communicate information.
- But: What really counts is not the words themselves, but the meaning information they carry.



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- **Example 1.27 (Word Meaning).**

Newspaper ~



For questions/answers, it would be very useful to find out what words (sentences/texts) mean.



# Language and Information

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- **Example 1.29 (Word Meaning).**



For questions/answers, it would be very useful to find out what words (sentences/texts) mean.

▶ Definition 1.30. Interpretation of natural language utterances: three problems



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Newspaper  $\sim$ 



ambiguity



composition



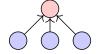


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Language and Information (Examples)

### **Example 1.31 (Abstraction).**



Car and automobile have the same meaning.





Language and Information (Examples)

### Example 1.34 (Abstraction).

Car and automobile have the same meaning.

### Example 1.35 (Ambiguity).

A *bank* can be a financial institution or a geographical feature.

Language and Information (Examples)

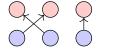
### Example 1.37 (Abstraction).

Car and automobile have the same meaning.

### **Example 1.38 (Ambiguity).**

A bank can be a financial institution or a geographical feature.

### **Example 1.39 (Composition).**

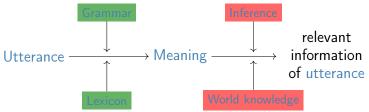


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*Every* student sleeps 
$$\rightsquigarrow \forall x.student(x) \Rightarrow sleep(x)$$

## Context Contributes to the Meaning of NL Utterances

- Observation: Not all information conveyed is linguistically realized in an utterance.
- **Example 1.40.** The lecture begins at 11:00 am. What lecture? Today?
- ▶ **Definition 1.41.** We call a piece *i* of information linguistically realized in an utterance *U*, iff, we can trace *i* to a fragment of *U*.
- Definition 1.42 (Possible Mechanism). Inferring the missing pieces from the context and world knowledge:



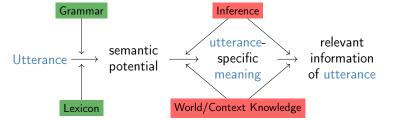
We call this process semantic/pragmatic analysis.

Eau



### Context Contributes to the Meaning of NL Utterances

- **Example 1.43.** It starts at eleven. What starts?
- Before we can resolve the time, we need to resolve the anaphor it.
- Possible Mechanism: More Inference!



 $\sim$  Semantic/pragmatic analysis is quite complex! (prime topic of LBS)



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### Semantics is not a Cure-It-All!

How many animals of each species did Moses take onto the ark?



21



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### How many animals of each species did Moses take onto the ark?

Actually, it was Noah

(But you understood the question anyways)





The only thing that currently really helps is a restricted domain:
 I. e. a restricted vocabulary and world model.



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### Demo:

DBPedia http://dbpedia.org/snorql/

Query: Soccer players, who are born in a country with more than 10 million inhabitants, who played as goalkeeper for a club that has a stadium with more than 30.000 seats and the club country is different from the birth country



### But Semantics works in some cases

#### Answer:

#### (is computed by DBPedia from a SPARQL query)

SELECT distinct ?soccerplayer ?countryOfBirth ?team ?countryOfTeam ?stadiumcapacity ?soccerplayer a dbo:SoccerPlayer : dbo:position|dbp:position <http://dbpedia.org/resource/Goalkeeper (association football)>; dbo:birthPlace/dbo:country\* ?countryOfBirth ; #dbo:number 13 : dbo:team ?team . ?team dbo:capacity ?stadiumcapacity ; dbo:ground ?countryOfTeam . ?countryOfBirth a dbo:Country ; dbo:populationTotal ?population . ?countryOfTeam a dbo:Country . FILTER (?countryOfTeam != ?countryOfBirth) FILTER (?stadiumcapacity > 30000) FILTER (?population > 10000000) } order by ?soccerplayer Results: Browse Go! Reset

SPARQL results:

Eai

soccerplayer	countryOfBirth	team	countryOfTeam	stadiumcapa	acity
:Abdesslam_Benabdellah 🗗	:Algeria 🕼	:Wydad_Casablanca 🗗	:Morocco 🗗	67000	
:Airton_Moraes_Michellon	:Brazil 🚱	:FC_Red_Bull_Salzburg	:Austria 🕼	31000	
:Alain_Gouaméné 🗗	:lvory_Coast	:Raja_Casablanca 🗗	:Morocco 🗗	67000	
:Allan_McGregor	:United_Kingdom	:Beşiktaş_J.K. 🗗	:Turkey 🗗	41903	
:Anthony_Scribe 🚱	:France 🚱	:FC_Dinamo_Tbilisi 🚱	:Georgia_(country) 🗗	54549	
:Brahim_Zaari 🖗	:Netherlands 🛃	:Raja_Casablanca 🗗	:Morocco 🗗	67000	
:Bréiner_Castillo 🚱	:Colombia 🚱	:Deportivo_Táchira 🗗	:Venezuela 🗗	38755	
:Carlos_Luis_Morales	:Ecuador 🚱	:Club_Atlético_Independiente 🗗	:Argentina 🗗	48069	
:Carlos_Navarro_Montoya 🗗	:Colombia 🔄	:Club_Atlético_Independiente 🗗	:Argentina 🗗	48069	
:Cristián_Muñoz 🖻	:Argentina 🕼	:Colo-Colo 🖻	:Chile 🖉	47000	
:Daniel_Ferreyra 🗗	:Argentina 🕼	:FBC_Melgar 🗗	:Peru 🕼	60000	
:David_Bičík 🕼	:Czech_Republic @	:Karşıyaka_S.K. 🗗	:Turkey 🕼	51295	
:David_Loria 🗗	:Kazakhstan 🚱	:Karşıyaka_S.K. 🗗	:Turkey 🗗	51295	
:Denys_Boyko 🗐	:Ukraine 🕼	:Beşiktaş_J.K. 🗗	:Turkey 🚱	41903	
:Eddie_Gustafsson 🗗	:United_States 🚱	:FC_Red_Bull_Salzburg	:Austria 🗗	31000	
:Emilian_Dolha 🖗	:Romania 🕼	:Lech_Poznań 🗗	:Poland 🕼	43269	
:Eusebio_Acasuzo 🗗	:Peru 🚱	:Club_Bolívar 🗗	:Bolivia 🗗	42000	
:Faryd_Mondragón 🗗	:Colombia 🖻	:Real_Zaragoza 🗗	:Spain 🗗	34596	6
Michael Kohl	nase: LBS on	OLUZZUGUN Independents of	2025-02-06	40000	RIGHTS

#### 2.2 Natural Language Understanding as Engineering

23



- Language Assistance:
  - written language: Spell/grammar/style-checking,
  - spoken language: dictation systems and screen readers,
  - multilingual text: machine-supported text and dialog translation, eLearning.

24



- Language Assistance:
  - written language: Spell/grammar/style-checking,
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- Information management:
  - search and classification of documents,
  - information extraction, question answering.

(e.g. Google/Bing) (e.g. http://ask.com)

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  - written language: Spell/grammar/style-checking,
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  - multilingual text: machine-supported text and dialog translation, eLearning.
- Information management:
  - search and classification of documents,
  - information extraction, question answering.
- Dialog Systems/Interfaces:
  - information systems: at airport, tele-banking, e-commerce, call centers,

24

dialog interfaces for computers, robots, cars.

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(e.g. Google/Bing) (e.g. http://ask.com)

(e.g. Siri/Alexa)

- Language Assistance:
  - written language: Spell/grammar/style-checking,
  - spoken language: dictation systems and screen readers,
  - multilingual text: machine-supported text and dialog translation, eLearning.
- Information management:
  - search and classification of documents,
  - information extraction, question answering.
- Dialog Systems/Interfaces:
  - information systems: at airport, tele-banking, e-commerce, call centers,
  - dialog interfaces for computers, robots, cars. (e.g. Siri/Alexa)
- Observation: The earlier technologies largely rely on pattern matching, the latter ones need to compute the meaning of the input utterances, e.g. for database lookups in information systems.

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(e.g. Google/Bing) (e.g. http://ask.com)

- Generally: Studying of natural languages and development of systems that can use/generate these.
- Definition 2.1. Natural language processing (NLP) is an engineering field at the intersection of computer science, artificial intelligence, and linguistics which is concerned with the interactions between computers and human (natural) languages. Most challenges in NLP involve:
  - Natural language understanding (NLU) that is, enabling computers to derive meaning (representations) from human or natural language input.
  - Natural language generation (NLG) which aims at generating natural language or speech from meaning representation.
- ▶ For communication with/among humans we need both NLU and NLG.

2025-02-06

# What is the State of the Art In NLU?

 Two avenues of attack for the problem: knowledge-based and statistical techniques (they are complementary)

Deep	Knowledge-based We are here	Not there yet cooperation?	
Shallow	no-one wants this	Statistical Methods applications	
Analysis $\uparrow$			
VS.	narrow	wide	
$Coverage \to$			

We will cover foundational methods of deep processing in the course and a mixture of deep and shallow ones in the lab.



# Environmental Niches for both Approaches to NLU

**Definition 2.2.** There are two kinds of applications/tasks in NLU:

- Consumer tasks: consumer grade applications have tasks that must be fully generic and wide coverage. (e.g. machine translation like Google Translate)
- Producer tasks: producer grade applications must be high-precision, but can be domain-specific (e.g. multilingual documentation, machinery-control, program verification, medical technology)

Precision 100%	Producer Tasks		
50%		Consumer Tasks	
	$10^{3\pm1}$ Concepts	$10^{6\pm1}$ Concepts	Coverage

after Aarne Ranta [Ran17].

- **Example 2.3.** Producing/managing machine manuals in multiple languages across machine variants is a critical producer task for machine tool company.
- A producer domain I am interested in: mathematical/technical documents.



# NLP for NLU: The Waterfall Model

- Definition 2.4 (The NLU Waterfall). NL understanding is often modeled as a simple linear process: the NLU waterfall consists of five consecutive steps:
  - 0) speech processing: acoustic signal  $\sim$  word hypothesis graph
  - 1) syntactic processing: word sequence  $\sim$  phrase structure
  - 2) semantics construction: phrase structure ~> (quasi-)logical form
  - 3) semantic/pragmatic analysis:
    - (quasi-)logical form  $\rightsquigarrow$  knowledge representation
  - 4) problem solving: using the generated knowledge (application-specific)

### Definition 2.5. We call any formalization of an utterance as a logical formula a logical form. A quasi-logical form (QLF) is a representation which can be turned into a logical form by further computation.2

▶ In this course: steps 1), 2) and 3).



# 2.3 Looking at Natural Language

28



Fun with Diamonds (are they real?) [Dav67b]

Example 3.1. We study the truth conditions of adjectival complexes:
 This is a diamond. (= diamond)



# Fun with Diamonds (are they real?) [Dav67b]

**Example 3.2.** We study the truth conditions of adjectival complexes:

- This is a diamond.
- This is a blue diamond.

 $(\models diamond)$  $(\models diamond, \models blue)$ 



# Fun with Diamonds (are they real?) [Dav67b]

### **Example 3.3.** We study the truth conditions of adjectival complexes:

- This is a diamond.
- This is a blue diamond.
- This is a big diamond.

 $(\models diamond)$  $(\models diamond, \models blue)$  $(\models diamond, \not\models big)$ 



### **Example 3.4.** We study the truth conditions of adjectival complexes:

This is a diamond.

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- This is a blue diamond.
- This is a big diamond.
- This is a fake diamond.

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 $(\models diamond)$  $(\models diamond, \models blue)$  $(\models diamond, \not\models big)$  $(\models \neg diamond)$ 

2025-02-06

#### **Example 3.5.** We study the truth conditions of adjectival complexes:

- This is a diamond.
- This is a blue diamond.
- This is a big diamond.
- This is a fake diamond.
- This is a fake blue diamond.

 $(\models diamond)$  $(\models diamond, \models blue)$  $(\models diamond, \not\models big)$  $(\models \neg diamond)$  $(\models blue?, \models diamond?)$ 

2025-02-06

### **Example 3.6.** We study the truth conditions of adjectival complexes:

- This is a diamond.
- This is a blue diamond.
- This is a big diamond.
- This is a fake diamond.
- This is a fake blue diamond.
- Mary knows that this is a diamond.

```
(\models diamond)
(\models diamond, \models blue)
(\models diamond, ≠ big)
(\models \neg diamond)
(\models blue?, ⊨ diamond?)
(\models diamond)
```

### **Example 3.7.** We study the truth conditions of adjectival complexes:

- This is a diamond.
- This is a blue diamond.
- This is a big diamond.
- This is a fake diamond.
- This is a fake blue diamond.
- Mary knows that this is a diamond.
- Mary believes that this is a diamond.

```
(\models diamond)
(\models diamond, \models blue)
(\models diamond, \models blg)
(\models \neg diamond)
(\models blue?, \models diamond?)
(\models diamond)
(\notin diamond)
```

Eau

- ► **Definition 3.8.** We call an utterance ambiguous, iff it has multiple meanings, which we call readings.
- **Example 3.9.** All of the following sentences are ambiguous:
  - ► John went to the bank.

(river or financial?)



**Definition 3.10.** We call an utterance ambiguous, iff it has multiple meanings, which we call readings.

30

- **Example 3.11.** All of the following sentences are ambiguous:
  - Iohn went to the bank.
  - You should have seen the bull we got from the pope.

(river or financial?) (three readings!)



- Definition 3.12. We call an utterance ambiguous, iff it has multiple meanings, which we call readings.
- **Example 3.13.** All of the following sentences are ambiguous:
  - John went to the bank.
  - > You should have seen the bull we got from the pope.
  - I saw her duck.

(river or financial?) (three readings!) (animal or action?)

- Definition 3.14. We call an utterance ambiguous, iff it has multiple meanings, which we call readings.
- **Example 3.15.** All of the following sentences are ambiguous:
  - John went to the bank.
  - You should have seen the bull we got from the pope.
  - I saw her duck.
  - John chased the gangster in the red sports car.

(river or financial?) (three readings!) (animal or action?) (three-way too!)

**Example 3.16.** Every man loves a woman.

(Keira Knightley or his mother!)





**Example 3.21.** *Every man loves a woman.* 

**Example 3.22.** Every car has a radio.

(Keira Knightley or his mother!) (only one reading!)



**Example 3.26.** Every man loves a woman. (Keira Knightley or his mother!) Example 3.27. Every car has a radio. (only one reading!) Example 3.28. Some student in every course sleeps in every class at least some of the time.

(how many readings?)

- **Example 3.31.** *Every man loves a woman.* (Keira Knightley or his mother!)
- **Example 3.32.** *Every car has a radio.* (only one reading!)
- Example 3.33. Some student in every course sleeps in every class at least some of the time. (how many readings?)
- Example 3.34. The president of the US is having an affair with an intern. (2002 or 2000?)

- **Example 3.36.** *Every man loves a woman.* (Keira Knightley or his mother!)
- **Example 3.37.** *Every car has a radio.* (only one reading!)
- Example 3.38. Some student in every course sleeps in every class at least some of the time. (how many readings?)
- Example 3.39. The president of the US is having an affair with an intern. (2002 or 2000?)
- **Example 3.40.** Everyone is here.

(who is everyone?)

2025-02-06



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32

**Example 3.41 (Anaphoric References).** 

John is a bachelor. His wife is very nice.

(Uh, what?, who?)



- **Example 3.45 (Anaphoric References).** 
  - ► John is a bachelor. His wife is very nice.
  - John likes his dog Spiff even though he bites him sometimes.

(Uh, what?, who?) (who bites?)



#### **Example 3.49 (Anaphoric References).**

- ► John is a bachelor. His wife is very nice.
- John likes his dog Spiff even though he bites him sometimes.
- John likes Spiff. Peter does too.

(Uh, what?, who?) (who bites?)

(what to does Peter do?)



- **Example 3.53 (Anaphoric References).** 
  - ► John is a bachelor. His wife is very nice.
  - John likes his dog Spiff even though he bites him sometimes.
  - ► John likes Spiff. Peter does too.
  - John loves his wife. Peter does too.

(Uh, what?, who?) es. (who bites?) (what to does Peter do?) (whom does Peter love?)



- **Example 3.57 (Anaphoric References).** 
  - ► John is a bachelor. His wife is very nice.
  - John likes his dog Spiff even though he bites him sometimes.
  - John likes Spiff. Peter does too.
  - John loves his wife. Peter does too.
  - ► John loves golf, and Mary too.

(Uh, what?, who?) es. (who bites?) (what to does Peter do?) (whom does Peter love?) (who does what?)

2025-02-06

Example 3.61 (Anaphoric References). John is a bachelor. His wife is very nice. (Uh, what?, who?) John likes his dog Spiff even though he bites him sometimes. (who bites?) ► John likes Spiff. Peter does too. (what to does Peter do?) John loves his wife. Peter does too. (whom does Peter love?) John loves golf, and Mary too. (who does what?) **Definition 3.62.** A word or phrase is called anaphoric (or an anaphor), if its interpretation depends upon another phrase in context. In a narrower sense, an anaphor refers to an earlier phrase (its antecedent), while a cataphor to a later one (its postcedent). Definition 3.63. The process of determining the antecedent or postcedent of an anaphoric phrase is called anaphor resolution. Definition 3.64. An anaphoric connection between anaphor and its antecedent or postcedent is called direct, iff it can be understood purely syntactically. An anaphoric connection is called indirect or a bridging reference if additional knowledge is needed.





- **Example 3.65 (Anaphoric References).** 
  - John is a bachelor. His wife is very nice.
  - John likes his dog Spiff even though he bites him sometimes.
  - John likes Spiff. Peter does too.
  - John loves his wife. Peter does too.
  - John loves golf, and Mary too.

(Uh, what?, who?) (who bites?)

- (what to does Peter do?) (whom does Peter love?) (who does what?)
- Definition 3.66. A word or phrase is called anaphoric (or an anaphor), if its interpretation depends upon another phrase in context. In a narrower sense, an anaphor refers to an earlier phrase (its antecedent), while a cataphor to a later one (its postcedent).
  - **Definition 3.67.** The process of determining the antecedent or postcedent of an anaphoric phrase is called anaphor resolution.
  - **Definition 3.68.** An anaphoric connection between anaphor and its antecedent or postcedent is called direct, iff it can be understood purely syntactically. An anaphoric connection is called indirect or a bridging reference if additional knowledge is needed.
- Anaphora are another example, where natural languages use the inferential capabilities of the hearer/reader to "shorten" utterances.
- Anaphora challenge pragmatic analysis, since they can only be resolved from the context using world knowledge.



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2025-02-06



Example 3.69. Consider the following sentences involving definite description:
 1. The king of America is rich. (true or false?)

How do the interact with your context and world knowledge?





**Example 3.70.** Consider the following sentences involving definite description:

33

- 1. The king of America is rich.
- 2. The king of America isn't rich.

(true or false?) (false or true?)

How do the interact with your context and world knowledge?



**Example 3.71.** Consider the following sentences involving definite description:

- 1. The king of America is rich.
- 2. The king of America isn't rich.
- 3. If America had a king, the king of America would be rich.

How do the interact with your context and world knowledge?

**Example 3.72.** Consider the following sentences involving definite description:

- 1. The king of America is rich.
- 2. The king of America isn't rich.
- 3. If America had a king, the king of America would be rich.
- 4. The king of Buganda is rich.

How do the interact with your context and world knowledge?

(true or false?) (false or true?) (true or false!) (Where is Buganda?)

**Example 3.73.** Consider the following sentences involving definite description:

 1. The king of America is rich.
 (true or false?)

 2. The king of America isn't rich.
 (false or true?)

 3. If America had a king, the king of America would be rich.
 (true or false!)

 4. The king of Buganda is rich.
 (Where is Buganda?)

 5. ... Joe Smith... The CEO of Westinghouse announced budget cuts.
 (CEO=J.S.!)

 How do the interact with your context and world knowledge?

How do the interact with your context and world knowledge?



**Example 3.74.** Consider the following sentences involving definite description:

- The king of America is rich.
   The king of America isn't rich.
   If America had a king, the king of America would be rich.
   The king of Buganda is rich.
   The king of Buganda is rich.
   Search 20 (Where is Buganda?)
   ... Joe Smith... The CEO of Westinghouse announced budget cuts.
   (CEO=J.S.!)
   How do the interact with your context and world knowledge?
- ▶ The interpretation or whether they make sense at all dep
- Note: Last two examples feed back into the context or even world knowledge:
  - If 4. is uttered by an Africa expert, we add "Buganda exists and is a monarchy to our world knowledge
  - We add Joe Smith is the CEO of Westinghouse to the context/world knowledge (happens all the time in newpaper articles)

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33

# 2.4 A Taste of Language Philosophy

33



• **Question:** What is the meaning of the word *chair*?



- **Question:** What is the meaning of the word *chair*?
- Answer: "the set of all chairs" (difficult to delineate, but more or less clear)
- ▶ Question: What is the meaning of the word *Michael Kohlhase*?



- **Question:** What is the meaning of the word *chair*?
- Answer: "the set of all chairs" (difficult to delineate, but more or less clear)
- Question: What is the meaning of the word Michael Kohlhase?
- ▶ Answer: The word refers to an object in the real world: the instructor of LBS.
- ► Alternatively: The singleton with that object (as for "set of chairs" above)
- Question: What about Michael Kohlhase sits on a chair?



- Question: What is the meaning of the word chair?
- Answer: "the set of all chairs" (difficult to delineate, but more or less clear)
- Question: What is the meaning of the word Michael Kohlhase?
- ▶ Answer: The word refers to an object in the real world: the instructor of LBS.
- Alternatively: The singleton with that object (as for "set of chairs" above)
- Question: What about Michael Kohlhase sits on a chair?
- Towards an Answer: We have to combine the two sets, via the meaning of "sits".
- ▶ Question: What is the meaning of the word John F. Kennedy or Odysseus?





- ▶ Question: What is the meaning of the word *chair*?
- Answer: "the set of all chairs" (difficult to delineate, but more or less clear)
- Question: What is the meaning of the word Michael Kohlhase?
- Answer: The word refers to an object in the real world: the instructor of LBS.
- Alternatively: The singleton with that object (as for "set of chairs" above)
- Question: What about Michael Kohlhase sits on a chair?
- **Towards an Answer:** We have to combine the two sets, via the meaning of "sits".
- ▶ Question: What is the meaning of the word John F. Kennedy or Odysseus?
- **Problem:** There are no objects in the real worlds, so the meaning of both is  $\emptyset$ and thus equal  $\odot$ .



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# 2.4.1 Epistemology: The Philosphy of Science



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# Epistemology – Propositions & Observations

- Definition 4.1. Epistemology is the branch of philosophy concerned with studying nature of knowledge, its justification, the rationality of belief, scientific theories and predictions, and various related issues.
- Definition 4.2. A proposition is a sentence about the actual world or a class of worlds deemed possible whose meaning can be expressed as being true or false in a specific world.
- Definition 4.3. A belief is a proposition φ that an agent a holds true about a class of worlds. This is a characterizing feature of the agent.
- Definition 4.4 (Knowledge The JTB Account). Knowledge is justified, true belief.
- **Problem:** How can an agent justify a belief to obtain knowledge.
- Definition 4.5. Given a world w, the observed value (or just value, i.e. true or false) of a proposition (in w) can be determined by observations, that is an agent, the observer, either observes (experiences) that φ is true in w or conducts a deliberate, systematic experiment that determines φ to be true in w.



#### Epistemology – Reproducibility & Phenomena

- **Problem:** Observations are sometimes unreliable, e.g. observer o perceives  $\varphi$  to be true, while it is false or vice versa.
- ▶ Idea: Repeat the observations to raise the probability of getting them right.
- Definition 4.6. An observation φ is said to be reproducible, iff φ can observed by different observers in different situations.
- Definition 4.7. A phenomenon φ is a proposition that is reproducibly observable to be true in a class of worlds.
- Problem: We would like to verify a phenomenon φ, i.e. observe φ in all worlds, But relevant world classes are too large to make this practically feasible.
- Definition 4.8. A world w is a counterexample to a proposition φ, if φ is observably false in w.
- Intuition: The absence of counterexamples is the best we can hope for in general for accepting phenomena.
- ▶ Intuition: The phenomena constitute the "world model" of an agent.
- **Problem:** It is impossible/inefficient (for an agent) to know all phenomena.
- Idea: An agent could retain only a small subset of known propositions, from this all phenomena can be derived.

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## Epistemology – Explanations & Hypotheses

- **Definition 4.9.** A proposition  $\psi$  follows from a proposition  $\varphi$ , iff  $\psi$  is true in any world where  $\varphi$  is.
- Definition 4.10. An explanation of a phenomenon φ is a set Φ of propositions, such that φ follows from Φ.
- **Example 4.11.**  $\{\varphi\}$  is a (rather useless) explanation for  $\varphi$ .
- **Intuition:** We prefer explanations  $\Phi$  that explain more than just  $\varphi$ .
- **Observation:** This often coincides with explanations that are in some sense "simpler" or "more elementary" than  $\varphi$ . ( $\sim$  Occam's razor)
- Definition 4.12. A proposition is called falsifiable, iff counterexamples are theoretically possible and the observation of a reproducible series of counterexample is practically feasible.
- Definition 4.13. A hypothesis is a proposed explanation of a phenomenon that is falsifiable.



- Knowledge Strategy: Collect hypotheses about the world, drop those with counterexamples and those that can be explained themselves.
- Definition 4.14. A hypothesis φ can be tested in world/situation w by observing the value of φ in w. If the value is true, then we say that the observation o supports φ or is evidence for φ. If it is false then o falsifies φ.
- **Definition 4.15.** A (scientific) theory for a collection  $\Phi$  of phenomena is a set  $\Theta$  of hypotheses that
  - ▶ has been tested extensively and rigorously without finding counterexamples, and
  - is minimal in the sense that no sub-collection of  $\Theta$  explains  $\Phi$ .
- Definition 4.16. We call any proposition φ that follows from a theory Φ a prediction of Φ.
- Note: To falsify a theory Φ, it is sufficient to falsify any prediction. Any observation of a prediction φ of Φ supports Φ.



# 2.4.2 Meaning Theories

38



- ▶ The Central Question: What is the meaning of natural language?
- This is difficult to answer definitely, ...
- But we can form meaning theory that make predictions that we can test.
- Definition 4.17. A semantic meaning theory assigns semantic contents to expressions of a language.
- Definition 4.18. A foundational meaning theory tries to explain why language expressions have the meanings they have; e.g. in terms of mental states of individuals and groups.
- It is important to keep these two notions apart.
- ▶ We will concentrate on semantic meaning theories in this course.



## The Meaning of Singular Terms

- Let's see a semantic meaning theory in action.
- Definition 4.19. A singular term is a phrase that purports to denote or designate a particular individual person, place, or other object.
- **Example 4.20.** *Michael Kohlhase* and *Odysseus* are singular terms.
- Definition 4.21. In [Fre92], Gottlob Frege distinguishes between sense (Sinn) and referent (Bedeutung) of singular terms.
- Example 4.22. Even though Odysseus does not have a referent, it has a very real sense. (but what is a sense?)
- Example 4.23. The ancient greeks knew the planets *Hesperos* (the evening star) and *Phosphoros* (the morning star). These words have different senses, but the as we now know same referent: the planet Venus.
- Remark: Bertrand Russell views singular terms as disguised definite descriptions – Hesperos as "the brightest heavenly body that sometimes rises in the evening". Frege's sense can often be conflated with Russell's descriptions. (there can be more than one definite description)



- Problem: How can we test meaning theories in practice?
- Definition 4.24. Cresswell's (1982) most certain principle (MCP): [Cre82] I'm going to begin by telling you what I think is the most certain thing I think about meaning. Perhaps it's the only thing. It is this. If we have two sentences A and B, and A is true and B is false, then A and B do not mean the same.
- **Definition 4.25.** The truth conditions of a sentence are the conditions of the world under which it is true. These conditions must be such that if all obtain, the sentence is true, and if one doesn't obtain, the sentence is false.
- Observation: Meaning determines truth conditions and vice versa.
- In Fregean terms The sense of a sentence (a thought) determines its referent (a truth value).



This principle sounds trivial – and indeed it is, if you think about it – but gives rise to the notion of truth conditions, which form the most important way of finding out about the meaning of sentences: the determinations of truth conditions.



Idea: To test/determine the truth conditions of a sentence S in practice, we tell little stories that describe situations/worlds that embed S.

Example 4.26. Consider the ambiguous sentence from Example 3.27 (Looking at Natural Language) in the LBS lecture notes:

John chased the gangster in the red sports car. For each of three readings there is story  $\hat{=}$  truth conditions

- John drives the red sports car and chases the gangster.
- John chases the gangster who drives the red sports car.
- ▶ John chases the gangster on the back seat of a (very very big) red sports car.

All of these stories correspond to different worlds, so by the MCP there must be at least three readings!

Eau

- Definition 4.27. A meaning theory T is compositional, iff the meaning of an expression is a function of the meanings of its parts. We say that T obeys the compositionality principle or simply compositionality if it is.
- To compute the meaning of an expression, look up the meanings of the basic expressions forming it and successively compute the meanings of larger parts until a meaning for the whole expression is found.
- **Example 4.28 (Compositionality at work in arithmetic).** To compute the value of  $(x + y)/(z \cdot u)$ , look up the values of x, y, z, and u, then compute x + y and  $z \cdot u$ , and finally compute the value of the whole expression.
- Many philosophers and linguists hold that compositionality is at work in ordinary language too.





- Compositionality gives a nice building block for a meaning theory:
- Example 4.29. [Expressions [are [built [from [words [that [combine [into [[larger [and larger]] subexpressions]]]]]]]]
- Consequence: To compute the meaning of an expression, look up the meanings of its words and successively compute the meanings of larger parts until a meaning for the whole expression is found.
- Compositionality explains how people can easily understand sentences they have never heard before, even though there are an infinite number of sentences any given person at any given time has not heard before.

### Compositionality and the Congruence Principle

- Given reasonable assumptions compositionality entails the
- ▶ **Definition 4.30.** The congruence principle states that whenever *A* is part of *B* and *A*' means just the same as *A*, replacing *A* by *A*' in *B* will lead to a result that means just the same as *B*.
- **Example 4.31.** Consider the following (complex) sentences:
  - 1. blah blah blah such and such blah blah
  - 2. blah blah blah so and so blah blah

If *such* and *such* and *so* and *so* mean the same thing, then 1. and 2. mean the same too.

Conversely: if 1. and 2. do not mean the same, then such and such and so and so do not either.



Eau

### A Test for Synonymity

- Suppose we accept the most certain principle (difference in truth conditions implies difference in meaning) and the congruence principle (replacing words by synonyms results in a synonymous utterance). Then we have a diagnostics for synonymy: Replacing utterances by synonyms preserves truth conditions, or equivalently
- Definition 4.32. The following is called the truth conditional synonymy test: If replacing A by B in some sentence C does not preserve truth conditions, then A and B are not synonymous.
- We can use this as a test for the question of individuation: when are the meanings of two words the same – when are they synonymous?
- **Example 4.33 (Unsurprising Results).** The following sentences differ in truth conditions.
  - 1. The cat is on the mat.
  - 2. The dog is on the mat.

Hence *cat* and *dog* are not synonymous. The converse holds for

- 1. John is a Greek.
- 2. John is a Hellene.

In this case there is no difference in truth conditions.

But there might be another context that does give a difference.



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**Example 4.34 (Problem).** The following sentences differ in truth values:

- 1. Mary believes that John is a Greek
- 2. Mary believes that John is a Hellene

So *Greek* is not synonymous to *Hellene*. The same holds in the classical example:

- 1. The Ancients knew that Hesperus was Hesperus
- 2. The Ancients knew that Hesperus was Phosphorus

In these cases most language users do perceive a difference in truth conditions while some philosophers vehemently deny that the sentences under 1. could be true in situations where the 2. sentences are false.

It is important here of course that the context of substitution is within the scope of a verb of propositional attitude. (maybe later!)



Eau

## Definition 4.35 (Synonymy). The following is called the truth conditional synonymy test:

If replacing A by B in some sentence C does not preserve truth conditions in a compositional part of C, then A and B are not synonymous.



### Testing Truth Conditions with Logic

- Definition 4.36. A logical language model *M* for a natural language *L* consists of a logical system ⟨*L*,*K*, ⊨⟩ and a function φ from *L* sentences to *L*-formulae.
- **Problem:** How do we find out whether  $\mathcal{M}$  models L faithfully?
- **Idea:** Test truth conditions of sentences against the predictions  $\mathcal{M}$  makes.
- **Problem:** The truth conditions for a sentence *S* in *L* can only be formulated and verified by humans that speak *L*.
- In Practice: Truth conditions are expressed as "stories" that specify salient situations. Native speakers of *L* are asked to judge whether they make *S* true/false.
- **• Observation 4.37.** A logical language model  $\mathcal{M} := \langle L, \mathcal{L}, \varphi \rangle$  can be tested:
  - 1. Select a sentence S and a situation W that makes S true in W. (according to humans)
  - 2. Translate S in to an  $\mathcal{L}$ -formula  $S' := \varphi(S)$ .
  - 3. Express W as a set  $\Phi$  of  $\mathcal{L}$ -formulae.

 $(\Phi \cong truth conditions)$ 

4.  $\mathcal{M}$  is supported if  $\Phi \vDash S'$ , falsified if  $\Phi \nvDash S'$ .

#### Corollary 4.38. A logical language model constitutes a semantic meaning theory.



### 2.5 Computational Semantics as a Natural Science

49



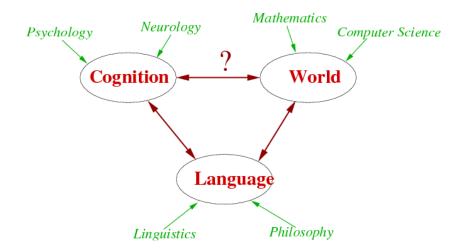
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### Computational Semantics as a Natural Science

- ▶ In a nutshell: Formal logic studies formal languages, their relation with the world (in particular the truth conditions). Computational logic adds the question about the computational behavior of the relevant aspects of the formal languages.
- This is almost the same as the task of natural language semantics!
- It is one of the key ideas that logics are good scientific models for natural languages, since they simplify certain aspects so that they can be studied in isolation. In particular, we can use the general scientific method of
  - 1. observing
  - 2. building formal theories for an aspect of reality,
  - 3. deriving the consequences of the hypotheses about the world in the theories
  - 4. testing the predictions made by the theory against the real-world data. If the theory predicts the data, then this supports the theory, if not, we refine the theory, starting the process again at 2.



### NL Semantics as an Intersective Discipline





### Part 1 English as a Formal Language: The Method of Fragments

51

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# Chapter 3 Logic as a Tool for Modeling NL Semantics

51



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### 3.1 The Method of Fragments

51



- Methodological Problem: How to organize the scientific method for natural language?
- Delineation Problem: What is natural language, e.g. English? Which aspects do we want to study?
- ► Idea: Select a subset (NL) sentences we want to study by a grammar! ~ Richard Montague's method of fragments (1972).
- ▶ Definition 1.1. The language *L* of a context-free grammar is called a fragment of a natural language *N*, iff  $L \subseteq N$ .
- Scientific Fiction: We can exhaust English with ever-increasing fragments, develop a semantic meaning theory for each.

CC Some cichtis casa

- ▶ Idea: Use nonterminals to classify NL phrases.
- Definition 1.2. We call a nonterminal symbol of a context-free grammar a phrasal category. We distinguish two kinds of rules:

structural rules:  $\mathcal{L}: H \to c_1, \ldots, c_n$  with head H, label  $\mathcal{L}$ , and a sequence of phrasal categories  $c_i$ . lexical rules:  $\mathcal{L}: H \to t_1 | \ldots | t_n$ , where the  $t_i$  are terminals (i.e. NL phrases)

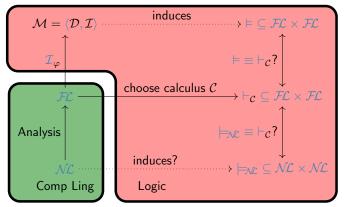
- Definition 1.3. In the method of fragments we use a CFG to parse sentences from the fragment into a parse tree (also called abstract syntax tree (AST) for further processing.
- **Todo:** We have to restrict our logical language models to fragments.
- Definition 1.4. A language fragment model consists of a CFG G, a logical system L, and a semantics construction mapping φ from G-parse trees to L-formulae.



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### Formal Natural Language Semantics with Fragments

Idea: We will follow the picture we have discussed before



Choose a target logic  $\mathcal{F\!L}$  and specify a translation from syntax trees to formulae!

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- Idea: We translate sentences by translating their syntax trees via tree node translation rules.
- ▶ Note: This makes the induced meaning theory compositional.
- ▶ Definition 1.5. We represent a node α in a syntax tree with children β<sub>1</sub>,...,β<sub>n</sub> by [X<sub>1β<sub>1</sub></sub>,..., X<sub>nβ<sub>n</sub></sub>]<sub>α</sub> and write a translation rule as

$$\mathcal{L}\colon [X_{1\beta_1},\ldots,X_{n\beta_n}]_{\alpha} \rightsquigarrow \Phi(X_1',\ldots,X_n')$$

if the translation of the node  $\alpha$  can be computed from those of the  $\beta_i$  via a semantical function  $\Phi$ .

- ▶ Definition 1.6. For a natural language utterance or text *A*, we will use ⟨A⟩ for the result of translating *A* and call it the interpretation of *A*.
- ▶ Definition 1.7 (Default Rule). For every word w in the fragment we assume a constant w' in the logic  $\mathcal{L}$  and the "pseudo-rule"  $t1: w \rightsquigarrow w'$ . (if no other translation rule applies)



### 3.2 What is Logic?

55



**Definition 2.1.** Logic  $\hat{=}$  formal languages, inference and their relation with the world

- Formal language  $\mathcal{FL}$ : set of formulae
- Formula: sequence/tree of symbols
- Model: things we understand
- Interpretation: maps formulae into models
- ▶ Validity:  $\mathcal{M} \models A$ , iff  $\llbracket A \rrbracket^{\mathcal{I}} = T$
- **Entailment**:  $A \models B$ , iff  $\mathcal{M} \models B$  for all  $\mathcal{M} \models A$ .
- Inference: rules to transform (sets of) formulae
- Syntax: formulae, inference
- Semantics: models, interpr., validity, entailment

Important Question: relation between syntax and semantics?

 $(2+3/7, \forall x.x+y=y+x)$  $(x, y, f, g, p, 1, \pi, \in, \neg, \forall, \exists)$ (e.g. number theory) ([three plus five] $^{\mathcal{I}} = 8$ ) (five greater three is valid) (generalize to  $\mathcal{H} \models A$ )  $(A, A \Rightarrow B \vdash B)$ (just a bunch of symbols) (math. structures)



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56

#### Using Logic to Model Meaning of Natural 3.3 Language

56



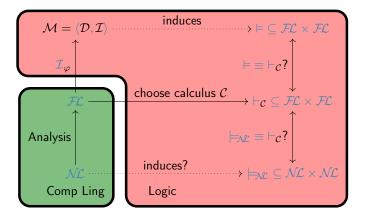
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### Modeling Natural Language Semantics

**Problem:** Find formal (logic) system for the meaning of natural language.

- History of ideas
  - Propositional logic [ancient Greeks like Aristotle]
    - \* Every human is mortal
  - ► First-Order Predicate logic [Frege ≤ 1900]
    - \* I believe, that my audience already knows this.
  - Modal logic [Lewis18, Kripke65]
    - \* A man sleeps. He snores.  $((\exists X.man(X) \land sleeps(X))) \land snores(X)$
  - Various dynamic approaches (e.g. DRT, DPL)
    - \* Most men wear black
  - Higher-order Logic, e.g. generalized quantifiers

▶ ...







### Logic-Based Knowledge Representation for NLP

- Logic (and related formalisms) allow to integrate world knowledge
  - (gives more understanding than statistical methods) explicitly
  - transparently
  - systematically

- (symbolic methods are monotonic)
  - (we can prove theorems about our systems)
- Signal + world knowledge makes more powerful model
  - Does not preclude the use of statistical methods to guide inference
- Problems with logic-based approaches
  - Where does the world knowledge come from?
  - How to guide search induced by logical calculi?
- **One possible answer:** Description Logics.

(Ontology problem) (combinatorial explosion) (Recall the AI-1 lecture?)



FAU

### Chapter 4 Fragment 1



### 4.1 The First Fragment: Setting up the Basics



#### **Fragment** $\mathcal{F}_1$ **Data:** We delineate the intended fragment by giving examples

- 1. Ethel kicked the cat and Fiona laughted
- 2. Peter is the teacher
- 3. The teacher is happy
- 4. It is not the case that Bertie ran
- 5. It is not the case that Jo is happy
- We can later use these sentences as benchmark tests.



#### 4.1.1 Natural Language Syntax (Fragment 1)

60



**Definition 1.1.**  $\mathcal{F}_1$  uses the following eight phrasal categories

S	sentence	NP	noun phrase
Ν	noun	$N_{\rm pr}$	proper name
$V^i$	intransitive verb	$V^t$	transitive verb
conj	coordinator	Adj	adjective

▶ **Definition 1.2.** We have the following production rules in  $\mathcal{F}_1$ .  $S1: S \to NP V^i$ ,  $S2: S \to NP V^t NP$ ,  $N1: NP \to N_{pr}$ ,  $N2: NP \to \text{the } N$ ,  $S3: S \to \text{It is not the case that } S$ ,  $S4: S \to S \text{ conj } S$ ,  $S5: S \to NP$  is NP, and

S6:  $S \rightarrow NP$  is Adj

Fau



### Lexical insertion rules for Fragment $\mathcal{F}_1$

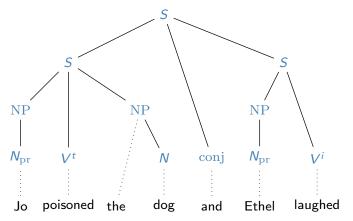
**Definition 1.3.** We have the following lexical insertion rules in fragment  $\mathcal{F}_1$ .

- $\texttt{L1: } \textit{N}_{\rm pr} \rightarrow \textit{Prudence} \mid \textit{Ethel} \mid \textit{Chester} \mid \textit{Jo} \mid \textit{Bertie} \mid \textit{Fiona,}$
- $L2 \colon N \to \text{book} \mid \text{cake} \mid \text{cat} \mid \text{golfer} \mid \text{dog} \mid \text{lecturer} \mid \text{student} \mid \text{singer},$
- L3:  $V^i \rightarrow \operatorname{ran} | \text{ laughed } | \text{ sang } | \text{ howled } | \text{ screamed}$ ,
- L4:  $V^t \rightarrow \text{read} \mid \text{poisoned} \mid \text{ate} \mid \text{liked} \mid \text{loathed} \mid \text{kicked}$ ,
- L5: conj  $\rightarrow$  and  $\mid$  or,
- $L6\colon \mathrm{Adj} \mathop{\rightarrow} \mathrm{happy} \mid \mathrm{crazy} \mid \mathrm{messy} \mid \mathrm{disgusting} \mid \mathrm{wealthy}$
- Definition 1.4. A production rule whose head is a single non-terminal and whose body consists of a single terminal is called lexical or a lexical insertion rule.
- ► Notation: Lexical insertion rules are usually written using BNF alternative in the body ← grouping rules with the same head.
- Definition 1.5. The subset of lexical rules of a grammar G is called the lexicon of G and the set of body symbols the vocabulary (or alphabet). The nonterminals in their heads are called lexical categories of G.
- ▶ Note: We will adopt the convention that new lexical insertion rules can be generated spontaneously as needed.



Syntax Example: Jo poisoned the dog and Ethel laughed

- Observation 1.6. Jo poisoned the dog and Ethel laughed is a sentence of fragment 1
- We can construct a parse tree for it!





### 4.1.2 Predicate Logic without Quantifiers



### Individuals and their Properties/Relationships

- Observation: We want to talk about individuals like Stefan, Nicole, and Jochen and their properties, e.g. being blond, or studying Al and relationships, e.g. that *Stefan loves Nicole*.
- Idea: Re-use PL<sup>0</sup>, but replace propositional variables with something more expressive! (instead of fancy variable name trick)



### Individuals and their Properties/Relationships

Observation: We want to talk about individuals like Stefan, Nicole, and Jochen and their properties, e.g. being blond, or studying Al

and relationships, e.g. that Stefan loves Nicole.

- Idea: Re-use PL<sup>0</sup>, but replace propositional variables with something more expressive! (instead of fancy variable name trick)
- **Definition 1.8.** A first-order signature  $\langle \Sigma^f, \Sigma^p \rangle$  consists of
  - ►  $\Sigma^{f} := \bigcup_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \Sigma_{k}^{f}$  of function constants, where members of  $\Sigma_{k}^{f}$  denote *k*-ary functions on individuals,
  - ►  $\Sigma^{p} := \bigcup_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \Sigma^{p}{}_{k}$  of predicate constants, where members of  $\Sigma^{p}{}_{k}$  denote *k*-ary relations among individuals,

where  $\Sigma_k^f$  and  $\Sigma_k^{p}$  are pairwise disjoint, countable sets of symbols for each  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ .

A 0-ary function constant refers to a single individual, therefore we call it a individual constant.



#### **Definition 1.9.** The formulae of P<sup>IIq</sup> are given by the following grammar

Ation 1.9. The formulaefunction constants $f^k \in \Sigma_k^f$ predicate constants $p^k \in \Sigma_k^p$ terms $t ::= f^0$ individualformulae $A ::= p^k(t_1, ..., t_k)$ atomic $| \neg A$ negation $| A_1 \land A_2$ conjunction

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Eau

- Definition 1.10. Domains D<sub>0</sub> = {T, F} of truth values and D<sub>i</sub> ≠ Ø of individuals.
- ▶ Definition 1.11. Interpretation *I* assigns values to constants, e.g.

▶ Definition 1.12. The value function *I* assigns values to formulae: (recursively)

- $\blacktriangleright \ \mathcal{I}(f(\mathsf{A}^1,\ldots,\mathsf{A}^k)) := \mathcal{I}(f)(\mathcal{I}(\mathsf{A}^1),\ldots,\mathcal{I}(\mathsf{A}^k))$
- $\blacktriangleright \ \mathcal{I}(\boldsymbol{p}(\mathsf{A}^1,\ldots,\mathsf{A}^k)) := \mathsf{T}, \text{ iff } \langle \mathcal{I}(\mathsf{A}^1),\ldots,\mathcal{I}(\mathsf{A}^k) \rangle \in \mathcal{I}(\boldsymbol{p})$
- $\blacktriangleright \ \mathcal{I}(\neg A) = \mathcal{I}(\neg)(\mathcal{I}(A)) \text{ and } \mathcal{I}(A \land B) = \mathcal{I}(\land)(\mathcal{I}(A), \mathcal{I}(G))$  (just as in  $\mathrm{PL}^0$ )
- **Definition 1.13.** Model:  $\mathcal{M} = \langle \mathcal{D}_{\iota}, \mathcal{I} \rangle$  varies in  $\mathcal{D}_{\iota}$  and  $\mathcal{I}$ .
- **Theorem 1.14.**  $PE^{Pq}$  is isomorphic to  $PL^0$  (interpret atoms as prop. variables)

Fau



- ▶ **Example 1.15.** Let  $L := \{a, b, c, d, e, P, Q, R, S\}$ , we set the universe  $\mathcal{D} := \{\clubsuit, \diamondsuit, \heartsuit, \diamondsuit\}$ , and specify the interpretation function  $\mathcal{I}$  by setting
  - $a \mapsto \clubsuit$ ,  $b \mapsto \diamondsuit$ ,  $c \mapsto \heartsuit$ ,  $d \mapsto \diamondsuit$ , and  $e \mapsto \diamondsuit$  for constants,
  - ▶  $P \mapsto \{\clubsuit, \clubsuit\}$  and  $Q \mapsto \{\diamondsuit, \diamondsuit\}$ , for unary predicate constants.
  - ▶  $R \mapsto \{\langle \heartsuit, \diamondsuit \rangle, \langle \diamondsuit, \heartsuit \rangle\}$ , and  $S \mapsto \{\langle \diamondsuit, \spadesuit \rangle, \langle \spadesuit, \clubsuit \rangle\}$  for binary predicate constants.
- **Example 1.16 (Computing Meaning in this Model).**

• 
$$\mathcal{I}(R(a,b) \land P(c)) = \mathsf{T}$$
, iff

• 
$$\mathcal{I}(R(a,b)) = \mathsf{T}$$
 and  $\mathcal{I}(P(c)) = \mathsf{T}$ , iff

• 
$$\langle \mathcal{I}(a), \mathcal{I}(b) 
angle \in \mathcal{I}(R)$$
 and  $\mathcal{I}(c) \in \mathcal{I}(P)$ , iff

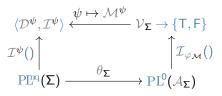
 $\blacktriangleright \ \langle \clubsuit, \blacklozenge \rangle \in \{ \langle \heartsuit, \diamondsuit \rangle, \langle \diamondsuit, \heartsuit \rangle \} \text{ and } \heartsuit \in \{ \clubsuit, \blacklozenge \}$ 

So,  $\mathcal{I}(R(a, b) \land P(c)) = \mathsf{F}$ .



# $\mathrm{P}\mathrm{E}^{\mathrm{rq}}$ and $\mathrm{P}\mathrm{L}^{\mathrm{0}}$ are Isomorphic

- ▶ **Observation:** For every choice of  $\Sigma$  of signature, the set  $\mathcal{A}_{\Sigma}$  of atomic  $PL^{pq}$  formulae is countable, so there is a  $\mathcal{V}_{\Sigma} \subseteq \mathcal{V}_0$  and a bijection  $\theta_{\Sigma} : \mathcal{A}_{\Sigma} \to \mathcal{V}_{\Sigma}$ .  $\theta_{\Sigma}$  can be extended to formulae as  $PL^{pq}$  and  $PL^0$  share connectives.
- ▶ Lemma 1.17. For every model  $\mathcal{M} = \langle \mathcal{D}_{\iota}, \mathcal{I} \rangle$ , there is a variable assignment  $\varphi_{\mathcal{M}}$ , such that  $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi_{\mathcal{M}}}(\mathsf{A}) = \mathcal{I}(\mathsf{A})$ .
- Proof sketch: We just define  $\varphi_{\mathcal{M}}(X) := \mathcal{I}(\theta_{\Sigma}^{-1}(X))$
- ► Lemma 1.18. For every variable assignment  $\psi : \mathcal{V}_{\Sigma} \to \{\mathsf{T},\mathsf{F}\}$  there is a model  $\mathcal{M}^{\psi} = \langle \mathcal{D}^{\psi}, \mathcal{I}^{\psi} \rangle$ , such that  $\mathcal{I}_{\psi}(\mathsf{A}) = \mathcal{I}^{\psi}(\mathsf{A})$ .
- Proof sketch: see next slide
- **Corollary 1.19.**  $PE^{q}$  is isomorphic to  $PL^{0}$ , i.e. the following diagram commutes:



Note: This constellation with a language isomorphism and a corresponding model isomorphism (in converse direction) is typical for a logic isomorphism.

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# Valuation and Satisfiability

- ► Lemma 1.20. For every variable assignment  $\psi : \mathcal{V}_{\Sigma} \to \{\mathsf{T},\mathsf{F}\}$  there is a model  $\mathcal{M}^{\psi} = \langle \mathcal{D}^{\psi}, \mathcal{I}^{\psi} \rangle$ , such that  $\mathcal{I}_{\psi}(\mathsf{A}) = \mathcal{I}^{\psi}(\mathsf{A})$ .
- *Proof:* We construct  $\mathcal{M}^{\psi} = \langle \mathcal{D}^{\psi}, \mathcal{I}^{\psi} \rangle$  and show that it works as desired.
  - 1. Let  $\mathcal{D}^{\psi}$  be the set of  $\operatorname{PL^{nq}}$  terms over  $\Sigma$ , and

$$\mathcal{I}^{\psi}(f): \mathcal{D}_{\iota}^{k} \to \mathcal{D}^{\psi^{k}}; \langle \mathsf{A}_{1}, \ldots, \mathsf{A}_{k} \rangle \mapsto f(\mathsf{A}_{1}, \ldots, \mathsf{A}_{k}) \text{ for } f \in \Sigma_{k}^{f}$$

- 2. We show  $\mathcal{I}^{\psi}(A) = A$  for terms A by induction on A 2.1. If A = c, then  $\mathcal{I}^{\psi}(A) = \mathcal{I}^{\psi}(c) = c = A$ 
  - 2.1. If A = c, then  $\mathcal{L}^{+}(A) = \mathcal{L}^{+}(c) = c = A$ 2.2. If  $A = f(A_1, \dots, A_n)$  then
  - $\mathcal{I}^{\psi}(\mathsf{A}) = \mathcal{I}^{\psi}(f)(\mathcal{I}(\mathsf{A}_1), \dots, \mathcal{I}(\mathsf{A}_n)) = \mathcal{I}^{\psi}(f)(\mathsf{A}_1, \dots, \mathsf{A}_k) = \mathsf{A}.$
- 3. For a PDq formula A we show that  $\mathcal{I}^{\psi}(A) = \mathcal{I}_{\psi}(A)$  by induction on A. 3.1. If  $A = p(A_1, ..., A_k)$ , then  $\mathcal{I}^{\psi}(A) = \mathcal{I}^{\psi}(p)(\mathcal{I}(A_1), ..., \mathcal{I}(A_n)) = T$ , iff  $\langle A_1, ..., A_k \rangle \in \mathcal{I}^{\psi}(p)$ , iff  $\psi(\theta_{\psi}^{-1}A) = T$ , so  $\mathcal{I}^{\psi}(A) = \mathcal{I}_{\psi}(A)$  as desired. 3.2. If  $A = \neg B$ , then  $\mathcal{I}^{\psi}(A) = T$ , iff  $\mathcal{I}^{\psi}(B) = F$ , iff  $\mathcal{I}^{\psi}(B) = \mathcal{I}_{\psi}(B)$ , iff  $\mathcal{I}^{\psi}(A) = \mathcal{I}_{\psi}(A)$ .

3.3. If  $A=B\wedge C$  then we argue similarly

4. Hence  $\mathcal{I}^{\psi}(A) = \mathcal{I}_{\psi}(A)$  for all  $\operatorname{PL}^{nq}$  formulae and we have concluded the proof.



### Natural Language Semantics via Translation 4.1.3

69



Translation rules for non-basic expressions (NP and S)

Definition 1.21. We have the following translation rules for non-leaf node of the syntax tree

- $T1: [X_{NP}, Y_{V'}]_{S} \rightsquigarrow Y'(X')$   $T2: [X_{NP}, Y_{V'}, Z_{NP}]_{S} \rightsquigarrow Y'(X', Z')$   $T3: [X_{N_{pr}}]_{NP} \rightsquigarrow X'$   $T4: [the, X_{N}]_{NP} \rightsquigarrow theX'$   $T5: [It is not the case that X_{S}]_{S} \rightsquigarrow (\neg X')$   $T6: [X_{S}, Y_{conj}, Z_{S}]_{S} \rightsquigarrow Y'(X', Z')$   $T7: [X_{NP}, is, Y_{NP}]_{S} \rightsquigarrow X' = Y'$   $T8: [X_{NP}, is, Y_{Adj}]_{S} \rightsquigarrow Y'(X')$ Read e.g.  $[Y, Z]_{X}$  as a node with label X in the syntax tree with children X and
  - Y. Read X' as the translation of X via these rules.

► Note that we have exactly one translation per syntax rule.

### Translation rule for basic lexical items

- ▶ **Definition 1.22.** The target logic for  $\mathcal{F}_1$  is P<sup>Pq</sup>, the fragment of P<sup>1</sup> without quantifiers.
- Lexical Translation Rules for  $\mathcal{F}_1$  Categories:
  - If w is a proper name, then  $w' \in \Sigma_0^f$ .
  - If w is an intransitive verb, then  $w' \in \Sigma^{p_1}$ .
  - If w is a transitive verb,  $w' \in \Sigma^{p}_{2}$ .
  - If w is a noun phrase, then  $w' \in \Sigma_0^f$ .

(individual constant) (one-place predicate) (two-place predicate) (individual constant)

- Semantics by Translation: We translate sentences by translating their syntax trees via tree node translation rules.
- For any lexical item (i.e. word) w, we have the "pseudo-rule"  $t1: w \rightarrow w'$ .
- Note: This rule does not apply to the syncategorematic items is and the.
- Translations for logical connectives

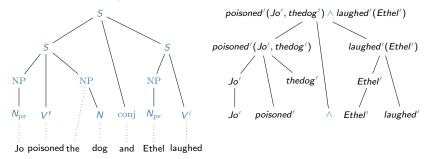
*t*2: and  $\rightsquigarrow \land$ , *t*3: or  $\rightsquigarrow \lor$ , *t*4: it is not the case that  $\rightsquigarrow \neg$ 



# Translation Example

Observation 1.23. Jo poisoned the dog and Ethel laughed is a sentence of fragment F<sub>1</sub>.

We can construct a syntax tree for it!





# 4.2 Testing Truth Conditions via Inference

72



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# Testing Truth Conditions in $\ensuremath{\mathrm{P}}\xspace^{\mathrm{nq}}$

- ▶ Idea 1: To test our language model  $(\mathcal{F}_1)$ 
  - Select a sentence S and a situation W that makes S true. (according to humans)
  - Translate S in to a formula S' in  $\mathbb{PL}^{\mathbb{P}^{q}}$ .
  - Express W as a set  $\Phi$  of formulae in  $\mathbb{PL}^{nq}$  ( $\Phi \cong \text{truth conditions}$ )
  - Our language model is supported if  $\Phi \vDash S'$ , falsified if  $\Phi \nvDash S'$ .

### Example 2.1 (John chased the gangster in the red sports car).

We claimed that we have three readings ??

 $R_1 := c(j,g) \land in(j,s), R_2 := c(j,g) \land in(g,s), \text{ and } R_3 := c(j,g) \land in(j,s) \land in(g,s)$ 

- So there must be three distinct situations W that make S true
  - 1. John is in the red sports car, but the gangster isn't  $W_1 := c(j,g) \wedge in(j,s) \wedge \neg in(g,s)$ , so  $W_1 \vDash R_1$ , but  $W_1 \nvDash R_2$  and  $W_1 \nvDash R_3$
  - 2. The gangster is in the red sports car, but John isn't  $W_2 := c(j,g) \wedge in(g,s) \wedge \neg in(j,s)$ , so  $W_2 \models R_2$ , but  $W_2 \not\models R_1$  and  $W_2 \not\models R_3$
  - 3. Both are in the red sports car

 $\widehat{=}$  they run around on the back seat of a very big sports car

 $W_3 := c(j,g) \land in(j,s) \land in(g,s)$ , so  $W_3 \vDash R_3$ , but  $W_3 \nvDash R_1$  and  $W_3 \nvDash R_1$ 

▶ Idea 2: Use a calculus to model  $\vDash$ , e.g.  $\mathcal{ND}_0$ 

# 4.3 Summary & Evaluation

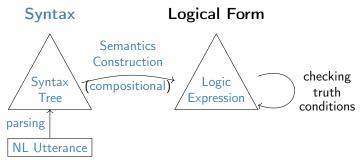
73

Fragment  $\mathcal{F}_1$  of English (defined by grammar + lexicon) ► Logic PL<sup>nq</sup> (serves as a mathematical model for  $\mathcal{F}_1$ ) (individuals, predicates,  $\neg$ ,  $\land$ ,  $\lor$ ,  $\Rightarrow$ ) Formal Language • Semantics  $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}$  defined recursively on formula structure ( $\sim$  validity, entailment) Tableau calculus for validity and entailment (CALCULEMUS!) • Analysis function  $\mathcal{F}_1 \rightsquigarrow PE^q$ (Translation) Test the model by checking predictions (calculate truth conditions) Coverage: Extremely Boring! (accounts for 0 examples from the intro) but the conceptual setup is fascinating



Summary: The Interpretation Process (so far)

► The Interpretation Process in *F*<sub>1</sub>: Can be visualized in the following diagram:





Chapter 5 Fragment 2: Pronouns and World Knowledge → Semantic/Pragmatic Analysis





## 5.1 Fragment 2: Pronouns and Anaphora

75



Want to cover: Peter loves Fido. He bites him	. (almost intro)
<ul> <li>We need: Translation and interpretation for prono</li> <li>Also: A way to integrate world knowledge to filter Humans don't bite dogs.)</li> </ul>	
Idea: Integrate variables into $PE^{q}$	(work backwards from that)
Logical System: $PE^{nq}(\mathcal{V}) = PE^{nq} + variables$ (7	Franslate pronouns to variables)



**Definition 1.1.** We have the following structural grammar rules in  $\mathcal{F}_2$ 

$$S1: S \rightarrow NP, V',$$
  

$$S2: S \rightarrow NP, V^{t}, NP,$$
  

$$N1: NP \rightarrow N_{pr},$$
  

$$N2: NP \rightarrow Pron,$$
  

$$N3: NP \rightarrow the, N,$$
  

$$S3: S \rightarrow it is not the case that, S,$$
  

$$S4: S \rightarrow S, conj, S,$$
  

$$S5: S \rightarrow NP, is, NP,$$
  

$$S6: S \rightarrow NP, is, Adj$$

and one additional lexical rule:

L7:  $Pron \rightarrow he \mid she \mid it \mid we \mid they$ 

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Predicate Logic with Variables (but no Quantifiers)

- ▶ Definition 1.2 (Logical System  $PE^{q}(V)$ ).  $PE^{q}(V) := PE^{q} + variables$
- ► Definition 1.3 (PEq( $\mathcal{V}$ ) Syntax). Category  $\mathcal{V} = \{X, Y, Z, X^1, X^2, ...\}$  of variables (allow variables wherever individual constants were allowed)
- ▶ Definition 1.4 (PPq(V)) Semantics). First-order model  $\mathcal{M} = \langle \mathcal{D}, \mathcal{I} \rangle$

(need to evaluate variables)

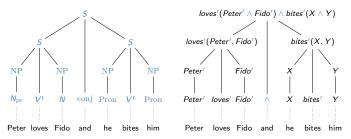
- variable assignment:  $\varphi \colon \mathcal{V}_{\iota} \to U$
- value function:  $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}(X) = \varphi(X)$

(defined like  $\mathcal{I}$  elsewhere)

- ► call a  $PL^{nq}(V)$  formula A valid in  $\mathcal{M}$  under  $\varphi$ , iff  $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}(A) = T$ ,
- ► call it satisfiable in  $\mathcal{M}$ , iff there is a variable assignment  $\varphi$ , such that  $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}(\mathsf{A}) = \mathsf{T}$

# Translation for $\mathcal{F}_2$ (first attempt)

- Idea: Pronouns are translated into new variables
- ▶ New Translation Rule: We translate pronouns by the "rule":  $T9: [X]_{Pron} \rightsquigarrow Y_{new}$ , where  $Y_{new}$  is a new variable.
- The syntax/semantic trees for Peter loves Fido and he bites him. are straightforward. (almost intro)





### 5.2 Inference with World Knowledge and Free Variables – A Case Study



# 5.2.1 Pragmatics via Model Generation Tableaux?

79



▶ Definition 2.1 (Tableau Calculus for PDq(V)).  $T_V^p = T_0 + new tableau rules for formulae with variables$ 

$$\begin{array}{c} \vdots \\ A^{\alpha} \quad c \in \mathcal{H} \\ \vdots \\ \hline ([c/X](A))^{\alpha} \quad \mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{V}}^{p} \mathcal{W} \\ \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} \vdots \\ A \quad \text{free}(A) = \{X_{1}, \dots, X_{m}\} \\ \hline (\sigma_{1}(A))^{\top} \quad \dots \quad \left| \quad (\sigma_{n^{m}}(A))^{\top} \right| \\ \hline \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} \mathcal{H} \quad \mathcal{H} = \{a_{1}, \dots, a_{n}\} \\ \hline \mathcal{H} \quad \text{free}(A) = \{X_{1}, \dots, X_{m}\} \\ \hline \mathcal{H} \quad \mathcal{H} = \{a_{1}, \dots, a_{n}\} \\ \hline \mathcal{H} \quad \text{free}(A) = \{X_{1}, \dots, X_{m}\} \\ \hline \mathcal{H} \quad \mathcal{H} = \{a_{1}, \dots, a_{n}\} \\ \hline \mathcal{H} \quad \text{free}(A) = \{A_{1}, \dots, A_{m}\} \\ \hline \mathcal{H} \quad \mathcal{H} \quad \mathcal{H} = \{A_{1}, \dots, A_{m}\} \\ \hline \mathcal{H} \quad \mathcal{H}$$

 $\mathcal{H}$  is the set of ind. constants in the branch above (Herbrand universe) and the  $\sigma_i$  are substitutions that instantiate the  $X_j$  with any combinations of the  $a_k$  (there are  $n^m$  of them).

- the first rule is used for world knowledge
- the second rule is used for input logical forms ... this rule has to be applied eagerly

(up in the branch)





Fau

To allow for world knowledge, we generalize the notion of an initial tableau. Instead of allowing only the initial labeled formula at the root node, we allow a linear tree whose nodes are labeled formulae with positive formulae representing the world knowledge. As the world knowledge resides in the initial tableau (intuitively before all input), we will also speak of background knowledge.



Example 2.2 (Peter snores).

(Only sleeping people snore)

$$(\operatorname{snores}(X) \Rightarrow \operatorname{sleeps}(X))^{\mathsf{T}}$$
  
 $\boxed{\operatorname{snores}(\operatorname{peter})}$   
 $(\operatorname{snores}(\operatorname{peter}) \Rightarrow \operatorname{sleeps}(\operatorname{peter}))^{\mathsf{T}}$   
 $\operatorname{sleeps}(\operatorname{peter})^{\mathsf{T}}$ 

Example 2.3 (Peter sleeps. John walks. He snores).

(who snores?)

$$sleeps(peter)$$
walks(john)
snores(X)
snores(peter)<sup>T</sup> snores(john)<sup>T</sup>

### Does Tweety Fly? The everlasting Question in AI

Example 2.4.

Tweety is a bird Tweety is an eagle  $(\operatorname{bird}(X) \Rightarrow (\operatorname{flies}(X) \lor \operatorname{penguin}(X))$  $(eagle(X) \Rightarrow bird(X))^{\mathsf{T}}$  $(\operatorname{bird}(X) \Rightarrow (\operatorname{flies}(X) \lor \operatorname{penguin}(X)))^{\mathsf{T}}$  $(\text{penguin}(X) \Rightarrow \neg \text{eagle}(X))^{\mathsf{T}}$  $(\text{penguin}(X) \Rightarrow \neg \text{flies}(X))^{\mathsf{T}}$  $(\text{penguin}(X) \Rightarrow \neg \text{flies}(X))^{\mathsf{T}}$ bird(tweety) eagle(tweety)bird(tweety)<sup>T</sup>  $(\text{flies}(\text{tweety}) \lor \text{penguin}(\text{tweety}))^{\mathsf{T}}$  $flies(tweety)^{\mathsf{T}} | penguin(tweety)^{\mathsf{T}}$  $(flies(tweety) \lor penguin(tweety))$ ¬flies(tweety)<sup>†</sup> flies(tweety)<sup>T</sup> | penguin(tweety) flies(tweetv)<sup>F</sup>  $(\neg eagle(tweety))$ eagle(tweetv)<sup>F</sup>

► For the second we need to add more world knowledge.

Fau



### 5.2.2 Case Study: Peter loves Fido, even though he sometimes bites him

82

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Let's try it naively

(worry about the problems later.)

$$b(p,p)^{\mathsf{T}} \mid b(p,f)^{\mathsf{T}} \mid b(f,p)^{\mathsf{T}} \mid b(f,f)^{\mathsf{T}}$$

- Problem: We get four readings instead of one!
- ► Idea: We have not specified enough world knowledge.



### Peter and Fido with World Knowledge

Nobody bites himself, humans do not bite dogs.

$$\begin{array}{c} d(f)^{\mathsf{T}} \\ m(p)^{\mathsf{T}} \\ b(X,X)^{\mathsf{F}} \\ (d(X) \wedge m(Y) \Rightarrow \neg b(Y,X))^{\mathsf{T}} \\ \hline \\ [b(X,Y)] \\ b(p,p)^{\mathsf{T}} \\ b(p,p)^{\mathsf{F}} \\ \bot \end{array} \begin{vmatrix} b(p,f)^{\mathsf{T}} \\ b(p,f)^{\mathsf{F}} \\ b(p,f)^{\mathsf{F}} \\ \bot \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} b(f,p)^{\mathsf{T}} \\ b(f,f)^{\mathsf{T}} \\ b(f,f)^{\mathsf{F}} \\ \bot \end{vmatrix}$$

▶ Observation: Anaphor resolution introduces ambiguities.

Pragmatics: Use world knowledge to filter out impossible readings.

# 5.2.3 The Computational Role of Ambiguities

84



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# The computational Role of Ambiguities

Observation: (in the traditional waterfall model) Every processing stage introduces ambiguities that need to be resolved. Syntax: e.g. Peter chased the man in the red sports car (attachment) Semantics: e.g. Peter went to the bank (lexical) Pragmatics: e.g. Two men carried two bags (collective vs. distributive) Question: Where does pronoun ambiguity belong? (much less clear) Answer: we have freedom to choose 1. resolve the pronouns in the syntax (generic waterfall model)  $\rightarrow$  multiple syntactic representations (pragmatics as filter) 2. resolve the pronouns in the pragmatics (our model here)  $\sim$  need underspecified syntactic representations (e.g. variables) → pragmatics needs ambiguity treatment (e.g. tableaux)



# Translation for Fragment $\mathcal{F}_2$ Reconsidered

- ▶ Idea: Pronouns are translated into *new variables*.
- **Problem:** Peter loves Mary. She loves him.

 $loves(peter, peter)^{\mathsf{T}} \mid loves(peter, mary)^{\mathsf{T}} \mid loves(mary, peter)^{\mathsf{T}} \mid loves(mary, mary)^{\mathsf{T}}$ 

 $\frac{\text{loves(peter, mary)}}{\text{loves}(X, Y)}$ 

- ► Idea: Attach world knowledge to pronouns. (just as with Peter and Fido)
  - Use the world knowledge to distinguish (linguistic) gender by predicates masc and fem.

#### Problem: Properties of

- proper names are given in the model,
- pronouns must be given by the syntax-semantics interface.
- In particular: How to generate loves(X, Y) ∧ masc(X) ∧ fem(Y) compositionally?

(so far)

 Definition 2.5 (Sorted Logics). (in our case PL<sup>1</sup><sub>S</sub>) Assume a set of sorts S := {A, B, C, ...}, annotate every syntactic and semantic structure with them. Make all constructions and operations well worted:
 Syntax: Variables and constants are sorted X<sub>A</sub>, Y<sub>B</sub>, Z<sup>1</sup><sub>C1</sub>..., a<sub>A</sub>, b<sub>A</sub>,...
 Semantics: Subdivide the universe D into subsets D<sub>A</sub> ⊆ D Interpretation I and variable assignment φ have to be well-sorted.

 $\mathcal{I}(a_{\mathbb{A}}), \varphi(X_{\mathbb{A}}) \in \mathcal{D}_{\mathbb{A}}.$ 

Calculus: Substitutions must be well sorted  $[a_A/X_A]$  OK,  $[a_A/X_B]$  not.

- ▶ Observation: Sorts do not add expressivity in principle (just practically) For every sort A, we introduce a first-order predicate  $\mathcal{R}_A$  and
  - ► Translate  $R(X_{\mathbb{A}}) \land \neg P(Z_{\mathbb{C}})$  to  $\mathcal{R}_{\mathbb{A}}(X) \land \mathcal{R}_{\mathbb{C}}(Z) \Rightarrow R(X) \land \neg P(Z)$  in world knowledge.
  - ▶ Translate  $R(X_{\mathbb{A}}) \land \neg P(Z_{\mathbb{C}})$  to  $\mathcal{R}_{\mathbb{A}}(X) \land \mathcal{R}_{\mathbb{C}}(Z) \land R(X,Y) \land \neg P(Z)$  in input.
  - Meaning is preserved, but translation is non-compositional!



# 5.3 Tableaux and Model Generation

87



# 5.3.1 Tableau Branches and Herbrand Models



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**Example 3.1 (from above).** In **??** we claimed that the set

 $\mathcal{B} := \{ \text{loves(john, mary)}^{\mathsf{F}}, \text{loves(mary, bill)}^{\mathsf{T}} \}$ 

of literals on the open branch of the tableau  ${\mathcal T}$  below

 $(\text{loves}(\text{mary}, \text{bill}) \lor \text{loves}(\text{john}, \text{mary}))^{\mathsf{T}}$  $\text{loves}(\text{john}, \text{mary})^{\mathsf{F}}$  $\text{loves}(\text{mary}, \text{bill})^{\mathsf{T}}$  $\mid \text{loves}(\text{john}, \text{mary})^{\mathsf{T}}$ 

constitutes a "model".

(it can be conveniently read off)

- **Recap:** A first-order model  $\mathcal{M}$  is a pair  $\langle \mathcal{D}, \mathcal{I} \rangle$ , where  $\mathcal{D}$  is a set of individuals, and  $\mathcal{I}$  is an interpretation function.
- **Problem:** Find  $\mathcal{D}$  and  $\mathcal{I}$  based on  $\mathcal{B}$ .



- ▶ Idea: Choose the universe  $\mathcal{D}$  as the set  $\Sigma_0^f$  of constants, choose  $\mathcal{I} = \mathrm{Id}_{\Sigma_0^f}$ , interpret  $p \in \Sigma^{p}_{k}$  as  $\mathcal{R}_{\mathcal{B}}(p) := \{ \langle a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k} \rangle \mid p(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k})^{\mathsf{T}} \in \mathcal{B} \}.$
- **Definition 3.2.** We call a model a Herbrand model, iff  $\mathcal{D} = \Sigma_0^f$  and  $\mathcal{I} = \mathrm{Id}_{\Sigma_0^f}$ .
- **Definition 3.3.** Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a set of atomic propositions such that  $A^{\mathsf{F}} \notin \mathcal{H}$ , if  $A^{\mathsf{T}} \in \mathcal{H}$ , then we call  $\mathcal{H}$  a Herbrand valuation.
- **Lemma 3.4.** Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a Herbrand valuation, then setting  $\mathcal{I}(p) := \mathcal{R}_{\mathcal{H}}(p)$  yields a Herbrand model that satisfies H. (proof trivial)
- ▶ Corollary 3.5. Let H be a Herbrand valuation, then there is a Herbrand model that satisfies H. (use  $\mathcal{R}_{\mathcal{H}}$ )



# 5.3.2 Using Model Generation for Interpretation





# Using Model Generation for Interpretation

- Definition 3.6. Mental model theory [JL83; JLB91] posits that humans form mental models of the world, i.e. (neural) representations of possible states of the world that are consistent with the perceptions up to date and use them to reason about the world.
- So communication by natural language is a process of transporting parts of the mental model of the speaker into the mental model of the hearer.
- Therefore the NL interpretation process on the part of the hearer is a process of integrating the meaning of the utterances of the speaker into his mental model.
- Idea: We can model discourse understanding as a process of generating Herbrand models for the logical form of an utterance in a discourse by a tableau based model generation procedure.
- Advantage: Capturing ambiguity by generating multiple models for input logical forms.



### Tableau Machine

- **Definition 3.7.** The tableau machine is an inferential cognitive model for incremental natural language understanding that implements mental model theory via tableau based model generation over a sequence of input sentences. It iterates the following process for every input sentence staring with the empty tableau:
  - 1. add the logical form of the input sentence  $S_i$  to the selected branch,
  - 2. perform tableau inferences below  $S_i$  until saturated or some resource criterion is met
  - 3. if there are open branches choose a "preferred branch", otherwise backtrack to previous tableau for  $S_i$  with j < i and open branches, then re-process  $S_{i+1}, \ldots, S_i$  if possible, else fail.

The output is application-dependent; some choices are

- $\blacktriangleright$  the Herbrand model for the preferred branch  $\rightarrow$  preferred interpretation;
- the literals augmented with all non-expanded formulae (from the discourse); (resource-bound was reached) (preferred model  $\models$  query?)
- Tableau machine answers user queries
- Interpretation mode via model generation (guided by resources and strategies)
- Query mode by refutation theorem proving (
   for side conditions; using tableau rules)



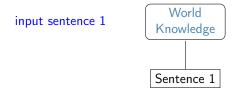
#### **Example 3.8.** The tableau machine in action (query mode on two sentences).

initialize tableau



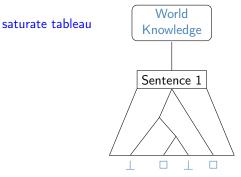


#### **Example 3.9.** The tableau machine in action (query mode on two sentences).

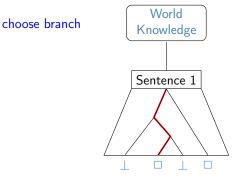




**Example 3.10.** The tableau machine in action (query mode on two sentences).

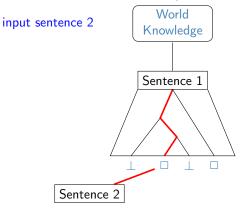


**Example 3.11.** The tableau machine in action (query mode on two sentences).



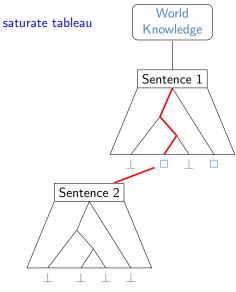


**Example 3.12.** The tableau machine in action (query mode on two sentences).





**Example 3.13.** The tableau machine in action (query mode on two sentences).

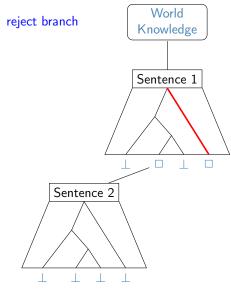




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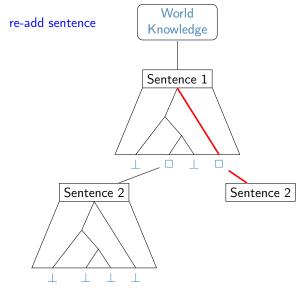


**Example 3.14.** The tableau machine in action (query mode on two sentences).





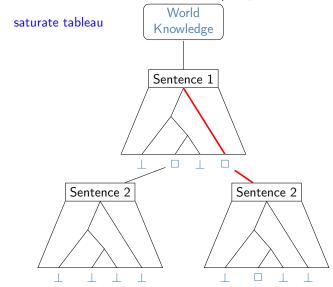
**Example 3.15.** The tableau machine in action (query mode on two sentences).





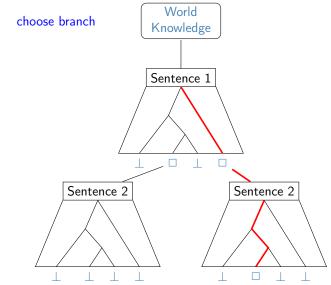


**Example 3.16.** The tableau machine in action (query mode on two sentences).



2025-02-06

**Example 3.17.** The tableau machine in action (query mode on two sentences).







Example 3.18 (A syntactically ambiguous sentence). Peter loves Mary and Mary sleeps or Peter snores.

Reading 1: loves(peter, mary) ∧ (sleeps(mary) ∨ snores(peter))
Reading 2: loves(peter, mary) ∧ sleeps(mary) ∨ snores(peter)

Consider the first reading, start out with the empty tableau for simplicity, even though this is cognitively implausible.

$$\begin{array}{c} \operatorname{loves(peter, mary)} \land (\operatorname{sleeps(mary)} \lor \operatorname{snores(peter)}) \\ \\ & \operatorname{loves(peter, mary)}^{\mathsf{T}} \\ & (\operatorname{sleeps(mary)} \lor \operatorname{snores(peter)})^{\mathsf{T}} \\ & \operatorname{sleeps(mary)}^{\mathsf{T}} \mid \operatorname{snores(peter)}^{\mathsf{T}} \end{array}$$

• **Observation:** We have two models, so we have a case of pragmatic ambiguity.



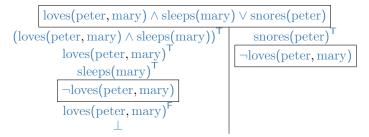
loves(peter, mary)  $\land$  sleeps(mary)  $\lor$  snores(peter)  $(\text{loves}(\text{peter}, \text{mary}) \land \text{sleeps}(\text{mary}))^{\mathsf{T}} | \text{snores}(\text{peter})^{\mathsf{T}}$ loves(peter, mary)<sup>T</sup> sleeps(marv)<sup>T</sup>

94



# Continuing the Discourse

**Example 3.19.** *Peter does not love Mary.* Then the second tableau would be extended to



and the first tableau closes altogether.

In effect the choice of models has been reduced to one, which constitutes the intuitively correct reading of the discourse.

Fau

# 5.3.3 Adding Equality to PLNQ for Fragment 1

95

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# $PL_{NQ}^{=}$ : Adding Equality to $PL_{QQ}^{eq}$

- Syntax: Just another binary predicate constant =
- ▶ Semantics: Fixed as  $I_{\varphi}(a = b) = T$ , iff  $I_{\varphi}(a) = I_{\varphi}(b)$ . (logical constant)
- ▶ Definition 3.20 (Tableau Calculus  $T_{NQ}^{=}$ ). Add two additional inference rules (a positive and a negative) to  $T_0$

$$\frac{a \in \mathcal{H}}{a = a^{\mathsf{T}}} \mathcal{T}_{\mathrm{NQ}}^{=} \mathrm{sym} \qquad \frac{a = b^{\mathsf{T}}}{\frac{\mathsf{A}[a]_{\rho}^{\alpha}}{[b/\rho]\mathsf{A}^{\alpha}}} \mathcal{T}_{\mathrm{NQ}}^{=} \mathrm{rep}$$

where

- $\mathcal{H} \cong$  the Herbrand universe, i.e. the set of constants occurring on the branch.
- we write  $C[A]_p$  to indicate that  $C|_p = A$  (C has subterm A at position p).
- [A/p]C is obtained from C by replacing the subterm at position p with A.
- ► Note: We could have equivalently written  $\mathcal{T}_{NQ}^{=}$  sym as  $\frac{a = a^{\mathsf{F}}}{\bot}$ : With  $\mathcal{T}_{NQ}^{=}$  sym conjure  $a = a^{\mathsf{T}}$  from thin air, use it to close  $a = a^{\mathsf{F}}$ .
- ▶ So, ...  $\mathcal{T}_{NQ}^{=}$ sym and  $\mathcal{T}_{NQ}^{=}$ rep follow the pattern of having a T and a F rule per logical constant.

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- **Example 3.21 (Reading Comprehension).** If you hear/read *Mary is the teacher. Peter likes the teacher.*, do you know whether *Peter likes Mary*?
- Idea: Interpret via tableau machine (interpretation mode) and test entailment in query mode.



- **Example 3.22 (Reading Comprehension).** If you hear/read Mary is the teacher. Peter likes the teacher., do you know whether Peter likes Mary?
- Idea: Interpret via tableau machine (interpretation mode) and test entailment in query mode.

mary = the\_teacher
likes(peter, the\_teacher)



- Example 3.23 (Reading Comprehension). If you hear/read Mary is the teacher. Peter likes the teacher., do you know whether Peter likes Mary?
- Idea: Interpret via tableau machine (interpretation mode) and test entailment in query mode.
- ▶ Interpretation: Feed  $\Phi_1 := mary = the\_teacher$  and  $\Phi_2 := likes(peter, the\_teacher)$  to the tableau machine in turn.
- Question Answering: Use the tableau machine in query mode for an "entailment test": Label  $\varphi := \text{likes}(\text{peter}, \text{mary})$  with F and saturate.

Indeed, it closes, so  $\Phi_1, \Phi_2 \vDash \varphi \rightsquigarrow$  yes, Peter likes Mary.

FAU



- **Example 3.24 (Reading Comprehension).** If you hear/read *Mary is the teacher. Peter likes the teacher.*, do you know whether *Peter likes Mary*?
- Idea: Interpret via tableau machine (interpretation mode) and test entailment in query mode.
- ▶ Interpretation: Feed  $\Phi_1 := mary = the\_teacher$  and  $\Phi_2 := likes(peter, the\_teacher)$  to the tableau machine in turn.
- ▶ Question Answering: Use the tableau machine in query mode for an "entailment test": Label  $\varphi := \text{likes}(\text{peter}, \text{mary})$  with F and saturate.

```
\begin{array}{||c|c|c|c|} mary = the\_teacher \\ \hline likes(peter, the\_teacher) \\ \hline likes(peter, mary)^{\mathsf{F}} \\ likes(peter, the\_teacher)^{\mathsf{F}} \\ \hline \bot \end{array}
```

Indeed, it closes, so  $\Phi_1, \Phi_2 \vDash \varphi \rightsquigarrow$  yes, Peter likes Mary.

Note: The part marked in double vertical lines is removed from the tableau after answering. (do not mess up the tree/models)

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# 5.4 Summary & Evaluation

97



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- Fragment  $\mathcal{F}_2$  extends  $\mathcal{F}_1$  by pronouns.
- Logic/translation extended correspondingly:
  - Equality (actually already needed for  $\mathcal{F}_1$ )
  - Variables as underspecified representations for anaphoric pronouns.
- New NLU component: semantic/pragmatic analysis
  - Tableau machine as an inferential model for pronoun resolution.
  - Uses world knowledge to augment/prune models.
- **Coverage:** Still relatively limited (accounts for 1 example from the intro)



- ▶ The tableau machine algorithm conforms with psycholinguistic findings:
  - Zwaan& Radvansky [ZR98]: listeners not only represent logical form, but also models containing referents.
  - deVega [de 95]: online, incremental process.
  - Singer [Sin94]: enriched by background knowledge.
  - ► Glenberg et al. [GML87]: major function is to provide basis for anaphor resolution.

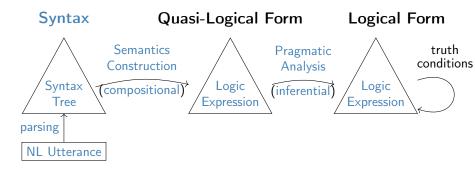
### Towards a Performance Model for NLU

- **Problem:** The tableau machine is only a competence model.
- Definition 4.1. A competence model is a meaning theory that delineates a space of possible discourses. A performance model delineates the discourses actually used in communication. (after [Cho65])
- Idea: We need to guide the tableau machine in which inferences and branch choices it performs.
- Idea: Each tableau rule comes with rule costs.
  - Here: each sentence in the discourse has a fixed inference budget. Expansion until budget used up.
  - Ultimately we want bounded optimization regime [Rus91]: Expansion as long as expected gain in model quality outweighs proof costs
- **Effect:** Expensive rules are rarely applied. (only if the promise great rewards)
- Finding appropriate values for rule costs and model quality is an open problem.



### Summary: The Full Interpretation Process

▶ Full Interpretation Process: In  $\mathcal{F}_2$  we have extended the interpretation process by semantic/pragmatic analysis, so we arrive at:





#### Chapter 6 Fragment 3: Complex Verb Phrases

101

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#### Fragment 3 (Handling Verb Phrases) 6.1

101



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#### New Data: in $\mathcal{F}_3$ .

- 1. Ethel howled and screamed.
- 2. Ethel kicked the dog and poisoned the cat.
- 3. Fiona liked Jo and loathed Ethel and tolerated Prudence.
- 4. Fiona kicked the cat and laughed.
- 5. Bertie didn't laugh.
- 6. Bertie didn't laugh and didn't scream.
- 7. Bertie didn't laugh or scream.
- 8. Bertie didn't laugh or kick the dog.
- 9. \* Bertie didn't didn't laugh.
- We extend  $\mathcal{F}_2$ .

Eau

#### (no feature interaction)



# New Grammar in Fragment $\mathcal{F}_3$ (Verb Phrases)

- ▶ To account for the syntax we come up with the concept of a verb phrase (VP)
- Definition 1.1. A verb phrase is any phrase that can be used (syntactially) whereever a verb can be.
- **Example 1.2.** The phrase tolerated Prudence is like slept (syntactially)
- Idea: Allow verb phrases (VP in the grammar wherever we had intransitive verbs (V<sup>i</sup>) before.
- ► Problem: The obvious rule VP→ didn't VP over-generates: it accepts \* Bertie didn't didn't laugh. (note the infinitive)
- Definition 1.3. A verb is called finite, iff it contextually complements either an explicit subject or in the imperative mood an implicit subject.
- **Observation:** Finite verbs are inflected.
- Definition 1.4. Non-finite verbs, are verb forms that do not show tense, person, or number.
- ▶ Idea: We will use features +fin for finite, -fin for non-finite in grammar rules, and ±fin for schemata.

103



#### **Definition 1.5.** $\mathcal{F}_3$ has the following rules:

S1.	S	1:	$\rightarrow$	NP VP+fin
S2.	S	!:	$\rightarrow$	S conj S
V1.	$VP_{\pm fin}$	1:	$\rightarrow$	$V_{\pm fin}^i$
V2.	$VP_{\pm fin}$	!:	$\rightarrow$	$V_{\pm fin}^{\overline{t}}$ NP
V3.	$VP_{\pm fin}$	!:	$\rightarrow$	$V\overline{P}_{\pm fin} \operatorname{conj} VP_{\pm fin}$
V4.	$VP_{\pm fin}$	!:	$\rightarrow$	$BE_{=} NP$
V5.	VP <sub>+fin</sub>	!:	$\rightarrow$	<i>BE<sub>pred</sub></i> Adj.
V6.	VP <sub>+fin</sub>	1:	$\rightarrow$	didn't VP_fin

N1.	NP	$\rightarrow$	N <sub>pr</sub>
N2.	NP	$\rightarrow$	Pron
N3.	NP	$\rightarrow$	the N
L8.	BE_	$\rightarrow$	is
L9.	BEpred	$\rightarrow$	is
L10.	$V_{-\text{fin}}^{i}$	$\rightarrow$	run, laugh,
L11.	$V_{-\text{fin}}^{t}$	$\rightarrow$	read, poison,

- **Remark:** The  $\pm$ fin feature solves the "didn't" over-generation problem.
- Remark: Many machine-oriented grammars have extensive feature systems like our ±fin.
- ► Limitations of *F*<sub>3</sub>:

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► *F*<sub>3</sub> does not allow coordination of transitive verbs *Prudence kicked and scratched Ethel.*  (problematic anyways)



# $N_{\rm pr} \quad V_{+\rm fin}^i \quad \operatorname{conj} \quad V_{+\rm fin}^i$ **Example 1.6.** Ethel howled and screamed



- ▶ **Recall:** So far we have mapped intransitive verb (V<sup>i</sup>) to predicates which could be applied to NP meanings (individuals).
- ▶ So: VP meanings are functions from individuals to truth values
- ▶ And: conj meanings are functionals that map functions to functions.
- In logic we distinguish such objects (individuals and functions of various kinds) by assigning them types.
- ▶ Let's make this formal ~> develop a suitable logic!



### 6.2 Dealing with Functions in Logic and Language

106



#### Types

- ▶ Intuition: Types are semantic annotations for terms that prevent antinomies.
- Definition 2.1. Given a set BT of base types, construct function types: α → β is the type of functions with domain type α and range type β. We call the closure T of BT under function types the set of simple types over BT.
- Definition 2.2. We will use *i* for the type of individuals and *o* for the type of truth values.
- ▶ Right Associativity: The type constructor is used as a right-associative operator, i.e. we use  $\alpha \rightarrow \beta \rightarrow \gamma$  as an abbreviation for  $\alpha \rightarrow (\beta \rightarrow \gamma)$
- ▶ Vector Notation: We will use a kind of vector notation for function types, abbreviating  $\alpha_1 \rightarrow \ldots \rightarrow \alpha_n \rightarrow \beta$  with  $\overline{\alpha}_n \rightarrow \beta$ .



### What can happen without Types as a Safety-Net

- Definition 2.3. The unrestricted comprehension principle states that for any sufficiently well-defined property P, there is the set of all and only the objects that have property P.
- Definition 2.4. Russell's paradox (also known as Russell's antinomy) is a set-theoretic paradox that shows that every set theory that contains an unrestricted comprehension principle leads to contradictions.
- ▶ **Definition 2.5.** The Russell set *R* is the set of all sets that are not members of themselves.

108



### What can happen without Types as a Safety-Net

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- Definition 2.7. Russell's paradox (also known as Russell's antinomy) is a set-theoretic paradox that shows that every set theory that contains an unrestricted comprehension principle leads to contradictions.
- **Definition 2.8.** The Russell set R is the set of all sets that are not members of themselves.
- **Observation:** If *R* is assumed to exist (e.g. by the unrestricted comprehension principle), then we end up with an antinomy:
  - **•** Suppose  $R \in R$ , then then we must have  $R \notin R$ , since we have explicitly taken out the set that contain themselves.

Suppose  $R \notin R$ , then have  $R \in R$ , since all other sets are elements.

So  $R \in R$  iff  $R \notin R$ , which is a contradiction! (Russell's Antinomy [Rus03])





# What can happen without Types as a Safety-Net

- Definition 2.9. The unrestricted comprehension principle states that for any sufficiently well-defined property P, there is the set of all and only the objects that have property P.
- Definition 2.10. Russell's paradox (also known as Russell's antinomy) is a set-theoretic paradox that shows that every set theory that contains an unrestricted comprehension principle leads to contradictions.
- ▶ **Definition 2.11.** The Russell set *R* is the set of all sets that are not members of themselves.
- **Observation:** If *R* is assumed to exist (e.g. by the unrestricted comprehension principle), then we end up with an antinomy:
  - Suppose R ∈ R, then then we must have R ∉ R, since we have explicitly taken out the set that contain themselves.
  - Suppose  $R \notin R$ , then have  $R \in R$ , since all other sets are elements.
- So  $R \in R$  iff  $R \notin R$ , which is a contradiction! (Russell's Antinomy [Rus03]) Does Logic help?:
  - ▶ No, if untyped:  $R := \{m \mid m \notin m\}$  or equivalently:  $R := \{m \mid m m\}$ .
  - > Yes, if typed: m(m) cannot be well-typed with simple types, so we can not define R.
- Generally: Simple types prevent self-application: If we type m(m) as  $m_{\alpha}(m_{\beta})$ , then we must have  $\alpha = \beta \rightarrow \gamma$  for the function application to work but also  $\alpha = \beta$  to have consistent typing.

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# Syntactical Categories and Types

▶ Now, we can assign types to syntactic categories.

Cat	Туре	Intuition	
S	0	truth value	
NP	L	individual	
$N_{\rm pr}$	L	individuals	
ŴΡ	$\iota  ightarrow o$	property	
$V^i$	$\iota  ightarrow o$	unary predicate	
$V^t$	$\iota  ightarrow \iota  ightarrow o$	binary relation	

For the category conj, we cannot get by with a single type. Depending on where it is used, we need the types

- $o \rightarrow o \rightarrow o$  for *S*-coordination in rule *S*2:  $S \rightarrow S$  conj *S*
- $(\iota \rightarrow o) \rightarrow (\iota \rightarrow o) \rightarrow (\iota \rightarrow o)$  for VP-coordination in V3: VP $\rightarrow$  VP conj VP.
- Note: Computational Linguistics, often uses a different notation for types: e (entity) for  $\iota$ , t (truth value) for o, and  $\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle$  for  $\alpha \to \beta$  (no bracket elision convention).

So the type for VP-coordination has the form  $\langle \langle e,t \rangle, \langle \langle e,t \rangle, \langle e,t \rangle \rangle \rangle$ 

- ►  $\exists F_{\alpha \to \beta} . \forall X_{\alpha} . FX = A_{\beta}$  for arbitrary variable  $X_{\alpha}$  and term  $A \in wff_{\beta}(\Sigma_{\mathcal{T}}, \mathcal{V}_{\mathcal{T}})$ (for each term A and each variable X there is a function  $f \in \mathcal{D}_{\alpha \to \beta}$ , with  $f(\varphi(X)) = \mathcal{I}_{\varphi}(A)$ )
  - Schematic in  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $X_{\alpha}$  and  $A_{\beta}$ , very inconvenient for deduction
- Transformation in  $\mathcal{H}_{\Omega}$ 
  - $\blacktriangleright \exists F_{\alpha \to \beta} . \forall X_{\alpha} . FX = \mathsf{A}_{\beta}$
  - $\forall X_{\alpha}.(\lambda X_{\alpha}.A)X = A_{\beta} \ (\exists E)$ Call the function *F* whose existence is guaranteed " $(\lambda X_{\alpha}.A)$ "
  - $(\lambda X_{\alpha}.A)B = [B/X]A_{\beta} \ (\forall E)$ , in particular for  $B \in wff_{\alpha}(\Sigma_{\mathcal{T}}, \mathcal{V}_{\mathcal{T}})$ .
- Definition 2.12. Axiom of  $\beta$  equality:  $(\lambda X_{\alpha} A) B = [B/X](A_{\beta})$
- Idea: Introduce a new class of formulae (λ-calculus [Chu40])

### From Extensionality to $\eta$ -Conversion

- ▶ **Definition 2.13.** Extensionality Axiom:  $\forall F_{\alpha \to \beta} . \forall G_{\alpha \to \beta} . (\forall X_{\alpha} . FX = GX) \Rightarrow F = G$
- ▶ Idea: Maybe we can get by with a simplified equality schema here as well.
- ▶ **Definition 2.14.** We say that A and  $\lambda X_{\alpha}$ . A X are  $\eta$ -equal, (write  $A_{\alpha \to \beta} =_{\eta} \lambda X_{\alpha}$ . A X), iff X  $\notin$  free(A).
- **•** Theorem 2.15.  $\eta$ -equality and Extensionality are equivalent
- Proof: We show that η-equality is special case of extensionality; the converse direction is trivial
  - 1. Let  $\forall X_{\alpha}.AX = BX$ , thus AX = BX with  $\forall E$
  - 2.  $\lambda X_{\alpha} A X = \lambda X_{\alpha} B X$ , therefore A = B with  $\eta$
  - 3. Hence  $\forall F_{\alpha \to \beta} . \forall G_{\alpha \to \beta} . (\forall X_{\alpha} . FX = GX) \Rightarrow F = G$  by twice  $\forall I$ .

Axiom of truth values:  $\forall F_o. \forall G_o. FG \Leftrightarrow F = G$  unsolved.

# 6.3 Simply Typed $\lambda$ -Calculus

111



# Simply typed $\lambda$ -Calculus (Syntax)

- Definition 3.1. Signature Σ<sub>T</sub> = ⋃<sub>α∈T</sub>Σ<sub>α</sub> (includes countably infinite signatures Σ<sup>Sk</sup><sub>α</sub> of Skolem contants).
- $\mathcal{V}_{\mathcal{T}} = \bigcup_{\alpha \in \mathcal{T}} \mathcal{V}_{\alpha}$ , such that  $\mathcal{V}_{\alpha}$  are countably infinite.
- **Definition 3.2.** We call the set  $wff_{\alpha}(\Sigma_{\mathcal{T}}, \mathcal{V}_{\mathcal{T}})$  defined by the rules
  - $\blacktriangleright \ \mathcal{V}_{\alpha} \cup \Sigma_{\alpha} \subseteq \textit{wff}_{\alpha}(\Sigma_{\mathcal{T}}, \mathcal{V}_{\mathcal{T}})$
  - $\blacktriangleright \text{ If } \mathsf{C} \in \textit{wff}_{\alpha \to \beta}(\Sigma_{\mathcal{T}}, \mathcal{V}_{\mathcal{T}}) \text{ and } \mathsf{A} \in \textit{wff}_{\alpha}(\Sigma_{\mathcal{T}}, \mathcal{V}_{\mathcal{T}}) \text{, then } \mathsf{C} \mathsf{A} \in \textit{wff}_{\beta}(\Sigma_{\mathcal{T}}, \mathcal{V}_{\mathcal{T}})$
  - If  $A \in wff_{\alpha}(\Sigma_{\mathcal{T}}, \mathcal{V}_{\mathcal{T}})$ , then  $\lambda X_{\beta} A \in wff_{\beta \to \alpha}(\Sigma_{\mathcal{T}}, \mathcal{V}_{\mathcal{T}})$

the set of well typed formulae of type  $\alpha$  over the signature  $\Sigma_{\mathcal{T}}$  and use  $wf\!\!f_{\mathcal{T}}(\Sigma_{\mathcal{T}}, \mathcal{V}_{\mathcal{T}}) := \bigcup_{\alpha \in \mathcal{T}} wf\!\!f_{\alpha}(\Sigma_{\mathcal{T}}, \mathcal{V}_{\mathcal{T}})$  for the set of all well-typed formulae.

- **Definition 3.3.** We will call all occurrences of the variable X in A bound in  $\lambda X$ .A. Variables that are not bound in B are called free in B.
- ▶ Substitutions are well typed, i.e.  $\sigma(X_{\alpha}) \in wff_{\alpha}(\Sigma_{\mathcal{T}}, \mathcal{V}_{\mathcal{T}})$  and capture-avoiding.
- Definition 3.4 (Simply Typed λ-Calculus). The simply typed λ calculus A<sup>→</sup> over a signature Σ<sub>T</sub> has the formulae wff<sub>T</sub>(Σ<sub>T</sub>, V<sub>T</sub>) (they are called λ-terms) and the following equalities:
  - $\alpha$  conversion:  $\lambda X.A =_{\alpha} \lambda Y.([Y/X](A)).$
  - $\beta$  conversion:  $(\lambda X.A) B =_{\beta} [B/X](A)$ .
  - $\eta$  conversion:  $\lambda X.A X =_{\eta} A$  if  $X \notin \text{free}(A)$ .



- ► Application is left-associative: We abbreviate F A<sup>1</sup> A<sup>2</sup> ... A<sup>n</sup> with F A<sup>1</sup> ... A<sup>n</sup> eliding the brackets and further with F A<sup>n</sup> in a kind of vector notation.
- Andrews' dot Notation: A . stands for a left bracket whose partner is as far right as is consistent with existing brackets; i.e. A .B C abbreviates A (B C).
- Abstraction is right-associative: We abbreviate  $\lambda X^1 . \lambda X^2 . ... \lambda X^n . A ...$  with  $\lambda X^1 ... X^n . A$  eliding brackets, and further to  $\lambda \overline{X^n} . A$  in a kind of vector notation.
- Outer brackets: Finally, we allow ourselves to elide outer brackets where they can be inferred.



#### Definition 3.5.

Reduction with  $\begin{cases} =_{\beta} : (\lambda X.A) \xrightarrow{B \to_{\beta}} [B/X](A) \\ =_{\eta} : \lambda X.A \xrightarrow{X \to_{\eta}} A \end{cases} \text{ under } =_{\alpha} : \begin{array}{c} \lambda X.A \\ =_{\alpha} \\ \lambda Y.([Y/X](A)) \end{cases}$ 

The treductions can be applied at top-level (as above), but also in subterms: If  $A \rightarrow_{\alpha\beta n} B$ , then  $C A \rightarrow_{\alpha\beta n} C B$ ,  $A C \rightarrow_{\alpha\beta n} B C$ , and  $\lambda X A \rightarrow_{\alpha\beta n} \lambda X B$ .

- **Theorem 3.6.**  $\beta$ -reduction is well-typed, terminating and confluent in the presence of  $\alpha$ -conversion.
- **Definition 3.7 (Normal Form).** We call a  $\lambda$ -term A a normal form (in a reduction system  $\mathcal{E}$ ), iff no rule (from  $\mathcal{E}$ ) can be applied to A.
- **Corollary 3.8.**  $=_{\beta n}$ -reduction yields unique normal forms (up to  $=_{\alpha}$ -equivalence).





# Syntactic Parts of $\lambda$ -Terms

- **Definition 3.9 (Parts of**  $\lambda$ -**Terms).** We can always write a  $\lambda$ -term in the form  $T = \lambda X^1 \dots X^k . HA^1 \dots A^n$ , where H is not an application. We call
  - H the syntactic head of T
  - $H(A^1, ..., A^n)$  the matrix of T, and
  - $\lambda X^1 \dots X^k$ . (or the sequence  $X^1, \dots, X^k$ ) the binder of T
- **Definition 3.10.** Head reduction always has a unique  $\beta$  redex

 $\lambda \overline{X^{n}}.(\lambda Y.\mathsf{A}) \mathsf{B}^{1}...\mathsf{B}^{n} \rightarrow^{h}_{\beta} \lambda \overline{X^{n}}.([\mathsf{B}^{1}/Y](\mathsf{A})) \mathsf{B}^{2}...\mathsf{B}^{n}$ 

- **Theorem 3.11.** The syntactic heads of β-normal forms are constant or variables.
- Definition 3.12. Let A be a λ-term, then the syntactic head of the β-normal form of A is called the head symbol of A and written as head(A). We call a λ-term a j-projection, iff its head is the j<sup>th</sup> bound variable.
- **Definition 3.13.** We call a  $\lambda$ -term a  $\eta$  long form, iff its matrix has base type.
- **Definition 3.14.**  $\eta$  Expansion makes  $\eta$  long forms

 $\eta [\lambda X^1 \dots X^n . \mathsf{A}] := \lambda X^1 \dots X^n . \lambda Y^1 \dots Y^m . \mathsf{A} Y^1 \dots Y^m$ 

**Definition 3.15.** Long  $\beta\eta$  normal form, iff it is  $\beta$  normal and  $\eta$ -long.



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- ▶ **Definition 3.16.** We call a collection  $\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{T}} := \{\mathcal{D}_{\alpha} \mid \alpha \in \mathcal{T}\}$  a typed collection (of sets) and a collection  $f_{\mathcal{T}} : \mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{T}} \to \mathcal{E}_{\mathcal{T}}$ , a typed function, iff  $f_{\alpha} : \mathcal{D}_{\alpha} \to \mathcal{E}_{\alpha}$ .
- ▶ **Definition 3.17.** A typed collection  $\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{T}}$  is called a frame, iff  $\mathcal{D}_{\alpha \to \beta} \subseteq \mathcal{D}_{\alpha} \to \mathcal{D}_{\beta}$ .
- ▶ **Definition 3.18.** Given a frame  $\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{T}}$ , and a typed function  $\mathcal{I}: \Sigma \to \mathcal{D}$ , we call  $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}: wff_{\mathcal{T}}(\Sigma_{\mathcal{T}}, \mathcal{V}_{\mathcal{T}}) \to \mathcal{D}$  the value function induced by  $\mathcal{I}$ , iff
  - 1.  $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}|_{\mathcal{V}_{\mathcal{T}}} = \varphi, \qquad \mathcal{I}_{\varphi}|_{\Sigma_{\mathcal{T}}} = \mathcal{I},$
  - 2.  $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}(A|B) = \mathcal{I}_{\varphi}(A)(\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}(B))$ , and

3.  $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}(\lambda X_{\alpha}.A)$  is that function  $f \in \mathcal{D}_{\alpha \to \beta}$ , such that  $f(a) = \mathcal{I}_{\varphi,[a/X]}(A)$  for all  $a \in \mathcal{D}_{\alpha}$ .

- ► Note: Not every  $\lambda$ -term has a  $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}$ -value as we have only required  $\mathcal{D}_{\alpha \to \beta} \subseteq \mathcal{D}_{\alpha} \to \mathcal{D}_{\beta}$  for frames. (there might not be enough functions)
- Definition 3.19. We call (D, I), where D is a frame and I is a typed function comprehension closed or a Σ<sub>T</sub>-algebra, iff I<sub>φ</sub>: wff<sub>T</sub>(Σ<sub>T</sub>, V<sub>T</sub>) → D is total.
- **Theorem 3.20.**  $=_{\alpha\beta\eta}$  (seen as a calculus) is sound and complete for  $\Sigma$ -algebras.
- **Upshot for LBS:** h is *the* logical system for reasoning about functions!



# 6.4 A Logical System for Fragment 3

116



# Higher-Order Logic without Quantifiers (HOL<sup>III</sup>)

- **Problem:** Need a logic like  $PE^{q}$ , but with  $\lambda$ -terms to interpret  $\mathcal{F}_{3}$  into.
- **Idea:** Re-use the syntactical framework of  $\Lambda^{\rightarrow}$ .
- ▶ **Definition 4.1.** Let HOL<sup>rq</sup> be an instance of  $\land$ <sup>→</sup>, with  $\mathcal{BT} = \{\iota, o\}$ ,  $\land \in \Sigma_{o \to o \to o}, \neg \in \Sigma_{o \to o}$ , and  $= \in \Sigma_{\alpha \to \alpha \to o}$  for all types  $\alpha$ .
- ▶ Idea: To extend this to a semantics for HOL<sup>III</sup>, we only have to say something about the base type o, and the logical constants  $\neg_{o \to o}$ ,  $\wedge_{o \to o \to o}$ , and  $=_{\alpha \to \alpha \to o}$ .
- ▶ Definition 4.2. We define the semantics of HOL<sup>III</sup> by setting
  - 1.  $\mathcal{D}_o = \{\mathsf{T}, \mathsf{F}\}$ ; the set of truth values
  - 2.  $\mathcal{I}(\neg) \in \mathcal{D}_{o \to o}$ , is the function  $\{F \mapsto T, T \mapsto F\}$
  - 3.  $\mathcal{I}(\wedge) \in \mathcal{D}_{o \to o \to o}$  is the function with  $\mathcal{I}(\wedge)(\langle a, b \rangle) = T$ , iff a = T and b = T.
  - 4.  $\mathcal{I}(=) \in \mathcal{D}_{\alpha \to \alpha \to o}$  is the identity relation on  $\mathcal{D}_{\alpha}$ .



▶ HOL<sup>III</sup> is an expressive logical system

**Example 4.3.** We can express set union as a HOL<sup>m</sup> term:

$$\cup := \lambda P_{\iota \to o} \cdot \lambda Q_{\iota \to o} \cdot \lambda X_{\iota} \cdot P X \vee Q X$$

Let us test whether  $\{1,2\} \cup \{2,3\}$  really is  $\{1,2,3\}$ . Note that we can represent (the characteristic function of)  $\{1,2\}$  as the HOL<sup>II</sup> term  $\lambda Z_{\iota}.Z = 1 \lor Z = 2$ . (and the other sets analogously) So lets represent  $\{1,2\} \cup \{2,3\}$  as a HOL<sup>II</sup> term and  $\beta$ -reduce:

$$\begin{array}{l} (\lambda P_{\iota \to o}, \lambda Q_{\iota \to o}, \lambda X_{\iota}, P \; X \lor Q \; X) \; (\lambda Z_{\iota}, Z = 1 \lor Z = 2) \; (\lambda Z_{\iota}, Z = 2 \lor Z = 3) \\ \rightarrow_{\beta} \quad (\lambda Q_{\iota \to o}, \lambda X_{\iota}, (\lambda Z_{\iota}, Z = 1 \lor Z = 2) \; X \lor Q \; X) \; (\lambda Z_{\iota}, Z = 2 \lor Z = 3) \\ \rightarrow_{\beta} \quad \lambda X_{\iota}, (\lambda Z_{\iota}, Z = 1 \lor Z = 2) \; X \lor (\lambda Z_{\iota}, Z = 2 \lor Z = 3) \; X \\ \rightarrow_{\beta} \quad \lambda X_{\iota}, X = 1 \lor X = 2 \lor X = 2 \lor X = 3 \\ \Leftrightarrow \quad \lambda X_{\iota}, X = 1 \lor X = 2 \lor X = 3 \end{array}$$

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# 6.5 Translation for Fragment 3

118

FAU

2025-02-06

# Translations for Fragment $\mathcal{F}_3$

• We will look at the new translation rules: (the rest from  $\mathcal{F}_2$  stay the same)

 $T1: [X_{\text{NP}}, Y_{VP}]_{S} \rightarrow VP(\text{NP}'),$   $T3: [X_{VP}, Y_{\text{conj}}, Z_{VP}]_{VP} \rightarrow \text{conj}'(VP', VP'),$  $T4: [X_{V^{t}}, Y_{\text{NP}}]_{VP} \rightarrow V^{t'}(\text{NP}')$ 

▶ Note: We can get away with this because  $PL^{rq} \subseteq HOL^{rq}$  in the target logic.

► The lexical insertion rules will give us two items each for *is*, *and*, and *or*, corresponding to the two types we have given them above.

word	type	term	case
BE <sub>pred</sub>	$(\iota  ightarrow o)  ightarrow \iota  ightarrow o$	$\lambda P_{\iota \to o} P$	adjective
BE <sub>eq</sub>	$\iota  ightarrow \iota  ightarrow o$	$\lambda X_{\iota} Y_{\iota} X = Y$	verb
and	o  ightarrow o  ightarrow o	$\wedge$	S-coord.
and	$(\iota  ightarrow o)  ightarrow (\iota  ightarrow o)  ightarrow \iota  ightarrow o$	$\lambda F_{\iota \to o} G_{\iota \to o} X_{\iota} \cdot F(X) \wedge G(X)$	VP-coord.
or	o  ightarrow o  ightarrow o	$\vee$	S-coord.
or	$(\iota  ightarrow o)  ightarrow (\iota  ightarrow o)  ightarrow \iota  ightarrow o$	$\lambda F_{\iota  ightarrow o} G_{\iota  ightarrow o} X_{\iota} . F(X) \lor G(X)$	VP-coord.
didn't	$(\iota  ightarrow o)  ightarrow \iota  ightarrow o$	$\lambda P_{\iota \to o} X_{\iota} . \neg P X$	

- ▶ Note: All words are translated to HOL<sup>m</sup> formulae.

- It only remains to test \(\mathcal{F}\_3\) on an example from the original data!
- **Example 5.1.** *Ethel howled and screamed* to

 $(\lambda F_{\iota o o} G_{\iota o o} X_{\iota}.F(X) \wedge G(X))$  howls screams ethel  $\rightarrow_{\beta} \quad (\lambda G_{\iota o o} X_{\iota}.howls(X) \wedge G(X))$  screams ethel  $\rightarrow_{\beta} \quad (\lambda X_{\iota}.howls(X) \wedge screams(X))$  ethel

 $\rightarrow_{\beta}$  howls(ethel)  $\land$  screams(ethel)



# 6.6 Summary & Evaluation

120



- Fragment  $\mathcal{F}_3$  extends  $\mathcal{F}_2$  by verb phrases.
- ► We need a completely new idea for the logic ← need functions to express translation
- ► Logical system:  $HOL^{rq} \cong \Lambda^{\rightarrow} + PL^{0}$ .
  - $\blacktriangleright$   $\bigwedge$  contributes the simple types and functions
  - $PL^0$  contributes type *o* and connectives.
- **Coverage:** Better: we can do verb phrase coordination.



### Chapter 7 Fragment 4: Noun Phrases and Quantification

121



# 7.1 Fragment 4

121

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- In *F*<sub>4</sub> we want to extend *F*<sub>3</sub> so it can deal with the following sentences: (without the "the-NP" trick)
  - 1. Peter loved the cat., but not \* Peter loved the the cat.
  - 2. John killed a cat with a white tail.
  - 3. Peter chased the gangster in the red sportscar.
  - 4. Peter loves every cat.
  - 5. Every man loves a woman.
  - 6. The quick brown fox jumps over the lazy dog.
  - 7. The very heavy boat sank quickly.



# New Grammar in Fragment $\mathcal{F}_4$ (Common Noun Phrases)

▶ To account for the syntax we extend the functionality of noun phrases from  $\mathcal{F}_1$ .

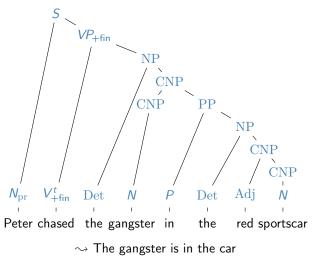
▶ **Definition 1.1.**  $\mathcal{F}_4$  adds the rules on the right to  $\mathcal{F}_3$  (on the left):  $S3: S \rightarrow S$  PP.

 $N3: NP \rightarrow Det CNP$ ,  $S1: S \rightarrow NP VP_{\pm fin}$  $S2: S \rightarrow S \operatorname{conj} S$ ,  $N4 \cdot CNP \rightarrow N$ V1:  $VP_{\pm fin} \rightarrow V^i_{\pm fin}$ ,  $N5: CNP \rightarrow CNP PP.$  $N6: CNP \rightarrow Adi CNP.$ V2:  $VP_{\pm fin} \rightarrow V_{\pm fin}^t$  NP,  $P1: PP \rightarrow P NP.$ V4:  $VP_{\pm \text{fin}} \rightarrow BE_{\pm} \text{NP}$ ,  $V3': VP_{\pm fin} \rightarrow VP_{\pm fin} VP_{\cosh j_{\pm fin}}$ V5:  $VP_{\pm fin} \rightarrow BE_{pred}$  Adj, V7:  $VPconj_{\pm fin} \rightarrow conj VP_{\pm fin}$ , V6:  $VP_{\pm fin} \rightarrow didn't VP_{-fin}$ , V8:  $VP_{\pm fin} \rightarrow VP_{\pm fin}$  Adv,  $N1: NP \rightarrow N_{pr},$ V9:  $VP_{\pm fin} \rightarrow VP_{\pm fin}$  PP,  $N2: NP \rightarrow Pron$  $L1: P \rightarrow \text{with} \mid \text{of} \mid \ldots$ 

Definition 1.2. A common noun is a noun that describes a type, for example woman, or philosophy rather than an token, such as Amelia Earhart (proper name).

### Testing the $\mathcal{F}_4$ Syntax on an example

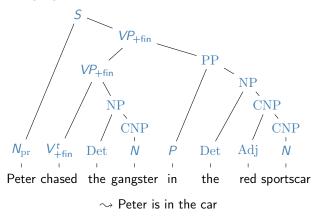
**Example 1.3.** Can we capture the (syntactic) attachment ambiguity in *Peter chased the gangster in the red sportscar.* 





### Testing the $\mathcal{F}_4$ Syntax on an example

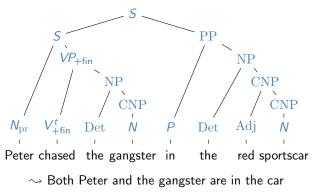
**Example 1.4.** Can we capture the (syntactic) attachment ambiguity in *Peter chased the gangster in the red sportscar.* 



2025-02-06

### Testing the $\mathcal{F}_4$ Syntax on an example

**Example 1.5.** Can we capture the (syntactic) attachment ambiguity in *Peter chased the gangster in the red sportscar.* 



# 7.2 A Target Logic for Fragment 4

2025-02-06

# Higher-Order Logic with Descriptions

- ▶ **Plan:** We need to extend HOL<sup>PQ</sup> with
  - quantifiers so we can treat Every student sleeps
  - ▶ a logical operator for definite descriptions, e.g. *the teacher sleeps*

We will call this logic Higher-Order Logic with Descriptions (quantifiers taken for granted)



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- ▶ Note: Quantifiers can be added to any logic: Extend the
  - syntax by variables and a new binding symbol
  - semantics by a new clause for the value function
  - calculi by new quantifier introduction/elimination rules

Quite tedious compared to simply adding a new logical constant!

(language-level)



125

# Higher-Order Logic with Descriptions

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Quite tedious compared to simply adding a new logical constant!

Note: The description operator will have to have type (*ι* → *o*) → *ι*, as the denotation of *teacher* has type *ι* → *o* and *the teacher* has type *ι*. (like *Mary*)

FAU

Michael Kohlhase: LBS



(language-level)

#### 7.2.1 Quantifiers and Equality in Higher-Order Logic

125



▶ Idea: In  $HOL^{\rightarrow}$ , we already have binding operator:  $\lambda$ , use that to treat quantification.

▶ **Definition 2.1.** We add two new logical constants  $\Pi^{\alpha}$  and  $\Sigma^{\alpha}$  for each type  $\alpha$ : 1.  $\mathcal{I}(\Pi^{\alpha})(p) = T$ , iff p(a) = T for all  $a \in \mathcal{D}_{\alpha}$  (i.e. if p is the universal set) 2.  $\mathcal{I}(\Sigma^{\alpha})(p) = T$ , iff p(a) = T for some  $a \in \mathcal{D}_{\alpha}$  (i.e. iff p is non-empty)

**Definition 2.2.** Regain traditional quantifiers as abbreviations:

$$(\forall X_{\alpha}.\mathsf{A}) := \Pi^{\alpha} (\lambda X_{\alpha}.\mathsf{A}) \qquad (\exists X_{\alpha}.\mathsf{A}) := \Sigma^{\alpha} (\lambda X_{\alpha}.\mathsf{A})$$

- ▶ **Observation:** Indeed:  $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}(\forall X_{\iota}.A) = \mathcal{I}_{\varphi}(\Pi^{\iota}(\lambda X_{\iota}.A)) = \mathcal{I}(\Pi^{\iota})(\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}(\lambda X_{\iota}.A)) = \mathsf{T}$ iff  $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}(\lambda X_{\iota}.A)(a) = \mathcal{I}_{[a/X],\varphi}(A) = \mathsf{T}$  for all  $a \in \mathcal{D}_{\alpha}$ .
- Definition 2.3. We call this approach to binding operators higher-order abstract syntax (HOAS).



# Equality

- ▶ Definition 2.4 (Leibniz equality). Q<sup>α</sup>A<sub>α</sub>B<sub>α</sub> = ∀P<sub>α→o</sub>.PA ⇔ PB (Leibniz' indiscernibility of identicals)
- ▶ Note:  $\forall P_{\alpha \to o}.PA \Rightarrow PB$  (get the other direction by instantiating *P* with *Q*, where  $QX \Leftrightarrow \neg PX$ )
- **Theorem 2.5.** If  $\mathcal{M} = \langle \mathcal{D}, \mathcal{I} \rangle$  is a standard model, then  $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}(\mathbb{Q}^{\alpha})$  is the identity relation on  $\mathcal{D}_{\alpha}$ .
- Definition 2.6 (Notation). We write A = B for QAB (A and B are equal, iff there is no property P that can tell them apart.)

Proof:

1.  $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}(\mathsf{QAB}) = \mathcal{I}_{\varphi}(\forall P.PA \Rightarrow PB) = \mathsf{T}$ , iff  $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi,[r/P]}(PA \Rightarrow PB) = \mathsf{T}$  for all  $r \in \mathcal{D}_{\alpha \to o}$ . 2. For  $A = \mathsf{B}$  we have  $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi,[r/P]}(PA) = r(\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}(A)) = \mathsf{F}$  or  $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi,[r/P]}(PB) = r(\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}(B)) = \mathsf{T}$ . 3. Thus  $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}(\mathsf{QAB}) = \mathsf{T}$ . 4. Let  $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}(A) \neq \mathcal{I}_{\varphi}(B)$  and  $r = \{\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}(A)\} \in \mathcal{D}_{\alpha \to o}$  (exists in a standard model) 5. so  $r(\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}(A)) = \mathsf{T}$  and  $r(\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}(B)) = \mathsf{F}$ 6.  $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}(\mathsf{QAB}) = \mathsf{F}$ , as  $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi,[r/P]}(PA \Rightarrow PB) = \mathsf{F}$ , since  $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi,[r/P]}(PA) = r(\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}(A)) = \mathsf{T}$  and  $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi,[r/P]}(PB) = r(\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}(B)) = \mathsf{F}$ .



### Alternative: $HOL^{\infty}$

Definition 2.7. There is only one logical constant in HOI<sup>∞</sup>: q<sup>α</sup> ∈ Σ<sub>α→α→o</sub> with I(q<sup>α</sup>)(a, b) = T, iff a = b. We define the rest as below: Definitions (D) and Notations (N)

yield the intuitive meanings for connectives and quantifiers.



# 7.2.2 A Logic for Definite Descriptions

128



- ▶ Problem: We need the meaning for the determiner the, as in the boy runs
- ▶ Idea (Type): the boy behaves like a proper name (e.g. Peter), i.e. has type  $\iota$ . Applying the to a noun (type  $\iota \rightarrow o$ ) yields  $\iota$ . So the has type ( $\alpha \rightarrow o$ )  $\rightarrow \alpha$ , i.e. it takes a set as argument.
- Idea (Semantics): the has the fixed semantics that this function returns the single member of its argument if the argument is a singleton, and is otherwise undefined. (new logical constant)
- Definition 2.8. We introduce a new logical constant *ι*. *I*(*ι*) is the function *f* ∈ *D*<sub>(α→o)→α</sub>, such that *f*(*s*) = *a*, iff *s* ∈ *D*<sub>α→o</sub> is the singleton {*a*}, and is otherwise undefined. (remember that we can interpret predicates as sets)
- Axioms for  $\iota$ :

Eau

$$\forall X_{\alpha}.X = \iota = X$$
  
$$\forall P, Q.Q(\iota P) \land (\forall X, Y.P(X) \land P(Y) \Rightarrow X = Y) \Rightarrow (\forall .P(Z) \Rightarrow Q(Z))$$



## More Operators and Axioms for $\mathrm{HOL}^{\rightarrow}$

- ► **Definition 2.9.** The unary conditional  $w^{\alpha} \in \sum_{o \to \alpha \to \alpha} w$ w  $(A_o)B_{\alpha}$  means: "If A, then B".
- ▶ **Definition 2.10.** The binary conditional if  $^{\alpha} \in \Sigma_{o \to \alpha \to \alpha \to \alpha}$ if  $(A_o) (B_{\alpha}) (C_{\alpha})$  means: "if A, then B else C".
- ▶ Definition 2.11. The description operator  $\iota^{\alpha} \in \Sigma_{(\alpha \to o) \to \alpha}$ if P is a singleton set, then  $\iota$  (P<sub> $\alpha \to o$ </sub>) is the (unique) element in P.
- Definition 2.12. The choice operator γ<sup>α</sup> ∈ Σ<sub>(α→o)→α</sub> if P is non-empty, then γ (P<sub>α→o</sub>) is an arbitrary element from P.
- Definition 2.13 (Axioms for these Operators).
  - unary conditional:  $\forall \varphi_o. \forall X_\alpha. \varphi \Rightarrow w \ \varphi X = X$
  - ▶ binary conditional:  $\forall \varphi_o. \forall X_\alpha, Y_\alpha, Z_\alpha. (\varphi \Rightarrow \text{if } \varphi X Y = X) \land (\neg \varphi \Rightarrow \text{if } \varphi Z X = X)$
  - description operator  $\forall P_{\alpha \to o}.(\exists^1 X_{\alpha}.PX) \Rightarrow (\forall Y_{\alpha}.PY \Rightarrow \iota P = Y)$
  - choice operator  $\forall P_{\alpha \to o}.(\exists X_{\alpha}.PX) \Rightarrow (\forall Y_{\alpha}.PY \Rightarrow \gamma P = Y)$
- Idea: These operators ensure a much larger supply of functions in Henkin models.



- $\blacktriangleright \iota \text{ is a weak form of the choice operator.} \qquad (only works on singletons)$
- Alternative Axiom of Descriptions:  $\forall X_{\alpha} \cdot \iota^{\alpha} = X = X$ .
  - use that  $\mathcal{I}_{[a/X]}(=X) = \{a\}$
  - we only need this for base types  $\neq o$
  - Define  $\iota^{\circ} :== (\lambda X_{\circ} X)$  or  $\iota^{\circ} := \lambda G_{\circ \to \circ} G T$  or  $\iota^{\circ} :== T$
  - $\blacktriangleright \iota^{(\alpha \to \beta)} := \lambda H_{(\alpha \to \beta) \to o} X_{\alpha} \iota^{\beta} \ (\lambda Z_{\beta} . (\exists F_{\alpha \to \beta} . H \ F \land F \ X = Z))$



## 7.3 Translation for Fragment 4

## Translation of Determiners and Quantifiers

Idea: We establish the meaning of quantifying determiners by =<sub>β</sub>-expansion.
 1. assume that we are translating into a λ-calculus with quantifiers and that

- $\forall X.boy(X) \Rightarrow runs(X)$  translates Every boy runs, and
- $\exists X.boy(X) \land runs(X)$  for Some boy runs
- 2.  $\forall := \lambda P_{\iota \to o} Q_{\iota \to o} (\forall P(X) \Rightarrow Q(X))$  for every.
- 3.  $\exists := \lambda P_{\iota \to o} Q_{\iota \to o} (\exists P(X) \land Q(X))$  for some. (non-empty intersection)
- Problem: Linguistic quantifiers take two arguments (restriction and scope), logical ones only one! (in logics, restriction is the universal set)
- ▶ We cannot treat *the* with regular quantifiers (new logical constant; see below)

### Definition 3.1.

We translate the word the to  $\tau := \lambda P_{\iota \to o} Q_{\iota \to o} Q_{\iota} P$ , where  $\iota$  is a new operator that given a set returns its (unique) member.

**Example 3.2.** This translates *The pope spoke* to  $\tau$ (pope, speaks), which  $=_{\beta}$ -reduces to speaks( $\iota$  pope).

(subset relation)

- ▶ If Adj is an intersective adjective and Adj' is an constant of type  $\iota \rightarrow o$ , then
  - ▶ 9: Adj ~→ Adj' or
  - ▶ 9': Adj  $\rightsquigarrow (\lambda P_{\iota \rightarrow o} X_{\iota} \cdot P(X) \land Adj'(X))$
- If Adj is a non-intersective adjective, then Adj' is a constant of type
   (ι → o) → ι → o whose denotation is given the interpretation by I and
   10: Adj ~ Adj'.



- ► Problem: Subject NPs with quantificational determiners have type (ι → o) → o (and are applied to the VP) whereas subject NPs with proper names have type ι. (argument to the VP)
- ▶ Idea: John runs translates to runs(john), where runs  $\in \Sigma_{\iota \to o}$  and john  $\in \Sigma_{\iota}$ . Now we =<sub>β</sub>-expand over the VP yielding ( $\lambda P_{\iota \to o}.P(\text{john})$ ) runs  $\lambda P_{\iota \to o}.P(\text{john})$  has type ( $\iota \to o$ )  $\to o$  and can be applied to the VP runs.
- **Definition 3.3.** If  $c \in \Sigma_{\alpha}$ , then type raising c yields  $\lambda P_{\alpha \to o} P c$ .



- Problem: On our current assumptions, the' = ι, and so for any definite NP the N, its translation is ι N, an expression of type ι.
- ► Idea: Type lift just as we did with proper names:  $\iota$  N type lifts to  $\lambda P.P \iota$  N, so the' =  $\lambda PQ.Q \iota P$
- Advantage: This is a "generalized quantifier treatment": the treated as denoting relations between sets.
- ▶ Solution by Barwise&Cooper 1981: For any  $a \in D_{\iota \to o}$ :  $\mathcal{I}(the')(a) = \mathcal{I}(every')(a)$  if #(a) = 1, undefined otherwise So the' is that function in  $\mathcal{D}_{(\iota \to o) \to (\iota \to o) \to o}$  such that for any  $A, B \in \mathcal{D}_{\iota \to o}$ if #(A) = 1 then the'(A, B) = T if  $A \subseteq B$  and the'(A, B) = F if  $A \not\subseteq B$  otherwise undefined



- ▶ **Problem:** We have type-raised NPs, but consider transitive verbs as in *Mary loves most cats.* loves is of type  $\iota \rightarrow \iota \rightarrow o$  while the object NP is of type  $(\iota \rightarrow o) \rightarrow o$  (application?)
- ► Another Problem: We encounter the same problem in the sentence *Mary loves John* if we choose to type-lift the NPs.
- Idea: Change the type of the transitive verb to allow it to "swallow" the higher-typed object NP.
- **Better Idea:** Adopt a new rule for semantic composition for this case.
- Remember: loves' is a function from individuals (e.g. John) to properties (in the case of the VP loves John, the property X loves John of X).

Eau

## Type raised NPs and Function Composition

• We can extend  $\operatorname{HOL}^{\rightarrow}$  by a constant  $\circ_{(\beta \to \gamma) \to (\alpha \to \beta) \to \alpha \to \gamma}$  by setting  $\circ := \lambda FGX.F(G(X))$  thus

 $\circ g f \rightarrow_{\beta} \lambda X.g(f(X))$  and  $\circ g f a \rightarrow_{\beta} g(f(a))$ 

In our example, we have

$$\circ (\lambda P.P(\text{john})) \text{ loves } =_{Def} (\lambda FGX.F(G(X))) (\lambda P.P(\text{john})) \text{ loves}$$
  
$$\rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda GX.(\lambda P.P(\text{john})) G(X)) \text{ loves}$$
  
$$\rightarrow_{\beta} \lambda X.(\lambda P.P(\text{john})) \text{ loves } X$$
  
$$\rightarrow_{\beta}! \lambda X.\text{ loves}(X,\text{john})$$

- Problem: What about Most boys run.: linguistically most behaves exactly like every or some.
- Idea: Most boys run is true just in case the number of boys who run is greater than the number of boys who do not run.

 $\#(\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}(\mathrm{boy}) \cap \mathcal{I}_{\varphi}(\mathrm{runs})) > \#(\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}(\mathrm{boy}) \setminus \mathcal{I}_{\varphi}(\mathrm{runs}))$ 

▶ Definition 3.4. #(A) > #(B), iff there is no surjective function from B to A, so we can define

 $most' := \lambda AB. \neg (\exists F. \forall X. A(X) \land \neg B(X) \Rightarrow (\exists A(Y) \land B(Y) \land X = F(Y)))$ 



- We can now give an explicit set characterization of every and some:
  - 1. every denotes  $\{\langle X, Y \rangle | X \subseteq Y\}$
  - 2. some denotes  $\{\langle X, Y \rangle | X \cap Y \neq \emptyset\}$
- ► The denotations can be given in equivalent function terms, as demonstrated above with the denotation of *most*.



## 7.4 Inference for Fragment 4

2025-02-06

# 7.4.1 Model Generation with Quantifiers



Michael Kohlhase: LBS



# Model Generation (The *RM* Calculus [Kon04])

- Idea: Try to generate domain-minimal (i.e. fewest individuals) Herbrand models (for NL interpretation)
- Problem: Even one function constant makes Herbrand universe infinite (solution: leave them out)
- **Definition 4.1.** *RM* adds ground quantifier rules to propositional tableau calculus

$$\frac{(\forall X.A)^{\mathsf{T}} \ c \in \mathcal{H}}{([c/X](A))^{\mathsf{T}}} RM \forall$$

$$\frac{(\forall X.A)^{\mathsf{F}} \ \mathcal{H} = \{a_1, \dots, a_n\} \ w \notin \mathcal{H} \text{ new}}{([a_1/X](A))^{\mathsf{F}} \ | \ \dots \ | \ ([a_n/X](A))^{\mathsf{F}} \ | \ ([w/X](A))^{\mathsf{F}}} RM \exists$$

- $\triangleright$  RM  $\exists$  rule introduces new witness constant w to the branch Herbrand universe  $\mathcal{H}$ : the set of all individual constants on the branch.

▶ Apply  $RM \forall$  exhaustively (for new *w* reapply all  $RM \forall$  rules on branch!)





Eau

## Generating infinite models (Natural Numbers)

- We have to re-apply the  $RM \forall$  rule for any new constant
- **Example 4.2.** This leads to the generation of infinite models

$$\begin{array}{c|c} \left( \forall x. \neg x > x \land \ldots \right)^{\mathsf{T}} \\ N(0)^{\mathsf{T}} \\ \left( \forall x. N(x) \Rightarrow (\exists y. N(y) \land y > x) \right)^{\mathsf{T}} \\ \left( N(0) \Rightarrow (\exists y. N(y) \land y > 0) \right)^{\mathsf{T}} \\ \left( \exists y. N(y) \land y > 0 \right)^{\mathsf{T}} \\ \downarrow \\ \left( \exists y. N(y) \land y > 0 \right)^{\mathsf{T}} \\ 1 > 0^{\mathsf{T}} \\ 0 > 0^{\mathsf{T}} \\ \downarrow \\ \left( \begin{matrix} N(1) \Rightarrow (\exists y. N(y) \land y > 1) \right)^{\mathsf{T}} \\ N(1)^{\mathsf{F}} \\ \downarrow \\ N(1)^{\mathsf{F}} \\ 0 > 1^{\mathsf{T}} \\ 1 > 1^{\mathsf{T}} \\ 1 > 1^{\mathsf{T}} \\ 2 > 1^{\mathsf{T}} \\ \vdots \\ \downarrow \\ \end{matrix} \right)$$

Example: Peter is a man. No man walks

Example 4.3 (Model generation with quantifiers). Peter is a man. No man walks

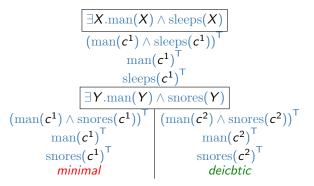
 $\begin{array}{||c|c|c|c|c|} & man(peter) & \hline \neg (\exists X.man(X) \land walks(X))) \\ & (\exists X.man(X) \land walks(X))^{\mathsf{F}} \\ & (\forall X.\neg man(X) \lor \neg walks(X))^{\mathsf{T}} \\ & (\neg man(peter) \lor \neg walks(peter))^{\mathsf{T}} \\ & \neg man(peter)^{\mathsf{T}} & \neg walks(peter))^{\mathsf{T}} \\ & man(peter)^{\mathsf{F}} & walks(peter)^{\mathsf{F}} \\ & \bot & \\ \end{array}$ Herbrand valuation: {man(peter)^{\mathsf{T}}, walks(peter)^{\mathsf{F}}}



Eau

Anaphor Resolution A man sleeps. He snores

Example 4.4 (Anaphor Resolution). A man sleeps. He snores





Example 4.5. Mary is married to Jeff. Her husband is not in town. (slightly outside *F*<sub>2</sub>)
 In PL<sup>1</sup>: married(mary, jeff), and

 $\exists W_{\mathbb{M}\mathtt{ale}}, W'_{\mathbb{F}\mathtt{emale}}. \mathtt{husband}(W, W') \land \neg \mathrm{intown}(W)$ 

World knowledge

FAU

▶ If woman X is married to man Y, then Y is the only husband of X.

 $\forall X_{\texttt{Female}}, Y_{\texttt{Male}}. \texttt{married}(X, Y) \Rightarrow \texttt{husband}(Y, X) \land (\forall Z.\texttt{husband}(Z, X) \Rightarrow (Z = Y))$ 

Model generation gives tableau where all open branches contain

 $\{\mathrm{married}(\mathrm{mary},\mathrm{jeff})^\mathsf{T},\mathrm{husband}(\mathrm{jeff},\mathrm{mary})^\mathsf{T},\mathrm{intown}(\mathrm{jeff})^\mathsf{F}\}$ 

► Differences: Additional negative facts e.g. married(mary, mary)<sup>F</sup>.

$$\begin{array}{c} \operatorname{married}(\operatorname{mary},\operatorname{jeff})^{\mathsf{T}} \\ (\exists \mathsf{Z}_{\texttt{Male}}, \mathsf{Z'}_{\texttt{Female}}.\operatorname{husband}(\mathsf{Z}, \mathsf{Z'}) \land \neg \operatorname{intown}(\mathsf{Z}))^{\mathsf{T}} \\ (\exists \mathsf{Z'}.\operatorname{husband}(\mathsf{c^1}_{\texttt{Male}}, \mathsf{Z'}) \land \neg \operatorname{intown}(\mathsf{c^1}_{\texttt{Male}}))^{\mathsf{T}} \\ (\operatorname{husband}(\mathsf{c^1}_{\texttt{Male}}, \operatorname{mary}) \land \neg \operatorname{intown}(\mathsf{c^1}_{\texttt{Male}}))^{\mathsf{T}} \\ \operatorname{husband}(\mathsf{c^1}_{\texttt{Male}}, \operatorname{mary})^{\mathsf{T}} \\ \neg \operatorname{intown}(\mathsf{c^1}_{\texttt{Male}})^{\mathsf{F}} \end{array}$$

Problem: Bigamy: c<sup>1</sup><sub>Male</sub> and jeff are husbands of Mary!

## 7.4.2 Model Generation with Definite Descriptions

145



## A Model Generation Rule for $\iota$

Definition 4.6.

$$\frac{\begin{array}{c}P(c)^{\mathsf{T}}\\Q(\iota P)^{\alpha}\end{array}}{Q(c)^{\alpha}} \mathcal{H} = \{c, a_{1}, \dots, a_{n}\}\\ \hline \\ \hline \\Q(c)^{\alpha}\\(P(a_{1}) \Rightarrow c = a_{1})^{\mathsf{T}}\\\vdots\\(P(a_{n}) \Rightarrow c = a_{n})^{\mathsf{T}}\end{array}}$$

▶ Intuition: If we have a member *c* of *P* and  $Q(\iota P)$  is defined (it has truth value  $\alpha \in \{\mathsf{T},\mathsf{F}\}$ ), then *P* must be a singleton (i.e. all other members *X* of *P* are identical to *c*) and *Q* must hold on *c*. So the rule *RM*  $\iota$  forces it to be by making all other members of *P* equal to *c*.



Mary owned a lousy computer. The hard drive crashed.

 $(\forall X. \operatorname{computer}(X) \Rightarrow (\exists Y. \operatorname{harddrive}(Y) \land \operatorname{partof}(Y, X)))^{\mathsf{T}}$  $\exists X.computer(X) \land lousy(X) \land own(mary, X)$  $\operatorname{computer}(c)$  $\operatorname{lousy}(c)^{\mathsf{T}}$  $own(mary, c)^{\mathsf{T}}$  $\begin{array}{c|c} \text{harddrive}(\boldsymbol{c})^{\mathsf{T}} & \text{harddrive}(\boldsymbol{d})^{\mathsf{T}} \\ \text{partof}(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c})^{\mathsf{T}} & \text{partof}(\boldsymbol{d}, \boldsymbol{c})^{\mathsf{T}} \end{array}$ crashes( $\iota$  harddrive)  $\operatorname{crashes}(d)^{\mathsf{T}}$  $(\text{harddrive}(\text{mary}) \Rightarrow \text{mary} = d)^{\mathsf{T}}$  $(\text{harddrive}(c) \Rightarrow c = d)^{\mathsf{T}}$ 



In a situation, where there are two dogs: Fido and Chester

$$\begin{array}{c} \operatorname{dog(fido)}^{\mathsf{T}} \\ \operatorname{dog(chester)}^{\mathsf{T}} \\ & \boxed{\operatorname{bark}(\iota \operatorname{dog})} \\ \operatorname{bark(fido)}^{\mathsf{T}} \\ \operatorname{(dog(chester)} \Rightarrow \operatorname{chester} = \operatorname{fido)}^{\mathsf{T}} \\ \operatorname{dog(chester)}^{\mathsf{F}} \\ \operatorname{chester} = \operatorname{fido}^{\mathsf{T}} \\ \end{array}$$
(1)

Note that none of our rules allows us to close the right branch, since we do not know that Fido and Chester are distinct. Indeed, they could be the same dog (with two different names). But we can eliminate this possibility by adopting a new assumption.





#### Model Generation with Unique Name 7.4.3 Assumptions

148



## Model Generation with Unique Name Assumption (UNA)

- Problem: Names are unique usually in natural language
- Definition 4.7. The unique name assumption (UNA) makes the assumption that names are unique (in the respective context)
- ▶ Idea: Add background knowledge of the form  $n = m^{F}$  (*n* and *m* names)
- ▶ Better Idea: Build UNA into the calculus: partition the Herbrand universe H = U ∪ W into subsets U for constants with a UNA, and W without. (treat them differently)
- ► Definition 4.8 (Model Generation with UNA). We add the following two rules to the *RM* calculus to deal with the unique name assumption.

$$\frac{\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{a} = \mathbf{b}^{\mathsf{T}} \\ \mathbf{A}^{\alpha} \end{array} \mathbf{a} \in \mathcal{W} \quad \mathbf{b} \in \mathcal{H} \\ \hline ([\mathbf{b}/\mathbf{a}](\mathbf{A}))^{\alpha} \qquad RM \, \text{subst} \qquad \frac{\mathbf{a}}{\mathbf{c}}$$

$$\frac{\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{b}^{\mathsf{T}} \ \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in \mathcal{U}}{\perp} \ RM \, \mathrm{una}$$



## Solving a Crime with Unique Names

Example 4.9. Tony has observed (at most) two people. Tony observed a murderer that had black hair. It turns out that Bill and Bob were the two people Tony observed. Bill is blond, and Bob has black hair. (Who was the murderer.) Let U = {Bill, Bob} and W = {murderer}:

```
(\forall z. observes(Tony, z) \Rightarrow (z = Bill \lor z = Bob))^{\mathsf{T}}
                                  observes(Tony, Bill)<sup>T</sup>
                                  observes(Tony, Bob)<sup>T</sup>
                              observes(Tony, murderer)<sup>T</sup>
                                 black hair(murderer)<sup>T</sup>
                                    ¬black hair(Bill)<sup>T</sup>
                                     black hair(Bill)<sup>F</sup>
                                    black hair (Bob)<sup>T</sup>
(observes(Tony, murderer) \Rightarrow (murderer = Bill \lor murderer = Bob))^{\mathsf{T}}
                      (murderer = Bill \lor murderer = Bob)^{\mathsf{T}}
                       murderer = Bill^{\mathsf{T}} \mid murderer = Bob^{\mathsf{T}}
                      black hair(Bill)<sup>T</sup>
```



- ► Interpret "the" as  $\lambda PQ.Q\iota P \wedge uniq(P)$ where  $uniq := \lambda P.(\exists X.P(X) \land (\forall Y.P(Y) \Rightarrow X = Y))$ and  $\forall := \lambda PQ.(\forall X.P(X) \Rightarrow Q(X)).$
- ▶ "the rabbit is cute", has logical form  $uniq(rabbit) \land (rabbit \subseteq cute)$ .
- *RM* generates {..., rabbit(c), cute(c)} in situations with at most 1 rabbit. (special *RM*∃ rule yields identification and accommodation (c<sup>new</sup>))
- + At last an approach that takes world knowledge into account!
- tractable only for toy discourses/ontologies
  The world cup final was watched on TV by 7 million people.
  A rabbit is in the garden.
  ∀X.human(x)∃Y.human(X) ∧ father(X, Y)
  ∀X, Y.father(X, Y) ⇒ X ≠ Y



Problem: What about two rabbits?

Bugs and Bunny are rabbits. Bugs is in the hat. Jon removes the rabbit from the hat.

## ▶ Idea: Uniqueness under Scope [Gardent & Konrad '99]:

- ▶ refine the to  $\lambda PRQ.uniq(P \cap R \land \forall (P \cap R, Q))$ where R is an "identifying property" (identified from the context and passed as an arbument to the)
- here R is "being in the hat" (by world knowledge about removing)
- makes Bugs unique (in  $P \cap R$ ) and the discourse acceptable.
- ▶ Idea: [Hobbs & Stickel&...]:
  - use generic relation rel for "relatedness to context" for  $P^2$ .
  - ?? Is there a general theory of relatedness?

# 7.5 Quantifier Scope Ambiguity and Underspecification

FAU

152

#### Scope Ambiguity and Quantifying-In 7.5.1

152

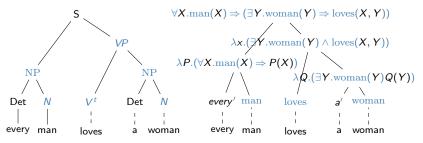


## Quantifier Scope Ambiguities: Data

- Consider the following sentences:
  - 1. Every man loves a woman

(Britney Spears or his mother?)

- 2. Most Europeans speak two languages.
- 3. Some student in every course sleeps in every class at least some of the time.
- Definition 5.1. We call these systematic ambiguities quantifyer scope ambiguities
- **Example 5.2.** We can represent the "wide-scope" reading with our methods



• **Question:** How to map an unambiguous input structure to multiple translations.



- ► Analysis: The sentence meaning is of the form ⟨everyman⟩(⟨awoman⟩(⟨loves⟩))
- Idea: Somehow have to move the a woman part in front of the every to obtain

 $\langle awoman \rangle (\langle everyman \rangle (\langle loves \rangle))$ 

- More concretely: Let's try A woman every man loves her. In semantics construction, apply a woman to every man loves her. So a woman out-scopes every man.
- Problem: How to represent pronouns and link them to their antecedents
- ► STORE is an alternative translation rule. Given a node with an NP daughter, we can translate the node by passing up to it the translation of its non-NP daughter, and putting the translation of the NP into a store, for later use.
- ► The QI rule allows us to empty out a non-empty store.



## Storing and Quantifying In (Technically)

- ▶ **Definition 5.3.** STORE(NP,  $\Phi$ )  $\longrightarrow$  ( $\Phi$ ,  $\Sigma * NP$ ), where  $\Sigma * NP$  is the result of adding NP to  $\Sigma$ , i.e.  $\Sigma * NP = \Sigma \cup \{NP\}$ ; we will assume that NP is not already in  $\Sigma$ , when we use the \* operator.
- ▶ Definition 5.4.  $Ql(\langle \Phi, \Sigma * NP \rangle) \rightarrow \langle NP \oplus \Phi, \Sigma \rangle$  where  $\oplus$  is either function application or function composition.
- Nondeterministic Semantics Construction: Adding rules gives us more choice
  - 1. Rule C (simple combination) If A is a node with daughters B and C, and the translations of B and of C have empty stores, then A translates to  $B' \oplus C'$ . Choice of rule is determined by types.
  - 2. STORE If A is a node with daughters B and C, where:
    - B is an NP with translation B' and
    - C translates to  $(C', \Sigma)$

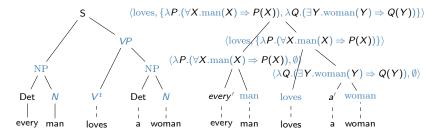
then A may translate to STORE(B', C')

Note that STORE may be applied whether or not the stores of the constituent nodes are empty.



## Quantifying in Practice: Every man loves a woman

Example 5.5.



► Continue with **QI** applications: first retrieve  $\lambda Q.(\exists Y.woman(Y) \Rightarrow Q(Y))$  $\langle loves, \{\lambda P.(\forall X.man(X) \Rightarrow P(X)), \lambda Q.(\exists Y.woman(Y) \Rightarrow Q(Y))\} \rangle$ 

 $\rightarrow_{QI} \quad \langle \circ (\lambda P.(\forall X.\operatorname{man}(X) \Rightarrow P(X))) \text{ loves}, \{\lambda Q.(\exists Y.\operatorname{woman}(Y) \Rightarrow Q(Y))\} \rangle$ 

- $\rightarrow_{\beta} \quad \langle \lambda Z.(\lambda P.(\forall X.\operatorname{man}(X) \Rightarrow P(X))) \text{ loves } Z, \{\lambda Q.(\exists Y.\operatorname{woman}(Y) \Rightarrow Q(Y))\} \rangle$
- $\rightarrow_{\beta} \quad \langle \lambda Z.(\forall X.\operatorname{man}(X) \Rightarrow \operatorname{loves} Z X), \{\lambda Q.(\exists Y.\operatorname{woman}(Y) \Rightarrow Q(Y))\} \rangle$

$$\rightarrow_{QI} \quad \langle (\lambda Q.(\exists Y.\operatorname{woman}(Y) \Rightarrow Q(Y))) \ (\lambda Z.(\forall X.\operatorname{man}(X) \Rightarrow \operatorname{loves} Z \ X)), \emptyset \rangle$$

- $\rightarrow_{\beta} \quad \langle \exists Y. \operatorname{woman}(Y) \Rightarrow (\lambda Z. (\forall X. \operatorname{man}(X) \Rightarrow \operatorname{loves} Z X)) | Y, \emptyset \rangle$
- $\rightarrow_{\beta} \quad \langle \exists Y. \operatorname{woman}(Y) \Rightarrow (\forall X. \operatorname{man}(X) \Rightarrow \operatorname{loves} Y X), \emptyset \rangle$



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## 7.5.2 Dealing with Quantifier Scope Ambiguity: Cooper Storage



- ▶ We need transitive verbs to combine with quantificational objects of type  $(\iota \rightarrow o) \rightarrow o$  but . . .
- We still ultimately want their "basic" translation to be type *ι* → *ι* → *o*, i.e. something that denotes a relation between individuals.
- We do this by starting with the basic translation, and raising its type. Here is what we'll end up with, for the verb like:

 $\lambda PY.P(\lambda X.likes(X, Y))$ 

where P is a variable of type  $(\iota \rightarrow o) \rightarrow o$  and X, Y are variables of type  $\iota$ . (For details on how this is derived, see [CKG09, pp.178-179])

2025-02-06

Eau

### Cooper Storage

- Intuition: A store consists of a "core" semantic representation, computed in the usual way, plus the representations of quantifiers encountered in the composition so far.
- **Definition 5.6.** A store is an n place sequence. The first member of the sequence is the core semantic representation. The other members of the sequence (if any) are pairs  $(\beta, i)$  where:
  - $\blacktriangleright \beta$  is a QNP translation and
  - i is an index, which will associate the NP translation with a free variable in the core semantic translation.

We call these pairs binding operators (because we will use them to bind free variables in the core representation).

- Definition 5.7. In the Cooper storage method, QNPs are stored in the store and later retrieved – not necessarily in the order they were stored – to build the representation.
- The elements in the store are written enclosed in angled brackets. However, we will often have a store which consists of only one element, the core semantic representation. This is because QNPs are the only things which add elements beyond the core representation to the store. So we will adopt the convention that when the store has only one element, the brackets are omitted.



#### Storage Rule

If the store  $\langle \varphi, (\beta, j), \ldots, (\gamma, k) \rangle$  is a possible translation for a QNP, then the store

 $\langle \lambda P.P(X_i)(\varphi,i)(\beta,j),\ldots,(\gamma,k) \rangle$ 

where i is a new index, is also a possible translation for that QNP.

▶ This rule says: if you encounter a QNP with translation  $\varphi$ , you can replace its translation with an indexed place holder of the same type,  $\lambda P.P(X_i)$ , and add  $\varphi$  to the store, paired with the index *i*. We will use the place holder translation in the semantic composition of the sentence.

### Working with Stores

- ▶ Working out the translation for *Every student likes some professor*.
  - $NP_1 \rightarrow \lambda P.(\exists X.\operatorname{prof}(X) \land P(X)) \text{ or } \langle \lambda Q.Q(X_1), (\lambda P.(\exists X.\operatorname{prof}(X) \land P(X)), 1) \rangle$
  - $V_t \quad \rightarrow \ \lambda RY.R \ (\lambda Z.\text{likes}(Z,Y))$
  - $\textit{VP}~\rightarrow$  (Combine core representations by FA; pass store up)\*
    - $\rightarrow \langle \lambda Y. \text{likes}(X_1, Y), (\lambda P. (\exists X. \text{prof}(X) \land P(X)), 1) \rangle$
  - $NP_2 \rightarrow \lambda P.(\forall Z.student(Z) \Rightarrow P(Z)) \text{ or } \langle \lambda R.R(X_2), (\lambda P.(\forall Z.student(Z) \Rightarrow P(Z)), 2 \rangle$
  - S → (Combine core representations by FA; pass stores up)\*\* →  $\langle \text{likes}(X_1, X_2), (\lambda P.(\exists X. \text{prof}(X) \land P(X)), 1), (\lambda P.(\forall Z. \text{student}(Z) \Rightarrow P(Z)), 2 \rangle$
  - \* Combining  $V_t$  with place holder
  - 1.  $(\lambda RY.R(\lambda Z.likes(Z,Y)))(\lambda Q.Q(X_1))$
  - 2.  $\lambda Y.(\lambda Q.Q(X_1)) (\lambda Z.likes(Z, Y))$
  - 3.  $\lambda Y.(\lambda Z.likes(Z, Y)) X_1$
- 4.  $\lambda Y$ .likes $(X_1, Y)$

- \*\* Combining VP with place holder
- 1.  $(\lambda R.R(X_2)) (\lambda Y.\text{likes}(X_1, Y))$
- 2.  $(\lambda Y.\text{likes}(X_1, Y)) X_2$
- 3. likes $(X_1, X_2)$

#### Retrieval:

Fau

Let  $\sigma_1$  and  $\sigma_2$  be (possibly empty) sequences of binding operators. If the store  $\langle \varphi, \sigma_1, \sigma_2, (\beta, i) \rangle$  is a translation of an expression of category *S*, then the store  $\langle \beta(\lambda X_1.\varphi), \sigma_1, \sigma_2 \rangle$  is also a translation of it.

- What does this say?: It says: suppose you have an S translation consisting of a core representation (which will be of type o) and one or more indexed QNP translations. Then you can do the following:
  - 1. Choose one of the QNP translations to retrieve.
  - 2. Rewrite the core translation,  $\lambda$ -abstracting over the variable which bears the index of the QNP you have selected. (Now you will have an expression of type  $\iota \rightarrow o$ .)
  - 3. Apply this  $\lambda$ -term to the QNP translation (which is of type ( $\iota \rightarrow o$ )  $\rightarrow o$ ).

#### Example: Every student likes some professor.

#### 1. Retrieve every student

- 1.1  $(\lambda Q.(\forall Z.\operatorname{student}(Z) \Rightarrow Q(Z))) (\lambda X_2.\operatorname{likes}(X_1, X_2))$
- 1.2  $\forall Z.\operatorname{student}(Z) \Rightarrow (\lambda X_2.\operatorname{likes}(X_1, X_2)) Z$
- 1.3  $\forall Z.student(Z) \Rightarrow likes(X_1, Z)$

#### 2. Retrieve some professor

- 2.1  $(\lambda P.(\exists X.\operatorname{prof}(X) \land P(X))) (\lambda X_1.(\forall Z.\operatorname{student}(Z) \Rightarrow \operatorname{likes}(X_1, Z)))$
- 2.2  $\exists X. \operatorname{prof}(X)(\lambda X_1.(\forall Z. \operatorname{student}(Z) \Rightarrow \operatorname{likes}(X_1, Z))) X$
- 2.3  $\exists X.\operatorname{prof}(X) \land (\forall Z.\operatorname{student}(Z) \Rightarrow \operatorname{likes}(X, Z))$



# 7.6 Summary & Evaluation

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162

- Fragment  $\mathcal{F}_4$  extends  $\mathcal{F}_3$  by noun phrases.
- **Coverage:** Better:



#### Chapter 8 Davidsonian Semantics: Treating Verb Modifiers

163



#### Event semantics: Davidsonian Systems

- Problem: How to deal with argument structure of (action) verbs and their modifiers
  - John killed a cat with a hammer.
- Idea: Just add an argument to kills for express the means
- Problem: But there may be more modifiers
  - 1. Peter killed the cat in the bathroom with a hammer.
  - 2. Peter killed the cat in the bathroom with a hammer at midnight.

So we would need a lot of different predicates for the verb killed. (impractical)

Definition 0.1. In event semantics we extend the argument structure of (action) verbs contains a 'hidden' argument, the event argument, then treat modifiers as predicates (often called roles) over events [Dav67a].

#### Example 0.2.

- 1.  $\exists e. \exists x, y. bathroom(x) \land hammer(y) \land kill(e, peter, \iota cat) \land in(e, x) \land with(e, y)$
- 2.  $\exists e. \exists x, y. bathroom(x) \land hammer(y) \land kill(e, peter, \iota cat) \land in(e, x) \land with(e, y) \land at(e, 24:00)$



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### Event semantics: Neo-Davidsonian Systems

- Idea: Take apart the Davidsonian predicates even further, add event participants via thematic roles (from [Par90]).
- Definition 0.3. Neo-Davidsonian semantics extends event semantics by adding two standardized roles: the agent ag(e, s) and the patient pat(e, o) for the subject s and direct object d of the event e.
- **Example 0.4.** Translate John killed a cat with a hammer. as  $\exists e. \exists x. hammer(x) \land killing(e) \land ag(e, peter) \land pat(e, \iota cat) \land with(e, x)$
- Further Elaboration: Events can be broken down into sub-events and modifiers can predicate over sub-events.
- Example 0.5. The "process" of climbing Mt. Everest starts with the "event" of (optimistically) leaving the base camp and culminates with the "achievement" of reaching the summit (being completely exhausted).
- Note: This system can get by without functions, and only needs unary and binary predicates. (well-suited for model generation)



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165

## Event Types and Properties of Events

- **Example 0.6 (Problem).** Some (temporal) modifiers are incompatible with some events, e.g. in English progressive:
  - 1. He is eating a sandwich and He is pushing the cart., but not
  - 2. \* He is being tall. or \* He is finding a coin.
- Definition 0.7 (Types of Events). There are different types of events that go with different temporal modifiers. [Ven57] distinguishes
  - 1. states: e.g. know the answer, stand in the corner
  - 2. processes: e.g. run, eat, eat apples, eat soup
  - 3. accomplishments: e.g. run a mile, eat an apple, and
  - 4. achievements: e.g. reach the summit

#### **Observations:**

- 1. processes and accomplishments appear in the progressive (1),
- 2. states and achievements do not (2).

#### **Definition 0.8.** The in test

- 1. states and activities, but not accomplishments and achievements are compatible with *for*-adverbials
- 2. whereas the opposite holds for in-adverbials (5).

#### Example 0.9.

- 1. run a mile in an hour vs. \* run a mile for an hour, but
- 2. \* reach the summit for an hour  $\nu s$  reach the summit in an hour

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#### Part 2 Topics in Semantics

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#### Chapter 9 Dynamic Approaches to NL Semantics

166



## 9.1 Discourse Representation Theory

166



## Anaphora and Indefinites revisited (Data)

- **Observation:** We have concentrated on single sentences so far; let's do better.
- Definition 1.1. A discourse is a unit of natural language longer than a single sentence.
- New Data: Discourses interact with anaphora.:
  - Peter<sup>1</sup> is sleeping.  $He_1$  is snoring.
  - A man<sup>1</sup> is sleeping. He<sub>1</sub> is snoring.
  - Peter has a car<sup>1</sup>. It<sub>1</sub> is parked outside.
  - \* Peter has no car<sup>1</sup>. It<sub>1</sub> is parked outside.
  - There is a book<sup>1</sup> that Peter does not own. It<sub>1</sub> is a novel.
  - \* Peter does not own every book<sup>1</sup>. It<sub>1</sub> is a novel.
  - If a farmer<sup>1</sup> owns a donkey<sub>2</sub>, he<sub>1</sub> beats it<sub>2</sub>.
- We gloss the intended anaphoric reference with the labels in upper and lower indices.

(normal anaphoric reference) (scope of existential?) (even if this worked) (what about negation?) el. (OK) (equivalent in PL<sup>1</sup>) (even inside sentences)

Eau

### Dynamic Effects in Natural Language

#### Problem: E.g. Quantifier Scope

- ▶ \* A man sleeps. He snores.
- $\blacktriangleright (\exists X. \operatorname{man}(X) \land \operatorname{sleeps}(X)) \land \operatorname{snores}(X)$
- X is bound in the first conjunct, and free in the second.
- ▶ **Problem:** Donkey sentence: If a farmer owns a donkey, he beats it.  $\forall X, Y.$ farmer $(X) \land donkey(Y) \land own(X, Y) \Rightarrow beat(X, Y)$

#### Ideas:

- Composition of sentences by conjunction inside the scope of existential quantifiers (non-compositional, ...)
- Extend the scope of quantifiers dynamically
- Replace existential quantifiers by something else

2025-02-06

(DPL)

(DRT)

### Discourse Representation Theory (DRT)

- ▶ **Definition 1.2.** Discourse Representation Theory (DRT) is a logical system, which uses discourse referents to model quantification and pronouns. DRT formulae are called discourse representation structures (DRS); these introduce a set of discourse referents and specify their meaning by conditions which comprise:
  - atomic first-order propositions,
  - $\blacktriangleright$  dynamic negations  $\neg D$ ,
  - $\blacktriangleright$  dynamic implications  $D \Longrightarrow E$ , and
  - $\blacktriangleright$  dynamic disjunctions  $D \vee E$ .
- **Example 1.3.** Discourse referents e.g. in A student owns a book.
  - are kept in a dynamic context  $(\sim \text{ accessibility})$
  - are declared e.g. in indefinite nominals
  - specified in conditions via predicates

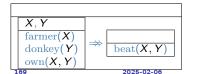


A student owns a book. He reads it. If a farmer owns a donkey, he beats it.

$$X, Y, R, S$$
  
student(X)  
book(Y)  
own(X, Y)  
read(R, S)  
X = R  
MichelWachlear, LBS

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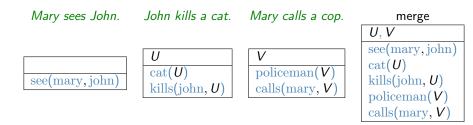
$$own(X, Y)$$
  
read(R, S)  
 $X = R$ 





- Problem: How do we construct DRSes for multi-sentence discourses?
- Solution: We construct sentence DRSes individually and merge them (DRSes and conditions separately)
- **Example 1.5.** A three-sentence discourse.

(not quite Shakespeare)



Sentence composition via the DRT Merge Operator &.

(acts on DRSes)



Eau

### Anaphor Resolution in DRT

- Problem: How do we resolve anaphora in DRT?
- Solution: Two phases
  - translate pronouns into discourse referents
    - (semantics construction) identify (equate) coreferring discourse referents, (maybe) simplify (semantic/pragmatic analysis)
- **Example 1.6.** A student owns a book. He reads it.

A student<sup>1</sup> owns a book<sup>2</sup>.  $He_1$  reads it<sub>2</sub> merge/resolve simplify X, Y, R, Sstudent(X)X, YX, Ybook(Y) $\operatorname{student}(X)$ R.S $\operatorname{student}(X)$ own(X, Y)book(Y)read(R, S)book(Y)read(R, S)X = RY = Sown(X, Y) $\operatorname{own}(X, Y)$ read(X, Y)



Eau

### DRT (more Logic-like Syntax)

▶ **Definition 1.7.** Given a set *DR* of discourse referents, discourse representation structure (DRSes) are given by the following grammar:

 $\begin{array}{ll} \text{conditions} & \mathcal{C} ::= p(a_1, \ldots, a_n) \mid \mathcal{C}_1 \wedge \mathcal{C}_2 \mid \neg \mathcal{D} \mid \mathcal{D}_1 \vee \mathcal{D}_2 \mid \mathcal{D}_1 \Longrightarrow \mathcal{D}_2 \\ \text{DRSes} & \mathcal{D} ::= \delta U^1, \ldots, U^n. \mathcal{C} \mid \mathcal{D}_1 \otimes \mathcal{D}_2 \mid \mathcal{D}_1 \text{ ;; } \mathcal{D}_2 \end{array}$ 

- $\blacktriangleright$   $\otimes$  and ;; are for sentence composition ( $\otimes$  from DRT, ;; from DPL)
- ► Example 1.8.  $\delta U$ , V.farmer $(U) \land donkey(V) \land own(U, V) \land beat(U, V)$
- **Definition 1.9.** The meaning of  $\otimes$  and ;; is given operationally by  $=_{\tau}$  equality:

 $\begin{array}{ll} \delta \mathcal{X}.\mathcal{C}_{1} \otimes \delta \mathcal{Y}.\mathcal{C}_{2} & \rightarrow_{\tau} & \delta \mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y}.\mathcal{C}_{1} \wedge \mathcal{C}_{2} \\ \delta \mathcal{X}.\mathcal{C}_{1} ;; \delta \mathcal{Y}.\mathcal{C}_{2} & \rightarrow_{\tau} & \delta \mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y}.\mathcal{C}_{1} \wedge \mathcal{C}_{2} \end{array}$ 

- Discourse referents used instead of bound variables. (specify scoping independently of logic)
- ▶ Idea: Semantics inherited from first-order logic by a translation mapping.



### Sub DRSes and Accessibility

- ▶ Problem: How can we formally define accessibility. (to make predictions)
- ▶ Idea: Make use of the structural properties of DRT.
- **Definition 1.10.** A referent is accessible in all sub DRS of the declaring DRS.
  - If  $\mathcal{D} = \delta U^1, \dots, U^n.\mathcal{C}$ , then any sub DRS of  $\mathcal{C}$  is a sub DRS of  $\mathcal{D}$ .
  - If  $\mathcal{D} = \mathcal{D}^1 \otimes \mathcal{D}^2$ , then  $\mathcal{D}^1$  is a sub DRS of  $\mathcal{D}^2$  and vice versa.
  - If  $\mathcal{D} = \mathcal{D}^1$  ;;  $\mathcal{D}^2$ , then  $\mathcal{D}^2$  is a sub DRS of  $\mathcal{D}^1$ .
  - If C is of the form C<sup>1</sup> ∧ C<sup>2</sup>, or ¬D, or D<sup>1</sup> WD<sup>2</sup>, or D<sup>1</sup> ⇒D<sup>2</sup>, then any sub DRS of the C<sup>i</sup>, and the D<sup>i</sup> is a sub DRS of C.
  - If  $\mathcal{D} = \mathcal{D}^1 \Longrightarrow \mathcal{D}^2$ , then  $\mathcal{D}^2$  is a sub DRS of  $\mathcal{D}^1$
- Definition 1.11 (Dynamic Potential). (which referents can be picked up?) A referent U is in the dynamic potential of a DRS D, iff it is accessible in



Definition 1.12. We call a DRS static, iff the dynamic potential is empty, and dynamic, if it is not.



- Observation: Accessibility gives DRSes the flavor of binding structures. (with non-standard scoping!)
- Idea: Apply the usual binding heuristics to DRT, e.g.
  - reject DRSes with unbound discourse referents.
- ▶ Questions: If we view of discourse referents as "nonstandard bound variables"
  - what about renaming referents?



## Translation from DRT to FOL

**Definition 1.13.** For  $=_{\tau}$ -normal (fully merged) DRSes use the translation  $\overline{\cdot}$ :

$$\overline{\delta U^{1}, \dots, U^{n}.C} = \exists U^{1}, \dots, U^{n}.\overline{C}$$

$$\overline{\neg D} = \neg \overline{D}$$

$$\overline{D} \forall \overline{\mathcal{E}} = \overline{D} \lor \overline{\mathcal{E}}$$

$$\overline{D} \land \overline{\mathcal{E}} = \overline{D} \land \overline{\mathcal{E}}$$

$$\overline{(\delta U^{1}, \dots, U^{n}.C_{1}) \Rightarrow (\delta V^{1}, \dots, V^{n}.C_{2})} = \forall U^{1}, \dots, U^{n}.\overline{C_{1}} \Rightarrow (\exists V^{1}, \dots, V^{n}.\overline{C_{2}})$$
Example 1.14.
$$\overline{X, Y}$$

$$\overline{student(X)}$$

$$book(Y)$$

$$own(X, Y)$$

$$= \exists X.\exists Y.student(X) \land book(Y) \land own(X, Y).$$
Example 1.15

Example 1.15.

 $(\delta U, V. \text{farmer}(U) \land \text{donkey}(V) \land \text{own}(U, V)) \Longrightarrow (\delta W. \text{stick}(W) \land \text{beatwith}(U, V, W))$  $= \forall X, Y. \text{farmer}(X) \land \text{donkey}(X) \land \text{own}(X, Y) \Rightarrow (\exists . \text{stick}(Z) \land \text{beatwith}(Z, X, Y))$ 

- **Consequence:** Validity of DRSes can be checked by translation.
- **Question:** Why not use first-order logic directly?
- **Answer:** Only translate at the end of a discourse(translation closes all dynamic contexts: frequent re-translation).

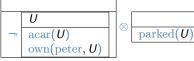
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# Properties of Dynamic Scope

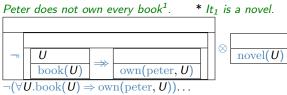
- Idea: Test DRT on the data above for the dynamic phenomena
- Example 1.16 (Negation Closes Dynamic Potential).

Peter has  $no^1$  car. \*  $It_1$  is parked outside.

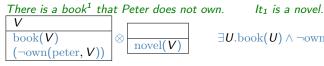


 $\neg(\exists U.\operatorname{acar}(U) \land \operatorname{own}(\operatorname{peter}, U))...$ 

Example 1.17 (Universal Quantification is Static).



Example 1.18 (Existential Quantification is Dynamic).



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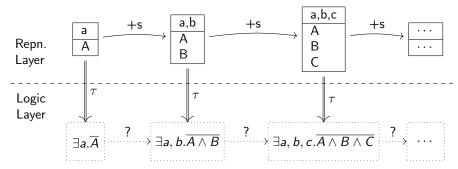
176

 $\exists U.\text{book}(U) \land \neg \text{own}(\text{peter}, U) \land \text{novel}(U)$ 



#### DRT as a Representational Level

- DRT adds a level to the knowledge representation which provides anchors (the discourse referents) for anaphora and the like.
- Propositional semantics by translation into PL<sup>1</sup>. ("+s" adds a sentence)



Anaphor resolution works incrementally on the representational level.



## A Direct Semantics for DRT (Dyn. Interpretation $\mathcal{I}^{\delta}_{\omega}$ )

- ▶ Definition 1.19. Let  $\mathcal{M} = \langle \mathcal{D}, \mathcal{I} \rangle$  be a first-order model, then a state is an assignment from discourse referents into  $\mathcal{D}$ .
- Definition 1.20. Let φ, ψ : DR → U be states, then we say that ψ extends φ on X ⊆ DR (write φ[X]ψ), if φ(U) = ψ(U) for all U ∉ X.
- ▶ Idea: Conditions as truth values; DRSes as pairs  $(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{S})$  ( $\mathcal{S}$  set of states)
- Definition 1.21 (Meaning of complex formulae). The value function *I*<sub>φ</sub> for DRT is defined with the help of a dynamic value function *I*<sup>δ</sup><sub>φ</sub> on DRSs: For conditions:

• 
$$\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}(\neg \mathcal{D}) = \mathsf{T}$$
, if  $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}^{\delta}(\mathcal{D})^2 = \emptyset$ .

- $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}(\mathcal{D} \mathbb{V} \mathcal{E}) = \mathsf{T}$ , if  $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}^{\delta}(\mathcal{D})^2 \neq \emptyset$  or  $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}^{\delta}(\mathcal{E})^2 \neq \emptyset$ .
- $\blacktriangleright \ \mathcal{I}_{\varphi}(\mathcal{D} \Longrightarrow \mathcal{E}) = \mathsf{T}, \text{ if for all } \psi \in \mathcal{I}_{\varphi}^{\delta}(\mathcal{D})^2 \text{ there is a } \tau \in \mathcal{I}_{\varphi}^{\delta}(\mathcal{E})^2 \text{ with } \psi[\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}^{\delta}(\mathcal{E})^1]\tau.$

For DRSs  $\mathcal{D}$  we set  $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}(\mathcal{D}) = \mathsf{T}$ , iff  $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}^{\delta}(\mathcal{D})^2 \neq \emptyset$ , and define

$$\begin{array}{l} \blacktriangleright \ \mathcal{I}^{\delta}_{\varphi}(\delta \mathcal{X}.\mathsf{C}) = (\mathcal{X}, \{\psi \,|\, \varphi[\mathcal{X}]\psi \text{ and } \mathcal{I}_{\psi}(\mathsf{C}) = \mathsf{T}\}). \\ \blacktriangleright \ \mathcal{I}^{\delta}_{\varphi}(\mathcal{D} \otimes \mathcal{E}) = \mathcal{I}^{\delta}_{\varphi}(\mathcal{D} \text{ ;; } \mathcal{E}) = (\mathcal{I}^{\delta}_{\varphi}(\mathcal{D})^{1} \cup \mathcal{I}^{\delta}_{\varphi}(\mathcal{E})^{1}, \mathcal{I}^{\delta}_{\varphi}(\mathcal{D})^{2} \cap \mathcal{I}^{\delta}_{\varphi}(\mathcal{E})^{2}) \end{array}$$

### Examples (Computing Direct Semantics)

#### Example 1.22. Peter owns a car

 ${\mathcal I}^\delta_arphi(\delta U.{
m acar}(U) \wedge {
m own}({
m peter},U))$ 

 $= (\{U\}, \{\psi \,|\, \varphi[U]\psi \text{ and } \mathcal{I}_{\psi}(\operatorname{acar}(U) \wedge \operatorname{own}(\operatorname{peter}, U)) = \mathsf{T}\})$ 

- $= (\{U\}, \{\psi \,|\, \varphi[U]\psi \text{ and } \mathcal{I}_{\psi}(\operatorname{acar}(U)) = \mathsf{T} \text{ and } \mathcal{I}_{\psi}(\operatorname{own}(\operatorname{peter}, U)) = \mathsf{T}\})$
- $= \quad (\{U\}, \{\psi \,|\, \varphi[U]\psi \text{ and } \psi(U) \in \mathcal{I}(\operatorname{acar}) \text{ and } (\psi(U), \operatorname{peter}) \in \mathcal{I}(\operatorname{own})\})$

The set of states [a/U], such that a is a car and is owned by Peter

**Example 1.23.** For *Peter owns no car* we look at the condition:

 $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}(\neg(\delta U.\operatorname{acar}(U) \land \operatorname{own}(\operatorname{peter}, U))) = \mathsf{T}$ 

 $\Leftrightarrow \quad \mathcal{I}_{\varphi}^{\delta}(\delta U.\mathrm{acar}(U) \wedge \mathrm{own}(\mathrm{peter}, U))^2 = \emptyset$ 

 $\Leftrightarrow \quad (\{U\}, \{\psi \,|\, \varphi[\mathcal{X}]\psi \text{ and } \psi(U) \in \mathcal{I}(\mathrm{acar}) \text{ and } (\psi(U), \mathrm{peter}) \in \mathcal{I}(\mathrm{own})\})^2 = \emptyset$ 

 $\Leftrightarrow \quad \{\psi \,|\, \varphi[\mathcal{X}]\psi \text{ and } \psi(\mathcal{U}) \in \mathcal{I}(\mathrm{acar}) \text{ and } (\psi(\mathcal{U}), \mathrm{peter}) \in \mathcal{I}(\mathrm{own})\} = \emptyset$ 

i.e. iff there are no a, that are cars and that are owned by Peter.



Eau

# 9.2 Dynamic Model Generation



- Problem: Mechanize the dynamic entailment relation (with anaphora)
- Idea: Use dynamic deduction theorem to reduce (dynamic) entailment to (dynamic) satisfiability
- History of Attempts: Direct Deduction on DRT (or DPL) [Sau93; RG94; MR98]
  - (++) Specialized Calculi for dynamic representations.
  - (--) Needs lots of development until we have efficient implementations.
- Translation approach (used in our experiment)
  - (-) Translate to PL<sup>1</sup>.
  - (++) Use off-the-shelf theorem prover (in this case MathWeb).



### An Opportunity for Off-The-Shelf ATP?

#### Pro: ATP is mature enough to tackle applications

- Current ATP are highly efficient reasoning tools.
- Full automation is needed for NLP.
- ATP as logic engines is one of the initial promises of the field.
- contra: ATP are general logic systems
  - 1. NLP uses other representation formalisms (DRT, Feature Logic,...)
  - 2. ATP optimized for mathematical (combinatorially complex) proofs.
  - 3. ATP (often) do not terminate.

Experiment: Use translation approach for 1. to test 2. and 3. [Bla+01] (Wow, it works!)

(ATP as an oracle)



Excursion: Incrementality in Dynamic Calculi

For applications, we need to be able to check for

- ▶ satisfiability ( $\exists M.M \vDash A$ ), validity ( $\forall M.M \vDash A$ ) and
- entailment ( $\mathcal{H} \vDash A$ , iff  $\mathcal{M} \vDash \mathcal{H}$  implies  $\mathcal{M} \vDash A$  for all  $\mathcal{M}$ )
- ► Theorem 2.1 (Entailment Theorem). H, A ⊨ B, iff H ⊨ A ⇒ B. (e.g. for first-order logic and DPL)
- ► Theorem 2.2 (Deduction Theorem). For most calculi C we have  $\mathcal{H}, A\vdash_{\mathcal{C}} B$ , iff  $\mathcal{H}\vdash_{\mathcal{C}} A \Rightarrow B$ . (e.g. for  $\mathcal{ND}^1$ )
- ▶ **Problem:** Analogue  $H_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes H_n \models A$  is not equivalent to  $\models (H_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes H_n) \Longrightarrow A$  in DRT, as  $\otimes$  symmetric.
- **Thus** the validity check cannot be used for entailment in DRT.
- **Solution:** Use sequential merge ;; (from DPL) for sentence composition.



#### Problem: Translation approach is not incremental!

- For each check, the DRS for the whole discourse has to be translated.
- Can become infeasible, once discourses get large (e.g. novel).
- This applies for all other approaches for dynamic deduction too.
- Idea: Extend model generation techniques instead!
  - **Remember**: A DRS  $\mathcal{D}$  is valid in  $\mathcal{M} = \langle \mathcal{D}, \mathcal{I} \rangle$ , iff  $\mathcal{I}_{\emptyset}^{\delta}(\mathcal{D})^2 \neq \emptyset$ . Find a model  $\mathcal{M}$  and state  $\varphi$ , such that  $\varphi \in \mathcal{I}_{\emptyset}^{\delta}(\mathcal{D})^2$ .

  - Adapt first-order model generation technology for that.



- ▶ Definition 2.3. We call a model *M* = ⟨*U*, *I*, *I*<sup>δ</sup>⟩ a dynamic Herbrand interpretation, if ⟨*U*, *I*⟩ is a Herbrand model.
- ▶ Question: Can represent  $\mathcal{M}$  as a triple  $\langle \mathcal{X}, \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{B} \rangle$ , where  $\mathcal{B}$  is the Herbrand valuation for  $\langle \mathcal{U}, \mathcal{I} \rangle$ ?
- **Definition 2.4.**  $\mathcal{M}$  is called finite, iff  $\mathcal{U}$  is finite.
- ▶ **Definition 2.5.**  $\mathcal{M}$  is minimal, iff for all  $\mathcal{M}'$  the following holds:  $(\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{M})' \subseteq \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{M})) \Rightarrow \mathcal{M} = \mathcal{M}'.$
- **Definition 2.6.**  $\mathcal{M}$  is domain minimal if for all  $\mathcal{M}'$  the following holds:

 $\#(\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{M})) \leq \#(\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{M})')$ 





Definition 2.7. We use a tableau framework, extend by state information, and rules for DRSes.

$$\frac{\left(\delta U_{\mathbb{A}}, \mathbf{A}\right)^{\mathsf{T}} \ \mathcal{H} = \{a_{1}, \dots, a_{n}\} \ w \notin \mathcal{H} \text{ new}}{\left[a_{1}/U\right]} RM\delta$$
$$\frac{\left[a_{1}/U\right]}{\left(\left[a_{1}/U\right](\mathbf{A})\right)^{\mathsf{T}}} \ \left| \begin{array}{c} \left[a_{n}/U\right] \\ \left(\left[a_{n}/U\right](\mathbf{A})\right)^{\mathsf{T}} \end{array} \right| \left(\left[w/U\right](\mathbf{A})\right)^{\mathsf{T}} \end{cases}$$

- Mechanize ;; by adding representation of the second DRS at all leaves. (
   tableau machine)
- Treat conditions by DRT translation

$$\frac{\neg \mathcal{D}}{\neg \mathcal{D}} \qquad \frac{\mathcal{D} \Rightarrow \mathcal{D}'}{\mathcal{D} \Rightarrow \mathcal{D}'} \qquad \frac{\mathcal{D} \lor \mathcal{D}'}{\mathcal{D} \lor \mathcal{D}'}$$

2025-02-06

Eau

Example: Peter is a man. No man walks

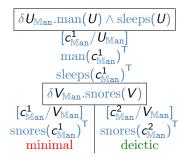
Example 2.8 (Model Generation). Peter is a man. No man walks

 $\begin{array}{c} \hline \text{man(peter)}^{\mathsf{T}} \\ \hline \neg (\delta U.\text{man}(U) \land \text{walks}(U)) \\ \neg (\forall U.\text{man}(U) \land \text{walks}(U))^{\mathsf{T}} \\ (\forall X.\text{man}(X) \land \text{walks}(X))^{\mathsf{F}} \\ (\text{man(peter)} \land \text{walks(peter)})^{\mathsf{F}} \\ \text{man(peter)}^{\mathsf{F}} \\ \downarrow \end{array}$ 

 $\mathsf{Dynamic Herbrand interpretation: } \langle \emptyset, \emptyset, \{ \mathrm{man}(\mathrm{peter})^\mathsf{T}, \mathrm{walks}(\mathrm{peter})^\mathsf{F} \} \rangle$ 

### Example: Anaphor Resolution A man sleeps. He snores

#### **Example 2.9 (Anaphor Resolution).** A man sleeps. He snores





# Anaphora with World Knowledge

#### Example 2.10 (Anaphora with World Knowledge).

- Mary is married to Jeff. Her husband is not in town.
- $\delta \mathcal{U}_{\mathbb{F}}, V_{\mathbb{M}}.\mathcal{U} = \operatorname{mary} \land \operatorname{married}(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V}) \land \mathcal{V} = \operatorname{jeff} ;; \\ \delta \mathcal{W}_{\mathbb{M}}, \mathcal{W}'_{\mathbb{H}}.\operatorname{husband}(\mathcal{W}, \mathcal{W}') \land \neg \operatorname{intown}(\mathcal{W})$
- World knowledge
  - ▶ If a female X is married to a male Y, then Y is X's only husband.
  - $\blacktriangleright \rightsquigarrow \forall X_{\mathbb{F}}, Y_{\mathbb{M}}.\mathrm{married}(X,Y) \Rightarrow \mathrm{husband}(Y,X) \land (\forall Z.\mathrm{husband}(Z,X) \Rightarrow Z = Y)$
- Model generation yields saturated tableau, all branches contain

 $\langle \{U, V, W, W'\}, \{[\operatorname{mary}/U], [\operatorname{jeff}/V], [\operatorname{jeff}/W], [\operatorname{mary}/W']\}, \mathcal{H} \rangle$ 

with

FAU

 $\mathcal{H} = \{ \operatorname{married}(\operatorname{mary}, \operatorname{jeff})^{\mathsf{T}}, \operatorname{husband}(\operatorname{jeff}, \operatorname{mary})^{\mathsf{T}}, \neg \operatorname{intown}(\operatorname{jeff})^{\mathsf{T}} \}$ 

They only differ in additional negative facts, e.g. married(mary, mary)<sup>F</sup>.

2025-02-06

- ▶ The tableau machine algorithm conforms with psycholinguistic findings:
  - Zwaan& Radvansky [ZR98]: listeners not only represent logical form, but also models containing referents.
  - deVega [de 95]: online, incremental process.
  - Singer [Sin94]: enriched by background knowledge.
  - ► Glenberg et al. [GML87]: major function is to provide basis for anaphor resolution.



# Chapter 10 Propositional Attitudes and Modalities

189



# 10.1 Introduction

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# Modalities and Propositional Attitudes

- Definition 1.1. Modality is a feature of language that allows for communicating things about, or based on, situations which need not be actual. A sentence is called modal, if it involves a modality
- Definition 1.2. Modality is signaled by phrases (called moods) that express a speaker's general intentions and commitment to how believable, obligatory, desirable, or actual an expressed proposition is.

**Example 1.3.** Data on modalities (moods in red) A probably holds. (possibilistic) it has always been the case that A, (temporal) ▶ it is well-known that A. (epistemic) A is allowed/prohibited, (deontic) A is provable, (provability) A holds after the program P terminates, (program) A hods during the execution of P. (dito) it is necessary that A, (aletic) it is possible that A. (dito)

190

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# Modeling Modalities and Propositional Attitudes

- **Example 1.4.** Again, the pattern from above:
  - it is necessary that Peter knows logic
  - it is possible that John loves logic,

```
(A = Peter knows logic)
(A = John loves logic)
```

- Observation: All of the red parts above modify the clause/sentence A. We call them modalities.
- Definition 1.5 (A related Concept from Philosophy). A propositional attitude is a mental state held by an agent toward a proposition.
- Question: But how to model this in logic?
- Idea: New sentence-to-sentence operators for *necessary* and *possible*. (extend existing logics with them.)
- **• Observation:** A *is necessary*, iff  $\neg A$  *is impossible.*
- Definition 1.6. A modal logic is a logical system that has logical constants that model modalities.



Aristoteles studies the logic of necessity and possibility

- Diodorus: temporal modalities
  - possible: is true or will be
  - necessary: is true and will never be false
- Clarence Irving Lewis 1918 [Lew18] (Systems S1, ..., S5)
  - strict implication  $I(A \land B)$  (*I* for "impossible")
- ► Kurt Gödel 1932: Modal logic of provability (S4) [Göd32]
- Saul Kripke 1959-63: Possible worlds semantics [Kri63]
- Vaugham Pratt 1976: Dynamic Program Logic [Pra76]

:



- ▶ Definition 1.7. Propositional modal logic ML<sup>0</sup> extends propositional logic with two new logical constants: □ for necessity and ◇ for possibility.(◇A = ¬(□¬A))
- Observation: Nothing hinges on the fact that we use propositional logic!
- ▶ Definition 1.8. First-order modal logic ML<sup>1</sup> extends first-order logic with two new logical constants: □ for necessity and ◊ for possibility.
- **Example 1.9.** We interpret
  - 1. Necessarily, every mortal will die. as  $\Box(\forall X.mortal(X) \Rightarrow willdie(X))$
  - 2. Possibly, something is immortal. as  $\Diamond(\exists X.\neg mortal(X))$
- ▶ Questions: What do □ and ◇ mean? How do they behave?



- Definition 1.10. Modal sentences can convey information about the speaker's state of knowledge (epistemic state) or belief (doxastic state).
- **Example 1.11.** We might paraphrase sentence (2) as (3):
  - 1. A: Where's John?
  - 2. B: He might be in the library.
  - 3. B': It is consistent with the speaker's knowledge that John is in the library.
- Definition 1.12. We way that a world w is an epistemic possibility for an agent B if it could be consistent with B's knowledge.
- Definition 1.13. An epistemic logic is one that models the epistemic state of a speaker. Doxastic logic does the same for the doxastic state.
- ▶ Definition 1.14. In deontic logic, we interpret the accessibility relation *R* as epistemic accessibility:
  - With this  $\mathcal{R}$ , represent B's utterance as  $\Diamond$ inlib(j).
  - Similarly, represent John must be in the library. as  $\Box inlib(j)$ .
- **Question:** If  $\mathcal{R}$  is epistemic accessibility, what properties should it have?



- Definition 1.15. Deontic modality is a modality that indicates how the world ought to be according to certain norms, expectations, speaker desire, etc.
- **Definition 1.16.** Deontic modality has the following subcategories
  - Commissive modality (the speaker's commitment to do something, like a promise or threat): e.g. *I shall help you.*
  - Directive modality (commands, requests, etc.): e.g. Come!, Let's go!, You've got to taste this curry!
  - Volitive modality (wishes, desires, etc.): If only I were rich!
- Question: If we want to interpret □runs(j) as It is required that John runs (or, more idiomatically, as John must run), what formulae should be valid on this interpretation of the operators? (This is for homework!)



105

# 10.2 Semantics for Modal Logics

2025-02-06

- ▶ **Definition 2.1.** We use a set W of possible worlds, and a accessibility relation  $\mathcal{R} \subseteq \mathcal{W} \times \mathcal{W}$ : if  $\mathcal{R}(v, w)$ , then we say that w is accessible from v.
- ▶ Example 2.2.  $W = \mathbb{N}$  with  $\mathcal{R} = \{ \langle n, n+1 \rangle \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \}.$  (temporal logic)
- ▶ **Definition 2.3.** Variable assignment  $\varphi : \mathcal{V}_0 \times \mathcal{W} \to \mathcal{D}_0$  assigns values to variables in a given possible world.
- ▶ Definition 2.4. Value function  $\mathcal{I} : \mathcal{W} \times wff_0(\mathcal{V}_0) \to \mathcal{D}_0$  (assigns values to formulae in a possible world)

• 
$$\mathcal{I}^w_{\varphi}(V) = \varphi(w, V)$$
 for  $V \in \mathcal{V}_0$ 

• 
$$\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}^{w}(\neg \mathsf{A}) = \mathsf{T}$$
, iff  $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}^{w}(\mathsf{A}) = \mathsf{F}$ .

- $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}^{w}(\Box A) = T$ , iff  $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}^{w'}(A) = T$  for all  $w' \in \mathcal{W}$  with  $w\mathcal{R}w'$ .
- **Definition 2.5.** We call a triple  $\mathcal{M} := \langle \mathcal{W}, \mathcal{R}, \mathcal{I} \rangle$  a Kripke model.



 $(\land analogous)$ 

- Example 2.6 (Temporal Worlds with Ordering). Let ⟨W, ∘, <, ⊆⟩ an interval time structure, then we can use ⟨W, <⟩ as a Kripke models. Then PAST becomes a modal operator.</p>
- ► Example 2.7. Suppose we have i < j and j < k. Then intuitively, if Jane is laughing is true at i, then Jane laughed should be true at j and at k, i.e. \$\mathcal{L}\_{\varphi}^w(j) PAST(laughs(j))\$ and \$\mathcal{L}\_{\varphi}^w(k) PAST(laughs(j))\$. But this holds only if "<" is transitive. (which it is!)</p>
- Example 2.8. Here is a clearly counter-intuitive claim: For any time *i* and any sentence A, if \$\mathcal{I}\_{\varphi}(i) \PRES(A)\$ then \$\mathcal{I}\_{\varphi}(i) \PAST(A)\$.
   (For example, the truth of Jane is at the finish line at *i* implies the truth of Jane was at the finish line at *i*.)
   But we would get this result if we allowed < to be reflexive. (< is irreflexive)</li>
- ► Treating tense modally, we obtain reasonable truth conditions.

# Modal Axioms (Propositional Logic)

Definition 2.9. Necessitation:

$$\frac{A}{\Box A} N$$

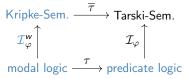
Definition 2.10 (Normal Modal Logics).

System	Axioms	Accessibility Relation
$\mathbb{K}$	$\Box(A \Rightarrow B) \Rightarrow (\Box A \Rightarrow \Box B)$	general
T	$\mathbb{K} + \Box A \Rightarrow A$	reflexive
S4	$\mathbb{T} + \Box A \Rightarrow \Box \Box A$	reflexive + transitive
$\mathbb{B}$	$\mathbb{T} + \Diamond \Box A \Rightarrow A$	reflexive + symmetric
S5	$\mathbb{S}4 + \Diamond A \Rightarrow \Box \Diamond A$	equivalence relation

- ▶ Observation 2.11.  $\Box(A \land B) \vDash \Box A \land \Box B$  in K.
- **• Observation 2.12.**  $A \Rightarrow B \vDash \Box A \Rightarrow \Box B$  in  $\mathbb{K}$ .
- Observation 2.13.  $A \Rightarrow B \vDash \Diamond A \Rightarrow \Diamond B$  in  $\mathbb{K}$ .



- Question: Is modal logic more expressive than predicate logic?
- Answer: Very rarely! (usually can be translated)
- **Definition 2.14.** Translation  $\tau$  from ML into PL<sup>1</sup>, (so that the diagram commutes)



- ▶ Idea: Axiomatize Kripke models in PL<sup>1</sup>. (diagram is simple consequence)
- ▶ Definition 2.15. A logic morphism  $\Theta: \mathcal{L} \to \mathcal{L}'$  is called
  - correct, iff  $\exists \mathcal{M}.\mathcal{M} \models \Phi$  implies  $\exists \mathcal{M}'.\mathcal{M}' \models' \Theta(\Phi)$ .
  - complete, iff  $\exists \mathcal{M}'.\mathcal{M}' \models' \Theta(\Phi)$  implies  $\exists \mathcal{M}.\mathcal{M} \models \Phi$ .

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- Definition 2.16. The standard translation τ<sub>w</sub> from modal logics to first-order logic is given by the following process:
  - ► Extend all function constants by a "world argument":  $\overline{f} \in \Sigma_{k+1}^{f}$  for every  $f \in \Sigma_{k}^{f}$
  - for predicate constants accordingly.
  - ▶ insert the "translation world" there: e.g.  $\tau_w(f(a, b)) = \overline{f}(w, \overline{a}(w), \overline{b}(w))$ .
  - ▶ New predicate constant *R* for the accessibility relation.
  - New constant s for the "start world".

$$\quad \bullet \quad \tau_w(\Box \mathsf{A}) = \forall w' . w \mathcal{R} w' \Rightarrow \tau_{w'}(\mathsf{A}).$$

Use all axioms from the respective correspondence theory.

#### **Definition 2.17 (Alternative).** Functional translations, if $\mathcal{R}$ associative:

- New function constant  $f_{\mathcal{R}}$  for the accessibility relation.
- Revise the standard translation by one of the following

$$\quad \bullet \quad \tau_w(\Box \mathsf{A}) = \forall w' \cdot w = f_{\mathcal{R}}(w') \Rightarrow \tau_w(\mathsf{A}).$$

$$\quad \tau_{f_{\mathcal{R}}(w)}(\Box \mathsf{A}) = \tau_w(\mathsf{A})$$

(naive solution) (better for mechanizing [Ohl88])



Eau

### Translation (continued)

**•** Theorem 2.18.  $\tau_s : ML^0 \to PL^0$  is correct and complete.

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#### 10.3 A Multiplicity of Modalities ~> Multimodal Logic

203



# A Multiplicity of Modalities

- Epistemic (knowledge and belief) modalities must be relativized to an individual
  - Peter knows that Trump is lying habitually.
  - John believes that Peter knows that Trump is lying habitually.
  - ▶ You must take the written drivers' exam to be admitted to the practical test.
- Similarly, we find in natural language expressions of necessity and possibility relative to many different kinds of things.
- Consider the deontic (obligatory/permissible) modalities
  - ▶ [Given the university's rules] Jane can take that class.
  - [Given her intellectual ability] Jane can take that class.
  - [Given her schedule] Jane can take that class.
  - [Given my desires] I must meet Henry.
  - [Given the requirements of our plan] I must meet Henry.
  - [Given the way things are] I must meet Henry [every day and not know it].
- Many different sorts of modality, sentences are multiply ambiguous towards which one.



- Definition 3.1. A multimodal logic provides operators for multiple modalities:  $[1], [2], [3], \ldots, \langle 1 \rangle, \langle 2 \rangle, \ldots$
- Definition 3.2. Multimodal Kripke models provide multiple accessibility relations  $\mathcal{R}_1, \mathcal{R}_2, \ldots \subset \mathcal{W} \times \mathcal{W}$ .
- Definition 3.3. The value function in multimodal logic generalizes the clause for  $\square$  in  $ML^0$  to
  - $\mathcal{I}_{\omega}^{w}([i]A) = T$ , iff  $\mathcal{I}_{\omega}^{w'}(A) = T$  for all  $w' \in \mathcal{W}$  with  $w\mathcal{R}_{i}w'$ .
- Example 3.4 (Epistemic Logic: talking about knowing/believing). (Peter knows that Klaus considers A possible) [peter] (klaus) A
- Example 3.5 (Program Logic: talking about programs). [X:=A][Y:=A]X = Y (after assignments, the values of X and Y are equal)



# 10.4 Dynamic Logic for Imperative Programs

205



- Modal logics for argumentation about imperative, non-deterministic programs.
- Idea: Formalize the traditional argumentation about program correctness: tracing the variable assignments (state) across program statements.
- Example 4.1 (Fibonacci). Consider the following (imperative) program that computes Fib(X) as the value of Z:
  - $\alpha := \langle \mathbf{Y}, \mathbf{Z} \rangle := \langle \mathbf{1}, \mathbf{1} \rangle \text{ ; while } \mathbf{X} \neq \mathbf{0} \text{ do } \langle \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}, \mathbf{Z} \rangle := \langle \mathbf{X} \mathbf{1}, \mathbf{Z}, \mathbf{Y} + \mathbf{Z} \rangle \text{ end}$
  - $\blacktriangleright \text{ States for the "input" } X = 4: \quad \langle 4, \_, \_ \rangle, \langle 4, 1, 1 \rangle, \langle 3, 1, 2 \rangle, \langle 2, 2, 3 \rangle, \langle 1, 3, 5 \rangle, \langle 0, 5, 8 \rangle$
  - ► **Correctness**? For positive *X*, running  $\alpha$  with input  $\langle X, \_, \_ \rangle$  we end with  $\langle 0, \operatorname{Fib}(X 1), \operatorname{Fib}(X) \rangle$
  - Termination?  $\alpha$  does not terminate on input  $\langle -1, \_, \_ \rangle$ .

#### Observation: Multi modal logic fits well

- States as possible worlds, program statements as accessibility relations.
- Two syntactic categories: programs  $\alpha$  and formulae A.
- Interpret [ $\alpha$ ]A as If  $\alpha$  terminates, then A holds afterwards
- Interpret  $\langle \alpha \rangle A$  as  $\alpha$  terminates and A holds afterwards.
- **Example 4.2.** Assertions about Fibonacci number (α)
  - $\blacktriangleright \forall X, Y.[\alpha]Z = Fib(X)$
  - $\blacktriangleright \quad \forall X, Y. (X \ge 0) \Rightarrow \langle \alpha \rangle Z = \operatorname{Fib}(X)$



# Levels of Description in Dynamic Program Logic

- Propositional dynamic logic (DL<sup>0</sup>) (independent of variable assignments)
  ⊨ [α]A ∧ [α]B ⇔ [α](A ∧ B)
  ⊨ [while A ∨ B do α end]C ⇔ [while A do α end ; while B do α ; while A do α end end]C
  First-order program logic (DL<sup>1</sup>) (function, predicates uninterpreted)
  ⊨ p(f(X)) ⇒ g(Y, f(X)) ⇒ ⟨Z:=f(X)⟩p(Z, g(Y, Z))
  ⊨ Z = Y ∧ (∀X.f(g(X)) = X) ⇒ [while p(Y) do Y:=g(Y) end]⟨while Y ≠ Z do Y:=f(Y) end⟩T
  DL<sup>1</sup> with interpreted functions, predicates (maybe some other time)
  - ►  $\forall X. \langle \text{while } X \neq 1 \text{ do if } even(X) \text{ then } X := \frac{X}{2} \text{ else } X := 3X + 1 \text{ end} \rangle T$
- ▶ Definition 4.3. We collectively call these dynamic program logics.

# $\mathrm{DL}^0$ Syntax

#### **Definition 4.4.** Propositional dynamic logic $(DL^0)$ is $PL^0$ extended by

- program variables  $\mathcal{V}_{\pi} = \{\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \ldots\}$ ,
- modalities  $[\alpha], \langle \alpha \rangle$ .
- program constructors  $\Sigma^{\pi} = \{;, \cup, *, ?\}$

(minimal set)

$\alpha$ ; $\beta$	execute first $\alpha$ , then $\beta$	sequence
$\alpha \cup \beta$	execute (non-deterministically) either $lpha$ or $eta$	distribution
*\alpha	(non-deterministically) repeat $\alpha$ finitely often	iteration
A?	proceed if $\models A$ , else stop	test

Idea: Standard program primitives as derived concepts

Construct	as
if A then $\alpha$ else $\beta$	$(A?;\alpha) \cup (\neg A?;\beta)$
while A do $\alpha$ end	*(A?;α);¬A?
repeat $\alpha$ until A end	*(α; ¬A?); A?

# $\mathrm{DL}^{\!0}$ Semantics

▶ **Definition 4.5.** A model for DL<sup>0</sup> consists of a set *W* of possible worlds called states for DL<sup>0</sup>.

**Definition 4.6.** DL<sup>0</sup> variable assignments come in two parts:

- φ: 𝒱<sub>0</sub> × 𝒱 → D<sub>0</sub> (for propositional variables)π: 𝒱<sub>π</sub> → 𝒫(𝒱 × 𝒱) (maps program variables to accessibility relations)
- ▶ **Definition 4.7.** The meaning of complex formulae is given by the following value function  $\mathcal{I}_{\omega,\pi}^{w}$ :  $wff_{0}(\mathcal{V}_{0}) \rightarrow \mathcal{D}_{0}$  on formulae:

• 
$$\mathcal{I}_{\varphi,\pi}^{w}(V) = \varphi(w,V)$$
 for  $V \in \mathcal{V}_{0}$ .  
•  $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi,\pi}^{w}(\neg A) = T$  iff  $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi,\pi}^{w}(A) = F$ 

 $\blacktriangleright \mathcal{I}_{\omega,\pi}(\alpha;\beta) = \mathcal{I}_{\omega,\pi}(\beta) \circ \mathcal{I}_{\omega,\pi}(\alpha)$ 

 $\blacktriangleright \mathcal{I}_{\omega,\pi}(\alpha \cup \beta) = \mathcal{I}_{\omega,\pi}(\alpha) \cup \mathcal{I}_{\omega,\pi}(\beta)$ 

 $\mathcal{I}_{(\alpha,\pi)}(\mathsf{A}?) = \{ \langle w, w \rangle \, | \, \mathcal{I}^w_{(\alpha,\pi)}(\mathsf{A}) = \mathsf{T} \}$ 

$$\blacktriangleright \ \mathcal{I}^w_{\varphi,\pi}([\alpha]\mathsf{A}) = \mathsf{T} \text{ iff } \mathcal{I}^{w'}_{\varphi,\pi}(\mathsf{A}) = \mathsf{T} \text{ for all } w' \in \mathcal{W} \text{ with } w\mathcal{I}_{\varphi,\pi}(\alpha)w'.$$

And  $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi,\pi}$ :  $\textit{wff}_0(\mathcal{V}_0) \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{W} \times \mathcal{W})$  on programs:

(independent of  $w \in \mathcal{W}$ )

(program variable by assignment) (sequence by composition) (distribution by union) (iteration by reflexive transitive closure) (test by subset of identity relation)



 $\blacktriangleright \mathcal{I}_{\omega,\pi}(\alpha) = \pi(\alpha).$ 

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 $\blacktriangleright \mathcal{I}_{\alpha \pi}(*\alpha) = \mathcal{I}_{\alpha \pi}(\alpha)^*$ 

- Observation: Imperative programs uses variables, function and predicate constants (uninterpreted), but no program variables. The main operation is variable assignment.
- Idea: Make a multimodal logic in the spirit of DL<sup>0</sup> that features all of these for a deeper understanding.
- ▶ **Definition 4.8.** First-order program logic (DL<sup>1</sup>) combines the features of PL<sup>1</sup>, DL<sup>0</sup> without program variables, with the following two assignment operators:
  - nondeterministic assignment X:=?
  - deterministic assignment X:=A
- ► Example 4.9.  $\models p(f(X)) \Rightarrow g(Y, f(X)) \Rightarrow \langle Z := f(X) \rangle p(Z, g(Y, Z)) \text{ in } DL^1.$
- ► Example 4.10. In DL<sup>1</sup> we have  $\models Z = Y \land (\forall X.p(f(g(X)) = X)) \Rightarrow [while p(Y) do Y:=g(Y) end] \langle while Y \neq Z do Y:=f(Y) end \rangle T$

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# $\mathrm{D}\mathrm{L}^1$ Semantics

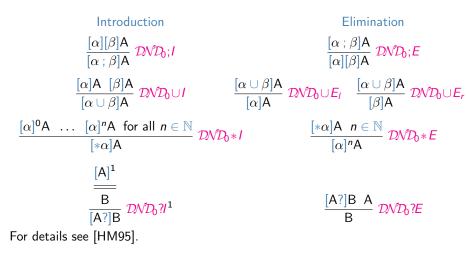
- Definition 4.11. Let *M* = ⟨*D*, *I*⟩ be a first-order model then the states (possible worlds) are variable assignments: *W* = {*φ* | *φ*: *V*<sub>ι</sub> → *D*}
- ▶ **Definition 4.12.** For a set  $\mathcal{X}$  of variables, write  $\varphi[\mathcal{X}]\psi$ , iff  $\varphi(X) = \psi(X)$  for all  $X \notin \mathcal{X}$ .
- ▶ Definition 4.13. The meaning of complex formulae is given by the following value function  $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}^{w}$ : wff<sub>o</sub>( $\Sigma, \mathcal{V}_{\iota}$ ) →  $\mathcal{D}_{0}$ 
  - $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}^{w}(\mathsf{A}) = \mathcal{I}_{\varphi}(\mathsf{A})$  if A term or atom.
  - $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}^{w}(\neg \mathsf{A}) = \mathsf{T} \text{ iff } \mathcal{I}_{\varphi}^{w}(\mathsf{A}) = \mathsf{F}$

- $\blacktriangleright \ \mathcal{I}_{\varphi}(X := ?) = \{ \langle \varphi, \psi \rangle \, | \, \varphi[X] \psi \}$
- $\blacktriangleright \mathcal{I}_{\varphi}(X:=\mathsf{A}) = \{ \langle \varphi, \psi \rangle \, | \, \varphi[X] \psi \text{ and } \psi(X) = \mathcal{I}_{\varphi}(\mathsf{A}) \}.$
- **•** Observation 4.14 (Substitution and Quantification). We have
  - $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}([X:=A]B) = \mathcal{I}_{\varphi,[\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}(A)/X]}(B)$ •  $\forall X.A = [X:=?]A.$
- ▶ Thus substitutions and quantification are definable in DL<sup>1</sup>.



# Natural Deduction for $DL^0$

▶ Definition 4.15. The natural deduction calculus *DND*<sub>0</sub> for DL<sup>0</sup> contains the inference rules from *ND*<sub>0</sub> plus:





▶ Definition 4.16. The natural deduction calculus DND₁ for DL¹ contains the inference rules from ND¹ and DND₀ plus:

$$\frac{[A/X](B) \quad X \notin (\text{free}(A) \cup \text{free}(B))}{[X:=A]B} \quad \mathcal{DND}_{0} := I$$
$$\frac{[X:=A]B}{C} \quad \frac{[[A/X](B)]^{1}}{C} \quad \mathcal{DND}_{0} := E$$

For details see [HM95].

▶ **Observation:** No inference rules for :=? needed as  $\forall X.A = [X:=?]A \iff \mathcal{ND}^1 \forall I$  and  $\mathcal{ND}^1 \forall E$  suffice.



- Question: Why is dynamic program logic interesting in a natural language semantics course?
- Answer: There are fundamental relations between dynamic (discourse) logics and dynamic program logics.
- ► David Israel: "Natural languages are programming languages for mind" [Isr93]



# Chapter 11 Some Issues in the Semantics of Tense

215



- ► Goal: Capturing the truth conditions and the logical form of sentences of English.
- ▶ Clearly: The following three sentences have different truth conditions.
  - 1. Jane saw George.
  - 2. Jane sees George.
  - 3. Jane will see George.
- Observation 0.1. Tense is a deictic element, i.e. its interpretation requires reference to something outside the sentence itself.
- Remark: Often, in particular in the case of monoclausal sentences occurring in isolation, as in our examples, this "something" is the speech time.
- ▶ Idea: make use of the reference time *now*:
  - Jane saw George is true at a time iff Jane sees George was true at some point in time before now.
  - Jane will see George is true at a time iff Jane sees George will be true at some point in time after now.



- Problem: The meaning of Jane saw George and Jane will see George is defined in terms of Jane sees George.
   We need the truth conditions of the present tense sentence.
- ▶ Idea: Jane sees George is true at a time iff Jane sees George at that time.
- ▶ Implementation: Postulate temporal operator as sentential operators (expressions of type  $o \rightarrow o$ ). Interpret
  - 1. Jane saw George as PAST(see(g, j)),
  - 2. Jane sees George as PRES(see(g, j)), and
  - 3. Jane wil see George as FUT(see(g, j)).



### Models and Evaluation for a Tensed Language

- **Problem:** The interpretations of constants vary over time.
- Idea: Introduce times into our models, and let the interpretation function give values of constants at a time. Relativize the valuation function to times
- Idea: We will consider temporal structures, where denotations are constant on intervals.
- ▶ **Definition 0.2.** Let  $I \subseteq \{[i,j] \mid i, j \in \mathbb{R}\}$  be a set of real intervals, then we call  $\langle I, \circ, <, \subseteq \rangle$  an interval time structure, where for intervals  $i := [i_l, i_l]$  and  $j := [l_l, j_r]$  we say that

218

- *i* and *j* overlap (written  $i \circ j$ ), iff  $l_i \leq ir$ ,
- *i* precedes *j* (written i < j), iff  $ir \leq l_i$ , and
- ▶ *i* is contained in *j* (written  $i \subseteq j$ ), iff  $l_i \leq i_i$  and  $ir \leq j_r$ .
- **Definition 0.3.** A temporal model is a triple  $\langle \mathcal{D}, \mathbb{I}, \mathcal{I} \rangle$ , where
  - $\mathcal{D}$  is a set called the domain,
  - I is an interval time structure, and
  - $\mathcal{I} : \mathbb{I} \times \Sigma_{\mathcal{T}} \to \mathcal{D}$  an interpretation function.

- ▶ Definition 0.4. For the value function I<sup>i</sup><sub>φ</sub>(·) we only redefine the clause for constants:
  - $\blacktriangleright \mathcal{I}^i_{\varphi}(c) := \mathcal{I}^i(c)$
  - $\blacktriangleright \mathcal{I}'_{\varphi}(X) := \varphi(X)$
  - $\blacktriangleright \mathcal{I}_{\varphi}^{i}(\mathsf{FA}) := \mathcal{I}_{\varphi}^{i}(\mathsf{F})(\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}^{i}(\mathsf{A})).$
- **Definition 0.5.** We define the meaning of the temporal operators:
  - 1.  $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}^{i}(\text{PRES}(\Phi)) = \mathsf{T}$ , iff  $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}^{i}(\Phi) = \mathsf{T}$ .
  - 2.  $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}^{i}(\text{PAST}(\Phi)) = \mathsf{T}$  iff there is an interval  $j \in \mathbb{I}$  with j < i and  $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}^{j}(\Phi) = \mathsf{T}$ .
  - 3.  $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}^{i}(\mathrm{FUT}(\Phi)) = \mathsf{T}$  iff there is an interval  $j \in \mathbb{I}$  with i < j and  $\mathcal{I}_{\varphi}^{j}(\Phi) = \mathsf{T}$ .



- How do we use this machinery to deal with complex tenses in English?
  - Past of past (pluperfect): Jane had left (by the time I arrived).
  - Future perfect: Jane will have left (by the time I arrive).
  - Past progressive: Jane was going to leave (when I arrived).



#### Data:

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- Jane left.
- Jane was leaving.
- Question: How do the truth conditions of these sentences differ?

#### Standard observation:

- Perfective indicates a completed action,
- imperfective indicates an incomplete or ongoing action.
- This becomes clearer when we look at the "creation predicates" like build a house or write a book
  - ▶ Jane built a house. entails: There was a house that Jane built.
  - ▶ Jane was building a house. does not entail that there was a house that Jane built.

#### New Data:

- 1. Jane leaves tomorrow.
- 2. Jane is leaving tomorrow.
- 3. ?? It rains tomorrow.
- 4. ?? It is raining tomorrow.
- 5. ?? The dog barks tomorrow.
- 6. ?? The dog is barking tomorrow.
- Future readings of present tense appear to arise only when the event described is planned, or planable, either by the subject of the sentence, the speaker, or a third party.



# Sequence of Tense

#### George said that Jane was laughing.

- Reading 1: George said "Jane is laughing." I.e. saying and laughing co-occur. So past tense in subordinate clause is past of utterance time, but not of main clause reference time.
- Reading 2: George said "Jane was laughing." I.e. laughing precedes saying. So past tense in subordinate clause is past of utterance time and of main clause reference time.



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223

- George saw the woman who was laughing.
  - How many readings?



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- Reading 2: George said "Jane was laughing." I.e. laughing precedes saying. So past tense in subordinate clause is past of utterance time and of main clause reference time.

#### George saw the woman who was laughing.

How many readings?

#### George will say that Jane is laughing.

- Reading 1: George will say "Jane is laughing." Saying and laughing co-occur, but both saying and laughing are future of utterance time. So present tense in subordinate clause indicates futurity relative to utterance time, but not to main clause reference time.
- Reading 2: Laughing overlaps utterance time and saying (by George). So present tense in subordinate clause is present relative to utterance time and main clause reference time.



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- George will see the woman who is laughing.
  - How many readings?
- Note that in all of the above cases, the predicate in the subordinate clause describes an event that is extensive in time. Consider readings when subordinate event is punctual.



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224

- George said that Mary fell.
  - Falling must precede George's saying.



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- George said that Mary fell.
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- George saw the woman who fell.
  - Same three readings as before: falling must be past of utterance time, but could be past, present or future relative to seeing (i.e main clause reference time).

224



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  - How many readings?
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- George said that Mary fell.
  - Falling must precede George's saying.
- George saw the woman who fell.
  - Same three readings as before: falling must be past of utterance time, but could be past, present or future relative to seeing (i.e main clause reference time).
- And just for fun, consider past under present... George will claim that Mary hit Bill.
  - Reading 1: hitting is past of utterance time (therefore past of main clause reference time).

224

Reading 2: hitting is future of utterance time, but past of main clause reference time.



Fau

- George will see the woman who is laughing.
  - How many readings?
- Note that in all of the above cases, the predicate in the subordinate clause describes an event that is extensive in time. Consider readings when subordinate event is punctual.
- George said that Mary fell.
  - Falling must precede George's saying.
- George saw the woman who fell.
  - Same three readings as before: falling must be past of utterance time, but could be past, present or future relative to seeing (i.e main clause reference time).
- And just for fun, consider past under present... *George will claim that Mary hit Bill.* 
  - Reading 1: hitting is past of utterance time (therefore past of main clause reference time).
  - Reading 2: hitting is future of utterance time, but past of main clause reference time.
- And finally...
  - A week ago, John decided that in ten days at breakfast he would tell his mother that they were having their last meal together. (Abusch 1988)
  - 2. John said a week ago that in ten days he would buy a fish that was still alive. (Ogihara 1996)



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- **Example 0.6 (Ordering and Overlap).** A man walked into the bar. He sat down and ordered a beer. He was wearing a nice jacket and expensive shoes, but he asked me if I could spare a buck.
- **Example 0.7 (Tense as anaphora?).** 
  - 1. Said while driving down the NJ turnpike: I forgot to turn off the stove.
  - 2. I didn't turn off the stove.



#### Chapter 12 Quantifier Scope Ambiguity and Underspecification



# 12.1 Scope Ambiguity and Quantifying-In

225

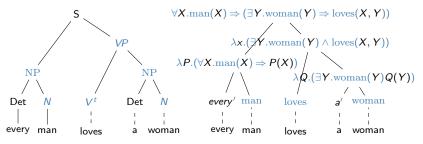


# Quantifier Scope Ambiguities: Data

- Consider the following sentences:
  - 1. Every man loves a woman

(Britney Spears or his mother?)

- 2. Most Europeans speak two languages.
- 3. Some student in every course sleeps in every class at least some of the time.
- Definition 1.1. We call these systematic ambiguities quantifyer scope ambiguities
- **Example 1.2.** We can represent the "wide-scope" reading with our methods



• **Question:** How to map an unambiguous input structure to multiple translations.



- ► Analysis: The sentence meaning is of the form ⟨everyman⟩(⟨awoman⟩(⟨loves⟩))
- Idea: Somehow have to move the a woman part in front of the every to obtain

 $\langle awoman \rangle (\langle everyman \rangle (\langle loves \rangle))$ 

- More concretely: Let's try A woman every man loves her. In semantics construction, apply a woman to every man loves her. So a woman out-scopes every man.
- Problem: How to represent pronouns and link them to their antecedents
- ► STORE is an alternative translation rule. Given a node with an NP daughter, we can translate the node by passing up to it the translation of its non-NP daughter, and putting the translation of the NP into a store, for later use.
- ► The QI rule allows us to empty out a non-empty store.



# Storing and Quantifying In (Technically)

- ▶ **Definition 1.3.** STORE(NP,  $\Phi$ )  $\longrightarrow$  ( $\Phi$ ,  $\Sigma * NP$ ), where  $\Sigma * NP$  is the result of adding NP to  $\Sigma$ , i.e.  $\Sigma * NP = \Sigma \cup \{NP\}$ ; we will assume that NP is not already in  $\Sigma$ , when we use the \* operator.
- ▶ Definition 1.4.  $Ql(\langle \Phi, \Sigma * NP \rangle) \rightarrow \langle NP \oplus \Phi, \Sigma \rangle$  where  $\oplus$  is either function application or function composition.
- Nondeterministic Semantics Construction: Adding rules gives us more choice
  - 1. Rule C (simple combination) If A is a node with daughters B and C, and the translations of B and of C have empty stores, then A translates to  $B' \oplus C'$ . Choice of rule is determined by types.
  - 2. STORE If A is a node with daughters B and C, where:
    - B is an NP with translation B' and
    - C translates to  $(C', \Sigma)$

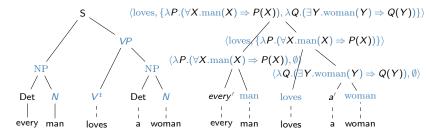
then A may translate to STORE(B', C')

Note that STORE may be applied whether or not the stores of the constituent nodes are empty.



#### Quantifying in Practice: Every man loves a woman

Example 1.5.



► Continue with **QI** applications: first retrieve  $\lambda Q.(\exists Y.woman(Y) \Rightarrow Q(Y))$  $(loves, \{\lambda P.(\forall X.man(X) \Rightarrow P(X)), \lambda Q.(\exists Y.woman(Y) \Rightarrow Q(Y))\})$ 

 $\rightarrow_{QI} \quad \langle \circ (\lambda P.(\forall X.\operatorname{man}(X) \Rightarrow P(X))) \text{ loves}, \{\lambda Q.(\exists Y.\operatorname{woman}(Y) \Rightarrow Q(Y))\} \rangle$ 

- $\rightarrow_{\beta} \quad \langle \lambda Z.(\lambda P.(\forall X.man(X) \Rightarrow P(X))) \text{ loves } Z, \{\lambda Q.(\exists Y.woman(Y) \Rightarrow Q(Y))\} \rangle$
- $\rightarrow_{\beta} \quad \langle \lambda Z.(\forall X.\operatorname{man}(X) \Rightarrow \operatorname{loves} Z X), \{\lambda Q.(\exists Y.\operatorname{woman}(Y) \Rightarrow Q(Y))\} \rangle$

$$\rightarrow_{QI} \quad \langle (\lambda Q.(\exists Y.\operatorname{woman}(Y) \Rightarrow Q(Y))) \ (\lambda Z.(\forall X.\operatorname{man}(X) \Rightarrow \operatorname{loves} Z \ X)), \emptyset \rangle$$

- $\rightarrow_{\beta} \quad \langle \exists Y. \operatorname{woman}(Y) \Rightarrow (\lambda Z. (\forall X. \operatorname{man}(X) \Rightarrow \operatorname{loves} Z X)) | Y, \emptyset \rangle$
- $\rightarrow_{\beta} \quad \langle \exists Y. \operatorname{woman}(Y) \Rightarrow (\forall X. \operatorname{man}(X) \Rightarrow \operatorname{loves} Y X), \emptyset \rangle$



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# 12.2 Type Raising for non-quantificational NPs

229



- ► Problem: Subject NPs with quantificational determiners have type (ι → o) → o (and are applied to the VP) whereas subject NPs with proper names have type ι. (argument to the VP)
- ▶ Idea: John runs translates to runs(john), where runs  $\in \Sigma_{\iota \to o}$  and john  $\in \Sigma_{\iota}$ . Now we =<sub>β</sub>-expand over the VP yielding ( $\lambda P_{\iota \to o}.P(\text{john})$ ) runs  $\lambda P_{\iota \to o}.P(\text{john})$  has type ( $\iota \to o$ )  $\to o$  and can be applied to the VP runs.
- **Definition 2.1.** If  $c \in \Sigma_{\alpha}$ , then type raising c yields  $\lambda P_{\alpha \to o} P c$ .



- Problem: On our current assumptions, the' = ι, and so for any definite NP the N, its translation is ι N, an expression of type ι.
- ► Idea: Type lift just as we did with proper names:  $\iota$  N type lifts to  $\lambda P.P \iota$  N, so the' =  $\lambda PQ.Q \iota P$
- Advantage: This is a "generalized quantifier treatment": the treated as denoting relations between sets.
- ▶ Solution by Barwise&Cooper 1981: For any  $a \in D_{\iota \to o}$ :  $\mathcal{I}(the')(a) = \mathcal{I}(every')(a)$  if #(a) = 1, undefined otherwise So the' is that function in  $\mathcal{D}_{(\iota \to o) \to (\iota \to o) \to o}$  such that for any  $A, B \in \mathcal{D}_{\iota \to o}$ if #(A) = 1 then the'(A, B) = T if  $A \subseteq B$  and the'(A, B) = F if  $A \not\subseteq B$  otherwise undefined



- ▶ **Problem:** We have type-raised NPs, but consider transitive verbs as in *Mary loves most cats.* loves is of type  $\iota \rightarrow \iota \rightarrow o$  while the object NP is of type  $(\iota \rightarrow o) \rightarrow o$  (application?)
- ► Another Problem: We encounter the same problem in the sentence *Mary loves John* if we choose to type-lift the NPs.
- Idea: Change the type of the transitive verb to allow it to "swallow" the higher-typed object NP.
- **Better Idea:** Adopt a new rule for semantic composition for this case.
- Remember: loves' is a function from individuals (e.g. John) to properties (in the case of the VP loves John, the property X loves John of X).

Eau

#### Type raised NPs and Function Composition

• We can extend  $\operatorname{HOL}^{\rightarrow}$  by a constant  $\circ_{(\beta \to \gamma) \to (\alpha \to \beta) \to \alpha \to \gamma}$  by setting  $\circ := \lambda FGX.F(G(X))$  thus

 $\circ g f \rightarrow_{\beta} \lambda X.g(f(X))$  and  $\circ g f a \rightarrow_{\beta} g(f(a))$ 

In our example, we have

$$\circ (\lambda P.P(\text{john})) \text{ loves } =_{Def} (\lambda FGX.F(G(X))) (\lambda P.P(\text{john})) \text{ loves}$$
  
$$\rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda GX.(\lambda P.P(\text{john})) G(X)) \text{ loves}$$
  
$$\rightarrow_{\beta} \lambda X.(\lambda P.P(\text{john})) \text{ loves } X$$
  
$$\rightarrow_{\beta}! \lambda X.\text{ loves}(X,\text{john})$$

#### Dealing with Quantifier Scope Ambiguity: 12.3 **Cooper Storage**

233



- ▶ We need transitive verbs to combine with quantificational objects of type  $(\iota \rightarrow o) \rightarrow o$  but . . .
- We still ultimately want their "basic" translation to be type *ι* → *ι* → *o*, i.e. something that denotes a relation between individuals.
- We do this by starting with the basic translation, and raising its type. Here is what we'll end up with, for the verb like:

 $\lambda PY.P(\lambda X.likes(X, Y))$ 

where P is a variable of type  $(\iota \rightarrow o) \rightarrow o$  and X, Y are variables of type  $\iota$ . (For details on how this is derived, see [CKG09, pp.178-179])

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# Cooper Storage

- Intuition: A store consists of a "core" semantic representation, computed in the usual way, plus the representations of quantifiers encountered in the composition so far.
- Definition 3.1. A store is an n place sequence. The first member of the sequence is the core semantic representation. The other members of the sequence (if any) are pairs (β,i) where:
  - $\blacktriangleright \beta$  is a QNP translation and
  - i is an index, which will associate the NP translation with a free variable in the core semantic translation.

We call these pairs binding operators (because we will use them to bind free variables in the core representation).

- Definition 3.2. In the Cooper storage method, QNPs are stored in the store and later retrieved – not necessarily in the order they were stored – to build the representation.
- The elements in the store are written enclosed in angled brackets. However, we will often have a store which consists of only one element, the core semantic representation. This is because QNPs are the only things which add elements beyond the core representation to the store. So we will adopt the convention that when the store has only one element, the brackets are omitted.



#### Storage Rule

If the store  $\langle \varphi, (\beta, j), \ldots, (\gamma, k) \rangle$  is a possible translation for a QNP, then the store

 $\langle \lambda P.P(X_i)(\varphi,i)(\beta,j),\ldots,(\gamma,k) \rangle$ 

where i is a new index, is also a possible translation for that QNP.

▶ This rule says: if you encounter a QNP with translation  $\varphi$ , you can replace its translation with an indexed place holder of the same type,  $\lambda P.P(X_i)$ , and add  $\varphi$  to the store, paired with the index *i*. We will use the place holder translation in the semantic composition of the sentence.

#### Working with Stores

- ▶ Working out the translation for *Every student likes some professor*.
  - $NP_1 \rightarrow \lambda P.(\exists X.\operatorname{prof}(X) \land P(X)) \text{ or } \langle \lambda Q.Q(X_1), (\lambda P.(\exists X.\operatorname{prof}(X) \land P(X)), 1) \rangle$
  - $V_t \rightarrow \lambda RY.R(\lambda Z.likes(Z,Y))$
  - $\textit{VP}~\rightarrow$  (Combine core representations by FA; pass store up)\*
    - $\rightarrow \langle \lambda Y. \text{likes}(X_1, Y), (\lambda P. (\exists X. \text{prof}(X) \land P(X)), 1) \rangle$
  - $NP_2 \rightarrow \lambda P.(\forall Z.student(Z) \Rightarrow P(Z)) \text{ or } \langle \lambda R.R(X_2), (\lambda P.(\forall Z.student(Z) \Rightarrow P(Z)), 2 \rangle$
  - S → (Combine core representations by FA; pass stores up)\*\* →  $\langle \text{likes}(X_1, X_2), (\lambda P.(\exists X. \text{prof}(X) \land P(X)), 1), (\lambda P.(\forall Z. \text{student}(Z) \Rightarrow P(Z)), 2 \rangle$
  - \* Combining  $V_t$  with place holder
  - 1.  $(\lambda RY.R(\lambda Z.likes(Z,Y)))(\lambda Q.Q(X_1))$
  - 2.  $\lambda Y.(\lambda Q.Q(X_1)) (\lambda Z.likes(Z, Y))$
  - 3.  $\lambda Y.(\lambda Z.likes(Z, Y)) X_1$
- 4.  $\lambda Y$ .likes $(X_1, Y)$

- \*\* Combining VP with place holder
- 1.  $(\lambda R.R(X_2)) (\lambda Y.\text{likes}(X_1, Y))$
- 2.  $(\lambda Y.\text{likes}(X_1, Y)) X_2$
- 3. likes $(X_1, X_2)$

#### Retrieval:

Let  $\sigma_1$  and  $\sigma_2$  be (possibly empty) sequences of binding operators. If the store  $\langle \varphi, \sigma_1, \sigma_2, (\beta, i) \rangle$  is a translation of an expression of category *S*, then the store  $\langle \beta(\lambda X_1.\varphi), \sigma_1, \sigma_2 \rangle$  is also a translation of it.

- What does this say?: It says: suppose you have an S translation consisting of a core representation (which will be of type o) and one or more indexed QNP translations. Then you can do the following:
  - 1. Choose one of the QNP translations to retrieve.
  - 2. Rewrite the core translation,  $\lambda$ -abstracting over the variable which bears the index of the QNP you have selected. (Now you will have an expression of type  $\iota \rightarrow o$ .)
  - 3. Apply this  $\lambda$ -term to the QNP translation (which is of type ( $\iota \rightarrow o$ )  $\rightarrow o$ ).

Fau

#### Example: Every student likes some professor.

#### 1. Retrieve every student

- 1.1  $(\lambda Q.(\forall Z.\operatorname{student}(Z) \Rightarrow Q(Z))) (\lambda X_2.\operatorname{likes}(X_1, X_2))$
- 1.2  $\forall Z.\operatorname{student}(Z) \Rightarrow (\lambda X_2.\operatorname{likes}(X_1, X_2)) Z$
- 1.3  $\forall Z.student(Z) \Rightarrow likes(X_1, Z)$

#### 2. Retrieve some professor

- 2.1  $(\lambda P.(\exists X.\operatorname{prof}(X) \land P(X))) (\lambda X_1.(\forall Z.\operatorname{student}(Z) \Rightarrow \operatorname{likes}(X_1, Z)))$
- 2.2  $\exists X. \operatorname{prof}(X)(\lambda X_1.(\forall Z. \operatorname{student}(Z) \Rightarrow \operatorname{likes}(X_1, Z))) X$
- 2.3  $\exists X.\operatorname{prof}(X) \land (\forall Z.\operatorname{student}(Z) \Rightarrow \operatorname{likes}(X, Z))$



# Chapter 13 Higher-Order Unification and NL Semantics Reconstruction

230



# 13.1 Introduction

Michael Kohlhase: LBS



# Application of HOL in NL Semantics: Ellipsis

#### **Example 1.1.** John loves his wife. George does too

- loves(john, wifeof(john))  $\land Q(george)$
- "George has property some Q, which we still have to determine"
- ▶ Idea: If John has property Q, then it is that he loves his wife.
- ▶ Equation:  $Q(\text{john}) =_{\alpha\beta\eta} \text{loves}(\text{john}, \text{wifeof}(\text{john}))$
- **Solutions (computed by HOU):** 
  - $Q = \lambda z.$ loves(z, wifeof(z)) and  $Q = \lambda z.$ loves(z, wifeof(john))
  - \*  $Q = \lambda z$ .loves(john, wifeof(z)) and  $Q = \lambda z$ .loves(john, wifeof(john))
- ▶ Readings: George loves his own wife. and George loves John's wife.
- Erraneous HOU Predictions: \* John loves George's wife. and \* John loves John's wife.

- ► Intuitively: Equation solving in the simply typed  $\lambda$ -calculus (modulo the built-in  $\alpha\beta\eta$ -equality)
- ► Formally: Given formulae A, B ∈ wff<sub>α</sub>( $\Sigma_T$ ,  $\mathcal{V}_T$ ), find a substitution  $\sigma$  with  $\sigma(A) =_{\alpha\beta\eta} \sigma(B)$ .
- Definition 1.2. We call E := A<sub>1</sub>=<sup>?</sup>B<sub>1</sub> ∧ ... ∧ A<sub>n</sub>=<sup>?</sup>B<sub>n</sub> a unification problem. The set U(E) = {σ | σ(A<sub>i</sub>) =<sub>αβη</sub> σ(B<sub>i</sub>)} is called the set of unifiers for E and any of its members a unifier.
- **Example 1.3.** the unification problem  $F(fa) = {}^{?}f(Fa)$  where  $F, f: \alpha \to \alpha$  and  $\vdash_{\Sigma} a: \alpha$  has unifiers  $[f/F], [\lambda X_{\alpha}.f(fX)/F], [\lambda X_{\alpha}.f(f(fX))/F], \ldots$
- ▶ find Representatives that induce all of  $U(\mathcal{E})$  (are there most general unifiers?)



- Meaning of a discourse is more than just the conjunction of sentences
- Coherence is prerequisite for well-formedness (not just pragmatics)
  - A John killed Peter.
  - B<sup>1</sup> No, John killed BILL!
  - $B^2 * No$ , John goes hiking!
  - B<sup>3</sup> No, PETER died in that fight!
- Coherence in a discourse is achieved by discourse relations
  - in this case "contrastive parallelism"



- Parallel: John organized rallies for Clinton, and Fred distributed pamphlets for him.
- **Contrast:** John supported Clinton, but Mary opposed him.
- **Exemplification:** Young aspiring politicians often support their party's presidential candidate. For instance John campaigned hard for Clinton in 1996.
- Generalization: John campaigned hard for Clinton in 1996. Young aspiring politicians often support their party's presidential candidate.
- **Elaboration:** A young aspiring politician was arrested in Texas today. John Smith, 34, was nabbed in a Houston law firm while attempting to embezzle funds for his campaign.



- We need inferences to discover them
- General conditions [Hobbs 1990]

Relation	Requirements	Particle
Parallel	$a_i \sim b_i, p \Longrightarrow q$	and
Contrast	$a_i \sim b_i, \ p \models \neg q \text{ or } \neg p \models q \ a_i, b_i \text{ contrastive}$	but
Exempl.	$p = q, a_i \in \vec{b}$ or $a_i = b_i$	for example
Generl.	$p \models q, b_i \in \vec{a} \text{ or } b_i \models a_i$	in general
Elabor.	$q\simeq p,\; a_i\sim b_i$	that is

Source semantics  $p(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$ , Target semantics  $q(a_1, \ldots, a_m)$ 

Need theorem proving methods for general case.

### Natural language is economic

- Use the hearer's inferential capabilities to reduce communication costs.
- Makes use of discourse coherence for reconstruction (here: Parallelism)
  - Jon loves his wife. Bill does too. [love his/Bill's wife]
  - Mary wants to go to Spain and Fred wants to go to Peru, but because of limited resources, only one of them can. [go where he/she wants to go]
- Anaphora give even more coherence. (here: Elaboration)
  - ▶ I have a new car. It is in the parking lot downstairs. [My new car]
- Discourse relation determines the value of underspecified element.



HOU Analyses

(the structural level)

- Ellipsis [DSP'91, G&K'96, DSP'96, Pinkal, et al'97]
- Focus [Pulman'95, G&K96]
- Corrections [G&K& v. Leusen'96]
- Deaccenting, Sloppy Interpretation [Gardent, 1996]
- Discourse theories

(the general case, needs deduction!)

- Literature and Cognition [Hobbs, CSLI Notes'90]
- Cohesive Forms [Kehler, PhD'95]

Problem: All assume parallelism structure: given a pair of parallel utterances, the parallel elements are taken as given.



# 13.2 Higher-Order Unification

246



# 13.2.1 Higher-Order Unifiers

246



## HOU: Complete Sets of Unifiers

- Question: Are there most general higher-order Unifiers?
- Answer: What does that mean anyway?
- ▶ **Definition 2.1.**  $\sigma =_{\beta\eta} \rho[W]$ , iff  $\sigma(X) =_{\alpha\beta\eta} \rho(X)$  for all  $X \in W$ .  $\sigma =_{\beta\eta} \rho[\mathcal{E}]$  iff  $\sigma =_{\beta\eta} \rho[\operatorname{free}(\mathcal{E})]$
- ▶ **Definition 2.2.**  $\sigma$  is more general than  $\theta$  on W ( $\sigma \leq_{\beta\eta} \theta[W]$ ), iff there is a substitution  $\rho$  with  $\theta =_{\beta\eta} (\rho \circ \sigma)[W]$ .
- ▶ **Definition 2.3.**  $\Psi \subseteq U(\mathcal{E})$  is a complete set of unifiers, iff for all unifiers  $\theta \in U(\mathcal{E})$  there is a  $\sigma \in \Psi$ , such that  $\sigma \leq_{\beta\eta} \theta[\mathcal{E}]$ .
- Definition 2.4. If Ψ ⊆ U(𝔅) is complete, then ≤<sub>β</sub>-minimal elements σ ∈ Ψ are most general unifier of 𝔅.
- ▶ **Theorem 2.5.** The set  $\{[\lambda uv.h u/F]\} \cup \{\sigma_i | i \in \mathbb{N}\}$  where

$$\sigma_i := [\lambda u v.g_n u u h_1^n u v \dots u h_n^n u v/F], [\lambda v.z/X]$$

is a complete set of unifiers for the equation  $F X (a_{\iota}) = {}^{?}F X (b_{\iota})$ , where F and X are variables of types  $(\iota \to \iota) \to \iota \to \iota$  and  $\iota \to \iota$ Furthermore,  $\sigma_{i+1}$  is more general than  $\sigma_i$ .

Proof sketch: [Hue76, Theorem 5]



- Definition 2.6. X<sup>1</sup>=?B<sup>1</sup> ∧ ... ∧ X<sup>n</sup>=?B<sup>n</sup> is in solved form, if the X<sup>i</sup> are distinct free variables X<sup>i</sup> ∉ free(B<sup>j</sup>) and B<sup>j</sup> does not contain Skolem constants for all j.
- ▶ Lemma 2.7. If  $\mathcal{E} = X^1 = {}^{?}\mathbb{B}^1 \land \ldots \land X^n = {}^{?}\mathbb{B}^n$  is in solved form, then  $\sigma_{\mathcal{E}} := [\mathbb{B}^1/X^1], \ldots, [\mathbb{B}^n/X^n]$  is the unique most general unifier of  $\mathcal{E}$

#### Proof:

1.  $\sigma(X^i) =_{\alpha\beta\eta} \sigma(\mathsf{B}^i)$ , so  $\sigma \in \mathsf{U}(\mathcal{E})$ 2. Let  $\theta \in \mathsf{U}(\mathcal{E})$ , then  $\theta(X^i) =_{\alpha\beta\eta} \theta(\mathsf{B}^i) = \theta \circ \sigma(X^i)$ 3. so  $\theta \leq_{\beta\eta} (\theta \circ \sigma)[\mathcal{E}]$ .



# 13.2.2 Higher-Order Unification Transformations



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## Simplification SIM

**Definition 2.8.** The higher order simplification transformations *SIM* consist of the rules below.

$$\frac{(\lambda X_{\alpha}.A) = {}^{?}(\lambda Y_{\alpha}.B) \land \mathcal{E} \quad s \in \Sigma_{\alpha}^{Sk} \text{new}}{([s/X](A)) = {}^{?}([s/Y](B)) \land \mathcal{E}} SIM:\alpha$$

$$\frac{(\lambda X_{\alpha}.A) = {}^{?}B \land \mathcal{E} \quad s \in \Sigma_{\alpha}^{Sk} \text{new}}{([s/X](A)) = {}^{?}Bs \land \mathcal{E}} SIM:\eta$$

$$\frac{(h \overline{U^{n}}) = {}^{?}(h \overline{V^{n}}) \land \mathcal{E} \quad h \in (\Sigma \cup \Sigma^{Sk})}{U_{1} = {}^{?}V_{1} \land \dots \land U_{n} = {}^{?}V_{n} \land \mathcal{E}} SIM:\text{dec}$$

$$\frac{\mathcal{E} \land X = {}^{?}A \quad X \notin \text{free}(A) \quad A \cap \Sigma^{Sk} = \emptyset \quad X \in \text{free}(\mathcal{E})}{[A/X](\mathcal{E}) \land X = {}^{?}A} SIM:\text{elim}$$

After rule applications all  $\lambda$ -terms are reduced to head normal form. FAU

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### Properties of Simplification I

▶ Lemma 2.9 (Properties of *SIM*). *SIM* generalizes first-order unification.

250

- SIM is terminating and confluent up to  $\alpha$ -conversion
- Unique SIM normal forms exist (all pairs have the form  $(h \overline{U^n}) = (k \overline{V^m})$ )
- Lemma 2.10.  $U(\mathcal{E} \wedge \mathcal{E}_{\sigma}) = U(\sigma(\mathcal{E}) \wedge \mathcal{E}_{\sigma}).$
- Proof: by the definitions
  - 1. If  $\theta \in U(\mathcal{E} \wedge \mathcal{E}_{\sigma})$ , then  $\theta \in (U(\mathcal{E}) \cap U(\mathcal{E}_{\sigma}))$ .
  - 2. So  $\theta =_{\beta\eta} (\theta \circ \sigma) [\operatorname{supp}(\sigma)]$ ,
  - 3. and thus  $\theta \circ \sigma \in U(\mathcal{E})$ , iff  $\theta \in U(\sigma(\mathcal{E}))$ .



► **Theorem 2.11.** If  $\mathcal{E}\vdash_{\mathcal{SIM}}\mathcal{F}$ , then  $\bigcup(\mathcal{E})\leq_{\beta\eta}\bigcup(\mathcal{F})[\mathcal{E}]$ .

(correct, complete)

*Proof:* By an induction over the length of the derivation *We the SIM rules individually for the base case* 

- 1.  $SIM: \alpha$  by  $\alpha\beta\eta$ -conversion
- 2.  $SIM:\eta$  By  $\eta$ -conversion in the presence of  $SIM:\alpha$
- 3. SIM: dec The head  $h \in (\Sigma \cup \Sigma^{Sk})$  cannot be instantiated.
- 4. *SIM*:elim *By* ??.
- 5. The step case goes directly by induction hypothesis and transitivity of the derivation relation.

- **Problem:** Find all formulae of given type  $\alpha$  and head *h*.
- **sufficient:** long  $\beta\eta$  head normal form, most general.
- ► Definition 2.12 (General Bindings).  $G^h_{\alpha}(\Sigma) := \lambda \overline{X^k_{\alpha}} \cdot h(H^1 \overline{X}) \dots (H^n \overline{X})$ 
  - where  $\alpha = \overline{\alpha}_k \to \beta$ ,  $h: \overline{\gamma}_n \to \beta$  and  $\beta \in \mathcal{BT}$
  - and  $H^i:\overline{\alpha}_k \to \gamma_i$  new variables.

is called the general binding of type  $\alpha$  for the head *h*.

### Observation 2.13.

General bindings are unique up to choice of names for H<sup>i</sup>.

▶ **Definition 2.14.** If the head *h* is *j*<sup>th</sup> bound variable in  $G^h_{\alpha}(\Sigma)$ , call  $G^h_{\alpha}(\Sigma)$ *j*-projection binding (and write  $G^j_{\alpha}(\Sigma)$ ) else imitation binding

► clearly  $\mathsf{G}^h_{\alpha}(\Sigma) \in \textit{wff}_{\alpha}(\Sigma_{\mathcal{T}}, \mathcal{V}_{\mathcal{T}})$  and  $\mathrm{head}(\mathsf{G}^h_{\alpha}(\Sigma)) = h$ 



### Approximation Theorem

- Theorem 2.15. If A ∈ wff<sub>α</sub>(Σ<sub>T</sub>, V<sub>T</sub>) with head(A) = h, then there is a general binding G = G<sup>h</sup><sub>α</sub>(Σ) and asubstitution ρ with ρ(G) =<sub>αβη</sub> A and dpρ < dpA.</p>
- Proof: We analyze the term structure of A
  - 1. If  $\alpha = \overline{\alpha}_k \to \beta$  and  $h: \overline{\gamma}_n \to \beta$  where  $\beta \in \mathcal{BT}$ , then the long head normal form of A must be  $\lambda \overline{X_{\alpha}^k} \cdot h \overline{U^n}$ .
  - 2.  $G = G^h_{\alpha}(\Sigma) = \lambda \overline{X^k_{\alpha}} \cdot h(H_1 \overline{X}) \dots (H_n \overline{X})$  for some variables  $H_i: \overline{\alpha}_k \to \gamma_i$ . 3. Choose  $\rho := [\lambda \overline{X^k_{\alpha}} \cdot \bigcup_1 / H_1], \dots, [\lambda \overline{X^k_{\alpha}} \cdot \bigcup_n / H_n]$ .
  - 4. Then we have  $\rho(G) = \lambda \overline{X_{\alpha}^{k}} \cdot h(\lambda \overline{X_{\alpha}^{k}}, \bigcup_{1} \overline{X}) \dots (\lambda \overline{X_{\alpha}^{k}}, \bigcup_{n} \overline{X})$  $=_{\beta\eta} \lambda \overline{X_{\alpha}^{k}} \cdot h \overline{\bigcup^{n}}$  $=_{\beta\eta} A$
  - 5. The depth condition can be read off as  $dp(\lambda \overline{X_{\alpha}^{k}}.U_{1}) \leq dpA 1$ .



- Recap: After simplification, we have to deal with pairs where one (flex/rigid) or both heads (flex/flex) are variables
- Definition 2.16. Let G = G<sup>h</sup><sub>α</sub>(Σ) (imitation) or G ∈ {G<sup>j</sup><sub>α</sub>(Σ) | 1 ≤ j ≤ n}, then the calculus HOU for higher-order unification consists of the transformations (always reduce to SIM normal form)

$$\frac{(F_{\alpha} \overline{U}) = {}^{?}(h \overline{V}) \wedge \mathcal{E}}{F = {}^{?}\mathsf{G} \wedge (F \overline{U}) = {}^{?}(h \overline{V}) \wedge \mathcal{E}} \mathcal{HOU}: \mathsf{fr}$$
$$\frac{(F_{\alpha} \overline{U}) = {}^{?}(H \overline{V}) \wedge \mathcal{E}}{F = {}^{?}\mathsf{G} \wedge (F \overline{U}) = {}^{?}(H \overline{V}) \wedge \mathcal{E}} \mathcal{HOU}: \mathsf{ff}$$

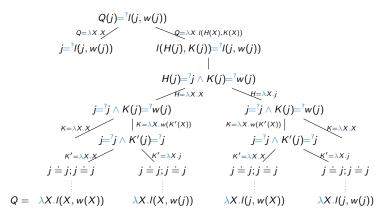
Rules for flex/flex pairs:

Rule for flex/rigid pairs:



Eau

**Example 2.17.** Let  $Q, w: \iota \to \iota, I: \iota \to \iota \to \iota$ , and  $j:\iota$ , then we have the following derivation tree in HOU.





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Eau

## A Test Generator for Higher-Order Unification

- ▶ Definition 2.18 (Church Numerals). We define closed  $\lambda$ -terms of type  $\nu := (\alpha \rightarrow \alpha) \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \alpha$ 
  - Numbers: Church numerals: ()

(n fold iteration of arg1 starting from arg2)

$$n := \lambda S_{\alpha \to \alpha} \cdot \lambda O_{\alpha} \cdot \underbrace{S(S \dots S_n)}_n (O) \dots)$$

Addition

(N-fold iteration of S from N)

$$+ := \lambda N_{\nu} M_{\nu} \cdot \lambda S_{\alpha \to \alpha} \cdot \lambda O_{\alpha} \cdot NS(MSO)$$

Multiplication:

(N-fold iteration of MS (=+m) from O)

 $\cdot := \lambda N_{\nu} M_{\nu} . \lambda S_{\alpha \to \alpha} . \lambda O_{\alpha} . N(MS) O$ 

- Observation 2.19. Subtraction and (integer) division on Church numberals can be automted via higher-order unification.
- Example 2.20.

5-2 by solving the unification problem  $(2{+}x_{\nu}){=}^{?}5$ 

Equation solving for Church numerals yields a very nice generator for test cases for higher-order unification, as we know which solutions to expect.



### 13.2.3 Properties of Higher-Order Unification



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# Undecidability of Higher-Order Unification

- ▶ Theorem 2.21. Second-order unification is undecidable (Goldfarb '82 [Gol81])
- Proof sketch: Reduction to Hilbert's tenth problem (solving Diophantine equations)
   (known to be undecidable)
- Definition 2.22.

We call an equation a Diophantine equation, if it is of the form

$$x_i x_j = x_k$$

$$x_i = c_j \text{ where } c_j \in \mathbb{N}$$

where the variables  $x_i$  range over  $\mathbb{N}$ .

- ▶ These can be solved by higher-order unification on Church numerals. (cf. ??).
- Theorem 2.23. The general solution for sets of Diophantine equations is undecidable. (Matijasevič 1970 [Mat70])



FAU

- ▶ Lemma 2.24. If  $\mathcal{E}\vdash_{\mathcal{HOUt}} \mathcal{E}'$  or  $\mathcal{E}\vdash_{\mathcal{HOUt}} \mathcal{E}'$ , then  $\cup(\mathcal{E}') \subseteq \cup(\mathcal{E})$ .
- ► *Proof sketch:* HOU: fr and HOU: ff only add new pair.
- ▶ Corollary 2.25. HOU is correct: If  $\mathcal{E}\vdash_{HOU}\mathcal{E}'$ , then  $\cup(\mathcal{E}') \subseteq \cup(\mathcal{E})$ .



- We cannot expect completeness in the same sense as for first-order unification: "If E⊢<sub>U</sub>F, then U(E) ⊆ U(F)" (see ??) as the rules fix a binding and thus partially commit to a unifier (which excludes others).
- ▶ We cannot expect termination either, since HOU is undecidable.
- ▶ For a semi-decision procedure we only need termination on unifiable problems.
- Theorem 2.26 (HOU derives Complete Set of Unifiers). If θ ∈ U(E), then there is a HOU-derivation E⊢<sub>HOU</sub>F, such that F is in solved form, σ<sub>F</sub> ∈ U(E), and σ<sub>F</sub> is more general than θ.
- Proof sketch: Given a unifier θ of E, we guide the derivation with a measure μ<sub>θ</sub> towards F.



- **Definition 2.27.** We call  $\mu(\mathcal{E}, \theta) := \langle \mu_1(\mathcal{E}, \theta), \mu_2(\theta) \rangle$  the unification measure for  $\mathcal{E}$  and  $\theta$ , if
  - $\mu_1(\mathcal{E}, \theta)$  is the multiset of term depths of  $\theta(X)$  for the unsolved  $X \in \text{supp}(\theta)$ .
  - $\mu_2(\mathcal{E})$  the multiset of term depths in  $\mathcal{E}$ .
  - ➤ ≺ is the strict lexicographic order on pairs: (⟨a, b⟩ ≺ ⟨c, d⟩, if a < c or a = c and b < d)</p>
  - Component orderings are multiset orderings: (M ∪ {m} < M ∪ N iff n < m for all n ∈ N)</p>

260

**Lemma 2.28.**  $\prec$  *is well-founded.* 

(by construction)



- ▶ **Theorem 2.29.** If  $\mathcal{E}$  is unsolved and  $\theta \in U(\mathcal{E})$ , then there is a unification problem  $\mathcal{E}$  with  $\mathcal{E}\vdash_{\mathcal{HOU}}\mathcal{E}'$  and a substitution  $\theta' \in U(\mathcal{E}')$ , such that
  - $\blacktriangleright \ \theta =_{\beta\eta} \theta'[\mathcal{E}]$

we call such a HOU-step a  $\mu$ -prescribed

- Corollary 2.30. If *E* is unifiable without μ-prescribed HOU-steps, then *E* is solved.
- ▶ In other words:  $\mu$  guides the HOU-transformations to a solved form.



# Proof of ?? I

#### Proof:

- 1. Let  $A=^{?}B$  be an unsolved pair of the form  $(F \overline{U})=^{?}(G \overline{V})$  in  $\mathcal{F}$ .
- 2.  ${\cal E}$  is a  ${\cal SIM}$  normal form, so F and G must be constants or variables,
- 3. but not the same constant, since otherwise SIM:dec would be applicable.
- 4. By **??** there is a general binding  $G = G_{\alpha}^{f}(\Sigma)$  and a substitution  $\rho$  with  $\rho(G) =_{\alpha\beta\eta} \theta(F)$ . So,
  - if  $head(G) \notin supp(\theta)$ , then HOU: fr is applicable,
  - if  $head(G) \in supp(\theta)$ , then HOU: ff is applicable.
- 5. Choose  $\theta' := \theta \cup \rho$ . Then  $\theta =_{\beta\eta} \theta'[\mathcal{E}]$  and  $\theta' \in U(\mathcal{E}')$  by correctness.
- 6.  $\mathcal{HOU}$ : ff and  $\mathcal{HOU}$ : fr solve  $F \in \text{supp}(\theta)$  and replace F by  $\text{supp}(\rho)$  in the set of unsolved variable of  $\mathcal{E}$ .
- 7. so  $\mu_1(\mathcal{E}, \theta') \prec \mu_1(\mathcal{E}, \theta)'$  and thus  $\mu(\mathcal{E}, \theta') \prec \mu(\mathcal{E}, \theta')$ .



### Terminal $\mathcal{HOU}$ -problems are Solved or Unsolvable I

- ▶ **Theorem 2.31.** If  $\mathcal{E}$  is a unsolved UP and  $\theta \in U(\mathcal{E})$ , then there is a  $\mathcal{HOU}$ -derivation  $\mathcal{E}\vdash_{\mathcal{HOU}}\sigma_{\sigma}$ , with  $\sigma \leq_{\beta\eta} \theta[\mathcal{E}]$ .
- ▶ *Proof:* Let  $\mathcal{D}$ :  $\mathcal{E}\vdash_{\mathcal{HOU}}\mathcal{F}$  a maximal  $\mu$ -prescribed  $\mathcal{HOU}$ -derivation from  $\mathcal{E}$ .
  - 1. This must be finite, since  $\prec$  is well-founded (ind. over length *n* of  $\mathcal{D}$ )
  - 2. If n = 0, then  $\mathcal{E}$  is solved and  $\sigma_{\mathcal{E}}$  most general unifier
  - 3. thus  $\sigma_{\mathcal{E}} \leq_{\beta\eta} \theta[\mathcal{E}]$
  - 4. If n > 0, then there is a  $\mu$ -prescribed step  $\mathcal{E} \vdash_{\mathcal{HOU}} \mathcal{E}'$  and a substitution  $\theta$  as in ??.
  - 5. by IH there is a  $\mathcal{HOU}$ -derivation  $\mathcal{E}' \vdash_{\mathcal{HOU}} \mathcal{F}$  with  $\sigma_{\mathcal{F}} \leq_{\beta\eta} \theta'[\mathcal{E}']$ .
  - 6. by correctness  $\sigma_{\mathcal{F}} \in U(\mathcal{E}') \subseteq U(\mathcal{E})$ .
  - 7. rules of  $\mathcal{HOU}$  only expand free variables, so  $\sigma_{\mathcal{F}} \leq_{\beta\eta} \theta'[\mathcal{E}']$ .
  - 8. Thus  $\sigma_{\mathcal{F}} \leq_{\beta\eta} \theta'[\mathcal{E}]$ ,
  - 9. This completes the proof, since  $\theta' =_{\beta\eta} \theta[\mathcal{E}]$  by **??**.

### HOU is undecidable,

- HOU need not have most general unifiers
- The HOU transformation induce an algorithm that enumerates a complete set of higher-order unifiers.
- ► *HOU*: ff gives enormous degree of indeterminism
- ► HOU is intractable in practice consider restricted fragments where it is!
- ▶ HO Matching (decidable up to order four), HO Patterns (unitary, linear), ...



# 13.2.4 Pre-Unification

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- ► HOU: ff has a giant branching factor in the search space for unifiers. (makes HOU impracticable)
- In most situations, we are more interested in solvability of unification problems than in the unifiers themselves.
- More liberal treatment of flex/flex pairs.
- ► Observation 2.32. flex/flex-pairs (F U<sup>n</sup>)=?(G V<sup>m</sup>) are always (trivially) solvable by [\(\lambda X<sup>n</sup>.H/F\)], [\(\lambda Y<sup>m</sup>.H/G\)], where H is a new variable
- Idea: consider flex/flex-pairs as pre solved.
- ▶ **Definition 2.33 (Pre-Unification).** For given terms  $A, B \in wff_{\alpha}(\Sigma_{\mathcal{T}}, \mathcal{V}_{\mathcal{T}})$  find a substitution  $\sigma$ , such that  $\sigma(A) =_{\beta\eta}^{p} \sigma(B)$ , where  $=_{\beta\eta}^{p}$  is the equality theory that is induced by  $=_{\beta\eta}$  and  $F \overline{U} = G \overline{V}$ .
- Lemma 2.34. A higher-order unification problem is unifiable, iff it is pre-unifiable.



# Pre-Unification Algorithm $\mathcal{HOPU}$

- Definition 2.35. A unification problem is a pre solved form, iff all of its pairs are solved or flex/flex
- ▶ Lemma 2.36. If  $\mathcal{E}$  is solved and  $\mathcal{P}$  flex/flex, then  $\sigma_{\sigma}$  is a most general unifier of a pre-solved form  $\mathcal{E} \land \mathcal{P}$ .
- ▶ Restrict all *HOU* rule so that they cannot be applied to pre-solved pairs.
- In particular, remove HOU:ff!
- Definition 2.37. The higher-order pre-unification calculus HOPU only consists of SIM and HOU: fr.
- ▶ Theorem 2.38. HOPU is a correct and complete pre-unification algorithm
- Proof sketch: with exactly the same methods as higher-order unification
- Theorem 2.39. Higher-order pre-unification is infinitary, i.e. a unification problem can have infinitely many unifiers. (Huet 76' [Hue76])
- **Example 2.40.**  $Y(\lambda X_{\iota}.X) = a^{?}a$ , where *a* is a constant of type  $\iota$  and *Y* a variable of type  $(\iota \to \iota) \to \iota \to \iota$  has the most general unifiers  $\lambda sz.s^n z$  and  $\lambda sz.s^n a$ , which are mutually incomparable and thus most general.



# 13.2.5 Applications of Higher-Order Unification

266



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# Application of HOL in NL Semantics: Ellipsis

#### **Example 2.41.** John loves his wife. George does too

- loves(john, wifeof(john))  $\land Q(george)$
- "George has property some Q, which we still have to determine"
- ▶ Idea: If John has property Q, then it is that he loves his wife.
- Equation:  $Q(\text{john}) =_{\alpha\beta\eta} \text{loves}(\text{john}, \text{wifeof}(\text{john}))$
- Solutions (computed by HOU):
  - $Q = \lambda z.\text{loves}(z, \text{wifeof}(z)) \text{ and } Q = \lambda z.\text{loves}(z, \text{wifeof}(\text{john}))$
  - \*  $Q = \lambda z$ .loves(john, wifeof(z)) and  $Q = \lambda z$ .loves(john, wifeof(john))
- ▶ Readings: George loves his own wife. and George loves John's wife.
- Erraneous HOU Predictions: \* John loves George's wife. and \* John loves John's wife.

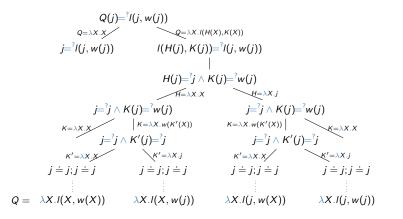
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### Linguistic Applications of Higher-Order Unification 13.3

267



George does too (HOU)





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268

#### Problem: HOU over-generates

- Idea: [Dalrymple, Shieber, Pereira] Given a labeling of occurrences as either primary or secondary, the POR excludes of the set of linguistically valid solutions, any solution which contains a primary occurrence.
- A primary occurrence is an occurrence that is directly associated with a source parallel element.
- a source parallel element is an element of the source (i.e. antecedent) clause which has a parallel counterpart in the target (i.e. elliptic) clause.
- Example 3.1.
  - ▶ loves(john, wifeof(john)) = Q(george)
  - $Q = \lambda \overline{x.loves}(x, wifeof(john))$
  - $Q = \lambda x.loves(john, wifeof(john))$
- Use the colored  $\lambda$ -calculus for general theory



- Developed for inductive theorem proving (Rippling with Metavariable)
- Definition 3.2. Symbol occurrences can be annotated with colors (variables α, β, γ, ... and constants a, b,...)
- **b** Bound variables are uncolored ( $\beta\eta$  conversion just as usual)
- **Definition 3.3.** Well-colored substitutions  $\sigma$ 
  - Map colored variables  $X_X$  to colored formulae.
  - If a and b are different colors, then |σ(X<sub>X</sub>)| = |σ(X<sub>X</sub>)|: equal color erasures.

#### (Consistency)

# All color annotations on $\sigma(X_X)$ have to be compatible with those for c. (Monochromacity)

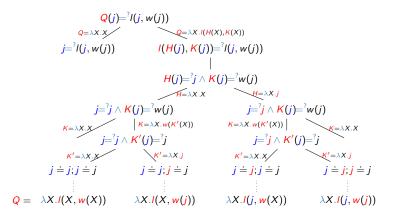


HOCU has only two differences wrt. general HOU

$$\frac{f_{f}(t^{1},\ldots,t^{n})={}^{?}f_{f}(s^{1},\ldots,s^{n})}{a={}^{?}b\wedge t^{1}={}^{?}s^{1}\wedge t^{n}={}^{?}s^{n}} \qquad \frac{X_{X}={}^{?}A\wedge \mathcal{E}}{X={}^{?}A\wedge [A/X](\mathcal{E})}$$

- Decomposition must consider colors
- Elimination ensures Monochromicity and Consistency
  - $X = {}^{?}A := X_X = {}^{?}A_A \land X_X = {}^{?}A_A$
  - ▶  $[A/X] := [A_A/X_X], ..., [A_A/X_X]$  propagates color information

George does too (HOCU)





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#### The Original Motivation: First-Order Rippling

**Example 3.4.** Proving:  $\forall x, y : list.rev(app(rev(x), y)) = app(rev(y), x)$  $\operatorname{rev}(\operatorname{app}(\operatorname{rev}(\operatorname{cons}(h, x)), y)) = \operatorname{app}(\operatorname{rev}(y), \operatorname{cons}(h, x))$ rev(app(app(rev(x), cons(h, nil)), y)) = app(rev(y), cons(h, x)) $\operatorname{app}_{\alpha}(X_X, \operatorname{cons}(Y, Z_Z)) = \operatorname{app}_{\alpha}(F_1(X_X, Y, Z), Z_Z)$  $\operatorname{rev}(\operatorname{app}(\operatorname{app}(\operatorname{rev}(x), \operatorname{cons}(h, \operatorname{nil})), y)) = \operatorname{app}(F_1(\operatorname{rev}(y), h, x), x)$  $\operatorname{app}(\operatorname{rev}_{\alpha}(Y_{Y}), \operatorname{cons}(X, \operatorname{nil})) = \operatorname{rev}_{\alpha}(\operatorname{cons}(X, Y_{Y}))$  $\operatorname{rev}(\operatorname{app}(\operatorname{rev}(x), \operatorname{cons}(h, \operatorname{nil})), y)) = \operatorname{app}(\operatorname{rev}(\operatorname{cons}(h, y)), x)$  $\operatorname{rev}(\operatorname{app}(\operatorname{rev}(x), \operatorname{cons}(h, y))) = \operatorname{app}(\operatorname{rev}(\operatorname{cons}(h, y)), x)$ 



#### The Higher-Order Case: Schematic Rippling

Example 3.5 (Synthesizing Induction Orderings).  $\forall x.\exists y.f(g(y)) \leq x$ 

Induction Step:  $\forall x. \exists y. f(g(y)) \le x$  to  $\exists y. f(g(y)) \le F(x)$ 

$$\begin{array}{rcl} f(g(y)) &\leq & F(x) \\ f(s(g(y'))) &\leq & F(x) \\ s(s(f(g(y')))) &\leq & F(x) \\ s(s(f(g(y')))) &\leq & s(s(x)) & F \leftarrow \lambda X.s(s(X)) \\ f(g(y')) &\leq & x \end{array}$$

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#### **Example 3.6 (A Unification Problem).**

$$F(\operatorname{rev}(\mathbf{y}), \mathbf{h}, \mathbf{x}) = {}^{2} r e v_{\alpha}(\mathbf{Y}_{\beta}) \operatorname{cons}(\mathbf{X}, \operatorname{nil}) \\ \downarrow [\lambda U V W.\operatorname{app}(H(U, V, W), K(U, V, W))/F] \\ H(\operatorname{rev}(u), \mathbf{h}, v) = {}^{2} \operatorname{rev}_{\alpha}(\mathbf{Y}_{\mathbf{Y}}) \land K(\operatorname{rev}(u), \mathbf{h}, v) = {}^{2} \operatorname{cons}(\mathbf{X}, \operatorname{nil}) \\ \downarrow [\lambda U V W.\operatorname{cons}(M(U, V, W), N(U, V, W))/K], \\ [\lambda U V W. U, H] \\ \operatorname{rev}(u) = {}^{2} \operatorname{rev}_{\alpha}(\mathbf{Y}_{\mathbf{Y}}) \land \operatorname{cons}(M(\operatorname{rev}(u), \mathbf{h}, v), N(\operatorname{rev}(u), \mathbf{h}, v)) = {}^{2} \operatorname{cons}(\mathbf{X}, \operatorname{nil}) \\ \downarrow \\ \alpha = {}^{2} \bullet \land u = {}^{2} \mathbf{Y}_{\mathbf{Y}} \land \mathbf{X} = {}^{2} M(\operatorname{rev}(u), \mathbf{h}, v) \land N(\operatorname{rev}(u), \mathbf{h}, v) = {}^{2} \operatorname{nil} \\ \downarrow \\ h = {}^{2} h \land \operatorname{nil} = {}^{2} \operatorname{nil}]$$

 $\mathsf{Result:} \ [\lambda UVW.app(U, \operatorname{cons}(V, \operatorname{nil}))/\textit{\textit{F}}], [\textit{\textit{u}}/\textit{\textit{Y}}_{\textit{Y}}], [\textit{\textit{h}}/\textit{\textit{X}}], [\textit{\textit{n}}/\alpha]$ 



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### Linguistic Application: Focus/Ground Structures

- **Example 3.7.** John only likes MARY.
- ▶ Analysis: likes(john, mary)  $\land$  ( $\forall x.G(x)$ )  $\Rightarrow x = mary$ .
- Equation: likes(john, mary)  $=_{\alpha\beta\eta} G(mary)$ .
  - Variable G for (back)ground (Focus is prosodically marked)
- **Solution:**  $G = \lambda z.$ likes(john, z)
- ▶ Semantics: likes(john, mary)  $\land$  ( $\forall x$ .likes(john, x)  $\Rightarrow$  x = mary).
- Linguistic Coverage: Prosodically unmarked focus, sentences with multiple focus operators [Gardent & Kohlhase'96]



- HOCU has a *formal*, well–understood foundation which permits a clear assessment of its mathematical and computational properties;
- It is a general theory of colors:
- Other Constraints
  - POR for focus
  - Second Occurrence Expressions
  - Weak Crossover Constraints
- Multiple constraints and their interaction are easily handled
  - Use feature constraints as colors



#### **Example 3.8.** John likes MARY and Peter does too

- Ellipsis:  $I(j_j, s_s) = R_R(j_j)$
- Focus:  $R_R(p) = G_G(F_F)$
- ► ¬pe forbids only pe ¬pf forbids only pf

#### Derivation:

- Solution  $R_R = \lambda x.I(x, s_s)$  to the Ellipsis equation
- ▶ yields Focus equation  $I(p, s_s) = G_G(F_F)$
- **Solution:**  $G_G = \lambda x.l(p_p, x) F_F = m_m$



#### Featuring even more colors for Interaction

- ▶ John<sub>1</sub>'s mum loves him<sub>1</sub>. Peter's mum does too.
- Two readings:
  - Peter's mum loves Peter (sloppy)
  - Peter's mum loves John (strict)
- Parallelism equations

$$C(j) = l(m(j), j)$$
  
$$C(p) = R(m(p))$$

Two solution for the first equation:

 $C = \lambda Z.I(m(Z), j) \text{ (strict)} \text{ and } C = \lambda Z.I(m(Z), Z) \text{ (sloppy)}$ Two versions of the second equation

$$l(m(p), j) = R(m(p))$$
  
$$l(m(p), p) = R(m(p))$$

•  $R = \lambda Z.I(Z, j)$  solves the first equation (strict reading)

- the second equation is unsolvable  $R = \lambda Z.I(Z, p)$  is not well-colored.
- Idea: Need additional constraint: VPE may not contain (any part of) it's subject
- Need more dimensions of colors to model the interaction
- Idea: Extend supply of colors to feature terms.

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#### John<sub>1</sub>'s mum loves him<sub>1</sub>. Peter's mum does too.

Parallelism Constraints

$$C_C(j_j) = l(m_m(j_j), j)$$
  
$$C_C(p_p) = R_R(m_m(p_p))$$

▶ Resolving the first equation yields two possible values for  $C_C$ :

$$\lambda z.I(m_m(z), j)$$
 and  $\lambda z.I(m_m(z), z)$ 

Two versions of the second equation

$$I(m_m(p_p), j) = R_R(m_m(p_p)) I(m_m(p_p), p_p) = R_R(m_m(p_p))$$

• Two solutions for the ellipsis (for  $R_R$ )

$\{R_R \leftarrow \lambda z.l(z,j)\}$	Strict Reading
$\{R_R \leftarrow \lambda z.l(z,p_p)\}$	Sloppy Reading

Need dynamic constraints/

- resulting from the unification of several independent constraints
- ▶ VPE subject is [e +], while part of is a parallel element ([p +]).
- Various linguistic modules interact in creating complex constraints



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### Computation of Parallelism (The General Case)

- We need inferences to discover discourse relations
- General Conditions [Hobbs 1990]

Relation	Requirements	Particle
Parallel	$a_i \sim b_i, \ p \simeq q$	and
Contrast	$a_i \sim b_i$ , $p \supset \neg q$ or $\neg p \supset q$ $a_i$ , $b_i$ contrastive	but

Source semantics  $p(\vec{a})$ , Target semantics  $q(\vec{b})$ 

► 
$$a \sim b$$
, iff  $\forall p.p(a) \Rightarrow (\exists q \simeq p.q(b))$   $p \simeq q$ , iff  $\forall a.p(a) \Rightarrow (\exists b \sim a.q(b))$ 

- Need theorem proving methods for general case.
- Idea: use only special properties

(Sorts from the Taxonomy)



281

#### Sorted Higher-Order Unification 13.4

281



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- higher-order automated theorem provers are relatively weak
- transfer first-order theorem proving technology to higher-order
- sorts are a particularly efficient refinement
  - separation of sorts and types
  - functional base sorts
  - term declarations as very general mechanism for declaring sort information



 $\blacktriangleright$  Example: Signature  $\Sigma$  with

$$\begin{array}{l} [+:(\mathbb{N}\to\mathbb{N}\to\mathbb{N})]\\ [+:(\mathbb{E}\to\mathbb{E}\to\mathbb{E})]\\ [+:(\mathbb{O}\to\mathbb{O}\to\mathbb{E})]\\ [(\lambda X.+XX):(\mathbb{N}\to\mathbb{E})]\end{array}$$

general bindings

FAU

$$\mathsf{G}^+_{\mathbb{E}}() = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} +Z_{\mathbb{E}} W_{\mathbb{E}}, \\ +Z_{\mathbb{O}} W_{\mathbb{O}}, \\ +Z_{\mathbb{N}} Z_{\mathbb{N}} \end{array} \right\}$$



2025-02-06

#### Sorts

- ▶  $\mathbb{R}^+$ ,  $\mathbb{R}$  of type  $\iota$ : (non-negative) real numbers
- M, P of type  $\iota \to \iota$ : monomials, polynomials
- M, P of type  $\iota \to \iota$ : differentiable and continuous functions

Signature 
$$\Sigma \begin{bmatrix} [+:(\mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R})], [*:(\mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R})], [(\lambda X. * XX):(\mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}^+)], \\ [\mathbb{R}^+ \square \mathbb{R}], [\mathbb{M} \square \mathbb{P}], [\mathbb{P} \square \mathbb{M}], [\mathbb{M} \square \mathbb{P}] \\ [(\lambda X. X):\mathbb{M}], [(\lambda XY. Y):(\mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{M})], \\ [(\lambda FGX. * (FX)(GX)):(\mathbb{M} \to \mathbb{M} \to \mathbb{M})], \\ [(\lambda FGX. + (FX)(GX)):(\mathbb{M} \to \mathbb{M} \to \mathbb{P})], \\ [\partial:(\mathbb{M} \to \mathbb{P})], [\partial:(\mathbb{P} \to \mathbb{P})], [\partial:(\mathbb{M} \to \mathbb{M})]. \end{bmatrix}$$



## Example (continued)

- Question: Are there non-negative, differentiable functions?
- ► Unification Problem:  $G_{(\mathbb{R}\to\mathbb{R}^+)}={}^{?}F_{\mathbb{M}}$ 
  - guess  $G_{(\mathbb{R}\to\mathbb{R}^+)}$  to be  $(\lambda X.*(H^1_{(\mathbb{R}\to\mathbb{R})}X)(H^1X))$ :

$$F_{\mathbb{M}} = \stackrel{?}{(} \lambda X. * (H^{1}_{(\mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R})}X)(H^{1}X))$$

• imitate with  $F_{\mathbb{M}}$  as  $\lambda X \cdot * (H_{\mathbb{M}}^2 X)(H_{\mathbb{M}}^3 X)$ :

$$\textit{H}^{1}_{(\mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R})}\textit{Z}^{0} = {}^{?}\textit{H}^{2}_{\mathbb{M}}\textit{Z}^{0} \land \textit{H}^{1}_{(\mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R})}\textit{Z}^{0} = {}^{?}\textit{H}^{3}_{\mathbb{M}}\textit{Z}^{0}$$

▶ weaken  $H^1_{(\mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R})}$  to  $H^4_{\mathbb{M}}$ 

$$H^4_{\mathbb{M}}Z^0 = {}^?H^2_{\mathbb{M}}Z^0 \wedge H^4_{\mathbb{M}}Z^0 = {}^?H^3_{\mathbb{M}}Z^0$$

• solvable with with  $H^4 = H^3 = H^2$ 

• Answer:  $F = G = \lambda X_{\mathbb{R}} \cdot * (H^4_{\mathbb{M}}X)(H^4_{\mathbb{M}}X))$ 

(even degree monomial)



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- Mix Parallelism with HOCU
- Example (Gapping): John likes Golf and Mary too.
- ▶ Representation loves(john, golf) ∧ R(mary)
- ► Equation loves(john<sub>john</sub>, golf<sub>golf</sub>)= ${}^{s} \mathcal{R}^{\neg pe}_{(Woman \to o)}(mary_{mary})$ 
  - ▶ *R* for the missing semantics (of Sort  $Woman \rightarrow o$  and not primary for ellipsis)
- Number Restriction Constraint
  - ▶ Jon and golf might be parallel to Mary, but at most one of them can.
  - color variable A: if Jon is pe then golf isn't, and vice versa
  - Generalizes DSP's Primary Occurrence Restriction (POR)



- ▶ Initial Equation:  $loves(john_{john}, golf_{golf}) = {}^{?}R_{(Woman \rightarrow a)}^{\neg pe}(mary_{mary})$ 
  - ▶ imitate  $R_{(Woman \to o)}^{\neg pe}$  with  $\lambda Z.loves(H_H Z, K_K Z)$ ▶ H, K new variables of sort  $Woman \to Human$
- $\triangleright$  loves(john<sub>john</sub>, golf<sub>golf</sub>)=<sup>?</sup>loves( $H_H(mary_{mary}), K_K mary_{mary})$
- $\blacktriangleright$  H<sub>H</sub>mary<sub>mary</sub>=<sup>?</sup>john<sub>iohn</sub>  $\land$  K<sub>K</sub>mary<sub>mary</sub>=<sup>?</sup>golf<sub>golf</sub>
- Two possible continuations:
- ▶ project  $H = \lambda Z.Z$  (so  $A=^{?}pe$ ) ▶ project  $K = \lambda Z.Z$  (so  $\neg A=^{?}pe$ )
- $\blacktriangleright$  imitate  $K = \lambda Z.golf_{golf}$

► then | mary<sub>mary</sub>=<sup>?</sup>john<sub>john</sub> golf<sub>golf</sub>=<sup>?</sup>golf<sub>golf</sub>

Mary likes Golf (preferred)

 $\blacktriangleright$  imitate  $H = \lambda Z.$  john<sub>john</sub>

John likes Mary

Fau

#### Chapter 14 Conclusion

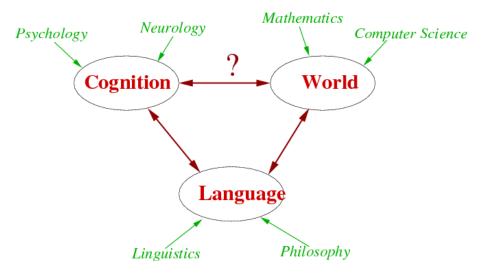


### 14.1 A Recap in Diagrams

287



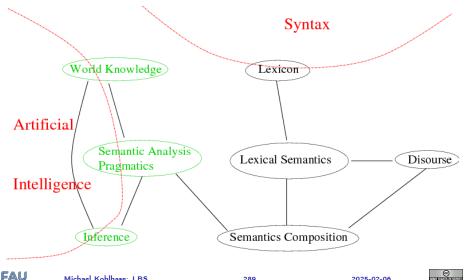
#### NL Semantics as an Intersective Discipline



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#### A landscape of formal semantics

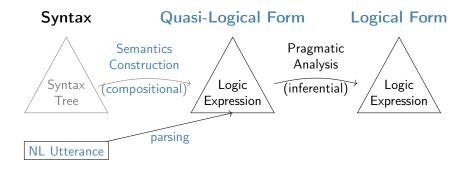


### Modeling Natural Language Semantics

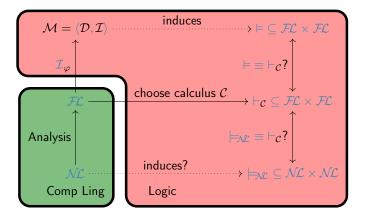
**Problem:** Find formal (logic) system for the meaning of natural language.

- History of ideas
  - Propositional logic [ancient Greeks like Aristotle]
    - \* Every human is mortal
  - ► First-Order Predicate logic [Frege ≤ 1900]
    - \* I believe, that my audience already knows this.
  - Modal logic [Lewis18, Kripke65]
    - \* A man sleeps. He snores.  $((\exists X.man(X) \land sleeps(X))) \land snores(X)$
  - Various dynamic approaches (e.g. DRT, DPL)
    - \* Most men wear black
  - Higher-order Logic, e.g. generalized quantifiers

▶ ...









### 14.2 Where to From Here



- We can continue the exploration of semantics in two different ways:
  - Look around for additional logical/formal systems and see how they can be applied to various linguistic problems. (the logician's approach)
  - Look around for additional linguistic forms and wonder about their truth conditions, their logical forms, and how to represent them. (the linguist's approach)
- Here are some possibilities...



- 1. The dogs were barking.
- 2. *Fido and Chester were barking.* (What kind of an object do the subject NPs denote?)
- 3. Fido and Chester were barking. They were hungry.
- 4. Jane and George came to see me. She was upset. (Sometimes we need to look inside a plural!)
- 5. Jane and George have two children. (Each? Or together?)
- 6. Jane and George got married. (To each other? Or to other people?)
- 7. Jane and George met. (The predicate makes a difference to how we interpret the plural)

Eau

- What's required to make these true?
  - 1. The men all shook hands with one another.
  - 2. The boys are all sitting next to one another on the fence.

295

3. The students all learn from each other.



- What are presuppositions?
- What expressions give rise to presuppositions?
- Are all apparent presuppositions really the same thing?
  - 1. The window in that office is open.
  - 2. The window in that office isn't open.
  - 3. George knows that Jane is in town.
  - 4. George doesn't know that Jane is in town.
  - 5. It was / wasn't George who upset Jane.
  - 6. Jane stopped / didn't stop laughing.
  - 7. George is / isn't late.



- 1. George doesn't know that Jane is in town.
- 2. Either Jane isn't in town or George doesn't know that she is.
- 3. If Jane is in town, then George doesn't know that she is.
- 4. Henry believes that George knows that Jane is in town.



- What are the truth conditions of conditionals?
  - 1. If Jane goes to the game, George will go.
    - Intuitively, not made true by falsity of the antecedent or truth of consequent independent of antecedent.
  - 2. If John is late, he must have missed the bus.
- Generally agreed that conditionals are modal in nature. Note presence of modal in consequent of each conditional above.



- And what about these??
  - 1. If kangaroos didn't have tails, they'd topple over. (David Lewis)
  - 2. If Woodward and Bernstein hadn't got on the Watergate trail, Nixon might never have been caught.
  - 3. If Woodward and Bernstein hadn't got on the Watergate trail, Nixon would have been caught by someone else.
- Counterfactuals undoubtedly modal, as their evaluation depends on which alternative world you put yourself in.



- These seem easy. But modality creeps in again...
  - 1. Jane gave up linguistics after she finished her dissertation.
  - 2. Jane gave up linguistics before she finished her dissertation. she start?)

(Did she finish?) (Did she finish? Did



300

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