

# A Basic Logic for Textual Inference \*

D. Bobrow, C. Condoravdi, R. Crouch, R. Kaplan, L. Karttunen, T. King, V. de Paiva, A. Zaenen

Palo Alto Research Center  
3333 Coyote Hill Road  
Palo Alto 94304

## Abstract

This note describes a logical system based on concepts and contexts, the system TIL for textual inference logic. The system TIL is the beginnings of a logic that is a kind of “contexted” description logic, designed to support local linguistic inferences. This logic pays attention to the intensionality of linguistic constructs and to the need for tractability of inference in knowledge representation formalisms.

## Introduction

This note describes the basics of a logical system based on concepts and contexts. The aim of this system is to serve as a representation language for meanings of natural language sentences in the implemented system that we are developing as part of the Aquaint framework. Some higher level discussion of our system and the rationale behind it can be found in (Crouch 2005; Condoravdi *et al.* 2003; Crouch *et al.* 2002). As explained in (Crouch 2005), our system maps English sentences to the  $f$ -structures of Lexical Functional Grammar (Kaplan & Bresnan 1982) and these to logical formulae, using the “Glue language” approach for the construction of the meanings of the sentences (Dalrymple 2003). The output of glue semantics is then flattened to produce sets of clauses of the logic we discuss in this paper.

In this note we simply describe the logical system as it can be distilled from the implemented system’s output. This logic is based on the idea of using events in a neo-Davidsonian style. We will not discuss how pre-theoretical notions of event (especially in natural language semantics) relate to the events here, which are just formal strings of symbols describing predications.

We start by describing the language of the proposed logic, called TIL for textual inference logic. The system TIL is a simplified logic of concepts and contexts, that is, a kind of “contexted” description logic (Baader *et al.* 2003), one that does not make use of instances or individuals. Our contexts are similar to McCarthy’s contexts (McCarthy 1993) in that our contexts are intended to be representations of first-order

propositional entities that can also be given as arguments to predicates. We give ourselves a collection of contexts, which we write as  $top, c_1, c_2, \dots$ , the whole collection is written as Context. We also have a collection of *concepts*, for which, to avoid difficulties with names, we use variables  $t_1, t_2, \dots$ , thinking of types. The whole collection we write as Concept.

Our concepts are of two different kinds: primitive and constructed. Primitive concepts are given a priori, based on the hierarchy underlying the CYC knowledge base (Lenat 1995). These concepts we write using a typescript font, like MovementTranslationEvent or City. Constructed concepts are built from the primitive ones via a series of operations which we describe in the next section. They also sit in the same hierarchy, whose most underspecified concept is called Thing. These constructed concepts, which we write in italics, are dynamically created by the implemented system in the process of interpreting the input text. So they come with names with arbitrary numbers that correspond to skolem constants. For example, for a sentence like *Ed arrived in the city*, we will create an arrival event concept, written as *arriveEv1*, a concept for the person Ed, written as *Ed2*, and a concept for city, *city3* related in the predictable manner specified in the next section.

We have several relations between concepts, between contexts, and between concepts and contexts. First, we discuss relations between concepts, then relations between concepts and contexts, and finally relations between contexts. Then we discuss some of the inferences that our logic supports.

## Relations Between Concepts

We start by describing the basic relations between concepts in Concept. We have two main kinds of relations, first the *subconcept* relation between two concepts and second, the notion of a *role* between two concepts.

## Subconcepts

Our concepts are organized into a hierarchy and the subconcept relation just expresses this given order. We write this as *subconcept*( $t_1, t_2$ ), instead of the traditional description logics  $t_1 \sqsubseteq t_2$ . For example, if we consider a specific class of arrival events which we write as *arriveEv1*, then we place it in the hierarchy by declaring that *arriveEv1* is

---

\*This work was partially supported by the Advanced Research and Development Activity (ARDA)’s Advanced Question Answering for Intelligence (AQUAINT) Program.  
Copyright © 2005, American Association for Artificial Intelligence (www.aaai.org). All rights reserved.

a subconcept of ArrivingAtAPlace,

```
subconcept(arriveEv1, ArrivingAtAPlace)
```

The notion of subconcept serves to locate the new concepts of our logical system with respect to the concepts given by the CYC hierarchy, but the relation is general and constructed concepts like *arriveEv1* and *arriveEv100* can be related as well. We assume that concepts inherit from one or more concepts and that there are no circularities or inconsistencies in the given hierarchy.

## Roles

We also take as given a collection of relations between concepts that we think of as *roles*, relating concepts. For example, if we consider the previous concept of an arrival event *arriveEv1* and the concept of a person called Ed, which we write as a concept *Ed2*, then an example of a role relation between these two concepts is that the concept *Ed2* might play the role of *objectMoving* for the arrival event *arriveEv1*. This we will write as

```
objectMoving(arriveEv1, Ed2)
subconcept(Ed2, Person)
subconcept(arriveEv1, ArrivingAtAPlace)
```

Note that the roles are always binary relations and are written in a prefix notation, i.e.  $role(t_1, t_2)$  and are generally (but not always) *actor slots* in CYC. In general we write these relations between concepts as  $role_1, role_2, \dots$  and the whole collection is written as *Role*.

## Syntax so far

The logical system we are describing looks like a description logic. We have concepts *Concept* with their own partial order *subconcept* and roles *Role*, which are binary relations on *Concept*. We write *clauses* that either relate concepts via *subconcept* relations or relate roles to pairs of concepts, like *objectMoving(arriveEv1, Ed2)*. Note that these roles are obtained in the mapping from language to logical forms from the grammatical relations that relate verbs to their arguments.

We operate on these collections of *subconcept* and *role* clauses by adding some more of the same. Adding to the example above, we could say that the same arrival event *arriveEv1* was connected via a *toLocation* role to the concept of a city, say *city3*, which we would write as

```
objectMoving(arriveEv1, Ed2)
toLocation(arriveEv1, city3)
subconcept(arriveEv1, ArrivingAtAPlace)
subconcept(Ed2, Person)
subconcept(city3, City)
```

This intuitively says that there was an arrival event, whose object moving is Ed and whose location of arrival is a particular city. It is thus a logical representation of the sentence *Ed arrived in the city*, disregarding tense, for example.

More generally, given concepts  $t_1, t_2, \dots$ , together with clauses such as *subconcept*( $t_1, t_2$ ), *subconcept*( $t_3, t_4$ ) and  $role_1(t_1, t_2)$ ,  $role_2(t_1, t_3)$ , we can add new concepts  $t_7, t_8 \dots$  new roles  $role_3, \dots$  and new *subconcept* relations.

## Contexts and Concepts

Our simple logic has contexts *Context*, as well as concepts. Contexts in our logic support making statements about whether there are entities that satisfy the intensional descriptions specified by our concepts.

There is a first initial context (written as *top*) that corresponds roughly to what we take the world to be like. More precisely, in an interpretation of a sentence, the top context corresponds to what the author of the sentence is committed to, about the world she is describing. Since this circumlocution is awkward, we will usually talk about this top level context as the “true” context.

Apart from the true context, what other contexts are there in our logic? We first discuss the class of propositional attitude contexts.

## Propositional Attitudes

In our approach *propositional attitudes* relate contexts and concepts corresponding to the holder of the attitude and the type of the attitude. Thus concepts like ‘knowing’ or ‘believing’ or ‘saying’ introduce contexts that represent the proposition that is known, believed or said.

For example, if we want to represent the sentence *Ed believes that the diplomat arrived*, we will need concepts for the arrival event, for the believing event, for the diplomat and for Ed. Assuming all of these to be subconcepts of reasonable concepts, we end up with roles that describe how they relate. Thus there might be a role *believer* of the believing event and this should relate the believing event to the concept associated with Ed, *believer(believeEv1, Ed2)*. There is a role *whatsBelieved* which relates the concept *believeEv1* to (the contents of) a context  $c_1$ , giving us *whatsBelieved(believeEv1, c1)*. Also the content of what is believed in the believing event is the proposition that *The diplomat arrived*.

We represent the concepts (intensional descriptions) used in this sentence as:

```
believer(believeEv1, Ed2)
whatsBelieved(believeEv1, c1)
subconcept(Ed2, Person)
subconcept(believeEv1, CognitionEvent)
objectMoving(arriveEv3, diplomat4)
subconcept(diplomat4, Diplomat)
subconcept(arriveEv3, ArrivingAtAPlace)
```

In this set of clauses, the first four lines represent the believing event, and the last three ones represent the arrival event.

One motivation for introducing contexts in our logic is to be able to localize reasoning. While the existence of the believing concept and of Ed are supposed to be true in the real world, the existence of the arrival of the diplomat is only supposed to be true in those worlds compatible with what Ed believes. Thus we introduce two new classes of clauses, *instantiable* and *contextRelation* clauses. Intuitively the *instantiable* predicate takes a context and a concept and specifies that the concept is instantiable in that context. The *contextRelation* clauses indicate the relationship between two contexts induced by the meaning of the lexical item: *contextRelation(believe, top, c1)* says that

there is a relation induced by the believing concept between the contexts  $top$  and  $c_1$ , where  $c_1$  is the context of what is believed by Ed.

The following clauses augment the representation above as follows:

```

top : contextRelation(believe, top, c1)
      instantiable(believeEv1)
      instantiable(Ed2)
c1  : instantiable(diplomat4)
      instantiable(arriveEv3)

```

This representation is not faithful to our intuitions, as the existence of the diplomat is not restricted to the context  $c_1$ . It is the arrival of the diplomat that needs to exist only in the world of the things believed by Ed. Thus we push the clause *instantiable(diplomat4)* to the  $top$  context, but we keep the instantiability of the arrival event *arriveEv3* restricted to the context  $c_1$ .

```

top : contextRelation(believe, top, c1)
      instantiable(Ed2)
      instantiable(believeEv1)
      instantiable(diplomat4)
c1  : instantiable(arriveEv3)

```

We present one further example of a propositional attitude context that is perhaps less familiar to logicians. Consider the sentence *Ed said that the diplomat arrived*. This also sets up a context containing the contents of the information transferred by Ed, hence we get the new concepts:

```

senderOfInfo(sayEv1, Ed2)
informationTransferred(sayEv1, c1)
subconcept(Ed2, Person)
subconcept(sayEv1, InformCommunicationAct)

```

and the statements about instantiability

```

top : contextRelation(infTransfer, top, c1)
      instantiable(Ed2)
      instantiable(sayEv1)
      instantiable(diplomat4)
c1  : instantiable(arriveEv3)

```

As before the claim about the existence of the diplomat is not restricted to the context  $c_1$ . The  $top$  context tells us that Ed said that the diplomat arrived; things Ed says may well be false, even if Ed is a very reliable source. So while it is perfectly fine to say that the arrival of the diplomat is instantiable in the context,  $c_1$  of the things said by Ed, we certainly do not want to push the instantiability clause up to the  $top$  context.

The examples lead us to a new kind of relation between contexts. We say that the context  $c_1$  introduced by the believing concept, like the one introduced by the saying event, is *averidical* with respect to the initial context  $top$ . In the next sections we consider also *veridicality* and *antiveridicality* between contexts.

## Negation Contexts

Consider the sentence *The diplomat did not arrive*. One way of representing the information conveyed by this sentence is to consider all the worlds where the particular diplomat we talked about did arrive (at the appropriate place) and then ‘subtract’<sup>1</sup> the collection of worlds where this event takes place from the collection of all possible worlds. In this case we have the same concepts of diplomat and of an arriving event that we had before, but we have two contexts, the  $top$  (or true) one where there was no arrival by the diplomat and the negated context, where the arrival of the diplomat did happen.

For the sentence *The diplomat did not arrive*, we know that the concept *arriveEv1* is instantiable in the negated context, but not in the  $top$  or true one. We end up with a representation like the one below, where we place the clauses defining concepts and roles before the instantiability clauses, which are context-sensitive.

```

objectMoving(arriveEv1, diplomat2)
subconcept(diplomat2, Diplomat)
subconcept(arriveEv1, ArrivingAtAPlace)
top : contextRelation(not, top, c1)
      antiveridical(c1, top)
      instantiable(diplomat2)
c1  : instantiable(arriveEv1)

```

As with the saying event, we expect that the concept *diplomat2* can be instantiable in the true context, but the arrival event should not. Moreover, in this case, since the negated context is *antiveridical*, instead of simply saying that the *arriveEv1* is instantiable in the negated context, we want to say that it is *not* instantiable in the  $top$  context. Thus we simplify the instantiability clauses above to

```

top : contextRelation(not, top, c1)
      antiveridical(c1, top)
      instantiable(diplomat2)
      uninstaniabile(arriveEv1)

```

Having introduced relations between two contexts, we have expanded the expressive power of our language of representations considerably. So far, we have a fairly general (nestable) mechanism that can represent some positive and some negative information, mostly in a ‘conjunctive’ form. In the next section we discuss possible ways of representing disjunctive and implicative information.

## Other Logical Relations Between Contexts

To deal with disjunctive information like “Either the diplomat arrived or the car broke” we introduce a version of the `contextRelation` predicate relating the original context to two sub-contexts that are the ‘arms’ of the disjunction – in the example below, *orA* and *orB*, are arms of the disjunction introduced in the context  $top$ .

<sup>1</sup>This view of negation is constructively appealing, as it transforms negation into some sort of implication into *falsum* ( $\perp$ ). We think of implication in possible worlds as assuming the antecedent, checking where the worlds that satisfy the antecedent can take us and verifying that the consequent is satisfied there.

```

objectMoving(arriveEv1, diplomat4)
objectActedOn(breakEv2, car6)
subconcept(arriveEv1, ArrivingAtAPlace)
subconcept(diplomat4, Diplomat)
subconcept(breakEv2, BreakingEvent)
subconcept(car6, Automobile)
top : contextRelation(or, top, [orA3, orB4])
      instantiable(diplomat4)
      instantiable(car6)
orA3 : instantiable(arriveEv1)
orA4 : instantiable(breakEv2)

```

We can have a disjunction of events sharing one argument. For example, if we have “*The diplomat watched television or slept*”, our representation will construct a new event, here `group-ev1`, of which the events of watching television and sleeping are sub-events. The representation will be:

```

evmember(ev4, groupEv1)
evmember(ev7, groupEv1)
performedBy(ev4, diplomat6)
perceivedThings(ev4, television5)
bodilyDoer(ev7, diplomat6)
subconcept(ev4, WatchingSomething)
subconcept(diplomat6, Diplomat)
subconcept(ev7, Sleeping)
top : contextRelation(or, top, [orA2, orB3])
      instantiable(diplomat6)
      instantiable(television5)
orA2 : instantiable(ev7)
orB3 : instantiable(ev4)

```

In this case the disjunctive event `groupEv1` has two subevents `ev4` and `ev7`, respectively the watching and the sleeping events, but these happen in *separate* contexts, `orA2` and `orB3`, respectively.

Similarly, conditionals, treated currently as logical implications, introduce new contexts, one antecedent context and one consequent context, which have to be connected to the relevant whole context. In the example “If the reporter arrived the diplomat will leave” we have

```

objectMoving(arriveEv2, reporter5)
objectMoving(leaveEv1, diplomat6)
subconcept(arriveEv2, ArrivingAtAPlace)
subconcept(leaveEv1, LeavingAPlace)
subconcept(reporter5, Journalist)
subconcept(diplomat6, Diplomat)
top : contextRelation(if, top, [ante4, consq3])
      preconditionForEvents(arriveEv2, leaveEv1)
      instantiable(diplomat6)
      instantiable(reporter5)
ante4 : instantiable(arriveEv2)
consq3 : instantiable(leaveEv1)

```

## Inferences

Our aim in this section is to show the kinds of inferences that this simple logic of concepts and contexts already allows.

The reason for introducing events (here treated as concepts) in Davidsonian semantics was the fact that it makes

it very easy to make inferences that can be complicated in other semantic traditions. For example, it is easily seen that “*Ed arrived in the city*” is entailed by “*Ed arrived in the city by bus*”. This is clearly so in our logic, where this inference corresponds simply to clause (conjunction) dropping.

The sentence “*Ed arrived in the city by bus*” corresponds to the set of clauses

```

top : objectMoving(arriveEv1, Ed4)
      toLocation(arriveEv1, city3)
      vehicle(arriveEv1, bus2)
      subconcept(arriveEv1, ArrivingAtAPlace)
      subconcept(Ed4, Person)
      subconcept(city3, City)
      subconcept(bus2, BusRoadVehicle)

```

From these clauses we can infer

```

top : objectMoving(arriveEv1, Ed4)
      toLocation(arriveEv1, city3)
      subconcept(arriveEv1, ArrivingAtAPlace)
      subconcept(Ed4, Person)
      subconcept(city3, City)

```

which corresponds to “*Ed arrived in the city*” omitting the two clauses:

```

top : vehicle(arriveEv1, bus2)
      subconcept(bus2, BusRoadVehicle)

```

Note that a limited amount of ‘going up and down the taxonomy’ can also be accounted for in this framework, at least in principle. So “*Ed arrived in the city*” does entail that “*A person arrived in the city*”, since `Ed4` is a subconcept of `Person`. Finally since “arriving” is a kind of movement event, “*Ed arrived in the city*” can be ‘generalized’ to “*Ed went to the city*”, assuming that *went* maps to a super concept of `ArrivingAtAPlace`.

The clauses we construct satisfy the usual monotonicity patterns, both in positive and in negative form. Thus “*Ed arrived in the city by bus*” entails that “*Ed arrived in the city*”. But “*Ed did not arrive in the city*” entails that “*Ed did not arrive in the city by bus*”, while “*Ed did not arrive in the city by bus*” does not entail that “*Ed did not arrive in the city*”.

## Inferences and Contexts

The main reason for introducing contexts in our logic is to create boundaries corresponding loosely to the idea that contexts create certain opaque boxes that purely extensional reasoning should respect. Thus the top context corresponds to what the author of the sentence takes the described world to be like and when confronted with intensional notions like ‘knowledge’ or ‘belief’ or ‘desire’, we create one of these boxes and segregate what is known, believed or wanted into that box. The idea of segregating the contents of a propositional attitude predicate into its own context corresponds to the semantic notion that propositional attitudes introduce alternative worlds into the discourse.

We want to keep the restrictions on what we know about these boundaries as underspecified as possible, minimizing the number of conditions (or axioms) on these boxes. We

therefore assume that these boxing operators satisfy simply the usual K axiom (Chellas 1980), which can be read as saying that this notion of context distributes over conjunction (or if one prefers, as saying that this very weak notion of context respects modus ponens).

While it seems important to keep our system as general and underspecified as possible, it would be better for reasoning with our representations if we had more information about different kinds of contexts.

As a simple example of the kind of inferences that the interaction between contexts brings about, consider the sentence *Ed knows that the diplomat arrived*. As before we will need concepts for the arrival event, for the knowing event, for the diplomat and for Ed. Assuming all of these concepts and roles, as before, we represent this sentence as:

```

    knower(knowEv1, Ed2)
    whatsKnown(knowEv1, c1)
    subconcept(Ed2, Person)
    subconcept(knowEv1, CognitionEvent)
    objectMoving(arriveEv3, diplomat4)
    subconcept(diplomat4, Diplomat)
    subconcept(arriveEv3, ArrivingAtAPlace)
top : contextRelation(know, top, c1)
      instantiable(knowEv1)
      instantiable(Ed2)
      instantiable(diplomat4)
c1 : instantiable(arriveEv3)

```

In principle the arrival of the diplomat is only supposed to be true in those worlds compatible with what Ed knows. However, on the common understanding of *know*, we can make the further assumption that everything true in a *know* context is also true in the containing context. This notion of veridicality of the contained context,  $c_1$  with respect to its container  $top$  is represented by  $veridical(c_1, top)$ . This veridicality assumption allows us to move  $instantiable(arriveEv3)$  to the top context.

More formally, if  $contextRelation(know, c_1, c_2)$  holds then we may want to say that all instantiability statements in  $c_2$  can be moved up to context  $c_1$ . We plan to build on the distinctions between contexts introduced by “know”, “say” and other classes with different implicational import. The kind of reasoning mechanism at play here seems to be of the following form. If  $c$  is a veridical context with respect to the context  $top$  and if  $t$  is a concept instantiable in  $c$  then  $t$  is instantiable in the more general context  $top$  too, or:

$$\frac{c : instantiable(t) \quad veridical(c, top)}{top : instantiable(t)}$$

More generally:

$$\frac{c_i : instantiable(t) \quad veridical(c_i, c_j)}{c_j : instantiable(t)}$$

In our discussion of negation we used:

$$\frac{c_i : instantiable(t) \quad antiveridical(c_i, c_j)}{c_j : uninstantiable(t)}$$

More work is required to check whether all inferences we want can be accounted for using such simple mechanisms.

## Further Work

This short note only starts the discussion of the kinds of inferences that we expect to be able to make using a simple logic of concepts and contexts. Amongst the issues we have not discussed are the following: how to deal with temporal modifiers and temporal interpretation in general; how to deal with presupposition and conventional implicatures in general; what to say about cardinality and plurality as well as about adjectival and adverbial modification. We intend to discuss these as the project unfolds.

## References

- Baader, F.; Calvanese, D.; McGuinness, D.; Nardi, D.; and Patel-Schneider, P. 2003. *The Description Logic Handbook*. Cambridge University Press.
- Chellas, B. F. 1980. *Modal Logic: an Introduction*. Cambridge University Press.
- Condoravdi, C.; Crouch, D.; Stolle, R.; de Paiva, V.; and Bobrow, D. 2003. Entailment, intensionality and text understanding. In *Proceedings of the Human Language Technology Conference, Workshop on Text Meaning, Edmonton, Canada*.
- Crouch, D.; Condoravdi, C.; Stolle, R.; King, T.; de Paiva, V.; O.Everett, J.; and Bobrow, D. 2002. Scalability of redundancy detection in focused document collections. In *Proceedings of the First International Workshop on Scalable Natural Language Understanding (ScaNaLU-2002), Heidelberg, Germany*.
- Crouch, R. 2005. Packed rewriting for mapping semantics to kr. In *Proceedings of the Sixth International Workshop on Computational Semantics, Tilburg, The Netherlands*.
- Dalrymple, M. 2003. *Lexical Functional Grammar*. Syntax and Semantics, vol. 34. Academic Press.
- Kaplan, R., and Bresnan, J. 1982. Lexical-functional grammar: A formal system for grammatical representation. In Bresnan, J., ed., *The Mental Representation of Grammatical Relations*. Reprinted in Dalrymple et al. (editors), *Formal Issues in Lexical-Functional Grammar*. CSLI, 1995.
- Lenat, D. 1995. Cyc: A large-scale investment in knowledge infrastructure. *Communications of the ACM*, 38(11):33–38.
- McCarthy, J. 1993. Notes on formalizing context. In *Proc. of the 13th Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence (IJCAI-93)*.