

# On the Interplay Between Subjective Plausibility and Default Reasoning in the Context of Interpreting Natural Language Utterances

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# Overview

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Graded Belief and Typicality
- 3 Interpretation and Typicality

# Interpretation and Background Beliefs

## A Small Dialog

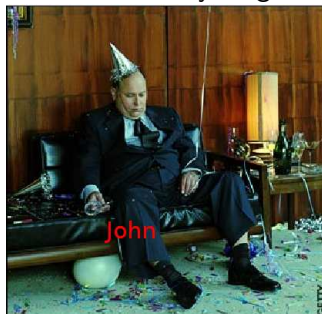
- (1) Peter: Where is John?
- (2) Lisa: He's over there. He's ready.
- (3) Peter: Okay, let's go.

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John is ready to go.



# Interpretation and Background Beliefs

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- (1) Peter: Where is John?
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John is ready to shoot.



# Interpretation and Background Beliefs

## A Small Dialog

- (1) Peter: Where is John?
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John is ready to jump.



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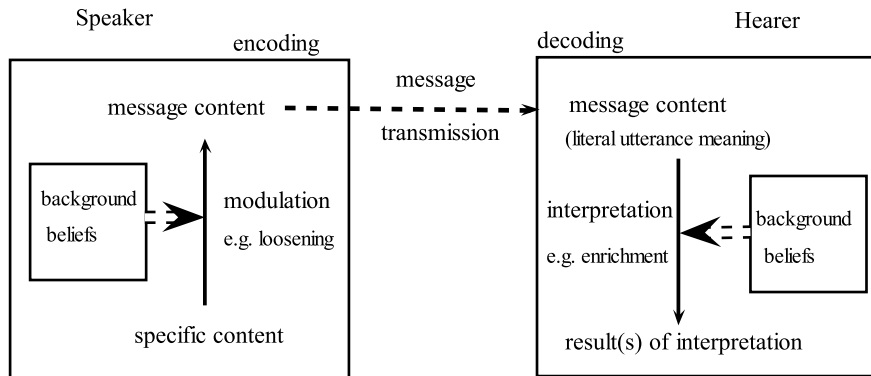
## A Small Dialog

- (1) Peter: Where is John?
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- (3) Peter: Okay, let's go.

A well-known phenomenon:

The same dialog may be meant and interpreted in radically different ways.

# General Model





# The Central Ingredients of a Theory of Interpretation

A theory of interpretation requires at least the following ingredients:

- 1 A sufficiently rich and adequate representation of the literal meaning of utterances.
- 2 A representation of the individual beliefs and assumptions of the discourse participants.
- 3 A sufficiently rich and adequate representation of general background beliefs ('world knowledge') of discourse participants.
- 4 A mechanism that on the basis of these factors provides a model of how discourse participants arrive at an interpretation, where factors like the utterance context and the question under discussion are taken into account.

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# More Specific Ingredients

Done:

- Implement qualitative graded belief and corresponding assumptions.
- Provide a model of enrichment by abductive inference on the basis of this graded belief.

In progress:

- Transfer the above account to quantitative graded belief (probability theory, Dempster-Shafer, etc.)
- Make the representation of background beliefs realistic and sufficiently rich:
  - situations
  - default reasoning / typicality

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# Graded Belief

**What is graded belief?** One understanding of graded belief is that the degree to which you believe something is reciprocal to your willingness to give up your belief in face of counter-evidence.

Other accounts explain the degree of belief by the amount of money one is willing to bet that the believed proposition is true.

- 1 Qualitative graded belief: based on a preference relation over possible worlds or situations, various ways to lift comparison from points to sets; set-based approaches also possible
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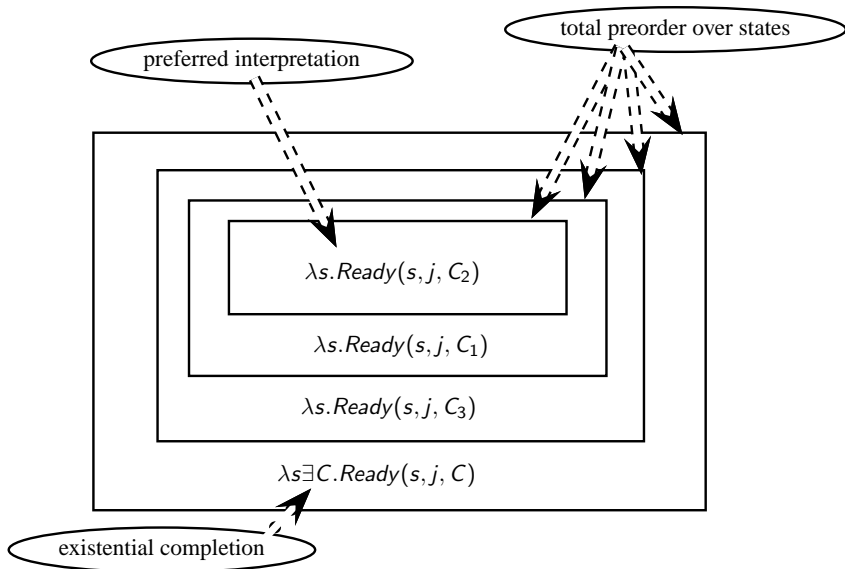
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# Qualitative Account



# Default Reasoning / Typicality

There are many similar or closely related theories such as defeasible reasoning, non-monotonic reasoning, or prototype theory. For the purpose of modeling background beliefs we need two things:

- a way to express rules that specify what is typically the case
- a way to draw inferences from an agent's beliefs and these rules

## Example

(4) Typically birds can fly.

(5) Typically penguins cannot fly.

(6) Tweety is a penguin.

↪ Tweety cannot fly (unless he is an atypical penguin).



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- Question: What is the connection between typicality and graded belief?
- Answer: What is typically the case is what is (thought to be) the case with high probability.
- Using probability theory for graded belief, a high probability directly corresponds to a high degree of belief.

(5) Typically penguins cannot fly.

$$Pr(\neg\text{fly} \mid \text{penguin}) = 1 - \epsilon,$$

where  $\epsilon$  is very small, close to 0.

Rhetorical question: Is there a problem with this point of view?

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# A Popular Counter-Argument

## Typicality $\neq$ High Frequency

### Counter-Scenario

*Suppose that most birds are killed by a pandemic of avian flu with the exception of penguins which are immune to the disease. Now consider: (4) Typically birds can fly.*

- Some AI researchers, particularly Pollock, have the 'intuition' that a statement like (4) would still be true in that scenario.
- The intuition could be explained further by pointing out that the state of the bird-population as a whole is atypical in the scenario. In the described scenario most typical birds have died.

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- Scenarios in which the frequency of typical individuals is low cannot be used to argue against using probability theory for representing typicality in general.
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- You could still opt to use to represent typicality by a probability measure.
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skydiving context

typically (in plane & wearing parachute  $\rightarrow$  jump)

$\rightsquigarrow$  jump

squad context

typically (in squad & being armed  $\rightarrow$  shoot)

$\rightsquigarrow$  shoot

party context

typically (at party & late & party over  $\rightarrow$  go home)

$\rightsquigarrow$  go home

most plausible

# Interpretation and Typicality: Overview

- Input: assumptions, background belief, literal meaning of utterance, default rules
- Output: the preferred interpretation
- Processing:

① Conditionalize the assumptions by the literal meaning to the effect that afterwards the literal meaning is believed to a certain degree  $\sigma > 1/2$ .



② Find the most plausible situation.



③ Draw inferences based on the typicality with regards to this situation.

The  $\epsilon$ -based frequency approach to typicality would mix up steps ② and ③.

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# Towards a Quantitative Model

## Plans for a quantitative approach:

- 1 define a *probability measure* over a set of situations  $D_s$  for modeling assumptions
- 2 express default rules by constraints expressed in terms of a distinct *possibility measure*
- 3 *Jeffrey-condition* the hearer's assumptions by the literal meaning of the utterance to the effect that the literal meaning is afterwards believed to degree  $f(\text{hearer}, \text{speaker})$ .
- 4 from the result abduce the state that is most likely to obtain
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One problem with this approach is that the 'abduction' step is very limited. A more elaborate method is needed. Fortunately, there is plenty of literature on probabilistic abduction.

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# The End



# Appendix

# System P

- LLE** left logical equivalence: If  $\phi \equiv \phi'$  is a propositional tautology, then from  $\phi \rightsquigarrow \psi$  infer  $\phi' \rightsquigarrow \psi$
- RW** right weakening: If  $\psi \rightarrow \psi'$  is a propositional tautology, then from  $\phi \rightsquigarrow \psi$  infer  $\phi \rightsquigarrow \psi'$
- REF** reflexivity:  $\phi \rightsquigarrow \phi$
- AND** right conjunction: From  $\phi \rightsquigarrow \psi_1$  and  $\phi \rightsquigarrow \psi_2$  infer  $\phi \rightsquigarrow (\psi_1 \wedge \psi_2)$
- OR** left disjunction: From  $\phi_1 \rightsquigarrow \psi$  and  $\phi_2 \rightsquigarrow \psi$  infer  $(\phi_1 \vee \phi_2) \rightsquigarrow \psi$
- CM** cautious monotonicity: From  $\phi \rightsquigarrow \psi_1$  and  $\phi \rightsquigarrow \psi_2$  infer  $(\phi \wedge \psi_2) \rightsquigarrow \psi_1$

Lit. S. Kraus, D. Lehmann and M. Magidor. Nonmonotonic reasoning, preferential models and cumulative logics. Artificial Intelligence 44 (1990): 167–207. This formulation was taken directly from slides by Jäger (see also Halpern (2003))

# A Formal Argument Against the Probabilistic Approach

$$M \models A \rightsquigarrow B \quad (1)$$

$$\text{iff.} \quad Pr(B \mid A) = 1 - \epsilon \quad (2)$$

- satisfies LLE, RW, and REF
- does not satisfy AND, OR, and CM

# Strict Conditioning

$$Bel(X \mid P) = \frac{Bel(X \wedge P)}{Bel(P)} \quad (3)$$

- If we revise  $Bel$  to a new  $Bel'$  by conditioning on  $P$ , then  $Bel'(P) = 1$ .

# Jeffrey-Conditioning

For new degree of belief  $\alpha$  of  $P$ :

$$Bel'(X) = \alpha \frac{Bel(X \wedge P)}{Bel(P)} + (1 - \alpha) \frac{Bel(X \wedge \neg P)}{Bel(\neg P)} \quad (4)$$

$$= \alpha Bel(X \mid P) + (1 - \alpha) Bel(X \mid \neg P) \quad (5)$$

- Jeffrey conditioning is not commutative with respect to the order of its inputs.

Lit. Jeffrey, R.: *The Logic of Decision*. New York: McGraw-Hill 1965.

# Jeffrey-Conditioning: Example

$$\begin{array}{rcccl}
 \text{Bel}(.) : & q & \neg q & & \\
 p & 0.4 & 0.2 & 0.6 & \\
 \neg p & 0.3 & 0.1 & 0.4 & \\
 & 0.7 & 0.3 & 1 & 
 \end{array}$$

Conditioning to  $\text{Bel}'(P) = 0.8$  results in:

$$\begin{array}{rcccl}
 \text{Bel}'(.) : & q & \neg q & & \\
 p & 0.5\bar{3} & 0.2\bar{6} & 0.8 & \\
 \neg p & 0.15 & 0.05 & 0.2 & \\
 & 0.68\bar{3} & 0.31\bar{6} & 1 & 
 \end{array}$$

# Field (1978) Conditioning

$$Bel'(X) = \frac{e^{\alpha} Bel(X \wedge P) + e^{-\alpha} Bel(X \wedge \neg P)}{e^{\alpha} Bel(P) + e^{-\alpha} Bel(\neg P)} \quad (6)$$

Lit. Field, H.: A Note on Jeffrey Conditionalization. *Philosophy of Science* 45, 361–367.



# Probability Theory

For pairwise disjoint  $X_i, X_j \subseteq W (1 \leq i, j \leq n)$ :

$$Bel(X) \geq 0 \quad (7)$$

$$Bel(W) = 1 \quad (8)$$

$$Bel\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n X_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n Bel(X_i) \quad (9)$$

# Possibility Measures

A possibility distribution is a function  $\Pi : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , where  $\mathcal{A}$  is a set of subsets of the total space  $W$ , including  $W$ , and closed under complementation and finite intersections, s.t. for every  $A, B \in \mathcal{A}$ :

$$\Pi(\emptyset) = 0 \quad (10)$$

$$\Pi(W) = 1 \quad (11)$$

$$\Pi(A \cup B) = \max(\Pi(A), \Pi(B)) \quad (12)$$

- In infinite domains, *max* must be replaced with the supremum function.

Reference Huber (2009, 14). Lit. Huber, F.: Belief and Degrees of Belief. In *Degrees of Belief*, Springer 2009, 1–33. Zadeh, L. A.: Fuzzy Sets as a Basis for a Theory of Possibility. *Fuzzy Sets and Systems 1*, 3–28.

# Possibility Measures and Default Reasoning

$$M \models A \rightsquigarrow B \quad (13)$$

$$\text{iff.} \quad \Pi(A \wedge B) > \Pi(A \wedge \neg B) \quad (14)$$

- satisfies all of system P: LLE, RW, REF, AND, OR, CM
- ‘auto-deduction principle’

Benferhat, S., Dubois, D., and Prade, H.: Nonmonotonic Reasoning, Conditional Objects and Possibility Theory, *Artificial Intelligence Journal* 92, 259–276.