

CONTEXTS, ORACLES, AND RELEVANCE

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Contexts, Oracles, and Relevance

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Abstract

We focus on how we should define the relevance of information to a context for information processing agents, such as oracles. We build our formalization of relevance upon works in pragmatics which refer to contextual information without giving any explicit representation of context. We use a formalization of context (due to us) in Situation Theory, and demonstrate its power in this task. We also discuss some computational aspects of this formalization.

1 Introduction

The idea of an oracle comes from the ancient Greece. In the mythical literature, this word had two uses: (i) the place where questions about the future were asked of the gods, and (ii) the priest (or priestess) who gave answers to such questions. In our conception, viz. Computational Situation Theory [38, 39], oracles should correspond to information servers for the objects they represent, and one should be able to pose queries concerning an object to its oracle¹. For example, in the ultimate interpretation, the oracle related to one of the organizers of an international colloquium, e.g., *Oracle*(Korta), should be able to answer the question “Where did Korta go last Friday?” as “Korta went to Donostia” if it can access that information by some means and as “I don’t know” if it has no useful information in this regard.

We are not the first researchers grappling with the idea of having an oracle. One of the earliest uses of oracles goes back to Turing machines. In the analysis of (arguably) the toughest problem in computer science, namely “Is $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{NP}$?”, oracles were heavily used. Interestingly, it turns out that relative to some oracle it can be shown that $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{NP}$, while relative to some other oracle $\mathcal{P} \neq \mathcal{NP}$ [3]. In our conception, this has two implications: (i) a conclusion obtained using hypothetical oracles is not necessarily unique, and (ii) using oracles we may find answers to very difficult problems under the assumptions embedded in the oracle. We must probably note that the issue of oracle appears not only in the theory of computation but also in practical fields of computer science such as computer networks, client-server systems, etc.

The plan of this paper is as follows. In the next section we will review the emergence of oracles in Situation Theory, a contribution due to Devlin [12, 13]. We will then summarize the concept of relevance (in Pragmatics) in the light of Grice [19, 20], and Sperber and Wilson [33, 34]. Next, we will try to interpret these works in the light of Situation Theory

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¹The reader is warned that our notion of oracle is *not* precisely in the spirit of Devlin [13] in which oracles are defined as situations containing all of the relevant information to the object. Our approach considers oracles as information collecting agents.

and within our formalization of context [36, 37]. Also in this section a critique of the approach of Devlin will be given. The paper will be concluded with a tentative list of observations.

2 Situation Theory Background

Situation Theory is a principled program to develop a unified mathematical theory of meaning and information content, and to apply that theory to specific areas of language, computation, and cognition.

One of the most notable motivations of the theory is to provide a mathematical theory of meaning. Barwise and Perry [6] claim that for an expression to have meaning, it should convey information. They develop a theory of situations and of meaning as a relation between situations. The theory provides a system of abstract objects that make it possible to describe the meaning of both expressions and mental states in terms of the information they carry about the external world.

Two major concepts of Situation Theory are infons and situations. Infons are the basic informational units. They should be considered as discrete items of information. Infons are denoted as $\ll P, a_1, \dots, a_n, i \gg$ where P is an n -place relation, a_1, \dots, a_n are objects appropriate for the respective argument places of P , and i is the polarity (0 or 1). Situations are first-class citizens of the theory, and are defined intensionally. A situation is considered to be a structured part of the reality that an agent (somehow) manages to pick out.

Since (real) situations are partially definable objects, abstract situations are proposed to be their counterparts which are more amenable to mathematical manipulation. An abstract situation is defined as a (possibly non-well-founded) set of infons. Given a real situation s , the set $\{\alpha \mid s \models \alpha\}$ is the corresponding abstract situation. Note that s *supports* α (denoted as $s \models \alpha$) means that α is an infon that is true of s .

One important paradigm behind Situation Theory is a *schema of individuation*, a way of carving the world into uniformities. The notions of individual, relation, spatial and temporal location, and further entities depend upon this schema of individuation. Thus, constituents of Situation Theory such as infons, constraints, and situations are determined by the agent's schema of individuation.

Object types are determined over some initial situation. Let s be a given situation. If \dot{x} is a parameter and I is a set of infons (involving \dot{x}), then there is a type $[\dot{x} \mid s \models I]$. This is the type of all objects to which \dot{x} may be anchored in s , for which the conditions imposed by I obtain. We refer to this process of obtaining a type from a parameter \dot{x} , a situation s , and a set I of infons, as *type-abstraction*. Here, \dot{x} is known as the *abstraction parameter* and s as the *grounding situation*. An infon which contains a parameter, such as \dot{x} , is called a *parametric infon*.

Related to parametric infons, there is a formal construct by which we can assign "values" to parameters, i.e., an *anchor*. Formally, an anchor for a set, A , of basic parameters is a function defined on A , which assigns to each parameter T_i in A an object of type T . For example, in

$$\ll \text{goes}, \dot{a}, \text{Boston}, \dot{t}, \dot{l}, 1 \gg,$$

if f anchors \dot{a} to the individual "Sullivan," we write

$$f(\dot{a}) = \text{Sullivan}$$

to denote this anchoring.

The task of anchoring may be considered to be the theory’s correspondent to humans’ mental processing effort, and is, accordingly, one of the most important components of the theory. In Situation Theory, the flow of information is realized via *constraints*, and anchoring plays the major role in the working of constraints. We represent a constraint as

$$\ll \textit{involves}, S_0, S_1, 1 \gg$$

where S_0 and S_1 are situation-types between which the information is carried out. Cognitively, if this relation holds then it is a fact that if S_0 is realized (i.e., there is a real situation $s_0 : S_0$), then so is S_1 (i.e., there is a real situation $s_1 : S_1$). For example, with the following constraint c , we might represent the regularity “Smoke means fire”:

$$\begin{aligned} S_0 &= [\dot{s}|\dot{s} \models \ll \textit{smoke-present}, \dot{l}, \dot{t}, 1 \gg] \\ S_1 &= [\dot{s}|\dot{s} \models \ll \textit{fire-present}, \dot{l}, \dot{t}, 1 \gg] \\ c &= \ll \textit{involves}, S_0, S_1, B, 1 \gg \end{aligned}$$

Here, in order to invoke the constraint, we have to use an anchoring which binds the parameters \dot{l} and \dot{t} to appropriate objects present in the grounding situation, i.e., we have to find a place and time at which there is smoke, and by binding that place and time to \dot{l} and \dot{t} respectively we get a realization of the constraint.

If R is an n -place relation and a_1, \dots, a_m ($m \leq n$) are objects appropriate for the argument places i_1, \dots, i_m of R , and if the filling of argument places i_1, \dots, i_m is sufficient to satisfy the minimality conditions for R , then for $i \in \{0, 1\}$, the object

$$\ll R, a_1, \dots, a_m, i \gg$$

is a well-defined *infon*. Here, minimality conditions are (for a particular relation) the collection of conditions that determine which particular groups of argument roles need to be filled in order to produce an infon. If $m < n$, the infon is said to be *unsaturated*; if $m = n$ it is *saturated*.

More information on Situation Theory can be found in Barwise and Perry [6], Barwise [4], Barwise and Etchemendy [5], and Devlin [12, 14, 15] (the most up-to-date version of the theory).

3 Oracles as Situations

In this paper, we shall mainly deal with the philosophy behind the nature of information and the ways of gathering *relevant* information, rather than the purely mathematical and technical issues. Thus, one of the best places to find a good reference on the nature of information is Situation Theory. Furthermore, we have a definition of oracle in Situation Theory: Devlin [12, pp. 79–85] defines oracles as situations.

In his definition of oracle, Devlin uses the notion a *set of issues* to mean a collection of parametric infons which provides us with an information-theoretic framework for discussing the world or some part of it. By anchoring the parameters of an infon in this set, we obtain an item of information. Clearly, using different sets of issues, we can talk (and obtain information) about different aspects of the world. For example, if we are talking about Korta in the context of a colloquium, we may include stuff like his being the organizer of the colloquium, things happened to him around the time of the colloquium, or the personal

characteristics of Korta in order to help one recognize him when he gives his talk, and so on. However, what happened to Korta when he is 5 years old is, probably, not included in the set of issues in this context (unless his talk is about his experiences in his early youth!).

In the definition, Γ is used to denote a particular set of issues and Γ -*infor* to denote any infor that results from anchoring the parameters in an infor in Γ . Then, following is the basic definition of an oracle from Devlin [12, p. 79].

Definition 1: Oracle $_{\Gamma}(a)$. *Given an individual (animate or inanimate) or a situation a , the Γ -oracle of a , Oracle $_{\Gamma}(a)$, is the situation comprising that part of the world and the entire ‘body of knowledge’ that, within the framework provided by Γ , concerns a .*

Alternatively, Oracle $_{\Gamma}(a)$ is the ‘minimal’ situation, s , such that $s \models \sigma$ for any factual, parameter-free Γ -infor, σ , that ‘genuinely’ involves a .

For example, Oracle $_{\Gamma}(\text{Korta})$ contains all the information related to Korta; i.e.,

« organizer, Korta, ICCS–95, 1 »

« goes, Korta, Donostia, \dot{i} , \dot{t} , 1 »

« male, Korta, 1 »

... ..

Γ is, in some sense, a template of information which determines what portion of Oracle(Korta) will be considered. For example, Oracle(Korta) contains an enormous amount of information about the medical state of Korta, but if Γ does not discuss these issues, Oracle $_{\Gamma}(\text{Korta})$ should not include such medical information.

In general, the above definition is quite adequate for a philosophical discussion of oracle. However, it has some terms and phrases to be clarified. Devlin elucidates some of them but leaves some vague such as *genuinely involves*, *minimal situation*, and *entire body of knowledge*. In addition to these terms, the definition of *set of issues* does not seem appropriate in some cases. When we describe our account of oracle (together with the relevance concept), we will offer somewhat more explicit definitions for these terms.

4 Relevance Theory

One of the vaguest concepts in Devlin’s definition is the *relevance* of information. In fact, the issue of relevance is a hot topic in various fields of computer science, including mathematical logic [2]. For example, in Information Retrieval (IR), the measurement of the relevance is a major line of research. There are various syntactical approaches to measure the relevance of a term to a document. Until recent years, the only respectable methods were the statistical methods, which deal with the frequency of the occurrences of the term. However, in recent years psychological, epistemic, and semantical considerations began to appear [23, 30, 24].

In this paper, we will base our arguments on Sperber and Wilson [34], in which relevance is mainly considered to be the psychological relevance of a proposition to a context. Their assumption is that people have intuitions of relevance, i.e., they can consistently distinguish relevant from irrelevant information. However, these intuitions are not very easy to elicit or use as evidence, since the ordinary language notion of relevance comes along with a fuzzy (variable) meaning. Moreover, intuitions of relevance are relative to contexts, and there is no way of controlling exactly which context someone will have in mind at a given moment. Despite these difficulties, Sperber and Wilson intend to invoke intuitions of relevance. According to them, a proposition is relevant to a context if it interacts in a certain way

with its existing assumptions about the world, i.e., if it has some contextual effects in some context that is accessible. These contextual effects include: (i) *Contextual implication*: A new assumption can be used together with the existing rules in the context to generate new assumptions; (ii) *Strengthening an existing axiom*: A new assumption can strengthen some of the existing assumptions of the context; and (iii) *Contradicting or eliminating an existing assumption*: A new assumption may change or eliminate some of the existing assumptions of the context.

Here, context is a psychological construct which represents an individual's assumptions about the world at any given time and place, and is supposed to include

1. *Logical information*: The logical inference rules valid in the context that allow us to reason. According to Sperber and Wilson, these rules are deductive. In our view, these rules should also support non-monotonicity.
2. *Encyclopedic information*: Information about the objects, properties, and events that are instantiated in the context [22]. This information in general will help an individual form the left-hand side of the inference rules of that context.
3. *Lexical information*: The lexical rules that allow us to interpret the natural language utterances and sentences.

Sperber and Wilson talk about “degrees of relevance.” Clearly, one piece of information may be more relevant to a particular context than another. In the comparison of the relevance of pieces of information they consider the mental processing effort, i.e., the length of the chain of reasoning and the amount of encyclopedic information involved, and so on. (In the description of our account of relevance, we will give an explicit measure for the processing effort.) In their discussion, the resulting definition of relevance is the following [34, p. 125].

Definition 2: Relevance Maxim.

1. *An assumption is relevant in a context to the extent that its contextual effects in this context are large.*
2. *An assumption is irrelevant to a context to the extent that the effort required to process it in this context is large.*

The measurement of contextual effects and processing effort is a difficult task due to the problems of qualification of mental effects and effort. Sperber and Wilson say [34, p. 130]:

The problems involved in measuring contextual effects and processing effort are, of course, by no means specific to relevance theory or to pragmatics. They affect psychology as a whole. However, for relevance theory these problems take on a more specific form. Within relevance theory, the problem is not so much to assess contextual effects and processing effort from the outside, but to describe how the mind assesses its own achievements and efforts from the inside, and decides as a result to pursue its efforts or relocate them in different directions.

In our treatment of relevance, we will try to take advantage of the specific form of the measurement problem, though the measurement task is still fuzzy.

In the theory of communication developed depending upon the relevance maxim, context is assumed to be a dynamic mechanism which can be changed during the communication in order to maximize the relevance of the utterance. In this respect, context is left partially-defined in the approaches of Grice, and Sperber and Wilson.

In order to proceed on the computational side, first we need a clarification of the notion of context (the explicit representation of its contributors) so that we can make some computation (e.g., the computation of relevance) over them. Second, the notion of relevance of Sperber and Wilson should be extended to work together with the partial information in a context, since the assumption of explicitly knowing everything in the context is quite far from the reality.

In the following section we will try to incorporate the ideas of Sperber and Wilson into a situation-theoretic account and particularize the above issues.

5 Situations and Relevance

In our situation-theoretic account of oracle, we first define what an oracle is, and clarify the critical terms in this definition.

Definition 3: Oracle $_{\Gamma}(a)$. Oracle $_{\Gamma}(a)$ is the collection of information from the set of available (i.e., existing reachable) situations which is relevant to an object a in the context Γ .

This definition can be used with a two phase procedure in an application. We first search over the existing situations (i.e., the situations available in our database) for the occurrence of a . This is done by searching over the infons making up the situations, and whenever an a containing infon, say σ , found in a situation, say S , we measure the relevance of σ to Γ (using the relevance criteria we discuss in the remainder of this section which is mainly based on Sperber and Wilson’s relevance to a context), and then if σ is found to be relevant to Γ , include $\langle S, \sigma \rangle$ in the oracle. Figure 1 depicts the view of an oracle as an agent B operates as described above.

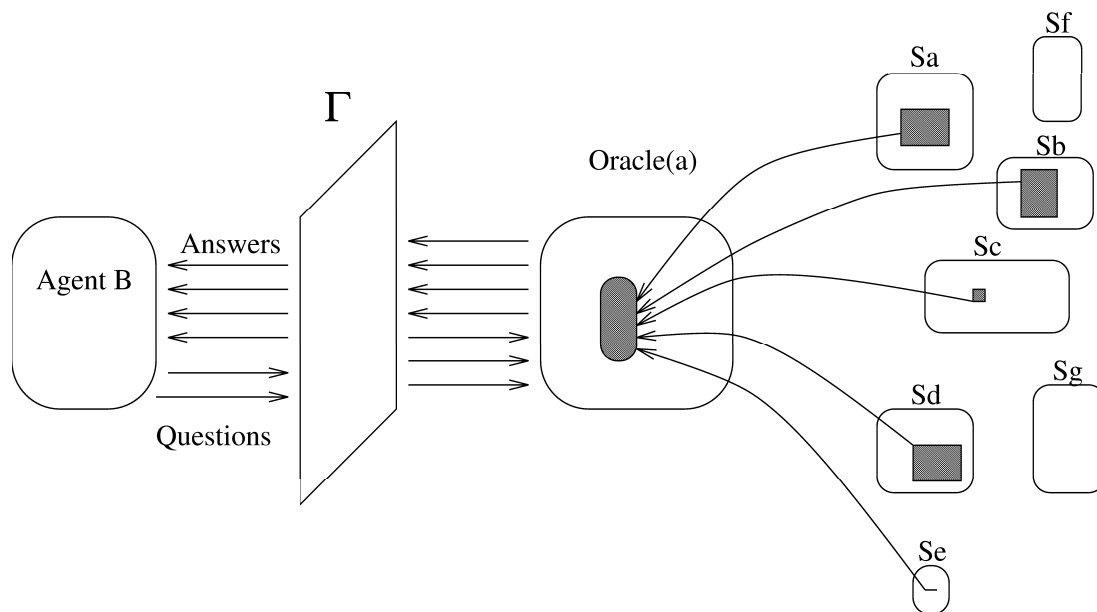


Figure 1: Using oracle(a) with context Γ .

One of the most important things in the above definition is context. The notion of context was first introduced to AI in a logicist framework by McCarthy in his 1971 Turing Award talk. (This talk was later published as [26].) After that introduction, research on the topic was quite silent until the late eighties. McCarthy published his recent ideas on context

in [27, 28]. Other notable works on formalizing context² are due to Akman and Tin [1], Guha [21, 22], Shoham [32], Giunchiglia [18, 17, 7, 16], S. Buvač [8, 10, 11, 9, 28], and Reddy and Gupta [31]. We are planning to use the context due to our recent research [36, 37] which allows us to have logical and encyclopedic information represented in a situation type with parametric and parameter-free infons. One extension to this representation of context is the inclusion of the notions of saturated and unsaturated infons by which we can measure relevance in a more naturalistic manner [36, 37].

Definition 4: Context. *A context Γ is a situation type which contains*

1. Constraints: *These are the constructs of Situation Theory which correspond to logical rules (i.e., if-then rules) valid in the context.*
2. Saturated and unsaturated infons: *These are the infons which correspond to the encyclopedic knowledge in Sperber and Wilson’s conception of context. Saturated infons represent complete information whereas unsaturated infons represent partial knowledge.*

In the current state of this research, we are not including lexical rules in the context since natural language processing and understanding with computers is still a difficult (but promising) area of research. The inclusion of the lexical rules might be waived in the cost of having a natural language-to-situation theory converter, since we consider Situation Theory powerful enough to work with information. Note that a full-fledged conversion from natural language to Situation Theory is, at the current state of the art, impossible. Still, using some shallow parsing methods we can do an incomplete conversion from natural language to Situation Theory. Since the measurement of relevance is still, in some sense, an intuitive task, we can afford the loss of lexical rules at the cost of a (hopefully) small potential error in the estimation of relevance.

In our estimation of relevance, we will try to measure the relevance of σ to Γ . Here, we use the criterion proposed by Sperber and Wilson, namely, *maximum contextual effect and minimum processing effort*. In the following paragraphs, we plan to interpret the effects of σ on Γ as contextual effects.

The first contextual effect is *contextual implication*. This is exactly the use of constraints available in Γ ; if σ invokes any constraint we take it that σ creates a contextual implication in the context. The larger the number of contextual implications the larger will be their relevance.

The second contextual effect is *strengthening the existing knowledge*. This can be considered as saturation of unsaturated infons in Γ . In this case, the measurement criteria of relevance includes: (a) The number of infons (partially) saturated by the inclusion of information σ ; (b) The amount of saturation in each saturated infon. In the computation of the similarity of the infon σ and the context Γ , we can ‘sum’ the effects of σ on each infon of Γ to get a cumulative contextual effect of σ over Γ .

The last contextual effect is *contradicting some existing knowledge in context*. The contradiction of σ with some existing information in Γ is possible only if there is an infon in Γ similar to σ but has the opposite polarity. By similarity, we mean that the relation names of the infons are the same (or synonymous), the saturated fields of the infons are matching (except for the polarity), and there exists a consistent anchoring function which can anchor the parametric fields of these infons.

²We have surveyed the previous works on context in [36], and due to space limitations, we will not go into the details here.

While considering these contextual effects, we must keep the processing effort as small as possible. In the measurement of processing effort we use the complexity of anchoring function, since an anchoring function might be thought to correspond to the mental operations of humans. As for the complexity of anchoring function we may utilize the size of the anchoring to achieve the desired contextual effects.

The use of the size of the anchoring function to measure the processing effort is rather reasonable. First, the mental operations of humans are, in general, very similar to what an anchoring function does: humans individuate relations and objects and fill the gaps in the relations with appropriate individuals, and reason over them. This is very similar (if not exactly the same) to the way an anchoring function operates. Second, from the computational point of view, the size of an anchoring function can easily be determined if the function is available. Needless to say, finding an appropriate anchoring function which creates the desired contextual effects might be quite difficult. (This issue might be considered, in some sense, to be analogous to the unification mechanism of Prolog.) Here, we will not cover the details of this task, but refer the interested reader to Computational Situation Theory [29, 39, 38].

In determining the relevance, a major problem is the measurement method. In our opinion there are three possibilities:

- (i) *Relevance as a number in the interval $[0, 1]$* : This method might be useful in computational applications of relevance. One such application area is IR. The use of certainty factors in assorted applications (with a probabilistic flavor) in AI may be regarded as analogous to what we have in mind here.
- (ii) *Relevance as a number in the set $\{0, 1\}$* : The nature of relevance is quite inappropriate to make a 0-1 distinction, for we can always talk about degrees of relevance.
- (iii) *Defining two (not necessarily disjoint) sets of relevant and not-so-relevant information*: In this view, the set of relevant items contains all ‘potentially’ relevant items, and the set of not-so-relevant items contains all ‘potentially’ irrelevant items of information. In some cases, both of these sets may be useful, and we can choose the appropriate one according to our optimistic or pessimistic tendencies.

In our measurement of relevance, we are planning to use the third method, i.e., we will define two sets for relevant and not-so-relevant information, respectively. Our definition criteria are the same with Sperber and Wilson from an intuitive angle. Technically, we define the relevance of an infon σ to a context Γ .

Definition 5: Relevance. *An infon σ is relevant to a context Γ if has some contextual effects on Γ with a small size anchoring.*

Definition 6: Irrelevance. *An infon σ is irrelevant to a context Γ if either it has no contextual effect on Γ or otherwise some contextual effects with a large size anchoring.*

Note that in the definitions, we are still leaving two terms open, namely *large* and *small* anchoring, in order to be correct from a philosophical point of view. In a computer implementation of this approach, we can find an appropriate measure for these terms (either by an analysis of the domain or by some simulation results). To offer some insights of the method for various contextual effects, the following examples will be useful³.

³In our thinking and examples about context, natural language has a primary role. We believe that in

Example 1: Contextual Implications.

Let us consider a context, Γ , which contains the regularity “Birds fly.” In Situation Theory, we represent this as

$$\begin{aligned} S_1 &= [\dot{s}|\dot{s} \models \ll \text{bird}, \dot{x}, 1 \gg] \\ S_2 &= [\dot{s}|\dot{s} \models \ll \text{flies}, \dot{x}, 1 \gg] \\ \Gamma &\models \ll \text{involves}, S_1, S_2, B, 1 \gg \end{aligned}$$

where B is the background conditions to support the non-monotonicity. The infon

$$\sigma = \ll \text{bird}, \text{Tweety}, 1 \gg$$

is relevant to Γ , since with the anchoring

$$f(\dot{x}) = \text{Tweety}$$

we can conclude that “Tweety flies” using the constraint supported by Γ . The size of anchoring is 1 and thus the processing effort is minimal. Thus, σ is *relevant* to Γ because of the contextual implication and the small processing effort. \square

Example 2: Contextual Implications.

Let us consider the following imaginary dialogue between Sullivan and Korta:

- (a) Sullivan: Did you watch the football game on TV5 last night?
- (b) Korta: I always watch TV5.

In the context of the conversation, we must have the following information:

- (c) A football game was shown on TV5 last night.
- (d) If some event is shown on a visual device and someone watches that visual device then he/she also watches the event.

The encoded versions of sentences (a)–(c) are

$$\ll \text{watch}_1, \text{Korta}, \text{the_football_game_of_last_night}, \dot{l}, \dot{t}, ? \gg \quad (1)$$

$$\ll \text{watch}_2, \text{Korta}, \text{TV5}, 1 \gg \quad (2)$$

$$\ll \text{shown}, \text{the_football_game_of_last_night}, \text{TV5}, \dot{l}, \dot{t}, 1 \gg \quad (3)$$

and the constraint in sentence (d) is c :

$$\begin{aligned} S &= [\dot{s}|\dot{s} \models \ll \text{watch}_2, \dot{p}, \dot{x}, 1 \gg \wedge \dot{s} \models \ll \text{shown}, \dot{y}, \dot{x}, \dot{l}, \dot{t}, 1 \gg] \\ S' &= [\dot{s}|\dot{s} \models \ll \text{watch}_1, \dot{p}, \dot{y}, \dot{l}, \dot{t}, 1 \gg] \\ c &= \ll \text{involves}, S, S', B, 1 \gg \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

order to be successful a theory of context should at least be successful in the domain of natural language. As van Benthem remarked [40, p. 159]: “Natural language is the most characteristic human vehicle for conveying information [...] Linguistic structures somehow mirror informational structures, but also, linguistic processing consists of mechanisms for transmitting and transforming such structures.” We think that context is one such fundamental structure. A similar view is apparent in Stalnaker [35].

With these definitions, the context of the talk, say Γ , contains the encyclopedic information (3) and the rule (4). Using anchoring f :

$$\begin{aligned} f(\dot{p}) &= \text{Korta} \\ f(\dot{x}) &= \text{TV5} \\ f(\dot{y}) &= \text{the_football_game_of_last_night} \end{aligned}$$

we achieve a contextual effect (i.e., the invocation of c). In order to achieve this contextual effect, we have first used the encyclopedic knowledge to satisfy the left hand side of the contextual rule. Thus, this time, the size of the anchoring is larger than the case in Example 1, though a size of 3 is still *small*. \square

Example 3: Saturating Unsaturated Infons.

Let Γ contain the unsaturated infon

$$\lll \text{goes, Korta, } \dot{i}, \dot{t}, 1 \ggg$$

which states that in context Γ , Korta goes to somewhere at sometime. Over this context, the infon

$$\sigma = \lll \text{goes, Korta, Donostia, } \dot{i}, 1 \ggg$$

is relevant to Γ , since, with anchoring

$$f(\dot{i}) = \text{Donostia}$$

we can saturate the location parameter of an existing infon in Γ , and the processing effort is *small* since the size of the anchoring is 1. \square

After all, our definition of oracle may seem quite similar to that of Devlin, but has the following critical differences and clarifications. First, Devlin considers oracles to be *intentional* constructs. In our approach we are trying to define oracles extensionally in order to render this notion more useful in computational tasks. Second difference is on the conception of Γ . We consider Γ to be the context in which an oracle query takes place, whereas Devlin envisions Γ as a set of parametric infons which are to be saturated in $\text{Oracle}_{\Gamma}(a)$. This gives us the power of using contextual information in the measurement of relevance. Third, Devlin does not give the explicit definitions of terms such as *relevance of information*, *body of knowledge*, and *genuinely involves*; in our approach the counterparts of these terms are explained reasonably explicitly. Finally, in our approach we are presenting the related information together with the situation in which the information appears. This will enable us to make further analysis of the information if we are so required.

As mentioned in the previous sections, our approach is not yet fully developed and the following remain as short-term research problems. In the full version of the paper we are hoping to clarify them as well as to complete the details of the measurement mechanism:

- *Accessible information*: In Figure 1, we are talking about collecting information over existing situations. In reality, it is clear that the scope of the search is limited since nobody is expected to know everything. Furthermore, although some information can be reached in principle, access to this information may be denied or use of this information may be illegal.

- *Comparison of Γ and the situation which contains σ* : In the measurement of relevance, we have always considered the relevance of σ to Γ . However, although it may prove to be difficult, comparing (and searching for relevance) Γ and the situation containing σ might result in a better understanding and measurement of relevance.
- *Size of Γ* : So far, we have not talked about the size of Γ and its effect on the measurement of relevance. Yet, this definitely effects the measurement of relevance.

6 Conclusion

In this paper we have tried to give an outline and highlights of our research on context and the relevance of information. While doing this, we have used the idea of oracle to broaden our view of the subject. Since our formalization is not yet complete, we make the following tentative conclusions:

- Our approach is, we believe, quite similar to the human's way of measuring relevance. In other words, we are using a cognitive theory of relevance in a technical way.
- We employ a formalization of context within Situation Theory. This interpretation of context is compatible with Sperber and Wilson's Relevance Theory. Using our formalization of context together with Relevance Theory might be beneficial. The reader may find computer applications of situation-theoretic concepts shallow or cursory, but we are encouraged by the preliminary results in Computational Situation Theory [29, 39, 38].

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