

L95: Natural Language Syntax and Parsing

2) PCFGs and CKY parsing

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Reminder: languages can also be defined using **automata**

Recall that a language is regular if it is equal to the set of strings accepted by some deterministic finite-state automaton (DFA).

A DFA is defined as $M = (Q, \Sigma, \Delta, s, \mathcal{F})$ where:

- $Q = \{q_0, q_1, q_2, \dots\}$ is a finite set of states.
- Σ is the alphabet: a finite set of transition symbols.
- $\Delta \subseteq Q \times \Sigma \times Q$ is a function $Q \times \Sigma \rightarrow Q$ which we write as δ . Given $q \in Q$ and $i \in \Sigma$ then $\delta(q, i)$ returns a new state $q' \in Q$
- s is a starting state
- \mathcal{F} is the set of all end states

Reminder: regular languages are accepted by DFAs

For $\mathcal{L}(M) = \{a, ab, abb, \dots\}$:

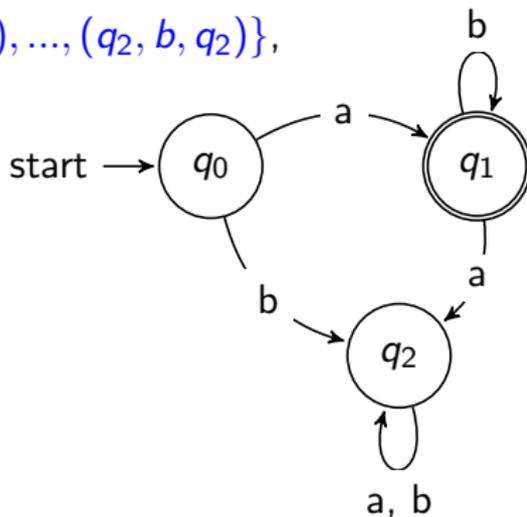
$M = (Q = \{q_0, q_1, q_2\},$

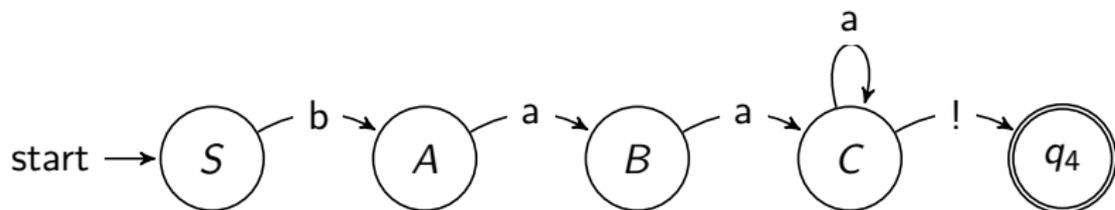
$\Sigma = \{a, b\},$

$\Delta = \{(q_0, a, q_1), (q_0, b, q_2), \dots, (q_2, b, q_2)\},$

$s = q_0,$

$\mathcal{F} = \{q_1\})$



Simple relationship between a DFA and **production rules**

$$Q = \{S, A, B, C, q_4\}$$

$$\Sigma = \{b, a, !\}$$

$$q_0 = S$$

$$F = \{q_4\}$$

$$S \rightarrow bA$$

$$A \rightarrow aB$$

$$B \rightarrow aC$$

$$C \rightarrow aC$$

$$C \rightarrow !$$

Regular grammars generate regular languages

Given a DFA $M = (Q, \Sigma, \Delta, s, \mathcal{F})$ the language, $\mathcal{L}(M)$, of strings accepted by M can be generated by the regular grammar $G_{reg} = (\mathcal{N}, \Sigma, S, \mathcal{P})$ where:

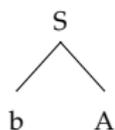
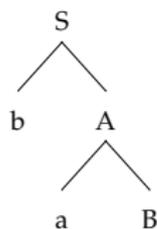
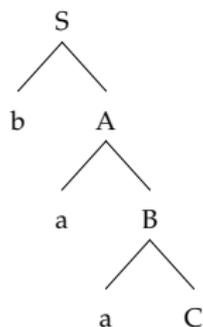
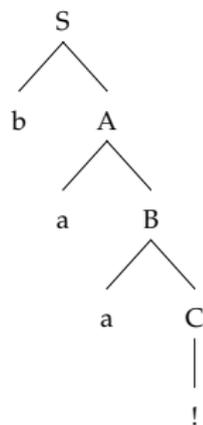
- $\mathcal{N} = \{Q\}$ the non-terminals are the states of M
- $\Sigma = \Sigma$ the terminals are the set of transition symbols of M
- $S = s$ the starting symbol is the starting state of M
- $\mathcal{P} = q_i \rightarrow aq_j$ when $\delta(q_i, a) = q_j \in \Delta$
or $q_i \rightarrow \epsilon$ when $q_i \in \mathcal{F}$ (i.e. when q_i is an end state)

Strings are **derived** from production rules

In order to derive a string from a grammar

- start with the designated starting symbol
- then non-terminal symbols are repeatedly expanded using the rewrite rules until there is nothing further left to expand.

The rewrite rules derive the members of a language from their internal structure (or **phrase structure**)


 $S \rightarrow bA$

 $A \rightarrow aB$

 $B \rightarrow aC$

 $C \rightarrow !$

A regular language has a **left-** and **right-linear** grammar

For every regular grammar the rewrite rules of the grammar can all be expressed in the form:

$$X \rightarrow aY$$

$$X \rightarrow a$$

or alternatively, they can all be expressed as:

$$X \rightarrow Ya$$

$$X \rightarrow a$$

The two grammars are **weakly-equivalent** since they generate the same strings.

But not **strongly-equivalent** because they do not generate the same structure to strings

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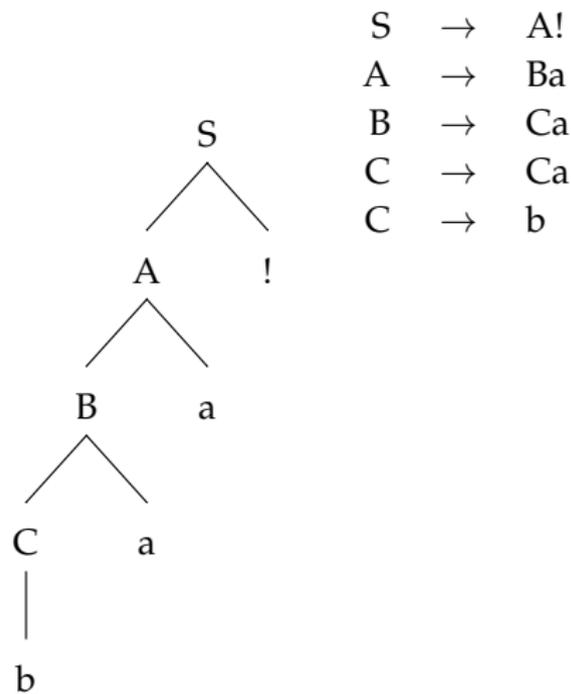
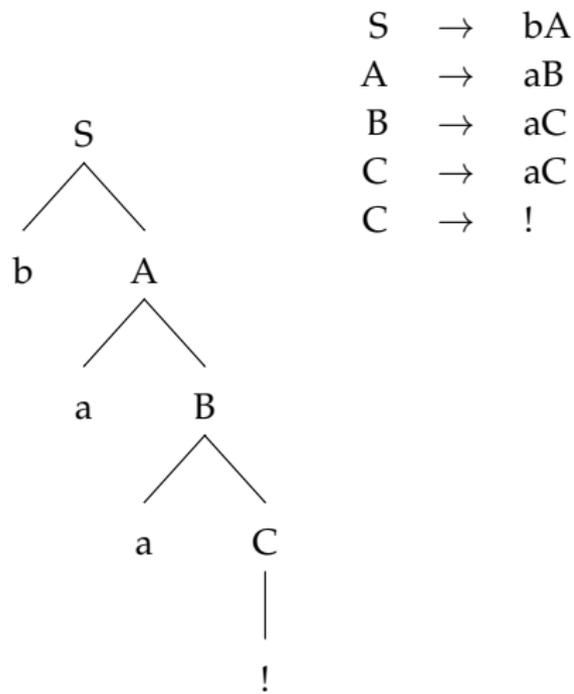
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A regular grammar is a **phrase structure grammar**

A phrase structure grammar over an alphabet Σ is defined by a tuple $G = (\mathcal{N}, \Sigma, S, \mathcal{P})$. The language generated by grammar G is $\mathcal{L}(G)$:

NON-TERMINALS \mathcal{N} : Non-terminal symbols (often uppercase letters) may be **rewritten** using the rules of the grammar.

TERMINALS Σ : Terminal symbols (often lowercase letters) are elements of Σ and **cannot be rewritten**. Note $\mathcal{N} \cap \Sigma = \emptyset$.

START SYMBOL S : A **distinguished non-terminal symbol** $S \in \mathcal{N}$. This non-terminal provides the starting point for derivations.

PHRASE STRUCTURE RULES \mathcal{P} : Phrase structure rules are pairs of the form (w, v) usually written:
 $w \rightarrow v$, where $w \in (\Sigma \cup \mathcal{N})^* \mathcal{N} (\Sigma \cup \mathcal{N})^*$ and $v \in (\Sigma \cup \mathcal{N})^*$

Definition of a phrase structure grammar **derivation**

Given $G = (\mathcal{N}, \Sigma, S, \mathcal{P})$ and $w, v \in (\mathcal{N} \cup \Sigma)^*$ a **derivation step** is possible to transform w into v if:

$u_1, u_2 \in (\mathcal{N} \cup \Sigma)^*$ exist such that $w = u_1\alpha u_2$, and $v = u_1\beta u_2$
and $\alpha \rightarrow \beta \in \mathcal{P}$

This is written $w \xRightarrow{G} v$

A string in the language $\mathcal{L}(G)$ is a member of Σ^* that can be derived in a **finite number of derivation steps** from the starting symbol S .

We use $\xRightarrow{G^*}$ to denote the reflexive, transitive closure of derivation steps, consequently $\mathcal{L}(G) = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid S \xRightarrow{G^*} w\}$.

PSGs may be grouped by production rule properties

Chomsky suggested that phrase structure grammars may be grouped together by the properties of their production rules.

NAME	FORM OF RULES
regular	$(A \rightarrow Aa \text{ or } A \rightarrow aA) \text{ and } A \rightarrow a \mid A \in \mathcal{N} \text{ and } a \in \Sigma$
context-free	$A \rightarrow \alpha \mid A \in \mathcal{N} \text{ and } \alpha \in (\mathcal{N} \cup \Sigma)^*$
context-sensitive	$\alpha A \beta \rightarrow \alpha \gamma \beta \mid A \in \mathcal{N} \text{ and } \alpha, \beta, \gamma \in (\mathcal{N} \cup \Sigma)^* \text{ and } \gamma \neq \epsilon$
recursively enum	$\alpha \rightarrow \beta \mid \alpha, \beta \in (\mathcal{N} \cup \Sigma)^* \text{ and } \alpha \neq \epsilon$

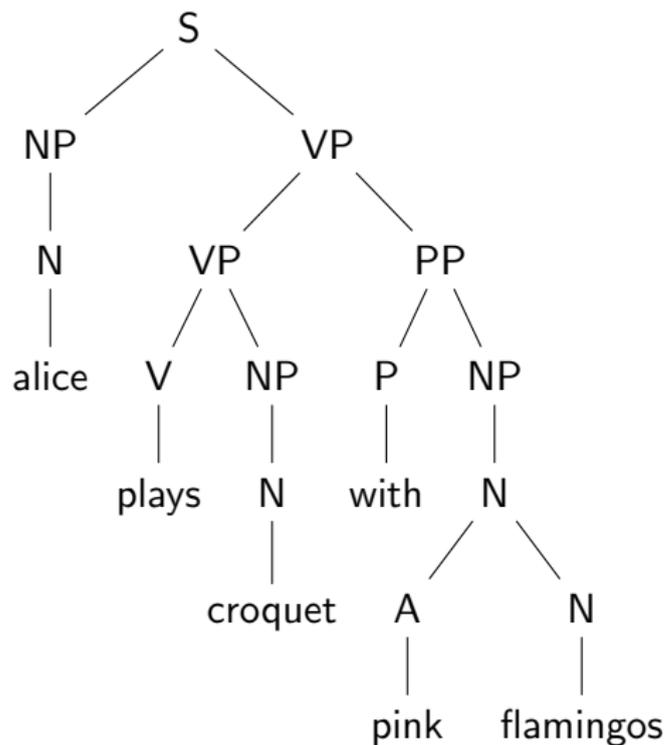
A **class** of languages (e.g. the class of regular languages) is all the languages that can be generated by a particular TYPE of grammar.

The term **power** is used to describe the **expressivity** of each type of grammar in the hierarchy (measured in terms of the number of subsets of Σ^* that the type can generate)

We can define the **complexity** of language classes

The **complexity** of a language class is defined in terms of the **recognition problem**.

TYPE	LANGUAGE CLASS	COMPLEXITY
3	regular	$O(n)$
2	context-free	$O(n^c)$
1	context-sensitive	$O(c^n)$
0	recursively enumerable	<i>undecidable</i>

Context-free grammars capture **constituency**

$G = (\mathcal{N}, \Sigma, S, \mathcal{P})$ where
 $\mathcal{P} = \{A \rightarrow \alpha \mid$
 $A \in \mathcal{N}, \alpha \in (\mathcal{N} \cup \Sigma)^*\}$

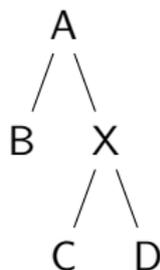
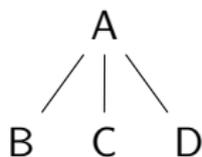
CFGs can be written in Chomsky Normal Form

Chomsky normal form: every production rule has the form, $A \rightarrow BC$, or, $A \rightarrow a$ where $A, B, C \in \mathcal{N}$, and, $a \in \Sigma$.

Conversion to Chomsky Normal Form

For every CFG there is a weakly equivalent CNF alternative.

$A \rightarrow BCD$ may be rewritten as the two rules, $A \rightarrow BX$, and, $X \rightarrow CD$.



CFGs can be written in Chomsky Normal Form

For $A, B, C, D, X, Y \in \mathcal{N}$ and $\gamma, \beta \subseteq \mathcal{N}^*$ and $a \in \Sigma$.

Conversion to Chomsky Normal Form

- Keep all existing conforming rules
- replace $A \rightarrow \gamma a \beta$ with $D \rightarrow \gamma A \beta$ and $A \rightarrow a$
- repeatedly replace $A \rightarrow \gamma BC$ with $A \rightarrow \gamma X$ and $X \rightarrow BC$
- if $A \xRightarrow{*} B$ is a chain of one or more unit productions, and $B \rightarrow a$ then replace all the unit productions with $A \rightarrow a$ (where a unit production is any rule of the form $X \rightarrow Y$)

CNF is a requirement for the CKY parsing algorithm but it causes some problems:

- Grammar is no longer linguistically intuitive
- Direct correspondence with compositional semantics may be lost

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CFGs used to model natural language are **not** deterministic

Deterministic context-free languages:

- are a proper subset of the context-free languages
- can be modelled by an unambiguous grammar
- can be parsed in linear time
- parser can be automatically generated from the grammar

CFGs used to model natural language are **not** deterministic

- Natural languages (with all their inherent ambiguity) are not well suited to algorithms which operate deterministically recognising a single derivation without backtracking
- However, natural language parsing can be achieved deterministically by selecting parsing actions using a machine learning classifier (more on this in later lectures).
- All CFLs (including those exhibiting ambiguity) can be recognised in polynomial time using **dynamic programming algorithms**.

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The CKY algorithm **recognises** strings in a CFL

0 they 1 can 2 fish 3

TO
 1 2 3

Toy CNF grammar:

\mathcal{N} = { *S*, *NP*, *VP*, *VV*, *VM* }

Σ = { *can*, *fish*, *they* }

S = *S*

P = { *S* → *NP VP*

VP → *VM VV*

VP → *VV NP*

VV → *can* | *fish*

VM → *can*

NP → *they* | *fish* }

FROM 1

2

they *can* *fish*

String is in the language when
 the cell [0, 3] contains *S*

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NP

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FROM

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NP

.

1

VV
VM

2

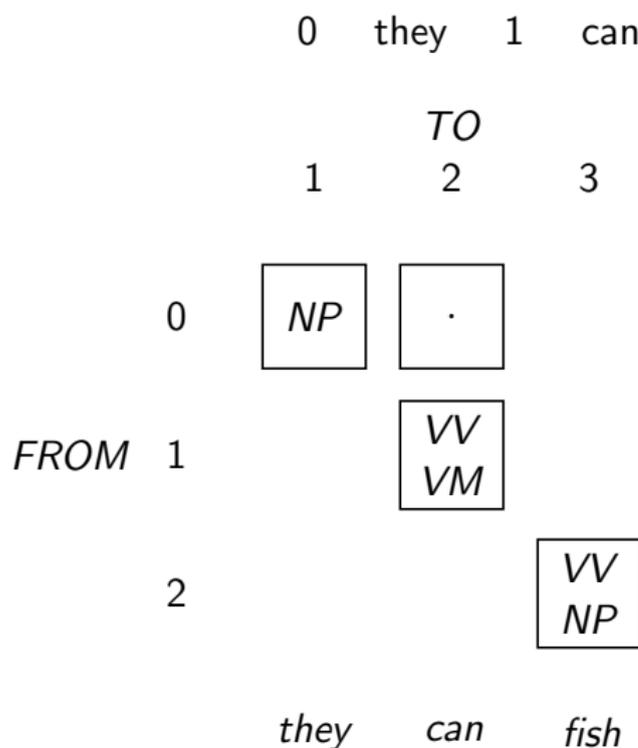
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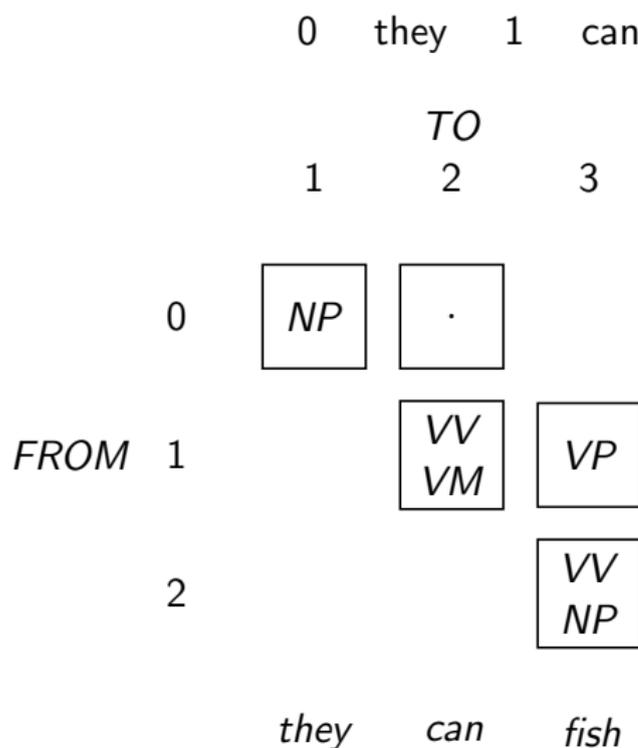


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Toy CNF grammar:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathcal{N} &= \{S, NP, VP, VV, VM\} \\
 \Sigma &= \{can, fish, they\} \\
 S &= S \\
 \mathcal{P} &= \{S \rightarrow NP VP \\
 &\quad VP \rightarrow VM VV \\
 &\quad VP \rightarrow VV NP \\
 &\quad VV \rightarrow can \mid fish \\
 &\quad VM \rightarrow can \\
 &\quad NP \rightarrow they \mid fish\}
 \end{aligned}$$

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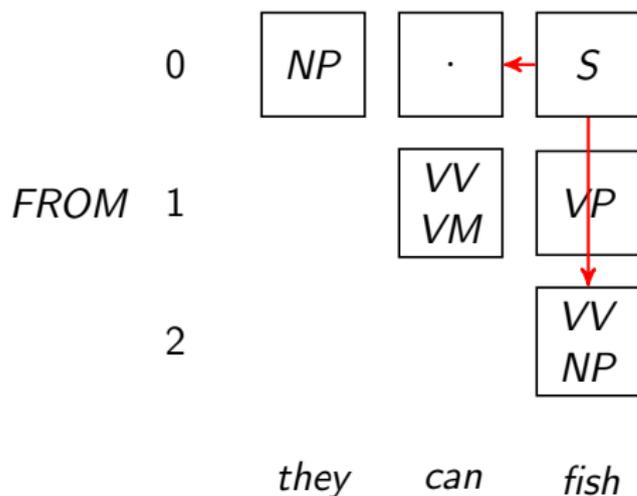
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The CKY algorithm **recognises** strings in a CFL

In the general case for $A, B, C \in \mathcal{N}$ and $a \in \Sigma$:

- If $a \in \Sigma$ exists between indexes m and $m + 1$, and $A \rightarrow a$ then cell $[m, m + 1]$ contains A
- if cell $[i, k]$ contains B and cell $[k, j]$ contains C and $A \rightarrow BC$ then cell $[i, j]$ contains A
- String of length n is in the language when the cell $[0, n]$ contains S

The CKY algorithm only recognises a string, in order to obtain the **parse tree** we need to:

- pair each non-terminal in a cell with a 2-tuple of the cells that derived it
- allow the same non-terminal to exist more than once in any particular cell (or allow it to be paired with a list of 2-tuples)

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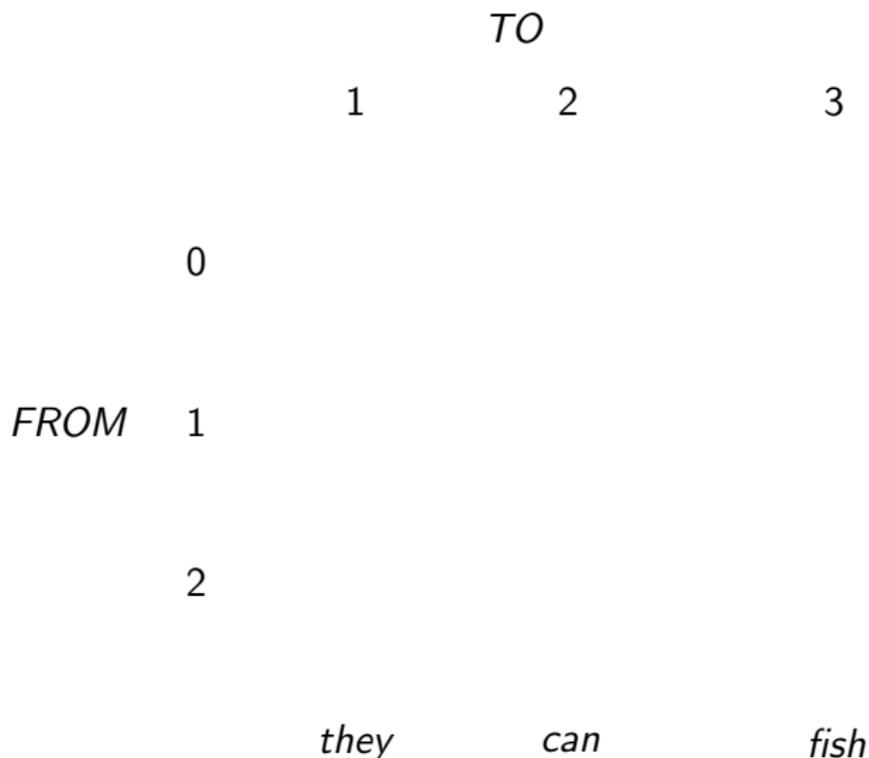
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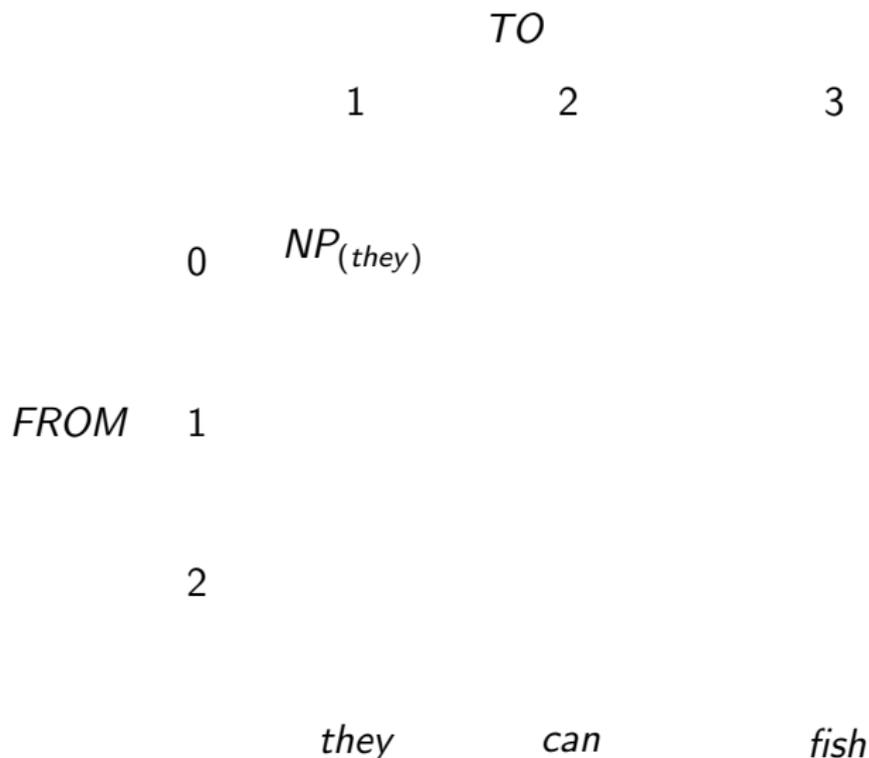
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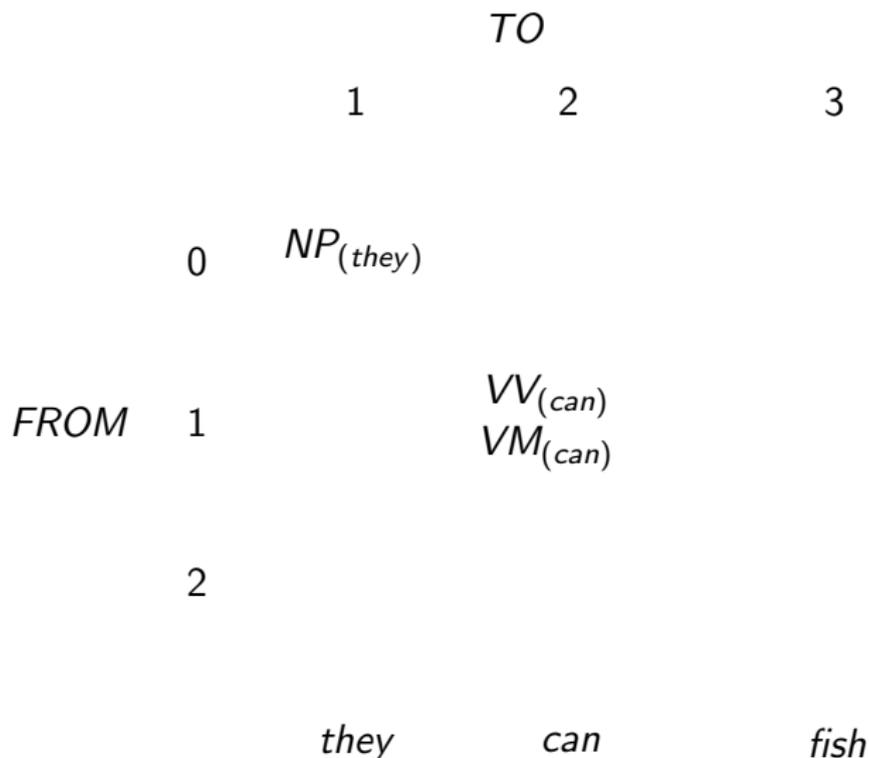
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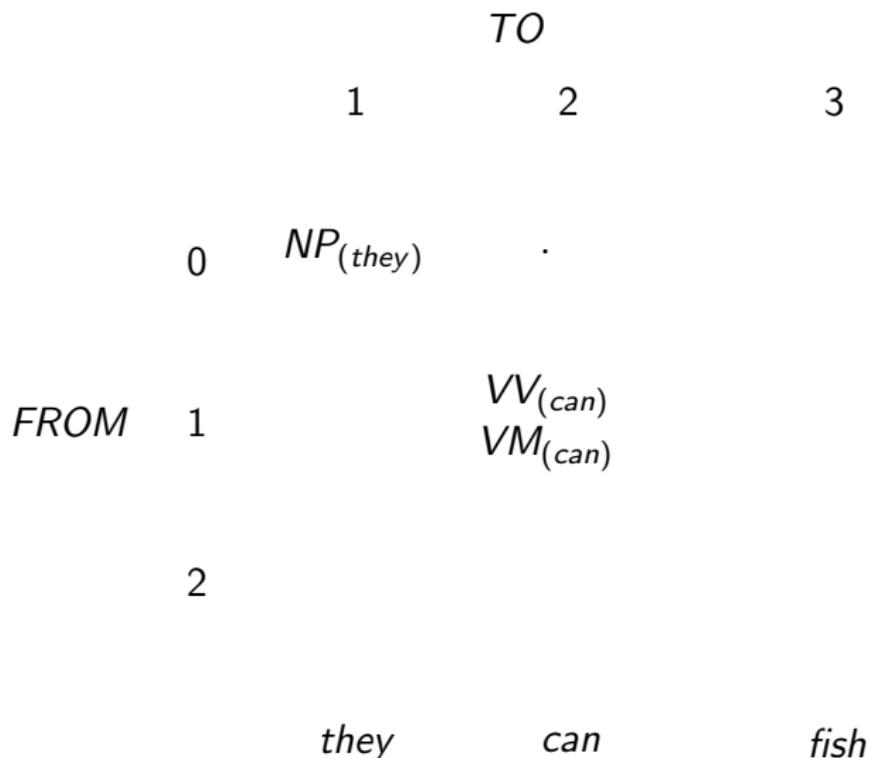
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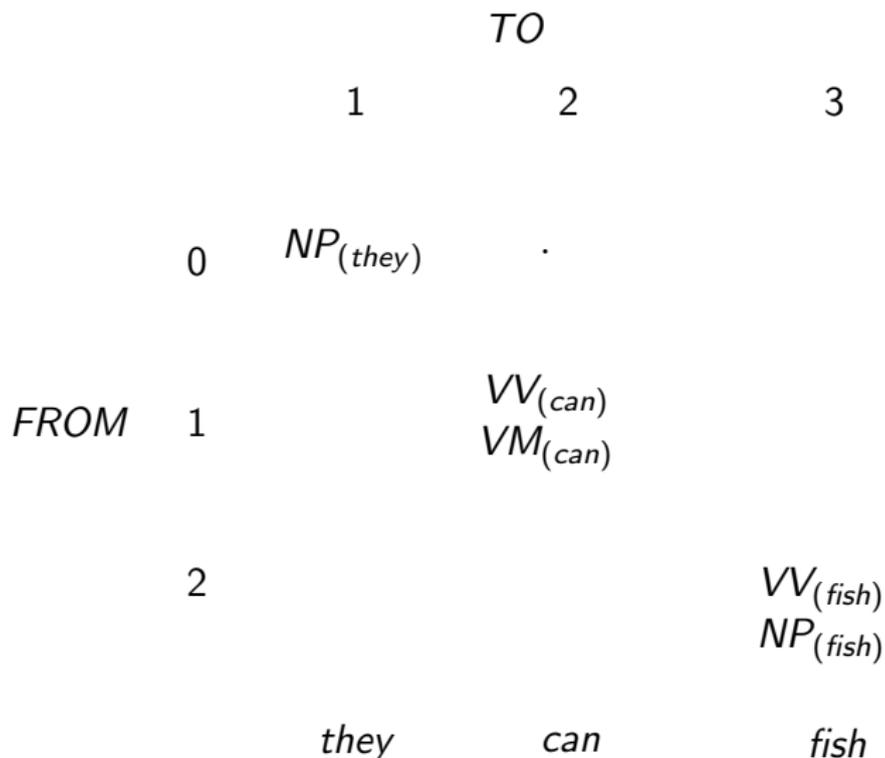
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		<i>TO</i>		
		1	2	3
	0	$NP_{(they)}$.	
<i>FROM</i>	1		$VV_{(can)}$ $VM_{(can)}$	$VP_{1 \rightarrow ([1,2]_{VV}, [2,3]_{NP})}$ $VP_{2 \rightarrow ([1,2]_{VM}, [2,3]_{VV})}$
	2			$VV_{(fish)}$ $NP_{(fish)}$
		<i>they</i>	<i>can</i>	<i>fish</i>

The CKY algorithm can be used to create a **parse**

		<i>TO</i>		
		1	2	3
	0	<i>NP</i> _(they)	.	$S_1 \rightarrow ([0,1]_{NP}, [1,3]_{VP_1})$ $S_2 \rightarrow ([0,1]_{NP}, [1,3]_{VP_2})$
<i>FROM</i>	1		VV _(can) VM _(can)	$VP_1 \rightarrow ([1,2]_{VV}, [2,3]_{NP})$ $VP_2 \rightarrow ([1,2]_{VM}, [2,3]_{VV})$
	2			VV _(fish) NP _(fish)
		<i>they</i>	<i>can</i>	<i>fish</i>

Ambiguous grammars derive a **parse forest**

Number of binary trees is proportional to the Catalan number

$$\text{Num of trees for sentence length } n = \prod_{k=2}^{n-1} \frac{(n-1) + k}{k}$$

sentence length	number of trees	sentence length	number of trees
3	2	8	429
4	5	9	1430
5	14	10	4862
6	42	11	16796
7	132	12	58786

We need parsing algorithms that can efficiently store the parse forest and not derive shared parts of tree more than once—

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We need parsing algorithms that can efficiently store the parse forest and not derive shared parts of tree more than once—use **packing** and/or a **beam** (the latter requires knowledge of the probability of derivations)

Parse probabilities may be derived using a **PCFG**

- $G_{pcfg} = (\Sigma, \mathcal{N}, S, \mathcal{P}, q)$ where q is a mapping from rules in \mathcal{P} to a probability and $\sum_{A \rightarrow \alpha \in \mathcal{P}} q(A \rightarrow \alpha) = 1$
- G_{pcfg} is **consistent** if the sum of all probabilities of all derivable strings equals 1 (grammars with infinite loops like $S \rightarrow S$ are inconsistent)
- The probability of a particular parse is the **product** of the probabilities of the rules that defined the parse tree. For a string W with parse tree T derived from rules $A_i \rightarrow B_i, i = 1 \dots n$

$$P(T, W) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(A_i \rightarrow B_i)$$

- But note that $P(T, W) = P(T)P(W|T)$ and that $P(W|T) = 1$ so

$$P(T, W) = P(T) \text{ and thus } P(T) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(A_i \rightarrow B_i)$$

Parse probabilities may be derived using a PCFG

- The probability of an ambiguous string is the sum of all the parse trees that **yield** that string

$$P(W) = \sum_{\text{trees that yield } W} P(T, W) = \sum_{\text{trees that yield } W} P(T)$$

- We can disambiguate multiple parses by choosing the most probable parse tree for the string

$$\hat{T}(W) = \operatorname{argmax}_{\text{trees that yield } W} P(T|W)$$

but

$$P(T|W) = \frac{P(T, W)}{P(W)} \rightarrow P(T, W) = P(T)$$

so

$$\hat{T}(W) = \operatorname{argmax}_{\text{trees that yield } W} P(T)$$

Rule probabilities may be estimated from **treebanks**

- A **treebank** is a corpus of parsed sentences
- Rule probabilities can be estimated from counts in a treebank:

$$P(A \rightarrow B) = P(A \rightarrow B|A) = \frac{\text{count}(A \rightarrow B)}{\sum_{\gamma} \text{count}(A \rightarrow \gamma)} = \frac{\text{count}(A \rightarrow B)}{\text{count}(A)}$$

- **inside-outside algorithm** can be used when no tree bank exists

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Problems with PCFGs:

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Probabilistic CFGs may be incorporated into CKY

	1	2	3	
0				$\mathcal{N} = \{S, NP, VP, VV, VM\}$ $\Sigma = \{can, fish, they\}$ $S = S$ $\mathcal{P} = \{S \rightarrow NP VP \ 1.0$ $VP \rightarrow VM VV \ 0.9$ $VP \rightarrow VV NP \ 0.1$ $VV \rightarrow can \ 0.2 \mid fish \ 0.8$ $VM \rightarrow can \ 1.0$ $NP \rightarrow they \ 0.5 \mid fish \ 0.5$
1				
2				
	<i>they</i>	<i>can</i>	<i>fish</i>	

- For the best parse keep most probable non-terminal at each node
- Otherwise can pack and operate a beam

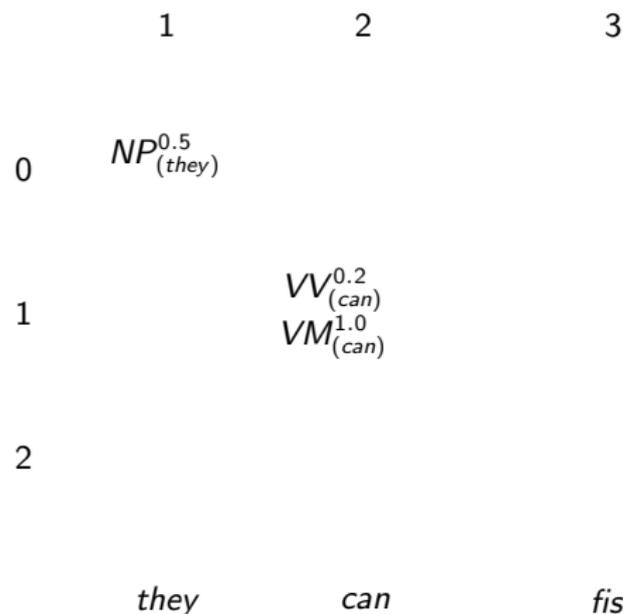
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	1	2	3
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1			
2			
	<i>they</i>	<i>can</i>	<i>fish</i>

\mathcal{N}	=	$\{S, NP, VP, VV, VM\}$
Σ	=	$\{can, fish, they\}$
S	=	S
\mathcal{P}	=	$\{S \rightarrow NP VP 1.0$ $VP \rightarrow VM VV 0.9$ $VP \rightarrow VV NP 0.1$ $VV \rightarrow can 0.2 \mid fish 0.8$ $VM \rightarrow can 1.0$ $NP \rightarrow they 0.5 \mid fish 0.5$

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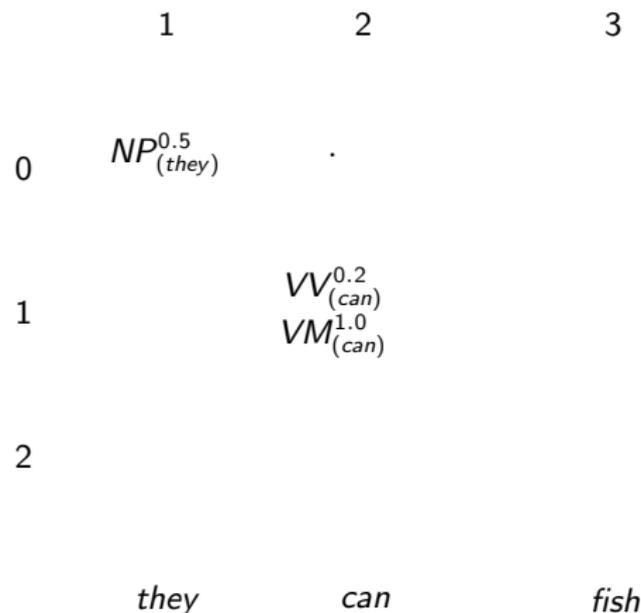
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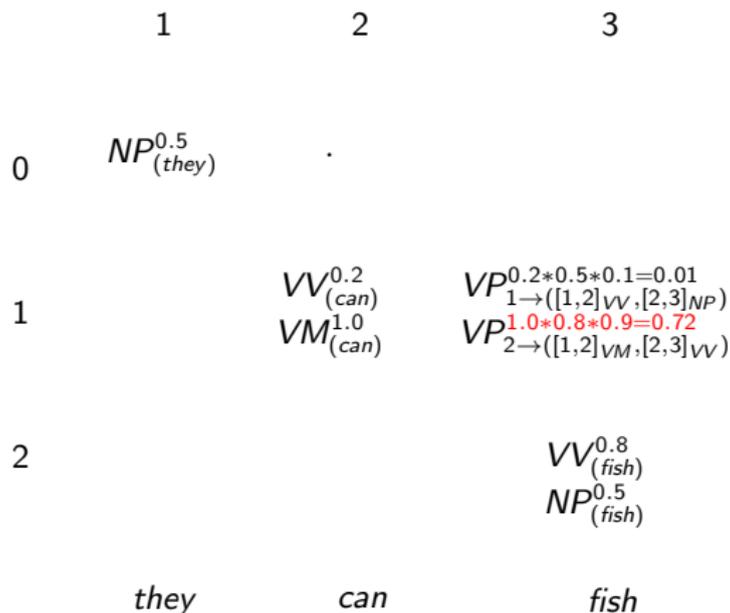
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	1	2	3
0	$NP_{(they)}^{0.5}$.	
1		$VV_{(can)}^{0.2}$ $VM_{(can)}^{1.0}$	
2			$VV_{(fish)}^{0.8}$ $NP_{(fish)}^{0.5}$
	<i>they</i>	<i>can</i>	<i>fish</i>

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0	$NP_{(they)}^{0.5}$	·	$S_{([0,1]_{NP}, [1,3]_{VP})}^{0.5 \cdot 1.0 \cdot 0.8 \cdot 0.9 \cdot 1.0 = 0.36}$	\mathcal{N}	= { <i>S</i> , <i>NP</i> , <i>VP</i> , <i>VV</i> , <i>VM</i> }
				Σ	= { <i>can</i> , <i>fish</i> , <i>they</i> }
				\mathcal{S}	= <i>S</i>
				\mathcal{P}	= { <i>S</i> → <i>NP VP</i> 1.0 <i>VP</i> → <i>VM VV</i> 0.9 <i>VP</i> → <i>VV NP</i> 0.1 <i>VV</i> → <i>can</i> 0.2 <i>fish</i> 0.8 <i>VM</i> → <i>can</i> 1.0 <i>NP</i> → <i>they</i> 0.5 <i>fish</i> 0.5
1		$VM_{(can)}^{1.0}$	$VP_{([1,2]_{VM}, [2,3]_{VV})}^{1.0 \cdot 0.8 \cdot 0.9 = 0.72}$		
		$VV_{(can)}^{0.2}$			
2			$NP_{(fish)}^{0.5}$		
			$VV_{(fish)}^{0.8}$		
	<i>they</i>	<i>can</i>	<i>fish</i>		

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