# L95: Natural Language Syntax and Parsing7) Parsing Accuracy

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#### Reminder...

#### We have looked at:

- grammars (PCFG, dependency, CCG)
- parsing algorithms (dynamic, deterministic, heuristic)
- parse scoring models (Bayesian, log-linear, cost-functions)
- methods for selecting n-best parses (beams, agendas)

But what do we need to do to make the parses as accurate as possible...?

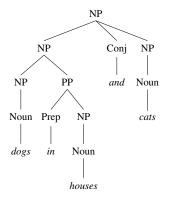
## Reminder: PCFGs have some shortcomings

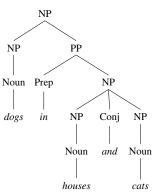
When we looked at PCFGs we noted two sources of inaccuracy:

- The **independence** assumption: unable to model structural dependency across the tree as a whole
  - The choice of how a non-terminal expands depend on the location in the parse tree.
  - In English, subject NPs are more likely to be pronouns ( $\approx$  90%), and objects NPs are more likely to be non-pronominal ( $\approx$  60%)
- Lack of lexical specificity: unable to model the structural behaviour specific to a lexical item
  - If the PCFG reflect thats VP-attachment of PPs are more common then we will always get some people like beer in cold glasses wrong
  - Lack of subcategorisation
  - Non-sensical co-ordination can be probable...

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Lack of **lexical specificity**: these co-ordinated trees have the same probability...

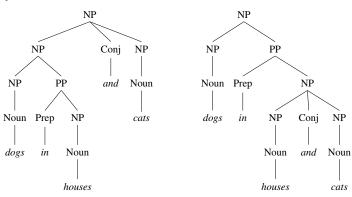




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Today will we look as how to get around these issues.

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- NPsubject → PRP
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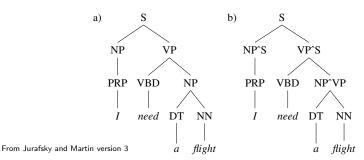
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## Relax independence by splitting non-terminals

For the pronoun issue, intuition is that we need more NP rules: instead of  $NP \rightarrow PRP$  we need two rules:

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How can we implement this without a semantic treebank? by annotating non-terminals with their parent nodes



## Parent annotation helps in several scenarios

- Other examples of parent annotation:
  - e.g. differentiating between **adverbs** by annotating pre-terminals (called **tag splitting**) with their parents: most common adverbs directly under ADVP are *also* and *now*; under VP are n't and not; under NP are *only* and *just* ...
  - e.g. subordinating conjunctions, while, as, if, occur under S
- Where parent annotation can't help we could split on other features (i.e. hand write rules for specific feature scenarios)
- See https://nlp.stanford.edu/manning/papers/ unlexicalized-parsing.pdf for some discussion

## A trade-off between splitting and training

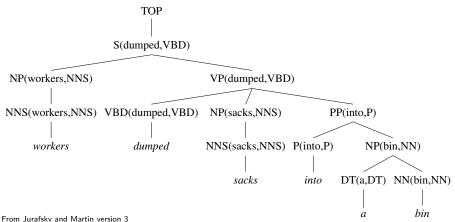
- Splitting non-terminals increases the grammar size
- Increased grammar size means less data per rule instance for MLE
- split and merge techniques automatically search for the optimal splits by maximising the likelihood of the training set (e.g. Petrov et al. 2006)

non-terminal splitting example...

## Lexicalised-PCFGs include lexical info in the grammar

#### **Collins** and **Charniak** parsers use lexicalised-PCFGs

 I exicalisation can include both the head word token and its part-of-speech



## Lexicalised-PCFGs include lexical info in the grammar

#### Creating the treebank:

- For each rule, one of the RHS daughters is the head
- The head information for the LHS of the rule is the same as the RHS head

#### Estimating probabilities:

- Pre-terminal rules always have a probability of 1
- All other rule probabilities need to be calculated ...
  - ... but the data available per rule is now very sparse

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## Collins handles sparsity by generating the RHS of rules

 RHS of every rule consists of a head plus all the non-terminals to the head's left and all the non-terminals to the head's right

$$LHS \rightarrow L_m \dots L_1 H R_1 \dots R_n$$

- To use a rule we:
- first generate the head,
- then all the **left dependents** from the head outwards
- and finally all the right dependents from the head outwards
- We imagine a *STOP* non-terminal at the edges of the rule  $LHS \rightarrow STOP \ L_m \dots L_1 \ H \ R_1 \dots R_n \ STOP$

## Rule probability is the **product** of all generated pieces

Remember that for PCFGs:  $P(A \rightarrow B) = P(B|A)$ 

For lexicalised-PCFGs rule probability is the **product** of its pieces:

- \* General rule form:  $A \rightarrow STOP L_m ... L_1 H R_1 ... R_n STOP$
- The probability of the head H with associated word  $h_w$  and tag  $h_t$  given the parent, A is:

$$P(H(w_h, t_h)) = P(H(h_w, h_t)|A, h_w, h_t)$$

- The probability of modifiers to the left of the head is:

$$\prod_{i=1}^{m+1} P(L_i(lw_i, lt_i)|A, H, h_w, h_t)$$

- The probability of modifiers to the right of the head is:

$$\prod_{i=1}^{n+1} P(R_i(rw_i, rt_i)|A, H, h_w, h_t)$$

where  $L_{m+1} = STOP$  and  $R_{n+1} = STOP$ 

lexicalised-PCFG rule probability estimation...

### Collins models have other conditional features

- Collins 1 includes a distance metric in the conditional probabilities
- Collins 2 includes conditioning on subcategorisation and argument/adjunct
- In training Collin's interpolates three models:
- fully lexicalised (conditioning on the head word and tag),
- just the head tag
- unlexicalized

https://www.aclweb.org/anthology/J03-4003.pdf

## Remember Coarse-to-fine strategy, Charniak

We can now understand better Charniak's coarse-to-fine parsing strategy:

- 1 produce a parse forest using simple version of the grammar i.e. find possible parses using coarse-grained non-terminals, e.g. *VP*
- 2 refine most promising of coarse-grained parses using complex grammar i.e with feature-based, lexicalised non-terminals, e.g. *VP[buys/VBZ]*
- Coarse-grained step can be efficiently parsed using e.g. CKY
- But the simple grammar ignores contextual features so best parse might not be accurate
- Output a pruned packed parse forest for the parses generated by the simple grammar (using a beam threshold)
- Evaluate remaining parses with complex grammar (i.e. each coarse-grained state is split into several fine-grained states)