

# 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.
- $\Sigma$  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  $\delta$ . 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  $\mathcal{L}(M) = \{a, ab, abb, \dots\}$ :

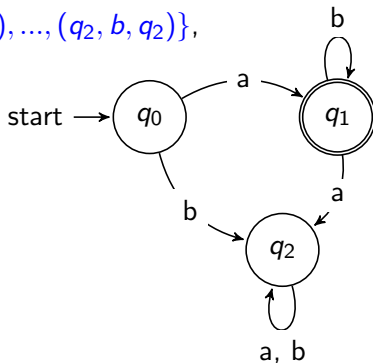
$M = ( Q = \{q_0, q_1, q_2\},$

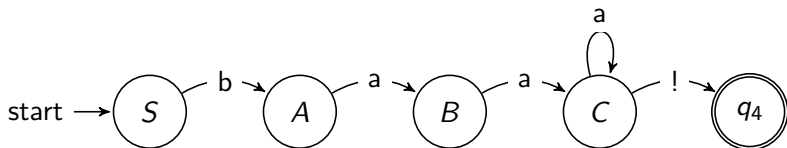
$\Sigma = \{a, b\},$

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

$s = q_0,$

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



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:

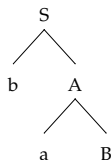
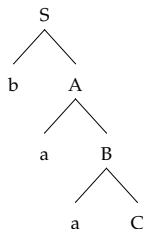
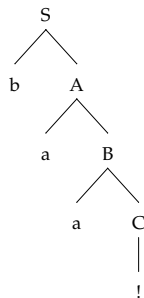
- $\mathcal{N} = Q$  the non-terminals are the states of  $M$
- $\Sigma = \Sigma$  the terminals are the set of transition symbols of  $M$
- $S = s$  the starting symbol is the starting state of  $M$
- $\mathcal{P} = q_i \rightarrow aq_j$  when  $\delta(q_i, a) = q_j \in \Delta$   
or  $q_i \rightarrow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

$$X \rightarrow Ya$$

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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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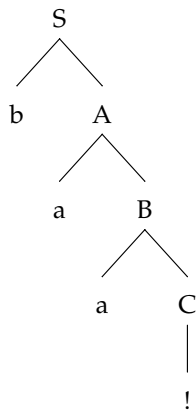
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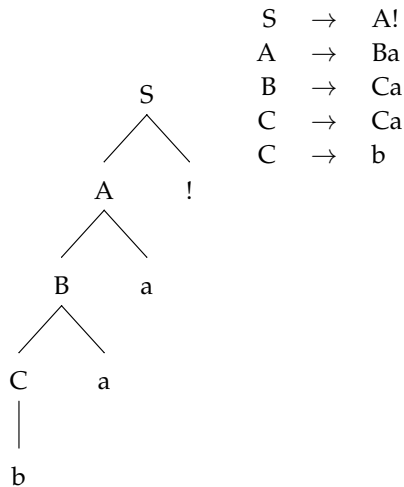
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$$\begin{aligned} S &\rightarrow bA \\ A &\rightarrow aB \\ B &\rightarrow aC \\ C &\rightarrow aC \\ C &\rightarrow ! \end{aligned}$$


$$\begin{aligned} S &\rightarrow A! \\ A &\rightarrow Ba \\ B &\rightarrow Ca \\ C &\rightarrow Ca \\ C &\rightarrow b \end{aligned}$$

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

A phrase structure grammar over an alphabet  $\Sigma$  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**  $\Sigma$ : Terminal symbols (often lowercase letters) are elements of  $\Sigma$  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  $\Sigma^*$  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	$\alpha \rightarrow \beta \mid \alpha, \beta \in (\mathcal{N} \cup \Sigma)^* \text{ and } \alpha \neq \epsilon$

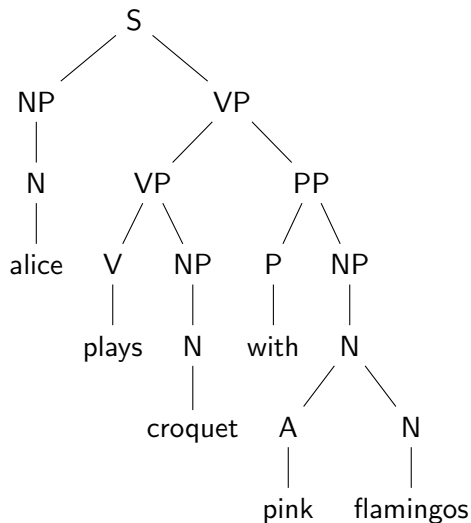
A **class** of languages (e.g. the class of regular languages) is all the languages that can be generated by a particular TYPE of grammar.

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

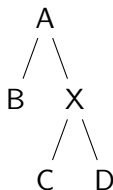
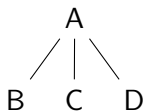
# CFGs can be written in Chomsky Normal Form

**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* }

$\Sigma$  = { *can*, *fish*, *they* }

*S* = *S*

$\mathcal{P}$  = { *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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0

*NP*

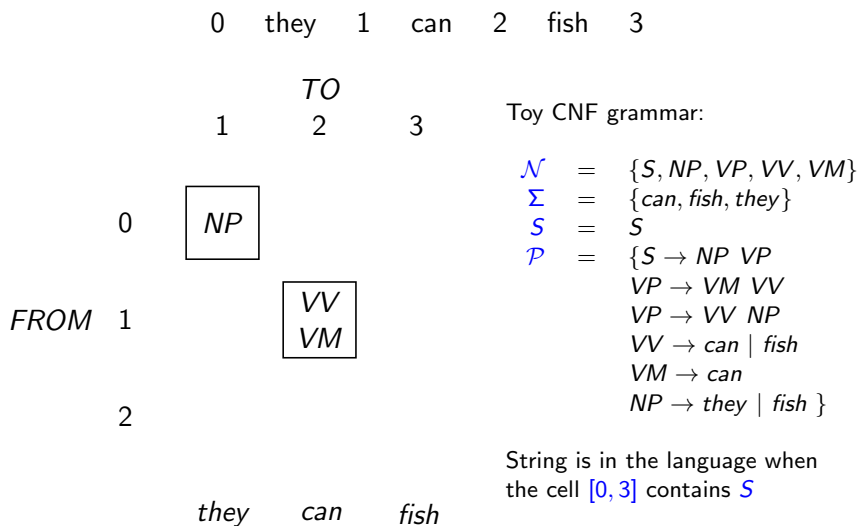
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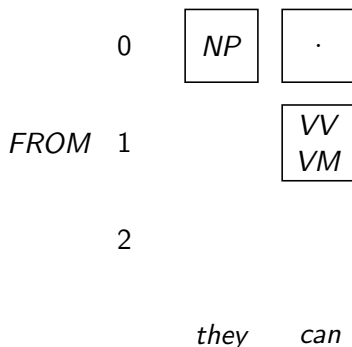
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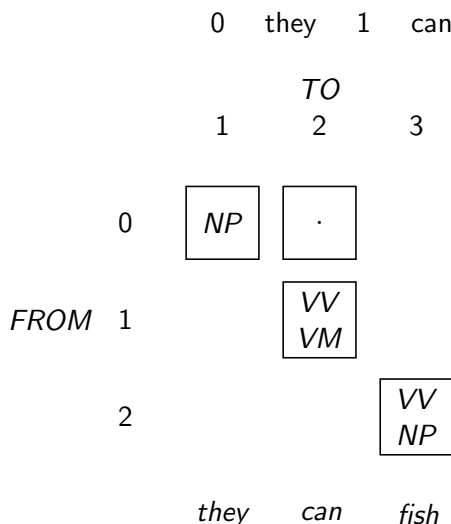
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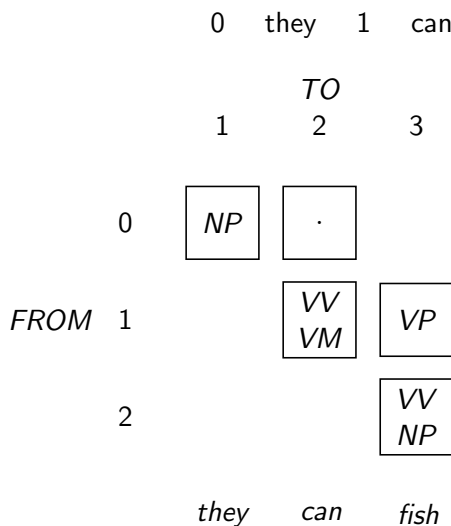


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Toy CNF grammar:

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

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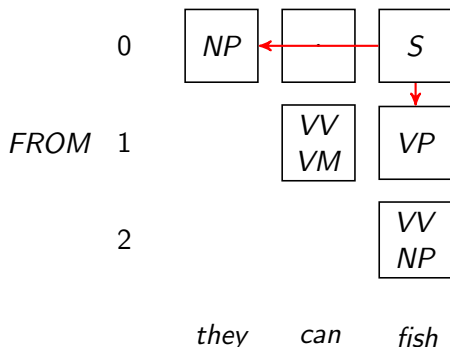
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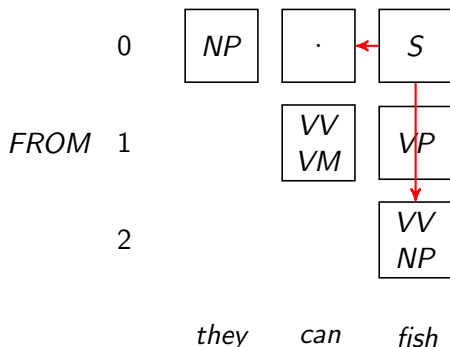
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In the general case for  $A, B, C \in \mathcal{N}$  and  $a \in \Sigma$ :

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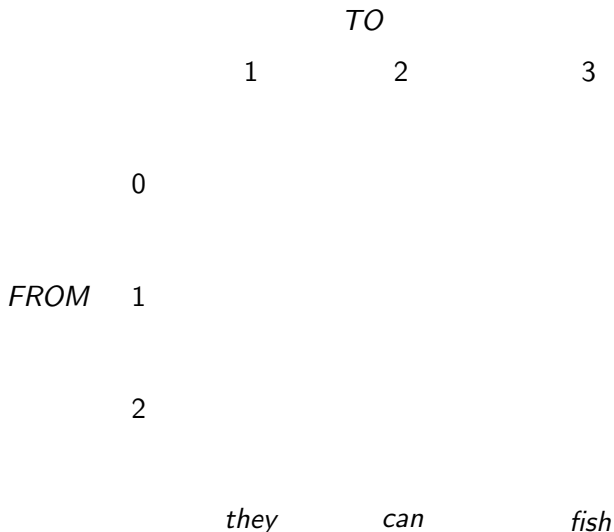
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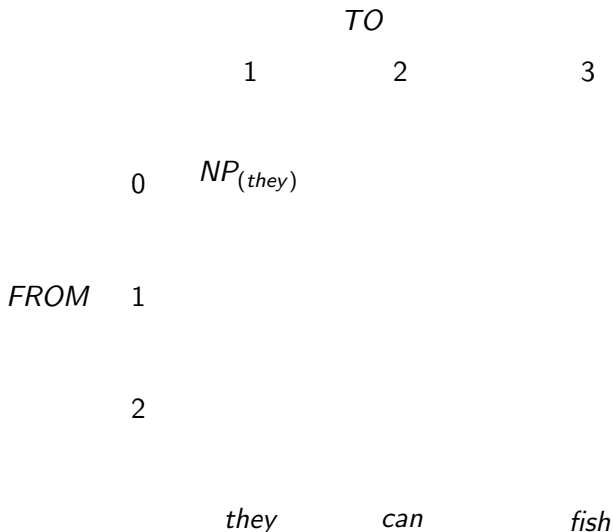
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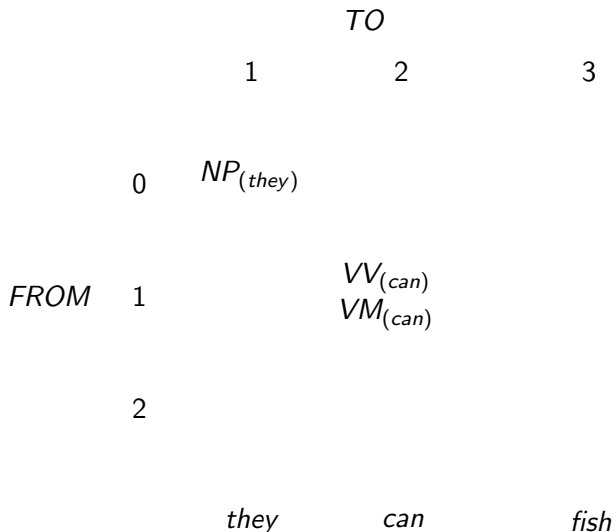
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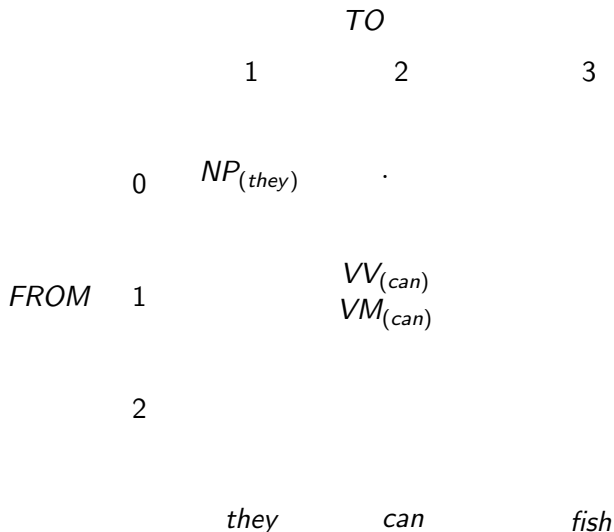
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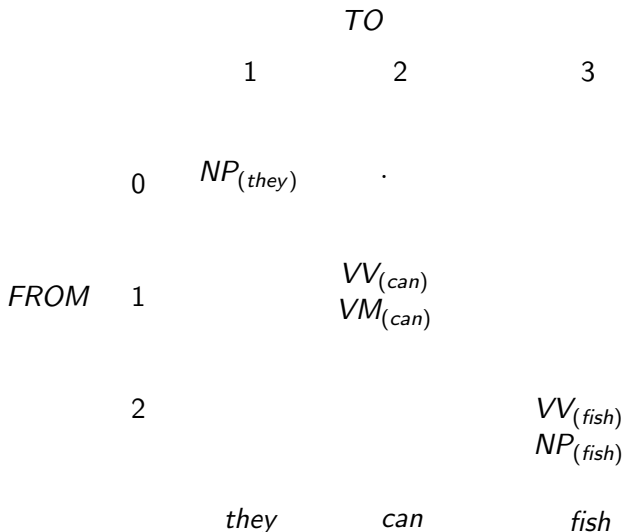
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# The CKY algorithm can be used to create a **parse**



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

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

... more in later lectures

## Problems with PCFGs:

- Independence ignores structural dependency within the tree
- Structure is dependent on lexical items

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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

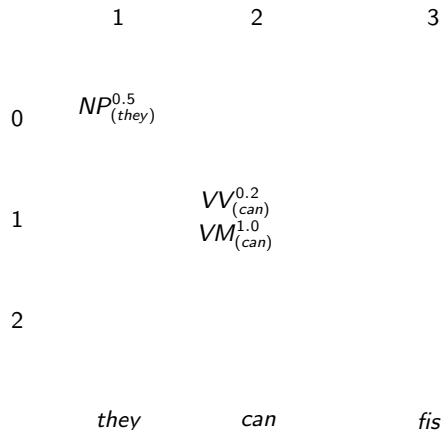
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	1	2	3
0	$NP_{(they)}^{0.5}$		
1			
2			
	<i>they</i>	<i>can</i>	<i>fish</i>

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

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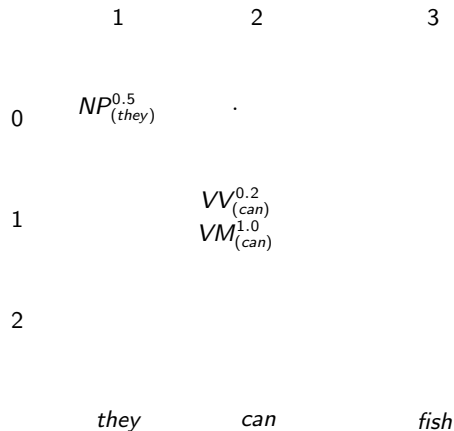
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$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathcal{N} &= \{S, NP, VP, VV, VM\} \\
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 &\quad VP \rightarrow VM VV \ 0.9 \\
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0	$NP_{(they)}^{0.5}$	.	
1		$VV_{(can)}^{0.2}$ $VM_{(can)}^{1.0}$	
2			$VV_{(fish)}^{0.8}$ $NP_{(fish)}^{0.5}$
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# Probabilistic CFGs may be incorporated into CKY

	1	2	3
0	$NP_{(they)}^{0.5}$	.	
1		$VV_{(can)}^{0.2}$ $VM_{(can)}^{1.0}$	$VP_{1 \rightarrow ([1,2]_{VV}, [2,3]_{NP})}^{0.2 * 0.5 * 0.1 = 0.01}$ $VP_{2 \rightarrow ([1,2]_{VM}, [2,3]_{VV})}^{1.0 * 0.8 * 0.9 = 0.72}$
2			$VV_{(fish)}^{0.8}$ $NP_{(fish)}^{0.5}$
	<i>they</i>	<i>can</i>	<i>fish</i>

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# Probabilistic CFGs may be incorporated into CKY

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

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