Unit 2

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Syntactic Analysis: Syntactic Representations of Natural Language

- Syntactic analysis, or parsing, focuses on determining the grammatical structure of sentences in natural language.
- It identifies **how words combine to form phrases, clauses**, and complete sentences, adhering to the syntactic rules of a given language.
- Key syntactic representations include:

Constituency-Based Representations

- Parse Trees: Hierarchical structures where nodes represent syntactic categories (e.g., NP, VP), and leaves correspond to words.
- **Phrase Structure Grammar**: Frameworks like Context-Free Grammars (CFG) underlie these representations.

Dependency-Based Representations

- **Dependency Trees**: Represent relationships between words using directed edges, emphasizing head-dependent structures.
- Dependency Parsing: Efficient for languages with flexible word order.

Hybrid Representations

• Combine constituency and dependency representations for richer syntactic insights.

Parse Trees

• A parse tree (or syntax tree) is a tree structure that represents the syntactic structure of a sentence according to a given grammar, typically a context-free grammar (CFG).

• It visualizes **how words** in a sentence are grouped into phrases and how these **phrases relate to one another hierarchically**.

• Parse trees are fundamental tools in computational linguistics and NLP, enabling deeper linguistic insights and effective language processing.

Components of a Parse Tree

- **1.Root Node**: Represents the start symbol of the grammar, often denoted as S (Sentence).
- **2.Non-Terminal Nodes**: Represent intermediate syntactic categories like noun phrases (NP), verb phrases (VP), or prepositional phrases (PP).
- **3.Terminal Nodes**: Represent the actual words (or tokens) in the sentence.

Example

Consider the sentence:

"The cat sleeps."

Using a simplified CFG:

- $1.S \rightarrow NP VP$
- $2.NP \rightarrow Det N$
- $3.VP \rightarrow V$
- $4.\text{Det} \rightarrow \text{"The"}$
- $5.N \rightarrow$ "cat"
- $6.V \rightarrow$ "sleeps"

The parse tree looks like this:

```
Det N
The cat sleeps
```

How Parse Trees Are Generated

- •**Top-Down Parsing**: Start from the root (S) and expand nodes based on grammar rules until terminals match the input sentence.
- •Bottom-Up Parsing: Start with the words (terminals) and combine them using grammar rules until the root (S) is derived.

Sentence: "The boy runs."



- Start with $S \rightarrow Expand$ into NP (Noun Phrase) and VP (Verb Phrase).
- Expand NP into Det (Determiner) and N (Noun).
- VP expands into V (Verb).



Begin with Det, N, and $V \rightarrow$ Combine Det and N into NP.

Combine NP and V into S.

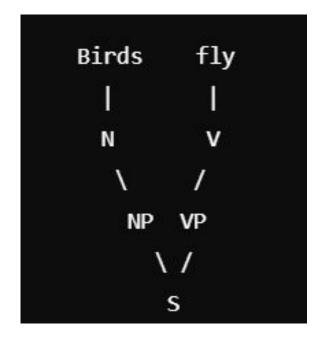
Sentence: "She plays piano."

```
NP
      VP
 N
         NP
     plays piano
```

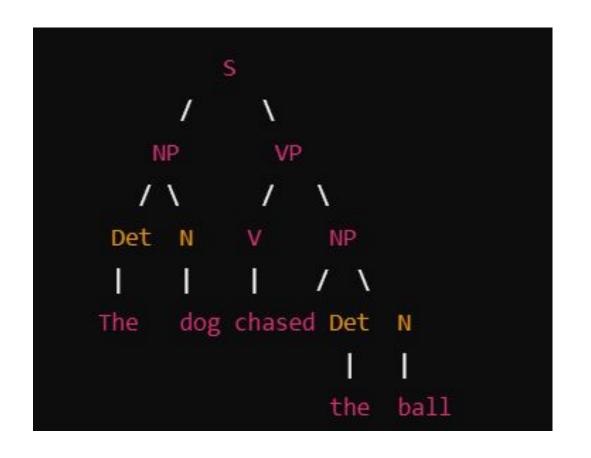
```
She plays piano
N
  NP
      VP
```

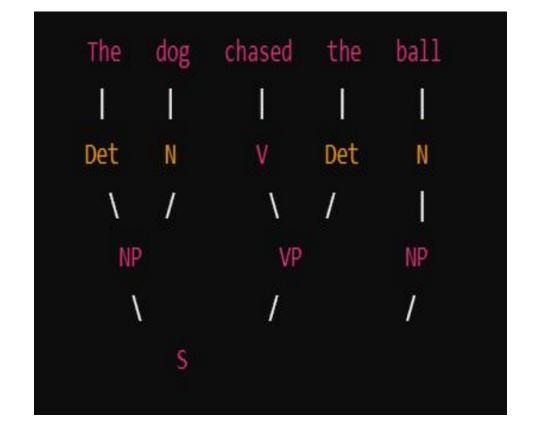
Sentence: "Birds fly."

```
S
/ \
NP VP
| |
N V
| |
Birds fly
```



Sentence: "The dog chased the ball."





Phrase Structure Grammar

- Phrase Structure Grammar is a **type of formal grammar** used to represent the syntactic structure of sentences. Frameworks like **Context-Free Grammars (CFG) play a foundational role** in this representation.
- A set of rules that describe how words and phrases combine to form sentences in a language.
- It defines the hierarchical structure of a sentence by breaking it into smaller constituents or phrases (e.g., noun phrases, verb phrases).

Role of Context-Free Grammars (CFG) in NLP

1.Definition of CFG:

CFG is a type of grammar where **production rules** are used **to generate** sentences.

Each rule has a single non-terminal symbol (like S, NP, VP) on the left-hand side and a combination of terminal and non-terminal symbols on the right-hand side.

 $S \rightarrow NP VP$

 $NP \rightarrow Det N$

 $VP \rightarrow V NP$

2. Tree Representation:

• CFG helps in constructing parse trees, which visually depict the syntactic structure of a sentence.

Applications in NLP:

- Parsing: CFGs are widely used in parsers to analyze sentence structure. Tools like Stanford Parser and spaCy implement such approaches.
- Syntax Checking: CFG ensures that a sentence conforms to the grammatical rules of a language.
- Machine Translation: By understanding sentence structure, CFG aids in generating syntactically correct translations.
- Text Generation: CFG helps in generating text that adheres to grammatical rules.

Limitations of CFG in NLP:

• CFGs assume that the structure of a language can be fully captured by context-free rules, but **natural languages often exhibit dependencies** (e.g., subject-verb agreement, long-distance dependencies) that are not easily handled by CFG alone.

• Extensions like Lexicalized CFGs or Tree-Adjoining Grammars (TAGs) are used to address these complexities.

Dependency-Based Representations

• Dependency-based representations focus on the syntactic relationships between words in a sentence. Instead of relying on phrase structure (like in constituency-based parsing), dependency representations emphasize the grammatical dependencies between individual words.

• Key Features:

1. Head-Dependent Structure:

- 1. Each word in a sentence (except the root) is dependent on another word, which acts as its **head**.
- 2. For example, in the sentence "She eats an apple", the word "eats" is the head, and "She", "an", and "apple" are its dependents.

Directed Graph Representation:

Sentences are represented as directed graphs or trees, where:

- •Nodes correspond to words.
- •Edges represent dependencies (e.g., subject, object, modifier).

Grammatical Relations:

Dependencies are labeled with grammatical relations such as subject (nsubj), object (obj), and modifier (amod).

Non-Projectivity:

Some languages (e.g., German) exhibit non-projective dependencies, where dependencies can cross, making them more challenging to parse.

Dependency Trees

• A dependency tree is a tree structure that represents the syntactic structure of a sentence based on dependency relations.

Characteristics:

1. Single Root:

- The tree has a single root node, typically the main verb or predicate of the sentence.
- Example: In "She quickly eats an apple", "eats" is the root.

2. Child Nodes:

- Words directly dependent on the root or other nodes are represented as child nodes.
- Each word (except the root) has exactly one parent.

3. Labeled Arcs:

Arcs (edges) between words are labeled with dependency types (e.g., subject, object).

For the sentence "She eats an apple", the dependency tree might look like this:

```
eats (root)
/ \
She apple
|
an
```

- •She \rightarrow eats: Subject relation (nsubj).
- •eats \rightarrow apple: Object relation (obj).
- •apple \rightarrow an: Determiner relation (det).

Dependency Parsing

• Dependency parsing is the process of analyzing the grammatical structure of a sentence by **identifying dependency relationships between words** and constructing a dependency tree.

• Types of Dependency Parsing:

1. Projective Parsing:

- Assumes no crossing dependencies.
- Works well for languages with **simple structures** (e.g., English).

2. Non-Projective Parsing:

- Allows crossing dependencies.
- Necessary for languages like Czech or German with complex word order.

Parsing Methods:

1. Rule-Based Parsers:

- Use hand-crafted rules to determine dependencies.
- Example: Grammar-based parsers.

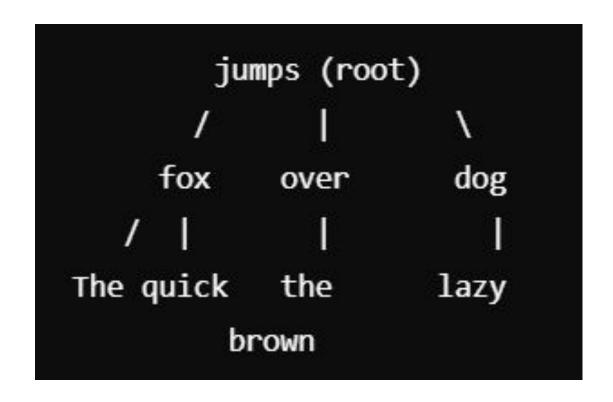
2. Statistical Parsers:

- Use machine learning to predict dependencies based on training data.
- Example: Transition-based parsers and graph-based parsers.

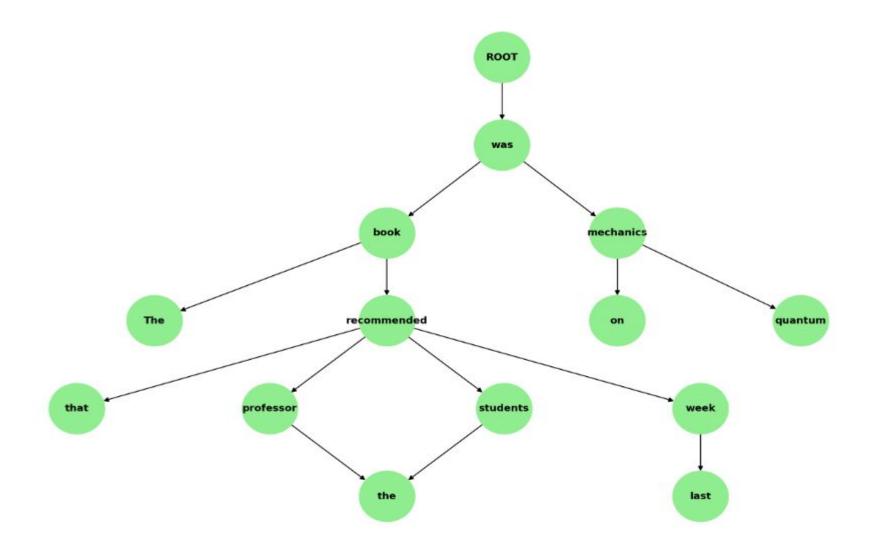
3. Neural Parsers:

- Leverage deep learning models for dependency parsing.
- Example: BERT-based parsers.

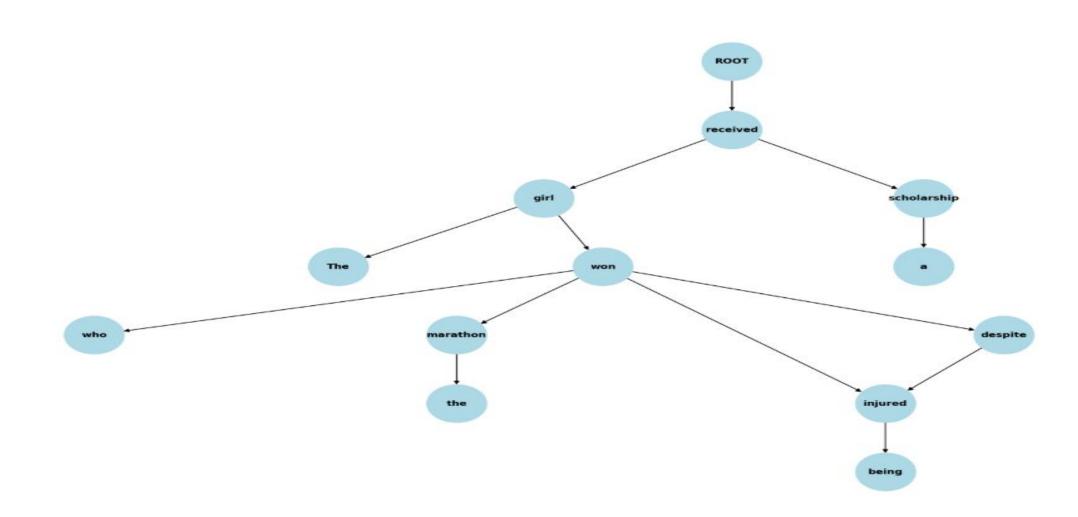
For the sentence: "The quick brown fox jumps over the lazy dog", a dependency tree would look like:



"The book that the professor recommended to the students last week was on quantum mechanics."



"The girl who won the marathon despite being injured received a scholarship."



• Dependency tree generation involves algorithms that analyze the syntactic structure of sentences based on the relationships between words. These algorithms fall under the domain of **dependency parsing** in Natural Language Processing (NLP).

Transition-Based Parsing

- Transition-based parsers incrementally build dependency trees by performing a sequence of actions (e.g., SHIFT, REDUCE).
- Key Algorithms:
 - Arc-Standard Parser: Builds dependency arcs bottom-up.
 - Arc-Eager Parser: Builds arcs as soon as possible (top-down approach).
 - Arc-Hybrid Parser: Combines aspects of both Arc-Standard and Arc-Eager.
- Popular Libraries: SpaCy, Stanford CoreNLP.

- Common Libraries and Tools
- 1. SpaCy: Lightweight, fast, and uses transition-based parsing.
- **2. Stanza (StanfordNLP):** Neural pipeline supporting dependency parsing.
- 3. UDPipe: Pre-trained models for Universal Dependencies datasets.
- 4. MaltParser: Implements transition-based dependency parsing.
- **5. ZPar:** A statistical dependency parsing library.

Projective vs. Non-Projective Dependency Trees

• Dependency trees can be classified as **projective** or **non-projective** based on whether the edges cross when drawn over the linear sequence of words in a sentence.

1. Projective Dependency Tree

In a projective tree:

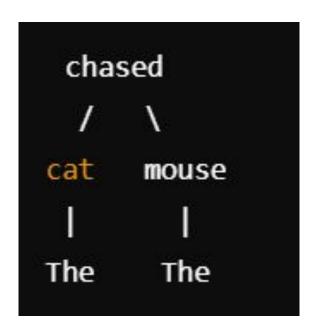
- All edges can be drawn without crossing each other.
- This structure is typical for strict word-order languages like English.
- Example Sentence (Projective):

"The cat chased the mouse."

Dependency Tree:

- •chased \rightarrow cat (subject)
- •chased → mouse (object)
- •cat \rightarrow The (determiner)
- •mouse → The (determiner)

- •The cat chased the mouse
- •The mouse that the cat chased ran away. (Non Projective)



2. Non-Projective Dependency Tree

In a non-projective tree:

- •At least one edge crosses another.
- •This structure occurs in free-word-order languages like Hindi, Russian, or Czech.

Example Sentence (Non-Projective):

"The report, I told you yesterday, is on the table."

Dependency Tree:

- •is → report (subject)
- •is \rightarrow on (prepositional phrase)
- •on \rightarrow table (object of preposition)
- •report → told (relative clause)
- •told \rightarrow I (subject of told)
- •told → yesterday (temporal modifier)
- •told → you (object)

