Natural Language Processing and Machine Translation

Parsing, Sequence Labelling and Parts-of-Speech Tagging

Abhishek Koirala

M.Sc. in Informatics and Intelligent Systems
Engineering



Language Structure and Meaning

Our purpose is to know how meaning is mapped onto what language structures

- [*Thing* The dog] is [*Place* in the garden]
- [*Thing* The dog] is [*Property* fierce]
- [Action [Thing The dog] is chasing [Thing the cat]]
- [State [Thing The dog] was sitting [Place in the garden] [Time yesterday]]



Word Categories: Traditional parts of speech

Noun Names of things boy, cat, truth Verb Action or state become, hit Used for noun Pronoun I, you, we Adverb Modifies V, Adj, Adv sadly, very Adjective Modifies noun happy, clever Conjunction Joins things and, but, while Preposition Relation of N to, from, into Interjection An outcry ouch, oh, alas, psst



Constituency

Group of words may behave as a single unit of phrase, called a constituent

Sentence have parts, some of which appear to have subparts. **Constituents** are those grouping of words that go together.

I hit the man with an axe.

I hit [the man with an axe].
I hit [the man] with an axe.

I talked to a man using a phone.

I talked to [a man using a phone]. I talked to [a man] using a phone.



Constituent Phrases

For constituents, we usually name them as phrases based on the word that heads the constituent:

the man from Amherst is a Noun Phrase (NP) because the head man is a noun

extremely clever is an Adjective Phrase (AP) because the head clever is an adjective

down the river is a Prepositional Phrase (PP) because the head down is a preposition

killed the rabbit is a Verb Phrase (VP) because the head killed is a verb

Note that a word is a constituent (a little one). Sometimes words also act as phrases. In:

Joe grew potatoes.

Joe and potatoes are both nouns and noun phrases.

Compare with:

The man from Amherst grew beautiful russet potatoes.

We say Joe counts as a noun phrase because it appears in a place that a larger noun phrase could have been.



Constituent Phrases

1. They appear in similar environments (before a verb)

Kermit the frog comes on stage

They come to Massachusetts every summer

December twenty-sixth comes after Christmas

The reason he is running for president comes out only now.

But not each individual word in the consituent

*The comes our... *is comes out... *for comes out...

2. The constituent can be placed in a number of different locations

Consituent = Prepositional phrase: On December twenty-sixth

On December twenty-sixth I'd like to fly to Florida.

I'd like to fly on December twenty-sixth to Florida.

I'd like to fly to Florida on December twenty-sixth.

But not split apart

*On December I'd like to fly twenty-sixth to Florida.

*On I'd like to fly December twenty-sixth to Florida.

The most common way of modelling constituency is using Context Free Grammars (CFG)



Context Free Grammar (CFG)

$$G = \langle T, N, S, R \rangle$$

- T is set of terminals (lexicon)
- ullet N is set of non-terminals For NLP, we usually distinguish out a set $P\subset N$ of preterminals which always rewrite as terminals.
- S is start symbol (one of the nonterminals)
- R is rules/productions of the form $X \to \gamma$, where X is a nonterminal and γ is a sequence of terminals and nonterminals (may be empty).
- ullet A grammar G generates a language L.



Context Free Grammar (CFG)

```
G = \langle T, N, S, R \rangle
T = \{that, this, a, the, man, book, flight, meal, include, read, does\}
N = \{S, NP, NOM, VP, Det, Noun, Verb, Aux\}
S = S
R = \{
 S \rightarrow NP VP
                            Det \rightarrow that \mid this \mid a \mid the
 S \rightarrow Aux NP VP
                         Noun \rightarrow book | flight | meal | man
 S \rightarrow VP
                         Verb → book | include | read
 NP \rightarrow Det NOM
                         Aux \rightarrow does
 NOM → Noun
 NOM → Noun NOM
 VP \rightarrow Verb
 VP → Verb NP
```

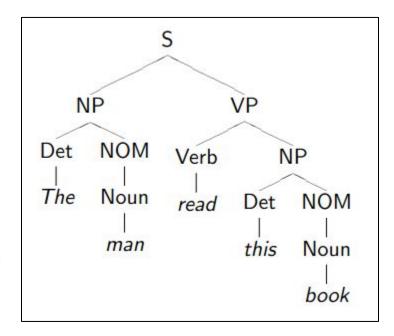


Parsing

- Our purpose is to run the grammar backwards to find the structure
- Parsing can be viewed as a search problem
- We search through the legal rewritings of the grammar. We want to find all structures matching an input string of words
- Two types:
 - Top down
 - o Bottom up



Context Free Grammar (CFG)





Top-Down Parsing

Top down parsing is goal directed

- A top-down parser starts with a list of constituents to be built
- It rewrites the goals in the goal list by matching one against the LHS of the grammar rules
- and expanding it with the RHS
- attempting to match the sentence to be derived

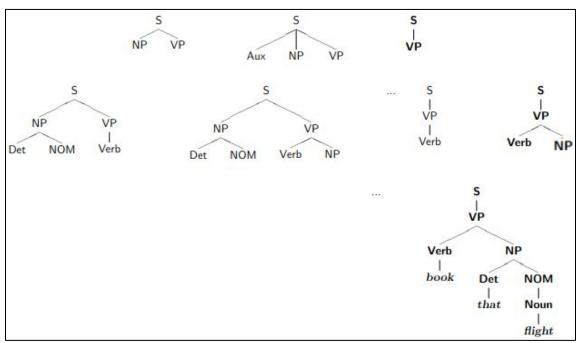
If a goal can be rewritten in several ways, then there is a choice of which rule to apply (search problem)



Top-Down Parsing

book that flight

$S \rightarrow NP VP$	$Det \to \mathit{that} \mid \mathit{this} \mid \mathit{a} \mid \mathit{the}$
$S \rightarrow Aux NP VP$	Noun → book flight meal man
$S \rightarrow VP$	Verb → book include read
NP → Det NOM	Aux → does
NOM → Noun	
NOM → Noun NOM	
$VP \rightarrow Verb$	
VP → Verb NP	





Button-up Parsing

Bottom up parsing is goal directed

- Initial goal list of a bottom-up parser is the string to be parsed
- If a sequence in the goal list matches the RHS of a rule, then this sequence may be replaced by the
 LHS of the rule
- Parsing is finished when the goal list contains just the start symbol

If the RHS of several rules match the goal list, then there is a choice of which rule to apply (search problem)

The standard presentation is as shift-reduce parsing.



Shift-Reduce Parser

Start with the sentence to be parsed in an input buffer

- a "shift" action corresponds to pushing hte next input symbol from the buffer onto the stack
- a "reduce" action occurs when we have a rule's RHS on top of the stack. To perform the reduction, we pop the rule's RHS off the stack and replace with the terminal on the LHS of the corresponding rul

If you end up with only the START symbol on the stac, then success !!

• If you don't, and no "shift" or "reduce" actions are possible, backtrack



Bottom-up parsing example

```
\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|}\hline S \rightarrow \mathsf{NP} \ \mathsf{VP} & \mathsf{Det} \rightarrow \mathit{that} \mid \mathit{this} \mid \mathit{a} \mid \mathit{the} \\ S \rightarrow \mathsf{Aux} \ \mathsf{NP} \ \mathsf{VP} & \mathsf{Noun} \rightarrow \mathit{book} \mid \mathit{flight} \mid \mathit{meal} \mid \mathit{man} \\ S \rightarrow \mathsf{VP} & \mathsf{Verb} \rightarrow \mathit{book} \mid \mathit{include} \mid \mathit{read} \\ \mathsf{NP} \rightarrow \mathsf{Det} \ \mathsf{NOM} & \mathsf{Aux} \rightarrow \mathit{does} \\ \mathsf{NOM} \rightarrow \mathsf{Noun} & \mathsf{NoM} \rightarrow \mathsf{Noun} \\ \mathsf{NOM} \rightarrow \mathsf{Noun} \ \mathsf{NOM} & \mathsf{VP} \rightarrow \mathsf{Verb} \\ \mathsf{VP} \rightarrow \mathsf{Verb} \ \mathsf{NP} & \\ \end{array}
```

Book that flight.

How do you parse this using shift reduce approach?



- (Cocke Kasami Younger) CKY Parser
- Bottom-up parser
- Dynamic programming approach
- Presumes a CFG in Chomsky Normal Form

Rules are all either $A \rightarrow BC$ or $A \rightarrow a$ (with A,B,C nonterminals and a a terminal)



function CKY (word w, grammar P) returns table

```
for i \leftarrow from 1 to LENGTH(w) do
  table[i-1, i] \leftarrow {A | A \rightarrow w<sub>i</sub> \in P }
for j \leftarrow from 2 to LENGTH(w) do
  for i ← from j-2 down to 0 do
        for k \leftarrow i + 1 to j - 1 do
           table[i,i] \leftarrow table[i,i] \cup \{A \mid A \rightarrow BC \in P,
                  B \in table[i,k], C \in table[k,j]
```

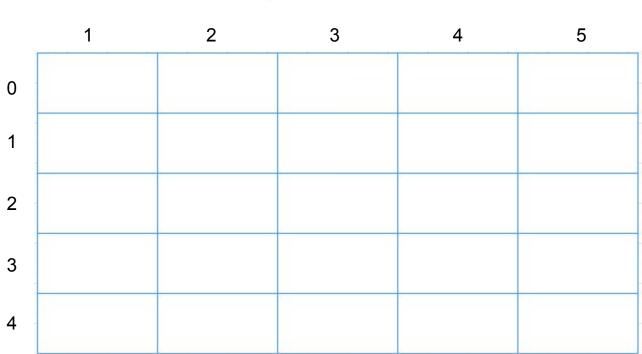
If the start symbol $S \in \text{table}[0,n]$ then $w \in L(G)$



Grammar rules

 $S \rightarrow NP \ VP$ $NP \rightarrow Det \ N$ $VP \rightarrow V \ NP$ $V \rightarrow includes$ $Det \rightarrow the$ $Det \rightarrow a$ $N \rightarrow meal$ $N \rightarrow flight$

⁰The ¹flight ²includes ³a ⁴meal ⁵

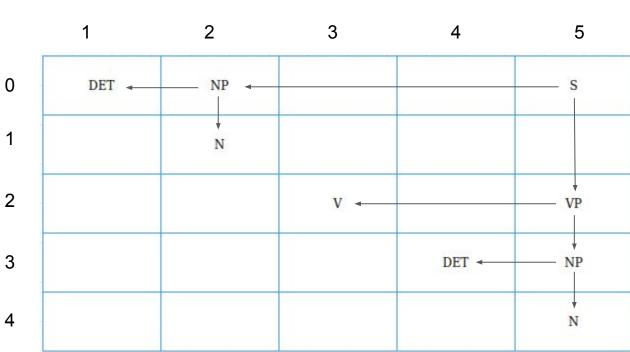




Grammar rules

 $S \rightarrow NP VP$ $NP \rightarrow Det N$ $VP \rightarrow V NP$ $V \rightarrow includes$ $Det \rightarrow the$ $Det \rightarrow a$ $N \rightarrow meal$ $N \rightarrow flight$







General Principles:

- A clever hybrid Bottom-Up and Top-Down approach
- Bottom-Up parsing completely guided by Top-Down predictions
- Maintains sets of "dotted" grammar rules that:
 - Reflect what the parser has "seen" so far
 - Explicitly predict the rules and constituents that will combine into a complete parse
- Similar to Chart Parsing partial analyses can be shared
- Time Complexity $O(n^3)$, but better on particular sub-classes
- Developed prior to Chart Parsing, first efficient parsing algorithm for general context-free grammars.



Three Main Operations:

- **Predictor:** If state $[A \to X_1... \bullet C...X_m, j] \in S_i$ then for every rule of the form $C \to Y_1...Y_k$, add to S_i the state $[C \to \bullet Y_1...Y_k, i]$
- Completer: If state $[A \to X_1...X_m \bullet, j] \in S_i$ then for every state in S_j of form $[B \to X_1...\bullet A...X_k, l]$, add to S_i the state $[B \to X_1...A \bullet ...X_k, l]$
- Scanner: If state $[A \to X_1... \bullet a...X_m, j] \in S_i$ and the next input word is $x_{i+1} = a$, then add to S_{i+1} the state $[A \to X_1...a \bullet ...X_m, j]$



The Earley Recognition Algorithm

The Main Algorithm: parsing input $x = x_1...x_n$

- 1. $S_0 = \{ [S' \to \bullet S \$, 0] \}$
- 2. For $0 \le i \le n$ do:

Process each item $s \in S_i$ in order by applying to it the *single* applicable operation among:

- (a) Predictor (adds new items to S_i)
- (b) Completer (adds new items to S_i)
- (c) Scanner (adds new items to S_{i+1})
- 3. If $S_{i+1} = \phi$, Reject the input
- 4. If i = n and $S_{n+1} = \{[S' \to S \ \bullet, 0]\}$ then Accept the input



```
S→NP VP
NP→art adj n
NP→ art n
NP→ adj n
VP→ aux VP
VP→ V NP
```

```
The large can can hold the water art adj n aux v art n $
```

```
Input X : art adj n aux v art n $

So : [S' \rightarrow . S \$, 0]
[S \rightarrow .NP VP, 0]
[NP \rightarrow .art adj n, 0]
[NP \rightarrow .art n, 0]
[NP \rightarrow .adj n, 0]
```



S→NP VP NP→art adj n NP→ art n NP→ adj n VP→ aux VP VP→ V NP

```
Input X: art adj n aux v art n $
So : [S' \rightarrow .S \$, 0]
        [S \rightarrow .NP VP, 0]
              [NP \rightarrow .art adj n, 0]
              [NP \rightarrow .art n, 0]
              [NP \rightarrow .adj n, 0]
S1 : [NP \rightarrow art.adj n, 0]
              [NP \rightarrow art .n, 0]
Input X: art adj n aux v art n $
```

```
Input X : art adj n aux v art n $
S2 : [NP \rightarrow art adj .n, 0]
Input X : art adj n aux v art n $
S3 : [NP \rightarrow art adj n., 0]
         [S \rightarrow NP.VP, 0]
             [VP \rightarrow .aux VP, 3]
             [VP \rightarrow V NP, 3]
```

S→NP VP NP→art adj n NP→ art n NP→ adj n VP→ aux VP VP→ V NP

```
Input X : art adj n aux v art n $
```

```
S4 : [VP \rightarrow aux .VP, 3]

[VP \rightarrow .aux VP, 4]

[VP \rightarrow .V NP, 4]
```

Input X: art adj n aux v art n \$

```
S5 : [VP \rightarrow V .NP, 4]

[NP \rightarrow.art adj n, 5]

[NP \rightarrow.art n, 5]

[NP \rightarrow.adj n, 5]
```

Input X: art adj n aux v art n \$

```
S6 : [NP \rightarrowart .adj n, 5]
[NP \rightarrowart .n, 5]
```

Input X : art adj n aux v art **n** \$

```
S7 : [NP \rightarrow art n., 5]

[VP \rightarrow V NP., 4]

[VP \rightarrow aux VP., 3]

[S \rightarrow NP VP., 0]

[S' \rightarrow S.\$, 0]
```

S8 : $[S' \rightarrow S \$., 0]$



Partial Parsing

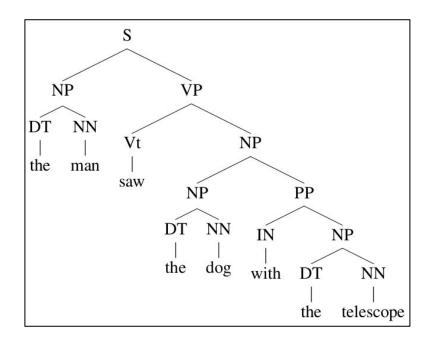
- Many language processing tasks do not require complex, complete parse tree for all inputs. For these
 tasks, a partial parse or a shallow parse of input sentences may be sufficient. Eg. Information
 extraction systems
- One such kind of partial parsing is known as chunking. Chunking is the process of identifying and
 classifying the flat, non-overlapping segments of a sentence that constitute the basic non recursive
 phrases corresponding to the major content-word parts-of-speech: noun phrases, verb phrases,
 adjective phrases and prepositional phrases.

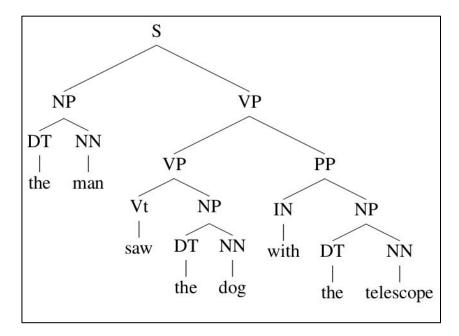
```
[NP The morning flight] [PP from] [NP Denver] [VP has arrived.]
```

- The bracketing notion defines the two fundamental tasks that are involved in chunking:
 - Segmenting
 - Labelling



Ambiguity in Context Free Grammar







Probabilistic Context-Free Grammars (PCFG)

A PCFG consists of

- A Context Free Grammar G = $(N, \sum_{i} S, R)$
- A parameter $q(\alpha o \beta)$

for each rule $\alpha \to \beta \in R$. The parameter $q(\alpha \to \beta)$ can be interpreted as the conditional probabilty of choosing rule $\alpha \to \beta$ in a left-most derivation, given that the non-terminal being expanded is α . For any $X \in N$, we have the constraint

$$\sum_{\alpha \to \beta \in R: \alpha = X} q(\alpha \to \beta) = 1$$

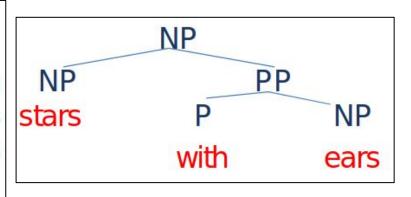
In addition we have $q(\alpha \to \beta) \ge 0$ for any $\alpha \to \beta \in R$.



Probabilistic Context-Free Grammars (PCFG)

0
0
7
3
0
0

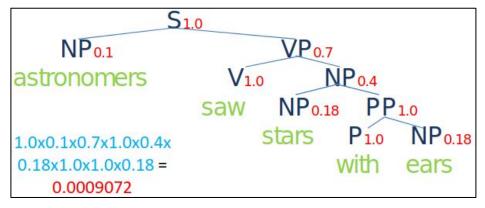
```
NP -> NP PP 0.4
NP -> astronomers 0.1
NP -> ears 0.18
NP -> saw 0.04
NP -> stars 0.18
NP -> telescopes 0.1
```

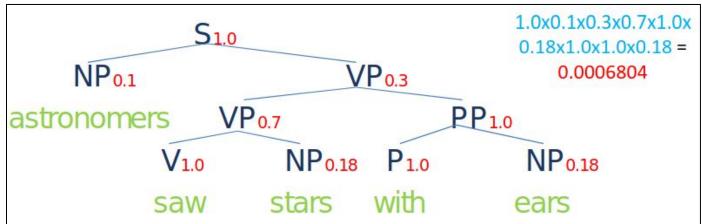


```
P(NP 	o NP PP, NP 	o stars, PP 	o P NP, P 	o with, NP 	o ears)
= P(S 	o NP PP) 	imes P(NP 	o stars | NP 	o NP PP)
\times P(PP 	o P NP | NP 	o NP PP, NP 	o stars)
\times P(P 	o with | PP 	o P NP, NP 	o NP PP, NP 	o stars)
\times P(NP 	o ears | P 	o with, PP 	o P NP, NP 	o NP PP, NP 	o stars)
```



Probabilistic Context-Free Grammars (PCFG)





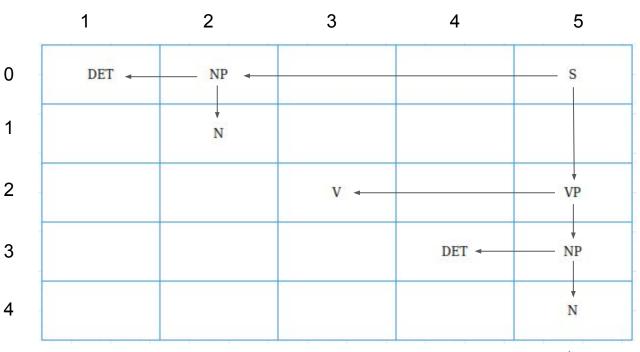


CKY Parser (PCFG)

Grammar rules

 $\begin{array}{l} S \rightarrow \text{NP VP } [0.8] \\ \text{NP} \rightarrow \text{Det N } [0.3] \\ \text{VP} \rightarrow \text{V NP } [0.2] \\ \text{V} \rightarrow \text{includes } [0.05] \\ \text{Det} \rightarrow \text{the } [0.4] \\ \text{Det} \rightarrow \text{a } [0.4] \\ \text{N} \rightarrow \text{meal } [0.01] \\ \text{N} \rightarrow \text{flight } [0.02] \\ \end{array}$

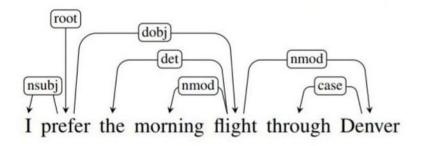
⁰The ¹flight ²includes ³a ⁴meal ⁵





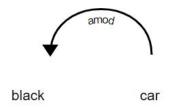
Dependency parsing

- Process of examining dependencies between phrases of a sentence in order to determine its grammatical structure
- The mechanism is based on the concept that there is a direct link between every linguistic unit of a sentence. These links are termed dependencies



Dependency parsing

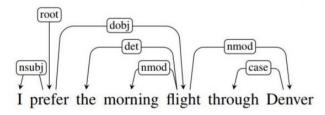
- Each relationship has one **head** and a **dependent** that modifies the **head**
- Each relationship is labelled according to the nature of the dependency between the head and the dependent.



Here a relationship exists between car and black because black modifies the meaning of car. Here, cat
acts as a the head and black is the dependent of the head. The nature of relationship here is amod
which stands for "Adjectival Modifier". Find all the universal dependency relations here



Dependency parsing



- Head-Dependent: In the arrows representing relationship, the origin word is the Head and the destination word is the Dependent
 - \circ Eg. (I, 'nsubj', prefer) \rightarrow 'prefer' is the Head and "I" is the dependent
- Root: Word which is the root of our parse tree.
- Grammar Functions and Arcs: Tags between each Head-Dependent pair is a grammar function
 determining the relation between the head and the dependent. The arrowhead carrying the tag is called
 an arc

Why we need to learn sentence structure?

- Humans need to work out what depends what
 - Thus, similarly, a model needs to understand sentence structure in order to interpret language correctly
 - E.g., coreference resolution

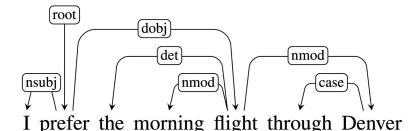
"I voted for Nader because he was most aligned with my values," she said.

- Human language is ambiguous by nature
 - Knowing these ambiguities allow us to watch out for these potential problems in our model



Building a parser

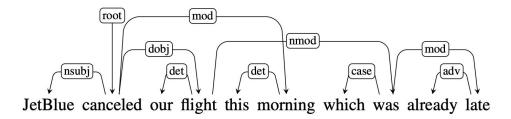
- A sentence is **parsed** by choosing for each word, what other (including ROOT) it is a
 dependent of
- To make the problem easier to solve, we impose some **constraints**:
 - a. There is a single designated root node that has no incoming arcs
 - b. With the exception of the root node, each vertex has exactly one incoming arc
 - c. There is a unique path from the root node to each vertex in V
 - d. Don't want cycles, e.g., A->B, B->A



Projectivity

Note that some dependency parsing algorithms are **projective**:

Projectivity: An arc from a head to a dependent is said to be projective **if there is a path from the head to every word that lies between the head and the dependent in the sentence**. A dependency tree is then said to be projective if all the arcs that make it up are projective.



In this example, the arc from **flight** to its modifier was is non-projective since there is no path from **flight** to the intervening words **this** and **morning**. A dependency tree is projective if it can be drawn with **no crossing edges**. Here there is no way to link flight to its dependent was without crossing the arc that links morning to its head.



Transition based Dependency Parsing

- It is a kind of shift reduce parsing originally developed for parsing programming languages
- Three transition operations:
 - LEFTARC: Assert a head dependent relation between the word at the top of the stack and the word directly below it;remove the lower word from the stack
 - RIGHTARC: Assert a head-dependent relation between the second word in the stac and the word at the top; remove the word at the top of the stack
 - SHIFT: Remove the word at the front of the input buffer and push it onto the stack



Transition based Dependency Parsing

Algorithm

```
function DEPENDENCYPARSE(words) returns dependency tree

state ← {[root], [words], [] } ; initial configuration
while state not final

t ← OR ACLE(state) ; choose a transition operator to apply
state ← APPLY(t, state) ; apply it, creating a new state
return state
```

How do parser know which operator to select?

- ⇒ The parser consults an oracle for advice on which operator to choose.
- ⇒ The oracle could be created using machine learning techniques and information on POS of words



Dependency Parsing Summary

- Dependency parsing is hard because of many possible ambiguities and paths
- Dependency treebanks provide a useful ground truth we can based on
- Two main approaches:
 - Transition-based: simple but does not work with non-projectivity
 - Graph-based: works with non-projectivity but very very slow...
- Common way:
 - Use transition-based parser and then fix all non-projective paths manually
- UAS and LAS are two common metrics for dependency parsing



Parts of Speech Tagging

- POS Tagging, also called grammatical tagging, is the process of marking up a word in a text(corpus)
 as corresponding to a particular part of speech, based on both its definition and its context
- POS Tagging is a prerequisite to simplify a lot of different problems
 - Text-to-speech Conversion

```
import nltk
from nltk import word_tokenize
nltk.download('punkt')
nltk.download('averaged_perceptron_tagger')
text = word_tokenize("They refuse to permit us to obtain the refuse permit")
nltk.pos_tag(text)
```

The word refuse is being used twice in this sentence and has two different meanings here. refUSE (/rəˈfyooz/)is a verb meaning "deny," while REFuse(/ˈrefˌyoos/) is a noun meaning "trash" (that is, they are not

```
[('They', 'PRP'),
('refuse', 'VBP'),
('to', 'TO'),
('permit', 'VB'),
('us', 'PRP'),
('to', 'TO'),
('obtain', 'VB'),
('the', 'DT'),
('refuse', 'NN'),
('permit', 'NN')]
```



Parts of Speech Tagging

POS Tagging can also be useful in applications such as

- Word Sense Disambiguation
- Question Answering
- Machine Translation



Rule based POS Taggers

- Typica rule based approaches use contextual information to assign tags to unknown or ambiguous words.
- Use dictionary or lexicon for getting possible tags for tagging each word
- Ambiguity is certain here too. If the word has more than one possible tag, the rule-based taggers use hand written rules to identify correct tag.
- Disambiguation can also be performed in rule based tagging by analyzing the linguistic feature of a word along with its preceding as well as following words.

Example of a rule:

If an ambiguous/unknown word X is preceded by a determiner and followed by a noun, tag it as an adjective.



Rule based POS Taggers

- Two stages of rule based taggers
 - First Stage: Uses a dictionary to assign each word a list of potential parts-of-speech
 - Second Stage: Uses a large lists of handwritten disambiguation rules to sort down the list to a single part-of-speech for each word
- Properties of rule based taggers
 - These taggers are knowledge driven taggers
 - The rules are built manually
 - The information is coded in the form of rules
 - The number of rules are limited. Hence, there is always a chance of dealing with unseen cases

Stochastic Taggers

- Any model which somehow incorporates frequency or probability may be properly labelled stochastic
- The simplest stochastic tagger appies the following approaches for POS tagging
 - Word Frequency approach →In this approach, the stochastic taggers disambiguate the words based on the probability that a word occurs with a particular tag. We can also say that the tag encountered most frequently with the word in the training set is the one assigned to an ambiguous instance of that word. The main issue with this approach is that it may yield inadmissible sequence of tags.
 - Tag Sequence probabilities →It is another approach of stochastic tagging, where the tagger calculates the probability of a given sequence of tags occurring. It is also called n-gram approach. It is called so because the best tag for a given word is determined by the probability at which it occurs with the n previous tags.



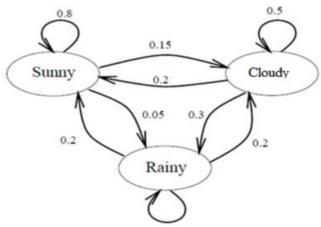
Before that, let's revise Markov Model

We have already discussed Markov Model in our previous chapter. Let's see how much you remember it.

Here's a hint:

$$P(q_1, ..., q_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(q_i|q_{i-1})$$

- Exercise 1: Given that today is Sunny, what's the probability that tomorrow is Sunny and the next day Rainy?
- Exercise 2: Assume that yesterday's weather was Rainy, and today is Cloudy, what is the probability that tomorrow will be Sunny?





Basic Understanding of HMM model

- To model any problem using a HMM, we need a set of observations and a set of possible states. The states in an HMM are hidden
- In the POS Tagging problem, the observations are the words themselves in the given sequence. As
 for the states, which are hidden, these would be the POS tags for the words
- Transition probabilities would be something like P (VP | NP) ie, what is the probability of the current word having a tag of Verb Phrase given that the previous tag was a Noun Phrase
- Emission probabilities would be P (john | NP) or P (will | VP) ie, what is the probability that the
 word given a tag is a Noun Phrase



Viterbi Algorithm

Training corpus

<s></s>	Martin	Justin	can	watch	Will	<e></e>
<s></s>	Spot	will	watch	Martin	<e></e>	
<s></s>	Will	Justin	spot	Martin	<e></e>	
<s></s>	Martin	will	pat	Spot	<e></e>	

Training Corpus with Correct POS Tag:

<s></s>	Martin	Justin	can	watch	Will	<e></e>
	N	N	M	V	N	
<s></s>	Spot	will	watch	Martin	<e></e>	
	N	M	V	N		
<\$>	Will	Justin	spot	Martin	<e></e>	
	M	N	V	N		
<s></s>	Martin	will	pat	Spot	<e></e>	
	N	M	V	N		

N: Noun M: Modal verb

V:Verb



Viterbi Algorithm

Creating Emission Probabilities

	N	М	٧
Martin	4/9	0	0
Justin	2/9	0	0
Will	1/9	3/4	0
Spot	2/9	0	1/4
Can	0	1/4	0
Watch	0	0	2/4
Pat	0	0	1/4
Σ	9	4	4

Training Corpus with Correct POS Tag:

	N	M	V	N		
<s></s>	Martin	will	pat	Spot	<e></e>	
	M	N	V	N		
<\$>	Will	Justin	spot	Martin	<e></e>	
	N	M	V	N		
<s></s>	Spot	will	watch	Martin	<e></e>	
	N	N	M	V	N	
<s></s>	Martin	Justin	can	watch	Will	<e></e>

N: Noun M: Modal verb

V:Verb



Viterbi Algorithm

Creating State Transition Probabilities

	N	М	٧	<e></e>
<s></s>	3/4	1/4	0	0
N	1/9	1/3	1/9	4/9
М	1/4	0	3/4	0
٧	1	0	0	0

$$P(w_i | w_{i-1}) = \frac{count(w_{i-1}, w_i)}{count(w_{i-1})}$$

Training Corpus with Correct POS Tag:

<s></s>	Martin	Justin	can	watch	Will	<e></e>
	N	N	M	V	N	
<s></s>	Spot	will	watch	Martin	<e></e>	
	N	M	V	N		
<\$>	Will	Justin	spot	Martin	<e></e>	
245	M	N	V	N		
<s></s>	Martin	will	pat	Spot	<e></e>	
	N	M	V	N		

N: Noun M: Modal verb V:Verb

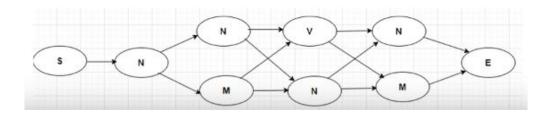


Viterbi Algorithm

Test Data

<S> Justin will spot Will <E>

will	Spot	Will	
N	V	N	
М	N	М	
	N	N V	



What is the correct POS Tags for the test data sequence?





