

# Natural Language Parsing with Context-Free Grammars

SPFLODD  
Spring 2018

# Problem: Extracting meaning or intent from natural language..

- Whole Foods Raises Prices For Suppliers
- What happened?

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- Whole Foods | Raises Prices | For Suppliers
- What happened?

# Meaning from natural language..

- Asteroid Skimming Past Earth May Loom Larger Than Exploding Russian Meteor

# Meaning from natural language..

- *Asteroid Skimming Past Earth May Loom Larger Than Exploding Russian Meteor*

# Meaning from natural language..

- Uber and Waymo have reached a \$245 million settlement in their massive legal fight over self-driving-car technology

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- Uber and Waymo *have reached a \$245 million settlement in their massive legal fight over self-driving-car technology*
- Sentences are composed of groups of words that carry key elements of their meaning
  - Changing these groups will *locally* modify the meaning..

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# Can be reordered

- **The champions of banana will eat a banana pie to determine who's a better chimpanzee in a friendly faceoff**
  - The champions of banana will eat a banana pie to determine who's a better chimpanzee in a friendly faceoff
- **Whole foods raises prices for suppliers**
  - For suppliers whole foods raises prices

# Grouping the words differently can change meaning

- Spare him *not kill him*



- Spare him not *kill him*



# Though regrouping may sometimes permit Yoda..

- The champions of banana will *eat a banana pie* in a friendly faceoff *to determine who's a better chimpanzee*
- *To determine who's a better chimpanzee* in a friendly faceoff *eat a banana pie* the champions of banana will



# Contiguity

- The groups are (generally) contiguous
  - **The champions of banana** will *eat a banana pie* in a friendly faceoff *to determine who's a better chimpanzee*
- The groups often have subgroups
  - **The champions of banana** will *eat a banana pie* in a friendly faceoff *to determine who's a better chimpanzee*
- But splitting and redistributing the segments can change the meaning (if the result is

# Meaning from natural language..

- The theory that sentences in a language have recursive block structure is ~2500 years old!
  - Pāṇini



- An essential property of these block structures is that logical units never overlap
  - i.e. each block is contiguous
    - Although subblocks may be reordered within a block

# Constituents

- **The champions of banana** will *eat a banana pie* in a friendly faceoff *to determine who's a better chimpanzee*
- We will call these word groups *constituent phrases* of the sentence
  - Constituents may have constituents..

# Constituents and parts of speech

- The champions of banana will *eat a banana pie* in a friendly faceoff *to determine who's a better chimpanzee*
- Constituent phrases will typically act as parts of speech
  - E.g.: The champions of banana: Looks like a noun
  - E.g.: will eat a banana : Looks like a verb

# Recap: Parts of speech

- Noun: **Names** of persons, places, things, feelings etc
  - John, cat, car, happiness
- Pronoun: Stands for a noun
  - I, you, we
- Verb: Words that represent **action or doing**
  - Go, buy, be
- Adjectives: **Modifiers** for *noun*
  - Tall, fast, happy

# Penn Treebank (Marcus et al., 1993)

- A million words (40K sentences) of *Wall Street Journal* text (late 1980s).
  - This is important to remember!
- Parsed by experts; consensus parse for each sentence was published.
- Attempts to be theory-neutral, probably more accurate to say that it represents its own syntactic theory.
- Many other treebanks now available in other

# According to the Penn Tree Bank

1.	CC	Coordinating conjunction	PRP\$	Possessive pronoun	
2.	CD	Cardinal number	2.	RB	Adverb
3.	DT	Determiner	3.	RBR	Adverb, comparative
4.	EX	Existential there	4.	RBS	Adverb, superlative
5.	FW	Foreign word	5.	RP	Particle
6.	IN	Preposition or subordinating	6.	SYM	Symbol
	.	.	7.	TO	to

# Constituents and parts of speech

- Constituent phrases will typically act as parts of speech
  - E.g.: The champions of banana: Looks like a noun
  - E.g.: will eat a banana : Looks like a verb
- Phrases take the characteristics of the *head* word
  - The word that governs the meaning
  - We label the phrase by the POS category of the

# Or More Correctly

- Constituent phrases have constituent phrases
  - “The *champions* of banana”: Noun phrase
  - “will *eat* banana pie in a friendly face off to determine who’s a better chimpanzee”: Verb phrase
  - Note: Simply focusing on the main two terms gives you most of the meaning
- Sub-phrases
  - (NP

# Challenge

- *How* to segment the text
  - How to find the constituent phrases
  - Needed, to interpret it
- To do so, we will first describe a *grammar* for the language
- But first.. lets *formally* define language

# What is a formal language

- A formal language is a set of strings formed together with a set of rules.
- More formally:
  - Let  $\Sigma$  be a set of symbols

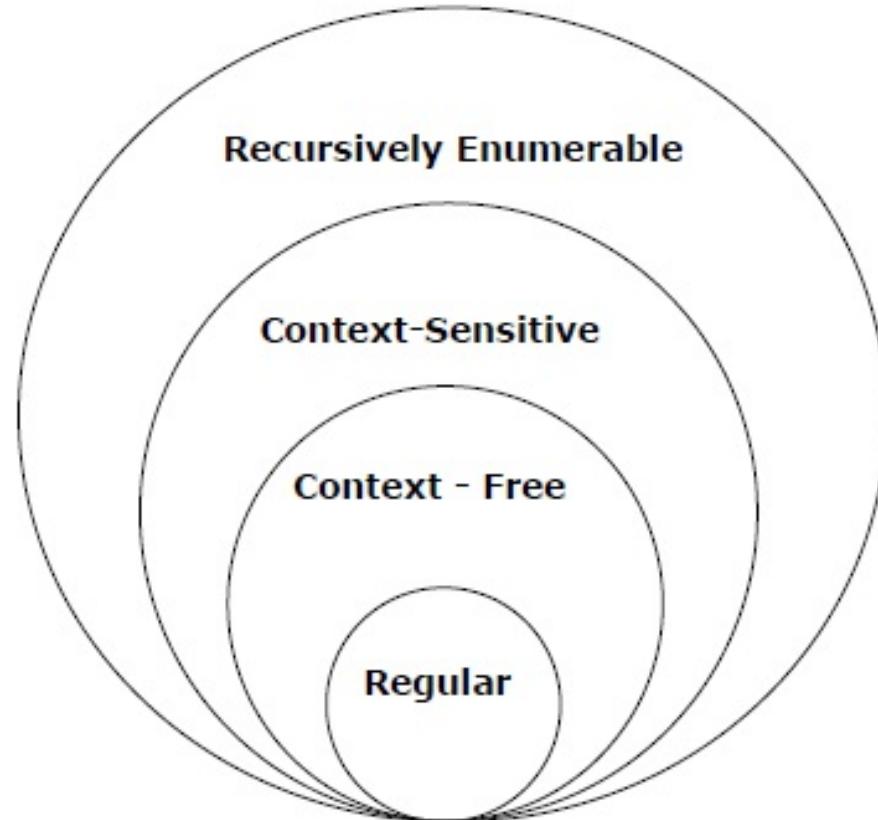
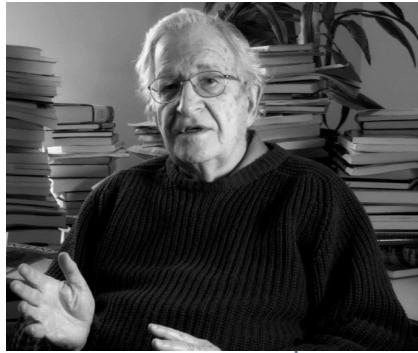
# Formal Grammar

- A formal grammar is the set of language
- It comprises  $\langle \Sigma, N, P, S \rangle$ :
  - A finite set of *terminal symbols*
    - Also called its alphabet
  - A finite set of *non-terminal symbols*
  - A set of production rules  $P$

# “Recognizing” a language

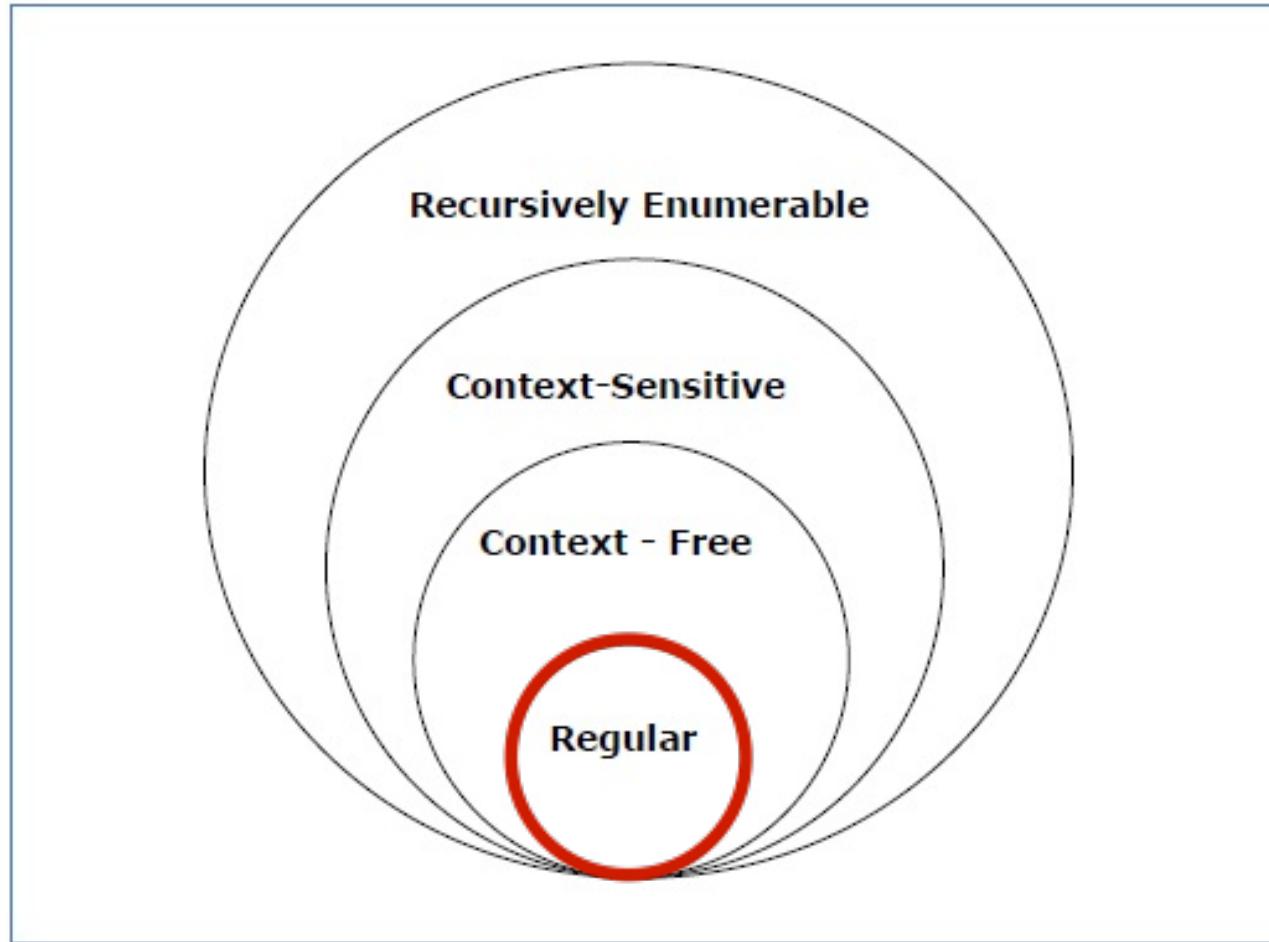
- Given a language  $L$  c with a specific set of rules..

# The Chomsky Hierarchy of Language



The Chomsky hierarchy of languages. Each language type is characterized by the type of grammar required to construct it

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# Regular language

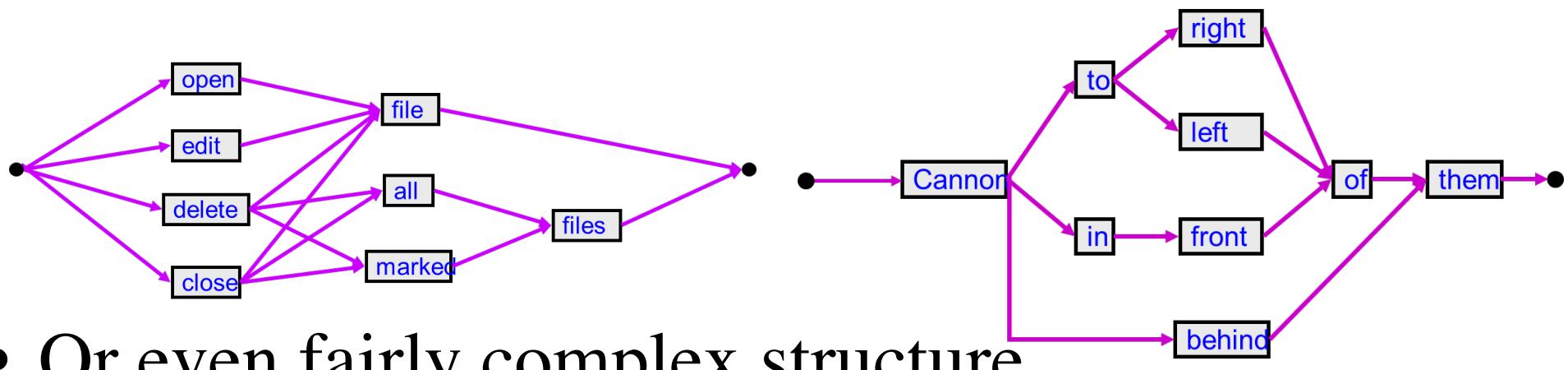
- A *regular* language can be produced by a regular grammar.
- A regular grammar has rules of the form:
  - $B \rightarrow a; \quad B \in N, \quad a \in \Sigma$
  - $B \rightarrow aC; \quad C \in N$
  - $B \rightarrow \varepsilon, \quad$  where  $\varepsilon$  is the empty string

# Regular language

- A *regular language*
  - A regular grammar
    - $B \rightarrow a; \quad B \rightarrow \dots$
    - $B \rightarrow aC; \quad C \rightarrow \dots$
    - $B \rightarrow \varepsilon, \quad \text{with } \varepsilon \neq a$
- All strings produced by a regular grammar can be viewed as being obtained by incremental extension of substrings by one symbol at a time
- Even if the grammar originally specified increments in blocks of symbols with more complex rules, it can be redefined as an equivalent grammar based on incremental one-symbol extensions
- If such redefinition is not possible, the grammar is not regular

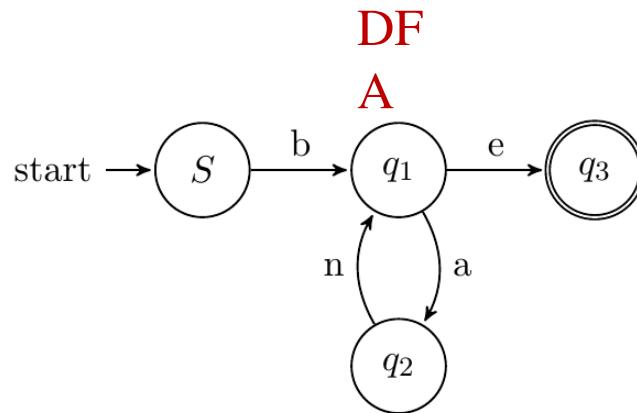
# Regular language examples

- Regexps
- Restricted sets of commands, poetry..



- Or even fairly complex structure
  - Can even produce all possible word sequences for a fixed vocabulary
    - But not “selective” enough for proper natural language

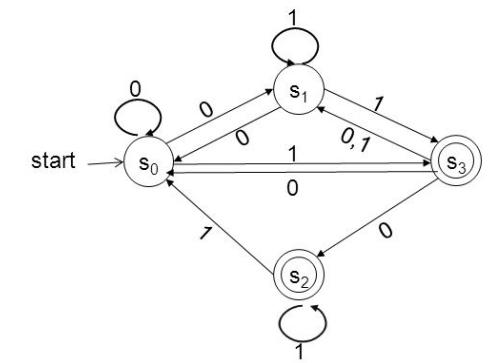
# Regular Languages



Finite State Automaton, accepting the pattern  $b(an)+e$

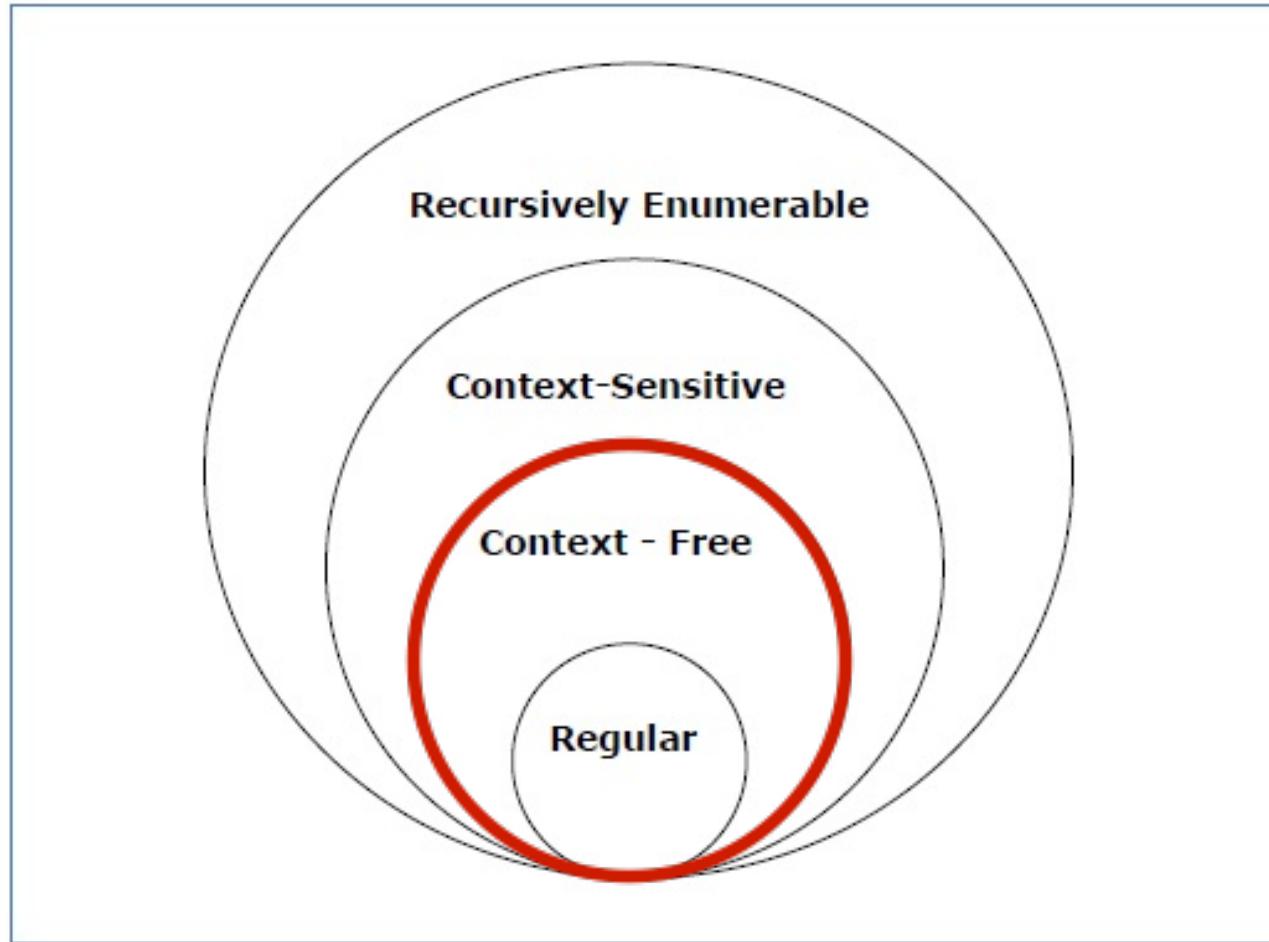
**NDF**  
Example : Find the state diagram for the NDFA with the state table shown in table. The final states are  $s_2$  and  $s_3$

state	f	
	Input 0	1
$s_0$	$s_0, s_1$	$s_3$
$s_1$	$s_0$	$s_1, s_3$
$s_2$		$s_0, s_2$
$s_3$	$s_0, s_1, s_2$	$s_1$



- Regular languages can be recognized by finite-state automatons
  - A machine with a finite number of states, including some “terminal” states
  - Transitions from one state to another by

# The Chomsky Hierarchy of Language



The Chomsky hierarchy of languages. Each language type is characterized by the type of grammar required to construct it

# CFG

- A CFG comprises  $\langle \Sigma, N, P, \cdot \rangle$ , where:
  - have the form:
    - $B \rightarrow \text{something}; B \in N$
    - Only restriction, the production may appear in any context it appears in
      - i.e. the LHS of the production

# CFGs are not (necessarily) finite state

- Consider the production rules
  - $S \rightarrow A; A \rightarrow bAc; A \rightarrow a; A \rightarrow \epsilon$
- This produces the following strings
  - $\epsilon$  (*empty string*),  $a$ ,  $bc$ ,  $bac$ ,  $bbcc$ ,
  - Number of  $bs$  is equal to the number of
    - May be infinite
- To produce the last  $c$  must be aware

# CFGs are not (necessarily) finite state

- Consider the production rules
  - $A \rightarrow bAc; A \rightarrow a; A \rightarrow \epsilon$
- This produces the following strings
  - $\epsilon$  (*empty string*),  $a, bc, bac, hhcc,$
  - Number of  $bs$  is eq
    - May be infinite
- To produce the last  $a$  must be aware

Is this Markov?

# The Chomsky Normal Form

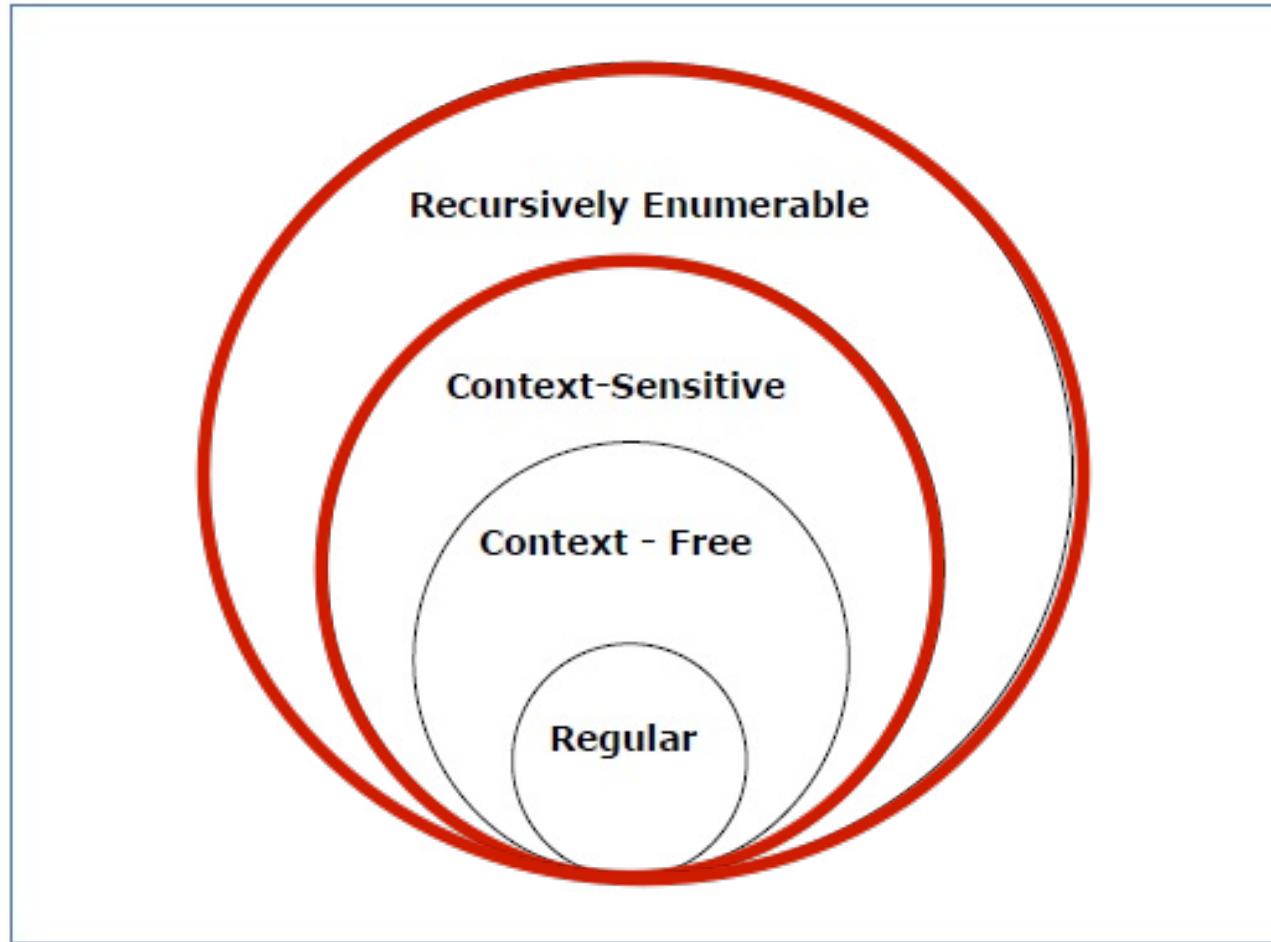
- The CNF representation of a CF
- $G = \langle \Sigma, N, P, S \rangle$ 
  - $S \rightarrow \varepsilon$  [empty string]
  - $A \rightarrow a; A \in N, a \in \Sigma$ 
    - Non terminal produces a terminal

$$A \rightarrow a \wedge B C \rightarrow A B C \in M$$

# Examples of languages produced by a CFG

- Programming languages
  - Every open loop must be closed
    - Regardless of size of program within the loop
      - Which may itself have loops
  - Parentheses must be closed
- Natural language?

# The Chomsky Hierarchy of Language



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# Context-sensitive and higher grammars

- Context-sensitive grammar: Production rules depend on context
- Recursively-enumerable grammar: Any grammar that can be recognized by a Turing machine
- Actual unlimited natural language is not well modeled even by recursively enumerable grammar according to Chomsky

# Typical uses of language

- *Check* if a given string belongs to a language
  - Can this have been produced by language X
  - Recognition (regexp)
  - Verification (computer programs)
- Guess *how* it was produced
  - Determine its structure
    - *Parsing*

# Returning to our problem

- The champions of banana will *eat a banana pie* in a friendly faceoff *to determine who's a better chimpanzee*
- How do we identify the constituent phrases?

# Natural language can be modeled by a CFG

- Grammatically spoken/written language largely follows a CFG structure
  - Natural spoken language doesn't, but parts of it nevertheless do
- Model the language with a CFG
- Determine the constituents of any sentence by *parsing* it with a CFG
  - Its not perfect it's a *model*

# An example of a CFG

- $\Sigma = \{that, this, a, the, man, book\}$
- $N = \{S, NP, NOM, VP, Det, Noun, Verb, Aux\}$
- $P:$ 
  - $S \rightarrow NP$
  - $S \rightarrow Aux \ NP \ VP$
  - $S \rightarrow VP$

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Note: a non-terminal may be expanded by multiple production rules.  
a terminal may appear against multiple non-terminals.

# Simplified

- $\Sigma = \{that, this, a, the, man, book\}$
- $N = \{S, NP, VP, Det, Noun, Verb\}$ 
  - $Det \leftarrow \{a, the\}$
  - $Noun \leftarrow \{man, book\}$
  - $Verb \leftarrow \{book\}$
- $P:$ 
  - $- S \rightarrow NP VP$
  - $- S \rightarrow Aux NP VP$
  - $- S \rightarrow VP$

# Finding the constituents

- *The man read this book*

$S \rightarrow NP VP$   
 $S \rightarrow Aux NP VP$   
 $S \rightarrow VP$   
 $NP \rightarrow Det Noun$   
 $VP \rightarrow Verb$   
 $VP \rightarrow Verb NP$

$Det \rightarrow that | this | a | the$   
 $Noun \rightarrow book | flight | meal | man$   
 $Verb \rightarrow book | include | read$   
 $Aux \rightarrow does$

**S** (The man read this book)

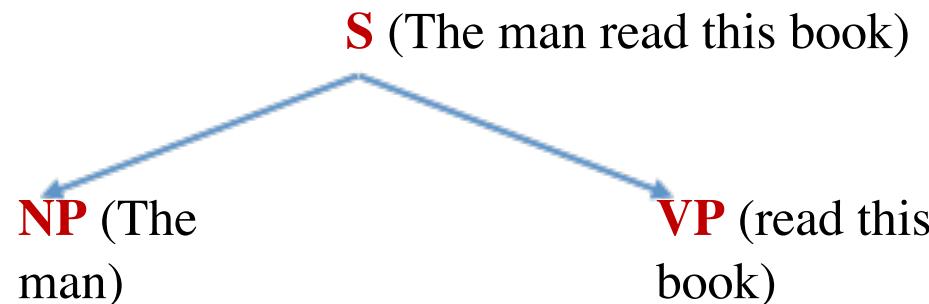
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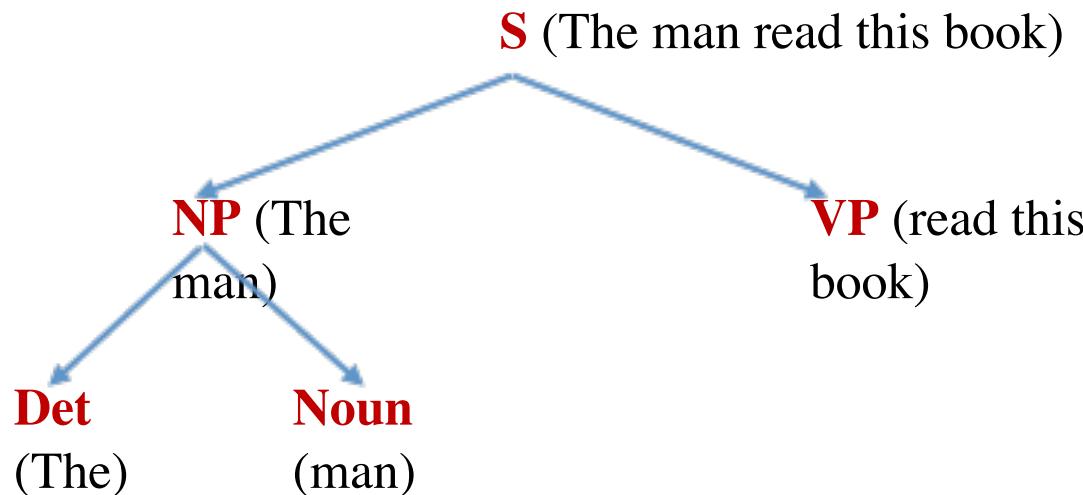
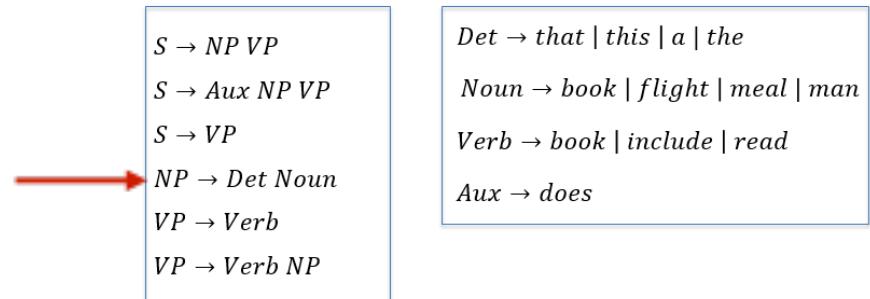
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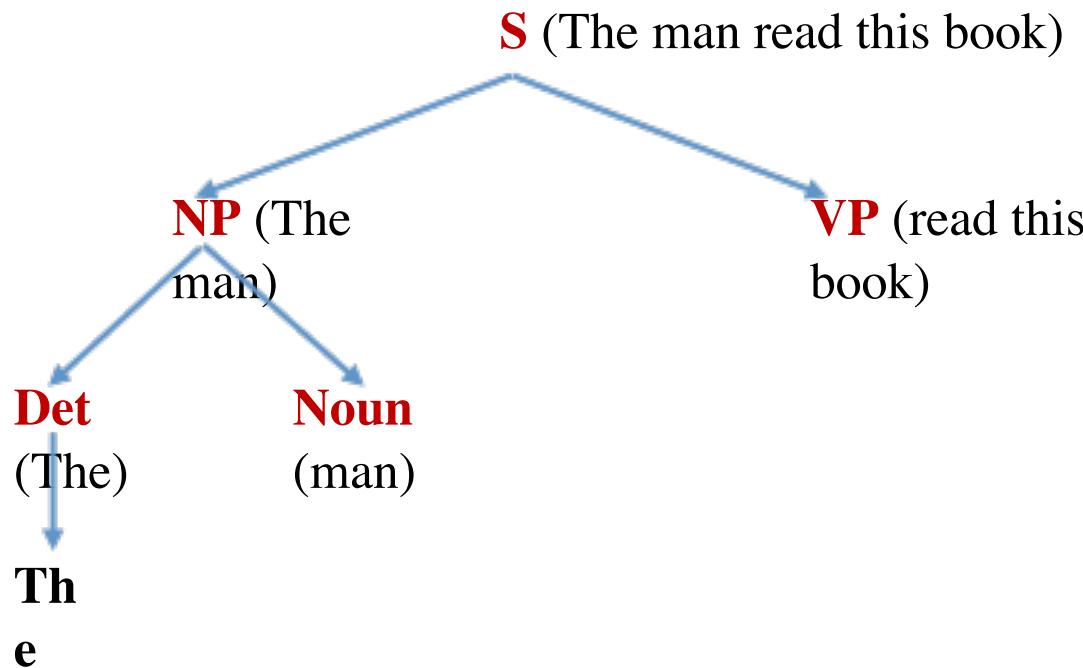
- *The man read this book*



# Finding the constituents

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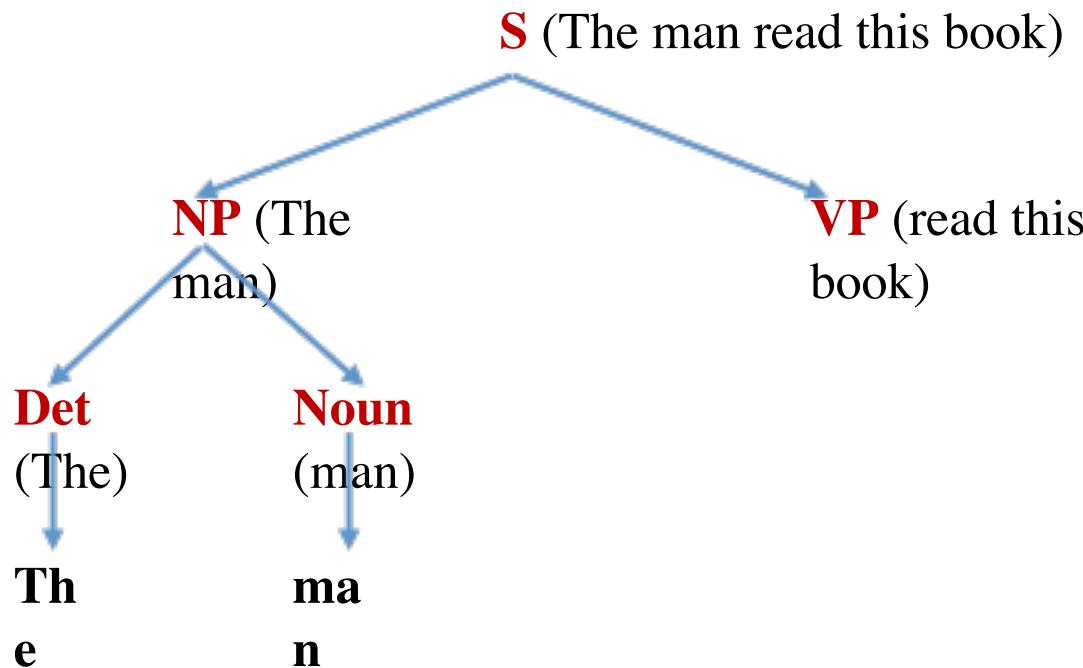
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$NP \rightarrow Det Noun$		$Aux \rightarrow does$
$VP \rightarrow Verb$		
$VP \rightarrow Verb NP$		



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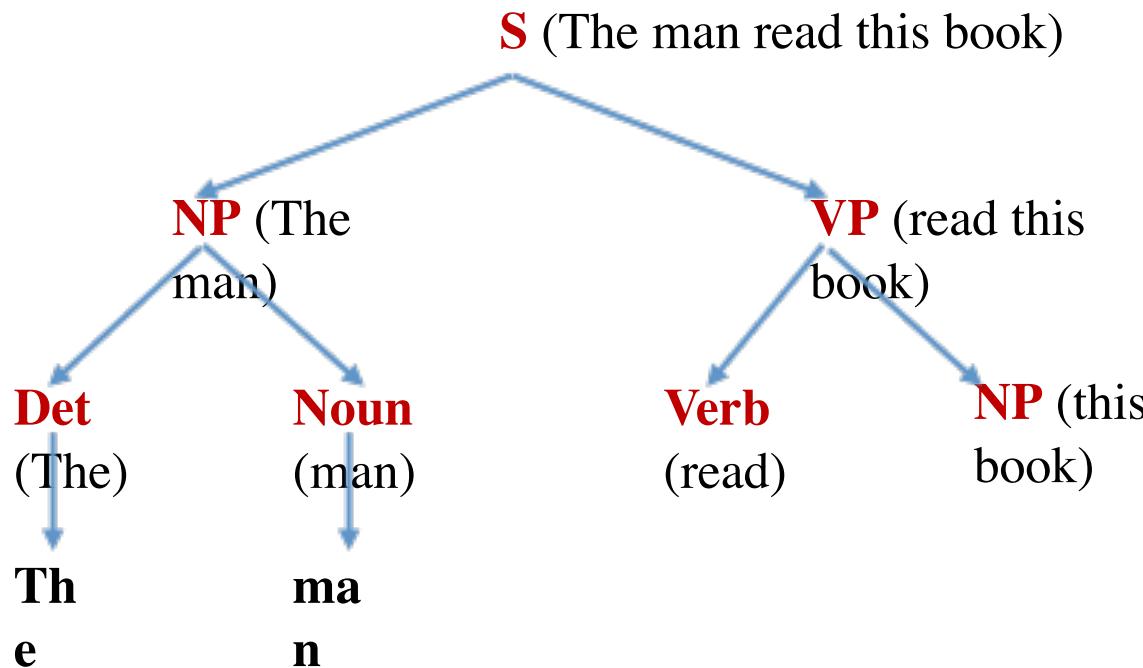


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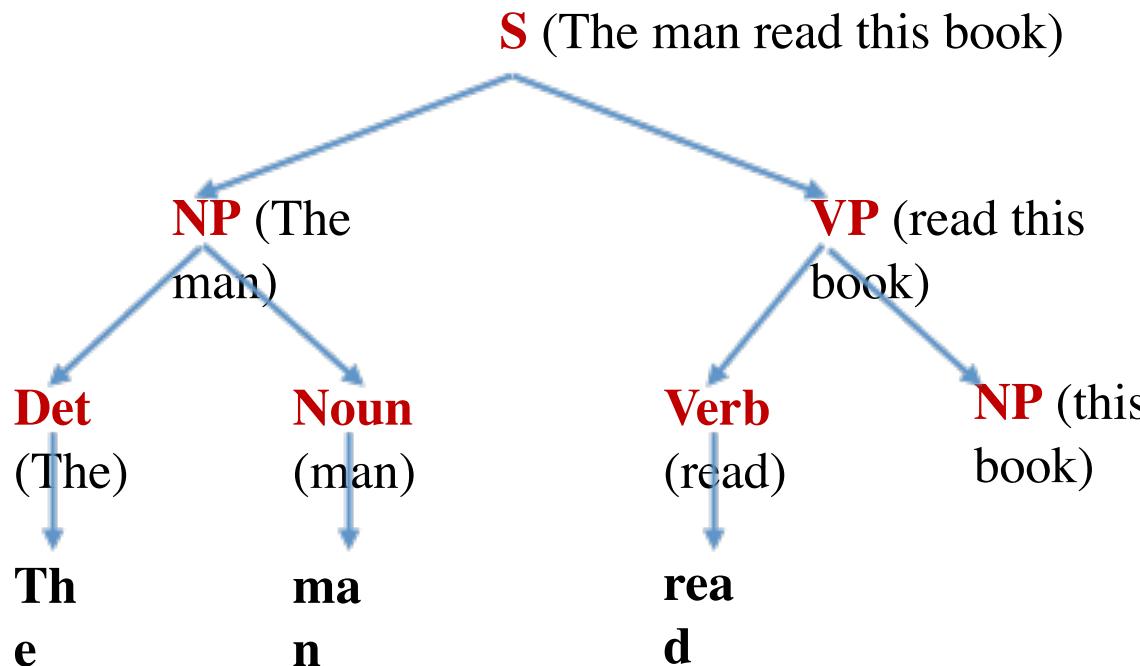
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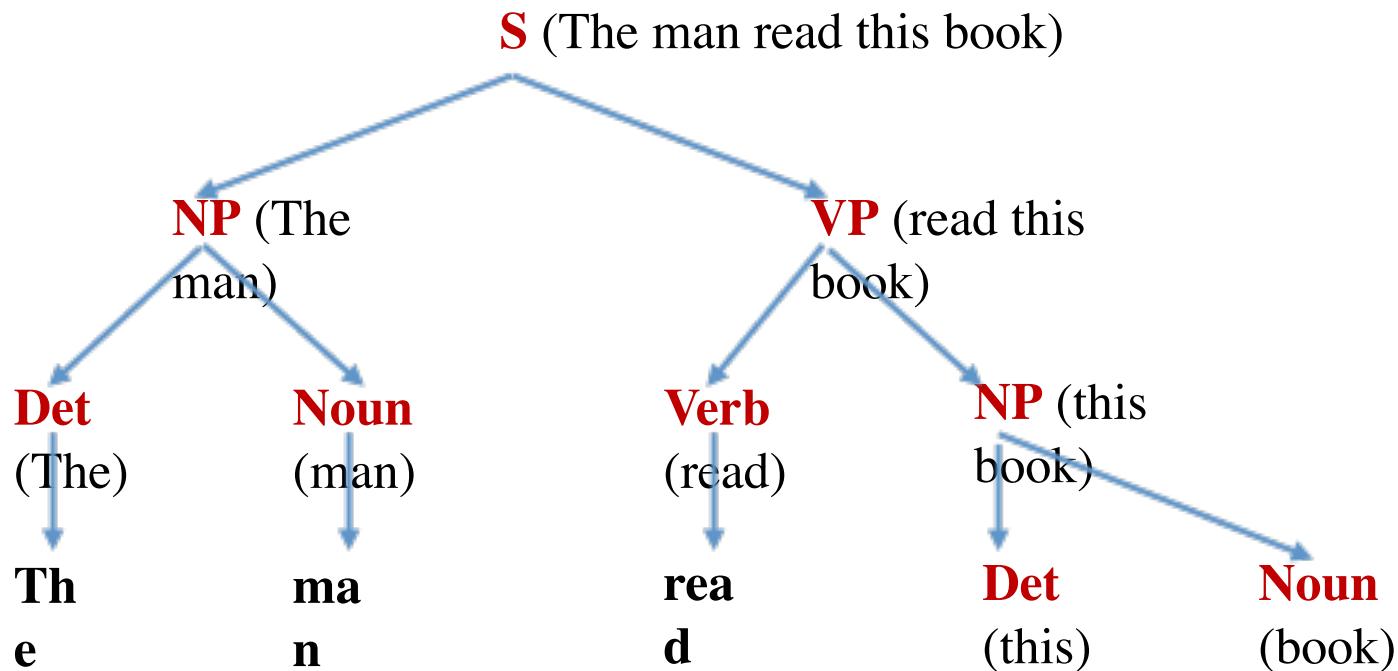
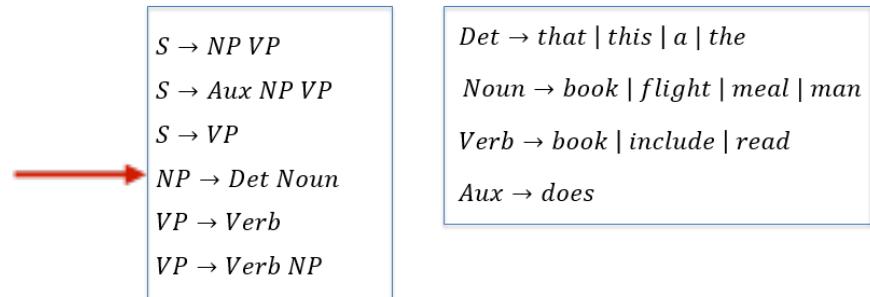
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$VP \rightarrow Verb$	
$VP \rightarrow Verb NP$	



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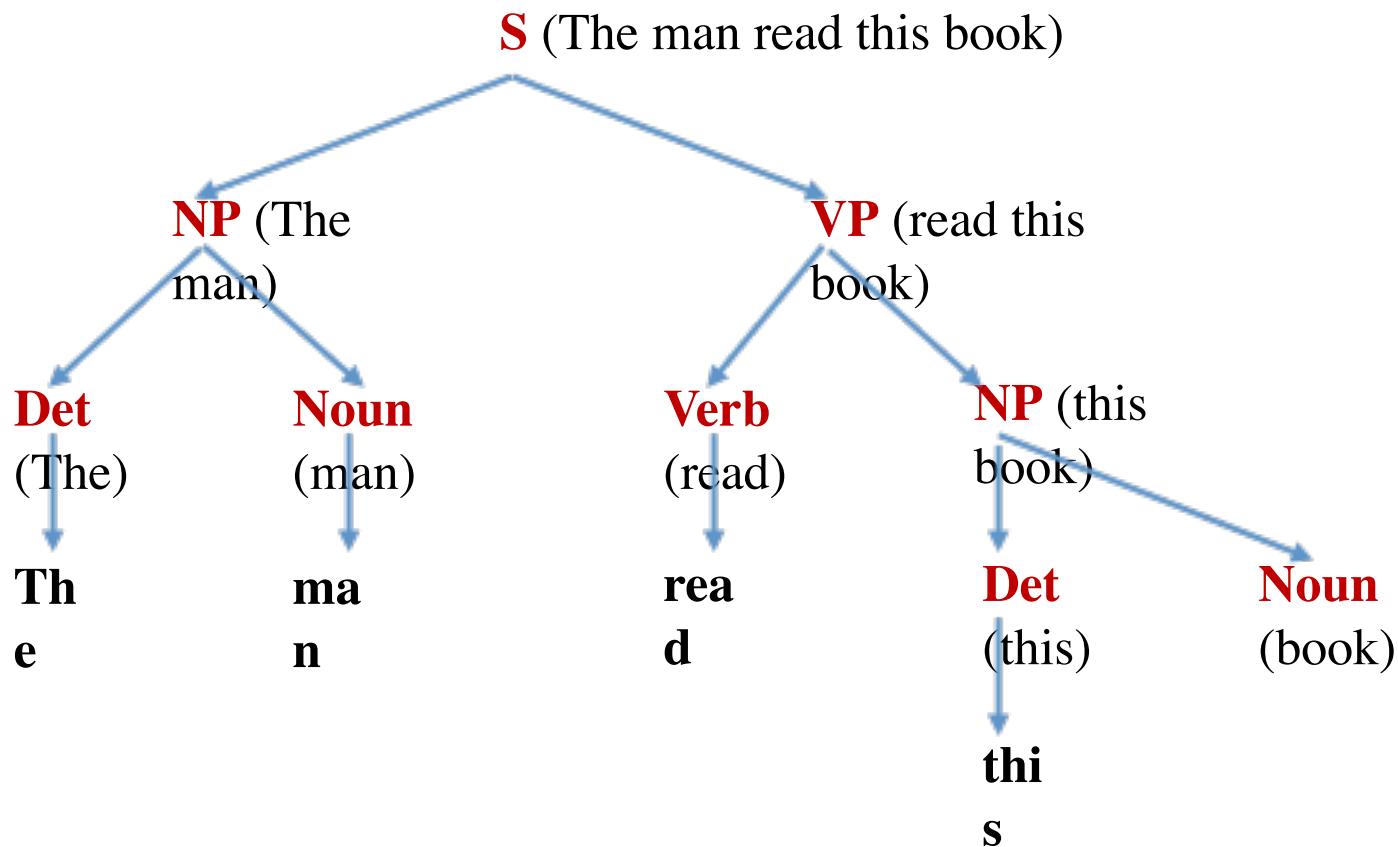
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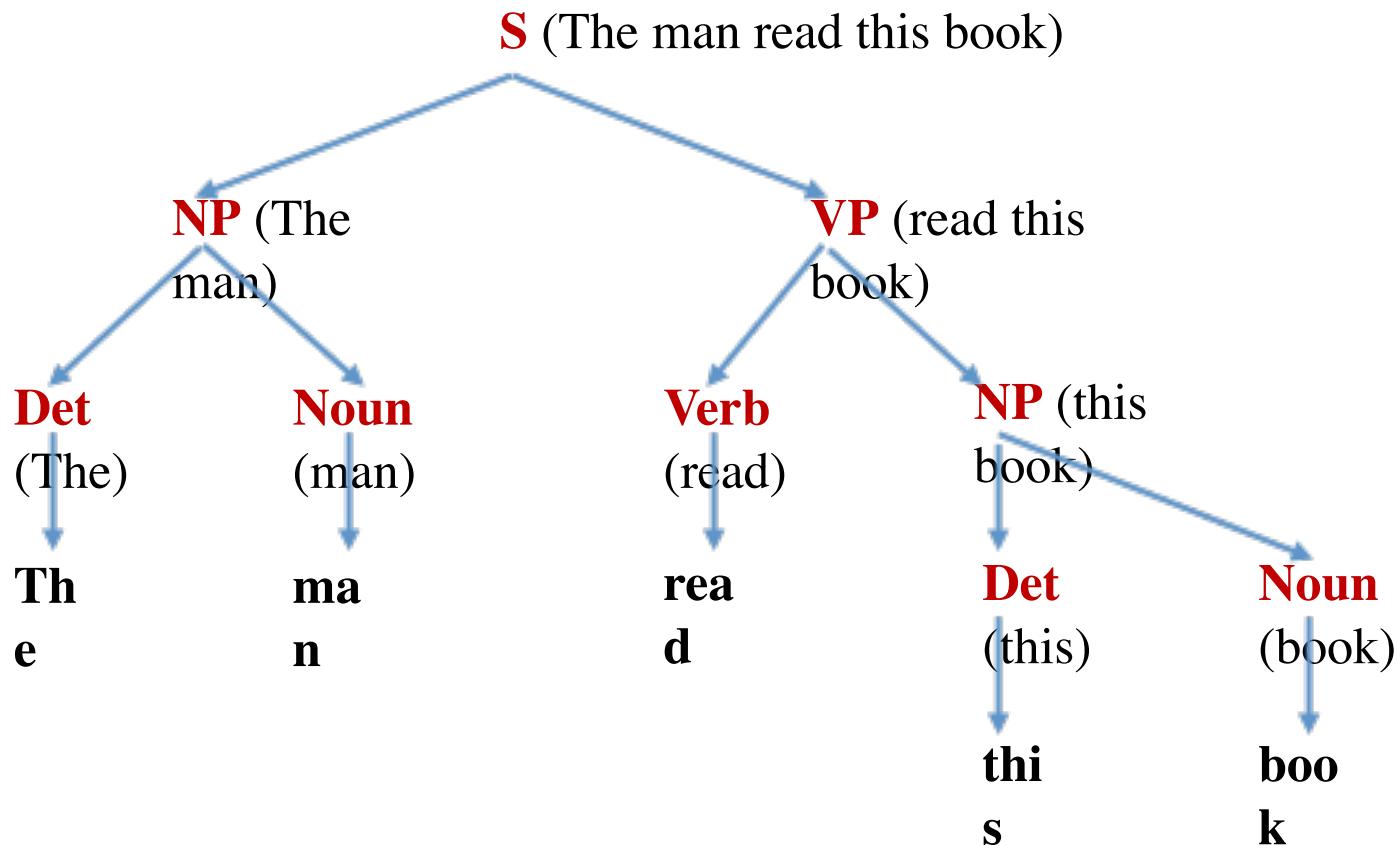
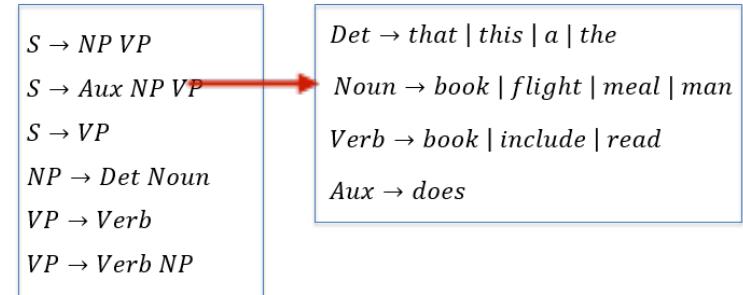
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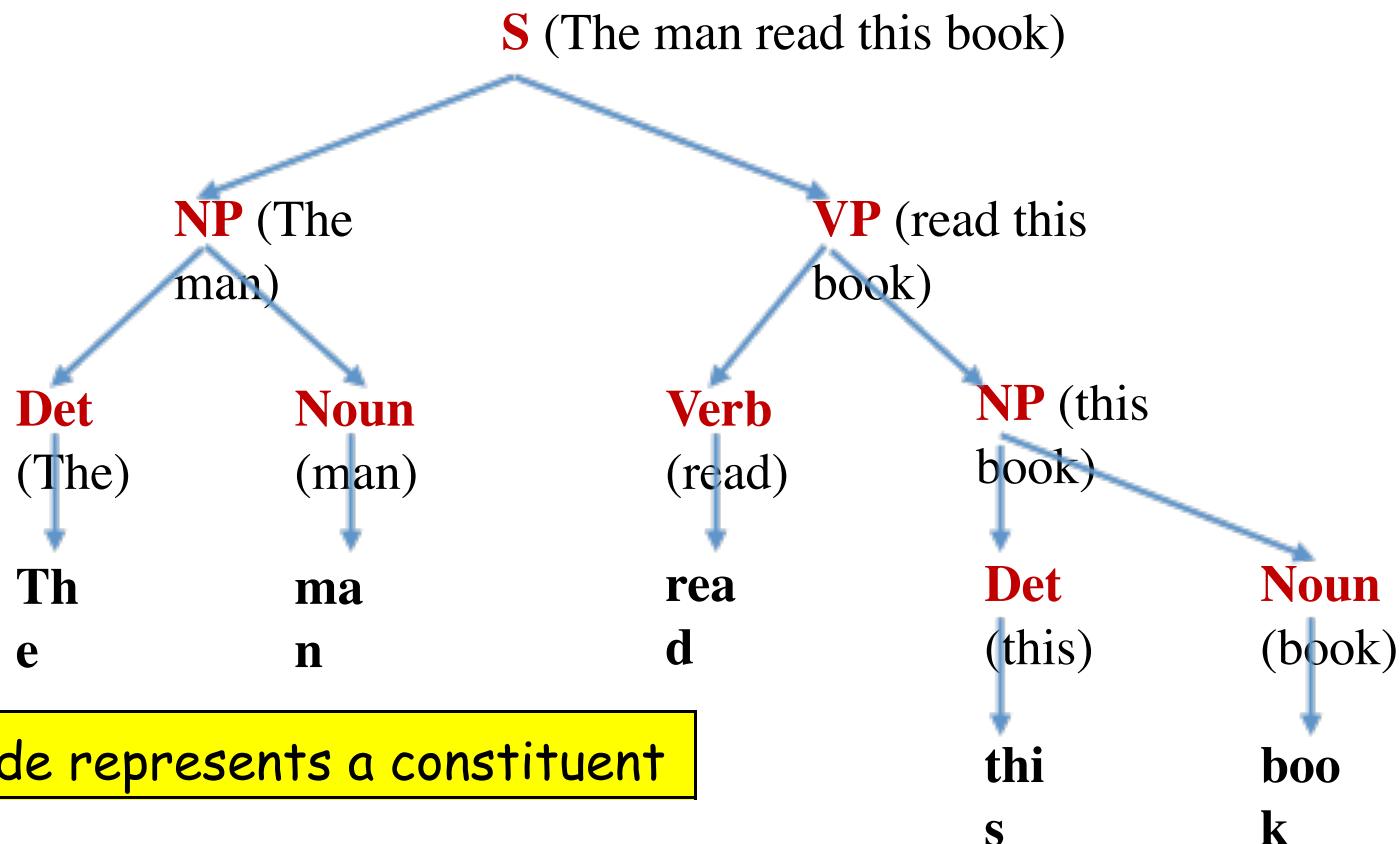
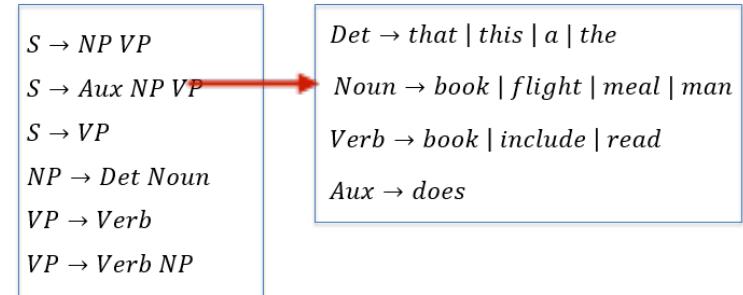
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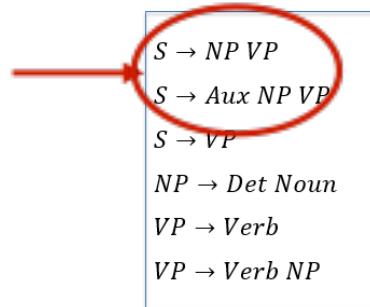
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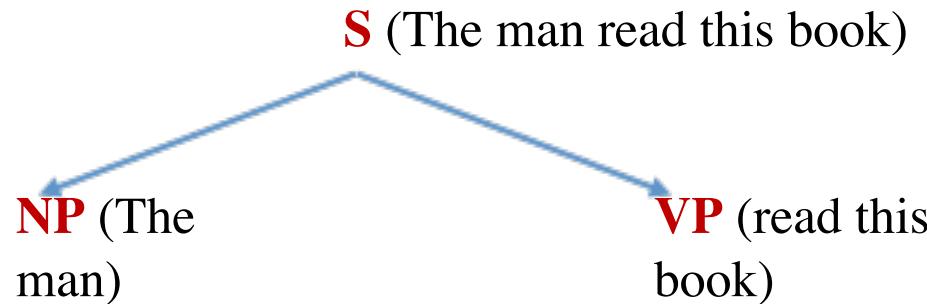


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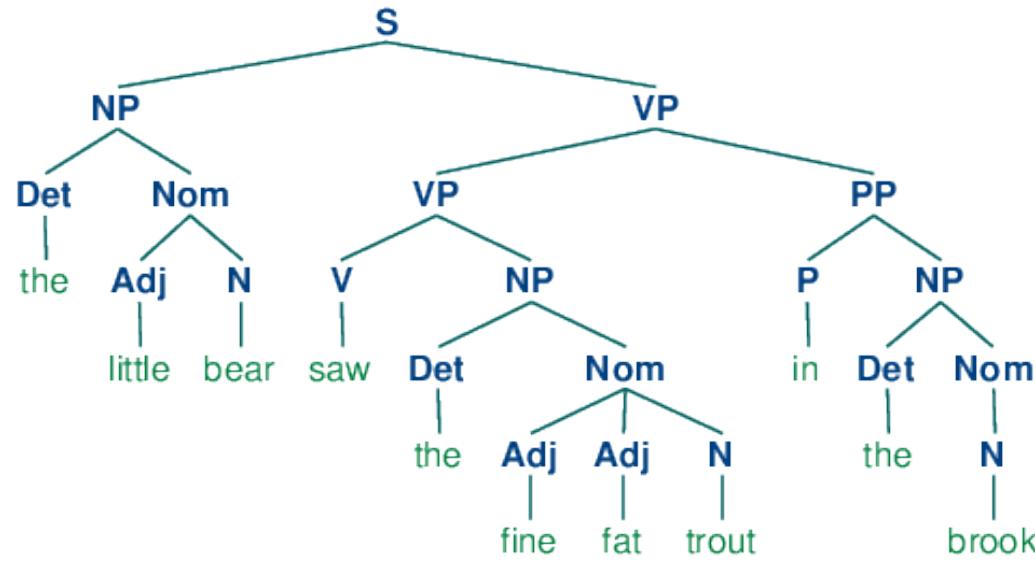


$Det \rightarrow that\ | this\ | a\ | the$   
 $Noun \rightarrow book\ | flight\ | meal\ | man$   
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 $Aux \rightarrow does$



- There are multiple rules expanding **S**. How did we know which one to apply?
  - In general there may be many production rules for any non-terminal. How do we know which one to apply?

# Finding the constituents



Trout in the brook?



Saw the fat?

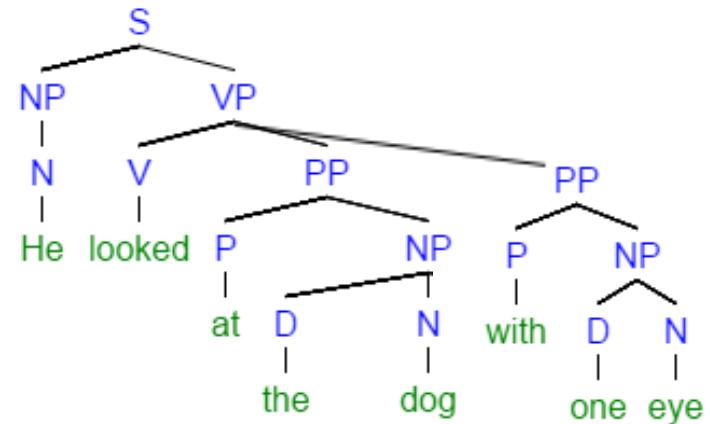
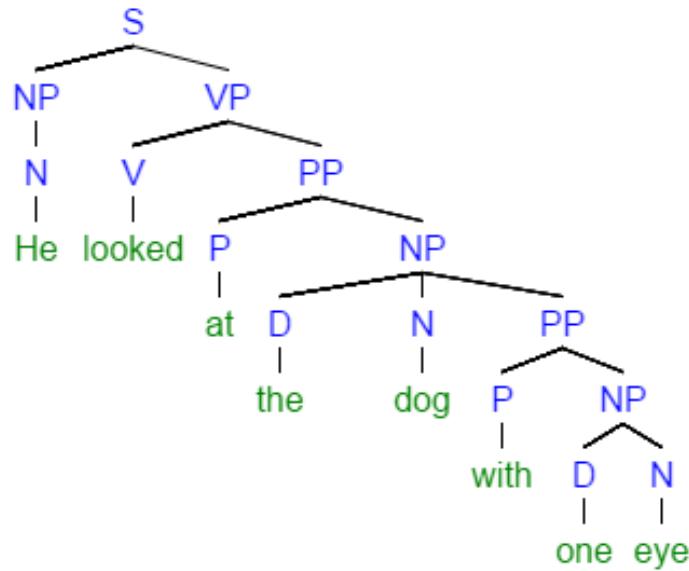


The little bear saw?



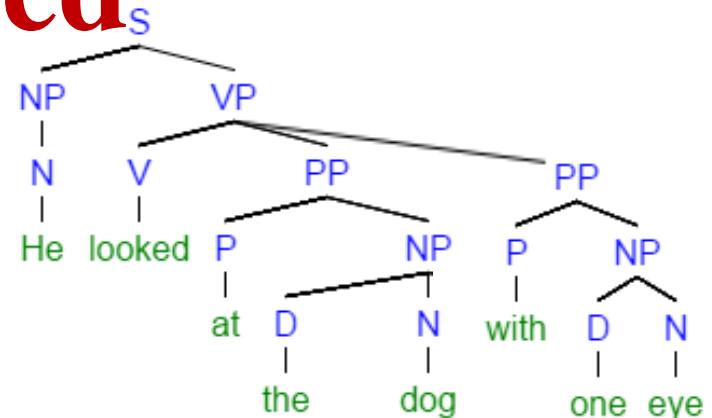
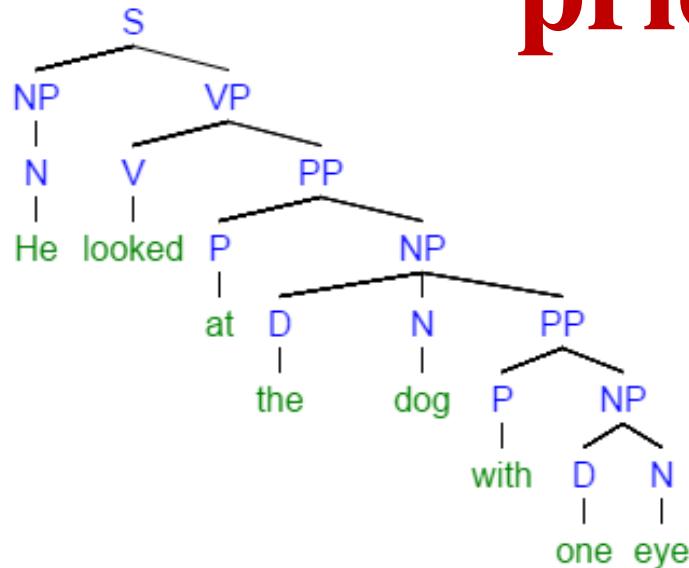
- Finding the right combination to compose the sentence is a challenging search problem
  - **The problem of *parsing***
- *But wait... it gets tougher..*

# Parses are not unique



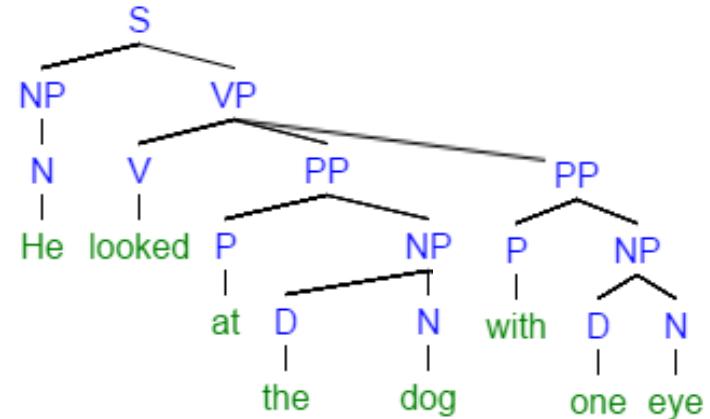
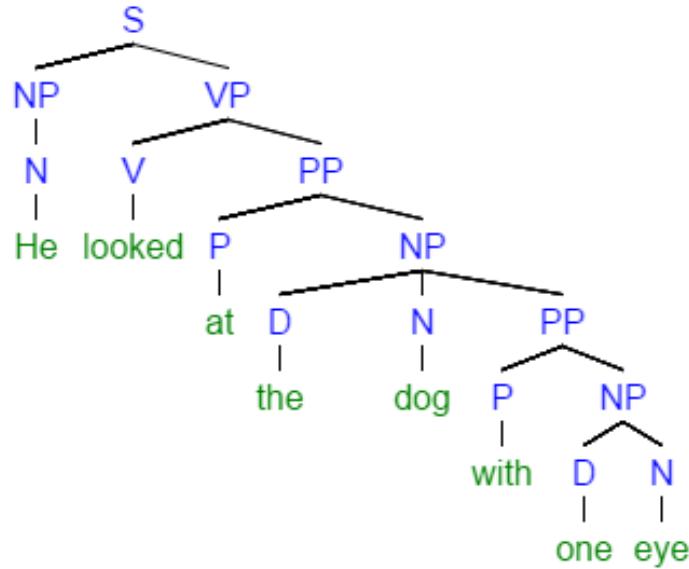
- Parses can be ambiguous
  - Grammars can be ambiguous
    - Admit multiple parses
  - English is an ambiguous language

# Problem: Production rules are not prioritized



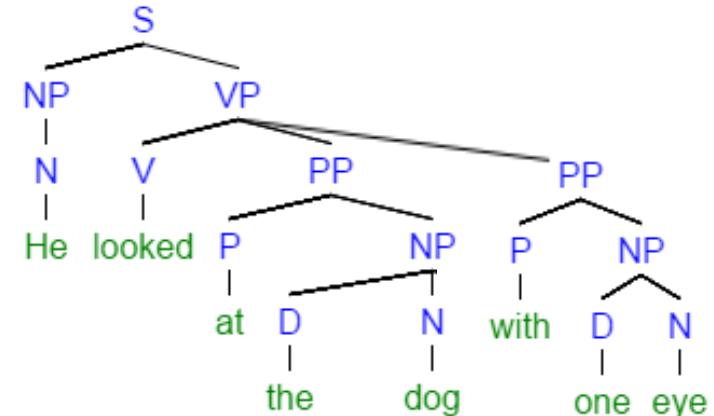
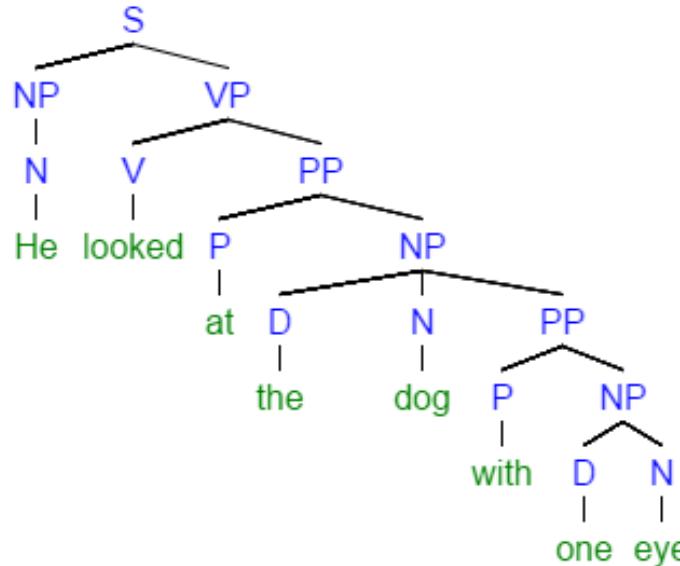
- Consider this (not so great) example:
  - $VP \rightarrow V \text{ } PP$
  - $VP \rightarrow V \text{ } PP \text{ } PP$

# Disambiguating: Attempt 1



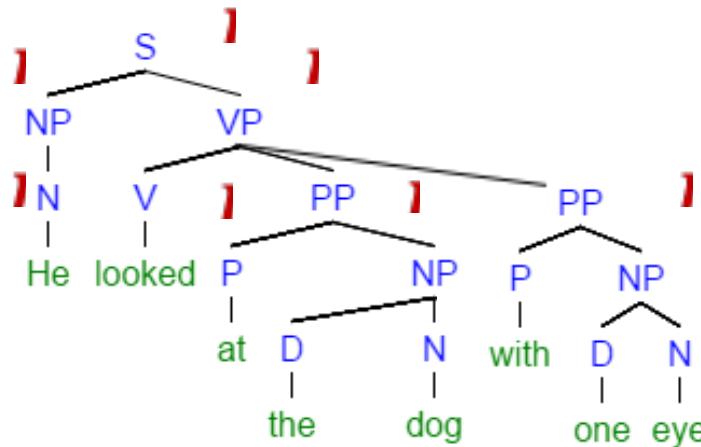
- Probabilistic selection:
  - $P(\text{parse}) = f(f_1(\text{tree}), f_2(\text{tree}))$
  - E.g.  $P(\text{parse}) \propto \exp(\sum_i \lambda_i)$

# Disambiguating: Attempt 1



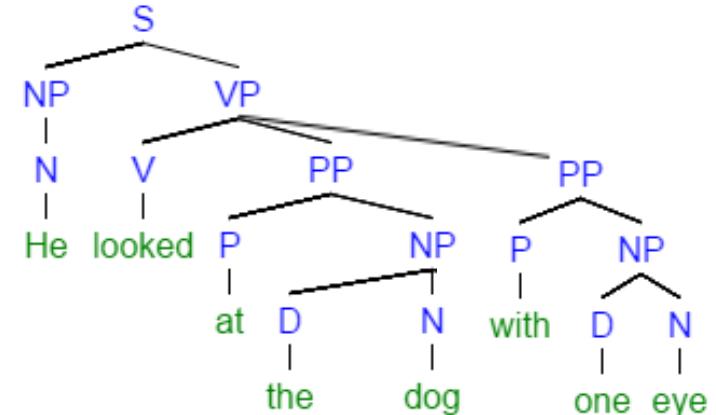
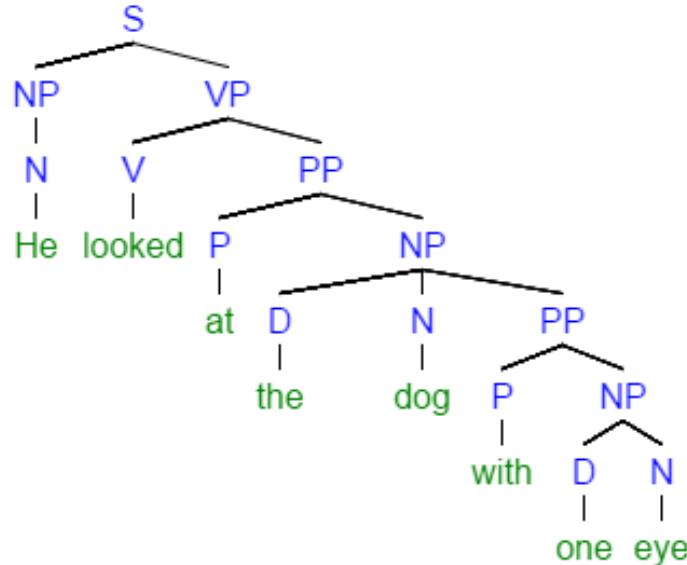
- Probabilistic selection:
  - $P(\text{parse}) = f(f_1(\text{tree}), f_2(\text{tree}), \dots)$
  - E.g.  $P(\text{parse}) \propto \exp(\sum_i \lambda_i f_i(\text{tree}))$
  - Examples of features

# Disambiguating: Attempt 2



- $P(\text{parse}) = P(R_1, R_2, R_3, \dots)$
- $P(\text{parse}) = P(R_1)P(R_2|R_1)P$ 
  - But this is a CFG.

# Probabilistic Context Free Grammar



- Assign probability distributions over
  - $VP \rightarrow V \text{ } PP \text{ (0.2)}$
  - $VP \rightarrow V \text{ } PP \text{ } PP \text{ (0.8)}$

# Probabilistic Context-Free Grammar

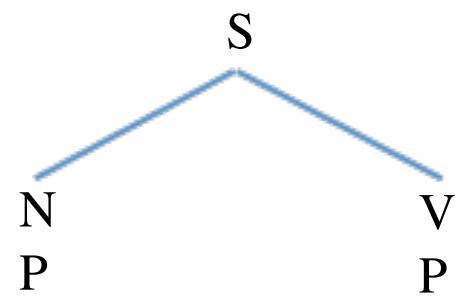
- Associate a multinomial distribution over *sides* to the set of rules such that:
  - Conditional probability of *sides* given the left side of the rule
- Generative story:
  1. Instantiate the start symbol

# Discrete time branching process

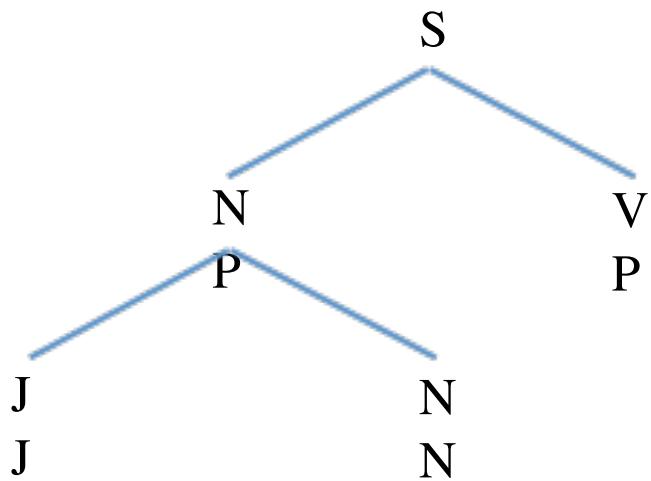
- Structure as the result of a **discrete time branching process**
  - Start in a known initial state, carry out stochastic steps (parameterized using multinomials) until some termination condition is met
  - Steps are (conditionally) independent of one another: probabilities multiply
  - *Total probability is the probability of the steps*

S

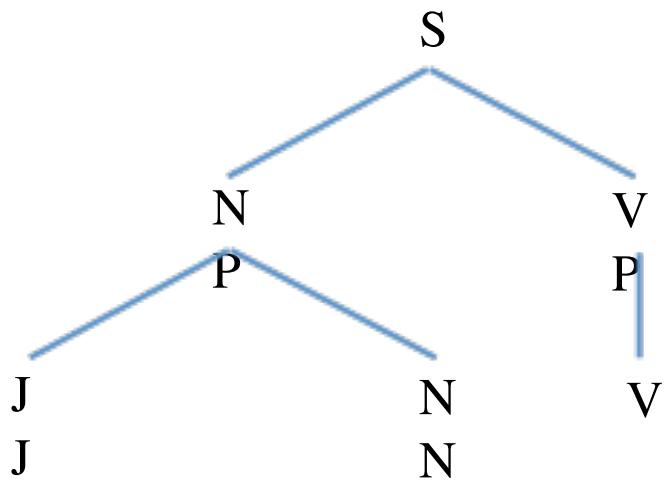
1.0



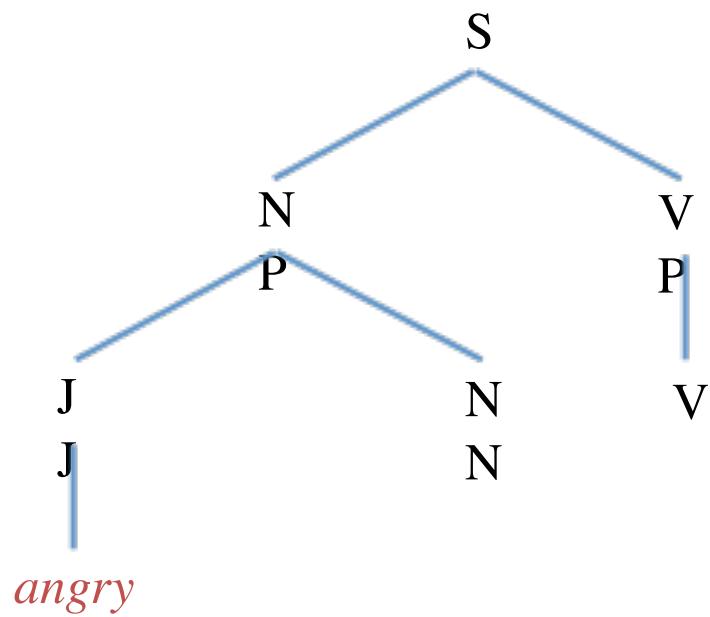
$1.0 \times p(\text{NP } \text{VP} \mid \text{S})$



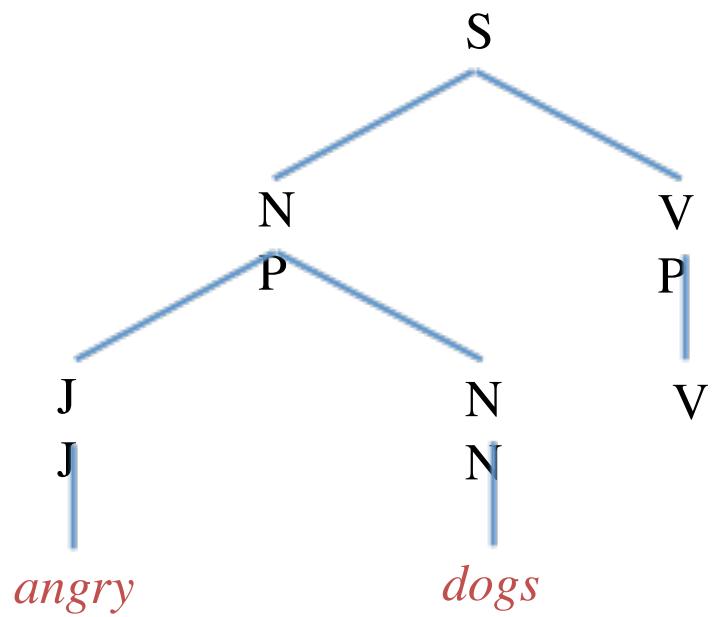
$1.0 \times p(\text{NP } \text{VP} \mid \text{S})$   
 $\times p(\text{JJ } \text{NN} \mid \text{NP})$



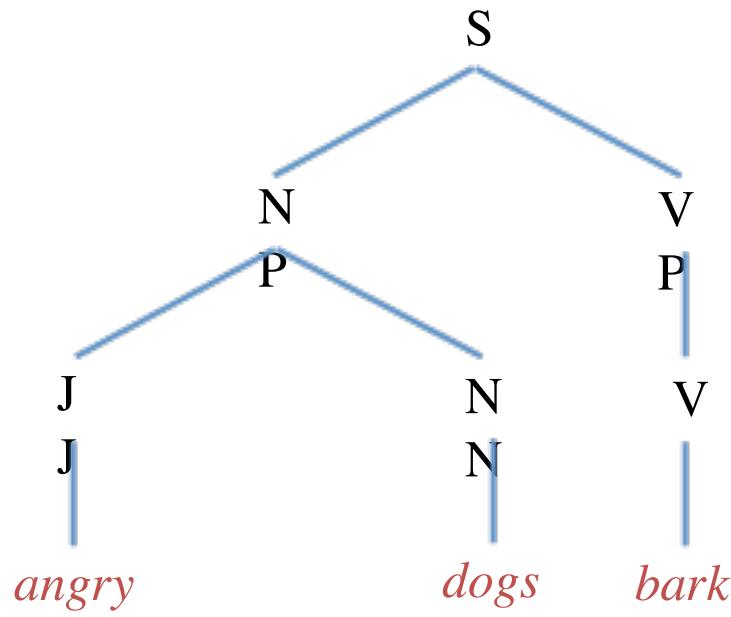
$1.0 \times p(NP \mid VP \mid S)$   
 $\times p(JJ \mid NN \mid NP)$   
 $\times p(V \mid VP)$



1.0 x  $p(\text{NP } \text{VP} \mid \text{S})$   
x  $p(\text{JJ } \text{NN} \mid \text{NP})$   
x  $p(\text{V} \mid \text{VP})$   
x  $p(\text{angry} \mid \text{JJ})$



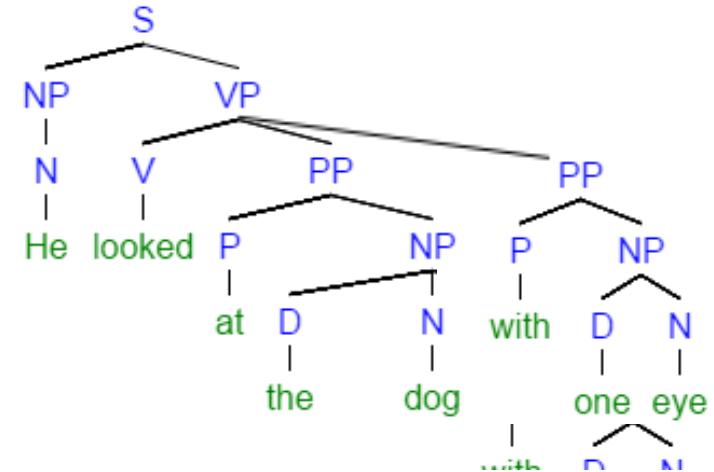
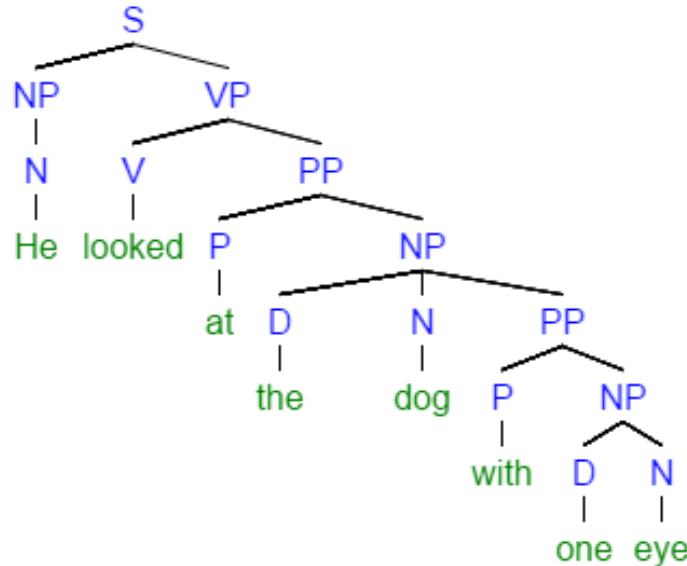
$1.0 \times p(\text{NP VP} | \text{S})$   
 $\times p(\text{JJ NN} | \text{NP})$   
 $\times p(\text{V} | \text{VP})$   
 $\times p(\text{angry} | \text{JJ})$   
 $\times p(\text{dogs} | \text{NN})$



$1.0 \times p(\text{NP VP} \mid \text{S})$   
 $\times p(\text{JJ NN} \mid \text{NP})$   
 $\times p(\text{V} \mid \text{VP})$   
 $\times p(\text{angry} \mid \text{JJ})$   
 $\times p(\text{dogs} \mid \text{NN})$   
 $\times p(\text{bark} \mid \text{V})$

$$p(\tau, \mathbf{x}) = \prod_{r \in \mathcal{G}} p(r \mid \mathcal{G})^{f(r \in \tau)}$$

# Probabilistic Context Free Grammar

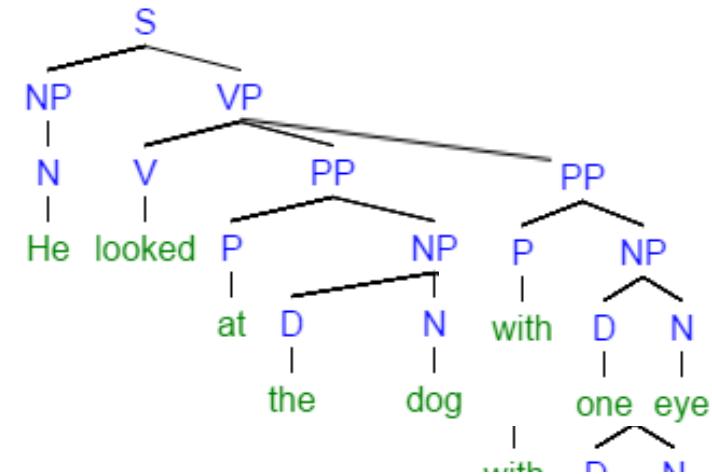
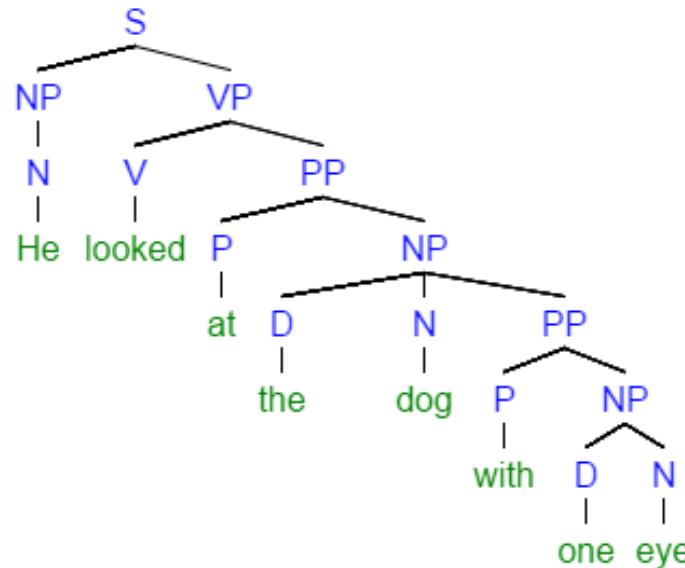


- Assign probability distributions over:
  - $VP \rightarrow V \text{ } PP \text{ (0.2)}$
  - $VP \rightarrow V \text{ } PP \text{ } PP \text{ (0.8)}$

# HMMs are Special PCFGs

- (Actually HMMs are special PFSGs)
- Alphabet  $\Sigma$
- $N = \text{HMM states } Q$
- Start state  $q_0$
- Rules
  - $q \rightarrow x q'$  with probability  $pemit(x \mid q) ptrans(q' \mid q)$
  - $q \rightarrow \epsilon$  with probability  $ptrans(\text{stop} \mid q)$

# Weighted Context Free Grammar

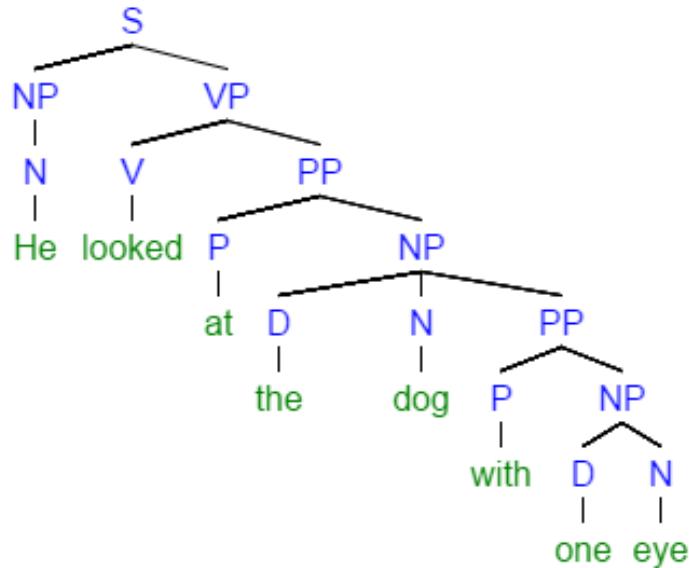


- Scores applied to rules now
  - Can just be weights
    - $VP \rightarrow V\ PP \ (-2)$

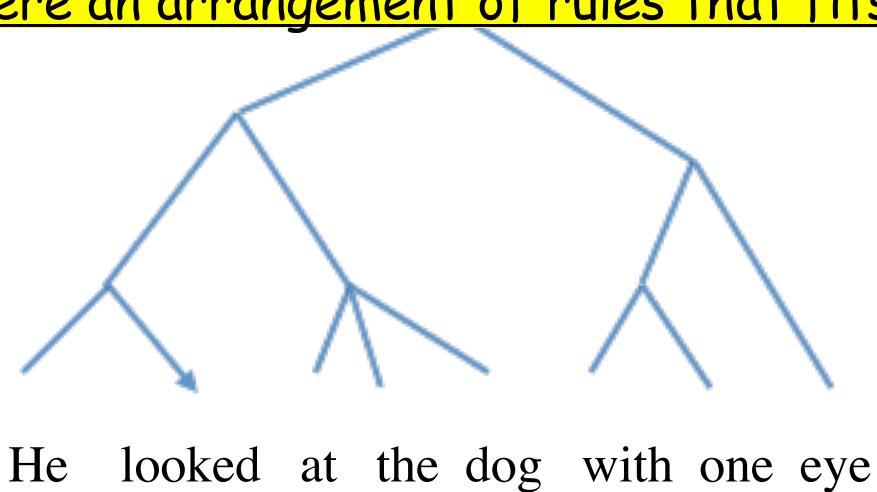
# Weighted Context-Free Grammar

- Don't need a generative story; just assign weights to rules.

# But where do the parse trees themselves come from?

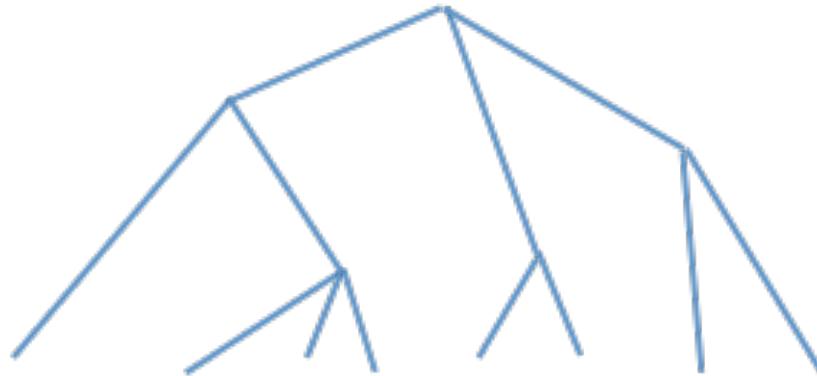


An arbitrarily drawn tree  
Is there an arrangement of rules that fits this?

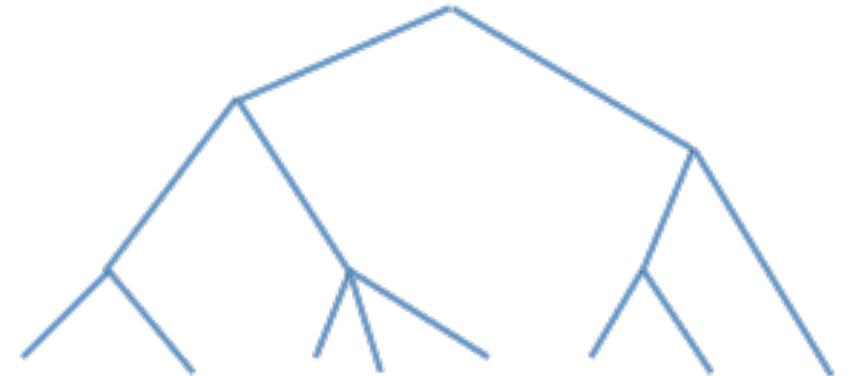


- How to hypothesize a parse tree for a sentence, given a CFG (or PCFG or WCFG)?
  - There are an exponentially large number

# Parsing



He looked at the dog with one eye



He looked at the dog with one eye

- Consider every possible tree over the words
- Unambiguous grammar:
  - One of these trees aligns with the grammar
- Ambiguous grammar:
  - Find *a* tree that aligns with the grammar

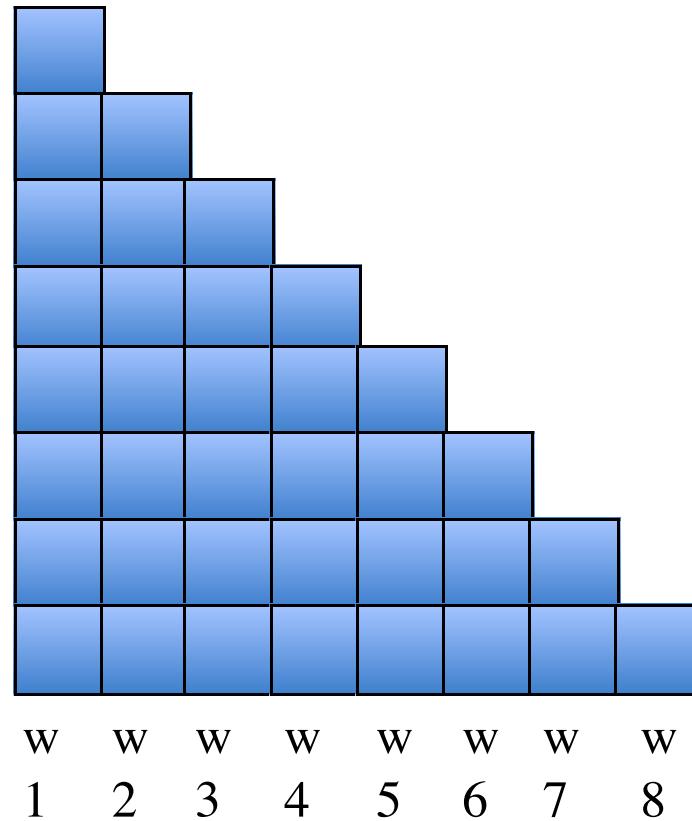
# Some parsing algorithms

- CYK parser
  - (J. Cocke ‘70, D. Younger ‘67, T. Kasami ‘65)
- Earley’s parser

# CYK parser: Unambiguous CFGs

- Explores every possible tree, but does so with a dynamic program
- To keep computation down, works only with CNF grammars
  - Recall that every CFG can be rewritten as a CNF
  - Result of CNF formalism: Every node a tree *must* connect with either a node to the immediate left or the immediate right
  - Result of contiguity constraint in grammar: Every node *must* represent the entire sequence of words below it

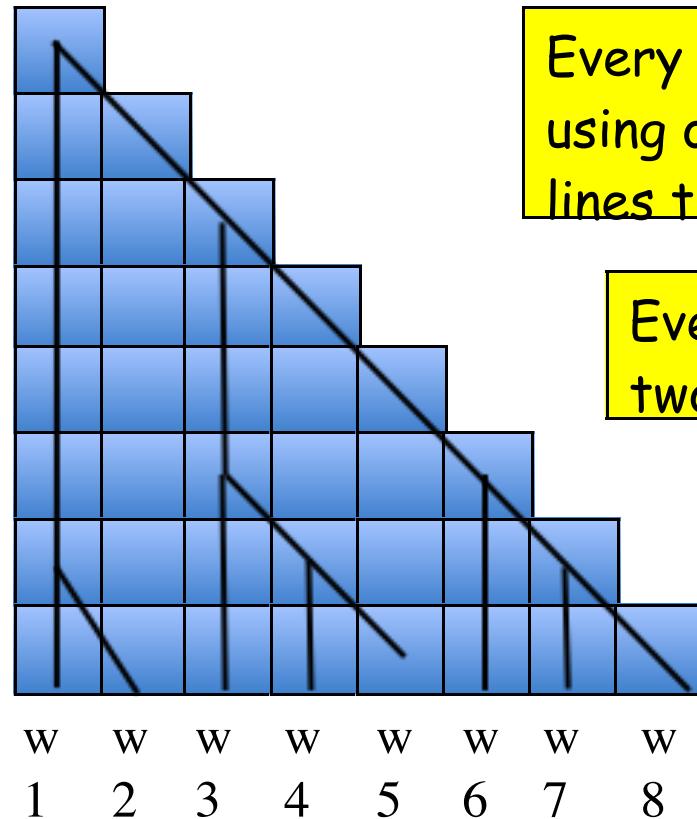
# CYK : Unambiguous CFGs



- Given a grammar and a word sequence  $w_1 \dots w_N$ :
- Construct this triangle (number of rows =

# CYK : Unambiguous CFGs

Every possible tree can be represented within this grid



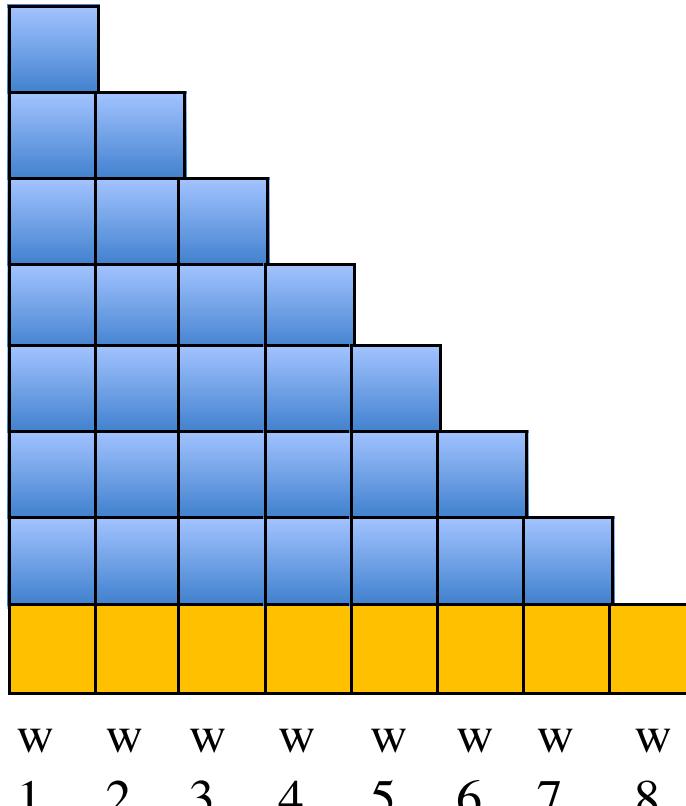
Every tree can be drawn using only vertical lines and lines tilted left 45°

Every "node" merges exactly two lines (CNF grammar)

Every "node" spans all words in the triangle below it

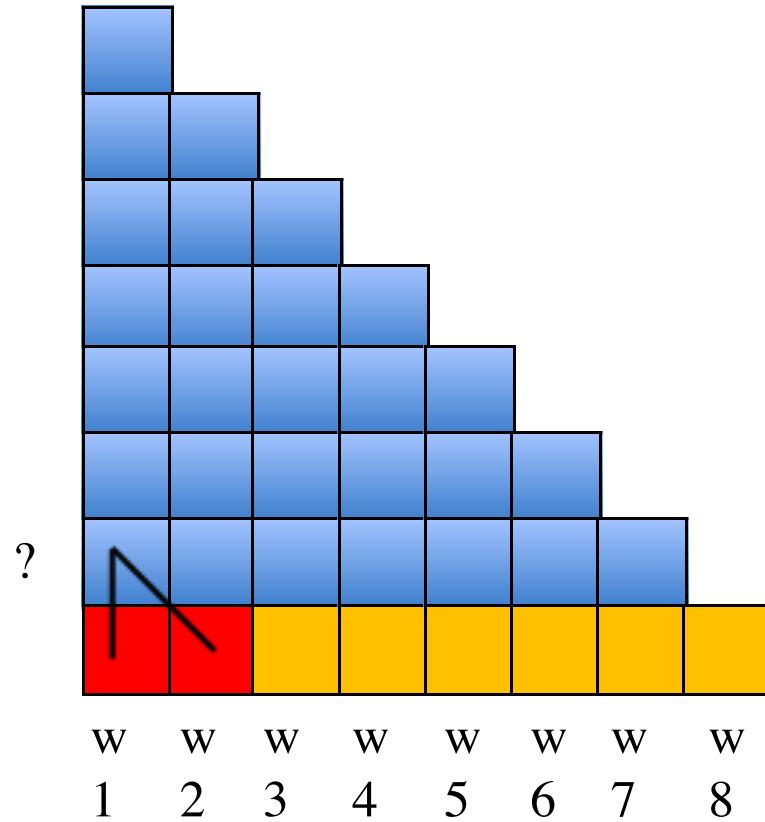
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# CYK : Unambiguous CFGs



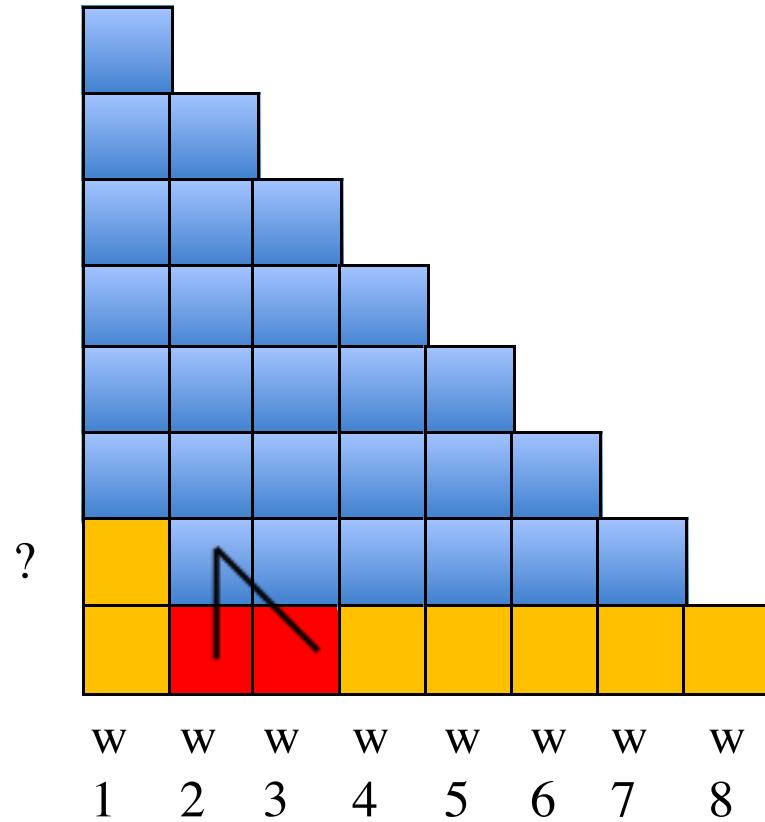
- For each word in the first row, find all production rules that can produce it.
  - Store (pointers to) all in the corresponding block

# CYK : Unambiguous CFGs



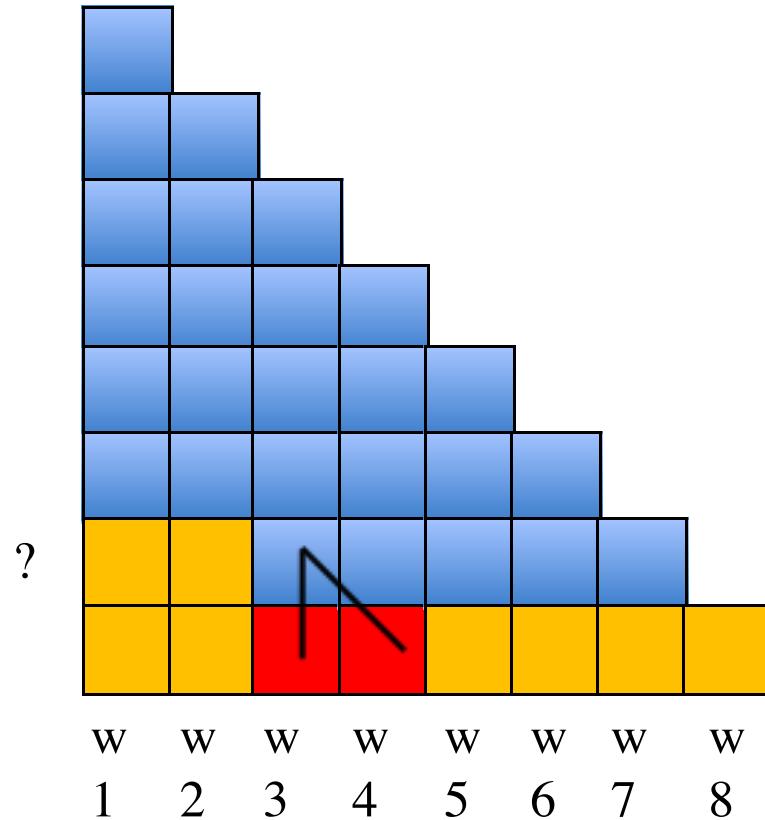
- For each block in the next row, find all rules that produce any combination of the non-terminals immediately below it

# CYK : Unambiguous CFGs



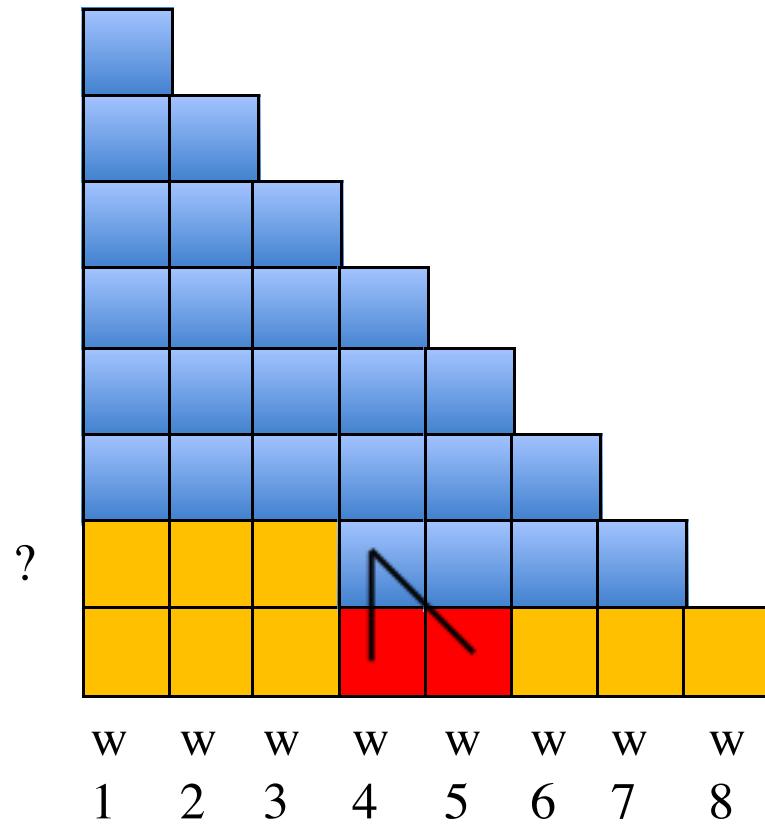
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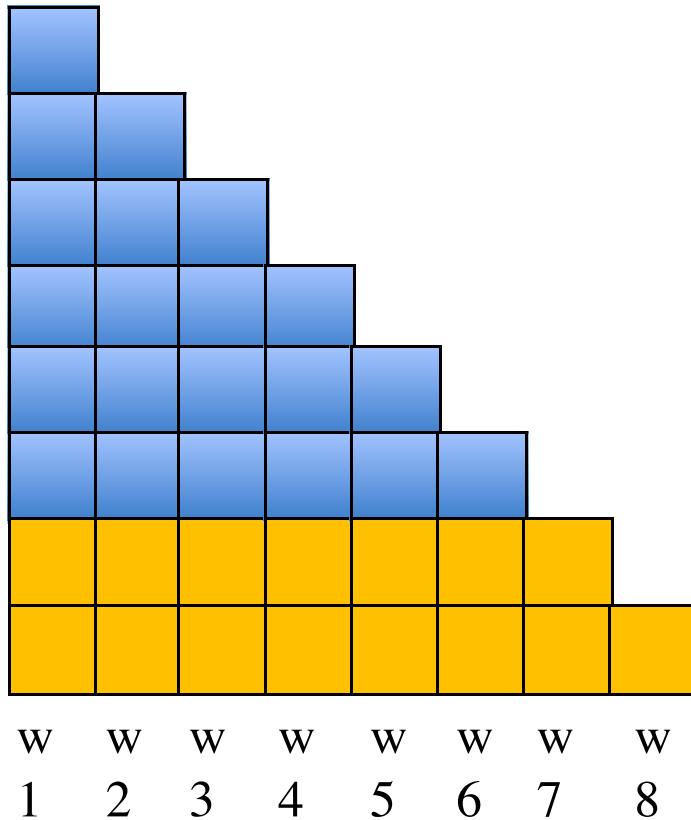
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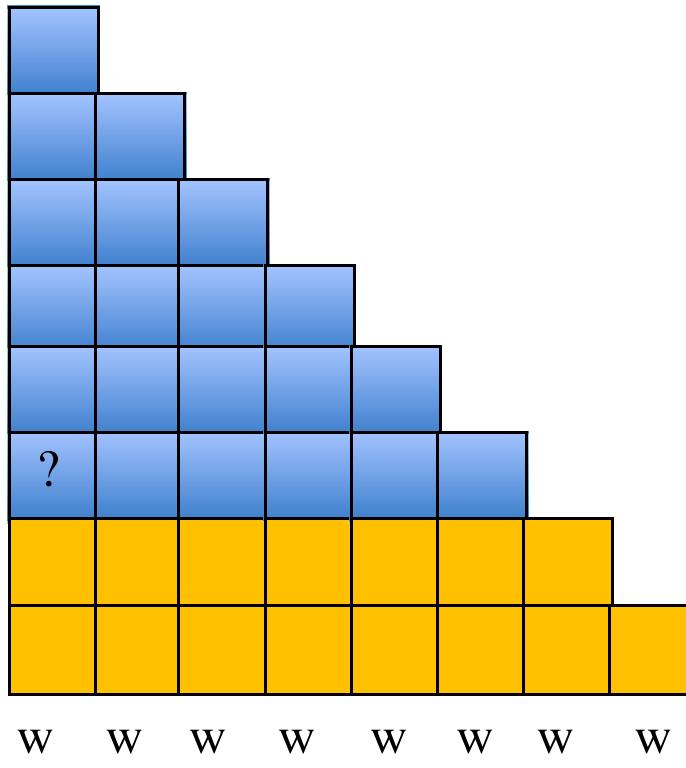
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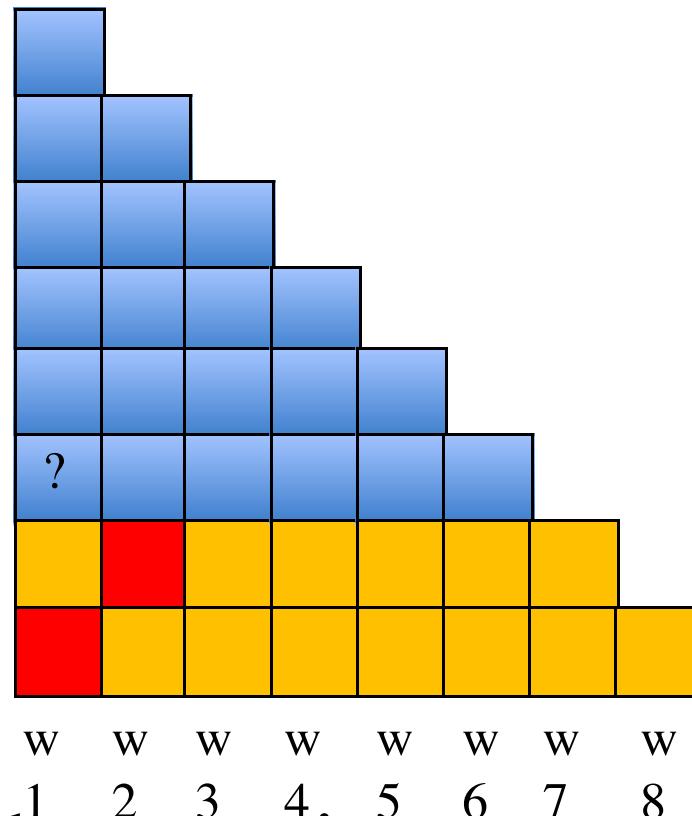
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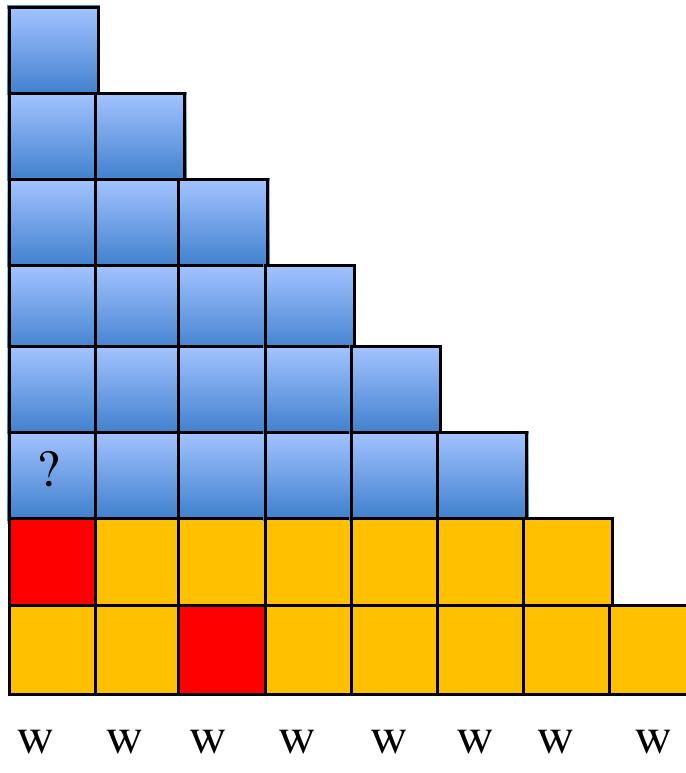
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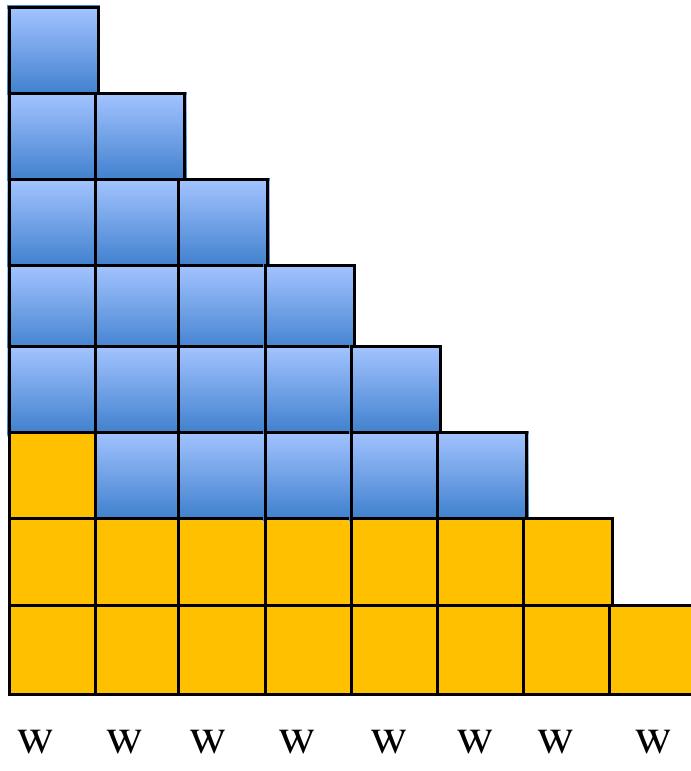
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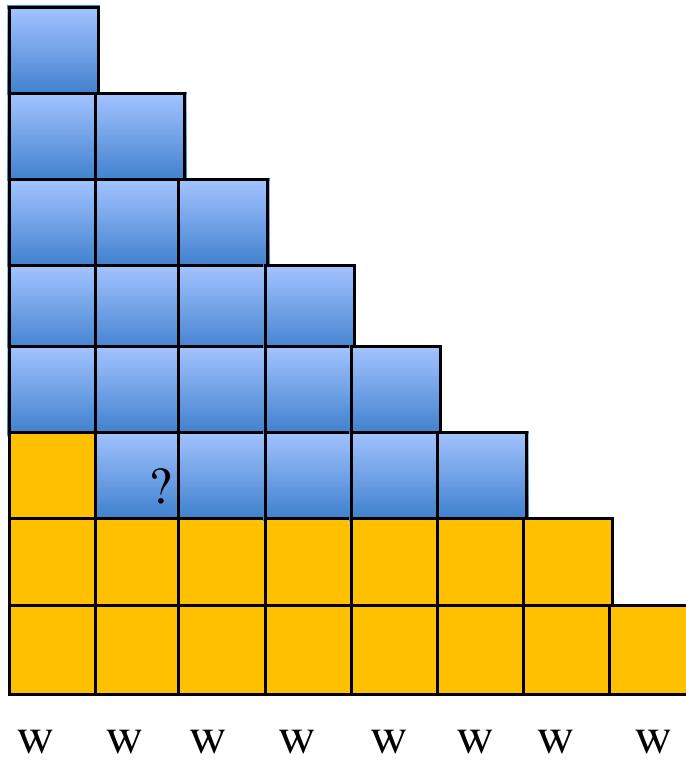
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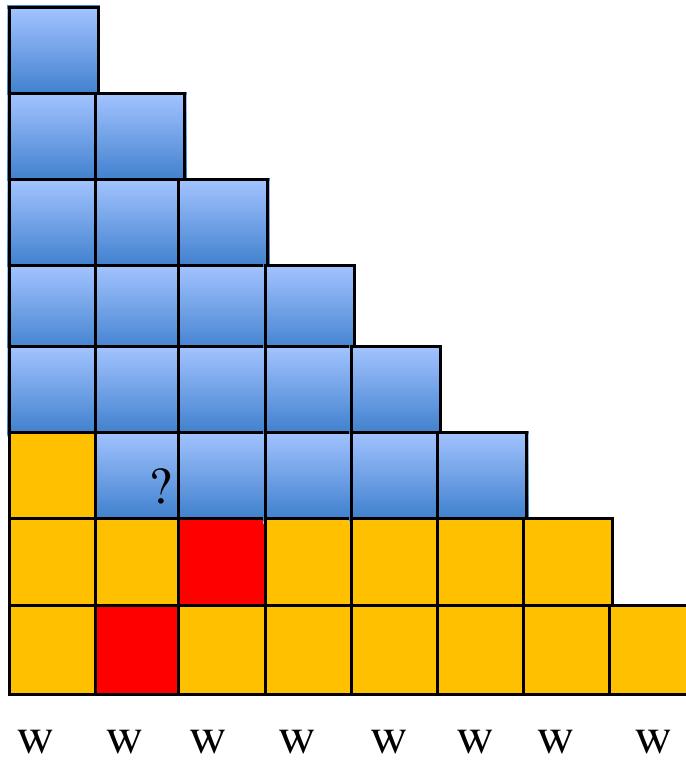
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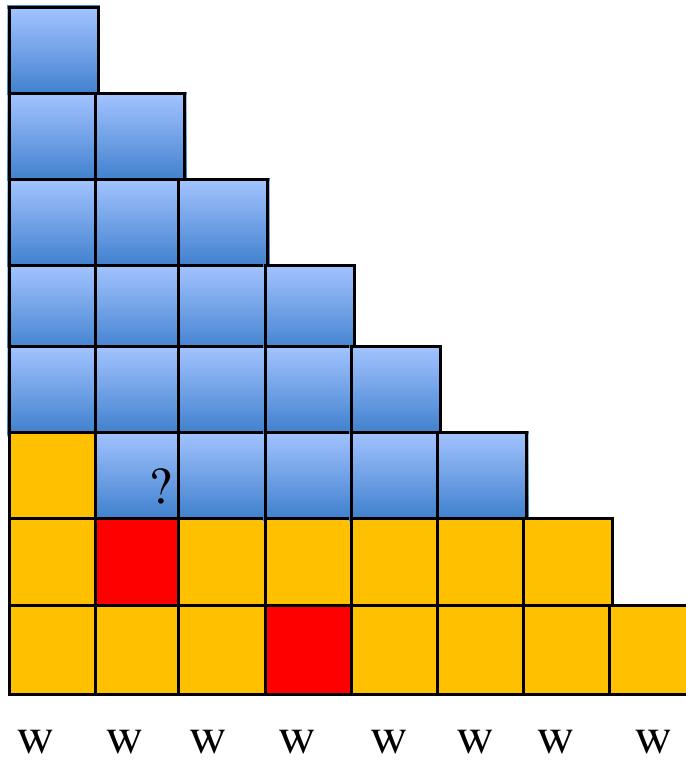
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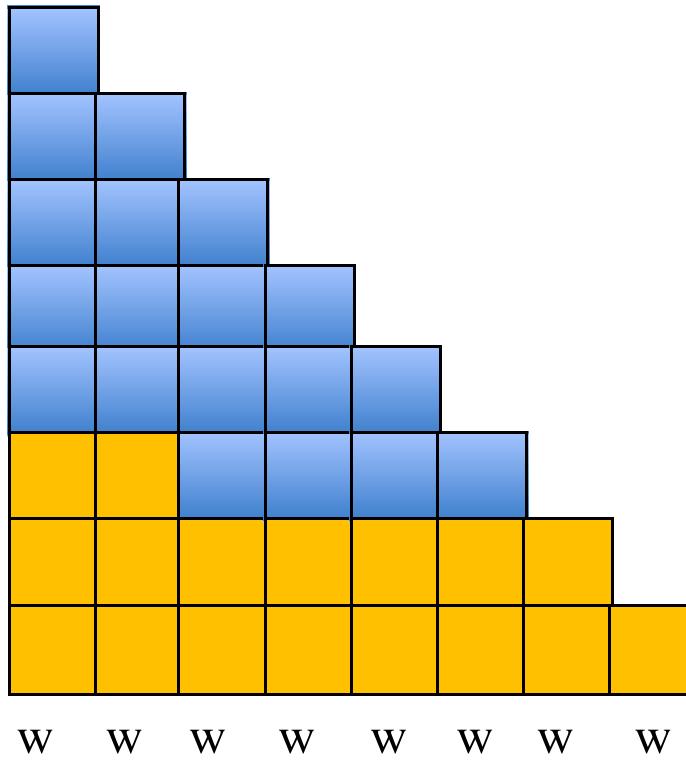
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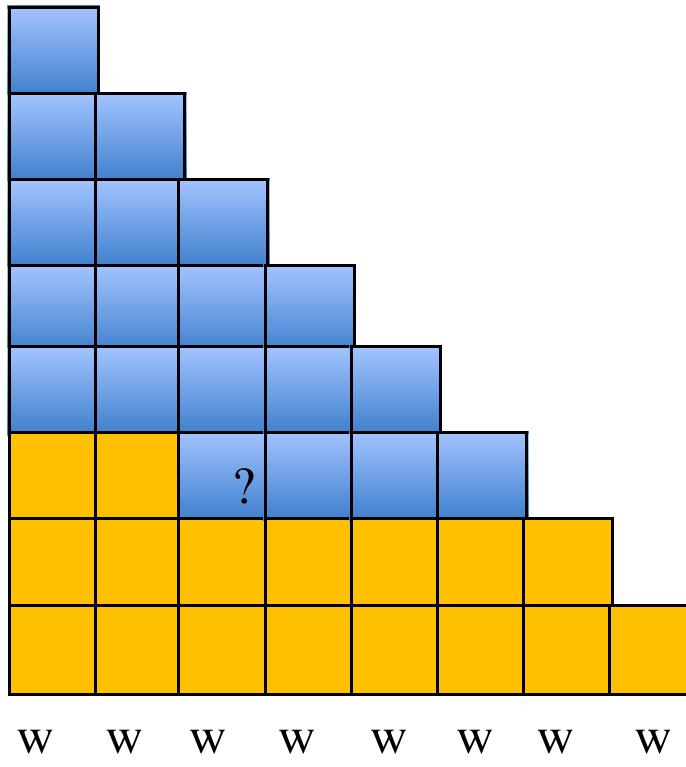
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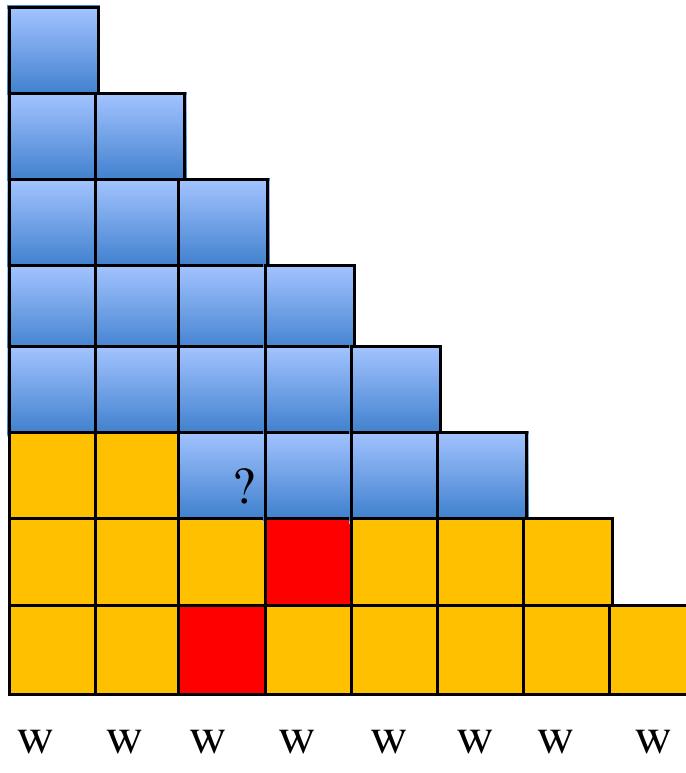
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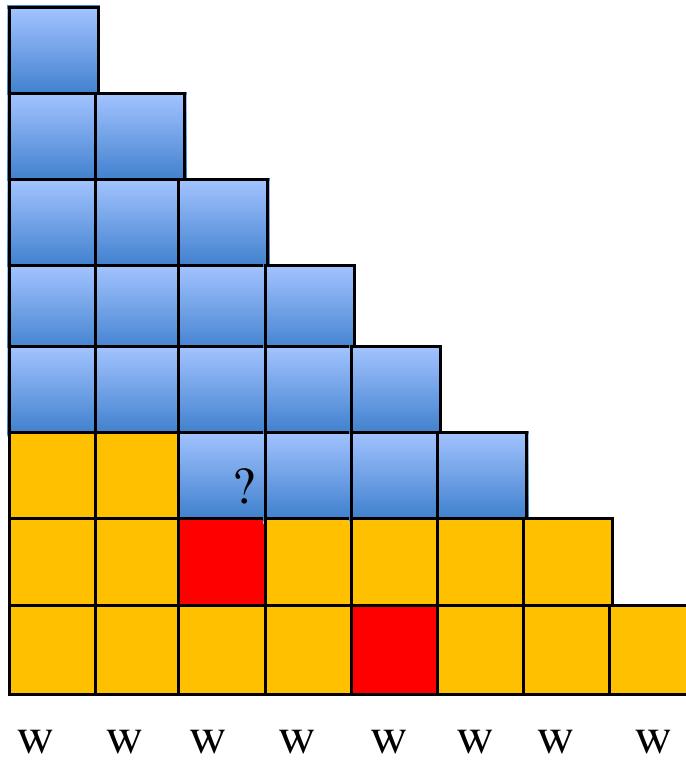
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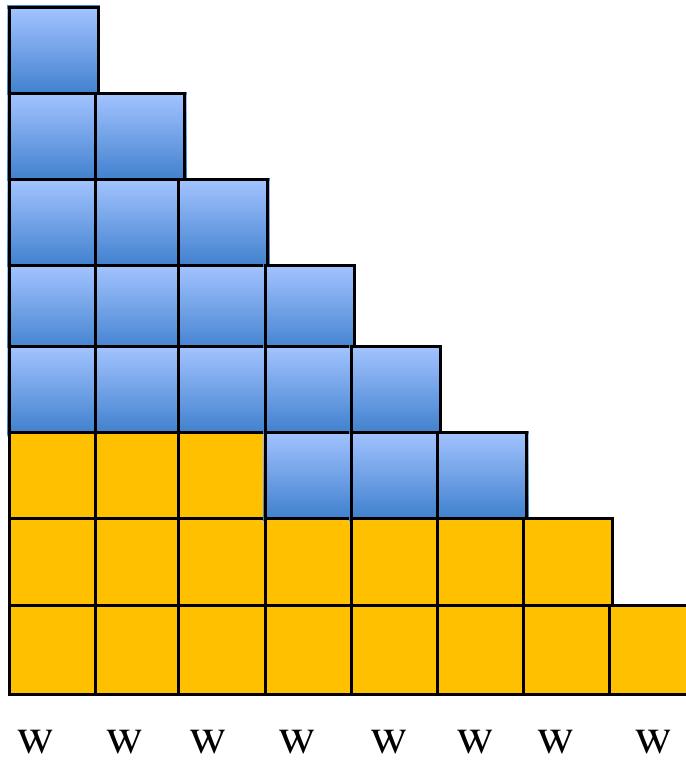
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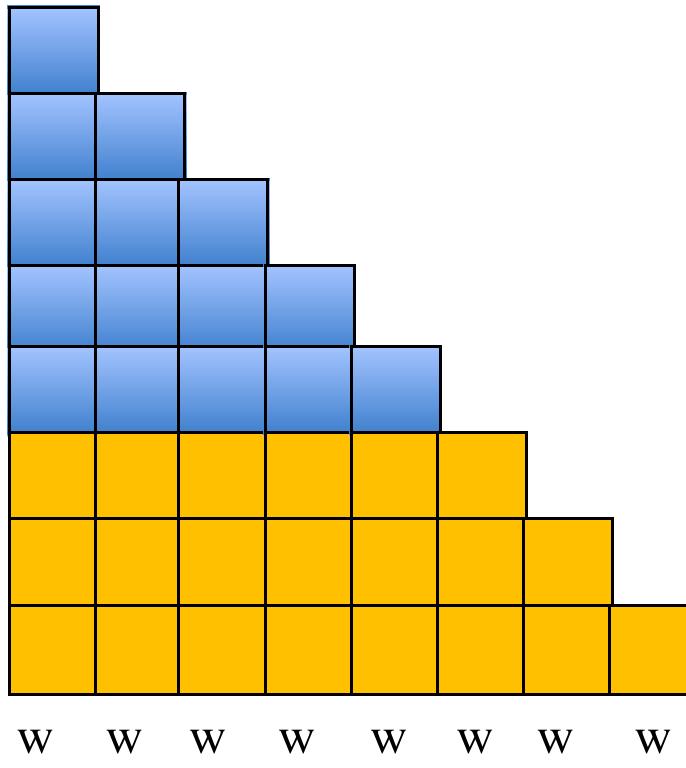
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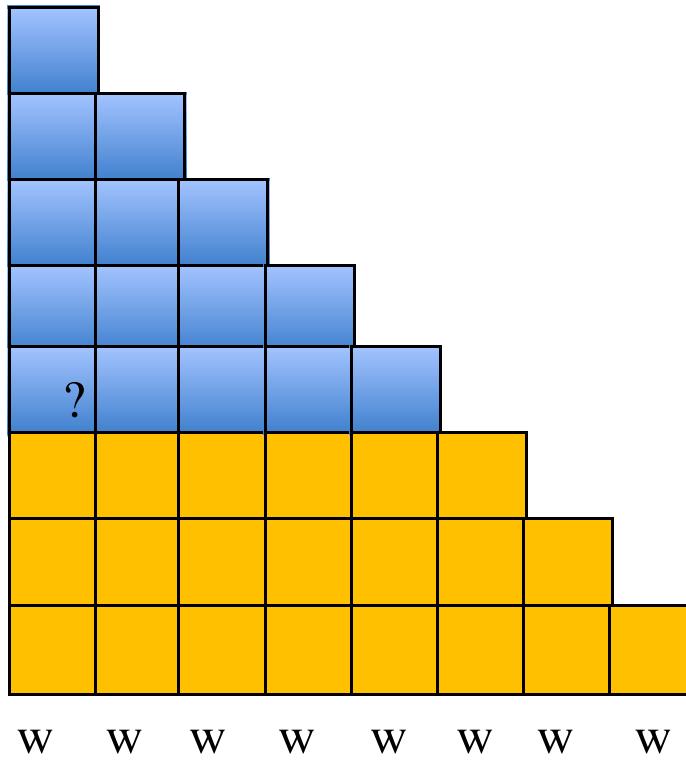
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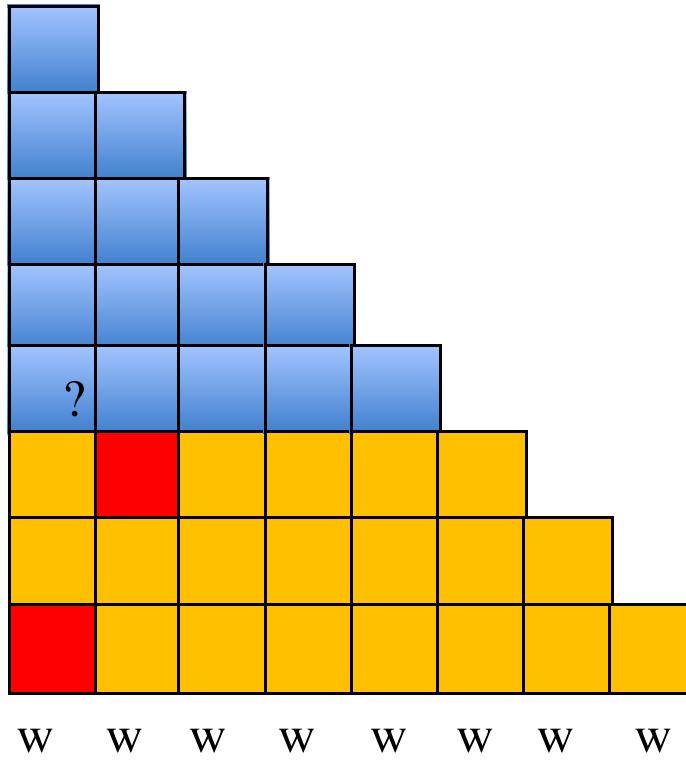
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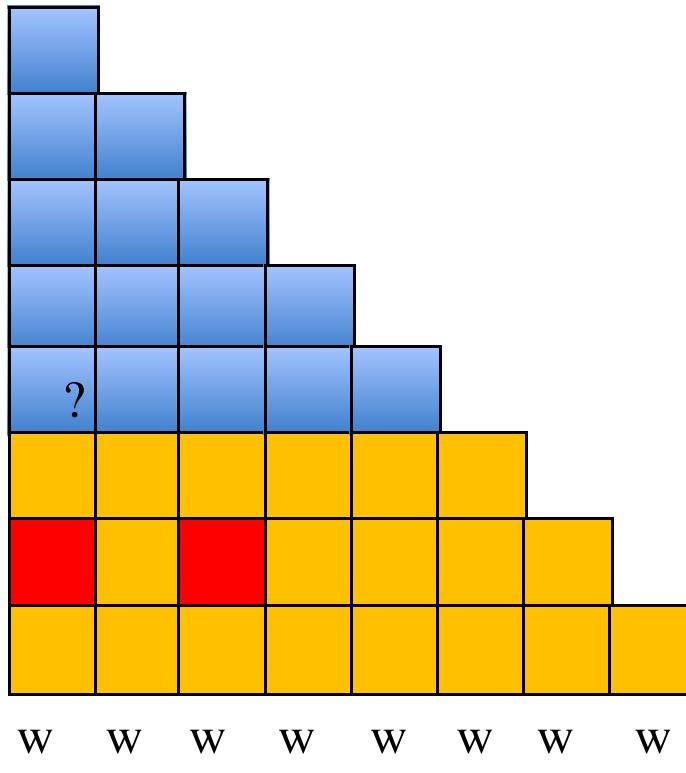
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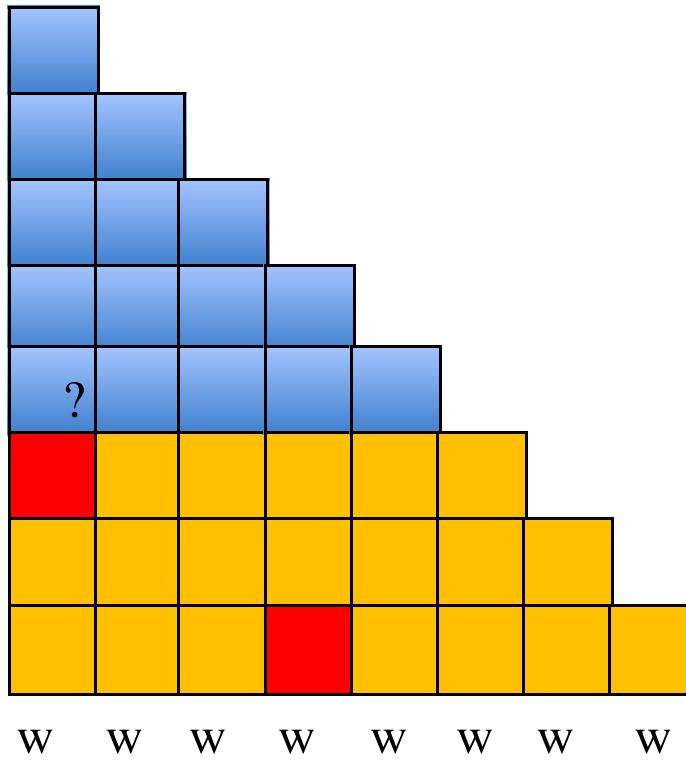
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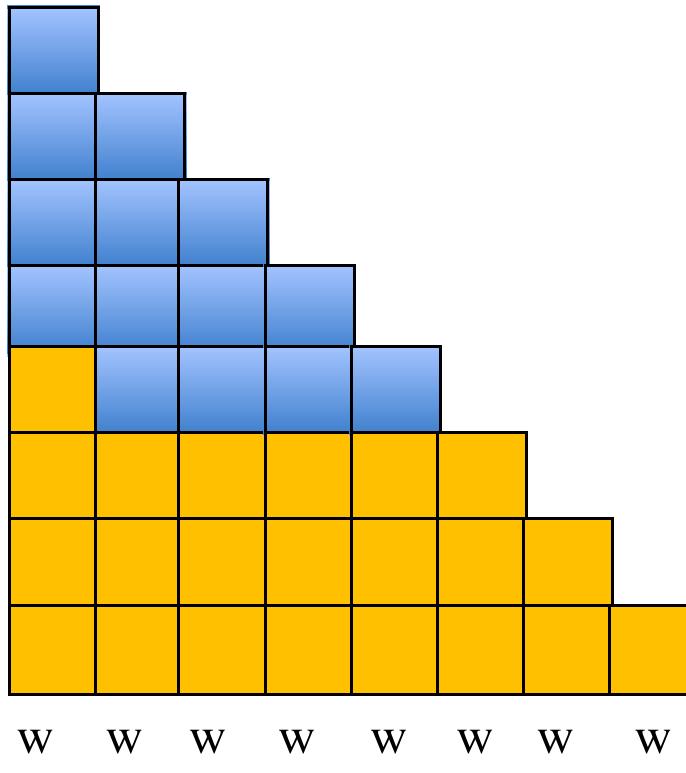
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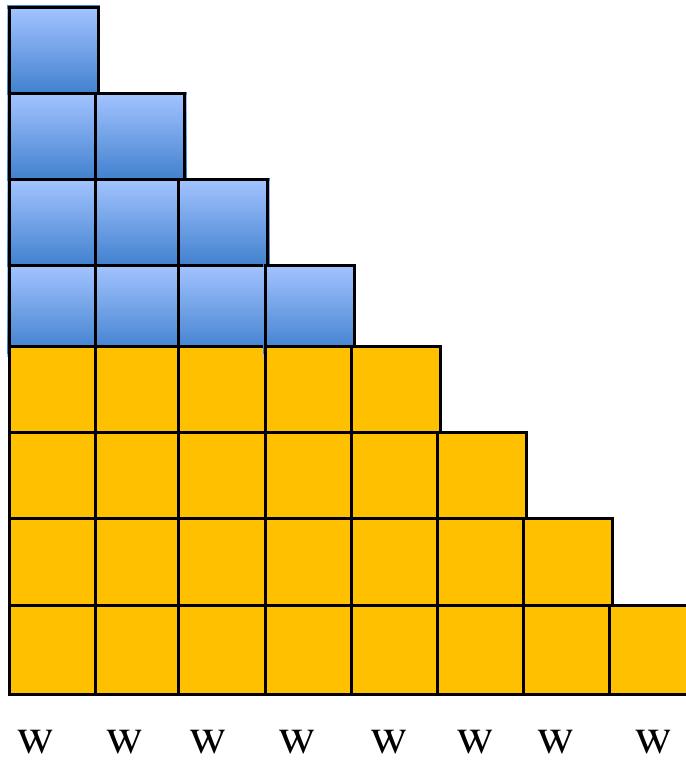
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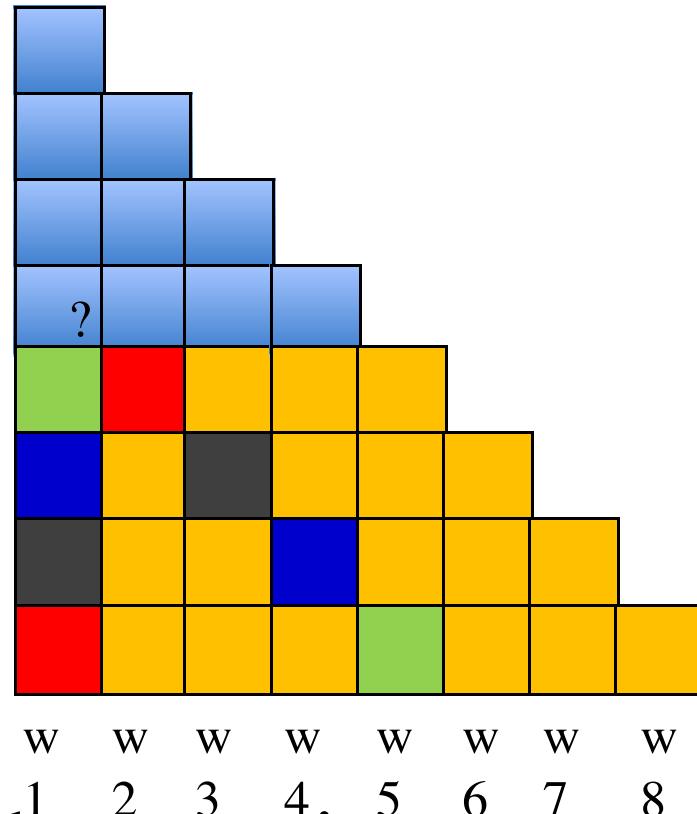
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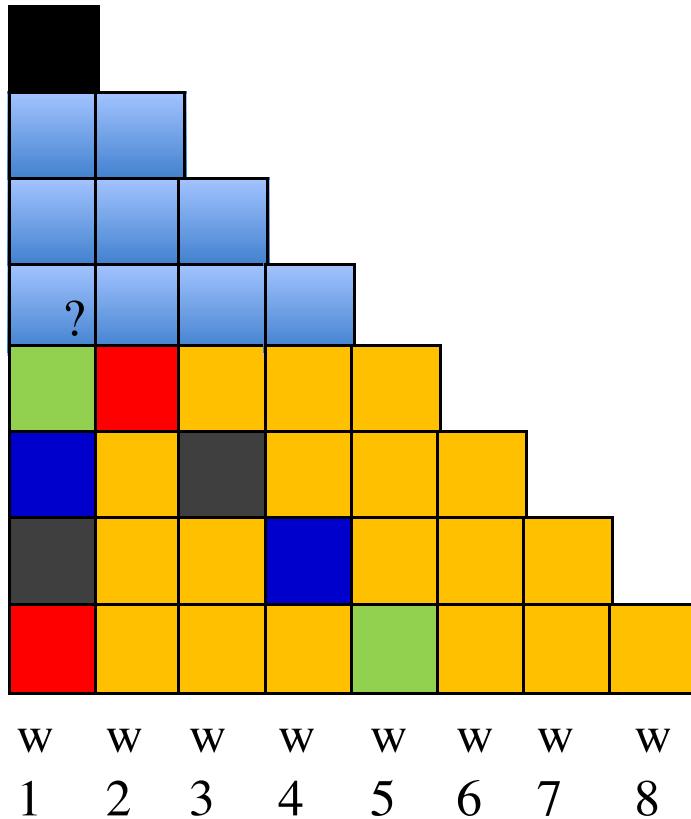
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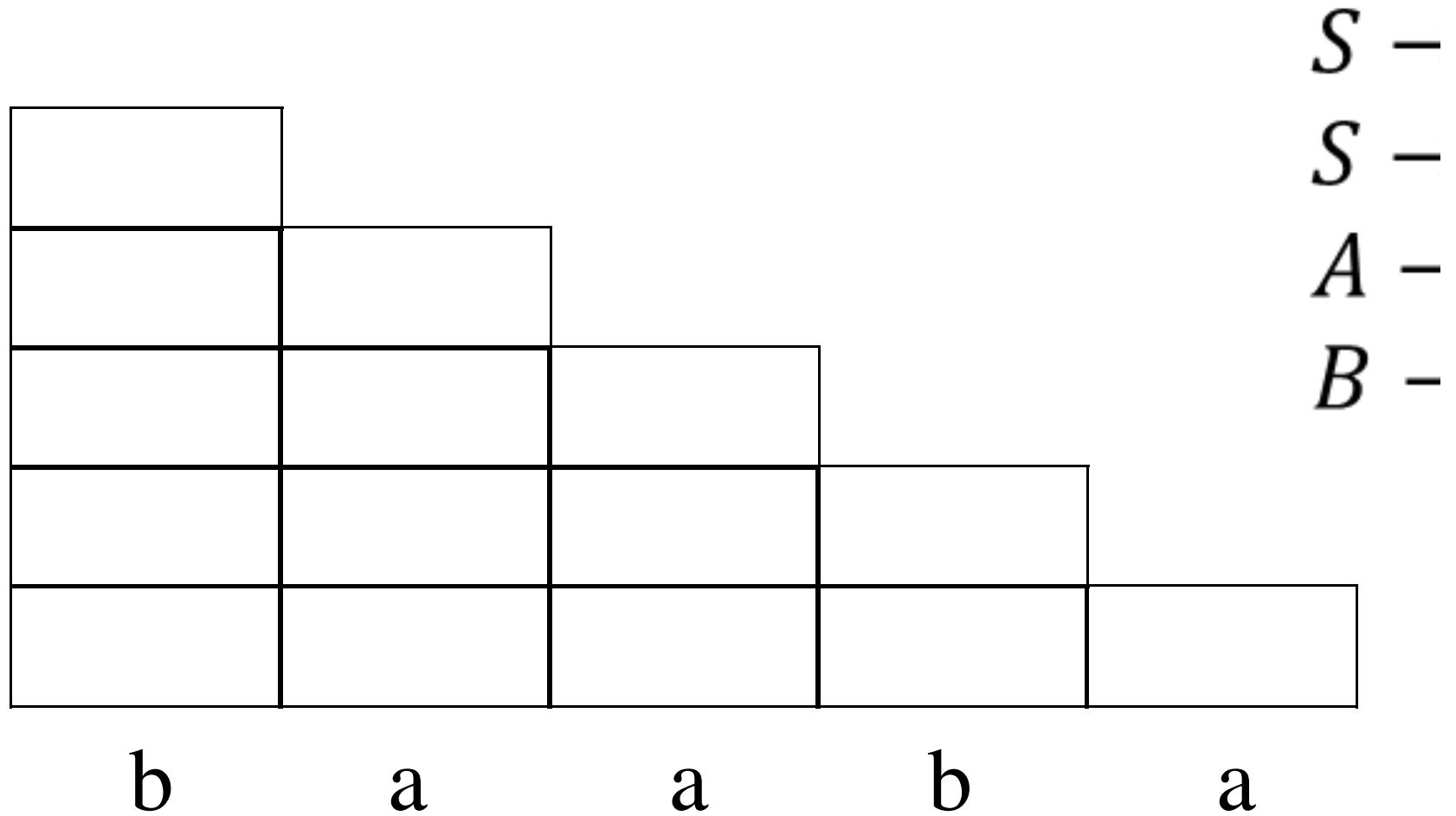
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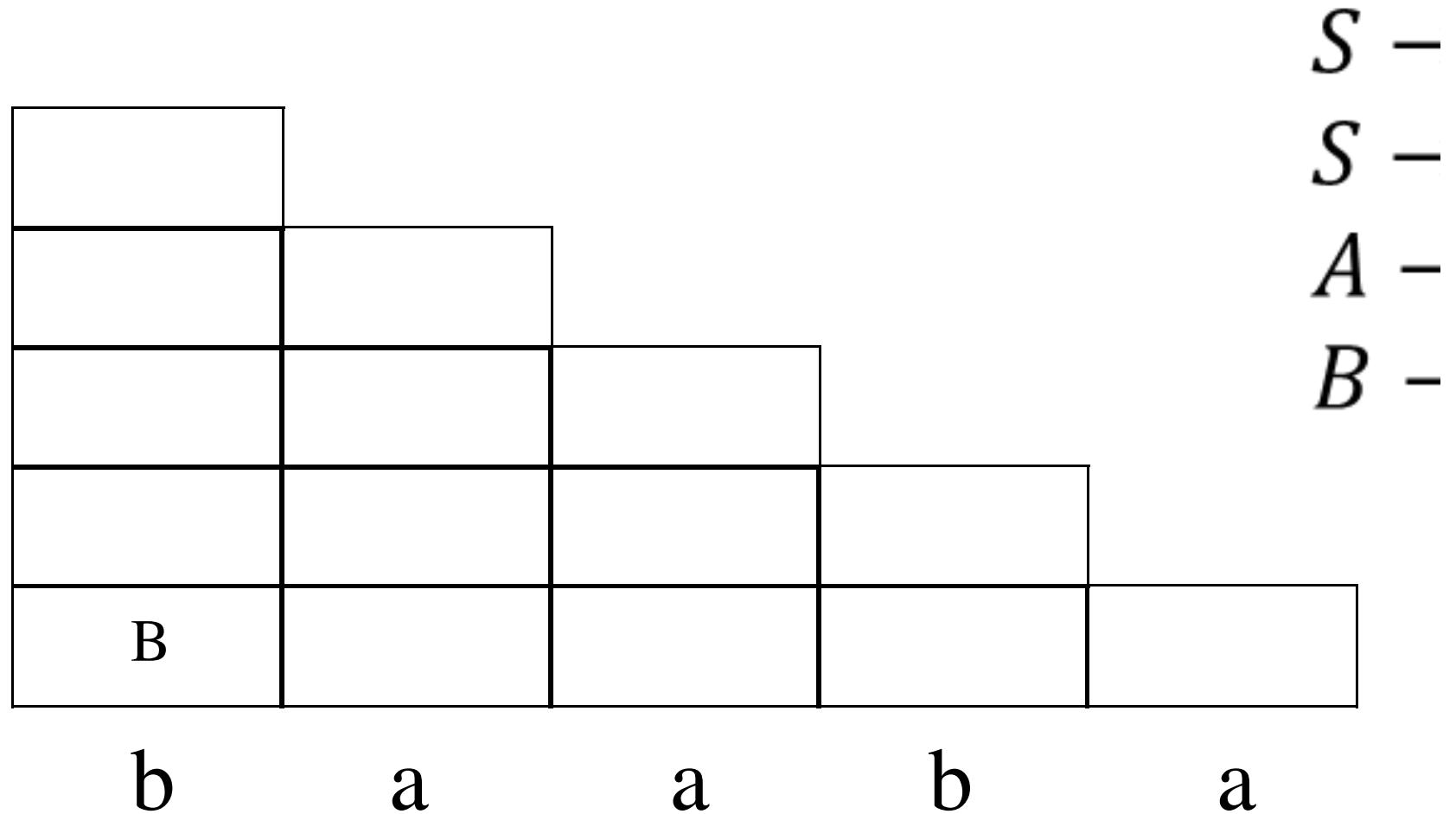
- If, eventually, the top box is populated, the string belongs to the language

# CYK example



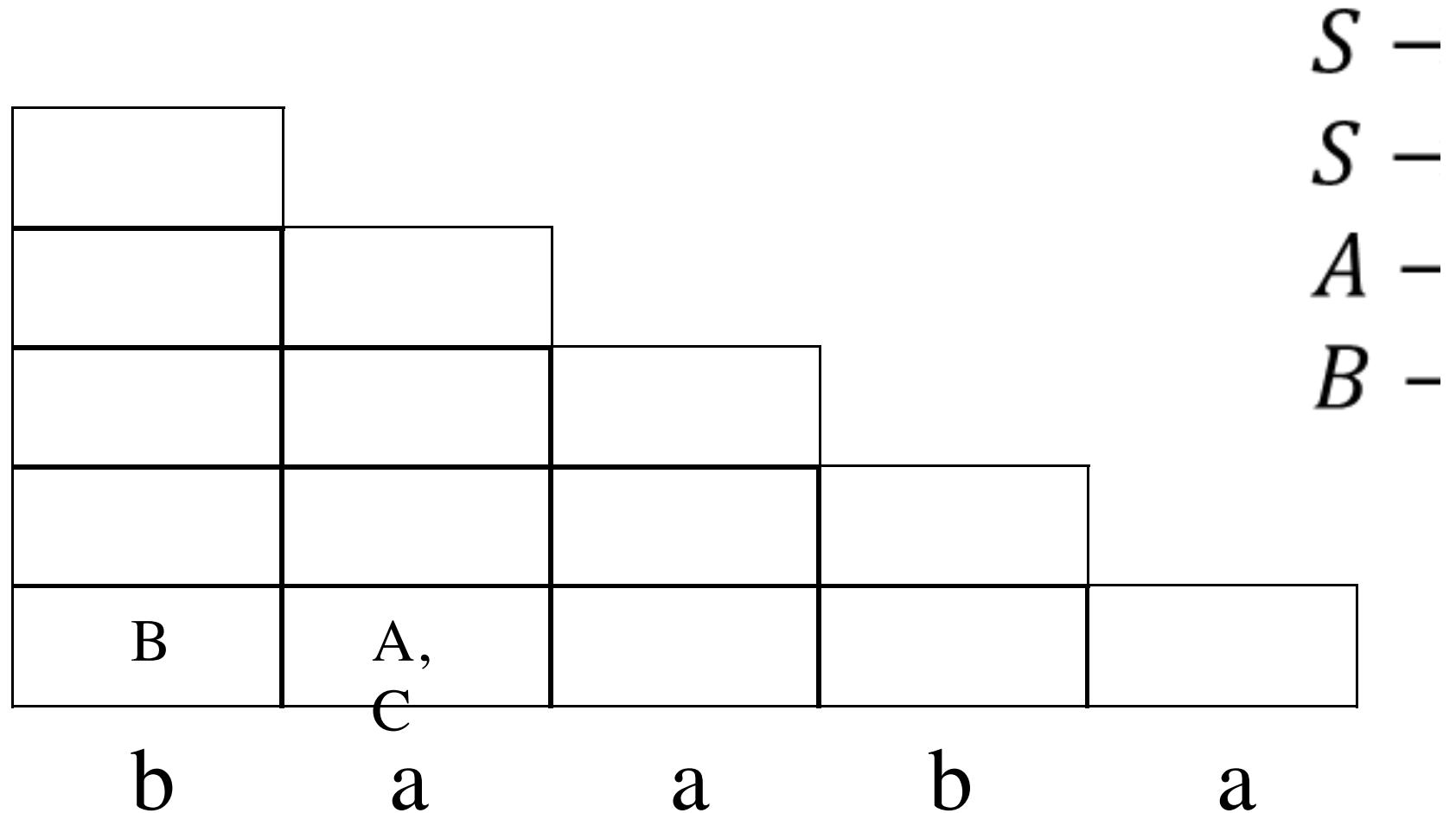
- From slides I found on a UC Davis website

# CYK example



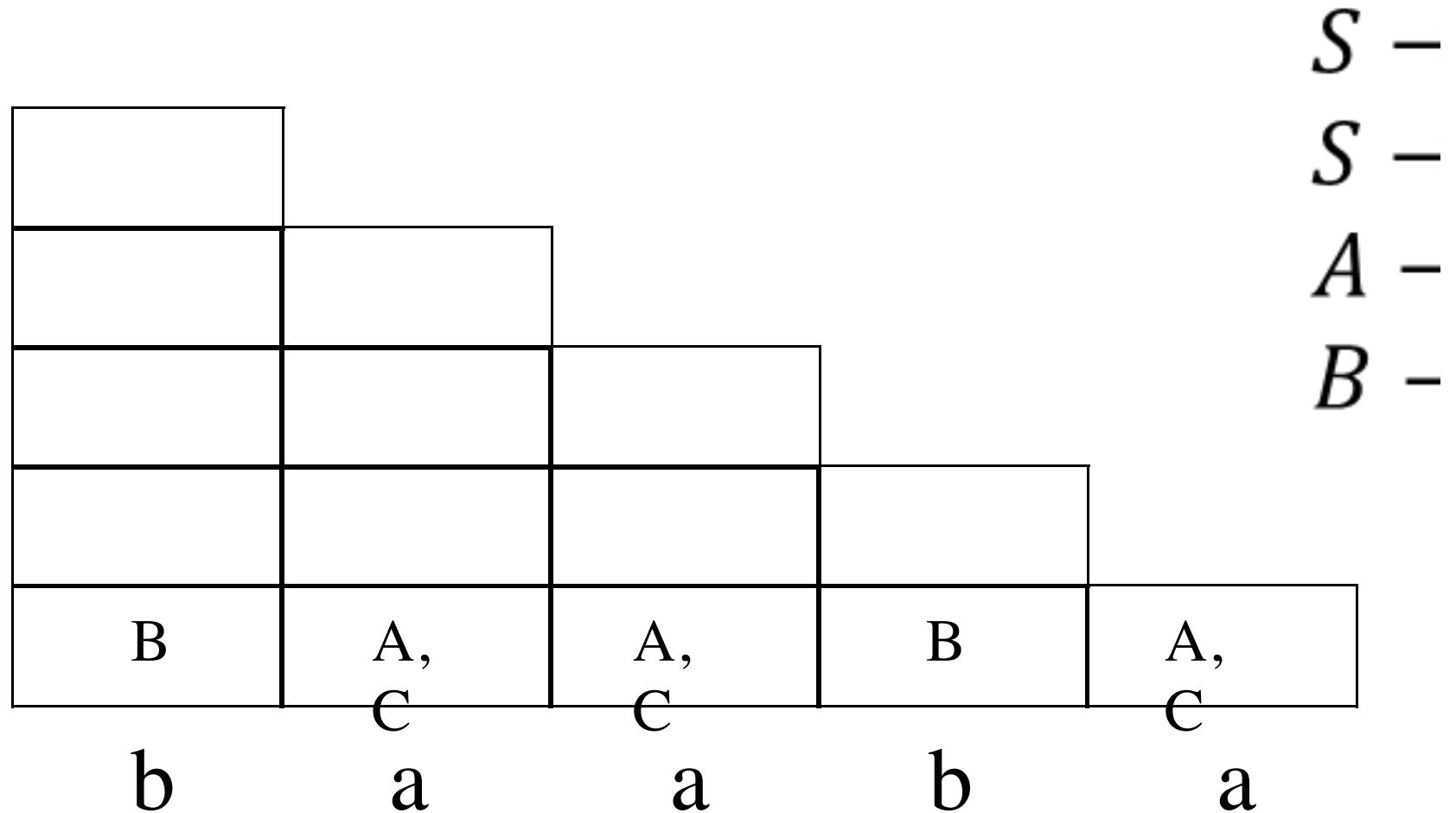
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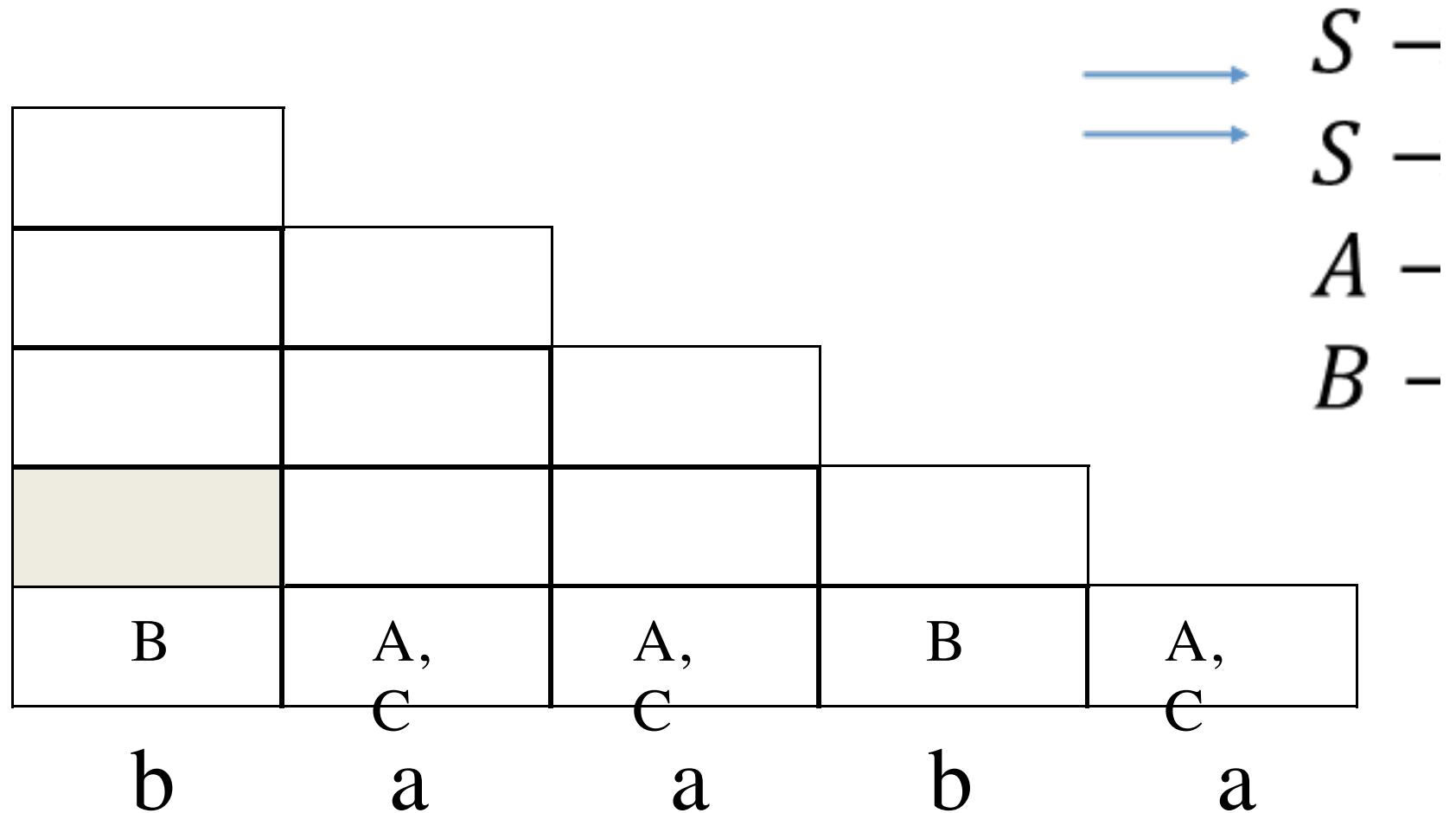
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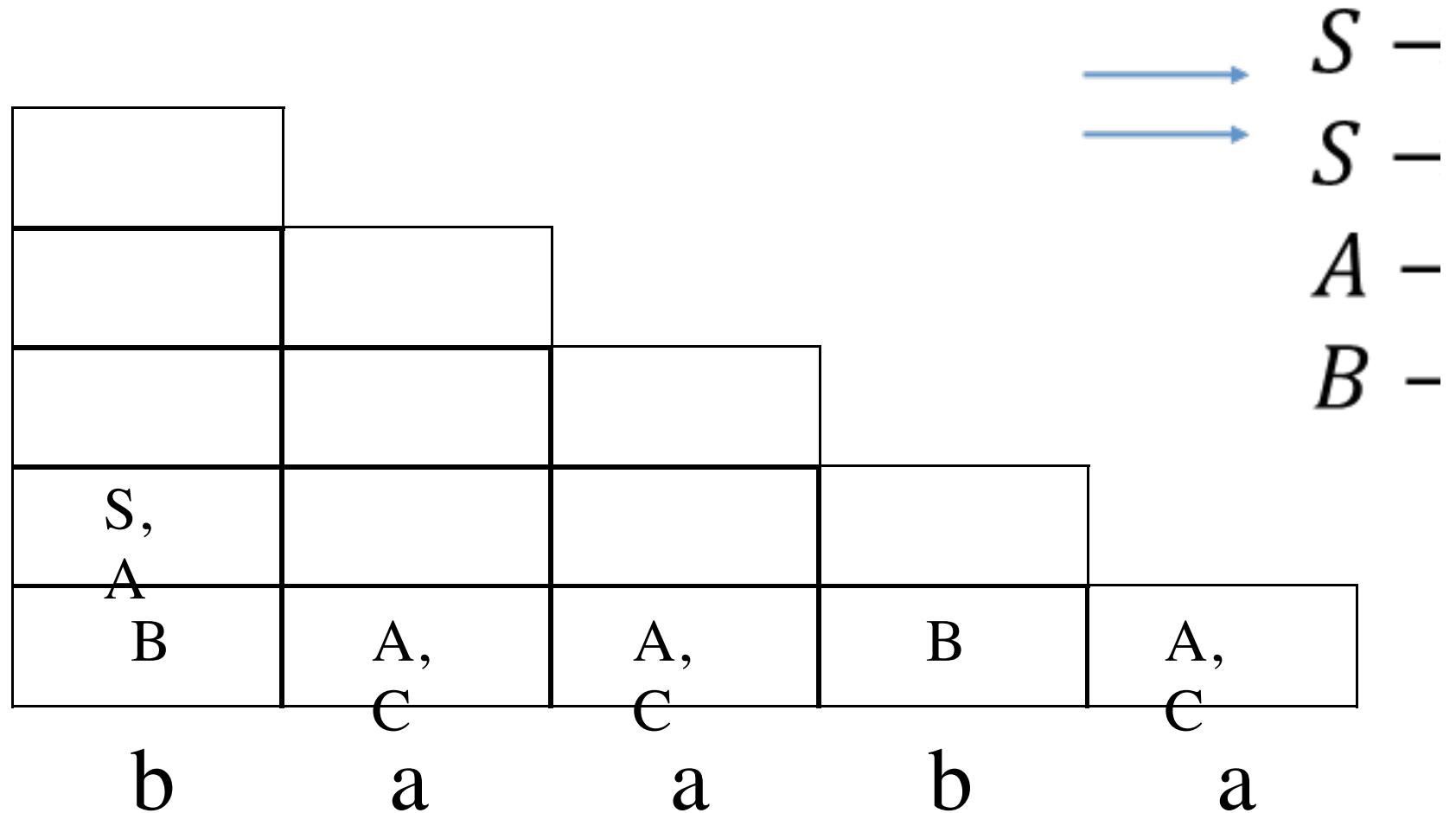
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# CYK example



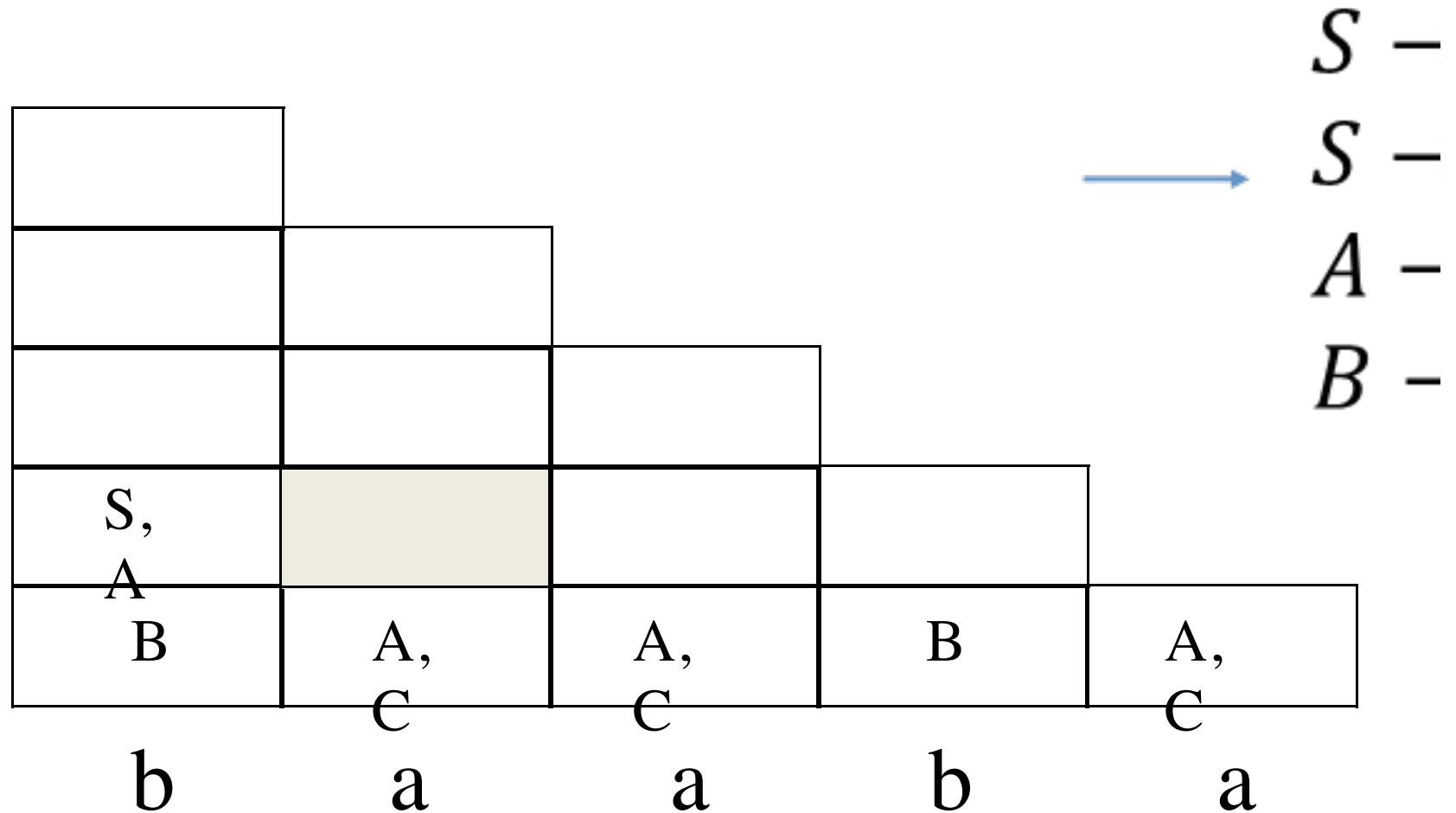
- Possible productions:  $\text{B A, }$   $\text{B C}$
- We find two rules for this

# CYK example



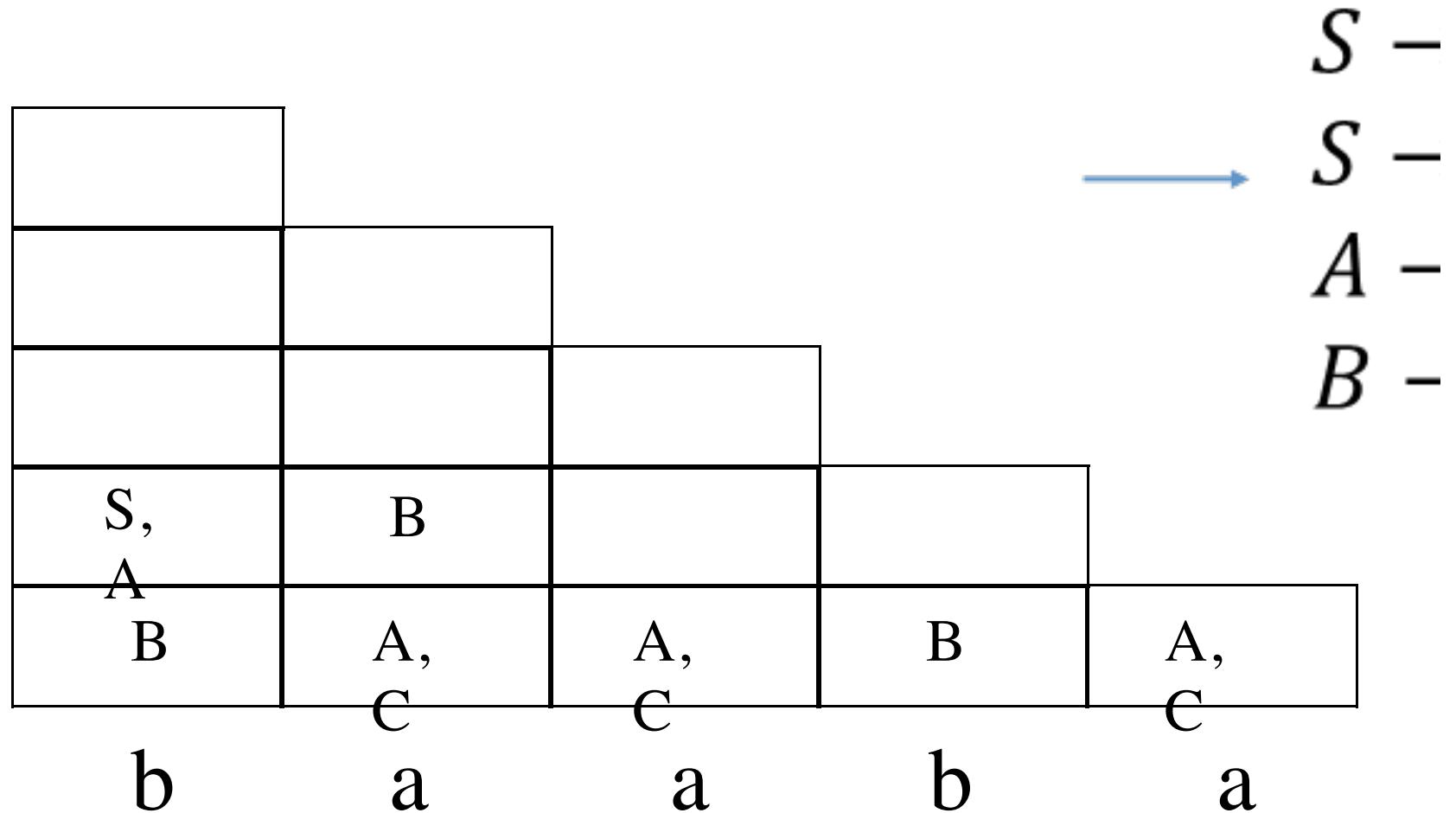
- Possible productions:  $\textcolor{red}{B A}$ ,  $\textcolor{red}{B C}$
- We find two rules for this

# CYK example



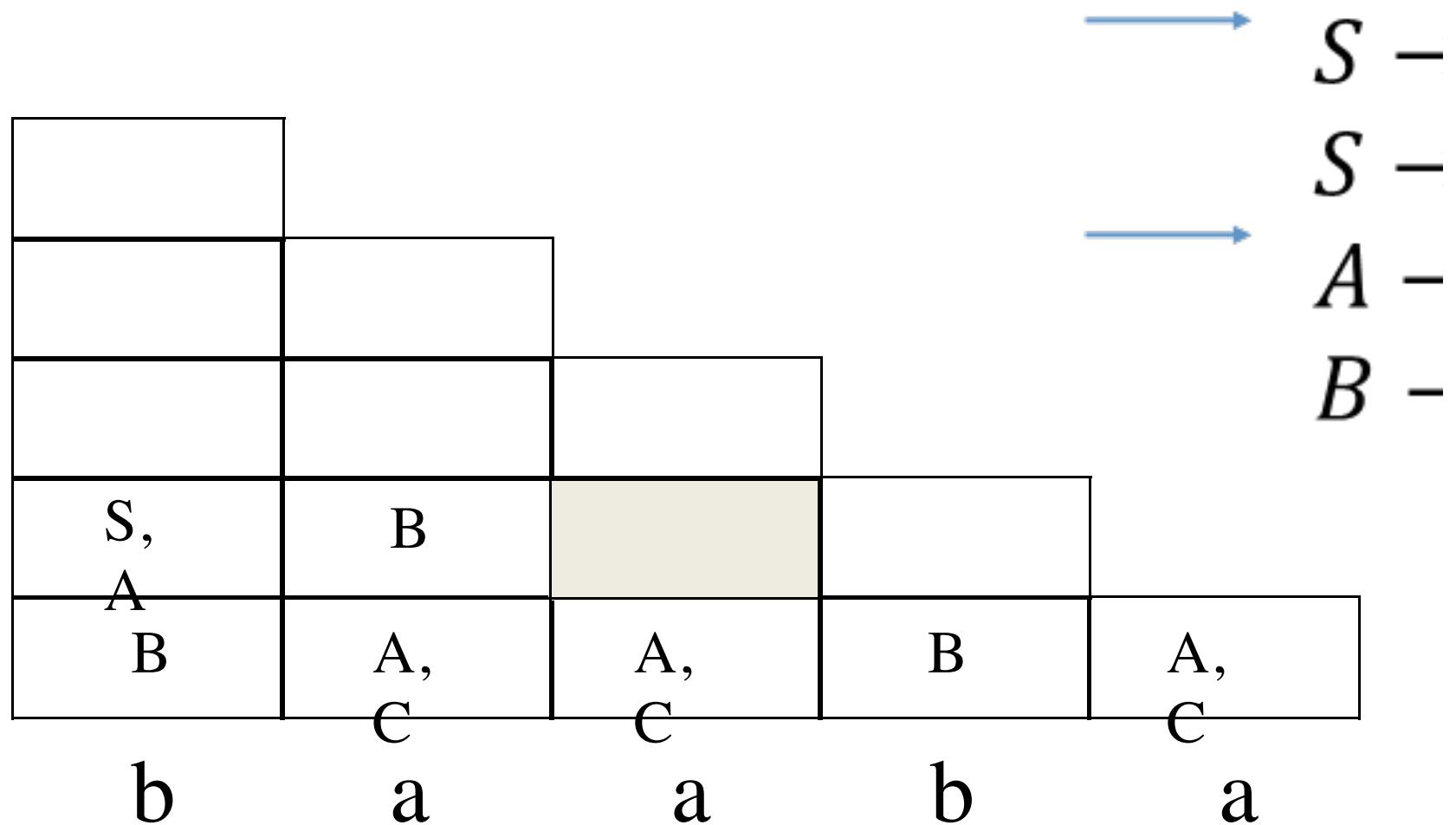
- Possible productions: AA, AC, CA, CC
  - One rule

# CYK example



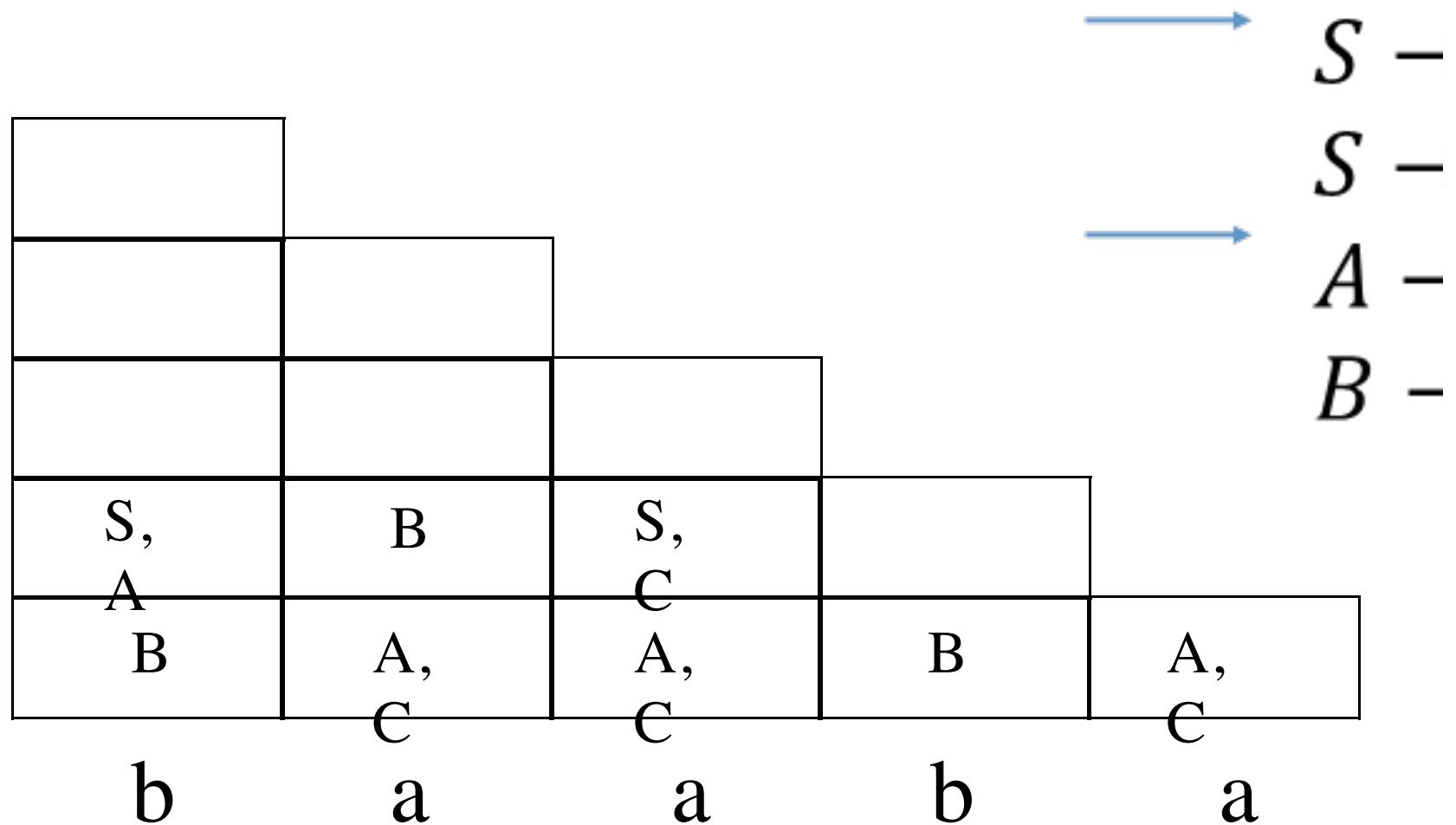
- Possible productions:  $\textcolor{red}{AA}, \textcolor{red}{AC}, \textcolor{red}{CA}, \textcolor{red}{CC}$
- One rule

# CYK example



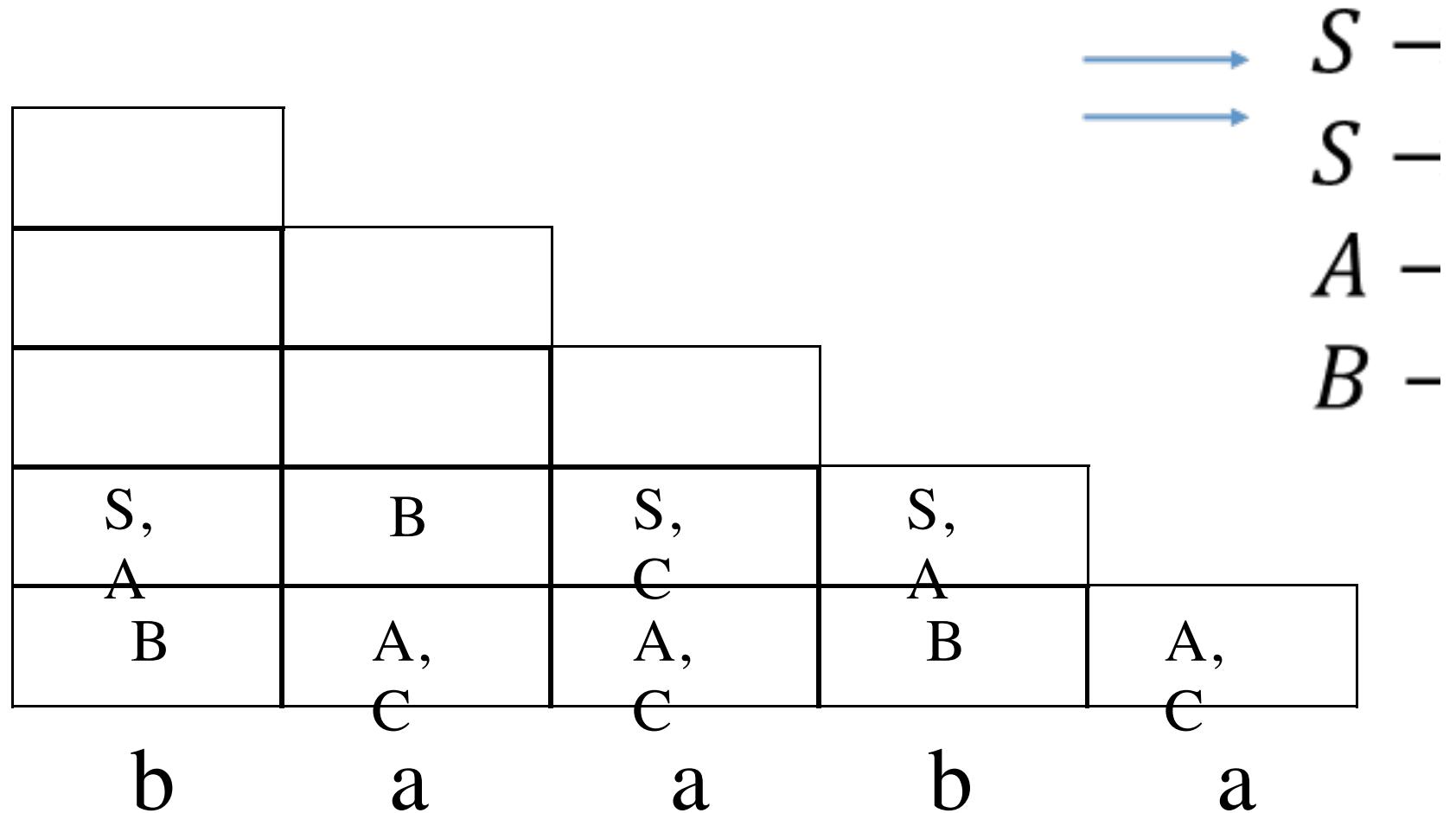
- Possible productions: **A B, C B**
- Two rules (note both produce A B)

# CYK example



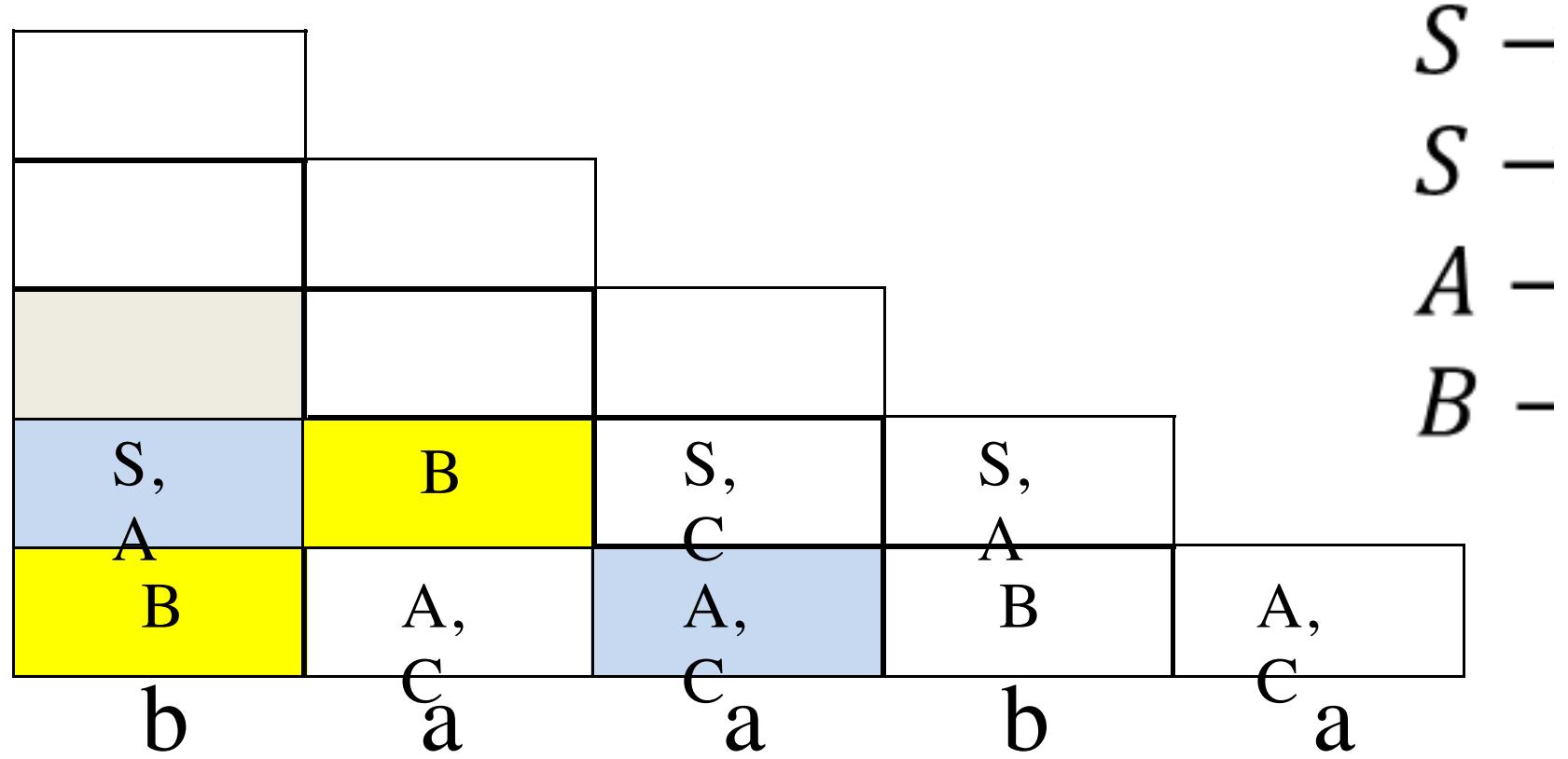
- Possible productions: **A B**, **C B**
- Two rules (note both produce A B)

# CYK example



- Possible productions: B A, B C
  - Two rules

# CYK example

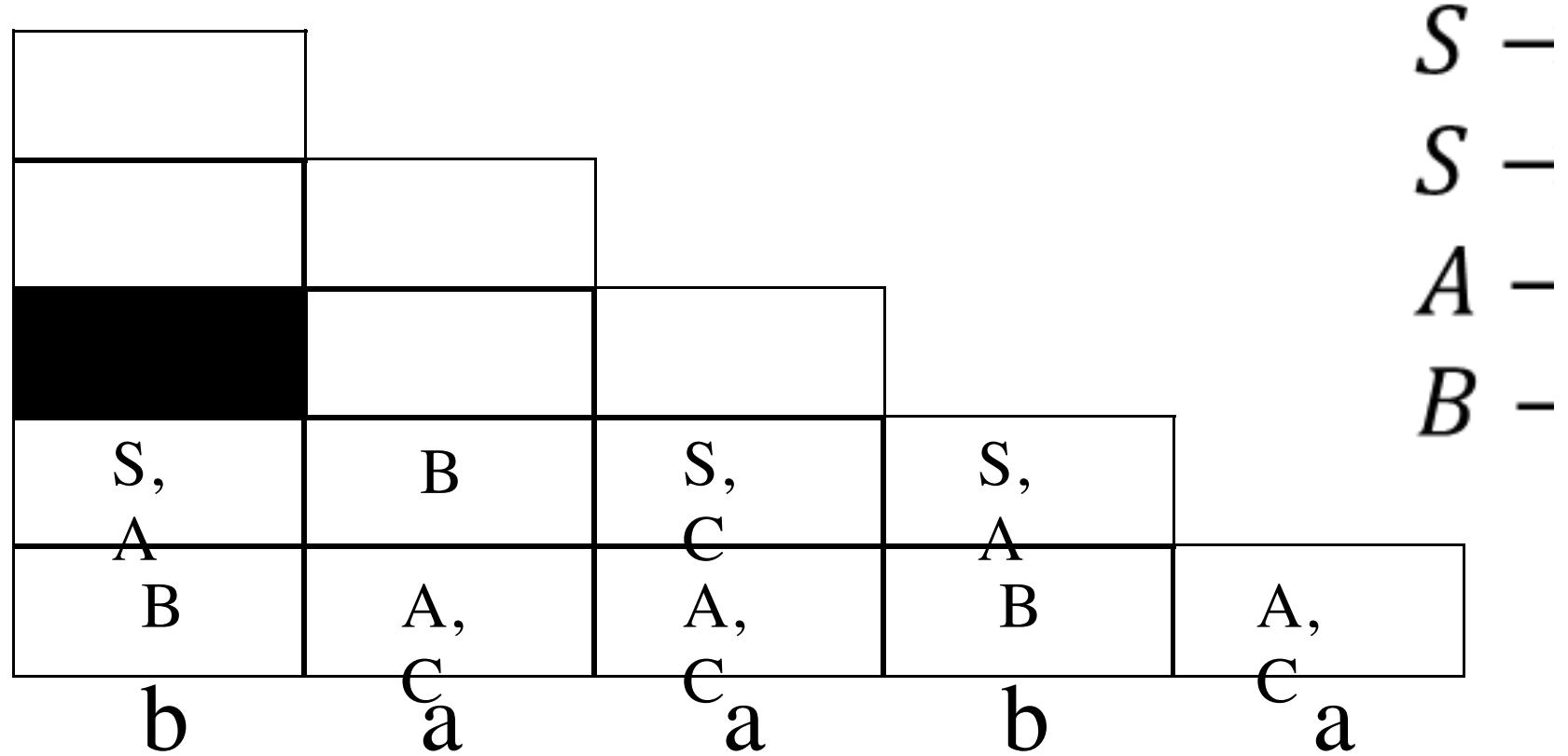


- Two combinations that work
- Possible productions:

- $B \rightarrow B$

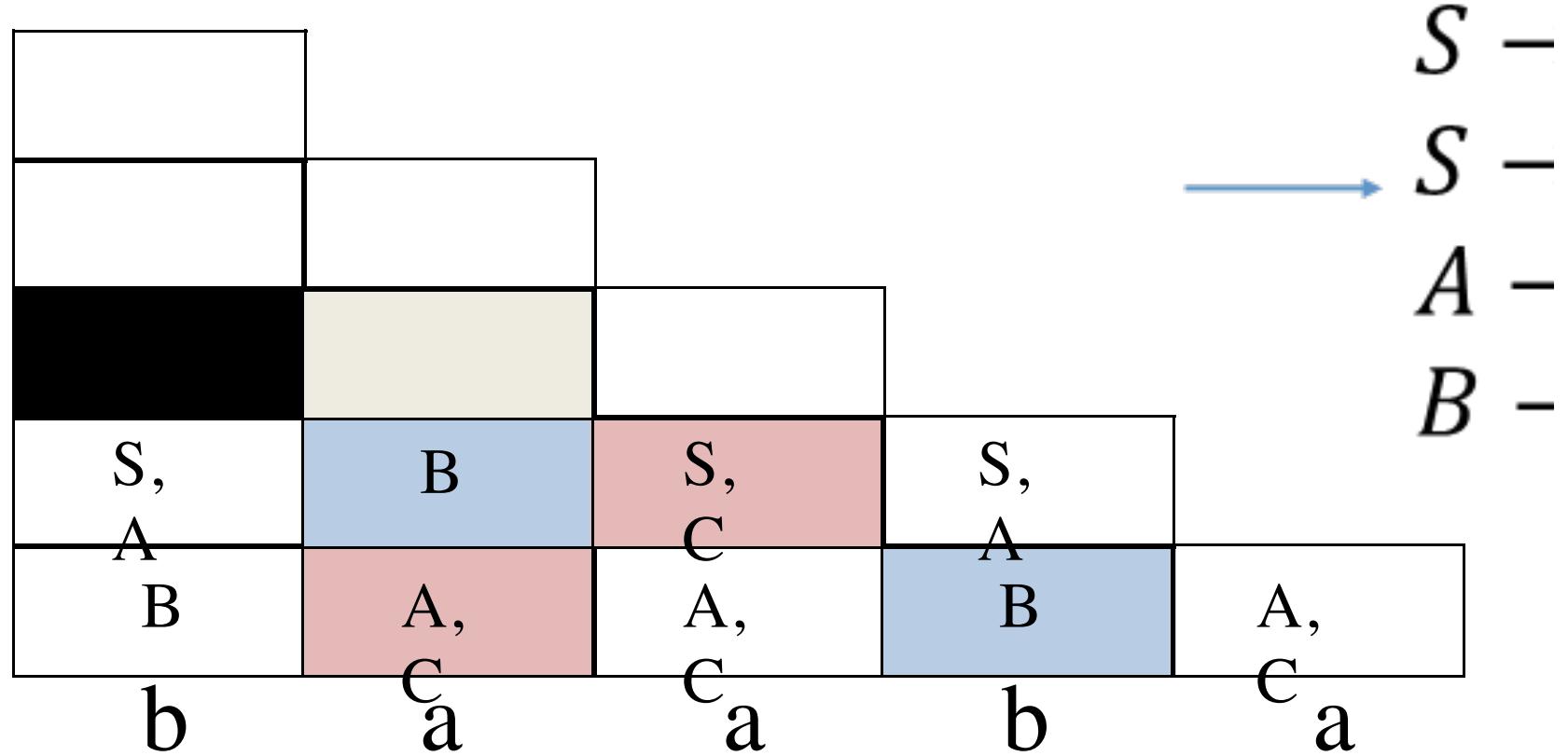
$\square \star \square \square \star \star \star \square$

# CYK example



- Two combinations that work
- Possible productions:
  - $B \ B$
  - $c \ a$
  - $c \ c$
  - $a \ a$
  - $a \ a$
  - $c \ a$

# CYK example



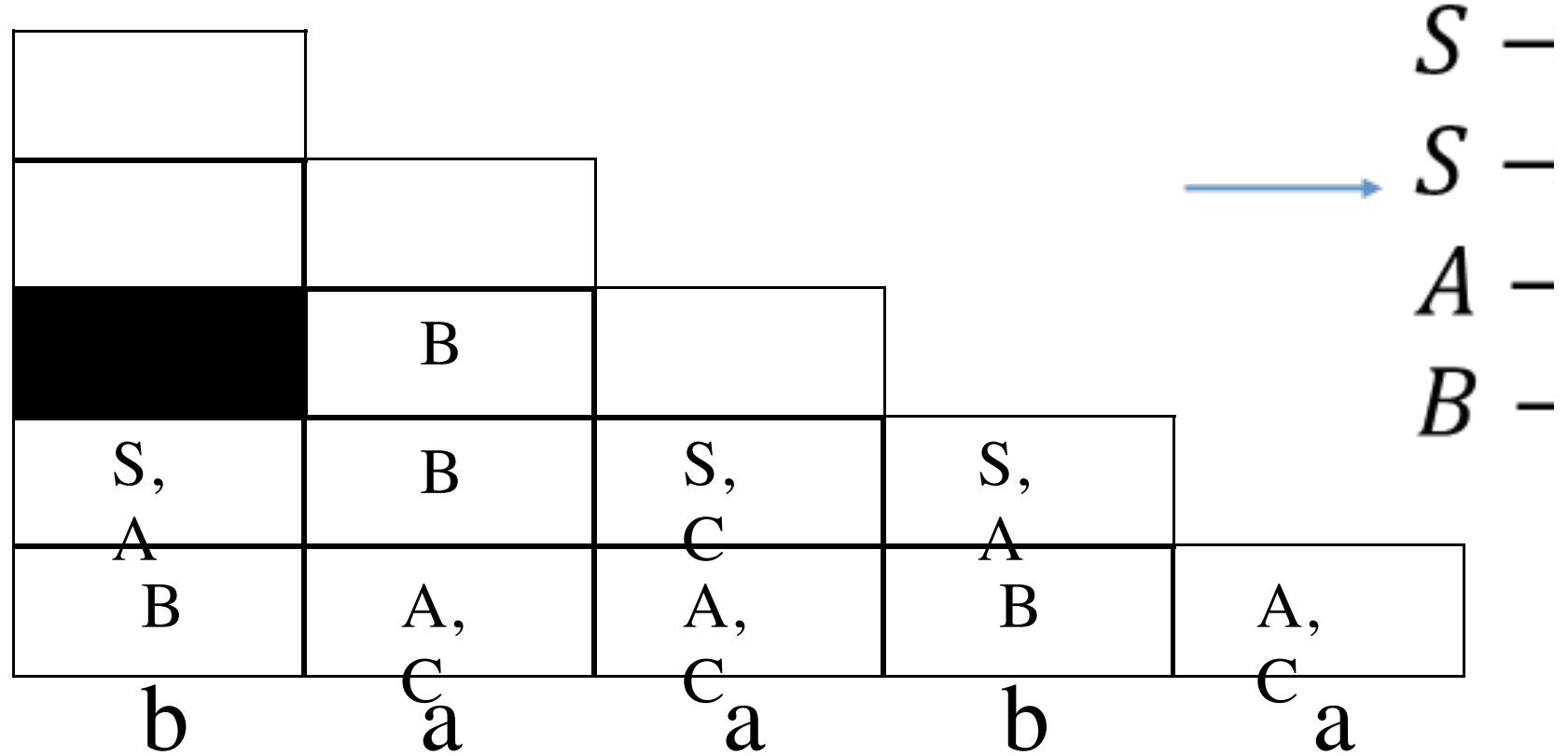
- Possible productions:

- AS, AC, CS, CC

- BB

Only one rule

# CYK example



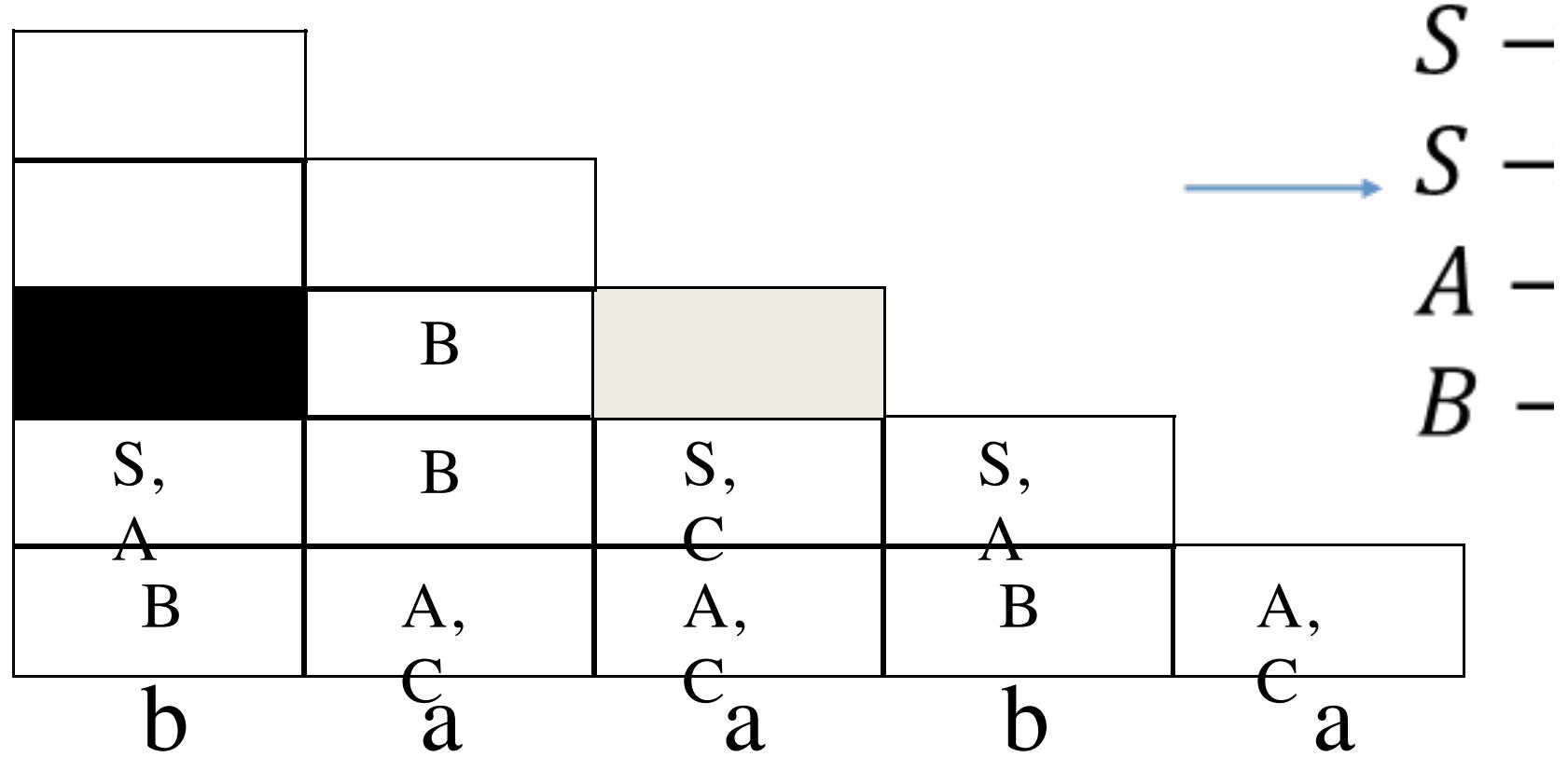
- Possible productions:

– AS, AC, CS, CC

– BB

Only one rule

# CYK example

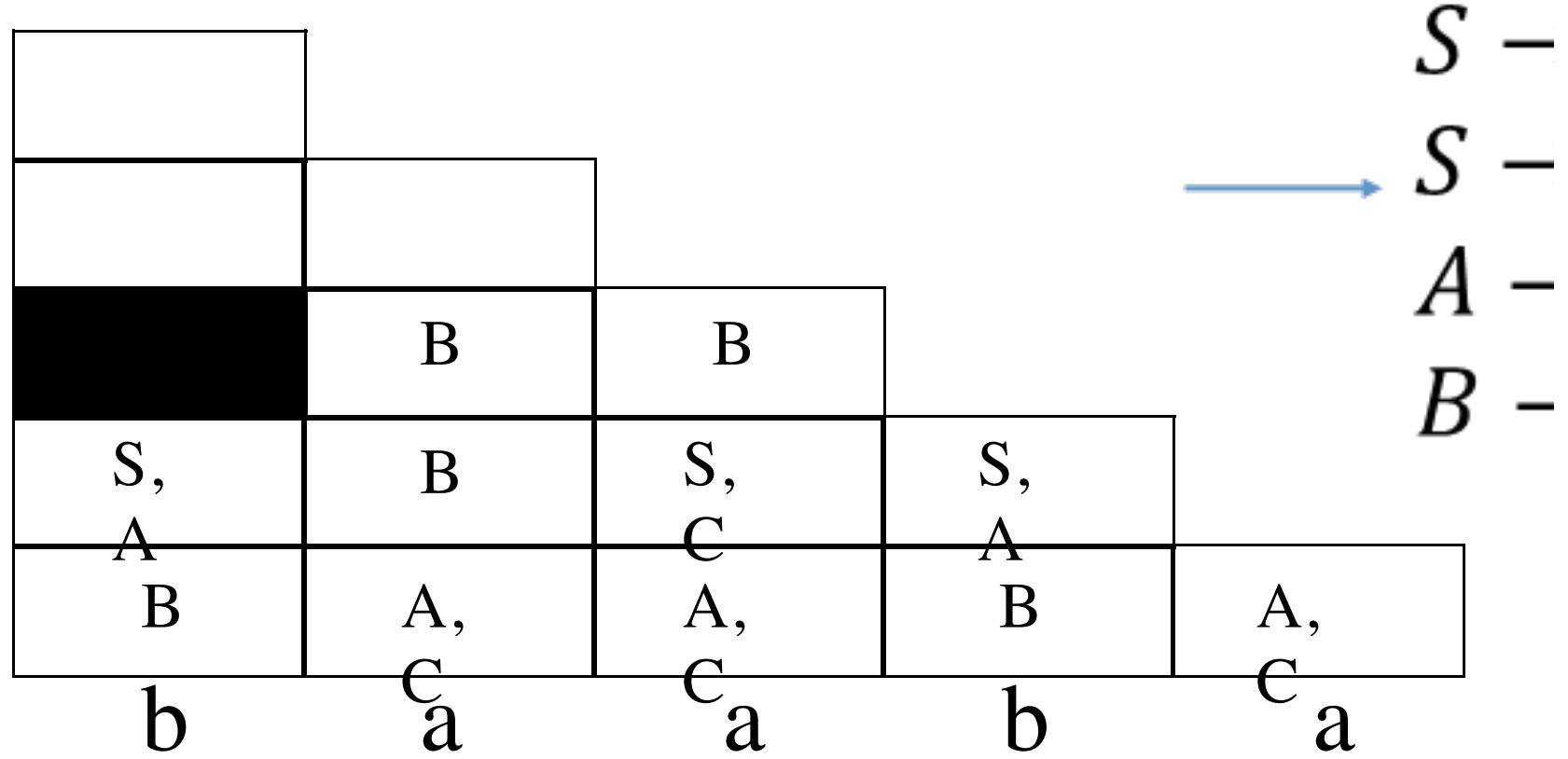


- Possible productions:

- AS, AA, CS, CA
- SA, SC, CA, CC

Only one rule

# CYK example

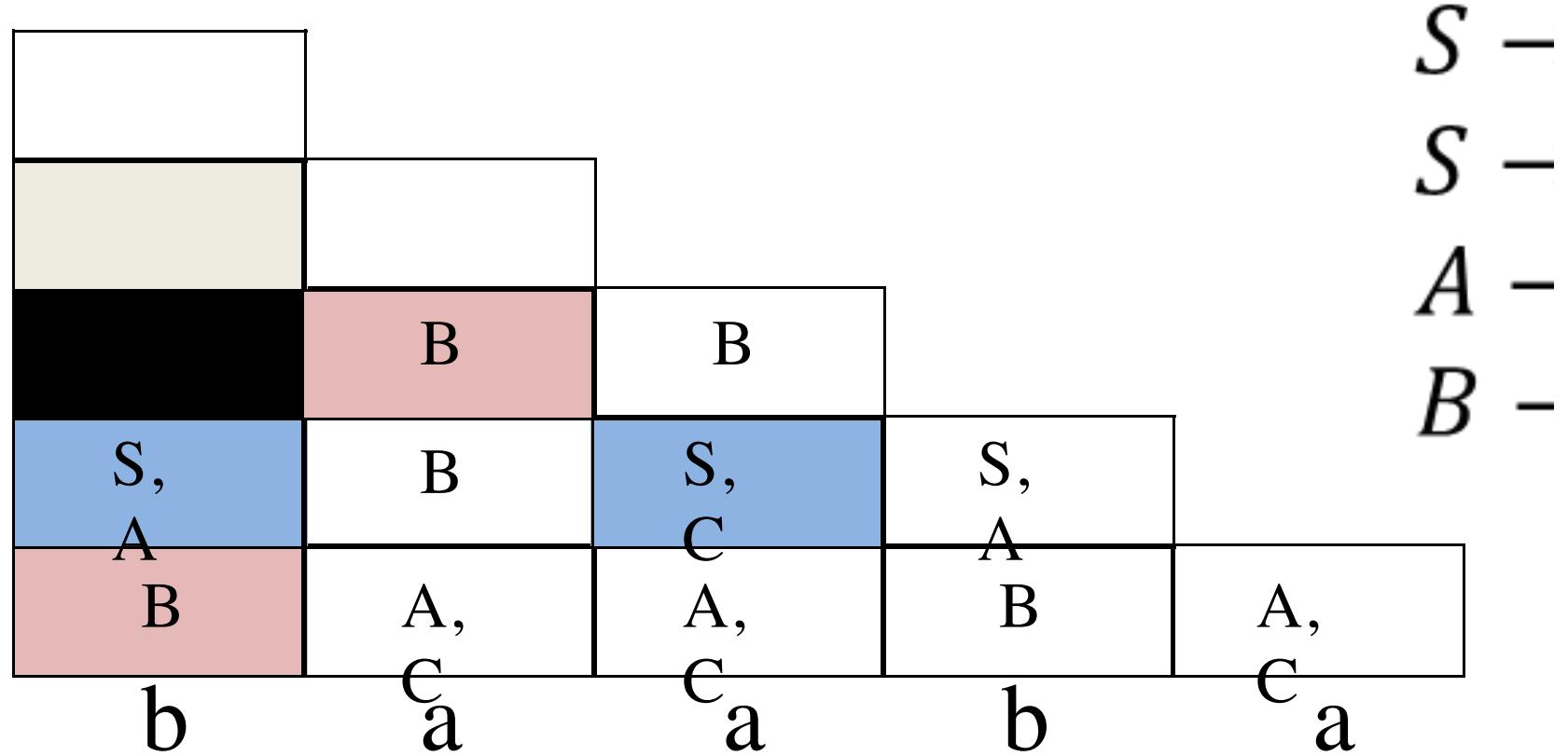


- Possible productions:

- AS, AA, CS, CA
- SA, SC, CA, CC

Only one rule

# CYK example

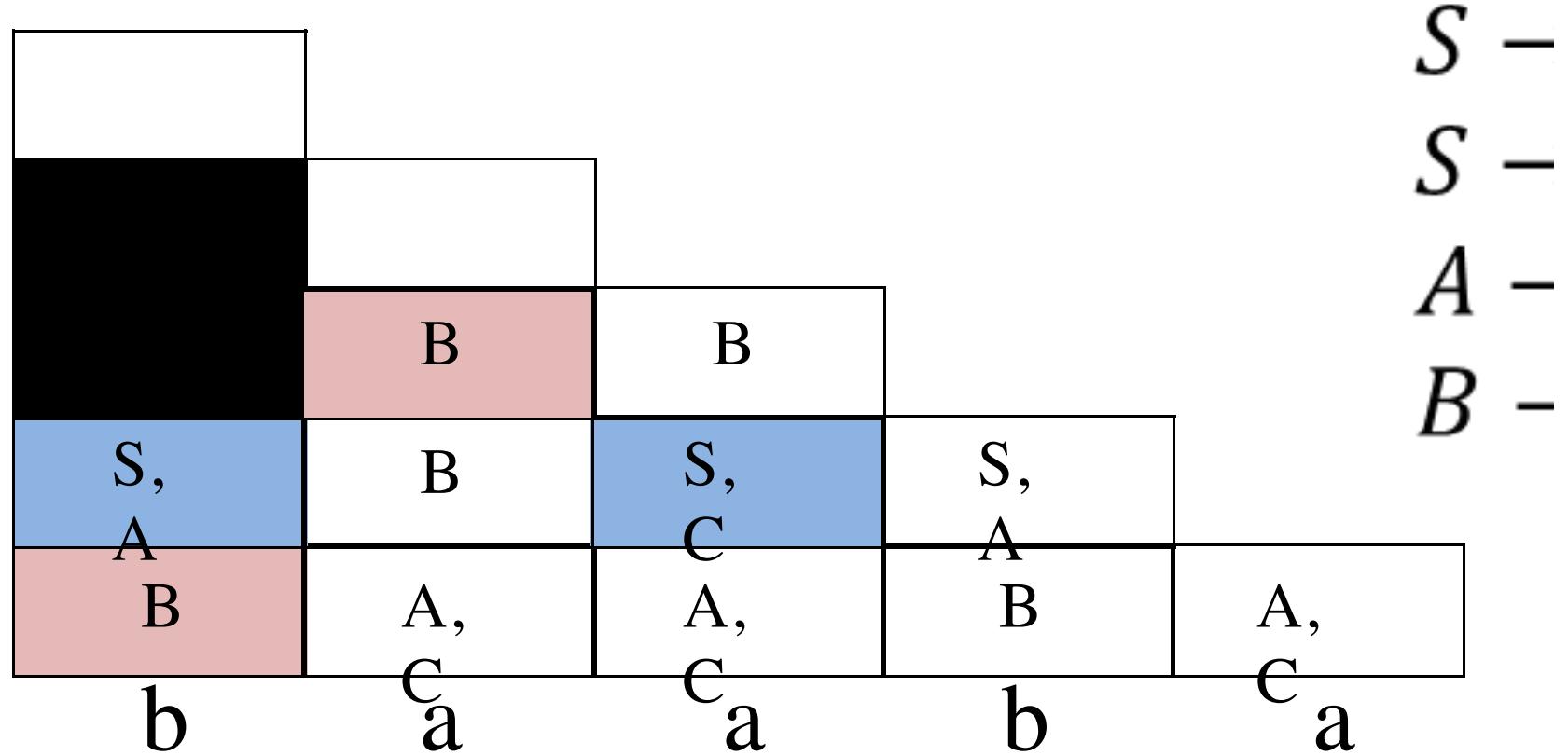


- Possible productions:

- $SS, SC, AS, AC$
  - $BB$

No rule for any of these

# CYK example

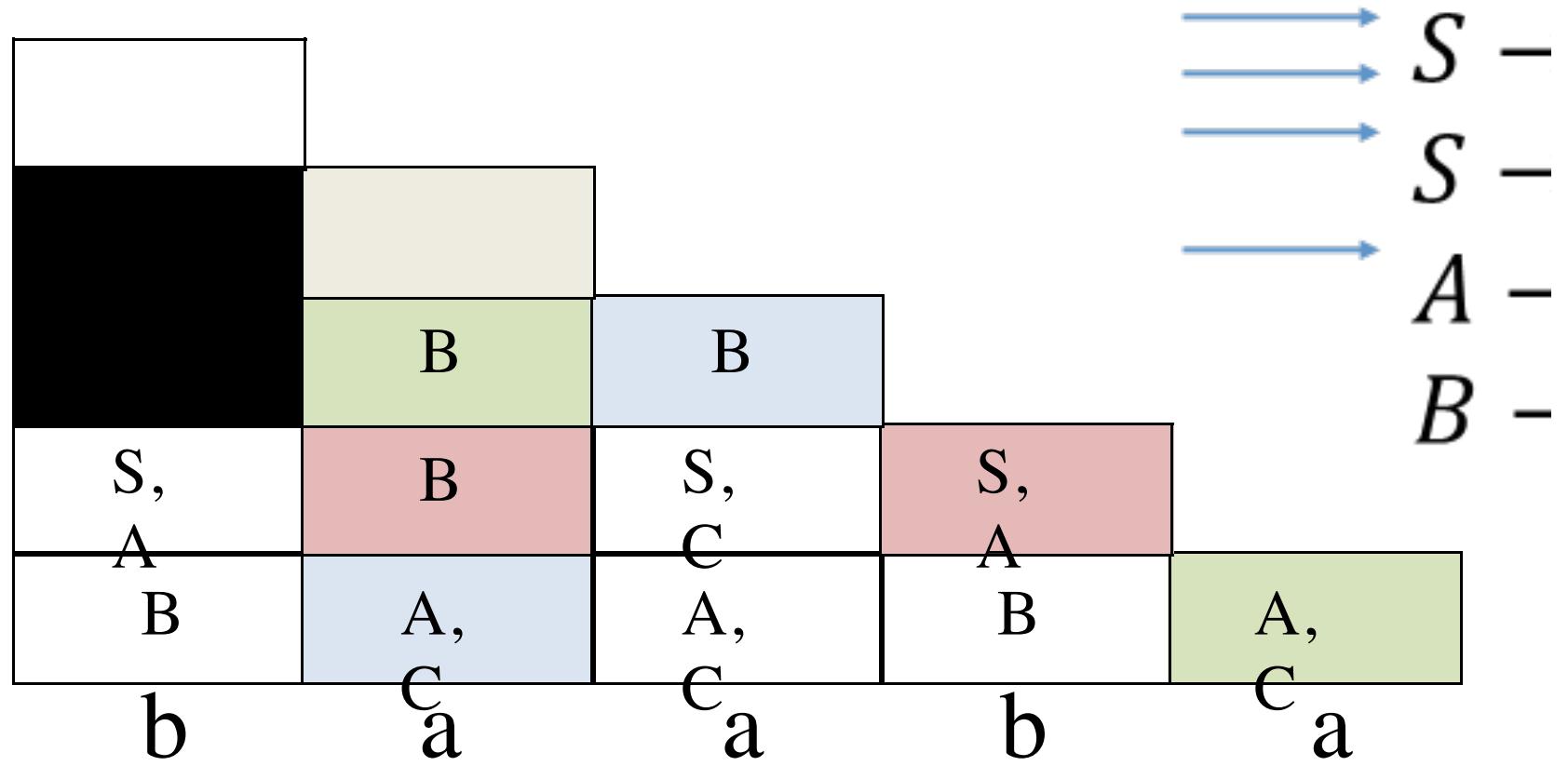


- Possible productions:

- SS, SC, AS, AC
  - BB

No rule for any of these

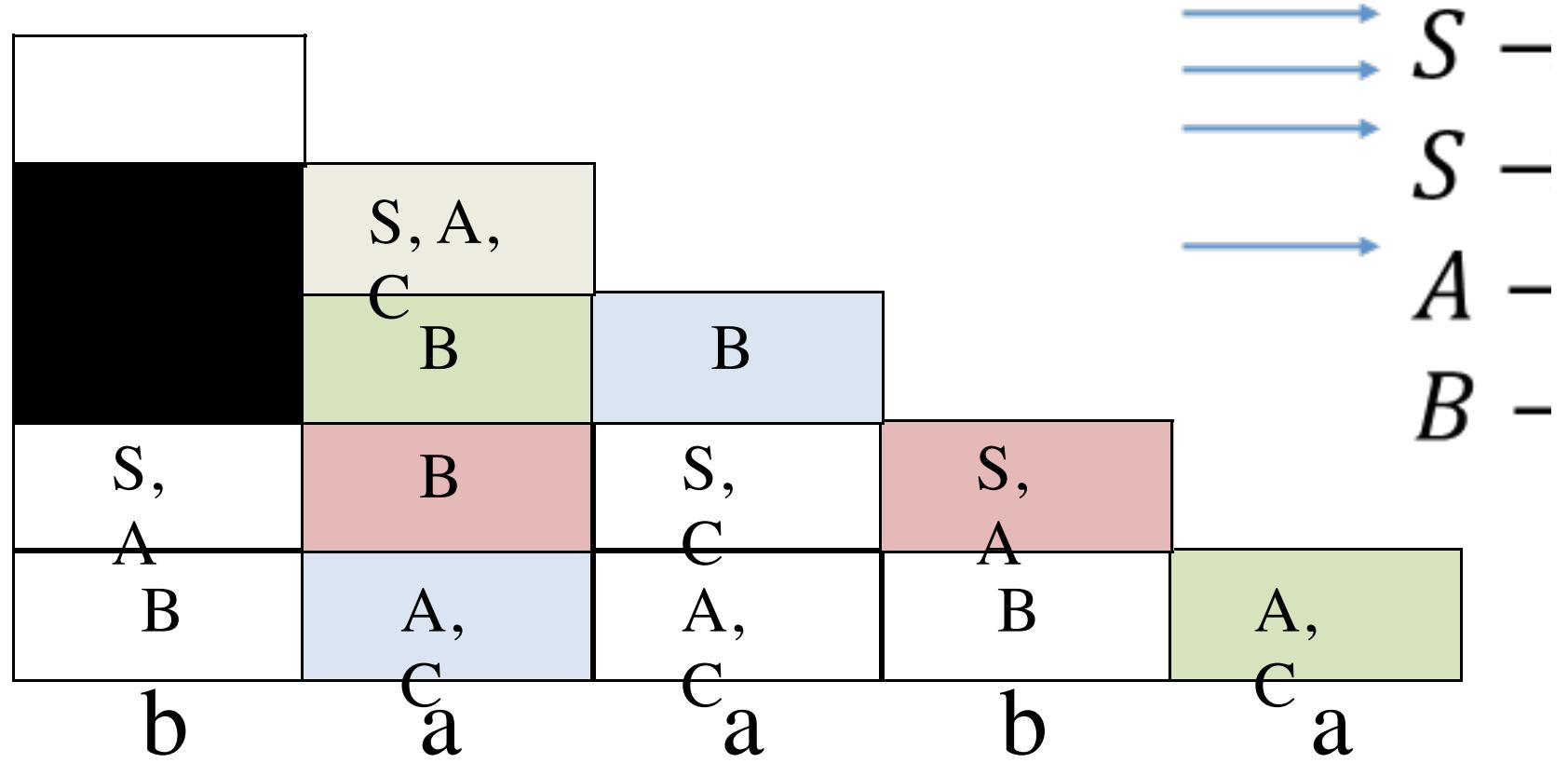
# CYK example



- Possible productions:

- $AB, CB$
  - $BS, BA$
  - $R \wedge RC$

# CYK example

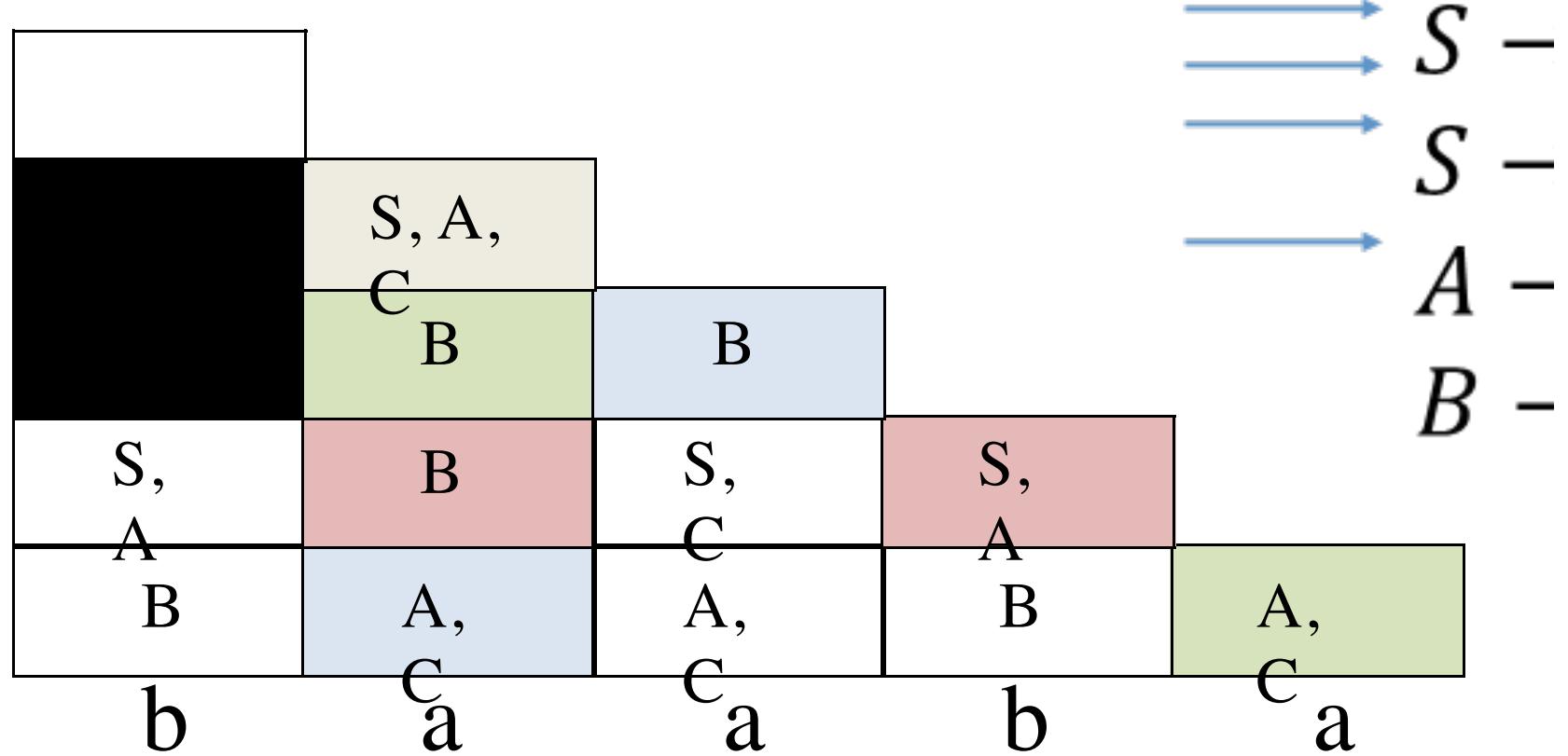


- Possible productions:

- AB, CB
- BS, BA

R  $\wedge$  RC

# CYK example

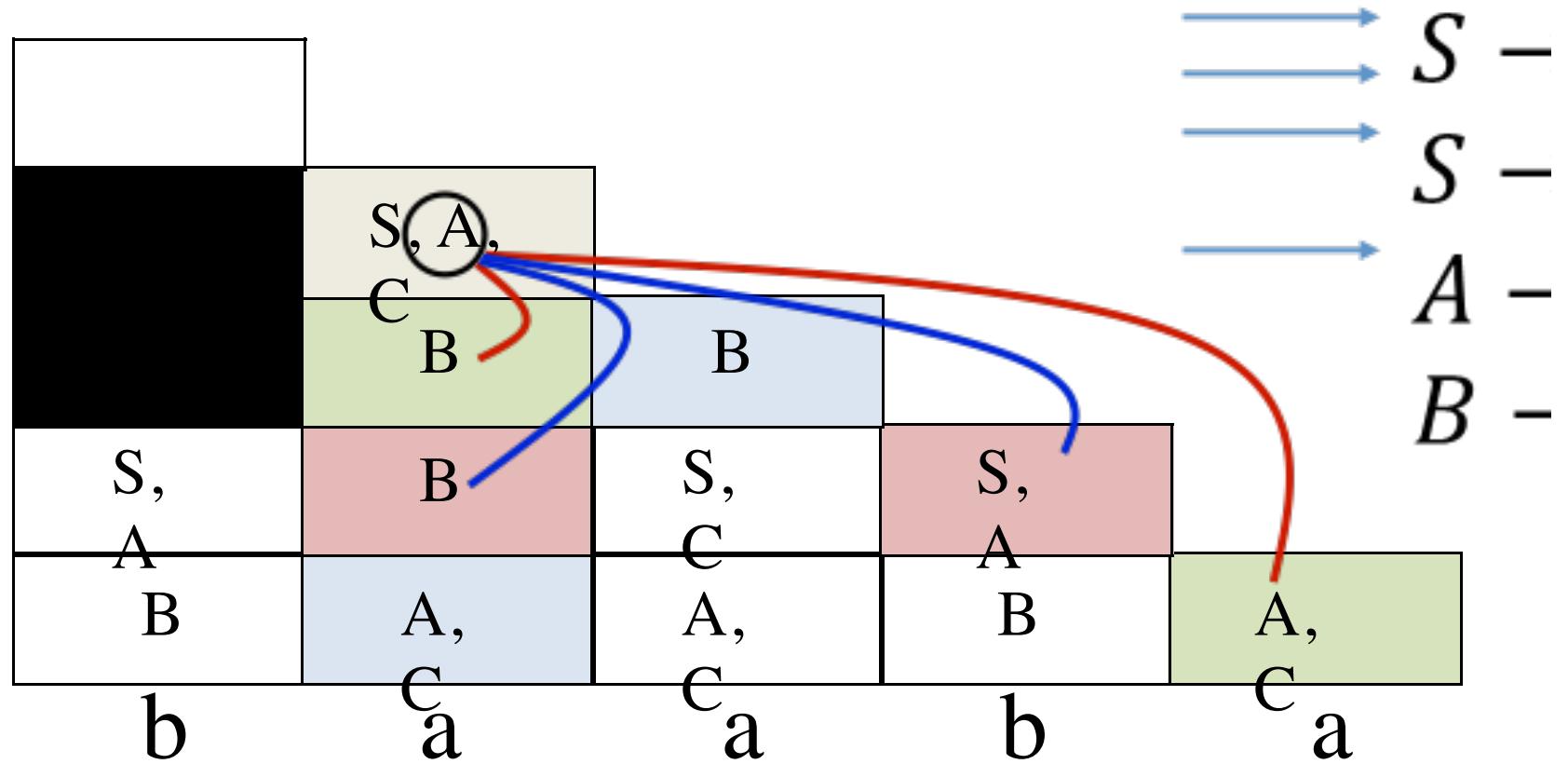


- Possible productions:

- $AB, CB$
- $BS, BA$
- $R \wedge RC$

IS THIS PARSE UNAMBIGUOUS?

# CYK example



- Possible productions:

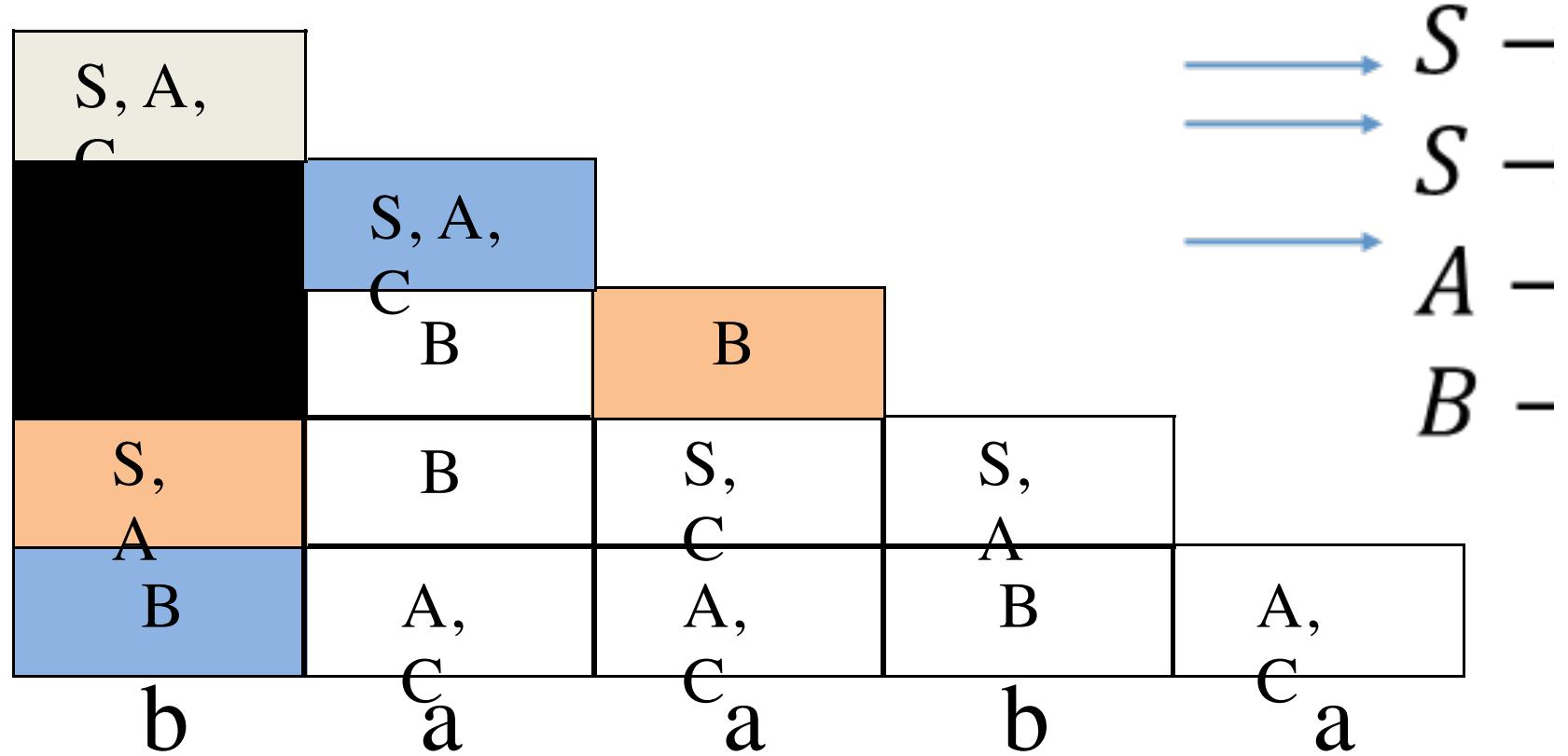
- $AB, CB$
- $BS, BA$

$R \wedge RC$

IS THIS PARSE UNAMBIGUOUS?

Possibly not... (can't be sure yet)

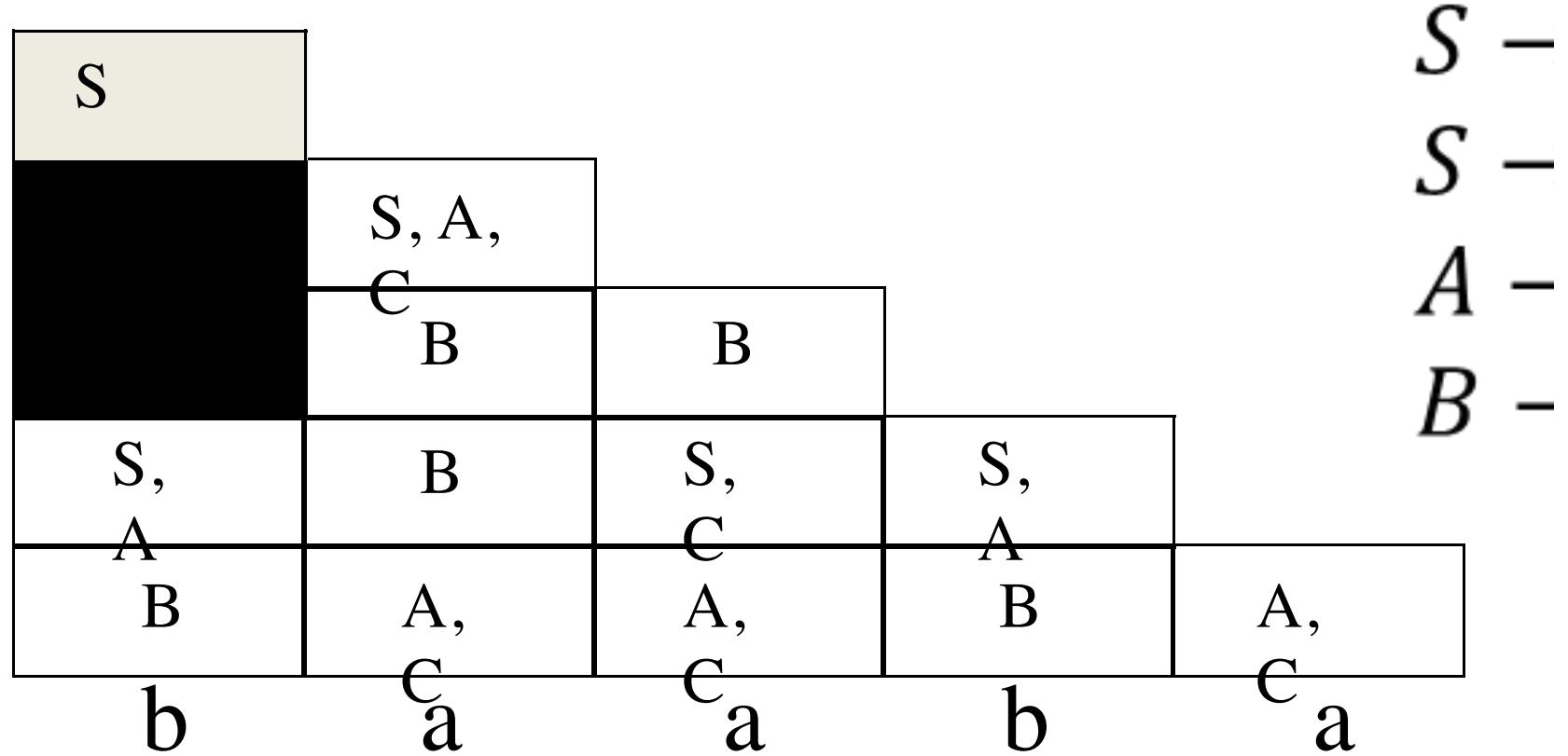
# CYK example



- Possible productions:
  - BS, BA, BC
  - SB, AB

Three rules apply!

# CYK example



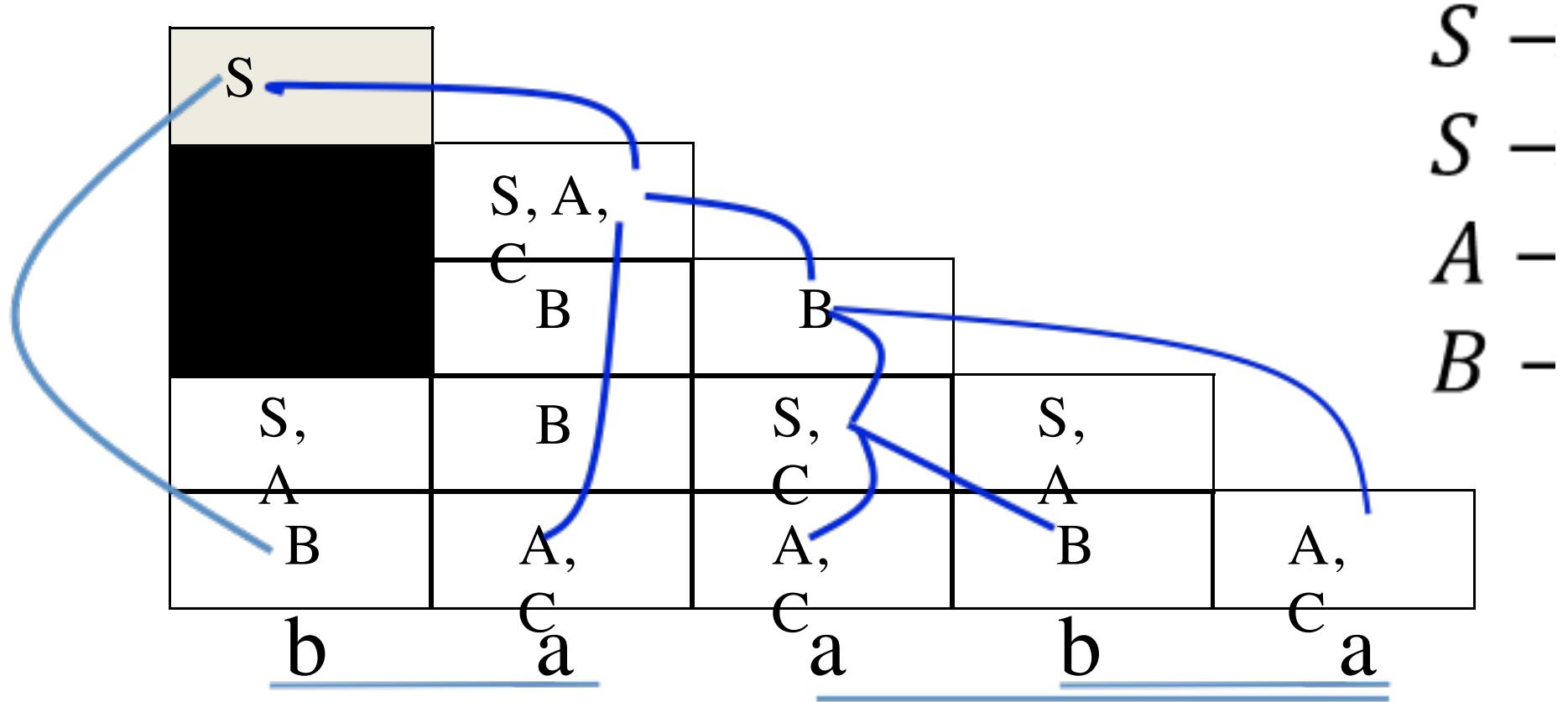
- Check: Does the top box have S
  - Remove other entries

String does belong to the language

# But how to find constituents?

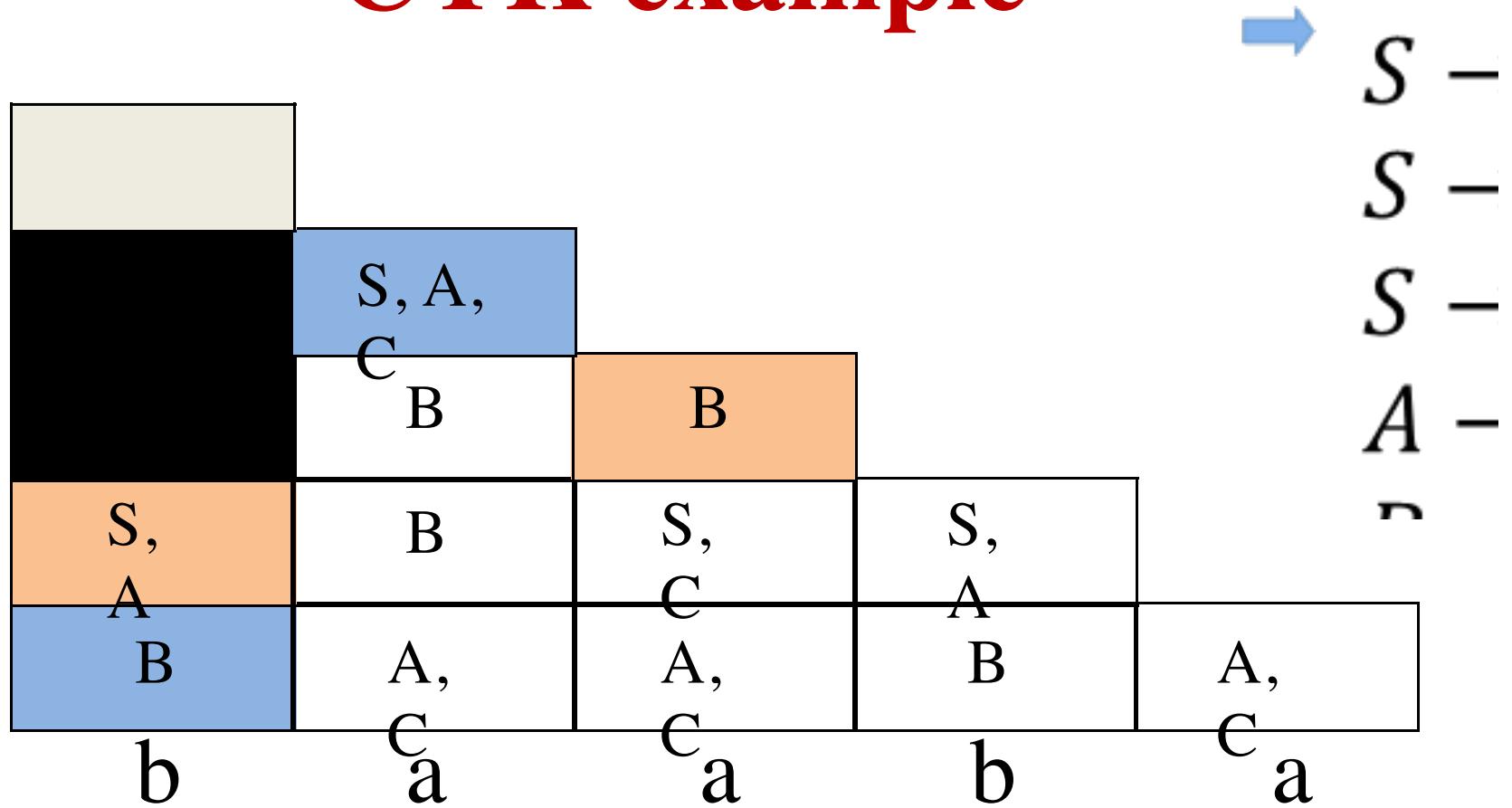
- Need the parse tree for this
- At each box,
  - For each stored NT
    - keep track of not just the non-terminals, but the child nodes
- Forward trace from root to find the parse tree
  - The parse tree provides the constituents

# CYK example



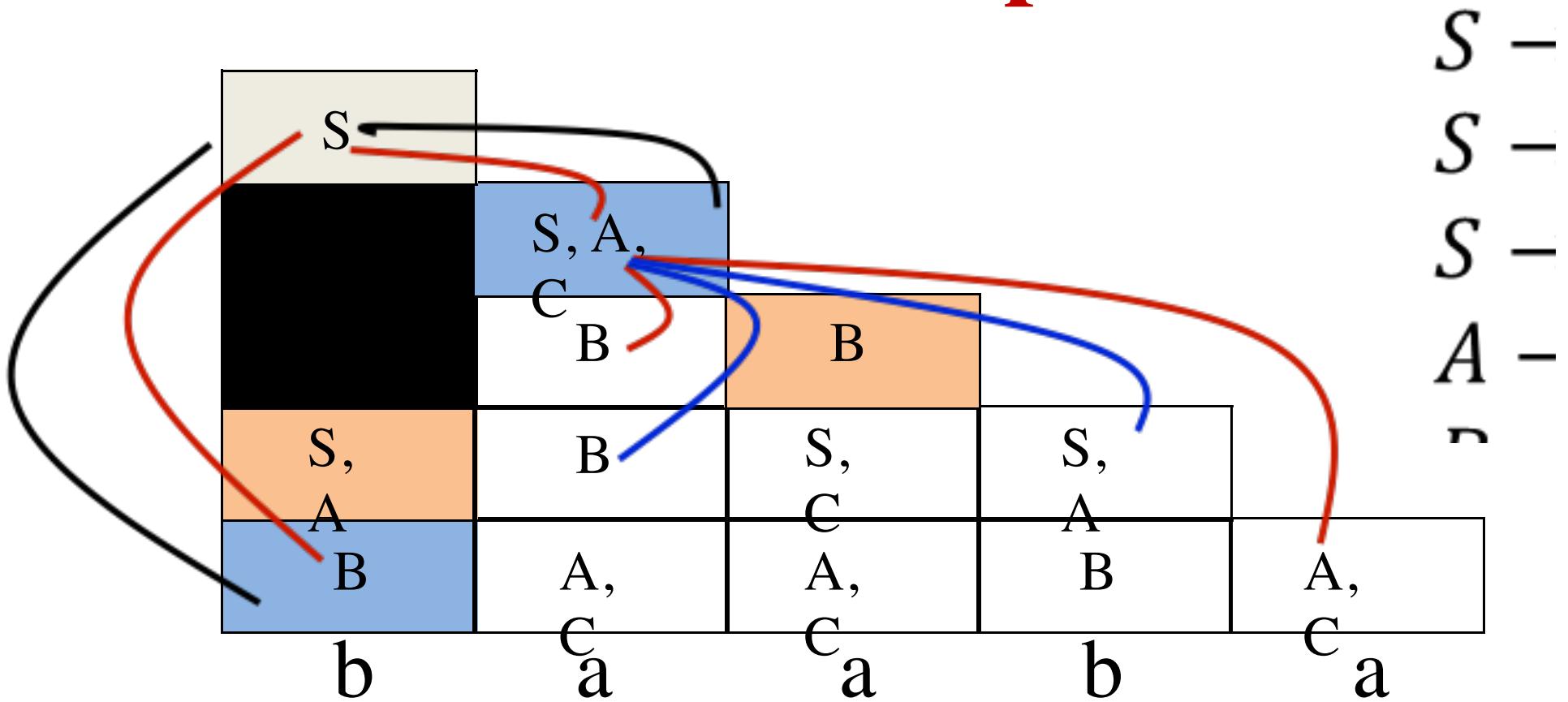
- Resulting parse
  - Constituents can be found from it
- Tracing the parse tree is possible because this is an

# CYK example



- Now add another rule

# CYK example



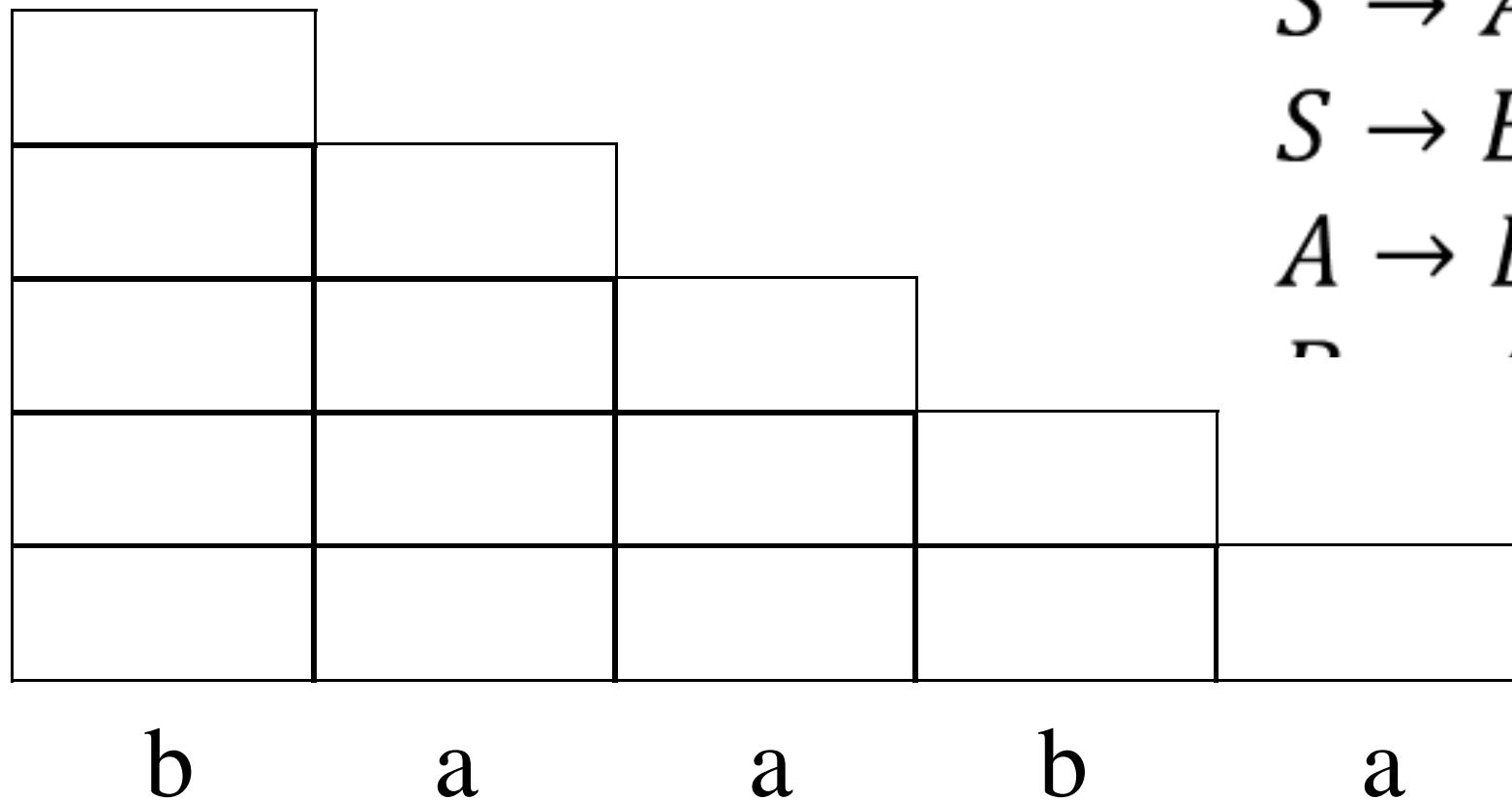
- Possible productions:
  - BS, BA, BC
  - SB, AB
- Multiple S rules apply

Not an unambiguous parse!

Many possible parses

How do we choose the best parse?

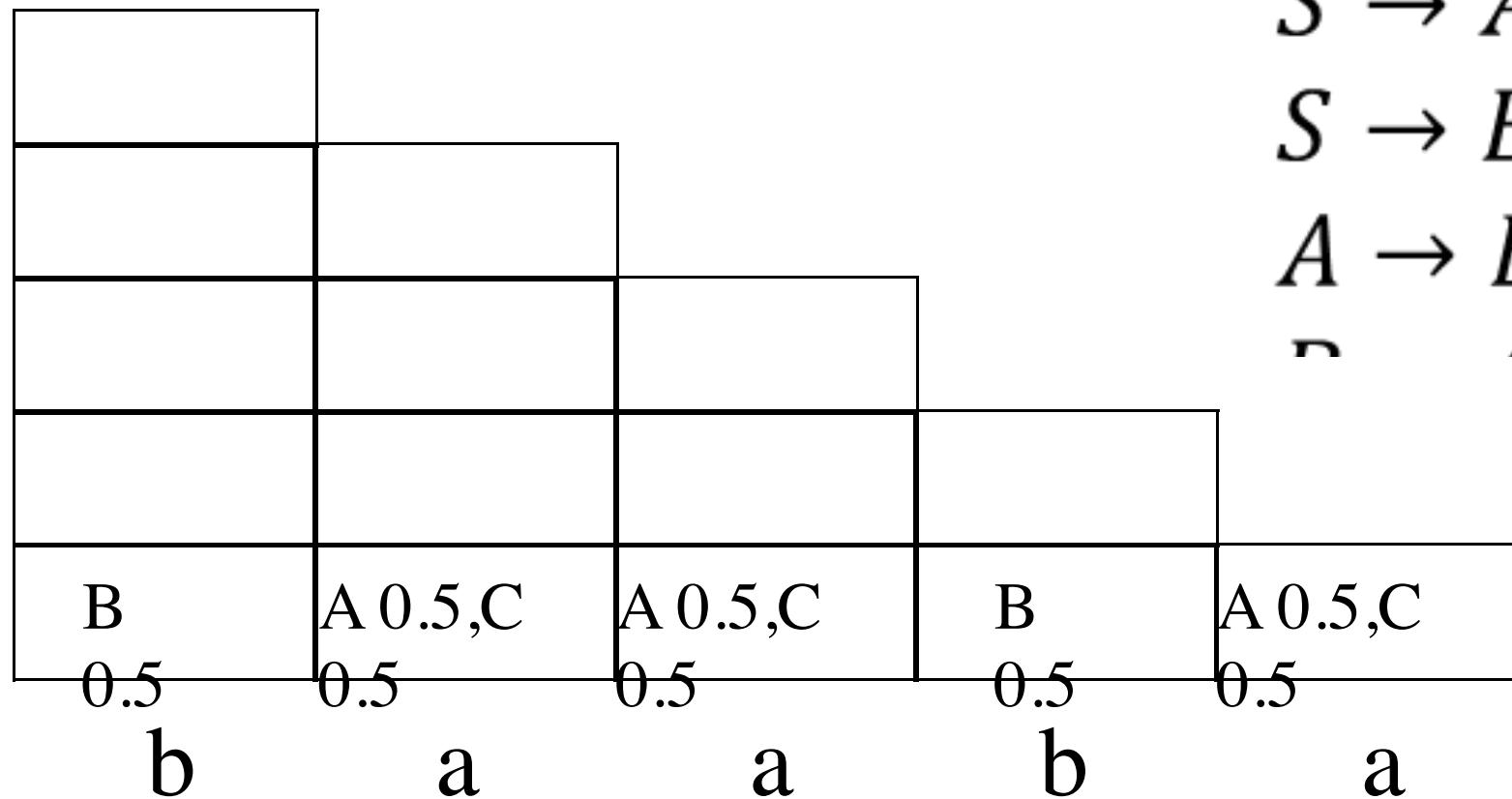
# CYK with PCFG



- Rules now have probabilities
  - Note, probabilities of all expansions of any

# CYK example

$S \rightarrow B.$   
 $S \rightarrow A.$   
 $S \rightarrow B.$   
 $A \rightarrow B.$   
B C



- Keep track of probabilities of rules applied

# CYK example

							$S \rightarrow B.$
							$S \rightarrow A.$
							$S \rightarrow B.$
							$A \rightarrow B.$
							$B \rightarrow C.$
S 0.125, A 0,125							
B	A 0.5,C	A 0.5,C		B	A 0.5,C		
0.5	0.5	0.5		0.5	0.5		
b	a	a		b	a		

- For each new rule inserted in table, multiply the probability of the rule by the probability of

# CYK example

S 0.125, A 0,125	B 0.125	S 0.125, C 0.125	S 0.125, A 0,125		
B 0.5	A 0.5,C 0.5	A 0.5,C 0.5	B 0.5	A 0.5,C 0.5	
b	a	a	a	b	a

- For each new rule inserted in table, multiply the probability of the rule by the probability of

# CYK example

						$S \rightarrow B.$
						$S \rightarrow A.$
						$S \rightarrow B.$
						$A \rightarrow B.$
						$B \rightarrow C.$
0	B 1/32	B 1/32				
S 0.125, A 0,125	B 0.125	S 0.125, C 0.125	S 0.125, A 0,125			
B 0.5	A 0.5,C 0.5	A 0.5,C 0.5	B 0.5	A 0.5,C 0.5		
b	a	a	b	a		

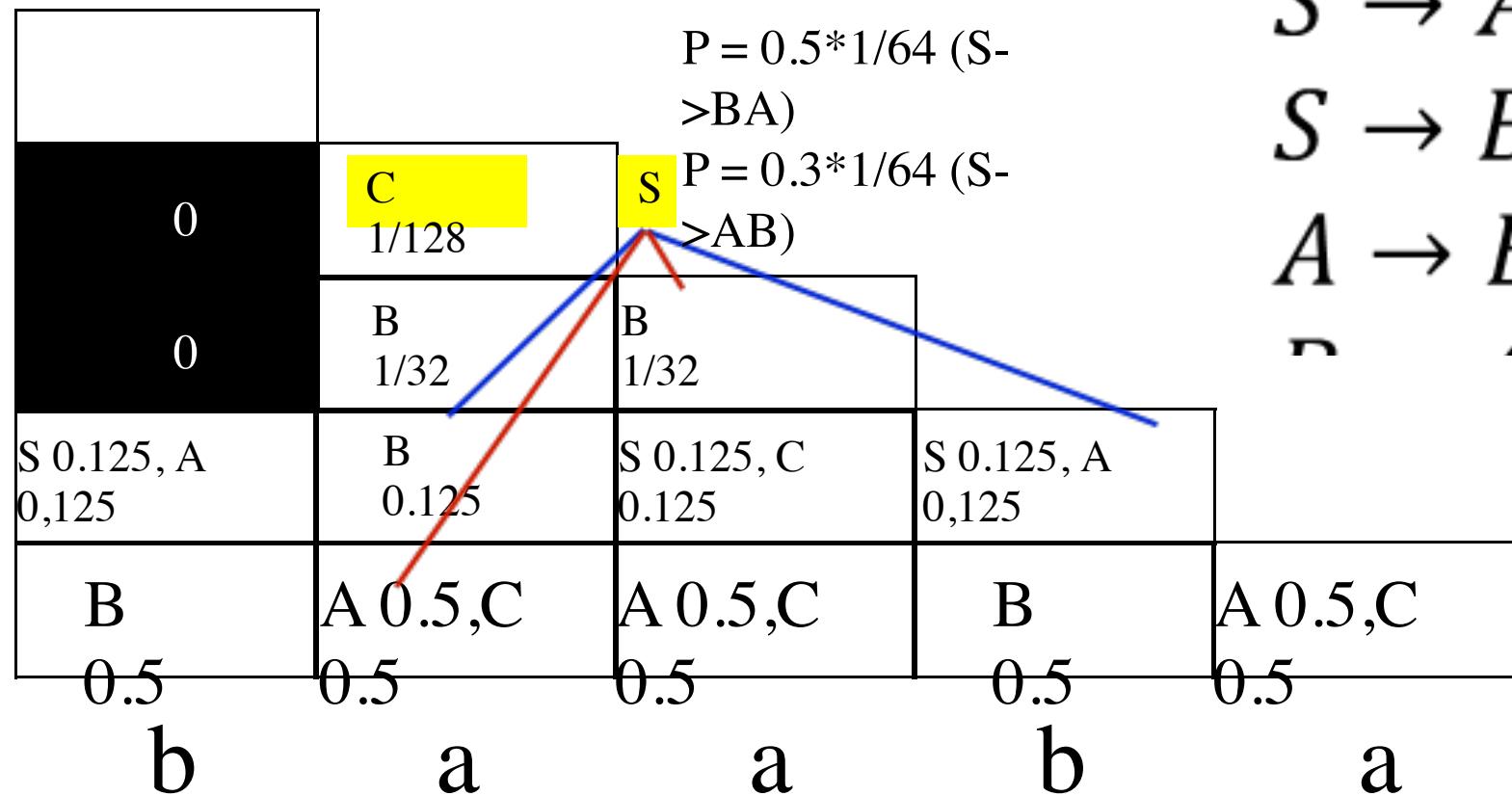
- For each new rule inserted in table, multiply the probability of the rule by the probability of

# CYK example

0	C 1/128				
0	B 1/32	B 1/32			
S 0.125, A 0,125	B 0.125	S 0.125, C 0.125	S 0.125, A 0,125		
B	A 0.5,C	A 0.5,C	B	A 0.5,C	
0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	
b	a	a	b	a	

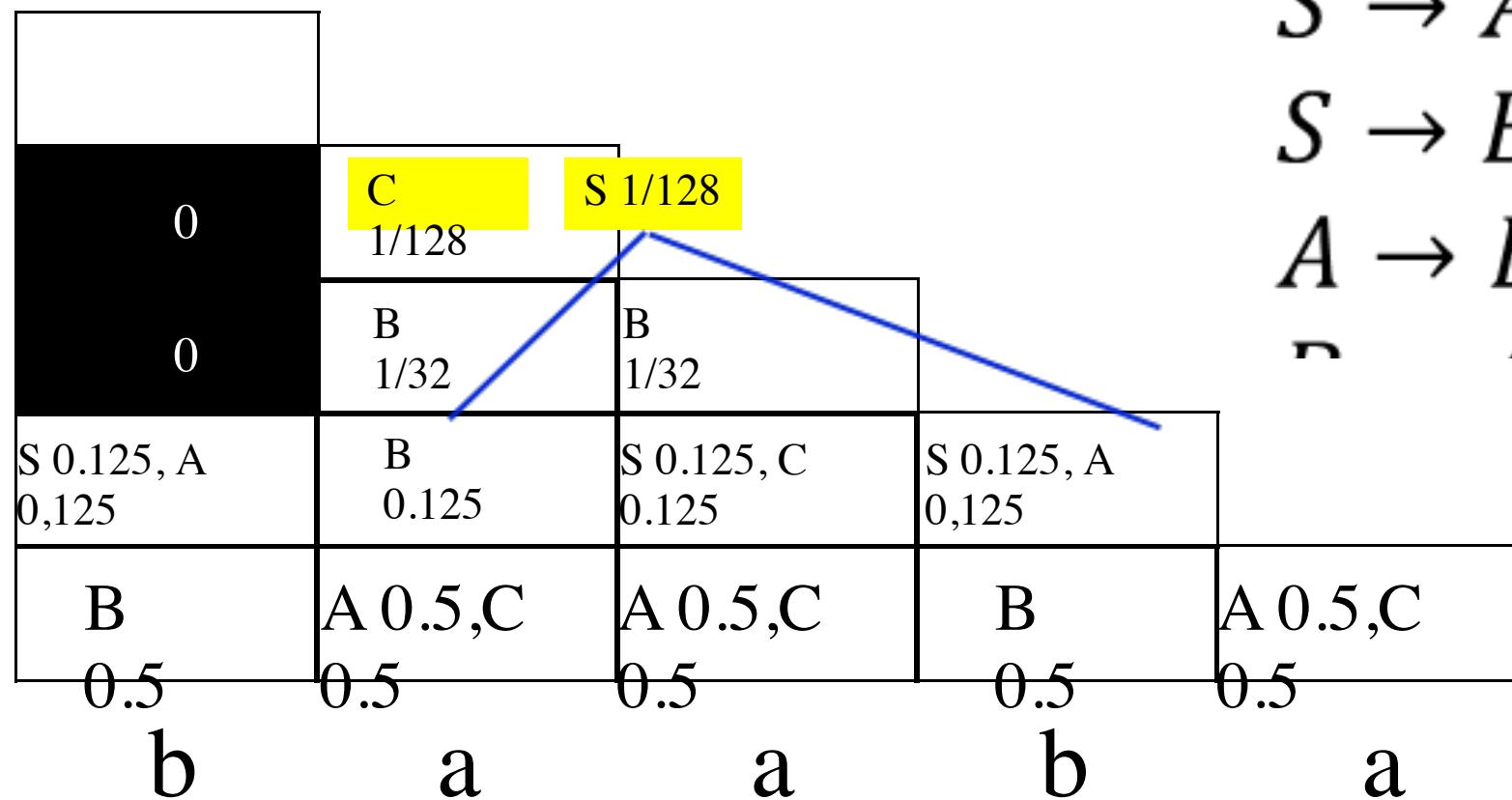
- For each new rule inserted in table, multiply the probability of the rule by the probability of
- .. 1 .. 1

# CYK example



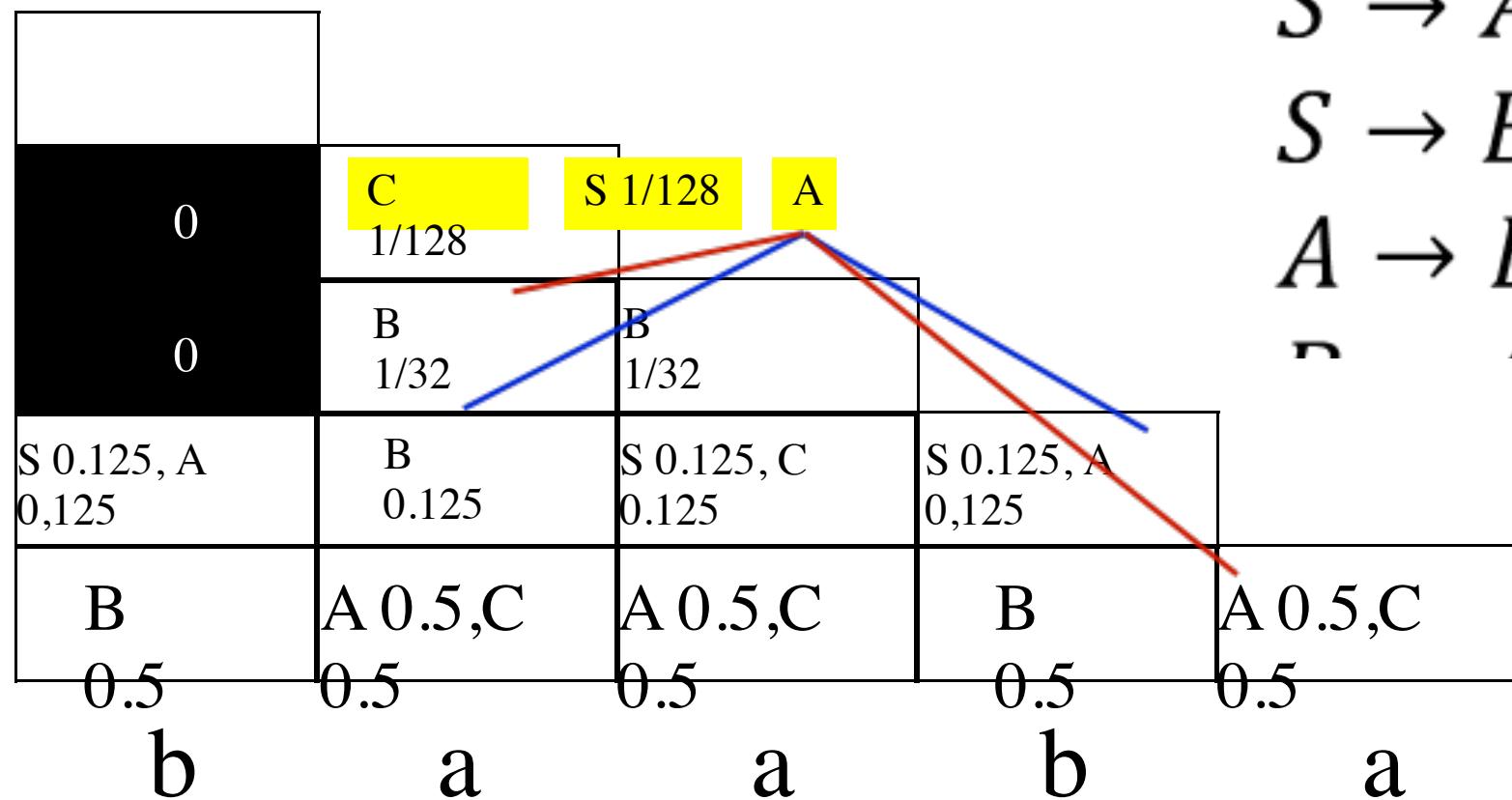
- When a rule has two or more possible productions, pick the most probable one

# CYK example



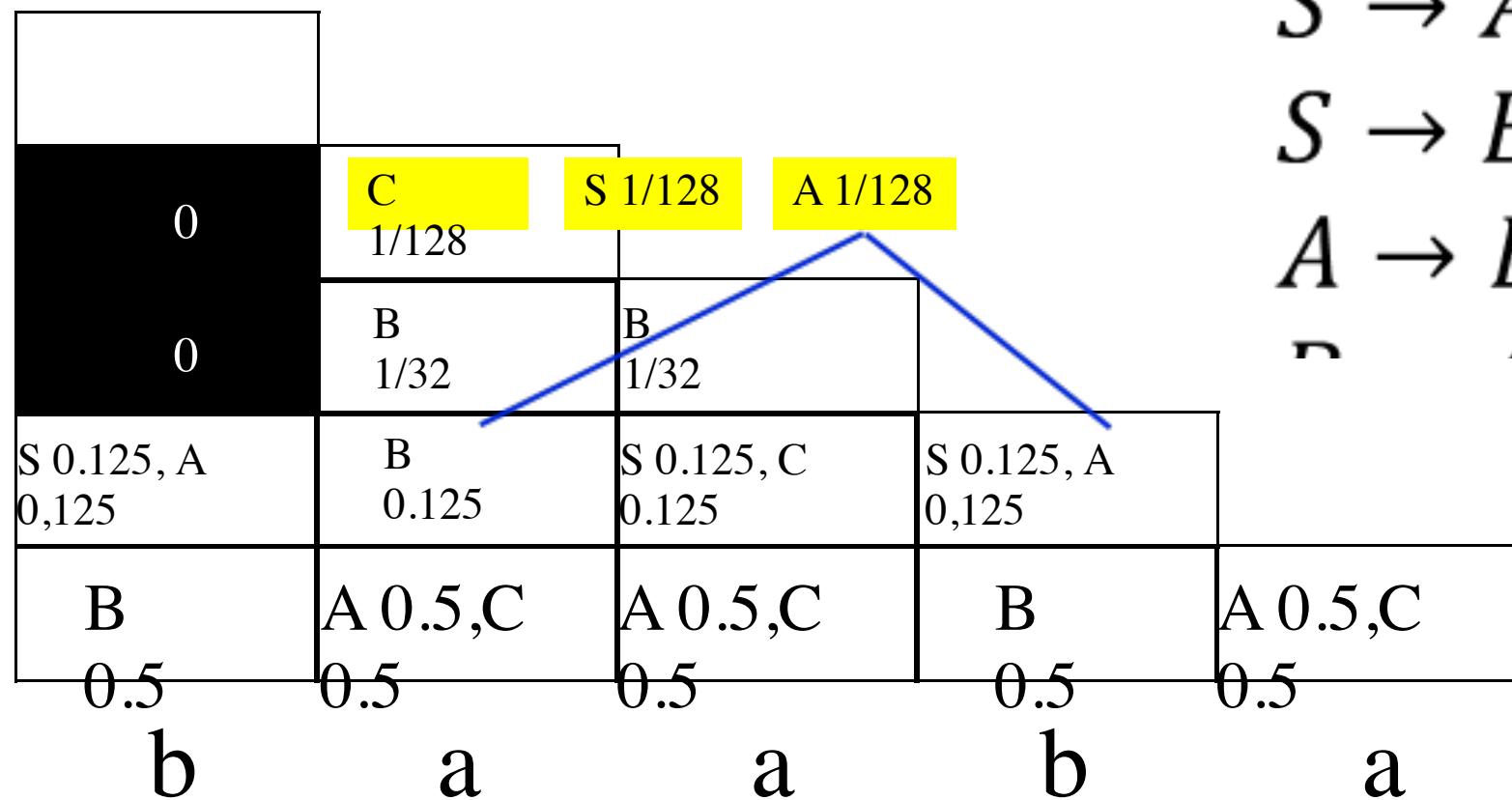
- When a rule has two or more possible productions, pick the most probable one

# CYK example



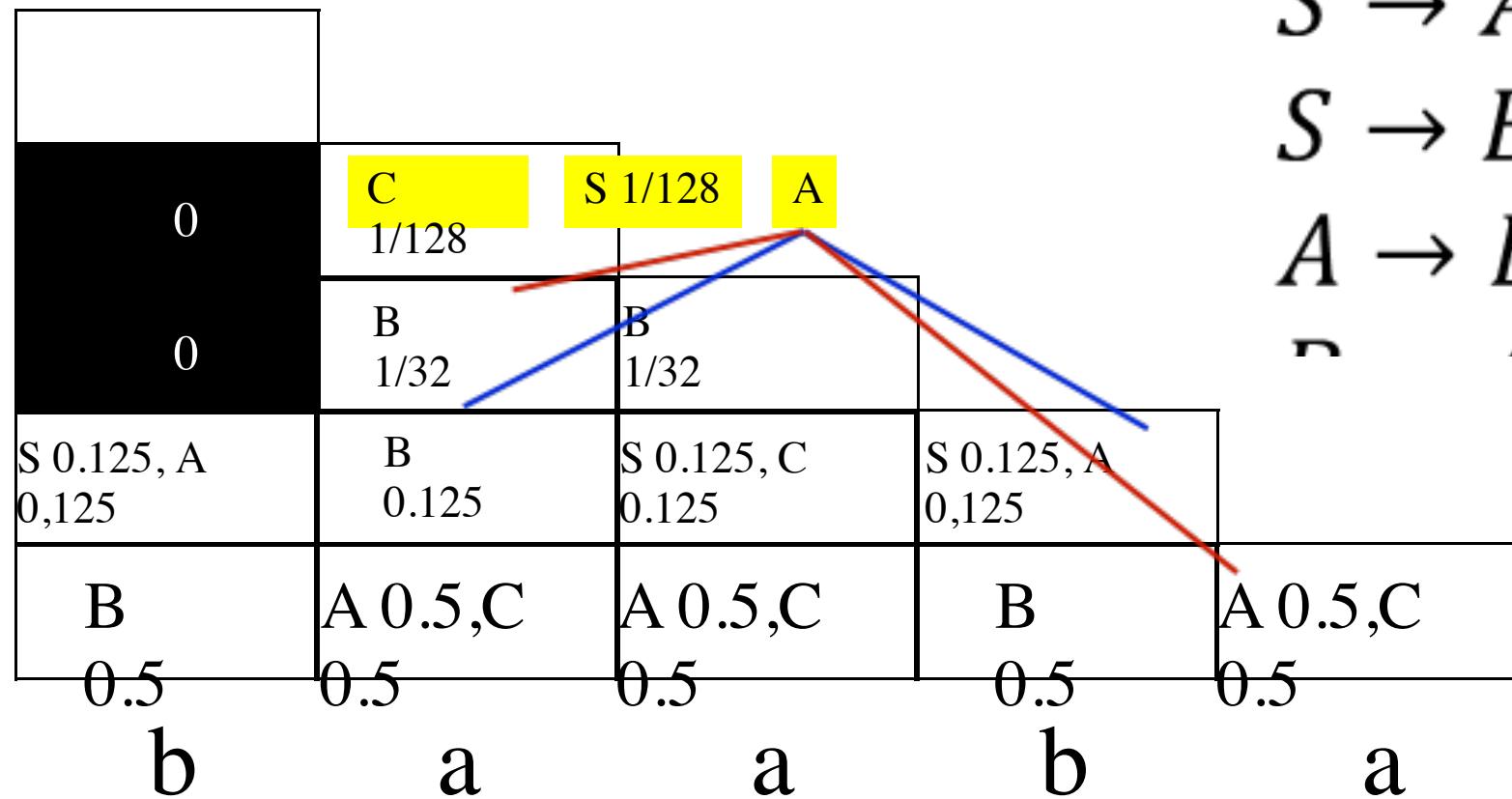
- When a rule has two or more possible productions, pick the most probable one

# CYK example



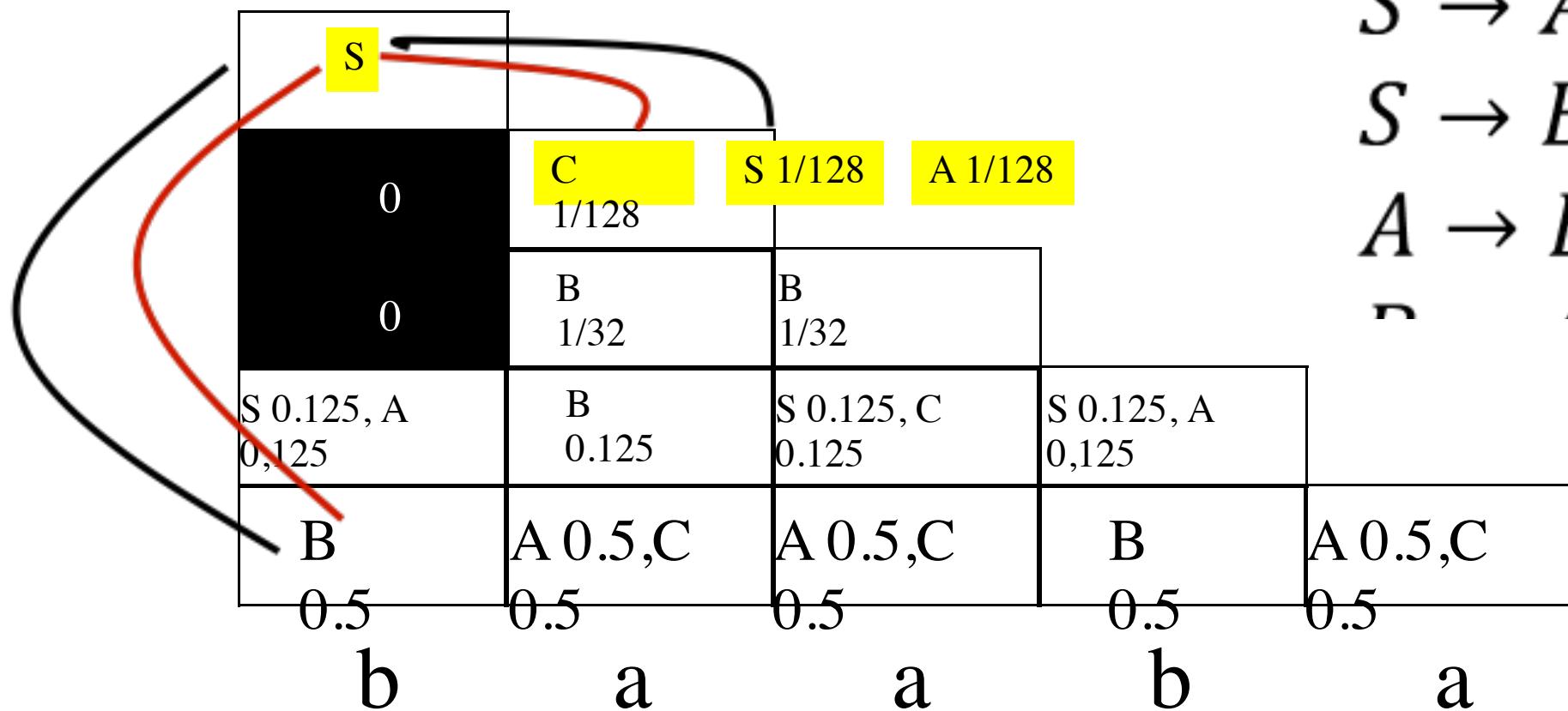
- When a rule has two or more possible productions, pick the most probable one

# CYK example



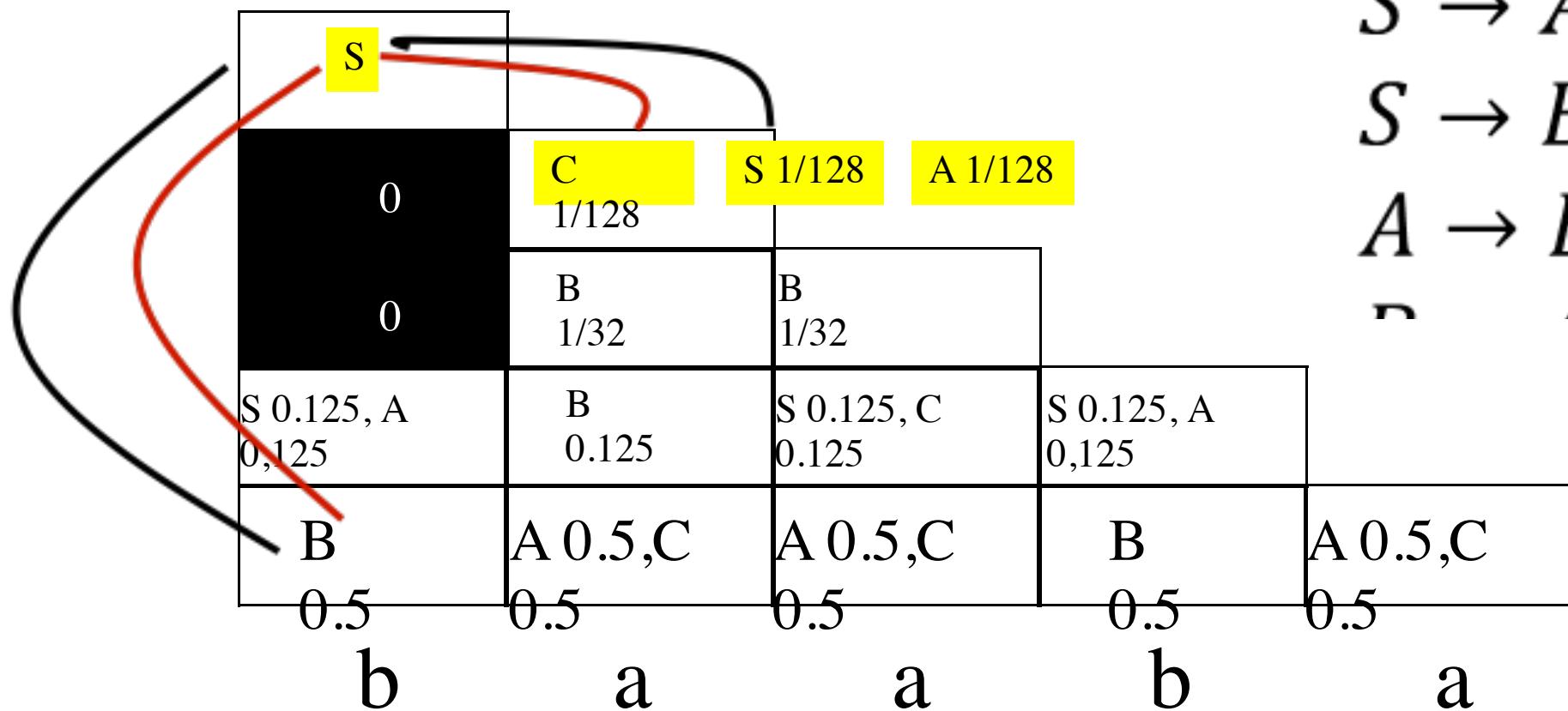
- Note: Competition happens only between different expansions of the *same non-terminal*

# CYK example



- When a rule has two or more possible productions, pick the most probable one

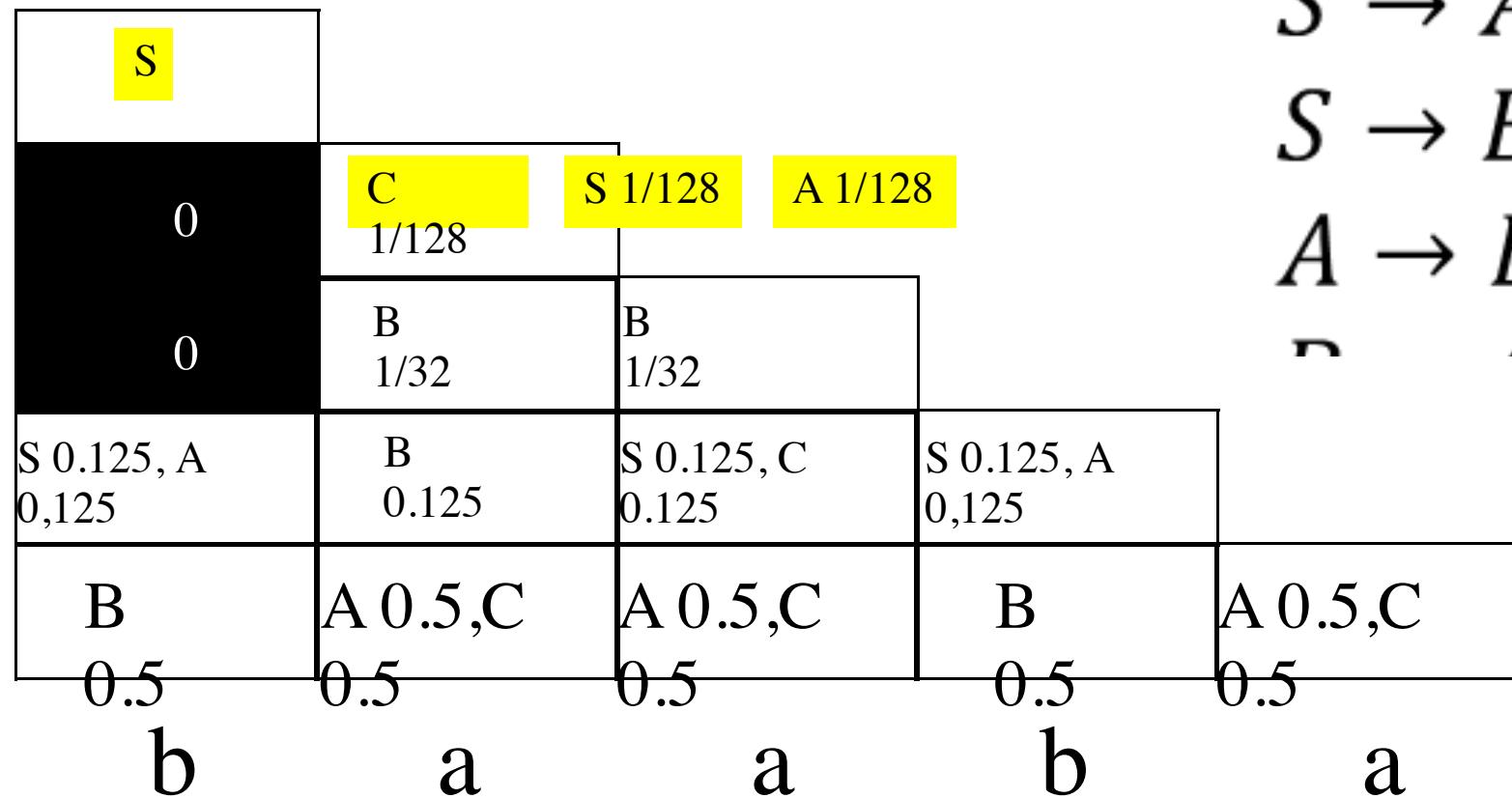
# CYK example



$$\begin{aligned}
 S &\rightarrow B \\
 S &\rightarrow A \\
 S &\rightarrow B \\
 A &\rightarrow B \\
 \vdots &\quad \vdots
 \end{aligned}$$

- The same algorithm also applies to *weighted* PCFGs

# CYK example



$$\begin{aligned}
 S &\rightarrow B \\
 S &\rightarrow A \\
 S &\rightarrow B \\
 A &\rightarrow B \\
 A &\rightarrow C
 \end{aligned}$$

- What is the cost of parsing a string of N words with R rules?

# CYK, PCFG and Structured prediction..

- The task we just performed..
- Assigning probabilities to entries from a very large set
  - Modelled a probability distribution over all possible parse trees
  - Selected the most probable parse
  - (How would you find the second most possible?)
- *Structured prediction*

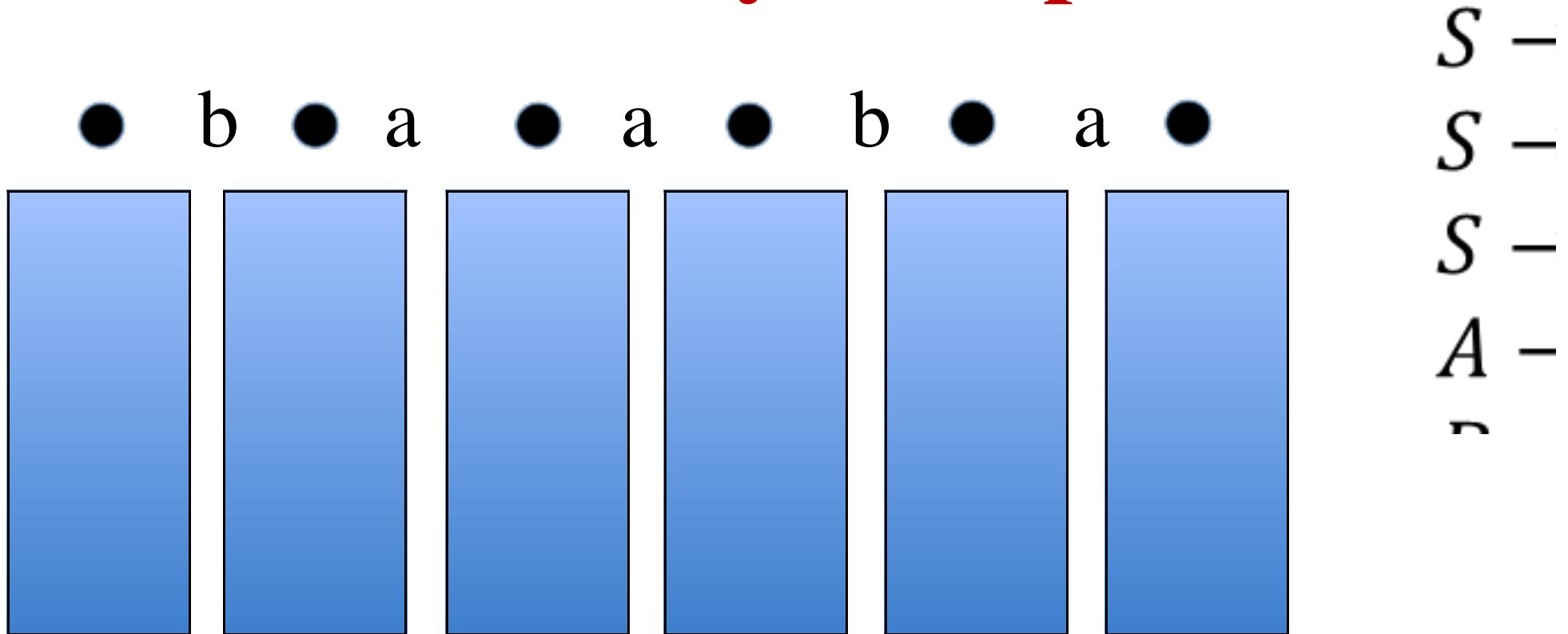
# Parsing CFGs

- The CYK parser is actually very expensive and inefficient
  - Nobody really uses it anymore except for very simple task
- A more efficient method is the *Earley* parser
  - Jay Earley, 1968, CMU
    - Then he gave it all up and became a shrink investigating his “inner critic”..
    - It’s a very complicated looking algorithm

# CYK vs Earley

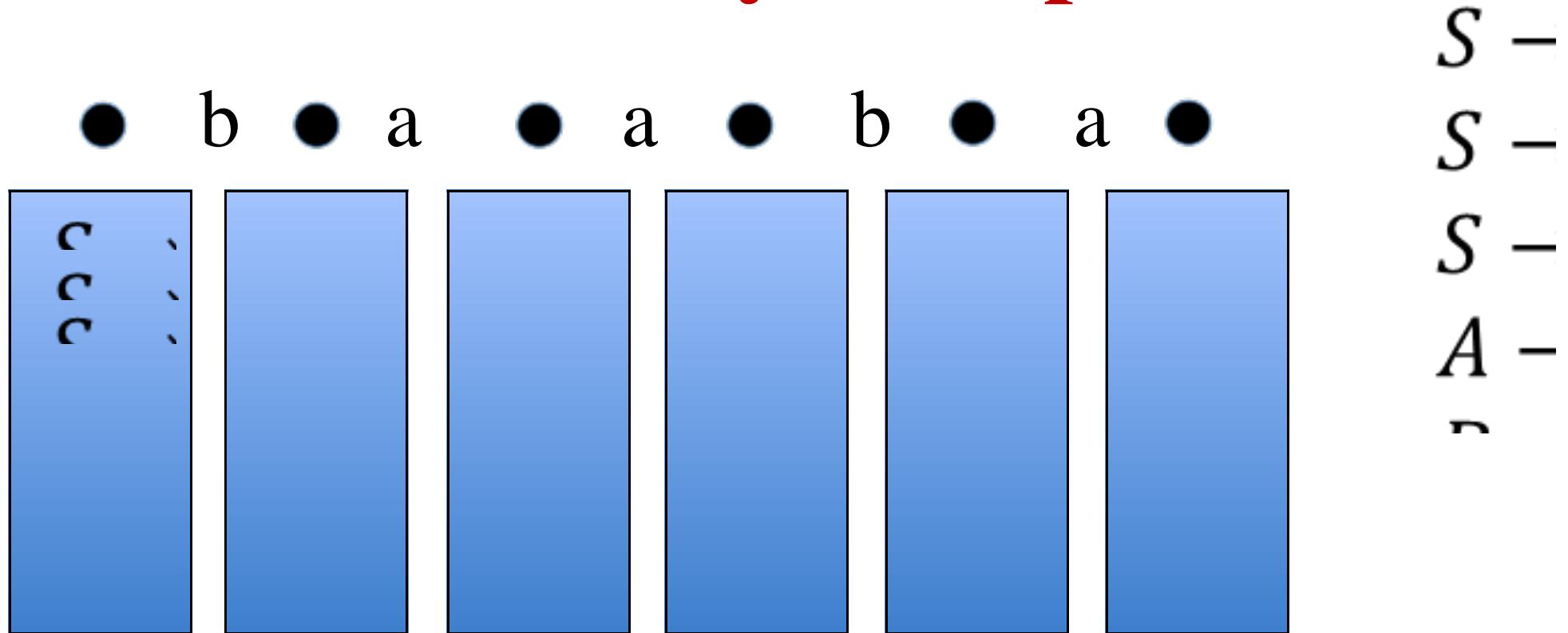
- CYK: **Bottom up**
  - Build all possible\* trees that can be built from the word sequence
  - Find which conforms to grammar
  - *\*Check conformance to grammar while building trees on words, to keep restrict computation*
- Earley: **Top down**
  - Build all possible\* trees that can be produced by grammar

# Earley example



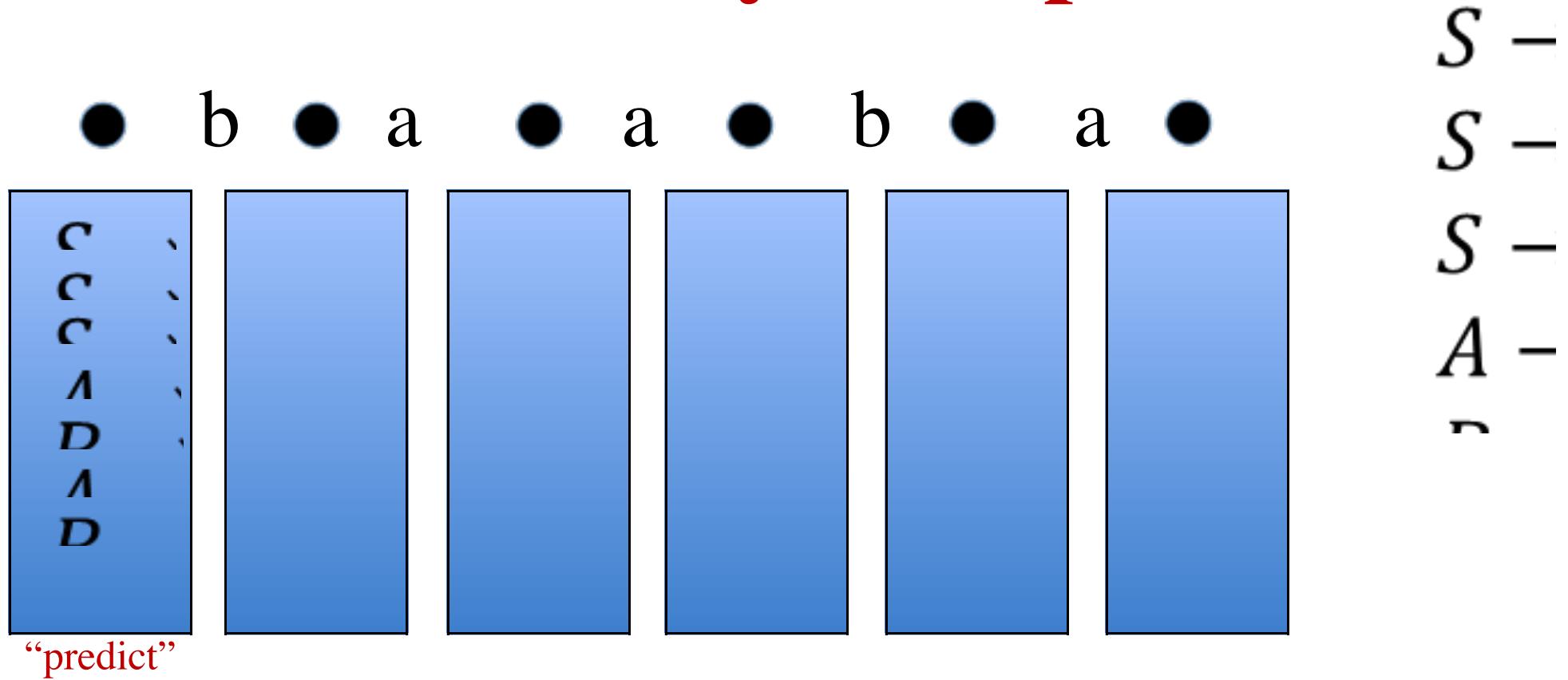
- We will maintain a list of partially expanded rules at each of the shown locations
  - We will go left to right

# Earley example



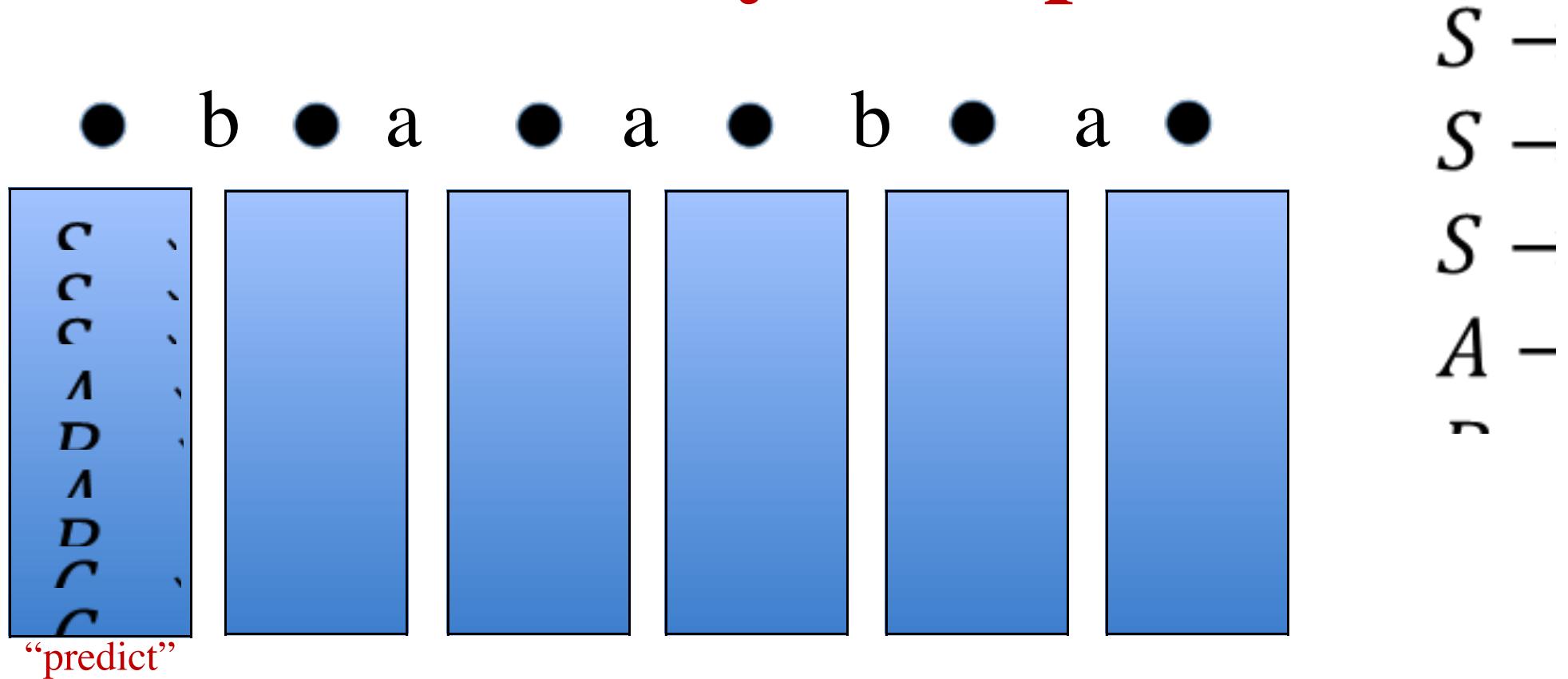
- The star indicates the position until which we've successfully built a constituent

# Earley example



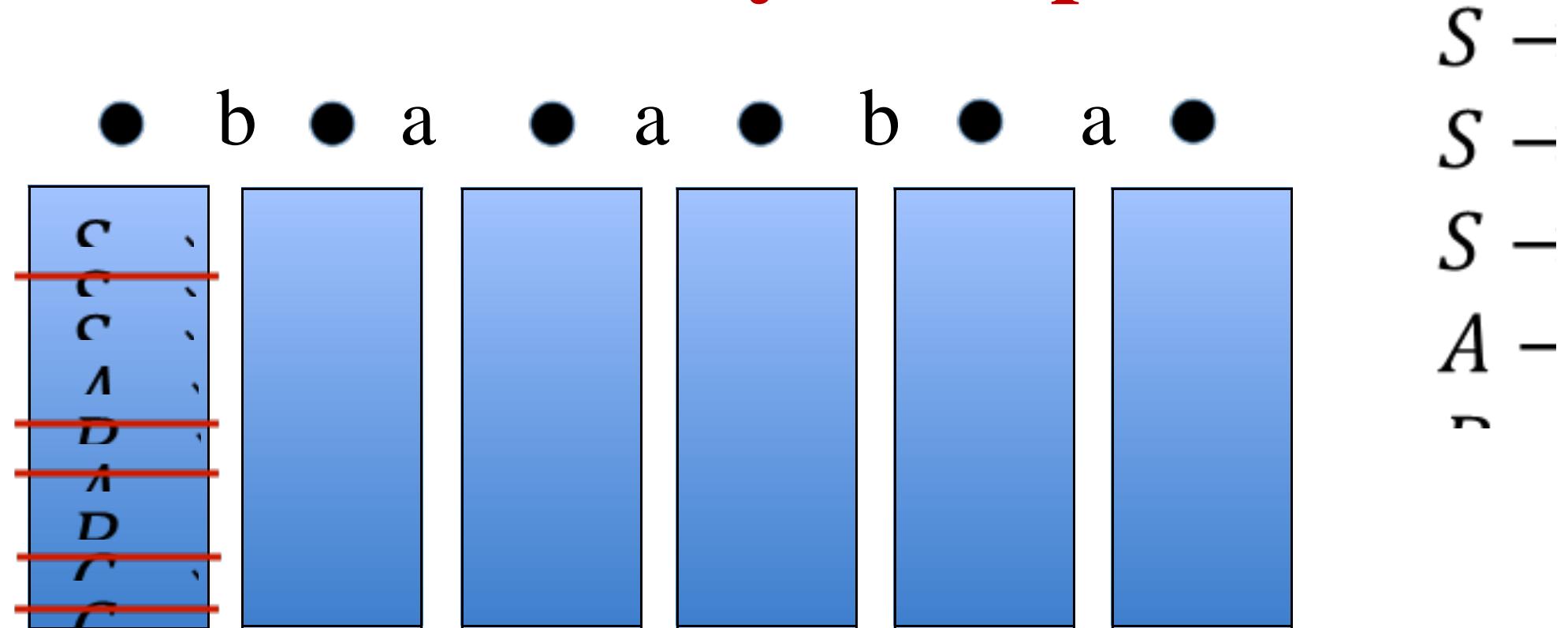
- The first symbols are A and B. Expand them
  - Include all possible expansions of A and B in one pass

# Earley example



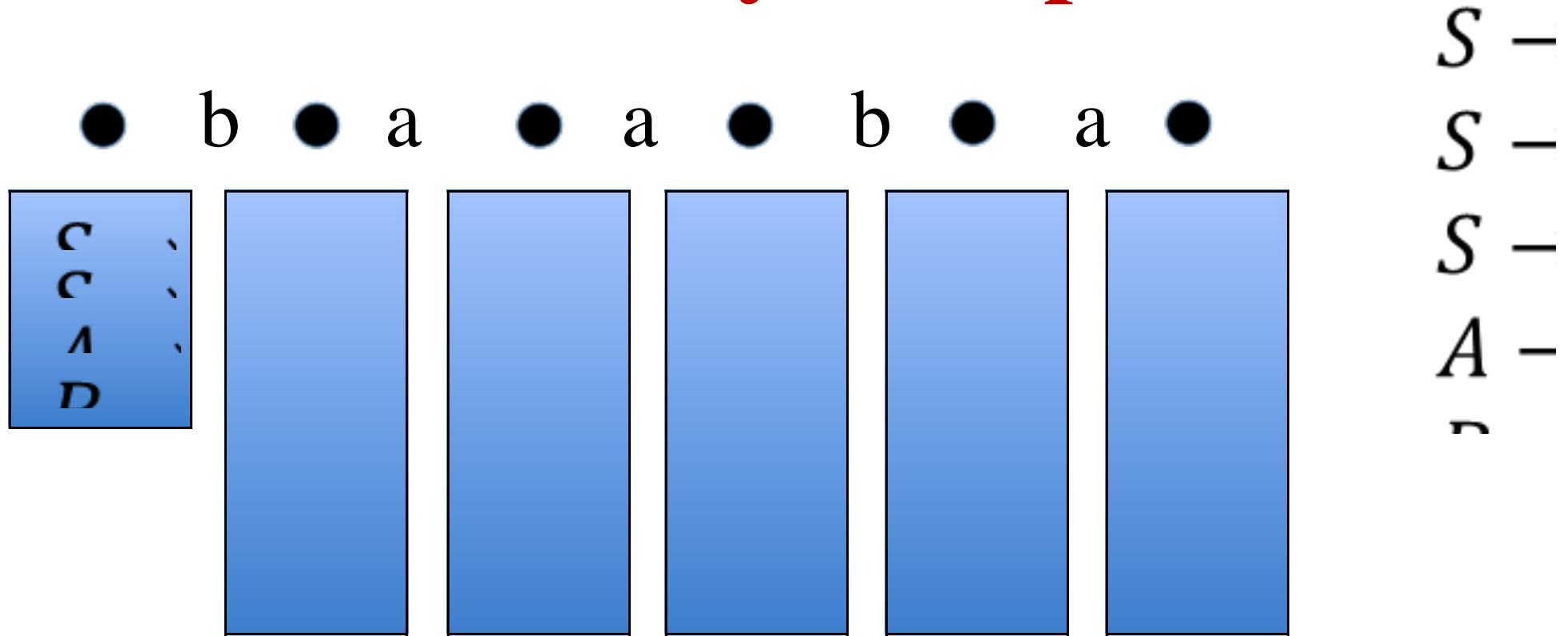
- We now have a new non-terminal C. Expand it
  - Don't revisit already-expanded NTs or you'll have an infinite loop

# Earley example



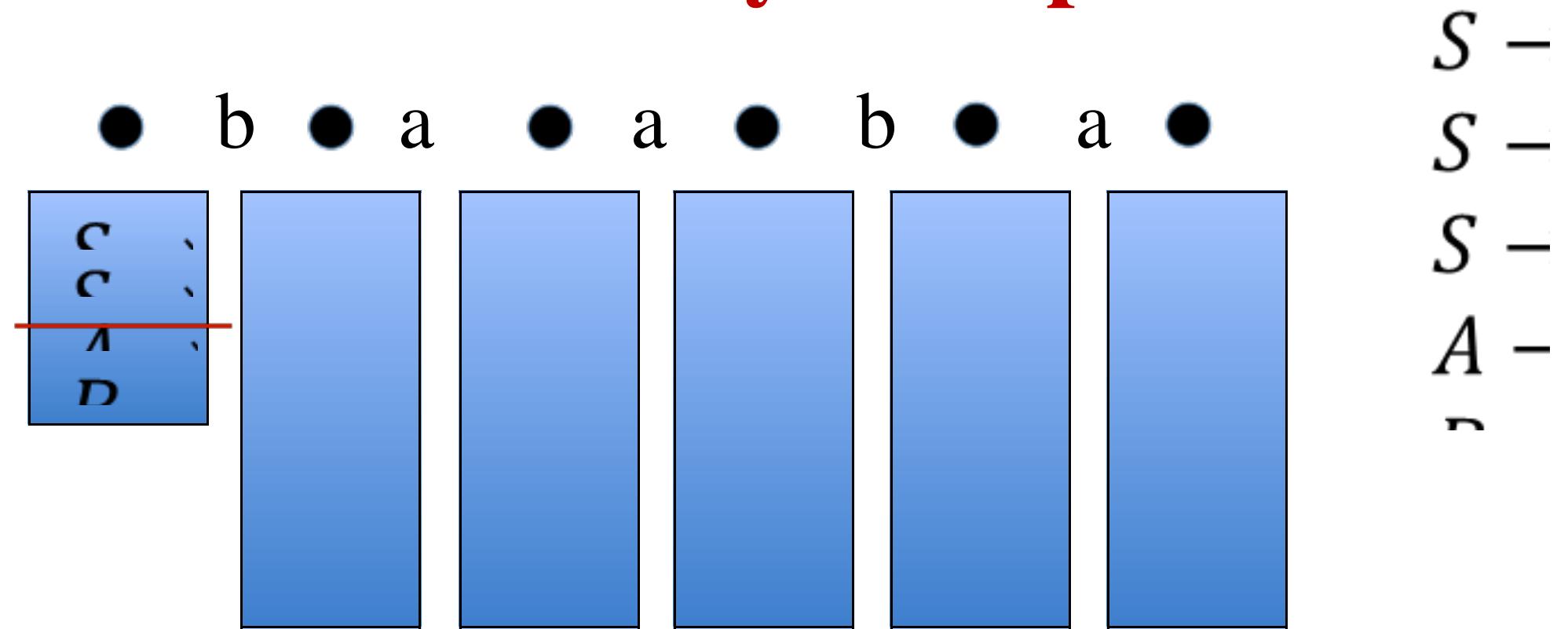
- Only one of the terminal-producing rules is valid for the upcoming symbol (b)
  - Retain it and its predecessors. Kill all the rest

# Earley example



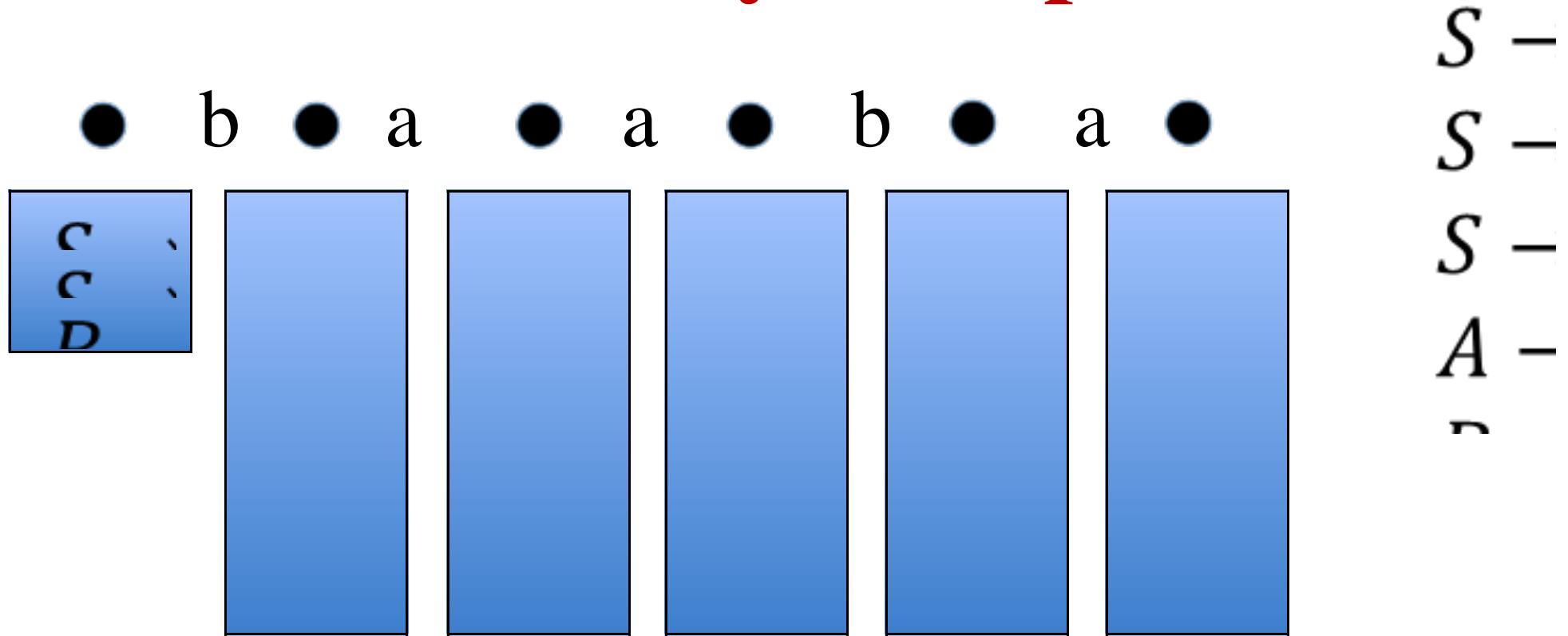
- Only one of the terminal-producing rules is valid for the upcoming symbol (b)
  - Retain it and its parents. Kill all the rest

# Earley example



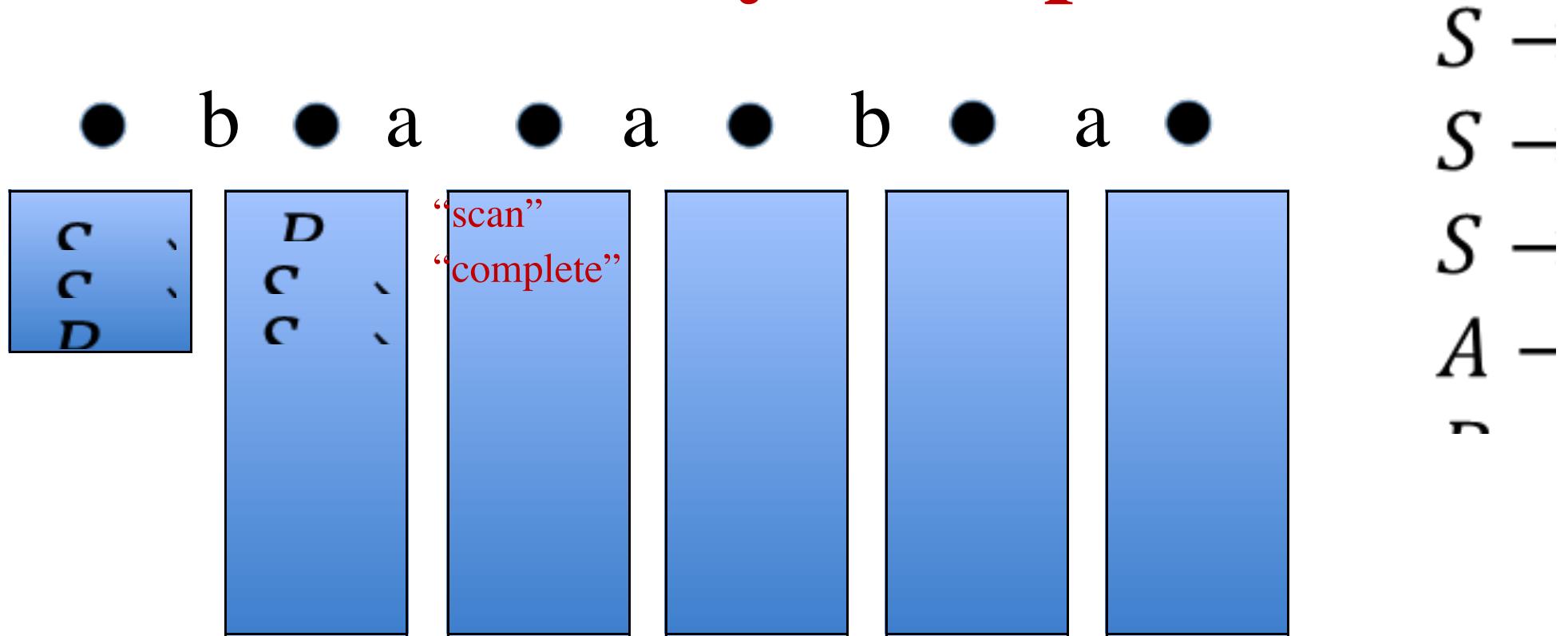
- Can also kill orphaned rules that don't lead to “S”

# Earley example



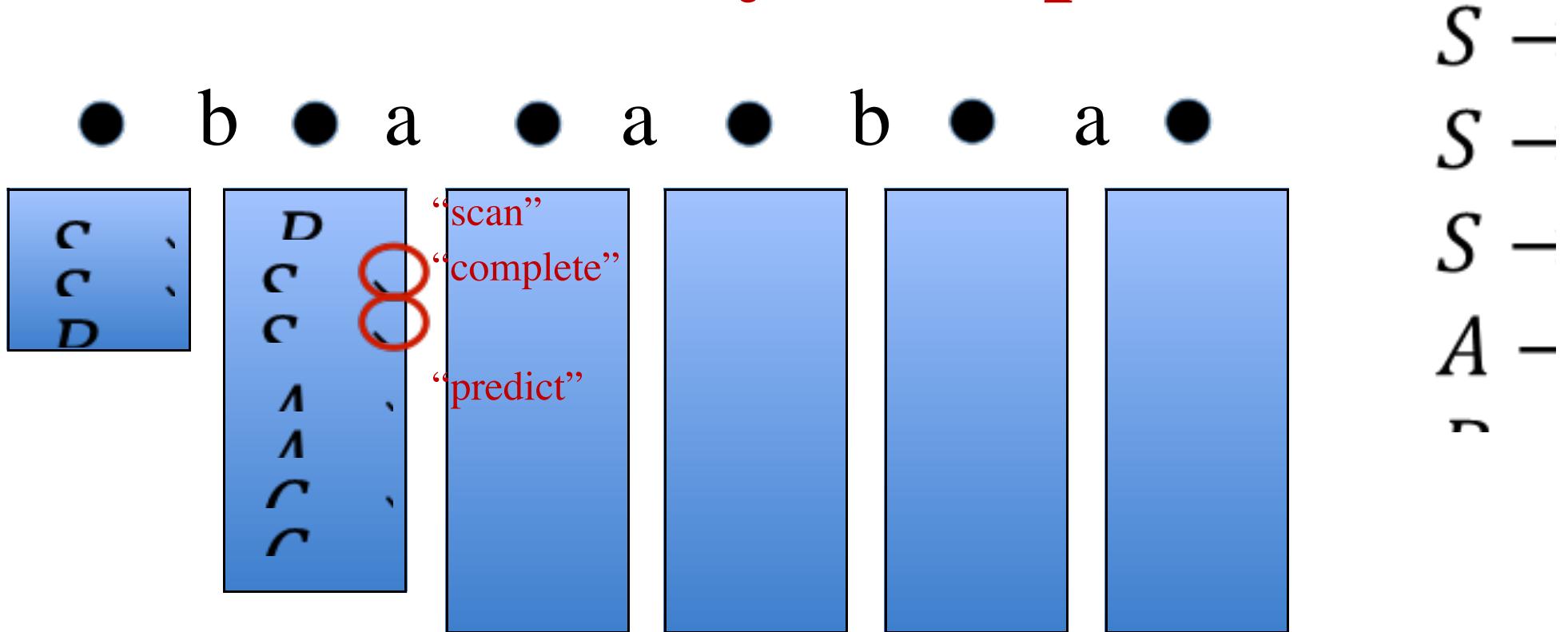
- Can also kill orphaned rules that don't lead to “S”

# Earley example



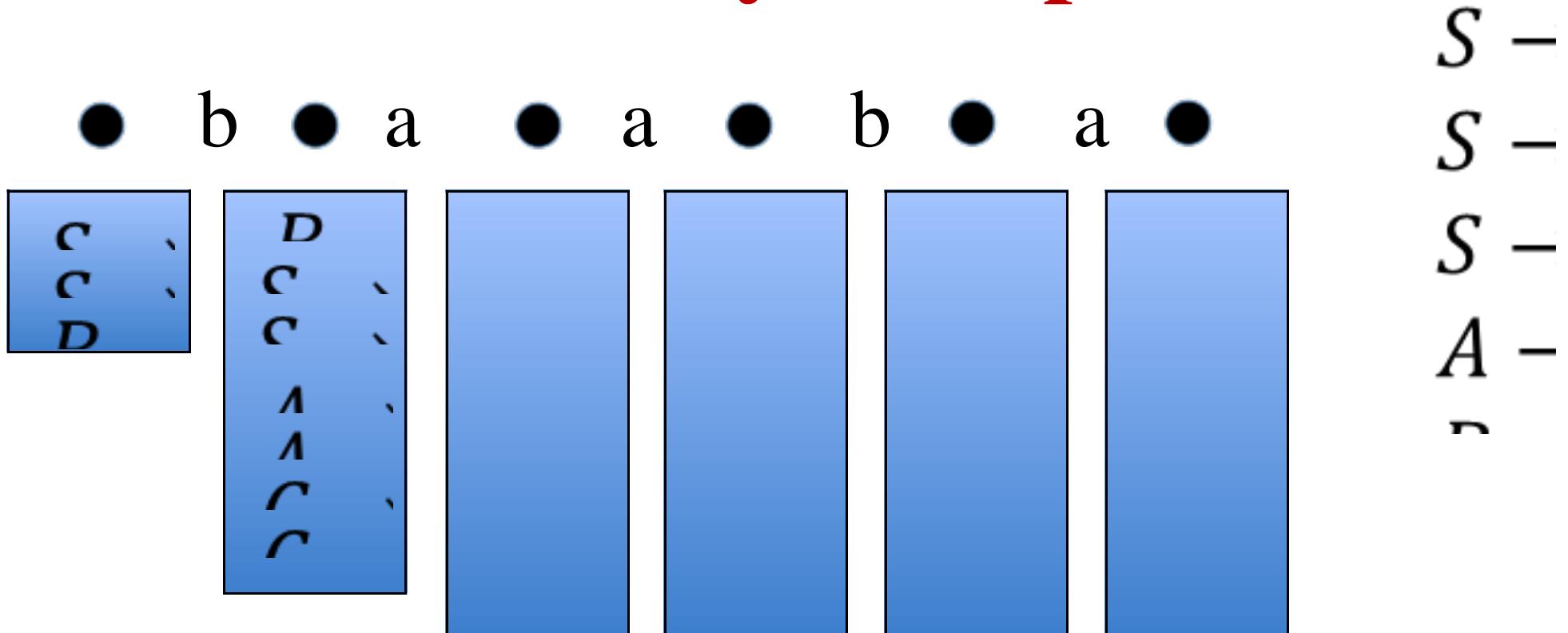
- “Scan” the “b”: Move the terminal rules that produce b over to the second column
  - Move the star to show “b” is consumed

# Earley example



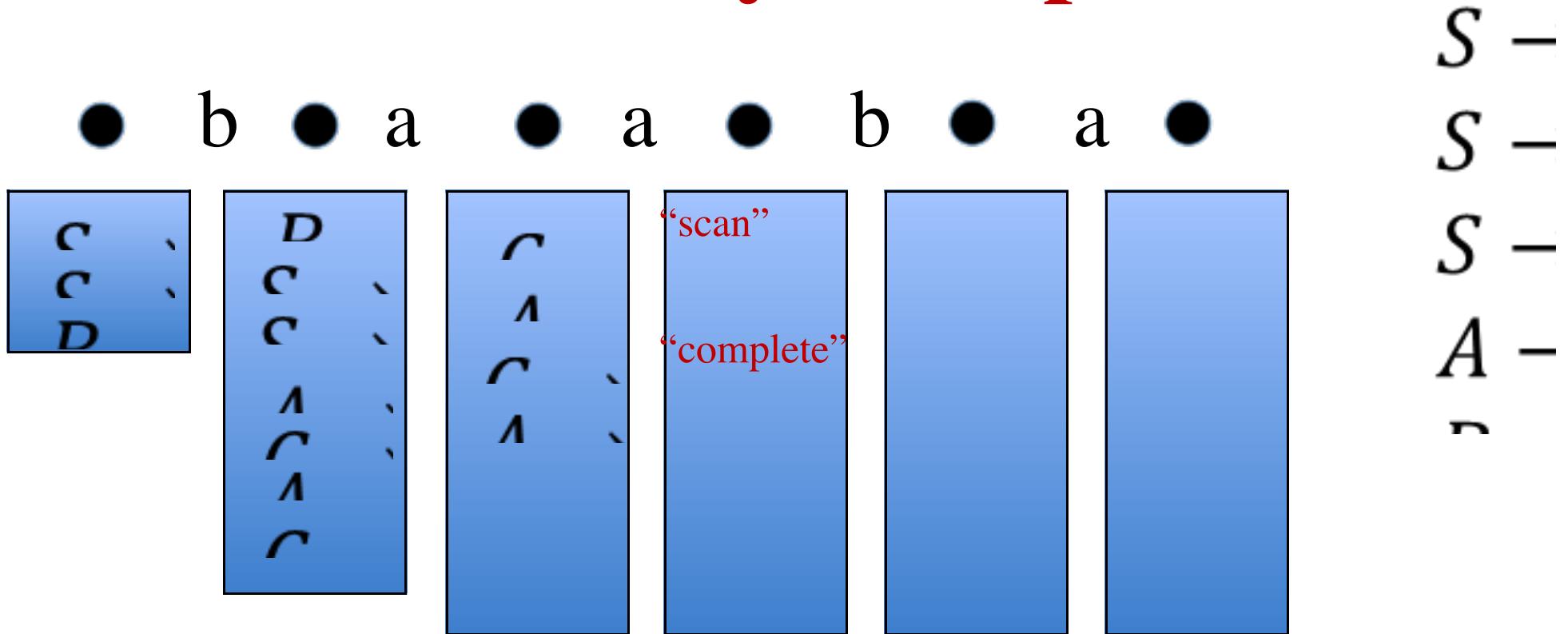
- Recursively expand the first NT in each of the rules until we get to terminals
  - “Scan” their expansions to determine if any of them

# Earley example



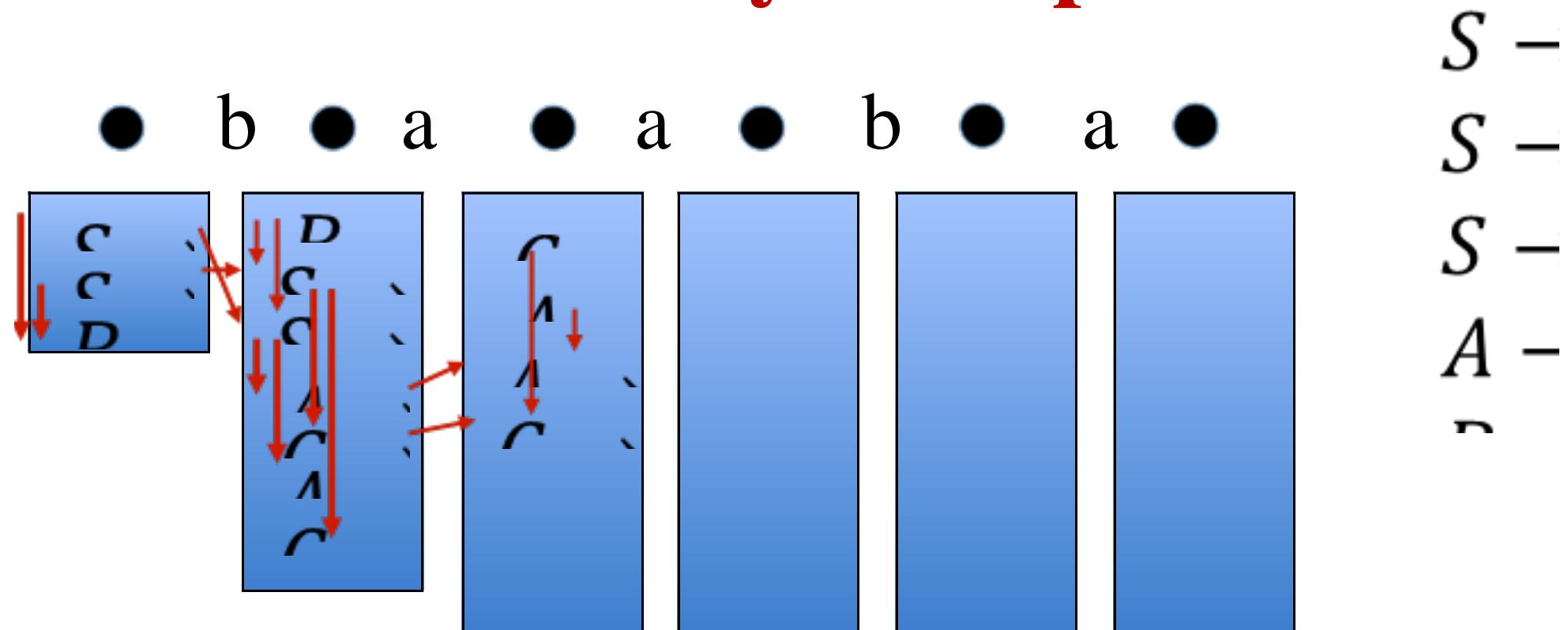
- Recursively expand the first NT in each of the rules until we get to terminals
  - “Scan” their expansions to determine if any of them

# Earley example



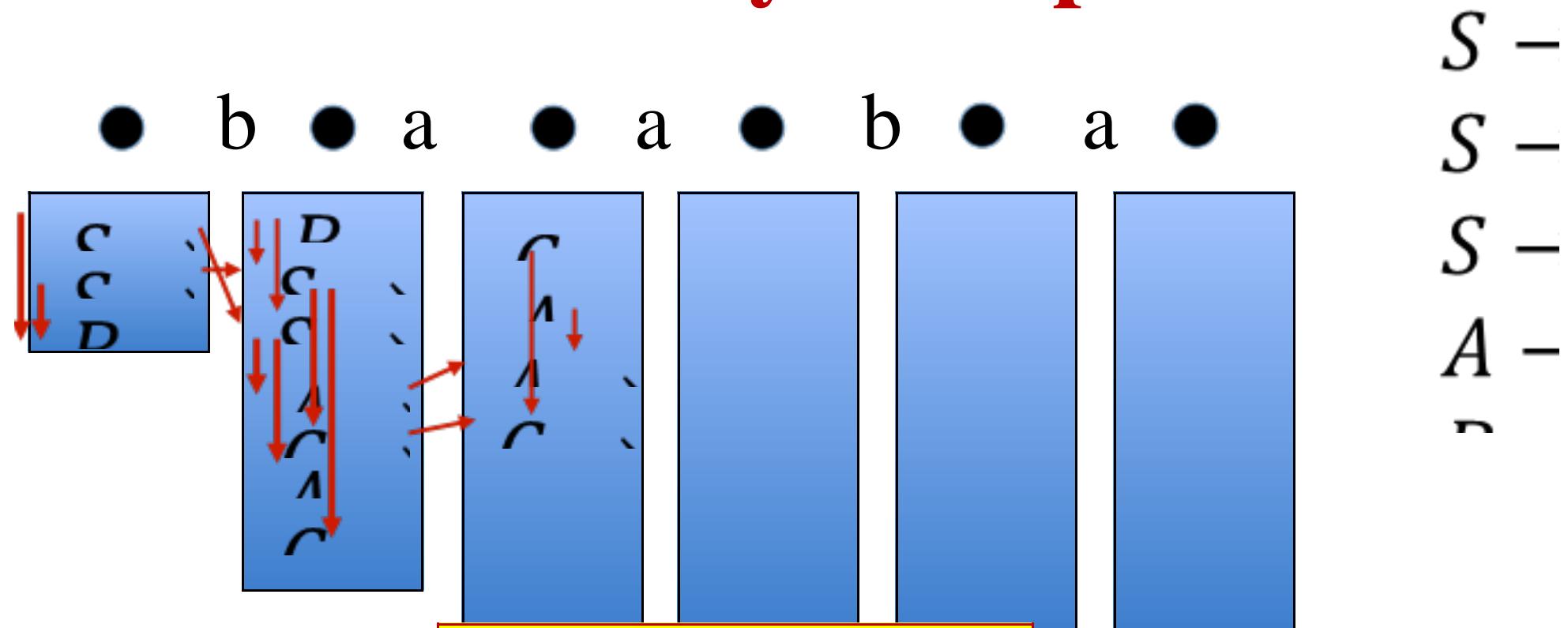
- Move the rules that can produce the “a” and their parents to the next column
  - Move the \*

# Earley example



- For all rules, keep track of parents
- For a valid string, we will get at least one
- If we get multiple such expansions we h-

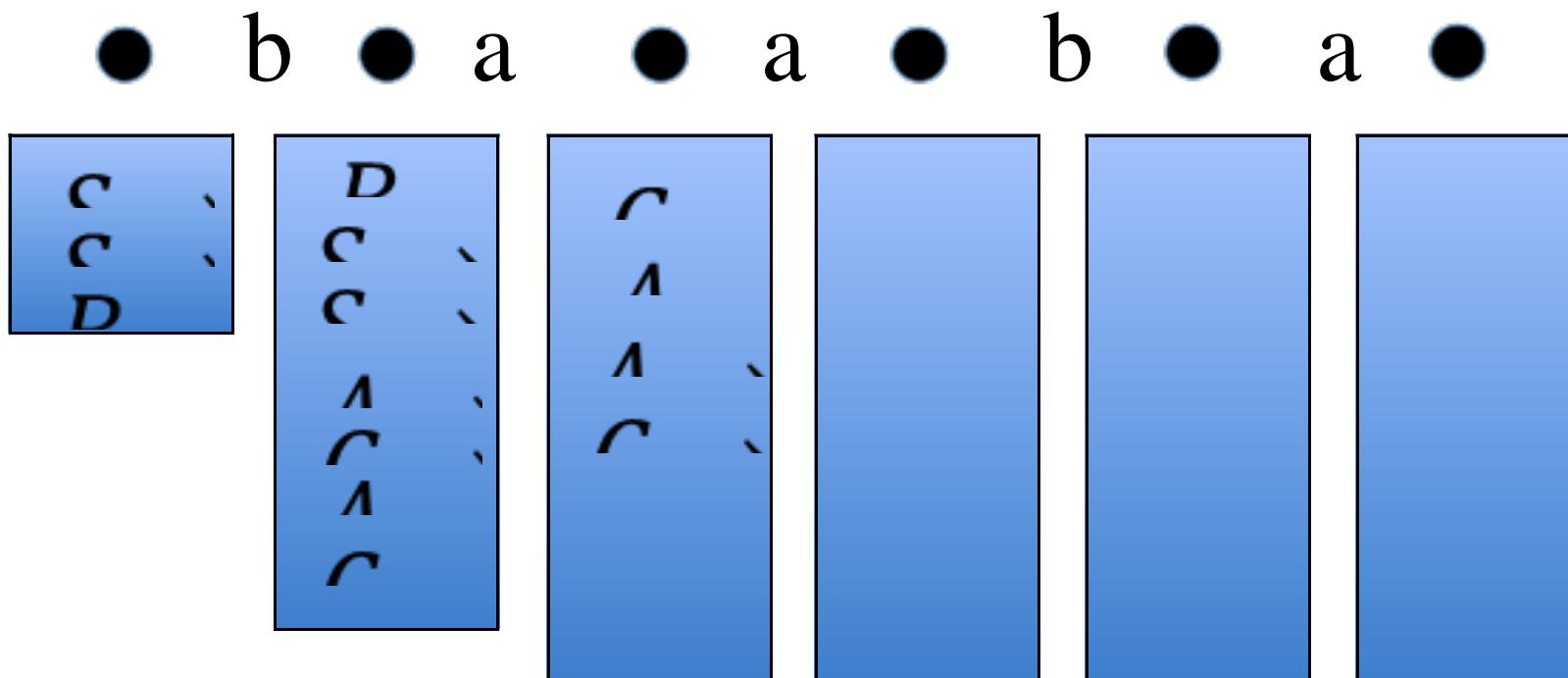
# Earley example



How to disambiguate?

- For all rules, keep track of parents
- For a valid string, we will get at least one
- If we get multiple such expansions we h...

# Earley with PCFGs



- How?

$S \rightarrow B,$   
 $S \rightarrow A,$   
 $S \rightarrow B,$   
 $A \rightarrow B,$   
 $B \rightarrow C$

# Evaluation

- Take a sentence from the test set.
- Use your parser to propose a hypothesis parse.
- Treebank gives you the correct parse.
- Precision and recall on labeled (or unlabeled) constituents.
  - Also, average number of crossing brackets (compared to correct parses) in your hypotheses.
- The training/development/test split has been held constant for a long time; possibly a cause for concern.

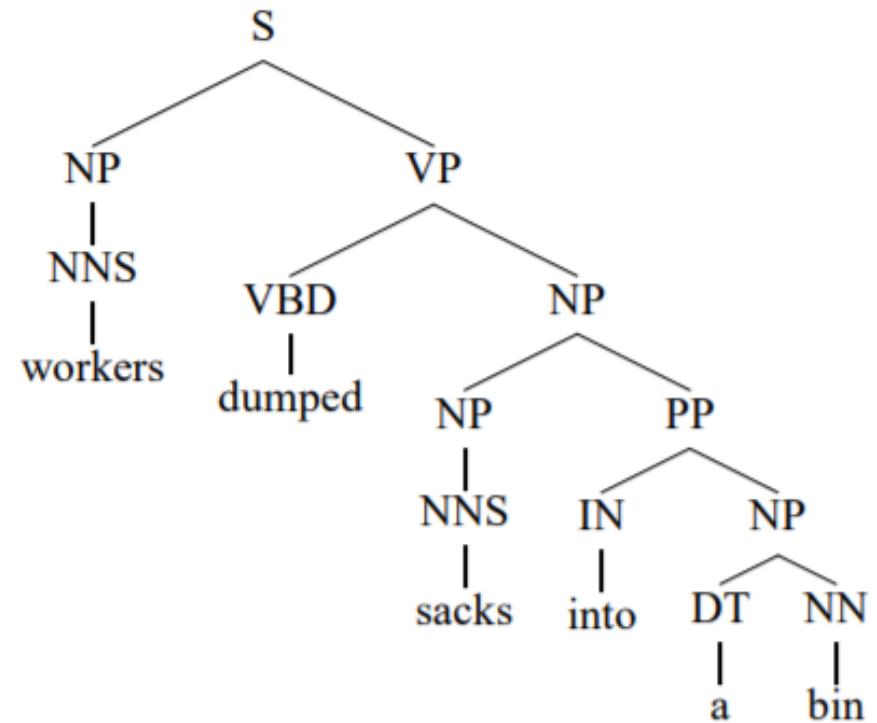
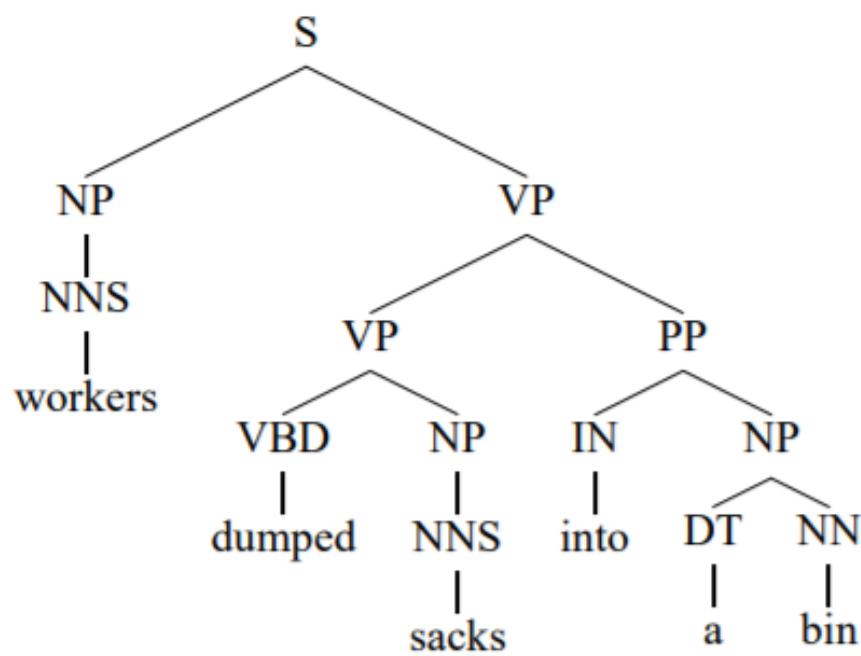
# Parsing in Reality

- Generally speaking, few industrial-strength parsers actually call CKY or Earley's.
- Extensions to the basic CFG model (next topic) make reduction to CFG expensive.
- Standard techniques:
  - Beam search
  - Agenda-based approximations with pruning and/or A\*
  - “Coarse-to-fine”

# The problem

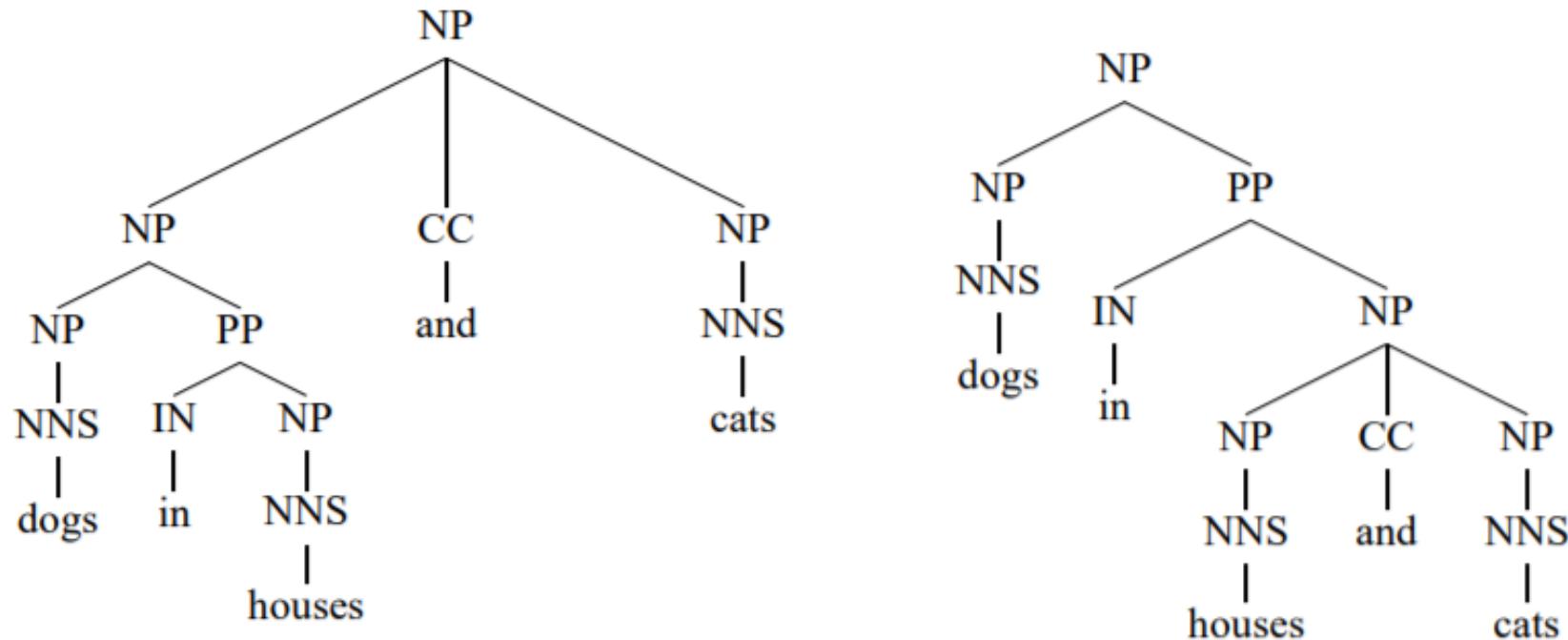
- The basic parsers are inefficient
- The PCFG structure enables us to disambiguate, but are nevertheless insufficient to actually model the language

# Examples of ambiguous parses



- From Michael Collins
  - Prepositional attachment ambiguity

# Examples of ambiguous parses

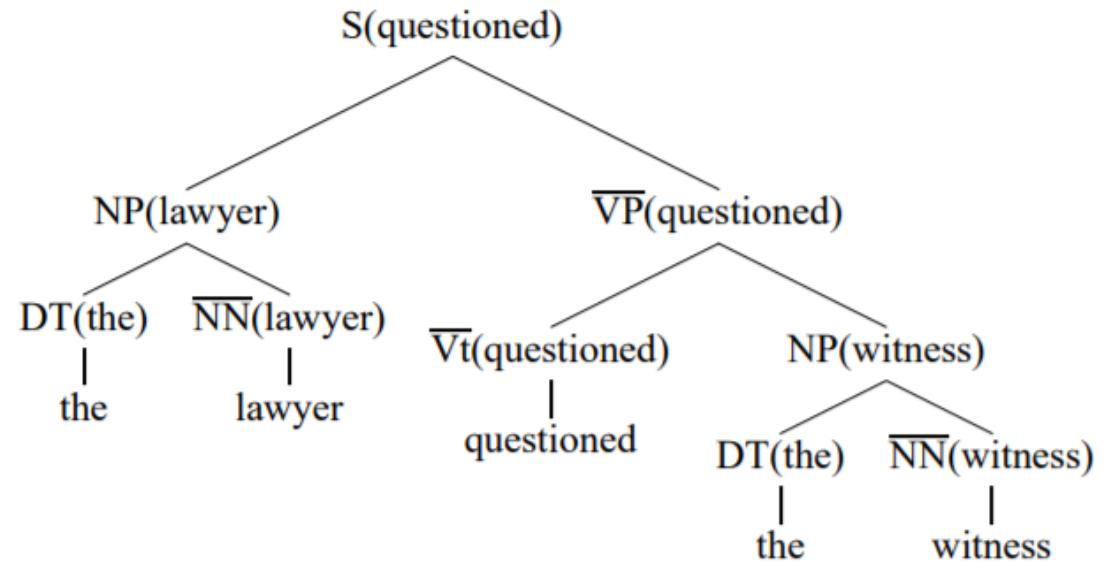
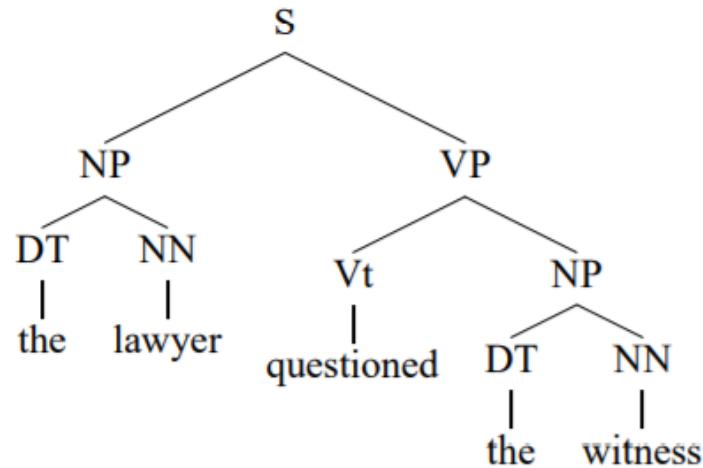


- From Michael Collins
  - Coordination ambiguity: Identical set of rules applied, only difference is the order

# Solution: Lexicalization

- Attach to each non-terminal what lexicon entries it can construct
  - $S \rightarrow NP\ VP$
  - $S(\text{questioned}) \rightarrow NP(\text{law})$
- Each rule now multiplies

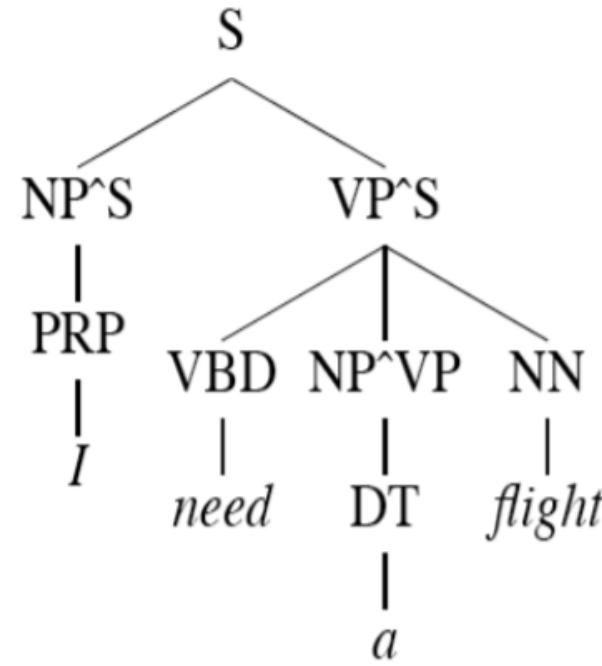
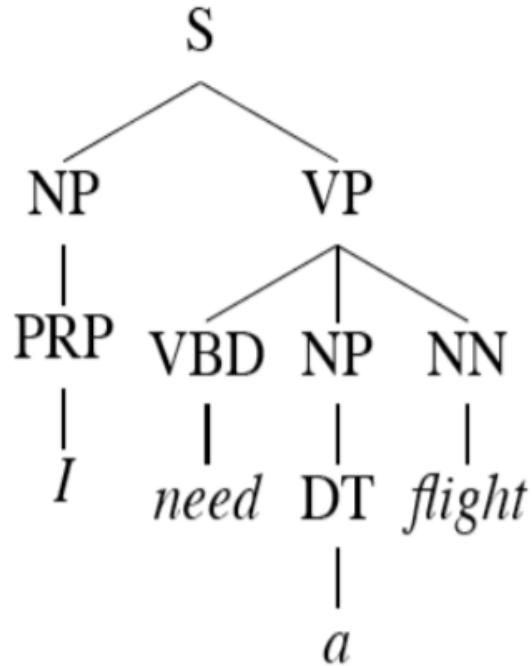
# Lexicalized Parse



# Natural language is not context independent..

- But CFGs are easy to handle
- Compromise?
- Context *free* grammar
  - But *parent-dependent* probabilities
  - Like an expanded markov state in Markov chains

# *Parent annotation*

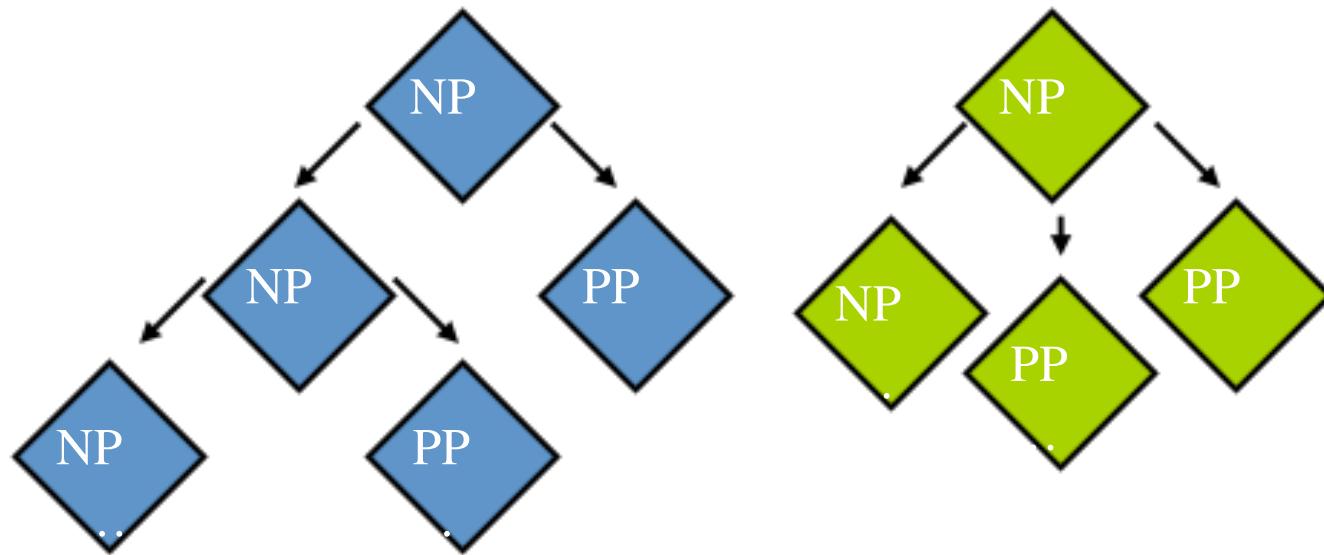


- Rules are cloned for different parents
  - Parent-specific probability distributions over expansions
  - But the actual rules remain basic CFG rules!

# Parent Annotation

NP  $\rightarrow p$  NP

NP  $\rightarrow q$  NP PP

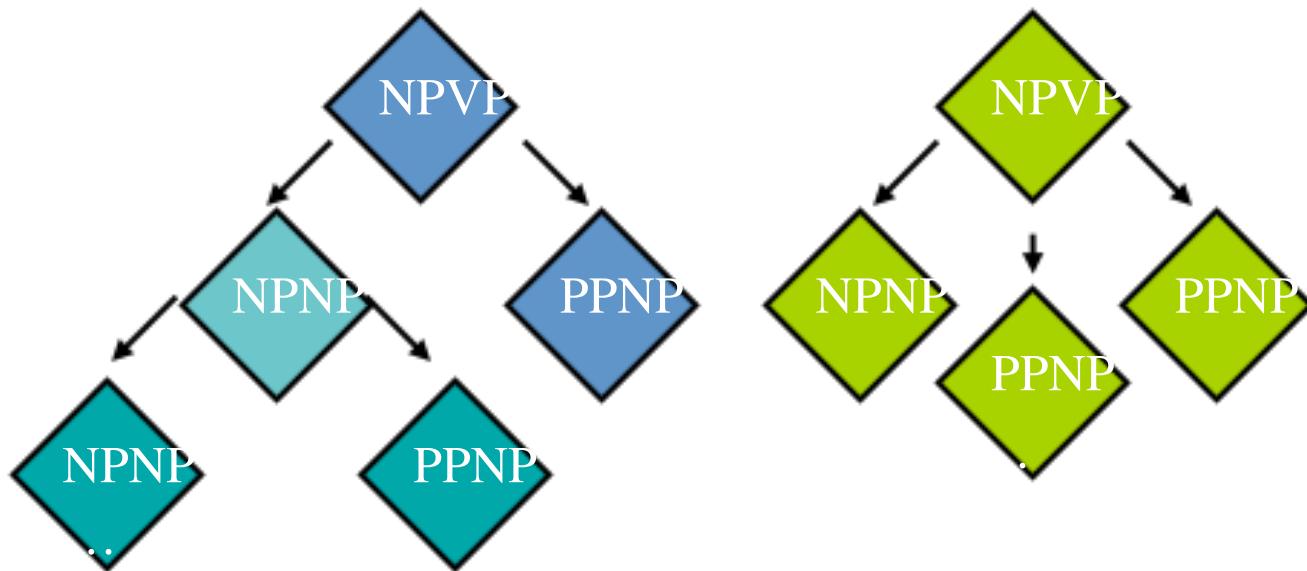


# Parent Annotation

$\text{NPVP} \rightarrow p \text{ NPNP}$

$\text{NPNP} \rightarrow r \text{ NPNP}$

$\text{NPVP} \rightarrow q \text{ NPNP}$



# Parent Annotation

- Another way to think about it ...
- Before:  $p(\text{tree}) = \prod_{n \in \text{nodes}(\text{tree})} \rho(\text{childsequence}(n) \mid n)$
- Now:  $p(\text{tree}) = \prod_{n \in \text{nodes}(\text{tree})} \rho(\text{childsequence}(n) \mid n, \text{parent}(n))$
- This could conceivably **help** performance (weaker independence assumptions)
- This could conceivably **hurt** performance (data sparseness)

# Parent Annotation

- From Johnson (1998):
  - PCFG from WSJ Treebank: 14,962 rules
  - Of those, 1,327 would **always** be subsumed!
  - After parent annotation: 22,773 rules
  - Recall 69.7% → 79.2%; precision 73.5% → 80.0%

# Head Annotation

- “I love all my children, but one of them is **special**.”

S → NP

VP → VBD

NP → DT NNS

- Heads not in the Treebank.
- Usually people use **deterministic head rules** (Magerman, 1995).

# Algorithms

- These “decorations” affect our parser’s runtime.
  - Why?
  - Any ideas about how to get around this?

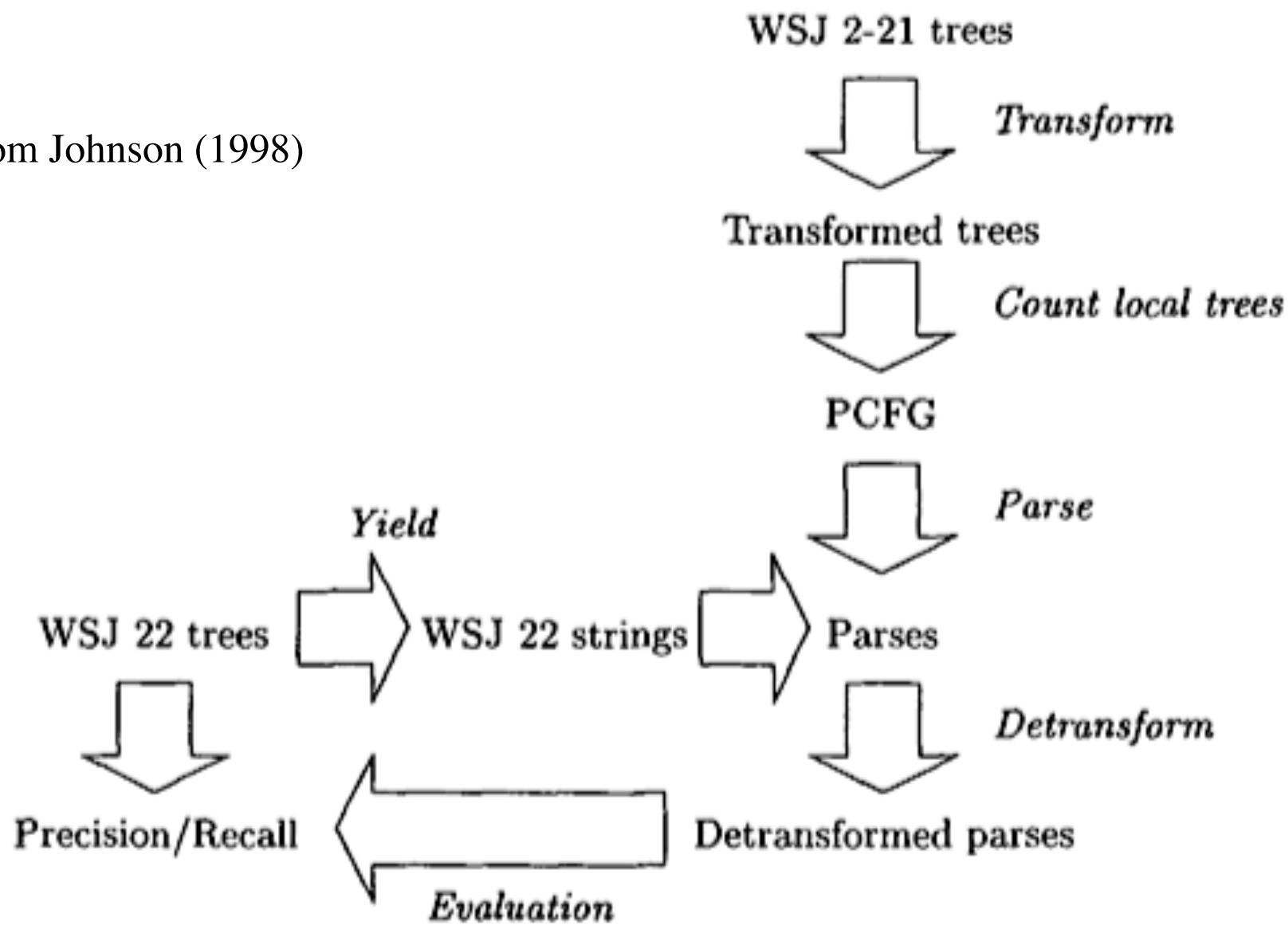
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# Some Famous Parsers

# Training Parsers In Practice

- Transformations on trees
- Some of these are generally taken to be crucial
- Some are widely debated
- Lately, people have started **learning** these transformations
- Smoothing is crucial; the grammars that result from transformed trees have lots more rules and therefore more parameters.

from Johnson (1998)



# Collins Model 1 (1997)

- Trees are headed and lexicalized
  - What's the difference?

- Huge number of rules!

VPsaw → Vsaw NPman

PPthrough

VPsaw → Vsaw NPman

PPwith

VPsaw → Vsaw NPwoman

PPthrough

VPsaw → Vsaw

NPman

- Key: factor probabilities within rule.

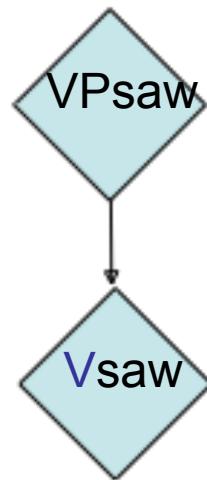
# Collins Model 1 (1997)

- Everything factors down to rules, then further.  
We're given the parent nonterminal and head word.



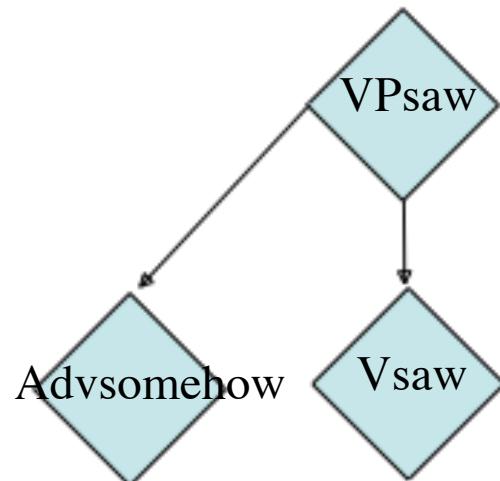
# Collins Model 1 (1997)

- Everything factors down to rules, then further. We're given the parent nonterminal and head word.
- Randomly generate the head child's nonterminal.



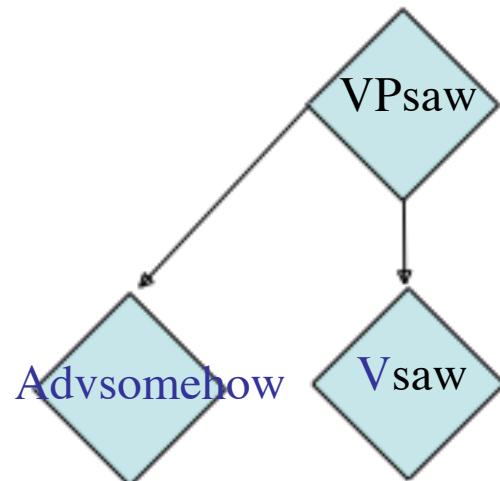
# Collins Model 1 (1997)

- Everything factors down to rules, then further. We're given the parent nonterminal and head word.
- Randomly generate the head child's nonterminal.
- Generate a sequence of left children.



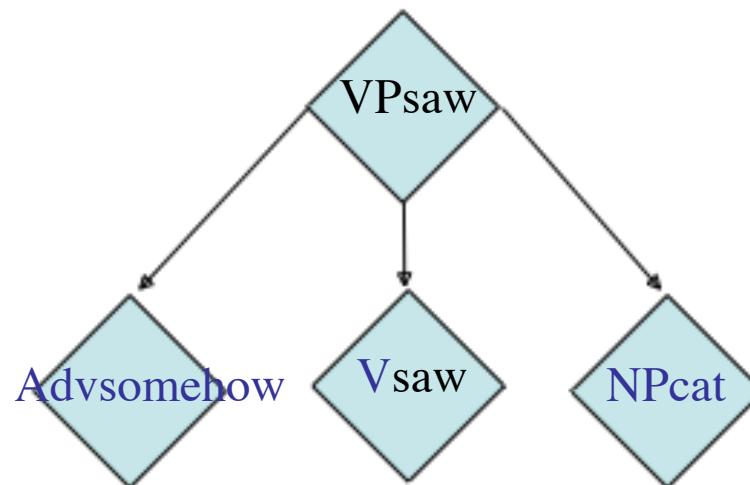
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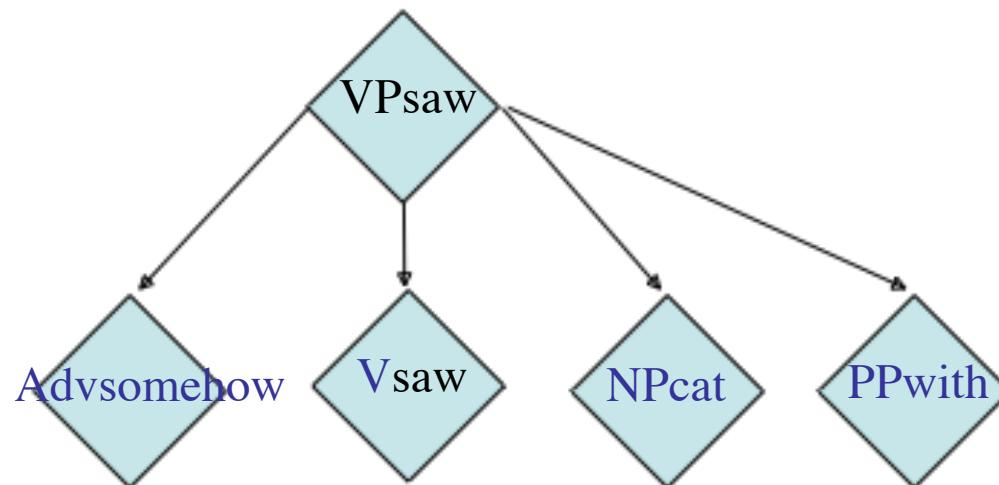
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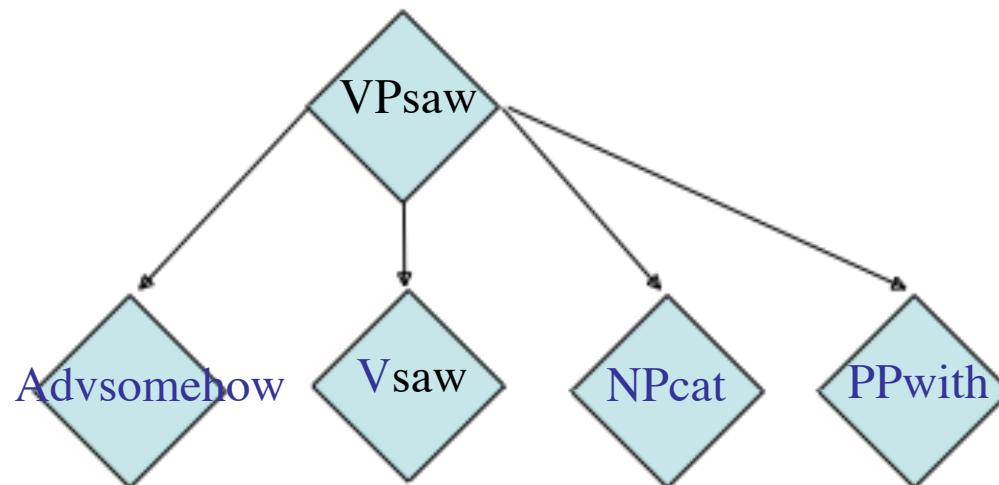
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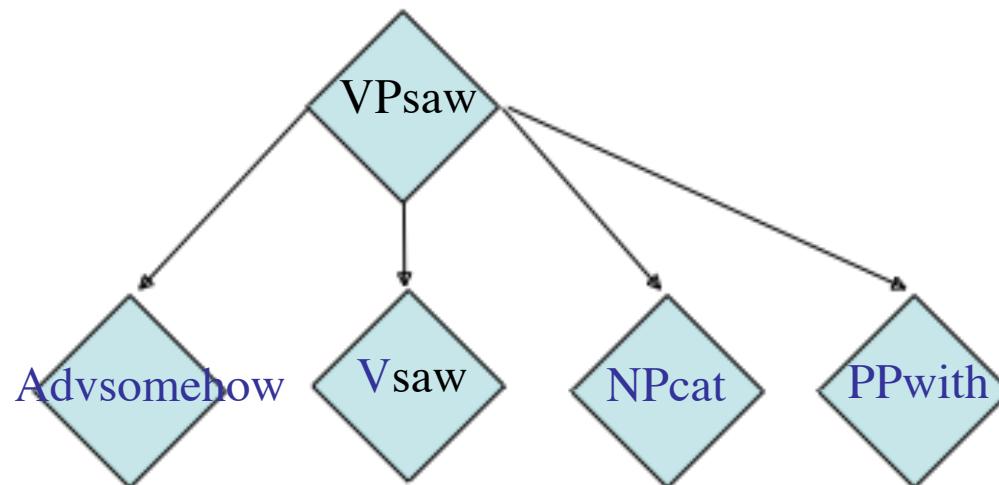
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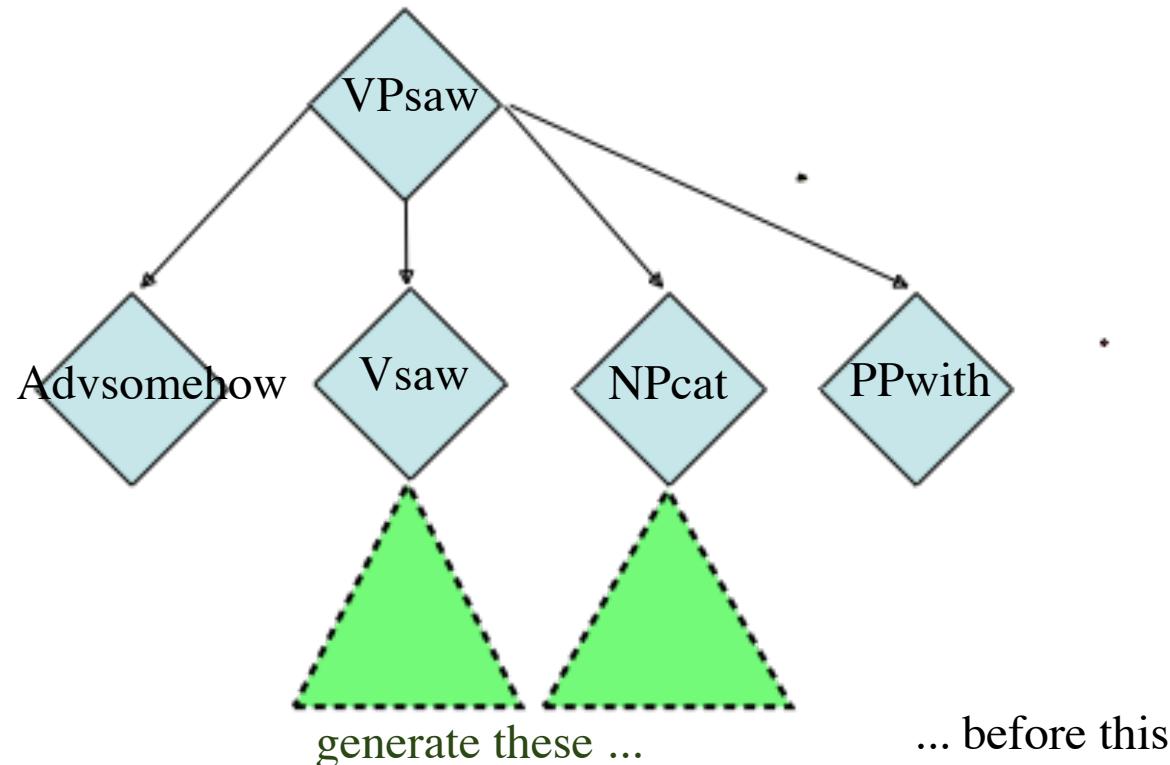
# Collins Model 1 (1997)

- Interesting twist: want to model the **distance** between head constituent and child constituent. How?



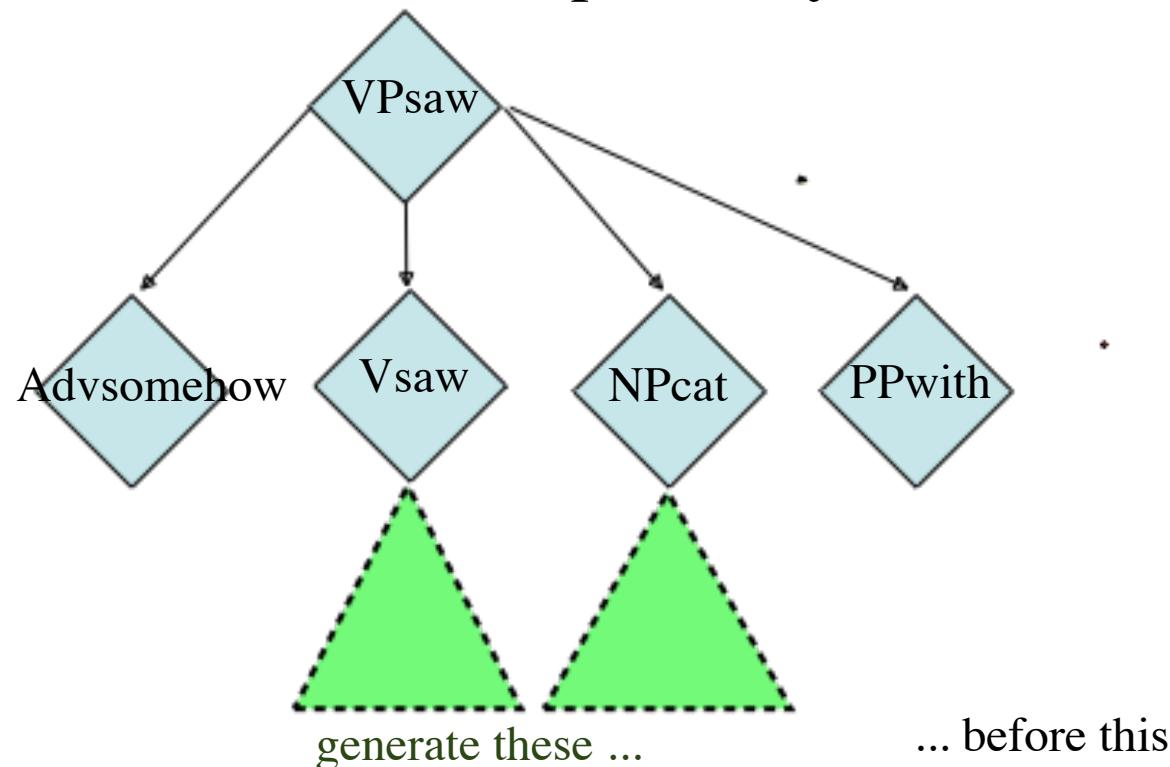
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$$p(\text{PP}_{\text{with}} \mid \text{VP}_{\text{saw}}, \text{right}, \text{"the cat who liked milk"}) \approx p(\text{PP}_{\text{with}} \mid \text{VP}_{\text{saw}}, \text{right}, \text{length} > 0, +\text{verb})$$

$$p(L_n, u_n, L_{n-1}, u_{n-1}, \dots, L_1, u_1, H, w, R_1, v_1, R_2, v_2, \dots, R_m, v_m \mid P, w)$$

$$= p(H \mid P, w)$$

$$\cdot \prod_{i=1}^n p(L_i, u_i \mid P, w, H, \text{left}, \Delta_i)$$

$$\cdot p(\text{stop} \mid P, w, H, \text{left}, \Delta_{n+1})$$

$$\cdot \prod_{i=1}^m p(R_i, v_i \mid P, w, H, \text{right}, \Delta'_i)$$

$$\cdot p(\text{stop} \mid P, w, H, \text{right}, \Delta'_{n+1})$$

# Collins Models 2 and 3 (1997)

- Model 2: Complements, adjuncts and subcategorization frames
  - Treebank decoration: -C on specifiers and arguments
  - Probability model: first pick set of complements (side-wise), must ensure they are all generated
  - *the issue was a bill funding Congress*
- Model 3: Wh-movement and extraction
  - Treebank decoration: “gap feature”
  - Probability model: gap feature “passed around the tree,” must be “discharged” as a trace element.
  - *the store that IBM bought last week*

# Other Points

- Unknown words at test time: any training word with count < 6 becomes UNK
- Smoothing: deleted interpolation
- Tagging is just part of parsing (not a separate stage)
- Markov order increased in special cases:
  - within base noun phrases (NPBs) - first order
  - conjunctions (“and”) predicted together with second conjunct
  - punctuation (details in 2003 paper)

# Practical Notes

- Collins parser is freely available
- Dan Bikel replicated the Collins parser cleanly in Java
  - Easier to re-train
  - Easier to plug-and-play with different options
  - Multilingual support
  - May be faster (with current Java) - I'm not sure

# Charniak (1997) - in brief

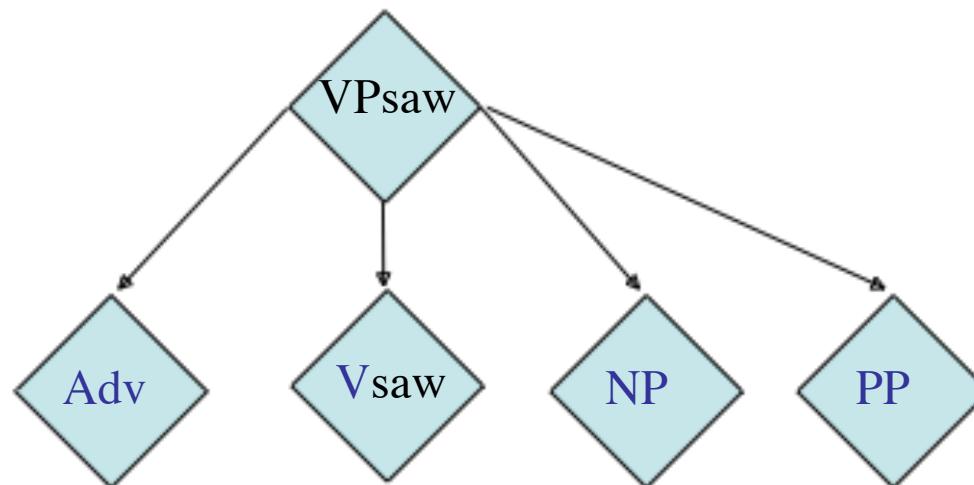
- Generally similar to Collins
- Key differences:
  - Used an additional 30 million words of unparsed text in training
  - Rules not fully markovized: pick full nonterminal sequence, then lexicalize each child independently

# Charniak (1997) - in brief



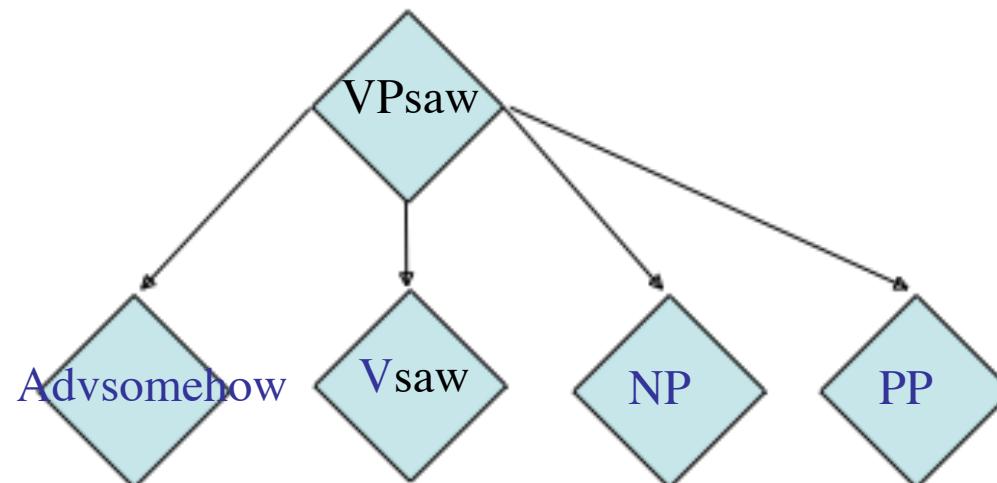
# Charniak (1997) - in brief

VPsaw → Adv V NP  
PP



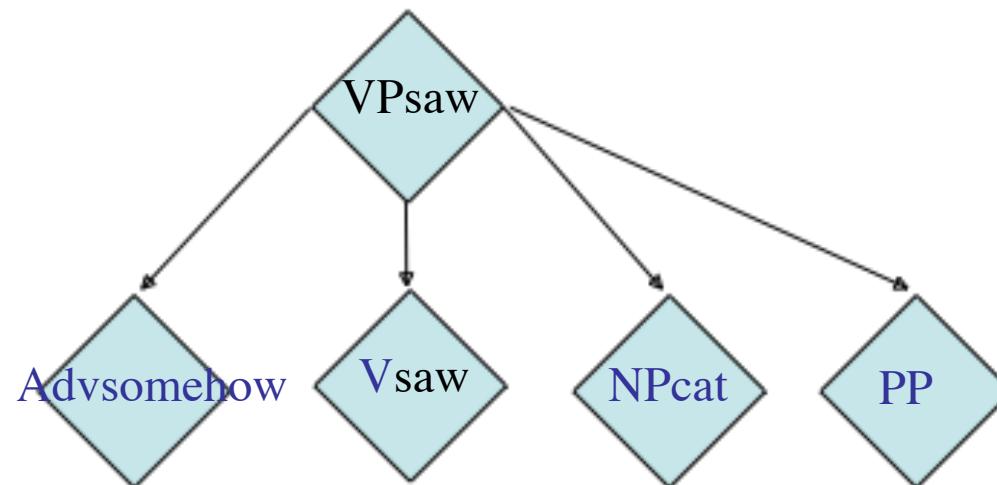
# Charniak (1997) - in brief

$p(\text{somehow} \mid \text{VPsaw},$   
Adv)



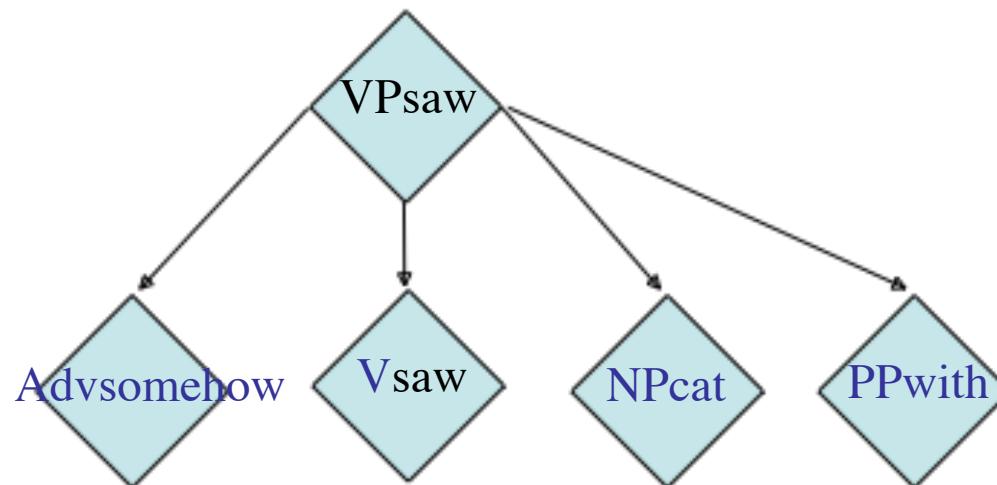
# Charniak (1997) - in brief

p(cat | VPsaw,  
NP)



# Charniak (1997) - in brief

$p(\text{with } 1 \text{ VP}_{\text{saw}},$   
 $\text{PP})$



# Charniak (2000)

- Uses grandparents (Johnson '98 transformation)
- Markovized children (like Collins)
- Bizarre probability model:
  - Smoothed estimates at many backoff levels
  - Multiply them together
  - “Maximum entropy inspired”
  - Kind of a product of experts (untrained)

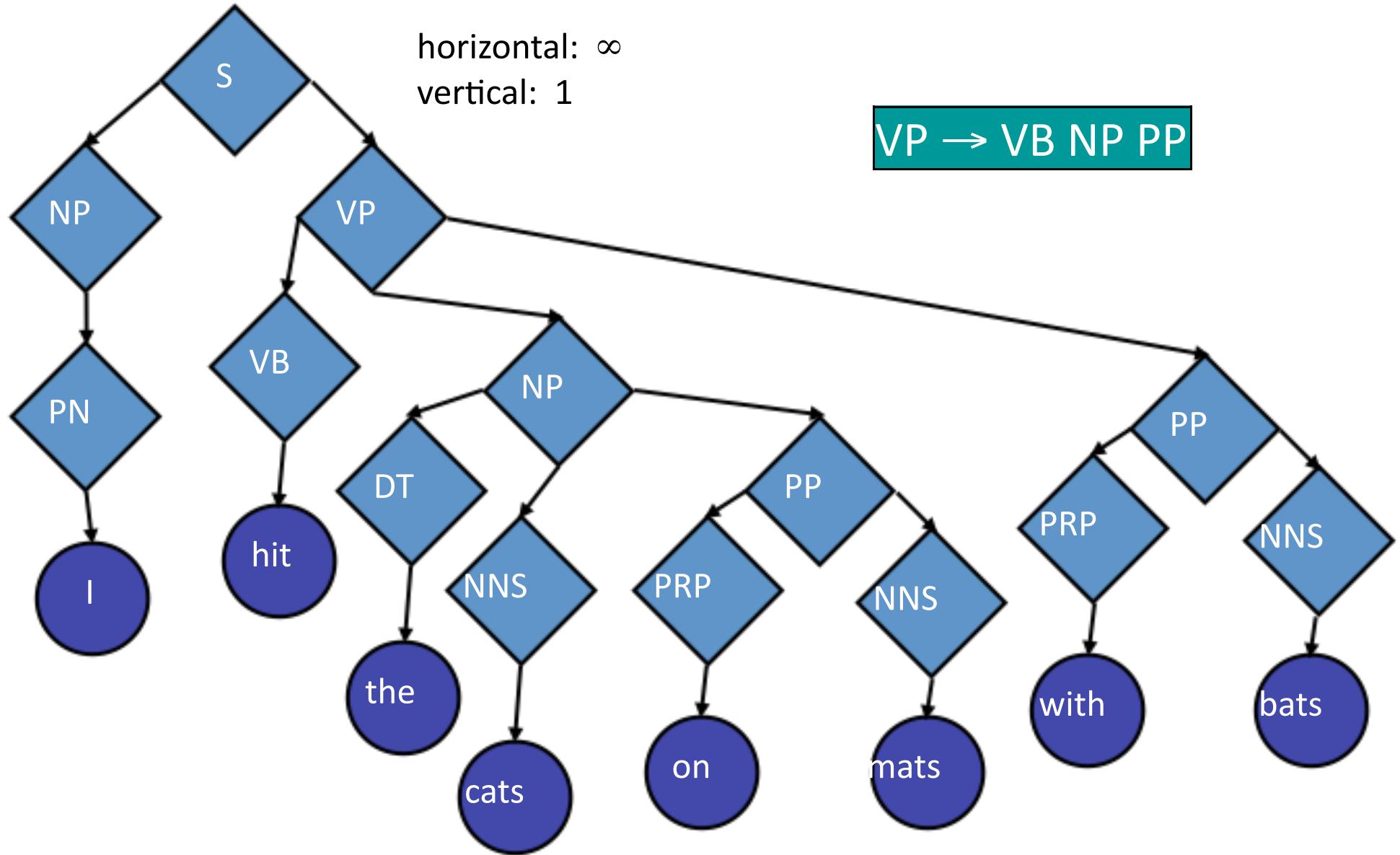
# Comparison

		labeled recall	labeled precision	average crossing brackets
Collins	Model 1	87.5	87.7	1.09
	Model 2	88.1	88.3	1.06
	Model 3	88.0	88.3	1.05
Charniak	1997	86.7	86.6	1.20
	2000	89.6	89.5	0.88

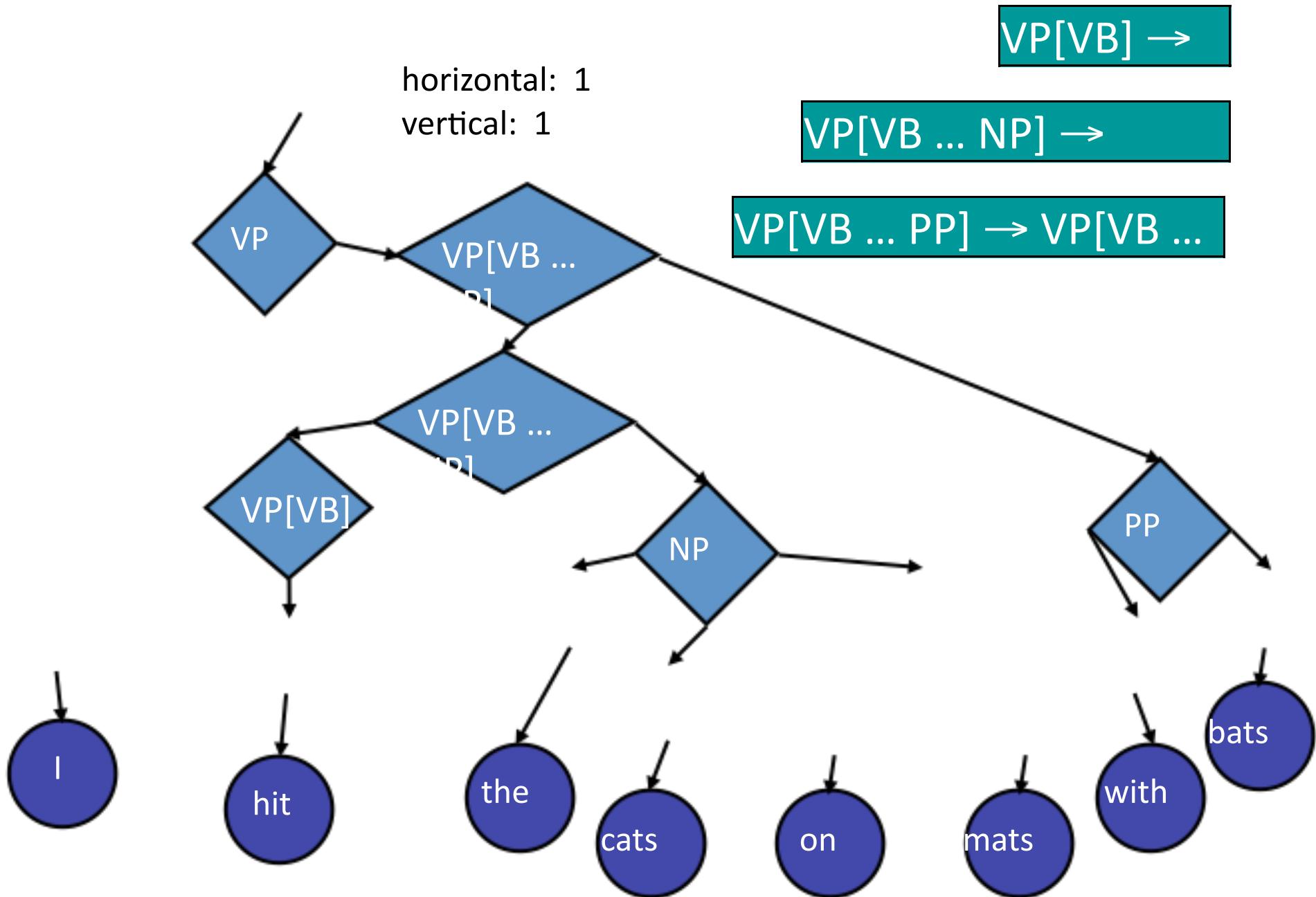
# Klein and Manning (2003)

- By now, lexicalization was kind of controversial
- So many probabilities, such expensive parsing: is it necessary?
- Goal: reasonable unlexicalized baseline
- What tree transformations make sense?
- Markovization (what order?)
- Add all kinds of information to each node in the treebank
- Performance close to Collins model, much better than earlier unlexicalized models

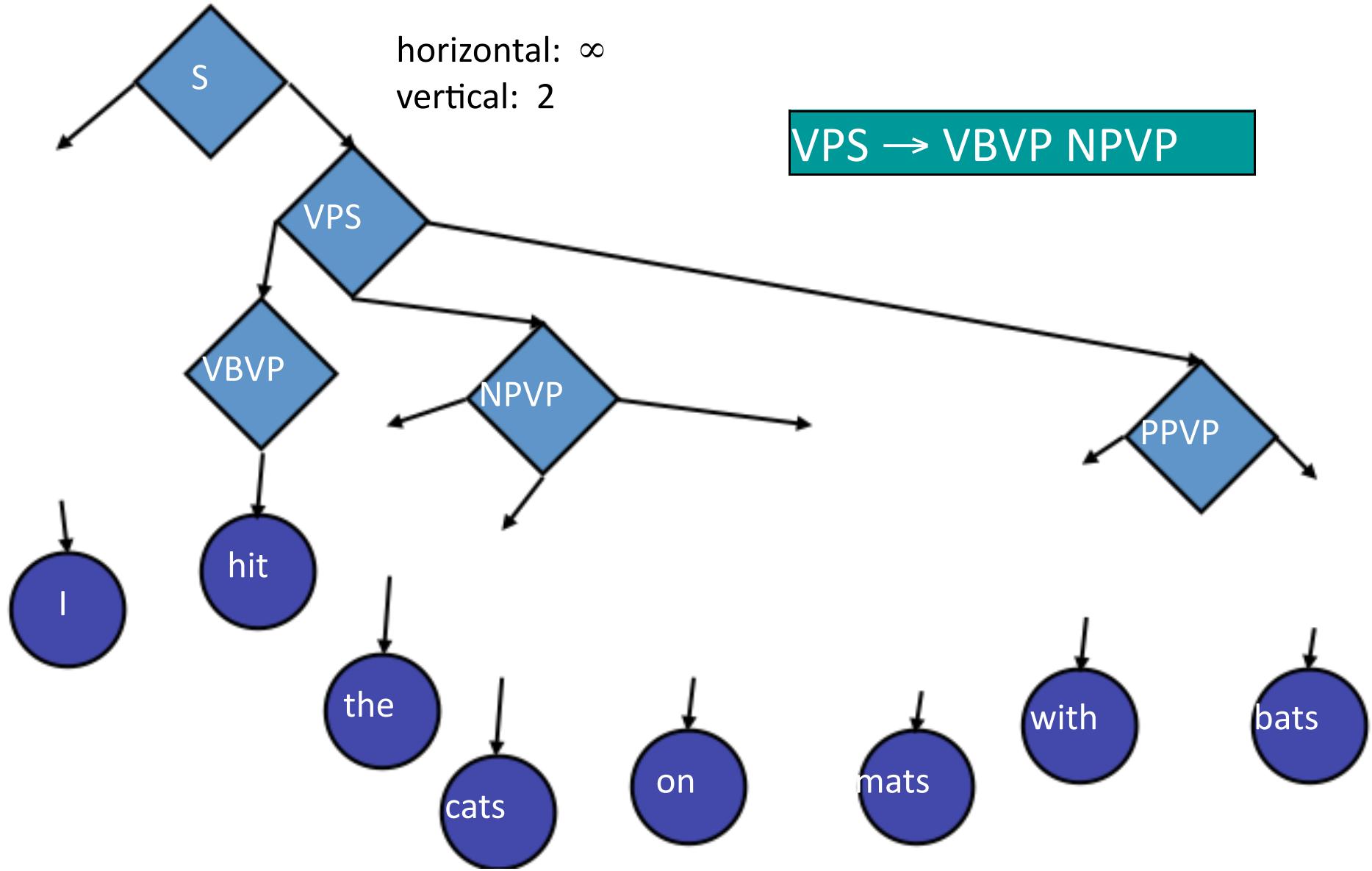
# Markovization



# Markovization



# Markovization



# Markovization

- More vertical Markovization is better
  - Consistent with Johnson (1998)
  - Horizontal 1 or 2 beats 0 or  $\infty$
  - Used (2, 2), but if sparse “back off” to 1

# Other Tree Decorations

- Mark nodes with only 1 child as UNARY
- Mark DTs (determiners), RBs (adverbs) when they are only children
- Annotate POS tags with their parents
- Split IN (prepositions; 6 ways), AUX, CC, %
- NPs: temporal, possessive, base
- VPs annotated with head tag (finite vs. others)
- DOMINATES-V
- RIGHT-RECURSIVE NP

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K&M	2003	86.3	85.1	1.31