Lecture 13

Parsing

Part 1: Definition and Representation

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Parsing

1 Definition and Representation

2 Bracketing: Algorithm

3 Extensions and Evaluation

Syntactic analysis

Syntax is an underlying structure of languages, often analyzed using parse trees.

human language (English):

S

NP

VP

PRP

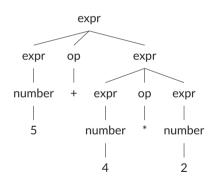
VBN

NP

PP

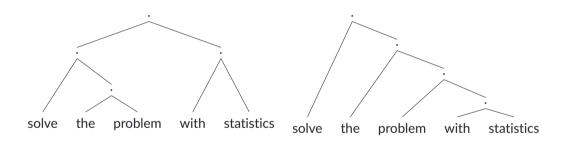
They solved the problem with statistics

programming language (Python):



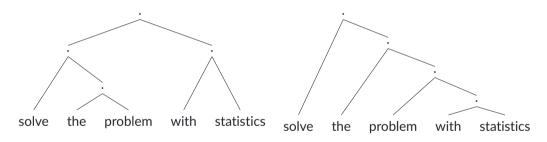
Binary Parsing

There are many kinds of complicated syntactic analysis formalisms. For simplicity, we focus on: binary trees. Let's start without labels too.



Binary Parsing

There are many kinds of complicated syntactic analysis formalisms. For simplicity, we focus on: binary trees. Let's start without labels too.



A binary parse tree with no labelling is the same thing as a bracketing:

```
((solve (the problem)) (with statistics)) ((solve (the (problem (with statistics)))))
```

Protein folding as binary parse trees



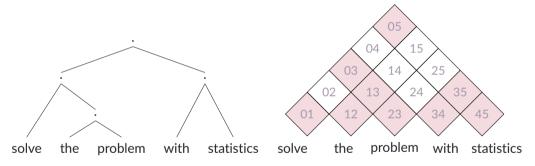
Julia Hockenmaier, Aravind K. Joshi, Ken A. Dill,

Routes are trees: The parsing perspective on protein folding. Proteins, 66–1, 2007.

Bracketing: Representation

Assign a score a_{ij} to the span from i to j (fencepost).

The score of a parse tree is the sum of all scores of its (nested!) spans.

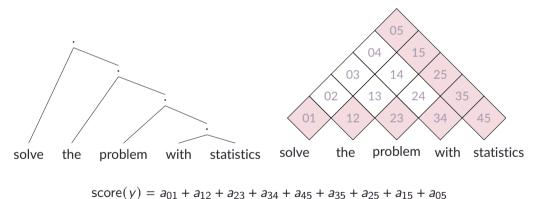


$$score(y) = a_{01} + a_{12} + a_{23} + a_{34} + a_{45} + a_{13} + a_{35} + a_{03} + a_{05}$$

Bracketing: Representation

Assign a score a_{ij} to the span from i to j (fencepost).

The score of a parse tree is the sum of all scores of its (nested!) spans.



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Part 2: Bracketing: Algorithm

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Parsing

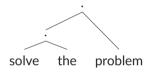
1 Definition and Representation

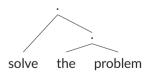
2 Bracketing: Algorithm

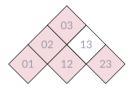
3 Extensions and Evaluation

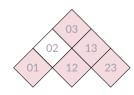
Algorithm

Possible parses of the subsequence (0, 3):

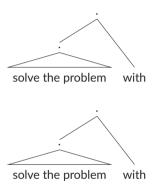


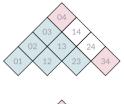






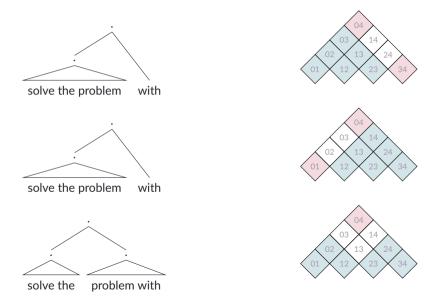
Possible parses of the subsequence (0, 4):



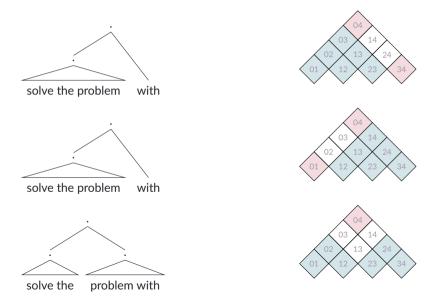




Possible parses of the subsequence (0, 4):



Possible parses of the subsequence (0, 4): see the pattern?

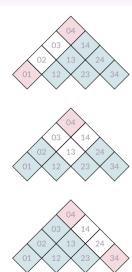


The CYK Algorithm

In general: a partial parse that covers subsequence (i,j) must consist of two partial parses: one covering (i,k) and one covering (k,j) for some i < k < j.

Fill in the table bottom-up: dynamic programming.

Cocke, Kasami, and Younger independently discovered it in the 1960s.



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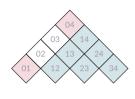
Define M_{ij} as the maximum-scoring parse of subtree from i to j. Then:

$$M_{j-1,j} = a_{j-1,j}$$

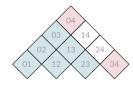
 $M_{i,j} = \max_{i < k < j} a_{i,j} + M_{i,k} + M_{k,j}$

Fill in the table bottom-up: dynamic programming.

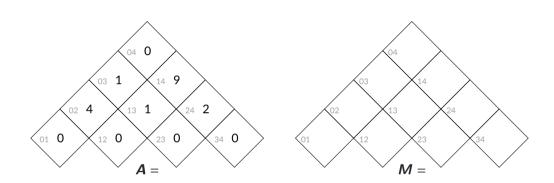
Cocke, Kasami, and Younger independently discovered it in the 1960s.







The CYK Algorithm: Example



CYK vs Segmentation

- The two algorithms have the same inputs: a table of scores for every possible segment.
- The segmentation problem seeks the best low-level chunking.
- CYK seeks an entire tree of chunk "splits".
- Segmentation is the simplest possible DAG. CYK cannot be represented as a DAG at all!

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Part 3: Extensions and Evaluation

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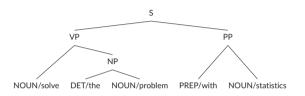
Parsing

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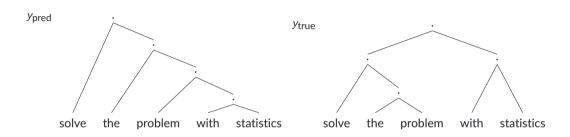
3 Extensions and Evaluation

Labelled Parsing

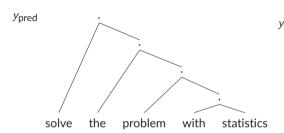


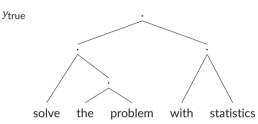
- Simple case: replace all segments with labeled segments (i, j, c).
- In this case, like for segmentation, we can pick the best label for each segment before starting Viterbi, and ignore the rest.
- However, we might want a form of "transition scores": prefer forming a S out of NP VP than out of VP NP.
 - $\hbox{- related to } \textit{probabilistic context-free } \textit{grammars}$
 - can be handled by the same DP algorithm.

Evaluation



Evaluation

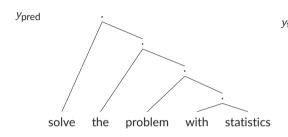


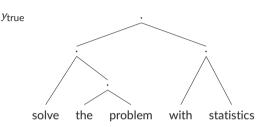


Predicted spans: (0, 1), (0, 5) (1, 2), (1, 5), (2, 3), (2, 5), (3, 4) (3, 5), (4, 5)

True spans: (0, 1), (0, 3), (0, 5), (1, 2), (1, 3), (2, 3), (3, 4), (3, 5), (4, 5)

Evaluation





Predicted spans: (0, 1), (0, 5) (1, 2), (1, 5), (2, 3), (2, 5), (3, 4) (3, 5), (4, 5)

$$P = \frac{\text{n. correct}}{\text{n. predicted}}$$

$$R = \frac{\text{n. correct}}{\text{n. true}}$$

True spans: (0, 1), (0, 3), (0, 5), (1, 2), (1, 3), (2, 3), (3, 4), (3, 5), (4, 5)

$$F_1 = \tfrac{2PR}{P+R}$$

Note: in the unlabelled case, P=R, since the number of segments in a bracketing is always the same. In the labelled case: usually common to compute per-label P/R/F, averaged over the entire dataset. In linguistic applications, "real" parsing evaluation is more complicated, since trees are not binary.

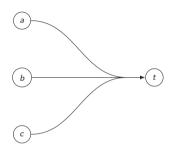


Hyperedges and Hypergraphs

There is a formalism that generalizes DAGs and can express the CYK parsing problem, but its details are too complicated for our scope. Nevertheless, here is a glimpse.

Given nodes
$$V = \{1, 2, ..., n\}$$

- edge: $(s, t) : s \in V, t \in V$.
- hyperedge: $((s_1, ..., s_k), t) : s_i \in V, t \in V$.





Hyperedges and Hypergraphs

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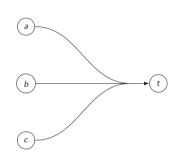
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Any directed graph can be represented as a directed hypergraph: if (s, t) is an edge in G, then make ((s), t) a hyperedge in HG.

Generalizations of DAG and topological sort exist; and Viterbi & Forward algorithms work.

Read more: Liang Huang, Advanced Dynamic Programming in Semiring and Hypergraph Frameworks, COLING 2008 tutorial.



Summary

- Binary parsing / bracketing can be solved with dynamic programming (even if it can't be represented as a DAG)
- Many applications in computational linguistics: relationship to grammars.
- Can generalize the algorithms seen to compute logsumexp and sampling with DP, using a *hypergraphs* formalism.