

CS 2731 Introduction to Natural Language Processing

Session 20: Constituency parsing, CFGs

Michael Miller Yoder

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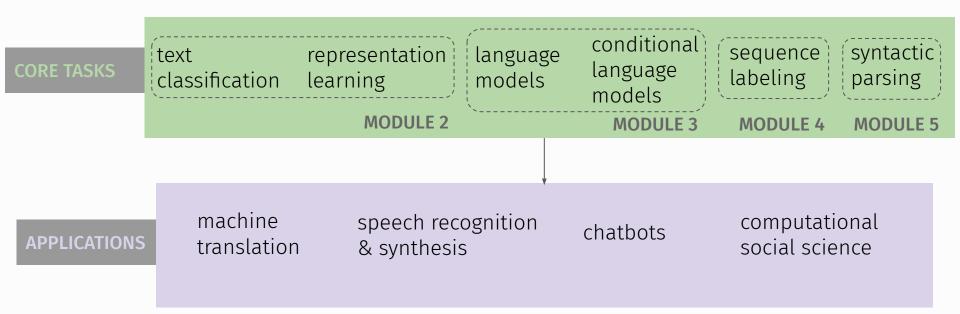


School of Computing and Information

Course logistics

- <u>Homework 4</u> is **due today, Mon Mar 25**
 - Part 1: Do part-of-speech tagging manually with the Viterbi algorithm
 - Part 2: Fine-tune BERT-based models for part-of-speech tagging in English and Norwegian
 - Copy and fill in a skeleton Colab notebook
- <u>Project peer review</u> due Wed Mar 27
 - Form where you will review your own and your teammates' contributions so far
 - Will not be used for grading, just for addressing any issues
- Basic working system **due Thu Apr 4**

Core tasks and applications of NLP



Overview: Constituency parsing, CFGs

- What is syntax?
- Syntax formalisms (constituency, dependency)
- Constituency
 - Types of constituents in English
 - Context-free grammars (CFGs)
 - Derivations and parse trees
- Constituency parsing
 - Treebanks
- Activity: parse some sentences

What is syntax and why is it useful?

- Syntax concerns the patterns according to which words are combined to form phrases and sentences.
- It is distinct from morphology (how morphemes combine to form words) and semantics (what sentences mean) but is related to both.
- Colorless green ideas sleep furiously.

- To arrive at a semantic interpretation of a sentence, you have to know its syntax
- Parallel with programming languages
 - Semantics different from syntax (form versus function)
 - But semantics follows from syntax

If you want to know who did what to whom with what thing having what properties, you must have access to syntax in some form.

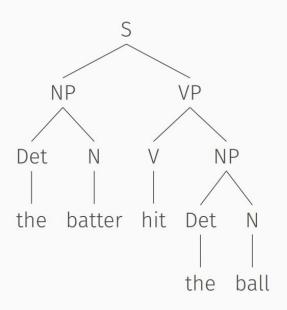
Different perspectives on syntax

Two approaches:

- Syntax means taking sentences, dividing them into phrases and dividing those phrases into smaller phases until you arrive at individual words, yielding a tree of "constitutents"
- Syntax means taking sentences and characterizing the relationships between pairs of words in the sentence, yielding a tree or graph of "heads" and "dependents"

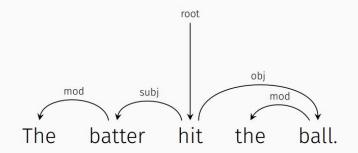
Phrase Structure Grammar is also Called Constituency Grammar

- The first approach is called PHRASE STRUCTURE GRAMMAR OF CONSTITUENCY GRAMMAR.
- Basic unit constituent
- Used by the parsers in the interpreters/compilers of most programming languages



Dependency Grammar Is Based On Bilexical Dependencies

- The second approach is called DEPENDENCY GRAMMAR.
- Basic element BILEXICAL DEPENDENCY
- Especially useful for many contemporary NLP tasks



Constituency

- Constituents: sequences of one or more words that "go together" (form a unit of which the preceding and following words are not a part)
- Constituents larger than a word are called "phrases"
- Phrases can contain other phrases

- **Rigorous criteria** exist for diagnosing whether a sequence of words forms a constituent
- These are called "tests for constituency"
- These include coordination, substitution, topicalization/fronting, and so on

Dogs bark at strangers

Wild dogs bark at strangers

The big dogs we saw by the house bark at strangers

Dogs bark at strangers

They bark at strangers

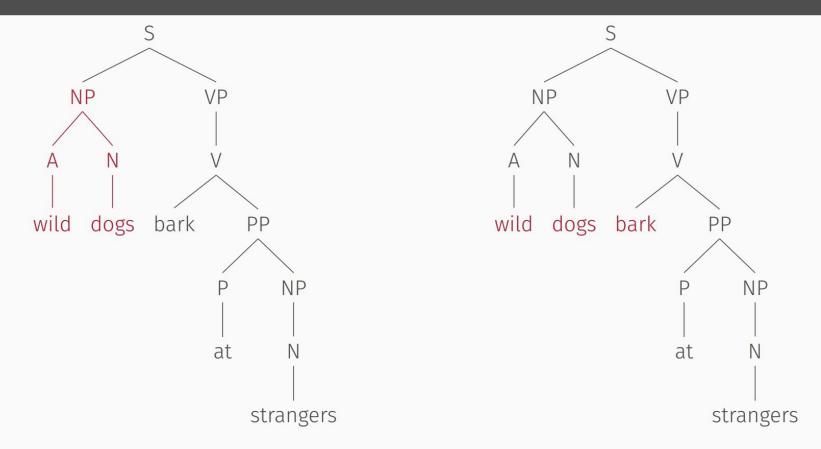
 \leftrightarrow

 \leftrightarrow

 \leftrightarrow

- They bark at strangers
- They bark at strangers
- \leftrightarrow ***They** at strangers

Pro-form substitution trees



↔ Cows also **do so**. Cows also **eat grass**. Cows also eat green grass in lush \leftrightarrow Cows also do so. pastures. Cows also eat green grass in lush \leftrightarrow Cows also do so in green pastures. pastures. Cows also eat green grass in lush \leftrightarrow *Cows also do so grass in lush paspastures.

- tures.

Types of constituents in English

There are several types of constituents in English

- Words: Nouns, verbs, prepositions, adjectives, etc
- Phrases: Ss, NPs, VPs, PPs, APs, etc.

Following are some of the most important phrasal constituents.

Noun phrases typically, though not always, contain nouns (which form the center or "head" of the phrase). The subjects and objects of verbs and the objects of prepositions are noun phrases.

- The elephant arrived.
- It arrived.
- Elephants arrived.
- The big ugly elephant arrived.
- The elephant I love to hate arrived.
- The elephant who ate my Cheetos arrived.

Every prepositional phrase contains a preposition (sometimes more than one) and a noun phrase:

- I arrived on Tuesday.
- I arrived in March.
- I arrived under the leaking roof.

- Alan **awoke**.
- Alan scheduled frantically.
- Alan scheduled a meeting.
- Alan scheduled a meeting with a scientist from Punjab.
- Alan thought that you thought that winter was here.

- John loves Mary.
- John loves the woman **he thinks is Mary**.
- Sometimes, John thinks **he is Mary**.
- It is patently false that **sometimes John thinks he is Mary**.

Context-Free Grammars (CFGs)

Context-free grammars are a tuple $\langle N, \Sigma, R, S \rangle$

- *N*, a finite set of non-terminal symbols
- \cdot Σ , a finite set of terminal symbols
- S, a special start symbol $S \in N$
- *R*, a finite relation in $N \times (N \cup \Sigma)^*$.

Members of *R* are typically represented as rewrite rules of the form $X \to \alpha$ where $X \in N$ $\alpha \in (N \cup \Sigma)^*$

The grammars are called "context-free" because there is no context in the LHS of rules—there is just one symbol.

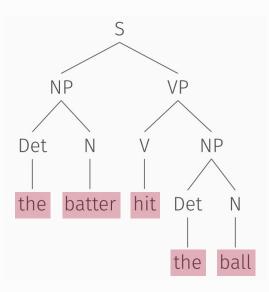
A non-terminal symbol is one like S that can (and must!) be rewritten as either

- Other non-terminal symbols
- Terminal symbols

Non-terminals can be phrasal or pre-terminal (in which case they look like part of speech tags—Noun, Verb, etc.)

Terminal nodes are leaf nodes

- In natural language syntax, terminals are usually words
- They cannot be rewritten; they mean that you're done



S → NP VP NP → Det Noun VP → Verb NP Det → the | a Noun → boy | girl | hotdogs Verb → likes | hates | eats

The same context free grammar can be used for both analysis and generation.

Derivations and parse trees

Grammatical said of a sentence in the languageUngrammatical said of a sentence not in the languageDerivation sequence of top-down production stepsParse tree graphical representation of the derivation

A string is grammatical iff there exists a derivation for it.

 $\mathsf{S} \to \mathsf{NP} \, \mathsf{VP}$

 $NP \rightarrow Det N$

 $VP \rightarrow V NP$

Det \rightarrow your, my, the, a

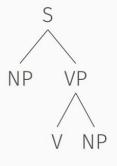
 $N \rightarrow$ computer, sentence

 $V \rightarrow$ parsed, misunderstood

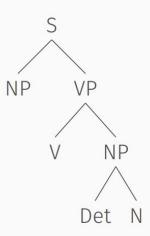
 $\mathsf{S} \to \mathsf{NP} \, \mathsf{VP}$



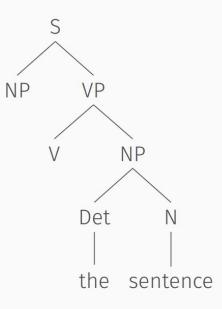
 $VP \rightarrow V NP$







Det \rightarrow the N \rightarrow sentence



 $S \rightarrow NP VP$

 $NP \rightarrow Det N$

 $VP \rightarrow V NP$

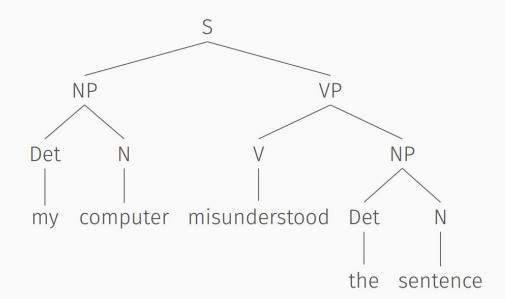
 $Det \rightarrow my$

 $Det \rightarrow the$

 $N \rightarrow computer$

 $N \rightarrow sentence$

 $V \rightarrow misunderstood$



Constituency parsing

- Input · Sentence
 - Grammar
- **Output** A parse tree (a tree data structure representing the syntactic structure of the sentence)
 - Nothing if the sentence is not recognized by the grammar

Parsing is a search problem

- In order to parse a sentence, a parser must find all the possible ways that that sentence could be derived in a grammar. It is searching through a large (potentially infinite space).
- Naïve approaches to this problem are intractable
- Recursive grammars allow for an unbounded number of derivations
- Fortunately, mathematicians and computer scientists have developed a wide range of algorithms for addressing the problems of context-free parsing

Constituency parsing algorithms

- A classic algorithm uses dynamic programming: Cocke-Younger-Kasami (CYK or CKY) Algorithm (first published by Itiroo Sakai in 1961).
 - Uses a table of partial parses to efficiently come up with parsing options
 - Produces all possible parses, but doesn't tell you which one is best!
- Neural span-based constituency parsing to the rescue:
 - Calculates a score for each constituent
 - Combine scores to find the best-scoring parse tree

Treebanks

Grammars Can Be Encoded Explicitly or Implicitly

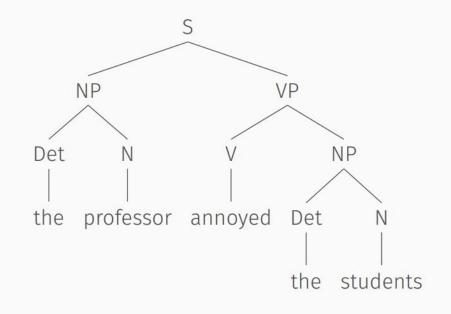
Explicit $S \rightarrow NP VP$ $NP \rightarrow Det N$ $VP \rightarrow V NP$ $Det \rightarrow a \mid the$ $N \rightarrow professor \mid students$ $V \rightarrow delighted \mid annoyed$ As in a hand-crafted grammar.

```
Implicit
```

```
(S
(NP
 (Det the)
 (N professor))
(VP
 (V annoyed)
 (NP
  (Det the)
  (N students))))
```

As in a treebank.

New notation for constituency trees



(S
(NP
 (Det the)
 (N professor))
(VP
 (V annoyed)
 (NP
 (Det the)
 (N students))))

The First Big Treebank Was the PTB

Penn Treebank

- Annotation of:
 - Brown corpus
 - ATIS (Air Travel Information Service corpus)
 - Switchboard Corpus
 - Wall Street Journal corpus
- Size: about 3 million words
 - Rules:
 - 17,500 types
 - "Flat"
 - Many types with only one token

Example Sentence from PTB

```
( (S
  (NP-SBJ
    (NP (NNP Pierre) (NNP Vinken) )
   (,,)
    (ADJP
     (NP (CD 61) (NNS years))
      (JJ old) )
   (,,))
  (VP (MD will)
   (VP (VB join)
      (NP (DT the) (NN board) )
      (PP-CLR (IN as)
        (NP (DT a) (JJ nonexecutive) (NN director) ) )
      (NP-TMP (NNP Nov.) (CD 29) ) )
 (...)))
```

Slide credit: David Mortensen

•••

11881 PP-LOC \rightarrow IN NF 11467 NP-SBJ \rightarrow PRP 11378 NP \rightarrow -NONE-11291 NP \rightarrow NN ... 989 VP \rightarrow VBG S 985 NP-SBJ \rightarrow NN 983 PP-MNR \rightarrow IN NP 983 NP-SBJ \rightarrow DT 969 VP \rightarrow VBN VP

40717 PP → IN NP 33803 S → NP-SBJ VP 22513 NP-SBJ → -NONE-21877 NP → NP PP 20740 NP → DT NN 14153 S → NP-SBJ VP. 12922 VP → TO VP 11881 PP-LOC → IN NP 11467 NP-SBJ → PRP 11378 NP → -NONE-11291 NP → NN

Some PTB Rules by Frequency

100 PRN \rightarrow : NP : 100 NP → DT JJS 100 NP-CLR → NN 99 NP-SBI-1 → DT NNP 98 VP → VBN NP PP-DIR 98 VP → VBD PP-TMP 98 PP-TMP → VBG NP 97 VP → VBD ADVP-TMP VP ... 10 WHNP-1 → WRB II 10 VP \rightarrow VP CC VP PP-TMP 10 VP \rightarrow VP CC VP ADVP-MNR 10 VP → VBZ S , SBAR-ADV 10 VP \rightarrow VBZ S ADVP-TMP

100 VP → VBD PP-PRD

Proper Ambivalence toward Treebanks





Why you should have great respect for treebanks

Why you should be cautious around treebanks

Why You Should Respect Treebanks

Treebanks require great skill

- Expert linguists make thousands of decisions
- Many annotators must remember all of the decisions and use them consistently, including knowing which decision to use
- The "coding manual" containing all of the decisions is hundreds of pages long

Treebanks take many years to make

- Writing the coding manual, training coders, building user-interface tools, etc., all take a lot of time
- So does the actual coding of the data and quality assurance

Treebanks are expensive

Somebody has to secure funding for these projects

- \cdot They are too big to fail
- The are produced under pressure of time and funding
- Although most of the decisions are made by experts, most of the coding is done by non-experts

Activity: parse some sentences

Practice: parse these sentences

- 1. The boy with the coin sat down.
- 2. Enraged cow injures farmer with ax.
- 3. Hospitals are sued by seven foot doctors.
- 4. The woman saw the man with the telescope.

Some helpful rules:			
i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i	NP -> N	VP -> V	PP -> Prep NP
S -> NP VP	NP -> N N	VP -> VP NP	
S -> ADJP VP	NP -> Det NP	VP -> VP NP PP	
	NP -> ADJ NP	VP -> VP VP	
	NP -> NP PP	VP -> VP PP	
		VP -> VP Particle	

Wrapping up

- Syntax concerns rules for grouping and ordering words into meaningful phrases and sentences
- Constituencies and dependencies are two high-level formalisms for syntax
- Constituencies are groups of words that act as a unit in a sentence
- Context-free grammars (CFGs) provide grouping rules for constituents
- Constituency parsing is determining the best/possible constituency structure of a sentence
- Treebanks contain sentences annotated for syntax structure and parts of speech

Questions?