ANLP Lecture 12
Parsing Algorithms

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Recap: Syntax

Two reasons to care about syntactic structure (parse tree):

- As a guide to the semantic interpretation of the sentence
- As a way to prove whether a sentence is grammatical or not

But having a grammar isn’t enough.

We also need a parsing algorithm to compute the parse tree for a given input string and grammar.
Parsing algorithms

Goal: compute the structure(s) for an input string given a grammar.

- As usual, ambiguity is a huge problem.
  - For correctness: need to find the right structure to get the right meaning.
  - For efficiency: searching all possible structures can be very slow; want to use parsing for large-scale language tasks (e.g., used to create Google’s “infoboxes”).
Global and local ambiguity

• We’ve already seen examples of **global ambiguity**: multiple analyses for a full sentence, like *I saw the man with the telescope*

• But **local ambiguity** is also a big problem: multiple analyses for parts of sentence.
  – *the dog bit the child*: first three words could be NP (but aren’t).
  – Building useless partial structures wastes time.
  – Avoiding useless computation is a major issue in parsing.

• Syntactic ambiguity is rampant; humans usually don’t even notice because we are good at using context/semantics to disambiguate.
Parser properties

All parsers have two fundamental properties:

- **Directionality**: the sequence in which the structures are constructed.
  - **top-down**: start with root category (S), choose expansions, build down to words.
  - **bottom-up**: build subtrees over words, build up to S.
  - **Mixed** strategies also possible (e.g., left corner parsers)

- **Search strategy**: the order in which the search space of possible analyses is explored.
Example: search space for top-down parser

- Start with S node.

- Choose one of many possible expansions.

- Each of which has children with many possible expansions...

- etc
Search strategies

- **depth-first search**: explore one branch of the search space at a time, as far as possible. If this branch is a dead-end, parser needs to **backtrack**.

- **breadth-first search**: expand all possible branches in parallel (or simulated parallel). Requires storing many incomplete parses in memory at once.

- **best-first search**: score each partial parse and pursue the highest-scoring options first. (Will get back to this when discussing statistical parsing.)
Recursive Descent Parsing

- A **recursive descent** parser treats a grammar as a specification of how to break down a top-level goal (find S) into subgoals (find NP VP).

- It is a **top-down, depth-first** parser:
  - Blindly expand nonterminals until reaching a terminal (word).
  - If multiple options available, choose one but store current state as a backtrack point (in a **stack** to ensure depth-first.)
  - If terminal matches next input word, continue; else, backtrack.
RD Parsing algorithm

Start with subgoal = $S$, then repeat until input/subgoals are empty:

- If first subgoal in list is a **non-terminal** $A$, then pick an expansion $A \rightarrow B \ C$ from grammar and replace $A$ in subgoal list with $B \ C$

- If first subgoal in list is a **terminal** $w$:
  - If input is empty, backtrack.
  - If next input word is different from $w$, backtrack.
  - If next input word is $w$, match! i.e., consume input word $w$ and subgoal $w$ and move to next subgoal.

If we run out of backtrack points but not input, no parse is possible.
Recursive descent example

Consider a very simple example:

- Grammar contains only these rules:

  $S \rightarrow NP \ VP \quad VP \rightarrow V \quad NN \rightarrow bit \quad V \rightarrow bit$

  $NP \rightarrow DT \ NN \quad DT \rightarrow the \quad NN \rightarrow dog \quad V \rightarrow dog$

- The input sequence is **the dog bit**
## Recursive descent example

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>Op.</th>
<th>Subgoals</th>
<th>Input</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td>S</td>
<td>the dog bit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>NP VP</td>
<td>the dog bit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>DT NN VP</td>
<td>the dog bit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>the NN VP</td>
<td>the dog bit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>NN VP</td>
<td>dog bit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>bit VP</td>
<td>dog bit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>B4</td>
<td>NN VP</td>
<td>dog bit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>dog VP</td>
<td>dog bit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>VP</td>
<td>bit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>bit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>bit</td>
<td>bit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>M</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Operations:
- Expand (E)
- Match (M)
- Backtrack to step \( n \) (\( Bn \))
Further notes

• The above sketch is actually a **recognizer**: it tells us whether the sentence has a valid parse, but not what the parse is. For a parser, we’d need more details to store the structure as it is built.

• We only had one backtrack, but in general things can be much worse!

  – See Inf2a Lecture 17 for a much longer example showing inefficiency.
  – If we have left-recursive rules like $\text{NP} \rightarrow \text{NP PP}$, we get an infinite loop!
Shift-Reduce Parsing

- Search strategy and directionality are orthogonal properties.

- **Shift-reduce** parsing is **depth-first** (like RD) but **bottom-up** (unlike RD).

- Basic shift-reduce recognizer repeatedly:
  - Whenever possible, **reduces** one or more items from top of stack that match RHS of rule, replacing with LHS of rule.
  - When that’s not possible, **shifts** an input symbol onto a stack.

- Like RD parser, needs to maintain backtrack points.
Shift-reduce example

- Same example grammar and sentence.
- Operations:
  - Reduce (R)
  - Shift (S)
  - Backtrack to step \( n \) (\( Bn \))
- Note that at 9 and 11 we skipped over backtracking to 7 and 5 respectively as there were actually no choices to be made at those points.
Depth-first parsing in practice

• Depth-first parsers are very efficient for unambiguous structures.
  – Widely used to parse/compile programming languages, which are constructed to be unambiguous.

• But can be massively inefficient (exponential in sentence length) if faced with local ambiguity.
  – Blind backtracking may require re-building the same structure over and over: so, simple depth-first parsers are not used in NLP.
  – But: if we use a probabilistic model to learn which choices to make, we can do very well in practice (coming next week...)
Breadth-first search using dynamic programming

- With a CFG, you should be able to avoid re-analysing any substring because its analysis is independent of the rest of the parse.

  \[ \text{[he]}_{\text{np}} \text{ [saw her duck]}_{\text{vp}} \]

- **chart parsing** algorithms exploit this fact.
  - use dynamic programming to store and reuse sub-parses, composing them into a full solution.
  - So multiple potential parses are explored at once: a breadth-first strategy.
Parsing as dynamic programming

• For parsing, subproblems are analyses of substrings, memoized in chart (aka well-formed substring table, WFST).

• Chart entries are indexed by start and end positions in the sentence, and correspond to:
  – either a complete constituent (sub-tree) spanning those positions (if working bottom-up),
  – or a prediction about what complete constituent might be found (if working top-down).
What’s in the chart?

• We assume **indices** between each word in the sentence:

  0 he 1 saw 2 her 3 duck 4

• The chart is a matrix where cell $[i, j]$ holds information about the word span from position $i$ to position $j$:
  – The root node of any constituent(s) spanning those words
  – Pointers to its sub-constituents
  – (Depending on parsing method,) predictions about what constituents might follow the substring.
Algorithms for Chart Parsing

Many different chart parsing algorithms, including

- the **CKY algorithm**, which memoizes only complete constituents
- various algorithms that also memoize predictions/partial constituents
  - often using mixed bottom-up and top-down approaches, e.g.,
    the Earley algorithm described in J&M, and left-corner parsing.
CKY Algorithm

CKY (Cocke, Kasami, Younger) is a **bottom-up, breadth-first** parsing algorithm.

- Original version assumes grammar in Chomsky Normal Form.

- Add constituent $A$ in cell $(i, j)$ if there is:
  - a rule $A \rightarrow B$, and a $B$ in cell $(i, j)$, **or**
  - a rule $A \rightarrow B \ C$, and a $B$ in cell $(i, k)$ and a $C$ in cell $(k, j)$. 
CKY Algorithm

CKY (Cocke, Kasami, Younger) is a **bottom-up, breadth-first** parsing algorithm.

- Original version assumes grammar in Chomsky Normal Form.
- Add constituent A in cell \((i, j)\) if there is:
  - a rule \(A \rightarrow B\), and a B in cell \((i, j)\), or
  - a rule \(A \rightarrow B\ C\), and a B in cell \((i, k)\) and a C in cell \((k, j)\).
- Fills chart in order: only looks for rules that use a constituent from \(i\) to \(j\) after finding all constituents ending at \(i\). So, guaranteed to find all possible parses.
CKY Pseudocode

- Assume input sentence with indices 0 to $n$, and chart $c$.

  for len = 1 to n:  #number of words in constituent
    for i = 0 to n-len:  #start position
      j = i+len  #end position
      #process unary rules
      foreach A->B where c[i,j] has B
        add A to c[i,j] with a pointer to B
      for k = i+1 to j-1  #mid position
        #process binary rules
        foreach A->B C where c[i,k] has B and c[k,j] has C
          add A to c[i,j] with pointers to B and C

- Takes time $O(Gn^3)$, where $G$ is the number of grammar rules.
CKY Example

S → NP VP
NP → D N | Pro | PropN
D → PosPro | Art | NP ’s
VP → Vi | Vt NP | Vp NP VP
Pro → i | we | you | he | she | him | her
PosPro → my | our | your | his | her
PropN → Robin | Jo
Art → a | an | the
N → cat | dog | duck | saw | park | telescope | bench
Vi → sleep | run | duck
Vt → eat | break | see | saw
Vp → see | saw | heard
### CKY Example

**POS ambiguities**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>Pro</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Vt,Vp,N</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Pro, PosPro</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>N,Vi</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- We’ve added all POSs that are allowed for each word.
CKY Example

Larger Constituents: Unary rule $\text{NP} \rightarrow \text{Pro}$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>Pro, NP</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>Vt, Vp, N</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Pro, PosPro</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>N, Vi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- red shows which children create which parents.
- Normally we’d add pointers from parent to child to store this info permanently, but we’d end up with too many arrows here to see what’s going on!

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**CKY Example**

Larger Constituents: Unary rule $D \rightarrow \text{PosPro}$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>Pro, NP</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>Vt, Vp, N</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Pro, PosPro, D</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>$\text{ohe}_1$</td>
<td>$\text{saw}_2$</td>
<td>$\text{her}_3$</td>
<td>N, Vi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- red shows which children create which parents.
- Normally we'd add pointers from parent to child to store this info permanently, but we'd end up with too many arrows here to see what's going on!
**CKY Example**

Larger Constituents: Binary rule $\text{NP} \rightarrow \text{D N}$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>Pro, NP</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>Vt, Vp, N</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>Pro, PosPro, D</td>
<td>NP</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>N, Vi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- red shows which children create which parents.
- Normally we'd add pointers from parent to child to store this info permanently, but we'd end up with too many arrows here to see what's going on!
### CKY Example

Larger Constituents: Binary rule $\text{VP} \rightarrow \text{Vt} \quad \text{NP}$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>Pro, NP</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>Vt, Vp, N</td>
<td></td>
<td>VP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>Pro, PosPro, D</td>
<td></td>
<td>NP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>N, V₁</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- $\text{Vt}$ from (1,2) plus NP from (2,4) makes a VP from (1,4).
- For cell (1,4) we also consider (1,3) plus (3,4) but there’s nothing in those cells that can combine to make a larger phrase.
### CKY Example

#### Larger Constituents: alternate parses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>Pro, NP</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>S</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>Vt, Vp, N</td>
<td></td>
<td>VP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Pro, PosPro, D</td>
<td>NP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>N, Vi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- \( ohe_1 \) \( 1 \text{saw}_2 \) \( 2 \text{her}_3 \) \( 3 \text{duck}_4 \)

- We also have another way to build the same VP (1,4). Add more pointers to remember this new analysis.
- (Not standard CKY because we used a ternary rule! In reality we would have converted this rule into CNF, but still ended up with two parses for VP.)
CKY Example

Larger Constituents: Binary rule $S \rightarrow NP \ VP$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>Pro, NP</td>
<td></td>
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<td>S</td>
</tr>
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<td>1</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>VP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Pro, PosPro, D</td>
<td>NP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>N,Vi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^ohe_1 \ 1saw_2 \ 2her_3 \ 3duck_4$

• When we build the $S$, it doesn’t matter anymore that there are two VP analyses, we just see the $VP$.

• Ambiguity is only clear if we go to reconstruct the parses using our backpointers.
A note about CKY ordering

- Notice that to fill cell \((i, j)\), we use a cell from row \(i\) and a cell from column \(j\).

- So, we must fill in all cells down and left of \((i, j)\) before filling \((i, j)\).

- Here, we filled in all short entries, then longer ones, but other orders can work (e.g., J&M fill in all spans ending at \(j\), then increment \(j\).)
CKY in practice

- Avoids re-computing substructures, so much more efficient than depth-first parsers (in worst case).

- Still may compute a lot of unnecessary partial parses.

- Simple version requires converting the grammar to CNF (may cause blowup: remember time depends on grammar too!).

Various other chart parsing methods avoid these issues by combining top-down and bottom-up approaches (see J&M2).

But rather than going that way, next time we’ll focus on statistical parsing which can help with both ambiguity and efficiency issues.
Questions for review/practice

• What is the difference between global and local ambiguity? Construct example sentences illustrating each type of ambiguity (different from those given in the lecture).

• What are two examples of depth-first parsing algorithms, and what is the difference between them?

• Add a $VP \rightarrow V \ NP$ rule to the grammar on slide 10, and hand-simulate the different parsing strategies on the inputs the dog bit, the dog dog, and the dog bit the dog.

• What is the big disadvantage of (non-probabilistic) depth-first parsers? How does CKY avoid this disadvantage?