

Parameter Estimation and Lexicalization for PCFGs

Informatics 2A: Lecture 21

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- 1 Standard PCFGs
 - Parameter Estimation
 - Problem 1: Assuming Independence
 - Problem 2: Ignoring Lexical Information
- 2 Lexicalized PCFGs
 - Lexicalization
 - Head Lexicalization

Reading:

*J&M 2nd edition, ch. 14.2–14.6,
NLTK Book, Chapter 8, final section on Weighted
Grammar.*

Clicker Question

$S \rightarrow NP VP$	(1.0)	$NPR \rightarrow John$	(0.5)
$NP \rightarrow DET N$	(0.7)	$NPR \rightarrow Mary$	(0.5)
$NP \rightarrow NPR$	(0.3)	$V \rightarrow saw$	(0.4)
$VP \rightarrow V PP$	(0.7)	$V \rightarrow loves$	(0.6)
$VP \rightarrow V NP$	(0.3)	$DET \rightarrow a$	(1.0)
$PP \rightarrow Prep NP$	(1.0)	$N \rightarrow cat$	(0.6)
		$N \rightarrow saw$	(0.4)

What is the probability of the sentence *John saw a saw*?

- 1 0.02
- 2 0.00016
- 3 0.00504
- 4 0.0002

Parameter Estimation

In a PCFG every rule is associated with a probability.
But where do these rule probabilities come from?

Use a large **parsed corpus** such as the Penn Treebank.

```
( (S
  (NP-SBJ (DT That) (JJ cold)
    (, ,)
    (JJ empty) (NN sky) )
  (VP (VBD was)
    (ADJP-PRD (JJ full)
      (PP (IN of)
        (NP (NN fire)
          (CC and)
          (NN light) ))))
  (. .) ))
```

S → *NP-SBJ VP*
VP → *VBD ADJP-PRD*
PP → *IN NP*
NP → *NN CC NN*
etc.

Parameter Estimation

In a PCFG every rule is associated with a probability.
But where do these rule probabilities come from?

Use a large **parsed corpus** such as the Penn Treebank.

- Obtain **grammar rules** by reading them off the trees.
- Calculate number of times LHS \rightarrow RHS occurs over number of times LHS occurs.

$$P(\alpha \rightarrow \beta | \alpha) = \frac{\text{Count}(\alpha \rightarrow \beta)}{\sum_{\gamma} \text{Count}(\alpha \rightarrow \gamma)} = \frac{\text{Count}(\alpha \rightarrow \beta)}{\text{Count}(\alpha)}$$

Parameter Estimation

Corpus of parsed sentences:

'S1: [S [NP grass] [VP grows]]'

'S2: [S [NP grass] [VP grows] [AP slowly]]'

'S3: [S [NP grass] [VP grows] [AP fast]]'

'S4: [S [NP bananas] [VP grow]]'

Compute PCFG probabilities:

r	Rule	α	$P(r \alpha)$
$r1$	$S \rightarrow NP VP$	S	2/4
$r2$	$S \rightarrow NP VP AP$	S	2/4

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$r5$	$VP \rightarrow grows$	VP	3/4

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$r4$	$NP \rightarrow bananas$	NP	1/4
$r5$	$VP \rightarrow grows$	VP	3/4
$r6$	$VP \rightarrow grow$	VP	1/4

Parameter Estimation

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$r4$	$NP \rightarrow bananas$	NP	1/4
$r5$	$VP \rightarrow grows$	VP	3/4
$r6$	$VP \rightarrow grow$	VP	1/4
$r7$	$AP \rightarrow fast$	AP	1/2

Parameter Estimation

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'S2: [S [NP grass] [VP grows] [AP slowly]]'

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'S4: [S [NP bananas] [VP grow]]'

Compute PCFG probabilities:

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$r3$	$NP \rightarrow grass$	NP	3/4
$r4$	$NP \rightarrow bananas$	NP	1/4
$r5$	$VP \rightarrow grows$	VP	3/4
$r6$	$VP \rightarrow grow$	VP	1/4
$r7$	$AP \rightarrow fast$	AP	1/2
$r8$	$AP \rightarrow slowly$	AP	1/2

Parameter Estimation

With these parameters (rule probabilities), we can now compute the probabilities of the four sentences S1–S4:

$$\begin{aligned}P(S1) &= P(r1|S)P(r3|NP)P(r5|VP) \\ &= 2/4 \cdot 3/4 \cdot 3/4 = 0.28125\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}P(S2) &= P(r2|S)P(r3|NP)P(r5|VP)P(r7|AP) \\ &= 2/4 \cdot 3/4 \cdot 3/4 \cdot 1/2 = 0.140625\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}P(S3) &= P(r2|S)P(r3|NP)P(r5|VP)P(r7|AP) \\ &= 2/4 \cdot 3/4 \cdot 3/4 \cdot 1/2 = 0.140625\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}P(S4) &= P(r1|S)P(r4|NP)P(r6|VP) \\ &= 2/4 \cdot 1/4 \cdot 1/4 = 0.03125\end{aligned}$$

Parameter Estimation

What if we don't have a treebank, but we do have an unparsed corpus and (non-probabilistic) parser?

- 1 Take a CFG and set all rules to have equal probability.
- 2 Parse the (flat) corpus with the CFG.
- 3 Adjust the probabilities.
- 4 Repeat steps two and three until probabilities converge.

This is the **inside-outside algorithm** (Baker, 1979), a type of Expectation Maximisation algorithm. It can also be used to induce a grammar, but only with limited success.

Problems with Standard PCFGs

While standard PCFGs are already useful for some purposes, they can produce poor result when used for disambiguation.

Why is that?

- 1 They **assume the rule choices are independent of one another.**
- 2 They **ignore lexical information until the very end of the analysis**, when word classes are rewritten to word tokens.

How can this lead to bad choices among possible parses?

Problem 1: Assuming Independence

By definition, a CFG assumes that the expansion of non-terminals is completely **independent**. It doesn't matter:

- where a non-terminal is in the analysis;
- what else is (or isn't) in the analysis.

The same assumption holds for standard PCFGs: The probability of a rule is the same, no matter

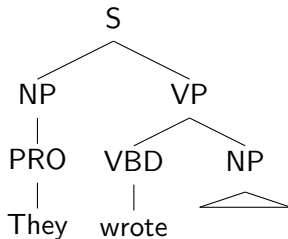
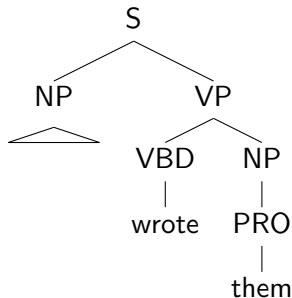
- where it is applied in the analysis;
- what else is (or isn't) in the analysis.

But this assumption is too simple!

Problem 1: Assuming Independence

$$S \rightarrow NP VP$$
$$VP \rightarrow VBD NP$$
$$NP \rightarrow PRO$$
$$NP \rightarrow DT NOM$$

The above rules assign the same probability to both these trees, because they use the same re-write rules, and probability calculations do not depend on where rules are used.



Problem 1: Assuming independence

But in speech corpora, 91% of 31021 subject NPs are pronouns:

- (1) a. **She**'s able to take her baby to work with her.
- b. My wife worked until **we** had a family.

while only 34% of 7489 object NPs are pronouns:

- (2) a. Some laws absolutely prohibit **it**.
- b. It wasn't clear how NL and Mr. Simmons would respond if Georgia Gulf spurns **them** again.

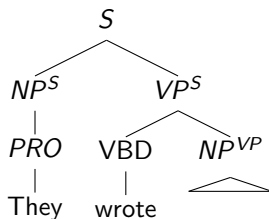
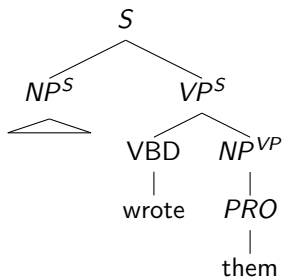
So the probability of NP \rightarrow PRO should depend on **where** in the analysis it applies (e.g., subject or object position).

Addressing the independence problem

One way of introducing greater sensitivity into PCFGs is via **parent annotation**: subdivide (all or some) non-terminal categories according to the non-terminal that appears as the node's immediate parent. E.g. NP subdivides into NP^S , NP^{VP} , ...

$$S \rightarrow NP^S VP^S$$
$$VP^S \rightarrow VBD^{VP} NP^{VP}$$

$$NP^S \rightarrow PRO$$
$$NP^{VP} \rightarrow PRO, \text{ etc.}$$



Addressing the independence problem

Node-splitting via **parent annotation** allows different probabilities to be assigned e.g. to the rules

$$NP^S \rightarrow PRO, \quad NP^{VP} \rightarrow PRO$$

However, too much node-splitting can mean not enough data to obtain realistic rule probabilities, unless we have an enormous training corpus.

There are even algorithms that try to identify the optimal amount of node-splitting for a given training set!

Problem 2: Ignoring Lexical Information

$S \rightarrow NP VP$	$N \rightarrow sack \mid bin \mid \dots$
$NP \rightarrow NNS \mid NN$	$NNS \rightarrow students$
$VP \rightarrow VBD NP \mid VBD NP PP$	$V \rightarrow dumped \mid spotted$
$PP \rightarrow P NP$	$DT \rightarrow a \mid the$
$NP \rightarrow DT NN$	$P \rightarrow in$

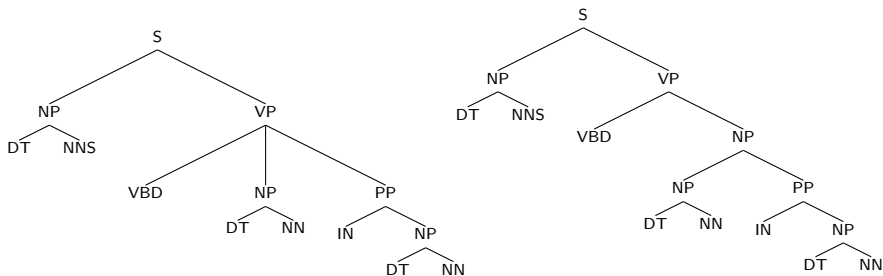
Consider the sentences:

- (3) a. The students dumped the sack in the bin.
b. The students spotted the flaw in the plan.

Because rules for rewriting non-terminals ignore word tokens until the very end, let's consider these simply as strings of POS tags:

- (4) **DT NNS VBD DT NN IN DT NN**

Problem 2: Ignoring Lexical Information



Which do we want for *The students dumped the sack in the bin*?

Which for *The students spotted the flaw in the plan*?

The most appropriate analysis depends in part on the **actual words** occurring. The word *dumped*, implying motion, is more likely to have an associated prepositional phrase than *spotted*.

Lexicalized PCFGs

A PCFG can be lexicalised by associating a word with every non-terminal in the grammar.

It is **head-lexicalised** if the word is the head of the constituent described by the non-terminal.

Each non-terminal has a **head** that determines syntactic properties of phrase (e.g., which other phrases it can combine with).

Example

Noun Phrase (NP): Noun

Adjective Phrase (AP): Adjective

Verb Phrase (VP): Verb

Prepositional Phrase (PP): Preposition

Lexicalization

We can lexicalize a PCFG by annotating each non-terminal with its **head word**, starting with the terminals – replacing

VP	→	VBD NP PP	VP	→	VBD NP
NP	→	DT NN	NP	→	NP PP
NP	→	NNS	PP	→	P NP

with rules such as

VP(dumped)	→	V(dumped) NP(sack) PP(in)
VP(spotted)	→	V(spotted) NP(flaw) PP(in)
VP(dumped)	→	V(dumped) NP(sack)
VP(spotted)	→	V(spotted) NP(flaw)
NP(flaw)	→	DT(the) NN(flaw)
PP(in)	→	P(in) NP(bin)
PP(in)	→	P(in) NP(plan)

Head Lexicalization

In principle, each of these rules can now have its own probability. But that would mean a ridiculous expansion in the set of grammar rules, with no parsed corpus large enough to estimate their probabilities accurately.

Instead we just lexicalize the **head** of phrase:

VP(dumped)	→	V(dumped) NP PP
VP(spotted)	→	V(spotted) NP PP
VP(dumped)	→	V(dumped) NP
VP(spotted)	→	V(spotted) NP
NP(flaw)	→	DT NN(flaw)
PP(in)	→	P(in) NP

Such grammars are called **lexicalized PCFGs** or, alternatively, **probabilistic lexicalized CFGs**.

Head Lexicalization

For lexicalized PCFGs, rule probabilities can be reasonably estimated from a corpus.

In the simplest version, the lexicalized rules are supplemented by **head selection rules**, whose probabilities can also be estimated from a corpus:

VP → VP(dumped)
VP → VP(spotted)
NP → NP(sack)
NP → NP(flaw)
PP → PP(in)

Combining approaches

We can also combine the ideas of **head lexicalization** with **parent annotation**, leading to rules like

$$\begin{aligned} NP^{VP(dumped)} &\rightarrow NP(sack)^{VP(dumped)} \\ NP^{VP(spotted)} &\rightarrow NP(flaw)^{VP(spotted)} \\ PP^{VP(dumped)} &\rightarrow PP(in)^{VP(dumped)} \end{aligned}$$

The probabilities for such rules can be used to take account of commonly occurring **word combinations**, e.g. of verb-object or verb-preposition. These include **long-distance** correlations invisible to **N-gram** technology.

Grammars with these doubly-lexicalized rules are still feasible, given enough training data. This is roughly the idea behind the **Collins parser** (not covered here).