# CMPT-413 Computational Linguistics

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# Writing a grammar for natural language: Grammar Development

- Grammar development is the process of writing a grammar for a particular language
- This can be either for a particular application or concentrating on a particular phenomena in the language under consideration
- Check against text corpora to check the coverage of your grammar – to do this you need a parser
- Also consider generalizations provided by a linguistic analysis

# Real Grammars get Messy

- Consider the grammar development using CFGs for the ATIS Corpus
- To capture all the morphological details which affect the syntax, the CFG ends up with rules like:

| S - | $\rightarrow$ | 3sgAux 3sgNP VP |
|-----|---------------|-----------------|
|-----|---------------|-----------------|

- $S \rightarrow Non3sgAux Non3sgNP VP$
- $3sgAux \rightarrow does | has | can | \dots$
- Non3sgAux  $\rightarrow$  do | have | can | ...

# Real Grammars get Messy

- This is to deal with sentences like:
  - 1. Do I get dinner on this flight ? (1sg = 1st person singular)
  - Do you have a flight from Boston to Fort Worth ? (2sg = 2nd person singular)
  - 3. Does he visit Toronto ? (3sg = 3rd person singular)
  - Does Delta fly from Atlanta to San Diego ? (3sg = 3rd person singular)
  - 5. Do they visit Toronto ? (3pl = 3rd person plural)

# Real Grammars get Messy

- Not just grammatical features but also subcategorization (what kind of arguments does a verb expect?):
  - $VP \rightarrow Verb$ -with-NP-complement NP "prefer a morning flight"
  - $VP \rightarrow Verb$ -with-S-complement S "said there were two flights"
  - $VP \rightarrow Verb$ -with-Inf-VP-complement VPinf "try to book a flight"
  - $VP \rightarrow Verb$ -with-no-complement "disappear"

# Solution to non-terminal and rule blowup: Feature Structures

- Feature structures provide a natural way to provide complex information with each non-terminal. In some formalisms, the non-terminal is replaced with feature structures, resulting in a potentially infinite set of non-terminals.
- Feature structures are also known as f-structures, feature bundles, feature matrices, functional structures, terms (as in Prolog), or dags (directed acyclic graphs)

#### Feature Structures

- A *feature structure* is defined as a partial function from features to their values.
- For instance, we can define a function mapping the feature number onto the value singular and mapping person to third. The common notation for this function is:

```
number: singular
person: 3
```

Feature values can themselves be feature structures:

cat: NP agreement: number: singular person: 3

#### **Feature Structures**

Consider features f and g with two distinct feature structure values of the same type:

$$\begin{bmatrix} f: [h: a] \\ g: [h: a] \end{bmatrix}$$

#### Feature Structures

Feature structures can also share values. For instance, g shares the same value as f in:

The shared value is written using a co-indexation – indicating that the value is stored only once, with the index acting as a pointer.

#### Feature Path Notation

The feature structure:

```
agreement:1number:sgperson:3subject:agreement:1
```

is represented as:

```
<agreement number>=sg
<agreement person>=3
<subject agreement>=<agreement>
```

or:

```
[ agreement = (1) [ number = 'sg', person = 3 ],
subject = [ agreement->(1) ] ]
or:
[ agreement = ?n [ number = 'sg', person = 3 ],
```

```
subject = [ agreement = ?n ] ]
```

- Feature structures have different amounts of information. Can we find an ordering on feature structures that corresponds to the compatibility and relative specificity of the information contained in them.
- Subsumption is a precise method of defining such an ordering over feature structures.

Consider the feature structure:

$$D_{np} = [cat: NP]$$

Compare with the feature structure:

- D<sub>np</sub> makes the claim that a phrase is a noun phrase, but leaves open the question of what the agreement properties of this noun phrase are.
- D<sub>np3sg</sub> also contains information about a noun phrase, but makes the agreement properties specific.
- The feature structure D<sub>np</sub> is said to carry less information than, or to be more general than, or to subsume the feature structure D<sub>np3sg</sub>

|                               | D <sub>np3sgSbj</sub> =     |
|-------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| $D_{var} = U$                 | cat: NP                     |
| $D_{np} = [cat: NP]$          | agreement: number: singular |
| D <sub>npsg</sub> =           | person: 3                   |
| cat: NP                       | subject: [number: singular] |
| agreement: [number: singular] | [subject. person: 3         |
| D <sub>np3sq</sub> =          | D' <sub>np3sgSbj</sub> =    |
| [cat: NP ]                    | cat: NP                     |
| [number: singular]            | agreement:                  |
| agreement: person: 3          | person: 3                   |
| L                             | subject: 1                  |

► The following subsumption relations hold:
D<sub>var</sub> ⊆ D<sub>np</sub> ⊆ D<sub>npsg</sub> ⊆ D<sub>np3sg</sub> ⊆ D<sub>np3sgSbj</sub> ⊆ D'<sub>np3sgSbj</sub>

Two feature structures might have different and incompatible information:

```
[cat: NP
agreement: [number: singular]
[cat: NP
agreement: [number: plural]
```

In this case, there is no feature structure that is subsumed by both feature structures

- Subsumption is only a partial order that is, not every two feature structures are in a subsumption relation with each other.
- Two feature structures might have different but compatible information:

If two feature structures have different but compatible information then there always exists a more specific feature structure that is subsumed by both feature structures:

But there are many feature structures subsumed by both of the original feature structures:

```
cat: NP
agreement: number: singular
person: 3
gender: masculine
```

- So instead of considering all such feature structures we only consider the most general FS that is subsumed by the two original FSs
- This definition provides a feature structure that contains information from both input FSs but no additional information.

- Now we can define unification
- The unification of two feature structures D' and D" is defined as the most general feature structure D such that D' ⊑ D and D" ⊑ D.
- ► This operation of unification is denoted as  $D = D' \sqcup D$ "

$$[] \bigsqcup [cat: NP] = [cat: NP]$$

$$\left[ \text{person: sg} \right] \sqcup \left[ \text{number: 3} \right] = \left[ \begin{array}{c} \text{person: sg} \\ \text{number: 3} \end{array} \right]$$

agreement: [number: sg] subject: [agreement: [number: sg]] subject: agreement: person: 3 

 agreement:
 number: sg

 subject:
 agreement:
 number: sg

 person:
 3

$$\begin{bmatrix} agreement: 1 \\ number: sg \end{bmatrix} \bigsqcup \left[ subject: agreement: person: 3 \end{bmatrix} \right] = \\ subject: agreement: 1 \\ agreement: 1 \\ number: sg \\ person: 3 \\ subject: agreement: 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Algorithms for Unification

- Represent input feature structure as a directed acyclic graph (dag). Unification is equivalent to the **union-find** algorithm.
- Unification is more efficient if it can be destructive: it destroys the input feature structures to create the result of unification.
- The (destructive) unification algorithm in J&M (page 423) does it in two steps: represent feature structures as dags, and then perform graph matching (and merging)
- Note that this algorithm can produce as output a dag (i.e. a feature structure) containing cycles.

A feature structure can have part of itself as a subpart:

[f: 1]g:[h: 1]]

- This can be avoided with an explicit check for each call to the unify algorithm called the occur check.
- Computationally expensive since we have to traverse the whole dag at each step

#### Feature Structures in CFGs

Feature Structures impose constraints on CFG derivations:



- This CFG derives: he saw him but not: \*him saw he
- Also derives: John saw him, he saw John.
- Co-indexing in each FS is local to each CFG rule.

#### Feature Structures in CFGs

A more complex example for encoding subcategorization as feature structures:



#### Feature Structures in CFGs

- In the above example, the CFG can generate an arbitrary number of NPs in the subcat feature structure for the verb.
- ▶ In effect, the above steps of unification in a CFG derivation creates a list containing the subcat elements. The subcat feature structure uses **first** and **rest** to construct the list in the recursive rule  $VP \rightarrow VP X$ .
- The lexical terminal Verb can impose a constraint on which subcat frame is required.
- Other categories can be added simply by adding a new cat attribute for X: e.g. [cat: S] for verbs that can have a subcat of NP S.

#### **Unification Algorithm**

```
function unify(f1, f2):
 returns f-structure or failure
 if f1.content == null: f1.pointer = f2
 if f2.content == null: f2.pointer = f1
 if f1.content == f2.content: f1.pointer = f2
 if f1.content and f2.content are complex f-structures:
      f2.pointer = f1
      for each f in f2.content:
          other-feature = find or create feature
              corresponding to f in f1.content
          if unify(f, other-feature) == failure:
              return failure
  return f1
```

- ▶ predictor: if  $(A \to \alpha \bullet B \beta, [i, j], \text{dag}_{A_1})$  then  $\forall (B \to \gamma, \text{dag}_{B_1})$ enqueue $((B \to \bullet \gamma, [j, j], \text{dag}_{B_1}), \text{chart}[j])$
- ▶ scanner: if  $(A \to \alpha \bullet a \beta, [i, j], \text{dag}_{A_1})$  and a = tokens[j] then enqueue( $(A \to \alpha a \bullet \beta, [i, j + 1], \text{dag}_{A_1})$ , chart[j + 1])
- ► completer: if  $(B \to \gamma \bullet, [j, k], \text{dag}_{B_1})$ , for each  $(A \to \alpha \bullet B \beta, [i, j], \text{dag}_{A_1})$ enqueue $((A \to \alpha B \bullet \gamma, [i, k], \text{copy-and-unify}(\text{dag}_{A_1}, \text{dag}_{B_1}))$ , chart[k]) unless copy-and-unify $(\text{dag}_{A_1}, \text{dag}_{B_1})$  fails
- copy-and-unify means that we make copies of the dags before unification because we are using a destructive unification algorithm
- copy-and-unify ensures that dag A₁ in state (A → α • B β, [i, j], dag<sub>A₁</sub>) is not destroyed since it can be used in the completer with other states and unify with them.

• Consider two different enqueue requests: enqueue( $(A \rightarrow \alpha B \bullet \gamma, [i, k], \text{dag}_{A_1})$ , chart[k]) enqueue( $(A \rightarrow \alpha B \bullet \gamma, [i, k], \text{dag}_{A_2})$ , chart[k])

► Consider the case where:  

$$dag_{A_1} = [tense: past | plural] and$$
  
 $dag_{A_2} = [tense: past]$   
Clearly,  $dag_{A_1} \sqsubseteq dag_{A_2}$ 

- Which feature structure should be selected after the two enqueue commands above?
   Three options: dag<sub>A1</sub>, dag<sub>A2</sub>, dag<sub>A1</sub> ⊔ dag<sub>A2</sub>
- In general, the feature inserted should subsume both dag<sub>A1</sub> and dag<sub>A2</sub>
- In practice exactly one of the following conditions is always true:
  - If  $dag_{A_1} \sqsubseteq dag_{A_2}$  then enqueue picks  $dag_{A_1}$ ,
  - If  $dag_{A_2} \sqsubseteq dag_{A_1}$  then enqueue picks  $dag_{A_2}$ .
  - If  $dag_{A_1} \not\sqsubseteq dag_{A_2}$  and  $dag_{A_2} \not\sqsubseteq dag_{A_1}$  then enqueue picks  $dag_{A_1} \sqcup dag_{A_2}$

- During the enqueue of a state, we always pick the most general feature structure possible.
- To see why consider an example:
  - Consider a chart which contains the state:  $S_1 = (NP \rightarrow \bullet DT NP, [i, i], dag_{S_1} = [])$
  - The parser then tries to enqueue a new state:

$$S_2 = (NP \rightarrow \bullet DT NP, [i, i], dag_{S_2} = [DT.num = sing])$$

- Consider two possible situations:
  - 1. a singular DT is scanned, then either  $dag_{S_1}$  or  $dag_{S_2}$  would unify and parsing would continue.
  - 2. a plural DT is scanned, then if we picked  $dag_{S_2}$  we have a unification failure; on the other hand picking the more general feature structure  $dag_{S_1}$  allows parsing to continue.
- So, if there are two possible ways to derive a span, then the most general feature structure is the one we must choose.

#### Summary

- Feature structures generalize the notion of non-terminals in a grammar.
- Complex morphological details can be encoded into a feature structure.
- Feature structures can have shared or co-referential parts.
- Feature structures can implement arbitrary lists (the notation is very computationally powerful).
- Unification provides a means to combine the information in two feature structures.
- Feature structures can be used in a context-free grammar, and
- Unification is done while parsing to ensure that the constraints specified in the features are not violated.