

Knowledge Representation

Models to represent Linguistic Knowledge

- We will use certain *models to represent the required linguistic knowledge.*
- **State Machines** -- FSAs, FSTs, HMMs, ATNs, RTNs
- **Formal Rule Systems** -- Context Free Grammars, Unification Grammars, Probabilistic CFGs.
- Other common representational formalisms:
 - first order predicate logic
 - conceptual dependency graphs
 - semantic networks
 - Frame-based representations

Difficulty in NLP understanding

- arises from:
- Natural language is extremely **rich** in form and structure:
 - How to represent meaning,
 - Which structures map to which meaning structures.
- Natural language is **very ambiguous**. One input can mean many different things. Ambiguity can be at different levels.
 - Phonics Level: different meaning for the same sound
 - Lexical (word level) ambiguity -- different meanings of words
 - Syntactic ambiguity -- different ways to parse the sentence
 - Interpreting partial information -- how to interpret pronouns
 - Contextual information -- context of the sentence may affect the meaning of that sentence.

Speech Recognition - Complications

- No simple mapping between sounds and words
 - Variance in pronunciation due to gender, dialect, ...
 - Restriction to handle just one speaker
 - Same sound corresponding to diff. words
 - e.g. bear, bare
 - Finding gaps between words
 - “how to recognize speech”
 - “how to wreck a nice beach”
 - Noise

Syntactic Analysis: Complications

- Rules of syntax (grammar) specify the possible organization of words in sentences and allows us to determine sentence's structure(s)
 - “John saw Mary with a telescope”
 - John saw (Mary with a telescope)
 - John (saw Mary with a telescope)
 - “fruit flies like a banana”
- Parsing: given a sentence and a grammar
 - Checks that the sentence is correct according to the grammar and if so returns a **parse tree** representing the structure of the sentence

Semantic Analysis – Complications Ambiguous Example

- Some interpretations of : I made her duck

Semantic Analysis – Complications Ambiguous Example

- Some interpretations of : I made her duck
 1. I cooked *duck* for her.
 2. I cooked *duck* belonging to her.
 3. I created a toy duck which she owns.
 4. I caused her to quickly lower her head or body.
 5. I used magic and turned her into a *duck*.
- duck – morphologically and syntactically ambiguous: noun or verb.
- her – syntactically ambiguous: for her/ to her/ her
- make – semantically ambiguous: cook or create.
- make – syntactically ambiguous:
 - Transitive – takes a direct object. => 2
 - Di-transitive – takes two objects. => 5
 - Takes a direct object and a verb. => 4

The derivation of a sentence

- One difficulty, that can add huge complexity to the parsing problem is: Determining which of several applicable rules should be used at any step of the derivation.
- If a wrong choice is made, the parser may fail to recognize a legal sentence.
- The problem of selecting the correct rule at any stage of the parse is handled either by
 - allowing the parser to set backtrack pointers and return if an incorrect choice was made
 - *using* look-ahead to check the input string for features that will help determine the proper rule to apply.

Grammar types

- **Regular:** nonterminal \rightarrow terminal[nonterminal]
S \rightarrow aS
- **Context-free:** nonterminal \rightarrow anything
S \rightarrow aSb
- **Context-sensitive:** more nonterminals on right-hand side
ASB \rightarrow AAaBB
- **Recursively enumerable:** no constraints
Natural languages probably is considered (dealt with as) Context sensitive

Syntactic Processing

- **Parsing** -- converting a flat input sentence into a hierarchical structure that corresponds to the units of meaning in the sentence.
 - There are different parsing formalisms and algorithms.
 - Most formalisms have two main components:
 - **grammar** -- a declarative representation describing the syntactic structure of sentences in the language.
 - **parser** -- an algorithm that analyzes the input and outputs its structural representation (its parse) consistent with the grammar specification.
- CFGs are in the center of many of the parsing mechanisms. But they are complemented by some additional features that make the formalism more suitable to handle natural languages.

Context-free grammars

We will look at the simplest Context-Free Grammars,

`sentence → noun_phrase verb_phrase`

`noun_phrase → proper_name`

`noun_phrase → article noun`

`verb_phrase → verb`

`verb_phrase → verb noun_phrase`

`verb_phrase → verb noun_phrase
prep_phrase`

`verb_phrase → verb prep_phrase`

`prep_phrase → preposition noun_phrase`

Context-free grammars

The still-undefined syntactic units are *preterminals*. They correspond to parts of speech. We can define them by adding lexical productions to the grammar:

article → **the** | **a** | **an**

noun → **pizza** | **bus** | **boys** | ...

preposition → **to** | **on** | ...

proper_name → **Jim** | **Dan** | ...

verb → **ate** | **yawns** | ...

This is not practical on a large scale. Normally, we have a lexicon (dictionary) stored in a database, that can be interfaced with the grammar.

Context-free grammars

Derivation of a sentence:

Sentence →

noun_phrase verb_phrase →

proper_name verb_phrase →

Jim verb_phrase →

Jim verb noun_phrase prep_phrase →

Jim ate noun_phrase prep_phrase →

Jim ate article noun prep_phrase →

Jim ate a noun prep_phrase →

Jim ate a pizza prep_phrase →

Jim ate a pizza preposition noun_phrase →

Jim ate a pizza on noun_phrase →

Jim ate a pizza on article noun →

Jim ate a pizza on the noun →

Jim ate a pizza on the bus

Direction of parsing

In practice, parsing is never “pure”.

- Top-down, enriched: check data early to discard wrong hypotheses (somewhat like recursive-descent parsing in compiler construction).
- Bottom-up, enriched: use productions, suggested by data, to limit choices
- A popular bottom-up analysis method: chart parsing.
- Popular top-down analysis methods:
 - transition networks (used with Lisp),
 - logic grammars (used with Prolog).

Top Down Example.

Consider the following context free grammar

1. Sentence \rightarrow Noun_phrase Verb_phrase
2. Noun_phrase \rightarrow Noun
3. Noun_phrase \rightarrow Article Noun
4. Verb_phrase \rightarrow Verb
5. Verb_phrase \rightarrow Verb Noun_phrase
6. Article \rightarrow a
7. Article \rightarrow the
8. Noun \rightarrow man
9. Noun \rightarrow dog
10. Verb \rightarrow likes
11. Verb \rightarrow bites

The derivation of a sentence

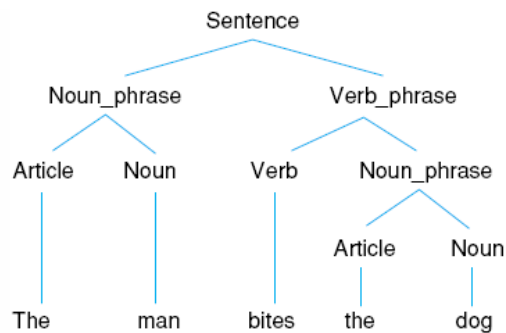
A Top-Down derivation:

<u>String</u>	<u>Rule</u>	
Sentence	1	1. Sentence → Noun_phrase Verb_phrase
Noun_phrase Verb_phrase	3	2. Noun_phrase → Noun
Article Noun Verb_phrase	7	3. Noun_phrase → Article Noun
the Noun Verb_phrase	8	4. Verb_phrase → Verb
the man Verb_phrase	5	5. Verb_phrase → Verb Noun_phrase
the man Verb Noun_phrase	11	6. Article → a
the man bites Noun_phrase	3	7. Article → the
the man bites Article Noun	7	8. Noun → man
the man bites the Noun	9	9. Noun → dog
the man bites the dog		10. Verb → likes
		11. Verb → bites

Do it Bottom-Up

The parse Tree

Parse tree for the sentence "The man bites the dog."



Syntactic Analysis: Complications

John saw Mary in a park with a telescope.

