

# Natural Language Processing

## CSCI 4152/6509 — Lecture 19

### Other Types of Grammars: PCFG, DCG

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Time and date: 14:35 – 15:55, 4-Dec-2025

Location: Studley LSC-Psychology P5260

# Previous Lecture

- Natural language syntax:
  - ▶ phrase structure, clauses, sentences
  - ▶ Parsing, parse tree examples
- Context-Free Grammars review:
  - ▶ formal definition
  - ▶ inducing a grammar from parse trees
  - ▶ derivations, and other notions
- Bracket representation of a parse tree
- Typical phrase structure rules in English:
  - ▶ S, NP, VP, PP, ADJP, ADVP

# Heads and Dependency

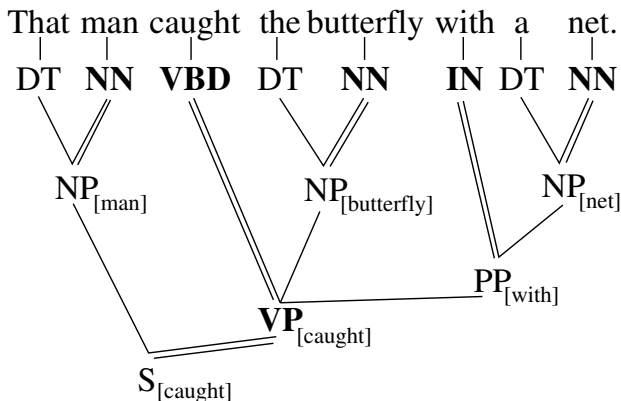
- a phrase typically has a central word called *head*, while other words are direct or indirect *dependents*
- a head is also called a *governor*, although sometimes these concepts are considered somewhat different
- phrases are usually called by their head; e.g., the head of a noun phrase is a noun

# Example with Heads and Dependencies

That man caught the butterfly with a net.

## Example with Heads and Dependencies

- the parse tree of “That man caught the butterfly with a net.”
- annotate dependencies, head words



# Head-feature Principle

- Head Feature Principle:  
It is a principle that a set of characteristic features of a head word are transferred to the containing phrase.
- Examples of annotating head in a context-free rule:

$$NP \rightarrow DT NN_H$$

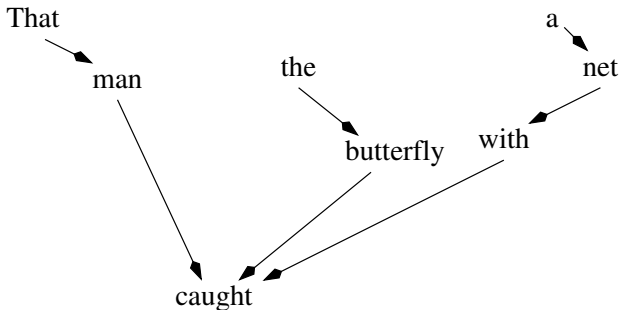
- or

$$[NP] \rightarrow [DT] H[NN]$$

- HPSG—Head-driven Phrase Structure Grammars

# Dependency Tree

- dependency grammar
- example with “That man caught the butterfly with a net.”



# Arguments and Adjuncts

- There are two kinds of dependents:
  - 1 **arguments**, which are required dependents, e.g.,  
We deprived him of food.
  - 2 **adjuncts**, which are not required;
    - ★ they have a “less tight” link to the head, and
    - ★ can be moved around more easily

Example:

We deprived him of food yesterday in the restaurant.

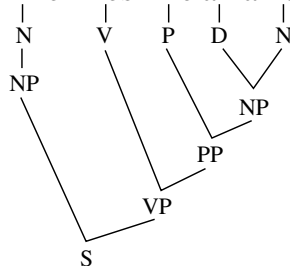


# Probabilistic Context-Free Grammar (PCFG)

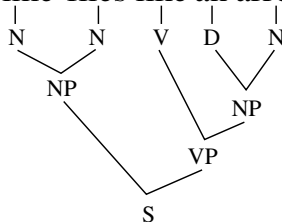
- Reading: Chapters 13 and 14
- also known as Stochastic Context-Free Grammar (SCFG)
- Handles ambiguous trees using a probabilistic model

# Ambiguity Example

Time flies like an arrow.



Time flies like an arrow.



S	→	NP VP	VP	→	V NP	N	→	time	V	→	like
NP	→	N	VP	→	V PP	N	→	arrow	V	→	flies
NP	→	N N	PP	→	P NP	N	→	flies	P	→	like
NP	→	D N				D	→	an			

# PCFG as a Probabilistic Model

- A generative model based on probabilistic derivation, for example:

$$S \Rightarrow NP VP \Rightarrow D N VP \Rightarrow \dots$$

- Each step is probabilistic use of one production

## Probabilistic Context-Free Grammar Example

S	→	NP VP	/1	VP	→	V NP	/.5	N	→	time	/.5
NP	→	N	/.4	VP	→	V PP	/.5	N	→	arrow	/.3
NP	→	N N	/.2	PP	→	P NP	/1	N	→	flies	/.2
NP	→	D N	/.4					D	→	an	/1
V	→	like	/.3								
V	→	flies	/.7								
P	→	like	/1								

- The following condition must be satisfied for each nonterminal  $N$ :

$$\sum_{i=1}^n P(N \rightarrow \alpha_i) = 1$$

# Computational Tasks for PCFG Model

- Evaluation

$$P(\text{tree}) = ?$$

- Generation

- Learning

- Inference

- ▶ Marginalization

$$P(\text{sentence}) = ?$$

- ▶ Conditioning

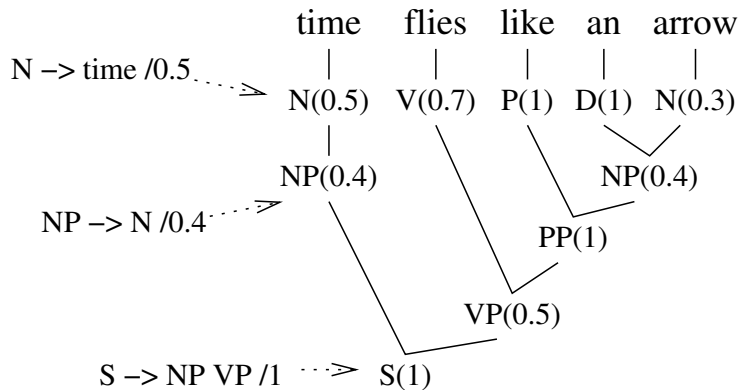
$$P(\text{tree}|\text{sentence}) = ?$$

- ▶ Completion

$$\arg \max_{\text{tree}} P(\text{tree}|\text{sentence})$$

Evaluation example: time flies like an arrow (1st meaning)

## Evaluation

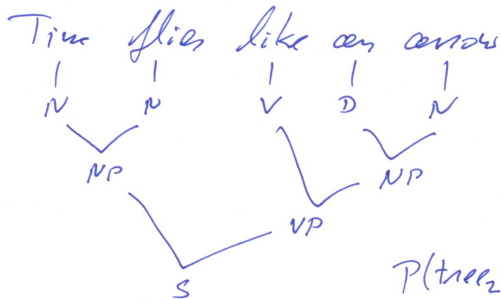


$$P(\text{tree}) = 0.5 \times 0.7 \times 1 \times 1 \times 0.3 \times 0.4 \times 0.4 \times 1 \times 0.5 \times 1 = 0.0084$$

Evaluation example: time flies like an arrow (2nd meaning)



Similarly



$$P(\text{tree}_2) = 0.00036$$

## Generation (sampling)

S  $\Rightarrow$  NP VP  $\Rightarrow$  N VP  $\Rightarrow$  flies VP  $\Rightarrow$  ...

S  $\rightarrow$  NPVP / 1

NP  $\rightarrow$  N / 0.5

N  $\rightarrow$  time / 0.5

NP  $\rightarrow$  NN / 0.2

N  $\rightarrow$  sand / 0.3

NP  $\rightarrow$  DN / 0.4

N  $\rightarrow$  flies / 0.2

- choose rule randomly according to the given distribution

Question: Is the process going to stop?

A: Stops with probability 1 if the grammar is proper.

Good News: A grammar learned from a corpus is always proper.

# Learning and Inference

# Using Prolog to Parse NL

Example: Consider a simple CFG to parse the following two sentences: “the dog runs” and “the dogs run”

The grammar is:

S	->	NP VP	N	->	dog
NP	->	D N	N	->	dogs
D	->	the	VP	->	run
			VP	->	runs

How to parse: the dog runs

# Using Difference Lists: Idea

Consider rule:  $S \rightarrow NP VP$  and sentence [the,dog,runs]

## Using Difference Lists to Parse CFG

The problem of parsing using this grammar can be expressed in the following way in Prolog:

```
s(S,R) :- np(S,I), vp(I, R).
```

```
np(S,R) :- d(S,I), n(I,R).
```

```
d([the|R], R).
```

```
n([dog|R], R).
```

```
n([dogs|R], R).
```

```
vp([run|R], R).
```

```
vp([runs|R], R).
```

# Additional Material

## Parsing using Difference Lists

```
Save this in file parse.prolog. On Prolog prompt we
type: ?- ['parse.prolog'].
% parse.prolog compiled 0.00 sec, 1,888 bytes
```

Yes

```
?- s([the,dog,runs], []).
```

Yes

```
?- s([runs,the,dog], []).
```

No



# Basic Definite Clause Grammar (DCG)

- DCG — Prolog built-in mechanism for parsing

## Example

```
s --> np, vp.  
np --> d, n.  
d --> [the].  
n --> [dog].  
n --> [dogs].  
vp --> [run].  
vp --> [runs].
```

## Building a Parse Tree

A parse tree can be built in the following way:

```
s(s(Tn,Tv)) --> np(Tn), vp(Tv).
```

```
np(np(Td,Tn)) --> d(Td), n(Tn).
```

```
d(d(the)) --> [the].
```

```
n(n(dog)) --> [dog].
```

```
n(n(dogs)) --> [dogs].
```

```
vp(vp(run)) --> [run].
```

```
vp(vp(runs)) --> [runs].
```

At Prolog prompt we type and obtain:

```
?- s(X, [the, dog, runs], []).
```

```
   X = s(np(d(the),n(dog)),vp(runs));
```

## Handling Agreement

$s(s(T_n, T_v)) \quad \rightarrow \quad np(T_n, A), \quad vp(T_v, A).$

$np(np(T_d, T_n), A) \quad \rightarrow \quad d(T_d), \quad n(T_n, A).$

$d(d(\text{the})) \quad \rightarrow \quad [\text{the}].$

$n(n(\text{dog}), \text{sg}) \quad \rightarrow \quad [\text{dog}].$

$n(n(\text{dogs}), \text{pl}) \quad \rightarrow \quad [\text{dogs}].$

$vp(vp(\text{run}), \text{pl}) \quad \rightarrow \quad [\text{run}].$

$vp(vp(\text{runs}), \text{sg}) \quad \rightarrow \quad [\text{runs}].$

This grammar will accept sentences “the dog runs” and “the dogs run” but not “the dog run” and “the dogs runs”. Other phenomena can be modeled in a similar fashion.

## Embedded Code

We can embed additional Prolog code using braces, e.g.:

$$s(T) \quad \text{-->} \quad np(T_n), \quad vp(T_v), \quad \{T = s(T_n, T_v)\}.$$

and so on, is another way of building the parse tree.

## Expressing PCFGs in DCGs

Let us consider the previous example of a PCFG:

S	→	NP VP	/1	VP	→	V NP	/.5	N	→	time	/.5
NP	→	N	/.4	VP	→	V PP	/.5	N	→	arrow	/.3
NP	→	N N	/.2	PP	→	P NP	/1	N	→	flies	/.2
NP	→	D N	/.4					D	→	an	/1
V	→	like	/.3								
V	→	flies	/.7								
P	→	like	/1								

The probabilities can be calculated as an additional argument:

$s(T,P) \rightarrow np(T1,P1), vp(T2,P2),$   
 $\{T = s(T1,T2), P \text{ is } P1 * P2 * 1\}.$   
 $np(T,P) \rightarrow n(T1,P1), \{T = n(T1), P \text{ is } P1 * 0.4\}.$   
and so on.

## Full PCFG Expressed in DCG

```
s(s(Tn,Tv),P) --> np(Tn,P1), vp(Tv,P2), {P is P1 * P2}.
np(np(T),P) --> n(T,P1), {P is P1 * 0.4}.
np(np(T1,T2),P) --> n(T1,P1), n(T2,P2),
                    {P is P1 * P2 * 0.2}.
np(np(Td,Tn),P) --> d(Td,P1), n(Tn,P2),
                    {P is P1 * P2 * 0.4}.
v(v(like), 0.3) --> [like].
v(v(flies), 0.7) --> [flies].
p(p(like), 1.0) --> [like].
vp(vp(Tv,Tn), P) --> v(Tv, P1), np(Tn, P2),
                    {P is P1 * P2 * 0.5}.
vp(vp(Tv,Tp), P) --> v(Tv, P1), pp(Tp, P2),
                    {P is P1 * P2 * 0.5}.
pp(pp(Tp,Tn), P) --> p(Tp, P1), np(Tn, P2),
                    {P is P1 * P2}.
n(n(time), 0.5) --> [time].
n(n(arrow), 0.3) --> [arrow].
```

## Example Run in Prolog Interpreter

```
?- s(T,P,[time,flies,like,an,arrow],[ ]).
```

the interpreter would reply with:  $T = s(np(n(time)),$   
 $vp(v(flies), pp(p(like), np(d(an), n(arrow))))))$

$P = 0.0084$

and after typing ; (semi-colon), we get:  $T = s(np(n(time), n(flies)),$   
 $vp(v(like), np(d(an), n(arrow))))$

$P = 0.00036$

After typing second ';', the interpreter reports 'No' since there are no more parse trees.

# Efficient Inference in PCFG Model

- Using backtracking is not efficient approach
- Chart parsing is an efficient approach
- We will take a look at the CYK chart parsing algorithm



# CYK Chart Parsing Algorithm

- When parsing NLP, there are generally two approaches:
  - 1 Backtracking to find all parse trees
  - 2 Chart parsing
- CYK algorithm: a simple chart parsing algorithm
- CYK: Cocke-Younger-Kasami algorithm
- CYK can be applied only to a CNF grammar

# Chomsky Normal Form

- all rules are in one of the forms:
  - 1  $A \rightarrow BC$ , where  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$  are nonterminals, or
  - 2  $A \rightarrow w$ , where  $A$  is a nonterminal and  $w$  is a terminal
- If a grammar is not in CNF, it can be converted to it

Is the following grammar in CNF?

$S \rightarrow NP VP$	$VP \rightarrow V NP$	$N \rightarrow \text{time}$	$V \rightarrow \text{like}$
$NP \rightarrow N$	$VP \rightarrow V PP$	$N \rightarrow \text{arrow}$	$V \rightarrow \text{flies}$
$NP \rightarrow N N$	$PP \rightarrow P NP$	$N \rightarrow \text{flies}$	$P \rightarrow \text{like}$
$NP \rightarrow D N$		$D \rightarrow \text{an}$	

How about this grammar? (Is it in CNF?)

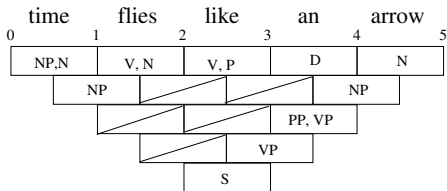
S	→	NP VP	VP	→	V NP	N	→	time	V	→	like
NP	→	time	VP	→	V PP	N	→	arrow	V	→	flies
NP	→	N N	PP	→	P NP	N	→	flies	P	→	like
NP	→	D N				D	→	an			

## CYK Example: time flies like an arrow

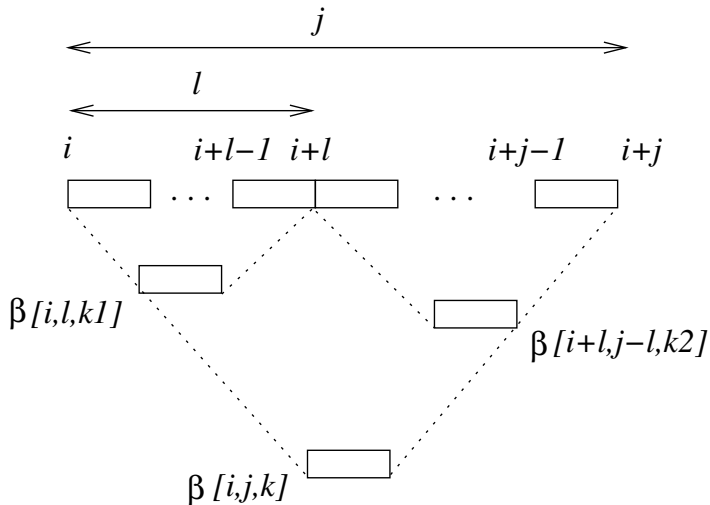
## CYK Example

The following grammar in CNF is given:

$S \rightarrow NP VP$	$VP \rightarrow V NP$	$N \rightarrow \text{time}$	$V \rightarrow \text{like}$
$NP \rightarrow \text{time}$	$VP \rightarrow V PP$	$N \rightarrow \text{arrow}$	$V \rightarrow \text{flies}$
$NP \rightarrow N N$	$PP \rightarrow P NP$	$N \rightarrow \text{flies}$	$P \rightarrow \text{like}$
$NP \rightarrow D N$		$D \rightarrow \text{an}$	



# Explanation of Index Use in CYK



## CYK Algorithm

**Require:** sentence =  $w_1 \dots w_n$ , and a CFG in CNF with nonterminals

$N^1 \dots N^m$ ,

$N^1$  is the start symbol

**Ensure:** parsed sentence

- 1: allocate matrix  $\beta \in \{0, 1\}^{n \times n \times m}$  and initialize all entries to 0
- 2: **for**  $i \leftarrow 1$  to  $n$  **do**
- 3:     **for all** rules  $N^k \rightarrow w_i$  **do**
- 4:          $|\beta[i, 1, k] \leftarrow 1$
- 5: **for**  $j \leftarrow 2$  to  $n$  **do**
- 6:     **for**  $i \leftarrow 1$  to  $n - j + 1$  **do**
- 7:         **for**  $l \leftarrow 1$  to  $j - 1$  **do**
- 8:             **for all** rules  $N^k \rightarrow N^{k_1} N^{k_2}$  **do**
- 9:                  $|\beta[i, j, k] \leftarrow \beta[i, j, k]$  OR  $(\beta[i, l, k_1]$  AND  $\beta[i + l, j - l, k_2])$
- 10: **return**  $\beta[1, n, 1]$

## Efficient Inference in PCFG Model

- consider marginalization task:  
 $P(\text{sentence}) = ?$
- or:  $P(\text{sentence}) = P(w_1 w_2 \dots w_n | S)$
- One way to compute:

$$P(\text{sentence}) = \sum_{t \in T} P(t),$$

- Likely inefficient; need a parsing algorithm



## Efficient PCFG Marginalization

- Idea: adapt CYK algorithm to store marginal probabilities
- Replace algorithm line:

$$\beta[i, j, k] \leftarrow \beta[i, j, k] \text{ OR } (\beta[i, l, k_1] \text{ AND } \beta[i + l, j - l, k_2])$$

with

$$\beta[i, j, k] \leftarrow \beta[i, j, k] + P(N^k \rightarrow N^{k_1} N^{k_2}) \cdot \beta[i, l, k_1] \cdot \beta[i + l, j - l, k_2]$$

- and the first-chart-row line:

$$\beta[i, 1, k] \leftarrow 1$$

with

$$\beta[i, 1, k] \leftarrow P(N^k \rightarrow w_i)$$

## Probabilistic CYK for Marginalization

**Require:** sentence =  $w_1 \dots w_n$ , and a PCFG in CNF with nonterminals  $N^1 \dots N^m$ ,  $N^1$  is the start symbol

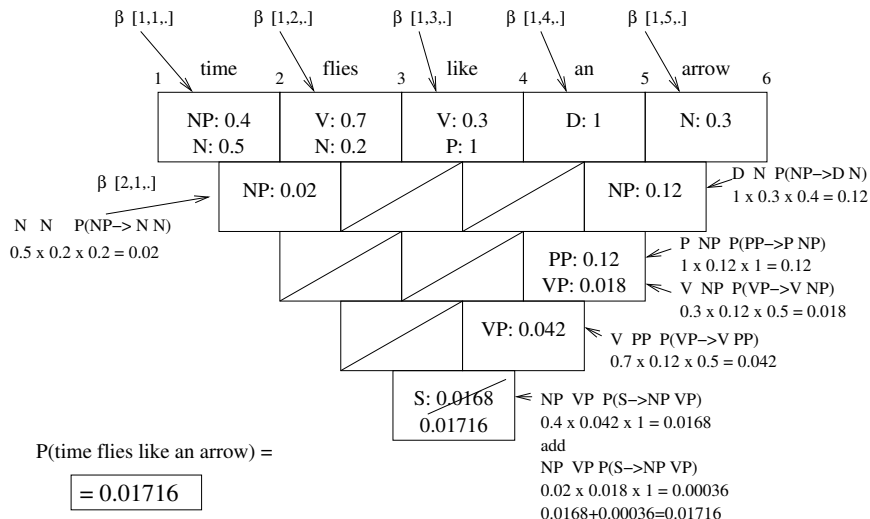
**Ensure:**  $P(\text{sentence})$  is returned

```
1: allocate  $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n \times m}$  and initialize all entries to 0
2: for  $i \leftarrow 1$  to  $n$  do
3:   for all rules  $N^k \rightarrow w_i$  do
4:      $|\beta[i, 1, k] \leftarrow P(N^k \rightarrow w_i)$ 
5:   for  $j \leftarrow 2$  to  $n$  do
6:     for  $i \leftarrow 1$  to  $n - j + 1$  do
7:       for  $l \leftarrow 1$  to  $j - 1$  do
8:         for all rules  $N^k \rightarrow N^{k_1} N^{k_2}$  do
9:            $|\beta[i, j, k] \leftarrow \beta[i, j, k] +$ 
              $|\beta[i, l, k_1] \cdot \beta[i + l, j - l, k_2]$ 
10: return  $\beta[1, n, 1]$ 
```

## PCFG Marginalization Example (grammar)

S	→	NP VP	/1	VP	→	V NP	/.5	N	→	time	/.5
NP	→	time	/.4	VP	→	V PP	/.5	N	→	arrow	/.3
NP	→	N N	/.2	PP	→	P NP	/1	N	→	flies	/.2
NP	→	D N	/.4					D	→	an	/1
V	→	like	/.3								
V	→	flies	/.7								
P	→	like	/1								

# PCFG Marginalization Example (chart)



# Conditioning

- Conditioning in the PCFG model:  $P(\text{tree}|\text{sentence})$
- Use the formula:

$$P(\text{tree}|\text{sentence}) = \frac{P(\text{tree}, \text{sentence})}{P(\text{sentence})} = \frac{P(\text{tree})}{P(\text{sentence})}$$

- $P(\text{tree})$  — directly evaluated
- $P(\text{sentence})$  — marginalization

# Completion

- Finding the most likely parse tree of a sentence:

$$\arg \max_{\text{tree}} P(\text{tree}|\text{sentence})$$

- Use the CYK algorithm in which line 9 is replaced with:

$$9: \beta[i, j, k] \leftarrow \max(\beta[i, j, k], P(N^k \rightarrow N^{k_1} N^{k_2}) \cdot \beta[i, l, k_1] \cdot \beta[i + l, j - l, k_2])$$

- Return the most likely tree

## CYK-based Completion Algorithm

**Require:** sentence =  $w_1 \dots w_n$ , and a PCFG in CNF with nonterminals  $N^1 \dots N^m$ ,  $N^1$  is the start symbol

**Ensure:** The most likely parse tree is returned

```
1: allocate  $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n \times m}$  and initialize all entries to 0
2: for  $i \leftarrow 1$  to  $n$  do
3:   for all rules  $N^k \rightarrow w_i$  do
4:      $|\beta[i, 1, k] \leftarrow P(N^k \rightarrow w_i)$ 
5:   for  $j \leftarrow 2$  to  $n$  do
6:     for  $i \leftarrow 1$  to  $n - j + 1$  do
7:       for  $l \leftarrow 1$  to  $j - 1$  do
8:         for all rules  $N^k \rightarrow N^{k_1} N^{k_2}$  do
9:            $|\beta[i, j, k] \leftarrow \max(\beta[i, j, k], P(N^k \rightarrow$   

            $N^{k_1} N^{k_2}) \cdot \beta[i, l, k_1] \cdot \beta[i + l, j - l, k_2])$ 
10: return Reconstruct( $1, n, 1, \beta$ )
```

## Algorithm: Reconstruct( $i, j, k, \beta$ )

**Require:**  $\beta$  — table from CYK,  $i$  — index of the first word,  $j$  — length of sub-string sentence,  $k$  — index of non-terminal

**Ensure:** a most probable tree with root  $N^k$  and leaves  $w_i \dots w_{i+j-1}$  is returned

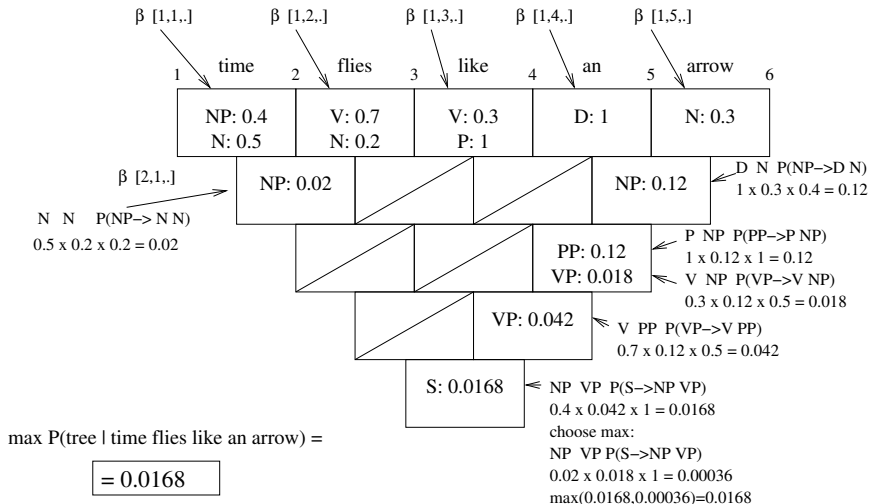
```
1: if  $j = 1$  then
2:   return tree with root  $N^k$  and child  $w_i$ 
3: for  $l \leftarrow 1$  to  $j - 1$  do
4:   for all rules  $N^k \rightarrow N^{k_1} N^{k_2}$  do
5:     if
6:        $\beta[i, j, k] = P(N^k \rightarrow N^{k_1} N^{k_2}) \cdot \beta[i, l, k_1] \cdot \beta[i + l, j - l, k_2]$ 
7:       then
8:         create a tree  $t$  with root  $N^k$ 
9:          $t.left\_child \leftarrow$  Reconstruct( $i, l, k_1, \beta$ )
10:         $t.right\_child \leftarrow$  Reconstruct( $i + l, j - l, k_2, \beta$ )
11:        return  $t$ 
```



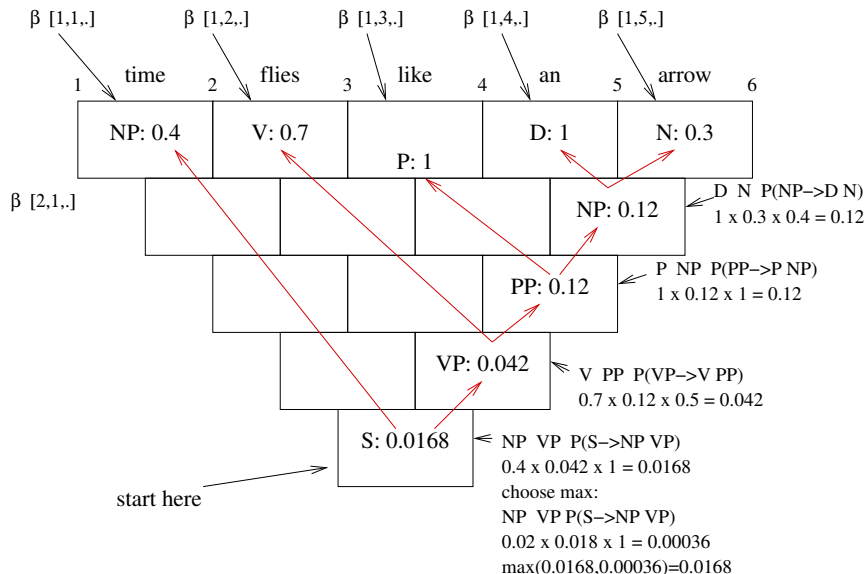
## PCFG Completion Example (grammar)

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NP	→	D N	/.4					D	→	an	/1
V	→	like	/.3								
V	→	flies	/.7								
P	→	like	/1								

# PCFG Completion Example (chart)

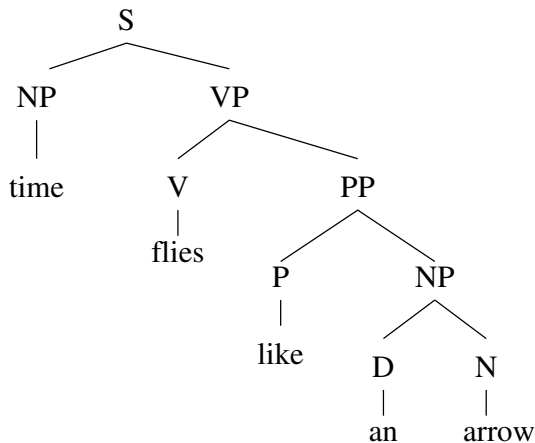


# PCFG Completion Example (tree reconstruction)



## PCFG Completion Example (final tree)

The most probable three:



# Issues with PCFGs

- 1 Structural dependencies
  - ▶ Dependency on position in a tree
  - ▶ Example: consider rules  $NP \rightarrow PRP$  and  $NP \rightarrow DT NN$
  - ▶ PRP is more likely as a subject than an object
  - ▶ NL parse trees are usually deeper on their right side
- 2 Lexical dependencies
  - ▶ Example: PP-attachment problem
  - ▶ In a PCFG, decided using probabilities for higher level rules; e.g.,  $NP \rightarrow NP PP$ ,  $VP \rightarrow VBD NP$ , and  $VP \rightarrow VBD NP PP$
  - ▶ Actually, they frequently depend on the actual words

# PP-Attachment Example

- Consider sentences:
  - ▶ “Workers dumped sacks into a bin.” and
  - ▶ “Workers dumped sacks of fish.”
- and rules:
  - ▶ NP  $\rightarrow$  NP PP
  - ▶ VP  $\rightarrow$  VBD NP
  - ▶ VP  $\rightarrow$  VBD NP PP

# A Solution: Probabilistic Lexicalized CFGs

- use heads of phrases
- expanded set of rules, e.g.:  
VP(dumped)  $\rightarrow$  VBD(dumped) NP(sacks) PP(into)
- large number of new rules
- sparse data problem
- solution: new independence assumptions
- proposed solutions by Charniak, Collins, etc. around 1999