Introduction to Computational Linguistics

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Part I

Introduction

Computational Linguistics

Wiebke Petersen

Т	he	dis	pli	ne	

Outline



2 Applications



Common names

- Computational Linguistics (CL)
- Natural Language Processing (NLP)
- Language Engineering
- Human Language Technology (HLT)

The discipline ⊙●⊙⊙	Applications 0000000	Language

computational linguistics (broad sense): interdisciplinary research field (between linguistics and computer science) which develops concrete algorithms for natural language processing (machine translation, machine speech recognition ...)

computational linguistics (narrow sense): discipline in modern linguistics which develops, implements and investigates computational models of human language.

Theoretical CL (Uszkoreit: What is CL?)

- Theoretical CL takes up issues in theoretical linguistics and cognitive science.
- It deals with formal theories about the linguistic knowledge that a human needs for generating and understanding language
- Computational linguists develop formal models simulating aspects of the human language faculty and implement them as computer programmes.

Applied CL (Uszkoreit: What is CL?)

- Applied CL focusses on the practical outcome of modeling human language use. (other terms: HLT, NLP)
- The goal is to create software products that have some knowledge of human language.
- Such products are going to change our lives. They are urgently needed for improving human-machine interaction since the main obstacle in the interaction between human and computer is a communication problem, the use of human language can increase the acceptance of software and the productivity of its users.

The discipline	Applications • 000000	Language

advanced NLP applications

- dialogue systems / conversational agents
 - simplifies human-computer interaction
- machine translation
 - simplifies human-human interaction
- question answering
 - simplifies usage of the web

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simpler NLP applications

- spell checking
- grammar checking
- word count

The discipline

machine translation



state of the art

http://translate.google.com/translate_t

- source Computational linguistics is an interdisciplinary field dealing with the statistical and rule-based modeling of natural language from a computational perspective.
- target Datorlingvistika ir starpdisciplinārā jomā nodarbojas ar statistikas un uz likumu balstītas modelēšanas dabas valodu no skaitlošanas viedokla.

machine translation

The discipline

Lidziga sun you bring us days, Wisdom verige long you provide. Celdamas itself ever higher, People put you in higher take off.

Latvia and the Latvian celebrity prettiness, Arts and the Knowledge refuge there. Unfamiliar to the oak trees indefinitely showing no All as the eternal fire.

The discipline

Applications

Language

machine translation

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Anthem "Latvijas Universitatei"

Lidziga saulei Tu atnes mums dienu, Gudribu verigiem gariem Tu sniedz. Celdamas augstaku pati arvienu, Tautai Tu augstaku pacelties liec. Latvijas slava un Latvijas

glitums, Makslam un zinibam patverums tur. Svess lai, ka ozoliem muzigiem, vitums Visiem, kas muzigu uguni kur.





Welsh text reads: "I am not in the office at the moment. Send any work to be translated."

question answering



possible questions

- What does "divergent" mean?
- What year was Abraham Lincoln born?
- How many states were in the United States that year?
- What do scientists think about the ethics of human cloning?
- What is the connection between CL and NLP?
- Who is the rector of the university of Riga?
- How far is Berlin from Riga?
- What kind of language is Latvian?

The discipline

Applications

Language

conversational agents







conversational agents



Interaction with HAL 9000 the computer in Stanley Kubrick's film "2001: A Space Odyssey":

- Dave Bowman: Open the pod bay doors, HAL.
- HAL: I'm sorry Dave, I'm afraid I can't do that.

required language knowledge

- speech recognition
- natural language understanding
- natural language generation
- speech synthesis

http://www-306.ibm.com/software/pervasive/tech/demos/tts.shtml

Knowledge needed to build HAL?

Speech recognition and synthesis

- Dictionaries (how words are pronounced)
- Phonetics (how to recognize/produce each sound of English)
- Natural language understanding
 - Knowledge of the English words involved
 - What they mean
 - How they combine (what is a `pod bay door'?)
 - Knowledge of syntactic structure
 - I'm I do, Sorry that afraid Dave I'm can't

What's needed?

Dialog and pragmatic knowledge

- "open the door" is a REQUEST (as opposed to a STATEMENT or information-question)
- It is polite to respond, even if you're planning to kill someone.
- It is polite to pretend to want to be cooperative (I'm afraid, I can't...)
- What is `that' in `I can't do that'?
- Even a system to book airline flights needs much of this kind of knowledge

fascination language

- Language is an ability which is special to humans
- Humans are able to express and understand complex thoughts in seconds.
- Children are able to learn language within a few years.



Riga 2008













sound waves

activation of concepts

Riga 2008





Th oc	e discipline 00	Applications	Language ○●○
	complexity of language		
	 Latvian, German, English, 6 	Chinese,	

The discipline	Applications	Language
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- Latvian, German, English, Chinese, ...
- vague, ambiguous,

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 - lexical ambiguities (call me tomorrow the call of the beast)

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 - structural ambiguities:



ullet the woman sees the man with the binoculars $oldsymbol{\lambda}$

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- only experts: humans
- natural languages develop

Ambiguity

Find at least 5 meanings of this sentence:

I made her duck

Ambiguity

- Find at least 5 meanings of this sentence:
 - I made her duck
- I cooked waterfowl for her benefit (to eat)
- I cooked waterfowl belonging to her
- I created the (plaster?) duck she owns
- I caused her to quickly lower her head or body
- I waved my magic wand and turned her into undifferentiated waterfowl
- At least one other meaning that's inappropriate for gentle company.

Ambiguity is Pervasive

- I caused her to quickly lower her head or body
 - Lexical category: "duck" can be a N or V
- I cooked waterfowl belonging to her.
 - Lexical category: "her" can be a possessive ("of her") or dative ("for her") pronoun
- I made the (plaster) duck statue she owns
 - Lexical Semantics: "make" can mean "create" or "cook"

Ambiguity is Pervasive

Grammar: Make can be:

- Transitive: (verb has a noun direct object)
 - I cooked [waterfowl belonging to her]
- Ditransitive: (verb has 2 noun objects)
 - I made [her] (into) [undifferentiated waterfowl]
- Action-transitive (verb has a direct object and another verb)
- I caused [her] [to move her body]
Ambiguity is Pervasive

Phonetics!

- I mate or duck
- I'm eight or duck
- Eye maid; her duck
- Aye mate, her duck
- I maid her duck
- I'm aid her duck
- I mate her duck
- I'm ate her duck
- I'm ate or duck
- I mate or duck

Exercise: Introduction

Exercise 1

- Experiment on the following machine translators (e.g., Latvian English, English - Latvian) http://translate.google.com/translate_t http://babelfish.altavista.com/
 - Try to identify problematic structures which result in faulty translations
 - Try to find reasons for the translation problems
- Experiment on the following question answering systems http://www.ask.com/
 - http://start.csail.mit.edu/
 - Compare the systems
 - Which kind of question is answered adequately?
 - Which kind of question cannot be answered by the systems?

Part II

Formal Languages (Introduction)

Outline







sets

Georg Cantor (1845-1918)

By a set we mean any collection Minto a whole of definite, distinct objects x (which are called the elements of M) of our perception or of our thought. Two sets are equal iff they have precisely the same members. The empty set \emptyset is the set which has no elements.



notation

- $x \in M$: x is an element of set M.
- M ⊂ N : set M is a subset of set N, i.e., every element of set M is an element of set N.

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set description

extensional set description \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\} is the set which has the

elements a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n.

Example: \{2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7\}
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intensional set description \{x|A\} is the set consisting of all

elements x which fulfill statement A.

Example: \{x|x \in \mathbb{N} \text{ and } x < 8 \text{ and } 1 < x\}
```

Alphabets and words

formal languages

operations on sets

intersection: $A \cap B$



Alphabets and words

formal languages

operations on sets

intersection: $A \cap B$



union: $A \cup B$



Computational Linguistics

Alphabets and words

formal languages

operations on sets

intersection: $A \cap B$



difference: $A \setminus B$



union: $A \cup B$



Alphabets and words

formal languages

operations on sets

intersection: $A \cap B$



difference: $A \setminus B$



complement (in U): $C_U(A)$

union: $A \cup B$



U

Alphabets and words

Definition

- alphabet Σ: nonempty, finite set of symbols
- word: a finite string $x_1 \dots x_n$ of symbols.
- length of a word |w|: number of symbols of a word w (example: |abbaca| = 6)
- empty word ϵ : the word of length 0

Alphabets and words

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- word: a finite string $x_1 \dots x_n$ of symbols.
- length of a word |w|: number of symbols of a word w (example: |abbaca| = 6)
- empty word ϵ : the word of length 0
- Σ^* is the set of all words over Σ
- Σ^+ is the set of all nonempty words over Σ ($\Sigma^+ = \Sigma^* \setminus \{\epsilon\}$)

Exercise: alphabets and words

Exercise 2

Let $\Sigma = \{a, b, c\}$:

- Write down a word of length 4.
- Which of the following expressions is a word and of what length is it:

'aa', 'caab', 'da'

- What is the difference between Σ^* and Σ^+ ?
- How many elements do Σ^* and Σ^+ have?

Operations on words: Concatenation

Definition

The concatenation of two words $w = a_1 a_2 \dots a_n$ and $v = b_1 b_2 \dots b_m$ with $n, m \ge 0$ is

$$w \circ v = a_1 \dots a_n b_1 \dots b_m$$

Sometimes we write uv instead of $u \circ v$.

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Sometimes we write uv instead of $u \circ v$.

$$w \circ \epsilon = \epsilon \circ w = w$$
 neutral element
 $u \circ (v \circ w) = (u \circ v) \circ w$ associativity

Operations on words: exponents and reversals

Exponents

- w^n : w concatenated *n*-times with itself.
- $w^0 = \epsilon$: w concatenated '0-times' with itself.

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Reversals

- The reversal of a word w is denoted w^R (example: (abcd)^R = dcba.
- A word w with $w = w^R$ is called a palindrome.

(madam, mum, otto, anna,...)

Exercise: Operations on words

Exercise 3

If w = aabc and v = bcc are words, evaluate:

● *W* ○ *V*

•
$$((w^R \circ v)^R)^2$$

•
$$w \circ (v^R \circ w^3)^0$$

Alphabets and words

Formal language

Definition

A formal language L is a set of words over an alphabet Σ .

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Examples:

language L_{pal} of the palindromes in English
 L_{pal} = {mum, madam, ...}

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- language L_{pal} of the palindromes in English $L_{pal} = \{mum, madam, \dots\}$
- language L_{Mors} of the letters of the latin alphabet encoded in the Morse code: $L_{Mors} = \{ \cdots, \cdots, \dots, \cdots \}$

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- the empty set

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- the set of words of length 13 over the alphabet $\{a, b, c\}$

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- the empty set
- the set of words of length 13 over the alphabet $\{a, b, c\}$
- English?

Alphabets and words

formal languages

Describing formal languages by enumerating all words

- Peter says that Mary has fallen off the tree.
- Oskar says that Peter says that Mary has fallen off the tree.
- Lisa says that Oskar says that Peter says that Mary has fallen off the tree.

Ο...

Alphabets and words

formal languages ○●○○○○○

Describing formal languages by enumerating all words

- Peter says that Mary has fallen off the tree.
- Oskar says that Peter says that Mary has fallen off the tree.
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• . . .

The set of strings of a natural language is infinite. The enumeration does not gather generalizations.

Describing formal languages by grammars

Grammar

- A formal grammar is a generating device which can generate (and analyze) strings/words.
- Grammars are finite rule systems.
- The set of all strings generated by a grammar is the formal language generated by the grammar.

Generates: the cat sleeps

Describing formal languages by automata

Automaton

- An automaton is a recognizing device which accepts strings/words.
- The set of all strings accepted by an automaton is the formal language accepted by the automaton.





Definition

• The concatenation of K and L is the formal language:

$$K \circ L := \{ v \circ w \in \Sigma^* | v \in K, w \in L \}$$

Definition

• The concatenation of K and L is the formal language:

$$K \circ L := \{ v \circ w \in \Sigma^* | v \in K, w \in L \}$$

•
$$L^n = \underbrace{L \circ L \circ L \dots \circ L}_{n-\text{times}}$$

• $L^* := \bigcup_{n \ge 0} L^n$. Note: $\epsilon \in L^*$ for any language L

Alphabets and words

formal languages 00000●0

Language concatenation

Example 1

K = {abb, a} and L = {bbb, ab} ● K ∘ L =

Computational Linguistics

Example 1

$${\mathcal K}=\{{\mathsf abb},{\mathsf a}\}$$
 and ${\mathcal L}=\{{\mathsf bbb},{\mathsf ab}\}$

Example 1

$$K = \{abb, a\}$$
 and $L = \{bbb, ab\}$

• $K \circ L = \{abbbbb, abbab, abbb, aab\}$ and $L \circ K = \{bbbabb, bbba, ababb, aba\}$

•
$$K \circ \emptyset =$$

Example 1

$$K = \{abb, a\}$$
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 K ∘ L = {abbbbb, abbab, abbb, aab} and L ∘ K = {bbbabb, bbba, ababb, aba}

•
$$K \circ \emptyset = \emptyset$$

•
$$K \circ \{\epsilon\} =$$
Language concatenation

Example 1

$$K = \{abb, a\}$$
 and $L = \{bbb, ab\}$

 K ∘ L = {abbbbb, abbab, abbb, aab} and L ∘ K = {bbbabb, bbba, ababb, aba}

•
$$K \circ \emptyset = \emptyset$$

•
$$K \circ \{\epsilon\} = K$$

•
$$K^2 =$$

Language concatenation

Example 1

$$K = \{abb, a\}$$
 and $L = \{bbb, ab\}$

 K ∘ L = {abbbbb, abbab, abbb, aab} and L ∘ K = {bbbabb, bbba, ababb, aba}

•
$$K \circ \emptyset = \emptyset$$

•
$$K \circ \{\epsilon\} = K$$

•
$$K^2 = \{abbabb, abba, aabb, aa\}$$

Exercise: formal languages

Exercise 4

If $\textit{K} = \{\textit{aa},\textit{aaaa},\textit{ab}\}$ and $\textit{L} = \{\textit{bb},\textit{aa}\}$ are languages, evaluate

- K ∘ L
- 2 L ∘ K
- $\bigcirc \ \{\epsilon\} \circ L$
- **⑤** K ∘ Ø
- [™]
 [™]</
- $K \setminus L$

Part III

Finite State Automatons and Regular Languages







Computational Linguistics

Regular expressions

RE: syntax

The set of regular expressions RE_{Σ} over an alphabet $\Sigma = \{a_1, \ldots, a_n\}$ is defined by:

- $\underline{\emptyset}$ is a regular expression.
- ϵ is a regular expression.
- a_1, \ldots, a_n are regular expressions
- If a and b are regular expressions over Σ then

are regular expressions too.

(The brackets are frequently omitted w.r.t. the following dominance scheme: \star dominates \bullet dominates +)

Regular expressions

RE: semantics

Each regular expression r over an alphabet Σ describes a formal language $L(r) \subseteq \Sigma^*$.

Regular languages are those formal languages which can be described by a regular expression.

The function *L* is defined inductively:

•
$$L(\underline{\emptyset}) = \emptyset$$
, $L(\epsilon) = \{\epsilon\}$, $L(a_i) = \{a_i\}$

•
$$L(a+b) = L(a) \cup L(b)$$

• $L(a \bullet b) = L(a) \circ L(b)$

•
$$L(a^{\star}) = L(a)^{\star}$$

Exercise: regular expressions

Exercise 5

Find a regular expression which describes the regular language L (be careful: at least one language is not regular!)

- L is the language over the alphabet {a, b} with L = {aa, ε, ab, bb}.
- L is the language over the alphabet {a, b} which consists of all words which start with a nonempty string of a's followed by any number of b's
- L is the language over the alphabet {a, b} such that every a has a b immediately to the right.
- L is the language over the alphabet {a, b} which consists of all words which contain an even number of a's.
- L is the language of all palindromes over the alphabet {a, b}.

regular expressions 000●

What we know so far about formal languages

- Formal languages are sets of words (NL: sets of sentences) which are strings of symbols (NL: words).
- Everything in the set is a "grammatical word", everything else isn't.
- Some formal languages, namely the regular ones, can be described by regular expressions
 Example: (a^{*} b a^{*} b a^{*})^{*} is the regular language consisting of all words over the alphabet {a, b} which contain an even number of b's.
- Not all formal languages are regular (We have not proven this yet!).
 Example: The formal language of all palindromes over the alphabet {a, b} is not regular.

regular expressions

Deterministic finite-state automaton (DFSA)

Definition

A deterministic finite-state automaton is a tuple $\langle Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F \rangle$ with:

- a finite, non-empty set of states Q
- 2) an alphabet Σ with $Q \cap \Sigma = \emptyset$
- **③** a partial transition function $\delta: Q \times \Sigma \rightarrow Q$
- an initial state $q_0 \in Q$ and
- a set of final/accept states $F \subseteq Q$.



accepts:
$$L(a^*ba^*)$$

Computational Linguistics

regular expressions

finite state automatons

partial/total transition function



finite state automatons

partial/total transition function



Computational Linguistics

а

α1

q2

а q0 q1

q0

Example DfSA / NDFSA

The language $L(ab^* + ac^*)$ is accepted by



Nondeterministic finite-state automaton NDFSA

Definition

A nondeterministic finite-state automaton is a tuple $\langle Q, \Sigma, \Delta, q_0, F \rangle$ with:

- 1 a finite non-empty set of states Q
- 2 an alphabet Σ with $Q \cap \Sigma = \emptyset$
- **3** a transition relation $\Delta \subseteq Q \times \Sigma \times Q$
- () an initial state $q_0 \in Q$ and
- **(3)** a set of final states $F \subseteq Q$.

Theorem

A language L can be accepted by a DFSA iff L can be accepted by a NFSA.

Note: Even automatons with ϵ -transitions accept the same languages like NDFSA's.

Automaton with ϵ -transition



Exercise 6

Give an FSA for each of the following languages over the alphabet {a, b} (and try to make it deterministic):

- $L = \{w \mid between each two 'b's in w there are at least two 'a's\}$
- $L = \{w | w \text{ is any word except "ab"} \}$
- L = {w|w does not contain the infix "ba"}
- $L = \{w | w \text{ contains at most three 'b's} \}$
- $L = \{w | w \text{ contains an even number of 'a's} \}$
- $L((a^*b)^*ab^*)$
- L(a*(bb)*)
- *L*(*ab***b*).
- $L((ab^{\star} + ba^{\star}a))$

Finite-state automatons accept regular languages

Theorem (Kleene)

Every language accepted by a DFSA is regular and every regular language is accepted by some DFSA.

Finite-state automatons accept regular languages

Theorem (Kleene)

Every language accepted by a DFSA is regular and every regular language is accepted by some DFSA.

proof idea (one direction): Each regular language is accepted by a







NDFSA:

Proof of Kleene's theorem (cont.)

If R_1 and R_2 are two regular expressions such that the languages $L(R_1)$ and $L(R_2)$ are accepted by the automatons A_1 and A_2 respectively, then $L(R_1 + R_2)$ is accepted by:



regular expressions

Proof of Kleene's theorem (cont.)

 $L(R_1 \bullet R_2)$ is accepted by:



regular expressions

Proof of Kleene's theorem (cont.)

 $L(R_1^*)$ is accepted by:



Closure properties of regular languages

Theorem

- **1** If L_1 and L_2 are two regular languages, then
 - the union of L_1 and L_2 $(L_1 \cup L_2)$ is a regular language too.
 - the intersection of L_1 and L_2 ($L_1 \cap L_2$) is a regular language too.
 - the concatenation of L_1 and L_2 ($L_1 \circ L_2$) is a regular language too.
- 2) The complement of every regular language is a regular language too.
- If L is a regular language, then L* is a regular language too.

Exercise 7

Prove the theorem.

Lemma (Pumping-Lemma)

If L is an infinite regular language over Σ , then there exists words $u, v, w \in \Sigma^*$ such that $v \neq \epsilon$ and $uv^i w \in L$ for any $i \geq 0$.

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proof sketch:

• Any regular language is accepted by a DFSA with a finite number *n* of states.

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If L is an infinite regular language over Σ , then there exists words $u, v, w \in \Sigma^*$ such that $v \neq \epsilon$ and $uv^i w \in L$ for any $i \ge 0$.

- Any regular language is accepted by a DFSA with a finite number *n* of states.
- Any infinite language contains a word z which is longer than n $(|z| \ge n)$.

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If L is an infinite regular language over Σ , then there exists words $u, v, w \in \Sigma^*$ such that $v \neq \epsilon$ and $uv^i w \in L$ for any $i \ge 0$.

- Any regular language is accepted by a DFSA with a finite number *n* of states.
- Any infinite language contains a word z which is longer than n $(|z| \ge n)$.
- While reading in z, the DFSA passes at least one state q_i twice.

Pumping lemma for regular languages (cont.)

Lemma (Pumping-Lemma)

If L is an infinite regular language over Σ , then there exists words $u, v, w \in \Sigma^*$ such that $v \neq \epsilon$ and $uv^i w \in L$ for any $i \ge 0$.



- $L = \{a^n b^n : n \ge 0\}$ is infinite.
- Suppose L is regular. Then there exists u, v, w ∈ {a, b}*, v ≠ e with uvⁿw ∈ L for any n ≥ 0.
- We have to consider 3 cases for v.

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- Suppose L is regular. Then there exists u, v, w ∈ {a, b}*, v ≠ e with uvⁿw ∈ L for any n ≥ 0.
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 - 1 v consists of a's and b's.

- $L = \{a^n b^n : n \ge 0\}$ is infinite.
- Suppose L is regular. Then there exists u, v, w ∈ {a, b}*, v ≠ e with uvⁿw ∈ L for any n ≥ 0.
- We have to consider 3 cases for v.
 - 1 v consists of a's and b's.
 - 2 v consists only of a's.

- $L = \{a^n b^n : n \ge 0\}$ is infinite.
- Suppose L is regular. Then there exists u, v, w ∈ {a, b}*, v ≠ e with uvⁿw ∈ L for any n ≥ 0.
- We have to consider 3 cases for v.
 - 1 v consists of a's and b's.
 - 2 v consists only of a's.
 - v consists only of b's.

Exercise: pumping lemma

Exercise 8

Are the following languages regular?

•
$$L_1 = \{w \in \{a, b\}^* : w \text{ contains an even number of } b's\}.$$

2
$$L_2 = \{w \in \{a, b\}^* : w \text{ contains as many } b's \text{ as } a's\}.$$

3
$$L_3 = \{ww^R \in \{a, b\}^* : ww^R \text{ is a palindrome over } \{a, b\}^*\}.$$

Intuitive rules for regular languages

• L is regular if it is possible to check the membership of a word simply by reading it symbol for symbol while using only a finite stack.

Intuitive rules for regular languages

- L is regular if it is possible to check the membership of a word simply by reading it symbol for symbol while using only a finite stack.
- Finite-state automatons are too weak for:
 - counting in ℕ ("same number as");
 - recognizing a pattern of arbitrary length ("palindrome");
 - expressions with brackets of arbitrary depth.

regular expressions

Summary: regular languages



Prolog: the basics

Prolog

 facts: state things that are unconditionally true of the domain of interest.

human(sokrates).

- rules: relate facts by logical implications. mortal(X) :- human(X).
 - head: left hand side of a rule
 - body: right hand side of a rule
 - clause: rule or fact.
 - predicate: collection of clauses with identical heads.
- knowledge base: set of facts and rules
- queries: make the Prolog inference engine try to deduce a positive answer from the information contained in the knowledge base. ?- mortal(sokrates).
Prolog: some syntax

- facts: fact.
- rules: head :- body.
- conjunction: head :- info1 , info2.
- atoms start with small letters
- variables start with capital letters

Exercise: father(X,Y) :- parent(X,Y), male(X).

Prolog

- Lists are recursive data structures: First, the empty list is a list. Second, a complex term is a list if it consists of two items, the first of which is a term (called first), and the second of which is a list (called rest).
- [mary|[john|[alex|[tom|[]]]]]
- simpler notation: [mary, john, alex, tom]
- Exercise: Write a predicate member/2.

function D-RECOGNIZE (tape, machine) returns accept or reject index ← Beginning of tape current-state ← Initial state of machine loop if End of input has been reached then if current-state is an accept state then return accept else return reject elsif transition-table [current-state, tape[index]] is empty then return reject

else

```
current-state \leftarrow transition-table [current-state, tape[index]] \\ index \leftarrow index + 1
```

end

function D-RECOGNIZE (tape, machine) returns accept or reject	% Finite state automaton.
$index \leftarrow Beginning of tape$	fsa(Tape):-
$current$ -state \leftarrow Initial state of machine	initial(S),
Іоор	fsa(Tape,S).
if End of input has been reached then	<pre>fsa([].S):- final(S).</pre>
if current-state is an accept state then	(,
return accept	fsa([H T],S):-
	<pre>trans_tab(S,H,NS),</pre>
else	fsa(T,NS).
return reject	
elsif transition-table [current-state, tape[index]] is empty then	% FSA transition table: % trans_tab/3
return reject	% trans_tab(State, Input, New State)
else	-
current-state transition-table [current-state_tape[index]]	trans_tab(1,a,1).
index for index + 1	trans_tab(1,b,2).
$maex \leftarrow maex + 1$	trans_tab(2,a,2).
end	
	initial(1).
	final(2).

Part VI

Context Free Grammars

A formal grammar is a 4-tupel G = (N, T, S, P) with

• an alphabet of terminals T,

• an alphabet of nonterminals N with $N \cap T = \emptyset$,

• a start symbol $S \in N$,

• a finite set of rules/productions $P \subseteq \{ \langle \alpha, \beta \rangle \mid \alpha, \beta \in (N \cup T)^* \text{ and } \alpha \notin T^* \}.$

Instead of $\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle$ we write also $\alpha \to \beta$.

Generates: the cat sleeps

Formal grammar

Vocabulary

Let G = (N, T, S, P) be a grammar and $v, w \in (T \cup N)^*$:

- v is directly derived from w (or w directly generates v), $w \to v$ if $w = w_1 \alpha w_2$ and $v = w_1 \beta w_2$ such that $\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle \in P$.
- v is derived from w (or w generates v), $w \to^* v$ if there exists $w_0, w_1, \ldots, w_k \in (T \cup N)^*$ $(k \ge 0)$ such that $w = w_0, w_k = v$ and $w_{i-1} \to w_i$ for all $k \ge i \ge 0$.
- $\bullet \ \to^* \text{ denotes the reflexive transitive closure of } \to$
- $L(G) = \{ w \in T^* | S \to^* w \}$ is the formal language generated by the grammar G.

Generates: the cat sleeps

Formal Grammars

Example

$$G_1 = \langle \{\mathsf{S},\mathsf{NP},\mathsf{VP},\mathsf{N},\mathsf{V},\mathsf{D},\mathsf{N},\mathsf{EN}\}, \{\mathsf{the, cat, peter, chases}\},\mathsf{S},\mathsf{P} \rangle$$

$$P = \left\{ \begin{array}{cccc} S & \rightarrow & \mathsf{NP} \; \mathsf{VP} & \mathsf{VP} & \rightarrow & \mathsf{V} \; \mathsf{NP} & \mathsf{NP} & \rightarrow & \mathsf{D} \; \mathsf{N} \\ \mathsf{NP} & \rightarrow & \mathsf{EN} & \mathsf{D} & \rightarrow & \mathsf{the} & \mathsf{N} & \rightarrow & \mathsf{cat} \\ \mathsf{EN} & \rightarrow & \mathsf{peter} & \mathsf{V} & \rightarrow & \mathsf{chases} \end{array} \right\}$$

Example

$$G_1 = \langle \{\mathsf{S},\mathsf{NP},\mathsf{VP},\mathsf{N},\mathsf{V},\mathsf{D},\mathsf{N},\mathsf{EN}\}, \{\mathsf{the, cat, peter, chases}\},\mathsf{S},\mathsf{P} \rangle$$

$$P = \left\{ \begin{array}{cccc} S & \rightarrow & \mathsf{NP} \ \mathsf{VP} & \mathsf{VP} & \rightarrow & \mathsf{V} \ \mathsf{NP} & \mathsf{NP} & \rightarrow & \mathsf{D} \ \mathsf{N} \\ \mathsf{NP} & \rightarrow & \mathsf{EN} & \mathsf{D} & \rightarrow & \mathsf{the} & \mathsf{N} & \rightarrow & \mathsf{cat} \\ \mathsf{EN} & \rightarrow & \mathsf{peter} & \mathsf{V} & \rightarrow & \mathsf{chases} \end{array} \right\}$$

 $L(G_1) = \left\{ \begin{array}{cc} \text{the cat chases peter} & \text{peter chases the cat} \\ \text{peter chases peter} & \text{the cat chases the cat} \end{array} \right\}$

"the cat chases peter" can be derived from S by:

Context-free languages

Derivation tree



Chomsky-hierarchy

A grammar (N, T, S, P) is a

(right-linear) regular grammar (REG): iff every production is of the form $A \rightarrow \beta B$ or $A \rightarrow \beta$ with $A, B \in N$ and $\beta \in T^*$

context-free grammar (CFG): iff every production is of the form $A \rightarrow \beta$ with $A \in N$ and $\beta \in (N \cup T)^*$.



Chomsky-hierarchy

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(right-linear) regular grammar (REG): iff every production is of the form

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context-free grammar (CFG): iff every production is of the form $A \rightarrow \beta$ with $A \in N$ and $\beta \in (N \cup T)^*$.

context-sensitive grammar (CS): iff every production is

of the form

 $\gamma A \delta \rightarrow \gamma \beta \delta$ with $\gamma, \delta, \beta \in (N \cup T)^*, A \in N$ and $\beta \neq \epsilon$; or of the form $S \rightarrow \epsilon$, in which case S does not occur on any right-hand side of a production.

recursively enumerable grammar (RE): if it is an arbitrary formal grammar.



Main theorem

$\mathsf{L}(\mathsf{REG}) \subset \mathsf{L}(\mathsf{CG}) \subset \mathsf{L}(\mathsf{CS}) \subset \mathsf{L}(\mathsf{RE})$



regular languages

Definition

A grammar (N, T, S, P) is a right-linear regular grammar iff all productions are of the form:

 $A \rightarrow w \text{ or } A \rightarrow wB \text{ with } A, B \in N \text{ and } w \in T^*.$

regular languages

Definition

A grammar (N, T, S, P) is a right-linear regular grammar iff all productions are of the form:

 $A \rightarrow w \text{ or } A \rightarrow wB \text{ with } A, B \in N \text{ and } w \in T^*.$

Theorem

Every language generated by a right-linear regular grammar is a regular language and for every regular language there exists a right-linear regular grammar which generates it.

Exercise 9

Prove the proposition.

Formal Grammars

Proof: Each regular language is right-linear

$$\Sigma = \{a_1, \ldots, a_n\}$$

1 \emptyset is generated by $(\{S\}, \Sigma, S, \{\})$,

Formal Grammars

Proof: Each regular language is right-linear

- **1** \emptyset is generated by $(\{S\}, \Sigma, S, \{\})$,
- **2** $\{\epsilon\}$ is generated by $(\{S\}, \Sigma, S, \{S \to \epsilon\})$,

Proof: Each regular language is right-linear

- \emptyset is generated by $(\{S\}, \Sigma, S, \{\})$,
- 2 { ϵ } is generated by ({S}, Σ , S, { $S \rightarrow \epsilon$ }),

Proof: Each regular language is right-linear

- \emptyset is generated by $(\{S\}, \Sigma, S, \{\})$,
- 2 { ϵ } is generated by ({S}, Σ , S, { $S \rightarrow \epsilon$ }),
- If L_1 , L_2 are regular languages with generating right-linear grammars (N_1, T_1, S_1, P_1) , (N_2, T_2, S_2, P_2) , then $L_1 \cup L_2$ is generated by $(N_1 \uplus N_2, T_1 \cup T_2, S, P_1 \cup _{\uplus} P_2 \cup \{S \rightarrow S_1, S \rightarrow S_2\})$,

Proof: Each regular language is right-linear

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- So L₁ L₂ is generated by (N₁ ⊎ N₂, T₁ ∪ T₂, S₁, P'₁ ∪ ⊎ P₂) (P'₁ is obtained from P₁ if all rules of the form A → w (w ∈ T*) are replaced by A → wS₂),

Proof: Each regular language is right-linear

- \emptyset is generated by $(\{S\}, \Sigma, S, \{\})$,
- 2 { ϵ } is generated by ({S}, Σ , S, { $S \rightarrow \epsilon$ }),
- If L_1 , L_2 are regular languages with generating right-linear grammars (N_1, T_1, S_1, P_1) , (N_2, T_2, S_2, P_2) , then $L_1 \cup L_2$ is generated by $(N_1 \uplus N_2, T_1 \cup T_2, S, P_1 \cup_{\uplus} P_2 \cup \{S \to S_1, S \to S_2\})$,
- So L₁ L₂ is generated by (N₁ ⊎ N₂, T₁ ∪ T₂, S₁, P'₁ ∪ ⊎ P₂) (P'₁ is obtained from P₁ if all rules of the form A → w (w ∈ T*) are replaced by A → wS₂),
- L_1^* is generated by $(N_1, \Sigma, S_1, P'_1 \cup \{S_1 \to \epsilon\})$ $(P'_1$ is obtained from P_1 if all rules of the form $A \to w$ $(w \in T^*)$ are replaced by $A \to wS_1$).

A grammar (N, T, S, P) is context-free if all production rules are of the form:

 $A \rightarrow \alpha$, with $A \in N$ and $\alpha \in (T \cup N)^*$.

A language generated by a context-free grammar is said to be context-free.

A grammar (N, T, S, P) is context-free if all production rules are of the form:

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Theorem

The set of context-free languages is a strict superset of the set of regular languages.

A grammar (N, T, S, P) is context-free if all production rules are of the form:

 $A \rightarrow \alpha$, with $A \in N$ and $\alpha \in (T \cup N)^*$.

A language generated by a context-free grammar is said to be context-free.

Theorem

The set of context-free languages is a strict superset of the set of regular languages.

Proof: Each regular language is per definition context-free. $L(a^n b^n)$ is context-free but not regular $(S \rightarrow aSb, S \rightarrow \epsilon)$.

Examples of context-free languages

•
$$L_1 = \{ww^R : w \in \{a, b\}^*\}$$

•
$$L_2 = \{a^i b^j : i \ge j\}$$

•
$$L_3 = \{w \in \{a, b\}^* : \text{more } a's \text{ than } b's\}$$

•
$$L_4 = \{w \in \{a, b\}^* : \text{number of } a's \text{ equals number of } b's\}$$

Examples of context-free languages

•
$$L_1 = \{ww^R : w \in \{a, b\}^*\}$$

• $L_2 = \{a^i b^j : i \ge j\}$
• $L_3 = \{w \in \{a, b\}^* : \text{more } a's \text{ than } b's\}$
• $L_4 = \{w \in \{a, b\}^* : \text{number of } a's \text{ equals number of } b's\}$
 $\begin{cases} S \rightarrow aB \ A \rightarrow a \ B \rightarrow b \\ S \rightarrow bA \ A \rightarrow aS \ B \rightarrow bS \\ A \rightarrow bAA \ B \rightarrow aBB \end{cases}$

Derivation tree

 $\mathcal{G}_1 = \langle \{\mathsf{S},\mathsf{NP},\mathsf{VP},\mathsf{N},\mathsf{V},\mathsf{D},\mathsf{N},\mathsf{EN}\}, \{\mathsf{the, cat, peter, chases}\},\mathsf{S},\mathcal{P} \rangle$



One derivation determines one derivation tree, but the same derivation tree can result from different derivations.

Ambiguous grammars and ambiguous languages

Definition

Given a context-free grammar G: A derivation which always replaces the left furthest nonterminal symbol is called left-derivation

Ambiguous grammars and ambiguous languages

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Definition

A context-free grammar G is ambiguous iff there exists a $w \in L(G)$ with more than one left-derivation, $S \rightarrow^* w$.

Ambiguous grammars and ambiguous languages

Definition

Given a context-free grammar G: A derivation which always replaces the left furthest nonterminal symbol is called left-derivation

Definition

A context-free grammar G is ambiguous iff there exists a $w \in L(G)$ with more than one left-derivation, $S \rightarrow^* w$.

Definition

A context-free language L is ambiguous iff each context-free grammar G with L(G) = L is ambiguous.

Left-derivations and derivation trees determine each other!

Example of an ambiguous grammar



Chomsky Normal Form

Definition

A grammar is in Chomsky Normal Form (CNF) if all production rules are of the form

$$\bullet A \to a$$

$$2 A \rightarrow BC$$

with $A, B, C \in T$ and $a \in \Sigma$ (and if necessary $S \to \epsilon$ in which case S may not occur in any right-hand side of a rule).

Theorem

Each context-free language is generated by a grammar in CNF.

Context-free languages

Each context-free language is generated by a grammar in CNF

3 steps

- O Adapt the grammar such that terminals only occur in rules of type A → a.
- 2 Eliminate $A \rightarrow B$ rules.
- Solution Eliminate $A \rightarrow B_1 B_2 \dots B_n$ (n > 2) rules.

Pumping lemma for context-free languages

pumping lemma

For each context-free language L there exists a $p \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for any $z \in L$: if |z| > p, then z may be written as z = uvwxy with

- $u, v, w, x, y \in T^*$,
- $|vwx| \leq p$,
- $vx \neq \epsilon$ and
- $uv^i wx^i y \in L$ for any $i \ge 0$.

Formal Grammars

Context-free languages

Pumping lemma: proof sketch



 $|vwx| \le p$, $vx \ne \epsilon$ and $uv^i wx^i y \in L$ for any $i \ge 0$.

Existence of non context-free languages
Formal Grammars

Closure properties of context-free languages

Theorem

Context-free languages are closed under

- union
- concatenation
- Kleene's star
- intersection with a regular language

union: $G = (N_1 \uplus N_2 \cup \{S\}, T_1 \cup T_2, S, P)$ with $P = P_1 \cup_{\uplus} P_2 \cup \{S \to S_1, S \to S_2\}$ intersection: $L_1 = \{a^n b^n a^k\}, L_2 = \{a^n b^k a^k\}, \text{ but } L_1 \cap L_2 = \{a^n b^n a^n\}$ complement: de Morgan concatenation: $G = (N_1 \uplus N_2 \cup \{S\}, T_1 \cup T_2, S, P)$ with $P = P_1 \cup_{\uplus} P_2 \cup \{S \to S_1S_2\}$ Kleene's star: $G = (N_1 \cup \{S\}, T_1, S, P)$ with $P = P_1 \cup \{S \to S_1S, S \to \epsilon\}$

Chomsky-hierarchy (1956)

Type 3: REG	finite-state automaton	WP: linear
Type 2: CF	pushdown- automaton	WP: cubic
Type 1: CS	linearly restricted automaton	WP: exponential
Type 0: RE	Turing machine	WP: not decid- able

Part VII

Parsing

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CYK-parser (Cocke-Kasami-Younger)

example grammar

'syntactical rules'
$S\toNPVP$
$VP \to V \; NP$
$VP \to VP \; PP$
$NP\toNP\;PP$
$PP \to P \; NP$

 $\begin{array}{l} \text{`lexical rules'} \\ \mathsf{NP} \to \mathsf{John} \\ \mathsf{NP} \to \mathsf{Mary} \\ \mathsf{NP} \to \mathsf{Denver} \\ \mathsf{V} \to \mathsf{calls} \\ \mathsf{P} \to \mathsf{from} \end{array}$

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CYK-parser (Cocke-Kasami-Younger)

derivation tree



simple parsing strategies

CYK-parser (Cocke-Kasami-Younger)

derivation tree



simple parsing strategies

CYK-parser (Cocke-Kasami-Younger)

top-down search

John calls Mary from Denver

S

simple parsing strategies

CYK-parser (Cocke-Kasami-Younger)

top-down search









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simple parsing strategies

CYK-parser (Cocke-Kasami-Younger)

bottom-up search

simple parsing strategies

CYK-parser (Cocke-Kasami-Younger)

bottom-up search

NP V NP P NP | | | | | John calls Mary from Denver

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bottom-up search



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search strategies

- top-down
- bottom-up

- depth-first
- breadth-first

- left-to-right
- right-to-left

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Example: top-down, depth-first, left-to-right parse

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Example:	top-down,	depth-first,	left-to-right parse



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Example:	top-down,	depth-first,	left-to-right parse







		simple parsing strategies					CYK-parser (Cocke-Kasami-Younger)		
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Example: top-down, depth-first, left-to-right parse



introduction		simple parsing strategies		CYK-parser (Cocke-Kasami-Younger)		
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Example: top-down, depth-first, left-to-right parse



John calls Mary from Denver

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Example: top-down, depth-first, left-to-right parse



John calls Mary from Denver

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occoCYK-parser (Cocke-Kasami-Younger
ocleft-recursion is dangerous for top-down,
left-to-rightleft-secursion

additional rules: $NP \rightarrow D N$

- $D \rightarrow a$
- $N \rightarrow \textit{friend}$

Parse "a friend calls Mary from Denver"

simple parsing strategies

CYK-parser (Cocke-Kasami-Younger) 00

empty expansions are dangerous for bottom-up

additional rules:

- $NP \rightarrow D N$
- $D \rightarrow a$
- $D \to \epsilon$
- $N \rightarrow friend$
- $N \rightarrow friends$

Parse "friends call Mary from Denver"

problems with simple parsing strategies

- top-down: left-recursions
- bottom-up: empty expansions
- lots of avoidable redoes (example: parse "flights from Düsseldorf to Riga by Airbaltic" top-down as an NP)
- ambiguities (Example: Show me the meal on the flight from Düsseldorf to Riga by Airbaltic)

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CYK-parser (Cocke-Kasami-Younger) ○●

CYK-parser (Cocke-Kasami-Younger)

precondition: CFG grammar in CNF John

calls

Mary

from

Denver

simple parsing strategies

CYK-parser (Cocke-Kasami-Younger) ○●

CYK-parser (Cocke-Kasami-Younger)

V

precondition: CFG grammar in CNF

John NP

calls

Mary

NΡ

Ρ

from

Denver

NP

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precondition:	CFG gramma	ar in CNF				
John	NP	_				
calls		V	VP			
Mary			NP	-	-	
from				F	b	PP
Denver						NP

simple parsing strategies

CYK-parser (Cocke-Kasami-Younger) ○●

precondition <i>John</i>	n: CFG gran NP	mmar in CN —	IF S		
calls		v	VP		
Mary			NP	_	
from				Р	PP
Denver					NP

simple parsing strategies

CYK-parser (Cocke-Kasami-Younger) ○●

precondition	1: CFG grar	mmar in CN	١F		
John	NP	_	S		
calls		v	VP	_	
Mary			NP	_	
from				Р	PP
Denver					NP

simple parsing strategies

CYK-parser (Cocke-Kasami-Younger) ○●

precondition	: CFG gran	mmar in CN	IF		
John	NP	_	S		
calls		v	VP	_	
Mary			NP	_	NP
from				Р	PP
Denver					NP

simple parsing strategies

CYK-parser (Cocke-Kasami-Younger) ○●

preconditio	n: CFG grai	mmar in CN	١F		
John	NP	_	S	_	
calls		v	VP	_	
Mary			NP	_	NP
from				Ρ	PP
Denver					NP
introduction

simple parsing strategies

CYK-parser (Cocke-Kasami-Younger) ○●

CYK-parser (Cocke-Kasami-Younger)

precondition: C	FG grammar in CN	lF		
John	NP –	S	_	
calls	v	VP	_	VP_1, VP_2
Mary		NP	_	NP
from			Ρ	PP
Denver				NP

		simple parsing			CYK-parser (Cocke ○●	-Kasami-Younger)
CYK-par	ser (C	ocke-ł	Kasam	i-Youn	iger)	
precondition:	CFG gran	nmar in CN	١F			
John	NP	_	S	_	S_1, S_2	
calls		V	VP	-	VP_1, VP_2	
Mary			ND	_	NP	
mary					101	
from				Р	PP	

Denver

NP

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simple parsing strategie

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exercises overview



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