Computational Linguistics CSC 485/2501 Fall 2023

7. Statistical parsing

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Reading: Jurafsky & Martin: 5.2–5.5.2, 5.6, 12.4, 14.0–1, 14.3–4, 14.6–7. Bird et al: 8.6.

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Statistical parsing 1

- General idea:
 - Assign probabilities to rules in a context-free grammar.
 - Use a likelihood model.
 - Combine probabilities of rules in a tree.
 - Yields likelihood of a parse.
 - The best parse is the *most likely* one.

Statistical parsing 2

- Motivations:
 - Uniform process for attachment decisions.
 - Use lexical preferences in all decisions.

Three general approaches

- 1. Assign a probability to each rule of grammar, including lexical productions.
 - –Parse string of input words with probabilistic rules. The can will rust.
- 2. Assign probabilities only to non-lexical productions.
 - -Probabilistically tag input words with syntactic categories using a **part-of-speech tagger**.
 - -Consider the pre-terminal syntactic categories to be terminals, parse that string with probabilistic rules. Det N Modal Verb.
- 3. "Supertagging" parsing as tagging with tree fragments.

Part-of-speech tagging 1

- Part-of-speech (PoS) tagging: Given a sequence of words w₁ ... w_n (from well-formed text), determine the syntactic category (PoS) C_i of each word.
- *I.e.*, the best category sequence $C_1 \dots C_n$ to assign to the word sequence $w_1 \dots w_n$.



Part-of-speech tagging 2

- Example:
 - The canwillrustdetmodal verbmodal wentbnounnounnounnounverbverbverbverb

Part-of-speech tagging 3

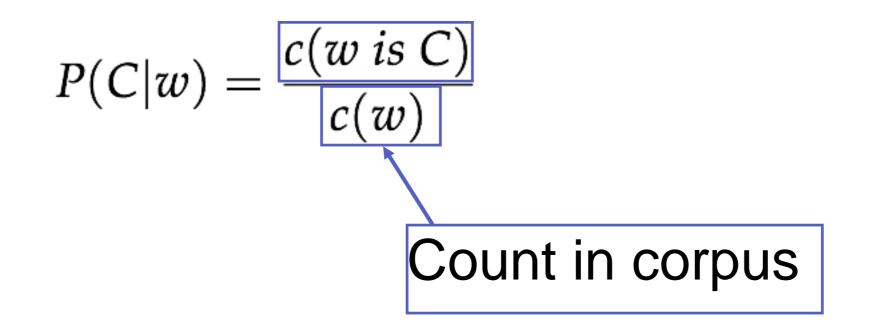
$$P(C_1 \dots C_n | w_1 \dots w_n) = \frac{P(C_1 \dots C_n \wedge w_1 \dots w_n)}{P(w_1 \dots w_n)}$$

- We cannot get this probability directly.
- Have to estimate it (through counts).
- Perhaps after first approximating it (by modifying the formula).
- Counts: Need representative corpus.

Look at individual words (*unigrams*):

$$P(C|w) = \frac{P(C \wedge w)}{P(w)}$$

Maximum likelihood estimator (MLE):



- Problems of MLE:
 - Sparse data.
 - Extreme cases:
 - a. Undefined if *w* is not in the corpus.
 - b. 0 if w does not appear in a particular category.

- Smoothing of formula, e.g.,: $P(C|w) \approx \frac{c(w \text{ is } C) + \epsilon}{c(w) + \epsilon N}$
- Give small (non-zero) probability value to unseen events, taken from seen events by discounting them.
- Various methods to ensure we still have valid probability distribution.

- Just choosing the most frequent PoS for each word yields 90% accuracy in PoS tagging.
- But:
 - Not uniform across words.
 - Accuracy is low (0.9ⁿ) when multiplied over n words.
 - No context: The fly vs. I will fly.
- Need better approximations for

$$P(C_1\ldots C_n|w_1\ldots w_n)$$

PoS tagging: Bayesian method

Use Bayes's rule to rewrite:

$$P(C_1 \dots C_n | w_1 \dots w_n) = \frac{P(C_1 \dots C_n) \times P(w_1 \dots w_n | C_1 \dots C_n)}{P(w_1 \dots w_n)} 2$$

 For a given word string, we want to maximize this, find most likely C₁ ... C_n:

$$\operatorname{argmax}_{C_1...C_n} P(C_1...C_n \mid w_1...w_n)$$

• So just need to maximize the numerator.

Approximating probabilities 1

- Approximate ① P(C₁ ... C₀) by predicting each category from previous ① 1 categories: an *N*-gram model.
 Warning: Not
- Bigram (2-gram) model: $P(C_1...C_n) \approx \prod_{i=1}^n P(C_i|C_{i-1})$

Warning: Not the same *n*!!

 Posit pseudo-categories START at C₀, and END as C_n. Example:

 $P(A N V N) \approx P(A|START) \cdot P(N|A) \cdot P(V|N) \cdot P(N|V) \cdot P(END|N)$

Approximating probabilities 2

 Approximate 2 P(w₁ ... w_n|C₁ ... C_n) by assuming that the probability of a word appearing in a category is independent of the words surrounding it.

$$P(w_1 \dots w_n | C_1 \dots C_n) \approx \prod_{i=1}^n P(w_i | C_i)$$

Lexical generation probabilities

Approximating probabilities 3

- Why is P(w|C) better than P(C|w)?
 - P(C|w) is clearly not independent of surrounding categories.
 - Lexical generation probability is somewhat more independent.
 - Complete formula for PoS includes bigrams, and so it does capture some context.

Putting it all together

$$P(C_{1} \dots C_{n} | w_{1} \dots w_{n})$$

$$= \frac{P(C_{1} \dots C_{n} \land w_{1} \dots w_{n})}{P(w_{1} \dots w_{n})}$$

$$= \frac{P(C_{1} \dots C_{n}) \times P(w_{1} \dots w_{n} | C_{1} \dots C_{n})}{P(w_{1} \dots w_{n})}$$

$$\propto P(C_{1} \dots C_{n}) \times P(w_{1} \dots w_{n} | C_{1} \dots C_{n})$$

$$\approx \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(C_{i} | C_{i-1}) \times P(w_{i} | C_{i})$$

$$= \boxed{\prod_{i=1}^{n} \frac{c(C_{i-1}C_{i})}{c(C_{i-1})} \times \boxed{\frac{c(w_{i} \text{ is } C_{i})}{c(C_{i})}}}_{C(C_{i})}$$
Really should use smoothed MLE; MLE for categories not the same as for words;

cf slide 10

cf slide 8

Finding max 1

- Want to find the argmax (most probable) $C_1 \dots C_n$.
- Brute force method: Find all possible sequences of categories and compute P.
- Unnecessary: Our approximation assumes independence:
 - Category bigrams: C_i depends only on C_{i-1} . Lexical generation: w_i depends only on C_i .
 - Hence we do not need to enumerate all sequences independently.

Finding max 2

Bigrams: Markov model.

- States are categories and transitions are bigrams.
- Lexical generation probabilities: *Hidden Markov model.*
 - Words are outputs (with given probability) of states.
 - A word could be the output of more than one state.
 - Current state is unknown ("hidden").

Example

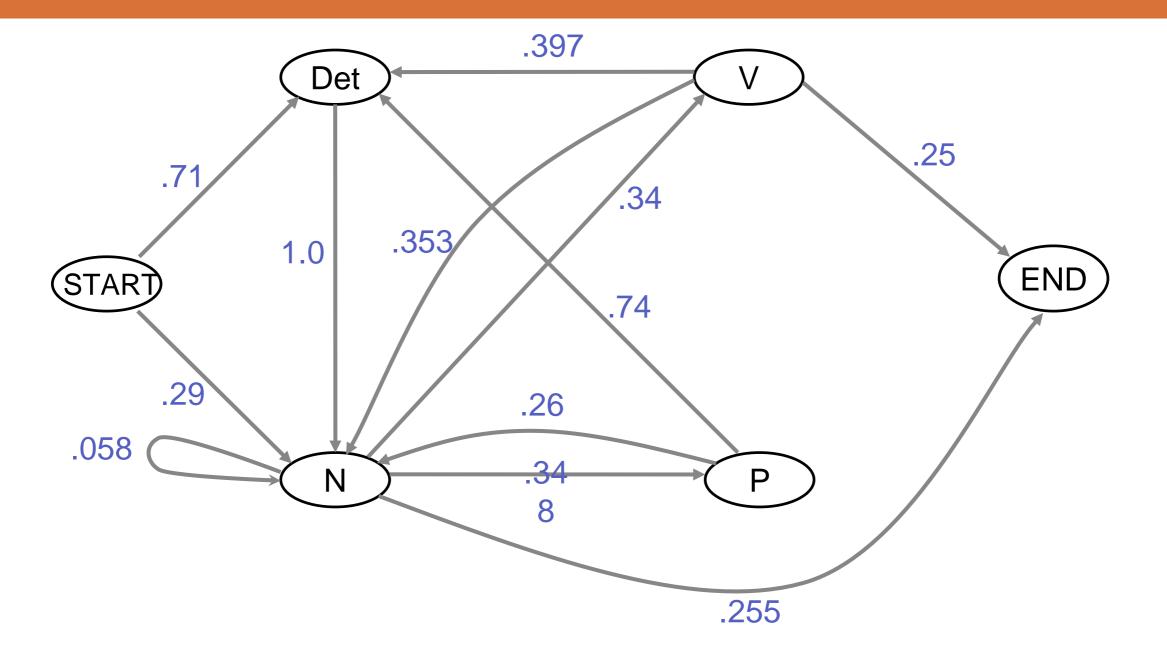
Based on an example in section 7.3 of: Allen, James. *Natural Language Understanding* (2nd ed), 1995, Benjamin Cummings.

- Artificial corpus of PoS-tagged 300 sentences using only Det, N, V, P.
 - The flower flowers like a bird.
 Some birds like a flower with fruit beetles.
 Like flies like flies.
- Some lexical generation probabilities:

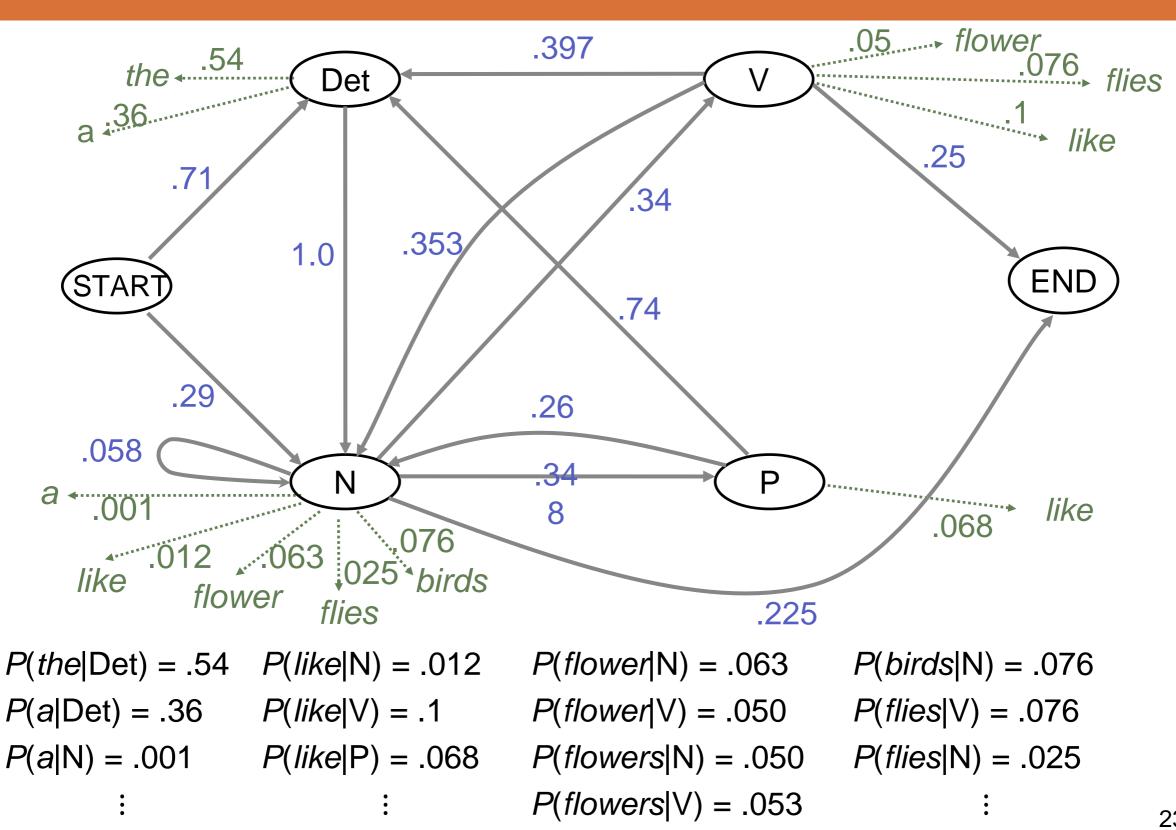
Markov model: Bigram table

Bigram C _{i⊢1} , C _i	Count Ci-1	Count C _{i–1} ,C _i	P(C _i C _{i−1})	Estimate
START, Det	300	213	<i>P</i> (Det START)	0.710
START, N	300	87	P(N START)	0.290
Det, N	558	558	P(N Det)	1.000
N, V	883	300	P(V N)	0.340
N, N	883	51	<i>P</i> (N N)	0.058
N, P	883	307	<i>P</i> (P N)	0.348
N, END	883	225	<i>P</i> (END N)	0.255
V, N	300	106	<i>P</i> (N V)	0.353
V, Det	300	119	<i>P</i> (Det N)	0.397
V, END	300	75	<i>P</i> (END V)	0.250
P, Det	307	226	<i>P</i> (Det P)	0.740
P, N	307	81	<i>P</i> (N P)	0.260

Markov model: Transition probabilities



HMM: Lexical generation probabilities



Hidden Markov models 1

 Given the observed output, we want to find the most likely path through the model.

The canwillrustdetmodal verbmounnounnounverbverbverb

Hidden Markov models 2

- At any state in an HMM, how you got there is irrelevant to computing the next transition.
 - So, just need to remember the best path and probability up to that point.
 - Define φ(_{Ci-1}) as the probability of the best sequence up to state C_{i-1}.
- Then find C_i that maximizes $\varphi(C_{i-1}) \times P(C_i | C_{i-1}) \times P(w | C_i)$



3 from slide 17

Viterbi Algorithm

- Given an HMM and an observation O of its output, finds the most probable sequence S of states that produced O.
 - O = words of sentence, S = PoS tags of sentence
- Parameters of HMM based on large training corpus.
- Then find C_i that maximizes $\varphi(C_{i-1}) \times P(C_i | C_{i-1}) \times P(w | C_i)$ $\beta_i = C_{i-1}$ [backtrace]

Baum-Welch Algorithm

- Given an HMM M and an observation O, adjust the parameters of M to improve the probability P(O).
 - $O = words of sentence, M = <\pi,A,B>$
- This is an instance of Expectation-Maximization (EM).

Statistical chart parsing 1

- Consider tags as terminals (*i.e.*, use a PoS tagger to pre-process input texts).
 Det N Modal Verb.
- For probability of each grammar rule, use MLE.
- Probabilities derived from hand-parsed corpora (treebanks).
 - Count frequency of use *c* of each rule $C \rightarrow \alpha$, for each non-terminal *C* and each different RHS α .

What are some problems with this approach?

Statistical chart parsing 2

- MLE probability of rules:
 - For each rule $C \rightarrow \alpha$:

$$P(C \to \alpha | C) = \frac{c(C \to \alpha)}{\sum_{\beta} c(C \to \beta)} = \frac{c(C \to \alpha)}{c(C)}$$
(4)

- Takes no account of the context of use of a rule: *independence assumption.*
- Source-normalized: assumes a top-down generative process.
- NLTK's pchart demo doesn't POS-tag first (words are generated top-down), and it shows P(t) rather than P(t|s)⁻. Why?

>>> import nltk

```
>>> nltk.parse.pchart.demo()
```

- 1: I saw John with my telescope <Grammar with 17 productions>
- 2: the boy saw Jack with Bob under the table with a telescope
 <Grammar with 23 productions>

```
Which demo (1-2)? 1
```

```
s: I saw John with my telescope
parser: <nltk.parse.pchart.InsideChartParser object at 0x7f61288f3290>
grammar: Grammar with 17 productions (start state = S)
    S -> NP VP [1.0]
   NP -> Det N [0.5]
   NP -> NP PP [0.25]
   NP -> 'John' [0.1]
   NP -> 'I' [0.15]
   Det -> 'the' [0.8]
   Det -> 'my' [0.2]
   N -> 'man' [0.5]
   N -> 'telescope' [0.5]
   VP -> VP PP [0.1]
   VP -> V NP [0.7]
   VP -> V [0.2]
   V -> 'ate' [0.35]
   V -> 'saw' [0.65]
   PP -> P NP [1.0]
   P -> 'with' [0.61]
   P -> 'under' [0.39]
```

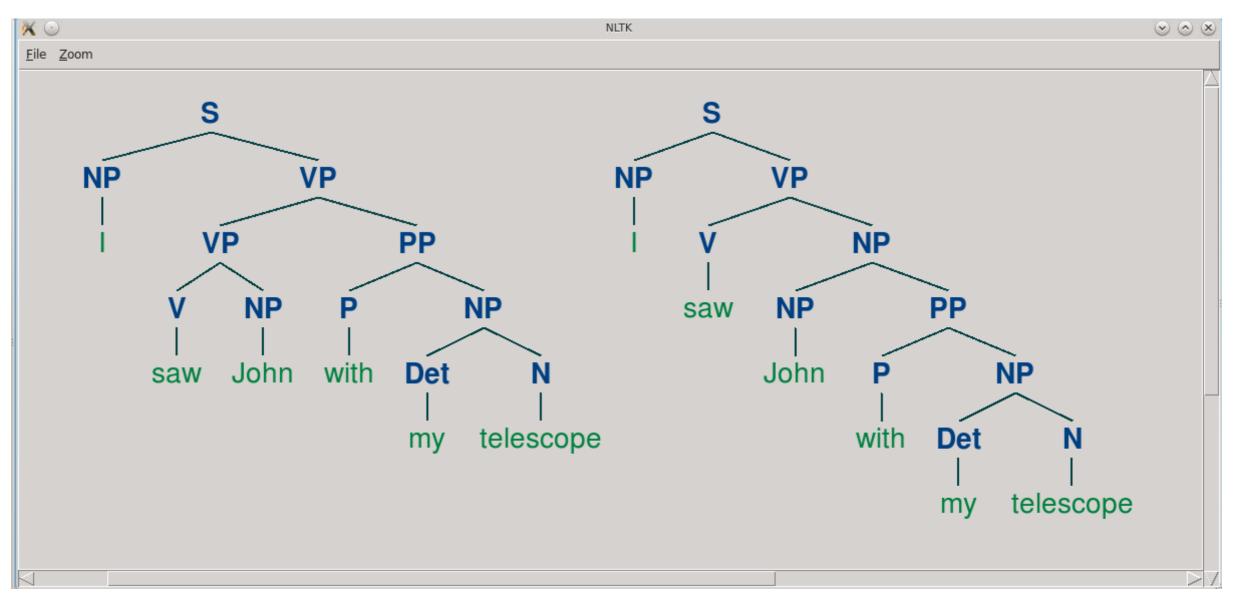
$ \cdot \cdot \cdot \cdot \cdot (-] $ $ \cdot \cdot \cdot (-] \cdot $ $ \cdot \cdot (-] \cdot \cdot $ $ \cdot (-] \cdot \cdot \cdot $ $ \cdot (-] \cdot \cdot \cdot $ $ \cdot (-] \cdot \cdot \cdot $ $ \cdot \cdot (-] \cdot \cdot $ $ \cdot \cdot (-] \cdot $ $ \cdot (-] \cdot $	<pre>[1:2] 'saw' [2:3] 'John' [3:4] 'with' [4:5] 'my' [5:6] 'telescope' [5:6] 'telescope' [4:5] 'my' [3:4] 'with' [2:3] 'John' [1:2] 'saw' [0:1] 'I' [1:2] V -> 'saw' * [1:1] VP -> * V NP [1:1] V -> * 'saw' [3:4] P -> 'with' * [3:3] PP -> * P NP [3:3] P -> * P NP [3:3] P -> * 'with' [5:6] N -> 'telescope' * [5:5] N -> * 'telescope' * [1:2] VP -> V * NP [1:1] VP -> * V</pre>	[1.0] [1.0] [1.0] [1.0] [1.0] [1.0] [1.0] [1.0] [1.0] [1.0] [1.0] [0.65] [0.65] [0.61] [1.0] [0.61] [0.61] [0.61] [0.5] [0.5] [0.2] [0.2]
. >		
>	[4:4] NP -> * Det N [4:4] Det -> * 'my'	[0.5] [0.2]

:

	г <i>л</i> • л э	c	->	* NP VP
	[4:4]			
>	[4:4]	NP	->	* NP PP
[>	[4:6]	S	->	NP * VP
. []	[1:3]	VP	->	V NP *
[->	[0:1]	NP	->	NP * PP
[]	[3:6]	PP	->	PNP*
	[2:3]	NP	->	NP * PP
[]	[0:2]	S	->	NP VP *
. [->	[1:2]	VP	->	VP * PP
	[4:6]	NP	->	NP * PP
[]	[0:3]	S	->	NP VP *
. [>	[1:3]	VP	->	VP * PP
[]	[2:6]	NP	->	NP PP *
[>	[2:6]	S	->	NP * VP
. []	[1:6]	VP	->	V NP *
[>	[2:6]	NP	->	NP * PP
. []	[1:6]	VP	->	VP PP *
[======]]	[0:6]	S	->	NP VP *
. [>	[1:6]	VP	->	VP * PP
[======]]				
. [>				

[1.0] [0.25] [0.05] [0.0455] [0.0375] [0.0305] [0.025] [0.0195] [0.013] [0.0125] [0.006825] [0.00455] [0.0007625] [0.0007625] [0.0003469375] [0.000190625] [0.000138775] [5.2040625e-05] [3.469375e-05] [2.081625e-05] [1.38775e-05]

Draw parses (y/n)? y please wait...



```
Print parses (y/n)? y
 (S
    (NP I)
    (VP
        (VP (V saw) (NP John))
        (PP (P with) (NP (Det my) (N telescope))))) [2.081625e-05]
(S
        (NP I)
        (VP
            (V saw)
            (NP
                (NP John)
                (NP John)
                (NP John)
                (NP (P with) (NP (Det my) (N telescope))))) [5.2040625e-05]
```

Statistical chart parsing 3

 In this view of chart parsing, probability of chart entries is relatively simple to calculate. For completed constituents, maximize over C₁,...,C_n (like Viterbi):

$$P(e_0) = P(C_0 \to C_1 \dots C_n | C_0) \times P(e_1) \times \dots \times P(e_n)$$
$$= P(C_0 \to C_1 \dots C_n | C_0) \times \prod_{i=1}^n P(e_i)$$
5

 e_0 is the entry for current constituent, of category C_0 ; $e_1 \dots e_n$ are chart entries for $C_1 \dots C_n$ in the RHS of the rule.

NB: Unlike for PoS tagging above, the C_i are not necessarily lexical categories.

Statistical chart parsing 4

- Consider a complete parse tree, *t*, with root label S.
- Recasting 5, t has the probability: P(t) = P(S) * Π_nP(rule(n)|cat(n)) where n ranges over all nodes in the tree t, rule(n) is the rule used for n; cat(n) is the category of n.
- 6

- P(S) = 1!
- "Bottoms out" at lexical categories.
- Note that we're parsing bottom-up, but the generative model "thinks" top-down regardless.

Inside-Outside Algorithm

- EM for PCFGs: maximum likelihood estimates on an annotated corpus can be improved to increase the likelihood of a different, unannotated corpus
- Step 1: parse the unannotated corpus using the MLE parameters.
- Step 2: adjust the parameters according to the expected relative frequencies of different rules in the parse trees obtained in Step 1:

•
$$\dot{p}(A \rightarrow B C) = \mu(A \rightarrow B C) / Z$$

•
$$\dot{p}(A \rightarrow w) = \mu(A \rightarrow w) / Z$$

Inside-Outside Algorithm 2

•
$$\mu(A \rightarrow BC) = \sum_{\{i,k,j\}} \mu(A \rightarrow BC, i, k, j)$$

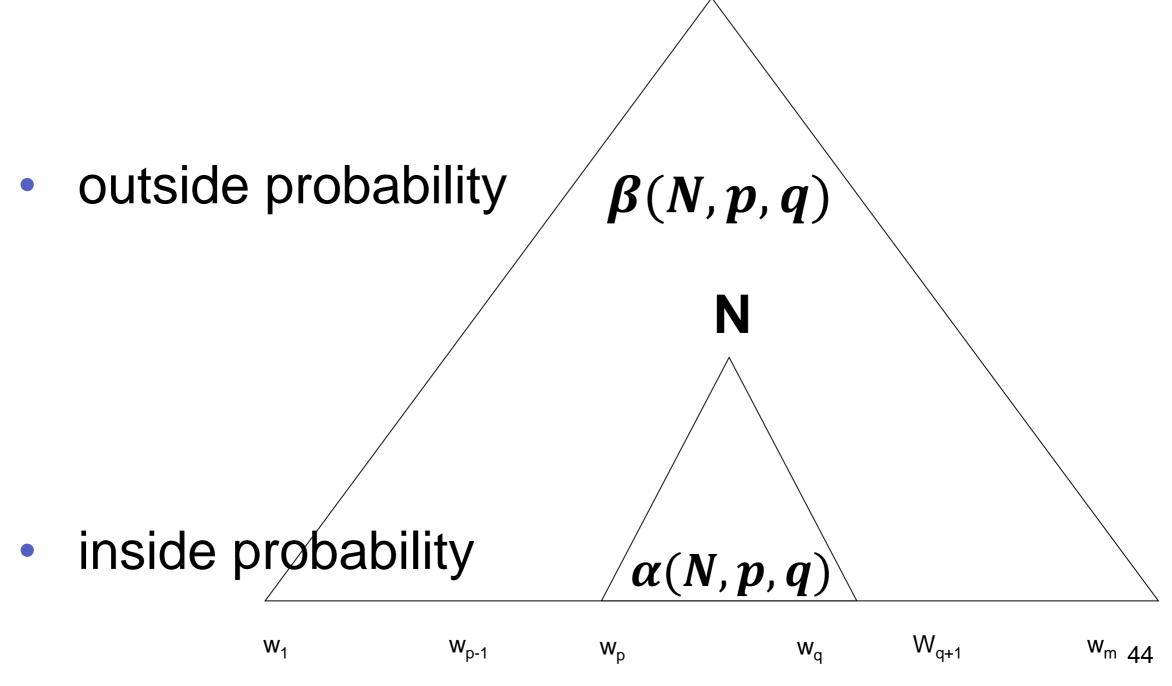
•
$$\mu(A \to w) = \sum_{i} \mu(A, i) \delta_{i}(w)$$

where we now count having seen an A from i to j, a B from i to k, and a C from k to j,

... or an A at location i, where there appears the word w.

Inside-Outside Algorithm 3

 We can define these position-specific µ's in terms of:



Inside-Outside Algorithm 4

- $\mu(A \rightarrow BC, i, k, j) =$ $p(A \rightarrow BC) \beta(A, i, j) \alpha(B, i, k) \alpha(C, k + 1, j)$
- $\mu(A,i) = \mu(A,i,i)$
- $\mu(A, i, j) = \alpha(A, i, j) \beta(A, i, j)$
- $Z = \alpha(S, 1, n)$

There are also very terse, recursive formulations of α and β that are amenable to dynamic programming.

Statistical chart parsing 5

- But just like non-statistical chart parsers, this one only answers 'yes' or 'no' (with a probability) in polynomial time:
 - It's not supposed to matter how we got each constituent. Just the non-terminal label and the span are all that should matter.
- There might be exponentially many trees in this formulation.
- And we're not calculating the probability that the input is a sentence – this is only the probability of one interpretation (tree).

- Evaluation method:
 - *Train* on part of a parsed corpus. (*I.e.,* gather rules and statistics.)
 - Test on a different part of the corpus.
 - Development test: early stopping, metaparameters
 - Evaluation test: evaluate (and then done)
- In one sense, the best evaluation of a method like this would be data likelihood, but since we're scoring trees instead of strings, it's difficult to defend any sort of intuition about the numbers assigned to them.

- Evaluation: PARSEVAL measures compare parser output to known correct parse:
 - Labelled precision, labelled recall.

Fraction of constituents in output that are correct.

Fraction of correct constituents in output.

 F-measure = harmonic mean of precision and recall = 2PR / (P + R)

- Evaluation: PARSEVAL measures compare parser output to known correct parse:
 - Penalize for cross-brackets per sentence: Constituents in output that overlap two (or more) correct ones; e.g., [[A B] C] for [A [B C]].

[[Nadia] [[smelled] [the eggplant]]] [[[Nadia] [smelled]] [the eggplant]]

The labels on the subtrees aren't necessary for this one.

- PARSEVAL is a *classifier accuracy* score much more extensional. All that matters is the right answer at the end.
- But that still means that we can look at parts of the right answer.
- Can get ~75% labelled precision, recall, and F with above methods.

Improving statistical parsing

 Problem: Probabilities are based only on structures and categories:

$$P(C \to \alpha | C) = \frac{c(C \to \alpha)}{\sum_{\beta} c(C \to \beta)} = \frac{c(C \to \alpha)}{c(C)} \quad 4$$

- But actual words strongly condition which rule is used (cf Ratnaparkhi).
- Improve results by conditioning on more factors, including words. Think semantics – the words themselves give us a little bit of access to this.

Lexicalized grammars 1

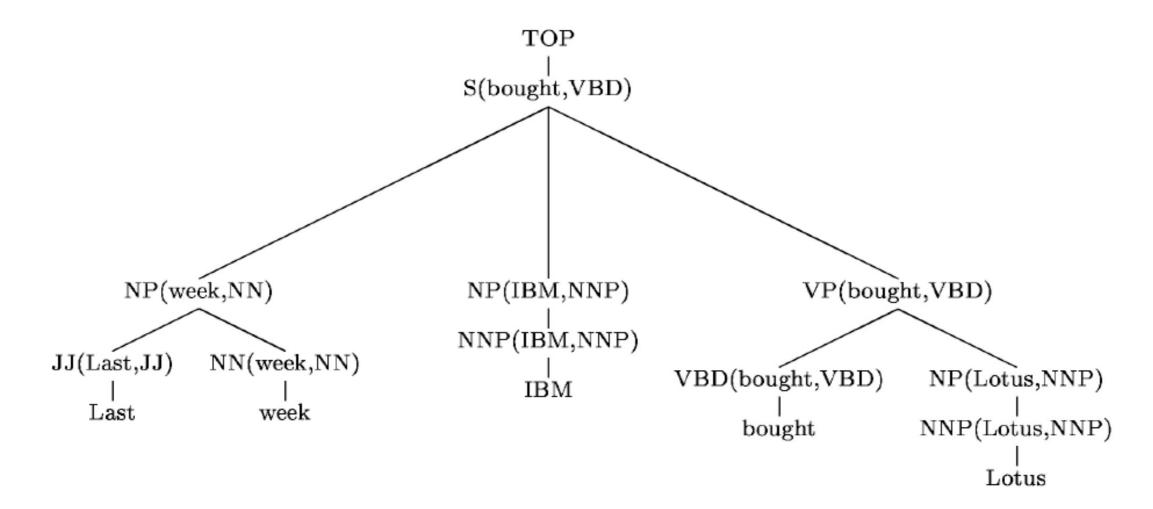
- Head of a phrase: its central or key word.
 - The noun of an NP, the preposition of a PP, etc.
- Lexicalized grammar: Refine the grammar so that rules take heads of phrases into account — the actual words.
 - BEFORE: Rule for NP.
 AFTER: Rules for NP-whose-head-is-*aardvark*, NP-whose-head-is-*abacus*, ..., NP-whose-head-iszymurgy.
- And similarly for VP, PP, etc.

Lexicalized grammars 2

- Notation: cat(head,tag) for constituent category cat headed by head with part-ofspeech tag.
 - e.g., NP(*aardvark*,NN), PP(*without*,IN)

PP-whose-head-is-the-IN-without

A lexicalized grammar



$$\begin{split} \mathsf{TOP} &\rightarrow \mathsf{S}(bought, \mathsf{VBD}) \\ &\qquad \mathsf{S}(bought, \mathsf{VBD}) \rightarrow \mathsf{NP}(week, \mathsf{NN}) \ \mathsf{NP}(\mathit{IBM}, \mathsf{NNP}) \\ &\qquad \mathsf{VP}(bought, \mathsf{VBD}) \\ &\qquad \mathsf{NP}(week, \mathsf{NN}) \rightarrow \mathsf{JJ}(\mathit{Last}, \mathsf{JJ}) \ \mathsf{NN}(week, \mathsf{NN}) \\ &\qquad \mathsf{NP}(\mathit{IBM}, \mathsf{NNP}) \rightarrow \mathsf{NNP}(\mathit{IBM}, \mathsf{NNP}) \\ &\qquad \mathsf{VP}(bought, \mathsf{VBD}) \rightarrow \mathsf{VBD}(bought, \mathsf{VBD}) \\ &\qquad \mathsf{NP}(\mathit{Lotus}, \mathsf{NNP}) \end{split}$$

 $NP(Lotus,NNP) \rightarrow NNP(Lotus,NNP)$ Lexical Rules: $JJ(Last,JJ) \rightarrow Last$ $NN(week,NN) \rightarrow week$ $NNP(IBM,NNP) \rightarrow IBM$ $VBD(bought,VBD) \rightarrow bought$ $NNP(Lotus,NNP) \rightarrow Lotus$

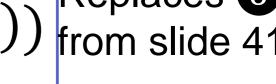
Lexicalized grammars 3

- Number of rules and categories explodes, but no theoretical change in parsing process (whether statistical or not).
- But far too specific for practical use; each is too rarely used to determine its probability.
- Need something more than regular (unlexicalized) rules and less than complete lexicalization ...
- ... perhaps we should change the process after all.

Lexicalized parsing

Starting from unlexicalized rules:

- 1. Lexicalization: Consider the head word of each node, not just its category:
- $P(t) = P(S) * \Pi_n P(rule(n) | head(n))$ Replaces 6 from slide 41



where *head(n)* is the PoS-tagged head word of node n.

- Needs finer-grained probabilities:
 - e.g., probability that rule r is used, given we have an NP whose head is the noun *deficit*.

Lexicalized parsing 2

• 2. Head and parent: Condition on the head and the head of the parent node in the tree:

P(Sentence, Tree)

 $=\prod_{n\in\text{Tree}} P(rule(n) | head(n)) \times P(head(n) | head(parent(n)))$

e.g., probability of rule *r* given that head is the noun *deficit*.

e.g., probability that head is the noun *deficit*, given that parent phrase's head is the verb report.

Effects on parsing

- Lexical information introduces context into CFG.
- Grammar is larger.
- Potential problems of sparse data.
 - Possible solutions: Smoothing; back-off estimates.

If you don't have data for a fine-grained situation, use data from a coarser-grained situation that it's contained in.

Bikel's 2004 intepretation

- Can condition on *any* information available in generating the tree.
- Basic idea: Avoid sparseness of lexicalization by decomposing rules.
 - Make plausible independence assumptions.
 - Break rules down into small steps (small number of parameters).
 - Each rule still parameterized with word/PoS pair: $S(bought, VBD) \rightarrow NP(week, NN) NP(IBM, NNP) VP(bought, VBD)$

Collins's "model 1" 1

- Lexical Rules, with probability 1: $tag(word, tag) \rightarrow word$
- Internal Rules, with treebank-based probabilities. Separate terminals to the left and right of the head; generate one at a time:

 $X \rightarrow L_n L_{n-1} \dots L_1 H R_1 \dots R_{m-1} R_m \quad (n, m \ge 0)$

X, L_i, H, and R_i all have the form *cat*(*head,tag*). *Notation:* Italic lowercase symbol for (*head,tag*):

 $X(x) \rightarrow L_n(l_n)L_{n-1}(l_{n-1})...L_1(l_1) H(h) R_1(r_1)...R_{m-1}(r_{m-1}) R_m(r_m)$

Collins's "model 1" 2

 Assume there are additional L_{n+1} and R_{m+1} representing phrase boundaries ("STOP").

• Example:

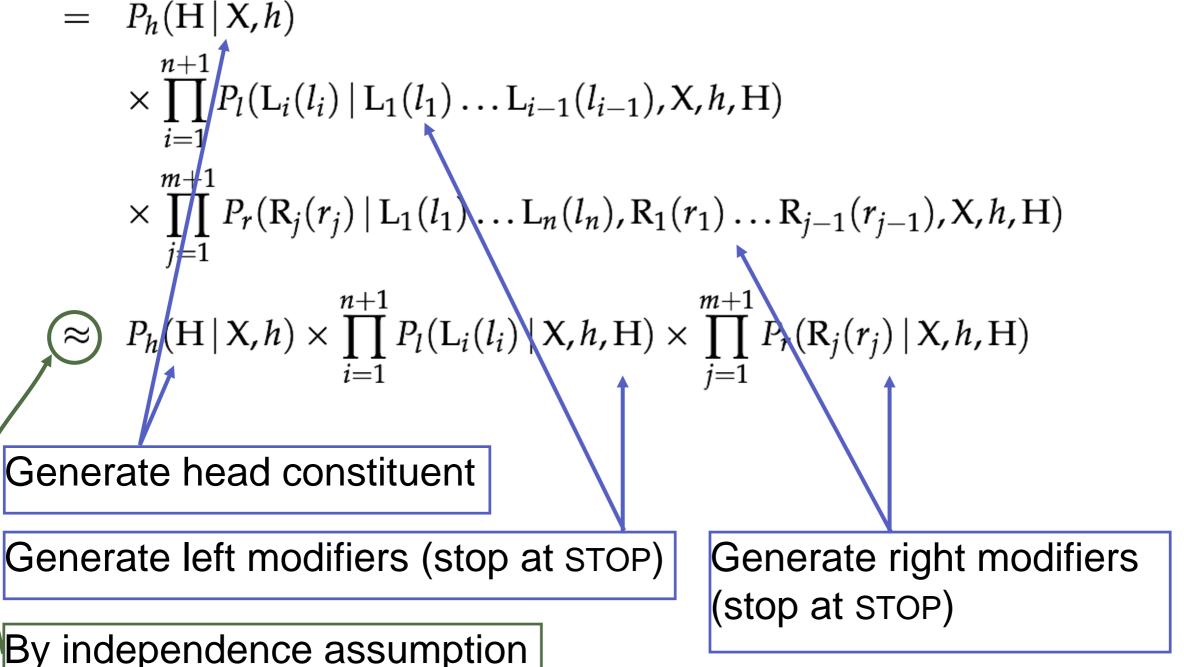
 $S(bought, VBD) \rightarrow NP(week, NN) NP(IBM, NNP) VP(bought, VBD)$ n = 2, m = 0 (two constituents on the left of the head, zero on the right). $X = S, H = VP, L_1 = NP, L_2 = NP, L_3 = STOP, R_1 = STOP.$ $h = (bought, VBD), I_1 = (IBM, NNP), I_2 = (week, NN).$

• Distinguish probabilities of heads P_h , of left constituents P_l , and of right constituents P_r .

Probabilities of internal rules

 $P(\mathbf{X}(h))$

 $= P(L_{n+1}(l_{n+1})L_n(l_n) \dots L_1(l_1) H(h) R_1(r_1) \dots R_m(r_m) R_{m+1}(r_{m+1}) | X, h)$



Probabilities of internal rules 2

Example:

P(S(bought, VBD) → NP(week, NN) NP(IBM, NNP) VP(bought, VBD))

 $\approx P_{h}(VP \mid S, bought, VBD) \qquad \text{Generate head constituent} \\ \times P_{l}(NP(IBM, NNP) \mid S, bought, VBD, VP) \\ \times P_{l}(NP(week, NN) \mid S, bought, VBD, VP) \qquad \text{Generate left} \\ \times P_{l}(STOP \mid S, bought, VBD, VP) \\ \times P_{r}(STOP \mid S, bought, VBD, VP) \qquad \text{Generate right modifiers} \\ \end{array}$

Adding other dependencies

- (Badly-named) "distance measure" to capture properties of attachment relevant to current modifier.
 - $P_l(L_i(l_i) | X, h, H)$ becomes $P_l(L_i(l_i) | X, h, H, distance_l(i-1))$ and analogously on the right.
 - The value of *distance_x* is actually a pair of Boolean random variables:
 - Is string 1..(*i* 1) of length 0?
 i.e., is attachment of modifier *i* to the head?
 - Does string 1..(*i* 1) contain a verb?
 i.e., is attachment of modifier *i* crossing a verb?

Collins's "model 1" 4

- Backs off ...
 - to tag probability when no data for specific word;
 - to complete non-lexicalization when necessary.

Collins's Models 2 and 3

- Model 2: Add verb subcategorization and argument/adjunct distinction.
- *Model 3:* Integrate gaps and trace identification into model.
 - Especially important with addition of subcategorization.

Results and conclusions 1

- Model 2 outperforms Model 1.
- Model 3: Similar performance, but identifies traces too.
- Model 2 performs best overall:
 - LP = 89.6, LR = 89.9 [sentences ≤ 100 words].
 - LP = 90.1, LR = 90.4 [sentences ≤ 40 words].
- Rich information improves parsing performance.

Results and conclusions 2

• Strengths:

- Incorporation of lexical and other linguistic information.
- Competitive results.

• Weaknesses:

- Supervised training.
- Performance tightly linked to particular type of corpus used.

Results and conclusions 3

• Importance to CL:

- High-performance parser showing benefits of lexicalization and linguistic information.
- Publicly available, widely used in research.
- There was some initial hope that it would make language models better, but that didn't pan out.
- But it was fairly successful at giving us some access to semantics, i.e. language modelling makes parsing better.