# Natural Language Processing 

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#### Abstract

The notes present the basic concepts of Natural Language Processing (NLP), the ambiguity issues, various applications of NLP, the grammars and parsing techniques.


## 1 Introduction

Developing a program that understands natural language is a difficult problem. Number of natural languages are large, they contain infinitely many sentences. Also there is much ambiguity in natural language. Many words have several meanings, such as can, bear, fly, orange, and sentences have meanings different in different contexts. This makes creation of programs that understands a natural language, a challenging task.

## 2 Challenges of NLP

Many times the word boundaries are mixed and the sentence understood are totally different.

At the next level, the syntax of the language help us to decide how the words are being combined to make larger meanings. Hence, when there is sentence "the dealer sold the merchant a dog," it is important to be clear about what is sold to whom. Some of the common examples are:

I saw the Golden gate bridge flying into San Francisco.
(Is the bridge flying?)
I ate dinner with a friend.

I ate dinner with a fork.
Can companies litter the environment
(Is this a statement or question?)
Finally, assuming that we have overcome the problem at the previous levels, we must create internal representation, and then, some how use the information in an appropriate way. This is the level of semantics and pragmatics. Here too the ambiguity is prevalent. Consider the following sentences.

Jack went to store. He found the milk in aisle three. He paid for it and left.

Here the problem is deciding whether "it" in the sentence refers to aisle or three, the milk, or even the store. "

The most important part in the above is what is internal representation, so that these ambiguities in understanding the sentence do not occur and machine understands the way a human being understands the sentences.

## 3 Applications

There is huge amounts of data in Internet, at least 20 billions pages. Applications for processing large amounts of texts require NLP expertise. Some requirements are:

- Classify text into categories
- Index and search large texts
- Automatic translation
- Speech understanding: Understand phone conversations
- Information extraction: Extract useful information from resumes
- Automatic summarization: Condense 1 book into 1 page
- Question answering
- Knowledge acquisition
- Text generations / dialogues


### 3.1 Some Applications

## Information Extraction:

"Firm XYZ is a full service advertising agency specializing in direct and interactive marketing. Located in Bigtown CA, Firm XYZ is looking for
an Assistant Account Manager to help manage and coordinate interactive marketing initiatives for a marquee automotive account. Experience in online marketing, automotive and/or the advertising field is a plus. Assistant Account Manager Responsibilities Ensures smooth implementation of programs and initiatives Helps manage the delivery of projects and key client deliverables ...Compensation: 50, 000-80,000 Hiring Organization: Firm XYZ."

Given the above text, the extracted information may be:

| INDUSTRY | Advertising |
| :--- | :--- |
| POSITION | Assistant Account Manager |
| LOCATION | Bigtown, CA. |
| COMPANY | Firm XYZ |
| SALARY | $50,000-80,000$ |

## 4 Computational Linguistics

A simple sentence consists a subject followed with predicate. A word in a sentence acts a part of speech (POS). For English sentence, the parts of speech are: nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verb, adverb, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections. Noun tells about names, where as the verb talks of action. Adjectives and adverbs are modifying the nouns and verbs, respectively. prepositions are relationships between nouns and other POS. Conjunctions joins words and groups together, and interjections express strong feelings.

Most of us understand both written and spoken language, but reading is learned much later, so let us start with spoken language. We can divide the problem into three areas - acoustic-phonetic, morphological-syntactic, and semantic-pragmatic processes as shown in figure 1.


Figure 1: The three levels of linguistic analysis.

### 4.1 Levels of knowledge in language understanding

A language understanding program must have considerable knowledge about the structure of the language including what the words are and how they combine into phrases and sentences. It must also know meaning of the words, how to contribute meaning of the sentence and to the context in which they are being used. In addition, the program must have general world world knowledge and knowledge about how the humans reason.

The components of the knowledge needed to understand the language are following:

- Phonological: Relates sounds to the words we recognize. Phoneme is smallest unit of sound, and the phones are aggregated into word sounds.
- Morphological: This is lexical knowledge, which relates to word construction from basic units called morphemes. A morpheme is the smallest unit of meaning, for example, the construction of friendly from friend and $L y$.
- Syntactic: It is knowledge about how the words are organized to construct meaningful and correct sentences.
- Pragmatics: It is high level knowledge about how to use sentences in different contexts and how the contexts effects the meanings of the sentences.
- World: It is useful in understanding the sentence and carry out the conversation. It includes the other persons beliefs and goals.

The figure 2 shows the stages of analysis in processing Natural language.


Figure 2: Stages in Natural Language Processing.

## 5 Grammars and Languages

A language can be generated given its grammar $G=(V, \Sigma, S, P)$, where $V$ is set of variables, $\Sigma$ is set of terminal symbols, which appear at the end
of generation, $S$ is start symbol, and $P$ is set of production rules. The corresponding language of $G$ is $L(G)$.

Consider that various tuples are as given follows:

$$
\begin{gathered}
V=\{S, N P, N, V P, V, A r t\} \\
\Sigma=\{b o y, \text { icecream }, \text { dog }, \text { bite }, \text { like }, \text { ate }, \text { the }, a\},
\end{gathered}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
P=\{S & \rightarrow N P V P, \\
N P & \rightarrow N, \\
N P & \rightarrow A R T N, \\
V P & \rightarrow V N P, \\
N & \rightarrow \text { boy } \mid \text { icecream } \mid \text { dog }, \\
V & \rightarrow \text { ate } \mid \text { like } \mid \text { bite }, \\
\text { Art } & \rightarrow \text { the } \mid a\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Using above we can generate the following sentences:

The dog bites boy.
Boy bites the dog.
Boy ate icecreame.
The dog bite the boy.
To generate a sentence, the rules from $P$ are applied sequentially starting from the beginning. However, we note that a grammar does not guarantee the generation of meaningful sentences, but generate only those are structurally correct as per the rules of the grammar.

In fact, it is not always possible to formally characterize the natural languages with a simple grammar like above. The grammars are defined by Chomsky hierarchy, as type $0,1,2,3$. The typical rewrite rules for type 1 are:

$$
\begin{aligned}
S & \rightarrow a S \\
S & \rightarrow a A B \\
A B & \rightarrow B A \\
a A & \rightarrow a b \\
a A & \rightarrow a a
\end{aligned}
$$

where uppercase letters are non-terminals and lowercase are terminals. The type-2 grammars are:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& S \rightarrow a S \\
& S \rightarrow a S b \\
& S \rightarrow a B \\
& S \rightarrow a A B \\
& A \rightarrow a \\
& B \rightarrow b
\end{aligned}
$$

The type 3 grammar is simplest having rewrite rules as:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& S \rightarrow a S \\
& S \rightarrow a
\end{aligned}
$$

The types 1, 2, 3 are called context-sensitive, context-free, and regular grammars, and hence the corresponding names for languages also. The formal languages are mostly based on the type- 2 languages, as the type 0 and 1 are not much and understood and difficult to implement.

## 6 Structural Representation

It is convenient to represent the sentences as tree or a graph to help expose the structure of the constituent parts. For example, the sentence, 'the boy ate a icecream' can be represented as a tree shown in figure 3 .


Figure 3: A syntactic tree.
For the purpose of computation a tree must also be represented as a record, a list or some similar data structure. For example, the tree above is represented as a list:

```
(S (NP ((Art the)
    (N boy))
    (VP (V ate) (NP (Art a) (N Icecream)))))
```

A more extensive English grammar can be obtained with the addition of other constituencies such as prepositional phrases $P P$, adjectives $A D J$, determiners $D E T$, adverbs $A D V$, auxiliary verbs $A U X$, and many other features. Correspondingly, the other rewrite rules are followings.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& P P \rightarrow \text { Prep } N P, \\
& V P \rightarrow V A D V \\
& V P \rightarrow V P P, \\
& V P \rightarrow V N P P P \\
& V P \rightarrow A U X V N P \\
& D e t \rightarrow A r t A D J, \\
& D e t \rightarrow A r t
\end{aligned}
$$

These extensions allow the increase in complexity of the sentences, along with its expression power. For example, the following sentences.

The cruel man locked the dog in the house.
The laborious man worked to make some extra money.

## 7 Transformational Grammars

The grammar discussed above produce produce different structures for different sentences, even though they have same meaning. For example,

Ram gave Shyam a book.
A book was given by ram to Shyam.
In the above, the subject and object roles are switched. In the first, subject is RAm and object is Book, while in second sentence they are other way round. This, is undesirable feature for machine processing of a language. In fact, sentences having same meaning should map to the same internal structures.

By adding some extra components, we can produce a single representation for sentences having the same meaning, through a series of transformations. This extended grammar is called Transformational grammar. In addition, the semantic and phonological components components, added as
new, helps in interpreting the output of the syntactic components, as meaning and sound sequences. The transformations are tree manipulation rules, which are taken from dictionary, where words contain semantic featuring each of the lexicon.

Using transformational generative grammar, a sentence is analyzed in two stages, (1) basic structure of the sentence is analyzed to determine the grammatical constitutional parts, which provides the structure of the sentence. (2) This is transformed into another form, where deeper semantic structure is determined.

The application of transformations is to produce a change from passive voice form of the sentence into active voice, change a question to declarative form, handle negations, and provide subject-verb agreement. The figure 4 shows the three stages of conversion, from passive voice to active voice of a sentence.

(I)

(II)


Figure 4: Transformational Grammar.

However, the transformational grammars are rarely used as computational models.

## 8 Grammars and NL Parsing

Following are examples, showing the rules and parsed sentences:

```
S -> NP VP; I prefer a morning flight
VP -> V NP; prefer a morning flight
VP -> V NP PP; leaves Bombay in the morning
VP -> V PP; leaving on Tuesday
```

```
PP -> preposition NP; from New Delhi. (the NP can be location,
    date, time or others)
```

Following are examples of Parts of Speech.

```
N -> flights | breeze | trip | morning |...
V -> is | prefer | like | need | want | fly
Adj -> cheapest | non-stop | first | latest | other | direct ...
Pronoun -> me | I | you | it | ...
Proper-N -> Mumbai | Delhi | India | USA | ...
Det -> a | an | the | this | these | those | ...
Prep -> from | to | on | near
Conj -> and | or | but
```

The following examples show the substitution rules along with values for each parts-of-speech to be substituted.

```
NP -> Pronoun(I) | proper-N (Mumbai) | det Nomial (a flight) | N (flight).
VP -> V (do) | V NP (want a flight) | V NP PP (leaves Delhi in Morning)
PP -> Pre NP (from Delhi)
```

Making use of above rules, the figure 5 demonstrates the parsing of sentence "I prefer morning flight".


Figure 5: Parse-Tree for "I prefer morning flight".

## 9 Sentence Level Constructions

The sentences can be classified as declarative, imperative, and pragmatic, as follows.
Declarative Sentences: They have structure: $\mathrm{S} \rightarrow$ NP VP.
Imperative Sentences: These sentences begin with 'VP'. For example, "Show the lowest fare", "List all the scores". The production rules are:

S -> VP
VP -> V NP
And, other substitutions for verb are mentioned above.
Pragmatic Sentences: The examples of pragmatic sentences are:

Do all these flights have stops?
Can you give me the same information?
What Airlines fly from Delhi?
What flights do you have from Delhi to Mumbai?
The substitution rule for pragmatic sentences is:
S -> Aux NP VP.
Corresponding to the 'What', the production rule is 'Wh-NP $\rightarrow$ What'. Hence, for the last sentence, "What flights do you have from Delhi to Mumbai? ", the first rule to be applied is "S $\rightarrow$ Wh-NP Aux NP VP". Many times, the longer sentences are conjuncted together using connectives, e.g., "I will fly to Delhi and Mumbai". The corresponding rule is " $\mathrm{S} \rightarrow \mathrm{NP}$ and NP". Similarly, there is " $\mathrm{S} \rightarrow \mathrm{S}$ and D", and "VP $\rightarrow \mathrm{VP}$ and VP".

## 10 Ambiguous Grammars

The ambiguous grammars have more than one parse-trees, for the same sentence. Consider the sentence "He drove down the street in the Car". The parse-trees are given in figure 7 and 9 . A process for drawing the parse-trees is grouping the words to realize the structure in the sentence. Figure 6 and 8, demonstrate grouping of the words for parse-trees shown in figures 7 and 9 , respectively.


Figure 6: Grouping the words for parsing.


Figure 7: Parsing-1: He drove down the street in the car.


Figure 8: Grouping the words for parsing.

## 11 Parsing with CFGs

The parse-trees are useful for:

1. Grammar checking of the sentence,
2. Parsing is an important intermediate stage in semantic analysis.
3. The parsing plays an important role in:
(a) Mechanical translation,
(b) Question answering
(c) Information Extraction

### 11.1 Parsing is Search

A syntactic parser can be viewed as searching through the space of all possible parse-trees to find the correct parse-tree. Before we go through the steps of parsing, let us consider the following rules for grammar.


Figure 9: Parsing-2: He drove down the street in the car.

```
S -> NP VP
S \(\rightarrow\) Aux NP VP
S \(->\) VP
NP -> Det Nom
Nom \(->\) Noun Noam
Nom \(->\) N
NP -> proper-N
VP -> V
VP -> V NP
Det -> a | an | the
N -> book | flight | meal
V \(\rightarrow\) book | include | proper
Aux -> Does
prep -> from | to | on
Proper-N -> Mumbai
Nomial -> Nomial PP
```

The parse tree is shown in figure 10.

### 11.2 Top Down parsing

The searching is carried out from the root node. The substitutions are carried out, and progressing sentence is compared with the input text sentence to determine whether the sentence generated progressively matches with the original. The figure 11 demonstrates the steps for the top-down parsing for the sentence "Book that flight".

To carry out the top down parsing, we expand the tree at each level as shown in the figure. At each level, the trees whose leaves fails to match


Figure 10: Parsing: Book that flight.
(1)

- S

(3)







Figure 11: Top-down parsing of: Book that flight.
the input sentence, are rejected, leaving behind the trees that represent the successful parses. Going this way, ultimately get the sentence: Book that flight.

## 12 Summary

1. Natural language processing is a complex task, due to variety of structures of sentences, and ambiguity in the language. The ambiguities occur at phonetic levels, semantic levels, and pragmatic levels.
2. The languages are defined as per the Chomsky hierarchy, as type 3,2 , 1,0 , from mots simple to most complex, called generative grammars. Though, the NL is not context-free, but due to non-availability of
proper theory of type 0 , and 1 , the theory of type 2 (context-free) grammar is applied to NLP also.
3. The subject of NLP is particularly important because, NLP has enumerable applications, which have further expanded due to Internet and WWW.
4. The sentences of NL can be generated by constructing the parse-tees, one for each sentence.

## Exercises and Review Questions

1. What are the challenges of NLP?
2. Give one example of following ambiguities:
(a) Phonetic
(b) Syntactic
(c) Pragmatic
3. What are the applications of NLP?
4. Develop the parse tree to generate the sentence "Rajan slept on the bench" using following rewrite rules:
5. Draw the tree for the following phrases:
(a) after 5 pm .
(b) on Tuesday.
(c) From Delhi.
(d) Any delay at Mumbai.
6. Draw the tree structures for the following sentences:
(a) I would like to fly on air India.
(b) I need to fly between Delhi and Mumbai.
(c) Please repeat again.
7. Convert the following passive voice to active voice. Construct the necessary trees. Also write the steps.

The village was looted by dacoits.

$$
\begin{aligned}
S & \rightarrow N P V P \\
N P & \rightarrow N \\
N P & \rightarrow \text { Det } N \\
V P & \rightarrow V P P \\
P P & \rightarrow \text { Prep } N P \\
N & \rightarrow \text { Rajan } \mid \text { bench } \\
\text { Det } & \rightarrow \text { the } \\
\text { prep } & \rightarrow \text { on }
\end{aligned}
$$

8. Given the parse-tree in figure 12, construct the grammar for this.


Figure 12: Parse-tree.
9. Construct the grammars and parse tree for the following sentences.
(a) The boy who was sleeping was awakened.
(b) The boy who was sleeping on the table was awakened.
(c) Jack slept on the table.

## References

[1] Dan W. Patterson, Introduction to Artificial Intelligence and Expert System , PHI, 2001, Chapter 12.
[2] Eugene Charniak and Drew Mcdermott, Introduction to Artificial Intelligence, pearson, 1998, Chapter 4.

