

# Logic Programming (ITSE301)

## Introduction to Natural Language Processing

# What is NLP?

- Natural Language Processing (NLP) is the study of human languages using computers.
- Human languages are studied by many research groups.
- As computer scientists we are interested in the algorithm and data structures that are useful for analyzing human languages.

# NLP Goals

- Computers would be a lot more useful if they could handle our email, do our library search, talk to us ...
- But this is not an easy task.
- How can we make computers handle human languages?

# Some NLP Applications

- Spelling correction, grammar checking ...
- Better search engines
- Information Extraction (IE)
- New interfaces:
  - ❖ Speech recognition (and text-to-speech)
  - ❖ Dialogue systems
  - ❖ Machine translation

# Objectives

- The main goal of this series of lectures is to introduce you to the NLP problems & solutions
- At the end you should:
  - ❖ Agree that NLP is interesting
  - ❖ Write small programs that analyze human languages

# Language Levels

## مستويات تحليل اللغة

- **Phonetics/phonology:** The study of sounds that make words علم الصوتيات
- **Morphology:** The study of written words and their structure. دراسة الكلمات المكتوبة.
- **Syntax:** The study of the structure of phrases and sentences. دراسة تركيب الجمل والعبارات.
- **Semantics:** The study of the literal meaning? دراسة المعاني
- **Pragmatics:** The study of sentences in their context دراسة الجمل مع السياق الذي تذكر فيه “It’s cold in here!”

# NLP problems: Ambiguity الغموض

- If there are more than one interpretation of a sentence then it is ambiguous.
- Ambiguity can arise at all levels of language processing
  - ❖ Morphology (**can** has many meaning )
  - ❖ Syntax: The girl eats the apple with a smile –The girl eats the apple with a bruise.
  - ❖ Semantics: Water runs down the hill. vs. The river runs down the hill.
  - ❖ Pragmatics: Can you pass the salt. (Sue!, Yes, No). It's cold in here!

# Syntax النحو

- Syntax is the study of the structure of sentences
- Syntactic objects are words, groups of words, syntactic categories such as NOUN and NOUN PHRASE, and syntactic roles such as SUBJECT and MODIFIER



# Structure in Strings

- Some words: *the, a, small, nice, big, very, boy, girl, sees, likes, apples*
- Some good sentences:
  - ❖ the boy likes apples
  - ❖ the small girl likes the big girl
  - ❖ a very small nice boy sees a very nice boy
- Some bad sentences:
  - ❖ \*the boy the apple
  - ❖ \*small boy likes nice apples
- Can we find subsequences of words (**constituents**) which in some way behave alike?

# Structure in Strings

## Proposal 1

- Some words: *the a small nice big very boy girl sees likes cat*
- Some good sentences:
  - ❖ (the) boy (likes the cat)
  - ❖ (the small) girl (likes the big girl)
  - ❖ (a very small nice) boy (sees a very nice boy)
- Some bad sentences:
  - ❖ \*(the) boy (the girl)
  - ❖ \*(small) boy (likes the nice girl)

# Structure in Strings

## Proposal 2

➤ Some words: *the a small nice big very boy girl sees likes*

➤ Some good sentences:

❖ (the boy) likes (the cat)

❖ (the small girl) likes (the big girl)

❖ (a very small nice boy) sees (a very nice boy)

➤ Some bad sentences:

❖ \*(the boy) (the cat)

❖ \*(small boy) likes (the nice girl)

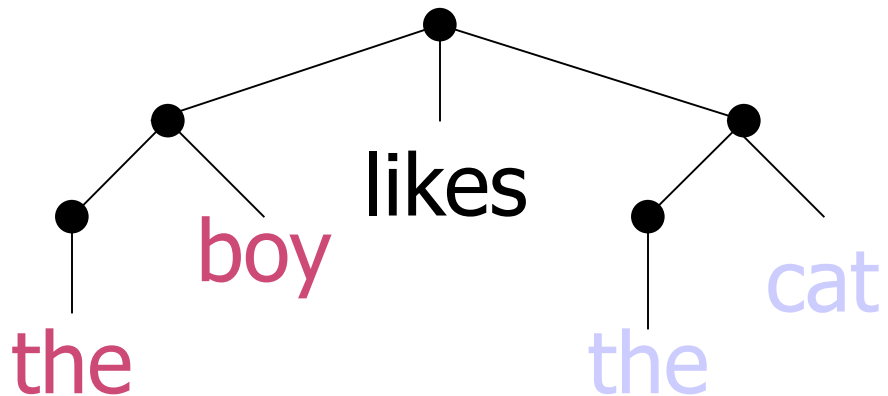
- This is better proposal: fewer types of  $\bar{1}$  constituents

# More Structure in Strings

- Some words: *the a small nice big very boy girl sees likes cat*
- Some good sentences:
  - ❖ ((the) boy) likes ((the) cat)
  - ❖ ((the) (small) girl) likes ((the) (big) girl)
  - ❖ ((a) ((very) small) (nice) boy) sees ((a) ((very) nice) girl)
- Some bad sentences:
  - ❖ \*((the) boy) ((the) cat)
  - ❖ \*((small) boy) likes ((the) (nice) girl)

# From Substrings to Trees

➤ (((the) boy) likes ((the) cat))

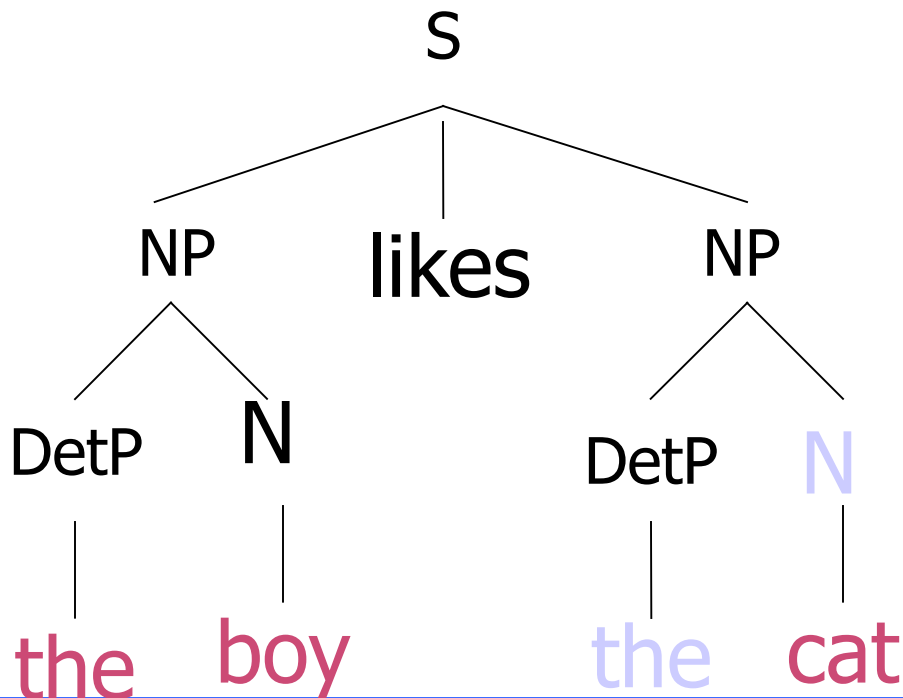


# Node Labels?

- ((the) boy) likes ((the) cat)
- Group words by their part-of-speech (POS):
  - ❖ Noun (N), verb (V), adjective (Adj), adverb (Adv), determiner (Det)
- Category of constituent: XP, where X is POS
  - ❖ NP, AdjP, AdvP, VP, and S

# Node Labels

➤ (((the/Det) boy/N) likes/v ((the/Det) cat/N))



# Word Classes = POS

- Possible basic set: N, V, Adj, Adv, Prep, Det, Aux
- 2 supertypes: open- and closed-class
  - ❖ Open: N, V, Adj, Adv
  - ❖ Closed: Prep, Det, Aux
- Many subtypes:
  - ❖ eats/V  $\Rightarrow$  eat/VB, eat/VBP, eats/VBZ, ate/VBD, eaten/VBN, eating/VBG,



## Can we use prolog to write some simple grammar rules?

- Yes! Prolog comes with a grammar called Definite Clause Grammar (DCG)

# Definite Clause Grammars

- A *grammar* is a precise definition of which sequences of words or symbols belong to some *language*.
- Grammars are particularly useful for natural language processing
- But they can be used to process any precisely defined 'language', such as the commands allowed in some human-computer interface.

# Grammar rules

- In general, a grammar is defined as a collection of *grammar rules*. These are sometimes called *rewrite rules*, since they show how we can rewrite one thing as something else.
- In linguistics, a typical grammar rule for English might look like this:  
sentence → noun\_phrase, verb\_phrase  
e.g “The man ran.”
- This would show that, in English, a *sentence* could be constructed as a *noun phrase*, followed by a *verb phrase*. More example:  
noun\_phrase → noun  
noun\_phrase → determiner, noun  
verb\_phrase → intransitive\_verb  
verb\_phrase → transitive\_verb, noun\_phrase

# Terminals and non-terminals

- In these rules, symbols like *sentence*, *noun*, *verb*, etc., are used to show the structure of the language
- Such symbols are called *non-terminal symbols*, because they can be further decomposed
- In defining grammar rules for *noun*, we can write:

noun → [ball]

noun → [dog]

noun → [stick]

These are called the *terminal symbols*, because they can't be expanded any more.

# Grammar rules in Prolog

➤ Prolog allows us to directly implement grammars of this form.

➤ So, we can write the same rules as:

```
sentence --> noun_phrase, verb_phrase.
```

```
noun_phrase --> noun.
```

```
noun_phrase --> determiner, noun.
```

```
verb_phrase --> intransitive_verb.
```

```
verb_phrase --> transitive_verb, noun_phrase.
```

➤ Here, each non-terminal symbol is like a predicate with no arguments.

# Grammar rules in Prolog

- Terminal symbols are represented as lists containing one atom

```
noun --> [ball].
```

```
noun --> [dog].
```

```
noun --> [stick].
```

```
noun --> ['Tripoli'].
```

## How Prolog uses grammar rules

- Prolog converts DCG rules into an internal representation which makes them conventional Prolog clauses.
  - ❖ This can be seen by ‘listing’ the consulted code.

- Non-terminals are given two extra arguments, so:

**sentence --> noun\_phrase, verb\_phrase.**

becomes: **sentence(In, Out) :-**

**noun\_phrase(In, Temp),**

**verb\_phrase(Temp, Out).**

## How Prolog uses grammar rules

- This means: some sequence of symbols **In**, can be recognised as a sentence, leaving **Out** as a remainder, if
  - ❖ a noun phrase can be found at the start of **In**, leaving **Temp** as a remainder,
  - ❖ and a verb phrase can be found at the start of **Temp**, leaving **Out** as a remainder.



## How Prolog uses grammar rules (2)

- Terminal symbols are represented using the special predicate 'C', which has three arguments. So:  
**noun --> [ball] .**  
becomes: **noun(In, Out) :-**  
**'C'(In, ball, Out) .**
- This means: some sequence of symbols **In** can be recognised as a noun, leaving **Out** as a remainder, if the atom *ball* can be found at the start of that sequence, leaving **Out** as a remainder.

## How Prolog uses grammar rules (2)

- The built-in predicate 'C' is very simply defined:

```
'C' ( [Term|List], Term, List ).
```

where it succeeds if its second argument is the head of its first argument, and the third argument is the remainder.

## A very simple grammar

- Here's a very simple little grammar, which defines a very small subset of English:

```
sentence --> noun, verb_phrase.  
verb_phrase --> verb, noun.  
noun --> [ali].  
noun --> [salem].  
noun --> [apples].  
verb --> [likes].  
verb --> [hates].  
verb --> [runs].
```

## A very simple grammar

➤ We can now use the grammar to test whether some sequence of symbols *belongs to* the language:

```
| ?- sentence([bob, likes, apples], []).
```

```
yes
```

```
| ?- sentence([bob, runs], []).
```

```
no
```

## A very simple grammar (2)

- By specifying that the remainder is an empty list we can use the grammar to generate all of the possible sentences in the language:

```
| ?- sentence(X, []).  
X = [bob,likes,bob] ? ;  
X = [bob,likes,david] ? ;  
X = [bob,likes,apples] ? ;  
X = [bob,hates,bob] ? ;  
X = [bob,hates,david] ? ;  
:
```

## Adding Arguments

- We can add our own arguments to the non-terminals in DCG rules to improve our grammar.
- As an example, we can very simply add *number* agreement (singular or plural) between the subject of an English sentence and the main verb.

```
sentence --> noun(Num) , verb_phrase(Num) .
```

```
verb_phrase(Num) --> verb(Num) , noun(_). 
```

```
noun(singular) --> [bob].
```

```
noun(plural) --> [students].
```

```
verb(singular) --> [likes].
```

```
verb(plural) --> [like].
```

## Adding Arguments

➤ So now we can ask prolog:

```
| ?- sentence([bob, likes, students], []).
```

```
yes
```

```
| ?- sentence([students, likes, bob], []).
```

```
no
```