Lecture 15: CYK Parsing Algorithm
3 March 2009

1 CYK parsing

1.1 Discussion

We already saw that one can decide if a word is in the language defined by a context-free grammar, but the construction made no attempt to be practical. There were two problems with this algorithm. First, we converted the grammar to be in Chomsky Normal Form (CNF). Most practical applications need the parse to show the structure using the original input grammar. Second, our method blindly generated all parse trees of the right size, without regard to what was in the string to be parsed. This is inefficient since there may be a large number of parse trees (i.e., exponential in the length of the word) of this size.

The Cocke-Younger-Kasami (CYK) algorithm solves the second of these problems, using a table data-structure called the chart. This basic technique can be extended (e.g. Earley’s algorithm) to handle grammars that are not in Chomsky Normal Form and to linear-time parsing for special types of CFGs.

In general, the number of parses for a string \( w \) is exponential in the length of \( w \). For example, consider the sentence “Mr Plum kill Ms Marple at midnight in the bedroom with a sword.” There are three prepositional phrases: “at midnight”, “in the bedroom,” and “with a sword.” Each of these can either be describing the main action (e.g. the killing was done with a sword) or the noun right before it (e.g. there are several bedrooms and we mean the one with a sword hanging over the dresser). Since each decision is independent, a sentence with \( k \) prepositional phrases like this has \( 2^k \) possible parses.\(^1\)

So it’s really bad to organize parsing by considering all possible parse trees. Instead, consider all substrings in our input. If \( w \) has length \( n \), then it has \( \sum_{k=1}^{n} (n-k+1) = \frac{n(n+1)}{2} = \binom{n+1}{2} \) substrings.\(^2\) CYK computes a table summarizing the possible parses for each substring. From the table, we can quickly tell whether an input has a parse and extract one representative parse tree.\(^3\)

1.2 CYK by example

Suppose the input sentence \( w \) is “Jeff trains geometry students” and the grammar has start symbol \( S \) and the following rules:

\(^1\)In real life, long sentences in news reports often exhibit versions of this problem.
\(^2\)Draw an \( n \) by \( n+1 \) rectangle and fill in the lower half.
\(^3\)It still takes exponential time to extract all parse trees from the table, but we usually interested only in one of these trees.
\[ \Rightarrow \begin{align*} S & \rightarrow N \ V_P \\ \forall N & \rightarrow N \ N \\ V_P & \rightarrow V \ N \\ N & \rightarrow \text {students | Jeff | geometry | trains} \\ V & \rightarrow \text {trains} \end{align*} \]

Given a string \( w \) of length \( n \), we build a triangular table with \( n \) rows and \( n \) columns. Conceptually, we write \( w \) below the bottom row of the table. The \( i \)th column correspond to the \( i \)th word. The cell at the \( i \)th column and the \( j \)th row (from the bottom) of the table corresponds to the substring starting the \( i \)th character of length \( j \). The following is the table, and the substrings each entry corresponds to.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>len</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Jeff trains geometry students</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Jeff trains geometry</td>
<td>trains geometry students</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Jeff trains</td>
<td>trains geometry</td>
<td>geometry students</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Jeff</td>
<td>trains</td>
<td>geometry</td>
<td>students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Jeff trains geometry students</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CYK builds a table containing a cell for each substring. The cell for a substring \( x \) contains a list of variables \( V \) from which we can derive \( x \) (in one or more steps).

The bottom row contains the variables that can derive each substring of length 1. This is easy to fill in:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>length</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The first word in substring

Now we fill the table row-by-row, moving upwards. To fill in the cell for a 2-word substring \( x \), we look at the labels in the cells for its two constituent words and see what rules could derive this pair of labels. In this case, we use the rules \( N \rightarrow N \ N \) and \( V_P \rightarrow V \ N \) to produce:
For each longer substring $x$, we have to consider all the ways to divide $x$ into two shorter substrings. For example, suppose $x$ is the substring of length 3 starting with “trains”. This can be divided into divided into (a) “trains geometry” plus “students” or (b) “trains” plus “geometry students.”

Consider option (a). Looking at the lower rows of the table, “students” has label N. One label for “trains geometry” is $V_P$, but we don’t have any rule whose righthand side contains $V_P$ followed by N. The other label for “trains geometry” is N. In this case, we find the rule $N \to N N$. So one label for $x$ is N. (That is, $x$ is one big long compound noun.)

Now consider option (b). Again, we have the possibility that both parts have label N. But we also find that “trains” could have the label V. We can then apply the rule $V_P \to V N$ to add the label $V_P$ to the cell for $x$.

Repeating this procedure for the remaining two cells, we get:

Remember that a string is in the language if it can be derived from the start symbol $S$. The top cell in the table contains the variables from which we can derive the entire input string. Since $S$ is in that top cell, we know that our string is in the language.

By adding some simple annotations to these tables as we fill them in, we can make it easy to read out an entire parse tree by tracing downwards from the top cell. In this case, the tree:
CYK \((\mathcal{G}, w)\)
\[ \mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \Sigma, \mathcal{R}, \mathcal{S}), \Sigma \cup \mathcal{V} = \{X_1, \ldots, X_r\}, \ w = w_1 w_2 \ldots w_n. \]
begin
Initialize the 3d array \(B[1 \ldots n, 1 \ldots n, 1 \ldots r]\) to \texttt{FALSE}.
for \(i = 1\) to \(n\) do
  for \((X_j \to x) \in \mathcal{R}\) do
    if \(x = w_i\) then \(B[i, i, j] \leftarrow \texttt{TRUE}\).
for \(i = 2\) to \(n\) do  /* Length of span */
  for \(L = 1\) to \(n - i + 1\) do /* Start of span */
    \(R = L + i - 1\)  /* Current span \(s = w_L w_{L+1} \ldots w_R\) */
    for \(M = L + 1\) to \(R\) do /* Partition of span */
      /* \(x = w_L w_{L+1} \ldots w_{M-1}, y = w_M w_{M+1} \ldots w_R, \) and \(s = xy\) */
      for \((X_\alpha \to X_\beta X_\gamma) \in \mathcal{R}\) do
        /* Can we match \(X_\beta\) to \(x\) and \(X_\gamma\) to \(y\)? */
        if \(B[L, M - 1, \beta] \) and \(B[M, R, \gamma]\) then
          \(B[L, R, \alpha] \leftarrow \texttt{TRUE}\)  /* If so, then can generate \(s\) by \(X_\alpha\)! */
  for \(i = 1\) to \(r\) do
    if \(B[1, n, i]\) then return \texttt{TRUE}
return \texttt{FALSE}
\]
\[\text{Figure 1: The CYK algorithm.}\]

We have \(O(n^2)\) cells in the table. For each cell, we have to consider \(n\) ways to divide its substring into two smaller substrings. So the table-filling procedure takes only \(O(n^3)\) time.

2 The CYK algorithm
In general, we get the following result.

\textbf{Theorem 2.1} Let \(\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \Sigma, \mathcal{R}, \mathcal{S})\) be a grammar in \textit{CNF} with \(r = |\Sigma| + |\mathcal{V}|\) variables and terminals, and \(t = |\mathcal{R}|\) rules. Let \(w \in \Sigma^*\) be a word of length \(n\). Then, one can compute a parse tree for \(w\) using \(\mathcal{G}\), if \(w \in L(\mathcal{G})\). The running time of the algorithm is \(O(n^3 t)\).

The result just follow from the CYK algorithm depicted in Figure 1. Note, that our pseudo-code just decides if a word can be generated by a grammar. With slight modifications, one can even generate the parse tree.