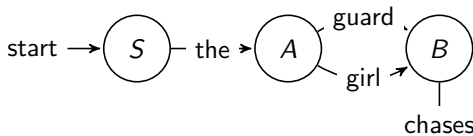


Formal Models of Language

Paula Buttery

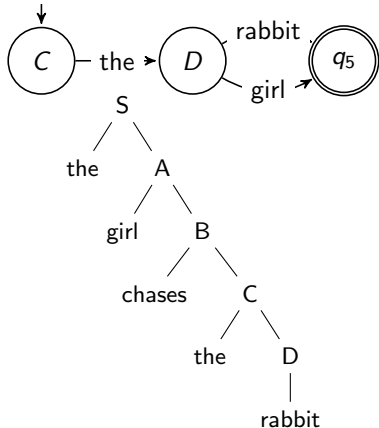
Dept of Computer Science & Technology, University of Cambridge

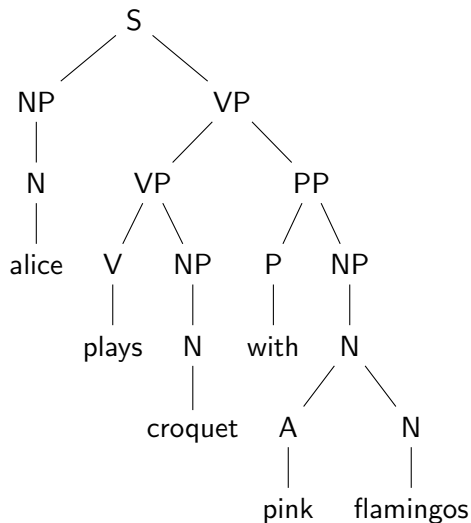
Regular grammars give us **linear** trees



$G = (\mathcal{N}, \Sigma, S, \mathcal{P})$ where $\mathcal{P} = \{A \rightarrow aA, A \rightarrow a \mid A \in \mathcal{N}, a \in \Sigma\}$

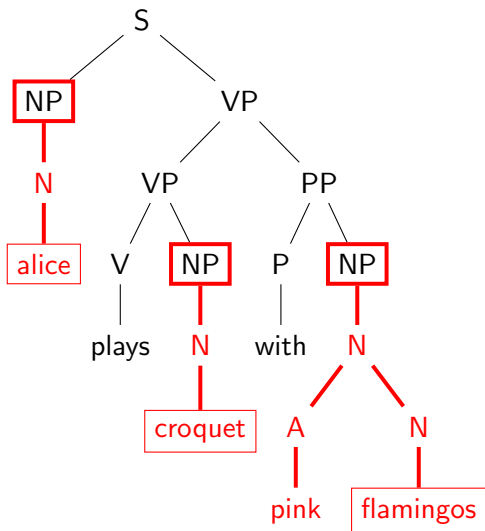
- $\mathcal{N} = \{S, A, B, C, D, q_5\}$
- $\Sigma = \{the, girl, guard, \dots\}$
- $S = S$
- $\mathcal{P} = \{S \rightarrow the\ A,$
 $A \rightarrow guard\ B \mid girl\ B,$
 $B \rightarrow chases\ C,$
 $C \rightarrow the\ D,$
 $D \rightarrow girl \mid rabbit\}$



Context-free grammars capture **phrase structure**

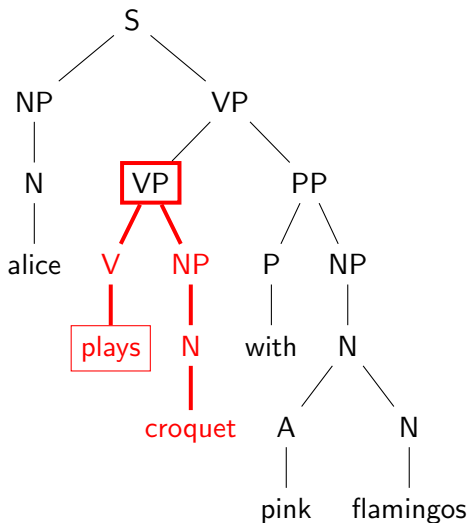
$G = (\mathcal{N}, \Sigma, S, \mathcal{P})$ where
 $\mathcal{P} = \{A \rightarrow \alpha \mid$
 $A \in \mathcal{N}, \alpha \in (\mathcal{N} \cup \Sigma)^*\}$

A brief excursion into
 linguistic terminology...

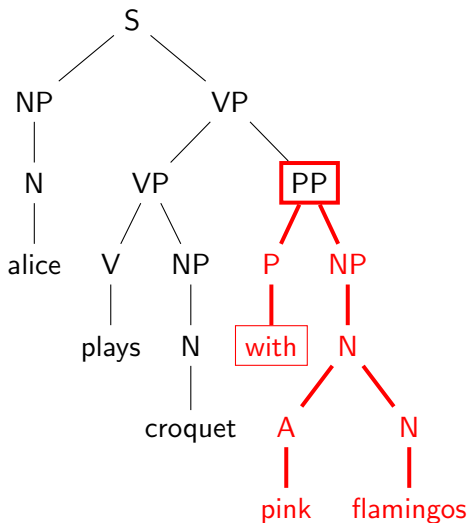
Context-free grammars capture **phrase structure**

When modelling natural language, linguists label the non-terminal symbols with names that encode the most *influential* word in the phrase. They call this influential word the **head**.

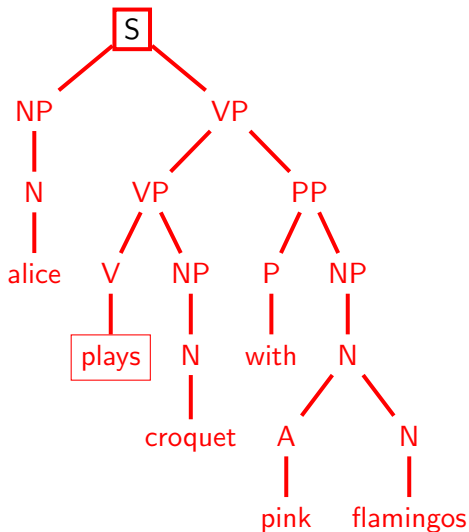
- noun phrases, *NP*, have a head noun

Context-free grammars capture **phrase structure**

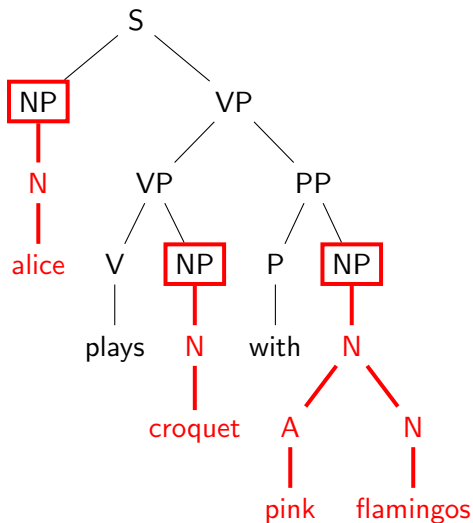
- verb phrases, *VP*, have a head verb

Context-free grammars capture **phrase structure**

- prepositional phrases, *PP*, have a head preposition

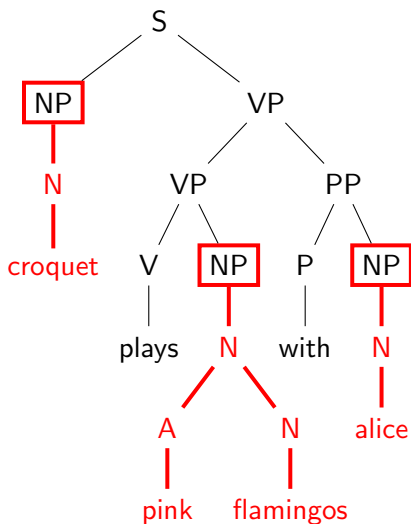
Context-free grammars capture **phrase structure**

- the head of the whole string, *S*, is always the main verb

Context-free grammars capture **phrase structure**

Trees below nodes of the same type are interchangeable to yield another string in the language:

- $NP \rightarrow N$
- $N \rightarrow A N$
- $N \rightarrow \text{alice|croquet|...}$

Context-free grammars capture **phrase structure**

Trees below nodes of the same type are interchangeable to yield another string in the language:

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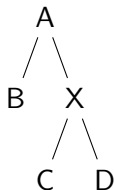
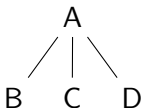
CFGs are often written in **Chomsky Normal Form**

Chomsky normal form: every production rule has the form, $A \rightarrow BC$, or, $A \rightarrow a$ where $A, B, C \in \mathcal{N}$, and, $a \in \Sigma$.

Conversion to Chomsky Normal Form

For every CFG there is a weakly equivalent CNF alternative.

$A \rightarrow BCD$ may be rewritten as the two rules, $A \rightarrow BX$, and, $X \rightarrow CD$.



CNF is a requirement for some parsing algorithms.

Context-free languages are accepted by **push down automata**

A PDA is defined as $M = (Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \Delta, s, \perp, \mathcal{F})$ where:

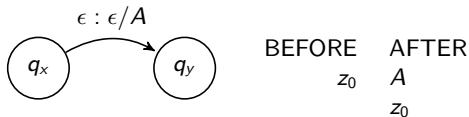
- $Q = \{q_0, q_1, q_2, \dots\}$ is a finite set of states.
- Σ is the input alphabet.
- Γ is the stack alphabet.
- $\Delta \subseteq (Q \times (\Sigma \cup \epsilon) \times \Gamma) \times (Q \times \Gamma^*)$ is a relation $(Q \times (\Sigma \cup \epsilon) \times \Gamma) \rightarrow (Q \times \Gamma^*)$ which we write as δ . Given $q \in Q$, $i \in \Sigma$ and $A \in \Gamma$ then $\delta(q, i, A)$ returns (q', α) , that is, a new state $q' \in Q$ and replaces A at the top of the stack with $\alpha \in \Gamma^*$
- s is the starting state
- \perp is the initial stack symbol
- \mathcal{F} is the set of all end states

Moving from one state to the next we may **push** or **pop**

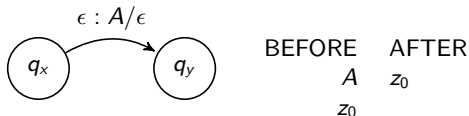
- in state q_x on encountering transition symbol a transition to state q_y popping A from the top of the stack and pushing B onto the stack



- in state q_x transition to state q_y pushing A onto the stack

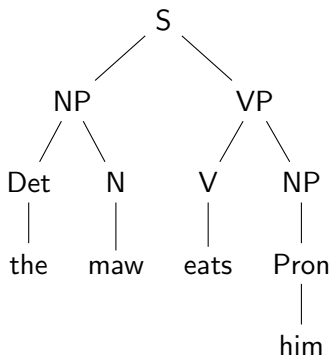


- in state q_x transition to state q_y popping A from the stack



A toy context-free grammar

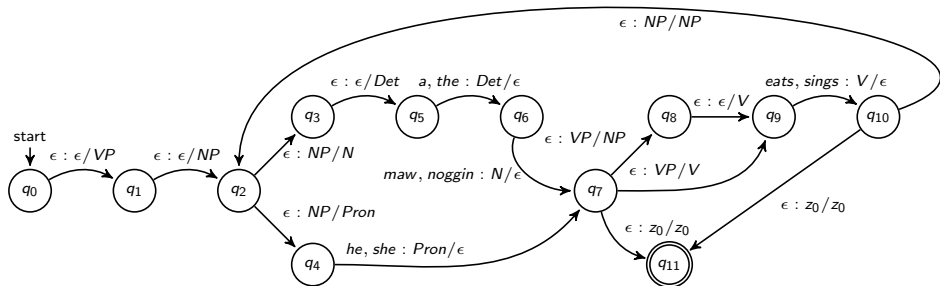
S	→	NP VP
NP	→	Pron
NP	→	Det N
VP	→	V
VP	→	V NP
Det	→	{a, the}
N	→	{maw, noggin, ...}
Pron	→	{he, she, him, her}
V	→	{eats, sings}



Recognising a string with a push down automaton

S \rightarrow NP VP
 NP \rightarrow Pron
 NP \rightarrow Det N
 VP \rightarrow V
 VP \rightarrow V NP

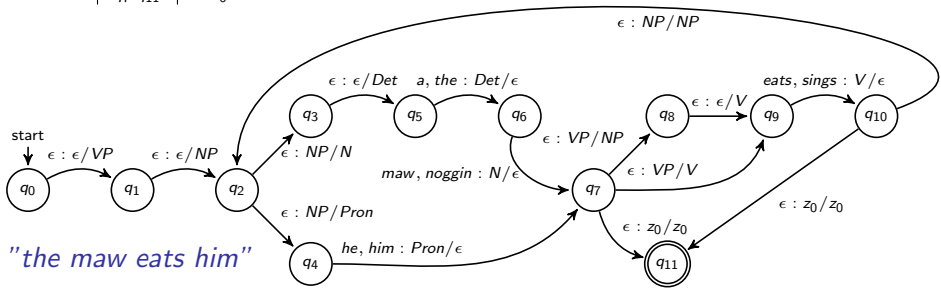
Det \rightarrow {a,the}
 N \rightarrow {maw, noggin, ...}
 Pron \rightarrow {he, him, her}
 V \rightarrow {eats, sings}



Is 'the maw eats him' a string in the language?

the	q ₀	z ₀		
the	q ₀ -q ₁	VP	z ₀	
the	q ₁ -q ₂	NP	VP	z ₀
the	q ₂ -q ₃	N	VP	z ₀
the	q ₃ -q ₅	Det	N	VP
maw	q ₅ -q ₆	N	VP	z ₀
eats	q ₆ -q ₇	VP	z ₀	
eats	q ₇ -q ₈	NP	z ₀	
eats	q ₈ -q ₉	V	NP	z ₀
him	q ₉ -q ₁₀	NP	z ₀	
him	q ₁₀ -q ₂	NP	z ₀	
him	q ₂ -q ₄	Pron	z ₀	
him	q ₄ -q ₇	z ₀		
ε	q ₇ -q ₁₁	z ₀		

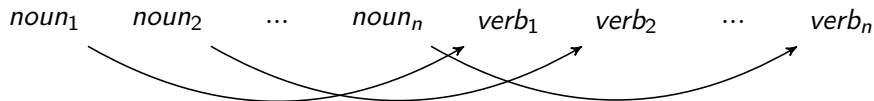
S	→	NP VP
NP	→	Pron
NP	→	Det N
VP	→	V
VP	→	V NP
Det	→	{a,the}
N	→	{maw, noggin, ...}
Pron	→	{he, him, her}
V	→	{eats, sings}



Can context-free grammars model natural language?

CROSS SERIAL DEPENDENCIES

A small number of languages exhibit strings of the form



Zurich dialect of Swiss German

mer d'chind em Hans es huus haend wele laa halfe aastriiche.

we the **children** **Hans** the house **have wanted to let help** paint.

we have wanted to let the children help Hans paint the house

Such expressions, i.e. of the form $/a^n b^m c^n d^m/$, may not be derivable by a context-free grammar.

mer d'chindⁿ em Hans^m es huus haend wele laaⁿ halfe^m aastriiche.

$\rightarrow /wa^n b^m xc^n d^m y/$

Use the **pumping lemma** to prove **not** context-free

The pumping lemma for context-free languages (CFLs) is used to show that a language is not context-free. The pumping lemma property for CFLs is:

All $w \in \mathcal{L}$ with $|w| \geq k$ can be expressed as a concatenation of five strings, $w = u_1 y u_2 z u_3$, where u_1, y, u_2, z and u_3 satisfy:

- $|yz| \geq 1$ (i.e. we cannot have $y = \epsilon$ and $z = \epsilon$)
- $|y u_2 z| \leq k$
- for all $n \geq 0$, $u_1 y^n u_2 z^n u_3 \in \mathcal{L}$
(i.e. $u_1 u_2 u_3 \in \mathcal{L}$, $u_1 y u_2 z u_3 \in \mathcal{L}$, $u_1 y y u_2 z z u_3 \in \mathcal{L}$ etc.)

To prove that Swiss German is not context-free, similar proof as for **centre embeddings** (last lecture). Except that you need to remember that:

$$\mathcal{L}_{reg1} \cap \mathcal{L}_{cfg1} = \mathcal{L}_{cfg2}$$

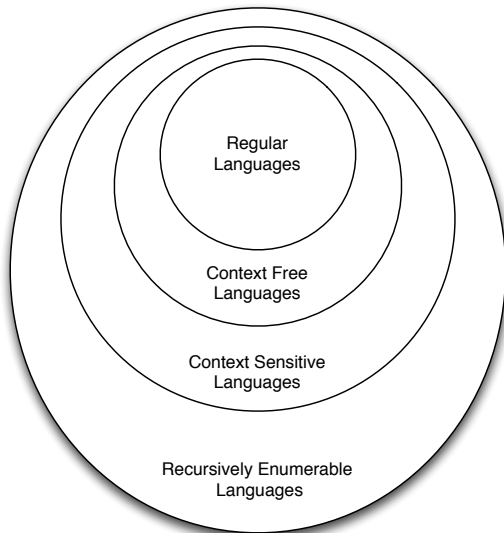
Are **CSGs** required to model natural languages?

Remember the **complexity** of a language class was defined in terms of the **recognition problem**.

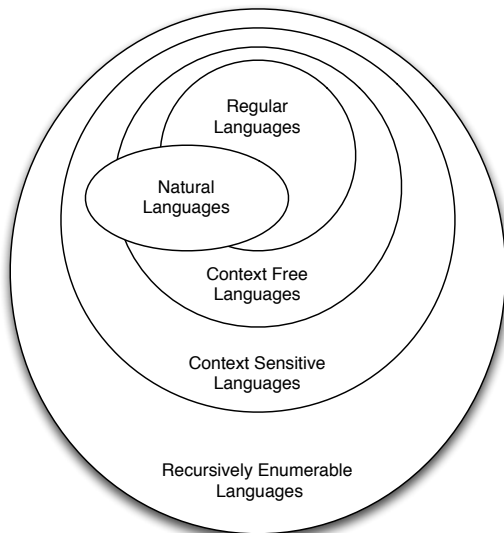
TYPE	LANGUAGE CLASS	COMPLEXITY	MACHINE
3	regular	$O(n)$	DFA
2	context-free	$O(n^c)$	PDA
1	context-sensitive	$O(c^n)$	LBA
0	recursively enumerable	<i>undecidable</i>	Turing

- Modelling natural languages using context-sensitive grammars is very expensive. **In practice we don't have to because only very limited constructions are not captured by context-free grammars.**
- However, it is still fun to place a limit on the complexity of natural languages — **we are not limited to discussing language classes only in terms of the Chomsky hierarchy.**

We are not limited to the **Chomsky hierarchy**



We are not limited to the **Chomsky hierarchy**



The mildly context-sensitive grammars

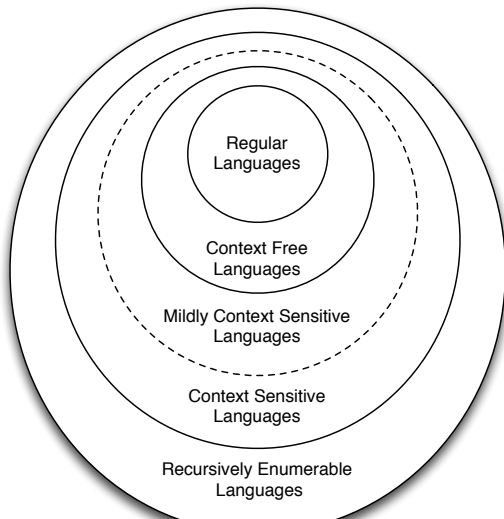
Joshi defined a class of languages that is more expressive than context-free languages, less expressive than context-sensitive languages and also sits neatly in the Chomsky hierarchy.

MILDLY CONTEXT-SENSITIVE languages

An abstract language class has the following properties:

- it includes all the context-free languages;
- members of the languages in the class may be recognised in polynomial time;
- the languages in the class account for all the constructions in natural language that context-free languages fail to account for (such as cross-serial dependencies).

Mildly CSGs are a **subset** of CSGs that account for natural language



In **Tree Adjoining Grammars** trees are rewritten as trees.

In phrase structure grammar symbols were rewritten with other symbols

In **Tree Adjoining Grammars** trees are rewritten as other trees.

The grammar consists of sets of two types of elementary tree:

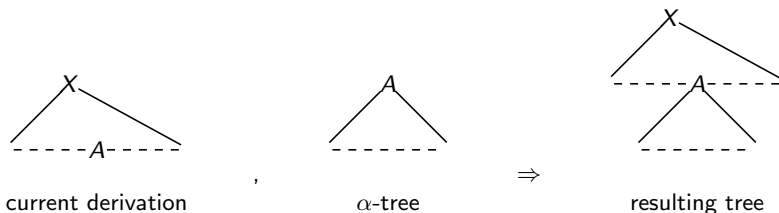
- **initial trees** or α trees
- **auxiliary trees** or β trees

A derivation is the result of recursive composition of elementary trees via one of two operations:

- **substitution**
- **adjunction.**

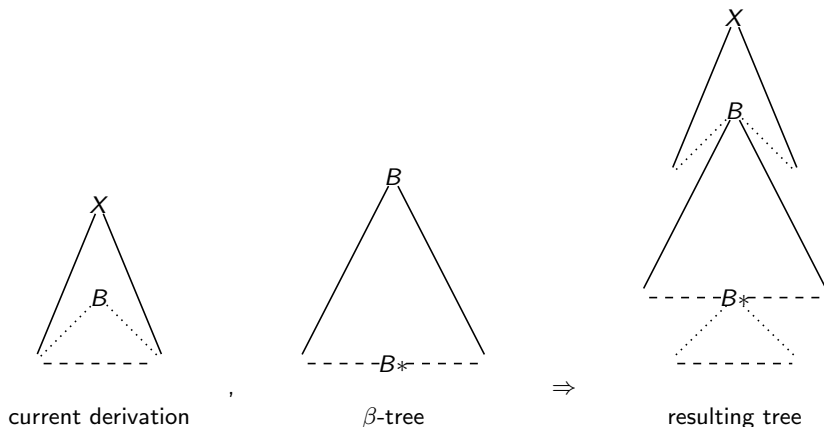
Tree adjoining grammars: the **substitution** operation

- **SUBSTITUTION**: a substitution may occur when a non-terminal leaf (that is, some $A \in \mathcal{N}$) of the current derivation tree is replaced by an α -tree that has A at its root.



Tree adjoining grammars: the **adjunction** operation

- **ADJUNCTION**: an adjunction may occur when an internal non-terminal node of the current derivation (some $B \in \mathcal{N}$) tree is replaced by a β tree that has a B at its root and *foot*.

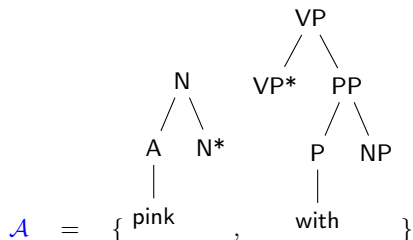
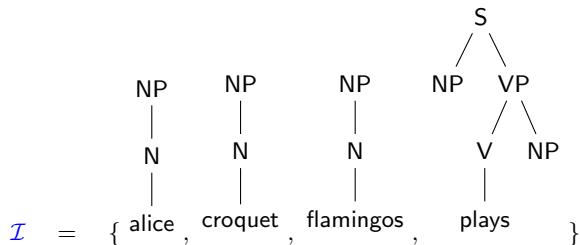


Tree adjoining grammars: definition

- \mathcal{N} is the set of non-terminals
- Σ is the set of terminals
- S is a distinguished non-terminal $S \in \mathcal{N}$ that will be the root of complete derivations
- \mathcal{I} is a set of **initial trees** (also known as α trees). Internal nodes of an α tree are drawn from \mathcal{N} and the leaf nodes from $\Sigma \cup \mathcal{N} \cup \epsilon$.
- \mathcal{A} is a set of **auxiliary trees** (also know as β trees). Internal nodes of an β -tree are drawn from \mathcal{N} and the leaf nodes from $\Sigma \cup \mathcal{N} \cup \epsilon$. One leaf of a β -tree is distinguished as the **foot** and will be the same non-terminal as at its root (the foot is often indicated with an asterisk).

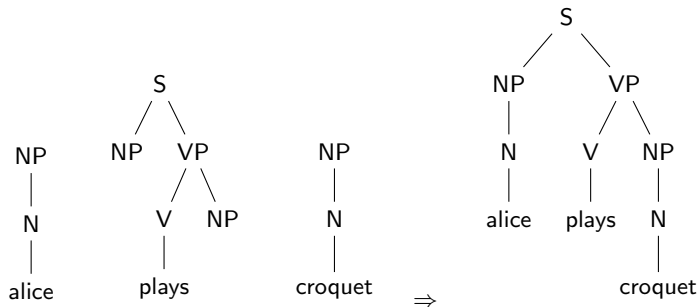
Tree adjoining grammars: natural language example

$G_{tag} = (\mathcal{N}, \Sigma, S, \mathcal{I}, \mathcal{A})$ where:



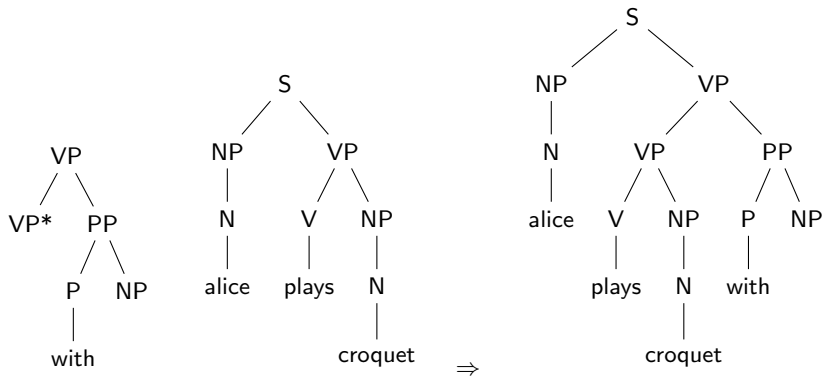
Tree adjoining grammars: natural language example

Deriving: *Alice plays croquet with pink flamingos*

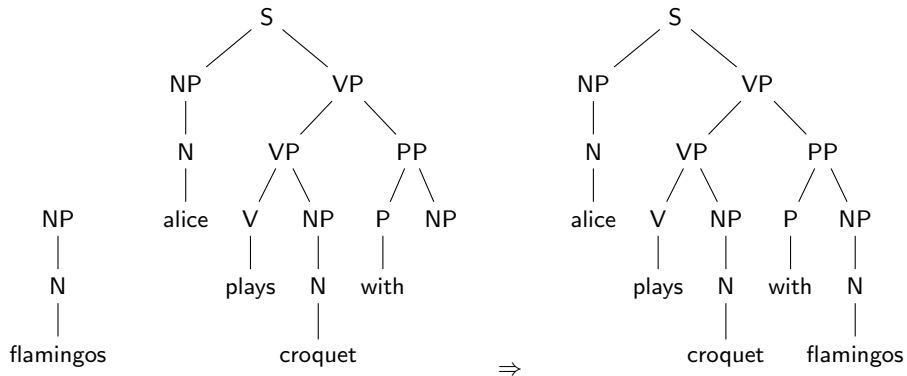


Tree adjoining grammars: natural language example

Deriving: *Alice plays croquet with pink flamingos*



Tree adjoining grammars: natural language example

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Deriving: *Alice plays croquet with pink flamingos*