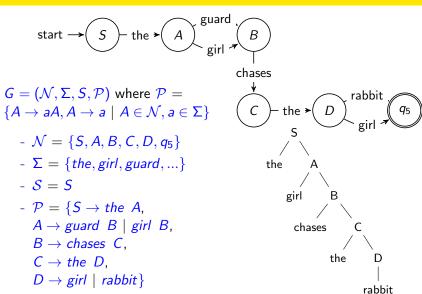
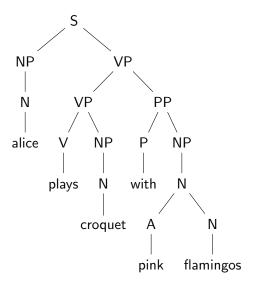
#### Formal Models of Language

#### Paula Buttery

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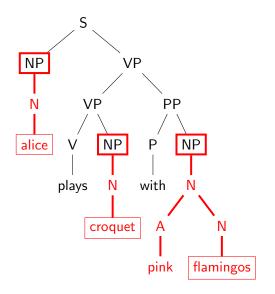
#### Regular grammars give us linear trees





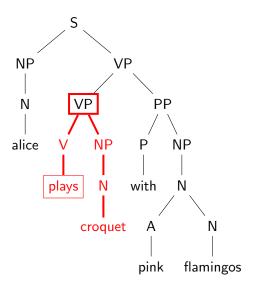
$$G = (\mathcal{N}, \Sigma, S, \mathcal{P})$$
 where  $\mathcal{P} = \{A \to \alpha \mid A \in \mathcal{N}, \alpha \in (\mathcal{N} \cup \Sigma)^*\}$ 

A brief excursion into linguistic terminology...

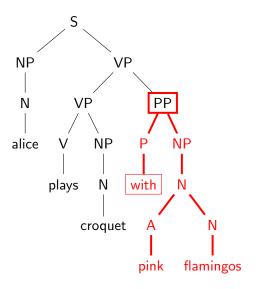


When modelling natural language, linguists label the non-terminal symbols with names that encode the most *influential* word in the phrase. They call this influential word the **head**.

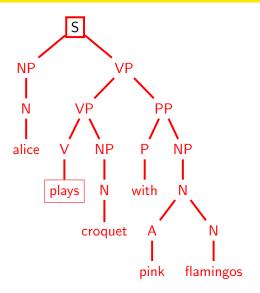
noun phrases, NP,
have a head noun



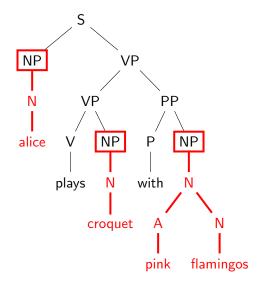
verb phrases, VP,
have a head verb



prepositional phrases,
PP, have a head preposition

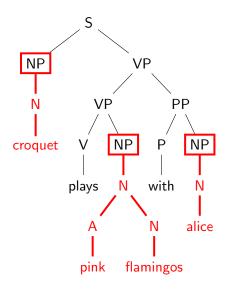


 the head of the whole string, S, is always the main verb



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

- $NP \rightarrow N$
- $N \rightarrow A N$
- $N \rightarrow alice|croquet|...$



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### CFGs are often written in Chomsky Normal Form

**Chomsky normal form**: every production rule has the form,  $A \to BC$ , or,  $A \to a$  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  $M = (Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \Delta, s, \bot, \mathcal{F})$  where:

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



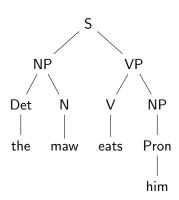
• in state  $q_x$  transition to state  $q_y$  pushing A onto the stack



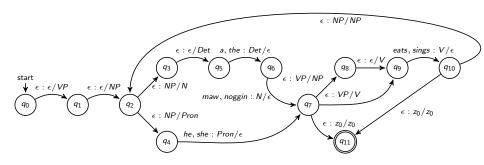
• in state  $q_x$  transition to state  $q_y$  popping A from the stack



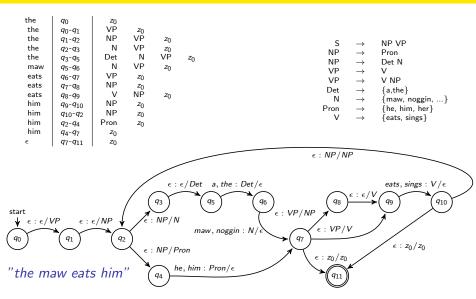
#### A toy context-free grammar



## Recognising a string with a push down automaton



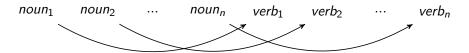
## Is 'the maw eats him' a string in the language?



#### 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 hälfe aastriiche.

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  $/a^nb^mc^nd^m/$ , may not be derivable by a context-free grammar.

mer d'chind $^n$  em Hans $^m$  es huus haend wele laa $^n$  hälfe $^m$  aastriiche.

$$\rightarrow /wa^nb^mxc^nd^my/$$

#### 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  $|w| \ge k$  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  $u_2$  satisfy:

- $|yz| \ge 1$  (i.e. we cannot have  $y = \epsilon$  and  $z = \epsilon$ )
- $|yu_2z| \leq k$
- for all  $n \ge 0$ ,  $u_1 y^n u_2 z^n u_3 \in \mathcal{L}$ (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:

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

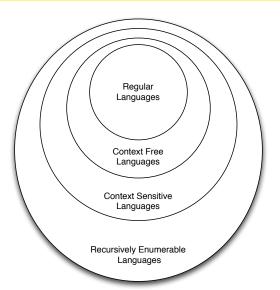
### Are CSGs required to model natural languages?

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

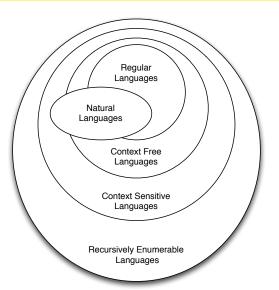
| Type | Language Class         | Complexity  | MACHINE |
|------|------------------------|-------------|---------|
| 3    | regular                | O(n)        | DFA     |
| 2    | context-free           | $O(n^c)$    | PDA     |
| 1    | context-sensitive      | $O(c^n)$    | LBA     |
| 0    | recursively enumerable | undecidable | 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

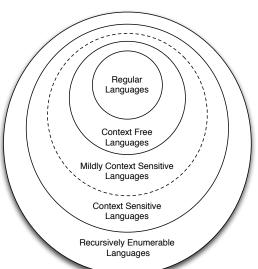
Joshi defined a class of languages that is more expressive than context-free languages, less expressive than context-sensitive languages and also sits neatly in the Chomsky hierarchy.

#### 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:

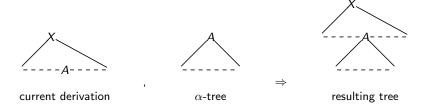
- initial trees or  $\alpha$  trees
- auxiliary trees or  $\beta$  trees

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

- substitution
- adjunction.

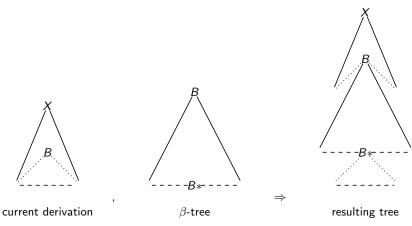
### Tree adjoining grammars: the substitution operation

• 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  $\alpha$ -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  $\beta$  tree that has a B at its root and foot.



#### Tree adjoining grammars: definition

- $\mathcal{N}$  is the set of non-terminals
- $\Sigma$  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  $\alpha$  trees). Internal nodes of an  $\alpha$  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  $\beta$  trees). Internal nodes of an  $\beta$ -tree are drawn from  $\mathcal{N}$  and the leaf nodes from  $\Sigma \cup \mathcal{N} \cup \epsilon$ . One leaf of a  $\beta$ -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).

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

