Formal Language, Natural Language and Tree Adjoining Grammars

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Overview

Tree Adjoining Grammars

TAGs { Weak vs. Strong Generative Capacity Natural Language and Complexity Lexicalization of Grammars

TAGs for Natural Languages

- Weak generative capacity of a grammar is the set of strings or the language, e.g. $0^n 1^n$ for $n \ge 0$
- Strong generative capacity is the set of structures (usually the set of trees) provided by the grammar

$$S \rightarrow NP VP \tag{1}$$

$$VP \rightarrow VNP \mid VPADV$$
 (2)

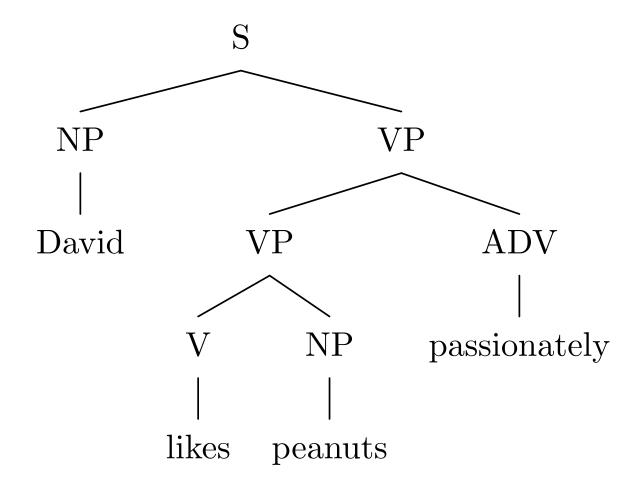
$$NP \rightarrow David \mid peanuts$$
 (3)

$$V \rightarrow likes$$
 (4)

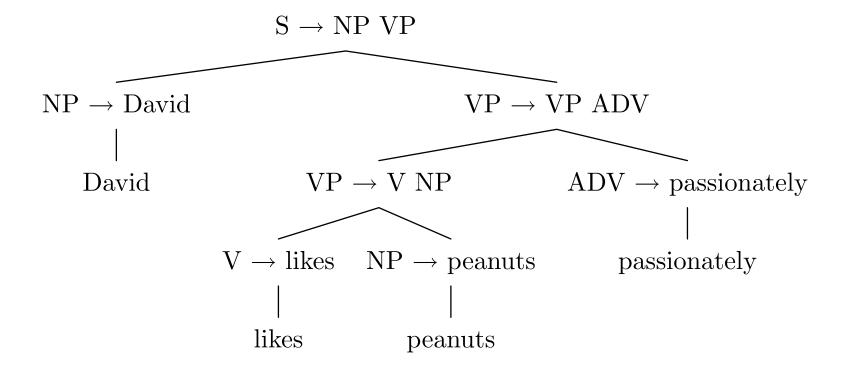
$$ADV \rightarrow passionately$$
 (5)

 $L(G) = \{ \text{David likes peanuts, David likes peanuts passionately} \}$

Derived Tree/Parse Tree



Derivation Tree

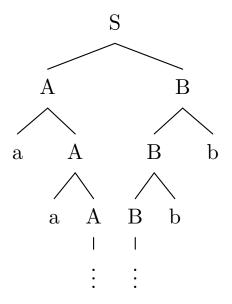


<u>Tree Sets</u>: Given CFG, G, let T(G) be the set of derived trees

$$S \rightarrow AB$$

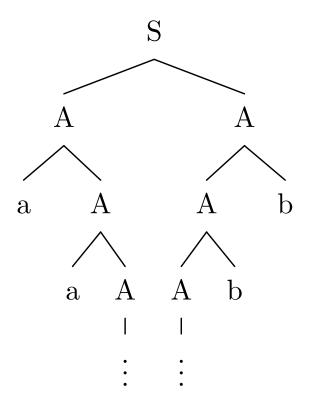
$$A \rightarrow aA \mid a$$

$$B \rightarrow Bb \mid b$$

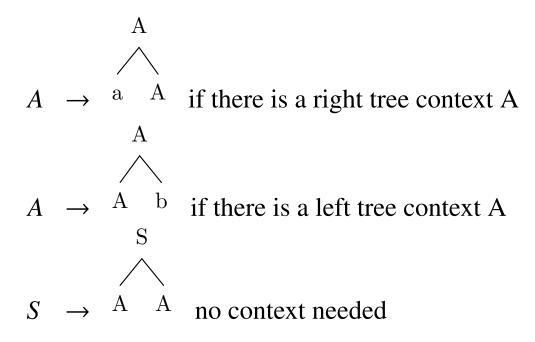


Tree set T shown here, T = T(G)

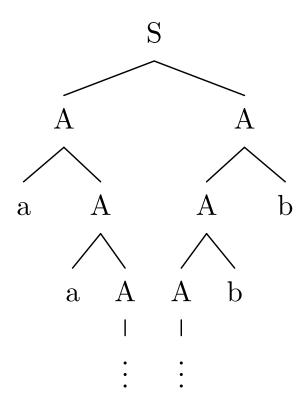
<u>Tree Sets</u>: Consider T' below. There is no CFG G such that T(G) = T': Why?



Local Tree Predicates



Apply the predicates to trees and we can accept or reject trees. That is, we can *recognize* a tree set. Just like a grammar *recognizes* a set of strings, these predicates can recognize a set of trees.



However, T^{\prime} can be recognized by a finite-state bottom-up tree automaton

Tree Sets of CFGs and Recognizable Sets

- Recognizable Sets: Tree sets recognized by finite-state bottom-up tree automata: analogs of regular sets
- Strings sets of recognizable sets are context-free languages
- Recognizable sets are the same as tree sets of CFGs closed under relabelling homomorphisms (Thatcher, 1967)
- Additional strong generative power of recognizable sets by introducing local tree predicates

Tree Sets of CFGs and Recognizable Sets

- Surprisingly, even context-sensitive grammars when interpreted as local tree predicates can only generate the recognizable sets
- Local sets = Tree sets for CFGs; Recognizable sets = Local sets plus relabeling of the nodes
- Hence, CSGs when interpreted as "filters" on trees can only produce context-free languages (Peters and Ritchie, 1969; McCawley, 1967)
- Result can be strengthened to boolean combinations of CSG local tree predicates (Joshi, Levy and Yueh, 1972; Rogers, 1997)

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TAGs for Natural Languages

Natural Language and Complexity

- We ask the question: Does a particular formal language describe some aspect of human language
- Then we find out if that language isn't in a particular language class
- For example, if we abstract some aspect of human language to the formal language: $\{ww^R \mid \text{ where } w \in \{a,b\}^*, w^R \text{ is the reverse of } w\}$ we can then ask if it is possible to write a regular expression for this language
- If we can, then we can say that this particular example from human language does not go beyond regular languages. If not, then we have to go higher in the hierarchy (say, up to context-free languages)

• If we consider strong generative capacity then the answer is somewhat easier to obtain

• For example, do we need nested dependencies to compute the semantics in a natural way?

- However, strong generative capacity requires a particular grammar and a particular linguistics theory of semantics or how meaning is assigned (in steps or compositionally)
- So, the stronger claim will be that some aspect of human language when you consider weak generative capacity is not regular
- This is quite tricky: consider $L_1 = \{a^n b^n\}$ is context-free but $L_2 = \{a^* b^*\}$ is regular and $L_1 \subset L_2$: so you could cheat and pick some subset of the language which won't prove anything
- Furthermore, the language should be infinite

 Also, if we consider the size of a grammar then also the answer is easier to obtain (*joyable, *richment). The CFG is more elegant and smaller than the equivalent regular grammar:

$$V \rightarrow X$$
 $A \rightarrow X$ -able | X -ment
 $X \rightarrow en$ - NA
 $NA \rightarrow joy \mid rich$

- This is an engineering argument. However, it is related to the problem of describing the human learning process. Certain aspects of language are learned all at once not individually for each case.
 - e.g., learning enjoyment automatically if enrichment was learnt

Is Human Language a Regular Language

- Consider the following set of English sentences (strings)
 - $-S = If S_1 then S_2$
 - $-S = Either S_3$, or S_4
 - S = The man who said S_5 is arriving today
- Map If, then $\rightarrow a$ and either, or $\rightarrow b$. This results in strings like abba or abaaba or abbaabba
- $L = \{ww^R \mid \text{ where } w \in \{a, b\}^*, w^R \text{ is the reverse of } w\}$

Human Language is not a Regular Language

- Another example, also from English, is the set of center embedded structures
 - Think of $S \rightarrow a S b$ and the nested dependencies $a_1a_2a_3b_3b_2b_1$
- Center embedding in English: the shares that the broker recommended were bought $\Rightarrow N_1N_2V_2V_1$ the moment when the shares that the broker recommended were bought has passed $\Rightarrow N_1N_2N_3V_3V_2V_1$
- Can you come up with an example that has four verbs and corresponding number of nouns?

Human Competence vs. Human Performance

- What if no more than 3 or 4 center embedding structures are possible?
 Then the language is finite, so the language is no longer strictly context-free
- The common assumption made is that human competence is represented by the context-free grammar, but human performance suffers from memory limitations which can be simulated by a simpler mechanism
- The arguments about elegance, size and the learning process in humans also apply in this case

Human Language is not a Context-Free Language

- Two approaches as before: consider **strong** and **weak** generative capacity
- For strong generative capacity, if we can show crossing dependencies in a language then no CFG can be written for such a language. Why?
- Quite a few major languages spoken by humans have crossing dependencies:
 - e.g Dutch (Bresnan et al., 1982), Swiss German (Shieber, 1984), Tagalog (Rambow and MacLachlan, 2002)

Human Language is not a Context-Free Language

Swiss German:

```
... mer em Hans es huus hälfed aastriiche ... we Hans-dat the house-acc helped paint N_1 N_2 V_1 V_2 ... we helped Hans paint the house
```

Analogous structures in English (PRO is a empty pronoun subject):

```
Eng: S_1 = \text{we } [v_1 \text{ helped}] [N_1 \text{ Hans}] \text{ (to do) } [s_2 \dots]
SwGer: S_1 = \text{we } [N_1 \text{ Hans}] [s_2 \dots [v_1 \text{ helped}] \dots]
Eng: S_2 = \text{PRO}(\epsilon) [v_2 \text{ paint}] [N_2 \text{ the house}]
SwGer: S_2 = \text{PRO}(\epsilon) [N_2 \text{ the house}] [v_2 \text{ paint}]
Eng: S_1 + S_2 = \text{we helped}_1 \text{ Hans}_1 \text{ PRO}(\epsilon) \text{ paint}_2 \text{ the house}_2
SwGer: S_1 + S_2 = \text{we Hans}_1 \text{ PRO}(\epsilon) \text{ the house}_2 \text{ helped}_1 \text{ paint}_1
```

Human Language is not a Context-Free Language

- Weak generative capacity of human language being greater than context-free was much harder to show. (Pullum, 1982) was a compendium of all the failed efforts so far.
- (Shieber, 1985) and (Huybregts, 1984) showed this using examples from Swiss-German:

mer	d'chind	em Hans	es huus	lönd	hälfed	aastriiche
we	the children-Acc	Hans-dat	the house-acc	let	helped	paint
W	а	b	\mathcal{X}	$\boldsymbol{\mathcal{C}}$	d	У
	N_1	N_2	N_3	V_1	V_2	V_3

... we let the children help Hans paint the house

• Clear case of crossing dependencies: so cannot be handled with CFGs.

The Chomsky Hierarchy: G = (N, T, P, S) where, $\alpha, \beta, \gamma \in (N \cup T)^*$

• unrestricted or type-0 grammars: $\alpha \to \beta$, such that $\alpha \neq \epsilon$

• **context-sensitive** grammars: $\alpha A\beta \rightarrow \alpha \gamma \beta$, such that $\gamma \neq \epsilon$

• **context-free** grammars: $A \rightarrow \gamma$

• **regular** grammars: $A \rightarrow a \ B \text{ or } A \rightarrow a$

$$S \rightarrow SBC$$

$$S \rightarrow a C$$

$$a B \rightarrow a a$$

$$C B \rightarrow B C$$

$$Ba \rightarrow aa$$

$$C \rightarrow b$$

$$S_1$$
 $S_2 B_1 C_1$
 $S_3 B_2 C_2 B_1 C_1$
 $a_3 C_3 B_2 C_2 B_1 C_1$
 $a_3 B_2 C_3 C_2 B_1 C_1$
 $a_3 a_2 C_3 C_2 B_1 C_1$
 $a_3 a_2 C_3 B_1 C_2 C_1$
 $a_3 a_2 B_1 C_3 C_2 C_1$
 $a_3 a_2 a_1 C_3 C_2 C_1$
 $a_3 a_2 a_1 b_3 b_2 b_1$

Tree Adjoining Grammars

- Intuition we have is that the trees produced after parsing are important for computing the meaning.
- So instead of building the trees using context-sensitive rules like $\alpha A\beta \rightarrow \alpha \gamma \beta$, we can build in the context-sensitive part into **elementary trees** which is used to build larger trees.
 - ⇒ Elementary trees are just like the rules in a context-free grammar.
- The elementary trees become the basic units which can be used to rewrite non-terminal nodes inside elementary trees.
 - ⇒ This rewriting is analogous to expanding a non-terminal in a context-free grammar.

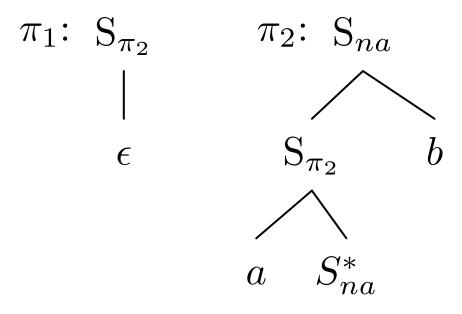
Tree Adjoining Grammar: Formal Definition

- Tree adjoining grammar G = (S, N, T, I, A) where
 - N is the set of non-terminal symbols
 - T is the set of terminal symbols
 - I is a set of non-recursive (terminal) trees
 - A is the set of recursive (non-terminal) trees
 - S is the set of start trees where $S \subseteq I$,
 - − $I \cup A$ is the set of *elementary trees*

Tree Adjoining Grammars

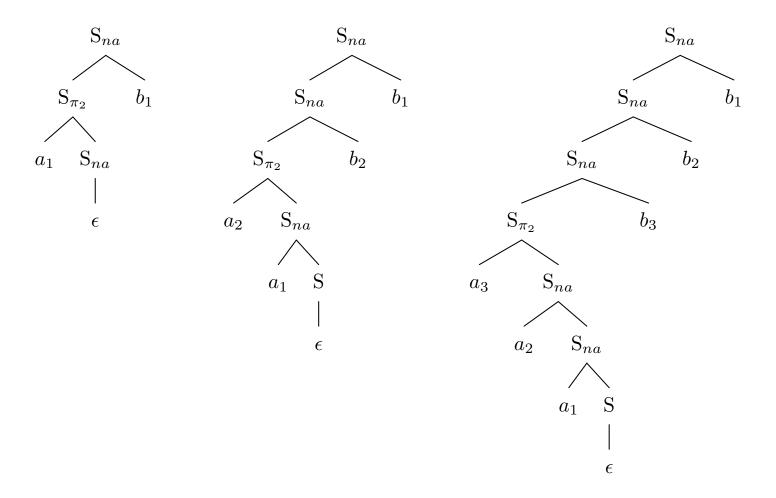
- Sits between context-free grammars and context-sensitive grammars
- Handles all the weak and strong cases used to argue for the non-context-free nature of language
- Simple handling of crossed and nested dependencies compare with context sensitive grammars

Crossing Dependencies in TAG: $a_2a_1b_2b_1$



$$G: (T=\{a,b,\epsilon\}, N=\{S\}, I=\{\pi_1\}, A=\{\pi_2\}, S=\{\pi_1\})$$

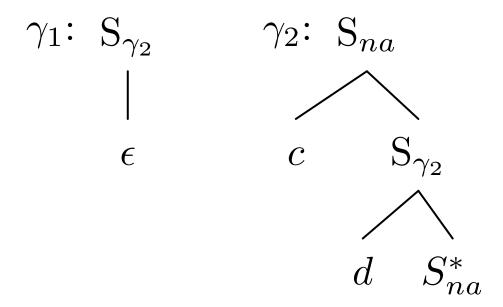
Crossing Dependencies in TAG: Derived Tree $a_3a_2a_1b_3b_2b_1$



Crossing Dependencies in TAG: Derivation Tree

$$\pi_{1}(\epsilon)$$
 $\pi_{1}(\epsilon)$ $\pi_{1}(\epsilon)$ $\pi_{1}(\epsilon)$ $\pi_{1}(\epsilon)$ $\pi_{1}(\epsilon)$ $\pi_{2}[0](a_{1},b_{1})$ $\pi_{2}[0](a_{1},b_{1})$ $\pi_{2}[0](a_{1},b_{1})$ $\pi_{2}[00](a_{2},b_{2})$ $\pi_{2}[00](a_{2},b_{2})$ $\pi_{2}[00](a_{3},b_{3})$

Nested Dependencies in TAG: $c_1c_2d_2d_1$



$$G: (T = \{c, d, \epsilon\}, N = \{S\}, I = \{\gamma_1\}, A = \{\gamma_2\}, S = \{\gamma_1\})$$

What happens if we put together a new grammar with trees $\pi_1, \pi_2, \gamma_1, \gamma_2$?

- **context-sensitive** grammars: 0^i , i is not a prime number and i > 0
- **indexed** grammars: $0^n 1^n 2^n \dots m^n$, for any fixed m and $n \ge 0$
- tree-adjoining grammars (TAG), linear-indexed grammars (LIG), combinatory categorial grammars (CCG): $0^n 1^n 2^n 3^n$, for $n \ge 0$
- **context-free** grammars: $0^n 1^n$ for $n \ge 0$
- **deterministic context-free** grammars: $S' \to S$ c, $S \to S$ $A \mid A$, $A \to a$ S $b \mid ab$: the language of "balanced parentheses"
- regular grammars: $(0|1)^*00(0|1)^*$

Language	Automaton	Grammar	Recognition	Dependency
Recursively Enumerable Languages	Turing Machine	Unrestricted Baa → A	Undecidable	Arbitrary
Context- Sensitive Languages	Linear-Bounded	Context- Sensitive At → aA	NP-Complete	Crossing
Context- Free Languages	Pushdown (stack)	Context-Free S → gSc	Polynomial	Nested
Regular Languages	Finite-State Machine	Regular A → cA	Linear	Strictly Local

TAG is between CSL and CFG:

has Polynomial time recognition and handles many crossing dependencies.

- unrestricted: undecidable (grammars using 'movement', feature structure unification)
- context-sensitive: NSPACE[n] linear non-deterministic space
- indexed grammars: NP-Complete (restricted feature structure unification)
- tree-adjoining grammars (TAG), linear-indexed grammars (LIG), combinatory categorial grammars (CCG), head grammars: $O(n^6)$
- context-free: $O(n^3)$
- deterministic context-free: O(n)
- **regular** grammars: O(n)

Which class corresponds to human language?

Tree Adjoining Grammars

- Membership is in P $(O(n^6))$
- TALs are closed under union, concatenation, Kleene closure, h, h^{-1} , intersection with RLs and regular substitution. There is also a pumping lemma for TALs (proofs in (VijayShanker, 1987))

 Tree Adjoining Languages are a full abstract family of languages (AFL)
- No equivalent of Ogden's Lemma. TALs are not closed under intersection, intersection with CFLs and complementation.
- TAGs, LIGs, CCGs, HGs (see previous slide) were shown by TAG researchers to be **weakly equivalent** (VijayShanker, 1987; Weir, 1988)

Computationally Constrained Grammar Formalisms

- Why bother with computationally constrained grammar formalisms?
- Perhaps linguists can analyze language free of any thoughts about computational efficiency, using any system that can elegantly explain the data
- And then if at all necessary this analysis can be translated to a computationally constrained formalism

Computationally Constrained Grammar Formalisms

- But what if the computational system actually provides constraints on what can and cannot happen?
- The linguist would be forced to assume ad-hoc restrictions to adequately explain the facts
- Better to start with a constrained system and grow only if necessary (Occam's Razor)
- Read: (Gazdar, 1981, Linguistic Inquiry) and Remarks and Replies by E.
 Willams

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TAGs for Natural Languages

Lexicalization of Grammars

- Why is lexicalization important? Here's a strange fact: a context-free grammar can be *infinitely* ambiguous.
- Lexicalization of a grammar means that each elementary object is associated with some terminal symbol. This guarantees that every input is only *finitely ambiguous*.
 (Joshi and Schabes, 1997) show TALs are *closed* under lexicalization: every TAL has a lexicalized grammar without changing the language.
- Lexicalization is an interesting idea for syntax, semantics (in linguistics)
 and sentence processing (in psycholinguistics):
 What if each word brings with it an entire syntactic and semantic context
 for that word?

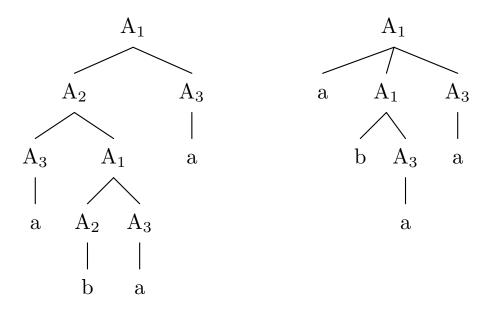
- Can we transform every CFG to a normal form where there is guaranteed to be a terminal symbol on the right hand side?
- Answer: yes using Griebach Normal Form
- Every CFG can be converted to the form: $A \to a \alpha$ where A is a non-terminal, a is a terminal symbol, and $\alpha \in N^*$

Griebach Normal Form: $T(G) \neq T(GNF(G))$

$$A_1 \rightarrow A_2 A_3$$

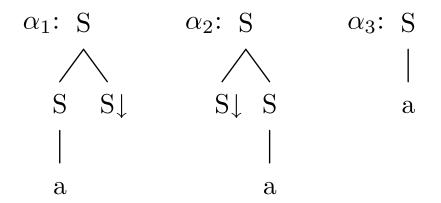
$$A_2 \rightarrow A_3 A_1 \mid b$$

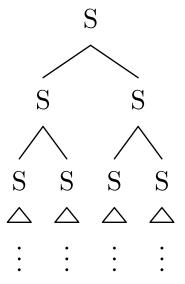
$$A_3 \rightarrow A_1 A_2 \mid a$$

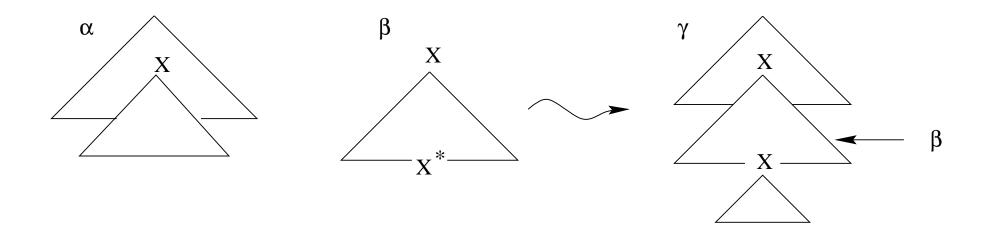


• CFG $G: (r_1) S \rightarrow S S \quad (r_2) S \rightarrow a$

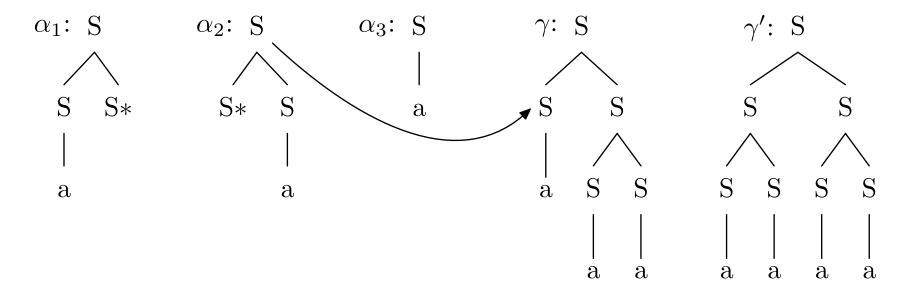
• Tree substitution Grammar G':







- CFG $G: (r_1) S \rightarrow S S \quad (r_2) S \rightarrow a$
- Lexicalized Tree adjoining Grammar G'':



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TAGs for Natural Languages

Lexicalized Tree Adjoining Grammars

- Finite set of elementary trees, such that each tree has at least one terminal symbol
- Elementary trees: initial and auxiliary
- Operations: substitution and adjunction
- Derivation Tree: how elementary trees are put together
- Derived Tree

Localization of Dependencies

• Syntactic:

- agreement: person, number, gender
- subcategorization: sleeps (null), eats (NP); gives (NP NP)
- filler-gap: who did John ask Bill to invite ϵ
- word order: within and across clauses as in scrambling, clitic movement, etc.

Localization of Dependencies

• Semantic:

- function-argument: all arguments of the anchoring word (the functor)
 are localized
- word clusters (flexible idioms): non-compositional, e.g. take a walk,
 give a cold shoulder to
- word co-occurences, lexical semantic aspects of meaning

Lexicalized Tree Adjoining Grammars

