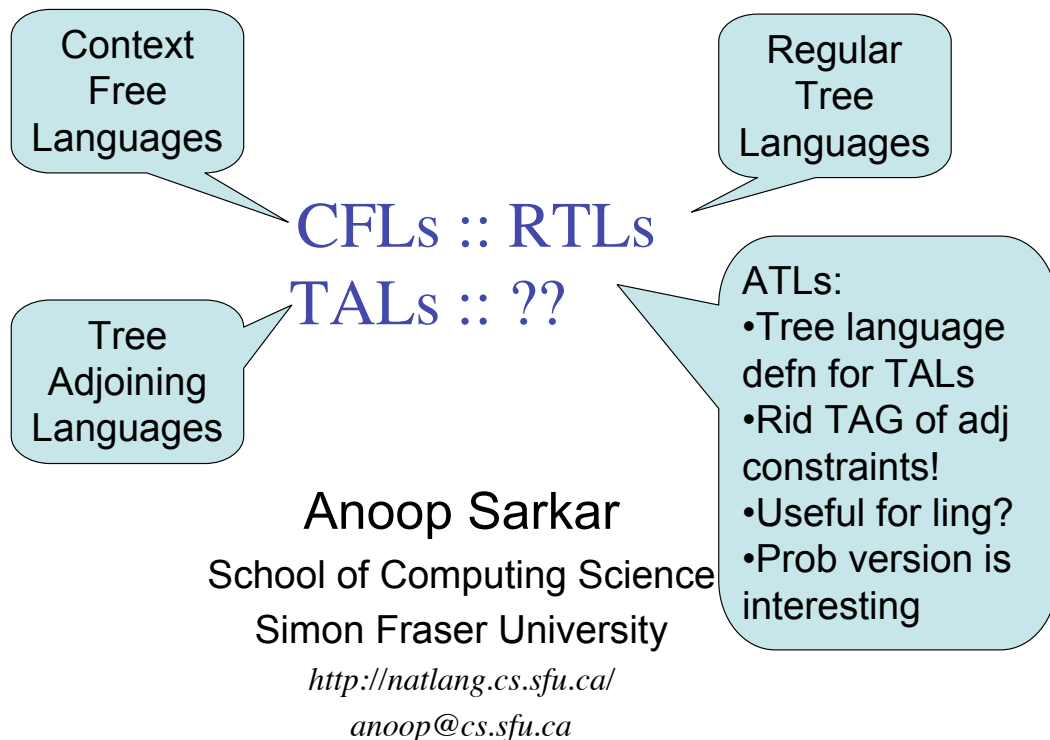


# CFLs :: RTLs TALs :: ??

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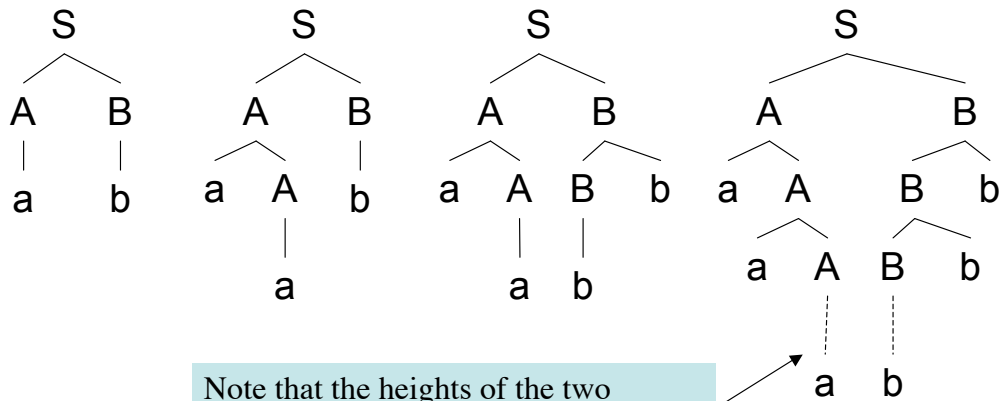


2

# Tree Languages

$S \rightarrow A B$   
 $A \rightarrow a A \mid a$   
 $B \rightarrow B b \mid b$

This grammar generates the tree language informally shown below



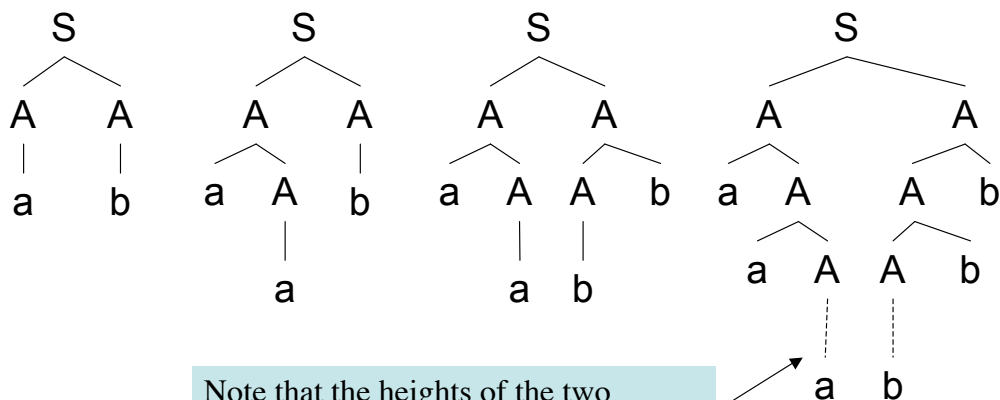
Note that the heights of the two branches do not have to be equal

3

## A Tree Language with no CFG

Claim: There is no CFG that can produce the tree lang below:

~~$S \rightarrow A A$   
 $A \rightarrow a A \mid a$   
 $A \rightarrow A b \mid b$~~

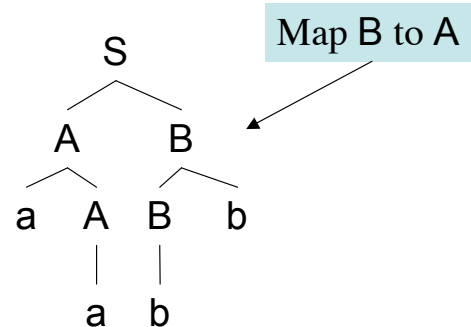


Note that the heights of the two branches do not have to be equal

4

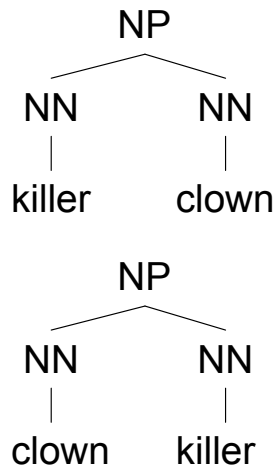
# Grammars for Tree Languages

- A simple trick: start with a CFG that almost works
- Then re-label the node labels, map **B** to **A** to get the desired tree set
- But how can we directly generate the tree sets?
- We need a **generative device** that generates *trees*, not *strings*
- (Thatcher, 1967) and (Rounds, 1970) provided such a generative device

$$\begin{aligned} S &\rightarrow A B \\ A &\rightarrow a A \mid a \\ B &\rightarrow B b \mid b \end{aligned}$$


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## Regular Tree Grammars (Thatcher 1967)

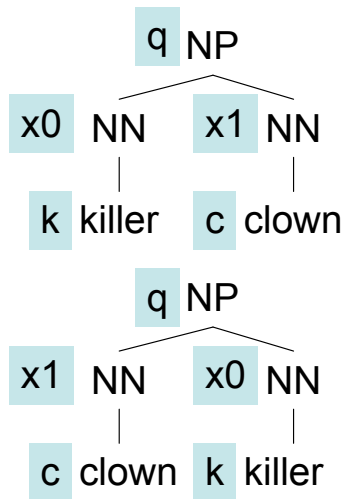


Example from (May & Knight, 2006)

- Consider a simple tree set with two trees for the strings  $\{ \textit{killer clown}, \textit{clown killer} \}$
- No CFG can recognize this simple tree set without also recognizing trees for *clown clown* and *killer killer*
- A Regular Tree Grammar recognizes this tree set (analogy with regular grammars on strings)

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# Regular Tree Grammars



start state:  $q$   
 $q \rightarrow NP(x_0 x_1)$   
 $q \rightarrow NP(x_1 x_0)$   
 $x_0 \rightarrow NN(k)$   
 $x_1 \rightarrow NN(c)$   
 $k \rightarrow \text{killer}$   
 $c \rightarrow \text{clown}$

note: can be a tree of any size!

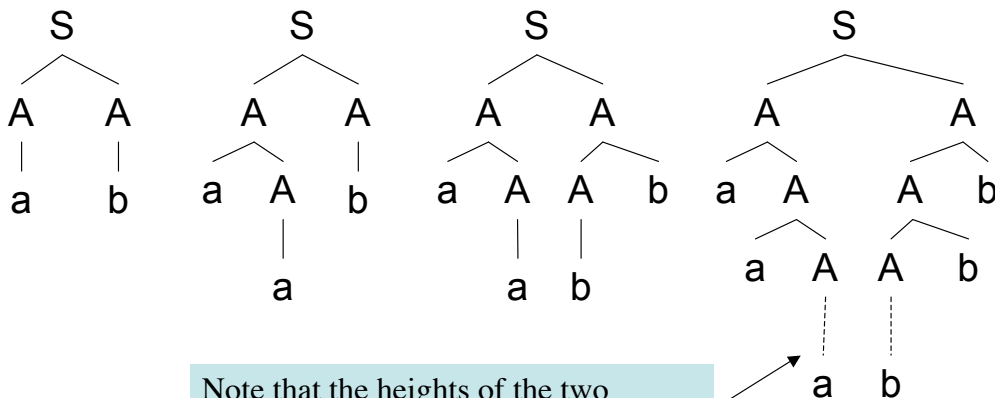
- RTGs = Top-down tree automata
- **Can generate infinite tree sets**
- **Found useful in syntax-based statistical machine translation**

Example from (May & Knight, 2006)

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## Another RTG Example

$q \rightarrow S(x_0 x_1)$   
 $x_0 \rightarrow A(a x_0) \mid a$   
 $x_1 \rightarrow A(x_1 b) \mid b$



Note that the heights of the two branches do not have to be equal

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# Regular Tree Grammars

- RTGs generate tree languages
- The yield of each tree in this language produces a string
- $yield(RTG)$  provides a string language
- For each RTG:  $yield(RTG) = CFL$
- But as we saw, set of tree languages of CFGs is contained within that of RTGs

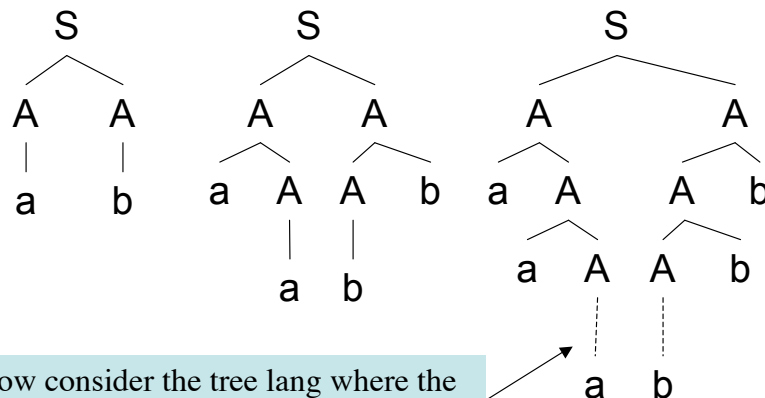
9

## A Tree Language with no RTG

Claim: There is no RTG that can produce the tree language below:

~~$$\begin{aligned}
 q &\rightarrow S(x_0, x_1) \\
 x_0 &\rightarrow A(a, x_0) \mid a \\
 x_1 &\rightarrow A(x_1, b) \mid b
 \end{aligned}$$~~

RTG is like a finite-state machine, the state cannot count how many times it was reached



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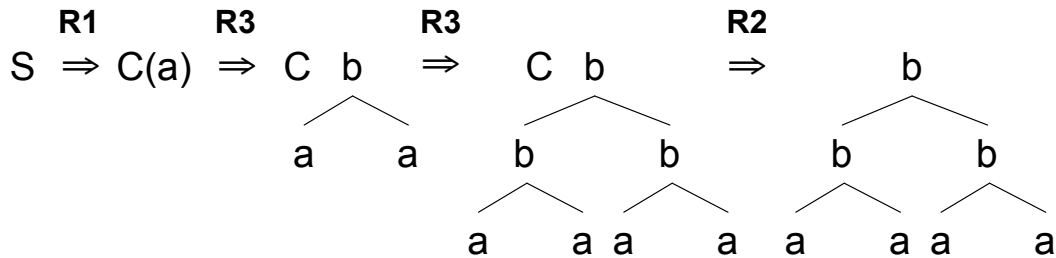
(Rounds 1970)

## Context-free Tree Languages

**R1:**  $S \rightarrow C(a)$

**R2:**  $C(x1) \rightarrow x1$

**R3:**  $C(x1) \rightarrow C(b(x1 \ x1))$



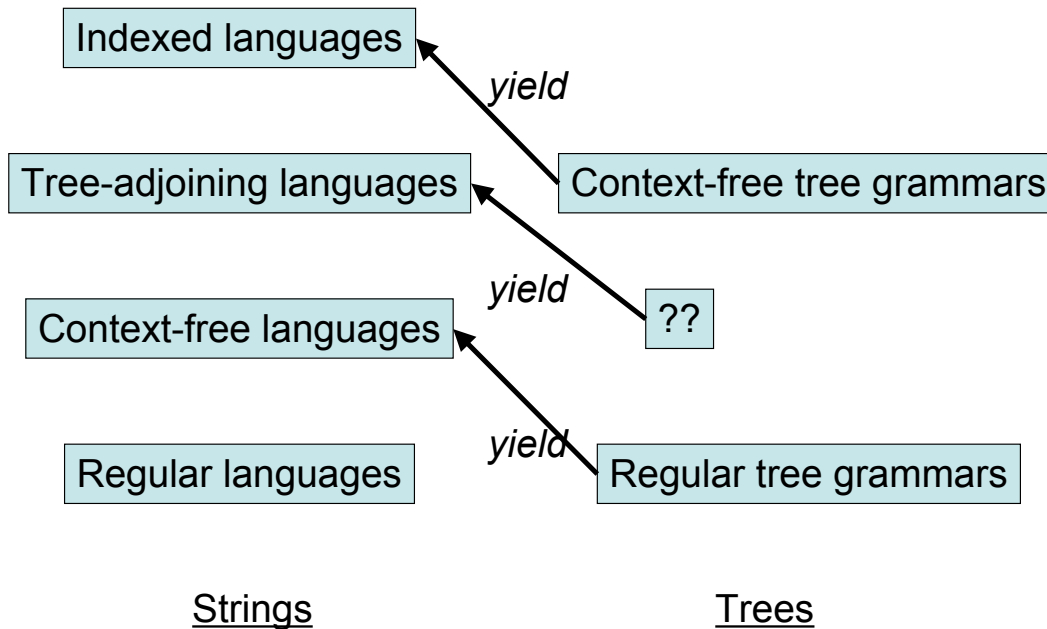
String language =  $\{a^{2^n} \mid n \geq 0\}$

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## Context-free Tree Languages

- $yield(CFTLs) = \text{Indexed Languages}$   
(Fischer 1968)
- Indexed languages: not constant growth,  
recognition algorithm is NP-complete  
(Rounds, 1973)
- Perhaps we can obtain a tree language between  
RTG and CFTG by adding constraints to CFTGs?
- Ideally, this tree language should be weakly  
equivalent to TAGs

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## Modifying CFTGs

- Simple CFTG = linear and non-deleting
- Tree language of TAGs is contained within monadic simple CFTGs
- String language of TAGs is equal to that of monadic simple CFTGs  
(Fujiyoshi & Kasai, 2000; Mönnich 1997)
- Another alternative approach: (Lang, 1994)

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# Tree Languages: Another Example

A more practical example

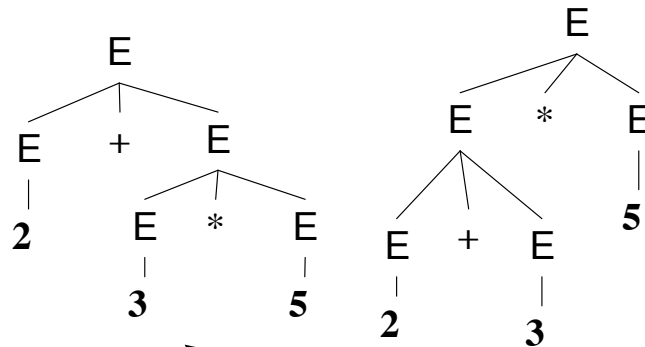
$E \rightarrow E + E$

$E \rightarrow E * E$

$E \rightarrow ( E )$

$E \rightarrow N$

$2+3*5$  is ambiguous  
either **17** or **25**



Ambiguity resolution: \*  
has precedence over +  
cannot use RTGs!

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# Tree Languages: Context-sensitivity

Eliminating ambiguity

$E \rightarrow E + E$

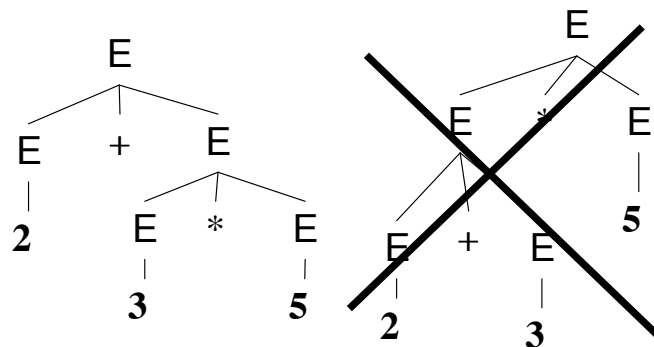
$\neg(+\_)\wedge\neg(*\_)\wedge\neg(\_*)$

$E \rightarrow E * E$

$\neg(*\_)$

$E \rightarrow ( E )$

$E \rightarrow N$



similar to context-  
sensitive grammars!

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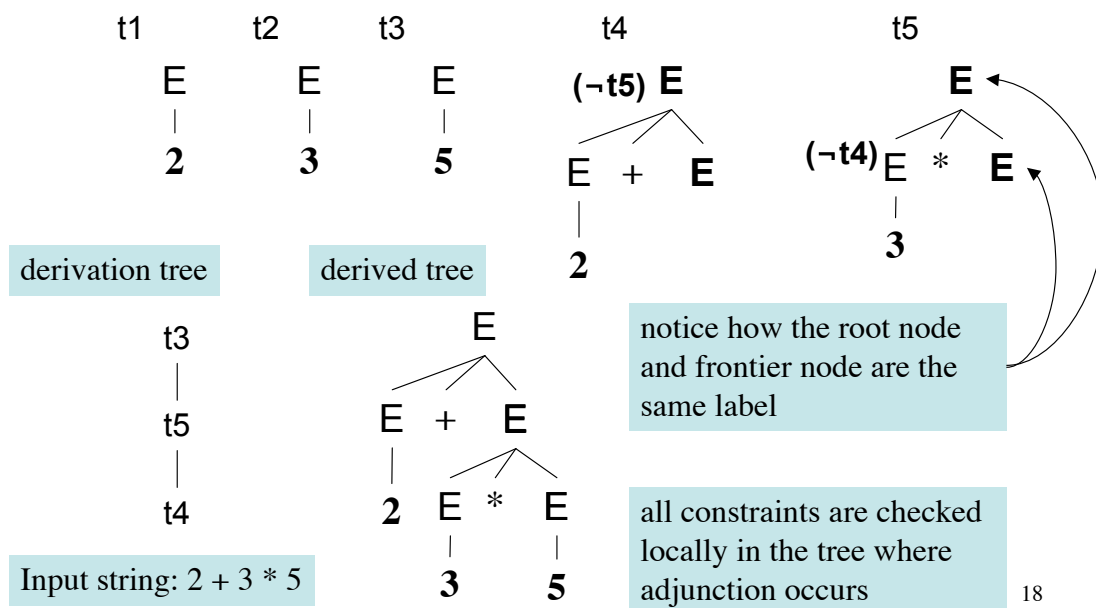


# Locality of CSG predicates

- An analysis of the kinds of CSG grammars used to define linguistic analyses in practice showed an interesting fact
- All the CSG predicates were very local
- They did not include in the context various parts of the tree that were arbitrarily far apart
- Long distance dependencies were expressed by chaining together many local CSG predicates
- This insight can be used to generate trees from an input string and validate them using CSG predicates

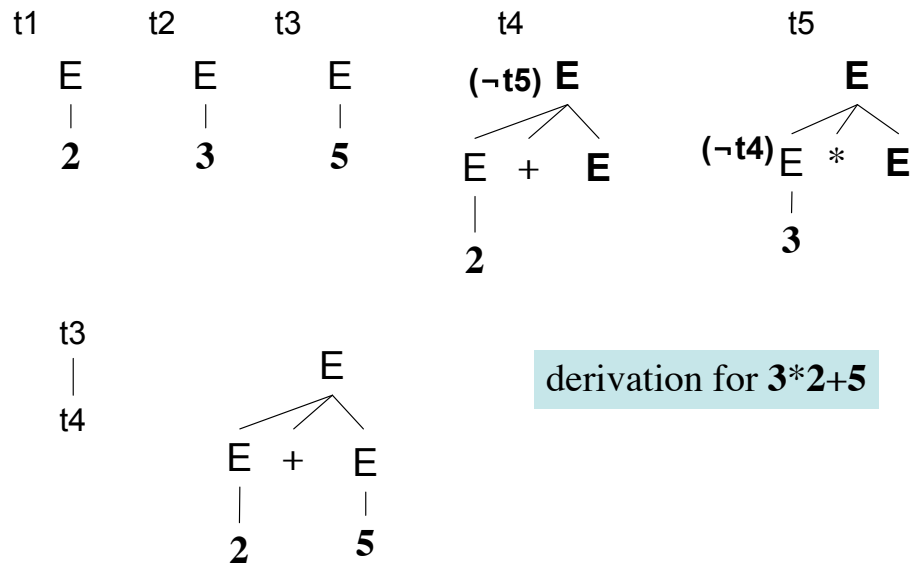
17

## Tree-Adjoining Grammars



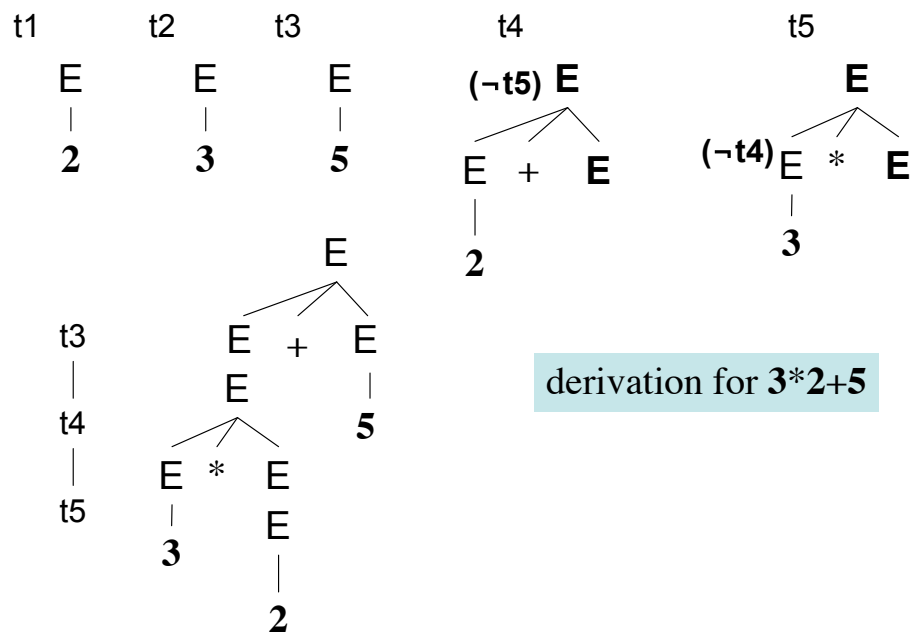
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# Tree-Adjoining Grammars



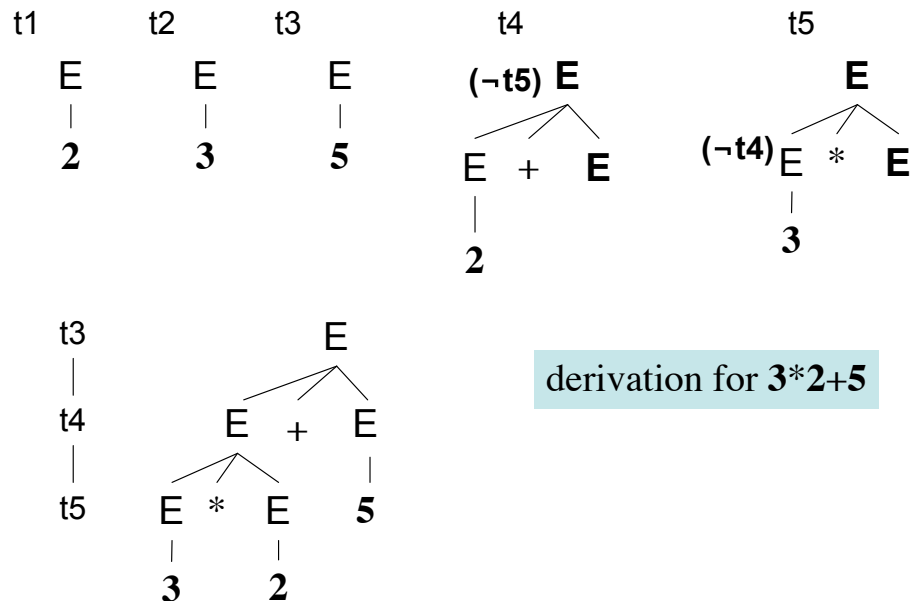
19

# Tree-Adjoining Grammars



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# Tree-Adjoining Grammars



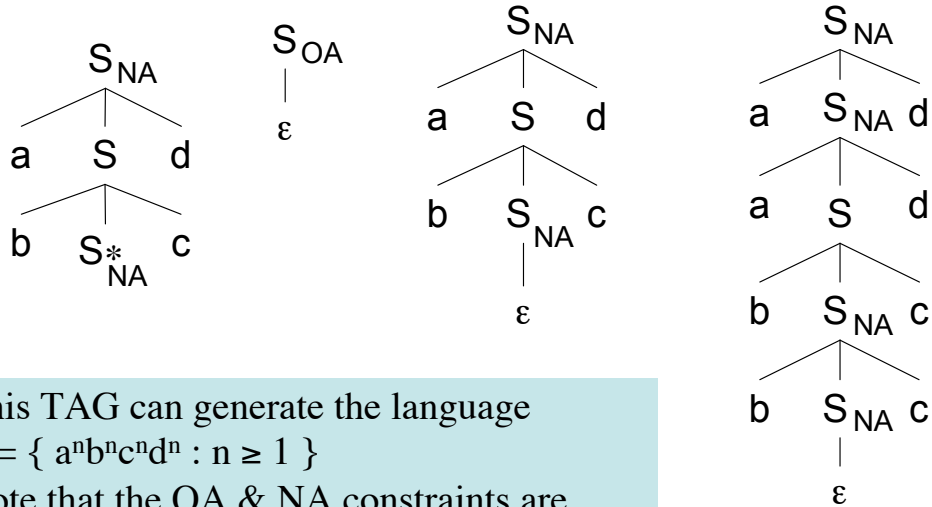
21

## Adjunction Constraints

- Adjunction is the rewriting of a non-terminal in a tree with an auxiliary tree
- We can think of this operation as being “context-free”
- Constraints are essential to control adjunction: both in practice for NLP and for formal closure properties
- Three types of constraints:
  - null adjunction (NA): no adjunction allowed at a node
  - obligatory adjunction (OA): adjunction must occur at a node
  - selective adjunction (SA): adjunction of a pre-specified set of trees can occur at a node

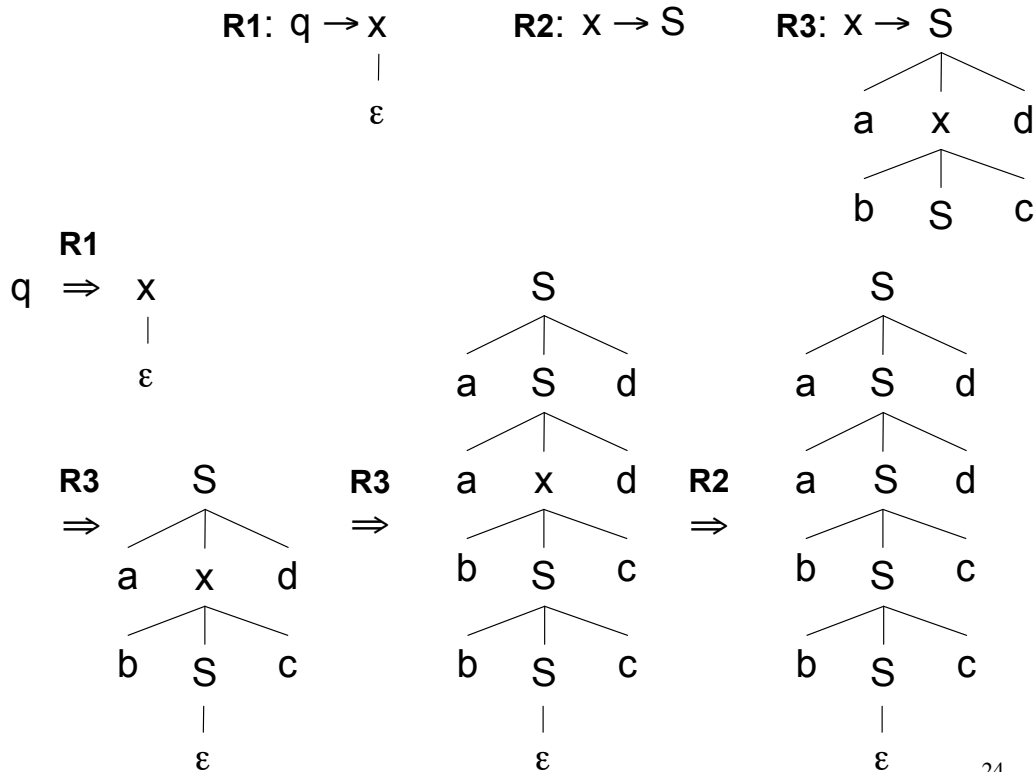
22

# Adjunction Constraints

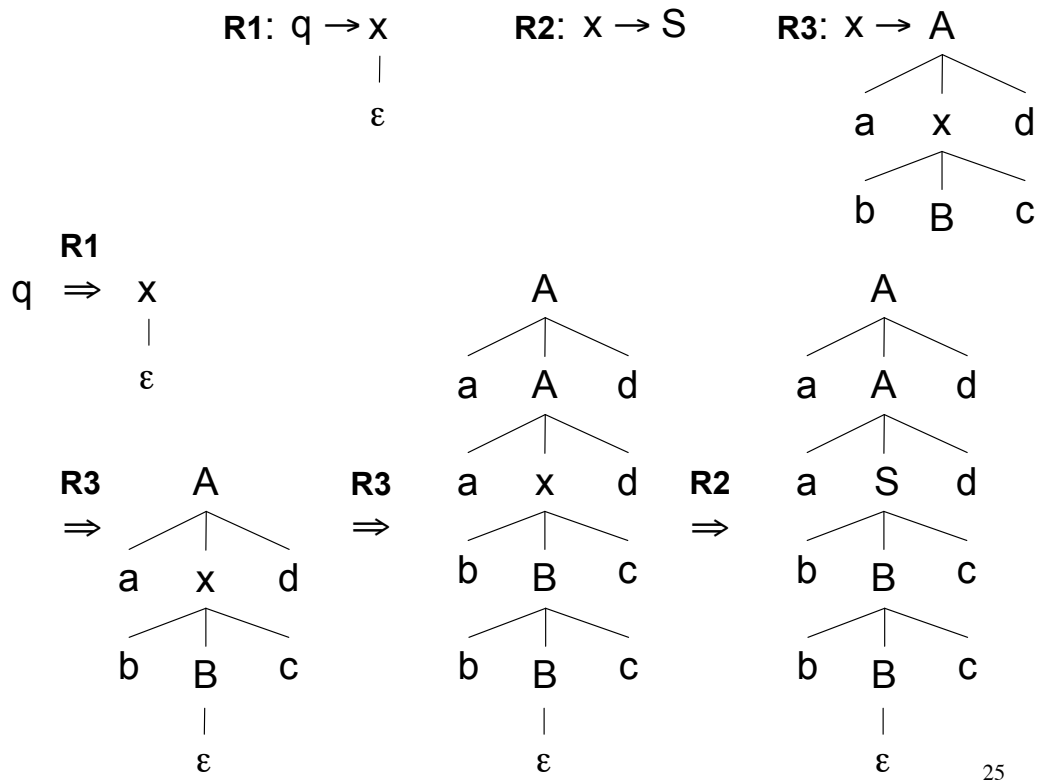


This TAG can generate the language  
 $L = \{ a^n b^n c^n d^n : n \geq 1 \}$   
 Note that the OA & NA constraints are  
 crucial to obtain the correct language

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## Adjoining Tree Grammars

- Similar to defn by (Lang, 1994)
- No adjoining constraints required
- Weakly equivalent to TAGs
- Set of tree languages for TAGs contained within that for ATGs
- Is ATG attractive for simplifying some TAG-based linguistic analysis?
  - Analyses that use adjoining constraints (feature structures)
  - Analyses that require different labels on rootnode and footnode

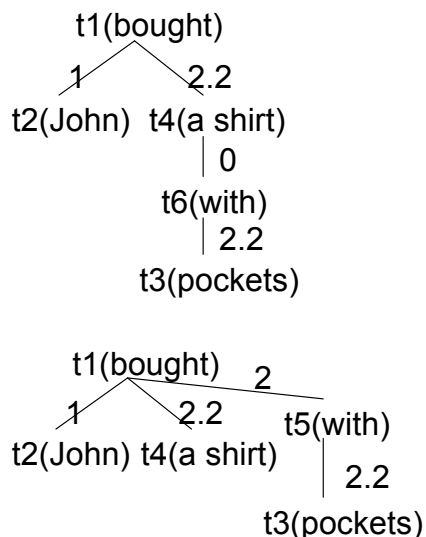
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# Adjoining Tree Grammars

- Closure properties for TALs (union, concat, homomorphism, substitution) can be shown using ATGs instead of TAGs.
  - By taking yield of the tree language
  - Without using adjunction constraints
- Intersection with regular languages (Lang, 1994)
- What about pumping lemma? cf. (Kanazawa, 2006)
- Polynomial time parsing algorithm provided by (Lang, 1994) = takes a string as input **not** a tree.
- Is ATG strongly equivalent to monadic simple CFTGs?

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## Ambiguity Resolution



- Two possible derivations for ***John bought a shirt with pockets.***
- One of them is more plausible than the other.
- Statistical parsing is used to find the most plausible derivation.

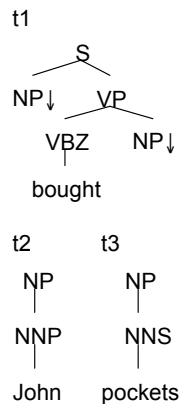
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# Statistical parsing

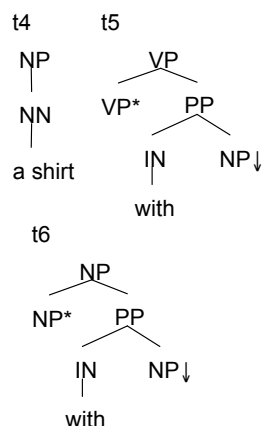
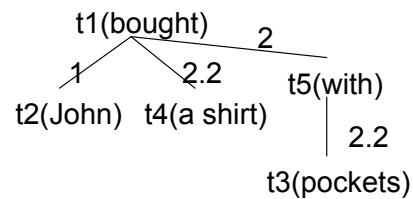
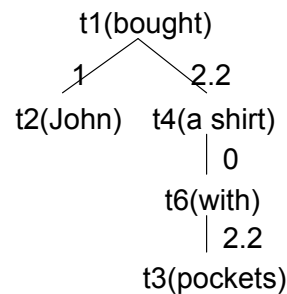
- Statistical parsing = ambiguity resolution using machine learning
- S = sentence, T = derivation tree
- Find best parse:  $\arg \max_T P(T, S)$

$P(T, S)$  is a generative model: it contains parameters that generate the input string

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## Statistical Parsing with TAG



$P(\text{tree1, John bought a shirt with pockets}) =$

$P(t1) * P(t1\#0, \text{NONE} | t1\#0) *$   
 $P(t1\#1, t2 | t1\#1) *$   
 $P(t1\#2.2, t4 | t1\#2.2) *$   
 $P(t1\#2, \text{NONE} | t1\#2) *$   
 $P(t2\#0, \text{NONE} | t2\#0) *$   
 $P(t4\#0, t6 | t4\#0) *$   
 $P(t6\#0, \text{NONE} | t6\#0) *$   
 $P(t6\#2, \text{NONE} | t6\#2) *$   
 $P(t6\#2.2, t3 | t6\#2.2) *$   
 $P(t3\#0, \text{NONE} | t3\#0)$

$P(\text{tree2, John bought a shirt with pockets}) =$

$P(t1) * P(t1\#0, \text{NONE} | t1\#0) *$   
 $P(t1\#1, t2 | t1\#1) *$   
 $P(t1\#2.2, t4 | t1\#2.2) *$   
 $P(t1\#2, t5 | t1\#2) *$   
 $P(t2\#0, \text{NONE} | t2\#0) *$   
 $P(t4\#0, \text{NONE} | t4\#0) *$   
 $P(t5\#0, \text{NONE} | t5\#0) *$   
 $P(t5\#2, \text{NONE} | t5\#2) *$   
 $P(t5\#2.2, t3 | t5\#2.2) *$   
 $P(t3\#0, \text{NONE} | t3\#0)$

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# Statistical Parsing with TAG

$$\arg \max_T P(T, S)$$

- PCFG
- Let tree T be built out of  $r$  CFG rules
- Note that in both PCFG and Prob. TAG, T is the *derivation tree*
- (in contrast with DOP models)
- Find all T for given S in  $O(G^2 n^3)$
- For lexicalized CFG:  $O(n^5)$
- Prob. TAG
- Let tree T be built using  $r$  elementary trees,  $t_1 \dots t_r$
- Let there be  $s$  nodes where substitution can happen
- And  $a$  nodes where adjunction can happen
- Find all T for given S in  $O(n^6)$

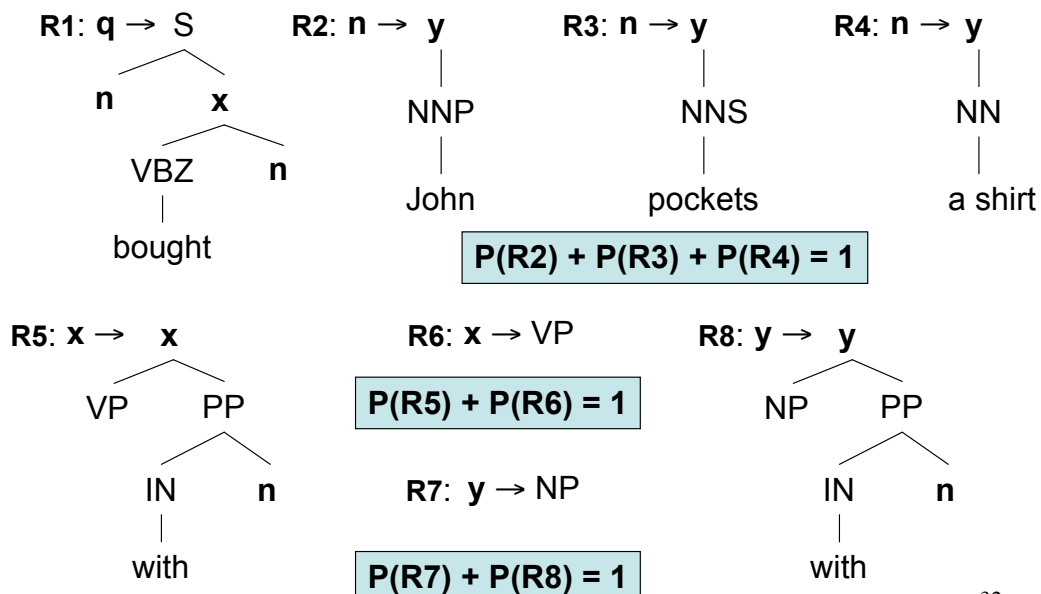
$$P(T, S) =$$

$$\prod_{i=1}^r P(LHS_i \rightarrow RHS_i \mid LHS_i)$$

$$P(T, S) = p(i) \times \prod_{i=1}^s P(i, t \mid i) \times \prod_{j=1}^a P(j, \{t, \text{NONE}\} \mid j)$$

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# Statistical Parsing with ATGs

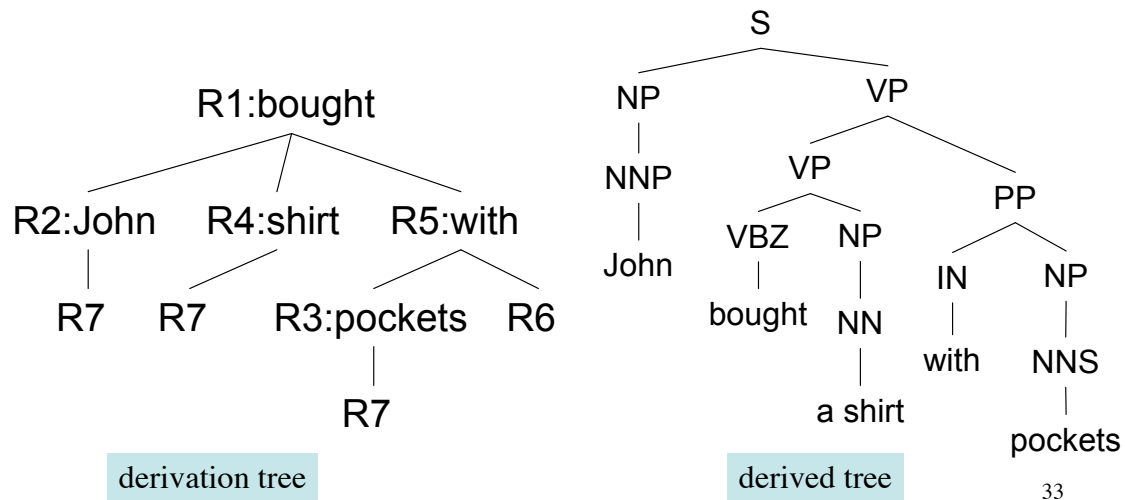


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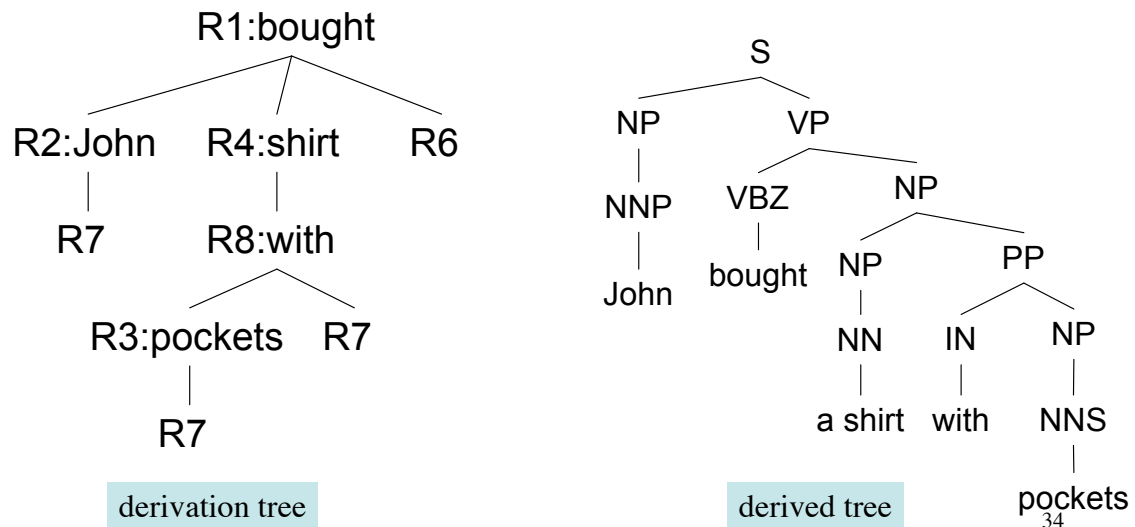


# Probabilities are not bi-lexical!

$$P(R1) * P(R2) * P(R4) * \underline{P(R5)} * P(R3) * P(R6) * (3 * P(R7))$$



$$P(R1) * P(R2) * P(R4) * \underline{P(R8)} * P(R3) * P(R6) * (3 * P(R7))$$



## Summary

- Adjoining Tree Grammars = tree recognizers
- ATGs are weakly equivalent to TAG
- ATGs generate some tree languages not possible using TAG
- ATGs sit in between regular tree grammars and context-free tree grammars
- ATGs do not have adjoining constraints: makes it much easier to teach TAGs

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## Summary

- Even though ATGs recognize trees, it is possible to use them to parse strings
- ATGs simplify proofs of TAG closure properties (without constraints!)
- Probabilistic ATG  $\neq$  Probabilistic TAG

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