LECTURE 19: LINGUISTICALLY EXPRESSIVE GRAMMARS

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PART 1: GRAMMAR IS IN NLP: WHAT AND WHY

WHAT IS GRAMMAR?



Grammar formalisms

(= linguists' programming languages)

A precise way to define and describe the structure of sentences.

(N.B.: There are many different formalisms out there, which each define their own data structures and operations)



Specific grammars

(= linguists' programs)

Implementations (in a particular formalism) for a particular language (English, Chinese,....)

(NB: any practical parser will need to also have a model/scoring function to identify which grammatical analysis should be assigned to a given sentence)

WHY STUDY GRAMMAR?

Linguistic questions:

• What kind of constructions occur in natural language(s)?

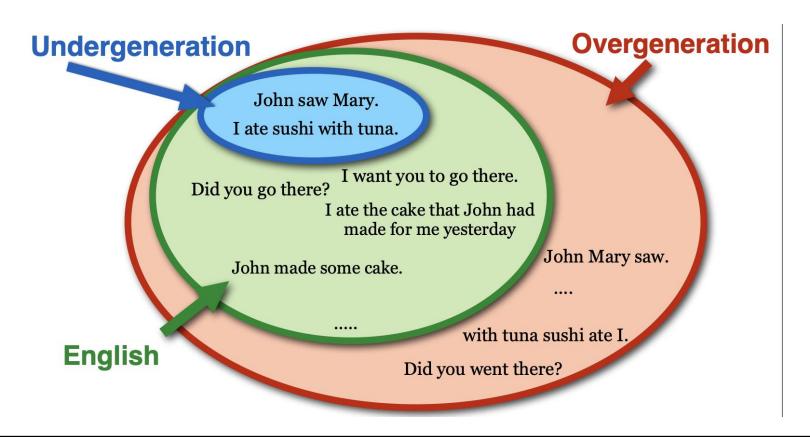
Formal questions:

- Can we define formalisms that allow us to characterize which strings belong to a language?
- Those formalisms have appropriate weak generative capacity
- Can we define formalisms that allow us to map sentences to their appropriate structures?
- Those formalisms have appropriate strong generative capacity

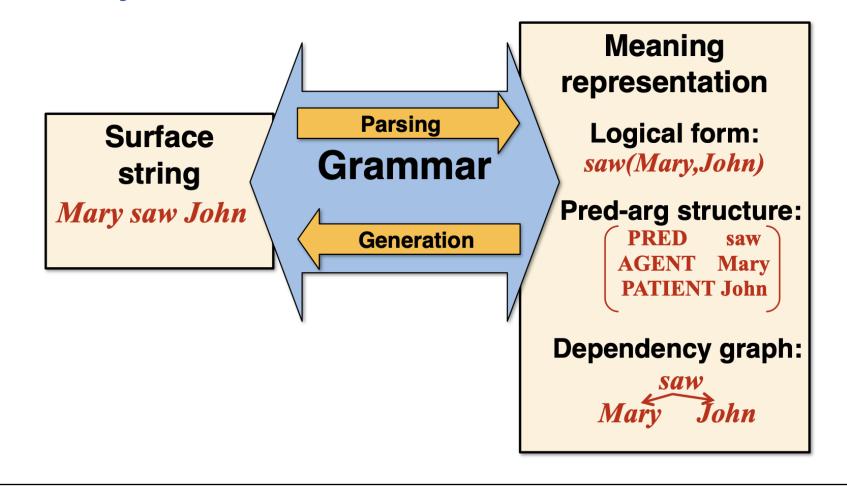
Practical applications (Syntactic/Semantic Parsing):

- Can we identify the grammatical structure of sentences?
- Can we translate sentences to appropriate meaning representations?

CAN WE DEFINE A PROGRAM THAT GENERATES ALL ENGLISH SENTENCES?



SYNTAX AS AN INTERFACE TO SEMANTICS



GRAMMAR FORMALISMS

Formalisms provide a formal **language** in which linguistic theories can be expressed and implemented

Formalisms define **elementary objects** (trees, strings, feature structures) and **recursive operations** which generate complex objects from simple objects.

Different formalisms may impose different **constraints** (e.g. on the kinds of dependencies they can capture)

WHAT MAKES A FORMALISM "EXPRESSIVE"?



"Expressive" formalisms are richer than context-free grammars.



Different formalisms use different mechanisms, data structures and operations to **go beyond CFGs**

EXAMPLES OF EXPRESSIVE GRAMMAR FORMALISMS

Tree-adjoining Grammar (TAG):	Fragments of phrase-structure trees
Combinatory Categorial Grammar (CCG):	Syntactic categories paired with meaning representations
Lexical-functional Grammar (LFG):	Annotated phrase-structure trees (c-structure) linked to feature structures (f-structure)
Head-Driven Phrase Structure Grammar(HPSG):	Complex feature structures (Attribute-value matrices)

PART 2: WHY GO BEYOND CFGS?

THE DEPENDENCIES SO FAR:

Arguments:

Verbs take arguments: subject, object, complements, ... Heads subcategorize for their arguments

Adjuncts/Modifiers:

Adjectives modify nouns, adverbs modify VPs or adjectives, PPs modify NPs or VPs **Modifiers subcategorize for the head**

Typically, these are *local* dependencies: they can be expressed within individual CFG rules

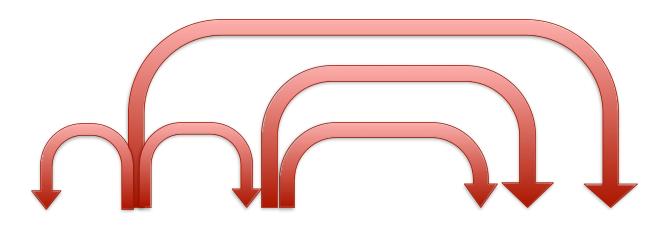


CONTEXT-FREE GRAMMARS

• CFGs capture only **nested** dependencies

The dependency graph is a tree

The dependencies do not cross



GERMAN: CENTER EMBEDDING

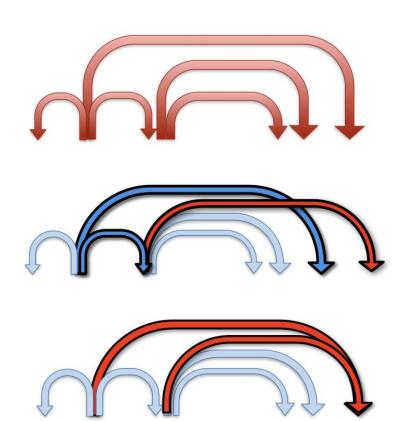
- ...daß ich [Hans schwimmen] sah
- ...that I Hans swim saw
- ...that I saw [Hans swim]
- ...daß ich [Maria [Hans schwimmen] helfen] sah
- ...that I Maria Hans swim help saw
- ...that I saw [Mary help [Hans swim]]
- ...daß ich [Anna [Maria [Hans schwimmen] helfen] lassen] sah
- ...that I Anna Maria Hans swim help let saw
- ...that I saw [Anna let [Mary help [Hans swim]]]

DEPENDENCY STRUCTURES IN GENERAL

Nested (projective) dependency trees (CFGs)

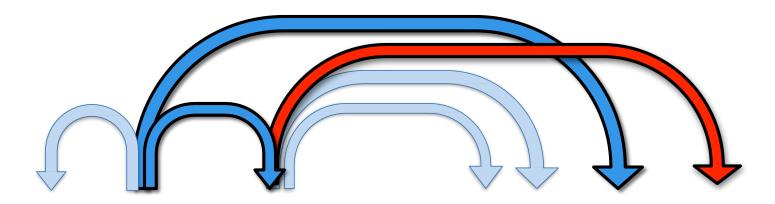
Non-projective dependency trees

Non-local dependency graphs



BEYOND CFGS: NONPROJECTIVE DEPENDENCIES

• Dependencies form a tree with crossing branches



DUTCH: CROSS-SERIAL DEPENDENCIES

- ...dat ik Hans zag zwemmen
- ...that I Hans saw swim
- ...that I saw [Hans swim]
- ...dat ik Maria Hans zag helpen zwemmen
- ...that I Maria Hans saw help swim
- ...that I saw [Mary help [Hans swim]]
- ...dat ik Anna Maria Hans zag laten helpen zwemmen
- ...that I Anna Maria Hans saw let help swim
- ...that I saw [Anna let [Mary help [Hans swim]]]

Such cross-serial dependencies require mildly context-sensitive grammars

OTHER CROSSING (NONPROJECTIVE) DEPENDENCIES

(Non-local) scrambling: In a sentence with multiple verbs, the argument of a verb appears in a different clause from that which contains the verb (arises in languages with freer word order than English)

- Die Pizza hat Klaus versprochen zu bringen
- The pizza has Klaus promised to bring
- Klaus has promised to bring the pizza

Extraposition: Here, a modifier of the subject NP is moved to the end of the sentence

- The guy is coming who is wearing a hat
- Compare with the non-extraposed variant
- The [guy [who is wearing a hat]] is coming

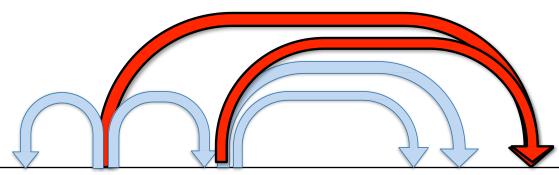
Topicalization: Here, the argument of the embedded verb is moved to the front of the sentence.

• Cheeseburgers, I [thought [he likes]]

BEYOND CFGS: NONLOCAL DEPENDENCIES

- Dependencies form a DAG

 (a node may have multiple incoming edges)
- Arise in the following constructions:
 - Control (He has promised me to go), raising (He seems to go)
 - Wh-movement (the man who you saw yesterday is here again),
 - Non-constituent coordination
 (right-node raising, gapping, argument-cluster coordination)



WHEXTRACTION (E.G. IN ENGLISH)

Relative clauses:

the sushi that [you told me [John saw [Mary eat]]]'

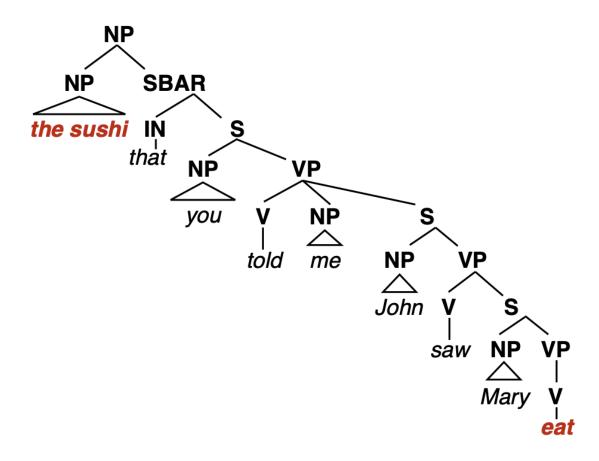
Wh-Questions:

'what [did you tell me [John saw [Mary eat]]]?'

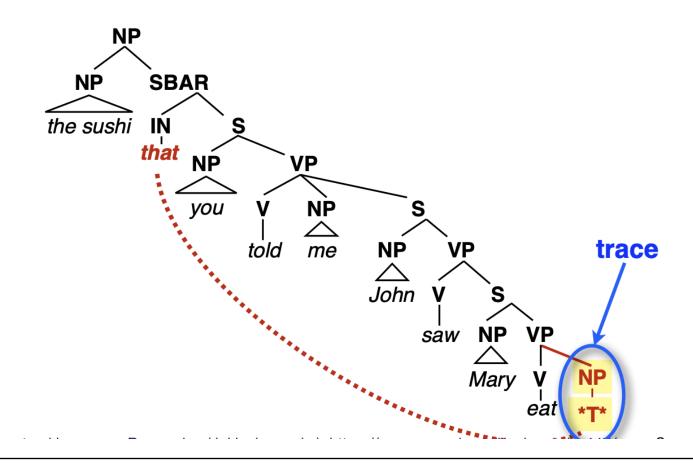
Wh-questions (what, who, ...) and relative clauses contain so-called *unbounded* nonlocal dependencies because the verb that subcategorizes for the moved NP may be arbitrarily deeply embedded in the tree

Linguists call this phenomenon **wh-extraction** (wh-movement).

AS A PHRASE STRUCTURE TREE:



THE TRACE ANALYSIS OF WH-EXTRACTION



SLASH CATEGORIES FOR WH-EXTRACTION

Because only one element can be extracted, we can use slash categories.

This is still a CFG: the set of nonterminals is finite.

