# Parsing Beyond Context-Free Grammars: Introduction

Laura Kallmeyer & Tatiana Bladier Heinrich-Heine-Universität Düsseldorf

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### **Overview**

- CFG and natural languages
- 2 Polynomial extensions of CFG
- Basic Definitions

[Kal10]

## CFG and natural languages (1)

A context-free grammar (CFG) is a set of rewriting rules that tell us how to replace a non-terminal by a sequence of non-terminal and terminal symbols.

#### Example:

$$S \rightarrow a S b S \rightarrow ab$$

The string language generated by this grammar is  $\{a^nb^n \mid n \ge 1\}$ .

### CFG and natural languages (2)

### Sample CFG $G_{telescope}$ :

```
\rightarrow NP VP
                                           NP
       \rightarrow VP PP | V NP
VP
                                           Ν
                                                   \rightarrow NPP
PΡ
       \rightarrow P NP
Ν
       \rightarrow man | girl | telescope
                                           D
                                                        the
                                           Ρ
Ν
            John
                                                         with
       \rightarrow
       \rightarrow
             saw
```

### CFG and natural languages (3)

#### Context-free languages (CFLs)

- can be recognized in polynomial time  $(\mathcal{O}(n^3))$ ;
- are accepted by push-down automata;
- have nice closure properties (e.g., closure under homomorphisms, intersection with regular languages . . . );
- satisfy a pumping lemma;
- can describe nested dependencies  $(\{ww^R \mid w \in T^*\})$ .

#### [HU79]

## CFG and natural languages (4)

Question: Is CFG powerful enough to describe all natural language phenomena?

Answer: No. There are constructions in natural languages that cannot be adequately described with a context-free grammar.

Example: cross-serial dependencies in Dutch and in Swiss German.

#### Dutch:

```
(1) ... dat Wim Jan Marie de kinderen zag helpen leren zwemmen
... that Wim Jan Marie the children saw help teach swim
' ... that Wim saw Jan help Marie teach the children to swim'
```

**Basic Definitions** 

#### Swiss German:

- (2) ... das mer em Hans es huus hälfed aastriiche
   ... that we Hans<sub>Dat</sub> house<sub>Acc</sub> helped paint
   ' ... that we helped Hans paint the house'
- (3) ... das mer d'chind em Hans es huus lönd hälfe ... that we the children<sub>Acc</sub> Hans<sub>Dat</sub> house<sub>Acc</sub> let help aastriiche paint '... that we let the children help Hans paint the house'

Swiss German uses case marking and displays cross-serial dependencies.

[Shi85] shows that Swiss German is not context-free.

## CFG and natural languages (6)

If closure under homomorphisms and intersection with regular languages is given, the following holds:

A formalism that can generate cross-serial dependencies can also generate the copy language  $\{ww \mid w \in \{a,b\}^*\}$ .

The copy language is not context-free.

Therefore we are interested in extensions of CFG in order to describe all natural language phenomena.

### CFG and natural languages (7)

Idea [Jos85]: characterize the amount of context-sensitivity necessary for natural languages.

Mildly context-sensitive formalisms have the following properties:

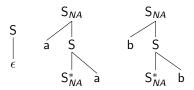
- 1 They generate (at least) all CFLs.
- 2 They can describe a limited amount of cross-serial dependencies. In other words, there is a  $n \ge 2$  up to which the formalism can generate all string languages  $\{w^n \mid w \in T^*\}$ .
- 3 They are polynomially parsable.
- **1** Their string languages are of constant growth. In other words, the length of the words generated by the grammar grows in a linear way, e.g.,  $\{a^{2^n} \mid n \ge 0\}$  does not have that property.

### Polynomial extensions of CFG (1)

#### Tree Adjoining Grammars (TAG), [JLT75, JS97]:

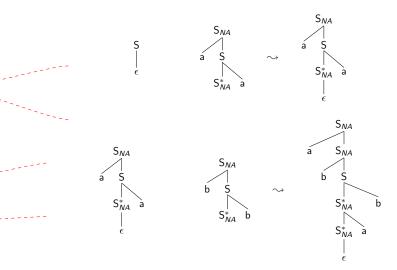
- Tree-rewriting grammar.
- Extension of CFG that allows to replace not only leaves but also internal nodes with new trees.
- Can generate the copy language.

Example: TAG for the copy language



### Polynomial extensions of CFG (2)

Example: TAG derivation of abab:



# Polynomial extensions of CFG (3)

Linear Context-free rewriting systems (LCFRS) and the equivalent Multiple Context-Free Grammars (MCFG), [VSWJ87, Wei88, SMFK91]

Idea: extension of CFG where non-terminals can span tuples of non-adjacent strings.

Example: 
$$yield(A) = \langle a^n b^n, c^n d^n \rangle$$
, with  $n \ge 1$ .

The rewriting rules tell us how to compute the span of the lefthand side non-terminal from the spans of the righthand side non-terminals.

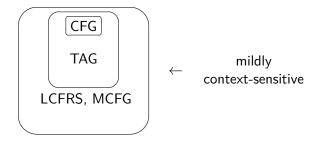
$$A(ab,cd) \rightarrow \varepsilon \quad A(aXb,cYd) \rightarrow A(X,Y) \quad S(XY) \rightarrow A(X,Y)$$

Generated string language:  $\{a^nb^nc^nd^n \mid n \geq 1\}$ .

LCFRS is more powerful than TAG but still mildly context-sensitive.

### Polynomial extensions of CFG (4)

#### Summary:



In this course, we are interested in mildly context-sensitive formalisms.

### **Basic Definitions: Languages (1)**

#### **Definition 1 (Alphabet, word, language)**

- $\bigcirc$  An alphabet is a nonempty finite set X.
- 2 A string  $x_1 ... x_n$  with  $n \ge 1$  and  $x_i \in X$  for  $1 \le i \le n$  is called a nonempty word on the alphabet X.  $X^+$  is defined as the set of all nonempty words on X.
- 3 A new element ε ∉ X<sup>+</sup> is added: X\* := x<sup>+</sup> ∪ {ε}. For each w ∈ X\*, the concatenation of w and ε is defined as follows: wε = εw = w. ε is called the empty word, and each w ∈ X\* is called a word on X.
- **4** A set L is called a language iff there is an alphabet X such that  $L \subseteq X^*$ .

### **Basic Definitions: Languages (2)**

#### **Definition 2 (Homomorphism)**

For two alphabets X and Y, a function  $f: X^* \to Y^*$  is a homomorphism iff for all  $v, w \in X^*$ : f(vw) = f(v)f(w).

#### Definition 3 (Length of a word)

Let X be an alphabet,  $w \in X^*$ .

- **1** The length of w, |w| is defined as follows: if  $w = \varepsilon$ , then |w| = 0. If w = xw' for some  $x \in X$ , then |w| = 1 + |w'|.
- ② For every  $a \in X$ , we define  $|w|_a$  as the number of as occurring in w: If  $w = \varepsilon$ , then  $|w|_a = 0$ , if w = aw' then  $|w|_a = |w'|_a + 1$  and if w = bw' for some  $b \in X \setminus \{a\}$ , then  $|w|_a = |w'|_a$ .

**Basic Definitions** 

### Basic Definitions: CFG (1)

### **Definition 4 (Context-free grammar)**

A context-free grammar (CFG) is a tuple  $G = \langle N, T, P, S \rangle$  such that

- f 0 N and T are disjoint alphabets, the nonterminals and terminals of G.
- **2**  $P \subset N \times (N \cup T)^*$  is a finite set of productions (also called rewriting rules). A production  $\langle A, \alpha \rangle$  is usually written  $A \to \alpha$ .
- **3**  $S \in N$  is the start symbol.

### Basic Definitions: CFG (2)

#### **Definition 5 (Language of a CFG)**

Let  $G = \langle N, T, P, S \rangle$  be a CFG. The (string) language L(G) of G is the set  $\{w \in T^* \mid S \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} w\}$  where

- for  $w, w' \in (N \cup T)^*$ :  $w \Rightarrow w'$  iff there is a  $A \to \alpha \in P$  and there are  $v, u \in (N \cup T)^*$  such that w = vAu and  $w' = v\alpha u$ .
- $\stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow}$  is the reflexive transitive closure of  $\Rightarrow$ :
  - $w \stackrel{0}{\Rightarrow} w$  for all  $w \in (N \cup T)^*$ , and
  - for all  $w, w' \in (N \cup T)^*$ :  $w \stackrel{n}{\Rightarrow} w'$  iff there is a v such that  $w \Rightarrow v$  and  $v \stackrel{n-1}{\Rightarrow} w'$ .
  - for all  $w, w' \in (N \cup T)^*$ :  $w \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} w'$  iff there is a  $i \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $w \stackrel{i}{\Rightarrow} w'$ .

A language L is called context-free iff there is a CFG G such that L = L(G).

**Basic Definitions** 

## **Basic Definitions: CFG (3)**

#### Proposition 1 (Pumping lemma for context-free languages)

Let L be a context-free language. Then there is a constant c such that for all  $w \in L$  with  $|w| \ge c$ :  $w = xv_1yv_2z$  with

- $|v_1v_2| \geq 1$ ,
- $|v_1yv_2| \le c$ , and
- for all  $i \ge 0$ :  $xv_1^i yv_2^i z \in L$ .

### **Basic Definitions: CFG (4)**

#### **Proposition 2**

Context-free languages are closed under homomorphisms, i.e., for alphabets  $T_1, T_2$  and for every context-free language  $L_1 \subset T_1^*$  and every homomorphism  $h: T_1^* \to T_2^*$ ,  $h(L_1) = \{h(w) \mid w \in L_1\}$  is a context-free language.

#### Proposition 3

Context-free languages are closed under intersection with regular languages, i.e., for every context-free language L and every regular language  $L_r$ ,  $L \cap L_r$  is a context-free language.

#### **Proposition 4**

The copy language  $\{ww \mid w \in \{a, b\}^*\}$  is not context-free.

**Basic Definitions** 

### **Basic Definitions: Trees (1)**

#### **Definition 6 (Directed Graph)**

- **1** A directed graph is a pair  $\langle V, E \rangle$  where V is a finite set of vertices and  $E \subseteq V \times V$  is a set of edges.
- **2** For every  $v \in V$ , we define the in-degree of v as  $|\{v' \in V \mid \langle v', v \rangle \in E\}|$  and the out-degree of v as  $|\{v' \in V \mid \langle v, v' \rangle \in E\}|$ .

 $E^+$  is the transitive closure of E and  $E^*$  is the reflexive transitive closure of E.

### **Basic Definitions: Trees (2)**

#### **Definition 7 (Tree)**

A tree is a triple  $\gamma = \langle V, E, r \rangle$  such that

- $\langle V, E \rangle$  is a directed graph and  $r \in V$  is a special node, the root node.
- $\gamma$  contains no cycles, i.e., there is no  $v \in V$  such that  $\langle v, v \rangle \in E^+$ ,
- only the root  $r \in V$  has in-degree 0,
- every vertex  $v \in V$  is accessible from r, i.e.,  $\langle r, v \rangle \in E^*$ , and
- all nodes  $v \in V \{r\}$  have in-degree 1.

A vertex with out-degree 0 is called a leaf. The vertices in a tree are also called nodes.

## **Basic Definitions: Trees (3)**

#### Definition 8 (Ordered Tree)

A tree is ordered if it has an additional linear precedence relation  $\prec \in V \times V$  such that

- ≺ is irreflexive, antisymmetric and transitive,
- for all  $v_1, v_2$  with  $\{\langle v_1, v_2 \rangle, \langle v_2, v_1 \rangle\} \cap E^* = \emptyset$ : either  $v_1 \prec v_2$  or  $v_2 \prec v_1$  and if there is either a  $\langle v_3, v_1 \rangle \in E$  with  $v_3 \prec v_2$  or a  $\langle v_4, v_2 \rangle \in E$  with  $v_1 \prec v_4$ , then  $v_1 \prec v_2$ , and
- nothing else is in ≺.

We use Gorn addresses for nodes in ordered trees: The root address is  $\varepsilon$ , and the *j*th child of a node with address p has address pj.

### **Basic Definitions: Trees (4)**

#### **Definition 9 (Labeling)**

A labeling of a graph  $\gamma = \langle V, E \rangle$  over a signature  $\langle A_1, A_2 \rangle$  is a pair of functions  $I: V \to A_1$  and  $g: E \to A_2$  with  $A_1, A_2$  possibly distinct.

#### Definition 10 (Syntactic tree)

Let N and T be disjoint alphabets of non-terminal and terminal symbols. A syntactic tree (over N and T) is an ordered finite labeled tree such that  $I(v) \in N$  for each vertex v with out-degree at least 1 and  $I(v) \in (N \cup T \cup \{\varepsilon\})$  for each leaf v.

Basic Definitions

### **Basic Definitions: Trees (5)**

#### **Definition 11 (Tree Language of a CFG)**

Let  $G = \langle N, T, P, S \rangle$  be a CFG.

- **1** A syntactic tree  $\langle V, E, r \rangle$  over N and T is a parse tree in G iff
  - $I(v) \in (T \cup \{\varepsilon\})$  for each leaf v,
  - for every  $v_0, v_1, \ldots, v_n \in V$ ,  $n \ge 1$  such that  $\langle v_0, v_i \rangle \in E$  for  $1 \le i \le n$  and  $\langle v_i, v_{i+1} \rangle \in \prec$  for  $1 \le i < n$ ,  $I(v_0) \to I(v_1) \ldots I(v_n) \in P$ .
- 2 A parse tree  $\langle V, E, r \rangle$  is a derivation tree in G iff I(r) = S.
- **3** The tree language of *G* is

$$L_T(G) = \{ \gamma \mid \gamma \text{ is a derivation tree in } G \}$$

### **Basic Definitions: Trees (6)**

#### **Definition 12 (Weak and Strong Equivalence)**

Let  $F_1$ ,  $F_2$  be two grammar formalisms.

- $F_1$  and  $F_2$  are weakly equivalent iff for each instance  $G_1$  of  $F_1$  there is an instance  $G_2$  of  $F_2$  that generates the same string language and vice versa.
- $F_1$  and  $F_2$  are strongly equivalent iff for both formalisms the notion of a tree language is defined and, furthermore, for each instance  $G_1$  of  $F_1$  there is an instance  $G_2$  of  $F_2$  that generates the same tree language and vice versa.

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