

Tree Adjoining Grammars
XTAG-Analyses of Syntactic Phenomena

Laura Kallmeyer & Timm Lichte

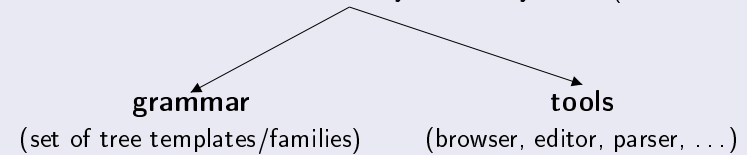
HHU Düsseldorf

WS 2012
24.10.2012

Outline

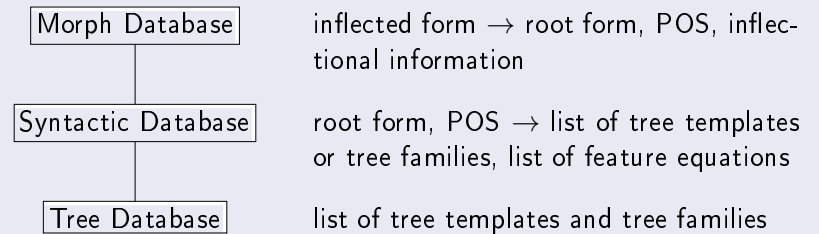
- 1 The XTAG-grammar
- 2 Complementation
 - NP- and PP-complements
 - Sentential complements
 - Control
 - Raising
 - Small clauses
- 3 Extraction
 - Unbounded dependency
 - Islands for extraction
 - Subject-auxiliary inversion
 - Relative clauses

... was located at the University of Pennsylvania (ca. 1988-2001)

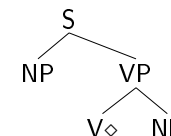


URL: <http://www.cis.upenn.edu/~xtag/>
Manual: [XTAG Research Group, 2001]

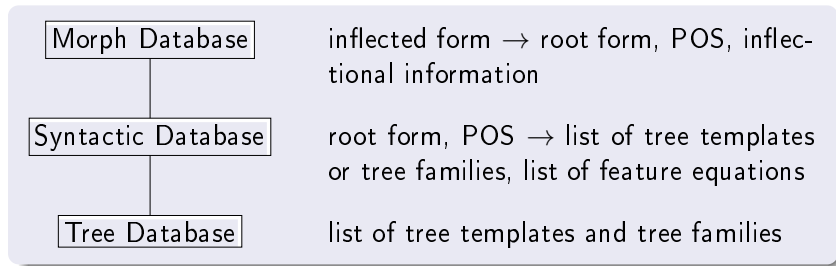
The architecture of the XTAG-grammar



Example: **Tree template** for the declarative transitive verb ($\alpha n x 0 V n x 1$), where \diamond marks the lexical insertion site:



The architecture of the XTAG-grammar



A tree family

- is a set of tree templates,
- represents a subcategorization frame, and
- unifies all syntactic configurations the subcategorization frame can be realized in.

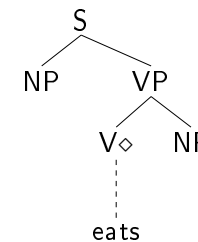
Example: $\alpha n x 0 V n x 1 \in T n x 0 V n x 1$

Lexical insertion

Lexical insertion

Drawing an edge between the lexical anchor and the lexical insertion site

- prior to substitution and adjunction
- The feature structures of the **lexical anchor** and the **insertion site** unify.



The architecture of the XTAG-grammar - Counts

subcategorization frame	# tree fam.	# tree temp.
intransitive	1	12
transitive	1	39
adjectival complement	1	11
ditransitive	1	46
prepositional complement	4	182
verb particle constructions	3	100
light verb constructions	2	53
sentential complement (full verb)	3	75
sentential subject (full verb)	4	14
idioms (full verb)	8	156
small clauses/predicative	20	187
equational 'be'	1	2
ergative	1	12
resultatives	4	101
it clefts	3	18
total	57	1008

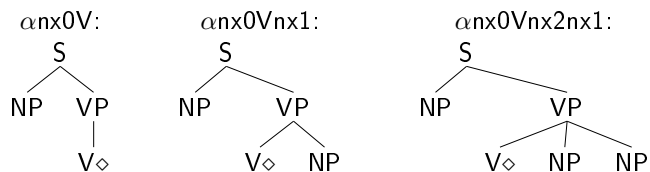
(from [Prolo, 2002])

Outline

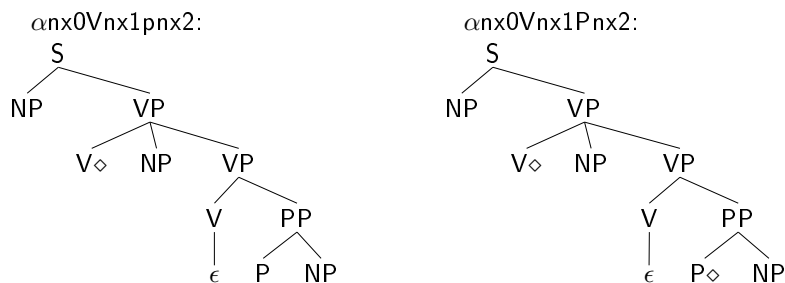
- 1 The XTAG-grammar
- 2 Complementation
 - NP- and PP-complements
 - Sentential complements
 - Control
 - Raising
 - Small clauses
- 3 Extraction
 - Unbounded dependency
 - Islands for extraction
 - Subject-auxiliary inversion
 - Relative clauses

Complementation with NPs and PPs: The base cases

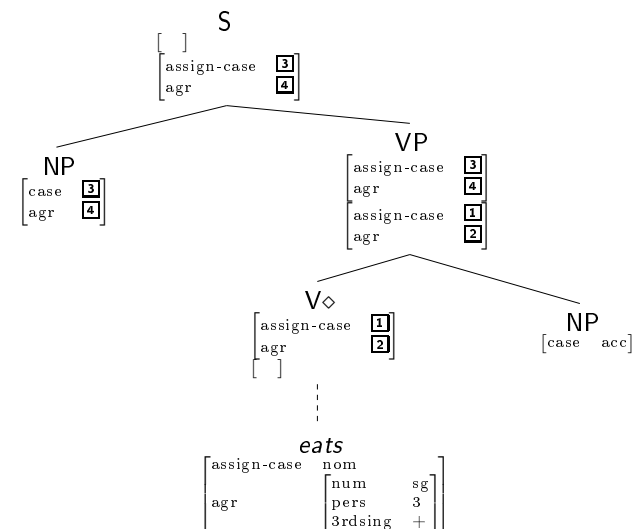
Complementation with NPs:



Complementation with PPs: substitution or co-anchor



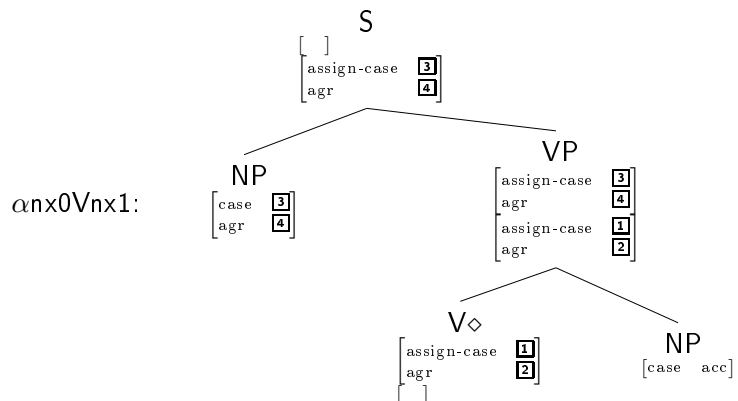
Case assignment and subject-verb agreement



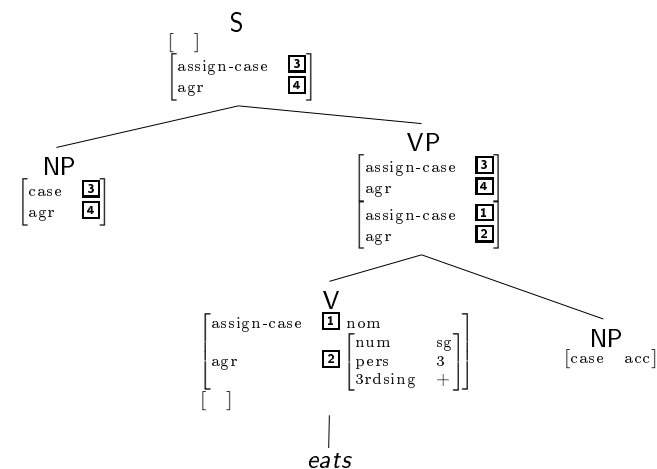
Case assignment and subject-verb agreement

Two modes of case assignment in tree templates:

- Direct case assignment with case
- Indirect case assignment with assign-case
 ⇒ by the lexical anchor (during lexical insertion) or by adjoining trees



Case assignment and subject-verb agreement



Sentential complement structures

In XTAG, a distinction is drawn between sentential complements with (i) **finite verbs**, sentential complements with (ii) **to-infinitives**, and (iii) **small clauses**.

- (1) a. Kim said [that Sandy left]. (finitive)
 - b. Dana preferred [for Pat to get the job]. (to-infinitive)
 - c. Leslie wanted [Chris to go].
 - d. René tried [PRO to win].
 - e. [Kim] seems [to be happy].
 - f. Tracy proved [the theorem false]. (small clauses)
 - g. Bo considered [Lou a friend].
 - h. Gerry expects [those children off the ship]
- (from [Pollard and Sag, 1994])

To-infinitives: Controlling and Raising its subject

XTAG assumes different syntactic structures/derivations for superficially very similar sentences:

- (2) a. John tries [PRO to leave].
- b. [John] seems [to leave].

Why is that?

XTAG adopts the **projection principle** from GB [Chomsky, 1981], according to which “meaning maps transparently into syntactic structure” [Culicover and Jackendoff, 2005, 47], such that the following equivalence relation holds:

Complement of the verb \iff Argument of the predicate

\Rightarrow θ -criterion for TAG from [Frank, 2002]

To-infinitives: Controlling and Raising its subject

Complement of the verb \iff Argument of the predicate

- (3) John tries to leave.

```
graph TD
    tries[tries] --- John[John]
    tries --- leave[leave(John)]
    leave --- John2[John]
```

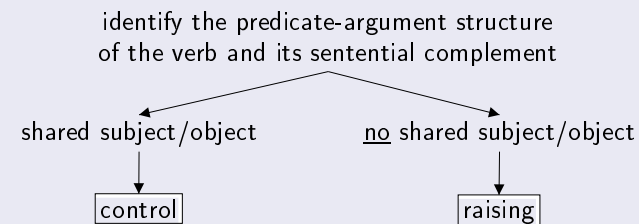
\Rightarrow *John* is the complement of both *tries* and *to leave*.
 \Rightarrow Empty element (PRO) is used to avoid complement sharing.
 \Rightarrow PRO needs to be “controlled”.
 \Rightarrow **Control**

- (4) John seems to leave.

```
graph TD
    seems[seems] --- John[John]
    seems --- leave[leave(John)]
    leave --- John2[John]
```

\Rightarrow *John* is not the complement of *seems*.
 \Rightarrow Argumenthood is the primary syntactic factor, not agreement!
 \Rightarrow An alien complement looks like a regular complement.
 \Rightarrow **Raising**

Raise or control?



• Classification game:

- (5) a. They asked Jan to leave. (object control)
- b. Bo turns out to be obnoxious. (subject raising)
- c. Sandy is willing to go to the movies. (subject control)
- d. Terry was expected to win the prize. (subject raising)
- e. Kim believed a unicorn to be approaching. (object raising)

Raise or control?

identify the predicate-argument structure of the verb and its sentential complement

shared subject/object

no shared subject/object

control

raising

• Pitfalls and special cases:

- (6) a. It is important for Bill to dance. (PP-raising?)
 b. Christy left the party early to go to the airport. (modifier?)
 c. Peter kept standing in the doorway. (no to-infinitive)

Control verbs

Control verbs establish the coreference between their subject/object and the unexpressed subject (PRO) of their sentential complement.

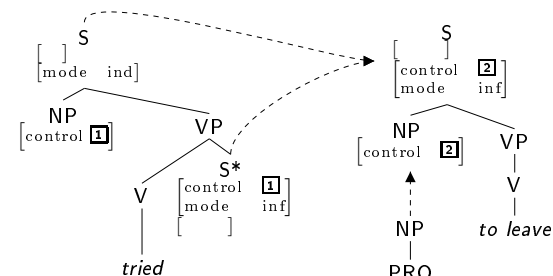
- (7) a. John tried [PRO to leave]. (subject control)
 b. John persuaded him [PRO to leave]. (object control)
 c. *There tries [PRO to be disorder after a revolution].

⇒ **Control verbs assign semantic role to the controller!**

Control verbs - XTAG-Analysis

- control feature for coindexation
- PRO tree or PRO as coanchor of the verb

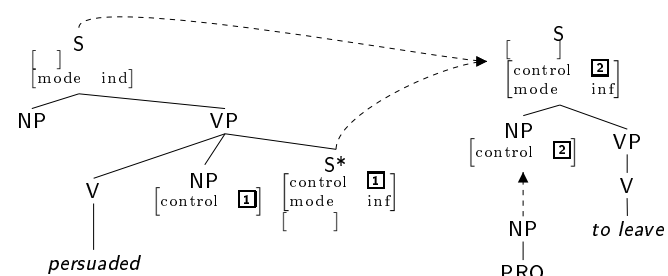
Example for subject control:



Control verbs - XTAG-Analysis

- control feature for coindexation
- PRO tree or PRO as coanchor of the verb

Example for object control:



Raising verbs determine case and agreement properties of the subject complement of the (non-finite) sentential complement. Since the “raised” constituent is no immediate part of the argument structure of the raising verb, this is called **Exceptional Case Marking (ECM)**.

- (8) a. [John] seems [to leave]. (subject raising)
 b. Sue expects [him to leave]. (object raising)
 c. [There] seems [to be disorder after a revolution].
 d. John expected [it to rain].

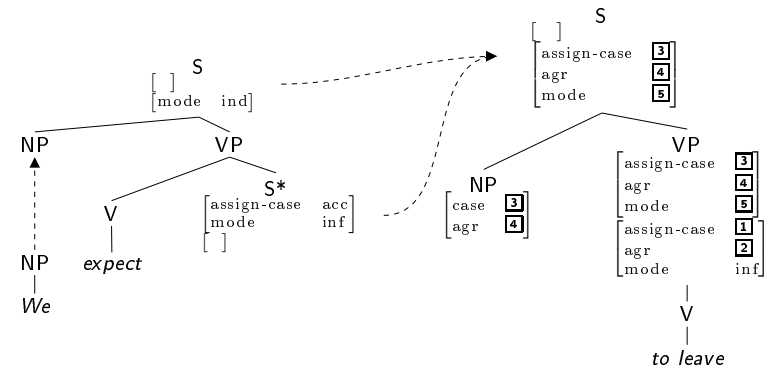
⇒ allow for expletive pronouns (*it/there*)

- (9) John seems unhappy.
 *John tries unhappy.

⇒ allow for small clauses

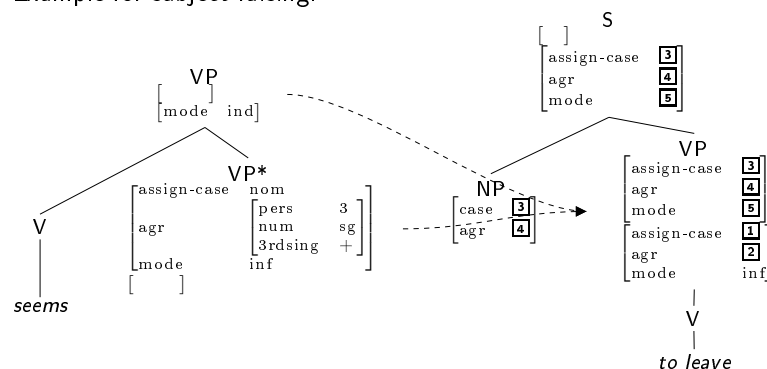
Example for object raising:

- (10) We expect him to leave.



- no PRO
- The “raised” constituent is still part of the to-infinitive!
- ECM via assign-case feature

Example for subject raising:



Question:

What complements does the verb *consider* take?

- (11) a. We consider [Kim to be an acceptable candidate].
 b. We consider [Kim an acceptable candidate].
 c. We consider [Kim quite acceptable].
 d. We consider [Kim among the most acceptable candidates].
 e. *We consider [Kim as an acceptable candidate].

Similar verbs: *prove, expect, rate, count, want*

- 1 One sentential complement (small clause), where *to be* can be omitted
- 2 A noun and a predicative phrase

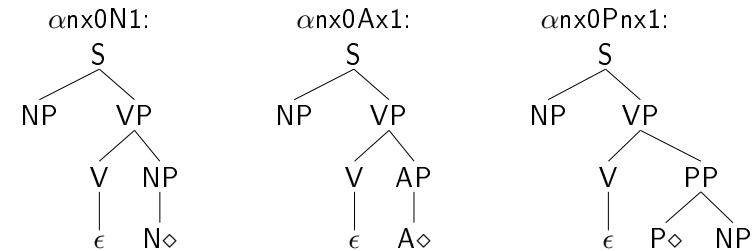
Small clauses - Pro and contra (1)

Pro:

- Homomorphism between argument structure and complement structure (in GB: Projection Principle, UTAH; in TAG: θ -Criterion)
- Uniformity of the subcategorized constituents:

Instead of NP, AP, PP, IP/S, ... as possible categories of the complements, there is only one complement category.

Small clauses - XTAG-Analysis (1)



Small clauses have the structure of regular sentences, except that the verb is missing.

⇒ The superordinate verb is represented as auxiliary tree that adjoins at VP or S.

Small clauses - Pro and contra (2)

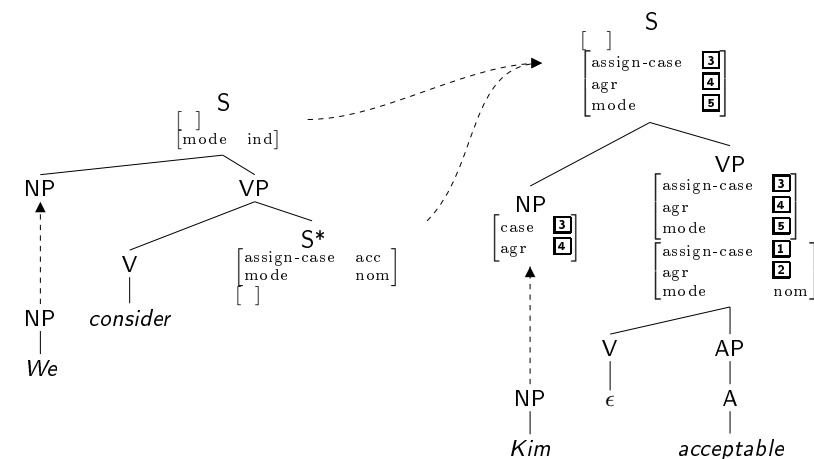
Contra:

- Passivization (object-to-subject shift)
 - (12) We considered [Kim quite acceptable].
Kim was considered [] quite acceptable].
- Idiosyncratic restrictions on the predicative phrase
 - (13) a. I consider/*expect [this Island a good vacation spot].
b. I consider/*expect [this man stupid].
I expect [that man to be stupid].
c. We rate/*consider [Kim as quite acceptable]

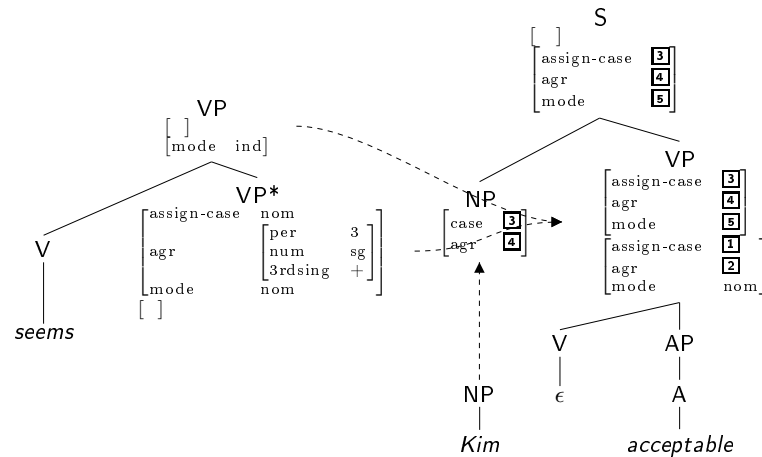
⇒ The verb should be indifferent to the categorial status of the small clause predicate!

Small clauses - XTAG-Analysis (2)

(14) We consider Kim acceptable.



(15) Kim seems acceptable.



- 1 The XTAG-grammar
- 2 Complementation
 - NP- and PP-complements
 - Sentential complements
- 3 Extraction
 - Unbounded dependency
 - Islands for extraction
 - Subject-auxiliary inversion
 - Relative clauses

Raise and control - Summary

control verbs	raising verbs
assign semantic role (to the controlled subject)	assign <u>no</u> semantic role (to the raised subject)
PRO (incomplete sent. complement)	no PRO (complete sent. complement)
assign <u>no</u> case (to the controlled subject)	assign case via ECM (to the raised subject)
no small clauses	small clauses
XTAG: adjoin to S	XTAG: adjoin to S or VP

Extraction - Basics

The movement metaphor:

- Relating syntactic configurations in a derivational hierarchy.
- **Traces** and **coindexation** are used to express derivational subordination.

Topicalization/Extraction:

Placing a post-verbal constituent into a sentence-initial position.

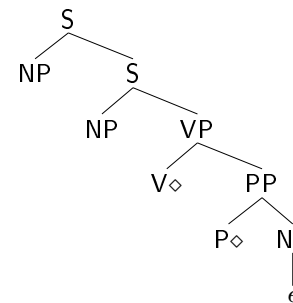
- (16) a. Sandy loves Kim. (base configuration)
- b. Kim_i, Sandy loves ____i. (NP-topicalization)
- c. On Kim_i, Sandy depends ____i. (PP-topicalization)

Wh-Extraction:

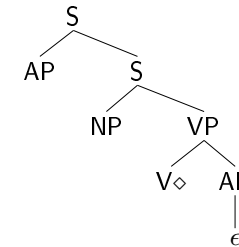
Placing a constituent as **wh-phrase** into a clause-initial position.

- (17) a. I wonder [who_i Sandy loves _i]. (indirect question)
 b. Who_i does Sandy love _i . (direct question)
 c. Sandy loves Kim_i [who_i Irmgard hates _i]. (relative clause)

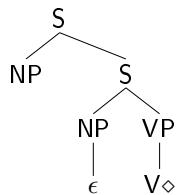
preposition stranding ($\alpha W1nx0VPnx1$)



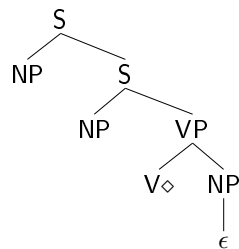
adjective complement extraction ($\alpha WA1nx0Vax1$)



subject extraction ($\alpha W0nx0V$)



object extraction ($\alpha W1nx0Vnx1$)

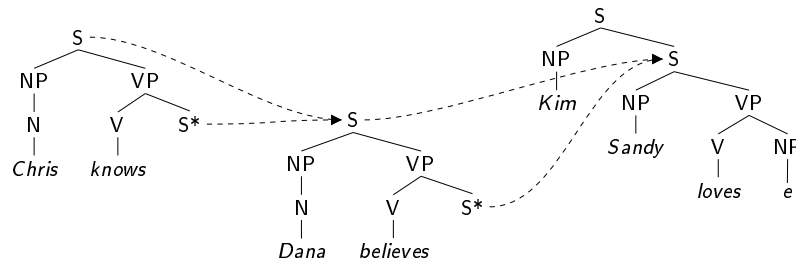


Unbounded dependency:

The dependency between an extracted constituent and its trace may extend **across arbitrarily many clause boundaries**.

- (18) a. Kim_i, Sandy loves _i .
 b. Kim_i, Chris knows [Sandy loves _i].
 c. Kim_i, Dana believes [Chris knows [Sandy loves _i]].
- (19) a. I wonder [who_i Sandy loves _i].
 b. I wonder [who_i Chris knows [Sandy loves _i]].
 c. I wonder [who_i Dana believes Chris knows [Sandy loves _i]].

(20) Kim_i, Dana believes [Chris knows [Sandy loves _i]].



⇒ extended domain of locality and factoring of recursion (recursive adjunction)

Islands for extraction

- **Adjuncts:**

(21) *[Which movie]_i did Gorgette fall asleep [after watching _i].

⇒ No such elementary tree for the adjunct!

- **Coordination**

(22) *Who_i did Sandy love [_i and Kim].

⇒ No such elementary trees for the coordinated NP and for the governing verb!

Islands for extraction

- **Finite sentences with complementizer** (subject extraction)
(In GB: Empty Category Principle/Subjacency):

(23) *Who_i did Alice say [that _i left].
Who_i did Alice say [_i left].

⇒ No such elementary trees!

- **Finite sentences with complementizer** (object extraction)

(24) *Who_i did the elephant whisper [that the emu saw _i] ?
Who_i did the elephant say [that the emu saw _i] ?

⇒ Filtering by features:

comp = nil, where non-bridge verbs attach (*whisper*)
comp = nil/that, where bridge verbs attach (*say*)

Subject-auxiliary inversion

Subject-auxiliary inversion

The auxiliary verb ('do', 'have', 'be', 'can', ...) precedes the subject.

- **No subject-auxiliary inversion** in embedded wh-questions:

(25) a. I wonder [what_i John reads _i].
b. *I wonder [what_i **does** John read _i].

- **Obligatory subject-auxiliary inversion** in direct questions with object extraction:

(26) a. What_i **does** John read _i?
b. *What_i John **does** read _i?
c. *What_i John reads _i?

- **No subject-auxiliary inversion** in topicalization:

(27) a. *This report_i **does** John read _i.
b. This report_i; John **does** read _i.

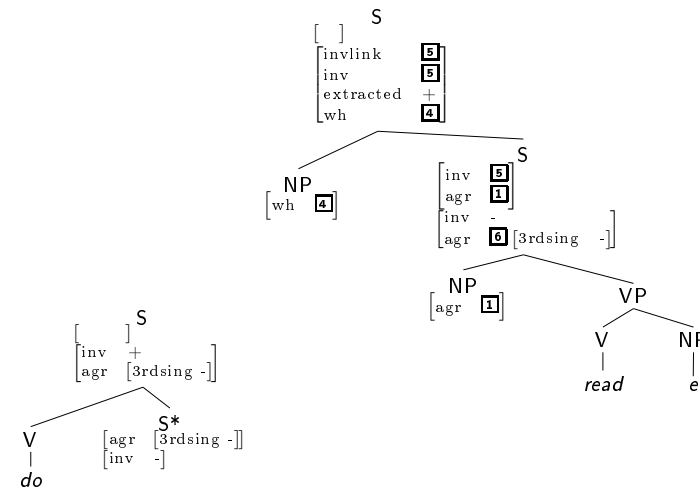
Subject-auxiliary inversion - XTAG-analysis (1)

Features for extraction:

- extracted := {+,-}
 - ⇒ to indicate extraction in the S-node
- wh := {+,-}
 - ⇒ to indicate the presence of a wh-pronoun
- inv := {+,-}
 - ⇒ to indicate inversion
- invlink := {+,-}
 - ⇒ to link wh und inv via the **root restriction**

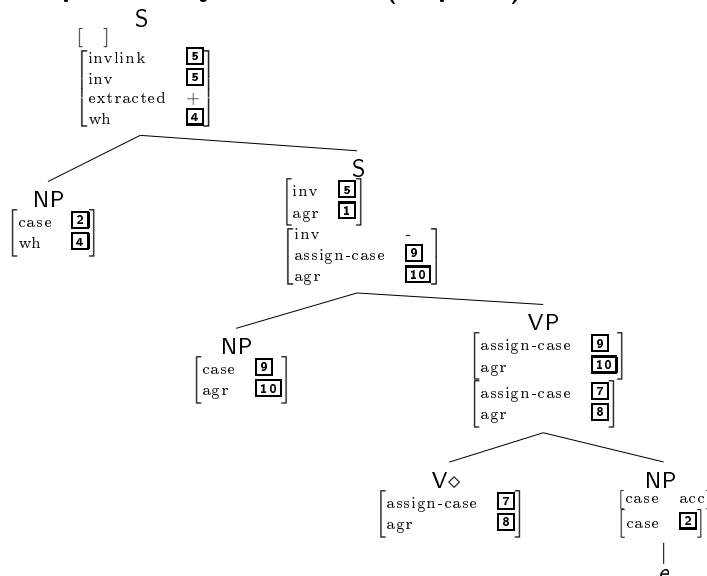
Subject-auxiliary inversion - XTAG-analysis (3)

Elementary tree with object extraction (even more simplified) and elementary tree for the inverting auxiliary *do*:



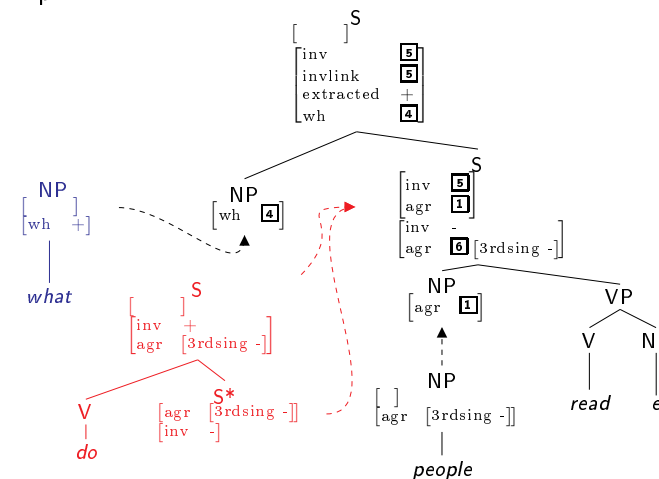
Subject-auxiliary inversion - XTAG-analysis (2)

Tree template for object extraction (simplified):



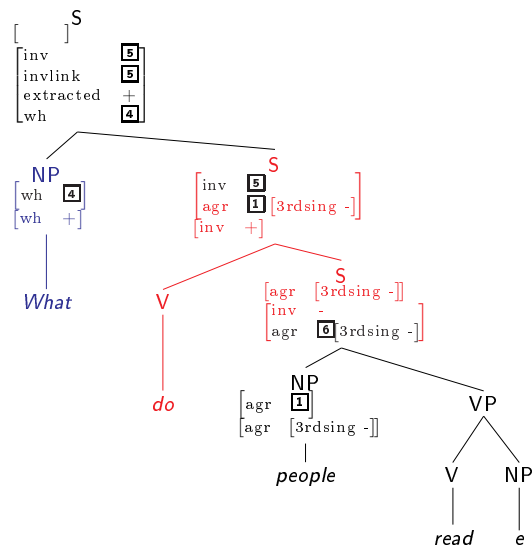
Subject-auxiliary inversion - XTAG-analysis (4)

Example derivation:



Subject-auxiliary inversion - XTAG-analysis (4)

Example derivation:



Subject-auxiliary inversion - XTAG-analysis (5)

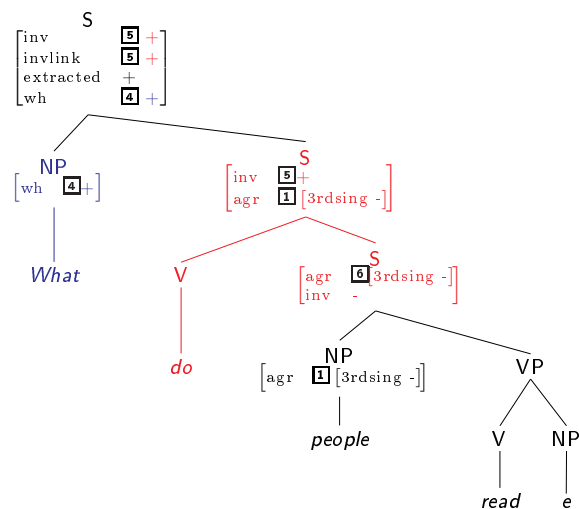
- **No subject-auxiliary inversion** in embedded wh-questions:
 - ⇒ The governing verb selects a sentential complement with $inv = -$ in the root node.
- **Obligatory subject-auxiliary inversion** in direct questions:
 - ⇒ In the root node: $wh = +$, $inv = +$
- **No subject-auxiliary inversion** in topicalization:
 - ⇒ In the root node: $wh = -$, $inv = -$

Problem

How to impose that $wh = inv$ in non-embedded object extraction, without including embedded sentences or subject extraction?

Subject-auxiliary inversion - XTAG-analysis (4)

Example derivation:



Subject-auxiliary inversion - XTAG-analysis (6)

Root restriction

"A restriction is imposed on the **final root node** of any XTAG derivation of a tensed sentence which equates the wh feature and the $invlink$ feature of the final root node." [XTAG Research Group, 2001, 296]

Crucial difference:

- The trees for object extraction have the $invlink$.
- The trees for subject extraction do not have the $invlink$.

Effects:

- Only in non-embedded object extractions the wh -pronoun depends on inversion and vice versa.
- The same tree can be used for embedded and non-embedded object extraction.

“Relative clauses are NP modifiers involving extraction of an argument or an adjunct” (XTAG manual)

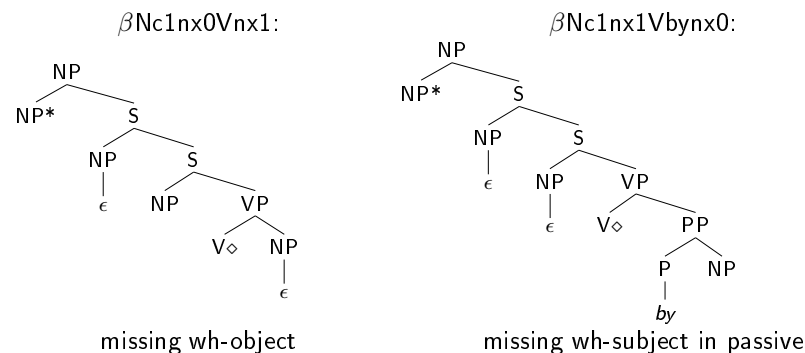
- (28) a. the dog [which ate the cake] (wh-relatives)
- b. the export exhibition [Muriel planned] (wh-less relatives)
- c. [What_i Sandy loves ___j] is Kim. (free wh-relatives)
- d. the girl [reading the magazine] (gerunds ???)

(29) Somebody_i lives nearby [who has a CD-burner]_i. (extraposition)

⇒ internal vs. external syntax

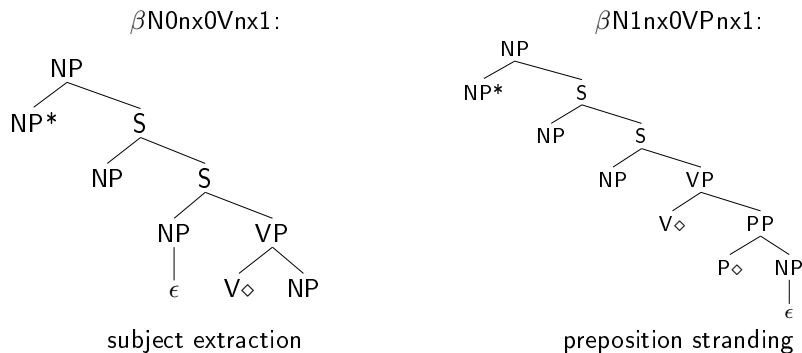
- (31) a. the export exhibition [Muriel planned/is planning]
- b. the export exhibition [(being) planned by Muriel]

internal syntax: same as wh-extraction, but missing wh-pronoun
external syntax: adjunction at a NP-node



- (30) a. The dog_i [that_i ate the cake] (subject extraction)
- b. The person_i [who_i I talked to ___j]. (preposition stranding)

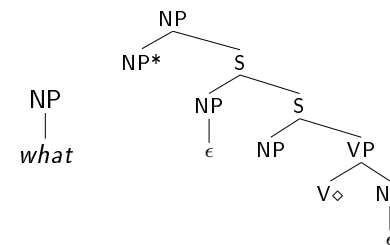
internal syntax: same as wh-extraction
external syntax: adjunction at a NP-node



Also known as **Pseudoclefts** !

(32) [What_i Sandy loves ___j] is Kim_i.

internal syntax: same as wh-less relative clause
external syntax: adjunction at a wh-pronoun



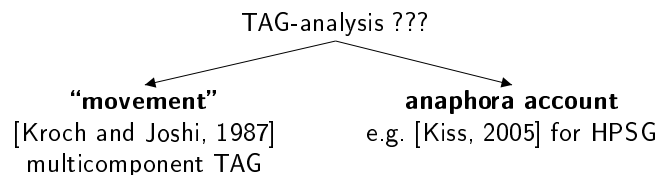
⇒ XTAG covers only free wh-relatives in object position!

Extrapolated relative clauses

- (33) a. Somebody_i lives nearby [who_i has a CD-burner].
b. Karl hat mir [von der Kopie [einer Fälschung [eines Bildes [einer Frau ____i]]]] erzählt, [die schon lange tot ist]_i.

internal syntax: same as wh-extraction

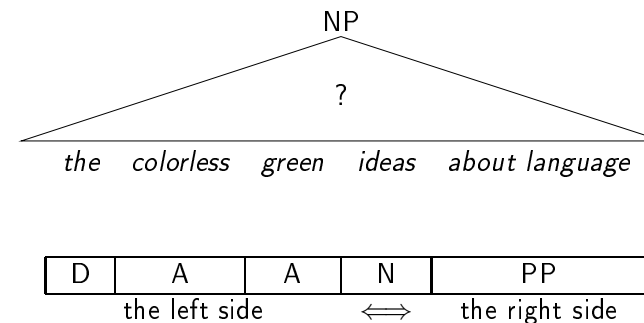
external syntax: no adjunction at a NP-node, but to the right periphery of the sentence



Extraction - Summary

- Topicalization and wh-extraction obtain a uniform analysis.
- Account for unbounded dependency via extended domain of locality + factoring of recursion
- Island constraints can be modelled rather naturally (wrt. TAG).
- Relative clauses are realized as auxiliary trees. Their internal structure is analysed as ordinary wh-extraction.

The inner structure of NPs



- 1 The left side of nouns
 - Determiners
 - Adjectives
- 2 The right side of nouns
 - PP-complements/-adjuncts of nouns
 - Relative clauses

The left side of nouns - Determiners

'Determiners' labels a rather heterogenous set of items:

- articles (*the, a*)
- demonstratives (*this, that*)
- genitives (*my, Bill's, that man's*)
- quantifiers (*all, some, every, most, many*)

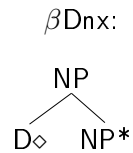
Determiners can be stacked:

(34) all these many ideas

⇒ The pattern of determiner stacking is very complex!

The left side of nouns - Determiners - XTAG-analysis

XTAG uses βD_{nx} for all determiners:



XTAG uses a set of **9 features** to handle determiner stacking:

- definite = {+, -} marks definite determiners (*the, this, that, ...*)
- quant = {+, -} marks quantifiers and non-definite articles (*a, all, some, every, ...*)
- plus: card(inality), gen(itive), wh, decreas(ing), const(ancy), compl(ement), and arg

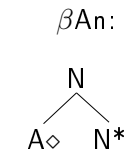
⇒ We only consider definite and quan in what follows.

The left side of nouns - Adjectives

XTAG assumes that adjectives can appear in any order:

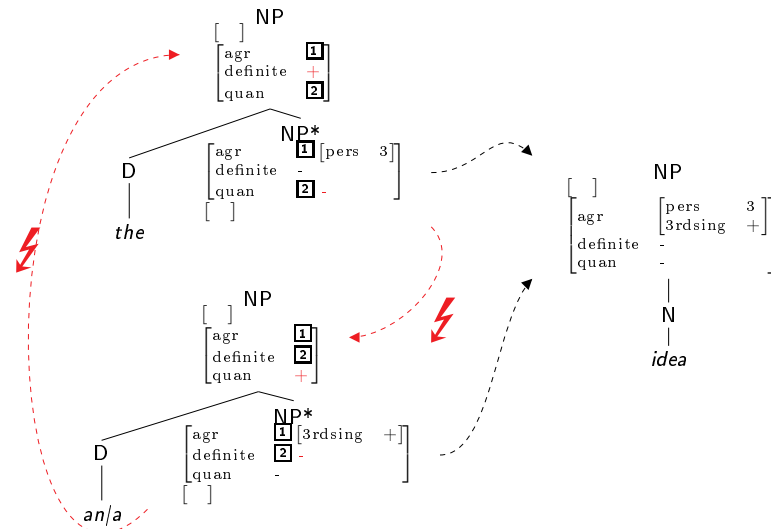
- (35) a. the colorless green ideas
b. the green colorless ideas

In XTAG, adjective trees adjoin to N, where no special feature is required:



The left side of nouns - Determiners - XTAG-example

⇒ The feature structures are considerably simplified!

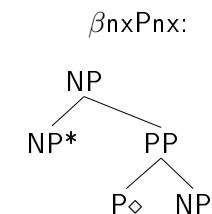


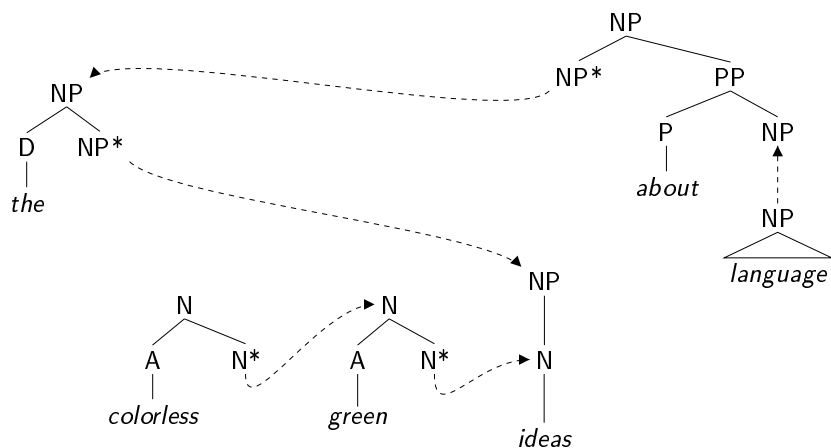
The right side of nouns - PP-complements/adjuncts

XTAG assumes that PP-complements/adjuncts can appear in any order.

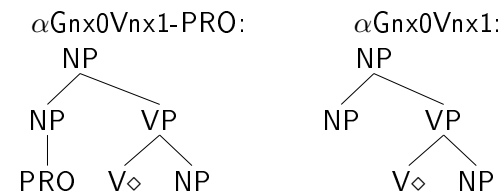
- (36) a. the ideas about language from Germany
b. the ideas from Germany about language

In XTAG, PP-complements/adjuncts adjoin to NP, and no special feature is required:





⇒ The order of adjunction of determiners and PPs is not fixed!



Gerund NPs

NPs made from gerunds basically fall into two groups:

- 1 The gerund verb is treated like a regular noun.
- 2 The gerund verb and its complements/adjuncts preserve a sentential structure, but are treated as regular NP.

Determiner gerunds (aka derived nominalizations):

- (37) a. [The proving of the theorem] succeeds.
 b. *[The proving the theorem] succeeds.

NP gerunds (aka sentential gerunds):

- (38) a. [Proving the theorem] succeeds.
 b. [John proving the theorem] succeeds.
 c. *[The Proving the theorem] succeeds.

Chomsky, N. (1981). Lectures on Government and Binding. Foris, Dordrecht.

Culicover, P. W. and Jackendoff, R. (2005). Simpler Syntax. Oxford University Press, Oxford.

Frank, R. (2002). Phrase Structure Composition and Syntactic Dependencies. MIT Press, Cambridge, MA.

Kiss, T. (2005). Semantic constraints on relative clause extraposition. *Natural Language and Linguistic Theory*, 23:281–334.

Kroch, A. S. and Joshi, A. K. (1987). Analyzing extraposition in a tree adjoining grammar. In Huck, G. J. and Ojeda, A. E., editors, Discontinuous Constituency, number 20 in *Syntax and Semantics*, pages 107–149. Academic Press, Inc.

Pollard, C. and Sag, I. A. (1994). Head-Driven Phrase Structure Grammar. University of Chicago Press, Chicago and London.

Prolo, C. A. (2002). Generating the XTAG English grammar using metarules. In Proceedings of COLING-02, pages 814–820, Taipei, Taiwan.

XTAG Research Group (2001). A Lexicalized Tree Adjoining Grammar for English. Technical report, Institute for Research in Cognitive Science, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA.