Towards more complex grammar systems Some basic formal language theory

Detmar Meurers: Intro to Computational Linguistics I OSU, LING 684.01, 15. January 2004

Grammars

A grammar is a 4-tuple (N, Σ, S, P) where

- N is a finite set of **non-terminals**
- Σ is a finite set of **terminal symbols**, with $N \cap \Sigma = \emptyset$
- ullet S is a distinguished **start symbol**, with $S \in N$
- P is a finite set of **rewrite rules** of the form $\alpha \to \beta$, with $\alpha, \beta \in (N \cup \Sigma)*$ and α including at least one non-terminal symbol.

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Overview

- Grammars, or: how to specify linguistic knowledge
- Automata, or: how to process with linguistic knowledge
- Levels of complexity in grammars and automata: The Chomsky hierarchy

A simple example

$$N = \{S, NP, VP, V_i, V_t, V_s\}$$

 $\Sigma = \{ \text{John, Mary, laughs, loves, thinks} \}$

$$S = S$$

$$P = \left\{ \begin{array}{cccc} \mathsf{S} & \rightarrow & \mathsf{NP} \ \mathsf{VP} & & \overset{\mathsf{NP}}{\mathsf{NP}} & \rightarrow & \mathsf{John} \\ \\ \mathsf{VP} & \rightarrow & \mathsf{V}_i & & \\ \mathsf{VP} & \rightarrow & \mathsf{V}_t \ \mathsf{NP} & & \mathsf{V}_i & \rightarrow & \mathsf{laughs} \\ \\ \mathsf{VP} & \rightarrow & \mathsf{V}_s \ \mathsf{S} & & \mathsf{V}_t & \rightarrow & \mathsf{loves} \\ \\ \mathsf{VP} & \rightarrow & \mathsf{V}_s \ \mathsf{S} & & \mathsf{V}_s & \rightarrow & \mathsf{thinks} \end{array} \right\}$$

How does a grammar define a language?

Assume $\alpha, \beta \in (N \cup \Sigma)^*$, with α containing at least one non-terminal.

- A sentential form for a grammar G is defined as:
 - The start symbol S of G is a sentential form.
 - If $\alpha\beta\gamma$ is a sentential form and there is a rewrite rule $\beta\to\delta$ then $\alpha\delta\gamma$ is a sentential form.
- α (directly or immediately) **derives** β if $\alpha \to \beta \in P$. One writes:
 - $-\alpha \Rightarrow^* \beta$ if β is derived from α in zero or more steps
 - $-\alpha \Rightarrow^+ \beta$ if β is derived from α in one or more steps
- A **sentence** is a sentential form consisting only of terminal symbols.
- The **language** L(G) generated by the grammar G is the set of all sentences which can be derived from the start symbol S, i.e., $L(G) = \{ \gamma | S \Rightarrow^* \gamma \}$

Different levels of complexity in grammars and automata

Let $A, B \in N$, $x \in \Sigma$, $\alpha, \beta, \gamma \in (\Sigma \cup T) *$, and $\delta \in (\Sigma \cup T) +$, then:

ĺ	Туре	Automaton		Grammar	
ſ		Memory	Name	Rule	Name
	0	Unbounded	TM	$\alpha \to \beta$	General rewrite
ĺ	1	Bounded	LBA	$\beta A \gamma \rightarrow \beta \delta \gamma$	Context-sensitive
Ì	2	Stack	PDA	$A \rightarrow \beta$	Context-free
Ì	3	None	FSA	$A \to xB, A \to x$	Right linear

Abbreviations:

- TM: Turing Machine

 LBA: Linear-Bounded Automaton - PDA: Push-Down Automaton

- FSA: Finite-State Automaton

Processing with grammars: automata

An **automaton** in general has three components:

- an **input tape**, divided into squares with a read-write head positioned over one of the squares
- an auxiliary memory characterized by two functions
 - fetch: memory configuration → symbols
 - store: memory configuration × symbol → memory configuration
- and a finite-state control relating the two components.

Type 3: Right-Linear Grammars and FSAs

A **right-linear grammar** is a 4-tuple (N, Σ, S, P) with

P a finite set of rewrite rules of the form $\alpha \to \beta$, with $\alpha \in N$ and $\beta \in R$ $\{\gamma\delta|\gamma\in\Sigma^*,\delta\in N\cup\{\epsilon\}\},$ i.e.:

- left-hand side of rule: a single non-terminal, and
- right-hand side of rule: a string containing at most one non-terminal, as the rightmost symbol

Right-linear grammars are formally equivalent to left-linear grammars.

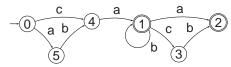
A finite-state automaton consists of

- a tape
- a finite-state control
- no auxiliary memory

A regular language example: (ab|c)ab*(a|cb)?

Right-linear grammar:

Finite-state transition network:



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Type 2: Context-Free Grammars and Push-Down Automata

A **context-free grammar** is a 4-tuple (N, Σ, S, P) with

P a finite set of rewrite rules of the form $\alpha \to \beta$, with $\alpha \in N$ and $\beta \in (\Sigma \cup N)*$, i.e.:

- left-hand side of rule: a single non-terminal, and
- right-hand side of rule: a string of terminals and/or non-terminals

A push-down automaton is a

- finite state automaton, with a
- stack as auxiliary memory

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Thinking about regular languages

- A language is regular iff one can define a FSM (or regular expression) for it.
- An FSM only has a fixed amount of memory, namely the number of states.
- Strings longer than the number of states, in particular also any infinite ones, must result from a loop in the FSM.
- Pumping Lemma: if for an infinite string there is no such loop, the string cannot be part of a regular language.

A context-free language example: a^nb^n

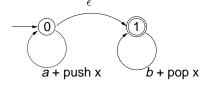
Context-free grammar:

$$N = \{S\}$$
$$\Sigma = \{a, b\}$$

$$S = S$$

$$P = \left\{ \begin{array}{ccc} \mathsf{S} & \to & \mathsf{a} \, \mathsf{S} \, \mathsf{b} \\ \mathsf{S} & \to & \epsilon \end{array} \right\}$$

Push-down automaton:



Type 1: Context-Sensitive Grammars and Linear-Bounded Automata

A rule of a context-sensitive grammar

- rewrites at most one non-terminal from the left-hand side.
- right-hand side of a rule required to be at least as long as the left-hand side, i.e. only contains rules of the form

$$\alpha \to \beta$$
 with $|\alpha| \le |\beta|$

and optionally $S \to \epsilon$ with the start symbol S not occurring in any β .

A linear-bounded automaton is a

- finite state automaton, with an
- auxiliary memory which cannot exceed the length of the input string.

Type 0: General Rewrite Grammar and Turing Machines

- In a general rewrite grammar there are no restrictions on the form of a rewrite rule.
- A turing machine has an unbounded auxiliary memory.
- Any language for which there is a recognition procedure can be defined, but recognition problem is not decidable.

A context-sensitive language example: $a^nb^nc^n$

Context-sensitive grammar:

$$N = \{\mathsf{S}, \, \mathsf{B}, \, \mathsf{C}\}$$

$$\Sigma = \{\mathsf{a},\,\mathsf{b}\}$$

$$S = S$$

$$P = \left\{ \begin{array}{ccc} \mathsf{S} & \rightarrow & \mathsf{a}\,\mathsf{S}\,\mathsf{B}\,\mathsf{C}, \\ \mathsf{S} & \rightarrow & \mathsf{a}\,\mathsf{b}\,\mathsf{C}, \\ \mathsf{b}\,\mathsf{B} & \rightarrow & \mathsf{b}\,\mathsf{b}, \\ \mathsf{b}\,\mathsf{C} & \rightarrow & \mathsf{b}\,\mathsf{c}, \\ \mathsf{c}\,\mathsf{C} & \rightarrow & \mathsf{c}\,\mathsf{c}, \\ \mathsf{C}\,\mathsf{B} & \rightarrow & \mathsf{B}\,\mathsf{C} \end{array} \right\}$$

Properties of different language classes

Languages are sets of strings, so that one can apply set operations to languages and investigate the results for particular language classes.

Some closure properties:

- All language classes are closed under union with themselves.
- All language classes are closed under intersection with regular languages.
- The class of context-free languages is not closed under intersection with itself.

Proof: The intersection of the two context-free languages ${\cal L}_1$ and ${\cal L}_2$ is not context free:

$$\begin{array}{l} - \ L_1 = \left\{ a^n b^n c^i | n \geq 1 \text{ and } i \geq 0 \right\} \\ - \ L_2 = \left\{ a^j b^n c^n | n \geq 1 \text{ and } j \geq 0 \right\} \\ - \ L_1 \cap L_2 = \left\{ a^n b^n c^n | n \geq 1 \right\} \end{array}$$

Criteria under which to evaluate grammar formalisms

There are three kinds of criteria:

- linguistic naturalness
- mathematical power
- computational effectiveness and efficiency

The weaker the type of grammar:

- the stronger the claim made about possible languages
- the greater the potential efficiency of the parsing procedure

Reasons for choosing a stronger grammar class:

- to capture the empirical reality of actual languages

Language classes and natural languages (cont.)

- Any finite language is a regular language.
- The argument that natural languages are not regular relies on competence as an idealization, not performance.
- Note that even if English were regular, a context-free grammar characterization could be preferable on the grounds that it is more transparent than one using only finite-state methods.

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Language classes and natural languages Natural languages are not regular

- (1) a. The mouse escaped.
 - b. The mouse that the cat chased escaped.
 - c. The mouse that the cat that the dog saw chased escaped.

d. :

- (2) a. aa
 - b. abba
 - c. abccba

d.

Center-embedding of arbitrary depth needs to be captured to capture language competence \to Not possible with a finite state automaton.

Accounting for the facts vs. linguistically sensible analyses

Looking at grammars from a linguistic perspective, one can distinguish their

- weak generative capacity, considering only the set of strings generated by a grammar
- strong generative capacity, considering the set of strings and their syntactic analyses generated by a grammar

Two grammars can be strongly or weakly equivalent.

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Example for weakly equivalent grammars

Example string:

if x then if y then a else b

Grammar 1:

$$\left(\begin{array}{l} S \rightarrow \text{if T then S else S}, \\ S \rightarrow \text{if T then S}, \\ S \rightarrow \text{a} \\ S \rightarrow \text{b} \\ T \rightarrow \text{x} \\ T \rightarrow \text{y} \end{array} \right)$$

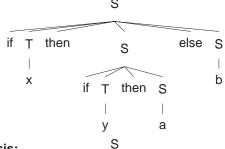
Grammar 2 rules: A weekly equivalent grammar eliminating the ambiguity (only licenses second structure).

$$\begin{cases} \mathsf{S1} \to \mathsf{if} \; \mathsf{T} \; \mathsf{then} \; \mathsf{S1}, \\ \mathsf{S1} \to \mathsf{if} \; \mathsf{T} \; \mathsf{then} \; \mathsf{S2} \; \mathsf{else} \; \mathsf{S1}, \\ \mathsf{S1} \to \mathsf{a}, \\ \mathsf{S1} \to \mathsf{b}, \\ \mathsf{S2} \to \mathsf{if} \; \mathsf{T} \; \mathsf{then} \; \mathsf{S2} \; \mathsf{else} \; \mathsf{S2}, \\ \mathsf{S2} \to \mathsf{a} \\ \mathsf{S2} \to \mathsf{b} \\ \mathsf{T} \to \mathsf{x} \\ \mathsf{T} \to \mathsf{y} \end{cases}$$

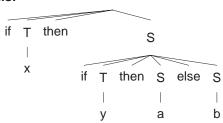
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First analysis:



Second analysis:



Reading assignment

- Chapter 2 "Basic Formal Language Theory" of our Lecture Notes
- Chapter 3 "Formal Languages and Natural Languages" of our Lecture Notes
- Chapter 13 "Language and complexity" of Jurafsky and Martin (2000)