Context-free grammars and syntactic analysis

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The following pattern was beyond even the weak generative capacity of finite-state models: the rock can be found in the garden. the rock that the squirrel likes can be found in the garden. the rock that the squirrel that the dog chases likes can be found in the garden. the rock that the squirrel that the dog that the woman owns chases likes can be found in the garden.

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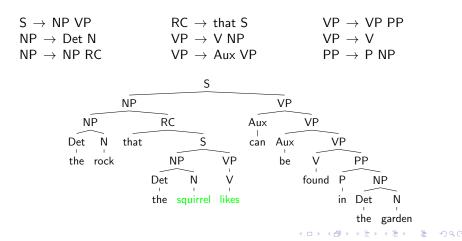
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- This pattern involves NⁱVⁱ "matched-pair" nouns and verbs
- Insight: the extraction property of relative clauses implies that certain phrasal categories inside relative clauses (RCs) behave in exactly the ordinary way, except that they are "missing an element".

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- This pattern involves NⁱVⁱ "matched-pair" nouns and verbs
- Insight: the extraction property of relative clauses implies that certain phrasal categories inside relative clauses (RCs) behave in exactly the ordinary way, except that they are "missing an element".
- This "missing an element" property must be formally represented in the structure of the grammar in order for the grammar not to OVERGENERATE.

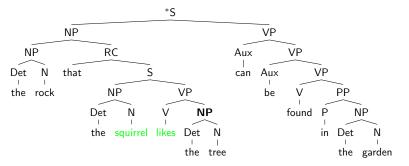
The nature of extraction

For example, the CFG below (some terminal rewrites for Det, N, and V omitted for brevity) would generate the required object-extracted relative clauses sentences:



The nature of extraction

But it would also overgenerate, allowing cases like the below where the "missing an element" property of the RC is broken by the appearance of the tree as the direct object of likes:



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- (2) *Who did Kim invite the neighbors to the party?

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- (1) Who did Kim invite ____ to the party?
- (2) *Who did Kim invite the neighbors to the party?
- (3) Who did you say ____ invited you to the party?
- (4) *Who did you say the neighbors invited you to the party?

- Wh-questions also are "missing an element" ("___"=an empty string that would have to have something there if not for the special environment)
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- (2) *Who did Kim invite the neighbors to the party?
- (3) Who did you say <u>invited</u> you to the party?
- (4) *Who did you say the neighbors invited you to the party?
- (5) What did you say you ate _____ at the party?
- (6) *What did you say you ate food at the party?
- (7) What did you say Kim told you that Pat ate _____ at the party?
- (8) *What did you say Kim told you that Pat ate food at the party?
 - This "missing element" property in RCs and wh-questions is called extraction.

Extraction is an unbounded-depth dependency

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Extraction can span an unbounded number of levels of clausal embedding:
 Who did Kim invite _____ to the party?
 Who did you say [Kim invited _____ to the party]?
 Who did you say [Pat suspected [Kim invited _____ to the party]]?
 Who did you say [Terry texted that [Pat suspected [Kim invited _____ to the party]]]?

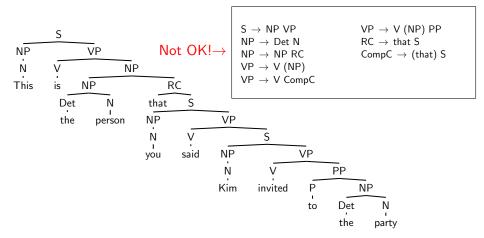
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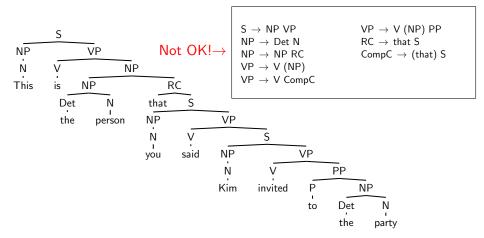
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  Who did you say [Terry texted that [Pat suspected [Kim invited
  ____ to the party]]]?
   .
  This is the person that [Kim invited ____ to the party].
  This is the person that [you said [Kim invited ____ to the
  party]].
  This is the person that [you said [Pat suspected [Kim invited _____
  to the party]]].
  This is the person that [you said [Terry texted that [Pat
  suspected [Kim invited ____ to the party]]]].
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The simple categories in the grammar above fail to "remember" that there is an extraction once we are inside the RC

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- The simple categories in the grammar above fail to "remember" that there is an extraction once we are inside the RC
- Thus, the grammar wouldn't rule out adding an object NP after invited, like it should

These UNBOUNDED DEPENDENCIES were part (though not all) of the motivation originally given by Chomsky (1956) for a TRANSFORMATIONAL GRAMMAR that went beyond the expressive capabilities of context-free grammars

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- However, it turns out that we can incorporate long-distance dependency constraints within the context-free formalism to avoid this type of overgeneration, as shown by Gazdar (1981) and others
- A theoretical innovation of GENERALIZED PHRASE STRUCTURE GRAMMAR (Gazdar et al., 1985) was to introduce METARULES stating implicational relationships between the presence of certain types of categories & rules and certain other types of categories & rules.

For unbounded wh- and relative-clause dependencies, we use the following metarules:

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 - 1. For a CFG with non-terminal inventory N and rule set R, distinguish a **basic** set of non-terminal symbol $N_{\text{basic}} \subset N$ and a **basic** set of rules $R_{\text{basic}} \subset R$.

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 - 3. For every basic rule $X \to \alpha_1 \dots \alpha_n \in R_{\text{basic}}$ and basic category Y in N, then for all $1 \le i \le n$ a **derived** rule $X/Y \to \alpha_1 \dots \alpha_i/Y \dots \alpha_n$ must be in R.

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- 4. For every basic category X, a rule $X/X \rightarrow \epsilon$ must be in R.

S	\rightarrow NP VP
NP	\rightarrow Det N
NP	\rightarrow NP RC
VP	\rightarrow V (NP)
VP	\rightarrow V CompC
VP	\rightarrow VP (NP) PP
CompC	\rightarrow (that) S

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 Derived categories (showing only the relevant ones): S/NP, VP/NP, NP/NP, CompC/NP; and the corresponding derived rules

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VP/NP	\rightarrow V NP/NP
VP/NP	$\rightarrow V/NP$ CompC
VP/NP	$ \rightarrow V CompC / NP$
CompC/N	$P \rightarrow (that) S/NP$

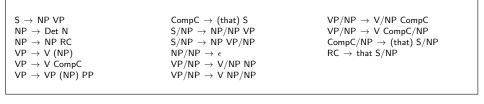
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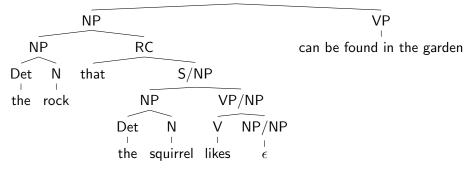
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VP/NP	\rightarrow V NP/NP
VP/NP	$\rightarrow V/NP$ CompC
VP/NP	\rightarrow V CompC/NP
CompC/NF	$P \rightarrow (that) S/NP$
RC	\rightarrow that S/NP

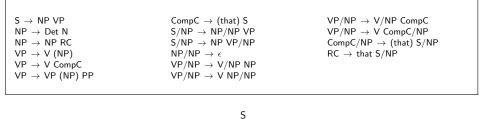
- Basic categories: S, NP, VP, CompC
- Derived categories (showing only the relevant ones): S/NP, VP/NP, NP/NP, CompC/NP; and the corresponding derived rules
- We can now define a relative clause as introducing the derived category S/NP!

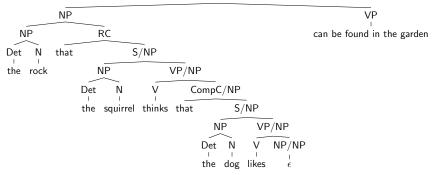




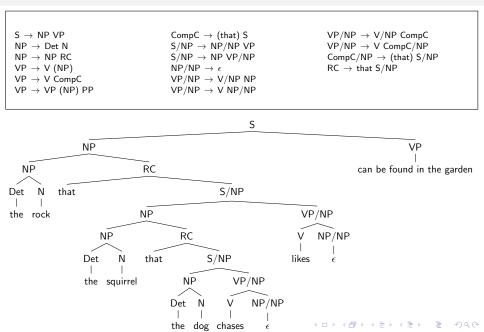


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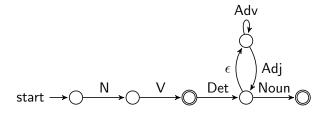


Three types of "long-distance dependency" I

We have now seen three types of "long-distance dependency" in language:

- A pair of categories separable by an unbounded number of tokens (here, words):
 I ate
 - I ate a sandwich
 I ate a big sandwich
 I ate a very big, freshly prepared, extremely tasty sandwich
 :

This type of dependency can be modeled with finite-state methods:



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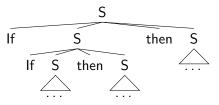
Three types of "long-distance dependency" II

2. A pair separable by an unboundedly deep nesting of phrases: if students work hard, then they generally do well in class. if it is the case that if students work hard, then they generally do well in class, then the teacher is rewarded. if it is the case that if it is the case that if students work hard, then they generally do well in class, then the teacher is rewarded, then the university is well-run.

This type of dependency requires context-free grammars:

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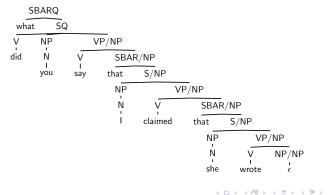
 $\mathsf{S}\,\rightarrow\,\mathsf{NP}\,\,\mathsf{VP}\qquad\,\mathsf{VP}\,\rightarrow\,\mathsf{V}\,\mathsf{NP}\qquad\,\mathsf{S}\,\rightarrow\,\mathsf{If}\;(\mathsf{it}\;\mathsf{is}\;\mathsf{the}\;\mathsf{case}\;\mathsf{that})\;\mathsf{S}\;\mathsf{then}\;\mathsf{S}$



Three types of "long-distance dependency" III

3. A pair separable by An unboundedly long chain of tree nodes: Who did Kim invite _____ to the party? Who did you say [Kim invited _____ to the party]? Who did you say [Pat suspected Kim invited _____ to the party]]? Who did you say [Terry texted that [Pat suspected [Kim invited _____ to the party]]]? :

This type of dependency can be modeled with context-free grammars that have **feature passing** through the categories:



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The context-free languages are the set of languages that can be characterized by a context-free grammar

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- Like the regular languages, the context-free languages are closed under:

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- Like the regular languages, the context-free languages are closed under:
 - union, concatenation, and Kleene closure
- ► The context-free languages are also closed under intersection with a regular language. If L is context-free and R is regular, then L ∩ R is context-free.

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- Like the regular languages, the context-free languages are closed under:
 - union, concatenation, and Kleene closure
- ▶ The context-free languages are also closed under **intersection with a regular language**. If *L* is context-free and *R* is regular, then $L \cap R$ is context-free.
- ▶ But unlike the regular languages, the context-free languages are not closed under intersection: if L₁ and L₂ are context-free, then L₁ ∩ L₂ is not necessarily context-free.

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Various NORMAL FORMS pose constraints on the structure of a grammar's rules

- Any given context-free language will have multiple (in fact, infinitely many!) context-free grammars that generate it
- Various NORMAL FORMS pose constraints on the structure of a grammar's rules
- Of particular interest for us is CHOMSKY NORMAL FORM (CNF), in which all rules take one of the following three forms (S: the start symbol; A, B, and C: non-terminals; X: a terminal):

References: general formal language theory I

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