

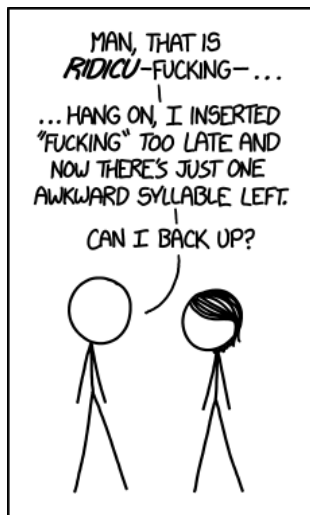
Prescriptive versus Descriptive

- ▶ Prescriptive (largely proscriptive): old-school grammar; mostly bogus
 - ▶ Don't end a sentence with a preposition
 - ▶ Don't split an infinitive: to boldly go
 - ▶ Avoid the passive voice
 - ▶ Don't use double negatives
- ▶ Double negatives in Polish (Bender, Sag, Wasow's example)

Marysia	niczego	nie	dala	Jankowi
Mary	nothing	not	gave	John
Mary did not give John anything				
- ▶ Descriptive: what people actually speak or write
 - ▶ Does anything go?
- ▶ For your own professional writing, follow the prescriptions!

XKCD on Expletive Infixation

An illustration of descriptive grammar



Where would you place it?
— ri — di — cu — lous —

©Randall Munroe
<http://xkcd.com/1290/>

Subtle Constraints in Descriptive Grammar

How do we explain these examples? (* indicates unacceptability)

- ▶ Bender, Sag, Wasow's examples
 - ▶ F— yourself!
 - ▶ Go f— yourself!
 - ▶ F— you!
 - ▶ *Go f— you!
- ▶ Wanna contraction (from Wikipedia)
 - ▶ Who does Vicky want to vote for?
⇒ Who does Vicky wanna vote for?
 - ▶ Who does Vicky want to win?
⇒ *Who does Vicky wanna win
- ▶ Gonna contraction
 - ▶ I am gonna get lunch
 - ▶ *I am gonna New York
- ▶ Gonna and wanna function like AUX verbs

Competence versus Performance

Chomsky's distinction

- ▶ Frederic Saussure
 - ▶ Langue: collective knowledge of language
 - ▶ Parole: what is observable
- ▶ Competence
 - ▶ Knowledge of language
 - ▶ What *native speakers* understand (abstract, ideal)
 - ▶ Standard of acceptability that is not prescriptive
 - ▶ Encoded in universal features or settings of universal parameters
- ▶ Performance
 - ▶ How the knowledge of language is used
 - ▶ How native speakers behave (concrete, noisy)

Constituency Structure

Constituent: set of words behaving as a single unit

- ▶ Phrase
- ▶ Theoretically established as
 - ▶ Having contiguous words
 - ▶ Nonoverlapping unless one phrase is entirely within another
- ▶ Appear in similar syntactic contexts, e.g., before or after a verb or a noun
 - ▶ But generally not the individual words within the phrase
 - ▶ Coordination: “X and Y” indicates X and Y have the same type
- ▶ Movable as a unit, e.g., *preposed* or *postposed*
 - ▶ But generally not the individual words within the phrase

<p>I can write a letter I can write a long letter *I can write a long</p>

<p>A letter is what I can write A long letter is what I can write *A long is what I can write letter</p>
--

Context-Free Grammar

In programming languages, we use parentheses

- ▶ Give examples of surrogates for parentheses in English

Context-Free Grammar

Part of the Chomsky hierarchy

- ▶ Stronger than a regular grammar
- ▶ Previous works assumed a regular grammar for human language
- ▶ Recall the pumping lemma
- ▶ Weaker than a context sensitive grammar
- ▶ CFGs are needed to handle natural structure in human languages: think of matching parentheses
- ▶ Bender, Sag, Wasow's example:
 - ▶ That Sandy left bothered me
 - ▶ That that Sandy left bothered me bothered Kim
 - ▶ That that that Sandy left bothered me bothered Kim bothered Bo
- ▶ A grammar describes (and generates) all and only the valid finite strings over a given alphabet
- ▶ For NL, the alphabet is words or tokens in a lexicon (Jurafsky seems to use "lexicon" oddly in this setting)

Formalizing a Context-Free Grammar

- ▶ Components of a grammar, $G = \langle N, \Sigma, R, S \rangle$
 - ▶ Σ , a finite alphabet or set of *terminal* symbols
 - ▶ N , a finite set of *nonterminal* symbols, $N \cap \Sigma = \emptyset$
 - ▶ $S \in N$, a *start* symbol (distinguished nonterminal)
 - ▶ R , a finite set of *rules* or *productions* of the form

$$A \longrightarrow \beta$$

$A \in N$ is a single nonterminal—hence, context free
 $\beta \in (\Sigma \cup N)^*$ is a finite string of terminals and nonterminals
 - ▶ Combine $A \longrightarrow \beta_i$ and $A \longrightarrow \beta_j$ into $A \longrightarrow \beta_i | \beta_j$
- ▶ Direct derivation, i.e., via a single application of a rule
 - ▶ From $(\Sigma \cup N)^*$ to $(\Sigma \cup N)^*$
 - ▶ $\delta_i \Rightarrow \delta_j$, meaning δ_i derives or yields δ_j
 - ▶ Given $A \longrightarrow \beta$, we get $\alpha A \gamma \Rightarrow \alpha \beta \gamma$
- ▶ Derivation over zero or more rule applications
 - ▶ \Rightarrow^* : reflexive, transitive closure of \Rightarrow
 - ▶ $\alpha_1 \Rightarrow^* \alpha_m$, through $m - 1$ direct derivations
 - ▶ Each derivation represents one snippet of possibilities

Context-Free Language

- ▶ Language generated from grammar $G = \langle N, \Sigma, R, S \rangle$

$$\mathcal{L}_G = \{w \mid w \in \Sigma^* \text{ and } S \Rightarrow^* w\}$$

- ▶ Whatever can be derived from the start symbol
 - ▶ That ends up getting rid of all nonterminals
- ▶ Any such *generated* string of terminals, w above, is *grammatical* and is in the language
- ▶ Every other string of terminals is not grammatical and is not in the language
- ▶ A finite, ideally small, grammar should generate a large language
 - ▶ Capture the legitimate variations of use
 - ▶ Exclude the illegitimate variations
- ▶ Focuses on strings that are output
 - ▶ Doesn't reflect phrase structure in what is generated
 - ▶ Meaning is based on the invisible structure

CFG Example Sentence: I prefer a morning flight

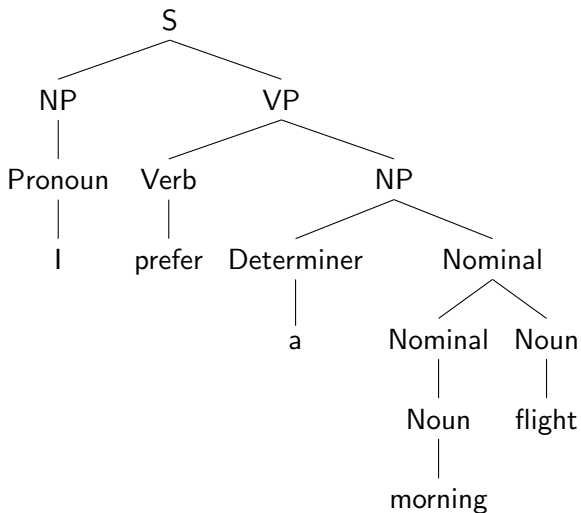
- ▶ Initial grammar and lexicon to derive the above sentence

<p>S \rightarrow NP VP NP \rightarrow Pronoun Determiner Nominal VP \rightarrow Verb NP Nominal \rightarrow Nominal Noun Noun</p>
--

<p>Pronoun \rightarrow I Verb \rightarrow prefer Determiner \rightarrow a Noun \rightarrow morning flight</p>
--

- ▶ Why not have S \rightarrow N VP or S \rightarrow Pronoun VP?
- ▶ Need recursion, which the Nominal production gives us
- ▶ For additional sentences, we could insert

<p>VP \rightarrow Verb VP Nominal PP (leaving Boston in the morning) VP \rightarrow VP PP (leaving in the morning) PP \rightarrow Preposition NP (from Boston)</p>



Draw a Parse Tree

I prefer leaving Boston in the morning

Sentences in English

- ▶ Declarative \sim default form
 - ▶ $S \rightarrow NP VP$ (here NP is the subject)
- ▶ Imperative, $S \rightarrow VP$
 - ▶ Usually, lack a subject “Go there”
 - ▶ But not always “You go there”
 - ▶ Subject *deletion* under a view that there is a subject
- ▶ Yes-no question, $S \rightarrow Aux NP VP$
 - ▶ Begin with auxiliary verb
 - ▶ Retain a main verb
- ▶ Wh-structures
 - ▶ In modern English, who, whose, when, where, what, which, how, why; also: whence, whereby, wherein
 - ▶ Contain a wh-phrase

Wh Structures

- ▶ Wh-subject question, $S \rightarrow \text{Wh-NP VP}$
 - ▶ What airlines fly from Burbank to Denver?
 - ▶ The wh-phrase yields the subject
 - ▶ Wh-NP \rightarrow Wh-Pronoun (who, whom, whose, which)
 - ▶ Wh-NP \rightarrow Wh-Determiner NP (what, which)
- ▶ Wh-non-subject question, $S \rightarrow \text{Wh-NP Aux NP VP}$
 - ▶ What flights do you have from Burbank to Denver?
 - ▶ The wh-phrase is not the subject of the sentence, which is something else
 - ▶ Long-distance dependencies

Long-Distance Dependencies

- ▶ Consider the relationship indicated in our example and a possible (stylized) answer
 - ▶ What flights do you have from Burbank to Denver?
 - ▶ I have AA 999 from Burbank to Denver
 - ▶ There is an apparent discontinuity
- ▶ Semantic approach: Detect the relationship during interpretation

Long-Distance Dependencies

Syntactic approach: Understand the construction as phrase *movement*

- ▶ A *trace* or *empty category* is left behind (\bar{t} below)
- ▶ Now a simple rule “want to \Rightarrow wanna” explains our earlier examples
 - ▶ Who does Vicky want to vote for \bar{t} ?
(Contraction applies)
 \Rightarrow Who does Vicky wanna vote for?
 - ▶ Who does Vicky want \bar{t} to win?
(Contraction doesn't apply: “want \bar{t} to” doesn't match “want to”)
 \Rightarrow *Who does Vicky wanna win

Evaluate a Grammar

Example sentence: I prefer a morning flight

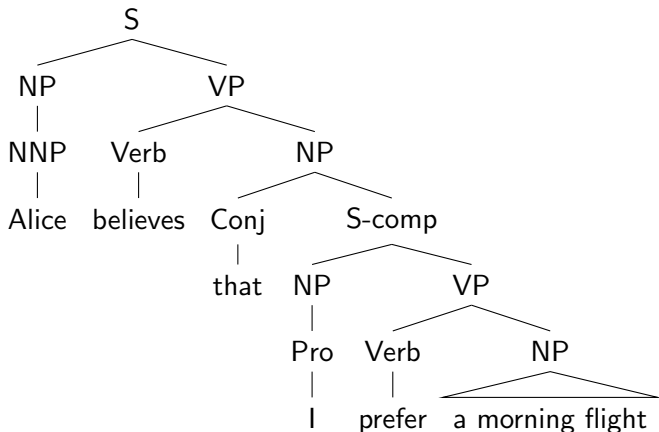
$S \rightarrow X Y$
$X \rightarrow \text{Pronoun Verb Determiner}$
$Y \rightarrow \text{NP} \mid \text{NP NP}$
$\text{NP} \rightarrow \text{Pronoun} \mid \text{Nominal}$
$\text{Nominal} \rightarrow \dots$

- ▶ Assume the above grammar gives us the same coverage in terms of acceptable sentences and avoids all unacceptable sentences
- ▶ Is the grammar satisfactory? If so, how? If not, why not?

Clause: (Quasi) Sentence Expressing a Complete Thought

A node *S* in the parse tree that dominates all of the *arguments* of its main verb

- ▶ Alice believes that I prefer a morning flight
- ▶ Joe suggested that I prefer a morning flight



Finite and Nonfinite clauses

- ▶ Finite clauses have a verb that is tensed
 - ▶ Indicate a definite time when the event specified by the verb occurs
 - ▶ Indicate an instance of the event
- ▶ Nonfinite clauses may carry tense but not in the same way
 - ▶ Indicate a general occurrence of the specified event, not that it occurred specifically
 - ▶ Enable making generic *habitual* statements: Alice recommends stirring while you reheat the syrup
 - ▶ Gerunds, as in *-ing* verbs: stirring the pot
 - ▶ Infinitives, as in *to X*: to leave the lid off
 - ▶ Past participle, as in *-ed* verbs: to have preheated the oven
Bob avoids to have begun before noon

Noun Phrases: Determiners and Predeterminers

- ▶ Determiners: not applied on mass nouns
 - ▶ Articles: A, an, the
 - ▶ Demonstratives: This, those, ...
 - ▶ Genitives: Det \rightarrow NP 's (notice recursion with NP)
 - ▶ Denver's mayor's mother's canceled flight
- ▶ Predeterminers: precede a determiner
 - ▶ All: All the king's men
 - ▶ A few of: A few of the king's men

Noun Phrases—Nominals: 1

- ▶ *Head noun*: The main component of an NP
- ▶ Before the head noun
 - ▶ Cardinals: Three friends; three and a half pounds; 3.14159 radians
 - ▶ Ordinals: The first one; the other flight
 - ▶ Quantifiers: Many students; some users
 - ▶ Adjective phrases (APs)
 - ▶ Quantifiers: Some confused users
 - ▶ With adverbs: The least expensive fare

Noun Phrases—Nominals: 2

- ▶ After the head noun: *postmodifiers*
 - ▶ Prepositional phrases: (all flights) from Cleveland
 - ▶ Nonfinite postmodifier clauses
 - ▶ Gerundive postmodifiers: Two flights arriving on Thursday
 - ▶ Infinitival postmodifiers: The last flight to arrive
 - ▶ Past participle postmodifiers: The aircraft used for this flight
 - ▶ (Restrictive) relative postmodifier clauses: A flight that serves breakfast
 - ▶ Relative pronouns (that, who): A flight that leaves on Sunday

Verb Phrases

A verb plus

- ▶ Nothing (*intransitive verb*): sleep
- ▶ NP: (prefer) a morning flight
- ▶ NP PP: (leave) Boston in the morning
- ▶ PP PP: (go) from Boston to Miami
- ▶ PP PP PP: (go) from Boston to Miami on a bus
- ▶ PP: (leaving) on Thursday
- ▶ Nonfinite VP: (want) to fly to San Francisco
- ▶ S (*Sentential complement*): (believes) AA 99 leaves from Boston

Major Verb Categories

Each verb can fit in only some of the VPs introduced above

- ▶ Traditionally
 - ▶ Intransitive
 - ▶ Transitive
 - ▶ Ditransitive
- ▶ The above don't tackle the subtle variations in language
- ▶ *Subcategorizing* for what kind of complement
- ▶ Yields a *subcategorization frame* or set of acceptable complements for each verb, e.g.,
 - ▶ NP
 - ▶ NP or nonfinite VP
 - ▶ Sentential complement
- ▶ *Complement*: phrase (word, clause) needed to complete an expression
 - ▶ Map to arguments in the obvious logical form understood from a phrase

Challenge in CFGs

- ▶ We can get hundreds (just for verbs) of lexical categories reflected as nonterminals with associated rules
 - ▶ $VP \rightarrow \text{Verb-with-NP-comp NP}$
 - ▶ $VP \rightarrow \text{Verb-with-S-comp S}$
 - ▶ $\text{Verb-with-NP-comp NP} \rightarrow \text{find} \mid \text{leave} \mid \text{repeat} \mid \dots$
 - ▶ $\text{Verb-with-S-comp S} \rightarrow \text{think} \mid \text{believe} \mid \text{say} \mid \dots$
- ▶ Enormous knowledge engineering (including maintenance) task
- ▶ Risks loss of generality
- ▶ Motivation for alternative representations to CFGs
 - ▶ Feature grammars: data driven by specifying lexical entries modularly

Coordination or Conjunction

And, or, but, . . .

- ▶ *Coordinate*: composite phrase of two phrases separated by a conjunction
 - ▶ Also list enumerations
 - ▶ The conjoined phrases are of the same category
 - ▶ Evidence for the existence of a constituent structure
- ▶ NP and NP
 - ▶ the flights and the costs
- ▶ Nominal and Nominal
 - ▶ the flights and costs
- ▶ VP and VP
 - ▶ Departing Boston and arriving in Miami
- ▶ S and S
 - ▶ I like coffee and I like icecream
- ▶ AP and AP
 - ▶ Big and red

Treebanks

Especially, Penn Treebank

- ▶ Corpus of sentences
 - ▶ Parsed into trees
 - ▶ Represented in a standardized representation based on nested brackets or parentheses
 - ▶ Includes traces (shown as *-NONE-* with a numeric identifier)
- ▶ A treebank is an implicit grammar
 - ▶ Each upper node expands into its children
- ▶ Penn Treebank demonstrates a flat structure
 - ▶ Long rules, e.g., $VP \rightarrow VBP PP PP PP PP PP ADVP PP$
 - ▶ Many rules: 4,500 for VP and 17,500 in all for the Wall Street Journal corpus ($\sim 1M$ sentences)
 - ▶ May not be great for generalization

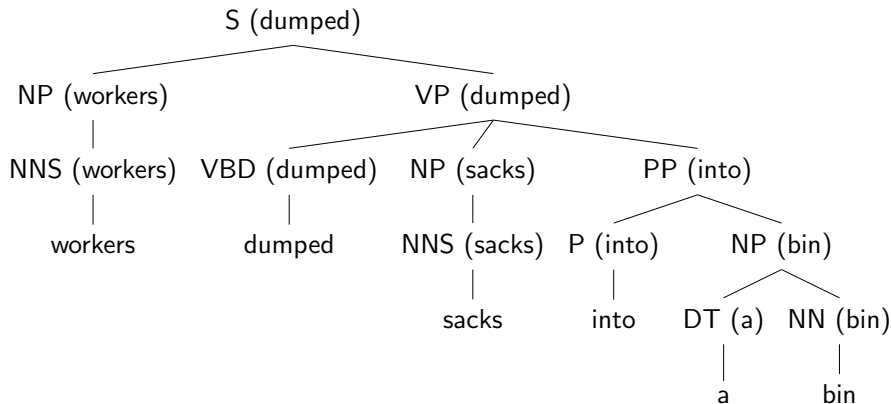
Heads

The grammatically central lexical part of a syntactic constituent

- ▶ Whatever predicate we have applies to the head
 - ▶ Olive oil is a kind of oil
 - ▶ A tall tree is a tree
 - ▶ To quickly swim is to swim
- ▶ Potentially augment a CFG
 - ▶ Identify headword for each production
 - ▶ Nontrivial and controversial, e.g., whether
 - ▶ To swim \Rightarrow swim
 - ▶ To swim \Rightarrow to
- ▶ Identify heads heuristically by first parsing and then walking a parse tree
 - ▶ The POS of the last word if it matches
 - ▶ Search for specific nodes right to left or left to right

Example Lexicalized (Head-Augmented) Tree

Collins' heuristic approach



Grammar Equivalence and Normal Form

- ▶ Weak equivalence: generate the same strings
- ▶ Strong equivalence
 - ▶ Weak plus assign the same phrase structure (up to renaming of nonterminals)
- ▶ Chomsky Normal Form, in which productions are of these forms:
 - ▶ Two at a time: $A \rightarrow BC$
 - ▶ Single terminal: $A \rightarrow a$
 - ▶ Not generating the empty string: Exclude $A \rightarrow \epsilon$
- ▶ Can convert from arbitrary CF grammar to Chomsky Normal Form that is weakly equivalent
 - ▶ Step used in the parsing algorithm

Converting to Chomsky Normal Form

- ▶ Conversion can increase or decrease the grammar size (number of productions)

$$VP \longrightarrow VP PP$$

$$VP \longrightarrow VBD NP PP$$

is equivalent to

$$VP \longrightarrow VBD X$$

$$VP \longrightarrow VP PP$$

$$X \longrightarrow NP PP$$

is more general than

$$VP \longrightarrow VBD NP PP$$

$$VP \longrightarrow VBD NP PP PP$$

$$VP \longrightarrow VBD NP PP PP PP$$

$$VP \longrightarrow VBD NP PP PP PP PP$$

...

- ▶ Jurafsky claims equivalence but the smaller grammar is strictly more general because it finitely expresses unbounded repetitions of PP

Examples of Chomsky Normal Form

State a non-CNF grammar and an equivalent CNF grammar that is strictly smaller (has fewer productions)