# Natural language syntax: parsing and complexity

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#### Overview of the course

- Day 1: Formal languages and syntactic complexity.
- Day 2: The complexity of natural language.
- Day 3: Historic algorithms for parsing.
- Day 4: Modern approaches to parsing.
- Day 5: Neural networks and error propagation.

Day 2

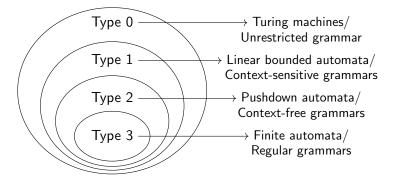
## Recap from Day 1

- Languages are sets of words (finite sequences of symbols).
- Automata are finite state machines with or without additional memory.
- Grammars are finite sets of rewriting rules.
- The parsing problem for a grammar consists in finding derivations.
- All solvable problems can be expressed as parsing problems.
- The Chomsky-Schützenberger hierarchy is a hierarchy of classes of languages, of models of automata, and of grammatical formalisms.
- For interpreted languages, syntactic complexity is not semantic expressivity.

## Today's content

- The complexity of natural language(s).
- Closure properties of formal languages.
- Pumping lemmas (regular & context-free).
- Syntactic formalisms used in formal linguistics.
- The complexity of these formalisms.

## Where are natural languages?



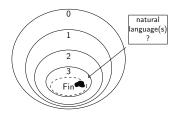
## Why should we care about the complexity of NL?

- Theoretical understanding of (natural) language.
- Appropriateness of linguistic (syntactic) formalisms.
- Lower bound for the complexity of NLP tasks.
- Predictions about human language processing and acquisition.

### **Hypotheses**

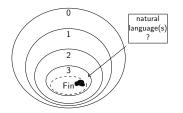
- Natural languages are all of comparable complexity or at least they can be grouped into classes of comparable complexity.
- Natural languages can be considered as formal languages:
  - Finite set of atomic symbols (morphemes?).
  - Binary grammaticality judgments for all sequences.

### Are natural languages finite?



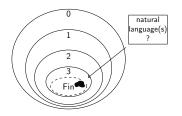
- NLs could be modelled as lists.
- It could still be interesting to use more powerful formalisms but for other reasons than complexity (conciseness, efficiency, suitability for semantics...).

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- Requires a bound on the length of well-formed sentences...

### Are natural languages finite?



- NLs could be modelled as lists.
- It could still be interesting to use more powerful formalisms but for other reasons than complexity (conciseness, efficiency, suitability for semantics...).
- Requires a bound on the length of well-formed sentences...

... which is not realistic, if language is, as proposed by Humboldt (frequently quoted by Chomsky) "an infinite use of finite means"

### An infinite number of well-formed sentences (data)

- It is possible to build up arbitrarily long sentences.
- lenghtening: ab<sup>n</sup>c
  - (1) a. Sam took her knife.
    - b. Sam took her lovely knife.
    - c. Sam took her lovely little knife.
- center-embedding: abncdne
  - (2) a. A foreman was fired.
    - b. A foreman who an employee talked with was fired.
    - A foreman who an employee that Mary recently hired talked with was fired.

#### An infinite number of well-formed sentences (discussion)

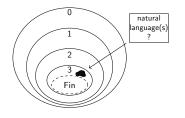
(3) A man (that another man) $^n$  (hired) $^n$  fired Sam.

Some rather simple cases may seem hard to parse because of cognitive limitations (working memory...):

- (4) #The patient who the nurse who the clinic had hired admitted met Jack.
- ... but with appropriate help (punctuation, selection restrictions...) most speakers accept arbitrarily complex sentences and recognise them as well formed:
- (5) Isn't it true that example sentences [ that people [ that you know ] produce ] are more likely to be accepted? (De Roeck et al, 1982)
- (6) A book [ that some Italian [ I've never heard of ] wrote ] will be published soon by MIT Press. (Frank, 1992)

(Gibson & Thomas 1999)

## Is natural language regular?



- A. Regular languages are closed under intersection.
  - $L_1 = \{ab^n cd^m e \mid n, m \in \mathbb{N}\}$ is regular.
- B.  $L_2 = \{ab^n cd^n e \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}\$ is not regular.
- C. The intersection of English with a regular language  $(L_1)$  is not regular  $(L_2)$ .
- Therefore, English is not regular.

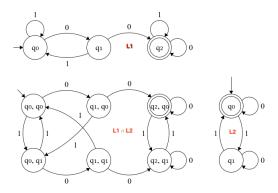
## Is NL regular? A. Closure property

#### Closure property

The intersection of two regular languages is regular.

Proof: Construction of the product of two DFAs.

Example:



credit: Martin Alessandro

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Take an automaton A with k states.

If  $\mathcal{L}(A)$  is infinite,

then  $\exists w \in \mathcal{L}(A), |w| \geq k$ .

Therefore, when accepting w, A goes through some state q at least twice.

That means that there is a loop  $q \stackrel{w_{i:j}}{\to} q$ .

Repeating the loop any number of times (even 0) always produces a word  $(w_{1:i-1} w_{i:j}^n w_{i+1:|w|})$  in  $\mathcal{L}(A)$ .



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## Is NL regular? B. Pumping lemma (definition)

#### Pumping Lemma

Let L be a regular language.

 $\exists k \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that }$ 

 $\forall w \in L \text{ such that } |w| \geq k$ ,

 $\exists x, u, y \text{ such that } w = xuy \text{ and that }$ 

- **1**  $|u| \ge 1$ ;
- $|xu| \le k;$
- **③**  $\forall$ *n* ∈  $\mathbb{N}$ ,  $xu^ny$  ∈ L.
- $\rightarrow$  "L has the pumping property."

 $a^*bc$  (i.e.  $\{a^nbc \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ ) is regular (there is a DFA). So, it must have the pumping property.

It happens that k = 3 works.

For example,  $w = abc \in L$  is long enough and can be decomposed:

$$\frac{\epsilon}{x}$$
  $\frac{a}{u}$   $\frac{b}{y}$ 

- **1**  $|u| \ge 1 (u = a);$
- $|xu| \le k \ (xu = a);$
- **③**  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $xu^ny$  (i.e.  $a^nbc$ ) belongs to the language.

## Is NL regular? Pumping lemma (consequences)

To prove that L is

regular provide a DFA;

not regular show that the pumping property is not satisfied.

# Is NL regular? Pumping lemma (example II)

Let's show that  $L = \{a^n b^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$  is not regular.

- Consider any  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ .
- Consider  $w = a^k b^k \in L (|w| \ge k)$ .
- If w = xuy with  $|u| \ge 1$  and  $|xu| \le k$ , then u contains no b.
- But then,  $xu^0y = xy \notin L$  (strictly less as than bs).
- So no  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  works; L does not have the pumping property.

A similar reasoning applies to  $\{xu^nyv^nz \mid x,y,z,u,v \in \Sigma^*\}$ .

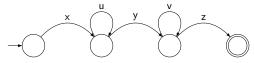
# Is NL regular? C. Proof (I)

 $L_1 = \{ \mathsf{A} \ \mathsf{man} \ [\mathsf{that} \ \mathsf{another} \ \mathsf{man}]^n \ \mathsf{I} \ \mathsf{saw} \ [\mathsf{hired}]^m \ \mathsf{fired} \ \mathsf{Sam}. \ | \ n,m \in \mathbb{N} \}$  This language is regular.

#### With

- x = A man
- u = that another man
- y = I saw
- v = hired
- z =fired Sam

$$L_1 = \{ xu^n yv^m z \mid n, m \in \mathbb{N} \}.$$



# Is NL regular? C. Proof (II)

 $L_1 = \{A \text{ man [that another man]}^n \text{ I saw [hired]}^m \text{ fired Sam. } | n, m \in \mathbb{N}\}.$ 

Sentences of  $L_1$  are well-formed in English iff n = m.

In other words, English  $\cap L_1$  is  $L_2 = \{xu^nyv^nz \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}.$ 

We have seen that this language is not regular.

## Is NL regular? C. Proof (III)

•  $L_2 \subseteq$  English is not regular.

#### Caution

The fact that some non-regular language is a subset of English provides no indication of English being regular or not.

Ex:  $\Sigma^*$  is regular and contains all languages on  $\Sigma$ , even the most complex ones (beyond type 0).

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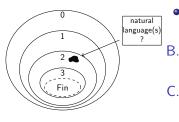
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Ex:  $\Sigma^*$  is regular and contains all languages on  $\Sigma$ , even the most complex ones (beyond type 0).

#### But:

• The intersection of English with a regular language  $(L_1)$  is not regular, therefore English is not regular.

## Is natural language context-free?



- A. Context-free languages are closed under intersection with a regular language.
- $L_1 = \{wa^n b^m x c^k d^l y \mid n, m, k, l \in \mathbb{N}\}$ is regular.
- B.  $L_2 = \{wa^n b^m x c^n d^m y \mid n, m \in \mathbb{N}\}$ is not context-free.
- C. The intersection of Swiss German with a regular language  $(L_1)$  is not context-free  $(L_2)$ .
- Therefore, Swiss German is not context-free.

#### Closure property

The intersection of a context-free language with a regular language is context-free.

Proof: by construction of a cross-product push-down automaton which can recognise the intersection.

(other proofs, based on CF grammars, possible)

References

If *L* is an infinite context-free language, if a word is long enough, then, in its derivation, there is (at least) one non-terminal symbol that generates itself with additional material.

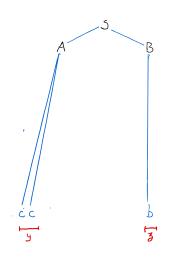
$$egin{array}{lll} S & 
ightarrow & A & B \ A & 
ightarrow & cc \ & | & aSa \ B & 
ightarrow & b \end{array}$$

$$S \Rightarrow AB \Rightarrow ccB \Rightarrow ccb$$
  
 $S \Rightarrow AB \Rightarrow sSaB \Rightarrow aABaB \Rightarrow ... \Rightarrow accbab$ 

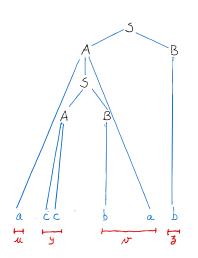
## Is NL context-free? B. Pumping lemma (intuition)

If a non-terminal A generates itself once in a derivation, since the grammar is context-free, then there is no way to prevent A from generating itself an arbitrary number of times.

## Is NL context-free? B. Pumping lemma (intuition)

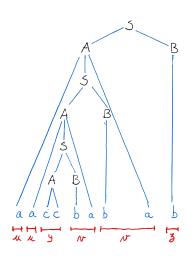






$$egin{array}{lll} S & 
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## Is NL context-free? B. Pumping lemma (intuition)



$$\begin{array}{cccc}
S & \rightarrow & A B \\
A & \rightarrow & cc \\
& | & aSa \\
B & \rightarrow & b
\end{array}$$



$$A \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} uAv$$

$$A \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} uAv \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} uyv$$

$$A \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} uAv \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} \underbrace{u \dots u}_{n} A \underbrace{v \dots v}_{n} \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} u^{n}yv^{n}$$

- If there is a productive derivation  $A \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} y$ ,
- and a "recursive" situation  $A \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} uAv$ ,
- then any identical number of embedded factors u and v can be produced.



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# Is NL context-free ? Pumping Lemma (definition)

#### Pumping lemma

Let L be a context-free language.

 $\exists k \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

 $\forall w \in L \text{ such that } |w| \geq k$ ,

 $\exists x, u, y, v, z \text{ such that } w = xuyvz \text{ and that }$ 

- **1** |*uv*| ≥ 1;
- $|uyv| \leq k$ ;

(Bar-Hillel, Perles & Shamir 1961)

Day 2

# Is NL context-free? B. Pumping lemma (consequences)

context-free	$\Rightarrow$	pumping property satisfied
pumping property <b>NOT</b> satisfied	$\Rightarrow$	NOT context-free
pumping property satisfied	$\Rightarrow$	context-free

To prove that *L* is context-free provide a context-free grammar; not context-free show that the pumping property is not satisfied.

Let's show that  $L = \{a^n b^n c^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$  is not context-free.

- Consider any  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ .
- Consider  $w = a^k b^k c^k \in L (|w| \ge k)$ .
- If w = xuyvz with  $|uv| \ge 1$  and  $|uyv| \le k$ , then uyv either contains no c, or contains no a.
- But then,  $xu^0yv^0z = xyz \notin L$  (either strictly less cs than as, or strictly less as than cs).
- So no  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  works; L does not have the pumping property.

A similar reasoning applies to  $\{xu^nyv^nzw^nt \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}.$ 

#### Is NL context-free? C. Proof

Swiss German data (Shieber 1985). Cross-serial dependencies:

- (7) Jan säit das mer [em Hans]<sub>1</sub> [es huus]<sub>2</sub> [hälfed]<sub>1'</sub> [aastriiche]<sub>2'</sub>. Jan says that we Hans the house helped paint. 'Jan says that we [helped]<sub>1'</sub> [Hans]<sub>1</sub> [paint]<sub>2'</sub> [the house]<sub>2</sub>.'
  - In Swiss German, subordinate clauses can have a structure where all NPs precede all Vs.
  - It is possible to have all dative NPs before all accusative NPs and all dative-subcategorizing Vs before all accusative-subcategorizing Vs.
     → cross-serial dependancy.
  - The number of verbs requiring a dative has to be equal to the number of dative NPs, similarly for accusative.
  - The number of verbs in a subordinate clause is limited only by performance.

(8) Jan säit das mer d'chind em Hans es huus
Jan said that we the\_children.ACC Hans.DAT the house.ACC
haend wele laa hälfe aastrüche
have wanted let help paint
'Jan said that we have wanted to let the children help Hans to paint
the house'

#### Hypothesis

Considering the well-formedness of (8), the following sentence is correct iff  $n_1 = n_3$  and  $n_2 = n_4$ :

(9) Jan säit das mer [d'chind] $^{n_1}$  [em Hans] $^{n_2}$  es huus haend wele laa $^{n_3}$  hälfe $^{n_4}$  aastriiche.

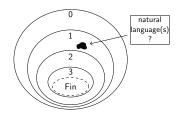
#### Is NL context-free? C. Proof

- $L_1 = \{wa^n b^m x c^l d^k y \mid n, m, k, l \in \mathbb{N}\}$  is regular.
- With:
  - $w = \text{Jan s\"{a}it das mer}$
  - *a* = d'chind
  - b = em Hans
  - x = es huus haend wele
  - c = laa
  - $d = h\ddot{a}lfe$
  - y = aastriiche

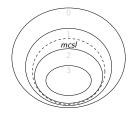
Swiss German  $\cap L_1$  is  $L_2 = \{ wa^{n_1}b^{n_2}xc^{n_1}d^{n_2}y \mid n_1, n_2 \in \mathbb{N} \}.$ 

•  $L_2$  is not CF ( $\rightarrow$  pumping lemma, CF version), so Swiss German is not CF either.

#### Is natural language context-sensitive?



- Almost certainly.
  - But this class seems much too large (it includes languages very far from (any) natural language).
- Joshi 1985: what's needed is a class of grammars/languages that are only slightly more powerfull than CFGs.



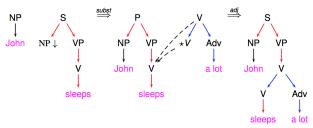
#### Mildly context-sensitive grammars: (Joshi 1985)

- limited cross-serial dependencies (cf. Swiss German);
- constant growth (a2i should not belong to the class);
- polynomial parsing;

Formal definition still needed; note that parsing depends on the grammar rather than on the language.

# Tree Adjoining Grammars

- Tree Adjoining Grammars (TAG): introduced by Joshi (1985).
- Elementary units are (anchored) trees rather than sequences of letters.
- A grammar contains rules for rewriting trees, based on two operations: adjunction and substitution.



Inria, FMRG

# TAG languages = MCSL

Tree Adjoining Grammars define the class of Mildly Context Sensitive Languages (MCSL).

- $\{ww \mid w \in \Sigma^{\star}\}$  is MCS.
- $\{a^nb^nc^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$  is MCS.
- $\{a^nb^nc^nd^n\mid n\in\mathbb{N}\}$  is MCS.
- $\{a^ib^jc^id^j\mid i,j\in\mathbb{N}\}$  is MCS.
- $\{a^nb^nc^nd^ne^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$  is not MCS.
- $\{www \mid w \in \Sigma^*\}$  is not MCS.
- $\{ab^hab^jab^jab^kab^l \mid h>i>j>k>l\geq 1\}$  is not MCS.
- $\{a^{2^i} \mid i \in \mathbb{N}\}$  is not MCS.

## CCGs define exactly the same class

Combinatory Categorial Grammar (CCG): developped by Steedman (e.g. 2000).

Phrase structure rules are replaced with:

- categories: likes: (S\NP)/NP;
- general combinatory rules.

$$\frac{\text{Sabine}}{\text{NP}} \frac{\text{likes}}{(\text{S}/\text{NP})/\text{NP}} \frac{\text{books}}{\text{NP}}$$

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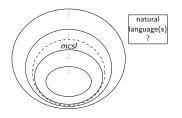
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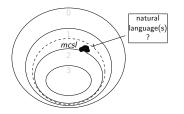
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# Is NL mildly context-sensitive?



- CCG and TAG both define the same class. (Vijay-Shanker & Weir 1994).
- This class is called MCSL.
- or "nearly context free",
- or "type 1.9" in the Extended Chomsky Hierarchy.

## Is NL mildly context-sensitive?



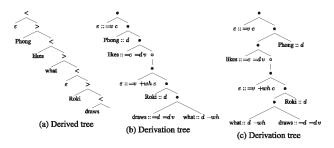
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#### Conjecture

 $NL \in MCSL$ 

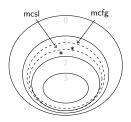
#### Another formalism defines a slightly larger class

From the minimalist programme (Chomsky 1995), a formalism called Minimalist Grammars was introduced by Stabler (2011).



credit: Stanojevič

## MG are equivalent to MCFG



#### Other classes of languages:

- minimalist grammars (MG).
- multiple CFG (MCFGs).
- linear context-free rewrite systems (LCFRSs).
- etc.

#### Theorem (Stabler 2011)

$$CF \subsetneq TAG \equiv CCG \subsetneq MCFG \equiv LCFRS \equiv MG \subsetneq CS$$

#### Even more powerful formalisms?

Even if we assume that natural languages all belong to, say, the class of MCS languages, it might be a good idea to use even more powerful formalisms that may offer benefits regarding:

- conciseness,
- elegance,
- appropriateness for parsing,
- . . .

At least three well-known syntactic formalisms have the property of being Turing-equivalent (i.e. type 0):

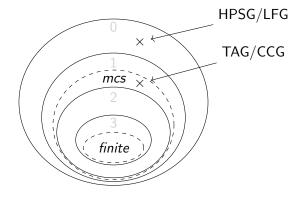
- Transformational grammars.
- HPSG.
- LFG.

## Complexity can be elegant

- The language  $\{a^nb^n \mid 1 \le n \le 1000\}$  is finite and therefore can be described by a regular grammar (with around 1000 non-terminal symbols).
- The CFG  $S \rightarrow aSb \mid ab$  is a very small grammar that generates a possibly useful approximation.

- The language  $\{a^{5i} \mid i \in \mathbb{N}\}$  can be described by a regular grammar with at least 5 non-terminal symbols.
- The CFG  $S \to aaaaaS \mid \epsilon$  is a smaller grammar that generates exactly the same language.

## A refined hierarchy



## Day 2: Summary

- There are theoretical and practical reasons for determining where NL is in the Chomsky-Schützenberger hierarchy.
- ullet center-embedding (very common) o NL is not regular.
- cross-serial dependencies (less common) → NL is not context-free.
- Good candidates: TAG/CCG and MCFG/LCFRS/MG.
- It can make sense to use much more powerful formalisms (e.g. HPSG).

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