

# Mathematics for linguists

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## Tree diagrams

A tree diagram of a sentence represents three kinds of information:

- the constituent structure of the sentence,
- the grammatical category of each constituent, and
- the linear order of the constituents.

## Conventions

- A tree consists of *nodes*, which are connected by
- **edges**
- By convention, edges are **directed** downward.
- Every node has a **label**.

## Dominance

- A node  $x$  **dominates** a node  $y$  if there is a connected sequence of directed edges that start with  $x$  and end with  $y$ .
- For a given tree  $T$ ,

$$D_T := \{\langle x, y \rangle \mid x \text{ dominates } y \text{ in } T\}$$

is the corresponding **dominance relation**

- $D_T$  is a weak ordering, i.e. it is reflexive, transitive and anti-symmetric.

## Conventions

- If  $x$  is the immediate predecessor of  $y$  in  $D_T$ , then  $x$  **immediately dominates**  $y$ .
- The immediate predecessor of  $x$  according to  $D_T$  is called the **mother node** of  $x$ .
- The immediate successors of  $x$  are called the **daughter nodes** of  $x$ .
- If two nodes are not identical but have the same mother node, then they are called **sister nodes**.
- Every tree has finitely many trees.
- Every tree has a least element. The least element is called **root** or **root node** of the tree.
- The maximal elements of a tree are called **leaves**.

## Precedence

- Tree diagrams contain information on the linear order of nodes.
- Node  $x$  **precedes** node  $y$  iff  $x$  is to the left of  $y$  and neither of the two nodes dominates the other one.
- For a tree  $T$ ,

$$P_T := \{\langle x, y \rangle \mid x \text{ precedes } y\}$$

is the corresponding **precedence relation**.

- $P_T$  is a strict ordering, i.e. it is irreflexive, transitive and asymmetric.

## Exclusivity

In a tree  $T$ , any two nodes  $x$  and  $y$  are related by precedence (i.e.  $P_T(x, y)$  or  $P_T(y, x)$ ) iff they are not related by dominance (i.e. neither  $D_T(x, y)$  nor  $D_T(y, x)$ ).

## No crossing

If in a tree  $T$ , node  $x$  precedes node  $y$ , then every node  $x'$  that is dominated by  $x$  precedes every node  $y'$  that is dominated by  $y$ .

This condition prevents that

- One node has several mother nodes, and that
- edges cross.



## Labeling

For every tree  $T$  there is a labeling function  $L_T$  which assigns a label to each node.

- $L_T$  need not be injective (several nodes may have the same label).
- In derivation trees, leaves (also called **terminal nodes**) are mapped to terminal symbols, and all other nodes to non-terminal symbols.

# Trees

Using these properties of trees, we can prove **theorems**, i.e. facts that hold for all trees. For instance

## Theorem

*If  $x$  and  $y$  are sister nodes, than either  $P(x, y)$  or  $P(y, x)$ .*

## Theorem

*The set of leaves of a tree are linearly ordered by  $P$ .*

# Grammars and trees

- Trees represent the relevant aspects of a derivation.
- Connection between derivation and tree is most transparent if all rules of the grammar have the form

$$A \rightarrow \alpha$$

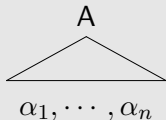
(with  $A \in V_N$  and  $\alpha \in (V_T \cup V_N)^*$ )

# Grammars and trees

## Definition

A grammar  $G = \langle V_T, V_N, S, R \rangle$  where all rules have exactly one non-terminal symbol as left hand side **generates** a tree  $T$  iff

- the root of  $T$  is labeled with  $S$ ,
- the leaves are labeled either with terminal symbols or with  $\epsilon$ , and
- for each sub-tree



in  $T$ , there is a rule

$A \rightarrow \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$  in  $R$ .

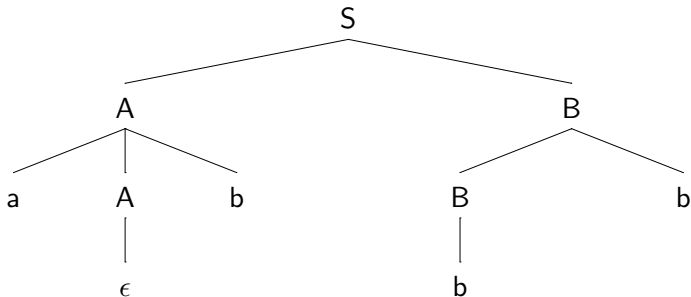
# Grammars and trees

## Example grammar

$$G = \langle \{a, b\}, \{S, A, B\}, S, R \rangle$$
$$R = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} S \rightarrow AB & B \rightarrow Bb \\ A \rightarrow aAb & B \rightarrow b \\ A \rightarrow \epsilon & \end{array} \right\}$$

# Grammars and trees

This grammar generates for instance the following tree:



Question: Which language is generated by this grammar?

## Context-sensitive rules

Sometimes it is desirable to restrict the applicability of a certain rule to specific contexts. For instance:

- $D \rightarrow des$  only if the following noun is masculine or neuter singular genitive
- $/d/ \rightarrow [d]$  only if this segment is not at the end of a word
- $[\text{past}, 1.\text{pers}] \rightarrow -t-$  only if it is preceded by the stem of a weak verb
- ...

Question: Can you think of more examples for context-sensitive rules?

## Context-sensitive rules

- usual format for context-sensitive rules:

$$A \rightarrow \gamma / \alpha \_ \beta$$

- $A$ : non-terminal symbol
- $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$ : string of terminal and non-terminal symbols
- $\gamma \neq \epsilon$
- $\alpha \_ \beta$  is the context in which the rule  $A \rightarrow \gamma$  can be applied
- “official” notation:

$$\alpha A \beta \rightarrow \alpha \gamma \beta$$



# The Chomsky hierarchy

Different restrictions for the format of rules of a grammar lead to the following hierarchy of grammar types:

## Chomsky hierarchy

**Typ 0** no restrictions

**Typ 1** rules of the form *context-sensitive grammar*

$$S \rightarrow \epsilon \text{ or } \alpha A \beta \rightarrow \alpha \gamma \beta$$

$$A, S \in V_N \text{ (} S \text{ start symbol), } \alpha, \beta, \gamma \in (V_T \cup V_N)^*, \gamma \neq \epsilon$$

If  $S \rightarrow \epsilon$  is a rule, then  $S$  never occurs as the right hand side of a rule.

**Typ 2** Rules of the form  $A \rightarrow \gamma$  *context-free grammar*

$$A \in V_N, \gamma \in (V_T \cup V_N)^*$$

**Typ 3** Rules of the form  $A \rightarrow \vec{x}B$  *regular grammar*

$$\text{or } A \rightarrow \vec{x}$$

$$A, B \in V_N, \vec{x} \in V_T^*$$

# The Chomsky hierarchy

- no strict hierarchy, because  $\epsilon$  may occur as right hand side in context-free grammars, but not (in the general case) in context-free grammars

$$\mathbf{Typ\ 3} \subset \mathbf{Typ\ 2} \not\subset \mathbf{Typ\ 1} \subset \mathbf{Typ\ 0}$$

# The Chomsky hierarchy

Grammar hierarchy corresponds to hierarchy of formal languages:

- *Type-0 languages* (“recursively enumerable languages”): languages that are generated by type-0 grammars
- *Type-1 languages* (“context-sensitive languages”): languages that are generated by type-1 grammars
- *Type-2 languages* (“context-free languages”): languages that are generated by type-0 grammars
- *Type-3 languages* (“regular languages”): languages that are generated by type-0 grammars

## Theorem

*If  $L$  is a context-free language, then it is also a context-sensitive language.*

# The Chomsky hierarchy

- All context-sensitive languages are **decidable** — for each of these languages, there is a computer program that can decide in finite time whether or not a given string belongs to that language.
- Recursively enumerable languages are not always decidable. For instance, the set of all provable mathematical statements is a recursively enumerable language that is not decidable.
- Context-free languages can be processed efficiently by a computer (time complexity is maximally cubic).
- Regular languages can be processed very efficiently by a computer (time complexity is maximally linear).
- Context-sensitive languages can not always be processed efficiently by a computer.

# The Chomsky hierarchy

- 1957 (Chomsky): proof that English is not a regular language
- 1957 (Chomsky): conjecture that natural languages are generally not context-free, but context-sensitive
- 1982 (Pullum & Gazdar): „Natural Languages and Context-Free Languages“ — arguments that neither English nor any other natural language has so far clearly proven to be not context-free.
- 1984 (Huybregts), 1985 (Shieber): proof that Swiss German is not context-free
- Most phonological and morphological processes in natural languages can be captured by regular grammars.

# The Chomsky hierarchy

