And now for something completely different
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Algorithms for NLP (11-711)
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Formal Language Theory
In one lecture

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Now for Something Completely Different

- We will look at grammars from a “mathematical” point of view
- But Discrete Math (logic)
  - No real numbers
  - Symbolic discrete structures, proofs
- This is the source of many common algorithms/models
- Interested in complexity/power of different formal models of computation
  - Related to asymptotic complexity theory
Two main classes of models

• Automata
  – Machines, like Finite-State Automata

• Grammars
  – Rule sets, like we have been using to parse

• We will look at each class of model, going from simpler to more complex/powerful

• We can formally prove complexity-class relations between these formal models
Finite-State Automata (FSAs)

• Simplest formal automata
• We’ve seen these with numbers on them as HMMs, etc.

(from Wikipedia)
Formal definition of automata

- A finite set of states, $Q$
- A finite alphabet of input symbols, $\Sigma$
- An initial (start) state, $Q_0 \in Q$
- A set of final states, $F_i \in Q$
- A transition function, $\delta: Q \times \Sigma \to Q$

- This rigorously defines the FSAs we usually just draw as circles and arrows
Formal Definition of a Grammar

- Vocabulary of terminal symbols, $\Sigma$ (e.g., $a$)
- Set of nonterminal symbols, $N$ (e.g., $A$)
- Special start symbol, $S \in N$
- Production rules, such as $A \rightarrow aB$
  - Restrictions on the rules determine what kind of grammar you have

- A formal grammar $G$ defines a **formal language**, usually denoted $L(G)$
Regular Grammars

• Left-linear or right-linear grammars
• Left-linear template:
  \[ A \to Bx \text{ or } A \to x \]
• Right-linear template:
  \[ A \to xB \text{ or } A \to x \]

• Example:
  \[ S \to aA \mid bB \mid \varepsilon, \quad A \to aS, \quad B \to bbS \]
Regular Expressions

• For this class, there’s a simpler way to write expressions: regular expressions:
  
  Terminal symbols
  
  (r + s)
  
  (r • s)
  
  r*
  
  ε

• For example: (aa+b bb)*
Amazing fact #1: FSAs are equivalent to RGs

• Proof: two constructive proofs:
  – 1: given an arbitrary FSA, construct the corresponding Regular Grammar (and prove that it will only produce the strings the FSA would)
  – 2: given an arbitrary Regular Grammar, construct the corresponding FSA (and prove that it will only produce the strings the grammar would)
DFSAs, NDFSA

• Deterministic or Non-deterministic
  – Is $\delta$ function ambiguous or not?

  – For FSAs, weakly equivalent
Intersecting, etc., FSAs

• We can investigate what happens after performing different operations on FSAs:
  – Union
  – Intersection
  – Concatenation
  – Negation
  – other operations: determinizing and minimizing FSAs
Proving a language is *not* regular

• So, what kinds of languages are *not* regular?

• Informally, a FSA can only *remember* a finite number of *specific* things. So a language requiring an unbounded memory won’t be regular.

• What about $a^n b^n$?
Pumping Lemma

• If L is an infinite regular language, then there are strings x, y, and z such that $y \neq \varepsilon$ and $xy^nz \subseteq L$, for all $n \geq 0$. 
Pumping Lemma argument:

• Consider a machine with N states
• Now consider an input of length N; since we started in \( Q_0 \), we will now be in the \((N+1)\)st state visited
• There \textit{must} be a loop: we had to visit at least 1 state twice; let \( x \) be the string up to the loop, \( y \) the part in the loop, and \( z \) after the loop
• So it must be okay to also have \( N \) copies of \( y \) (including 0 copies)
Pumping Lemma: figure
Example proof that a L is not regular

• What about $a^n b^n$?
• Three cases:
  – $y$ is only $a$’s: then $xy^n z$ will have too many $a$’s
  – $y$ is only $b$’s: then $xy^n z$ will have too many $b$’s
  – $y$ is a mix: then there will be interspersed $a$’s and $b$’s
• So $a^n b^n$ cannot be regular, since it cannot be pumped
Push-Down Automata (PDAs)

- Let’s add some unbounded memory, but in a limited fashion
- So, add a stack:

- Allows you to handle some non-regular languages, but not everything
Context-Free Grammars

• Rule template:
  
  \[ A \rightarrow \gamma \ \text{where} \ \gamma \ \text{is any sequence of terminals/non-terminals} \]

• Example: \[ S \rightarrow a \ S \ b \mid \varepsilon \]

• We use these a lot in NLP.
  
  – Expressive enough, not too complex to parse.
    • We often add hacks to allow non-CF information flow.
  
  – It just feels like the right level of analysis.
    • (More on this later.)
Amazing Fact #2: PDAs and CFGs are equivalent

• Same kind of proof as for FSAs and RGs, but more complicated

• Are there non-CF languages? How about $a^n b^n c^n$?
Turing Machines

• Just let the state move and write on the tape:

• This simple change produces general-purpose computer: Church-Turing Hypothesis
TM made of LEGO}s
Unrestricted Grammars

- \( \alpha \to \beta \), where each can be any sequence (\( \alpha \) not empty)

- Thus, there is context in the rules:
  - \( aAb \to aab \)
  - \( bAb \to bbb \)

- No surprise at this point: equivalent to TMs
Linear-Bounded Automata/
Context-Sensitive Grammars

- TM that uses space linear in the input
- $\alpha A\beta \rightarrow \alpha \gamma \beta$ ($\gamma$ not empty)

- We mostly ignore these; they get no respect
- Correspond to each other
- Limited compared to full-blown TM
  - But complexity can already be undecidable
Even more amazing fact: Chomsky hierarchy

- Provable that each of these four classes is a proper subset of the next one:

Type 0: TM
Type 1: CSG
Type 2: CFG
Type 3: RE
Chomsky Hierarchy: proofs

• Form of hierarchy proofs:
  – For each class, you can prove there are languages not in the class, similar to Pumping Lemma proof
  – You can easily prove that the larger class really does contain all the ones in the smaller class
Intersecting, etc., Ls

• We can again investigate what happens with Ls in these various classes under different operations on Ls:
  – Union
  – Intersection
  – Concatenation
  – Negation
  – other operations
## Chomsky hierarchy: table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Common Name</th>
<th>Rule Skeleton</th>
<th>Linguistic Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>Turing Equivalent</td>
<td>$\alpha \rightarrow \beta$, s.t. $\alpha \neq \epsilon$</td>
<td>HPSG, LFG, Minimalism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Context Sensitive</td>
<td>$\alpha A \beta \rightarrow \alpha \gamma \beta$, s.t. $\gamma \neq \epsilon$</td>
<td>TAG, CCG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Mildly Context Sensitive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Context Free</td>
<td>$A \rightarrow \gamma$</td>
<td>Phrase-Structure Grammars</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Regular</td>
<td>$A \rightarrow \gamma$</td>
<td>Finite-State Automata</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Mildly Context-Sensitive Grammars

• We really like CFGs, but are they in fact expressive enough to capture all human grammar?

• Several non-hack extensions (CCG, TAG, etc.) turn out to be weakly equivalent!
  – “Mildly context sensitive”

• So CSFs get even less respect...

• And so much for the Chomsky Hierarchy being such a big deal
Trying to prove human languages are *not* CF

• Certainly true of semantics. But NL syntax?
• Cross-serial dependencies seem like a good target:
  – *Mary, Jane, and Jim like red, green, and blue, respectively.*
  – But is this syntactic?
• Surprisingly hard to prove
Swiss German dialect!

dative-NP  accusative-NP  dative-taking-VP  accusative-taking-VP

• Jan säit das mer em Hans es huus hälfd aastiiche
• Jan says that we Hans the house helped paint
• “Jan says that we helped Hans paint the house”

• Jan säit das mer d’chind em Hans es huus haend wele laa hälfe aastiiche
• Jan says that we the children Hans the house have wanted to let help paint
• “Jan says that we have wanted to let the children help Hans paint the house”

(A little like “The cat the dog the mouse scared chased likes tuna fish”)

(A little like “The cat the dog the mouse scared chased likes tuna fish”)
Is Swiss German Context-Free?

Shieber’s complex argument...

$L_1 = \text{Jan säit das mer (d’chind)* (em Hans)* es huus haend wele (laa)* (hälfe)* aastriiche}$

$L_2 = \text{Swiss German}$

$L_1 \cap L_2 = \text{Jan säit das mer (d’chind)$^n$ (em Hans)$^m$ es huus haend wele (laa)$^n$ (hälfe)$^m$ aastriiche}$
Why do we care?

• Math is fun?
• Complexity: if you can use a RE, don’t use a CFG. Be careful with anything fancier than a CFG.
• Probably a source for future new algorithms
• Probably not how humans actually process NL
• Maybe doesn’t matter as much for NLP now that we know about real numbers?
  – But we don’t want your friends making fun of you
Is Swiss German Context-Free?

$L_1 = \text{Jan säit das mer (d’chind)* (em Hans)* es huus haend wele (laa)* (hälfe)* aastriiche}$

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$L_1 \cap L_2 = \text{Jan säit das mer (d’chind)n (em Hans)m es huus haend wele (laa)n (hälfe)m aastriiche}$
Examples

• The cat likes tuna fish
• The cat the dog chased likes tuna fish
• The cat the dog the mouse scared chased likes tuna fish
• The cat the dog the mouse the elephant squashed scared
• chased likes tuna fish
• The cat the dog the mouse the elephant the