

# The Generative Power of Natural Languages

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- **The Generative Power of Natural Languages**
- **Transformational Grammars**
- **The Generative Capacity of Transformational Grammars**
- **Conclusion**

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- What is generative power of natural languages?
- Are natural languages recursive or not?

## Outline

- 1 Examining of the generative power of NL.
- 2 Inherent generative capacity of classical transformational grammar as a formalism for language competence.



## Chomsky Hierarchy

$$\mathcal{L}_3 \subset \mathcal{L}_2 \subset \mathcal{L}_1 \subset \mathcal{L}_0$$

- $\mathcal{L}_3$  ... set of regular languages,
  - $\mathcal{L}_2$  ... set of context-free languages,
  - $\mathcal{L}_1$  ... set of context-sensitive languages and
  - $\mathcal{L}_0$  ... set of all phrase structure languages
- 
- NL **could not be described** as regular languages, because NL grammar must have **self-embedding**. (Chomsky, 1959)



## Definition

A context-free grammar is **self-embedding** if there exists  $A \in V$  such that

$$A \Rightarrow^* \alpha A \beta$$

for some  $\alpha, \beta \in (V \cup X)^+$ .

## Theorem

*A context-free language  $L$  is **regular** iff it possesses at least one grammar which is not self-embedding.*

- Regular languages can also have self-embedding grammar.



## Self-embedding in English

- $G_1 \dots$  any grammar for  $X^*$
- $G_2 \dots$  any self-embedding grammar (eg.  $S \rightarrow ab, S \rightarrow aSb$ )
- productions of grammar  $G$  are the union of those of  $G_1$  and  $G_2 \Rightarrow$  it is self-embedding and is also a grammar for the regular set  $X^*$

### Example

- 1 *John believes that Mary wants Bill with all his heart.*
- 2 *John believes that Mary wants Bill to leave with all his heart.*
- 3 *John believes that Mary wants Bill to tell Sam to leave with all his heart.*

## Definition

We say, that two strings  $w_1$  and  $w_2$  are **Myhill equivalent** with respect to the language  $L$ ,  $w_1 \equiv_L w_2$ , if for all strings  $u, v$  of  $X^*$  we have that

$$uw_1v \in L \Leftrightarrow uw_2 \in L.$$

## Proposition

- 1 If  $w_1 \in L$  and  $w_1 \equiv_L w_2$ , then  $w_2 \in L$ .
- 2 If  $w_1 \equiv_L w_2$  and  $x \in X$ , then  $w_1x \equiv_L w_2x$ .

## Proof.

- 1 Take  $u = v = \varepsilon$  in definition above.
- 2 For any  $u, v \in X^*$ :

$$\begin{aligned} u(w_1x)v \in L &\Leftrightarrow uw_1(xv) \in L \\ &\Leftrightarrow uw_2(xv) \in L \text{ since } w_1 \equiv_L w_2 \\ &\Leftrightarrow u(w_2x)v \in L \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $w_1 \equiv_L w_2$ .





## Theorem

*A language  $L$  is regular if and only if the number of Myhill equivalence classes for  $L$  is finite.*

## Proof.

Assume that  $L$  has a finite set  $Q$  of equivalence classes. We use these classes as states of a finite state machine. By previous Proposition, following definitions of  $\delta : Q \times X \rightarrow Q$  and  $F \subset Q$  are well defined - they do not depend on the choice of representative  $w$  from the equivalence class ( $w$ ) in  $Q$ .

- $\varepsilon([w], x) = [wx]$
- $[w] \in F \Leftrightarrow w \in L$

If we now let  $q_0 = [\varepsilon]$ , the Myhill equivalence class of the empty string, we have that  $M = (Q, q_0, \varepsilon, F)$  accepts  $L$ :

$$\varepsilon^*(q_0, w) = [w]$$

and thus  $w \in T(M)$  iff  $[w] \in F$  iff  $w \in L$ . □

## Example

### The violation of the finitness property.

- Language  $\{a^n b^n | n \geq 1\}$
- $b^n \dots$  different equivalence class for each choice of  $n$ .

A dependency in natural language:

- 1 *The dog died.*  
[<sub>S</sub>NP VP]
  - 2 *The boy that the dog bit died.*  
[<sub>S</sub>[<sub>NP</sub>NP[<sub>S</sub>NP VP]]VP]
  - 3 *The boy that the dog that the horse kicked bit died.*  
[<sub>S</sub>[<sub>NP</sub>NP[<sub>S</sub>[<sub>NP</sub>NP[<sub>S</sub>NP VP]]]]VP]VP]
- $a \dots$  NP
  - $b \dots$  V

⇒ English must have infinitely many Myhill equivalence classes and so it is **not regular**.



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- Transformational grammars generate the class of natural languages.
- They generate not only NL, but also unnatural languages.

## Transformational rule

- the type of rule that can generate certain construction
- altering of the structure generated by phrase structure rules by **moving**, **adding** or **deleting** in the string

## Transformational grammar $TG$

- $TG$  has three parts
  - 1 Phrase structure grammar  $G$  – **base**,
  - 2 a set of **transformations**  $T$  and
  - 3 a set of **restrictions** on these transformations  $R$ .
- **deep structures** – the set of derivation trees generated by  $G$
- restrictions of  $R$  specify that some transformations in  $T$  are obligatory
- **surface structures** – the set of trees which may be obtained from deep structures by successively applying transformations from  $T$  according the rules from  $R$ .
- $L(TG)$  – a set of strings we may read off the surface structures.

- We will consider grammars with **context-free bases**.

## Lemma

*A transformational grammar can perform arbitrary homomorphisms, and in particular,  $\varepsilon$ -homomorphisms.*

## Proof.

Proof demonstration:

- Substitution map  $g : X^* \rightarrow 2^{Y^*}$  as a map where
  - $g(\varepsilon) = \varepsilon$
  - and for each  $n \geq 1$ 
    - $g(a_1 \dots a_n) = g(a_1)g(a_2) \dots g(a_n)$ .

If  $g(a)$  contains only one element  $Y^*$  for each  $a \in X$ , then  $g$  is called a *homomorphism*.

Example on the next page is a part of this proof demonstration. □

## Example

Transformation: change *that*  $\rightarrow$  *my own* and *dog*  $\rightarrow$  *white cat*.

- $g(\textit{that}) = \textit{my own}$
- $g(\textit{dog}) = \textit{white cat}$

For

- *That dog likes that food.*

the resulting string will be:

- *My own white cat likes my own food.*

When we allow  $\varepsilon$ -homomorphism, that is  $g(a) = \varepsilon$ , we can do arbitrary deletion by adding:

- $g(\textit{that}) = \varepsilon$

Result of transformation will be:

- *Dog likes food.*

## Lemma

Let  $G_1, G_2$  be any CFGs. Then there exists a transformational grammar  $TG$ , such that  $TG$  can perform *the intersection* of the languages of  $G_1$  and  $G_2$ .

That is,

$$L(TG) = (L(G_1) \cap L(G_2))$$



## Proof.

Proof outline:

- $TG$  with a context-free base
- $TG$  has only one  $S$  production  $S \rightarrow S_1 \mu S_2 \$$ 
  - $S_1$  and  $S_2$  - start symbols for grammars  $G_1$  and  $G_2$ , respectively.
- $T_1$  - transformation performing intersection between two CFGs.

Transformation $T_1$								
SD:	X	x	$\mu$	X	y	\$	w	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	$\Rightarrow$
SC:		2	3		5	6	7 + 1	



## Proof.

For generating just the intersection, transformation  $T_2$  is needed:

$$T_2 : \mu\$ \rightarrow \varepsilon.$$

Transformation $T_2$					
SD:	$x$	$\mu$	$\$$	$y$	
	1	2	3	4	$\Rightarrow$
SC:	1			4	



## Example

Example demonstrates how rules  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  work.

Let  $G_1, G_2$  be two context-free grammars

- $L(G_1) = \{a^n b^n c^m, n, m \geq 1\}$ .
- $L(G_2) = \{a^n b^m c^m, n, m \geq 1\}$ .

The transformational grammar generates just the intersection of these two languages, namely:

$$a^n b^n c^n, n \geq 1$$

which is **not context-free**.

## Example

Assume the string  $aabbcc\mu aabbcc\$$ .

- Apply  $T_1$  until there is no structural description that fits the rule.
- After all successful applications of  $T_1$ 
  - string =  $\mu\$aabbcc$
- Apply rule  $T_2$ :
  - string =  $aabbcc$ ;  $aabbcc \in \{a^n b^n c^n; n \geq 1\}$

Now assume the string  $aabbccc\mu aabbccc$ .

- $T_1$  applies since there is unequal numbers of  $b$ 's.
- But then  $T_2$  **can not apply** since the markers are not adjacent.
- Thus, the string **is not generated** by the grammar.

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## Theorem

*There is an undecidable set  $S$  of the natural numbers  $N$ , such that  $S$  can be generated by some context-free based transformational grammar.*

## Proof.

Proof outline:

We can construct an undecidable set  $S \subseteq N$  as being homomorphic image of the intersection of two context-free languages.

That is:

$$L = \phi(L_1 \cap L_2),$$

where  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  are context-free languages and  $\phi$  is a homomorphism.





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## Question

If we consider transformational grammars as a model for constraining the form of natural languages, why should the model generate languages as powerful and unconstrained as undecidable sets?

## Answer

- We can consider that **by restricting** the base rules of the transformational grammar even more tightly than to the context-free, we might keep the resulting language recursive.
- From the results is clear that if we want to restrict the generative power of transformational grammars, it will be necessary to **constrain the form of the rules** themselves rather than the base.



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