

Formal Grammars
 Formal approaches to Linguistic Competence
 Phrase Structure Grammars (PSG) and Chomsky's hierarchy

 A theory for (linguistic) computation
 (Universal) Turing Machines (TM) and other formalisms
 Introduction to computability, complexity e automata theory.
 Parsing and complexity

 Advances in linguistic formalisms and processing
 Competence & Performance
 Minimalist Derivations
 Complexity as intervention

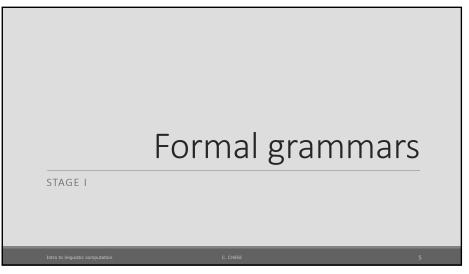
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### Introductory (a) Jurafsky, D. & Martin, J. H. (2009) Speech and Language Processing. Prentice-Hall. http://www.cs.colorado.edu/~martin/slp.html (Only chapters 2, 12) (b) Parter B., A. ter Meulen & R. Wall (1990) Mathematical Methods in Linguistics, Springer, 1990 (Only chapters 16 – 18) Advanced (c) Chesi C. (2021) Expectation-based Minimalist Grammars https://lingbuzz.net/lingbuzz/006135 (c) Chesi C. (2015) On directionality of phrase structure building. Journal of Psycholinguistic Research. 44(1) http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10936-014-9330-6 (c) Chesi, C., & Canal, P. (2019). Person features and lexical restrictions in Italian clefts. Frontiers in Psychology, 10, 2105. http://dx.doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.02105 (c) Van Dyke, J. A., & McElree, B. (2006) Retrieval interference in sentence comprehension. Journal of Memory and Language, 55(2), 157-166.

 Baddeley, A. (2013) Essentials of human memory (classic edition). Psychology Press. Chesi C., A. Moro (2014) Computational complexity in the brain. in Frederick J. Newmeyer and Laurel B. Preston (eds.), Measuring Linguistic Complexity. Oxford: OUP Extended • Chesi C. (2015) Il processamento in tempo reale delle frasi References complesse. In atti del convegno "Compter Parler Soigner", E.M. Ponti (ed). Pavia University Press. • Hopcroft, Motwani & Ullman (2001) Introduction to the automata theory, languages and computation. Addison-Wesley. Boston • Stabler, E. 1997. Derivational minimalism. in Retoré, ed. Logical Aspects of Computational Linguistics. Springer o Sprouse, J., Wagers, M., & Phillips, C. (2012). Working-memory capacity and island effects: A reminder of the issues and the facts. Language, 88

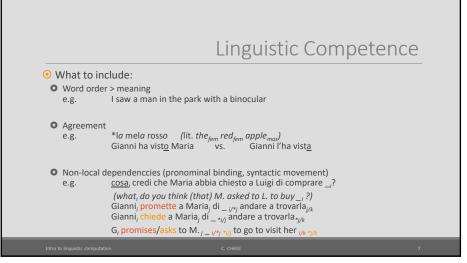
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What kind of competence (information structure) do we have?
 A word can start by wo... (word) but not by wb...
 The s in "sings" is different from the one in "roses"
 "the rose is beautiful" Vs. \*"the is beautiful rose"
 "The cat chases the dog" > subj: cat(agent); verb: chase(action); obj: dog(patient)
 ?the television chases the cat
 "the houses" Vs. "some house"
 Linguistic competence is a finite knowledge that allows us to:
 Recognizing as grammatical an infinite set of expressions
 Assigning to them the correct meaning(s)

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Grammar adequacy
 Adequacy: a grammar must provide an adequate description of the linguistic reality we want to describe.
 We will consider three levels of adequacy:
 Observational: the language described by the grammar coincides with the one we want to describe
 Descriptive: the grammatical analysis provides relevant structural descriptions that are coherent with the speakers' intuitions
 Explicative: the grammar is learnable and it permits to draw conclusions on what's more or less difficult to be processed.

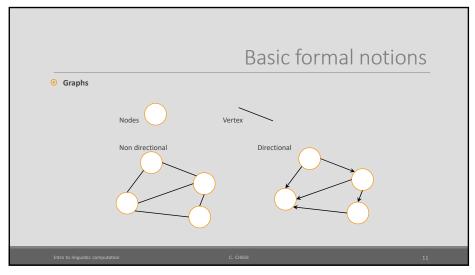
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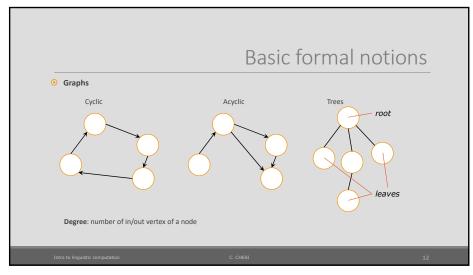
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Basic formal notions • Finite sets definition:  $A = \{a, b, c\}$ • Infinite (inductive) set definition:  $A = \{x: x \text{ has a propriety } p\}$ Ordered sets (n-tuples): A = (a, b, c)|A| = number of items of A • Cardinality:  $A = \{a, b, c\} \\ A X B = \{(a, x), (b, x), (c, x), (a, y), (b, y), (c, y)\}$ • Cartesian product: • Union:  $A \cup B = \{x : x \in A \text{ or }$  $x \in B$ • Concatenation:  $A \circ B = \{xy : x \in A \text{ and }$ • Star (Kleene operator):  $A^* = \{x_1 x_2 \dots x_n : n \ge 0 \text{ for any } x_i \in A\}$ 

Basic formal notions  $x_k = k^{th}$  element in a series  $x^k = a$  series of k elements • Indexes:  $X^R$  = mirror image of X • Function:  $f(x) \rightarrow y$ (x = Domain, y = Range): • Predicates:  $f(x) \rightarrow \{true, false\}$ • n-places predicates:  $f(x, y ... z) \rightarrow \{true, false\}$ • Equivalence relation: binary predicates R for which the following properties are valid: • R is **reflexive**, that is, for any x, xRx; • R is **symmetric**, that is, for any x and y, if xRy then yRx; • R is **transitive**, that is, for any x, y and z, if xRy and yRz then xRz;

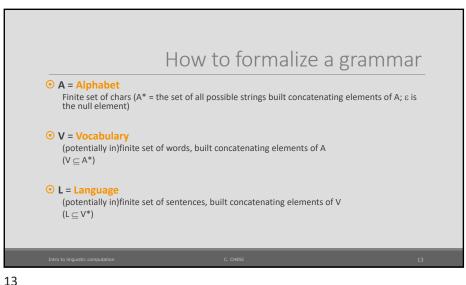
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How to formalize a grammar
 A formal grammar for a language L is a set of rules that allows us to recognize and generate all (and only) the sentences belonging to L and (eventually) assign to them an adequate structural description.
 A Formal Grammar G must be:

 explicit (each grammaticality judgment must be just the result of the mechanical application of the rules)
 consistent (the very same sentence can't be judged both grammatical and ungrammatical at the same time)

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### How to formalize a grammar. • Phrase Structure Grammar, PSG (Chomsky 1965) is an ordered 4-tuple $(V_T, V_N, \rightarrow, \{S\})$ : $V_T \qquad \text{is the terminal vocabulary}$ $V_N \qquad \text{is the non-terminal vocabulary } (V_T \cup V_N = V)$ $\Rightarrow \qquad \text{is a binary, asymmetric, transitive relation defined on V*, also known as rewriting rule: for any symbol <math>A \in V_N \quad \Phi A \psi \Rightarrow \Phi T \psi \text{ for some } \Phi, T, \psi \in V^*$ $\{S\} \qquad \text{is a subset of } V_N \text{ defined as the axiom(s) of the rewriting rules.}$ By default, S (Sentence) is the only symbol present in this set.

How to formalize a grammar
 Give two strings φ and ψ ∈ V\* there is a φ-derivation of ψ if φ →\* ψ.
 If there is a φ-derivation of ψ then we conclude that φ dominates ψ. Such a relation is reflexive and transitive.
 A φ-derivation of ψ is terminated if:
 ψ ∈ V<sub>T</sub>\*
 There is no χ such that a ψ-derivation of χ exists
 Given a grammar G, a language generated by G, is said L(G), that is the set φ of all possible strings for which a terminated S-derivation of φ exists

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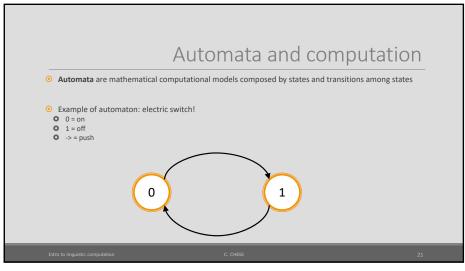
#### Structural description (syntactic tree) • A Structural Description is a 5-tuple (V, I, D, P, A) such that: V is a finite set of vertices (e.g. v<sub>1</sub>, v<sub>2</sub>, v<sub>3</sub>...) I is a finite set of labels (e.g. S, DP, VP, the, table...) **D** is a **dominance** relation, which is a **weak relation** (namely a binary, reflexive antisymmetric and transitive relation) defined on V P is a precedence relation, which is a strict order (namely a binary, anti-reflexive antisymmetric and transitive relation) defined on V A is an assignment function; i.e. a non surjective relation from V to I 17

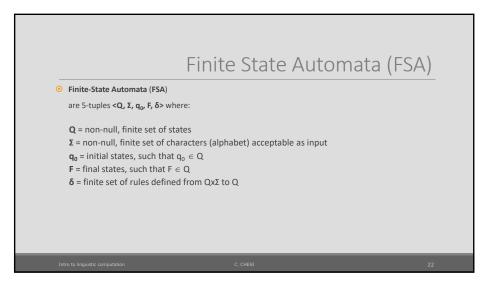
Generative capacity and equivalence • The generative capacity indicates the set of sentences that can be generated; two grammars can be considered **equivalent** in two senses: • Weak, if only the set of sentences is considered • Strong, if we also consider the structural description associated

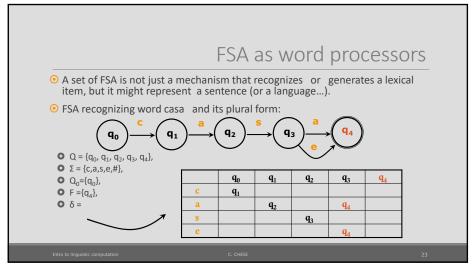
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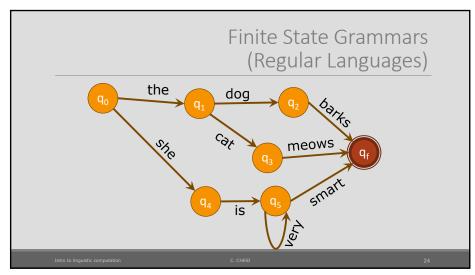
Decidability  $\odot$  A set  $\Sigma$  is considered • decidable (or recursive) if for any element e, belonging to the universe set, there is a mechanical procedure that in a finite set of steps terminates by saying if  $e \in \text{or} \not\in \text{to } \Sigma$ (not belonging to  $\Sigma$  implies that e belongs to the complement of  $\Sigma$  defined as  $\overline{\Sigma}$ ) • Recursively enumerable when a procedure exists that enumerates all and only the elements of Σ





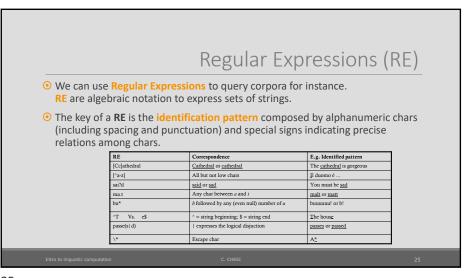






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RG, FSA and RE equivalence

Regular Grammars (RG), Finite State Automata (FSA) and Regular Expressions (RE) are equivalent, i.e. they describe the very same set of languages: Regular Languages.

Proof by construction

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Eliza uses regular expressions!

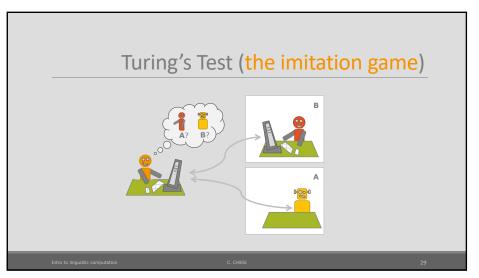
ORE and Substitution

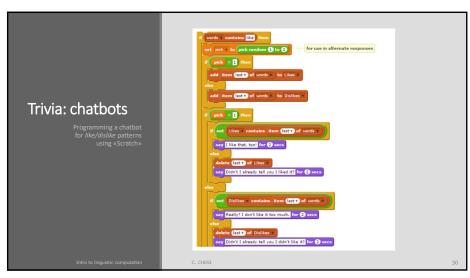
S/Regular\_Expression\_1/Regular\_Expression\_2/
S/www\.[a-2]\*\.com/www\.wow\.it/

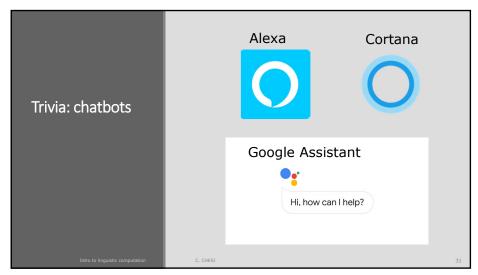
Registers: using block operators (round brackets indicates a block), we can reuse a matched pattern:
S/ the (house [car] has been bought by (Mary John)/ \2 bought the \1 /

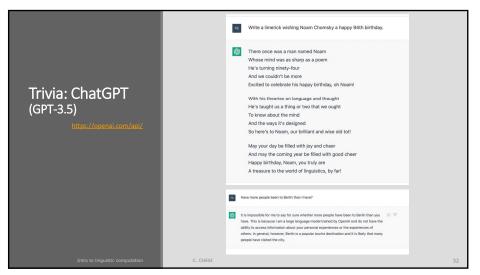
Substitutions by ELIZA:
S/ I'm [.\* ?](depressed [sad])/I'm sorry to hear that you are \1/
S/ everybody is (.\*) / in which sense they are \1?/
S/ always / can you make a specific example?

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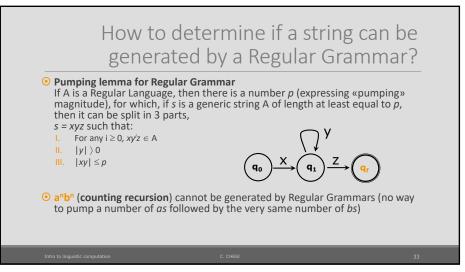








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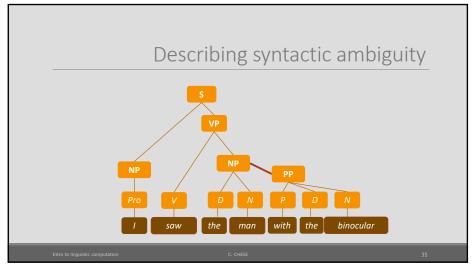


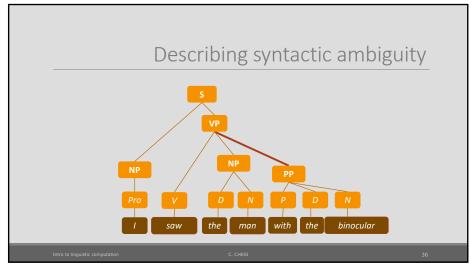
Context-Free Grammars

• Context-Free Grammars (CFG) admits only this kind of rules:  $A \to \gamma \qquad \text{(where } \gamma \text{ is any sequence of (non)terminal symbols)}$ Languages generated by CFG are named Context-Free Languages

• Any CFG can be «converted» in a (weakly) equivalent CFG in the Chomsky Normal Form (CNF):  $A \to BC$   $A \to BC$   $A \to a$ 

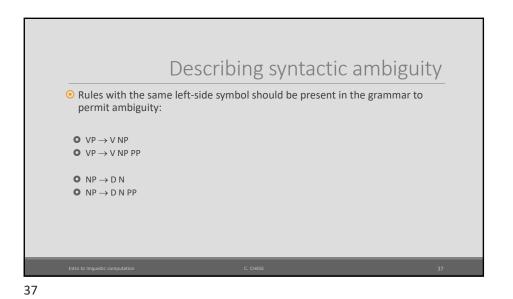
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Push-Down Automata (PDA) is a finite state automata endowed with a memory stack; PDAs are defined by 6-tuples  $<\mathbf{Q}$ ,  $\mathbf{\Sigma}$ ,  $\mathbf{q}_0$ ,  $\mathbf{F}$ ,  $\mathbf{\delta}$ ,  $\mathbf{\Gamma}$ > where:  $\mathbf{Q} = \text{finite and non-null set of states}$   $\mathbf{\Sigma} = \text{finite and non-null set of characters accepted as input (alphabet)}$   $\mathbf{q}_0 = \text{initial state}(\mathbf{s}), \text{ such that } \mathbf{q}_0 \in \mathbf{Q}$   $\mathbf{F} = \text{finial states}(\mathbf{s}), \text{ such that } \mathbf{F} \in \mathbf{Q}$   $\mathbf{\delta} = \text{finite and non-null set of transitional rules defined from } \mathbf{Q} \times \mathbf{\Sigma} \times \mathbf{\Gamma} \text{ to } \mathbf{Q} \times \mathbf{\Gamma}$   $\mathbf{\Gamma} = \text{finite and non-null set of characters that can be stored in memory } (\mathbf{\Gamma} \text{ can have the same symbols as } \mathbf{\Sigma})$ 

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PDA can parse mirror recursion

O XXR

Push(a)

Q = {q<sub>0</sub>, q<sub>1</sub>, q<sub>2</sub>, q<sub>3</sub>, q<sub>4</sub>},

O  $\Sigma / \Gamma = \{a, b, \varepsilon\}$ ,

O  $Q_0 = \{q_0\}$ ,

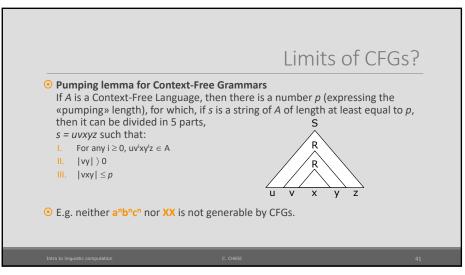
O  $Q_0 = \{$ 

• Context-Free Grammars (CFG), and Push-Down Automata (PDA) are equivalent (i.e. they describe the very same set of languages: the Context-Free Languages).

«Demonstration» by construction:

1. For any S rule, create a PDA  $q_0$  rule such that:  $(q_0, \varepsilon, \varepsilon) \rightarrow (q_1, \varepsilon)$ 2. For any other CFG rule such that  $A \rightarrow x$ , create PDA rules such that:  $(q_1, \varepsilon, A) \rightarrow (q_1, x)$ 3. For any symbol  $a: a \in V_T$ , create PDA rules such that:  $(q_1, a, a) \rightarrow (q_1, \varepsilon)$ 

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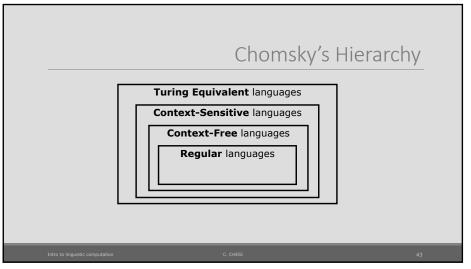


Inclusion relations among Grammars

• Chomsky's Hierarchy (1956, 59):

Type 3: Regular Grammars (equivalent device: Finite State Automata)  $A \to xB$ Type 2: Context Free Grammars (equivalent device: Push-Down Automata)  $A \to \gamma$ Type 1: Context Sensitive Grammars (e.g.: Linear-Bounded Automata)  $\alpha A\beta \to \alpha \gamma\beta \quad (\gamma \neq \epsilon)$ Type 0: Turing Equivalent Grammars (e.g. Augmented Transition Networks)  $\alpha \to \beta \qquad (\alpha \neq \epsilon)$ 

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• Natural languages are NOT generable by Regular Grammars (Chomsky 1956):

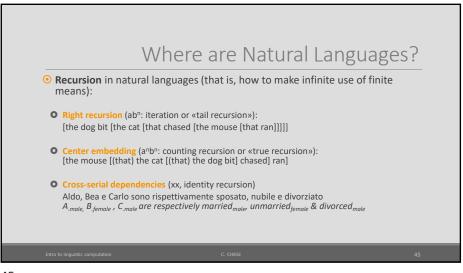
If X then Y (with A and B potenzially of the form "if X then Y", genereting then a counting dependency of the a" b" kind, that is: if" then")

• Natural languages are NOT even generable by Context-Free Grammars (Shieber 1985):

Jan säit das mer em Hans es huus hälfed aastriiche
("famous" Swiss-German dialect)
J. says that we to H. The house have helped painting

Gianni, Luisa e Mario sono rispettivamente sposato, divorziata e scapolo
("ABC...ABC"... Are languages of the XX kind)

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Where are Natural Languages?

Type 0 languages

Context-Sensitive languages

Mildly Context-Sensitive languages

Context-Free languages

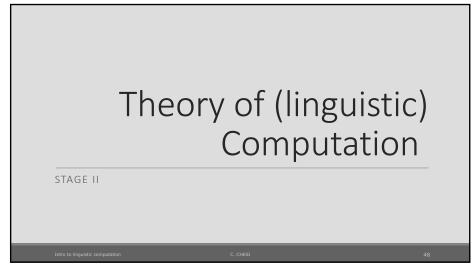
Regular languages

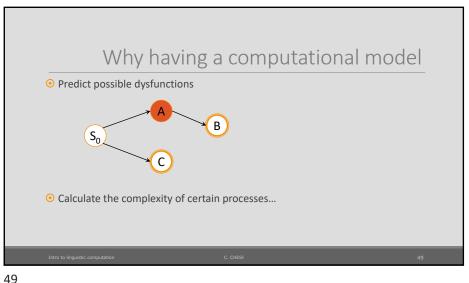
Natural
Languages

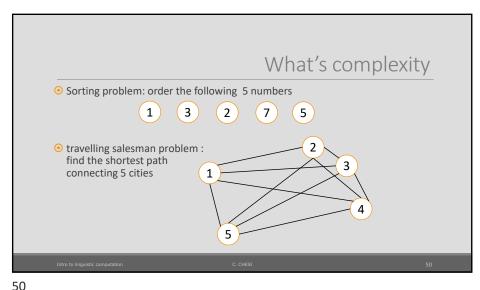
Regular languages

Natural
Languages



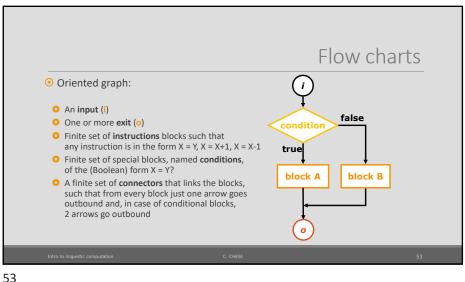






What's computable • (informally speaking) a computation is a relation between an input and an output. This relation can be defined by various algorithms: a series of computational states and transitions among them until the final state is reached. A computation attempts at reaching the final state through legal steps admitted by the computational model (problem space = set of all possible states the computation can reach). • Turing-Church thesis (simplified) every computation realized by a physical device can be realized by means of an algorithm; if the physical device completes the computation in n steps, the algorithm will take m steps, with m differing from n by, at worst, a polynomial. • Some algorithm might take too much time to find a solution (e.g. years or even centuries); other algorithms can not even terminate!

Turing Machine • Infinite tape subdivided in cells • alphabet A (e.g. A ={0, 1}) • cursor C (that can move right and left, and can read, delete or write a character) • Finite set of states  $Q = (q_0, q_1 ... q_n)$ • Finite input I constituted by a sequence of characters of A • Finite set of **states S** described as 5-tuples  $\langle q_i abv q_i \rangle$  such that  $q_i$ ,  $q_i \in Q$ ; a,  $b \in A$ ;  $v = \{\text{right, left}\}$ 

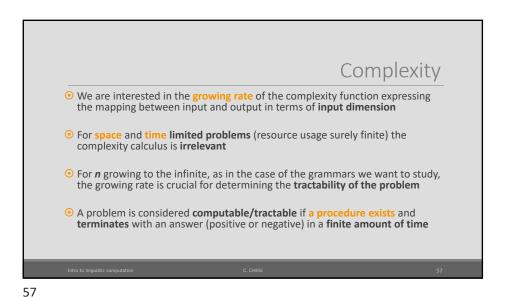


Modularity • Turing Machines and flow charts are equivalent: they express the very same class of function (computable functions) • Both formalisms guarantee compositionality (M1 • M2). • Hence: "divide et impera" is a programming paradigm that suggests decoupling a problem in smaller sub-problems for which a solution would be easier to be found.

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Complexity • Directly proportional to the **resource usage**: O Time (time complexity): number of elementary steps needed • Memory (space complexity): quantity of information to be stored at each step Complexity is directly proportional to the problem dimension (e.g. ordering 1000 words will be more complex that ordering 10 words); • Grammar complexity should be related to its generative power.

Complexity • The problem dimension is expressed in terms of input length to be processed • The order of complexity should be expressed in terms of input length, e.g.: • c·n² (example of polynomial time problem complexity) on = input length • c = constant data (depending on the kind of computation)  $\odot$  In this case we will say that the complexity order of the problem is  $n^2$  since the c constant will be irrelevant with respect to n growing to the infinite. Such complexity order is defined as:  $O(n^2)$ .



• A problem with **exponential time complexity** (e.g.  $O(2^N)$ ) will be hardly computable in a reasonable amount of time. To have an idea, assume a device able to deal with 1 million steps per **second**, there the calculation for specific input given specific complexity function: Complexity 100 0.0004 sec. 0.0025 sec. 0.01 sec. second 0.1 sec. 3.2 sec. 5 min. e 2 sec. 2 hours and 8 min 0.001 sec. 400 trillions of 1 sec. 35 year e 7 months 3,6 sec. about 771 A number of A number of centuries with 48 centuries with 148 centuries digits 2 hours and More than 3 A number of A number of trillions of years centuries with 75 centuries with 185 digits digits

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Oamplexity of classic problems
 OasaT problem (satisfability problem or SAT) find a value assignment for all propositional letters satisfying the formula below:
 (a ∨ ¬b ∨ c) ∧ (¬a ∨ b ∨ ¬c) ∧ (a ∨ b ∨ c) ∧ ...
 On the worst case, all possible assignments must be evaluated, that is 2<sup>N</sup> (where 2 are the possible assignment values, True and False, and N is the number of propositionals a, b, c...).
 O The problem has an exponential time growth complexity function, but, once solved, can be readily proved: hard to solve, easy to verify!

Complexity of classic problems
 Quantified Boolean Formula (QBF) problem find a value assignment for all propositional letters satisfying the formula below:

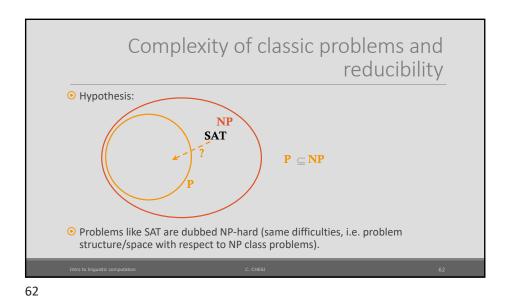
 Qx<sub>1</sub>, Qx<sub>2</sub>... Qx<sub>n</sub> F(x<sub>1</sub>, x<sub>2</sub>... x<sub>n</sub>)
 (with Q = ∃ or ∀)

 The problem is hard to be solved, as 3SAT, but also hard to be verified: the 3SAT problem is a special case of QBF where all Q are existential
 The universal quantification requires any assignment of values to be verified.

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# Complexity of classic problems and reducibility If a computer effectively solve a problem like 3SAT, it will use an algorithm that is, at worst, polynomial. Because of the problem structure/space, such algorithm should be necessarily non-deterministic. We call the complexity of this king of problems NP (Non-deterministic Polynomial time) Problem with complexity P are deterministic and polynomial. Problems with an order P of complexity are (probably) included in problems with a NP complexity order (no proof of reducibility from NP to P exists... yet).



What's Parsing
 Given a Grammar G and an input i, parsing i means applying a function p(G, i) able to:
 Accept/Reject i
 Assign to i an adequate descriptive structure (e.g. syntactic tree)

Universal Recognition Problem (URP) and reduction
 Universal Recognition Problem (URP)
 Given a Grammar G (in any grammatical framework) and a string x, x belongs to the language generable by G?
 Reduction
 is there any efficient mapping from this problem to a another well know problem for which we can easily evaluate the complexity?
 YES... SAT problem!

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## Universal Recognition Problem (URP) and reduction Ourp is a generalized parsing problem that can be reduced to SAT in its core critical structure In a nutshell: a string x, as a propositional a in a SAT formula, can receive an ambiguous value assignment (for instance "vecchia" in Italian can both be a noun and an adjectival, while a can be true or false). We then need to keep the assignment coherent in x (to evaluate the correctness of the final outcome) as in a SAT formula. We conclude that URP is at least as complex as SAT, that is, NP-hard!

Chomsky's hierarchy and complexity

Type 0 languages

Context-Sensitive languages

Mildly Context-Sensitive languages

Context-Free languages

Natural languages

Natural languages

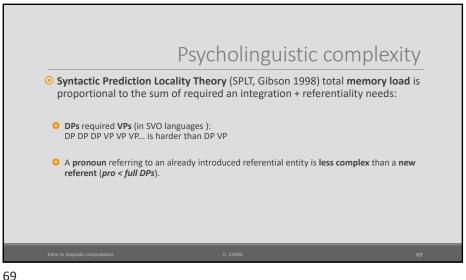
Natural languages

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### Psycholinguistic complexity Complexity = difficulty in processing a sentence Hypothesis 1: formal complexity = psycholinguistic complexity Hypothesis 2: limited processing memory On the one hand, memory buffer capacity could be sufficient to store only N structures; On the other, using the memory for storing similar incomplete structures might create confusion.

Psycholinguistic complexity
 Hypothesis 1
 processing non context-free structures causes major difficulties
 (Pullum & Gazdar 1982)
 Hypothesis 2
 Limited-size Stack (Yngve 1960)
 linguistic processing uses a stack to store partial analyses.
 The more partial phrases are stored in the stack, the harder the processing will be.

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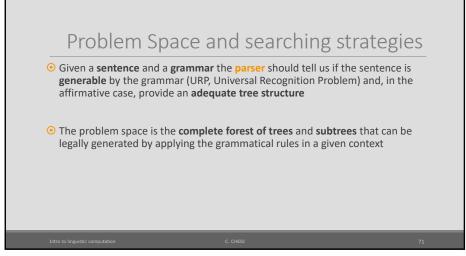


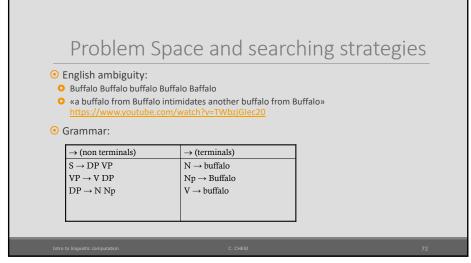
Grammar and Parsing

Grammars (generally) are declarative devices that does not specify algorithmically how an input must be analyzed.

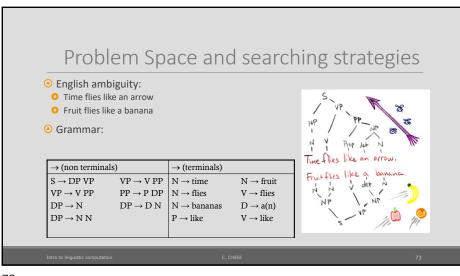
non-determinism (multiple options all equally suitable in a given context) and recursion are critical in parsing: not all rules lead to a grammatical treestructure in the end... And sometimes some algorithm could not even terminate!

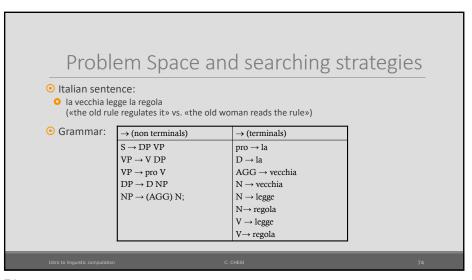
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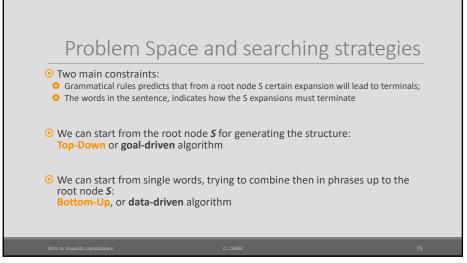




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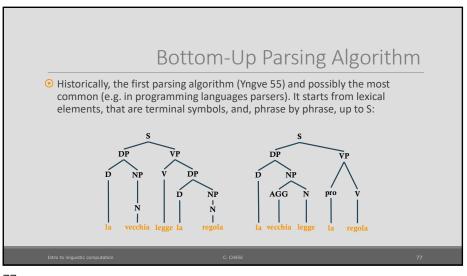


Top-Down Parsing Algorithm

• A simple (blind) top-down algorithm explores all possible expansion of S offered by the grammar (assuming parallel expansions affects memory usage).

• Notice that "la regola regola la regola", "la legge legge la vecchia legge"... will be plausible analysis proposed by the Top-Down algorithm.

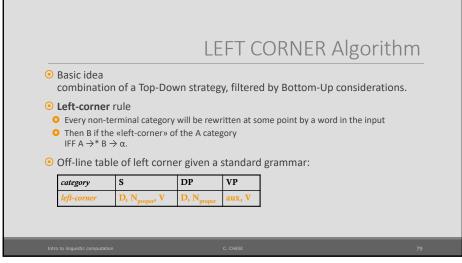
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Top-Down strategy doesn't loose time generating ungrammatical trees, but it generates sentences without considering the input till the end.
 Bottom-Up strategy, will be locally consistent with the input, but it will generate ungrammatical phrases unable to be rejoined under the root node S.
 Both blind strategies are complete, then roughly equivalent, but:

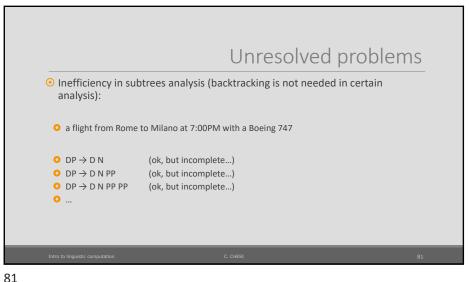
 Consider starting from the side with the most precise (unambiguous) information
 Explore the tree trying to be guided by the smallest possible ramification factor.

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Unresolved problems
 Left-recursion
 A →\* Aα (es. DP → DP PP) how do we stop?
 Ambiguity
 PP attachment (I saw a man with the binocular)
 coordination («papaveri e paperi rossi», red poppies and ducks)
 exponential growth of alternatives (Church e Patil 82) with respect to the number of PPs (3 PPs up to 5 possible analyses, 6 PPs up to 469 possible analyses... 8 PPs ... 4867 possible analyses!).

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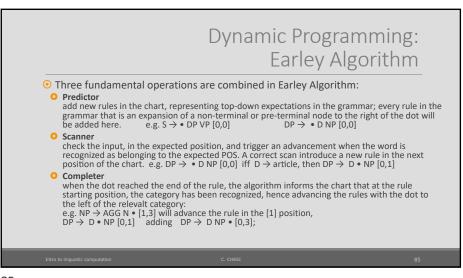


Dynamic Programming • Dynamic programming reuses useful analyses by storing them in tables (or charts). • Once **sub-problems** are resolved (sub-trees in parsing), a global solution is attempted by merging partial solutions together.

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#### Dynamic Programming: Earley Algorithm • Earley Algorithm (Earley 1970) is a classic example of Top-Down, Parallel, Complete dynamic programming approach. • The problem complexity (remember that generalized parsing is NP-hard) is reduced to Polynomial complexity. In the worst case: $O(n^3)$ . • One input pass, from left-to-right, partial analyses are stored in chart with n+1 entries, with *n* equals to the input length .

Dynamic Programming: Earley Algorithm • Each **chart** entry will include three levels of information: • A **subtree** corresponding to one single grammatical rule • the progress in the completion of the rule (we use a dot • indicating the processing step, the rule is then dubbed "dotted rule") • the position of the subtree with respect to the **input position** (two numbers indicating where the rule began and where the rule is applied now: e.g.  $DP \rightarrow D \cdot NP[0,1]$  the rule started at the beginning of the input (position 0) and it is waiting between the first and the second word (position 1))



Some consideration on efficiency and plausibility
 A grammar can avoid considering space/time limits while focusing only on descriptive adequacy;
 the parser should take into consideration such limits. It happens that one grammar can be used by different parsing algorithms.
 The adequacy of the parser can be a matter of computational performance or psycholinguistic plausibility:
 token transparency (Miller e Chomsky 63) or strict isomorphism (is the null hypothesis) the parser implements exactly the derivation suggested by the grammar.
 type transparency (Bresnan 78) suggests that, overall, the parsers implements different derivations with respect to the grammar, but overall, the same phenomena (e.g. passive constructions) are processed, globally, in a coherent way.

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#### Some consideration on efficiency and plausibility • covering grammars (Berwick e Weinberg 83, 84) parser and grammar must cover the same phenomena. But the parser should be psycholinguistically plausible or computationally efficient then implementing derivations that are not included in the grammar.

Minimal(ist) derivation, memory & intervention

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O Stabler's (1997) formalization of a Minimalist Grammar, MG (Chomsky 1995) as a 4-tuple (V, Cat, Lex, F) such that:

V is a finite set of non-syntactic features, (P ∪ I) where

P are phonetic features and I are semantic ones;

Cat is a finite set of syntactic features,

Cat = (base ∪ select ∪ licensors ∪ licensees) where

base are standard categories {comp, tense, verb, noun ...},

select specify a selection requirement {=x | x base}

licensees force phrasal movement {−wh, −case ...},

licensors satisfy licensee requirements {+wh, +case ...}

Lex is a finite set of expressions built from V and Cat (the lexicon);

F is a set of two partial functions from tuples of expressions to expressions : {merge, move};

 $\label{eq:main_substitute} \begin{aligned} & \textbf{Minimalist Grammars} \\ & \textbf{V} = & P = \{ \text{/what/, /did/, /you/, /see/}\}, \\ & I = \{ [\text{what}], [\text{did}], [\text{you}], [\text{see}] \} \\ & \textbf{Cat} = & base = \{ \textbf{D}, \textbf{N}, \textbf{V}, \textbf{T}, \textbf{C} \} \\ & select = \{ -\textbf{D}, -\textbf{N}, -\textbf{V}, -\textbf{T}, -\textbf{C} \} \\ & licensors = \{ +wh \} \\ & licensees = \{ -wh \} \\ & \textbf{Lex} = & \{ [-\text{wh D what}], [=\textbf{V} \, \textbf{T} \, \text{did}], [\textbf{D} \, \text{you}], [=\textbf{D} \, = \textbf{D} \, \textbf{V} \, \text{see}], \\ & [=\textbf{T} + \text{wh C} \, \varnothing] \} \\ & \textbf{F} = & \{ merge, move \} \, \text{such that:} \\ & merge \, ([=\textbf{F} \, \textbf{X}], [\textbf{F} \, \textbf{Y}]) = [\textbf{x}, \textbf{X} \, \textbf{Y}], \\ & \text{("simple merge" on the right, "complex merge" on the left)} \\ & move \, ([+\textbf{g} \, \textbf{X}], [\textbf{W} \, [-\textbf{g} \, \textbf{Y}]]) = [[\textbf{x}, \textbf{Y} \, \textbf{X}] \, \textbf{W}, \, t_{y}] \end{aligned}$ 

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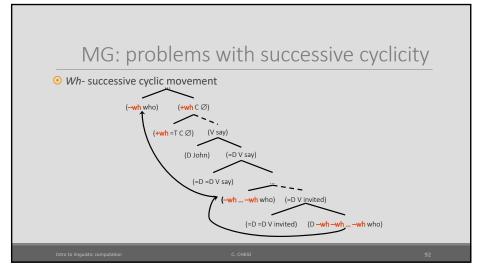
1. merge ([=D = D V see], [-wh D what]) → [see] = D V see, -wh what]
2. merge ([D you], [=D V see, -wh what]) → [see] you, [see] V see, -wh what]]
3. merge ([=V T did], [see] vou, [see] v see, -wh what]]] → ([dig T did, [see] you, [see] see, -wh what]]]] → ([c + wh C Ø), [did did, [see] you, [see] see, -wh what]]]]) → ([c + wh C Ø), [did did, [see] you, [see] see, -wh what]]]]) → ([c + wh C Ø), [did did, [see] you, [see] see, -wh what]]]]]) → ([c What C Ø), [did did, [see] you, [see] see, -wh what]]]]]]

[C Ø]

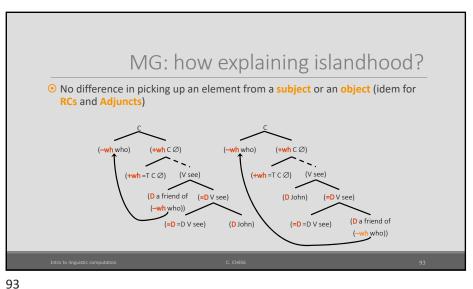
[=V T did] [V see]

[D you] [=D V see] [-wh D what]

[=D = D V see] [-wh D what]



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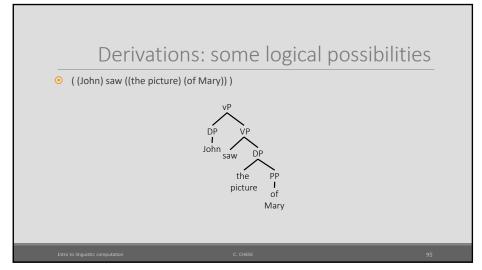


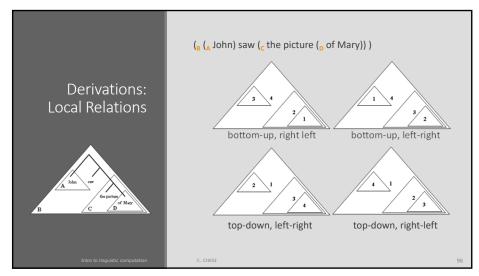
Provided in the computational system takes representations of a given format and modifies them" (Chomsky 1993:6)

The order of Structure Building Operation is abstract with "no temporal interpretation implied" (Chomsky 1995:380)

Perivation by Phase (Chomsky 2005-08): a phase is a Syntactic Object built assuming Structure Building Operations (Merge and Move) over a finite set of Lexical Item (Lexical Array, aka Numeration) CP and vP are phases (maybe DP)

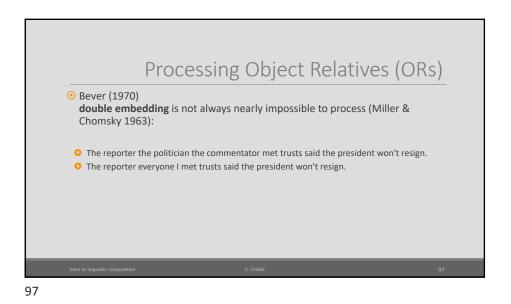
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Processing Object Relatives (ORs)

• Gordon, Hendrick & Johnson (2001)
working memory request is evaluated by studying reading time (RT) and comprehension accuracy in self-paced reading experiments comparing critical regions of various kinds of Relative Clauses:

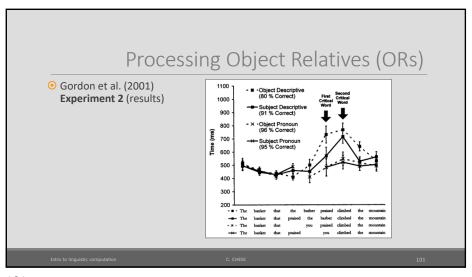
• Experiment 1 (materials): SRs (a) and ORs (b)
• The banker [that \_ praised the barber ] climbed the mountain
• The banker [that the barber praised \_ ] climbed the mountain

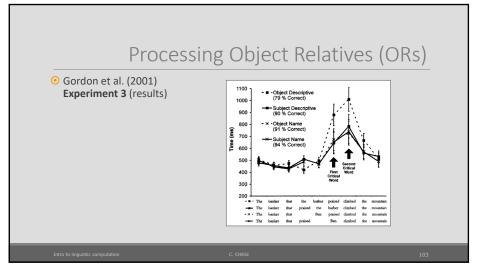
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Processing Object Relatives (ORs)
 Gordon et al. (2001) - Experiment 2 complexity can be mitigated by varying the RC Subject typology (reading time (RT) and comprehension accuracy in self-paced reading experiments are tested, as before):
 Experiment 2 (materials): DP (a) vs. Pro (b)
 The banker [that the barber praised \_ ] climbed the mountain
 The banker [that you praised \_ ] climbed the mountain

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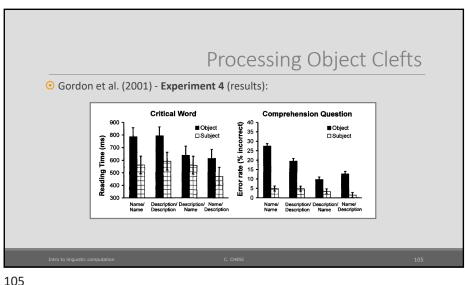




Processing Object Clefts

Gordon et al. (2001) - Experiment 4 (materials):
Subject vs. Object Clefts X DP vs. proper names

It was the banker that the lawyer saw in the parking lot that Bill saw in the parking lot that the lawyer saw in the parking lot that the lawyer saw in the parking lot saw in the parking lot saw in the parking lot saw in the parking lot

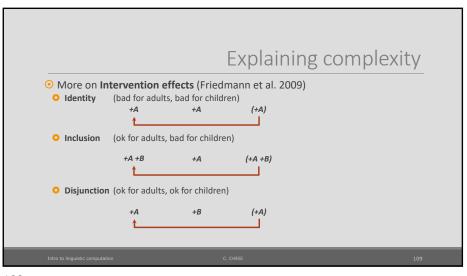


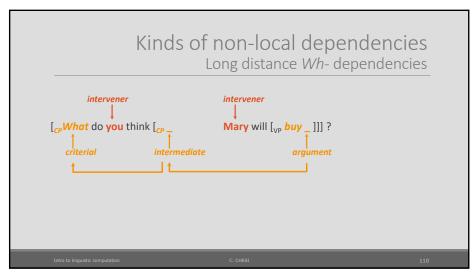
Explaining complexity • Role-determinant accounts (MacWhinney & Pleh 1988) O Double role for the RC head: **subject** in the matrix sentence, **object** in the RC: The banker [that the barber praised ] climbed the mountain (OR) • Memory-load accounts (Ford 1983, MacWhinney 1987, Wanner & Maratsos 1978) • The RC head must be **kept in memory longer** in OR before being integrated: The banker [that praised the barber] climbed ... (SR) The banker [that the barber praised \_ ] climbed ... (OR)

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Explaining complexity • Linguistic Integration Cost (Gibson 1998:12-13) O Processing difficulty is proportional to the distance expressed in terms of number of intervening discourse referents, following a "referentiality hierarchy": descriptions > (short) names > referential pronouns > indexical pronouns • Similarity based accounts (Gordon et al. 2001) O Having two DPs of the same kind stored in memory makes the OR more complex than SR. This models memory interference during encoding, storage and retrieval (Crowder 1976)

Explaining complexity • More on **Similarity based accounts** (Gordon et al. 2001) O It might be able to explain why SR vs. OR asymmetry disappears with RC subject pro/proper names (those DPs are legal heads only for clefts) Intervention effects (Grillo 2008, Friedmann et al. 2009, Rizzi 1990) O Processing difficulty is proportional to the number and kind of relevant features shared between the moved item and any possible intervener:



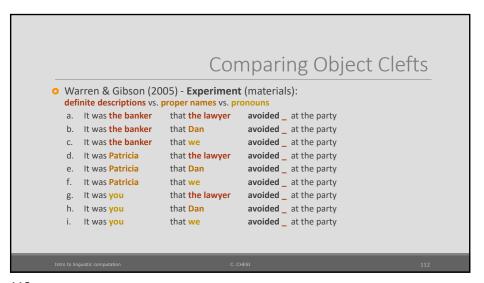


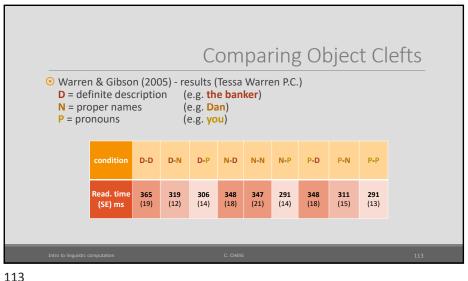
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Kinds of non-local dependencies
Object Clefts

In Object Clefts (OCs), the copula selects a truncated CP
(Belletti 2008):

It is [Focp an ice cream that [TP Mary will buy _]]

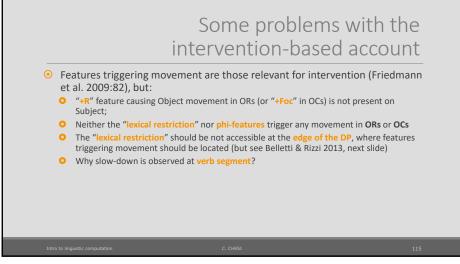
... BE [CP Force [Focp ... [Finp that [TP Subject ... Object]]]]
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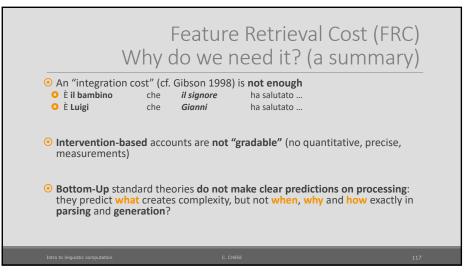


Predicting reading times (rt) with intervention-based accounts • Assuming that **Definite Description** = {+NP, N}, **Proper Names** = {+NP, NProper}, pro = {} (Belletti & Rizzi 2013), Intervention effects are predicted to be stronger in matching **D-D** and **N-N** condition (against memory-load accounts), while P-P is expected not to be critical (because of the +NP absence): 291 (19) (12) (14) (18) (21) (SE) ms (14) (15) (13) easy

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Some problems with the intervention-based account Belletti & Rizzi 2013: • Evidence that lexically restricted wh-items occupy different positions in the left periphery (Munaro 1999): a. Con che tosat à-tu parlà? with which boy did you speak? b. Avé-o parlà de chi? Have you spoken of whom?

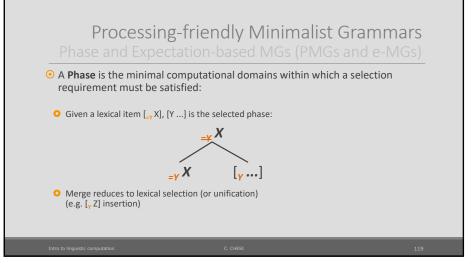


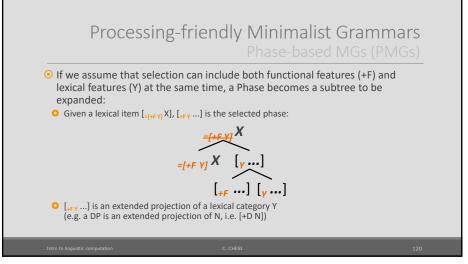
Processing-friendly Minimalist Grammars
Phase and Expectation-based MGs (PMGs and e-MGs)

O Common restriction on Merge:
O Given two lexical items [\_x X] and [\_y Z] such that X selects Z, then:

O [\_x X] is processed before Y
O When [\_x X] is processed, an expectation for [\_y ...] is created

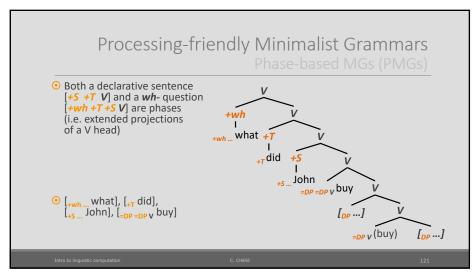
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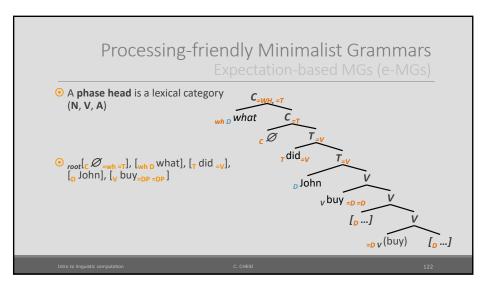


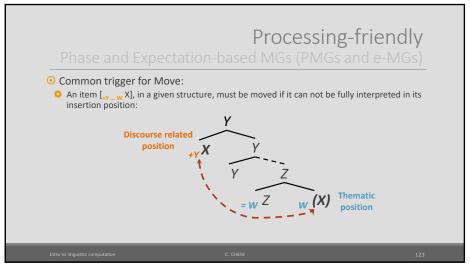


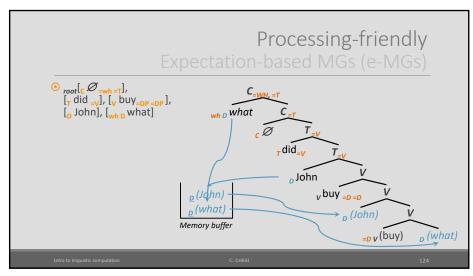
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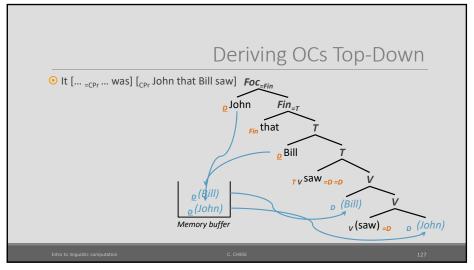
## Processing-friendly Phase-based Minimalist Grammar The derivation unfolds Top-Down and (as a consequence) Left-Right Unexpected features trigger movement Phases restrict the domain in which a non-local dependency must be satisfied Last-In-First-Out memory buffer, as a first approximation, is used to store and retrieve items for non-local dependencies (memory buffer must be empty at the end of the derivation) The order in which phases are expanded makes a difference: the last selected phase has a special status (sequential phase) while phases that are not the last selected ones (e.g. phases that results from expansion of functional features) qualifies as nested phases (Bianchi & Chesi 2006)

Deriving OCs Top-Down

In Object Clefts (OCs), the copula selects a truncated CP (Belletti 2008):

BE [CP Force [FocP ... [FinP che [TP Subject ... Object]]]]

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• Interference is the major constraint on accessing information in memory (Anderson & Neely 1996; Crowder 1976; see Nairne 2002 for a review).

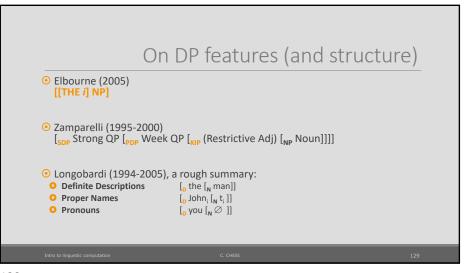
• the locus of the interference effect is at retrieval, with little or no effect on memory encoding or storage (Dillon & Bittner 1975; Gardiner et al. 1972; Tehan & Humphreys 1996)

• Content-adressable memory (e.g. memory load paradigm, Van Dyke & McElree 2006), no exhaustive search, no delay

• Search of Associative Memory (SAM) model (Gillund & Shiffrin 1984)  $P(I_i|Q_I, ..., Q_n) = \frac{\prod_{j=1}^{m} S(Q_j, I_k)^{W_j}}{\sum_{k=1}^{M} \prod_{j=1}^{m} S(Q_j, I_k)^{W_j}}$ 

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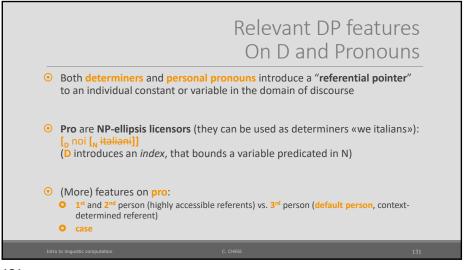
Relevant DP features
Definite Descriptions & Proper Names

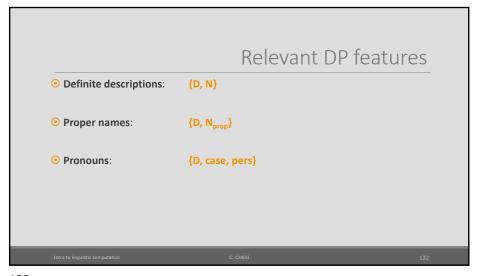
• Both proper names and common nouns have category N

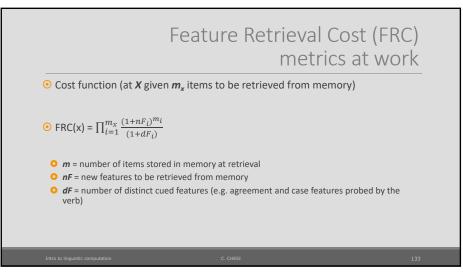
\*\*N in situ (common nouns)
Il mio Gianni (Il mio amico)
La sola Maria (la sola amica)

\*\*mio Gianni
Maria sola (\*l'amica sola)

• Two different kinds of N: N proper, N (common)

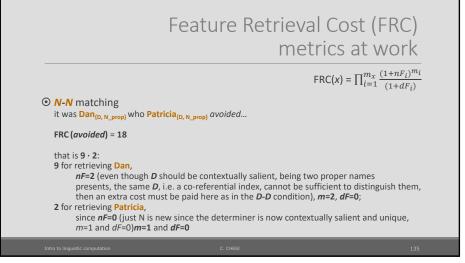


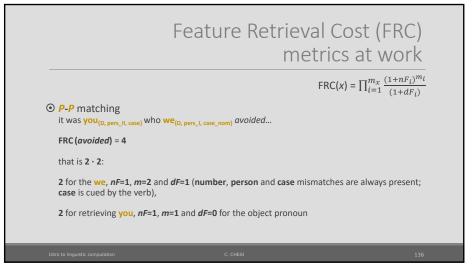




Feature Retrieval Cost (FRC) metrics at work  $FRC(x) = \prod_{i=1}^{m_x} \frac{(1+nF_i)^{m_i}}{(1+dF_i)}$ © D-D matching it was the lawyer<sub>(D, N)</sub> who the businessman<sub>(D, N)</sub> avoided... FRC(avoided) = 27that is  $9 \cdot 3$ :
9 for retrieving the businessman, since nF=2 (D and N count as one), m=2 because two DPs are in memory at this time, and dF=0 because no feature is cued by the verb distinguishing one DP from the other;
3 for retrieving the lawyer, since nF=2 (D and N are new now), m=1 and dF=0

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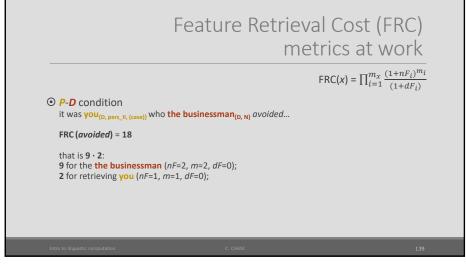
# Feature Retrieval Cost (FRC) metrics at work $FRC(x) = \prod_{i=1}^{m_x} \frac{(1+nF_i)^{m_i}}{(1+dF_i)}$ • D-N matching it was the lawyer<sub>[D, N]</sub> who Patricia<sub>(D, N\_prop)</sub> avoided... FRC (avoided) = 12that is $4 \cdot 3$ : 4 for Patricia, nF=1, that is N, since D is contextually salient, m=2, dF=0, 3 for retrieving the lawyer (nF=2, m=1, nF=0)

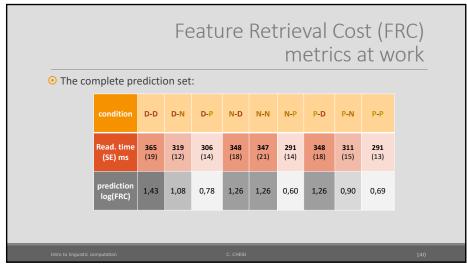
Feature Retrieval Cost (FRC) metrics at work  $FRC(x) = \prod_{i=1}^{m_x} \frac{(1+nF_i)^{m_i}}{(1+dF_i)}$ • D-P condition it was the lawyer<sub>{0, N}</sub> who we<sub>{0, pers\_1, case\_nom}</sub> avoided...

FRC (avoided) = 6

that is 2 · 3:
2 for retrieving we (nF=1 even if deictic pronouns are contextually salient, the correct person must be retrieved, m=2, dF=1 since a distinct case on pronouns is cued by the verb),
3 for retrieving the lawyer (nF=2, m=1, nF=0)

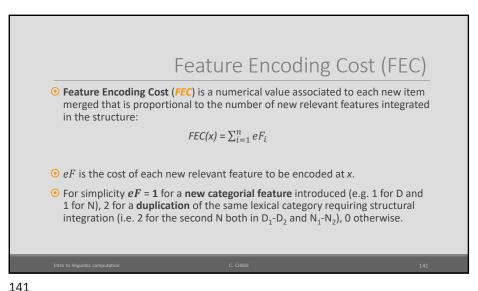
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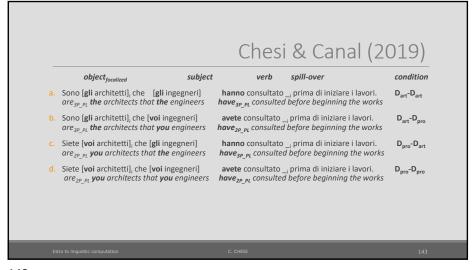
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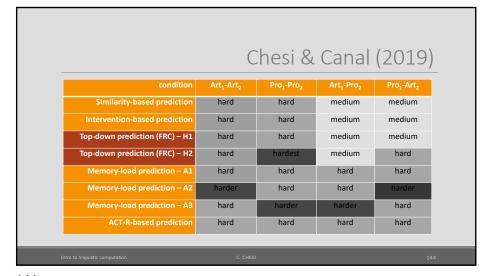
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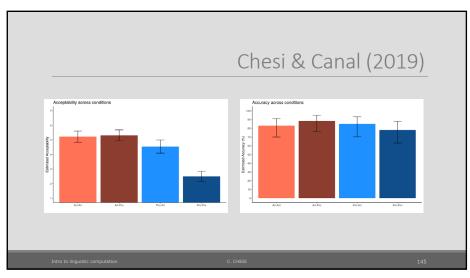
Feature Encoding Cost (FEC) subject verh spill-over object focalized a. It was (1) the banker (2) that (1) the lawyer (3) avoided \_ (2) at the party (3)  $[D_1-D_2]$ avoided \_ (2) at the party (3)  $[D_1-N_2]$ b. It was (1) the banker (2) that (1) Dan (1) c. It was (1) the banker (2) that (1) we (0) avoided \_ (2) at the party (3)  $[D_1-P_2]$ avoided \_ (2) at the party (3)  $[N_1-D_2]$ d. It was (1) Patricia (1) that (1) the lawyer (2) e. It was (1) Patricia (1) that (1) Dan (2) avoided \_ (2) at the party (3)  $[N_1-N_2]$ f. It was (1) Patricia (1) avoided \_ (2) at the party (3)  $[N_1-P_2]$ that (1) we (0) avoided \_ (2) at the party (3)  $[P_1-D_2]$ g. It was (1) you (0) that (1) the lawyer (2) avoided \_ (2) at the party (3)  $[P_1-N_2]$ h. It was (1) you (0) that (1) Dan (1) i. It was (1) you (0) avoided (2) at the party (3)  $[P_1-P_2]$ that (1) we (0)

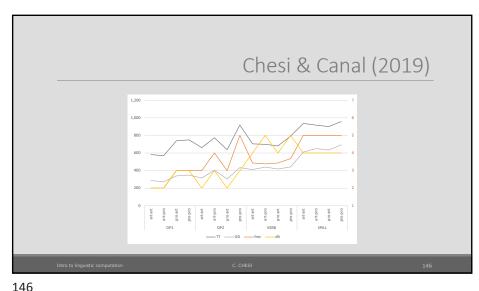
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We rephrased the intervention-based idea (Friedmann et al. 2009) in Top-Down terms, trying to reconcile the formal account of intervention (what) with processing evidence (when and how)
 What permits to express the exact complexity cost is a Top-down (that in the end produce a left-right) derivation (this way the model fitting can be directly compared with other complexity metrics, e.g. SPLT, Gibson 1998)
 The special role of intervention has been expressed in terms of interference at retrieval (e.g. Van Dyke & McElree 2006)

Further development

• Feature structures (and actual cues) need to be further refined (other features, e.g. animacy, Kidd et al. 2007, and semantic selection, Gordon et al. 2004, should be considered)

• The counterintuitive idea that Subject "is harder" to retrieve than Object in ORs should receive experimental support

• Is it a purely privative system (+/- F) enough?

• Doing away with LIFO structure which is computationally OK, but psycholinguistically odd (cf. content-adressable memory).

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