

1


2


3

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
- Chesi C. (2015) II processamento in tempo reale delle frasi 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. AddisonWesley. Boston
© Stabler, E. 1997. Derivational minimalism. in Retoré, ed. Logical Aspects of Computational Linguistics. Springer
© Sprouse, J., Wagers, M., \& Phillips, C. (2012). Working-memory capacity and island effects: A reminder of the issues and the facts. Language, 88


## Formal grammars

STAGE I

5

## Linguistic Competence

## - What to include:

- Word order > meaning
e.g. I saw a man in the park with a binocular

O Agreement
e.g. *la mela rosso (lit. the fem $^{\text {red }}{ }_{\text {fem }}$ apple ${ }_{\text {mas }}$ ) Gianni ha visto Maria vs. Gianni l'ha vista

- Non-local dependenccies (pronominal binding, syntactic movement) cosa credi che Maria abbia chiesto a Luigi di comprare _i?
(what d o $_{i}$ you think (that) M. asked to L. to buy ${ }_{-i}$ ?)
Gianni ${ }^{\text {p }}$ promette a Maria $\mathrm{di}_{-i / \% j}$ andare a trovarla ${ }_{j}$
Gianni, $^{2}$ chiede a Maria di $_{-*_{i / j}}$ andare a trovarla ${ }_{* / k}$
$\mathrm{G}_{\mathrm{i}}$ promises/asks to M.

[^0]c. CHESI

## Linguistic Competence

## - What kind of competence (information structure) do we have?

O 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)

6

## 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

O Explicative: the grammar is learnable and it permits to draw conclusions on what's more or less difficult to be processed.

## Basic formal notions

## - Finite sets definition: <br> $A=\{a, b, c\}$

© Infinite (inductive) set definition: $A=\{x: x$ has a propriety $p\}$

- Ordered sets ( $n$-tuples):

$$
A=(a, b, c)
$$

© Cardinality:
$|A|=$ number of items of

- Cartesian product:
$A=\{a, b, c\}$ $B=\{x, y\}$
$A X B=\{(a, x),(b, x),(c, x),(a, y),(b, y),(c, y)\}$
$A \cup B=\{x: x \in A \quad$ or $\quad x \in B\}$
$A^{\circ} B=\{x y: x \in A$ and $y \in B\}$
- Concatenation:
$A^{*}=\left\{x_{1} x_{2} \ldots x_{n}: n \geq 0\right.$ for any $\left.x_{i} \in A\right\}$


10


11


12

## How to formalize a grammar

- $\mathbf{A}=$ Alphabet

Finite set of chars ( $A^{*}=$ the set of all possible strings built concatenating elements of $A ; \varepsilon$ is
the null element)

- $\mathbf{V}=$ Vocabulary
(potentially in)finite set of words, built concatenating elements of A ( $V \subseteq A^{*}$ )

○ $\mathbf{L}=$ Language
(potentially in)finite set of sentences, built concatenating elements of V $\left(\mathrm{L} \subseteq \mathrm{V}^{*}\right)$

## 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)


## How to formalize a grammar

© Phrase Structure Grammar, PSG (Chomsky 1965) is an ordered 4-tuple $\left(\mathbf{V}_{\mathrm{T}}, \mathbf{V}_{\mathbf{N}}, \rightarrow,\{\mathbf{S}\}\right)$ :
$\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{T}}$ is the terminal vocabulary
$\mathbf{V}_{\mathrm{N}}$ is the non-terminal vocabulary $\left(\mathbf{V}_{\mathrm{T}} \cup \mathbf{V}_{\mathrm{N}}=\mathbf{V}\right)$
$\rightarrow \quad$ is a binary, asymmetric, transitive relation defined on $\mathrm{V}^{*}$, also known as rewriting rule:
for any symbol $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbf{V}_{\mathrm{N}} \phi \mathrm{A} \psi \rightarrow \phi \tau \psi$ for some $\phi, \tau, \psi \in \mathbf{V}^{*}$
$\{\mathbf{S}\} \quad$ is a subset of $\mathbf{V}_{\mathrm{N}}$ defined as the axiom(s) of the rewriting rules By default, $\mathbf{S}$ (Sentence) is the only symbol present in this set.

## How to formalize a grammar

## - Give two strings $\phi$ and $\psi \in \mathrm{V}^{*}$ there is a

$\phi$-derivation of $\psi$ if $\phi \rightarrow^{*} \psi$.
© If there is a $\phi$-derivation of $\psi$ then we conclude that $\phi$ dominates $\psi$. Such a relation is reflexive and transitive.
○ A $\phi$-derivation of $\psi$ is terminated if:

- $\psi \in \mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{T}}{ }^{*}$
- There is no x such that a $\psi$-derivation of $\chi$ exists

○ Given a grammar $\mathbf{G}$, a language generated by $\mathbf{G}$, is said $\mathbf{L}(\mathbf{G})$, that is the set $\phi$ of all possible strings for which a terminated S -derivation of $\phi$ exists


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

O Strong, if we also consider the structural description associated

## Decidability

## © 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 $e \in$ or $\notin$ to (not belonging to $\Sigma$ implies that $e$ belongs to the complement of $\Sigma$ defined as $\bar{\Sigma}$ )
- Recursively enumerable when a procedure exists that enumerates all and only the elements of


## Regular Grammars / Languages

## © Regular grammars admit rules of this kind

$A \rightarrow x B$
Or (systematically) of this kind:
$A \rightarrow B x$

The languages generated by such grammars are named Regula

[^1]
## Automata and computation

## Finite State Automata (FSA)

## (2inite-State Automata (FSA)

are 5 -tuples $\left\langle Q, \Sigma, q_{0}, F, \delta>\right.$ where:
Example of automaton: electric switch!
O $0=0$
0
0
$1=0$ off
$\begin{array}{ll}0 & =o f f \\ 0 & \rightarrow=\text { push }\end{array}$


21

## FSA as word processors

- A set of FSA is not just a mechanism that recognizes or generates a lexical item, but it might represent a sentence (or a language...).
- FSA recognizing word casa and its plural form:

- $\Sigma=\{c, a, s, e, \#\}$,
- $a_{0}=\left\{q_{0}\right\}$,
- $\mathrm{F}=\left\{\mathrm{a}_{4}\right\}$
- $\delta=$

tro to ingusustic computation



## Regular Expressions (RE)

- We can use Regular Expressions to query corpora for instance. RE are algebraic notation to express sets of strings.


## 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.
© The key of a RE is the identification pattern composed by alphanumeric chars (including spacing and punctuation) and special signs indicating precise relations among chars.

| Re | Corrspondence | E.g. Tentififed pattem |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| [Cclatheral | Cathectral or ceathectral | The catectata is gorgeous |
| [ $12-z]$ | All but not tow chass | IIduomo e . |
| saind | sidid or rad | You must be esd |
| mat | Any char bewween a and $t$ | maltor mat |
| bu* | ${ }^{\text {foalowed by y any (even null }}$ number of $u$ | buwuuul orb! |
| ${ }^{\text {T }}$ T Vs. es | $\hat{n}=$ string begining: $\mathrm{s}=$ string e end | The house |
| passe(sid) | 1 expresess the logical disisction | passes or passed |
|  | Escape char |  |

nifo to ingusistic computation c. CHESI
25

## Do you know Eliza?

○ Eliza (Weizenbaum, anno 1966):

- Human: Well, my boyfriend made me come here.
- ELIZA: Your boyfriend made you come here?
- Human: He says I'm depressed much of the time.
- ELIZA: I am sorry to hear you are depressed.

O Human: It's true. I'm unhappy.

- ELIZA: Do you think coming here will help you not to be unhappy?


## Eliza uses regular expressions!

## © RE and Substitution

- s/Regular_Expression_1/Regular_Expression_2/
- s/wwwl.(a-z]*).com/wwwl.wowl.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 $\backslash 1$
- Substitutions by ELIZA:
- s/I'm [.**](depressed |sad)/I'm sorry to hear that you are $\backslash 1 /$
s/ /'m [.* ? ?]depressed sad)/'m sorry to hear tha
- $/$ everybody is $\left(.^{*}\right) /$ in which sense they are \1?/
- $s$ /always / can you make a specific example?


29


30


31


32

## How to determine if a string can be generated by a Regular Grammar?

## - Pumping lemma for Regular Grammar

If $A$ is a Regular Language, then there is a number $p$ (expressing «pumping» magnitude), for which, if $s$ is a generic string A of length at least equal to $p$ then it can be split in 3 parts,

## $s=x y z$ such that:

For any $\mathrm{i} \geq 0, x y^{i} z \in \mathrm{~A}$
11. $|y|>0$
$|x y| \leq p$

$\odot a^{n} b^{n}$ (counting recursion) cannot be generated by Regular Grammars (no way to pump a number of as followed by the very same number of $b s$ )

## Context-Free Grammars

## © Context-Free Grammars (CFG) admits only this kind of rules

$A \rightarrow \gamma \quad$ (where $\gamma$ 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):
$A \rightarrow B C$
$\mathrm{A} \rightarrow \mathrm{a}$
ntro to ingusisicic compuratio
33

Describing syntactic ambiguity

into toingusticic compuration c. CHESI
35

Describing syntactic ambiguity


## Describing syntactic ambiguity

## Push-Down Automata

© Rules with the same left-side symbol should be present in the grammar to permit ambiguity

- VP $\rightarrow V$ NP
- VP $\rightarrow$ VNP PP
- NP $\rightarrow$ DN
- NP $\rightarrow$ D N PP

37


## CFG and PDA equivalence

© 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:
For any $S$ rule, create a PDA $q_{0}$ rule such that:
$\left(q_{0}, \varepsilon, \varepsilon\right) \rightarrow\left(q_{1}, s\right)$
For any other CFG rule such that $\mathrm{A} \rightarrow \mathrm{x}$, create PDA rules such that:
$\left(q_{1}, \varepsilon, A\right) \rightarrow\left(q_{1}, x\right)$
. For any symbol $a: a \in \mathrm{~V}_{T}$, create PDA rules such that:
$\left(\mathrm{q}_{1}, a, a\right) \rightarrow\left(\mathrm{q}_{1}, \varepsilon\right)$

Inte to olingusisic computation
c. CHESI

40

## Limits of CFGs?

## - Pumping lemma for Context-Free Grammars

If $A$ is a Context-Free Language, then there is a number $p$ (expressing the "pumping» length), for which, if $s$ is a string of $A$ of length at least equal to $p$, then it can be divided in 5 parts,
$s=u v x y z$ such that:
For any $i \geq 0$, uv'xy'z $\in A$
II. $\mid$ vy| $>0$
III. $|v x y| \leq p$

© E.g. neither $a^{n} b^{n} c^{n}$ nor $X X$ is not generable by CFGs.

## Inclusion relations among Grammars

## © Chomsky's Hierarchy $(1956,59)$

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

41
42


43

[^2]c. chest

43

## Where are Natural Languages?

- 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 and B potenzially of the form

- Natural languages are NOT even generable by Context-Free Grammars (Shieber 1985):
985):
Jan säit das mer em Hans es huus hälfed aastriiche
says that we H. "famous" Swiss-German dialect)
Gianni, Luisa
sposato, divorziata Mario sono sispettivamente ("ABC...ABC"... Are languages of the $X X$ kind)

Into to tingusisic computaion
c. CHESI

## Where are Natural Languages?

Where are Natural Languages?

- Recursion in natural languages (that is, how to make infinite use of finite means):
- Right recursion (abn: iteration or «tail recursion»): [the dog bit [the cat [that chased [the mouse [that ran]]נ]]
- Center embedding ( $a^{n} b^{n}$ : counting recursion or «true recursion»): [the mouse [(that) the cat [(that) the dog bit] chased] ran]
- Cross-serial dependencies (xx, identity recursion)

Aldo, Bea e Carlo sono rispettivamente sposato, nubile e divorziato
$A_{\text {.male }} B_{\text {female }}, C_{\text {.male }}$ are respectively married male unmarried female $^{\text {\& } \text { divorced }_{\text {male }}}$


45

## Today's key concepts

## - What's a formal grammar

- Rewriting Rules and Recursion
- Rewriting Rules restrictions create grammar classes organized in an inclusion hierarchy (Chomsky's Hierarchy)
- Regular Grammars (RG), Regular Expressions (RE) and Finite State Automata (FSA) equivalence
- Context-Free Grammars (CFG) and Push-Down Automata (PDA) equivalence
- Using pumping lemmas to decide if a certain string property can be captured of not by a
certain class of grammars
- Natural languages are neither Regular, nor Context-Free (though RGs and CFGs are often used to process Natural Languages!)

[^3]CHEST
Theory of (linguistic) Computation

STAGE II

## Why having a computational model

- Predict possible dysfunctions

© Calculate the complexity of certain processes...


## 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 algorith $m$ 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!


50

## Turing Machine

- Infinite tape subdivided in cells
- alphabet A (e.g. $\mathrm{A}=\{0,1\}$ )

© cursor C (that can move right and left, and can read, delete or write a character)
© Finite set of states $Q=\left(q_{0}, q_{1} \ldots q_{n}\right)$

- Finite input I constituted by a sequence of characters of $A$
- Finite set of states $s$ described as 5 -tuples $\left\langle q_{j} a b v q_{j}\right\rangle$ such that $a ; a ; \in \mathrm{Q} ; a, b \in \mathrm{~A} ; v=\{$ right, left $\}$
c. CHESI


53

## 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.

54

## 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.n $n^{2}$ (example of polynomial time problem complexity)
- $n=$ input length
- $\boldsymbol{c}=$ constant data (depending on the kind of computation)
© In this case we will say that the complexity order of the problem is $\boldsymbol{n}^{2}$ since the constant will be irrelevant with respect to $n$ growing to the infinite. such complexity order is defined as: $O\left(n^{2}\right)$
ntro to ingususic compuration
c. CHESI


## Complexity

- We are interested in the growing rate of the complexity function expressing the mapping between input and output in terms of input dimension
© For space and time limited problems (resource usage surely finite) the complexity calculus is irrelevant
© For $\boldsymbol{n}$ growing to the infinite, as in the case of the grammars we want to study, the growing rate is crucial for determining the tractability of the problem
© A problem is considered computable/tractable if a procedure exists and terminates with an answer (positive or negative) in a finite amount of time

A problem with exponential time complexity (e.g. $O\left(2^{N}\right)$ will
be hardly computable in a reasonable amount of time. To hav an idea, assume a device able to deal with 1 million steps per second, there the calculation for specific input given specific complexity function

| input length $\rightarrow$ | 10 | 20 | 50 | 100 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\downarrow$ function |  |  |  |  |
| $\mathrm{N}^{2}$ | $\begin{array}{\|l\|l\|} \hline 0,0001 \\ \text { second } \end{array}$ | 0,0004 sec. | $0,0025 \mathrm{sec}$. | 0,01 sec. |
| $\mathrm{N}^{5}$ | $0,1 \mathrm{sec}$. | 3,2 sec. | 5 min. 2 s sec. | 2 hours and 8 min. |
| $2^{\text {N }}$ | $0,001 \mathrm{sec}$. | 1 sec . | 35 year e 7 months | 400 trillions of centuries |
| N! | 3,6 sec. | about 771 centuries | A number of centuries with 48 digits | $\begin{array}{\|l\|} \hline \begin{array}{l} \text { A number of } \\ \text { enturies with } 148 \\ \text { digits } \end{array} \\ \hline \end{array}$ |
| $\mathrm{N}^{\text {N }}$ | 2 hours and 8 minutes | More than 3 trillions of years | A number of centuries with 75 digits | A number of centuries with 185 digits |

58

## Complexity of classic problems

[^4]$(a \vee \neg b \vee c) \wedge(\neg a \vee b \vee \neg c) \wedge(a \vee b \vee c) \wedge \ldots$

- In the worst case, all possible assignments must be evaluated, that is $\mathbf{2}^{N}$ (where $\mathbf{2}$ are the possible assignment values, True and False, and $\boldsymbol{N}$ is the number of propositionals $a, b, c$...).

๑ 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

- $Q x_{1}, Q x_{2} \ldots Q x_{n} F\left(x_{1}, x_{2} \ldots x_{n}\right)$
- (with $Q=\exists$ or $\forall$ )
© 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
C. CHESI


## 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 $\mathbf{P}$ of complexity are (probably) included in problems with a NP complexity order (no proof of reducibility from NP to P exists... yet).

61

## What's Parsing

© Given a Grammar $\boldsymbol{G}$ and an input $\boldsymbol{i}$, parsing $\boldsymbol{i}$ means applying a function $\boldsymbol{p}(\mathbf{G}, \boldsymbol{i})$ able to:

## - Accept/Reject $i$

- Assign to $i$ an adequate descriptive structure (e.g. syntactic tree)

Complexity of classic problems and reducibility
○ Hypothesis:

© Problems like SAT are dubbed NP-hard (same difficulties, i.e. problem structure/space with respect to NP class problems).

62

## Universal Recognition Problem (URP) and reduction

## © Universal Recognition Problem (URP

Given a Grammar $\boldsymbol{G}$ (in any grammatical framework) and a string $\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}$ belongs to the language generable by $\boldsymbol{G}$ ?

- 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!


## Universal Recognition Problem (URP) and reduction

© URP 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!


## Psycholinguistic complexity

- Complexity = difficulty in processing a sentence
© Hypothesis 1: formal complexity = psycholinguistic complexity
- Hypothesis 2: limited processing memory

O 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.

tro to lingustict compuration

c. CHESI

Chomsky's hierarchy and complexity


66

## 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.

## Psycholinguistic complexity

○ Syntactic Prediction Locality Theory (SPLT, Gibson 1998) total memory load is proportional to the sum of required an integration + referentiality needs:

- DPS required VPs (in SVO languages): DPs required VPs (in SVO languages ):
DP DP DP VP VP VP... is harder than DP VP
- A pronoun referring to an already introduced referential entity is less complex than a new referent (pro < full DPs).


## 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!

## Problem Space and searching strategies

© Given a sentence and a grammar the parser should tell us if the sentence is generable by the grammar (URP, Universal Recognition Problem) and, in the affirmative case, provide an adequate tree structure
© The problem space is the complete forest of trees and subtrees that can be legally generated by applying the grammatical rules in a given context

## Problem Space and searching strategies

## - English ambiguity

- Buffalo Buffalo buffalo Buffalo Baffalo
- «a buffalo from Buffalo intimidates another buffalo from Buffalo» https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=TWbzjGlec20
- Grammar:

| $\rightarrow$ (non terminals) | $\rightarrow$ (terminals) |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\mathrm{S} \rightarrow \mathrm{DP}$ VP | $\mathrm{N} \rightarrow$ buffalo |
| $\mathrm{VP} \rightarrow \mathrm{V} \mathrm{DP}$ | $\mathrm{Np} \rightarrow$ Buffalo |
| $\mathrm{DP} \rightarrow \mathrm{N} \mathrm{Np}$ | $\mathrm{V} \rightarrow$ buffalo |
|  |  |

Intro to ingusistic compuration
c. CHESI

## Problem Space and searching strategies

## - English ambiguity:

- Time flies like an arrow
- Fruit flies like a banana
© Grammar:

| $\rightarrow$ (non terminals) | $\rightarrow$ (terminals) |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\mathrm{S} \rightarrow \mathrm{DP} \mathrm{VP}$ | $\mathrm{VP} \rightarrow \mathrm{VPP}$ | $\mathrm{N} \rightarrow$ time | $\mathrm{N} \rightarrow$ fruit |
| $\mathrm{VP} \rightarrow \mathrm{V} P \mathrm{PP}$ | $\mathrm{PP} \rightarrow \mathrm{P} \mathrm{DP}$ | $\mathrm{N} \rightarrow$ flies | $\mathrm{V} \rightarrow$ flies |
| $\mathrm{DP} \rightarrow \mathrm{N}$ | $\mathrm{DP} \rightarrow \mathrm{D} \mathrm{N}$ | $\mathrm{N} \rightarrow$ bananas | $\mathrm{D} \rightarrow$ a(n) |
| $\mathrm{DP} \rightarrow \mathrm{N} \mathrm{N}$ |  | $\mathrm{P} \rightarrow$ like | $\mathrm{V} \rightarrow$ like |



## Problem Space and searching strategies

- Italian sentence:
- la vecchia legge la regola
(«the old rule regulates it» vs. «the old woman reads the rule»)
© Grammar:

| $\rightarrow$ (non terminals) | $\rightarrow$ (terminals) |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\mathrm{S} \rightarrow \mathrm{DP} \mathrm{VP}$ | pro $\rightarrow$ la |
| $\mathrm{VP} \rightarrow \mathrm{V} \mathrm{DP}$ | $\mathrm{D} \rightarrow$ la |
| $\mathrm{VP} \rightarrow$ pro V | $\mathrm{AGG} \rightarrow$ vecchia |
| $\mathrm{DP} \rightarrow \mathrm{D} \mathrm{NP}$ | $\mathrm{N} \rightarrow$ vechia |
| $\mathrm{NP} \rightarrow$ (AGG) $\mathrm{N} ;$ | $\mathrm{N} \rightarrow$ legge |
|  | $\mathrm{N} \rightarrow$ regola |
|  | $\mathrm{V} \rightarrow$ legge |
|  | $\mathrm{V} \rightarrow$ regola |

## Problem Space and searching strategies

## - Two main constraints:

- Grammatical rules predicts that from a root node S certain expansion will lead to terminals,
- The words in the sentence, indicates how the $S$ expansions must terminate
- We can start from the root node $\boldsymbol{S}$ for generating the structure: Top-Down or goal-driven algorithm
- We can start from single words, trying to combine then in phrases up to the root node S:
Bottom-Up, or data-driven algorithm


## 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.


## Bottom-Up Parsing Algorithm

- Historically, the first parsing algorithm (Yngve 55) and possibly the most common (e.g. in programming languages parsers). It starts from lexical elements, that are terminal symbols, and, phrase by phrase, up to S:



## What's better?

○ 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 $\mathbf{S}$.
© 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.


## LEFT CORNER Algorithm

## - Basic idea

combination of a Top-Down strategy, filtered by Bottom-Up considerations.

- Left-corner rule
- Every non-terminal category will be rewritten at some point by a word in the input
- Then $B$ if the «left-corner» of the A category

IFF A $\rightarrow^{*} \mathrm{~B} \rightarrow \alpha$.
© Off-line table of left corner given a standard grammar:

| category | S | DP | VP |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| left-corner | $\mathrm{D}, \mathrm{N}_{\text {propers }} \mathrm{V}$ | $\mathrm{D}, \mathrm{N}_{\text {proper }}$ | aux, V |

## Unresolved problems

○ Inefficiency in subtrees analysis (backtracking is not needed in certain analysis):

- a flight from Rome to Milano at 7:00PM with a Boeing 747

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { O DP } \rightarrow \text { D N } & \text { (ok, but incomplete...) } \\
\text { O DP } \rightarrow \text { D N PP } & \text { (ok, but incomplete...) } \\
\text { O DP } \rightarrow \text { D N PP PP } & \text { (ok, but incomplete...) } \\
\text {... } &
\end{array}
$$

Into to ingustitic computation
81

## 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: $\boldsymbol{O}\left(n^{3}\right)$.
© One input pass, from left-to-right, partial analyses are stored in chart with $n+1$ entries, with $n$ equals to the input length .
eralized parsing is NP-hard) is


$+$

## 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.
$-$

## Dynamic Programming: Earley Algorithm

© Three fundamental operations are combined in Earley Algorithm:

- Predictor
add new rules in the chart, representing top-down expectations in the grammar; every rule in the grammar that is an expansion of a non-terminal or pre-terminal node to the right of the dot will
- Scanner expans. $\mathrm{S} \rightarrow$ of DP VP $[0,0]$
$D P \rightarrow$ • $N P[0,0]$ check the input, in the expected position, and trigger an advancement when the word is recognized as belonging to the expected POS. A correct scan introduce a new rule in the next position of the chart. e.g. $D P \rightarrow \bullet D N P[0,0]$ iff $D \rightarrow$ article, then $D P \rightarrow D \bullet N P[0,1]$
- Completer
when the dot reached the end of the rule, the algorithm informs the chart that at the rule starting position, the category has been recognized, hence advancing the rules with the dot to the left of the relevalt category:
e.g. NP $\rightarrow$ AGG $\cdot[1,3]$ will advance the rule in the [1] position
$D P \rightarrow D \cdot N P[0,1]$ adding $D P \rightarrow D N P \cdot[0,3]$;


## 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:
O token transparency (Miller e Chomsky 63) or strict isomorphism (is the null hypothesis) the token transparency (Miller e Chomsky 63) or strict isomorphism (is 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.


## 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.

[^5][^6]

89


91

## MG: problems with successive cyclicity

© Wh-successive cyclic movement


## MG: how explaining islandhood?

© No difference in picking up an element from a subject or an object (idem for RCs and Adjuncts)


93

## Derivations: some logical possibilities

© ( (John) saw ((the picture) (of Mary)) )

tro to ingustitc compuration
c. CHESI


96

## Processing Object Relatives (ORs)

## © Bever (1970)

double embedding is not always nearly impossible to process (Miller \& Chomsky 1963):

- The reporter the politician the commentator met trusts said the president won't resign.
- The reporter everyone I met trusts said the president won't resign


## 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:
$\bigcirc$ Experiment 1 (materials): SRs (a) and ORs (b)

- The banker [that _ praised the barber ] climbed the mountain

O The banker [that the barber praised _ ] climbed the mountain

98


99

## 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


## Processing Object Relatives (ORs)

## Processing Object Relatives (ORs)

© Gordon et al. (2001) - Experiment 3 (materials):
DP (a) vs. proper names (b)

- The banker [that the barber praised _] climbed the mountain

O The banker [that Ben praised _] climbed the mountain

## Processing Object Relatives (ORs)

© Gordon et al. (2001) Experiment 3 (results)

## 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
- It was the banker that Bill saw _ in the parking lot
- It was John that the lawyer saw _ in the parking lot
- It was John that Bill saw _ in the parking lot


## Processing Object Clefts

๑Gordon et al. (2001) - Experiment 4 (results):


## Explaining complexity

## - Linguistic Integration Cost (Gibson 1998:12-13)

- 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)
- 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

© Role-determinant accounts (MacWhinney \& Pleh 1988)

- 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)

## Explaining complexity

- More on Similarity based accounts (Gordon et al. 2001)
- 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)

- Processing difficulty is proportional to the number and kind of relevant features shared between the moved item and any possible intervener:


## Explaining complexity

© More on Intervention effects (Friedmann et al. 2009)

- Identity (bad for adults, bad for children)
$+A \quad+A$ ( + A)
k for adults, bad for children)

$$
+A+B \quad+A
$$

$(+A+B)$

- Disjunction (ok for adults, ok for children)



111

## Comparing Object Clefts

- Warren \& Gibson (2005) - Experiment (materials): definite descriptions vs. proper names vs. pronouns
a. It was the banker that the lawyer avoided _ at the party
b. It was the banker
c. It was the banker
d. It was Patricia
e. It was Patricia
f. It was Patricia
g. It was you
h. It was you
i. It was you
that Dan
that we that the lawyer that Dan that we that the lawyer that Dan that we
that we voided_ at the party avoided _ at the party avoided _ at the party avoided at the party avoided _ at the party avoided _ at the party avoided _ at the party avoided _ at the party


## Comparing Object Clefts

## Predicting reading times (rt) with intervention-based accounts

- Warren \& Gibson (2005) - results (Tessa Warren P.C.)
$D=$ definite description (e.g. the banker)
$\mathrm{N}=$ proper names
(e.g. Dan)
(e.g. you)



## Some problems with the intervention-based account

© Features triggering movement are those relevant for intervention (Friedmann et al. 2009:82), but.

- "+R" feature causing Object movement in ORs (or " + Foc" in OCs) is not present on Subject;
Neither the "lexical restriction" nor phi-features trigger any movement in ORs or OCs The "lexical restriction" should be not accessible at the edge of the DP, where features triggering movement should be located (but see Belletti \& Rizzi 2013, next slide)
- Why slow-down is observed at verb segment?


## 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?


119

Processing-friendly Minimalist Grammars

## Phase and Expectation-based MGs (PMGs and e-MGs)

- Common restriction on Merge:
- Given two lexical items $[=\mathrm{Y}]$ and $[\mathrm{y} \mathrm{Z}]$ such that X selects Z, then

- $[=Y X]$ is processed before $Y$
- When $\left[{ }_{y} \mathrm{X}\right]$ is processed, an expectation for $[y \ldots]$ is created


## Processing-friendly Minimalist Grammars

© If we assume that selection can include both functional features $(+F)$ and lexical features $(\mathrm{Y})$ at the same time, a Phase becomes a subtree to be expanded
O Given a lexical item [

$\left.{ }_{[+F} \ldots\right]_{[y} \ldots$...]

- $\left[_{+\mathrm{F}} \ldots ..\right]$ is an extended projection of a lexical category $Y$
(e.g. a DP is an extended projection of $N$, i.e. [ [D N])
intro to ingusisic computation c. CuHEST

Processing-friendly Minimalist Grammars

- Both a declarative sentence $[+S+T \quad V]$ and a wh- question [+wh $+T+S V$ are phases of a $V$ head)


Processing-friendly Minimalist Grammars

○ A phase head is a lexical category
( $\mathrm{N}, \mathrm{V}, \mathrm{A}$ )
$\odot_{\text {root }}\left[c \varnothing_{=w h=T}\right],\left[{ }_{w h D}\right.$ what], [ $\left.\operatorname{did}_{=v}\right]$,
[Dohn], [V buy=DP =DP ]


122

## Processing-friendly

- Common trigger for Move:
- An item $l_{t y} \ldots \mathrm{w}$ X], in a given structure, must be moved if it can not be fully interpreted in its insertion position:


[^7]c. CHESI

## Processing-friendly Phase-based Minimalist Grammar

๑The 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

© It $[\ldots=$ CPr $\cdots$ was $]\left[\right.$ [CPr John that Bill saw] Foc $_{=\text {Fin }}$


[^8]C. Ches

## Deriving OCs Top-Down

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

$$
. . \text { BE }\left[\text { CP } \text { Force }\left[\text { Focp } \ldots\left[_{\text {Finp }} \text { che }[\text { TP } \text { Subject } \ldots \text { Object }]\right]\right]\right.
$$

## Cue-based retrieval and intervention

- 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)
$\mathrm{P}\left(I_{i} \mid Q_{1}, \ldots, Q_{n}\right)=\frac{\prod_{j=1}^{m} S\left(Q_{j}, I_{i}\right)^{w}}{\sum_{k=1}^{N} \prod_{j=1}^{m} S\left(Q_{j}, I_{k}\right)^{w j}}$


129

## Relevant DP features <br> On D and Pronouns

© Both determiners and personal pronouns introduce a "referential pointer" to an individual constant or variable in the domain of discourse
© Pro are NP-ellipsis licensors (they can be used as determiners «we italians»): [D noi [N italiani]]
(D introduces an index, that bounds a variable predicated in N )
© (More) features on pro:

- $1^{\text {st }}$ and $2^{\text {nd }}$ person (highly accessible referents) vs. $3^{\text {rd }}$ person (default person, contextdetermined referent)
- case


## 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)

## N-to-D raising

*mio Gianni
Maria sola (*'amica sola)

- Two different kinds of $\mathrm{N}: \mathrm{N}_{\text {proper }}, \mathrm{N}_{\text {(common) }}$

Relevant DP features
○ Definite descriptions:
\{D, N \}

○ Proper names:
\{D, $\mathrm{N}_{\text {prop }}$ \}

○ Pronouns
\{D, case, pers\}

## Feature Retrieval Cost (FRC) metrics at work

© Cost function (at $\boldsymbol{X}$ given $\boldsymbol{m}_{\boldsymbol{x}}$ items to be retrieved from memory)
$\odot \operatorname{FRC}(\mathrm{x})=\prod_{i=1}^{m_{x}} \frac{\left(1+n F_{i}\right)^{m_{i}}}{\left(1+d F_{i}\right)}$

- $m=$ number of items stored in memory at retrieval
- $n \boldsymbol{F F}=$ new features to be retrieved from memory
- $\boldsymbol{d F}=$ number of distinct cued features (e.g. agreement and case features probed by the verb)

Feature Retrieval Cost (FRC)
metrics at work

## $\operatorname{FRC}(x)=\prod_{i=1}^{m_{x}} \frac{\left(1+n F_{i}\right)^{m_{i}}}{\left(1+d F_{i}\right)}$

$\bigcirc$ D-D matching
it was the lawyer ${ }_{\{0, \mathrm{~N}\}}$ who the businessman ${ }_{\{\mathrm{D}, \mathrm{N}\}}$ avoided...
FRC (avoided) $=27$
that is $9 \cdot \mathbf{3}$ :
9 for retrieving the businessman
since $\boldsymbol{n F}=\mathbf{2}$ ( $\boldsymbol{D}$ and $\boldsymbol{N}$ count as one), $\boldsymbol{m}=\mathbf{2}$ because two DPs are in memory at this time,
and $d F=0$ because no feature is cued by the verb distinguishing one DP from the other
ng the lawyer
since $\boldsymbol{n F}=\mathbf{2}$ ( $D$ and $N$ are new now), $\boldsymbol{m = 1}$ and $d F=0$

134

## Feature Retrieval Cost (FRC)

metrics at work
$\operatorname{FRC}(x)=\prod_{i=1}^{m_{x}} \frac{\left(1+n F_{i}\right)^{m_{i}}}{\left(1+d F_{i}\right)}$

## $\bigcirc \mathrm{N}-\mathrm{N}$ matching

it was $\operatorname{Dan}_{\{D, N, ~ p r o p}$ who Patricia ${ }_{\{D, N \text { _rop }\}}$ avoided...
FRC ( avoided ) $=18$
that is $9 \cdot \mathbf{2}$ :
9 for retrieving Dan,
$n F=\mathbf{2}$ (even though $D$ should be contextually salient, being two proper names
presents, the same $\boldsymbol{D}$, i.e. a co-referential index, cannot be sufficient to distinguish them, cost must be paid here as in the $D-D$ condition), $m=2, d F=\mathbf{0}$;
2 for retrieving Patricia, $m=1$ and $d F=0) m=1$ and $d F=0$

## Feature Retrieval Cost (FRC)

 metrics at work$\operatorname{FRC}(x)=\prod_{i=1}^{m_{x}} \frac{\left(1+n F_{i}\right)^{m_{i}}}{\left(1+d F_{i}\right)}$
© P-P matching

FRC $($ avoided $)=4$
that is $\mathbf{2} \cdot \mathbf{2}$ :
$\mathbf{2}$ for the we, $n F=\mathbf{1}, \boldsymbol{m = 2}$ and $\mathbf{d F = 1}$ (number, person and case mismatches are always present; case is cued by the verb),
$\mathbf{2}$ for retrieving you, $\boldsymbol{n F = 1 , m = 1}$ and $\boldsymbol{d F = 0}$ for the object pronoun

## Feature Retrieval Cost (FRC)

 metrics at work
## $\operatorname{FRC}(x)=\prod_{i=1}^{m_{x}} \frac{\left(1+n F_{i}\right)^{m_{i}}}{\left(1+d F_{i}\right)}$

○ D-N matching
it was the lawyer ${ }_{\{0, N\}}$ who Patricia $_{\left\{0, N \_ \text {prop }\right\}}$ avoided...
FRC $($ avoided $)=12$

## that is 4.3 :

4 for Patricia, $n F=1$, that is $N$, since $D$ is contextually salient, $m=2, d F=0$,
3 for retrieving the lawyer ( $n F=2, m=1, n F=0$ )


Feature Retrieval Cost (FRC) metrics at work

## $\operatorname{FRC}(x)=\prod_{i=1}^{m_{x}} \frac{\left(1+n F_{i}\right)^{m_{i}}}{\left(1+d F_{i}\right)}$

- D-P condition
it was the lawyer ${ }_{\{0, N\}}$ who we ${ }_{\{0, \text { pers }, ~, ~ c a s e ~ n o m\}}$ avoided.
FRC $($ avoided $)=6$
that is $2 \cdot \mathbf{3}$ :
that is $\mathbf{2} \cdot \mathbf{3}$ :
$\mathbf{2}$ for retrieving we $(n F=1$ even if deictic pronouns are contextually salient, the correct person must be retrieved, $m=2, d F=1$ since a distinct case on pronouns is cued by the verb), 3 for retrieving the lawyer ( $n F=2, m=1, n F=0$ )



## Feature Encoding Cost (FEC)

- Feature Encoding Cost (FEC) is a numerical value associated to each new item merged that is proportional to the number of new relevant features integrated in the structure

$$
F E C(x)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} e F_{i}
$$

© $e F$ is the cost of each new relevant feature to be encoded at $x$.
© For simplicity $\boldsymbol{e} \boldsymbol{F}=\mathbf{1}$ for a new categorial feature introduced (e.g. 1 for $\mathbf{D}$ and 1 for N ), 2 for a duplication of the same lexical category requiring structural integration (i.e. 2 for the second $N$ both in $D_{1}-D_{2}$ and $N_{1}-N_{2}$ ), 0 otherwise.

Chesi \& Canal (2019)
o[gli architetti]] che [gli insegneri] are $_{3 p_{-} p l}$ the architects that the engineers
b. Sono [gli architetti], che [voi ingegneri] are ${ }_{3 P} \rho_{1}$ the architects that you engineers Siete [voi architetti], che [gli ingegneri] are $_{2 p \mathrm{PL}}$ you architects that the engineers
d. Siete [voi architetti]; che [voi ingegneri] are $_{2 p_{-} p l}$ you architects that you engineers
$\qquad$ verb spill-over condition hanno consultato _i prima di iniziare i lavori. have $_{3 P_{-} p_{1}}$ consulted before beginning the works avete consultato _ prima di iniziare i lavori. have 2p_pl $^{0}$ consulted before beginning the works hanno consultato _i prima di iniziare i lavori. have $_{3 \rho p l}$ consulted before beginning the works avete consultato _i prima di iniziare i lavori. have $2 p_{01}$ consulted before beginning the works

[^9]$D_{\text {art }}-D_{\text {pro }}$

Feature Encoding Cost (FEC)



Chesi \& Canal (2019)



## Conclusion

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) 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 \& McEIree 2006


149



[^0]:    thto to ingususicic computation

[^1]:    Intro to ingusisic computaiton
    c. CHESI

[^2]:    nionmanat companan

[^3]:    ntro to monysutcic compuration

[^4]:    - 3SAT problem (satisfability problem or SAT)
    find a value assignment for all propositional letters satisfying the formula below:

[^5]:    notimpanc companan

[^6]:    Ches

[^7]:    ntro to ingusustic computation

[^8]:    Hotombanc companan

[^9]:    $\mathrm{D}_{\text {pro }}-\mathrm{D}_{\text {art }}$
    $D_{\text {pro }}-D_{\text {pro }}$

