

# LFG

## Syntactic Theory

### Winter Semester 2009/2010

Antske Fokkens

Department of Computational Linguistics  
Saarland University

17 November 2009

# Outline

## 1 Introduction

## 2 F-structures

- Motivation
- Formal properties of f-structures
- grammatical functions in LFG
- well-formedness conditions

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# Lexical Functional Grammar, Introduction

- Developed in the late 70s by Joan Bresnan and Ron Kaplan
- LFG brings scholars from different fields together:
  - Theoretical linguists
  - Descriptive, typological linguists
  - Computational linguistics
- Main ideas:
  - A formal system to model human speech (fits in the tradition of generative grammar)
  - Psychological plausibility: the formalism should be able to represent a native speaker's syntactic knowledge appropriately
  - Strong typological basis: analyses should capture cross-linguistic similarities

# Main levels of representation

A Lexical Functional Grammar represents expressions in (minimally) two levels of representation:

- **constituent structure** (c-structure):

- a tree which represents phrase structure configurations
- it indicates the superficial arrangements of the words in the sentence, i.e. it serves as an input for the phonological interpretation of the string
- languages differ radically on a c-structure level

- **functional structure** (f-structure):

- an attribute-value matrix represents surface grammatical functions, i.e. traditional syntactic relations such as subject, object, complement and adjunct
- It serves as the sole input to the semantic component
- languages are similar on a f-structure level

# Lexical Functional Grammar

- LFG is **lexical** because of the assumption that words and lexical items are as important in providing grammatical information as syntactic elements
- LFG is **functional** because grammatical information is represented by lexical functions (f-structure), rather than by phrase structure configurations
  - i.e. LFG is **nonconfigurational**

# Organizations of the coming lectures

- An overview of the architecture of LFG
  - F-structures: formal definition and basic properties
  - C-structures: basic properties
  - Mapping between c- and f-structures
  - Example analysis
- Phenomena and constraints in LFG
  - How to integrate and use constraints in LFG analyses
  - Some basic phenomena and their analyses in LFG

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# F-structure: motivation

- Assumption: for any language functional syntactic concepts such as subject and object are relevant
- The f-structure can represent what languages have in common in wide-spread phenomena, no matter how radically different languages may be on the surface  
e.g. passives
- The f-structure can capture some universal properties of language  
e.g. the Keenan-Comrie Hierarchy for relative clauses:  
SUBJ > DOBJ > IOBJ > OBL > GEN > OCOMP
  - A language may sets its border for acceptable and unacceptable relative clauses anywhere on the hierarchy: those elements above the boundary can be relativized.
  - Processing becomes more difficult when going down the hierarchy

## Examples of relative clauses

- **Subject:** That's the man [who ran away]. The girl [who came late] is my sister.
- **Direct object:** That's the man [I saw yesterday]. The girl [Kate saw] is my sister.
- **Indirect object:** That's the man [to whom I gave the letter]. The girl [who I wrote a letter to] is my sister.
- **Oblique:** That's the man [I was talking about]. The girl [who I sat next to] is my sister.
- **Genitive:** That's the man [whose sister I know]. The girl [whose father died] told me she was sad.
- **Obj of Comp:** That's the man [I am taller than]. The girl [who Kate is smarter than] is my sister.

# An example of an F-structure

- Example: the f-structure of *I saw the girl*:

SUBJ	<table><tr><td>PRED</td><td>'pro'</td></tr><tr><td>PERS</td><td>1</td></tr><tr><td>NUM</td><td>SG</td></tr></table>	PRED	'pro'	PERS	1	NUM	SG		
PRED	'pro'								
PERS	1								
NUM	SG								
TENSE	PAST								
PRED	'see'⟨(↑SUBJ),(↑OBJ)⟩								
OBJ	<table><tr><td>PRED</td><td>'girl'</td></tr><tr><td>DEF</td><td>+</td></tr><tr><td>PERS</td><td>3</td></tr><tr><td>NUM</td><td>SG</td></tr></table>	PRED	'girl'	DEF	+	PERS	3	NUM	SG
PRED	'girl'								
DEF	+								
PERS	3								
NUM	SG								

# Formal properties of F-structures

- An F-structure is a finite set of pairs of attributes and values
- An F-structures attributes may be
  - A: atomic symbols, e.g. SUBJ, OBJ, PRED
- An F-structures values may be:
  - A: atomic symbols, e.g. SG, 1, +, PAST
  - S: semantic forms, e.g. 'girl', 'see<(↑SUBJ)(↑OBJ)>'
  - F: f-structures
- F-structures are defined by the following recursive domain equation:  
$$F = (A \rightarrow_f F \cup A \cup S)$$

## Examples of simple F-structures

■  $f: \begin{bmatrix} \text{PRED 'David'} \\ \text{NUM SG} \end{bmatrix}$

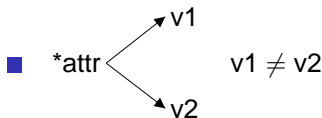
Description:  
 $(f \text{ PRED}) = \text{'David'}$   
 $(f \text{ NUM}) = \text{SG}$

■  $g: \begin{bmatrix} \text{PRED 'yawn(SUBJ)'} \\ \text{TENSE PAST} \\ \text{SUBJ } f \begin{bmatrix} \text{PRED 'David'} \\ \text{NUM SG} \end{bmatrix} \end{bmatrix}$

Description:  
 $(g \text{ PRED}) = \text{'yawn(SUBJ)'}$   
 $(g \text{ TENSE}) = \text{PAST}$   
 $(g \text{ SUBJ}) = f$

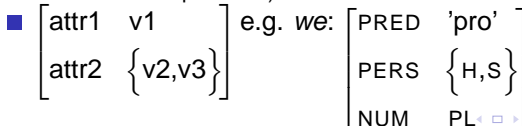
# A Functional structure

- Mathematically, the f-structure can be seen as a function from attributes to values, hence its name
- A function assigns a unique value to its argument
- In other words:
  - if  $(f \text{ attr}) = t$  and  $(f \text{ attr}) = v$ , then  $t = v$



- The value of an attribute can be a set:

(We'll see more examples later)



## symbols and semantic forms

- Symbols are unbroken strings of alphanumeric characters  
→ the choice of symbols belongs to a particular theory of linguistics
- Semantic forms are special: the single quotes around semantic form values indicate that this form is unique. E.g. each instance of the word *girl* is a uniquely instantiated occurrence of the semantic form 'girl'

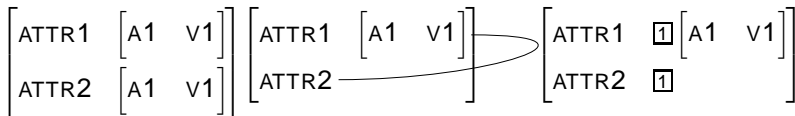
## Some Linguistic terminology (Bresnan 1982)

- an attribute-value pair where the value is a symbol is called a **feature**
- an attribute-value pair where the value is an f-structure is called a **grammatical function**
- an attribute whose value is a semantic form is called a **semantic feature**



# Attributes with the same values

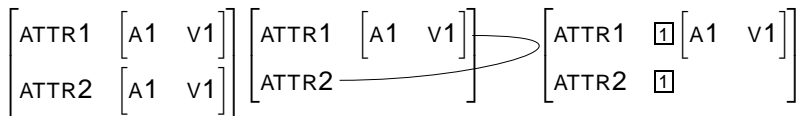
- Two attributes within the same f-structure can have the same value
- This can be represented in several ways:



- **Note:**
  - Semantic forms are unique: two instances of 'lion' in a sentence does not necessarily mean two attributes have the same value: co-indexation is required

# Attributes with the same values

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- **Note:**
  - Semantic forms are unique: two instances of 'lion' in a sentence does not necessarily mean two attributes have the same value: co-indexation is required
  - Identity in LFG differs from identity in HPSG: no type/token distinction!

# Grammatical functions in LFG

LFG proposes the following inventory of grammatical functions, which is universally available:

- SUBJECT
- OBJECT
- OBJ <sub>$\theta$</sub>
- COMP
- XCOMP
- OBLIQUE <sub>$\theta$</sub>
- ADJunct
- XADJunct

# Cross-classification of grammatical functions

Several cross-classifications are possible among grammatical functions:

- Governable functions: SUBJ, OBJ, XCOMP, COMP, OBJ<sub>θ</sub>, OBL<sub>θ</sub>

Modifiers: ADJ, XADJ

- Core arguments/terms: SUBJ, OBJ, OBJ<sub>θ</sub>  
Non-term/oblique functions: OBL<sub>θ</sub>
- Semantically unrestricted functions: SUBJ, OBJ  
Semantically restricted functions: OBJ<sub>θ</sub>, OBL<sub>θ</sub>

- Open functions: XCOMP, XADJ

Closed functions: SUBJ, OBJ, COMP, OBJ<sub>θ</sub>, OBL<sub>θ</sub>, ADJ

→ we will only consider the distinction between governable functions and modifiers for now

# Governable grammatical functions

- SUBJ, OBJ, XCOMP, COMP, OBJ<sub>θ</sub> and OBL<sub>θ</sub> are *governed* or *subcategorized for* by the predicate, hence the name **governable grammatical functions**
- ADJ and XADJ modify the phrase they appear in, but they are not subcategorized for by the predicate. The term **modifiers** applies to these functions

# The value of ADJ and XADJ

- In principle, there is no limit to the number of modifiers that can appear within a phrase: the value of the ADJ or XADJ feature is the set of all modifiers that are present, e.g.

*David yawned quietly (yesterday):*

$$\left[ \begin{array}{l} \text{SUBJ} \quad \left[ \text{PRED} \quad \text{'David'} \right] \\ \text{PRED} \quad \text{'yawn} < (\uparrow \text{SUBJ}) > \\ \text{ADJ} \quad \left\{ \left[ \text{PRED} \quad \text{'quietly'} \right] \right\} \end{array} \right] \left[ \begin{array}{l} \text{SUBJ} \quad \left[ \text{PRED} \quad \text{'David'} \right] \\ \text{PRED} \quad \text{'yawn} < (\uparrow \text{SUBJ}) > \\ \text{ADJ} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \left[ \text{PRED} \quad \text{'quietly'} \right] \\ \left[ \text{PRED} \quad \text{'yesterday'} \right] \end{array} \right\} \end{array} \right]$$

- Typically, the values of governable functions are not sets

# Identifying governable grammatical functions I

- Dowty (1982) proposes the following tests to distinguish between governable functions and modifiers
  - *Entailment test*: does the predicate entail existence of the argument?  
but:
    - many predicates entail time and place
    - predicates such as *seek* don't entail existence of their arguments, the same holds for semantically empty arguments such as *it* in *it rains*
  - *Subcategorization test*: modifiers can be omitted, arguments cannot  
but:
    - Some verbs have optional arguments (or ambiguous subcategorization frames), such as *eat*
    - In pro-drop languages arguments can generally be dropped

## Identifying governable grammatical functions II

- These tests provide good indications for the governable function/modifier distinction, but cannot always correctly differentiate between arguments and modifiers



## Some additional tests (1/2)

- *Multiple occurrence*: (Kaplan and Bresnan 1982):  
modifiers may be multiple specified, arguments cannot:  
The girl saw the baby on Tuesday in the morning  
\* David saw Tony George Sally
- *Order dependence*: (Pollard and Sag 1987) relative order of modifiers may change truth-conditions, this is not the case for arguments
  - Kim jogged for twenty minutes twice a day
  - Kim jogged twice a day for twenty years

## Some additional tests (2/2)

■ *Anaphoric binding*: (Hellan 1988, Dalrymple 1993, for Norwegian)

- (1) Jon fortalte meg om seg selv.  
Jon told me about self  
“Jon told me about himself”
  
- (2) \* Hun kastet meg fra seg selv  
she threw me from self  
“she threw me away from herself”

→ Languages may provide different kind of evidence for such distinctions

# Subcategorization

- A semantic form may contain an argument list, next to its semantic predicate name, e.g.
  - 'yawn<(↑ SUBJ)>'
  - 'see<(↑ SUBJ), (↑ OBJ)>'
  - 'give<(↑ SUBJ), (↑ OBJ), (↑ OBJ2)>'
- Note that lexical items select for grammatical functions (not for NPs, CP, etc)
- How to make sure that subcategorization requirements are fulfilled?
  - well-formedness constraints on the f-structure:  
completeness and coherence

# Principle of completeness

- The principle of completeness requires that all governable functions present in the argument list of a semantic form must be present in the f-structure
- This excludes ungrammatical expressions such as

\* He devoured

SUBJ	PRED	'pro'
	PERS	3
	NUM	SG
pred		'devour<( $\uparrow$ SUBJ),( $\uparrow$ OBJ)>'

→ the object is missing: incomplete f-structure!

# Principle of Completeness: definition

## Local Completeness

An f-structure is **locally complete** iff it contains all the governable functions that its predicate governs

## Completeness

An f-structure is **complete** iff it is locally complete and all its subsidiary f-structures are locally complete

# Principle of Coherence

- The principle of coherence requires that all governable functions present in the f-structure are also present in the argument list of the predicate
- This excludes ungrammatical examples such as

\* David yawned the flower

SUBJ	[ PRED 'David' ]
OBJ	[ PRED 'flower' NUM SG ]
PRED	'yawn<(↑ SUBJ)>'

→ the OBJ *the flower* is not governed by the predicate:  
incoherent f-structure!

# Principle of Coherence: definition

## Local Coherence

An f-structure is **locally coherent** iff all the governable functions it contains are governed by its predicate

## Coherence

An f-structure is **coherent** iff it is locally coherent and all its subsidiary f-structures are locally coherent

# Principle of Consistency (uniqueness)

- The principle of consistency states what we have already seen in the f-structures formal properties: an attribute has a unique value
- It excludes ungrammatical examples such as

\* David sleep

$$\left[ \begin{array}{l} \text{SUBJ} \left[ \begin{array}{ll} \text{PRED} & \text{'David'} \\ \text{NUM} & \text{SG/PL} \end{array} \right] \\ \text{PRED} & \text{'yawn}<(\uparrow \text{SUBJ})>' \end{array} \right]$$

→ 'David' is singular, but the verb form states that the subject's number is plural: inconsistent f-structure!

**definition:** An f-structure is consistent iff all attributes have at most one value



# F-structures, recap I

- F-structures represent the grammatical relations of expressions
- Languages are similar on this level: allows to explain cross-linguistic properties of phenomena
- Formally, an f-structure is a set of attribute-value pairs
- LFG posits a universal inventory of grammatical functions (where we distinguish governable functions and modifiers (among other properties))
- F-structures must be
  - complete
  - coherent
  - consistent

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