

Syntax — I

Anton Alekseev
Steklov Mathematical Institute in St Petersburg

ITMO University, St Petersburg, 2019
anton.m.alexeyev+itmo@gmail.com



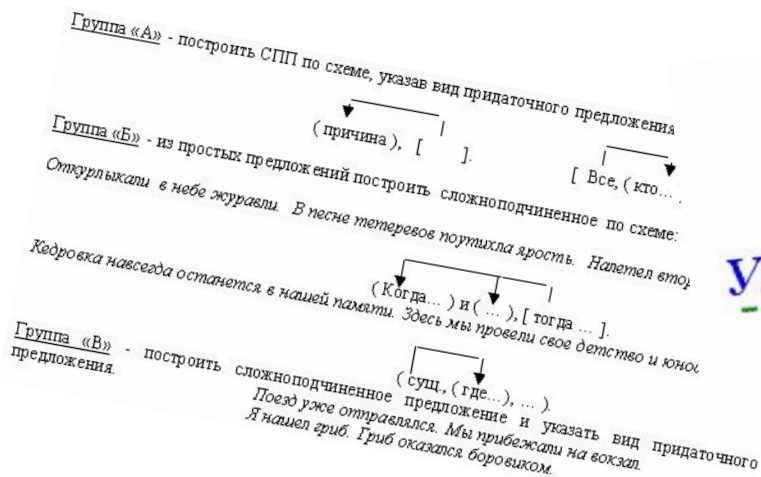
Plan

1. What is parsing and why we need it
2. Phrase structure grammar
 - a. Intuition
 - b. Formal grammars
 - c. CKY-algorithms
 - d. *Shallow parsing
 - e. Probabilistic grammars
 - f. Probabilistic grammars lexicalization
 - g. Quality evaluation
 - h. Tools and data

Parsing

machine analysis of the text structure, esp. the **sentence structure**

We've all done it at school, and sometimes machines can do it as well



Motivation

Sentence structure itself is never a goal for practical tasks, but is extremely useful as a preprocessing step e.g. for:

- facts extraction and opinion mining,
- text summarization,
- machine translation, etc.



Syntax

grammar subset studying sentences and ways of combining words within a sentence

Main approaches to syntax description

1) dependency grammar

Tesnière, L. 1959. *Éléments de syntaxe structurale*. Paris: Klincksieck

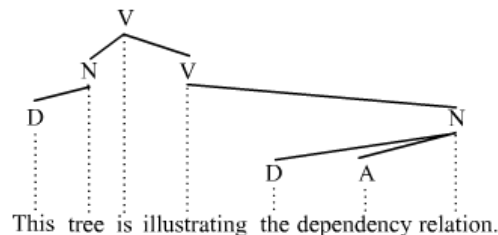
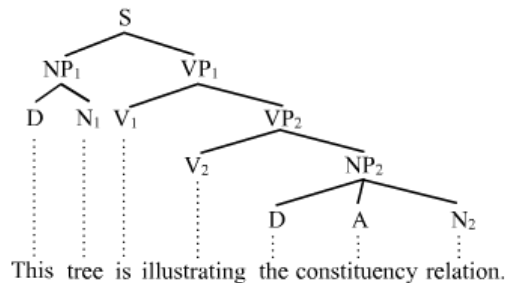
2) phrase structure grammars

Chomsky, Noam 1957. *Syntactic structures*. The Hague/Paris: Mouton

3) link grammar

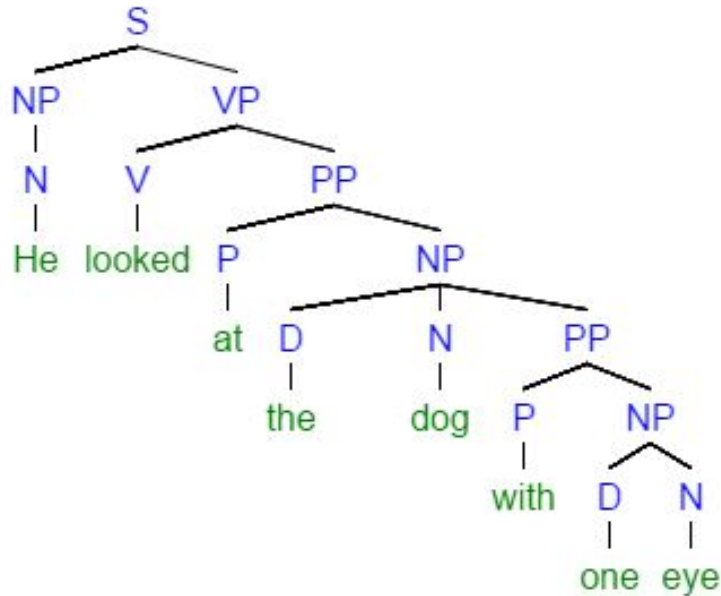
Daniel Sleator and Davy Temperley. 1991. *Parsing English with a Link Grammar*. Carnegie Mellon University Computer Science technical report, October 1991.

4) hybrid approaches

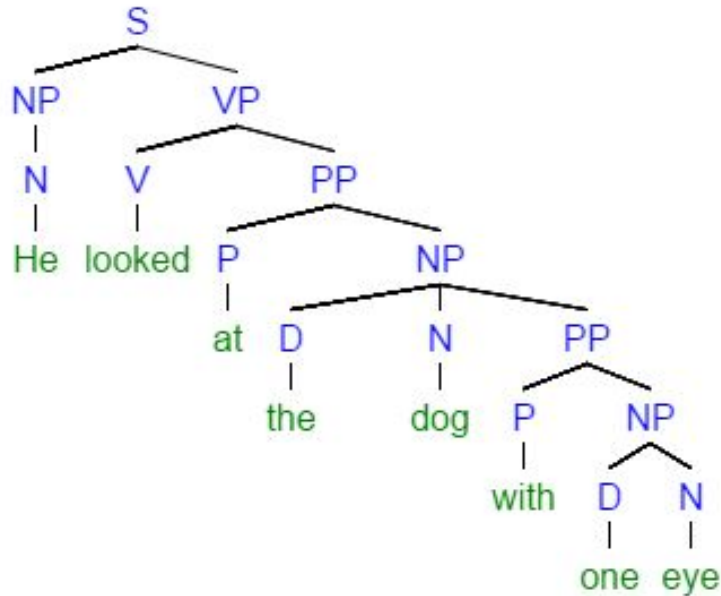


Before we define stuff thoroughly: an example

Is everything OK here?



Before we define stuff thoroughly: an example



Is everything OK here?

Yes! But if we want to say one has LOOKED with one eye, then the tree should be different

This is called **attachment ambiguity** (“dunno where to hang the subtree”)

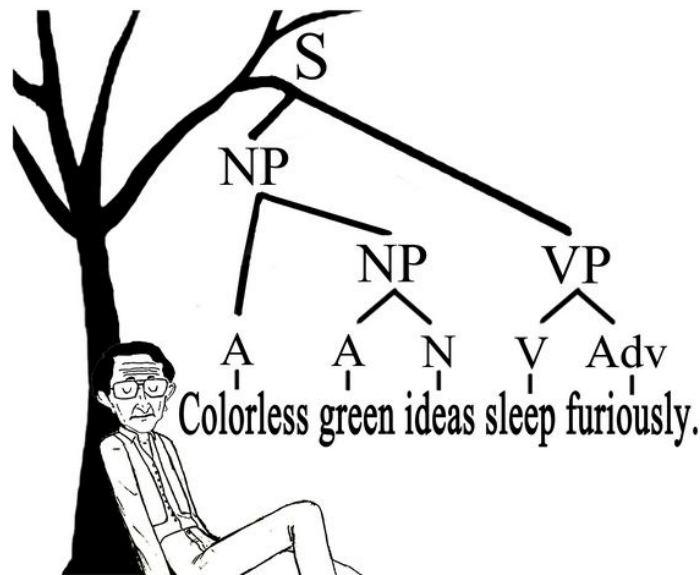
coordination ambiguity

is widely spread as well:

[old [men and women]] vs [old men] and [women]

Example, discussion

- There may be several parse trees, this is OK (BTW, there are parsers that yield multiple parse trees given the text)
- sometimes there is only one 'true' parse tree, and this is evident for us, but not for the machine, because **we know word meanings, context and how this world works in general**
- it is also hard thanks to:
 - ellipsis (omission of the word),
 - context-dependent meanings ("watch TV", "how come they got into TV"),
 - morphological ambiguity ("river flow", "the river can flow")

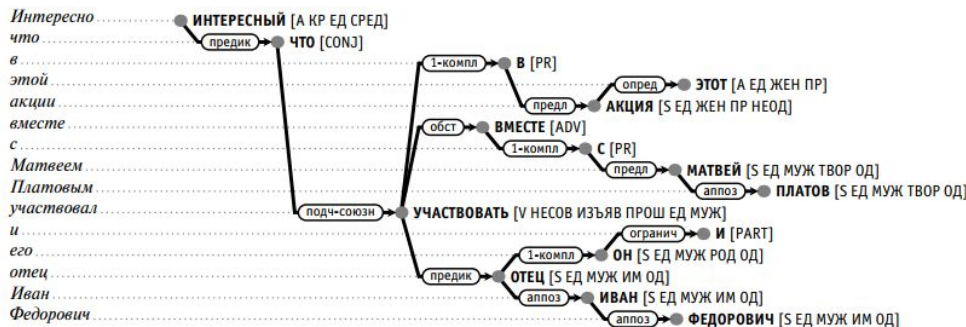


http://www.inanam.net/slade/Trees/colourless_green_ideas.jpg?w=240

Where the rules come from

- Experts (weak, expensive)
- Annotated data (great, also expensive)

Data banks, where the sentences are parsed



```
( (S (NP-SBJ-1 Jones)
  (VP followed
   (NP him)
   (PP-DIR into
    (NP the front room)))
  ,
  (S-ADV (NP-SBJ +-1)
   (VP closing
    (NP the door)
    (PP behind
     (NP him))))))
.)
```

```
( (S (ADVP-LOC Here)
  (NP-SBJ-1 he)
  (VP could
   n't
   (VP be
    (VP seen
     (NP +-1)
     (PP by
      (NP-LGS (NP Blue Throat)
       and
       (NP his gang))))))
  .))
```

Plan

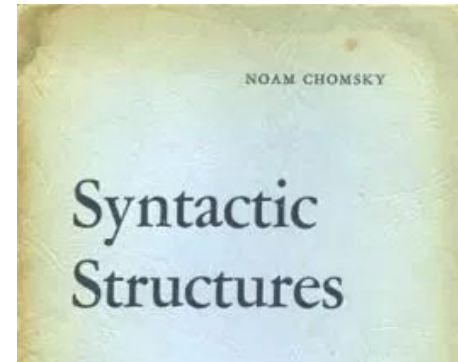
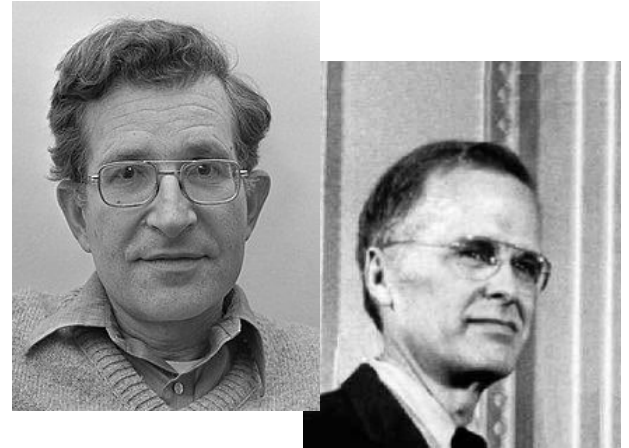
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Phrase structure grammar

Key points

- some words are 'connected more tightly with each other' than other ones
- the words in a sentence can be grouped into phrases, that 'behave like a single language entity'
- phrases can be nested

First formulated by Wilhelm Wundt (1900), formalized by **Noam Chomsky** (1956) and by **John Backus** (1959; BNF; independently).



Illustration

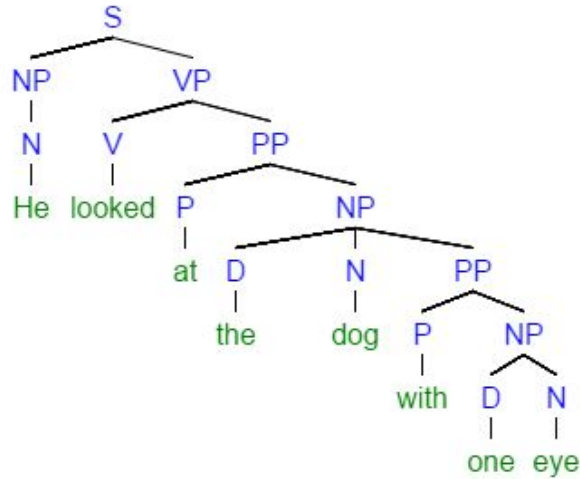
Phrases can be swapped

On September seventeenth, I'd like to fly from Atlanta to Denver
I'd like to fly *on September seventeenth* from Atlanta to Denver
I'd like to fly from Atlanta to Denver *on September seventeenth*

yet words forming a phrase sometimes can't

*On September, I'd like to fly seventeenth from Atlanta to Denver
*On I'd like to fly September seventeenth from Atlanta to Denver
*I'd like to fly on September from Atlanta to Denver seventeenth

Parse tree example



<https://i.imgur.com/ShMtNEy.png>

VP - verb phrase

(approx: a verb and dependent PoS)

NP - noun phrase

(approx: a noun is a root)

PP - prepositional phrase

AP - adjective phrase

D (Det) - determinatives: articles, certain pronouns, quantifiers, numbers, Q-words, etc.

...

Formal grammar rules

Formal grammar can be treated as a set of rules, which, after a sequence of applications to the initial symbol (**S**), we use to 'generate' the text

Parse tree in the example could be built ONLY if the grammar contains this set of rules:

S → **NP VP**

NP → **N**

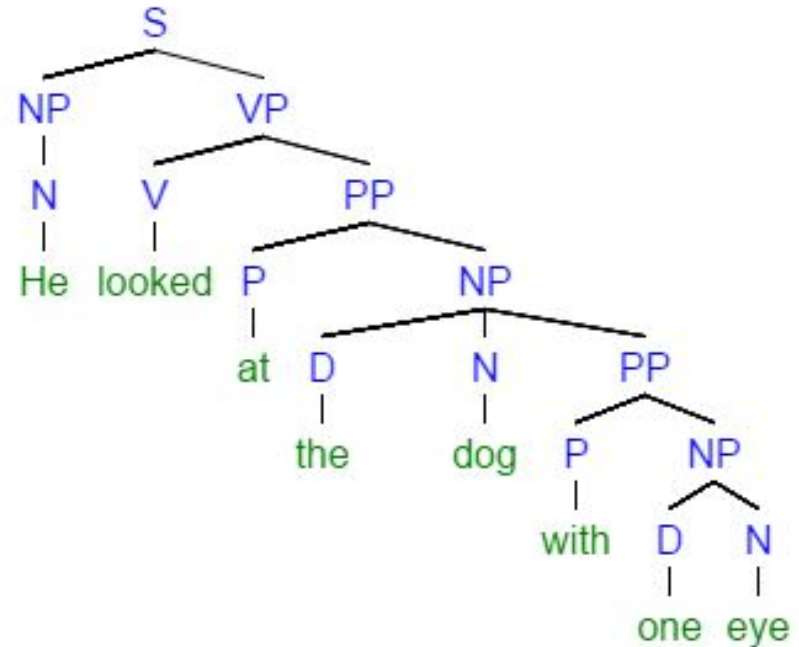
NP → **D N**

NP → **D N PP**

VP → **V PP**

PP → **P NP**

N → **He | dog | eye**, **V** → **looked**, **D** → **the | one**, **P** → **at | with**



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Definition

Formal grammar (aka context-free grammar)

is a tuple of...

N — a set of nonterminal symbols (e.g., *NP*, *VP*, *N*,...)

Σ — a set of terminal symbols (all symbols but ones in **N**)

R — a set of production rules of type: **A** \rightarrow **β** ,

where

A — a nonterminal symbol,

β — a string, an element of the set of all possible strings over **Σ** and **N**: **($\Sigma \cup \mathbf{N}$)***

S — a special 'starting' symbol in **N**

Then **the language defined by this grammar** is a set of all strings over **Σ** , that can be deduced from **S** using the production rules: $L = \{w \mid w \text{ is in } \Sigma^* \text{ and } S \Rightarrow w\}$

Chomsky Normal Form (CNF)

Any context-free grammar can be converted to the equivalent one (in terms of the defined language) that would contain production rules that would 'generate' not more than 2 'branches', e.g.:

$$A \rightarrow B C D \quad \longrightarrow \quad \begin{array}{l} A \rightarrow B X \\ X \rightarrow C D \end{array}$$

How to parse any CFG

Naive approach: traverse all possible parse trees? :)

Grammars are well studied objects, those who have taken classes on compilers should be very familiar with ones

Program code is long; one needs very effective algorithms to parse it

Sentences in natural languages are usually shorter (though some extremes exist), hence the requirements to parsing speed are lower.

We will take a look at probably the simplest algorithm

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Cocke-Younger-Kasami algorithm (CYK)

From bottom to top, dynamic programming, the grammar should be in the form of CNG

The idea, first approximation: for the sentence of length N , fill the 3D array with markers $p[l, s, a]$ determining whether *there is a rule that parses the substring $a[s:s+l]$*

$S \rightarrow NP VP$
 $VP \rightarrow VP PP$
 $VP \rightarrow V NP$
 $VP \rightarrow eats$
 $PP \rightarrow P NP$
 $NP \rightarrow Det N$
 $NP \rightarrow she$
 $V \rightarrow eats$
 $P \rightarrow with$
 $N \rightarrow fish$
 $N \rightarrow fork$
 $Det \rightarrow a$

CYK table

S						
	VP					
S						
	VP			PP		
S		NP			NP	
NP	V, VP	Det.	N	P	Det	N
she	eats	a	fish	with	a	fork

CYK-algorithm

```
let the input be a string  $I$  consisting of  $n$  characters:  $a_1 \dots a_n$ .  
let the grammar contain  $r$  nonterminal symbols  $R_1 \dots R_r$ , with start symbol  $R_1$ .  
let  $P[n,n,r]$  be an array of booleans. Initialize all elements of  $P$  to false.
```

The input is a sentence of length n

Boolean 3D array \mathbf{P} is initialized with **False**

CYK-algorithm

```
let the input be a string  $I$  consisting of  $n$  characters:  $a_1 \dots a_n$ .  
let the grammar contain  $r$  nonterminal symbols  $R_1 \dots R_r$ , with start symbol  $R_1$ .  
let  $P[n,n,r]$  be an array of booleans. Initialize all elements of  $P$  to false.
```

```
for each  $s = 1$  to  $n$   
  for each unit production  $R_v \rightarrow a_s$   
    set  $P[1,s,v] = \text{true}$ 
```

First we traverse the rules of the kind $\mathbf{A} \rightarrow \beta$, where β is a terminal symbol, and set for those β s TRUE for the corresponding rules and length = 1

CYK-algorithm

```
let the input be a string  $I$  consisting of  $n$  characters:  $a_1 \dots a_n$ .  
let the grammar contain  $r$  nonterminal symbols  $R_1 \dots R_r$ , with start symbol  $R_1$ .  
let  $P[n,n,r]$  be an array of booleans. Initialize all elements of  $P$  to false.
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for each  $s = 1$  to  $n$   
  for each unit production  $R_v \rightarrow a_s$   
    set  $P[1,s,v] = \text{true}$ 
```

```
for each  $l = 2$  to  $n$  -- Length of span  
  for each  $s = 1$  to  $n-l+1$  -- Start of span
```

For all substrings set by length l and starting index s

CYK-algorithm

```
let the input be a string  $I$  consisting of  $n$  characters:  $a_1 \dots a_n$ .  
let the grammar contain  $r$  nonterminal symbols  $R_1 \dots R_r$ , with start symbol  $R_1$ .  
let  $P[n,n,r]$  be an array of booleans. Initialize all elements of  $P$  to false.
```

```
for each  $s = 1$  to  $n$   
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```

```
for each  $l = 2$  to  $n$  -- Length of span  
  for each  $s = 1$  to  $n-l+1$  -- Start of span  
    for each  $p = 1$  to  $l-1$  -- Partition of span  
      for each production  $R_a \rightarrow R_b R_c$   
        if  $P[p,s,b]$  and  $P[l-p,s+p,c]$  then set  $P[l,s,a] = \text{true}$ 
```



...and all possible splits into two substrings we check if there is such a way to parse each of the two substrings so that their ‘heads’ (here: R_b and R_c) are in the right side of some rule (here: $R_a \rightarrow R_b R_c$)

If yes, set the corresponding array element to **True**.

CYK-algorithm

```
let the input be a string  $I$  consisting of  $n$  characters:  $a_1 \dots a_n$ .  
let the grammar contain  $r$  nonterminal symbols  $R_1 \dots R_r$ , with start symbol  $R_1$ .  
let  $P[n,n,r]$  be an array of booleans. Initialize all elements of  $P$  to false.
```

```
for each  $s = 1$  to  $n$   
  for each unit production  $R_v \rightarrow a_s$   
    set  $P[1,s,v] = \text{true}$ 
```

```
for each  $l = 2$  to  $n$  -- Length of span  
  for each  $s = 1$  to  $n-l+1$  -- Start of span  
    for each  $p = 1$  to  $l-1$  -- Partition of span  
      for each production  $R_a \rightarrow R_b R_c$   
        if  $P[p,s,b]$  and  $P[l-p,s+p,c]$  then set  $P[l,s,a] = \text{true}$ 
```

```
if  $P[n,1,1]$  is true then  
   $I$  is member of language  
else  
   $I$  is not member of language
```

CYK-algorithm: discussion

- As in Viterbi algorithms, we can store backpointers and do a backward pass to recover **all possible parse trees**
- There may exist several solutions, usually we need **just one**
- For the analysis we have to ‘denormalize’ CFG back from CNF
- Cubic complexity: **$O(n^3 |G|)$**
- Complexity for parsing with arbitrary CFGs can be reduced in terms of the ‘big O’, e.g. using the fast matrix product

Valiant, Leslie G. (1975). "General context-free recognition in less than cubic time". J. Comput. Syst. Sci. 10 (2): 308–314.

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BTW: shallow parsing

Sometimes for practical tasks shallow parsing is enough, e.g. **chunking** extracting several non-intersecting phrases

[*NP* The morning flight] [*PP* from] [*NP* Denver] [*VP* has arrived.]

E.g. we want to extract noun phrases:

[*NP* The morning flight] from [*NP* Denver] has arrived.

This can even be treated as a sequence learning task

The morning flight from Denver has arrived.
B_NP I_NP I_NP O B_NP O O

To evaluate all this, we compute precision, recall and f-measure for the selected chunks, taking exact borders matches + tags matches

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Probabilistic Context-Free Grammars (PGFG)

...are a way to choose the best possible parse; we'll assign probability to each production rule

N — a set of nonterminal symbols (e.g., *NP*, *VP*, *N*,...)

Σ — a set of terminal symbols (all symbols but ones in **N**)

R — a set of production rules of type: **A** → **β** [**p**],

where

A — a nonterminal symbol,

β — a string, an element of the set of all possible strings over **Σ** and **N**: $(\Sigma \cup N)^*$

p(β|A) — a number between 0 and 1, such that $\sum_{\beta} p(\beta|A) = 1$

S — a special 'starting' symbol in **N**

PCFG is consistent if the sum of probabilities of all possible sentences in the language in concern = 1

PCFG in action

The probability of the parse tree **T** for the sentence **S** is a product of all production rules that ‘were applied during the generation of the sentence’

$$P(T, S) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(RHS_i | LHS_i)$$

also we know that

$$P(T, S) = P(T)P(S|T)$$

and **P(S|T) = 1**, because the parse contains all sentence’s words **S**, so

$$P(T, S) = P(T)P(S|T) = P(T)$$

PCFG in action

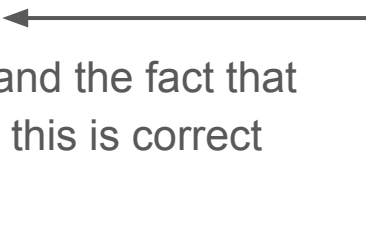
This is what it looks like



Having multiplied conditional probabilities we get probabilities of parse trees $P(T)$ and choose the most probable one

But what we need is

$$\hat{T}(S) = \operatorname{argmax}_{T \text{ s.t. } S = \text{yield}(T)} P(T|S)$$



However, if we use Bayes rule and the fact that $P(S,T) = P(T)$ it is easy to show this is correct

	Rules	P
S	→ VP	.05
VP	→ Verb NP	.20
NP	→ Det Nominal	.20
Nominal	→ Nominal Noun	.20
Nominal	→ Noun	.75
Verb	→ book	.30
Det	→ the	.60
Noun	→ dinner	.10
Noun	→ flight	.40

All trees T generating sentence S

Training: CYK again

Exactly the same algorithm, but

- boolean-valued array $P \Rightarrow$ probabilities
- setting **True** for any good split \Rightarrow
updating the probability if it's greater than the current value

if ($table[i,j,A] < P(A \rightarrow BC) \times table[i,k,B] \times table[k,j,C]$) **then**
 $table[i,j,A] \leftarrow P(A \rightarrow BC) \times table[i,k,B] \times table[k,j,C]$

CYK: before

```
let the input be a string  $I$  consisting of  $n$  characters:  $a_1 \dots a_n$ .
let the grammar contain  $r$  nonterminal symbols  $R_1 \dots R_r$ , with start symbol  $R_1$ .
let  $P[n,n,r]$  be an array of booleans. Initialize all elements of  $P$  to false.
for each  $s = 1$  to  $n$ 
  for each unit production  $R_V \rightarrow a_s$ 
    set  $P[1,s,v] = \text{true}$ 
for each  $l = 2$  to  $n$  -- Length of span
  for each  $s = 1$  to  $n-l+1$  -- Start of span
    for each  $p = 1$  to  $l-1$  -- Partition of span
      for each production  $R_a \rightarrow R_b R_c$ 
        if  $P[p,s,b]$  and  $P[l-p,s+p,c]$  then set  $P[l,s,a] = \text{true}$ 
if  $P[n,1,1]$  is true then
   $I$  is member of language
else
   $I$  is not member of language
```

CYK: after

```
let the input be a string  $I$  consisting of  $n$  characters:  $a_1 \dots a_n$ .
let the grammar contain  $r$  nonterminal symbols  $R_1 \dots R_r$ , with start symbol  $R_1$ .
let  $P[n,n,r]$  be an array of real numbers. Initialize all elements of  $P$  to zero
let  $back[n,n,r]$  be an array of backpointing triples.
for each  $s = 1$  to  $n$ 
  for each unit production  $R_v \rightarrow a_s$ 
    set  $P[1,s,v] = \text{Pr}(R_v \rightarrow a_s)$ 
for each  $l = 2$  to  $n$  -- Length of span
  for each  $s = 1$  to  $n-l+1$  -- Start of span
    for each  $p = 1$  to  $l-1$  -- Partition of span
      for each production  $R_a \rightarrow R_b R_c$ 
        prob_splitting =  $\text{Pr}(R_a \rightarrow R_b R_c) * P[p,s,b] * P[l-p,s+p,c]$ 
        if  $P[p,s,b] > 0$  and  $P[l-p,s+p,c] > 0$  and  $P[l,s,a] < \text{prob\_splitting}$  then
          set  $P[l,s,a] = \text{prob\_splitting}$ 
          set  $back[l,s,a] = \langle p,b,c \rangle$ 
```

the probability of the production rule
MAX probability of the parse $I[s:s+p]$
MAX probability of the parse $I[s+p:s+l]$

Where do we get probabilities from?

Where do we get probabilities from?

Obtain a treebank and compute production rules applications frequencies

$$P(\alpha \rightarrow \beta | \alpha) = \frac{\text{Count}(\alpha \rightarrow \beta)}{\sum_{\gamma} \text{Count}(\alpha \rightarrow \gamma)} = \frac{\text{Count}(\alpha \rightarrow \beta)}{\text{Count}(\alpha)}$$

Also the approaches incrementally updating rules probabilities exist

PCFG: discussion

- + Usable way to train grammar parsers using a corpus
- + Works better than previous approaches
- + The effective parsing algorithms exist

- Independence assumptions are too strong
(still many errors)
- Weak expressiveness:
 - it is useful to take 'connections types' into account: subject/object
 - many rules and regularities are connected with certain words

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Head of a phrase

It is important to be able to determine which element (non-terminal symbol) of the phrase is the main one

It is a discussed and a non-trivial task, despite it may not seem to be so. In English it is well-solved by the **rules** of the sort:

- If the last word is tagged POS, return last-word.
- Else search from right to left for the first child which is an NN, NNP, NNPS, NX, POS, or JJR.
- Else search from left to right for the first child which is an NP.
- Else search from right to left for the first child which is a \$, ADJP, or PRN.
- Else search from right to left for the first child which is a CD.
- Else search from right to left for the first child which is a JJ, JJS, RB or QP.
- Else return the last word

Why did we talk about that? Lexicalization!

Phrase head elements can serve as a helpful context!

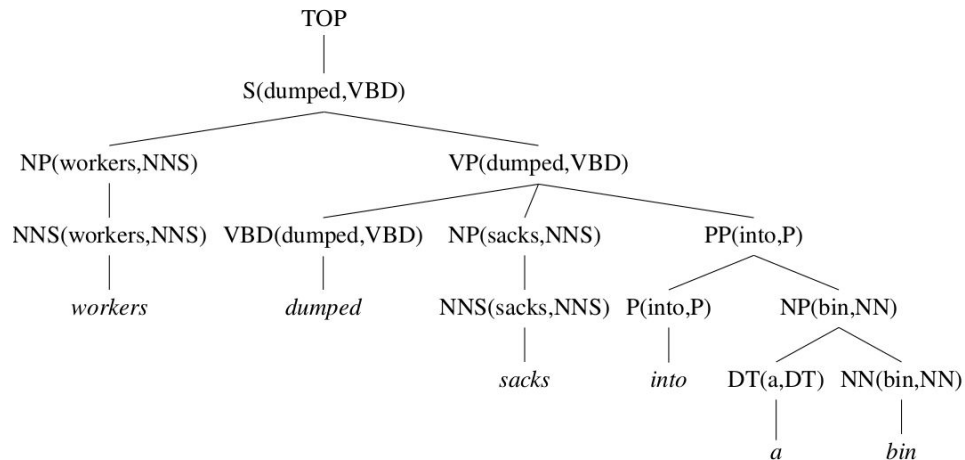
We can set it by appending carefully chosen terminal symbols (and head non-terminal symbols) to non-terminal ones

Probabilistic Lexicalized CFGs Charniak's and Collins' parsers

Charniak, E. (1997). Statistical parsing with a context-free grammar and word statistics. In AAAI-97, pp. 598–603. AAAI Press.

Collins, M. (1999). Head-Driven Statistical Models for Natural Language Parsing. Ph.D. thesis, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia.

For more details — Martin, Jurafsky, Collins books and materials



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Quality evaluation

Suppose we have the gold standard for parse trees, let us look at the **exact match of phrases borders and labels**:

$$\text{labeled recall} = \frac{\# \text{ of correct constituents in hypothesis parse of } s}{\# \text{ of correct constituents in reference parse of } s}$$

$$\text{labeled precision} = \frac{\# \text{ of correct constituents in hypothesis parse of } s}{\# \text{ of total constituents in hypothesis parse of } s}$$

...that is, as usual, fraction of correctly predicted items among true ones / all predicted respectively

cross-brackets: cases of the kind

((A B) C) in a “gold standard”

(A (B C)) in prediction

If labels themselves are not important, one can use other evaluation methods

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 - h. Tools and data

Instruments

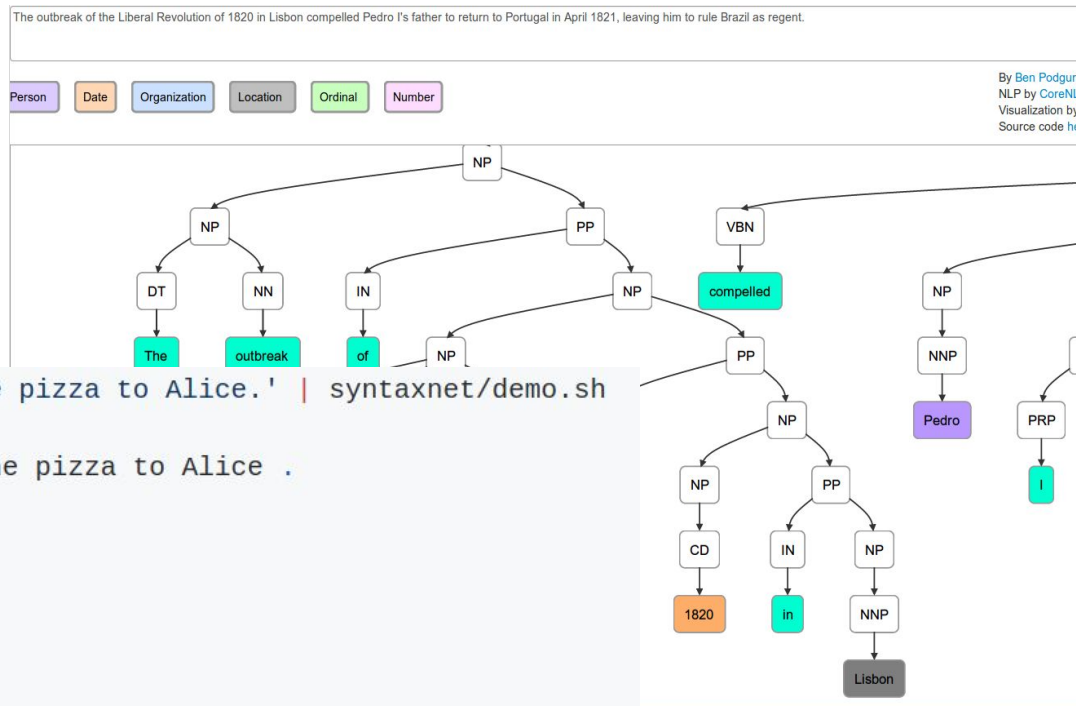
- nltk
- pattern
- spaCy, CoreNLP, CleanNLP
(are said to be fast)
- MATE
- SyntaxNet

```
echo 'Bob brought the pizza to Alice.' | syntaxnet/demo.sh
```

Input: Bob brought the pizza to Alice .

Parse:

```
brought VBD ROOT
+-- Bob NNP nsubj
+-- pizza NN dobj
|   +-- the DT det
+-- to IN prep
|   +-- Alice NNP pobj
+-- . . punct
```



Data

Syntax formalism

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Treebank#Syntactic_treebanks



			License fee
Dutch	LASSY Small and Large [Ⓔ]	Dependency	
English	Penn Treebank [Ⓔ]	Phrase structure	Linguistic Data Consortium
English	CCGbank [Ⓔ]	Combinatory categorial grammar	Linguistic Data Consortium
English	Prague English Dependency Treebank [Ⓔ]	Dependency	Linguistic Data Consortium
English	Universal Dependencies [Ⓔ]	Dependency	Open source (Creative Commons license or GNU general public license)
English	BLLIP WSJ corpus [Ⓔ]	Phrase structure	Linguistic Data Consortium
English	British Component of the International Corpus of English (ICE-GB) [Ⓔ]	Phrase structure	License fee [Ⓔ]
English	Diachronic Corpus of Present-Day Spoken English (DCPSE) [Ⓔ]	Phrase structure	License fee [Ⓔ]
English	Lancaster Parsed Corpus [Ⓔ]	Phrase structure	?
English	Susanne Corpus [Ⓔ]	Phrase structure	Freely available for research
English	Christine Corpus [Ⓔ]	Phrase structure	Freely available for research
English	Lucy Corpus [Ⓔ]	Phrase structure	Freely available for research
English	Tübingen Treebank of English / Spontaneous Speech (TüBa-E/S) [Ⓔ]	HPSG	Freely available for research
English	LinGO Redwoods [Ⓔ]	HPSG	?
English	Multi-Treebank [Ⓔ]	Phrase structure	Available online for comparison purposes

Used and recommended materials

1. [Martin-Jurafsky, Chapters 11-13](#)
2. Introduction to Automata Theory, Languages, and Computation
John E. Hopcroft, Rajeev Motwani, Jeffrey D. Ullman
3. Jarkko Kari, Automata and formal languages, [notes](#)
4. [Russian] Прикладная и компьютерная лингвистика
(под ред. И.С. Николаева, О.В. Митрениной, Т.М. Ландо)
5. [Russian] Введение в общий синтаксис. Я.Г. Тестелец.

Syntax — I

Anton Alekseev
Steklov Mathematical Institute in St Petersburg

NRU ITMO, St Petersburg, 2019
anton.m.alexeyev+itmo@gmail.com

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