# Investigations into Categorial Grammar: Symmetric Pregroup Grammar and Displacement Calculus 

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## Contents

1 Acknowledgements ..... 4
2 Introduction ..... 5
I Symmetric Pregroup Grammar: extending pregroups with duality and interaction ..... 7
3 Introduction ..... 8
4 The Lambek-Grishin Calculus ..... 9
5 Pregroup ${ }^{+}$ ..... 10
6 Distributivity ..... 12
7 Adding the $\oplus$ operator to FVect ..... 14
8 Conclusion ..... 16
II Displacement Calculus and Generative Capacity ..... 17
9 Introduction ..... 18
9.1 Formal Language Theory Beyond the Context-free Boundary ..... 18
10 Exploring the domain of Mild Context-Sensitivity ..... 19
10.1 TAGs and the introduction of Mild Context-Sensitivity ..... 19
10.2 The Categorial Approach ..... 19
10.3 The Rewriting Approach ..... 20
10.4 The Convergence of Categorial and Generative Grammar ..... 22
11 Displacement Calculus ..... 24
11.1 Introduction ..... 24
11.2 Displacement Calculus ..... 24
11.3 The generative capacity of first-order Displacement Calculus. ..... 27
11.3.1 The Copy and Double Copy Languages ..... 27
11.3.2 Counting and Crossing Dependencies ..... 31
12 Well-nested simple Range Concatenation Grammar ..... 35
12.1 Well-nested simple Range Concatenation Grammar ..... 35
12.2 A lexicalized normal form for (simple) Range Concatenation
Grammar ..... 38
13 The equivalence of first-order Displacement Grammar andwell-nested simple Range Concatenation Grammar50
14 Conclusion and further directions ..... 62
A Copy Language and Crossing Dependencies ..... 67

## 1 Acknowledgements

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## 2 Introduction

When we speak about computational linguistics in the context of the field of Artificial Intelligence, we can divide the research field of computational linguistics into three main subdivisions:

- Mathematical Linguistics is concerned with the mathematical foundations of natural language: in what way can we ascribe mathematical structure to language? Given a language formalism, what are the structures that it describes? And what is it's complexity with respect to time and space?
- Cognitive Modeling tries to give approximations of the way natural language processing occurs in the human mind.
- Engineering focuses on the development of technologies that facilitate efficient parsing of natural language.

This thesis is mainly concerned with mathematical linguistics: we focus on several grammatical frameworks and explore their generative capacity, i.e. what (formal) languages are recognized and what structures are assigned to sentences? Even within mathematical linguistics, there are numerous approaches to formal grammar, and we will restrict ourselves to Generative Grammar and Categorial Grammar. The approach of Generative Grammar is characterized by it's predictive behavior: it consists of a set of rules that determine what structures are grammatical and what structures are not. Perhaps the best known example is Context Free Grammar. Categorial Grammar on the other hand, is based on a type system with which we assign types to words, together with a logic acting on types with which one can derive grammatical sentences through a proof system, hence sometimes the expression type-logical grammar is used. Another approach we should mention is Tree Adjoining Grammar (TAG) because since its introduction, it has been well-studied and there are several interesting connections between $T A G$ and Generative as well as Categorial Grammar.

As for the contents of this thesis, in the background of Categorial Grammar and more specifically of classical Lambek Calculus and the Lambek-Grishin Calculus, I have done several investigations into the research field of Categorial Grammar. Most of the work originates from questions about generative capacity, in particular we look at formalisms that go beyond the expressive power of Context Free Grammar. Because I have investigated two different
approaches to formal language, I've decided to split this thesis into two independent parts. Although both parts have the same approach, there is a difference in perspective between the two:

- The first (and shortest) part reflects on Pregroup Grammar and a symmetric extension in the light of a distributional formalism introduced by Coecke et al. in [7]. It is inspired by Category Theory and abstract algebra, and shows a gentle combination of a compositional and a distributional perspective on computational linguistics, united through the theory of Cartesian Closed Categories and Weakly Distributive Categories.
- The second part is an investigation into Displacement Calculus [25] and it's generative capacity, and takes the perspective of the Categorial Grammar framework versus the Generative Grammar framework. We try to argue a convergence between the two frameworks through an equivalence between Displacment Grammar and Multiple ContextFree Grammar.


## Part I

## Symmetric Pregroup Grammar: extending pregroups with duality and interaction

In 2010, Coecke, Sadrzadeh and Clark [7] introduced a mathematical framework that integrates a compositional and a distributional model of meaning. They do so by pairing pregroup grammars (which are closely related to the Lambek Calculus) with vector spaces, which are both instantiations of compact closed categories. Linguistic analysis, however, reveals that the pregroup category is not expressive enough to account for phenomena beyond context-freeness. We will look at the Lambek-Grishin Calculus (LG), a symmetric extension of the Lambek Calculus which has as its basis two residual families of connectives and can be extended with distributivity postulates. In the light of LG, we will extend the pregroup category by mapping the types in LG to a bimonoidal extension of pregroup grammar, which we will refer to as pregroup ${ }^{+}$. When we do not allow distributivity postulates, it turns out that the pregroup ${ }^{+}$category naturally collapses into what effectively is a normal pregroup. However, adding distributivity postulates requires that the two operations differ, and that they can only communicate through these postulates. We will furthermore show that the resulting pregroup ${ }^{+}$category instantiates a weakly distributive category in accordance with [6], and we will show that the FVec category as well, can be extended to a weakly distributive category.

## 3 Introduction

[7] have introduced an approach that integrates a compositional grammatical model, pregroup grammar, with a distributional model of word meaning using vector spaces. Because both pregroup grammar and vector space models are instantiations of so-called compact closed categories, they paired the two structures to handle grammaticality in a symbolic way and word/sentence meaning in a distributional fashion, of which the latter has proven to be quite useful in practical applications. Their approach can be depicted in a simple diagram:


Informally, the idea is that tuples in the $F V e c \times P$ category are assigned to words. Each morphism in the $P$ category corresponds to a morphism in the $F V e c$ category so that derivation steps in a pregroup can be carried out synchronously with computations on the vector spaces of the sequence of words. In this way, we have a compositional component that allows us to determine whether or not a sequence of words is a grammatical sentence, while the vector space model calculates the meaning from the word level to the sentence level synchronously.

Several computational grammar formalisms have been proposed in order to capture linguistic phenomena beyond context-freeness such as crossing dependencies, etc. The Lambek-Grishin Calculus, introduced by [20], seems to be able to capture these phenomena and [16] has elaborated well on the Lambek Calculus and it's algebraic counterpart, which he called pregroups. A straightforward idea, in the light of the work of Coecke et al. is to study possible extensions of the pregroup formalism that resemble the extension of classical Lambek Calculus to a version that contains a dual residuated triple and the so-called Grishin interactions, where the latter seem to permit the system to exhibit a powerful mechanism for handling crossing dependencies and other.

## 4 The Lambek-Grishin Calculus

We define the Lambek-Grishin Calculus as a 7 -tuple (Cat, $\otimes, /, \backslash, \oplus, \otimes, \otimes$ ) with the following axiomatization:

$$
\begin{array}{cc}
\frac{\overline{A \rightarrow A} A x .}{} & \frac{A \rightarrow B \quad B \rightarrow C}{A \rightarrow C} \text { Trans. } \\
\frac{A \rightarrow C / B}{\overline{A \otimes B \rightarrow C}} \text { Res } / & \frac{B \otimes C \rightarrow A}{\overline{C \rightarrow B \oplus A}} \text { Res } \otimes \\
\overline{\overline{B \rightarrow A \backslash C}} \text { Res } \backslash & \overline{\overline{C \ominus A \rightarrow B}} \text { Res } \oslash
\end{array}
$$

Note that introducing the dual residuated triple $(\oplus, \varnothing, \otimes)$ doesn't increase weak generative capacity according to [2]. The interesting part involves letting the $\otimes$ and $\oplus$ families interact through distributivity laws, which are given here in the form that in [21, is referred to as (dist):

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\frac{A \otimes B \rightarrow C \oplus D}{C \otimes A \rightarrow D / B} D_{1} & \frac{A \otimes B \rightarrow C \oplus D}{B \oslash D \rightarrow A \backslash C} D_{2} \\
\frac{A \otimes B \rightarrow C \oplus D}{C \otimes B \rightarrow A \backslash D} D_{3} & \frac{A \otimes B \rightarrow C \oplus D}{A \oslash D \rightarrow C / B} D_{4}
\end{array}
$$

The distributivity laws can be applied to give proofs for more complicated sequents such as $n p \otimes(((i / n p) \otimes((n p \backslash s) \otimes i)) \otimes n p) \rightarrow s$ because we are now allowed to rotate and swap the ordering of the types such that all input and output types are contracted. In this particular sequent, the outer $n p$ formulas are moved into the inner formula by means of distribution, where they can contract with the ( $i / n p$ ) and ( $n p \backslash s$ ) formulae, respectively. See Figure 1 for the full proof.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\overline{\overline{(i / n p) \rightarrow(i / n p)}} A x . \\
\frac{(i / n p) \otimes n p \rightarrow i}{} R e s / \frac{\overline{(n p \backslash s) \otimes i \rightarrow(n p \backslash s) \otimes i}}{} \text { Ax. } \\
\frac{(i / n p) \otimes n p \rightarrow(n p \backslash s) \oplus((n p \backslash s) \otimes i)}{(i / n p) \otimes((n p \backslash s) \otimes i) \rightarrow(n p \backslash s) / n p} D_{4} \\
\text { Res } \otimes \\
\frac{(i / n a n s .}{((i / n p) \otimes((n p \backslash s) \otimes i)) \otimes n p \rightarrow n p \backslash s} \text { Res } R \text { Res } \\
n p \otimes(((i / n p) \otimes((n p \backslash s) \otimes i)) \otimes n p) \rightarrow s
\end{gathered}
$$

Figure 1: A LG proof for $n p \otimes(((i / n p) \otimes((n p \backslash s) \otimes i)) \otimes n p) \rightarrow s$

## 5 Pregroup ${ }^{+}$

Now that we have defined the Lambek-Grishin Calculus, we can begin our exploration into the algebraic approach. First, let's recall the definition of a pregroup by [3]:

Definition 1. A pregroup is an ordered monoid ( $C, \leq, \cdot, 1,{ }^{l}, r^{r}$ ) such that:

- $p \cdot p^{r} \leq 1 \leq p^{r} \cdot p$
- $p^{l} \cdot p \leq 1 \leq p \cdot p^{l}$
- 1 acts as a multiplicative unit
and $a^{l}$ and $a^{r}$ are called respectively left and right adjoints of $a$.
Then, on a given pregroup $P$ we can define a pregroup grammar by a set of words $\Sigma$, a distinguished goal type $s$ and a typing function $\delta$ that assigns types (elements of the pregroup on which the grammar is defined) to words in $\Sigma$. It can be shown that grammaticality in a pregroup can be checked by only making use of the contraction rules, by checking whether a concatenation of types $a_{1} \cdot a_{2} \ldots a_{n}$ is less than or equal to $s$ (when we let $1 a=a 1 \leq a)$.

We can map (Nonassociative) Lambek Calculus into a pregroup format using the following homomorphism [•]:

$$
\begin{array}{lc}
{[A]=a} & {[A \otimes B]=[A] \cdot[B]} \\
{[A / B]=[A] \cdot[B]^{l}} & {[A \backslash B]=[A]^{r} \cdot[B]}
\end{array}
$$

A first idea for extension can be to add a new operator and two new adjoints, and by giving a similar type translation for the $\oplus$ family of LG, obtain a + family within the pregroup structure. Doing so, we obtain the following structure, which I will call a pregroup ${ }^{+}$:

Definition 2. A pregroup ${ }^{+}$is a partially ordered bimonoid ( $C, \leq, \cdot,+, 1,0,{ }^{l}, r^{r},{ }^{u},{ }^{d}$ ) such that:

- $\left(C, \leq, \cdot, 1,{ }^{l}, \cdot{ }^{r}\right)$ is a pregroup
- $p+p^{u} \leq 0 \leq p^{u}+p$
- $p^{d}+p \leq 0 \leq p+p^{d}$
- 0 acts as a comultiplicative unit
and $a^{u}$ and $a^{d}$ are called respectively up and down adjoints of $a$.
On a given pregroup ${ }^{+} P^{+}$, we can construct a pregroup ${ }^{+}$grammar in the same way as we did for pregroups. We now can map the $\oplus$ family into pregroup ${ }^{+}$types by extending our [•] translation:

$$
[A \oplus B]=[A]+[B] \quad[A \odot B]=[A]+[B]^{u} \quad[A \otimes B]=[A]^{d}+[B]
$$

Conceptually, we can graph a matrix of each element and it's adjoints, giving an intuition of how we look at elements and adjoints:

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ccccc}
\ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \\
\cdots & p^{l u}=p^{u l} & p^{u} & p^{r u}=p^{u r} & \cdots \\
\cdots & p^{l} & p & p^{r} & \cdots \\
\cdots & p^{l d}=p^{d l} & p^{d} & p^{r d}=p^{d r} & \cdots \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots
\end{array}\right)
$$

As [3] states, in a pregroup, it is required that inverses collapse, i.e. $p^{l r}=p=p^{r l}$. For the up and down inverse we have the same requirements. The above matrix shows how we can view pregroup elements on a line, and how up and down inverses create a 2 -dimensional element matrix. So the inverses of an element show what path has been traversed through this matrix, e.g. $p^{\text {lurd }}$ denotes a step to the left, then up, then right and finally, a step down, returning at the origin. In this way, we may conclude that $p^{\text {lurd }}=p$.

## 6 Distributivity

The (dist) laws give rise to the following characteristic LG theorems:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
(A \otimes B) \otimes C \rightarrow A \otimes(B \otimes C) & C \otimes(B \otimes A) \rightarrow(C \otimes B) \otimes A \\
C \otimes(A \oslash B) \rightarrow A \oslash(C \otimes B) & (B \oslash A) \otimes C \rightarrow(B \otimes C) \otimes A
\end{array}
$$

Under the mapping [•], we would end up with the following ordering postulates:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\left(a^{d}+b\right) \cdot c \leq a^{d}+(b \cdot c) & c \cdot\left(b+a^{u}\right) \leq(c \cdot b)+a^{u} \\
c \cdot\left(a^{d}+b\right) \leq a^{d}+(c \cdot b) & \left(b+a^{u}\right) \cdot c \leq(b \cdot c)+a^{u}
\end{array}
$$

Because we have in a pregroup ${ }^{+}$that $a^{d u}=a=a^{u d}$, it is easy to see that the four postulates lead to weakly distributive laws by the following:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (a+b) \cdot c=\left(a^{u d}+b\right) \cdot c \leq a^{u d}+(b \cdot c)=a+(b \cdot c)\left(d_{1}\right) \\
& c \cdot(b+a)=c \cdot\left(b+a^{d u}\right) \leq(c \cdot b)+a^{d u}=(c \cdot b)+a\left(d_{2}\right) \\
& c \cdot(a+b)=c \cdot\left(a^{u d}+b\right) \leq a^{u d}+(c \cdot b)=a+(c \cdot b)\left(d_{3}\right) \\
& (b+a) \cdot c=\left(b+a^{d u}\right) \cdot c \leq(b \cdot c)+a^{d u}=(b \cdot c)+a\left(d_{4}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

It may be clear already that if we use the seemingly more 'restricted' distributivity postulates, we have to apply the same trick used to derive the weakly distributive laws in our derivations. Instead of doing this, it is more economic to directly introduce the derived postulates.
Now consider the example from section 2 :
$n p \otimes(((i / n p) \oslash((n p \backslash s) \otimes i)) \otimes n p \rightarrow s$.
This sequent is derivable in LG with distributivity. Translating the types, we obtain:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& {[n p]=n p} \\
& {[s]=s} \\
& {[(((i / n p) \oslash((n p \backslash s) \otimes i))]} \\
& =[i / n p]+[((n p \backslash s) \otimes i))]^{u} \\
& =\left(i \cdot n p^{l}\right)+\left([(n p \backslash s)]^{d}+[i]\right)^{u} \\
& =\left(i \cdot n p^{l}\right)+\left(\left(n p^{r} \cdot s\right)^{d}+i\right)^{u} \\
& =\left(i \cdot n p^{l}\right)+\left(i^{u}+\left(n p^{r} \cdot s\right)^{d u}\right)\left((a \cdot b)^{l}=b^{l} \cdot a^{l}\right) \\
& =\left(i \cdot n p^{l}\right)+\left(i^{u}+\left(n p^{r} \cdot s\right)\right) \text { (up and down inverses collapse) }
\end{aligned}
$$

Making use of the weakly distributivity postulates, we obtain the following chain of inequalities:

$$
\begin{gathered}
n p \cdot\left(\left(i \cdot n p^{l}\right)+\left(i^{u}+\left(n p^{r} \cdot s\right)\right)\right) \cdot n p \leq \\
n p \cdot\left(\left(i \cdot n p^{l} \cdot n p\right)+i^{u}+\left(n p^{r} \cdot s\right)\right) \leq\left(d_{4}\right) \\
n p \cdot\left(i+i^{u}+\left(n p^{r} \cdot s\right)\right) \leq(\text { left contraction }) \\
n p \cdot n p^{r} \cdot s \leq(\text { up contraction }) \\
s \text { (right contraction) }
\end{gathered}
$$

Little intuition is needed to see that distributivity requires two operators to act on types, thus it is, though also conceptually tempting, a necessity to introduce a comultiplication operator. However, in the case we allow the comultiplication and the multiplication operators to collapse but keep the up and down inverses, we can equally well describe the non-distributive case. Furthermore, it can easily be shown that the resulting (non-distributive) monoidal structure falls within context-freeness as well as is the case with pregroup grammars and the Lambek-Grishin Calculus without distributivity (pregroup grammars can be shown to be context-free by giving a nondeterministic pushdown-automaton, a similar automaton can recognize pregroup ${ }^{+}$ grammars). This might lead one to think there is a strong connection between the Lambek-Grishin Calculus and pregroup ${ }^{+}$grammar. Furthermore, Moot in [24] shows that LG generates some interesting languages that LTAG generates as well. In appendix A, we give the LG as well as the pregroup ${ }^{+}$grammars for respectively the copy language and crossing dependencies. With some exercise, we can see that these pregroup ${ }^{+}$grammars generate exactly the copy language and crossing dependencies respectively.

## $7 \quad$ Adding the $\oplus$ operator to FVect

Since we are interested in the LG with distributivity (beyond contextfreeness) we will need our pregroup ${ }^{+}$structure to be a bimonoid. If we want to interpret this in the compositional distributional framework, we want to add a $\oplus$ operator into the FVec category. There are numerous possibilities here, but a problem arises: in the model of [7], tensored vectors are entangled ones, with their weights coming from a corpus-determined weighting matrix. If we would distribute the $\otimes$ and $\oplus$ operators, we would have to look up our weights every time we apply a distributivity law. So when we have a vector living in the vector space $C \otimes(A \oplus B)$, thus having weights combining $C$ with $A \oplus B$, we would need to obtain a new weight for $C \otimes B$ in order to distribute to a vector living in the vector space $A \oplus(C \otimes B)$. One way to avoid this problem is simply stating that $\oplus=\otimes$. In this case the FVect category might be too degenerate for linguistic purposes. Another option we have is to treat $\oplus$ as disjoint sum, and thus composing two objects while retaining their individual information. For disjoint sum, we have the following: If $\left\{\overrightarrow{a_{1}}, . ., \overrightarrow{a_{n}}\right\}$ is a base of $A$ and $\left\{\overrightarrow{b_{1}}, . ., \overrightarrow{b_{n}}\right\}$ is a base of $B$, then $\left\{\left(\overrightarrow{a_{1}}, \overrightarrow{0}\right), . .,\left(\overrightarrow{a_{n}}, \overrightarrow{0}\right),\left(\overrightarrow{0}, \overrightarrow{b_{1}}\right), . .,\left(\overrightarrow{0}, \overrightarrow{b_{n}}\right)\right\}$ is a base of $A \oplus B$.
Then, for vectors $\vec{a}$ and $\vec{b}$ respectively in $A$ and $B$, we have:
$\vec{a}=\sum_{i} C_{i} \overrightarrow{a_{i}}$ with $\overrightarrow{a_{i}}$ a base vector
$\vec{b}=\sum_{j} C_{j} \overrightarrow{b_{j}}$ with $\overrightarrow{b_{j}}$ a base vector
$\vec{a} \oplus \vec{b}=\sum_{i} C_{i}\left(\overrightarrow{a_{i}}, \overrightarrow{0}\right)+\sum_{j} C_{j}\left(\overrightarrow{0}, \overrightarrow{b_{j}}\right)$
To overcome the problem of the tensored vectors, we want to make sure that we can apply all distributivity postulates first, then look up the appropriate weights, and then apply contractions. For this, we need to establish the following theorem:

Theorem 1. For a Pregroup ${ }^{+}$grammar with distributivity, each chain of inequalities $\alpha_{1} \leq \alpha_{2} \ldots \leq \alpha_{n}$ can be rewritten into an equivalent form $\beta_{1} \leq$ $\beta_{2} \ldots \leq \beta_{m}$ for which the following holds:

- $\alpha_{1}=\beta_{1}$
- $\alpha_{n}=\beta_{m}$
- For some $i \geq 0: \beta_{1} \leq \ldots \leq \beta_{i}$ are applications of distributivity laws and $\beta_{i} \leq \ldots \leq \beta_{m}$ are applications of contraction rules
PROOF Let $\alpha_{1} \leq \alpha_{2} \ldots \leq \alpha_{n}$ be a chain of inequalities. We call $\alpha_{1}$ the initial type sequence and $\alpha_{n}$ the final type sequence. The idea is to shift
all applications of distributivity postulates to the left in order to obtain a sequence of distributions and a sequence of contractions. Set $\beta_{1}=\alpha_{1}$ and $\beta_{n}=\alpha_{m}$. In the trivial cases that $\alpha_{1} \leq \alpha_{2} \ldots \leq \alpha_{n}$ consists of distributions only or contractions only, we let $\beta_{1} \leq \beta_{2} \ldots \leq \beta_{m}=\alpha_{1} \leq \alpha_{2} \ldots \leq \alpha_{n}$.
Now consider some $\alpha_{j}=\ldots(c \cdot(a+b)) \ldots$ and $\alpha_{j+1}=\ldots a+(c \cdot b) \ldots$ and the case where $\alpha_{1} \leq \alpha_{2} \ldots \leq \alpha_{j}$ contains some contractions. We then have the following cases:
- all contractions only occur in the context. Then, bring the distribution $\alpha_{j} \leq \alpha_{j+1}$ to the front.
- $\alpha_{j-1}=\left(c \cdot p^{l} \cdot p\right) \cdot(a+b)$. Then apply multiple distributions and a contraction at the end to get $\left(c \cdot p^{l} \cdot p\right) \cdot(a+b) \leq a+\left(\left(c \cdot p^{l} \cdot p\right) \cdot b\right) \leq a+(c \cdot b)$
- $\alpha_{j-1}=c \cdot\left(\left(p^{l} \cdot p\right)+(a+b)\right)$. Then apply multiple distributions and a contraction at the end to get $c \cdot\left(\left(p^{l} \cdot p\right)+(a+b)\right) \leq\left(p^{l} \cdot p\right)+(c \cdot(a+b)) \leq$ $\left(p^{l} \cdot p\right)+(a+(c \cdot b)) \leq a+(c \cdot b)$
- The other cases follow by extrapolation

With this information, we can handle distributivity at the vector (meaning) side by first distributing the vectors, then assigning weights to the vectors, and handle all contractions in the way of the model of [7].

## 8 Conclusion

We have elaborated on a symmetric extension of the pregroup formalism, intended as a suitable category to be used in extension to the model developed by [7. The model that we have described so far can, similar to the $\mathbf{F V e c} \times \mathbf{P}$ model, be depicted in a simple diagram:


The pregroup ${ }^{+}$category with $\left(d_{1}\right)$ and $\left(d_{2}\right)$ instantiates the non-planar weakly distributive category as described by [6]. It is important to note that Cockett and Seely distinguish the case where the two tensors are symmetric, i.e. invariant under permutation of its arguments, in which case $\left(d_{3}\right)$ and $\left(d_{4}\right)$ are induced, but that in the pregroup ${ }^{+}$category with the four distributivity postulates, we do not have symmetric tensors, so we cannot classify it as a symmetric weakly distributive category. As the upper bound on the weak generative capacity of $\mathbf{L G}$ is still open, further study may include complexity issues (upper bound for pregroup ${ }^{+}$). As for parsing possibilities, the theorem of the last section shows that we can split parsing into two parts: applying all possible distributions, and running each result on a nondeterministic pushdown automaton to handle the resulting contractions.

## Part II

## Displacement Calculus and Generative Capacity

Morrill, Valentìn and Fadda ( [25], [8) introduced the theory of Displacement Calculus, an extension of the Lambek Calculus that typically deals with discontinuities via insertion and wrapping points. We will define a restricted version, so-called first-order Displacement Calculus and discuss some of it's possible definitions with respect to how insertion/wrapping points are treated. We will proceed to showing how general first-order Displacement Calculus is capable of describing several mild context-sensitive languages, viz. counting and crossing dependencies. Finally, we will show that general first-order Displacement Calculus is equivalent to well-nested simple Range Concatenation Grammar.

## 9 Introduction

### 9.1 Formal Language Theory Beyond the Context-free Boundary

Throughout the last decades, research in computational linguistics has increasingly focused on formalisms that, in terms of generative capacity, go beyond the context-free boundary. Although Context-free Grammar has been well-studied, there are several claims against the context-freeness of natural language ( [31], [10]). An important phenomenon that can not be directly expressed by Context Free Grammar are crossing dependencies in Dutch and Swiss German. For this reason, there has been a lot of development in the field of computational linguistics to find formalisms that adequately handle these and several other phenomena (viz. counting dependencies) that occur in natural language. In this thesis, we focus on the approach of Categorial Grammar (CG) on one side and the approach of Multiple Context Free Grammar (MCFG) on the other side. MCFG is a tuple-based extension of Context Free Grammar which has shown to be equivalent to simple Range Concatenation Grammar (sRCG). We will also briefly discuss Tree Adjoining Grammar in the introduction because there is a correspondence between TAG and so-called well-nested MCFG.
The outline of this part is as follows: Section 1 comprises a (short) overview of the relevant formalisms and discusses our motivation for using Displacement Calculus, in section 2 we introduce Displacement Calculus and discuss it's generative capacity, in section 3 we introduce simple Range Concatenation Grammar as a convenient way to express MCFG. Furthermore, we will discuss the difference between well-nested MCFG and non well-nested MCFG in terms of generative capacity. We will also prove a new normal form for well-nested sRCG. In section 4 we prove the equivalence of first-order Displacement Calculus and well-nested sRCG and give some consequences of our main theorem. Section 5 then returns to the claim made in the first section by providing directions for further research.

## 10 Exploring the domain of Mild Context-Sensitivity

### 10.1 TAGs and the introduction of Mild Context-Sensitivity

The notion of Mild Context-Sensitivity was informally introduced by Joshi in [12]. By his definition, a Mildly Context Sensitive Language (MCSL) has the following three properties:

- Limited Crossing Dependencies
- The Constant Growth Property, which states that there is a constant $c$ such that for every $w \in L$, there is a $w^{\prime} \in L$ with $|w|<\left|w^{\prime}\right| \leq|w|+c$. Informally, this says that the difference between two strings that are closest in length is at most a fixed bound. It ensures that counting and crossing dependencies are allowed, but not languages such as $\left\{a^{2^{n}} \mid n \geq\right.$ $0\}$.
- Polynomial Parsability

Limited Crossing Dependencies sound somewhat vague, but the idea is that structures occur in language in which dependencies between words cross each other, as in the language $\left\{a^{n} b^{m} c^{n} d^{m} \mid n, m \geq 0\right\}$. We assume limited to mean having a maximum number of crossing dependencies (one might argue that sentences with 18 crossing dependencies are not really comprehensible by a human).
Joshi et al. also argue in [11 that the so-called $M I X_{3}$ language may not be a MCSL, a statement which we will turn to in the next few sections.
Joshi then introduced the formalism known as Tree Adjoining Grammar $(T A G)$, in which tree structures are combined by means of two operations called substitution and adjunction. Such a grammar consists of tree structures called elementary trees and auxiliary trees, and the language that is associated with each possible tree structure that can be built from the grammar. We will see in the next subsections why $T A G$ is related to the subject of this part.

### 10.2 The Categorial Approach

The cornerstone of Categorial Grammar is the Lambek Calculus, originating from the work of Lambek [15] which in 1965 was conjectured to be equivalent in generative capacity with Context Free Grammar [5]. It was not until 1993 that this conjecture was proved by Pentus [26]. In the Categorial
approach as in the case of Context Free Grammar, there were several proposals for extensions of basic Lambek Calculus. These extensions include the multimodal Lambek Calculus ( $N L_{\diamond}$ ) advocated by Moortgat [19], and the Lambek-Grishin Calculus (LG), which was introduced by [20]. A restricted version of the multimodal system, $N L_{\diamond^{-}}$, in which only non-expanding structural rules are used, was shown to fall in the Context-Sensitive Languages [23], but the exact class of languages that LG describes, is still unknown. Although [22] had tried to prove equivalence of LG and TAG, the result of [17] falsifies the result of the former by showing that LG is capable of generating the intersection of a context-free language and the permutation closure of a context-free language. These languages fall beyond the generative capacity of Tree Adjoining Grammar.

In this part, we will focus on another, more recent proposal by [25] to extend Lambek Calculus to handle discontinuous dependencies in natural language. This work led to a Calculus of Displacement (D) in which strings can be separated in several strings with detached parts. Because of the way strings are separated, an equivalence between what I will call general firstorder Displacement Calculus and well-nested simple Range Concatenation Grammar can be easily constructed. The motivation for this is twofold:

1. We want to compare Categorial Grammar to Generative Grammar.
2. We want to further investigate the role of well-nested MCFG/sRCG, for reasons we will elaborate on in the next few subsections.

### 10.3 The Rewriting Approach

At the side of Context Free Grammar we find Multiple Context Free Grammar, which was developed by [30]. Multiple Context Free Grammars manipulate tuples of strings, and exhibit a control property in that the generative capacity grows according to a control parameter. Linear MCFG was shown to be equivalent to simple Range Concatenation Grammar, Linear Context Free Rewriting Systems and set-local MCTAG, a generalizing extension of Tree Adjoining Grammar. The equivalence with simple Range Concatenation Grammar especially is important, because sRCG has been provided with several normal forms, which make the parsing of such grammars very convenient.
Multiple Context Free Grammar were claimed to may be more appropriate to describe the Mild Context-Sensitive Languages. For example, in [10]
who introduced a formalism known as Literal Movement Grammar, it is argued that "The class of mildly context-sensitive languages seems to be most adequately approached by [MCFGs]." Because MCFG conforms to two of the three restrictions of Mild Context-Sensitivity. However, linear MCFG is NP-complete, and MCFG in general even is EXPTIME-complete, thus they may not be an appropriate approach to Mild Context-Sensitivity. In this light, 14 investigated a subset of MCFG, so-called well-nested $M C F G$ $\left(\mathrm{MCFG}_{w n}\right)$, which do have a polynomial recognition procedure [REF]. Furthermore, by the very recent result of [28, MIX $=\left\{w \in\{a, b, c\}^{*} \| w_{a} \mid=\right.$ $\left.\left|w_{b}\right|=\left|w_{c}\right| \geq 0\right\}$ language, introduced by [1] is contained in 2-MCFG. Comparing this in retrospect to the claim made in [11:
"MCSGs capture only certain kinds of dependencies, such as nested dependencies and certain limited kinds of crossing dependencies (for example, in subordinate clause constructions in Dutch or some variations of them, but perhaps not in the so-called MIX language )",
we find ourselves in the position to claim that well-nested MCFG may be the most appropriate formalism that describes the class of Mildly Context Sensitive Languages (MCSL). Although it is not known as we speak (that is, a proof has not been provided yet), it is assumed that the $M I X_{3}$ language is not in the class of well-nested MCFG, and thus it is sensible to investigate the generative power of first-order Displacement Calculus (a variant of Displacement Calculus that puts a restriction on the complexity of types in terms of an order, which we will define in chapter 11), instead of it's higherorder variant, which has been shown to generate the $M I X_{3}$ language 8]. Furthermore, it is known that $L G$ as well can generate the $M I X_{3}$ language by [17. Tree Adjoining Grammar coincides with $2-M C F G_{w n}$ by an indirect encoding of TAG into second-order Abstract Categorial Grammar with a coorder of 3 c̃itedegroote 02 , and the equivalence of $A C G_{2,3}$ and $2-M C F G_{w n}$ ( [18], [27]). In this sense, we can argue that TAG is the minimal MCSG formalism, whereas $M C F G_{w n}$ is a general notion of the class of MCSL. For some greater clarity, we have included a diagram that depicts a complexity hierarchy of the discussed formalisms.


### 10.4 The Convergence of Categorial and Generative Grammar

Given the knowledge available about Tree Adjoining Grammar, several Categorial Grammar formalisms and the establishment of Multiple Context Free Grammar and its well-nested variant, we depict the relation between Categorial Grammar versus Rewriting Systems in terms of generative capacity as follows:


Note that for $L G$, an equivalence has not yet been established. In the last section, I will argue $D$ and $M C F G$ might be equivalent, and that both $D$ and MCFG may be good candidates for a comparison with $L G$.

## 11 Displacement Calculus

### 11.1 Introduction

Glyn Morrill, Oriol Valentìn, Mario Fadda developed the Displacement Calculus as a generalization of the Lambek Calculus. Instead of using structural rules, as is done in Multi-Modal Categorial Grammar and $L G$, Displacement Calculus is based on so-called Displacement Algebra, in which multiple wrap operations are defined in order to handle discontinuities in language.

### 11.2 Displacement Calculus

The key point of Displacement Calculus is the use of a special element, called the "separator". The separator denotes an infixation or extraction point in between words, thus making it possible to intercalate words with appropriate typing into the place of the separator. The underlying algebra therefore needs to contain a special prime element, and is defined as follows:

Definition 3. A graded syntactic algebra is a free algebra $(L,+, 0,1)$ where:

- $(L,+, 0)$ is a monoid
- $1 \in L$ is a prime, i.e. has no other factors than 0 and itself

We can sort the syntactical elements of such a graded syntactic algebra by the number of separators it contains, thus obtaining sort domains for every $i$, denoted $L_{i}$. We are then ready to define a displacement algebra. Here, we will differ from the way the authors define a Displacement Algebra in that we define wrap operations on specific points so that later, we can have types point at specific separator elements.

Definition 4. A Displacement Algebra is a sorted algebra $\left(\left\{L_{i}\right\}_{i \in N},+, \times_{>}, \times_{<}, 0,1\right)$ where:

- $\left\{L_{i}\right\}_{i \in N}$ is the partition of $L$ into sort domains,
- $(L,+, 0,1)$ is a graded syntactic algebra,
- $+: L_{i} \times L_{j} \rightarrow L_{i+j}$ is concatenation,
- $\times_{k}: L_{i+1} \times L_{j} \rightarrow L_{i+j}$ with $k \in \mathbf{N}$ are wrap operations, i.e. $s \times_{k} t$ denotes the result of replacing the $k$ th separator in $s$ by $t$.

As in the Lambek(-Grishin) Calculus, the Displacement Calculus acts on typed expressions, therefore, having defined the underlying algebra, we need a type system:

Definition 5. The set of types Tp of a displacement algebra $D$ is constructed with $\left(\bullet, /, \backslash, I, \odot, \downarrow_{k}, \uparrow_{k}, J\right)$ with the following interpretations into $D$ :

$$
\begin{array}{cc}
{[A \bullet B]=\left\{s_{1}+s_{2} \mid s_{1} \in[A] \& s_{2} \in[B]\right\}} & {\left[A \odot_{k} B\right]=\left\{s_{1} \times_{k} s_{2} \mid s_{1} \in[A] \& s_{2} \in[B]\right\}} \\
{[A \backslash B]=\left\{s_{2} \mid \forall s_{1} \in[A]: s_{1}+s_{2} \in[B]\right\}} & {\left[A \downarrow_{k} B\right]=\left\{s_{2} \mid \forall s_{1} \in[A]: s_{1} \times_{k} s_{2} \in[B]\right\}} \\
{[B / A]=\left\{s_{1} \mid \forall s_{2} \in[A]: s_{1}+s_{2} \in[B]\right\}} & {\left[B \uparrow_{k} A\right]=\left\{s_{1} \mid \forall s_{2} \in[A]: s_{1} \times_{k} s_{2} \in[B]\right\}} \\
{[I]=\{0\}} & {[J]=\{1\}}
\end{array}
$$

We define the sort of a type as the number of separators it contains. Furthermore we add inductive definitions of type order and type length, since we need it later on.

Definition 6. The length function len :Tp $\rightarrow N$ is defined as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{len}(I)=\operatorname{len}(J)=\operatorname{len}(p)=1 \text { where } p \text { is a primitive type } \\
& \operatorname{len}(A \bullet B)=\operatorname{len}(A \backslash B)=\operatorname{len}(B / A)= \\
& \operatorname{len}(A \odot B)=\operatorname{len}\left(A \downarrow_{k} B\right)=\operatorname{len}\left(B \uparrow_{k} A\right)=\operatorname{len}(A)+\operatorname{len}(B)
\end{aligned}
$$

Definition 7. The order function ord $: T p \rightarrow N$ is defined as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{ord} d(I)=\operatorname{ord}(J)=\operatorname{ord}(p)=0 \text { where } p \text { is a primitive type } \\
& \operatorname{ord}(A \bullet B)=\operatorname{ord}(A \odot B)=\max (\operatorname{ord}(A), \operatorname{ord}(B)) \\
& \operatorname{crd}(A \backslash B)=\operatorname{ord}\left(A \downarrow_{k} B\right)=\max (\operatorname{ord}(A)+1, B) \\
& \operatorname{ord}(B / A)=\operatorname{ord}\left(B \uparrow_{k} A\right)=\max (\operatorname{ord}(B), \operatorname{ord}(A+1))
\end{aligned}
$$

We use $\left.\alpha\right|_{k} \beta$ to denote the result of replacing the $k$ th separator in $\alpha$ by $\beta$. Furthermore, the image $\vec{A}$ is defined as:

$$
\vec{A}= \begin{cases}A & \text { if } s A=0 \\ A \underbrace{\{[], \ldots,[]\}}_{s A} & \text { if } s A>0 .\end{cases}
$$

Because at this time, we are only interested in types of order 1, we can do with the first-order fragment of the Displacement Calculus, which only has introduction rules for $\bullet$ and $\odot_{k}$ and elimination rules for $/, \backslash$ and $\uparrow_{k}, \downarrow_{k}$ :

Definition 8. The (syntactic) natural deduction system of the first-order fragment of the Displacement Calculus looks as follows:

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\
\frac{\alpha \vdots A \quad \gamma: A \backslash C}{\alpha+\gamma: C} E \backslash & \frac{\gamma: \dot{C} / A \quad \alpha \vdots A}{\gamma+\alpha: C} E / \\
\vdots & \\
\frac{\alpha: A \quad \beta \vdots B}{\alpha+\beta: A \bullet B} I \bullet & \overline{0: I} A x . I \\
\vdots & \vdots \\
\frac{\alpha \vdots A \quad \gamma \downarrow_{k} C}{\left.\alpha\right|_{k} \gamma: C} E \downarrow_{k} & \frac{\gamma: C \uparrow_{k} A \quad \alpha \vdots A}{\left.\gamma\right|_{k} \alpha: C} E \uparrow_{k} \\
\vdots & \vdots \\
\frac{\alpha \vdots A \quad \beta: B}{\left.\alpha\right|_{k} \beta: A \odot_{k} B} I \odot_{k} & \overline{1: J} A x . J
\end{array}
$$

We denote the first-order fragment of $\mathbf{D}$ by $\mathbf{D}^{1}$.
Definition 9. A $D$-grammar $G$ is a tuple $(\Sigma, \delta, S)$ where:

- $\Sigma$ is a finite set of words
- $\delta$ is a function assigning types to words in $\Sigma$
- $S$ is the distinguished start type

We will write $\mathbf{D} \Rightarrow w: S$ to express that $w: S$ is a theorem of $\mathbf{D}$.
We are ready to define both the string and tree languages for Displacement Grammar.

Definition 10. Let $G=(\Sigma, \delta, S)$ be a $\boldsymbol{D}$-grammar. We define string and tree languages:

- The string language of $G$ is defined as $L_{S}(G)=\left\{w: S \mid w \in \Sigma^{*}\right.$ and $\boldsymbol{D}$ $\Rightarrow w: S\}$.
Natural deduction proofs can be viewed as trees that have axioms as leaves and the theorem as the root. Each deduction rule that is used then corresponds to edges directing from the conclusion vertex to one or more premise vertices. We use this obvious encoding to define the tree language for Displacement Grammar:

Definition 11. Let $G=(\Sigma, \delta, S)$ be a $\boldsymbol{D}$-grammar and let $w=w_{1} \ldots w_{n}$ be a word over $\Sigma^{*}$. A derivation tree of $G$ with respect to $w$ is a binary tree $D=(V, l, E, r)$ such that:

- There are exactly $n$ leaves $v_{1} \ldots v_{n}$ with $l\left(v_{i}\right)=w_{i}: \delta\left(w_{i}\right)$.
- For every internal vertex $v_{0}$, for either it's one daughter vertex $v_{1}$ or it's two daughter vertices $v_{1}, v_{2}$ it holds that $l\left(v_{0}\right)$ is the conclusion of some deduction rule applied to respectively either $v_{1}$ or $v_{1}, v_{2}$.
- $l(r)=w: S$

The tree language of $G$ is defined as $L_{T}(G)=\{D \mid D$ is a derivation tree of $G$ for some $\left.w \in \Sigma^{*}\right\}$.
Displacement Calculus has a clear control parameter: the maximum sort allowed in any sequent. [25] distinguish only the cases of 1D and 2D. I will generalize this in order to show what kind of structures can be recognized at each level of displacement. Notation will be $\mathbf{n D}$ for a particular $n$. Furthermore we define the order of a $\mathbf{D}$-grammar $G$ as $\operatorname{ord}(G)=\max (\operatorname{ord}(\delta(t)))$ with $t$ ranging over $\Sigma$. In other words, the order of such a grammar equals the maximum order of the types. The length of a $\mathbf{D}$-grammar $G$ is furthermore defined as $\operatorname{len}(G)=\max (\operatorname{len}(\delta(t)))$ with $t$ ranging over $\Sigma$, i.e. the length of a grammar is the maximum length of it's types. Then, we can define the first-order fragment of Displacement Grammar as those grammars $D$ such that $\operatorname{ord}(D)=1$.

### 11.3 The generative capacity of first-order Displacement Calculus

In [8], some expressivity results on the Displacement Calculus were presented. In particular, it is shown that $\mathbf{D}$ can recognize the permutation closure of any context-free language, and that for every $n$, there exists a $\mathbf{D}$ grammar that recognizes $M I X_{n}=\left\{\left.w \in\left\{a_{1} \ldots a_{n}\right\}^{*}| | a_{1}\right|_{w}=\left|a_{2}\right|_{w}=\ldots=\left|a_{n}\right|_{w}\right\}$. Also, they give grammars for the non-context free languages $\left\{a^{n} b^{n} c^{n} \mid n \geq 1\right\}$ and $\left\{w w \mid w \in\{a, b\}^{+}\right\}$. Note that these languages all are recognized in 1D. Here, I will improve results by showing that in $\mathbf{D}^{1}$, the cube language, i.e. $\left\{w w w \mid w \in\{a, b\}^{+}\right\}$, and $\left\{w w w w \mid w \in\{a, b\}^{+}\right\}$can be recognized in 2D, as can 4 or 5 dependencies and crossing dependencies. Generalizing, I will show that $\left\{w^{n} \mid w \in\{a, b\}^{+}\right\}$can be recognized in $\frac{n}{2} \mathbf{D}^{1}$ if $n$ is even, and $\frac{n+1}{2} \mathbf{D}^{1}$ if $n$ is odd. Also, I will give a generalization for dependencies and crossing dependencies.

### 11.3.1 The Copy and Double Copy Languages

The grammar from [8] for the copy language $\left\{w w \mid w \in\{a, b\}^{+}\right\}$is as follows:

$$
\begin{gathered}
S^{\prime}=S \odot_{1} I \\
a: A ; J \backslash(A \backslash S) ; J \backslash(S \downarrow(A \backslash S)) \\
b: B ; J \backslash(B \backslash S) ; J \backslash(S \downarrow(B \backslash S))
\end{gathered}
$$

The idea is that we first can derive $a+1+a: S$ or $b+1+b: S$ so that $a+a: S \odot I(b+b: S \odot I)$ are in the copy language, but that we can derive $1+a: S \downarrow(A \backslash S)$ and intercalate this structure into a derived $S$ structure, obtaining for example $b+1+a+b: A \backslash S$. The type given for $a$ ensures that we must also concatenate another $a$ to the left, finally deriving $a+b+a+b: S \odot I$, which is also in the copy language. It is clear that these steps can be repeated. As an example, the following is a natural deduction proof of $a+b+a+b: S \odot_{1} I$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{b: B \frac{1: J \quad b: J \backslash(B \backslash S)}{1+b: B \backslash S}}{} E \backslash \frac{1: J \quad a: J \backslash\left(S \downarrow_{1}(A \backslash S)\right)}{1+a: S \downarrow_{1}(A \backslash S)} E \downarrow_{1} \\
& \frac{0: 1+b: S}{} \quad \frac{a: A}{a+b+a+b: S \odot_{1} I} E \backslash \\
&
\end{aligned}
$$

So what about the double copy language $\left\{w w w \mid w \in\{a, b\}^{+}\right\}$? If we were to use only one separator, we could derive structures like $a+b+a+b+b+$ $a \in\left\{w w w^{R} \mid w \in\{a, b\}^{+}\right\}$, but that's still a mildly context-sensitive pattern. Inspired by set-local multi component tree adjoining grammar (MCTAG), we want to use two separators as insertion points but ensure that we have to synchronously intercalate two structures. This can be done in 2D by introducing new types that act as a 'lock' for intercalation, that is to say, one intercalation causes the derived structure to be of a type that can only be unlocked by another intercalation. The grammar looks as follows:

$$
\begin{gathered}
S^{\prime}=\left(S \odot_{2} I\right) \odot_{1} I \quad a: A ; J \backslash(A \backslash(J \backslash(A \backslash S))) ; J \backslash(S \downarrow>(A \backslash T)) ; J \backslash(T \downarrow<S) \\
b: B ; J \backslash(B \backslash(J \backslash(B \backslash S))) ; J \backslash(S \downarrow>(B \backslash U)) ; J \backslash(U \downarrow<S)
\end{gathered}
$$

As an example, the second assignment for $b$ allows the derivation of $b+1+$ $b+1+b: S$, so that $b+b+b:(S \odot I) \odot I$ is in the cube language. Now, we can intercalate $1+a: S \downarrow>(A \backslash T)$ to derive $a+b+1+a+b+1+b: T$. The only way to 'unlock' this structure is to intercalate $1+a: T \downarrow<S$, resulting in $a+b+1+a+b+1+a+b: S$, causing $a+b+a+b+a+b:(S \odot I) \odot I$ to be recognized. A natural deduction proof for $a+b+a+b+a+b:\left(S \odot_{2} I\right) \odot_{1} I$ looks as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& b: B \frac{1: J}{\frac{b: B \frac{1: J \quad b: J \backslash(B \backslash(J \backslash(B \backslash S)))}{1+b: B \backslash(J \backslash(B \backslash S))}}{b+1+b: J \backslash(B \backslash S)}} E \backslash \backslash \\
& \frac{b: B \frac{1+b+1+b: B \backslash S}{} E \backslash}{\frac{b+1+b+1+b: S}{} E \backslash \quad \frac{1: J \quad a: J \backslash\left(S \downarrow_{1}(A \backslash T)\right)}{1+a: S \downarrow_{1}(A \backslash T)} E \backslash} E \downarrow_{1} \\
& \frac{\frac{b+1+a+b+1+b: A \backslash T}{a+b+1+a+b+1+b: T} E \backslash}{\frac{a+b+1+a+b+1+a+b: S}{a+b+1+a+b+a+b: S \odot_{2} I} I \odot_{2}} I \odot_{1}
\end{aligned}
$$

This pattern can be generalized to $\left\{w^{n} \mid w \in\{a, b\}^{+}\right\}$for (n-1)D assuming we can replace any separator, i.e. not just the outermost ones. For greater clarity, we added superscripts to denote the $i$ th occurrence of a basic type, whereas subscripts denote different types:

$$
\begin{gathered}
a: A ; J^{n} \backslash\left(A^{n} \backslash \ldots J^{1} \backslash\left(A^{1} \backslash S\right)\right) ; J \backslash\left(S \downarrow_{1}\left(A T_{1}\right)\right) ; J \backslash\left(T_{i} \downarrow_{i} S\right) \text { for } 2 \geq i \leq n \\
b: B ; J^{n} \backslash\left(B^{n} \backslash \ldots J^{1} \backslash\left(B^{1} \backslash S\right)\right) ; J \backslash\left(S \downarrow_{1}\left(B U_{1}\right)\right) ; J \backslash\left(U_{i} \downarrow_{i} S\right) \text { for } 2 \geq i \leq n
\end{gathered}
$$

The idea of this generalization is that we first can derive $a+(1+a)^{(n-1)}: S$ and we can intercalate $1+a(1+b) n-1$ times of which the very first intercalation starts at the leftmost separators and also concatenates a $a(b)$ to the left, resulting in $a+a+(1+a+a)^{n-1}: S\left(b+a+(1+b+a)^{n-1}: S\right)$. Setting the start symbol to $S(\odot I)^{n-1}$, such a grammar exactly recognizes $n$ copies of a word over $\{a, b\}^{+}$. Figure 2 shows what a natural deduction proof for $w^{n}$ looks like.
$1: J \quad b: J \backslash(B \backslash \ldots J \backslash(B \backslash S)) E \backslash$

Figure 2: A natural deduction proof for $(a b)^{n}$

### 11.3.2 Counting and Crossing Dependencies

It may have become clear that each separator may carry in its type 'local' and 'global' left and right leaves. In this sense, it is not surprising that counting dependencies up to 4 dependencies can be recognized in 1D, for one separator can have two local left and right leaves for the inner dependencies that intersperse the outer dependencies, which are carried as 'global' left and right leaves. Up to four crossing dependencies can recognized by first counting the left and third dependency, and then interspersing the second and fourth dependencies. The grammars for four counting dependencies $\left\{a^{n} b^{n} c^{n} d^{n}\right\}$ and crossing dependencies respectively are as follows:

$$
\begin{array}{cc}
S^{\prime}=B \odot_{1} I & S^{\prime}=D \odot_{1} \\
a: A & a: A / J ;(C \downarrow A) / J \\
b:((A \backslash(B / D)) / C) / J ;\left(\left(B \downarrow_{1}(A \backslash(B / D))\right) / C\right) / J & b: J \backslash(C \downarrow B) ; J \backslash(D \downarrow B) \\
c: C & c: A \backslash C \\
d: D & d: B \backslash D
\end{array}
$$

Note that our grammars differ from the ones introduced in [8]. This is only for the sake of simplicity, since the generalizations will be somewhat easier to read. A typical derivation of 4 crossing dependencies starts with $c$ to derive $b+1+c: C$, then concatenating to $d$ and $a$ respectively to derive $a+b+1+c+d: A$. One then can go on to derive $b+1+c: A \downarrow C$ and intercalate this in the place of the separator. Because the start type is $A \odot I$, it is necessary to concatenate to the 'global' $a$ and $d$ left and right structures to derive an accepted string. See Figure 3 for a natural deduction proof. For counting dependencies, the idea is to first derive $a^{n}+1+c^{n}: C$ and at a point intercalating $1+b: C \downarrow B$ and concatenating to $d$, producing $a^{n}+1+b+c^{n}+d: D$. With $D \odot_{1} I$ as start symbol, this string can be accepted or we can intercalate another $1+b$ and concatenate the result to $d$. So the first dependency is counted, and once the second dependency is inserted, the previous counting is lost and we go on counting the second dependency.

Figure 3: A natural deduction proof for $a^{n} b^{n} c^{n} d^{n}$

Again, these structures can be generalized: $\mathbf{n D}$ can recognize up to $2 n+2$ counting dependencies and up to $n+1$ crossing dependencies. The following grammars generalize the above ones:

## Counting Dependencies:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& S^{\prime}=\left(\ldots\left(\left(A_{2} \odot_{1} I^{1}\right) \odot_{1} I^{2}\right) \ldots\right) \odot_{1} I^{\frac{m-2}{2}}(m-1 \text { if } m \text { is odd }) \\
& a_{1}: A_{1} \\
& a_{i}: A_{i} \text { for } i \text { is odd and } 1<i<m \\
& a_{m}: A_{m} \\
& \left.\left.\left.\left.\left.\left.\left.a_{2}:\left(A_{1} \backslash\left(A_{2} / A_{m}\right)\right) / A_{m-1}\right) / J^{1}\right) / A_{m-2}\right) / A_{m-3}\right) / J^{2}\right) / \ldots / A_{4}\right) / A_{3}\right) / J^{\frac{m-2}{2}} \\
& a_{2}:\left(\left(A_{2} \downarrow_{1} U_{1}\right) / A_{3}\right) / J \\
& a_{k}:\left(\left(U_{\frac{k}{2}-1} \downarrow_{\frac{k}{2}} U_{\frac{k}{2}}\right) / A_{k+1}\right) / J \text { for } k \text { is even and } 1<k<m \\
& a_{m-2}:\left(\left(U_{\frac{m-2}{2}-1} \downarrow_{\frac{m-2}{2}}\left(A_{1} \backslash\left(A_{2} / A_{m}\right)\right)\right) / A_{m-1}\right) / J \text { if } m \text { is even } \\
& a_{m-1}:\left(\left(U_{\frac{m-1}{2}-1} \downarrow_{\frac{m-1}{2}}\left(A_{1} \backslash A_{2}\right)\right) / A_{m-1}\right) / J \text { if } m \text { is odd }
\end{aligned}
$$

Crossing Dependencies: Let $n$ be the number of crossing dependencies. Let $m=2 n$. Then the following grammar describes $n$ crossing dependencies.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& S^{\prime}=\left(\ldots\left(\left(A_{2} \odot_{1} I^{1}\right) \odot_{1} I^{2}\right) \ldots\right) \odot_{1} I^{\frac{m-2}{2}} \\
& a_{1}:\left(\ldots\left(\left(\left(\left(A_{1} / A_{m-1}\right) / J\right) / A_{m-3}\right) / J\right) / \ldots / A_{3}\right) / J \\
& a_{i}: A_{i} \text { for } i \text { is odd and } 1<i \leq m-1 \\
& a_{1}:\left(A_{1} \downarrow_{1} U_{1}\right) / J \\
& a_{k}:\left(U_{\left.\frac{k-1}{2} \downarrow_{\frac{k+1}{2}} U_{\frac{k-1}{2}}\right) / J \text { for } k \text { is odd and } 1<k<m-3}^{a_{m-3}:\left(\left(U_{\frac{m-4}{2}} \downarrow_{\frac{m-2}{2}} A_{1}\right) / J\right) / A_{m-1}}\right. \\
& a_{2}:\left(A_{1} \downarrow_{1} T_{1}\right) / J \\
& a_{2}:\left(A_{2} \downarrow_{1} T_{1}\right) / J \\
& a_{l}:\left(T_{\frac{l}{2}} \downarrow_{\frac{l}{2}+1} T_{\frac{l}{2}+1}\right) / J \text { for } l \text { is even and } 2<l<m-2 \\
& a_{m-2}:\left(T_{\frac{m-2}{2}-1} \downarrow_{\frac{m-2}{2}}\left(A_{2} / A_{m}\right)\right) / J
\end{aligned}
$$

The general derivation structures as natural deduction proofs for counting dependencies are depicted in Figure 4.

$\frac{\left.\left.\left.\left.\left.\left.a_{2}:\left(\ldots\left(A_{1} \backslash\left(A_{2} / A_{n}\right)\right) / A_{n-1}\right) / J^{1}\right) / A_{n-2}\right) / A_{n-3}\right) / J^{2}\right) / \ldots / A_{4}\right) / A_{3}\right) / J^{\frac{n-2}{2}} \quad 1: J}{\frac{\left.\left.\left.\left.a_{2}+1:\left(\left(\ldots\left(A_{1} \backslash\left(A_{2} / A_{n}\right)\right) / A_{n-1}\right) / J^{1}\right) / A_{n-2}\right) / A_{n-3}\right) / J^{2}\right) / \ldots / A_{4}\right) / A_{3}}{\left.\left.\left.a_{2}+1+a_{3}:\left(\left(\ldots\left(A_{1} \backslash\left(A_{2} / A_{n}\right)\right) / A_{n-1}\right) / J^{1}\right) / A_{n-2}\right) / A_{n-3}\right) / J^{2}\right) / \ldots / A_{4}} \quad a_{3}: A_{3}}$| $\vdots$ |
| :---: |
| $\frac{a_{1}: A_{1}}{} \quad E /$ |
| $a_{2}+1+a_{3}+a_{4}+1+\ldots+1+a_{n-1}: A_{1} \backslash\left(A_{2} / A_{n}\right)$ |
| $\frac{a_{1}+a_{2}+1+a_{3}+a_{4}+1+\ldots+1+a_{n-1}+a_{n}: A_{2}}{a_{1}+a_{2}+a_{2}+1+a_{3}+a_{3}+a_{4}+1+\ldots+1+a_{2}+1+a_{3}+a_{4}+1+\ldots+1+a_{n-1}: A_{2} / A_{n}}$ |
| $a_{1}+a_{2}+a_{2}$ |
| $a_{1}+a_{2}+a_{2}$ |

Figure 4: A natural deduction proof for $a_{1}^{2} \ldots a_{n}^{2}$. Because of the size of the deduction, it is split into two parts

## 12 Well-nested simple Range Concatenation Grammar

In this subsection, we define well-nested simple Range Concatenation Grammar or $s R C G_{w n}$ and prove that every $s R C G$ (not only well-nested) can be written in a lexical form which will turn out to be quite similar to Greibach Normal Form for Context-Free Grammar.

### 12.1 Well-nested simple Range Concatenation Grammar

The following definitions are taken from [13.
Definition 12. A simple $R C G$ is a tuple $(N, T, V, P, S)$ where:

- $N$ is a finite set of predicate names with an arity function $\operatorname{dim}: N \rightarrow \mathbf{N}$
- $T$ and $V$ are finite disjoint sets of terminals and variables
- $S \in N$ is the start symbol with $\operatorname{dim}(S)=1$
- $P$ is a finite set of clauses of the form $A\left(\alpha_{1}, . ., \alpha_{\operatorname{dim}(A)}\right) \rightarrow A_{1}\left(X_{1}^{1}, . ., X_{\operatorname{dim}\left(A_{1}\right)}^{1}\right), . ., A_{m}\left(X_{1}^{m}, . ., X_{\operatorname{dim}\left(A_{m}\right)}^{m}\right)$ for $m \geq 0$ where:

1. $A, A_{1}, . ., A_{m} \in N$
2. $X_{j}^{i} \in V$ for $1 \leq i \leq m, 1 \leq j \leq \operatorname{dim}\left(A_{i}\right)$
3. $\alpha_{i} \in(T \cup V)^{*}$ for $1 \leq i \leq \operatorname{dim}(A)$

- For all $c \in P$, every variable $X \in V$ occurring in $c$ occurs exactly once in the left-hand side and exactly once on the right-hand side (simple)

Range Concatenation Grammars as well as Multiple Context-Free Grammars has a natural control parameter. The order of a $R C G(M C F G)$ is defined by $\max (\operatorname{dim}(N))$ where $\operatorname{dim}(N)=\bigcup_{i=1}^{|N|}\left\{\operatorname{dim}\left(n_{i}\right)\right\}$ for $n_{i} \in N$. We shorten $A\left(\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{\operatorname{dim}(A)}\right)$ by $A(\vec{\alpha})$.

Definition 13. $A$ sRCG $R$ is well-nested if for each clause $c \in P$ is holds that the right hand side argument variables are well-nested with respect to their left-hand side ordering.

A well-nested $s R C G$ will be denoted $s R C G_{w n}$. For example, in a $s R C G_{w n}$, clauses like $A(X, Y, Z, U) \rightarrow B(X, U) C(Y, Z)$ are permitted, but clauses like
$A(X, Y, Z, U) \rightarrow B(X, Z) C(Y, U)$ are not. $s R C G_{w n}$ is a proper subclass of $s R C G$ and 14 has elaborated well on the difference class $s R C G-s R C G_{w n}$.

In order to define the string and tree languages of $s R C G$, we need to define the derive relation which specifies how we apply the clauses to an input string. Because we can have several bindings of variables in the clauses, we need the notion of ranges and of clause instantiations.

Definition 14. Let $w=w_{1} \ldots w_{n}$ be a word over $T^{*}$ where $w_{i} \in T$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$.

- The set of all positions is defined as $\operatorname{Pos}(w):=\{0, \ldots, n\}$.
- A range in $w$ is a pair $\langle l, r\rangle \in \operatorname{Pos}(w) \times \operatorname{Pos}(w)$ with $l \leq r$.
- The yield of a range is defined $\langle l, r\rangle(w)=w_{l+1} \ldots w_{r}$.
- The concatenation of two ranges $\rho_{1}=\left\langle l_{1}, r_{1}\right\rangle$ and $\rho_{2}=\left\langle l_{2}, r_{2}\right\rangle$ is defined as follows:

$$
\rho_{1} \cdot \rho_{2}= \begin{cases}\left\langle l_{1}, r_{2}\right\rangle & \text { if } r_{1}=l_{2} ; \\ \text { undefined } & \text { otherwise. }\end{cases}
$$

- For every $a \in T$, the ranges function is defined as ranges $(a, w)=$ $\{\langle i-1, i\rangle \mid 1 \leq i \leq n,\langle i-1, i\rangle(w)=a\}$
- A range vector $\rho \in(\operatorname{Pos}(w) \times \operatorname{Pos}(w))^{k}$ is a $k$-dimensional range vector for $w$ iff $\rho=\left\langle\left\langle l_{1}, r_{1}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle l_{k}, r_{k}\right\rangle\right\rangle$ where $\left\langle l_{i}, r_{i}\right\rangle$ is a range in $w$ for $1 \leq$ $i \leq k$.

Definition 15. Let $G=(N, V, T, P, S)$ be an $s R C G$, let $c=A(\vec{\alpha}) \rightarrow$ $A_{1}\left(\vec{\alpha}_{1}\right) \ldots A_{m}\left(\vec{\alpha}_{m}\right)$ be a clause in $P$ and let $w=w_{1} \ldots w_{n}$ be a word over $T^{*}$ where $w_{i} \in T$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$. Furthermore, let $\vec{\alpha}(i)$ denote the $i$ th argument of $\vec{\alpha}$.

- Occ $c_{\text {term }}=\left\{t^{\prime} \mid t^{\prime}\right.$ is an occurrence of some $t$ in the clause $\}$
- $O c c_{e p s}=\left\{E p s_{i} \mid 1 \leq i \leq \operatorname{dim}(A), \vec{\alpha}(i)=\epsilon\right\}$
- An instantiation with respect to $w$ is a function $f: O c c_{\text {term }} \cup V \cup$ Occ $\left.c_{\text {eps }} \rightarrow\{\angle i, j\rangle \mid i \leq j, i, j \in \mathbf{N}\right\}$ such that:

1. For all $t^{\prime} \in$ Occterm that occur in $\vec{\alpha}, f\left(t^{\prime}\right)(w)=a$,
2. For all $X \in V, f(X)=\langle j, k\rangle$ for some $0 \leq j \leq k \leq n$,
3. For all Eps $\in O c c_{\text {eps }}$, there is a $j$ with $0 \leq j \leq n$ with $f(E p s)=$ $\langle j, j\rangle$. For every $\epsilon$-argument $\vec{\alpha}(i)$ we define $f(\vec{\alpha}(i))=f\left(E p s_{i}\right)$,
4. For all adjacent $x, y$ in one of the elements of $\vec{\alpha}$ there are $i, j, k$ with $f(x)=\langle i, j\rangle$ and $f(y)=\langle j, k\rangle$. Then we define $f(x y)=\langle i, k\rangle$.

- If $f$ is an instantiation with respect to $c$ and $w$, then $A(f(\vec{\alpha})) \rightarrow$ $A_{1}\left(f\left(\vec{\alpha}_{1}\right)\right) \ldots A_{m}\left(f\left(\vec{\alpha}_{m}\right)\right)$ is an instantiated clause.
To determine whether a string $w$ over $T^{*}$ is in the language of an $s R C G$, we instantiate the start clause relative to $w$, and in each derivation step, we replace the left-hand side of an instantiated clause with it's right-hand side. We are now ready to define the string language of an $s R C G$.

Definition 16. Let $G=(N, T, V, P, S)$ be an $s R C G$. The string language of $G$ is defined as $L_{S}(G)=\left\{w \mid S(0,|w|) \Rightarrow^{*} \epsilon\right\}$

Because we want to compare strong generative capacity we need to define the tree language for $s R C G$ as well.
Definition 17. Let $G=\left(N, T, V_{G}, P, S\right)$ be a $s R C G$, and let $w=w_{1} \ldots w_{n}$ be a word over $T^{*}$ where $w_{i} \in T$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$. A derivation tree is a tree $D=(V, l, E, r)$ such that:

- There are exactly $n$ pairwise different leaves $u_{1} \ldots u_{n}$ with $l\left(u_{i}\right)=\langle i-1, i\rangle$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$, for all other leaves $z$ we have $l(z)=\langle i, i\rangle$ for some $i$ with $0 \leq i \leq n$. Furthermore, for each leaf $u$ we define $r$-yield $(u)=\{l(u)\}$.
- For every internal node $v_{0} \in V$, for every order $v_{1} \ldots v_{k}$ of the pairwise different daughters that are internal nodes, if we have that $l\left(v_{i}\right)=A_{i}$ for $0 \leq i \leq k$, then for every clause $A_{0}\left(\vec{\alpha}_{0}\right) \rightarrow A_{1}\left(\vec{\alpha}_{1}\right) \ldots A_{k}\left(\vec{\alpha}_{k}\right)$, if there is an instantiation $A_{0}\left(\vec{\rho}_{0}\right) \rightarrow A_{1}\left(\vec{\rho}_{1}\right) \ldots A_{k}\left(\vec{\rho}_{k}\right)$ with respect to $w$, such that:
- $\rho_{i} \in r-y i e l d\left(v_{i}\right)$ for $1 \leq i \leq k$,
- There is a daughter $u$ of $v_{0}$ that is a leaf iff either one of the terminals or one of the $\epsilon$-arguments in $\vec{\alpha}_{0}$ is mapped to l( $u$ ) by this instantiation.
then $\vec{\alpha}_{0} \in r$-yield $\left(v_{0}\right)$. Nothing else is in $r-\operatorname{yield}\left(v_{0}\right)$.
- $\langle 0, n\rangle \in r$-yield $(r)$
- $l(r)=S$

Definition 18. Let $G=(N, T, V, P, S)$ be an $s R C G$. The tree language of $G$ is defined as $L_{T}(G)=\left\{D \mid D\right.$ is a derivation tree of some $\left.w \in T^{*}\right\}$

### 12.2 A lexicalized normal form for (simple) Range Concatenation Grammar

[3] defines a number of normal forms for Range Concatenation Grammar which naturally extend from known normal forms for Context Free Grammar, including $\epsilon$-free normal form which derives from the determinization of CFG's and binarization, which extends the well-known Chomsky Normal Form for Context Free Grammar. However, it is also known that CFG's can be lexicalized by transformation into the Greibach Normal Form, which is shown in [9. Here, we will show how to lexicalize simple Range Concatenation Grammar (and thus MCFG and LCFRS as well) by a transformation that is similar to the construction of the Greibach Normal Form for CFG. We begin by defining binary RCG, lexicalizedness for sRCG, and move on to prove the equivalence of sRCG and lexicalized sRCG. Lexicalization is an important property since it can simplify parsing algorithms. Given that Categorial Grammar is by definition always lexicalized, knowing that $s R C G_{w n}$ can be lexicalized plays an important role in proving it's equivalence with first-order Displacement Grammar, which we will turn to in the next section.

Just as any Context Free Grammar can be converted to an equivalent $\epsilon$-free form without useless rules (i.e. clauses that cannot be reached from the start clause), it is also possible to make the same conversion for RCG. Since these normal forms are directly extended from CFG normal forms and they are not directly relevant to the intuition of a lexicalized normal form, we won't elaborate on them here. Rather, we direct the reader to [3] for an overview. We will however, briefly describe Greibach Normal Form for CFG, because it is not immediately obvious how and why this conversion works.

Definition 19. A Context Free Grammar is in Chomsky Normal Form $(C N F)$ if all the rules are of the form:

- $A \rightarrow B C$ with $A, B, C$ non-terminals
- $A \rightarrow a$ with $A$ a non-terminal and a a terminal symbol

Definition 20. A Context Free Grammar is in Greibach Normal Form (GNF) if all the rules are of the form:

- $A \rightarrow a \alpha$ with $A$ a non-terminal, a a terminal symbol and $\alpha$ a possibly non-empty sequence of non-terminals.

As we can see, a rule of a CFG in GNF is either a terminal rule, or a rule whose right-hand side starts with a terminal. It is not at all obvious how one obtains the Greibach Normal Form from a CFG. The construction however uses Chomsky Normal Form to obtain a lexicalized CFG. In order to lexicalize a CFG, we want to be able to substitute the first righthand side non-terminal $B$ by a terminal symbol $a$, but in order to preserve language, we have to replace it by all possible right-hand sides of $B$-rules. This substitution will therefore only work when all $B$-rules are already in Greibach Normal Form. A second problem is that a CFG can contain cycles, for example the rules $A \rightarrow B C$ and $B \rightarrow A D$. To overcome these problems, we want to have an ordering on the non-terminals such that each sequence beginning with the lowest element of the ordering always rewrites (we only look at the leftmost symbol on the right-hand side) to either a terminal symbol (GNF) or a non-terminal that is a higher element in the ordering. More formally, we want to have that for each rule $A_{i} \rightarrow A_{j} \gamma, i<j$. If this is the case, we have ensured that there are no left-cycles and that we can perform the substitions mentioned above. This last fact is true because the rules of the highest element of the ordering must be all terminal clauses, so we can perform a language-preserving substitution that puts all the rules of the single highest element of the ordering in Greibach Normal Form. Then we can do the same until all rules are in GNF.

Note that for a rule $A_{i} \rightarrow A_{k} \gamma$ with $i>k$ we can definitely substitute $A_{k}$ by all possible right-hand sides of $A_{k}$ rules, and repeat this until each $A_{i}$ rule is of the form $A_{i} \rightarrow A_{l} \delta$ with $i \leq l$. For the cases that an $A_{i}$ rule is of the form $A_{i} \rightarrow A_{i} \delta$, we can use a method called left-recursion elimination (which preserves language) to ensure that all cycles eventually disappear.

Now that we have given an informal explanation of what we need to make the GNF construction work, we can formalize the construction for greater clarity, before we move to a similar construction for $s R C G$. We refer the reader here to [9].

For a CFG $G=(N, T, R, S)$ in CNF, we construct the Greibach Normal Form as follows:

1. Assign a (random) ordering $\left\{A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n}\right\}$ on the clauses in $R$.
2. Modify the clauses in such a way that if $A_{i} \rightarrow A_{j} \gamma, j \leq k$. This is done as follows:

- Assume that the rules have been modified such that for $1 \leq i \leq k$,
for each rule $A_{i} \rightarrow A_{j} \gamma$ it is the case that $i<j$.
- For each rule $A_{k} \rightarrow A_{j} \gamma$ with $k>j$, replace the rule by a new set of rules with $A_{j}$ substituted by the right-hand side of each $A_{j}$ rule. Repeating this at most $k-1$ times, all $A_{k}$ rules are of the form $A_{k} \rightarrow A_{j} \gamma$ with $k \leq j$.
- Eliminate left-recursive rules $A_{k} \rightarrow A_{k} \gamma$.

3. Lexicalize the $A_{k}$ rules, starting with $A_{n-1}$ and ending with $A_{1}$ :

- For each non-terminal rule $A_{k} \rightarrow A_{j}$ (we have $k<j$ ), replace the rule by a new set of rules with $A_{j}$ substituted by the right-hand side of each $A_{j}$ rule. If we start with $A_{n-1}$ and end with $A_{1}$, we ensure that each $A_{j}$ rule is in Greibach Normal Form, and thus the substitutions ensure that the new $A_{k}$ rules are in GNF as well.

4. Lexicalize the $B_{k}$ rules. This is done in the same way as the $A_{k}$ rules are lexicalized, except that the order does not matter here.
5. Add a new start clause $S^{\prime} \rightarrow S$.

Eliminating left-recursive rules is done by replacing each left-recursive rule with a new rule, involving a new non-terminal, which is right-recursive. Any rule $A \rightarrow A \beta$ together with $A \rightarrow a$ describes a language $\left\{a \beta^{n} \mid n \geq 0\right\}$. We can replace these rules by new rules, one of which is right-recursive, while preserving this language. These are $B \rightarrow \beta, B \rightarrow \beta B, A \rightarrow a$ and $A \rightarrow a B$. In general, we replace all $A_{i}$ rules at a time:

- Each $A_{i}$ rule is either a left-recursive rule, or the first non-terminal of it's right-hand side is higher in order than $A_{i}$, so we have that the $A_{i}$ rules are divided in rules $A_{i} \rightarrow A_{i} \beta_{1} \ldots A_{i} \rightarrow A_{i} \beta_{n}$ and rules $A_{i} \rightarrow \alpha_{1} \ldots A_{i} \rightarrow \alpha_{m}$.
- We choose a new non-terminal, $B_{i}$ and add rules $B_{i} \rightarrow \beta_{j}$ and $B_{i} \rightarrow \beta_{j} B$ for $1 \leq j \leq n$.
- We add rules $A_{i} \rightarrow \alpha_{j}$ and $A_{i} \rightarrow \alpha_{j} B_{i}$ for $1 \leq j \leq m$.

Now, we will turn to the lexicalization of (well-nested) simple RCG by a construction that is essentialy very similar to the construction of the Greibach Normal Form for a CFG. We begin with the definition of lexicalized $s R C G$ :

Definition 21. A sRCG $R=(N, T, V, P, S)$ is lexicalized (and denoted by $L s R C G$ ) if each clause $c \in P$ except the start clause contains exactly one terminal symbol.

It is important here to note two important differences between RCG and CFG:

1. In RCG, the order in which the right-hand side is written does not matter for generative capacity, whereas in CFG this order is vitally important. Rather, in an RCG, the order of words is present in the arguments of the left-hand side predicate, and their distribution at the right-hand side.
2. In a CFG in Chomsky Normal Form each lexicalized rule contains exactly one terminal symbol, and the resulting CFG in Greibach Normal Form contains only rules that contain exactly one terminal symbol. This restriction does not trivially hold for $\epsilon$-free sRCG without useless rules, although we will need it for we want to compare the strong generative capacity of $D^{1}$ with $s R C G_{w n}$.

We can easily overcome the second difference: Any clause that contains more than one terminal symbol can be replaced by a set of clauses that each contain exactly one terminal symbol in a language-preserving way. We will call an $s R C G$ with this restriction a one-terminal sRCG.

Definition 22. A sRCG $R=(N, T, V, P, S)$ is a one-terminal $s R C G$ (and denoted $1 T$-s $R C G$ ) if each clause $c \in P$ except the start clause contains at most one terminal symbol.

We will now turn to proving that given an $s R C G G$, we can construct an equivalent one-terminal $s R C G$ and an equivalent $L s R C G$. Because the constructions use two operations, namely substitution and elimination of left-recursion, we start by defining these operations and show that the string language of an $s R C G$ is invariant under substitution and invariant under elimination of left-recursion.

Definition 23. Let $R=(N, T, V, P, S)$ be a $s R C G$. Let $c=A_{0}\left(\overrightarrow{\alpha_{0}}\right) \rightarrow$ $A_{1}\left(\overrightarrow{\alpha_{1}}\right) \ldots A_{n}\left(\overrightarrow{\alpha_{n}}\right)$ be a clause in $P$ and let $A_{1}$ be the predicate that will be substituted. We define then a substitution as the replacement of $c$ by all possible instantiations of an $A_{1}$ clause. That is, for all $A_{1}$ clauses of the form $A_{1}(\vec{\beta}) \rightarrow B_{1}\left(\overrightarrow{\beta_{1}}\right) \ldots B_{m}\left(\overrightarrow{\beta_{m}}\right)$, we add a new clause $c^{\prime}=A_{0}\left(\alpha_{0}^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow$ $B_{1}\left(\overrightarrow{\beta_{1}}\right) \ldots B_{m}\left(\overrightarrow{\beta_{m}}\right) A_{2}\left(\overrightarrow{\alpha_{2}}\right) \ldots A_{n}\left(\overrightarrow{\alpha_{n}}\right)$ where $\overrightarrow{\alpha_{0}^{\prime}}$ denotes $\overrightarrow{\alpha_{0}}$ with variables from
$\overrightarrow{\alpha_{1}}$ that occur in $\overrightarrow{\alpha_{0}}$ replaced by the variables in $\vec{\beta}$. Finally, we remove the original $A_{0}$ clause.

Example. Let $R$ be a $s R C G$ given by the following clauses:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& S(X Y Z) \rightarrow A(X, Y, Z) \\
& A(X Y, Z, U) \rightarrow B(X, Y) C(Z, U) \\
& B(X Y, Z U) \rightarrow D(X, U) E(Y, Z) \\
& B(X, Y Z) \rightarrow E(X, Y) F(Z) \\
& D(X, Y) \rightarrow B(X, Y)
\end{aligned}
$$

Then, we substitute $B$ in the $A$ clause, giving a new set of clauses:

```
\(S(X Y Z) \rightarrow A(X, Y, Z)\)
\(A\left(X T_{1} Y T_{2}, Z, U\right) \rightarrow D\left(X, T_{2}\right) E\left(T_{1}, Y\right) C(Z, U)\)
\(A\left(X Y T_{1}, Z, U\right) \rightarrow E(X, Y) F\left(T_{1}\right) C(Z, U)\)
\(B(X Y, Z U) \rightarrow D(X, U) E(Y, Z)\)
\(B(X, Y Z) \rightarrow E(X, Y) F(Z)\)
\(D(X, Y) \rightarrow B(X, Y)\)
```

Lemma 1. The string language of an sRCG is invariant under substitution.

Proof. Let $R=(N, T, V, P, S)$ be an $s R C G$, and let $R^{\prime}=\left(N, T, V^{\prime}, P^{\prime}, S\right)$ be an $s R C G$ in which one clause $c \in P$ has been substituted by it's leftmost right-hand side argument. Let $c=A_{0}\left(\overrightarrow{\alpha_{0}}\right) \rightarrow A_{1}\left(\overrightarrow{\alpha_{1}}\right) \ldots A_{n}\left(\overrightarrow{\alpha_{n}}\right)$ and let $A_{1}(\vec{\beta}) \rightarrow B_{1}\left(\overrightarrow{\beta_{1}}\right) \ldots B_{m}\left(\overrightarrow{\beta_{m}}\right)$ be all the $A_{1}$ clauses.
Now, let $w=w_{1} \ldots w_{n} \in L(R)$, and let it's rewriting sequence $S(0, n) \Rightarrow^{*} \epsilon$ include a clause instantiation $A_{0}\left(\rho_{\mathbf{0}}\right) \rightarrow A_{1}\left(\rho_{\mathbf{1}}\right) \ldots A_{n}\left(\rho_{\mathbf{n}}\right)$. Then, in the next step, a clause instantiation $A_{1}\left(\rho_{1}\right) \rightarrow B_{1}\left(\sigma_{1}\right) \ldots B_{m}\left(\sigma_{\mathbf{m}}\right)$ for some $A_{1}$ clause is used. Then there is a clause instantiation

$$
A_{0}\left(\rho_{\mathbf{0}}\right) \rightarrow B_{1}\left(\sigma_{\mathbf{1}}\right) \ldots B_{m}\left(\sigma_{\mathbf{m}}\right) A_{2}\left(\rho_{\mathbf{2}}\right) \ldots A_{n}\left(\rho_{\mathbf{n}}\right)
$$

for $R^{\prime}$. Because this holds for every clause that is in $P^{\prime}-P$, we may conclude that there exists a rewriting sequence $S(0, n) \Rightarrow^{*} \epsilon$ for $R^{\prime}$ and thus, that $w \in L\left(R^{\prime}\right)$.

For the converse, let $w=w_{1} \ldots w_{n} \in L\left(R^{\prime}\right)$, and let it's rewriting sequence $S(0, n) \Rightarrow^{*} \epsilon$ include a clause instantiation

$$
\text { Inst }=A_{0}\left(\rho_{\mathbf{0}}\right) \rightarrow B_{1}\left(\sigma_{1}\right) \ldots B_{m}\left(\sigma_{\mathbf{m}}\right) A_{2}\left(\rho_{\mathbf{2}}\right) \ldots A_{n}\left(\rho_{\mathbf{n}}\right)
$$

for a clause $c \in P^{\prime}-P$.
Let $A_{0}\left(\alpha_{0}\right) \rightarrow A_{1}\left(\alpha_{1}\right) \ldots A_{n}\left(\alpha_{n}\right)$ and $A_{1}(\beta) \rightarrow B_{1}\left(\beta_{1}\right) \ldots B_{m}\left(\beta_{m}\right)$ be the clauses that produced $A_{0}\left(\alpha_{0}^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow B_{1}\left(\beta_{1}\right) \ldots B_{m}\left(\beta_{m}\right) A_{2}\left(\alpha_{2}\right) \ldots A_{n}\left(\alpha_{n}\right)$ of which Inst is an instantiation. Then there are clause instantiations

$$
A_{0}\left(\rho_{\mathbf{0}}\right) \rightarrow A_{1}\left(\rho_{\mathbf{1}}\right) \ldots A_{n}\left(\rho_{\mathbf{n}}\right)
$$

and

$$
A_{1}\left(\rho_{\mathbf{1}}\right) \rightarrow B_{1}\left(\sigma_{1}\right) \ldots B_{m}\left(\sigma_{\mathbf{m}}\right)
$$

for $R$. Because this holds for every clause $c \in P^{\prime}-P$, we may conclude that there exists a rewriting sequence $S(0, n) \Rightarrow^{*} \epsilon$ for $R$ and thus, that $w \in L(R)$. We conclude that $L(R)=L\left(R^{\prime}\right)$. For inverse substitution, the proof is the symmetric analog of the one given.

Definition 24. Let $R=(N, T, V, P, S)$ be a sRCG. Let Let $A_{0}\left(\overrightarrow{\alpha_{0}}\right) \rightarrow$ $A_{0}\left(\overrightarrow{\alpha_{1}}\right) A_{2}\left(\overrightarrow{\alpha_{2}}\right) \ldots A_{n}\left(\overrightarrow{\alpha_{n}}\right)$ be the form of all left-recursive $A_{0}$ clauses in $P$. Let $A_{0}\left(\overrightarrow{\beta_{0}}\right) \rightarrow \gamma$ be the form of the remaining $A_{0}$ clauses. We then define elimination of left-recursion as the replacement of all the left-recursive clauses by new (right-recursive) clauses in which a new predicate is used. That is, we choose a new nonterminal $B_{0}$ with $\operatorname{dim}\left(B_{0}\right)=\operatorname{dim}\left(A_{0}\right)$ and:

- For each left-recursive clause $A_{0}\left(\overrightarrow{\alpha_{0}}\right) \rightarrow A_{0}\left(\overrightarrow{\alpha_{1}}\right) \ldots A_{n}\left(\overrightarrow{\alpha_{n}}\right)$, we add two new $B_{0}$ clauses, namely

$$
\begin{gathered}
B_{0}\left(\overrightarrow{\beta_{0}}\right) \rightarrow A_{2}\left(\overrightarrow{\alpha_{2}}\right) \ldots A_{n}\left(\overrightarrow{\alpha_{n}}\right) B_{0}\left(\overrightarrow{\alpha_{1}}\right) \\
B_{0}\left(\overrightarrow{\beta_{0}^{\prime}}\right) \rightarrow A_{2}\left(\overrightarrow{\alpha_{2}}\right) \ldots A_{n}\left(\overrightarrow{\alpha_{n}}\right)
\end{gathered}
$$

where $\overrightarrow{\beta_{0}^{\prime}}$ denotes $\overrightarrow{\beta_{0}}$ with all occurrences of variables in $\overrightarrow{\alpha_{1}}$ deleted.

- For each of the remaining clauses $A_{0}\left(\overrightarrow{\beta_{0}}\right) \rightarrow \gamma$, we add for each leftrecursive clause $A_{0}\left(\overrightarrow{\alpha_{0}}\right) \rightarrow A_{0}\left(\overrightarrow{\alpha_{1}}\right) A_{2}\left(\overrightarrow{\alpha_{2}}\right) \ldots A_{n}\left(\overrightarrow{\alpha_{n}}\right)$ the clause $A_{0}\left(\beta_{0}^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow$ $\gamma B_{0}\left(\overrightarrow{\beta_{1}}\right)$ where $\overrightarrow{\beta_{1}}$ denotes the vector of variables with $\operatorname{dim}\left(B_{0}\right)$ as it's length and $\overrightarrow{\beta_{0}^{\prime}}$ denotes $\overrightarrow{\beta_{0}}$ with the variables of $\overrightarrow{\beta_{1}}$ inserted at corresponding places.
- We remove all left-recursive clauses $A_{0}\left(\overrightarrow{\alpha_{0}}\right) \rightarrow A_{0}\left(\overrightarrow{\alpha_{1}}\right) A_{2}\left(\overrightarrow{\alpha_{2}}\right) \ldots A_{n}\left(\overrightarrow{\alpha_{n}}\right)$.

Example. Let $R$ be a $s R C G$ given by the following clauses:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& S(X Y) \rightarrow A(X, Y) \\
& A(X Y, Z) \rightarrow A(X, Z) C(Y) \\
& A(X, Y) \rightarrow D(X, Y) \\
& A(X, Y Z) \rightarrow E(X, Y, Z)
\end{aligned}
$$

Then, we introduce $B^{\prime}$ and add new $A$ and $B^{\prime}$ clauses, giving a new set of clauses:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& S(X Y) \rightarrow A(X, Y) \\
& B^{\prime}(X, \epsilon) \rightarrow C(X) \\
& B^{\prime}(X Y, Z) \rightarrow C(Y) B^{\prime}(X, Z) \\
& A\left(X T_{1}, T_{2} Y\right) \rightarrow D(X, Y) B^{\prime}\left(T_{1}, T_{2}\right) \\
& A\left(X T_{1}, T_{2} Y Z\right) \rightarrow E(X, Y, Z) B^{\prime}\left(T_{1}, T_{2}\right) \\
& A(X, Y) \rightarrow D(X, Y) \\
& A(X, Y Z) \rightarrow E(X, Y, Z)
\end{aligned}
$$

Lemma 2. The string language of an sRCG is invariant under elimination of left-recursion.

Proof. Let $R=(N, T, V, P, S)$ be an $s R C G$ containing at least one useful left-recursive clause in $P$, and let $R^{\prime}=\left(N, T, V^{\prime}, P^{\prime}, S\right)$ be an $s R C G$ in which $c$ has been eliminated by the construction given in the definition of elimination of left-recursion. Let $A_{0}\left(\overrightarrow{\alpha_{0}}\right) \rightarrow A_{0}\left(\overrightarrow{\alpha_{1}}\right) A_{2}\left(\overrightarrow{\alpha_{2}}\right) \ldots A_{n}\left(\overrightarrow{\alpha_{n}}\right)$ be the form of all left-recursive $A_{0}$ clauses and let $A_{0}\left(\overrightarrow{\beta_{0}}\right) \rightarrow \gamma$ be the form of the remaining $A_{0}$ clauses. Furthermore, let

$$
\begin{gathered}
B_{0}\left(\overrightarrow{\beta_{0}}\right) \rightarrow A_{2}\left(\overrightarrow{\alpha_{2}}\right) \ldots A_{n}\left(\overrightarrow{\alpha_{n}}\right) B_{0}\left(\overrightarrow{\alpha_{1}}\right) \\
B_{0}\left(\overrightarrow{\beta_{0}^{\prime}}\right) \rightarrow A_{2}\left(\overrightarrow{\alpha_{2}}\right) \ldots A_{n}\left(\overrightarrow{\alpha_{n}}\right) \\
A_{0}\left(\overrightarrow{\beta_{0}^{\prime}}\right) \rightarrow \gamma B_{0}\left(\overrightarrow{\beta_{1}}\right) \\
A_{0}\left(\overrightarrow{\beta_{0}}\right) \rightarrow \gamma
\end{gathered}
$$

be the clauses produced by the elimination operation.
Now, let $w=w_{1} \ldots w_{n} \in L(R)$, and let it's rewriting sequence $S(0, n) \Rightarrow^{*} \epsilon$ include a clause instantiation $A_{0}\left(\rho_{\mathbf{0}}\right) \rightarrow A_{0}\left(\rho_{\mathbf{1}}\right) A_{2}\left(\rho_{\mathbf{2}}\right) \ldots A_{n}\left(\rho_{\mathbf{n}}\right)$. For the next step, either a left-recursive $A_{0}$ clause or a remaining $A_{0}$ clause is instantiated and used in the derivation, so we have either one of two types of instantiations

$$
\begin{gathered}
A_{0}\left(\rho_{\mathbf{1}}\right) \rightarrow A_{0}\left(\sigma_{1}\right) A_{2}\left(\sigma_{\mathbf{2}}\right) \ldots A_{n}\left(\sigma_{\mathbf{n}}\right) \\
A_{0}\left(\rho_{\mathbf{1}}\right) \rightarrow \gamma
\end{gathered}
$$

So we see that we have a number of copies $A_{2}\left(\sigma_{\mathbf{2}}\right) \ldots A_{n}\left(\sigma_{\mathbf{n}}\right) \ldots . . . A_{2}\left(\rho_{\mathbf{2}}\right) \ldots A_{n}\left(\rho_{\mathbf{n}}\right)$ at the right-hand side, until finally, some remaining clause is used and we have some $\gamma$ to the left. Then, the following instantiations can be made in $R^{\prime}$ :

$$
\begin{gathered}
A_{0}\left(\rho_{0}\right) \rightarrow \gamma B_{0}\left(\eta_{0}\right) \\
B_{0}\left(\overrightarrow{\eta_{0}}\right) \rightarrow A_{2}\left(\overrightarrow{\eta_{2}}\right) \ldots A_{n}\left(\overrightarrow{\eta_{n}}\right) B_{0}\left(\overrightarrow{\eta_{1}}\right) \\
\vdots \\
B_{0}\left(\overrightarrow{\beta_{0}}\right) \rightarrow A_{2}\left(\overrightarrow{\alpha_{2}}\right) \ldots A_{n}\left(\overrightarrow{\alpha_{n}}\right)
\end{gathered}
$$

We may conclude that there exists a rewriting sequence $S(\langle 0, n\rangle) \Rightarrow^{*} \epsilon$ in $R^{\prime}$ for $w$ and thus, that $w \in L\left(R^{\prime}\right)$.

For the converse, let $w=w_{1} \ldots w_{n} \in L\left(R^{\prime}\right)$ and let it's rewriting sequence $S(0, n) \Rightarrow^{*} \epsilon$ include a clause instantiation

$$
\text { Inst }=B_{0}\left(\eta_{\mathbf{0}}\right) \rightarrow A_{2}\left(\eta_{\mathbf{2}}\right) \ldots A_{n}\left(\eta_{\mathbf{n}}\right) B_{0}\left(\eta_{\mathbf{1}}\right)
$$

Because this clause is reachable (otherwise, it could not be used in a correct rewriting sequence), it must be preceded by a clause instantiation $A_{0}\left(\rho_{\mathbf{0}}\right) \rightarrow \gamma B_{0}\left(\eta_{\mathbf{0}}\right)$ and it finally precedes (because the clause is rightrecursive) an instantiation $B_{0}\left(\sigma_{0}\right) \rightarrow A_{2}\left(\sigma_{2}\right) \ldots A_{n}\left(\sigma_{\mathbf{n}}\right)$. So we see that we have some $\gamma$ followed by a number of copies $A_{2}\left(\sigma_{\mathbf{2}}\right) \ldots A_{n}\left(\sigma_{\mathbf{n}}\right) \ldots \ldots A_{2}\left(\rho_{\mathbf{2}}\right) \ldots A_{n}\left(\rho_{\mathbf{n}}\right)$. Then, the following instantiations can be made in $R$ :

$$
\begin{gathered}
A_{0}\left(\rho_{\mathbf{1}}\right) \rightarrow A_{0}\left(\sigma_{1}\right) A_{2}\left(\sigma_{\mathbf{2}}\right) \ldots A_{n}\left(\sigma_{\mathbf{n}}\right) \\
A_{0}\left(\rho_{\mathbf{1}}\right) \rightarrow \gamma
\end{gathered}
$$

We may conclude that there exists a rewriting sequence $S(\langle 0, n\rangle) \Rightarrow^{*} \epsilon$ in $R$ for $w$ and thus, that $w \in L(R)$.
We conclude that $L(R)=L\left(R^{\prime}\right)$. For the inverse case, the proof is the symmetric analog of the one given.

Lemma 3. For every $\epsilon$-free $s R C G R=\{N, T, V, P, S\}$ there is an equivalent one-terminal sRCG $R^{\prime}=\left\{N^{\prime}, T, V^{\prime}, P^{\prime}, S\right\}$.

## Proof.

- The set of terminals and the start symbol are the same for $R$ and $R^{\prime}$.
- The set of non-terminals and the set of variables of $R$ are added new non-terminals and variables as we construct $P^{\prime}$.
- The set of clauses $P^{\prime}$ is constructed by replacing each clause $c \in P$ that contains more than one terminal symbol with a set of new clauses, in the following way:
Let $c=A\left(\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{j}\right) \rightarrow A_{1}\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right) \ldots A_{m}\left(Y_{1}, \ldots, Y_{k}\right)$ be a clause containing more than one terminal symbol, and denote all occurring terminal symbols $b_{0}$ through $b_{r}$ ( $b_{0}$ being the leftmost occurring terminal symbol and $b_{r}$ being the rightmost one). For each occurring terminal symbol $b_{i}$ for $1 \leq i \leq r$, add a new clause $B_{i}\left(b_{i}\right) \rightarrow \epsilon$ and replace $c$ by $c^{\prime}=A\left(\beta_{1}, \ldots, \beta_{2}\right) \rightarrow A_{1}\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right) \ldots A_{m}\left(Y_{1}, \ldots, Y_{k}\right) B_{1}\left(T_{1}\right) \ldots B_{r}\left(T_{r}\right)$ where $\beta_{1}, \ldots, \beta_{j}$ denote $\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{j}$ with each $b_{i}$ replaced by its corresponding variable $T_{i}$.

Because the construction only applies consecutive inverse substitutions, by lemma 1 we have that $L(R)=L\left(R^{\prime}\right)$.

Example. Consider the following $s R C G_{w n}$ for the double copy language $\left\{w^{3} \mid w \in\{a, b\}^{*}\right\}$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& S(X Y Z) \rightarrow A(X, Y, Z) \\
& A(a X, a Y, a Z) \rightarrow A(X, Y, Z) \\
& A(b X, b Y, b Z) \rightarrow A(X, Y, Z) \\
& A(a, a, a) \rightarrow \epsilon \\
& A(b, b, b) \rightarrow \epsilon
\end{aligned}
$$

We replace all clauses but the start clause with new clauses. As an example, for the second clause $A(a X, a Y, a Z) \rightarrow A(X, Y, Z)$ we add new rules $B(a) \rightarrow \epsilon$ and $C(a) \rightarrow \epsilon$ and replace the original clause by $A\left(a X, T_{1} Y, T_{2} Z\right) \rightarrow$ $A(X, Y, Z) B\left(T_{1}\right) C\left(T_{2}\right)$.
The resulting grammar looks as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& S(X Y Z) \rightarrow A(X, Y, Z) \\
& A\left(a X, T_{1} Y, T_{2} Z\right) \rightarrow A(X, Y, Z) B\left(T_{1}\right) C\left(T_{2}\right) \\
& A\left(b X, T_{1} Y, T_{2} Z\right) \rightarrow A(X, Y, Z) D\left(T_{1}\right) E\left(T_{2}\right) \\
& A\left(a, T_{1}, T_{2}\right) \rightarrow F\left(T_{1}\right) G\left(T_{2}\right) \\
& A\left(b, T_{1}, T_{1}\right) \rightarrow H\left(T_{1}\right) I\left(T_{2}\right) \\
& B(a) \rightarrow \epsilon \\
& C(a) \rightarrow \epsilon \\
& D(b) \rightarrow \epsilon \\
& E(b) \rightarrow \epsilon \\
& F(a) \rightarrow \epsilon \\
& G(a) \rightarrow \epsilon \\
& H(b) \rightarrow \epsilon \\
& I(b) \rightarrow \epsilon
\end{aligned}
$$

Lemma 4. For every sRCG $R=\{N, T, V, P, S\}$ with $\epsilon \notin L(R)$, there is an equivalent lexicalized sRCG $R^{\prime}=\left\{N^{\prime}, T, V, P^{\prime}, S^{\prime}\right\}$.

Proof. The idea of the conversion is similar to that of the Greibach Normal Form for CFG's. We construct $R^{\prime}$ from the $\epsilon$-free form, with useless rules eliminated. Essentially, the construction alters the set of non-terminals and the set of clauses. These resulting sets are denoted $N^{\prime}$ and $P^{\prime}$ respectively, and are assumed to become clear from the following construction:

1. Assign an ordering $\left\{A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n}\right\}$ on the clauses in $P$.
2. Modify the clauses in such a way that if $A_{j}\left(\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{m}\right) \rightarrow A_{k}\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right) \gamma$, $j \leq k$.
3. Eliminate left-recursive clauses $A_{k} \rightarrow A_{k} \gamma$, thereby introducing new clauses $B_{k}$.
4. Lexicalize the clauses, starting with $A_{n-1}$ and ending with $A_{1}$.
5. Lexicalize the $B_{k}$ clauses.
6. Add a new start clause $S^{\prime}(X) \rightarrow S(X)$.

Given that we have assigned an ordering on the clauses, we can modify the clauses such that if $A_{j}\left(\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{m}\right) \rightarrow A_{k}\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right) \gamma, j \leq k$ as follows:

For $k$ from $A_{1}$ to $A_{n}$ :

1. Assume that for $1 \leq i \leq k, A_{i}\left(\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{m}\right) \rightarrow A_{j}\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{p}\right) \gamma$ only if $j>i$.
2. If $A_{k}\left(\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{m}\right) \rightarrow A_{j}\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{p}\right) \gamma \in P$ and $j<k$, remove this clause and add clauses with $A_{j}\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{p}\right)$ substituted with the righthand side of each $A_{j}$ clause. Note that when a $A_{j}$ clause is lexicalized, we move these terminal symbols to $A_{k}$ in the logical sense.
3. If we repeat 2 ) at most $k-1$ times, every clause is of the form

$$
A_{k}\left(\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{m}\right) \rightarrow A_{j}\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{o}\right)
$$

with $j \geq k$.
4. If an $A_{k}$ clause is left-recursive, i.e. it is of the form $A_{k}\left(\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{m}\right) \rightarrow$ $A_{k}\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{m}\right) \gamma$, there must also be at least one terminal $A_{k}$ clause (else the $A_{k}$ clause is useless and thus would not exist). We replace all left-recursive clauses for a $k$ by eliminating left-recursion as described in definition 24

Now we have that each $A_{n}$ clause must be a terminal clause, and thus is lexicalized since the construction starts off with an $\epsilon$-free SRCG. Each $A_{n-1}$ clause is either terminal or has $A_{n}$ as the leftmost predicate in the righthand side. Replace the latter clauses by each possible substitution of variables by the terminal symbols in $A_{n}$. Repeat this for $A n-2$ until $A_{1}$. Now we can do the same for each $B_{i}$ clause.

Now we show that $L(R)=L\left(R^{\prime}\right)$. Because the construction only applies consecutive substitutions and eliminations of left-recursion, we have by lemma 1 and lemma 2 that $L(R)=L\left(R^{\prime}\right)$.

Example. Consider the following $s R G C_{w n}$ grammar, which is a slight modification of a linguistic example drawn from [13]:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& S(X Y Z) \rightarrow A(X, Z) B(Y) \\
& A(X, Y Z) \rightarrow A(X, Y) C(Z) \\
& A(X, Y) \rightarrow D(X) E(Y) \\
& B(b) \rightarrow \epsilon \\
& C(c) \rightarrow \epsilon \\
& D(d) \rightarrow \epsilon \\
& E(e) \rightarrow \epsilon
\end{aligned}
$$

Step 1: We assume an ordering, say $\{B, D, E, A, S, C\}$.
Step 2: Now we modify the clauses such that if $A_{j}\left(\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{m}\right) \rightarrow A_{k}\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right) \gamma$, $j \leq k$ :

- We begin with the $B$ clauses. As these are all terminal clauses, we continue. The $D$ and $E$ clauses are also terminal.
- The second $A$ clause is well-ordered, whereas the first is not. So we replace the second clause with $A(d, Y) \rightarrow E(Y)$. Again, we replace the obtained clause with a new one, and obtain $A(d, e) \rightarrow \epsilon$.
- The second $A$ clause is left-recursive, so we replace it by new $A$ clauses $B^{\prime}(X, Y Z) \rightarrow C(Z) B^{\prime}(X, Y)$ and $B^{\prime}(\epsilon, Z) \rightarrow C(Z)$. Furthermore, for the first $A$ clause we add $A(d X, e Y) \rightarrow B^{\prime}(X, Y)$.
- The $S$ clause is not well-ordered, so we replace it by two new clauses $S(d Y e U) \rightarrow C(U) B(Y)$ and $S(d X Y e Z) \rightarrow B^{\prime}(X, Z) B(Y)$.

Step 3: We lexicalize all non-lexicalized clauses. In this case, these are $B^{\prime}(X, Y Z) \rightarrow C(Z) B^{\prime}(X, Y)$ and $B^{\prime}(\epsilon, Z) \rightarrow C(Z)$, which we replace by $B^{\prime}(X, Y c) \rightarrow B^{\prime}(X, Y)$ and $B^{\prime}(\epsilon, c) \rightarrow \epsilon$ respectively.
The grammar now looks as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& S(d Y e U) \rightarrow C(U) B(Y) \\
& S(d X Y e Z) \rightarrow B^{\prime}(X, Z) B(Y) \\
& A(d X, e Y) \rightarrow B^{\prime}(X, Y) \\
& A(d, e) \rightarrow \epsilon \\
& B^{\prime}(X, Y c) \rightarrow B^{\prime}(X, Y) \\
& B^{\prime}(\epsilon, c) \rightarrow \epsilon \\
& B(b) \rightarrow \epsilon \\
& C(c) \rightarrow \epsilon \\
& D(d) \rightarrow \epsilon \\
& E(e) \rightarrow \epsilon
\end{aligned}
$$

## 13 The equivalence of first-order Displacement Grammar and well-nested simple Range Concatenation Grammar

The idea of the correspondence between $s R C G_{w n}$ and $\mathbf{D}^{1}$ is to interpret the rewriting clauses as abstract derivation possibilities where the typing of terminals force off exactly those derivations that are possible in the $s R C G_{w n}$ : the left hand side of each clause is the conclusion, the right hand side predicates are premisses. Predicate names become types, the separation of arguments in predicates are interpreted as separator locations. Given the structures of the premisses, we need to make it possible to derive exactly the conclusion by rightly assigning types to the terminals involved. So terminal clauses (those with an empty right hand side) become axioms, and since the start clauses are not lexicalized, we only reassign the types of the start symbol in a $s R C G$ to include the removal of insertion points and the concatenation of some premisses.

We compare $\mathbf{D}$ to well-nested $s R C G$, because ill-nested clauses such as $C(X Y Z U c) \rightarrow A(X, Z) B(Y, U)$ are not directly interpretable: we would have as premisses $X+1+Z: A$ and $Y+1+U: B$ and as the conclusion $X+Y+Z+U+c: C$, so we would need to chew off the $U$, then intercalate $Y+1$ into $X+1+Z$ and concatenate $U$ again. This is not evidently possible because we do not know the type of $U$. However, a clause such as $C(X Y Z U c) \rightarrow$ $A(X, U) B(Y, Z)$ can be interpreted, by simple assigning $((A \odot B) \odot I) \backslash C$ to $c$.

Lemma 5. For every $n$-s $R C G_{w n} R$, there is a weakly equivalent ( $n-1$ ) D-grammar $D$.

Proof. We show that for every lexicalized $L s R C G_{w n} R$, there exists a weakly equivalent D-grammar $D$. Let $R=(N, T, V, P, S)$ be a $s R C G_{w n}$ having the above mentioned properties. We construct $D=\left(\Sigma, \delta, S^{\prime}\right)$ as follows:

- $\Sigma=T$
- $S^{\prime}$ is obtained from the starting clause in $R$. For the start clause $S\left(X_{1} \ldots X_{n}\right) \rightarrow A_{1}\left(X_{i}, \ldots, X_{j}\right) A_{2}\left(X_{k}, \ldots X_{l}\right) \ldots A_{m}\left(X_{o}, \ldots, X_{p}\right)$, we add to $S^{\prime}$ the type that denotes the operations needed to convert $X_{i}+1+$ $X_{i+1} \ldots 1+X_{j}: A_{1} ; \ldots ; X_{o}+1+\ldots+1+X_{p}: A_{m}$ into $X_{1}+X_{2}+\ldots+$
$X_{n}$. This can be intercalating 0 's everywhere and concatenating $A_{1}$ to $A_{m}$ or intercalating one of the right hand side predicates into one another since we have a well-nestedness restriction. (e.g. we could have $S(X Y Z U) \rightarrow A(X, U) B(Y, Z)$ such that we add to $S^{\prime}$ the type $(A \odot(B \odot I))$
- The typing $\delta$ is obtained from the clauses in $R$. Since we already have converted the start clause, we can divide the remaining clauses into terminating clauses (clauses with an empty right hand side) and non-terminating clauses (clauses with a non-empty right hand side).
- For each terminating clause $A(a) \rightarrow \epsilon$, we add the pair $(a, A)$ to $\delta$.
- For each non-terminating clause $\left.A_{0}\left(\overrightarrow{\alpha_{0}}\right) \rightarrow A_{1}\left(\overrightarrow{\alpha_{1}}\right)\right) \ldots A_{n}\left(\overrightarrow{\alpha_{n}}\right)$ we want to interpret the clause as part of a deduction, in which the induction hypothesis tells us that we already have a deduction for each of the premisses of the form $\alpha_{i}^{\prime}: A_{i}$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$ and where we want to deduce $\alpha_{0}^{\prime}: A_{0}$ where $\alpha_{i}^{\prime}$ denotes $\alpha_{i}$, but with separators interspersed between each dimension. Furthermore, we have one terminal $a \in \overrightarrow{\alpha_{0}}$ for which we want to derive a typing with which the deduction will succeed. Graphically, this looks as follows:

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
\alpha_{1}^{\prime}: A_{1} & \ldots & \alpha_{n}^{\prime}: A_{n} \quad a: A^{\prime} \\
& \vdots \\
& \alpha_{0}^{\prime}: A_{0}
\end{array}
$$

and we need to derive the correct typing for $A^{\prime}$. It is important to make the following observation at this point:
The rules of a $L s R C G_{w n}$ are such that can only be intercalations of predicate tuples inside other tuples (because of well-nestedness) and concatenations. Furthermore, clauses with tuples are in fact clauses with several continuous substrings. This observation shows us that to make a deduction like the graphically depicted one above, we can do with intercalations, concatenation and the use of separators, and thus that it is possible to give a (unique) typing for $a$ such that exactly this deduction can be made in first-order Displacement Grammar. For $\alpha_{0}^{\prime}$, $a$ is either the lefmost symbol of the lefmost argument of $\alpha_{0}^{\prime}$ or the rightmost symbol of the rightmost argument, or it is somewhere in between. The type for $a$ then becomes respectively either $A_{0} / B$ or $B \backslash A_{0}$ or $B \downarrow_{k} A$ or $\left(B \downarrow_{k} A\right) / J$ or $J \backslash\left(B \downarrow_{k} A\right)$ (these last two cases are needed when $a$ intercalates while keeping the dimension intact, thus leaving a separator in the place of separator) where $B$ is the type for
$\alpha_{0}^{\prime}$ with $a$ removed, say $\alpha_{0}^{\prime \prime}$. Then, we need to derive the $B$ type by reverse engineering $\alpha_{0}^{\prime \prime}$. Here we can say that it is built up by either the concatenation of two parts, or the intercalation of two parts, resulting in $B:=(C \bullet D)\left|C \odot_{k} D\right| C \odot_{k}(D \bullet J) \mid C \odot_{k}(J \bullet D)$, the last two choices again, needed when a part intercalates while keeping the dimension intact. We repeat these steps to finally find a typing for $a$. We must however note that $\odot_{k}$ is not by definition associative in our definition of Displacement Calculus (consider for example $\left(A \odot_{1} B\right) \odot_{1} C$ vs. $A \odot_{1}\left(B \odot_{1} C\right)$ with $a+1+d+1+e: A$ and $\left.b: B, c: C\right)$, so that there can be a choice of typings. For example, to go from $X+1+W: B, Y+1+V$ : $C, Z+1+U: D$ to $X+Y+Z+1+U+V+W: A$, we could have either $A:=B \odot_{1}\left(C \odot_{1} D\right)$ or $A:=\left(B \odot_{1} C\right) \odot_{1} D$, strictly giving two different derivation trees but the same string yield. It is for this reason that we cannot compare strong, but can compare weak generative capacity.

Now we need to show that $L(R)=L(D)$.
$(\Rightarrow)$ Assume $w=w_{1} \ldots w_{n} \in L(R)$. Then there exists a rewriting sequence $S(\langle 0, n\rangle) \Rightarrow^{*} \epsilon$. We need to show that there exists a natural deduction proof for $w$ with the grammatical assignments of $D$. By construction, each $w_{i}$ where $1 \leq i \leq n$ is in the lexicon, and has a typing that directly corresponds to the predicate name of some terminal clause in $R$ for $w_{i}$. By construction, we also know that we can give a typing to each terminal symbol that is present in a clause in $R$ such that we mimic the derivation structure of this clause so that if we have the premisses, we can derive it's left-hand side predicate. Since we have all type assignments that correspond to each terminal clause, and every clause instantiated in the rewriting sequence must eventually lead to a terminal clause, and we have type assignments such that every clause can be mimicked, we may conclude that there exists a natural deduction proof for $w$ in $D$, and thus that $w \in L(D)$.
$(\Leftarrow)$ Assume $w=w_{1} \ldots w_{n} \in L(D)$. Then there exists a natural deduction proof for $w$ in $D$. Since all type assignments in $D$ make it possible to derive exactly the yield of each possible instantiated clause, we may conclude that there exists a rewriting sequence $S(\langle 0, n\rangle) \Rightarrow^{*} \epsilon$ for $R$ and thus that $w \in L(R)$. We conclude that $L(R)=L(D)$ and end our proof.

Example. Consider the $s R C G_{w n} R=(\{S, A\},\{a, b\},\{X, Y\}, P, S)$ with $P$ as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& S(X Y) \rightarrow A(X, Y) \\
& A(a X, a Y) \rightarrow A(X, Y) \\
& A(b X, b Y) \rightarrow A(X, Y) \\
& A(a, a) \rightarrow \epsilon \\
& A(b, b) \rightarrow \epsilon
\end{aligned}
$$

We have that $L(R)=\left\{w w \mid w \in\{a, b\}^{+}\right\}$, i.e. the single copy language. We now show how to construct an equivalent $1 D^{1}$ grammar. First, we convert $R$ to a one-terminal $s R C G$, and obtain the following clauses:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& S(X Y) \rightarrow A(X, Y) \\
& A(a X, T Y) \rightarrow A(X, Y) A^{\prime}(T) \\
& A(b X, T Y) \rightarrow A(X, Y) B^{\prime}(T) \\
& A(a, T) \rightarrow A^{\prime}(T) \\
& A(b, T) \rightarrow B^{\prime}(T) \\
& A^{\prime}(a) \rightarrow \epsilon \\
& B^{\prime}(b) \rightarrow \epsilon
\end{aligned}
$$

We construct a $D$-grammar $G=(T, \delta, S)$ as follows:

- The start symbol is defined as $S:=A \odot_{1} I$, since we remove one dimension by reversing the start clause.
- We assign new types for each of the six remaining clauses:

1. For the terminal clauses, we add to $\delta\left(a, A^{\prime}\right)$ and $\left(b, B^{\prime}\right)$.
2. $A(a X, T Y) \rightarrow A(X, Y) A^{\prime}(T)$ denotes the following abstract derivation:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& X+1+Y: A \quad T: A^{\prime} \quad a: A_{0} \\
& \text { : } \\
& a+X+1+T+Y: A
\end{aligned}
$$

We see that to obtain the conclusion, we have to intercalate $1+T$ and concatenate the result to $a$ to the left. So the typing for $a$ becomes $A_{0}:=A / B$, where $B$ is the type of $X+1+T+Y$. This is the result of intercalation of $T$ together with a concatenated separator, hence $B:=A \odot_{1}\left(J \bullet A^{\prime}\right)$. So we add a type assignment $\left(a, A /\left(A \odot_{1}\left(J \bullet A^{\prime}\right)\right)\right)$ to $\delta$.
3. For $A(b X, T Y) \rightarrow A(X, Y) B^{\prime}(T)$, we add the type assignment $\left(b, A /\left(A \odot_{1}\left(J \bullet B^{\prime}\right)\right)\right)$ to $\delta$.
4. $A(a, T) \rightarrow A^{\prime}(T)$ denotes the following derivation:

$$
\begin{gathered}
T: A^{\prime} \quad a: A_{1} \\
\vdots \\
a+1+T: A
\end{gathered}
$$

The type assignment for $a$ becomes $A_{1}:=\left(A / A^{\prime}\right) / J$ (note here that we could as well have given $\left.A_{1}:=A /\left(J \bullet A^{\prime}\right)\right)$, and we add to $\delta\left(a,\left(A / A^{\prime}\right) / J\right)$.
5. For $A(b, T) \rightarrow B^{\prime}(T)$, we add the type assignment $\left(b,\left(A / B^{\prime}\right) / J\right.$.

Our final grammar $G$ looks as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& S^{\prime}=A \odot_{1} I \\
& a: A^{\prime} ;\left(A / A^{\prime}\right) / J ; A /\left(A \odot_{1}\left(J \bullet A^{\prime}\right)\right) \\
& b: B^{\prime} ;\left(A / B^{\prime}\right) / J ; A /\left(A \odot_{1}\left(J \bullet B^{\prime}\right)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

An example derivation of $a b a b$ looks as follows:
$\underline{0: I} \begin{aligned} & \frac{\frac{b:\left(A / B^{\prime}\right) / J \quad 1: J}{b+1: A / B^{\prime}} E / \quad b: B^{\prime}}{\frac{b+1+b: A}{b+1+a+b: A \odot_{1}\left(J \bullet A^{\prime}\right) S} E \backslash} \frac{1: J \quad a: A^{\prime}}{1+a: J \bullet A^{\prime}} I \bullet \\ & I \odot_{1} \\ & a+b+a+b: A \odot_{1} I\end{aligned}$

Before we move to the proof of the converse statement, we define the set of all possible decompositions of types, i.e. for $A \backslash(B \backslash C)$ the set of all possible decompositions is $\left\{R^{A \backslash(B b s C)}, R^{B}\right.$ bs $\left.C, R^{C}\right\}$.
Definition 25. Let Tp be a finite set of $\boldsymbol{D}^{1}$ types. We inductively define the set $P(T p)$ :

1. Every $A \in T p$ is in $P(T p)$,
2. If some type $A / B \in P(T p)$, then $B \in P(T p)$,
3. If some type $B \backslash A \in P(T p)$, then $B \in P(T p)$,
4. If some type $A \bullet B \in P(T p)$, then $A, B \in P(T p)$,
5. If some type $A \uparrow_{k} B \in P(T p)$, then $B \in P(T p)$,
6. If some type $B \downarrow_{k} A \in P(T p)$, then $B \in P(T p)$,
7. If some type $A \odot_{k} B \in P(T p)$, then $A, B \in P(T p)$.

Lemma 6. For every $n \boldsymbol{D}^{1}$-grammar $G$, there is a strongly equivalent $(n+1)$ $s R C G_{w n} R$.

Proof. Let $G=(\Sigma, \delta, S)$ be an $n \mathbf{D}$-grammar with $\operatorname{ord}(D)=1$. We construct $R=\left(N, T, V, P, S^{\prime}\right)$ as follows:

- $N=P(T p)$ where $T p$ is the image of $\delta$ (for reading comfort, we superscript predicate names on $R$ ).
- $T=\Sigma$
- $V$ is generated by the algorithm that produces $P$.
- $P$ is generated by the following algorithm:

1. Initialization: $P=\{A(w) \rightarrow \epsilon \mid t \in \Sigma, A \in \delta(w)\}$
2. Recursion: Until each type is fully decomposed (that is, for 2 to $\operatorname{len}(G)$ ), iteratively add for each clause $c \in P$ new clauses that simulate derivations in D, that is to say, $P_{\text {new }}$ is constructed as in Figure 5.

Note that this conversion has a runtime complexity of $O(|\Sigma| \cdot \operatorname{len}(G))=$ $O(|\Sigma|)$ and thus is linear in time. Now we need to show that $L_{T}(G)=L_{T}(R)$. $(\Rightarrow)$ Let $w=w_{1}, \ldots, w_{n} \in L_{T}(G)$. By definition, there exists a derivation tree $D=(V, l, E, r)$ of $G$ for $w$. We need to show that there exists a derivation tree of $R$ for $w$. We construct a derivation tree $D^{\prime}=\left(V^{\prime}, l^{\prime}, E^{\prime}, r^{\prime}\right)$ of $R$ as follows:
$P \cup$
$\left\{R^{B}\right.$
$\left\{R^{B}\right.$
$\left\{R^{A}\right.$

Figure 5: The recursive step of the construction in lemma 6

- For each $w_{i}$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$, we add a leaf $v_{i}$ to $V^{\prime}$ with $r$-yield $\left(v_{i}\right)=$ $\{\langle i-1, i\rangle\}$ and $l^{\prime}\left(v_{i}\right)=R^{\delta\left(w_{i}\right)}$.
- For each internal vertex $v_{0} \in V$ and it's daughter vertices $v_{1}, v_{2} \in V$ (starting from the first parent vertices of the leaves), we have three cases:

1. It represents a $[E \backslash]([E /])$ rule where $l\left(v_{1}\right)=1: J\left(l\left(v_{2}\right)=1: J\right)$. In this case, let $r$-yield $\left(v_{2}^{\prime}\right)=\left\{\left(\left\langle i_{1}, j_{1}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle i_{m}, j_{m}\right\rangle\right)\right\}$. Then we add a leaf $v_{1}^{\prime}$ to $V^{\prime}$ with $r$-yield $\left(v_{1}^{\prime}\right)=\left\{\left\langle i_{1}, i_{1}\right\rangle\right\}$ and $l^{\prime}\left(v_{1}^{\prime}\right)=J$. We add a new internal vertex $v_{0}^{\prime}$ to $V^{\prime}$ with edges to $v_{1}^{\prime}, v_{2}^{\prime}$ and with $r$ yield $\left(v_{0}^{\prime}\right)=\left\{\left(\left\langle i_{1}, i_{1}\right\rangle,\left\langle i_{1}, j_{1}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle i_{m}, j_{m}\right\rangle\right)\right\}$ and $l^{\prime}\left(v_{0}^{\prime}\right)=l\left(v_{0}\right)$. For the [ $E /$ ] case, we swap $v_{1}^{\prime}$ and $v_{2}^{\prime}$.
2. It represents a standard $[E \backslash]([E /])$ rule. In this case, let $r$ yield $\left(v_{1}^{\prime}\right)=\{\langle i, j\rangle\}$ and $r$-yield $\left(v_{2}^{\prime}\right)=\{\langle j, k\rangle\}$. We add a new internal vertex $v_{0}^{\prime}$ with edges to $v_{1}^{\prime}, v_{2}^{\prime}$ and with $r$-yield $\left(v_{0}^{\prime}\right)=$ $\{\langle i, k\rangle\}$ and $l^{\prime}\left(v_{0}\right)=l\left(v_{0}\right)$. Again, the case of $[E /]$ is analog.
3. It represents a $[I \bullet]$ rule where $l\left(v_{1}\right)=1: J\left(l\left(v_{2}\right)=1: J\right)$. In this case, let $r$-yield $\left(v_{2}^{\prime}\right)=\langle i, j\rangle$. Then we add a leaf $v_{1}^{\prime}$ to $V^{\prime}$ with $r$ yield $\left(v_{1}^{\prime}\right)=\{\langle i, i\rangle\}$ and $l^{\prime}\left(v_{1}^{\prime}\right)=J$. We add a new internal vertex $v_{0}^{\prime}$ to $V^{\prime}$ with edges to $v_{1}^{\prime}, v_{2}^{\prime}$ and with $r$-yield $\left(v_{0}^{\prime}\right)=\{(\langle i, i\rangle,\langle i, j\rangle)\}$ and $l^{\prime}\left(v_{0}^{\prime}\right)=l\left(v_{0}\right)$. For $E /$ case, we swap $v_{1}^{\prime}$ and $v_{2}^{\prime}$.
4. It represents a standard [ $I \bullet$ ] rule. In this case, let $r$ - yield $\left(v_{1}^{\prime}\right)=$ $\{\langle i, j\rangle\}$ and $r$-yield $\left(v_{2}^{\prime}\right)=\{\langle j, k\rangle\}$. We add a new internal vertex $v_{0}^{\prime}$ with edges to $v_{1}^{\prime}, v_{2}^{\prime}$ and with $r$ - yield $\left(v_{0}^{\prime}\right)=\{\langle i, k\rangle\}$ and $l^{\prime}\left(v_{0}\right)=$ $l\left(v_{0}\right)$.
5. It represents a $\left[\begin{array}{ll}E & \downarrow_{k}\end{array}\right]$ rule where $l\left(v_{1}\right)=0: I\left(l\left(v_{2}\right)=0: I\right)$. In this case, let $r$-yield $\left(v_{2}^{\prime}\right)=\left\{\left(\left\langle i_{1}, j_{1}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle i_{m}, j_{m}\right\rangle\right)\right\}$. We add a new internal vertex $v_{0}^{\prime}$ to $V^{\prime}$ with an edge to $v_{2}^{\prime}$ and with $r$ $\operatorname{yield}\left(v_{0}^{\prime}\right)=\left\{\left(\left\langle i_{1}, j_{1}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle i_{k}, j_{k+1}\right\rangle, \ldots\left\langle i_{m}, j_{m}\right\rangle\right)\right\}$. The $\left[\begin{array}{ll}E & \uparrow_{k}\end{array}\right]$ is analog.
6. It represents a standard $\left[E \quad \downarrow_{k}\right]$ rule. In this case, let $r$-yield $\left(v_{1}^{\prime}\right)=$ $\left\{\left(\left\langle i_{1}, j_{1}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle i_{m}, j_{m}\right\rangle\right)\right\}$ and $r$-yield $\left(v_{2}^{\prime}\right)=\left\{\left(\left\langle p_{1}, q_{1}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle p_{l}, q_{l}\right\rangle\right)\right\}$. We add a new internal vertex $v_{0}^{\prime}$ to $V^{\prime}$ with edges to $v_{1}, v_{2}$ and with

$$
\begin{gathered}
r-y i e l d\left(v_{0}^{\prime}\right)= \\
\left\{\left(\left\langle i_{1}, j_{1}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle i_{k}, j_{k}\right\rangle,\left\langle p_{1}, q_{1}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle p_{l}, q_{l}\right\rangle,\left\langle i_{k+1}, j_{k+1}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle i_{m}, j_{m}\right\rangle\right)\right\} .
\end{gathered}
$$

Note here that $\left\langle i_{k}, j_{k}\right\rangle,\left\langle p_{1}, q_{1}\right.$ collapses into $\left\langle i_{k}, q_{1}\right.$ if there is not a separator but a terminal symbol, idem for the right side. The [ $E \uparrow_{k}$ ] is analog.
7. It represents a $\left[I \odot_{k}\right]$ rule. In this case, let

$$
\begin{aligned}
r \text {-yield }\left(v_{1}^{\prime}\right) & =\left\{\left(\left\langle i_{1}, j_{1}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle i_{m}, j_{m}\right\rangle\right)\right\} \\
r \text {-yield }\left(v_{2}^{\prime}\right) & =\left\{\left(\left\langle p_{1}, q_{1}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle p_{l}, q_{l}\right\rangle\right)\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

We add a new internal vertex $v_{0}^{\prime}$ to $V^{\prime}$ with edges to $v_{1}, v_{2}$ and with

$$
\begin{gathered}
r \text {-yield }\left(v_{0}^{\prime}\right)= \\
\left\{\left(\left\langle i_{1}, j_{1}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle i_{k}, j_{k}\right\rangle,\left\langle p_{1}, q_{1}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle p_{l}, q_{l}\right\rangle,\left\langle i_{k+1}, j_{k+1}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle i_{m}, j_{m}\right\rangle\right)\right\} .
\end{gathered}
$$

Note here that $\left\langle i_{k}, j_{k}\right\rangle,\left\langle p_{1}, q_{1}\right.$ collapses into $\left\langle i_{k}, q_{1}\right.$ if there is not a separator but a terminal symbol, idem for the right side.

Once we have had all vertices of $D$, we obtain a derivation tree for $R$ where $r$-yield $\left(r^{\prime}\right)=\langle 0, n\rangle$ and $l^{\prime}\left(r^{\prime}\right)=S^{\prime}$, and thus conclude that $L_{T}(G) \subseteq L_{T}(R)$. $(\Leftarrow)$ Let $w=w_{1}, \ldots, w_{n} \in L_{T}(R)$. By definition, there exists a derivation tree $D=(V, l, E, r)$ of $R$ for $w$. We need to show that there exists a derivation tree of $G$ for $w$. Basically, We construct a derivation tree $D^{\prime}=\left(V^{\prime}, l^{\prime}, E^{\prime}, r^{\prime}\right)$ of $G$ as follows:

- For each leaf $v_{i} \in V$ with $r$-yield $\left(v_{i}\right)=\{\langle i-1, i\rangle\}$, we add a lexical leaf $v_{i}^{\prime}$ to $V^{\prime}$ with $l^{\prime}\left(v_{i}\right)^{\prime}=w_{i}: l\left(v_{i}\right)$,
- For each leaf $v \in V$ with $r$ - yield $(v)=\{\langle i, i\rangle\}$ for some $i$, add a leaf $v^{\prime}$ to $V^{\prime}$ with $l^{\prime}\left(v^{\prime}\right)=1: J$,
- For every internal node $v_{0} \in V$ that has only one daughter (thus representing a concatenation of ranges) $v_{1}$ we add a leaf $v_{2}^{\prime}$ with $l^{\prime}\left(v_{2}^{\prime}\right)=0: I$
- For every internal vertex $v \in V$, let $\rho \in r$-yield $(v)$. We add an internal vertex $v^{\prime}$ to $V^{\prime}$ with $l^{\prime}\left(v^{\prime}\right)=\rho(w): l(v)$ and we copy the edges of $v$ to $v^{\prime}$. In the case that $v\left(v^{\prime}\right)$ only has one daughter, say $v_{1}\left(v_{1}^{\prime}\right)$, we have added a new leaf $v_{2}^{\prime}$ with $l^{\prime}\left(v_{2}^{\prime}\right)=0: I$ and so we add a new edge from $v^{\prime}$ to $v_{2}^{\prime}$.

If we have 'copied' the entire derivation tree $D$ into a new tree $D^{\prime}$ it is obvious that $D^{\prime}$ is a derivation tree for $G$, because all derivation steps in $R$ correspond to deduction rules in Displacement Calculus, with the only difference that 0,1 are not explicitly present, but because only intercalations
of 0 are represented as a vertex with a single daughter, and only the concatenation of a separator 1 involves $\epsilon$-arguments, we can safely make this construction. We therefore may conclude that $L_{T}(R) \subseteq L_{T}(G)$.

We conclude that $L_{T}(G)=L_{T}(R)$ and thus complete the proof.

Example. RESP $P_{m}=\left\{a_{1}^{i} a_{2}^{i} b_{1}^{j} b_{2}^{j} \ldots a_{2 m-1}^{i} a_{2 m}^{i} b_{2 m-1}^{j} b_{2 m}^{j}\right\}$ was shown to be in the difference class $m-M C F L-m-M C F L_{w n}$ [29]. As an example of the previous lemma, we show that $R E S P_{2} \in 3-M C F L_{w n}$ and argue that this is generalizable to $R E S P_{m} \in(m+1)-M C F L_{w n}$. Consider $R E S P_{2}=$ $\left\{a^{n} b^{n} c^{m} d^{m} e^{n} f^{n} g^{m} h^{m}\right\}$. The following 2- $D^{1}$ grammar describes $R E S P_{2}$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& S^{\prime}=\left(C \odot_{2} I\right) \odot_{1} I a: A ;(((T / F) / E) / J) / B \\
& b: B ;\left(\left(T \downarrow_{1}(A \backslash(T / F))\right) / E\right) / J \\
& c:\left(\left(T \downarrow_{1}(((C / H) / J) / G)\right) / D\right) / J ;\left(\left(C \downarrow_{1} U\right) / D\right) / J \\
& d: D \\
& e: E \\
& f: F \\
& g:\left(\left(U \downarrow_{2} C\right) / H\right) / J \\
& h: H
\end{aligned}
$$

Running the algorithm described in lemma 3, we obtain the following clauses:

## Initial stage:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& R^{A}(a) \rightarrow \epsilon \\
& R^{((((T / F) / E) / J) / B)}(a) \rightarrow \epsilon \\
& R^{B}(b) \rightarrow \epsilon \\
& R^{\left(\left(\left(T \downarrow_{1}(A \backslash(T / F))\right) / E\right) / J\right)}(b) \rightarrow \epsilon \\
& R^{\left(\left(\left(T \downarrow_{1}(((C / H) / J) / G)\right) / D\right) / J\right)}(c) \rightarrow \epsilon \\
& R^{\left(\left(\left(C \downarrow_{1} U\right) / D\right) / J\right)}(c) \rightarrow \epsilon \\
& R^{D}(d) \rightarrow \epsilon \\
& R^{E}(e) \rightarrow \epsilon \\
& R^{F}(f) \rightarrow \epsilon \\
& R^{G}(g) \rightarrow \epsilon \\
& R^{\left(\left(\left(U \downarrow_{2} C\right) / H\right) / J\right)}(g) \rightarrow \epsilon \\
& R^{H}(h) \rightarrow \epsilon
\end{aligned}
$$

The next stage recursively eliminates one $/, \backslash, \downarrow_{k}, \uparrow_{k}, \bullet, \odot$ :

## First step:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& R^{(((T / F) / E) / J)}\left(X_{1} Y_{1}\right) \rightarrow R^{((((T / F) / E) / J) / B)}\left(X_{1}\right) R^{B}\left(Y_{1}\right) \\
& R^{\left(\left(T \downarrow_{1}(A \backslash(T / F))\right) / E\right)}\left(X_{1}, \epsilon\right) \rightarrow R^{\left(\left(\left(T \downarrow_{1}(A \backslash(T / F))\right) / E\right) / J\right)}\left(X_{1}\right) \\
& R^{\left(\left(T \downarrow_{1}(((C / H) / J) / G)\right) / D\right)}\left(X_{1}, \epsilon\right) \rightarrow R^{\left(\left(\left(T \downarrow_{1}(((C / H) / J) / G)\right) / D\right) / J\right)}\left(X_{1}\right) \\
& R^{\left(\left(C \downarrow_{1} U\right) / D\right)}\left(X_{1}, \epsilon\right) \rightarrow R^{\left(\left(\left(C \downarrow_{1} U\right) / D\right) / J\right)}\left(X_{1}\right) \\
& R^{\left(\left(U \downarrow_{2} C\right) / H\right)}\left(X_{1}, \epsilon\right) \rightarrow R^{\left(\left(\left(U \downarrow_{2} C\right) / H\right) / J\right)}\left(X_{1}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

## Second through last step:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& R^{((T / F) / E)}\left(X_{1}, \epsilon\right) \rightarrow R^{(((T / F) / E) / J)}\left(X_{1}\right) \\
& R^{\left(T \downarrow_{1}(A \backslash(T / F))\right)}\left(X_{1}, X_{2} Y_{1}\right) \rightarrow R^{\left(\left(T \downarrow_{1}(A \backslash(T / F))\right) / E\right)}\left(X_{1}, X_{2}\right) R^{E}\left(Y_{1}\right) \\
& R^{\left(T \downarrow_{1}(((C / H) / J) / G)\right)}\left(X_{1}, X_{2} Y_{1}\right) \rightarrow R^{\left(\left(T \downarrow_{1}(((C / H) / J) / G)\right) / D\right)}\left(X_{1}, X_{2}\right) R^{D}\left(Y_{1}\right) \\
& R^{\left(C \downarrow_{1} U\right)}\left(X_{1}, X_{2} Y_{1}\right) \rightarrow R^{\left(\left(C \downarrow_{1} U\right) / D\right)}\left(X_{1}, X_{2}\right) R^{D}\left(Y_{1}\right) \\
& R^{\left(U \downarrow_{2} C\right)}\left(X_{1}, X_{2} Y_{1}\right) \rightarrow R^{\left(\left(U \downarrow_{2} C\right) / H\right)}\left(X_{1}, X_{2}\right) R^{H}\left(Y_{1}\right) \\
& R^{(T / F)}\left(X_{1}, X_{2} Y_{1}\right) \rightarrow R^{((T / F) / E)}\left(X_{1}, X_{2}\right) R^{E}\left(Y_{1}\right) \\
& R^{(A \backslash(T / F))}\left(Y_{1} X_{1}, X_{2} Y_{2}\right) \rightarrow R^{T}\left(Y_{1}, Y_{2}\right) R^{\left(T \downarrow_{1}(A \backslash(T / F))\right)}\left(X_{1}, X_{2}\right) \\
& R^{(((C / H) / J) / G)}\left(Y_{1} X_{1}, X_{2} Y_{2}\right) \rightarrow R^{T}\left(Y_{1}, Y_{2}\right) R^{\left(T \downarrow_{1}(((C / H) / J) / G)\right)}\left(X_{1}, X_{2}\right) \\
& R^{U}\left(Y_{1} X_{1}, X_{2} Y_{2}\right) \rightarrow R^{C}\left(Y_{1}, Y_{2}, Y_{3}\right) R^{\left(C \downarrow_{1} U\right)}\left(X_{1}, X_{2}\right) \\
& R^{C}\left(Y_{1}, Y_{2} X_{1}, X_{2} Y_{3}\right) \rightarrow R^{U}\left(Y_{1}, Y_{2}, Y_{3}\right) R^{\left(U \downarrow_{2} C\right)}\left(X_{1}, X_{2}\right) \\
& R^{T}\left(X_{1}, X_{2} Y_{1}\right) \rightarrow R^{(T / F)}\left(X_{1}, X_{2}\right) R^{F}\left(Y_{1}\right) \\
& R^{(T / F)}\left(X_{1} Y_{1}, X_{2}\right) \rightarrow R^{A}\left(Y_{1}\right) R^{(A \backslash(T / F))}\left(X_{1}, X_{2}\right) \\
& R^{((C / H) / J)}\left(X_{1}, X_{2} Y_{1}\right) \rightarrow R^{(((C / H) / J) / G)}\left(X_{1}, X_{2}\right) R^{G}\left(Y_{1}\right) \\
& R^{T}\left(X_{1}, X_{2} Y_{1}\right) \rightarrow R^{(T / F)}\left(X_{1}, X_{2}\right) R^{F}\left(Y_{1}\right) \\
& R^{(C / H)}\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, \epsilon\right) \rightarrow R^{((C / H) / J)}\left(X_{1}, X_{2}\right) \\
& R^{C}\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3} Y_{1}\right) \rightarrow R^{(C / H)}\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}\right) R^{H}\left(Y_{1}\right) \\
& R^{S}\left(X_{1} X_{2} X_{3}\right) \rightarrow R^{C}\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

We can simplify the result by lexicalizing the clauses. We then obtain the following grammar:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& R^{S}(X Y Z) \rightarrow R^{C}(X, Y, Z) \\
& R^{C}(X c, d Y g, h Z) \rightarrow R^{C}(X, Y, Z) \\
& R^{C}(X c, d Y g, h) \rightarrow R^{A}(X, Y) \\
& R^{A}(a X b, e Y f) \rightarrow R^{A}(X, Y) \\
& R^{A}(a b, e f) \rightarrow \epsilon
\end{aligned}
$$

In this somewhat simpler description of the grammar, it is quite easy to see that we can make a generalization of the grammar, even if we want to have that $i, j \geq 0$. For $R E S P_{m}=\left\{a_{1}^{i} a_{2}^{i} b_{1}^{j} b_{2}^{j} \ldots a_{2 m-1}^{i} a_{2 m}^{i} b_{2 m-1}^{j} b_{2 m}^{j} \mid i, j \geq 0\right\}$, a $(m+1)-s R C G_{w n}$ can be depicted as follows:

```
\(S\left(X_{1} \ldots X_{m+1}\right) \rightarrow C\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{m+1}\right)\)
\(C\left(X_{1} b_{1}, b_{2} X_{2} b_{3}, \ldots, b_{m-2} X_{m} b_{m-1}, b_{m} X_{m+1}\right) \rightarrow C\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{m}, X_{m+1}\right)\)
\(C\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{m}, \epsilon\right) \rightarrow A\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{m}\right)\)
\(A\left(a_{1} X_{1} a_{2}, a_{3} X_{2} a_{4}, \ldots, a_{2 m-1} X_{m} a_{2 m}\right) \rightarrow \epsilon\)
\(A\left(\epsilon^{1}, \ldots, \epsilon^{m}\right) \rightarrow \epsilon\)
```

Theorem 2. $D^{1} L=s R C L_{w n}$

Proof. This follows directly from lemma 2 and lemma 3.

Corollary 1. $0 D^{(1)} L=L=C F L$

Proof. 1-s $R C G_{w n}$ is trivially equivalent to $C F G$, and $C F L$ is equivalent to $L$ by [26].

Corollary 2. $1 D^{1} L=T A L$

## 14 Conclusion and further directions

We showed some expressivity results for Displacement Grammar which led to the idea of the equivalence between $D^{1}$ and $s R C G_{w n}$. To accomplish this result, we showed a lexicalized normal form for simple Range Concatenation Grammar. As we argued in the introduction that well-nested MCFG/sRCG may be the most appropriate way to describe the class of Mildly-Context Sensitive Languages, we claim here that the first-order fragment of general Displacement Calculus has the same status within the Categorial Grammar view, also because it admits the same kind of control property we find in MCFG. Putting this in the light of the result of [28], it could very well be that the difference class $M C F G-M C F G_{w n}$ corresponds to the difference class $\mathbf{D}-\mathbf{D}^{1}$, where $\mathbf{D}$ denotes normal general Displacement Calculus. A first idea is to copy the result of Pentus by applying it to general Displacement Calculus, but it appears not to be possible since Displacement Calculus inherits incompleteness from the Lambek Calculus with respect to the unit ( [25], [32] ).

Another idea within the Categorial approach concerns the upper bound on generative capacity of the LG calculus, which is as yet still unknown. Several authors have pointed to grammar formalisms that may be good candidates, including Global Index Grammar (GIG), introduced by [4, $M C T A G$, and MCFG. We think that GIG exceeds the expressive power of LG, since it exceeds MCTAG and MCFG and none of the languages of which we know that they can be generated in $L G$, are not included in MCTAG and MCFG. Furthermore, we think that a comparison between $\mathbf{D}$ and $L G$ may be appropriate. As [17] shows, the control that $L G$ exhibits for counting dependencies, for example, can be done through transition schemes in both residual families of connectives (if we regard $a_{1} \backslash a_{2}$ as a transition from a state $a_{1}$ to $a_{2}$ ). Normally, when we give type assignments involving the dual residual connectives $\varnothing, \otimes$ (see [21], [17], [24] for further explanation and examples), some parts are able to nest into an arbitrary leaf in the derivation structure through the interaction principles, thus we need to exhibit the control described to direct types to the leaves they should nest into, and in this way structuring the language described. There is an alternative definition of Displacement Calculus where $\uparrow, \downarrow$ can be used to let strings intercalate anywhere in a structure instead of just at a separator position that was pointed out beforehand. The only difference here is that in $L G$ the legitimate orders of words is forced off by directing types, whereas in the alternative Displacement calculus, these orders are forced off by pointing
out the strings that may be intercalated.

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