

Computational Issues in the Parsing of Natural Language

Part 1: Selected Background Material (60%)

- The reason why generative parsing methods for programming languages are inadequate for natural languages.
 - Modern techniques for parsing natural languages.
- This part is background; it is not about my research.
- It assumes knowledge of parsing in computer science (*i.e.*, CFG's), but no knowledge of computational linguistics.

Part 2: Current Research Topics (40%)

- Declarative specification of HPSG-style grammars.
- Computational management of partially specified type hierarchies.

Natural Language Processing and Computational Linguistics

A terminological distinction:

Natural Language Processing (NLP):

- Typically a component of a larger application.
- Restricted domain of linguistic discourse.
- Embodiment of linguistic principles secondary.
- Example: Natural-language interface to a help system for UNIX.

Computational Linguistics (CL):

- Study of formal models of language which are amenable to computation.
- Often involves stand-alone or demonstration implementation projects.
- Fairly general domain of linguistic discourse.
- Embodiment of linguistic principles essential.

Some major theories within computational linguistics:

- Lexical Functional Grammar (LFG).
 - Head-Driven Phrase Structure Grammar (HPSG).
 - Categorical Grammar.
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- Example parsing systems : PATR, ALE, CUF, Troll, TFS, [Meurers’].
 - Example projects within CL: Verbmobil.

Parsing

Parsing refers to the process of determining the syntactic and possibly semantic structure of a string.

In programming languages:

- We design the language (usually) to have certain properties, among them that of being amenable to parsing.
 - Notable exceptions: Ada, SQL
- Parsing base:
 - *Unambiguous* context-free grammar (BNF)
 - Semantic constraints to eliminate unwanted parses
- A given string has at most one parse (programs have unique derivations).

In natural language:

- We have to parse the language as it is.
- There are many strategies for parsing; some are based upon context-free grammars, some are not.
- A given sentence may have several parses.
 - Time flies like an arrow.
 - I saw the woman on the hill with a telescope.
- Correct parses may be strongly context dependent.
 - How do I print a file on the laser printer with the lines numbered?
- Parses may be rejected on purely semantic grounds.
 - John gave the book to Mary.
 - * John gave the book from Mary.
 - John gave the book from Mary to Marie.

Apparently similar constructions may be legal or illegal based upon fairly subtle rules.

- John hit the ball to Mary.
- John hit Mary the ball.
- John hit the ball to the wall.
- * John hit the wall the ball.

Pure Generative Parsing of NL

A context-free grammar (CFG) for a tiny fragment of English:

Syntactic Rules:

$S \rightarrow NP VP$

$VP \rightarrow V \mid V NP$

$NP \rightarrow Name \mid Det N$

Lexical Rules:

$Name \rightarrow John \mid Mary \mid I \mid We \mid You$

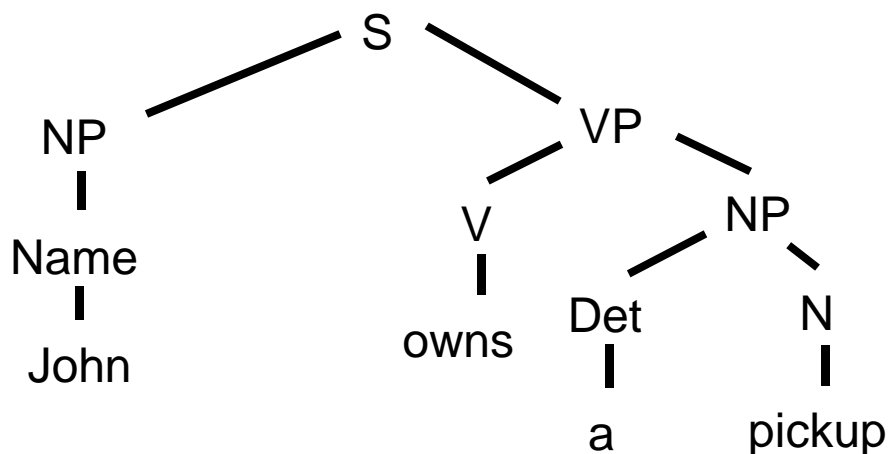
$N \rightarrow car \mid cars \mid truck \mid trucks \mid pickup \mid pickups$

$Det \rightarrow a \mid an \mid the \mid two$

$V \rightarrow own \mid owns \mid sleep \mid sleeps$

A parse tree for the sentence:

“John owns a pickup.”



The Problem with Pure Generative Parsing

Many ungrammatical sentences can also be generated.

- * John own an pickup.
- * We owns two pickup.
- * John owns.
- * Mary sleeps a truck.

These problems can be remedied by forcing number and verb-type distinction within the grammar.

To fix the verb-type distinction:

$VP \rightarrow V_I \mid V_T NP$
 $V_I \rightarrow \text{sleep} \mid \text{sleeps}$
 $V_T \rightarrow \text{own} \mid \text{owns}$

The number distinction on noun phrases:

$N_S \rightarrow \text{car} \mid \text{truck} \mid \text{pickup}$
 $N_P \rightarrow \text{cars} \mid \text{trucks} \mid \text{pickups}$
 $Det_S \rightarrow \text{a} \mid \text{an} \mid \text{the}$
 $Det_P \rightarrow \text{two}$
 $NP \rightarrow Det_S N_S \mid Det_P N_P$

Why This Is Not a Good Solution

- These types of “fixes” result in a combinatorial explosion in the number of rules of the grammar.
- Representation of other languages will result in much more serious explosions in size:
 - Multiple genders on nouns which require agreement with determiners and adjectives: French, Swedish: 2; German, Norwegian: 3
 - Complex verb conjugation depending upon both number and person: German: 4; French: 5 or 6

Conclusion: CFG, by itself, is not an adequate tool for describing natural language.

Remarks:

- It is a debatable theoretical question as to whether languages such as English can be represented by CFG, in the *weak sense* of being able to generate exactly the legal sentences strings.
- It is easy to show that English cannot be generated by a CFG in the *strong sense*, in which the parse trees reflect the grammatical structure.

The Hybrid Generative + Constraint Solution

- Approach:
 - CFG (the *context-free skeleton / backbone*) +
 - constraint set
- LFG (Lexical-Functional Grammar) uses this approach.

A simple example: The objects in the lexicon are augmented with types:

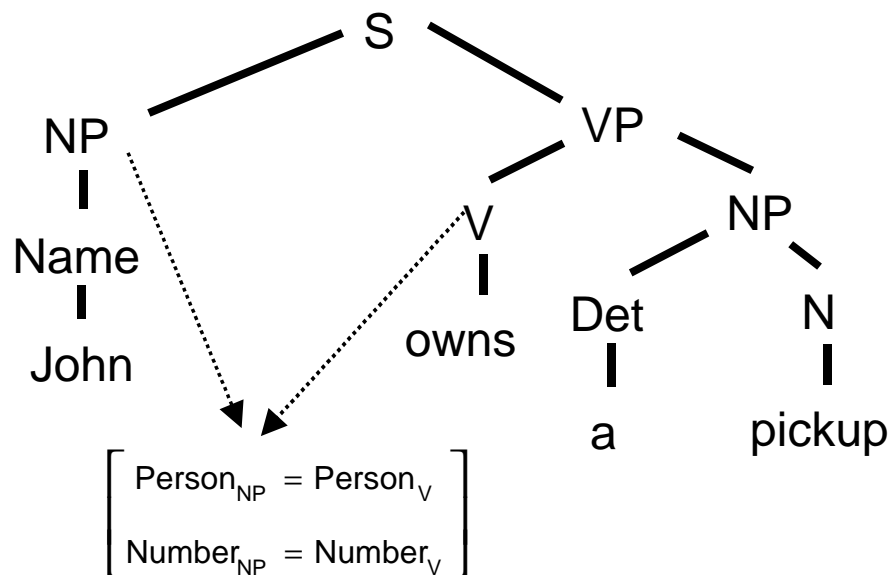
Some Names:

[Name : John]	[Name : We]
[Person : 3]	[Person : 1]
[Number : Singular]	[Number : Plural]

A verb:

[Name : owns]	[Name : own]
[Person : 3]	[Person : } any but sing + 3 pers]
[Number : sing]	[Number :]

- The grammatical productions now have these constraints attached to them.
- Similar in idea to *indexed grammars* for programming languages.



The main idea of this approach thus consists of two steps:

- **Generate:** Find the candidate parses for the underlying CFG.
- **Constrain:** Use the feature constraints to eliminate undesired parses.

Decision properties:

- In general, the problem of deciding whether a sentence has a parse tree which satisfies the given constraints is undecidable.
 - ... because there can be infinitely many parse trees for a given string.
- However, it is decidable if we can find all parse trees algorithmically (*off-line parsing condition*).
 - ... in which case the number of parse trees is provably finite and identifiable.

Pure Constraint-Based Parsing

- In pure constraint based parsing (as exemplified by HPSG), there is no underlying context-free grammar.
- The entire parsing process is one of finding *models* of constraints, which are expressed in a *typed feature logic*.
- The main operation is *unification*; hence the techniques is also called unification-based parsing.

The following examples illustrate the idea of typed feature logic, but do **not** represent the HPSG model.

Feature Structures

Typed Feature structures are simply record-like entities.

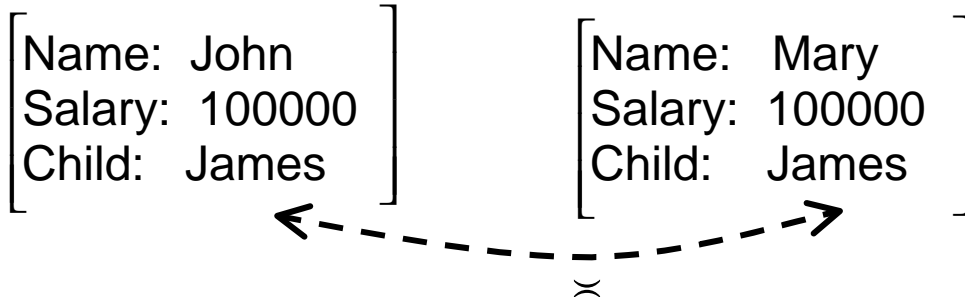
Example:

Pascal Notation	Feature-Structure Notation
<pre>type Person = record Name: Name_type; ID_number: ID_type; Income: Integer end record; {Person}</pre>	$\tau_{\text{Person}} \left[\begin{array}{ll} \text{Name:} & \tau_{\text{Name-type}} \\ \text{ID_number:} & \tau_{\text{ID_type}} \\ \text{Income:} & \tau_{\text{Integer}} \end{array} \right]$
<pre>var P Person; P.Name := Smith; P.ID_number := 123456; P.Income := 100000;</pre>	$\left[\begin{array}{ll} \text{Name:} & \text{Smith} \\ \text{ID_number:} & 123456 \\ \text{Income:} & 100000 \end{array} \right]$

- Feature structures also admit direct and indirect recursion on types.

Pseudo Pascal	Feature Structure
<pre>type Node = record Value: Integer; Next: Node end record {Node}</pre>	$\tau_{\text{Node}} \left[\begin{array}{ll} \text{Value:} & \tau_{\text{Integer}} \\ \text{Next:} & \tau_{\text{Node}} \end{array} \right]$

Feature structures also admit *coalescing* of values.



Here James is the same person in each case.

This type of construction is critical in modelling linguistic situations in which the same object is referenced in two ways.

Gap-filler constructions:

- Jan_j is easy to talk to $___j$ about problems of this sort.
- $[Problems\ of\ this\ sort]_i$, Jan_j is easy to talk to $___j$ about $___i$.

Example from Norwegian:

- Han vasket sin bil.
- Han vasket hans bil.

Unification-Based Parsing

Recapture: $S \rightarrow NP VP$

$$\tau_S \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{Subj: } \tau_{NP} \\ \text{Verb_P: } \tau_{VP} \end{array} \right]$$

The corresponding logical constraint:

$$(\forall x)(\exists y)(\exists z) \\ (\tau_S(x) \Rightarrow x:\text{Subj}:\tau_{NP}(y) \wedge x:\text{Verb_P}:\tau_{VP}(z))$$

To recapture agreement:

$$\tau_{NP} \left[\begin{array}{l} \langle \text{Other things} \rangle.. \\ \text{Person: } \tau_{Pers} \\ \text{Number: } \tau_{Num} \end{array} \right] \quad \tau_{VP} \left[\begin{array}{l} \langle \text{Other things} \rangle.. \\ \text{Person: } \tau_{Pers} \\ \text{Number: } \tau_{Num} \end{array} \right]$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{l} \text{Subj: } \left[\begin{array}{l} \langle \text{Other things} \rangle.. \\ \text{Person: } \\ \text{Number: } \end{array} \right] \\ \text{Verb_P: } \left[\begin{array}{l} \langle \text{Other things} \rangle.. \\ \text{Person: } \\ \text{Number: } \end{array} \right] \end{array} \right]$$

$$(\forall x) (\tau_S(x) \Rightarrow (x:\text{Subj}\cdot\text{Person} \asymp x:\text{Verb_P}\cdot\text{Person} \wedge \\ x:\text{Subj}\cdot\text{Number} \asymp x:\text{Verb_P}\cdot\text{Number}))$$

$VP \rightarrow V \mid V NP$

$(\forall X)(\tau_{VP}(X) \Leftrightarrow \tau_{VP1}(X) \vee \tau_{VP2}(X))$

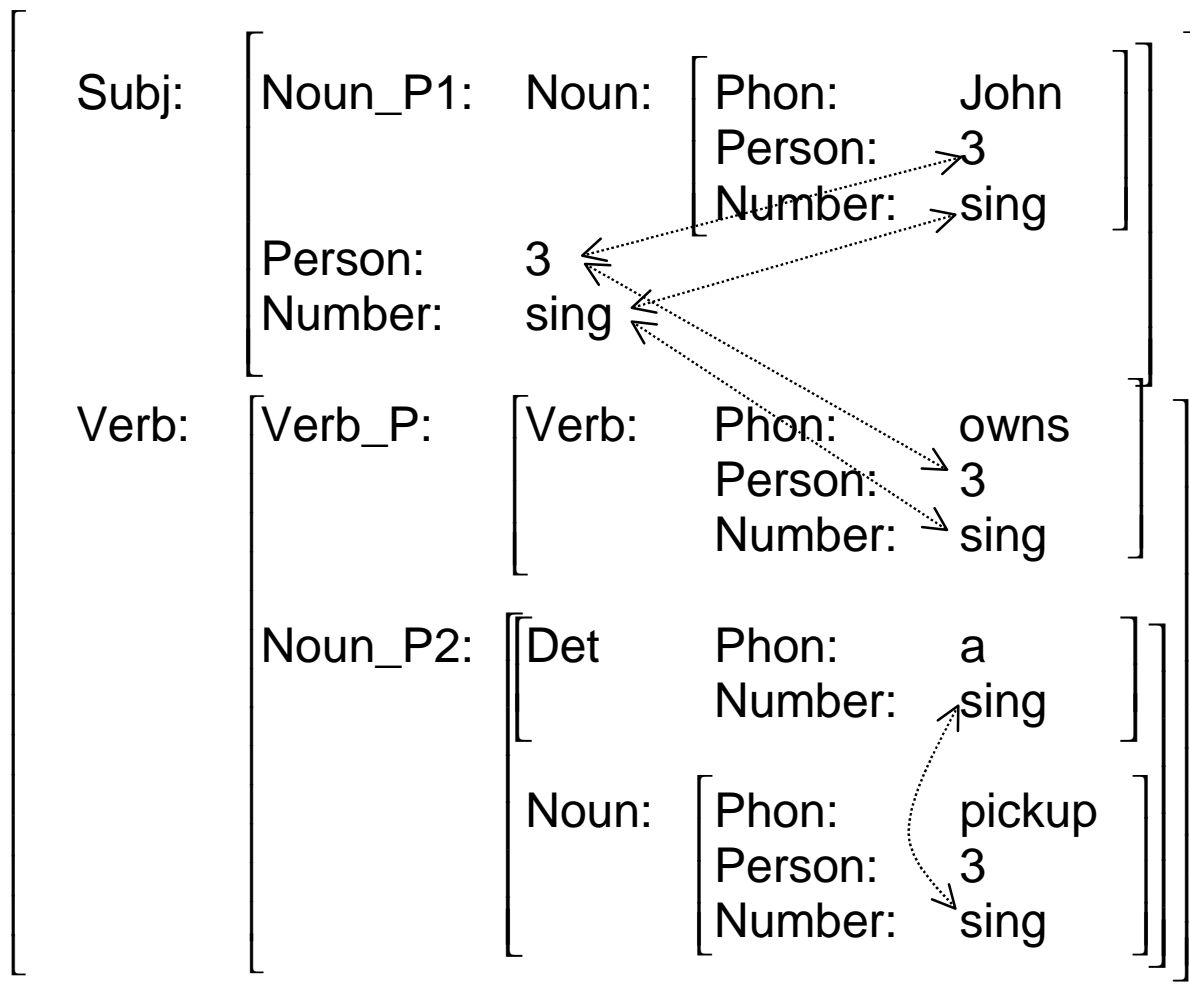
Schema for V: $\tau_{VP1} \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{Phon: } \tau_{V_Lex} \\ \text{Person: } \tau_{Pers} \\ \text{Number: } \tau_{Num} \end{array} \right]$

Instances from the lexicon would contain the following information:

$\left[\begin{array}{l} \text{Phon: } \text{own} \\ \text{Person: } \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{any but} \\ \text{3p+sing} \end{array} \right\} \\ \text{Number: } \end{array} \right] \vee \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{Phon: } \text{owns} \\ \text{Person: } 3 \\ \text{Number: } \text{sing} \end{array} \right] \vee \dots$

This process goes on and on..

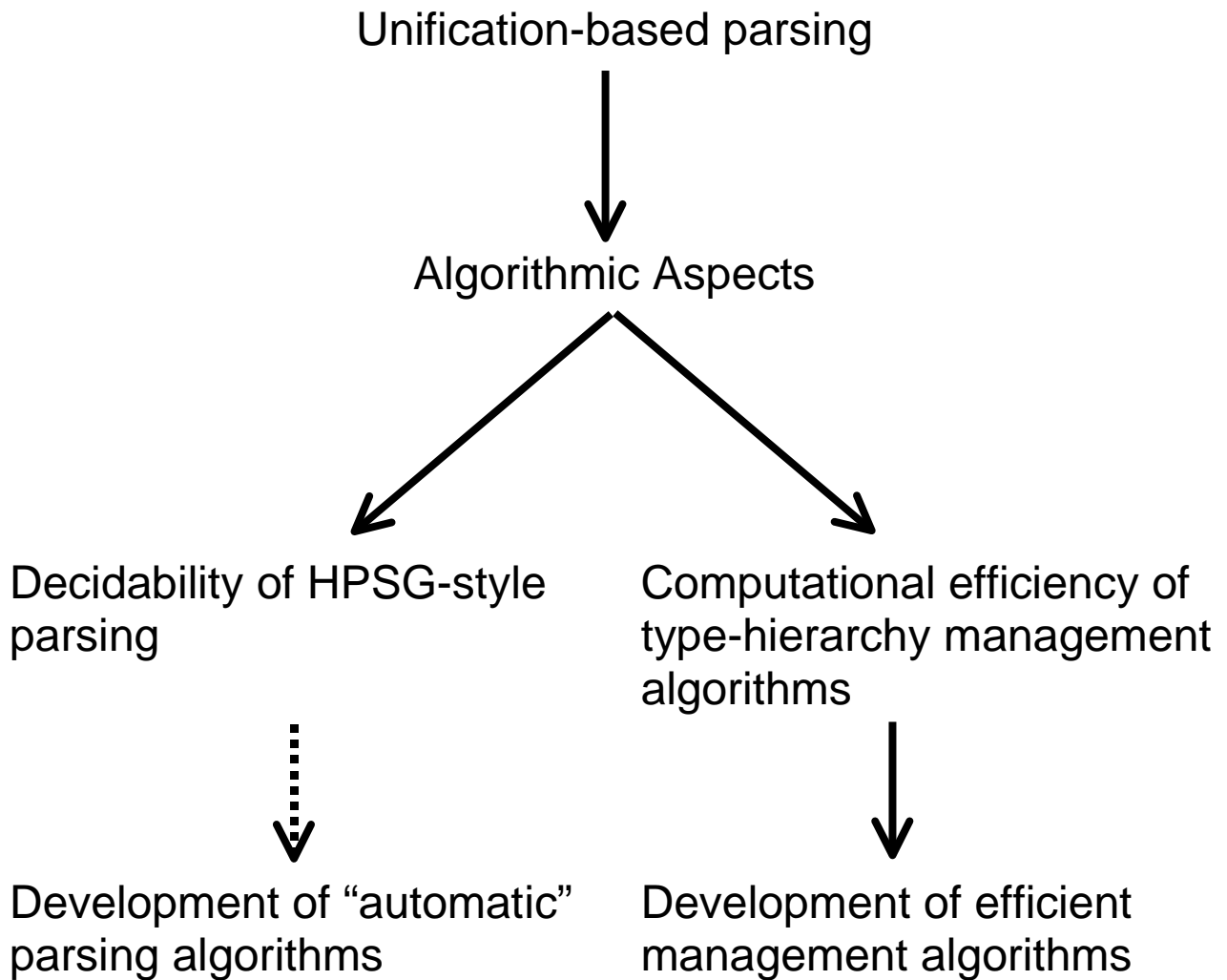
This is what the final parse might look like:



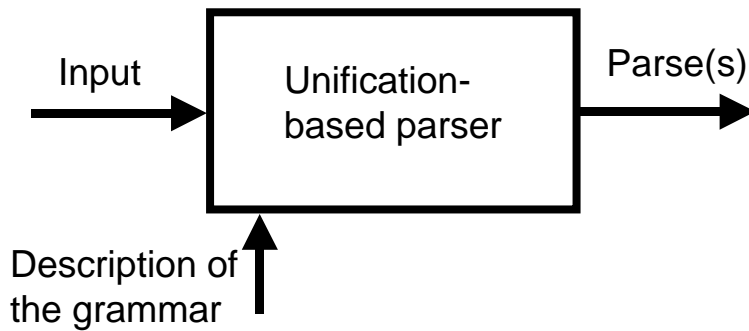
Notes:

- Such a structure is a model of the appropriate constraints in the underlying logic:
 - Framework constraints;
 - Input specific constraints.
- If there were more than one legal parse, each such parse would be represented by a structure of this form.
- This is **not** HPSG.

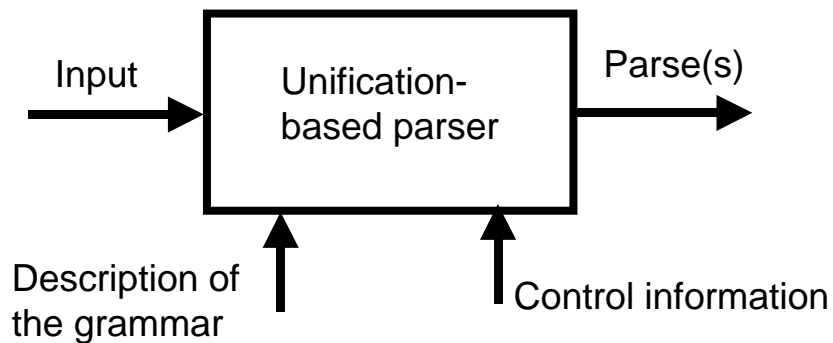
Current Research Directions



Research Problem 1: The Decidability of Parsing within HPSG-style Formalisms



The *ideal* world of constraint-based parsing
(Similar to the *real* world of PL parsing.)



The *real* world of constraint-based parsing

- Question: Is it *possible* to render the process of constraint-based parsing decidable, so that the grammar writer / user need not supply control information?
- This is a nontrivial question...

Motivation:

- The process of understanding natural language appears to be decidable. (Humans do it all the time.)
- Generative frameworks such as LFG render large fragments of natural languages decidable. The user need not supply control information.
- Existing tools for unification-based grammatical formalisms (such as HPSG) require the user to supply control information.

General approach:

- Formalize to an appropriate logic.
- Show the logic, or significant fragments thereof, to be decidable.

My approach:

- Develop a custom logic, and then embedded this logic into first-order predicate logic.
- Show that this fragment is decidable.
- Rationale:
 - A great deal is known about decidable and undecidable classes of formulas within first order logic. This approach makes use of that knowledge.

Other approaches:

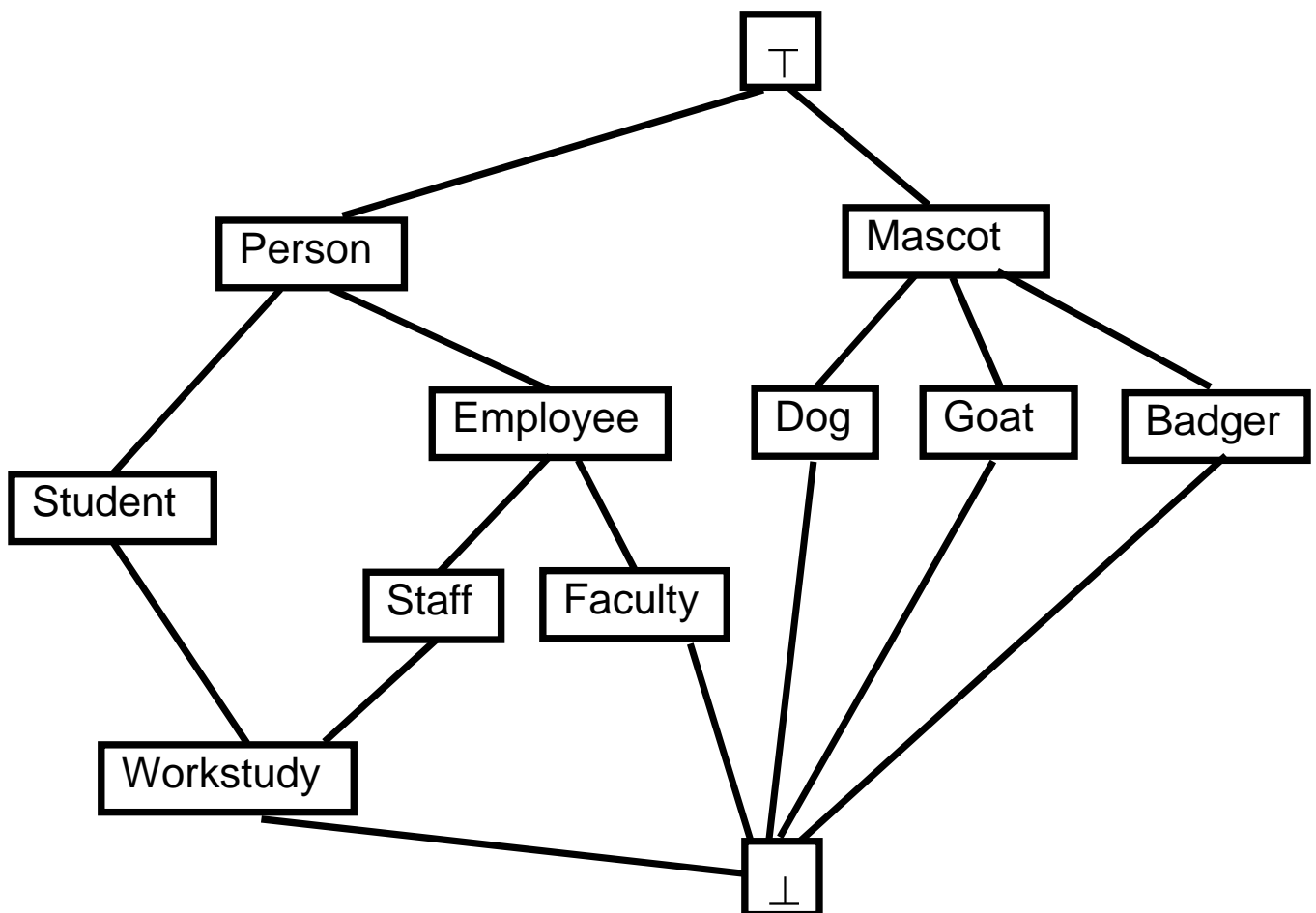
- Custom logics:
 - Tübingen (King, Kepser)
 - Edinburgh (Manandhar)

Research Problem 2: Efficient Computational Management of Partially Specified Type Hierarchies

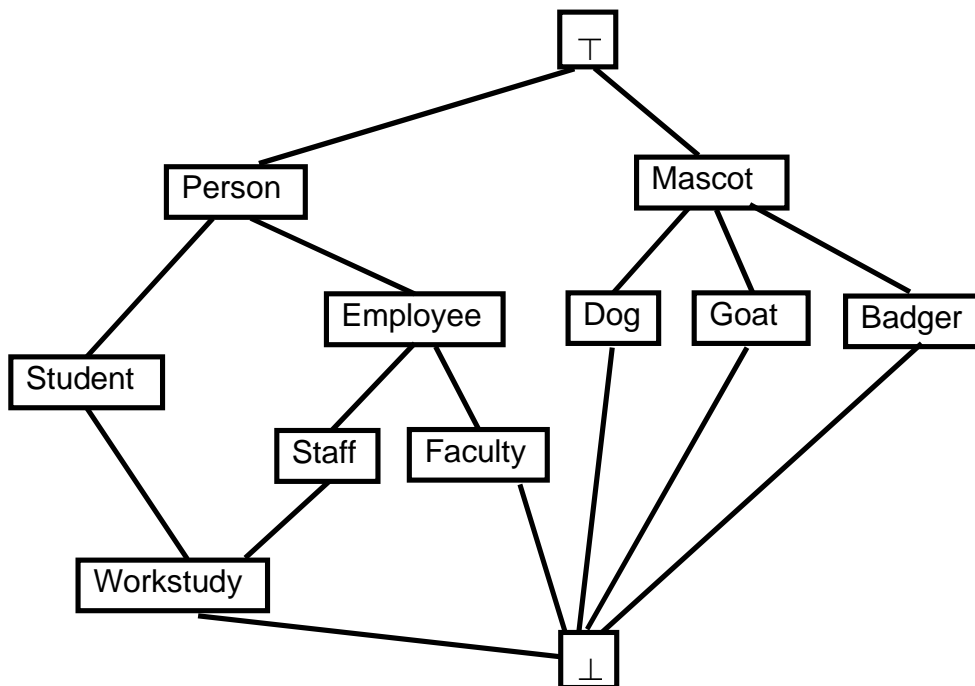
- Feature logic, as applied to formalisms such as HPSG, depends critically upon the concept of a type hierarchy.

What is a type hierarchy?

- The concept of inheritance via a hierarchy should be familiar from object-oriented languages.



The Semantics of Type Hierarchies:



- Every class has a set of instances:
 - $\text{Inst}(\text{Student}) = \text{the class of students, etc.}$
 - $\text{Inst}(\top) = \text{universe}; \quad \text{Inst}(\perp) = \emptyset.$

ISA semantics:

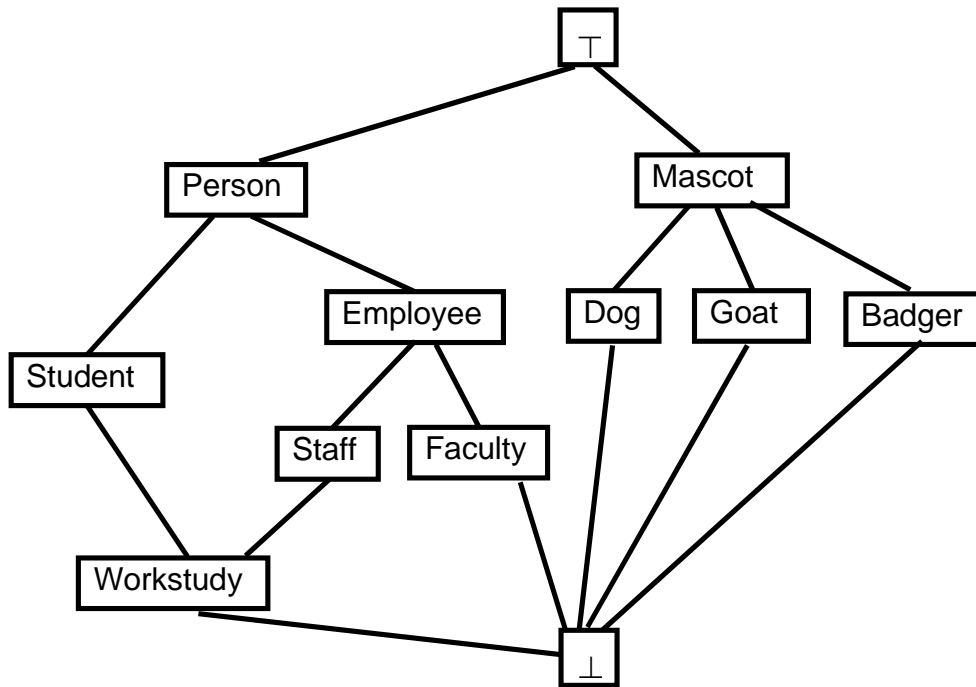
- $X \leq Y \Rightarrow \text{Inst}(Y) \subseteq \text{Inst}(X).$
 - $\text{Workstudy}(x) \Rightarrow \text{Student}(x)$

Natural semantics:

(\wedge = infimum ; \vee = supremum)

- $Z = X \wedge Y \Rightarrow \text{Inst}(Z) = \text{Inst}(X) \cap \text{Inst}(Y)$
- $Z = X \vee Y \Rightarrow \text{Inst}(Z) = \text{Inst}(X) \cup \text{Inst}(Y)$
 - $\text{Student}(x) \wedge \text{Staff}(x) \Leftrightarrow \text{Workstudy}(x)$
 - $\text{Student}(x) \vee \text{Staff}(x) \Leftrightarrow \text{Person}(x)$

Are these semantics always consistent?



The natural semantics is valid if and only if the hierarchy does not contain a *pentagon* or a *diamond*.

This is equivalent to satisfaction of either of the *distributive laws* (Birkhoff's representation):

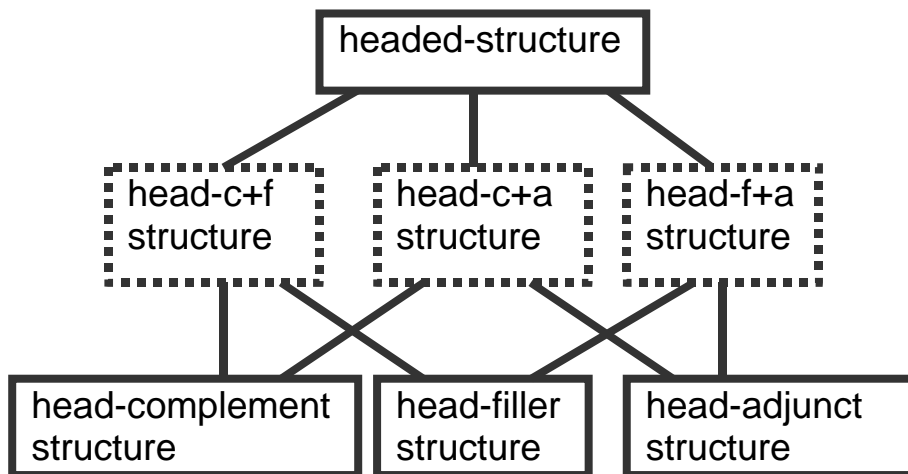
- $(X \wedge Y) \vee Z = (X \vee Z) \wedge (Y \vee Z)$
- $(X \vee Y) \wedge Z = (X \wedge Z) \vee (Y \wedge Z)$
- These tests may be performed in time $O(n^3)$, with n the number of classes in the hierarchy.

Partial Specification

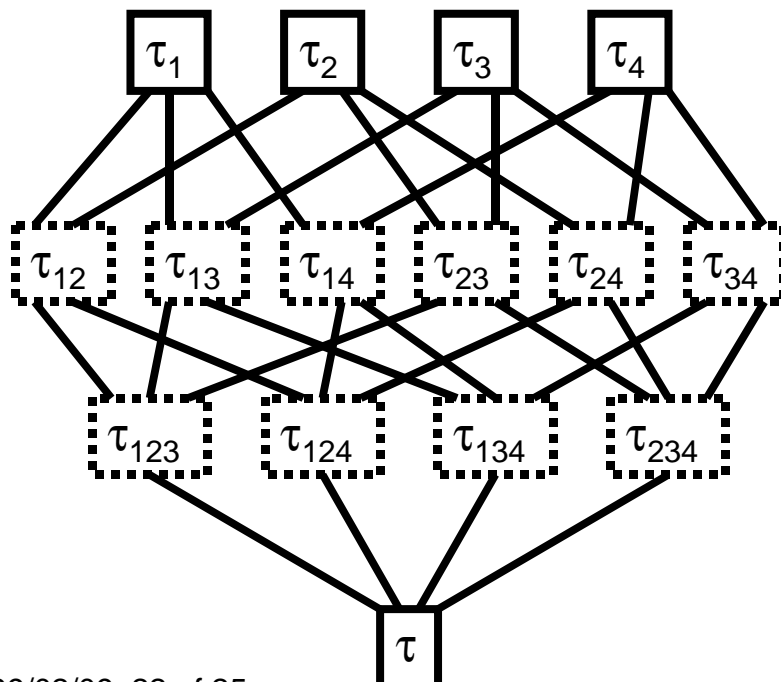
The need:

- In large systems, complete explicit specification of the type hierarchy is impractical.

headed-structure = head-complement-structure
 ∨ head-filler-structure
 ∨ head-adjunct-structure



$$\tau = \tau_1 \wedge \tau_2 \wedge \tau_3 \wedge \tau_4$$



Formal Open Specification

In a formal *open specification*, declarations of the following forms are allowed.

Order constraints:

- (a) $\tau_1 \leq \tau_2$
- (b) $\tau = \tau_1 \vee \tau_2 \vee \dots \vee \tau_n$
- (c) $\tau = \tau_1 \wedge \tau_2 \wedge \dots \wedge \tau_n$

Note: Supremum is not \vee , by default.
Infimum is not \wedge , by default.

Position constraints:

- (d) $\tau_1 \neq \tau_2$
 - (e) **Atom**(τ) ($\tau \notin \{\top, \perp\}$.)
- The interpretation of these constraints is in accordance with the natural semantics, and is inherently partial:
 - A collection of such rules characterizes not a single hierarchy; such a collection is a set of constraints defining a set of hierarchies.

Goal:

- Find effective algorithms for characterizing the distributive hierarchies which are consistent with such a collection of rules.

Result:

- Does a given open specification have an extension to a complete distributive type hierarchy?
 - This problem is *NP-complete* [Hegner, 1995].
⇒ The best known algorithm is $O(2^n)$.

Special aspects making this problem unique:

- NP-complete problems must be dealt with, and are dealt with, all the time.
- Existing techniques (approximation) apply to optimization problems, and are not applicable to this problem.
- This problem belongs to a class including satisfiability problems in logic, in which approximation makes no sense.
- In addition, *all* solutions are sought, rather than just a single solution.

Current Directions:

- Development of techniques which make use of the special properties of the solution space (it forms a complete lattice) to reduce greatly the amount of searching which needs to be done.
- Experimental measurement of algorithm performance.
- Incremental modification:
 - Linguistic databases, particularly lexicons, undergo frequent modification.
 - Rather than rebuild the entire hierarchy every time a modification is to be performed, it would be simpler to modify the existing hierarchy.
 - Current research includes investigation of determining whether an update of a legal formal specification is also legal.