The LinGO redwoods treebank: Motivation and preliminary applications

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Abstract

The LinGO Redwoods initiative is a seed activity in the design and development of a new type of treebank. While several medium- to large-scale treebanks exist for English (and for other major languages), pre-existing publicly available resources exhibit the following limitations: (i) annotation is mono-stratal, either encoding topological (phrase structure) or tectogrammatical (dependency) information, (ii) the depth of linguistic information recorded is comparatively shallow, (iii) the design and format of linguistic representation in the treebank hard-wires a small, predefined range of ways in which information can be extracted from the treebank, and (iv) representations in existing treebanks are static and over the (often year- or decade-long) evolution of a large-scale treebank tend to fall behind the development of the field. LinGO Redwoods aims at the development of a novel treebanking methodology, rich in nature and dynamic both in the ways linguistic data can be retrieved from the treebank in varying granularity and in the constant evolution and regular updating of the treebank itself. Since October 2001, the project is working to build the foundations for this new type of treebank, to develop a basic set of tools for treebank construction and maintenance, and to construct an initial set of 10,000 annotated trees to be distributed together with the tools under an open-source license.

1 Why Another (Type of) Treebank?

For the past decade or more, symbolic, linguistically oriented methods and statistical or machine learning approaches to NLP have often been perceived as incompatible or even competing paradigms. While shallow and probabilistic processing techniques have produced useful results in many classes of applications, they have not met the full range of needs for NLP, particularly where precise interpretation is important, or where the variety of linguistic expression is large relative to the amount of training data available. On the other hand, deep approaches to NLP have only recently achieved broad enough grammatical coverage and sufficient processing efficiency to allow the use of precise linguistic grammars in certain types of real-world applications.

In particular, applications of broad-coverage analytical grammars for parsing or generation require the use of sophisticated statistical techniques for resolving ambiguities; the transfer of Head-Driven Phrase Structure Grammar (HPSG) systems into industry, for example, has amplified the need for general parse ranking, disambiguation, and robust recovery techniques. We observe general consensus on the necessity for bridging activities, combining symbolic and stochastic approaches to NLP. But although we find promising research in stochastic parsing in a number of frameworks, there is a lack of appropriately rich and dynamic language corpora for HPSG. Likewise, stochastic parsing has so far been focussed on information-extraction-type applications and lacks any depth of semantic interpretation. The Redwoods initiative is designed to fill in this gap.

In the next section, we present some of the motivation for the LinGO Redwoods project as a treebank development process. Although construction of the treebank is in its early stages, we present in Section 3 some preliminary results of using the treebank data already acquired on concrete applications. We show, for instance, that even simple statistical models of parse ranking trained on the Redwoods corpus built so far can disambiguate parses with close to 80% accuracy.

2 A Rich and Dynamic Treebank

The Redwoods treebank is based on open-source HPSG resources developed by a broad consortium of research groups including researchers at Stanford (USA), Saarbrücken (Germany), Cambridge, Edinburgh, and Sussex (UK), and Tokyo (Japan). Their wide distribution and common acceptance make the HPSG framework and resources an excellent anchor point for the Redwoods treebanking initiative.

The key innovative aspect of the Redwoods approach to treebanking is the anchoring of all linguistic data captured in the treebank to the HPSG framework and a generally-available broad-coverage grammar of English, the LinGO English Resource Grammar (Flickinger, 2000) as implemented with the LKB grammar development environment (Copestake, 2002). Unlike existing treebanks, there is no need to define a (new) form of grammatical representation specific to the treebank. Instead, the treebank records complete syntactic-semantic analyses as defined by the LinGO ERG and provides tools to extract different types of linguistic information at varying granularity.

The treebanking environment, building on the [incr
ate results of a (stochastic) parse disambiguation system, using the foundations of the treebank to reflect the continuous evolution of the underlying linguistic framework and of the LinGO grammar. Again building on the notion of elementary linguistic discriminators, we expect to explore the semi-automatic propagation of recorded disambiguating decisions into newer versions of the parsed corpus. While it can be assumed that the basic phrase structure inventory and granularity of lexical distinctions have stabilized to a certain degree, it is not guaranteed that one set of discriminators will always fully disambiguate a more recent set of analyses for the same utterance (as the grammar may introduce new ambiguity), nor that re-playing a history of disambiguating decisions will necessarily identify the correct, preferred analysis for all sentences. A better understanding of the nature of discriminators and relations holding among them is expected to provide the foundations for an update procedure that, ultimately, should be mostly automated, with minimal manual inspection, and which can become part of the regular regression test cycle for the grammar.

### Scope and Current State of Seeding Initiative

The first 10,000 trees to be hand-annotated as part of the kick-off initiative are taken from a domain for which the English Resource Grammar is known to exhibit broad and accurate coverage, viz. transcribed face-to-face dialogues in an appointment scheduling and travel arrangement domain. For the follow-up phase of the project, it is expected to move into a second domain and text genre, presumably more formal, edited text taken from newspaper text or another widely available on-line source. As of June 2002, the seeding initiative is well underway. The integrated treebanking environment, combining [incr tsdbr()] and the LKB tree selection tool, has been established and has been deployed in a first iteration of annotating the VerbMobil utterances. The approach to parse selection through minimal discriminators turned out to be not hard to learn for a second-year Stanford undergraduate in linguistics, and allowed completion of the first iteration in less than ten weeks. Table 1 summarizes the current Redwoods status.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Status</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>Kick-off initiative started</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>First 10,000 trees annotated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>Seeding initiative well underway</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1Corpora of some 50,000 such utterances are readily available from the VerbMobil project (Wahlster, 2000) and have already been studied extensively among researchers worldwide.

2Of the four data sets only VM32 has been double-checked by an expert grammarian and (almost) completely disambiguated to date; therefore it exhibits an interestingly higher degree of phrasal ambiguity in the ‘active = 1’ subset.
### Table 1: Redwoods development status as of June 2002: four sets of transcribed and hand-segmented VerbMobil dialogues have been annotated. The columns are, from left to right, the total number of sentences (excluding fragments) for which the LinGO grammar has at least one analysis (‘•’), average length (‘|’), lexical and structural ambiguity (‘⊙’ and ‘×’, respectively), followed by the last four metrics broken down for the following subsets: sentences (i) for which the annotator rejected all analyses (no active trees), (ii) where annotation resulted in exactly one preferred analysis (one active tree), (iii) those where full disambiguation was not accomplished through the first round of annotation (more than one active tree), and (iv) massively ambiguous sentences that have yet to be annotated.²

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>corpus</th>
<th>total</th>
<th>active = 0</th>
<th>active = 1</th>
<th>active &gt; 1</th>
<th>unannotated</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>VM6</td>
<td>2422</td>
<td>7 7 4.2</td>
<td>32.9 218 8.0 4.4 9.7 1910 7.0 4.0 7.5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VM13</td>
<td>1984</td>
<td>8 5 4.0 37.9 175 8.5 4.1 9.9 1491 7.2 3.9 7.5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VM31</td>
<td>1726</td>
<td>6 2 4.5 22.4 164 7.9 4.6 8.0 1360 6.6 4.5 5.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VM32</td>
<td>608</td>
<td>7 4 4.3 25.6 51 10.7 4.3 54.4 551 7.9 4.4 19.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

³For an introduction to PCFG grammars see, for example, Manning & Schütze (1999).
As previously noted by other researchers (Charniak & Caroll, 1994), extending a PCFG with grandparent annotation improves the accuracy of the model. We implemented an extended PCFG that conditions each node's expansion on its parent in the phrase structure tree. The extended PCFG (henceforth PCFG-GP) has parameters \( \alpha_i (A_i \rightarrow A_1, \ldots, A_n) \). The resulting grammar can be viewed as a PCFG whose nonterminals are pairs of the nonterminals of the original PCFG.

The combined model scores possible parses using probabilities from the PCFG-GP model together with the probability of the preterminal sequence of the parse tree according to a trigram tag sequence model. More specifically, for a tree \( T \),

\[
\text{Score}(t) = \log(P_{\text{PCFG-GP}}(T)) + \lambda \log(P_{\text{TRIG}}(\text{tags}(T)))
\]

where \( P_{\text{TRIG}}(\text{tags}(T)) \) is the probability of the sequence of preterminals \( t_1 \cdots t_n \) in \( T \) according to a trigram tag model:

\[
P_{\text{TRIG}}(t_1 \cdots t_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(t_i | t_{i-1}, t_{i-2})
\]

with appropriate treatment of boundaries. The trigram probabilities are smoothed as for the HMM tagger. The combined model is relatively insensitive to the relative weights of the two component models, as specified by \( \lambda \); in any case, exact optimization of this parameter was not performed. We refer to this model as Combined. The Combined model is not a sound probabilistic model as it does not define a probability distribution over parse trees. It does however provide a crude way to combine ancestor and left context information.

The second column in Table 2 shows the accuracy of parse selection using the models described above. For comparison, a baseline showing the expected performance of choosing parses randomly according to a uniform distribution is included as the first row. The accuracy results are averaged over a ten-fold cross-validation on the data set summarized in Table 1. The data we used for this experiment was the set of disambiguated sentences that have exactly one preferred parse (comprising a total of 5312 sentences). Often the stochastic models we are considering give the same score to several different parses. When a model ranks a set of \( m \) parses highest with equal scores and one of those parses is the preferred parse in the treebank, we compute the accuracy on this sentence as \( 1/m \).

Since our approach of defining the probability of analyses using derivation trees is different from the traditional approach of learning PCFG grammars from phrase structure trees, a comparison of the two is probably in order. We tested the model PCFG-GP defined over the corresponding phrase structure trees and its average accuracy was 65.65% which is much lower than the accuracy of the same model over derivation trees (71.73%). This result suggests that the information about grammar constructions is very helpful for parse disambiguation.

The results in Table 2 indicate that high disambiguation accuracy can be achieved using very simple statistical models. The performance of the perfect tagger shows that, informally speaking, roughly half of the information necessary to disambiguate parses is available in the lexical types alone. About half of the remaining information is recovered by our best method, Combined.

An alternative (more primitive) task is the tagging task itself. It is interesting to know how much the tagging task can be improved by perfecting parse disambiguation. With the availability of a parser, we can examine the accuracy of the tag sequence of the highest scoring parse, rather than trying to tag the word sequence directly. We refer to this problem as the tag selection problem, by analogy with the relation between the parsing problem and the parse selection problem. The first column of Table 2 presents the performance of the models on the tag selection problem. The results are averaged accuracies over 10 cross-validation splits of the same corpus as the previous experiment, and show that parse disambiguation using information beyond the lexical type sequence slightly improves tag selection performance. Note that in these experiments, the models are used to rank the tag sequences of the possible parses and not to find the most probable tag sequence. Therefore tagging accuracy results are higher than they would be in the latter case.

Since our corpus has relatively short sentences and low ambiguity it is interesting to see how much the performance degrades as we move to longer and more highly ambiguous sentences. For this purpose, we report in Table 3 the parse ranking accuracy of the Combined model as a function of the number of possible analyses for sentences. Each row corresponds to a set of sentences with number of possible analyses greater or equal to the bound shown in the first column. For example, the first row contains information for the sentences with ambiguity \( \geq 2 \), which is all ambiguous sentences. The columns show the total number of sentences in the set, the expected accuracy of guessing at random, and the accuracy of the Combined model. We can see that the parse ranking accuracy is decreasing quickly and more powerful models will be needed to achieve good accuracy for highly ambiguous sentences.

Despite several differences in corpus size and compo-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Task</th>
<th>tag sel.</th>
<th>parse sel.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Random</td>
<td></td>
<td>90.13%</td>
<td>25.81%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tagger</td>
<td>unigram</td>
<td>96.75%</td>
<td>44.15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>trigram</td>
<td>97.87%</td>
<td>47.74%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>oracle</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
<td>54.59%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PCFG</td>
<td>simple</td>
<td>97.40%</td>
<td>66.26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>grandparent</td>
<td>97.43%</td>
<td>71.73%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>combined</td>
<td>98.08%</td>
<td>74.03%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Performance of the HMM and PCFG models for the tag and parse selection tasks (accuracy).
position, it is perhaps nevertheless useful to compare this work with other work on parse selection for unification-based grammars. Johnson et al. (1999) estimate a Stochastic Unification Based Grammar (SUBG) using a log-linear model. The features they include in the model are not limited to production rule features but also adjunct and argument and other linguistically motivated features. On a dataset of 540 sentences (total training and test set) from a Verbmobil corpus they report parse disambiguation accuracy of 58.7% given a baseline accuracy of 9.7%. The random baseline is much lower than ours for the full data set, but it is comparable for the random baseline for sentences with more than 5 analyses. The accuracy of our Combined model for these sentences is 59.64%, so the accuracies of the two models seem fairly similar.

### 4 Related Work

To the best of our knowledge, no prior research has been conducted exploring the linguistic depth, flexibility in available information, and dynamic nature of treebanks that we have proposed. Earlier work on building corpora of hand-selected analyses relative to an existing broad-coverage grammar was carried out at Xerox PARC, SRI Cambridge, and Microsoft Research. As all these resources are tuned to proprietary grammars and analysis engines, the resulting treebanks are not publicly available, nor have reported research results been reproducible. Yet, especially in light of the successful LinGO open-source repository, it seems vital that both the treebank and associated processing schemes and stochastic models be available to the general (academic) public. An on-going initiative at Rijksuniversiteit Groningen (NL) is developing a treebank of dependency structures (Mullen, Malouf, & Noord, 2001), derived from an HPSG-like grammar of Dutch (Bouma, Noord, & Malouf, 2001). The general approach resembles the Redwoods initiative (specifically the discriminator-based method of tree selection; the LKB tree comparison tool was originally developed by Malouf, after all), but it provides only a single stratum of representation, and has no provision for evolving analyses in tandem with the grammar. Dipper (2000) presents the application of a broad-coverage LFG grammar for German to constructing tectogrammatical structures for the TiGer corpus. The approach is similar to the Groningen framework, and shares its limitations.

### References


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Analyses</th>
<th>Sentences</th>
<th>Random</th>
<th>Combined</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>≥ 2</td>
<td>3824</td>
<td>25.81%</td>
<td>74.03%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>≥ 5</td>
<td>1789</td>
<td>9.66%</td>
<td>59.64%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>≥ 10</td>
<td>1027</td>
<td>5.33%</td>
<td>51.61%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>≥ 20</td>
<td>525</td>
<td>3.03%</td>
<td>45.33%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Parse ranking accuracy by number of possible parses.