

Language

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Language

- Language
- Syntax (Wolfgang Menzel)
- Meaning (Carola Eschenbach)

Language ...

- ... is an extremely complex phenomenon, but seemingly easy to learn
- ... is ruled by regularities, but full of exceptions
- ... is fairly stable, but extremely flexible
 - universal means to communicate arbitrary content
 - adaptation to the needs and capabilities of the hearer/speaker
 - establishes social cohesion

Language ...

... is studied from different perspectives

- language acquisition
- language learning
- grammar
- social behaviour
- language change
- human language processing
- computational processing
- ...

→ different research goals, different research methodologies

Language ...

- ... is studied on different levels of analysis
 - phonetics: How to pronounce words?
 - phonology: How to distinguish meaning?
 - morphology: How to produce (new) words and word forms?
 - syntax: How to combine word forms into sentences?
 - lexical semantics: How to establish the meaning of words?
 - compositional semantics: How to establish the meaning of a sentence?
 - discourse: How sentences are combined into text or dialogue?
 - pragmatics: What's the communicative function of an utterance in a specific context: speaker and hearer, situation, ...?
 - ...

→ abstraction and simplification is necessary

Language Processing

- natural language processing by machines falls way short of the human model with respect to
 - coverage
 - learnability, adaptability
 - robustness
- Cognitive modelling
 - might help to overcome some of these deficiencies
 - is essential for deep processing of natural language
 - even with a strong focus on applications
 - What do humans do when they understand / interpret / produce an utterance?
 - What kind of processing capabilities of their communication partners do humans expect?

Is language special?

- yes, because there is no other species
 - which developed a similar complex and universal system of communication and
 - which can learn our language to the same degree of proficiency
- no, because
 - it seems to work on the same kind of neural substrate as other cognitive faculties do

Language

- Language
- Syntax (Wolfgang Menzel)
- Meaning (Carola Eschenbach)

Syntax

- Why syntax?
- Representations
- Grammars
- Parsing
- Preferences

Different perspectives

The linguist's perspective: understanding language

- What's the difference between a natural and an artificial language?
- Why natural languages can be learned by humans, but artificial ones can't?
 - by any child / in a surprisingly short time
- How do humans process natural language?
 - almost effortless / in real time / in a highly robust manner

Why syntax?

- Syntax as a linguist's darling.
- Semantics as the poor sister of syntax.
- Why is this so?
- looking for meaning but finding structures
 - easy access to empirical data
 - more regularities: high potential for general descriptions
 - models better scale up

Different perspectives

The linguist's perspective (cont.)

- What's the interplay between different aspects of language in order to facilitate communication?
 - lexicon / morphology / syntax / semantics / pragmatics
 - specifically: how syntax mediates between form and meaning

Different perspectives

The computer scientist's perspective:

language understanding (and production) systems

- How to make a machine ...
 - ... to understand natural language content
 - ... to express content by means of natural language
- Which other useful tasks can be accomplished without actually "understanding" language?
 - hyphenation
 - spell checking
 - text-to-speech synthesis
 - grammar checking
 - ...

Why syntax?

- common misconception:
syntax is (only) about the correctness of utterances
- but:
checking for correctness is only one particularly important empirical technique
- syntax is ...
 - ... about the (underlying) structures
 - ... the interface to semantics

Different perspectives

The computer scientist's perspective (cont.)

- If content access is the goal: is syntax really necessary?
 - Schank: Conceptual dependency
 - bag-of-words approaches
- but: ignoring syntax is no solution either

Why syntax?

- syntax facilitates language understanding
 - key to any ambitious natural language application
- e.g. argument assignment: who does what to whom?
 - English: ordering, configurational language
The man_{subject} bought his wife_{indirect object} a book_{direct object}.
 - German: (semi-)free word order language (scrambling)
→ arguments are distinguished by means of case
Der Mann_{nom} kaufte seiner Frau_{gen,dat} ein Buch_{nom,acc}.
Seiner Frau_{gen,dat} kaufte der Mann_{nom} ein Buch_{nom,acc}.
Ein Buch_{nom,acc} kaufte der Mann_{nom} seiner Frau_{gen,dat}.
Der Mann_{nom} kaufte ein Buch_{nom,acc} seiner Frau_{gen,dat}.
...

Why syntax?

- e.g. negation: what's possibly negated?

The man did not buy his wife a book.

*The man did **not buy** his wife a book.*

*The man did **not buy his wife** a book.*

*The man did **not buy his wife a book**.*

- e.g. pronouns: what's a potential candidate for reference?

John_i cannot begin, before he_i arrives.

Before he_i arrives, John_i cannot begin.

Before John_i arrives, he_i cannot begin.

**He_i cannot begin, before John_i arrives.*

Why syntax?

- example: disambiguation for text-to-speech synthesis

*The girls **will read** the paper.*

*The girls **have read** the paper.*

***Will** the girls **read** the paper?*

***Have** any men of good **will read** the paper?*

***Have** the executors of the will **read** the paper?*

***Have** the girls who **will** be away next week **read** the paper?*

*Please **have** the girls **read** the paper.*

***Have** the girls **read** the paper?*

Why syntax?

- immediate applications
 - dialogue systems
 - content extraction from text
 - machine translation
 - report generation
- other syntax driven applications
 - language modelling: predicting the next word
 - problem: long-range dependencies
→ structured language models
 - quality assessment
 - grammar checking
 - language tutoring

A central question

Is (human) language processing rule driven (generic) or instance / example based?

- Do we parse or do we remember?
- Do we generate or do we reproduce?

The problem

- instance-based processing cannot explain language learning and innovative use of language
- but:
there are many non-productive idiocrasies: idioms, metaphoric use, etc.:
 - to catch a cold*
 - to reach for a star*
- language production is habitual: stereotypical utterances
 - you are welcome*
 - ladies and gentlemen*
- outright exceptions
 - I enjoyed this meeting, said he.*
 - That's a real problem, believe you me.*

The problem

Q: What's the most important English rule?

A: Almost every rule is about 90% valid.

from Kenneth Beare at about.com
English as a 2nd language

Did you know?

I sometimes read a book.
Sometimes I read a book.
I rarely read a book.
Rarely do I read a book.
I always read a book.
**Always*

The problem

- language processing is a mixture of rule driven and instance-based procedures
- c.f. transfer-based translation vs. example-based translation
- The engineer's concern:
 - How to combine these approaches?
 - What's the proper balance between them?

Language: Syntax

- Why syntax?
- Syntactic Representations
- Grammars
- Parsing
- Preferences

Representations

- full syntactic descriptions are (at least) hierarchical structures (trees)

[*S* *Have* [*NP* *the girls*
 [*S* *who* [*VP* *will* *be* *away* [*NP* *next week*]]]]
 [*VP* *read* [*NP* *the paper?*]]]]

[*S* *Please* [*VP* *have* [*NP* *the girls*]] [*VP* *read* [*NP* *the paper?*]]]]].

[*S* *Have* [*NP* *the girls*] [*VP* *read* [*NP* *the paper?*]]]]

- two different approaches for syntactic representations:
 - phrase structure grammars
 - dependency grammars
- emphasize different aspects of syntax
- can partly be transformed into each other

Representations

- The poor man's syntax: shallow structures
 - part-of-speech tags: noun, auxiliary, full verb, adjective

The girls will_{AUX} read the paper.

Have_{AUX} any men of good will_N read the paper?

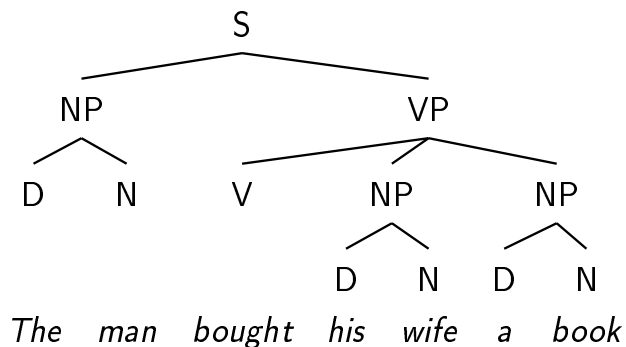
- syntactic segments: chunks

Will [*NP* *the girls*] *read* *the paper?*

Have [*NP* *the executors*] [*PP* *of the will*] *read* *the paper?*

Phrase structure grammars

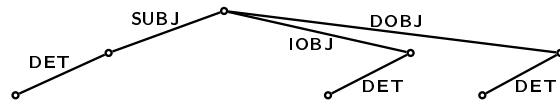
- typed, recursive grouping of word forms



- empirical basis
 - distributional analysis
 - substitution of partial trees
- particularly suited for configurational languages (fixed word order)

Dependency grammars

- functional perspective: modification of words by others with respect to a particular syntactic function (Subject, Object, ...)



The man bought his wife a book

- easy mapping to the semantic level: thematic roles
- particularly suited for non-configurational (free word order) languages
 - slavonic languages, German, Dutch, Japanese, ...
- regularly structured and finite space of partial structures
 - well suited for some machine learning approaches and constraint satisfaction procedures
- allows to model non-projective (not properly nested) structures

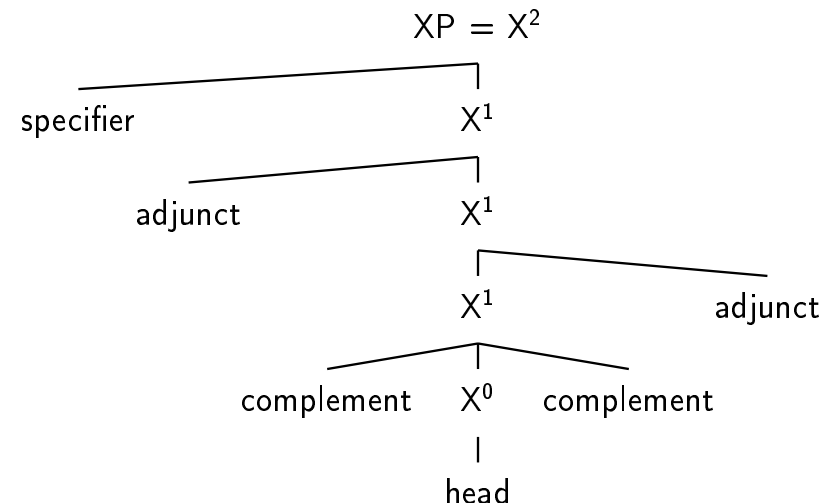
X-bar-theory

- Jackendoff (1979)
- universal** tree pattern which ...
 - ... restricts the space of possible structural descriptions
 - ... presumably underlies all languages of the world
 - ... reflects the human language faculty
 - ... is meant to explain, why every human child can learn an arbitrary human language
- strong type restrictions: phrasal/lexical nodes
- allows a local description of various syntactic phenomena: government, projection, agreement, ...
- requires movement operations
 - not well suited for machine learning approaches
 - not used in treebank annotations

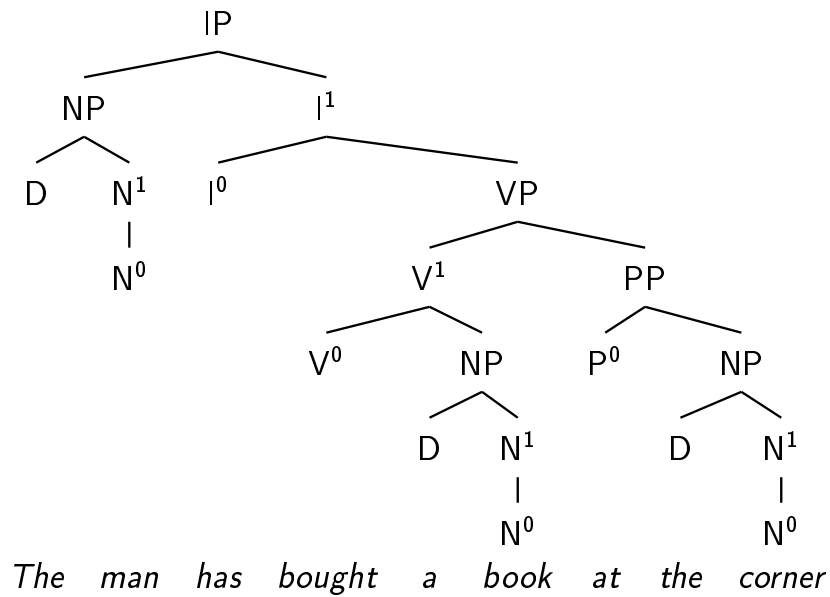
Treebanks

- huge collections of real-life sentences
- manually/semi-automatically annotated with tree structures
- many different annotation conventions
 - kind of structures: phrase vs. dependency structure
 - bracketing: projective vs. non-projective
 - theoretical assumptions: X-bar-theory, DP-modelling, tecto-grammatical structures, ...)
 - depth: deeply nested vs. shallow structures (e.g. compound words, phrases)
 - granularity of POS tags
 - granularity of labels
 - use of empty nodes
- used for training and testing of NLP systems

X-bar-theory



X-bar-theory

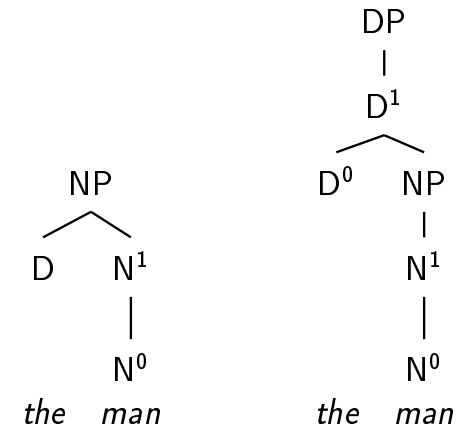


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DP-modelling

- radical application of the X-bar restrictions to the NP



Grammars

- generative approaches:
 - rules are used as building blocks to construct trees
 - rules can be extracted from the tree annotation

S → NP VP
 VP → V NP
 VP → VP PP
 NP → D N
 ...
 N → book
 N → man
 D → the
 ...

- → context-free grammar (CFG, Chomsky 1953)
- rules can be interpreted as rewrite possibilities

Grammars

- X-bar constraints would reduce the number of possible rule-types considerably:

XP → SpecX X¹
X¹ → X YP
X¹ → YP X
X¹ → X⁰
X¹ → X⁰ YP
X¹ → X⁰ YP ZP

- ... but require the additional movement operator

Grammars

- major drawback of rule-(and unification)-based grammars: usually fairly low coverage even for large grammars
- typical examples for German
 - partial Parser (Wauschkuhn 1996)
 - 56.5% on newspaper text
 - Gepard: based on a unification grammar (Langer 2001):
 - 33.51% on newspaper text
 - up to 66% on testsuites (better lexical coverage, shorter and less ambiguous sentences)

Grammars

- finer grained modelling: unification-based approaches
- additional features + unification requirements

S → NP[Per,Num] VP[Per,Num]
VP[Per,Num] → V[Per,Num,Case] NP[Case,X,Y]
NP[Case,Num,Gen] → D[Case,Num,Gen] N[Case,Num,Gen]
...
- complex categories: recursively embedded feature structures
→ potentially infinitely many
→ not well suited for machine learning approaches
- unification can be used to construct arbitrary structural descriptions: parse trees, semantic forms, ...

Grammars

- an alternative: constraint-based approaches
- constraint is a very general notion
- one needs to distinguish: constraints over ...
 - ... complex feature structures
→ constraint-based formalisms:
 - formalism for logical deduction
 - e.g. head-driven phrase-structure grammar (HPSG)
 - ... elements of a dependency structure
→ constraint grammars:
 - formalism for constraint satisfaction
 - e.g. (weighted) constraint dependency grammar (CDG, WCDG, ...)

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Parsing strategies

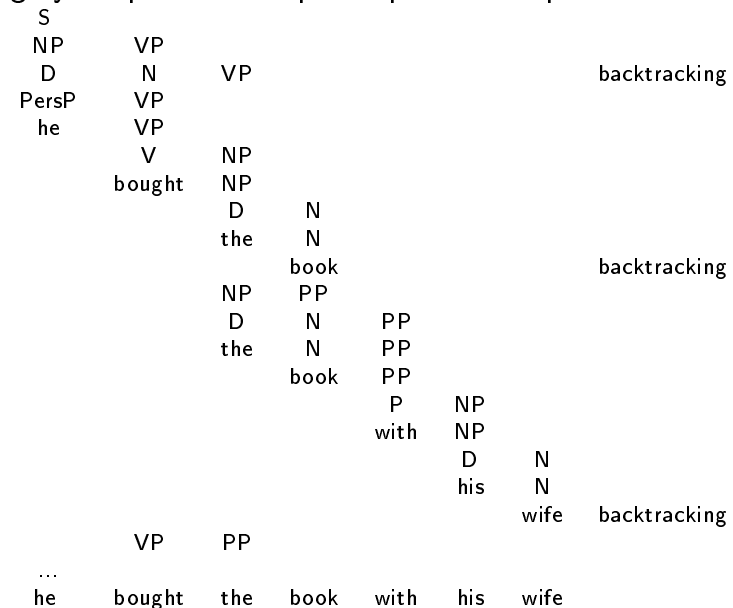
- rules can be applied in two different ways:
 - replace the left-hand side of a rule with its right-hand side: top down
 - replace the right-hand side of a rule with its left-hand side: bottom up
- alternatives can be considered in a different order
 - all in parallel: breadth-first
 - one at a time: depth-first
- the sentence can be processed
 - left-to-right
 - right-to-left

Parsing

- given a sentence (sequence of word forms and interpunction symbols)
- determine one or possibly several parse trees
- problem: ambiguity
He bought the book with his wife.
- local ambiguity: alternative rules can be applied to the same data
 $VP \rightarrow V NP$
He bought the book with his wife.
 $VP \rightarrow VP PP$
He bought the book with his wife.
- global ambiguity: several structures for a sentence

Parsing

highly simplified example: top-down, depth-first, left-to-right



Parsing

- non-deterministic algorithm: choice points available
- naive approaches require exponential effort
- reuse of partial structures: cubic effort
→ chart parsing
- serious problem: broad coverage grammars lead to highly ambiguous output

Parsing

- What went wrong?
- Writing a grammar is struggling against Zipfean Law
 - roughly: the probability of an item is inversely proportional to its rank
 - holds for almost all language phenomena: phones, lexical items, rules
 - there are few items which are frequent, but very many which are rare
- modeling the first 90% is easy, but catching the rest becomes increasingly difficult

Parsing

- *Hinter dem Betrug werden die gleichen Täter vermutet, die während der vergangenen Tage in Griechenland gefälschte Banknoten in Umlauf brachten.*
- two unification-based parser for German:
 - Paragram (Kuhn and Rohrer 1997):
 - LFG-grammar
 - 92 readings
 - Gepard (Langer 2001):
 - special unification-based grammar
 - 220 readings
 - average ambiguity on newspaper text: 78 readings (average sentence length 11.43 words)
- extrem case: $6.4875 \cdot 10^{22}$ readings for another German sentence (Block 1995)

Parsing

- for parsing a sentence, several rules need to be applied, probably including rare ones, which have not been modelled yet
→ low coverage
- increasing the coverage, means writing more rules
- more rules will increase the degree of local ambiguity
→ more global ambiguity

Parsing

- the alternative perspective:
constraint grammars for dependency models
 - instead of using generative rewrite rules ...
 - ... constraints on the wellformedness of structural descriptions are specified
- all structures are admitted unless explicitly ruled out
- default reasoning: the last remaining structure survives
 - full coverage: the parser never fails!
 - but: usually no full disambiguation can be achieved

Preferences

- context-free grammars are based on a first order axiomatisation
 - enumeration of solutions is possible ...
 - ... but no comparison of solutions
- no ranking of hypotheses according to plausibility available
- no selection among the potential readings of a sentence can be performed
- solution: definition of a weighting scheme over rules/constraints
- two different approaches
 - Optimality theory
 - Weighted constraint dependency grammar

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Optimality theory

- Prince and Smolensky (1993)
- grammar with a context-free backbone
- constraints are ...
 - ... local within a rule
 - ... ordered according to their relative strength in a hierarchy
- claim:
 - context-free backbone and constraints are universal
 - ranking is language specific and needs to be learned
- the grammar assigns the structure which only violates the least important constraints
- parsing becomes an optimization problem
→ full disambiguation
- but: no broad coverage models available so far

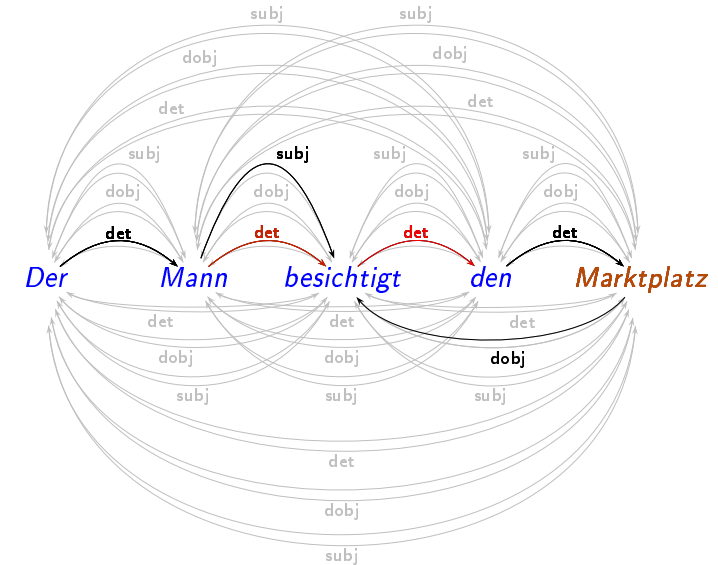
Weighted constraint dependency grammar

- Menzel 1995, Schröder (2001), Foth (2005)
- no generative component at all
- constraints on admissible dependency structures
- constraints are weighted
- weights are combined multiplicatively
- heuristic decision procedures try to determine the optimal structural description

Weighted constraint dependency grammar

- constraints are used to include predictions of external components
 - tagger, chunker, supertagger, PP-attacher, attachment predictor
- results (structural/labelled accuracy):
 - WCDG with tagger only: 89.7% / 87.9%
 - WCDG with full set of predictors 92.5% / 91.1%

Transformation-based parsing



Preferences

- can preferences be learned from data?
- different classes of machine learning approaches:
 1. predicting the structure vs. predicting the parser actions
 2. generative vs. discriminative learning

Generative models

- learning: estimation of probability distributions
- deciding on the maximum posterior probability

$$\arg \max_t p(t|s)$$

- posterior probability cannot be estimated directly
- reformulation as

$$p(t|s) = \frac{p(t)p(s|t)}{p(s)}$$

- task: finding the optimal predictor for the input
- well suited for phrase-structure grammars

Generative models

2. rule-probabilities do not capture the relevant information

- rule application probability also depends on lexical relationships

→ lexicalized probabilities (Charniak 2000, Collins 1999)

$$p(lhs \rightarrow rhs|lhs, head(rhs))$$

$$p(lhs \rightarrow rhs|lhs, head(rhs), head(mother(rhs)))$$

...

- results (labelled recall / precision, Charniak 2000):
 - sentences ($l \leq 40$ words): **91.0% / 91.0%**
 - all sentences: 89.6% / 89.5%
- to compare with a treebank grammar:
 - sentences ($l \leq 40$ words): **80.4% / 78.8%**

Generative models

- simplest case: treebank grammars
 - extract the rules from a treebank
 - estimate their probability $p(lhs \rightarrow rhs|lhs)$
- fairly poor results (Charniak 1996)
 - sentences up to max. 40 word forms:
 - labelled recall = 80.4%, labelled precision = 78.8%

- What went wrong?

1. treebank grammars generalize poorly

- the treebank is far too small
- Penn-treebank: relatively flat structures
- 40000 sentences → 10605 rules
- 3943 occurring only once in the corpus!

Discriminative models

- directly approximating $p(t|s)$ without a generative model
- finding the optimal class boundary or function approximation
- learning: modifying a high-dimensional function to optimally approximate the target
- examples: neural networks, support vector machines

Discriminative models

- application to dependency parsing: MST-parser (McDonald 2006)
- on-line learning of a weighting function for local dependency hypotheses
- maximum spanning tree-search ($O(n^2)$) based on local scores
- transformation-based search based for higher order dependencies
- best parser on the CoNLL 2006 shared task:
 - 91.5% structural accuracy for English
 - 90.4% / 87.3% structural / labelled accuracy for German
- Can we do even better?

Summary

- syntax is an important factor of human language comprehension
- syntactic structures are important for many NLP applications
- local ambiguity in broad coverage grammars make 1st-order axiomatizations intractable
- preferential reasoning is required to rank hypotheses according to plausibility
- parsing becomes an optimization problem
- rule-based and trained empirical knowledge can be combined successfully

Discriminative models

- replication of the experiments with another annotation standard for German
- almost the same results:
 - 90.5% / 87.5% without interpunction
 - 91.9% / 89.3% with interpunction
- combination with WCDG as another predictor (results with interpunction)

	without MST	with MST
WCDG + tagger	89.7% / 87.9%	93.0% / 91.8%
WCDG + all predictors	92.5% / 91.1%	93.9% / 92.6%

Outlook

- Are we hitting the ceiling?
- What's next?
- human language communication is situated
 - environment
 - background knowledge
 - intentions

He ate the sandwich with his wife.

- more semantics?
- more world knowledge?
- better user models?
- better machine learning techniques?
- higher-level inference techniques?