

A Hybrid Environment for Syntax-Semantic Tagging

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A la meva família.
A la Inés.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

In recent years a growing amount of researchers on natural language processing (NLP) feel that the problems traditionally addressed separately should –as available resources enable it– be addressed as a whole. For instance, [Wilks & Stevenson 96] showed that knowing the part-of-speech tag of a word can help to disambiguate its sense in a high percentage of the cases, thus, a system performing word sense disambiguation using not only the context information related to words and senses but also part-of-speech information, would have higher performance. This idea is also present in works like those of [Jung et al. 96, Ng & Lee 96], which presented models able to combine different kinds of statistical information.

This statement is quite obvious, since it seems logical that the more information we have, the better results we will produce at a given task. But if we take this idea twofold, we can use each kind of information to help to disambiguate the other *at the same time*, e.g. we can perform POS tagging and WSD simultaneously, using all information available, and taking advantage of the interactions between the different kinds of information. This is more or less what we humans do when understanding a NL utterance: we use all kinds of information –lexical, syntactical, semantic, etc.– at the same time to cut out improper analysis and pick the right one.

In this thesis we are interested in the use of flexible algorithms that can handle different kinds of information (semantic, syntactic, ...) using different kinds of knowledge (linguistic, statistical, ...), in the style of Constraint Grammars [Karlsson et al. 95], where the properties that may be owned by a word or referred to by a constraint are only limited by which ones are available. Getting over the historical controversy between linguistic and knowledge-based and statistical methods, numerical information about natural language behaviour must not be let out, since work in recent years [Klavans & Resnik 94, Jung et al. 96, Hajič & Hladká 97, Pedersen et al. 97, Della Pietra et al. 97, Ristad & Thomas 97] confirms that it may deal very accurately with language ambiguities.

The task of finding a set of relationships or interactions between all information kinds such that they describe natural language behaviour, has the category of language modelling and involves linguistic, cognitive and psychological considerations which are beyond the scope of this thesis. Anyway, since our system can not work without a reasonable language model, we will also use several existing alternatives for acquiring one, ranging from manual development to n-gram collection, through the use of machine learning algorithms.

1.1 Goals of this Research

This thesis describes research into the use of energy–function optimization algorithms to solve natural language processing tasks. The main objective is to show that such algorithms can deal with hybrid information: combining statistical and linguistic information, and with different classification dimensions (e.g. POS tags, senses, etc.).

The problems addressed are mainly those of disambiguation nature, that is, those where the task to be done consists of disambiguating a given sequence of words somehow ambiguous (part-of-speech, syntactic function, word sense, etc.). Most of the NLP tasks where a value has to be assigned to a feature can be seen as disambiguation problems, since the task can be summarized as picking the most appropriate value from a known set of possibilities.

The optimization algorithm focused on is relaxation labelling, since there is a clear structural matching between disambiguation-like problems and the tasks the algorithm naturally applies to. The algorithm chooses the most suitable label for each of the variables in the model. Our work will consist of modelling the NLP task we want to perform in an appropriate way for the algorithm.

1.1.1 Finding a flexible NL modelling

The objective of enabling a hybrid model requires a way to express NL properties that is able to include all kinds of information. This means that if we want to perform POS-tagging, we do not have to limit ourselves to use POS information about the words in the sentence, but we can also include any information available: semantic, syntactic, morphological, etc.

In addition, we want our model to be able to cope with imprecise or incomplete information, and with flexible relationships between NL elements, i.e. we want a robust model that can produce a reasonable result when faced to a non-expected case. So we need to introduce a numerical, statistical, or probabilistic component in our model.

The way in which we will try to achieve this kind of model is the following: We will use context constraints to express the relationships between linguistic elements. These constraints will admit any kind of available linguistic information. The choice of constraint modelling enables us to describe a wide range of patterns, from a simple bigram –expressed as a constraint between two consecutive word positions– to a complex structure relating different features of several words –e.g. checking the existence of an auxiliary verb to the left of a given word with no occurrences of a noun in between–.

The possibility of using statistical information will be introduced by assigning to each constraint a numerical value, which will be interpreted as its *weight* or *strength*, that is, as how strictly must be that constraint applied. This enables pure classical linguistic models –where all constraints are strictly applied–, statistical models, where all constraints have a weight computed through some statistical method, or any hybrid model where some constraints are strictly applied and some others are not.

1.1.1.1 Constraint Satisfaction

As described in the previous section, we chose our model to be a weighted constraint one. So, the disambiguation problems will consist of applying the constraints and finding the combination that satisfies them all (or, at least, as many of them as possible). The natural approach to these problems are constraint satisfaction algorithms.

Since many useful and interesting problems can be stated as a constraint satisfaction problem –travelling salesman, n-queens, corner and edge recognition, image smoothing, etc. [Lloyd 83, Richards et al. 81, Aarts & Korst 87]– this is a field where we find many algorithms that have been long used to solve them.

The best-known are those of basic operational research, such as gradient step or relaxation –for continuous spaces– or mathematical programming –for discrete spaces–. In the later case, we can consider the optimization as a search in a state space, and use classical artificial intelligence algorithms, from depth-first or breadth-first global search to more sophisticated heuristic search algorithms such as hill-climbing, best-first or A^* .

1.1.1.2 Relaxation Labelling

Although any of the algorithms mentioned in the previous section could be used to process a constraint model, we want to deal with *weighted* constraints, which requires the algorithm to be able to move in a continuous space. This leads us to choose relaxation labelling since its objective function is expressed in terms of constraints, which makes it more suitable to our needs than gradient step or other optimization algorithms for continuous space such as neural nets, genetic algorithms or simulated annealing which do not use constraints in such a natural way as relaxation labelling does. Different optimization algorithms will be compared in section 2.2.

Relaxation labelling is a well-known technique used to solve consistent labelling problems (CLP). The algorithm finds a combination of values for a set of variables such that satisfies –to the maximum possible degree– a set of given constraints. Since CLPs are closely related to constraint satisfaction problems [Larrosa & Meseguer 95a], relaxation labelling will be a suitable algorithm to apply our constraint-based language model. In addition, since all of them perform function optimization based on local information, relaxation is closely related to neural nets [Torrás 89] and gradient step [Larrosa & Meseguer 95b].

Relaxation operations had been long used in engineering fields to solve systems of equations [Southwell 40], but they got their biggest success when the extension to symbolic domain –relaxation labelling– was applied to constraint propagation field, specially in low-level vision problems [Waltz 75, Rosenfeld et al. 76]. The possibility of applying it to NLP tasks was recently pointed out by [Pelillo & Refice 94, Pelillo & Maffione 94] who use a toy POS tagging problem to evaluate their method to estimate compatibility values.

1.1.2 Application to Different NL tasks

A secondary goal of this research is proving that our approach works in practice, applying it to several NLP tasks. As stated above, the most natural tasks for this approach are those of disambiguation nature, so we will test our system in this kind of tasks. Namely, at part-of-speech tagging, at combined POS-tagging plus shallow parsing, and at combined POS-tagging plus word sense disambiguation.

Part-of-speech tagging is the most widely known disambiguation problem in NLP, and the results obtained by current systems are probably the best results ever obtained in a NLP task. This is due in part to the irruption of statistical methods in this field in the late 80's, but the good results are also reflecting that this task is structurally simpler than others, and that a simple method can solve a great part of it. Nevertheless, the ambiguities that remain

unresolved frequently belong to the class of those which could only be solved through the use of higher level information.

We will apply relaxation labelling to POS-tagging, and check whether the addition of higher level information results in a performance increase. We will also use POS-tagging as a base problem to test the influence of cross-information when solving different NLP tasks simultaneously.

Word sense disambiguation is a task right opposite to POS-tagging with respect to complexity and achieved results. From the impossible consensus on what should be considered a sense to the almost inexistent test set to perform experiments through the intrinsic task difficulty, the obstacles that the researcher in this task must overcome are much greater than in the previous case, and thus, the results reported by current works are much further away from what could be desired.

While current methods tend to use only one kind of knowledge, we will try to solve WSD simultaneously with POS-tagging, to check whether the coalition of both yields better results than each one of them separately.

Shallow parsing is a recent idea, which is half way between POS-tagging and parsing. It consists of assigning to each word –or at least to each important one– its syntactic function, but only superficially, not building the whole parse tree.

Shallow parsing and POS tagging are closely related: knowing that the part-of-speech for a word is, say, *verb*, discards the possibility for that word to be the subject of the sentence, and the other way round: when the parser decides that a word is acting as subject of a given verb, it is implying that it must have a nominal part of speech. This relationship subscribes the idea that both tasks can be solved in parallel combining the knowledge needed to solve each of them.

In all cases, we will combine language models obtained from different sources: statistics collection, linguist-written rules and machine-learned rules.

1.2 Setting

1.2.1 Utility

From a general perspective, constraint satisfaction and optimization algorithms may be useful to NLP purposes, since they enable a basis where language models which take into account many linguistic phenomena and features as well as different relationships among them may be easily applied to real linguistic data.

In addition, the model is not restricted, that is, it can be built incrementally and it also allows the merging of information obtained from many different sources.

From a more specific point of view, a system as the one we are proposing enables linguists to combine different kinds of information to perform a single task, or even perform several disambiguation tasks in parallel, taking advantage of cross information between the different knowledge sources. This not only should help to improve the results that current systems obtain at tasks such as part-of-speech tagging or word sense disambiguation, but it also opens a path towards the development of wide-coverage knowledge-integrated linguistic models and its application to real data.

The utility of such disambiguation tasks is well known: POS-tagging is very useful in reducing the ambiguity amount that a parser must deal with [Wauschkuhn 95], it is also used in speech recognition to anticipate the probabilities of the next word to come and thus reduce the ambiguity [Heeman & Allen 97], and it can also be used to extract syntactic knowledge from annotated corpora, for instance via grammatical inference [Pereira 92, Charniak 93, Smith & Witten 95, Lawrence et al. 95].

Word sense disambiguation is a much more difficult task, and its obvious utilities are the ambiguity reduction for further applications such as information retrieval, machine translation, document classification, etc. From a more linguistic or lexicographic point of view it can be used to study or to extract knowledge on selectional restrictions, sense co-occurrences, different uses of the same word, etc.

1.2.2 Approaches

The current approaches to disambiguation problems such as POS-tagging or WSD, can be classified in two broad families. The classical and most straightforward is the linguistic approach, which uses linguist-written language models. Recently the statistical approach has achieved great success due to the good results it yields using easily obtainable models based either on collecting statistics from a training corpus or using machine-learning algorithms to extract the language model from that training corpus.

The linguistic models are developed by introspection. This makes it a high labour cost work to obtain a good language model. Transporting the model to other languages means starting over again. They usually do not consider frequency information and thus have a limited robustness and coverage. Their advantages are that the model is written from a linguistic point of view and explicitly describes linguistic phenomena, and that the model may contain many and complex kinds of knowledge.

The statistical approaches are based on collecting statistics from existing corpora, either tagged (supervised training) or untagged (unsupervised training). This makes the model development much shorter –specially in the unsupervised version– and the transportation to other languages much easier, provided there are corpora in the desired language. They take into account frequency information, which gives them great robustness and coverage.

The statistical approaches can be divided in two classes, according to the complexity of the statistical model they acquire:

First, we have the simple-model class, where the language model consists of a set of co-occurrence frequencies for some predetermined features. Typical representatives of this class are n-gram based models for part-of-speech tagging or word form co-occurrence models for word sense disambiguation. The main disadvantages of these models are that they collect only simple information (usually co-occurrences) and that the language model is neither explicit (it is only a set of frequencies) nor has any linguistically significant structure.

Second, there is the complex-model class which consists of using a machine-learning algorithm to automatically acquire a high-level language model from a training corpus. The knowledge acquired may take the form of rules, decision trees, frames, etc. but it will be more complex than a simple set of frequency countings. In this case, the model is explicit, since usual machine-learning algorithms produce symbolic knowledge, but it does not necessarily have any linguistic meaning.

The previously described methods are approaches to acquire a language model. Once the model is achieved it is applied through some algorithm to perform some NLP task. The model-applying algorithm is usually very dependent on the kind of model and task, so a different model and algorithm is needed for each different task.

We will present in this thesis the use of relaxation labelling algorithm to perform NLP tasks, and we will show that it can be used either with models belonging to any of the different families described above or with hybrid models. We will show also that if the model contains information to perform different NLP tasks, the algorithm is able to solve these tasks simultaneously.

1.3 Summary

1.3.1 Contributions

The research described in this thesis includes new contributions in the following aspects:

1.3.1.1 Use of optimization techniques in NLP

The main contribution of this work is taking a step further into the use of optimization techniques to process natural language. The successful use of the relaxation labelling algorithm confirms that previous works which used simulated annealing or neural nets were in a promising path. This approach enables the modelling of language through sets of constraints and through objective functions, which can be optimized locally or globally –depending on the compromise efficiency vs. accuracy one wants to take– using a suitable algorithm. It also makes the application algorithm independent of the language model.

The main difficulty presented by this approach is the modelling of language in a way that enables the use of optimization algorithms. The proposed weighted constraint model is only one possibility –other algorithms may require different modellings– which seems adequate to the use of relaxation labelling algorithm, while keeping the attractive of being easily readable and the ability of accepting either manually written or automatically derived constraints. Other algorithms may require a different modelling

1.3.1.2 Application of multi-feature models

The used language model is based on context constraints which restrict the values that a word feature may take, depending on the features of neighbour words. It is able to represent different features for each word (i.e. part-of-speech, lemma, semantic properties, etc.). Neither the number of features nor their meaning are restricted in any way.

The language model consists of a set of constraints, which relate the features of a word with those of the words in the context, and state whether that situation is very likely or very unlikely to happen.

Since this schema is similar to that of Constraint Grammars [Karlsson et al. 95], we will use their formalism because its expressive power suits our needs and its widespread diffusion will simplify the task of obtaining hand-written language models. Original Constraint Grammars only state if such situations are possible and must be selected (**SELECT** constraints) or impossible and must be discarded (**REMOVE** constraints). Our extension introduces a new class of constraints: those to which a numerical *compatibility value* is assigned. This value

may range from a large positive value (very compatible) to a large negative value (very incompatible) with all intermediate degrees. The SELECT/REMOVE constraints are interpreted as stating a very strong compatibility/incompatibility value.

1.3.1.3 Application of statistical-linguistic hybrid models

The choice to model language through a set of constraints, each of them associated to a compatibility value, makes it possible to merge knowledge acquired from multiple sources. The way to achieve this is converting the different source knowledges to the common formalism of our language model.

The hand-written constraints can be written directly in the desired formalism, and the automatically obtained models can be easily translated to the common representation based on weighted constraints.

For instance, a n-gram model can be converted to a set of constraints –one for each n-gram– which will have a compatibility value computed according to the n-gram probability. In the same way, a machine-learned model consisting of statistical decision trees can be converted into a set of constraints –one for each tree branch– with a compatibility value computed from the conditional probabilities of the leaf nodes. Also, a representation consisting of a vector of context words for each sense (as in [Yarowsky 92]) could be converted to a set of constraints –one for each pair sense plus context word in its vector– with a compatibility depending on the relevance probability of that pair. Equally, a model based on conceptual distance between senses (e.g. [Sussna 93]) can be converted to constraints with compatibility values computed from that distance measure.

All those compatibility values can be computed from probabilities in many ways, as detailed in section 3.3.

So, we can produce hybrid models with constraints obtained from any source combining them in any desired proportion, by means of translating them all to a common formalism. In our case we chose that formalism to be an extension of Constraint Grammars, due to their flexibility, successful performance and widespread diffusion.

1.3.1.4 Simultaneous resolution of NLP tasks

Due to the multi-feature nature of constraints, and to the parallel way in which relaxation applies them, the algorithm can select simultaneously the combination of values for several linguistic features that best suit a word in a certain context, that is, it can solve different NLP disambiguation tasks at the same time, taking advantage of the interactions between them.

For instance, if we have POS and sense ambiguities, we will have for each word several possible readings in the form of pairs (*POS, sense*). The model can contain constraints selecting –or refusing– one POS, one sense, or one pair for that word in the current context. Obviously, the constraints on only one feature, will affect all the pairs that contain it. At the end, the pair with has collected more positive contributions will be selected and thus a POS and a sense will be assigned to the word, i.e. it will have the two features disambiguated, and the disambiguation has not been performed in a classical cascade-style but in parallel.

1.3.2 Overview

The organization of rest of the thesis is presented in this section. After a state of the art summary in chapter 2, chapter 3 describes the relaxation algorithm and its application to NLP. Chapters 4 and 5 present experiments performed and results obtained. Finally, chapter 6 contains conclusions yield by this work and outlines further research lines.

1.3.2.1 Chapter 2: Disambiguation and Optimization in NLP

In this chapter we overview the current trends in natural language processing, specially on corpus linguistics. A special attention is paid to disambiguation tasks, since it is the main issue in this thesis.

Items are addressed from the artificial intelligence perspective rather than from a linguistic point of view. Nevertheless, the indispensable contribution and complement that linguistics must provide to the presented work, as well as the utility our contribution may represent to those linguists working on large corpora, is also taken into account.

We also summarize in this chapter previous applications of different optimization algorithms to perform NLP tasks, and describe some of the most representatives.

1.3.2.2 Chapter 3: Application of Relaxation Labelling to NLP

In this chapter we detail the relaxation labelling algorithm and its possible parameterizations. We discuss which ones may be appropriate to our purposes and some related problems.

Since the presented algorithm is based on modelling language by means of context constraints, and the developing of a linguist-written model is highly costly, we also describe different ways to acquire the knowledge –in the form of context constraints– to be used by the algorithm.

1.3.2.3 Chapter 4: Experiments and Results

In this chapter we describe three groups of performed experiments which were performed on several corpora and disambiguation tasks, using different parameterizations and knowledge obtained from various sources.

The first set of experiments aimed to establish the most appropriate parameterization for the relaxation algorithm when applied to NLP disambiguation tasks. POS tagging was used as a testbench task for this purpose.

The second group of experiments aimed to perform POS tagging as accurately as possible using relaxation labelling. Different language models were used in this case to test the ability of the algorithm to integrate constraints obtained from various knowledge sources.

The last set of experiments consisted of broadening the range of application to NLP tasks other than POS tagging. It also included experiments on combining different word features and on simultaneous resolution of several NLP tasks. The selected tasks were shallow parsing and word sense disambiguation.

1.3.2.4 Chapter 5: Comparative Analysis of Results

This chapter contains a comparative analysis of the results obtained by relaxation labelling on the tested tasks.

We focused on analyzing the influence of the use of multi-source and/or multi-feature information on the obtained results, as well as studying whether parallel task solving yields some improvement.

Also, the results produced by our system are compared to those of other current systems. Some considerations on the evaluation and comparison of systems performing NL corpus processing are exposed.

1.3.2.5 Chapter 6: Conclusions

In this chapter we summarize the research described in this thesis and we outline some future lines of research to improve the performance of our system and to broaden the range of optimization algorithms applied to NLP.

Chapter 2

Disambiguation and Optimization in NLP

In the previous chapter, we outlined the situation of disambiguation problems inside the NLP field, and more particularly in the corpus linguistics field, where the objective is processing large amounts of linguistic data with reasonable results, rather than obtaining very precise results over a small set of linguistic features.

In this chapter we will expose in a more detailed way which are the current trends to approach these problems, and to what extent are optimization methods spread inside the NLP research field.

First, a general look on usual methods to perform NLP disambiguation tasks is presented. Then, we will describe how those methods are used in particular when facing the two most common disambiguation problems in this field: part-of-speech tagging and word sense disambiguation.

Second, an overview of how different energy-function optimization techniques have been applied to NLP task is presented, and the most representative are described.

2.1 The Disambiguation Problem

Natural Language is an ambiguous mean to transmit information. This may be a desirable feature for joke-tellers, cartoonists or humor screenplay writers, but it becomes a great problem when one wants a computer to process information stored in this form.

This makes ambiguity to be one of the main problems of NLP, and very probably the only one, since all NLP problems can be related to some kind of ambiguity.

Ambiguity in natural language is manifold. We find part-of-speech ambiguity (e.g. past vs. participle in regular verbs), semantic ambiguity in polysemic words, syntactic ambiguity in parsing (e.g. PP-attachment), reference ambiguity in anaphora resolution, etc.

Methods to deal with ambiguity range from the brute-force: *compute all the possibilities and choose the best one*, which becomes impractical when dealing with real data such as linguistic corpora; to more clever language representations which avoid the combinatory explosion by taking into account the frequency, probability, or any other criterion to select the best solution.

To enable a computer system to process natural language, it is required that language is *modelled* in some way, that is, that the phenomena occurring in language are characterized and captured, in such a way that it can be used to predict or recognize future uses of language: [Rosenfeld 94] defines language modelling as *the attempt to characterize, capture and exploit regularities in natural language*, and states that the need of language modelling arises from the great deal of variability and uncertainty present in natural language.

Different methods to process NL derive from different approaches to language modelling. These methods can be classified into three broad families, although, obviously, there exist also methods that would fit in more than one –an thus they may be considered as hybrid– or that do not fit well in any category.

First, the linguistic or knowledge-based family, where language is modelled by a linguist who tries to explain the behaviour of ambiguity using some unambiguous formalism. Some representative examples of this class are the works by [Voutilainen 94, Oflazer & Tür 97], where a large hand-written constraint grammar is used to perform part-of-speech tagging.

Second, we find the statistical family, where the language model is left to a data-collection process which stores thousands of occurrences of some kind of linguistic phenomenon and tries to derive a statistical law from them. This model acquisition is known as *training*. Two main points of view are used in this family, the Bayesian point of view and the Information Theory point of view. Both of them rely on the estimation of occurrence probabilities for each relevant event, but while the former tries to obtain them computing the number of event occurrences (Maximum Likelihood Estimation) –which may cause problems when an event is infrequent or data are scarce– the later is based on assuming maximum ignorance and trying to minimize the model entropy, thus unobserved events will only keep maximum uncertainty.

Statistical methods constitute a very large family, and the one that has reported most successful results to NLP field in recent years. Some examples are the works by [Rabiner 90] who presents a tutorial on Hidden Markov Models and their application to speech recognition, or [Kupiec 91, Briscoe 94] who apply statistical methods to grammar development and parsing. Other works on NLP using statistical models are that of [Matsukawa 93, McKeown & Hatzivassiloglou 93], who learn to cluster similar words, and [Brants et al. 97] who identify the grammatical function of each word in a sentence. Statistical methods have been specially successful –since the 1970s to nowadays– when applied to speech recognition tasks [Rabiner 90, Huang et al. 93, Heeman & Allen 97]. This success caused that they were also used in other NLP areas, such as optical character recognition, spelling correction, POS tagging, parsing, translation, lexicography, text compression and information retrieval.

Finally, the machine-learning family, where the model acquisition is also automatic, but the knowledge acquired belongs to a higher level than simple occurrence frequencies. For instance, [Yarowsky 94] learns decision lists to properly restore accents in Spanish and French texts, the system described [Daelemans et al. 96b] learns morphological rules, and as a secondary effect, a relevant classification of phonemes appears, and in [Mooney 96], several classical machine-learning algorithms are applied to learn to disambiguate word senses, and the results of the different methods compared.

The following section summarizes some basic issues on linguistic corpora compilation and overviews some well-known corpora. Sections 2.1.2 and 2.1.3 summarize the application of methods belonging to the families above to the particular disambiguation problems of POS tagging and WSD.

2.1.1 Corpora, corpi and corpora

The aforementioned success of statistical methods in natural language processing would not have been possible without the existence of large amounts of machine-readable text from which statistical data could be collected. A compilation of naturally occurring linguistic phenomena in newspapers, literature, parliament acts, etc. is known as a *linguistic corpus*.

The compilation of raw text corpora is no longer a problem, since nowadays most documents, books and publications are written on a computer. But corpora have a higher linguistic value when they are *annotated*, that is, they contain not merely words, but also linguistic information on them (part-of-speech, syntax analysis, etc.).

Although some corpus compilation efforts were started in the 1960s, corpus linguistics has reached its highest popularity in recent years, mainly due to the success of statistical methods as well as to the increase in computational and storing capacity of computer systems.

When a corpus compilation project is started, some important issues must be taken into account.

First, whether the corpus should be balanced or not. This is an open question that has not found a definitive answer in years. As stated in [Church & Mercer 93], it comes down to a tradeoff between quantity and quality: While American industrial laboratories (e.g. IBM, ATT&T) tend to favour quantity, the BNC, NERC, and many dictionary publishers—specially in Europe—tend to favour quality. [Biber 93] claims for quality, since poor sampling methods or inappropriate assumptions can produce misleading results.

Second, which annotations will be included in the corpus, and how will be the annotation task performed. Automatic annotation introduces a certain amount of errors in the corpus, while manual annotation is very expensive in terms of human resources. Some research aiming to reduce the human effort when annotating training corpus is presented in [Engelson & Dagan 96]. It consists of algorithms which select the most informative samples that should be annotated to be later used in training. The same idea is present in the work by [Lehmann et al. 96], who developed a database containing positive and negative examples of different linguistic phenomena, so that a test or training corpus focused on a certain phenomena can be built at a low cost. See [Atkins et al. 92] for further information on corpus design and development.

The most well-known corpora are probably the Brown Corpus (BC) and the London-Oslo-Bergen corpus (LOB). The BC [Francis & Kučera 82] contains over a million words of American English and was tagged in 1979 using the TAGGIT tagger [Greene & Rubin 71] plus hand post-edition. The LOB corpus contains the same amount of British English and was also tagged in 1979.

Nowadays, corpora tend to be much larger, and are compiled mainly through projects and initiatives such as the Linguistic Data Consortium (LDC), the Consortium for Lexical Research (CLR), the Electronic Dictionary Research (EDR), the European Corpus Initiative (ECI) or the ACL's Data Collection Initiative (ACL/DCI).

Those associations provide corpora as the Wall Street Journal (WSJ, 300 million words of American English), the Hansard Corpus (bilingual corpus containing 6 years of Canadian Parliament sessions), the Lancaster Spoken English Corpus (SEC), the Longman/Lancaster English Language Corpus, the Nijmegen TOSCA corpus, the 200-million-word Bank of English corpus (BoE)—tagged using the ENGCG environment [Järvinen 94]—, or the 100-million-word

British National Corpus (BNC) tagged with the CLAWS tagger [Leech et al. 94]. Surveys on existing resources can be found in [Edwards 93, Wilks et al. 96].

Although most corpora limit their annotation level to part-of-speech tags, some offer higher level annotations and constitute an important source of knowledge for those researching in NLP. We find, for instance, syntactically analyzed corpora such as the Susanne corpus, the Penn Treebank (3 million words) [Marcus et al. 93] or the IBM/Lancaster treebank. Also, SemCor [Miller et al. 93] contains over 200,000 words of the Penn Treebank semantically disambiguated with WordNet synsets. A review of the state of art in using parsed corpora can be found in [Souter & Atwell 94].

Until a few years ago, the existing corpora were all of the English language. Nevertheless, the success and applicability of corpus in linguistics as well as in NLP, has raised a wide interest and caused its quick extension to other languages. For instance, the Trésor de la Langue Française (TLF) which contains 150 million words of written French, the LEXESP corpus [Acebo et al. 94, Cervell et al. 95] that will contain over 5 millions of balanced text in Spanish, or the CTILC, which compiles over 50 million words of modern Catalan. A good information source on Spanish lexical resources is [Instituto Cervantes 96].

2.1.2 Part-of-speech Tagging

POS tagging consists of assigning to each word of a sentence a part-of-speech tag which indicates the function of that word in that specific context. Although it depends on how fine-grained is the used tagset –which may vary from 20 to 500 tags–, it can be considered an easy task, since many words –between 80% and 90%– either have only one possible part-of-speech, or the context in which they appear restricts the choice to only one tag. But in the remaining percentage of cases, the ambiguity solution may be very difficult to find, many times requiring semantic or even common sense knowledge.

2.1.2.1 Some considerations on tagger evaluation and comparison

When evaluating the performance of any system, one must be very prudent, since a higher accuracy percentage does not necessarily mean a better tagging system. Thus, comparing taggers is not as straightforward as it might seem.

The factors that affect most the accuracy of a tagger are the tagset, and the way in which unknown words are handled. If the tagger uses a statistical model, the noise in the train and test corpus also plays a role in distorting the computation of the real tagger performance. This issue is further discussed in section 5.1.1.

The Tagset

With respect to the tagset, the main feature that concerns us is its granularity –which is directly related with its size–.

If the tagset is too coarse, the tagger accuracy will be much higher, since only important distinctions are considered and thus the task to perform is much easier, but the results would supply an excessively poor information.

If the tagset is too fine-grained, the tagger precision will be much lower, because the model will have to be much richer and so, more difficult to obtain and more likely to contain

flaws¹. In addition some very fine distinctions may not be solved on syntactic or context information only, but need semantic or even pragmatic knowledge.

Some samples of commonly used tagsets can be found in [Kren & Samuelsson 97], who classify the word level tags –such as POS tags– in two classes, according to the number of linguistic dimensions they specify:

- Single–dimension tags, which will usually contain the syntactic category of the word, such as **N**, **V**, **ADJ**, **DET**, etc. (*noun, verb, adjective, determiner, etc.*).
- Multiple–dimension tags, which incorporate additional word features such as gender, number, person, etc. For instance, the tag **VIP3S** could indicate that a word form is *verb, indicative, present, third person, singular*.
- Combination of separate multiple dimensions in sets or *readings*. As in Constraint Grammars formalism, a word would have a set of labels, each one containing information on a single linguistic feature. For instance, (**<SVO> V PRES -SG3 VFIN**) states that a word is *transitive, verb, present, non-third singular, finite*. This representation has the following advantages: it can be graded, that is, one can choose which features is interested in and ignore the others, and it also enables the introduction of new dimensions, as for instance syntactic roles or semantic information.

Some studies on the tagset size influence on a tagger results have been done. For instance, [Sánchez & Nieto 95] proposed a 479-tag tagset for using the Xerox tagger on Spanish, and later reduced it to 174 tags since the first proposal was considered too fine–grained for a probabilistic tagger. [Elworthy 94a] states that the tagset sizes (48 tags for Penn Treebank and 134 for LOB corpus) do not affect greatly to the behaviour patterns of the re-estimation algorithms. The work in [Briscoe et al. 94] is also related with this topic, since POS experiments on different languages (English, Dutch, French and Spanish), each with different corpus and tagset were tested and compared.

Handling Unknown Words

Another factor that can affect tagger accuracy is how are unknown words handled. The most usual methods are:

- Do not consider the possibility of unknown words. That is, assume a morphological analyzer which gives an analysis for any unknown word. This is usually simulated by analyzing all the words appearing in the used test corpus. Obviously this approach will tend to produce higher performance results, though it is in fact less robust than the following.
- Assume that unknown words may potentially take any tag –excluding those tags corresponding to closed categories (preposition, determiner, ...), which are considered to be all known–. Although this is more realistic than the previous method, it introduces more noise, and so the reported performance will be lower.

¹If the model is build manually, flaws will be caused by humans, who are error-prone proportionally to the complexity of the task. If it is build statistically, huge amounts of data are required to correctly estimate the model.

- Use available information to guess which are the candidate tags for a given unknown word. This is the most robust and powerful solution, and has been applied in different ways by several researchers. For instance, [Meteer et al. 91, Weischedel et al. 93] take into account inflectional and derivational endings as well as capitalization and hyphenation to guess the possible POS tags for a word, while [Adams & Neufeld 93] use a statistical model of fixed-length suffixes combined with capitalization features to guess the possibilities for unknown words. [Ren & Perrault 92] perform a frequency study of the cases when a word is *actually* unknown or when it is a typewriting error, and a thorough subclassification of each case is exposed. Machine learning techniques are also used to deal with unknown words: [Mikheev 96a, Mikheev 96b] learns morphological rules from a lexicon and a corpus using unsupervised statistical acquisition. These rules can later be applied to guess the possible tags for an unknown word. [Daelemans et al. 96a] uses example based learning to identify the possible categories for unknown words, and [Márquez & Rodríguez 98] apply a decision tree learning algorithm to acquire trees that can be later used to establish the categories of words not found in the lexicon.

2.1.2.2 Current methods for POS tagging

The existing NLP literature describes many methods and algorithms to reduce as much as possible the small percentage of cases in which the POS tag for a word has several possibilities, and even in those cases, to choose the most likely one. These methods can be classified in the three broad groups described at the beginning of section 2.1: linguistic, statistical and machine-learning family. See [Abney 96] for a clear survey on kinds of POS tagging techniques.

The Linguistic Approach

The linguistic approach consists of coding the necessary knowledge in a set of rules written by a linguist after introspection. Early systems performed rather bad for nowadays standards (below 80% accuracy), like the pioneer TAGGIT [Greene & Rubin 71] which was used to create the initial tagging of the Brown Corpus, which was then hand revised. Later came the work by the Nijmegen TOSCA group [Oostdijk 91], and more recently the development of Constraint Grammars [Karlsson et al. 95] and their application to POS tagging [Voutilainen 94], which can be considered the best existing tagger (99.3% accuracy is reported, though not all words are fully disambiguated). Constraint Grammars have also been used to morphologically disambiguate agglutinative languages as Basque [Aduriz et al. 95] or Turkish [Ofazer & Tür 97].

Although the linguistic approach produces high quality language models that yield good disambiguation results, it is a high time-consuming one since many years of human resources are required to develop a good language model.

The Statistical Approach

Another trend that seems to be the most extended at present –since it requires much less human effort– is the statistical approach: A statistical model of language is used to disambiguate the word sequence. The simplest model would be a most-likely-tag choice for each word. A successful model during the last years has been modelling the sequence of tags in a sentence as a Hidden Markov Model, and computing the most probable tag sequence given the word sequence. An accurate overview on the subject can be found in [Merialdo 94].

To obtain a statistical language model, one needs to estimate the model parameters, such as the probability that a certain word appears with a certain tag, or the probability that a tag is followed by another. This estimation is usually done by computing unigram, bigram or trigram frequencies on tagged corpora. The CLAWS system [Garside et al. 87], which was the probabilistic version of TAGGIT, used bigram information and was improved in [DeRose 88] by using dynamic programming. The tagger by [Church 88] used the Brown corpus as a training set to build a trigram model.

The corpora from which frequencies are estimated should be disambiguated by hand, in order to produce an accurate estimation. Although this requires also a big deal of human work, it is much less than in the previous approach and it is currently becoming less important, since many tagged corpora are available at a low or even zero cost. Although these corpora still contain tagging errors, they are a good enough starting point, and they are revised and improved in new releases.

To reduce the amount of hand tagged corpora needed to obtain such estimations, the Baum-Welch re-estimation algorithm [Baum 72] was used to improve an initial bigram model—obtained from a small tagged corpus, or even, invented by introspection—iterating over untagged data. A famous example is the Xerox tagger described in [Cutting et al. 92], which has been improved and adapted by a number of researchers. For instance, [Sánchez & Nieto 95] transported it to Spanish and enlarged it with an unknown words handler. The Baum-Welch algorithm has been also used in [Briscoe et al. 94], who experimented the utility of the algorithm on refining models for languages different than English and in [Elworthy 94a] where a thorough study of the conditions in which it is worth using the algorithm is presented.

Recent works [Jung et al. 96, Ng & Lee 96, Saul & Pereira 97] try to enlarge the range of the algorithms, that is, not to limit them to a fixed-order n -gram, but to be able to combine different order n -grams, statistical information on word morphology, long-distance n -grams [Huang et al. 93] or triggering pairs [Rosenfeld 94].

Other works that use a statistical-based approach are [Schmid 94a] which performs energy-function optimization using neural nets and [Ludwig 96] who disambiguates words on a morphological information basis—for very flexive languages where this is possible—.

Results produced by statistical taggers are really good, giving about 95%–97% of correctly tagged words. Some authors try to improve the results by using a set of context constraints which are applied to the results of the probabilistic tagger, and correct its most common errors. [Brill 92, Brill 95, Roche & Schabes 95, Aone & Hausman 96] use a simple most-likely tagger the output of which is corrected by a set of transformations automatically acquired by an error-driven algorithm. [Moreno-Torres 94] uses a bigram statistical tagger whose output is corrected by a set of linguist-written constraints.

There are also hybrid methods that use both knowledge based and statistical resources, such as that of [Tzoukermann et al. 95] or the research presented in this thesis [Padró 96a, Voutilainen & Padró 97, Márquez & Padró 97]. Comparative discussion on the advantages and disadvantages of linguistic and statistical based part-of-speech taggers can be found in [Chanod & Tapanainen 95, Samuelson & Voutilainen 97].

The main flaw of statistical taggers is the difficulty to accurately estimate the language model. Since the estimation is usually performed through *Maximum Likelihood Estimate*—that is, the probability assigned to each event is proportional to the number of times it

occurred in the training data, and since MLE does not waste any probability mass for events not appearing in the training corpus, the estimation may be more or less accurate when the model has a reduced number of parameters –e.g. a bigram model–, but it turns very inaccurate when the number of parameters grows, since the necessary amount of training data becomes too large. Then, the main problem encountered is the low or zero frequency events. The main techniques employed to deal with these problems are sketched below. Further details can be found in [Jelinek 89, Charniak 93, Manning & Schütze 96].

Dealing with insufficient data

The low or zero frequency events produce inaccurate estimations for the probability of events that happen scarcely in the training set, for instance, if event **A** is observed to happen once and event **B** to happen twice, the estimated probability would be double for **B** than for **A**, when this is not necessarily true.

The zero-frequency events problem is even worse, since zero probability is assigned to events not observed in the training corpus, when they are not necessarily *impossible* to happen.

Techniques to deal with scarce events may consist either of re-arranging the probability mass in order to keep a part of it for unobserved events, or of combining information from different sources, since only one source is not reliable. The most usual techniques are smoothing, backing-off and Maximum Entropy modelling, which include methods belonging to both kinds.

Smoothing. Smoothing can be done through count re-estimation methods such as Add-One –also known as Laplace’s law (1775)– or Good-Turing estimation [Good 53], or either by relying on lower-order data, that is, through linear interpolation (also called deleted interpolation).

Count re-estimation methods try to correct the false estimations of rare events by re-arranging the frequency countings before the estimation.

Add-One adds one to all frequencies, thus avoiding zeroes and reducing the proportion between rare happening events. Lidstone’s law is a variation of Laplace’s which adds not one but some smaller positive value λ .

Good-Turing redistributes the amount of observations to favour those events with less observations. Usually this redistribution is either smoothed or performed only on low-frequency events, because it produces unreliable results for high-frequency events. [Church & Gale 91] presents a comparison of Add-One and Good-Turing techniques.

Other methods are those proposed by [Ney & Essen 93] who present two alternative models for discounting frequencies, in order to distribute them among unseen events, and by [Schmid 94b] who estimates n-gram probabilities using decision trees.

Smoothing through linear interpolation [Bahl et al 83, Bahl et al 89] is performed by computing the probability of an event as the weighted average of the estimated probabilities for its sub-events. For instance, the smoothed probability of a trigram could be computed as the weighted average of the estimated probability for the trigram itself, and for the corresponding bigram and unigram, that is,

$$P_s(x_n|x_{n-1}, x_{n-2}) = \lambda_1 P_1(x_n) + \lambda_2 P_2(x_n|x_{n-1}) + \lambda_3 P_3(x_n|x_{n-1}, x_{n-2}),$$

where the optimal values for λ_i are usually computed with the Estimation Maximization (EM) algorithm [Dempster et al. 77].

Backing-off. It is also possible to combine information from different sources in the style of [Katz 87]. This is called *back-off*, and consists of using the MLE estimation if the event has appeared at least k times. Otherwise, the probability of the lower order event is used. For instance, if a trigram has occurred less than k times, the corresponding bigram probability would be used, provided the bigram has appeared k or more times. If it has not, the unigram probability would be used. While linear interpolation consists of combining several sources giving a different weight to each one, backing-off chooses the best one among the available information sources. It can be seen as a particular case of linear interpolation where the λ_i are all zero but the one corresponding to the higher order history that has more than k observations, which is set to 1.

Maximum Entropy Estimate. A recent approach which solves the scarce data problem is Maximum Entropy Estimate, which on the contrary than MLE, assume maximum ignorance (i.e. uniform distribution, maximum entropy) and observed events tend to lower the model entropy. Under this approach, unobserved events do not have zero probability, but the maximum they can given the observations. That is, the model does not assume anything that has not been specified.

In classical MLE approaches each knowledge source was used separately to build a model, and those models were then combined. Under the Maximum Entropy approach, the model is build already combined, and attempts to capture the information provided by each knowledge source.

Each information source is seen as defining a *constraint* on the model stating that the *average* combined probability for an event equals its *desired expectation*, usually computed from the training data.

That is, we have a set of constraints on the probabilities of each event much weaker than those that would have been obtained by MLE, which would have asserted that the probability of an event must equal its *desired expectation*, not in average, but always.

Once the constraints are established, the Generalized Iterative Scaling algorithm (GIS) is used to compute the values for the event probabilities that satisfy all constraints, that is, to obtain a combined probabilistic model. If the constraints are consistent, a unique solution –i.e. an unique probability distribution– is guaranteed to exist and the GIS algorithm is proven to converge to it [Darroch & Ratcliff 72].

Summarizing, the Maximum Entropy Principle [Jaines 57, Kullback 59] can be stated as follows:

1. Formulate the different information sources as constraints that must be satisfied by the target combined estimate.
2. Among all probability distributions that satisfy the constraints, choose the one with highest entropy.

The advantages of the Maximum entropy approach over MLE are the following:

- The MLE models provided by different information sources are usually inconsistent, the reconciliation needed to combine them is achieved by averaging their answers (linear interpolation) or by choosing one of them (back-off). Maximum Entropy approach

eliminates the inconsistency because it imposes weaker conditions on each information source.

- ME is simple and intuitive. It assumes nothing but the constituent constraints.
- The ME approach is very general. Probability for any event can be computed, and many kinds of constraints can be incorporated, such as long distance dependencies, or complicated correlations.
- The information in already existing statistical language models can be absorbed into the ME estimate.
- The GIS algorithm is incrementally adaptive, that is, new constraints can be added at any time. Old constraints can be maintained or allowed to relax.
- An unique ME solution is guaranteed to exist, and the GIS algorithm to converge to it.

The main drawbacks of this approach are:

- The GIS algorithm is computationally expensive.
- There is no theoretical bound to GIS algorithm convergence rate.
- If inconsistent constraints are used the existence, uniqueness and convergence theorems may not hold.

As a summary, we can say that ME approach avoids the problems that raise from the low-frequency events when using MLE, and that it builds a model which correctly combines information provided by different knowledge sources. This issue is closely related to the work presented in this thesis, since it also describes a method to combine different sources of knowledge.

For further details on the ME approach, see [Lau et al. 93, Rosenfeld 94, Ristad 97].

The Machine-Learning Approach

The third family is represented by authors who use learning algorithms which acquire a language model from a training corpus, in such a way that the learned model includes more sophisticated information than a n-gram model: For instance, [Màrquez & Padró 97, Màrquez & Rodríguez 97] learn statistical decision trees from a tagged corpora. A similar idea is that of [Daelemans et al. 96a] who use an example-based learning technique and a distance measure to decide which of the previously learned examples is more similar to the word to be tagged. The same idea is used in [Matsukawa et al. 93], but the learned examples are used there to correct the most frequent errors made by a Japanese word segmentator. [Samuelson et al. 96] acquires Constraint Grammars from tagged corpora taking into account the tags that appear between pairs of tags which never occur consecutive in training corpora. The above referenced [Brill 92, Brill 95] can also be considered as belonging to this group, since the algorithm automatically learns the series of transformations which best repair the most common errors made by a most-likely-tag tagger. A variant of his method is used by [Ofazer & Tür 96], who present a hybrid system which combines hand-written Constraint Grammars with automatically acquired Brill-like error-driven constraints.

2.1.3 Semantic Tagging: Word Sense Disambiguation

Word sense disambiguation (or word sense selection) consists of, given a sentence, assigning to each content word a sense label indicating which is the right meaning for the word in that context.

The above definition for the WSD task leaves open the question of how and what should sense labels be. The problem here is similar to that of tagset granularity on POS tagging, since we can select as sense labels a very coarse division, such as a *topic* or *area* identifier, or a very fine-grained division such as a pointer to a sense entry in a Machine Readable Dictionary (MRD) or in a word taxonomy.

If we choose a coarse division, the disambiguation task would be easier, but some slight sense distinctions will be lost. For instance, if we choose that that word *host* has three possible senses: $\langle person \rangle$, $\langle life-form \rangle$ and $\langle horde \rangle$, we will not be able to distinguish between the $\langle master-of-ceremonies \rangle$ and the $\langle innkeeper \rangle$ senses, which will both be subsumed under the $\langle person \rangle$ label. On the other hand, if we choose very fine-grained sense labels –as usual MRD entries are–, some ambiguities will be unsolvable, as for instance, the difference between the senses $\langle interior-designer \rangle$ and $\langle ornamentalist \rangle$ for word *decorator*.

Semantic labels sets can range from a few dozens to thousands of tags. For instance, there would be 11 different possible semantic categories for nouns and 573 for verbs if the sense labels were chosen to be WordNet top synsets², and 26 for nouns and 15 for verbs if the chosen labels were WN file codes. The Roget's International Thesaurus [Chapman 77] distinguishes 1,042 thematic categories. Finally, if we chose as sense labels the WordNet synset codes, there would be 60,557 possible noun semantic classes and 11,363 for verbs.

The variability in the sense granularity is an issue that makes it very difficult to compare the accuracy of different sense disambiguation systems, but there are other factors which make the performance reported by different systems to vary greatly. Those factors include in the first place the kind of knowledge used and the source from which it is obtained –it would seem logical that the performance of a system using statistically knowledge acquired in an unsupervised way was much lower than that of system based on hand-coded semantic knowledge–. Second, the amount of context considered by the disambiguation technique used to apply that knowledge –no context at all, local context, full context, ...–. And third, how is the system evaluation performed –over all words, over words in a certain syntactical category (e.g. nouns), over a chosen subset of words, ...–. Some steps have been done [Gale et al. 92b, Miller et al. 94] towards establishing a common baseline for enabling WSD systems comparison.

A broad classification of the currently existing systems considered from the point of view of the kind of knowledge they use are the linguistic or knowledge-based, the statistical, and the hybrid families.

The Knowledge-Based Approach

Methods in the first family are those which rely on linguistic knowledge, which is usually obtained through lexicographer introspection [Hirst 87].

This knowledge may take the form of a Machine Readable Dictionary (MRD), as in the case of [Lesk86], who proposes a method for guessing the right sense in a given context by

²WordNet [Miller et al. 91] is a concept hierarchy, where each sense is represented by a set of synonym words (a *synset*). In addition, synsets are grouped in thematic files, each one with its own *file code*.

counting word overlaps between dictionary definitions, or [Cowie et al. 92], who use the same idea but avoiding the combinatory explosion by using simulated annealing. Dictionary definitions are also used by [Guthrie et al. 91] to collect lists of salient words for each subject semantic code of words in LDOCE³. The co-occurrence data acquired in this way were later used by [Wilks et al. 93] to construct context word vectors for each word and for each sense. [Harley 94, Harley & Glennon 97] present a multi-tagger, which combines different information sources (POS, domain, collocations, ...) contained in the completely coded *Cambridge International Dictionary of English* (CIDE), to assign to each word an unique entry in the dictionary, and thus disambiguating it at several levels (POS, sense, lemma, ...).

Nevertheless, since dictionaries –even when they are machine readable– are intended for human users, they contain loosely structured knowledge which often relies on common sense. Thus, if we want a computer system to use that knowledge, it is necessary to extract the knowledge contained in the MRD and put it in a more tightly structured format. Works relating to this kind of knowledge extraction are described in [Dolan et al. 93, Wilks et al. 93, Rigau 97].

Another possibility is the use of knowledge not from a human-oriented source such as a MRD, but in the form of a thesaurus or a conceptual taxonomy such as WordNet [Miller et al. 91]. For instance, [Cucchiarelli & Velardi 97] use a thesaurus obtained by selecting from WordNet a subset of domain-appropriate categories that reduce WordNet overambiguity. The work presented in [Atserias et al. 97] uses different unsupervised lexical methods –which handle sources including monolingual and bilingual dictionaries– to link each sense in a language other than English to an unique WordNet synset, in order to enable the automatic construction of multilingual WordNets.

The taxonomy can be used directly, as a lexical source, or else taking advantage of the lexical relationships encoded in the hierarchy. [Sussna 93] measures the *conceptual distance* between senses to improve precision during document indexing, assuming that co-occurring words will tend to have close senses in the taxonomy. The idea is extended to the notion of *conceptual density* by [Agirre & Rigau 95, Agirre & Rigau 96], who instead of minimizing pairwise sense distance, try to maximize the density of the senses for all words in the sentence. [Rigau 94] presents a methodology to enrich dictionary senses with semantic tags extracted from WN, using a conceptual distance measure.

The Statistical Approach

The second broad group uses knowledge obtained from statistical processing of corpora either tagged (supervised training) or untagged (unsupervised training). Most of the systems rely on unsupervised training, since semantically annotated corpora are generally less available than corpora with other kinds of annotation.

The collected statistics can be lexical statistics –such as mutual information, relative entropy, or merely frequencies of words and senses–, or lexical distributions, i.e. computing and comparing distribution of senses respect to a context –generally word forms–.

Among the unsupervised techniques, we find the work by [Brown et al. 91], who extracted a statistical model from the bilingual Hansard Corpus, and by [Yarowsky 92], who collects word classes co-occurrences from unsupervised corpus, under the assumption that *the signal overcomes the noise*. Although [Schütze 92] uses unannotated data for training, his model

³LDOCE stands for *Longman's Dictionary Of Contemporary English*.

acquisition procedure is not completely unsupervised: After the context vector based automatic generation of clusters from corpus co-occurrence data, a manual post-process to assign each sense to a cluster is performed. In [Schütze & Pedersen 95] the idea is extended with the use of second-order co-occurrences, context vectors are automatically clustered in classes representing word senses, and word occurrences are disambiguated by assigning them to their closest cluster.

On the side of the supervised methods, [Gale et al. 92a, Gale et al. 93] –following the idea of [Dagan et al. 91] which states that *two languages are better than one*– use the bilingual Hansard Corpus and consider the French translation of a word as a semantic tag, assuming that different senses will correspond to different French words, thus the Hansard Corpus can be seen as semantically disambiguated. Obviously this does not hold for all words, so experiments are limited to some specific words.

Another important feature of statistical based systems is the amount of context they consider when acquiring or applying the statistical model. From this point of view, we find the whole range of possibilities, from no context at all to considering all the document as relevant context for each word.

Some methods use no context at all, such as [Gale et al. 92b, Miller et al. 94] who describe two baseline benchmarks based on no context information (guessing and most likely) and one based on very local co-occurrence information.

Methods which rely on local context information are those which consider only the words in a small window (5 to 10 words) or in the same sentence than the focus word. The underlying idea in this approach is stated in [Yarowsky 93] as the *one sense per collocation* principle: *the same words are likely to have the same meanings if they occur in similar local contexts*. Some authors using this idea are [Bruce & Wiebe 94a, Bruce & Wiebe 94b], who decompose the probabilistic model that would result of taking several local context features (morphological, collocation, POS, ...) as interdependent, and [Pedersen & Bruce 97] who compare three statistical language model acquisition algorithms, using either local or global context features. [Lin 97] uses also local features, but converting Yarowsky's *one sense per collocation* principle to a more flexible version: *different words are likely to have similar meanings if they occur in identical local contexts*. This adaptation enables disambiguating the sense of a word, even though one has not collected its typical contexts, by using the contexts of similar senses.

Finally, some methods rely on global context information, which corresponds to the *one sense per discourse* principle [Gale et al. 92a]. For instance, [Yarowsky 92, Gale et al. 93] compute the salient words vector for each class on a global context basis. [Yarowsky 95], who relies in both *one sense per collocation* and *one sense per discourse* principles, uses an unsupervised incremental algorithm to classify occurrences of a given word in one of its possible classes. The algorithm consists of a cycling corpus-based procedure which collects local context features (basically salient words lists) which can later be used for WSD.

A comparison between different statistical methods can be found in [Leacock et al. 95]: Bayesian, neural networks, and content vectors are compared at performing word sense disambiguation.

Hybrid Approaches

The last group includes those methods which mix statistical and linguistic knowledge. The current trend is to combine one or more lexical knowledge sources –either structured or non-structured– such as corpora, MRDs, Lexical Knowledge Bases, thesauri, taxonomies, etc.,

with exploitation techniques which usually consist of different similarity or distance measures between lexical units.

For instance, [Liddy & Paik 92] use LDOCE subject semantic codes and the WSJ corpus for computing a subject-code correlation matrix which is later used for word sense disambiguation. [Karov & Edelman 96] describe a system which learns from a corpus a set of typical usages for each word sense, using as training contexts those of the words appearing in the sense definition in an MRD. Newly appearing occurrences are compared with the training data using a similarity function.

Although the learning algorithm described in [Yarowsky 95] is of statistical nature, he points out that it is useful using MRD definitions to collect the seed words needed to start the iterative acquisition procedure.

There is also the approach of [Ribas 95], who uses WordNet as a lexical resource, combined with an association ratio based algorithm, to automatically extract selectional restrictions from corpora, which are then used to disambiguate the noun senses that are heads of verb complement phrases. [Resnik 93, Resnik 95a, Richardson et al. 94, Resnik 95b] present a method for automatic WSD based on an information content measure. The similarity between two classes is computed as the information content of their lowest common hyperonym in WordNet hierarchy. The information content of a class is proportional to its occurrence probability, which is estimated from a corpus.

The work by [Peh & Ng 97] presents the combination the mapping of a domain-specific hierarchy onto WordNet with semantic distance metrics to get a wide-coverage method for disambiguating semantic classes.

A multi-resource combination system is that of [Rigau et al. 97], who combine several heuristics –most of them statistical, but knowledge based lexical resources such as WordNet are also used– in a weighting approach to disambiguate word senses. The used techniques and lexical resources range from naive most-likely sense assignation to content vector representations built from MRDs, through different similarity measures.

Other methods that may be considered hybrid are those that combine more or less sophisticated lexical resources with machine learning algorithms, to automatically derive a language model oriented to WSD. Samples of this approach are the work by [Siegel 97], who uses machine learning algorithms to acquire a model capable of classifying verbs as *state* or *event*, or by [Mooney 96], who compares seven classical learning algorithms (including neural nets, statistical techniques and decision-trees) at the task of disambiguating among six senses for the word *line*, using local context information. [Ng & Lee 96] presents an example-based system which acquires a model that integrates different knowledge sources, including POS tags, morphology, word co-occurrences, and verb-object syntactic relationships.

2.2 Optimization Techniques in NLP

In this section we will overview the optimization techniques most commonly used in Artificial Intelligence, and summarize how have they been applied to natural language processing.

We understand by *optimization* any technique that leads to maximize/minimize an – either explicit or implicit– objective function. We can find gradient step or mathematical programming in any classical Operational Research course, or approaches as neural nets or

genetic algorithms in more recent works. See [Gu 94] for a review on different optimization algorithms.

Although optimization techniques have not been applied to NLP in a generalized way, we can find several uses in the literature, which had represented a great success in the field, such as those of [DeRose 88] who optimized the speed of [Garside et al. 87] tagger by means of dynamic programming –which is more or less the same that the well-known Viterbi algorithm [Viterbi 67] does–, the use of simulated annealing to disambiguate word senses in [Cowie et al. 92], the neural net POS tagger in [Schmid 94a], or the paraphrasing algorithm in [Dras 97].

We find a more extended use of optimization algorithms for model estimation. For instance, the well known Baum-Welch algorithm [Baum 72] used in [Kupiec 92, Elworthy 94a], or the Expectation Maximization (EM) algorithm [Dempster et al. 77] commonly used to perform linear interpolation smoothing, or as in the case of [Pedersen & Bruce 97], to disambiguate word senses.

The recent Maximum Entropy approach can also be considered as using optimization methods, since the GIS algorithm used to select the most appropriate probability distribution, is actually a maximization algorithm to pick the maximum entropy model.

2.2.1 Neural Nets

Neural nets are models that rely on the interaction between a large number of simple computing units (neurons) connected to other units in the net. When a neuron is *active*, it causes a neighbour cell to become active provided that the neuron activity level is high enough, and that the link that connects them has enough *weight* or *strength*.

Neural nets were originally developed to model human brain physiology, and soon were found to have interesting computing capabilities. Neural nets are energy-function optimizers that can be trained to learn a task consisting of producing a certain output when supplied a certain input. When properly trained, neural nets have generalization abilities, that is, they are able to generate the right output when faced to a never seen input.

Knowledge is stored in neural nets in the form of link weights. When an input is presented, the produced output depends on how is this input propagated through the net, which is obviously a function of the link weights. Thus, training a neural net consists of computing the right weight for each link. This is usually done through an iterative error minimization algorithm, such as the well known *backpropagation* algorithm.

Those interested in neural nets, can find further introductory information to the field in the books by [McLelland & Rumelhart 84, Kosko 90].

Due to their learning abilities, and to the success obtained in other fields, neural nets have been applied to NLP by several authors. The most widely used are feed-forward nets. But since they can process only fixed-length input, recurrent neural nets [Elman 88] –which do not present this restriction– are more commonly used in NLP.

Some general reviews on this area can be found in [Reilly & Sharkey 92, Miikkulainen 93, Feldman 93]. Some sample systems are those of [Schmid 94a], who performs POS tagging using a feed-forward net, or [Wermter 95] which describes a symbolic-connectionist hybrid system. [Lawrence et al. 95] perform grammatical inference –in fact, the net learns to distinguish grammatical sentences, although no grammar is inferred–, and [Collier 96] uses Hopfield networks to store and recall patterns of natural language sentences.

2.2.2 Genetic Algorithms

Genetic algorithms are also energy function optimizers. They are based on the idea that *evolution* and *natural selection* produce solutions which are optimally adapted to the environment.

One starts with a population of random solutions –or almost random to save convergence time–. Solutions are coded as a sequence of features or *genes*, all possible values of which should be present in the starting population. The solutions are combined in pairs (or any order reproduction groups) to create new solutions that will have features (genes) from both (or all) of their parents. Only the best solutions (the *fittest* ones) are allowed to survive and procreate. The fitness of a solution is evaluated through a *fitness function*. This kind of *natural selection* leads to an improvement of the solution population generation after generation, until it reaches an optimum. Mutation can also be included as small random changes in descendance genes to avoid local optima.

For further details on Genetic Algorithms techniques and their applications see the books by [Holland 92, Goldberg 89]

Genetic algorithms have also been used in NLP, though to a much minor extent than neural nets. For instance, [Smith & Witten 95] used genetic algorithms to perform grammatical inference from a set of sample sentences.

2.2.3 Simulated Annealing

Simulated annealing is an optimization algorithm which is based on metal annealing processes seen from the point of view of statistical mechanics.

The process starts with a high temperature, which causes the current state to be unstable, and very likely to change. The state is changed always in the maximum gain direction, but the temperature component can make it change in a more random way. As the temperature decreases and the solution approaches the optimum, the random component is less and less important.

Simulated annealing obeys the Boltzmann distribution which has been proven to lead to a global optimum if the temperature decrease is slow enough. Further details on its relationship with relaxation processes and Boltzmann machines can be found in [Aarts & Korst 87]. In [Kirkpatrick et al. 83] one can find more about the optimization properties of simulated annealing.

The work by [Cowie et al. 92, Wilks & Stevenson 97] describes the application of simulated annealing to perform WSD. Nevertheless, they use as compatibility constraints only the dictionary definition overlap for possible senses. Simulated annealing is in fact –as described in chapter 3– a particular case of discrete relaxation labelling, thus, more complex compatibility constraints –linguistically motivated, statistically acquired, multi-feature, etc.– could be used with that algorithm.

2.2.4 Relaxation Labelling

Relaxation is a generic name for a family of iterative algorithms which perform function optimization, based on local information. They are closely related to neural nets [Torras 89] and gradient step [Larrosa & Meseguer 95b].

Although relaxation operations had been long used in engineering fields to solve systems of equations [Southwell 40], they did not get their biggest success until their extension to symbolic domain –relaxation labelling– was applied to constraint propagation field, specially in low-level vision problems [Waltz 75, Rosenfeld et al. 76].

From our point of view, relaxation labelling is a technique that can be used to solve consistent labelling problems (CLPs) –see [Larrosa & Meseguer 95a]–. A consistent labelling problem consists of, given a set of variables, assigning to each variable a value compatible with the values of the other ones, satisfying –to the maximum possible extent– a set of compatibility constraints. Algorithms to solve consistent labelling problems and their complexity are studied in [Nudel 83].

In the Artificial Intelligence field, relaxation has been mainly used in computer vision –since it is where it was first used– to address problems such as corner and edge recognition or line and image smoothing [Lloyd 83, Richards et al. 81]. Nevertheless, many traditional AI problems can be stated as a labelling problem: the travelling salesman problem, n-queens, or any other combinatorial problem [Aarts & Korst 87].

The utility of the algorithm to perform NLP tasks was pointed out in [Pelillo & Refice 94, Pelillo & Maffione 94], where POS tagging was used as a toy problem to test their methods to improve the computation of constraint compatibility coefficients for relaxation processes. Nevertheless, the first application to a real NLP problems, on unrestricted text is the work presented in this thesis, and published in [Padró 96a, Padró 96b, Màrquez & Padró 97, Voutilainen & Padró 97], which in addition enables the use of multi-feature constraints coming from different sources.

Chapter 3

Application of Relaxation Labelling to NLP

This chapter discusses the use of the relaxation labelling algorithm to perform NLP tasks. To enable the application of relaxation labelling, the language model must be described in terms of algorithm elements –variables, labels, constraints, etc.–. In our case, the words in the sentence to disambiguate will be represented as variables, and the possible values for certain linguistic features (POS, sense, etc.) will correspond to their labels.

Although –as pointed out in chapter 1– relaxation labelling has been mainly used in fields other than NLP (engineering, computer vision, . . .), some researchers in optimization techniques [Pelillo & Refice 94, Pelillo & Maffione 94] have used POS tagging as a toy problem to experiment their methods to improve the performance of relaxation labelling. They used a 1000-word test corpus, and only binary constraints, which was enough to their purposes of testing a method for estimating constraint compatibility values. In our case, the aim is POS tagging itself, so we will have to use more sophisticated information and larger corpora.

We will describe the relaxation labelling algorithm from a general point of view in section 3.1. Afterwards, in section 3.2 we will explain which ones among the described parameterizations were selected as the most suitable for our purposes, and discuss some problems related to the convergence of the algorithm. Finally, in section 3.3, we will consider different ways to obtain the constraints needed to feed the algorithm.

3.1 Algorithm Description

In this section the relaxation algorithm is described from a general point of view. Its application to NLP tasks will be discussed in section 3.2.

Let $V = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_N\}$ be a set of variables.

Let $T_i = \{t_1^i, t_2^i, \dots, t_{m_i}^i\}$ be the set of possible labels for variable v_i (where m_i is the number of different labels that are possible for v_i).

Let C be a set of constraints between the labels of the variables. Each constraint is a “compatibility value” for a combination of pairs variable–label. For instance, the constraint

$$0.53 \quad [(v_1, A)(v_3, B)]$$

states that the combination of variable v_1 having label A , and variable v_3 having label B has a compatibility value of 0.53. Constraints can be of any order, so we can define the compatibility value for combinations of any number of variables (obviously we can have combinations of at most N variables).

The aim of the algorithm is to find a *weighted labelling* such that *global consistency* is maximized.

A *weighted labelling* is a weight assignation for each possible label of each variable:

$P = (p^1, p^2, \dots, p^N)$ where each p^i is a vector containing a weight for each possible label of v_i , that is: $p^i = (p_1^i, p_2^i, \dots, p_{m_i}^i)$

Since relaxation is an iterative process, when the time step is relevant, we will note the weight for label j of variable i at time n as $p_j^i(n)$. When the time step is not relevant, we will note it as p_j^i .

Maximizing *global consistency* is defined as maximizing for each variable v_i , ($1 \leq i \leq N$), the average support for that variable, which is defined as the weighted sum of the support received by each of its possible labels, that is:

$$\sum_{j=1}^{m_i} p_j^i \times S_{ij}$$

where p_j^i is the weight for label j of variable v_i and S_{ij} is the support received by that pair from the context. The support for the pair variable–label expresses *how compatible* that pair is with the labels of neighbouring variables, according to the constraint set (see section 3.1.1).

The performed *global consistency* maximization is a vector optimization. It does not maximize –as one might think– the sum of the supports of all variables. It finds a weighted labelling such that any other choice would not increase the support for *any* variable given –of course– that such a labelling exists. If such a labelling does not exist, the algorithm will end in a local maximum.

The relaxation algorithm consists of:

- start in a random labelling P_0 .
- for each variable, compute the “support” that each label receives from the current weights for the labels of the other variables (i.e. see how compatible is the current weighting with the current weightings of the other variables, given the set of constraints).
- Update the weight of each variable label according to the support obtained by each of them (that is, increase weight for labels with high support, and decrease weight for those with low support).
- iterate the process until a convergence criterion is met.

The support computing and weight changing must be performed in parallel, to avoid that changing a weight for a label would affect the support computation of the others.

We could summarize this algorithm saying that at each time step, a variable changes its label weights depending on how compatible is that label with the labels of the other variables

at that time step. If the constraints are consistent, this process converges to a state where each variable has weight 1 for one of its labels and weight 0 for all the others.

Note that the *global consistency* idea –defined as the maximization of the average support received by each variable from the context– makes the algorithm robust, since the problem of having mutually incompatible constraints (so one can not find a combination of label assignments which satisfies all the constraints) is solved because relaxation does not (necessarily) find an exclusive combination of labels, that is, an unique label for each variable, but a weight for each possible label such that consistency is maximized (the constraints are satisfied to the maximum possible degree).

Advantages of the algorithm are:

- Its highly local character (each variable can compute its new label weights given only the state at previous time step). This makes the algorithm highly parallelizable (we could have a processor to compute the new label weights for each variable, or even a processor to compute the weight for each label of each variable).
- Its expressiveness, since we state the problem in terms of constraints between variable labels.
- Its flexibility, we do not have to check absolute consistency of constraints.
- Its robustness, since it can give an answer to problems without an exact solution (incompatible constraints, insufficient data, ...)
- Its ability to find locally optimal solutions to NP problems in a non-exponential time (Only if we have an upper bound for the number of iterations, i.e. convergence is fast or the algorithm is stopped after a fixed number of iterations).

Drawbacks of the algorithm are:

- Its cost. Being N the number of variables, v the average number of possible labels per variable, c the average number of constraints per label, and I the average number of iterations until convergence, the average cost is $N \times v \times c \times I$, that is, it depends linearly on N , but for a problem with many labels and constraints, or if convergence is not quickly achieved, the multiplying terms might be much bigger than N .
- Since it acts as an approximation of gradient step algorithms, it has their typical convergence problems: Found optima are local, and convergence is not guaranteed, since the chosen step might be too large for the function to optimize.
- In general, constraints must be written manually, since they are the modelling of the problem. This is good for easy-to-model domains or reduced constraint-set problems, but in the case of POS tagging or WSD constraint are too many and too complicated to be written by hand.
- The difficulty to state which is the *compatibility value* for each constraint. If we deal with combinatorial problems with an exact solution (e.g. travelling salesman), the constraints will be all fully compatible (e.g. stating that it is possible to go to any city from any other) or fully incompatible (e.g. stating that it is not possible to be twice in

the same city). But if we try to model more sophisticated or less exact problems (such as POS tagging) things will not be black or white. We will have to assign a compatibility value to each constraint.

- The difficulty to choose the support and updating functions more suitable for each particular problem.

3.1.1 Support Function

The relaxation labelling algorithm requires a way to compute which is the support for a variable label given the constraints and the current label weights for the other variables. This is called the *support function* and it is the heart of the algorithm, since it is closely related to what will be maximized.

To define the support received by a variable label from its context, we have to combine the individual influences of each constraint that can be applied for that pair in the current context. So, we will define $Inf(r, i, j)$ as the influence of a constraint r on label j for variable i . Its formal definition requires some previous steps:

DEF: Constraint. A constraint r consists of a compatibility value C_r and its associated set of pairs variable–label. The compatibility values can be restricted to a certain interval (e.g. $[0, 1]$, $[-1, 1]$, $[0, +\infty]$...), or not restricted at all.

A constraint expresses a how compatible is a given combination of variable labels. It can be written as follows:

$$C_r \quad [(v_{i_1}, t_{j_1}^{i_1}), \dots, (v_{i_{n_r}}, t_{j_{n_r}}^{i_{n_r}})]$$

$$\text{where } 1 \leq i_1, \dots, i_{n_r} \leq N \text{ and} \\ 1 \leq j_k \leq m_{i_k} \text{ for } k = 1 \dots n_r$$

where n_r is the constraint *degree*, that is, the number of pairs variable–label it involves, and $(v_{i_1}, t_{j_1}^{i_1}), \dots, (v_{i_{n_r}}, t_{j_{n_r}}^{i_{n_r}})$ are the pairs involved in the constraint.

For simplicity we will note label j for variable i as t_j instead of t_j^i , since the variable i which the label is applied to is already present in the pair. The previous constraint will then be expressed as:

$$C_r \quad [(v_{i_1}, t_{j_1}), \dots, (v_{i_{n_r}}, t_{j_{n_r}})]$$

DEF: Context weight. Obviously, the influence of a constraint on a given variable label is zero if the constraint does not include the pair variable–label. (i.e. that constraint is not applied). Then, constraints that have an influence on a given pair (v_i, t_j) are only those that include that pair, i.e., those of the form:

$$C_r \quad [(v_{i_1}, t_{j_1}), \dots, (v_i, t_j), \dots, (v_{i_{n_r}}, t_{j_{n_r}})]$$

We define the *context weight* for a constraint and a pair variable–label $W(r, i, j)$ as the product of the current weights for the labels appearing in the constraint except (v_i, t_j) , or, if preferred, as though the weight for that label was 1.

The *context weight* states *how applicable* the constraint is given the current context of (v_i, t_j) . The *constraint compatibility value* C_r states *how compatible* the pair is with the context.

Being $p_q^s(n)$ the weight assigned to label t_q for variable v_s at time n , the context weight is:

$$W(r, i, j) = p_{j_1}^{i_1}(n) \times \dots \times p_{j_{n_r}}^{i_{n_r}}(n)$$

where $p_j^i(n)$ is not included in the product.

DEF: Constraint Influence. Once we have defined the constraint compatibility values and the context weight, we can define the influence of a constraint on the pair (v_i, t_j) as:

$$Inf(r, i, j) = C_r \times W(r, i, j)$$

DEF: Support. Once we have computed the influence for each constraint on the given label of a variable, we can compute the total support received by that label combining the influences of all constraints.

Several support functions are used in the literature, depending on the problem addressed, to define the support S_{ij} received by label j of variable i . Different support functions correspond to different ways of combining constraint influences. See [Kittler & Föglein 86] for further details on different possible support functions.

- The first formula computes the support for a label adding the influences obtained from each constraints. Depending on the nature of the compatibility values, support values may be *negative* indicating *incompatibility*. This point is discussed in section 3.2.3.

$$S_{ij} = \sum_r Inf(r, i, j) \quad (3.1)$$

- Another possible formula is adding the influences of constraints which involve exactly the same variables and multiplying the results afterwards.

$$S_{ij} = \prod_{G \in \mathcal{P}(V)} \sum_{r \in G} Inf(r, i, j) \quad (3.2)$$

where $\mathcal{P}(V)$ is the set of all possible subsets of V (the set of variables).

- And finally, we can also pick the maximum of the influences of constraints which involve the same variables and multiply the results afterwards.

$$S_{ij} = \prod_{G \in \mathcal{P}(V)} \max_{r \in G} Inf(r, i, j) \quad (3.3)$$

3.1.2 Updating Function

The algorithm also needs to compute which is the new weight for a variable label, and this computation must be done in such a way that it can be proven to meet a certain convergence criterion, at least under appropriate conditions¹ [Zucker et al. 78, Zucker et al. 81, Hummel & Zucker 83].

¹Convergence has been proven under certain conditions, but in a complex application such as POS tagging we will find cases where it is not necessarily achieved.

This is called the *updating function* and it is used to compute and normalize the new weights for each possible label.

Several formulas have been proposed [Rosenfeld et al. 76], and some of them have been proven to be approximations of a gradient step algorithm.

The updating formulas must increase the weight associated with labels with a higher support, and decrease those of labels with lower support. This is achieved by multiplying the current weight of a label by a factor depending on the support received by that label. Normalization is performed in order that the weights for all the labels of a variable add up to one.

Although *ad-hoc* updating functions can be used, as in [Deng & Iyengar 96], the most commonly used formulas are the following:

- This formula increases the weight for a label when S_{ij} is positive and decreases it when S_{ij} is negative. Values for S_{ij} must be in $[-1, 1]$.

$$p_j^i(n+1) = \frac{p_j^i(n) \times (1 + S_{ij})}{\sum_{k=1}^{m_i} p_k^i(n) \times (1 + S_{ik})} \quad (3.4)$$

- This formula increases the weight when $S_{ij} > 1$ and decreases it when $S_{ij} < 1$. Values for S_{ij} must be in $[-1, +\infty]$.

$$p_j^i(n+1) = \frac{p_j^i(n) \times S_{ij}}{\sum_{k=1}^{m_i} p_k^i(n) \times S_{ik}} \quad (3.5)$$

Since the support values S_{ij} are computed using the constraint compatibility values C_r , which may be unbounded, they do not necessarily belong to the intervals required by any of the above updating functions. Even in the case that the C_r were bounded, if the support computation used was additive (3.1 or 3.2), the final support result would not be guaranteed to be in the required interval.

Thus, it will be necessary to normalize the final support value for each label, in order to fit in the appropriate interval. This issue is further discussed in section 3.2.4.

- The following formula is also used as an updating function:

$$p_j^i(n+1) = \frac{e^{S_{ij}/T}}{\sum_{k=1}^{m_i} e^{S_{ik}/T}} \quad (3.6)$$

where T is a temperature parameter which decreases at each time step. The labelling is non-ambiguous in this case (weights are only 0 or 1) and what we compute is the probability that a variable changes its label. When T is high, changes occur randomly. As T decreases, support values get more influence.

If variables take only one label at each time step (that is, one label has weight 1, and the others 0) and updating function 3.6 is used, the procedure is called stochastic relaxation (which is equivalent to simulated annealing), while if label weights are not discrete, and the updating function is 3.4 or 3.5 we talk about continuous deterministic relaxation. See [Kittler & Illingworth 85, Torras 89] for clear expositions of what is relaxation labelling and what kinds of relaxation can we get by combining different support and updating functions.

3.2 Algorithm Parameterization

As described in section 3.1, relaxation labelling handles variables, labels and compatibility constraints. Since we want to use it to perform NLP disambiguation tasks, we have first to model language in a suitable way for the algorithm.

The most direct way is to model each word as a variable, and each of its possible readings –either POS-tags, senses, syntactic roles, etc.– as a possible label for that variable. In this framework, the constraints will express compatibility between one reading for one word and another reading for a word in its context. So we will have constraints stating that a determiner is very compatible with a noun to its right, but rather not compatible with a verb.

These constraints will state how compatible is, say, label t_1 for variable v_i with label t_2 for variable v_j (or any other combination of n pairs variable–label). These constraints, their complexity, and the kind of information they use (morphological, syntactic, semantic, ...) will depend on the task we are performing. Different ways to obtain them are described in section 3.3.

Once we have modelled language in terms of variables, labels and constraints, we have to choose the most suitable parameterizations for the algorithm. [Kittler & Föglein 86] study how the choice of the adequate support and compatibility functions should depend on the contextual information to be exploited. Experiments described in [Padró 96a] and reported in section 4.1 were used to determine which are the most useful parameters. The obtained results are outlined in the following sections.

3.2.1 Support Function

Intuitively, the most suitable support function for NLP tasks seems to be the additive function described in equation 3.1, since it does not multiply constraint influences.

The multiplicative combination of influences may produce undesirable effects when dealing with NLP tasks, since the absence of information (influence zero) would cause the final result drop.

In natural language models, it will be very unlikely that we have *all* imaginable constraints –e.g. all combinations of trigram values–. This means that when a constraint is missing the influence will be either zero or a tiny value (if we performed some kind of smoothing). This is obviously a drawback for multiplicative combination functions, since a lack of information such as a missing constraint, does not necessarily imply support zero for a label. It seems more natural to add the influences, so when one is missing, it just does not contribute at all.

Experiments performed on POS tagging, and reported in [Padró 96a, Padró 96b], confirm that idea, showing that support function 3.1 achieves better results than the multiplicative functions 3.2 and 3.3.

3.2.2 Updating Function

The choice of the appropriate updating function is tightly bound to the compatibility values nature described in section 3.2.3. If compatibility values are allowed to be negative –to enable constraints expressing *incompatibility*– then the support computed for each label may be negative. This will force us to use updating function 3.4, since it can take supports in $[-1, 1]$. If our compatibilities are always positive, we can then use updating function 3.5 or 3.6.

In any case, normalization of supports must be performed to ensure they are in the appropriate interval to be used by the updating function.

Although the support normalization function could be considered another algorithm parameter –one could choose straight linear normalization or use some sigmoid-shaped function such the arc-tangent or the hyperbolic tangent–, performed experiments (see [Padró 95]) show that there is not a significant difference between the different normalization functions. This made us choose the simplest normalization –linear– and leave as a parameter its application domain interval². Finding the right normalization interval still requires further studies. As discussed in section 3.2.4, it seems to depend on the average support per label, although the easiest way to obtain it is using a part of the training corpus as a *tuning* set.

Since performed experiments pointed out that computing compatibility values as mutual information produces better results than the other tested formulas, and this measure can be negative, we will use updating function 3.4.

3.2.3 Compatibility Values

The constraints used in relaxation labelling must state a compatibility value for each combination of pairs variable–label. These values may be as simple as -1 for not-compatible and $+1$ for compatible, but the algorithm will perform much better if the constraints are better informed.

The compatibility value for a constraint states how compatible is one pair word–label (v, t) with a set of pairs in its context. We can either assign them by hand or try to use some probability or information theory measure to estimate them.

That is, we have a constraint of the form:

$$C_r \quad [(v_{i_1}, t_{j_1}), \dots, (v, t), \dots, (v_{i_{n_r}}, t_{j_{n_r}})]$$

and we want to compute its C_r . Since C_r must express how compatible is the pair (v, t) with the context expressed by the constraint, the possible ways of computing C_r will have to take into account the event consisting of an occurrence of the pair (v, t) , and the event consisting of an occurrence of the context $[(v_{i_1}, t_{j_1}), \dots, (v_{i_{n_r}}, t_{j_{n_r}})]$, and see if there is any correlation between them.

That is, being H the event corresponding to an occurrence of the pair (v, t) and E the event of an occurrence of the context described by the constraint, we can consider that C_r can be computed as a function of those two events: $C_r = \text{Comp}(H, E)$.

²Support values falling out of the normalization function domain interval will be mapped to the highest possible support value.

The *Comp* function can take many forms. the most direct one is the conditional probability:

$$Comp(H, E) = P(H|E)$$

Another possibility is to compute Mutual Information between the two events E and H [Church & Hanks 90, Cover & Thomas 91].

$$Comp(H, E) = \log \frac{P(H \cap E)}{P(H) \times P(E)}$$

or either the Association Score [Resnik 93, Ribas 94] which combines the previous two

$$Comp(H, E) = P(H|E) \times \log \frac{P(H \cap E)}{P(H) \times P(E)}$$

other possibilities are Relative Entropy [Cover & Thomas 91, Ribas 94]

$$Comp(H, E) = \sum_{X \in \{H, \neg H\}, Y \in \{E, \neg E\}} P(X \cap Y) \times \log \frac{P(X \cap Y)}{P(X) \times P(Y)}$$

or statistical correlation

$$Comp(H, E) = \frac{P(H \cap E) - P(E)P(H)}{\sqrt{(P(E) - P(E)^2)(P(H) - P(H)^2)}}$$

Yet another possibility is using Maximum Entropy Estimate –which was introduced in section 2.1.2 (see [Rosenfeld 94, Ristad 97] for details)– to compute those compatibility values. Although it has not been used in this research, we plan to introduce it in the short run.

3.2.4 Convergence and Stopping Criteria

Relaxation labelling is an iterative algorithm which has been proven to converge under certain conditions [Zucker et al. 78, Zucker et al. 81, Hummel & Zucker 83]. These conditions often require simple models –e.g. consisting only on binary constraints which must be symmetric– which are not likely to hold in complex applications such as those of NLP.

In addition, relaxation algorithms are often stopped before convergence, since they either produce better results at early iterations [Richards et al. 81, Lloyd 83] or it is not necessary to wait until convergence to know what the result will be [Zucker et al. 81]. Different stopping criteria can be found in the literature, although most of them have a strong *ad-hoc* flavour [Eklundh & Rosenfeld 78, Peleg 79]. [Haralick 83] presents a conditional probability interpretation of relaxation labelling which enables a theoretically grounded stopping criterion, unfortunately, it is only applicable in specific cases (binary constraints only, with bounded weight sum for all constraints affecting the same variable).

In our case, many experiments seem to produce slightly better results –though not statistically significantly better– in early iterations than at convergence (see section 4.1).

In order to identify the causes of this phenomenon and find a better stopping criterion, we took as a reference the aforementioned uses of relaxation that were stopped by different criteria than convergence and tested several stopping criteria based on the amount of variation from one iteration to the next.

The tested criteria were: average weight variation in one iteration step, maximum weight variation in one iteration step, Euclidean distance and average Euclidean distance per word ([Eklundh & Rosenfeld 78]). Those measures tried to capture the distance between the points in weight space obtained in two successive iterations.

Additional tested criteria were the first derivatives of the above mentioned distance measures. That is, the variation that each one presented from one iteration to the next. Those measures intended to capture the speed of variation that relaxation presents at different evolution stages, in order to find out whether it kept any relationship with the optimal stopping iteration.

Unfortunately, none of them led to any significant result, that is, no relationship was found between the proposed measures and the optimal stopping iteration.

Another hypothesis that could explain the best performance at early iterations was that the noise contained in the training and testing corpora caused the algorithm to mistag some words and/or to compute as errors correct taggings that were mistagged in the test corpora.

To check to what extent this could be true, we manually analyzed the errors introduced/corrected by the algorithm between the optimal stopping iteration and convergence. Results showed that most of them were due to noise in the model and in the test corpus and that convergence is, if not improving the accuracy, at least not decreasing it.

The third approach to finding a suitable stopping criterion was related to the convergence speed. As in the case of gradient step, relaxation labelling can converge faster or slower if an appropriate step size is chosen and it is conveniently decreased. In the case of relaxation algorithms, this effect is achieved by modifying the normalization factor of the support values.

As described in section 3.1.1, the support values are usually computed as the sum of several compatibility values (C_r), thus, the support value S_{ij} for a label is unbounded. It has also been described in section 3.1.2 that the global support for a label must be bounded in $[-1, 1]$ or in $[0, +\infty]$. This means that once the global support for a label has been computed, it must be scaled to fit in the appropriate interval. If this normalization yields a large value, the step taken by the iteration will be large, while if normalization produces a relatively small value, the step will be shorter.

Our experiments show that changing the normalization factor for the support values has the effect of changing the number of necessary iterations to achieve convergence. In addition, the tagging accuracy is also affected: There seems to be an optimal normalization factor which produces the best accuracy at convergence. For this optimal value, the difference between the accuracy at convergence and at the optimal stopping iteration is non-significant. This provides us with a reasonable stopping criterion: we can wait for convergence, provided we use a good normalization factor. To establish the most appropriate value, we test a range of possible value and choose the value that produces highest accuracy on tagging a fresh part of the training corpus, called *tuning set*.

Although higher accuracy results seem to be obtained at early iterations with low normalization factors, the difference is either small or non-significant. In addition, the difficulties to select the right stopping iteration described above, point that the selected stopping criterion is a reasonable one. Nevertheless, this issue will require further attention.

More details and results of the experiments on the stopping criterion for the relaxation algorithm can be found in section 4.1.3

3.3 Constraint Acquisition

Although the relaxation labelling algorithm and its application to POS tagging described so far maximize the consistency of the tag assignment to each word, the accuracy of the result is obviously dependent on the quality of the used language model.

To enable the use of the relaxation algorithm, the language model must be written in the form of constraints. The better the constraint model describes language, the better the obtained results will be.

In this section, we will describe the different techniques that were used to obtain the constraints necessary to feed the relaxation algorithm. The described techniques range from the manual writing of constraints by a linguist to the use of machine learning techniques to acquire them, through statistical n-gram model acquisition.

The used constraints cover different NLP phenomena. They were developed to perform different NLP tasks, as described in chapter 4. For POS tagging, n-gram models, automatically learned models as well as a few hand-written constraints were used. For shallow parsing, we used n-gram models and a quite good linguist written model. Finally, for word sense disambiguation POS tag n-grams were combined with other kinds of knowledge ranging from simple co-occurrence statistics to machine-learned selectional restrictions (see section 4.3.2 for details).

3.3.1 Manual Development

The most obvious way to get a language model is getting a linguist who, through introspection, writes a set of constraints which are supposed to describe the behaviour of language.

This approach is the most scientific one, since it is based on the assumption that to understand, predict or simulate any phenomenon, one has to model it first in an unambiguous way.

Unfortunately, while this is achievable in physical sciences, it appears to be much harder when dealing with cognitive sciences or, as in our case, with language. This difficulty to model language is probably caused by the very large number of involved variables, or by the existence of many exceptional cases. In addition, language is a constantly changing phenomenon, in space –in the form of dialects– and in time –as new words appear, or old words are given new meanings–.

Nevertheless, efforts have been done to model language. If not as a whole, at least some phenomena have been very accurately modelled.

The main advantage of manual modelling is that the resulting constraints have linguistic meaning, and thus can be revised and tuned to improve the model or to detect its weak points.

The main drawback is that many years of human effort have to be employed to obtain a model able to cope with more or less unrestricted language.

The research presented in this thesis was focused on automatically acquired models. But, since relaxation labelling accepts any kind of constraints, it can deal also with linguist written

models –either on their own or combined with other constraint models–. To check whether this ability was useful and linguistic models were correctly applied and combined, we introduced small manually–written constraint models.

The first NLP task where we applied relaxation labelling was POS tagging. Although n-gram models perform reasonably well³, we wanted to test the ability of the algorithm to integrate other sources of knowledge.

We used the following two kinds of manual constraints for POS tagging. See section 4.1 for details and results. A sample of the acquired constraints is presented in appendix B.

The first one was adapting previously existing context constraints to our algorithm. The adapted constraints were those used by the tagger described in [Moreno-Torres 94]. That tagger is a probabilistic one where the user could write context constraints that are applied *a posteriori*. Those constraints enabled the linguist to correct the most common errors made by the probabilistic tagger, and thus improve the final accuracy. Those constraints had been developed for Spanish, and so they could be used only in Spanish corpora.

The second source of manual constraints was developing ourselves a reduced model. The procedure was the following: the most frequent errors made by a bigram HMM tagger were selected as difficult cases and constraints were written to cover them.

In both cases, a compatibility value has to be assigned to the constraints in order to enable relaxation labelling to use them. Hand assignment of those values seems a very weak procedure bound to subjective appreciations and prone to errors. For this reason we applied an automatic procedure to estimate those compatibilities.

The hand written constraints were matched to the training corpus, and the occurrences of the affected word/tag and the context described by the constraint were computed. The joint occurrences of both events were also computed. This enables us to estimate the probability of any of them, as well as their conditional probabilities, and thus, compute any of the compatibility measures described in section 3.2.3.

The constraint model used for the shallow parsing task was completely developed by a linguist. Anyway, it is not a large-coverage model, and its labour cost was only some man hours. The developing procedure is that of Constraint Grammars, by successive model refinements over a training corpus. Details can be found in [Voutilainen & Padró 97] as well as in section 4.3.1.

For the case of WSD, the necessary model would be much larger than for the other tasks, since the number of possible combinations is much higher. That made us rely mainly on automatic models. Nevertheless, a few selectional restrictions were hand written for some high frequency verbs. Examples and results are presented in section 4.3.2.

3.3.2 Statistical Acquisition

The alternative to manually written models is obtaining them automatically from existing corpora. The methods most commonly used to achieve this rely on a statistical basis. The language model is thus coded as a set of co-occurrence frequencies for different kinds of phenomena.

This statistical acquisition is usually found in the form of n-gram collection –as described in section 3.3.2.1–, but more sophisticated acquisition techniques are also used, as for instance the selectional restrictions model described in section 3.3.2.3.

³As described in section 2.1.2 current n-gram based tagger present an accuracy of about 97%.

A more recently introduced methods are those adapted from machine learning field. Although some of them were developed to work in symbolic discrete problems, they can be extended to statistical environments, where learned knowledge is not black or white, but may have any intermediate value. The use of constraints acquired in this way is described in section 3.3.2.2.

3.3.2.1 Basic (Binary/Ternary constraints)

The most straightforward way of acquiring a statistical language model is computing the co-occurrence frequencies of some selected features. These frequencies are then used to estimate probabilities and derive the model. This is known as Maximum Likelihood Estimate (MLE).

The selected features and kind of co-occurrences counted depend on what the model will be representing. For instance, to get a model for part-of-speech tagging, one may count occurrences of tag bigrams or trigrams of consecutive words. For word sense disambiguation, it is common to find models consisting of occurrence counts of word pairs inside a predefined window, regardless of its exact relative position.

In our experiments we use several kinds of statistical information collected from tagged corpus: For POS tagging, we use tag bigrams and trigrams. For shallow parsing we use bigrams and trigrams of shallow syntactic roles for consecutive words. For word sense disambiguation, the collected statistics are co-occurrences of pairs of WordNet top synsets in the same sentence, co-occurrences of WordNet file codes, and finally, salient word vectors for each WN file code, following the idea described in [Yarowsky 92].

3.3.2.2 Advanced (Decision Trees)

The statistical information may be also acquired in more sophisticated ways, not necessarily through mere occurrence counting. We can use machine learning techniques to acquire that knowledge, either in a pure symbolic form, or adding statistical information.

We acquired a POS model consisting of context constraints more complex than simple n-grams. The constraints took into account word forms, as well as context POS tags. The used method is exposed below. Further details can be found in [Màrquez & Rodríguez 95, Màrquez & Padró 97, Màrquez & Rodríguez 97].

Setting

Choosing, from a set of possible tags, the proper syntactic tag for a word in a particular context can be seen as a problem of classification. Decision trees, recently used in NLP basic tasks such as tagging and parsing [McCarthy & Lehnert 95, Daelemans et al. 96a, Magerman 96], are suitable for performing this task.

A decision tree is a n -ary branching tree that represents a *classification rule* for classifying the *objects* of a certain domain into a set of mutually exclusive *classes*. The domain objects are described as a set of attribute–value pairs, where each *attribute* measures a relevant feature of an object taking a (ideally small) set of discrete, mutually incompatible *values*.

Each non–terminal node of a decision tree represents a question on (usually) one attribute. For each possible value of this attribute there is a branch to follow. Leaf nodes represent concrete classes.

Classify a new object with a decision tree is simply following the convenient path through the tree until a leaf is reached.

Statistical decision trees only differs from common decision trees in that leaf nodes define a conditional probability distribution on the set of classes.

It is important to note that decision trees can be directly translated to rules considering, for each path from the root to a leaf, the conjunction of all questions involved in this path as a condition, and the class assigned to the leaf as the consequence. Statistical decision trees would generate rules in the same manner but assigning a certain degree of probability to each answer.

So the learning process of contextual constraints is performed by means of learning one statistical decision tree for each class of POS ambiguity⁴ and converting them to constraints (rules) expressing compatibility/incompatibility of concrete tags in certain contexts.

Learning Algorithm

The algorithm we used for constructing the statistical decision trees is a non-incremental supervised learning-from-examples algorithm of the TDIDT (Top Down Induction of Decision Trees) family. It constructs the trees in a top-down way, guided by the distributional information of the examples, but not on the examples order [Quinlan 86]. Briefly, the algorithm works as a recursive process that departs from considering the whole set of examples at the root level and constructs the tree in a top-down way branching at any non-terminal node according to a certain *selected* attribute. The different values of this attribute induce a partition of the set of examples in the corresponding subsets, in which the process is applied recursively in order to generate the different subtrees. The recursion ends, in a certain node, either when all (or almost all) the remaining examples belong to the same class, or when the number of examples is too small. These nodes are the leafs of the tree and contain the conditional probability distribution, of its associated subset of examples, on the possible classes.

The heuristic function for selecting the most useful attribute at each step is of a crucial importance in order to obtain simple trees, since no backtracking is performed. Attribute-selecting functions commonly used belong either to the *information*-based [Quinlan 86, López de Mántaras 91] family or to the *statistically*-based [Breiman et al. 84, Mingers 89a] family.

Training Set

For each class of POS ambiguity the initial example set is built by selecting from the training corpus all the occurrences of the words belonging to this ambiguity class. More particularly, the set of attributes that describe each example consists of the part-of-speech tags of the neighbour words, and the information about the word itself (orthography and the proper tag in its context). The window considered in the experiments reported in section 4.2 is 3 words to the left and 2 to the right. The following are two real examples from the training set for the words that can be preposition and adverb at the same time (IN-RB conflict)⁵.

```
VB DT NN as_IN DT JJ
NN IN NN once_RB VBN TO
```

Approximately 90% of this set of examples is used for the construction of the tree. The remaining 10% is used as fresh test corpus for the pruning process.

⁴Classes of ambiguity are determined by the groups of possible tags for the words in the corpus, i.e. *noun-adjective*, *noun-adjective-verb*, *preposition-adverb*, etc.

⁵See appendix A for a tagset description.

Attribute Selection Function

For the experiments reported in section 4.2 we used a attribute selection function due to [López de Mántaras 91] belonging to the information-based family. It defines a distance measure between partitions and selects for branching the attribute that generates the partition closest to the *correct* one according to the training set.

Branching Strategy

Usual TDIDT algorithms consider a branch for each value of the selected attribute. This strategy is not feasible when the number of values is big (or even infinite). In our case the greatest number of values for an attribute is 45 —the tag set size— which is considerably big (this means that the branching factor could be 45 at every level of the tree⁶). Some systems perform a previous recasting of the attributes in order to have only binary-valued attributes and to deal with binary trees [Magerman 96]. This can always be done but the resulting features lose their intuition and direct interpretation, and explode in number. We have chosen a mixed approach which consist of splitting for all values and afterwards joining the resulting subsets into groups for which we have not enough statistical evidence of being different distributions. This statistical evidence is tested with a χ^2 test at a 95% confidence rate. In order to avoid zero probabilities smoothing is performed.

Additionally, all the subsets that do not imply a reduction in the *classification error* are joined together in order to have a bigger set of examples to be treated in the following step of the tree construction.

Pruning the Tree

Decision trees that correctly classify all examples of the training set are not always the most predictive ones. This is due to the phenomenon known as *over-fitting*. It occurs when the training set has a certain amount of misclassified examples, which is obviously the case of our training corpus (see section 4.2.1). If we force the learning algorithm to completely classify the examples then the resulting trees would fit also the noisy examples.

The usual solutions to this problem are: 1) Prune the tree, either during the construction process [Quinlan 93] or afterwards [Mingers 89b]; 2) Smooth the conditional probability distributions using fresh corpus⁷ [Magerman 96].

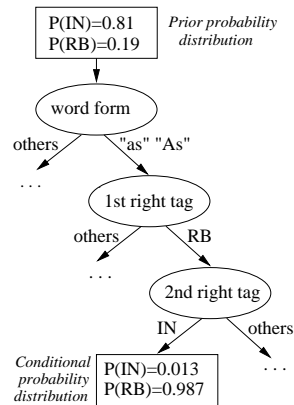
Since another important requirement of our problem is to have small trees we have implemented a post-pruning technique. In a first step the tree is completely expanded and afterwards it is pruned following a minimal cost-complexity criterion [Breiman et al. 84]. Roughly speaking this is a process that iteratively cut those subtrees producing only marginal benefits in accuracy, obtaining smaller trees at each step. The trees of this sequence are tested using a, comparatively small, fresh part of the training set in order to decide which is the one with the highest degree of accuracy on new examples. Experimental tests [Màrquez & Rodríguez 95] have shown that the pruning process reduces tree sizes at about 50% and improves their accuracy in a 2–5%.

An Example

Finally, we present a real example of the simple acquired contextual constraints for the preposition-adverb (IN-RB) conflict.

⁶In real cases the branching factor is much lower since not all tags appear always in all positions of the context.

⁷Of course, this can be done only in the case of statistical decision trees.



-5.81	(IN)	2.366	(RB)
	(0 "as" "As")		(0 "as" "As")
	(1 RB)		(1 RB)
	(2 IN);		(2 IN);

Figure 3.1: Example of a decision tree branch with its equivalent constraints.

Figure 3.1 shows a sample tree branch acquired by the algorithm and the constraints into which it is translated. These constraints express the compatibility (either positive or negative) of the constraint head—first line—with the context expressed by the conditions following it. The syntax used here is that of [Karlsson et al. 95] Constraint Grammars. The compatibility value for each constraint is the mutual information between the head tag and the context [Cover & Thomas 91]. It is directly computed from the probabilities in the tree. Some other sample constraints acquired by the algorithm are presented in appendix B.

3.3.2.3 Semantic Constraints

Our interest in methods for obtaining context constraints is due to the need of a language model which enables relaxation labelling to perform disambiguation tasks.

In previous sections we have seen several techniques to acquire context constraint, mainly aiming to build a model oriented to part-of-speech tagging. In this section we will address the issue of how to acquire a model to perform word sense disambiguation.

Modelling the semantic aspects of language is usually harder than POS or syntax modelling, and the automatic acquisition of semantic constraints is a research field with still many open questions. As noted in section 2.1.3, the chosen sense granularity has a very large influence on a WSD system. In our case, it also affects greatly the needed constraint model and its acquisition, since a very fine grained sense distinction will require a much more precise model, and thus a larger number of constraints and a better acquisition procedure than a more coarse sense classification.

The flexibility of the relaxation algorithm used to perform the disambiguation will diminish the influence of the sense granularity. The multi-feature approach we are taking (see sections 4.3.1 and 4.3.2) will enable us to use different granularity levels.

That is, since a reading for a word may include different features, such as POS, lemma, sense, etc., we can include, for instance, a feature consisting of a fine-grained sense identifier (e.g. WN synset)⁸, another one consisting of a coarse-grained classification (e.g. WN top), and even a third one containing some subject information (e.g. WN file code).

This will enable the constraints to express relationships between the different levels of granularity, according to the needs of every specific case. In addition, since the relaxation labelling algorithm will use all available constraints, in the case that they do not include all necessary knowledge to fully disambiguate the right fine-grained sense, at least a sense with the right coarse class or subject will be selected. See section 4.3.2 for details.

In this research, several automatic techniques for acquiring a constraint model for WSD have been experimented. They are briefly described below, from the simplest co-occurrence collection to the sophisticated selectional restrictions acquisition technique developed and applied by [Ribas 95].

- The simplest methods for acquiring semantic constraints are the use of co-occurrence information (see section 3.3.2.1). For instance, computing the co-occurrence ratio of pairs of verb and/or noun senses.

In our case, we used the top synsets in WordNet hierarchy, regarded as class identifiers⁹. The tops co-occurrences should be computed from a sense-tagged corpus, computing each occurrence of a sense as an occurrence of its top. The same technique was applied using WN file codes, instead of top synsets, as class identifiers.

- Another possible method to derive simple semantic constraints are collecting salient word lists for each class (either top synset or WN file code) in the style of [Yarowsky 92]. This technique can be used either on supervised or unsupervised corpora and constitutes an easy procedure –although maybe not as precise as one might want– to build semantic models.

For each word in the corpus, all the content words appearing in its near context are collected as belonging to the salient words list of the focus word sense –if the right sense is known–, or to all the lists of all possible senses for the focus word if the corpus is unsupervised. Then, a threshold is established and only the most relevant context words for each sense are kept. When disambiguating a new occurrence of a word, the chosen sense is that with highest matching ratio between the sense salient words list and the current context.

- Another interesting possibility for automatically acquiring semantic constraints is using conceptual distance (e.g. over WordNet [Sussna 93]) between pairs of noun senses. It seems to be more reliable, since the information is not drawn from a corpus, but from a hand-built taxonomy. In addition, no sense-tagged corpora is needed to acquire the model.

The semantic distance approach is based on the assumption that conceptually close synsets will tend to appear in the same context. This assumption does not always hold,

⁸As noted in section 2.1.3, WordNet is a concept hierarchy, where each sense is represented by a set of synonym words (a *synset*). In addition, synsets are grouped in thematic files, each one with its own *file code*.

⁹That is, a verb sense and a noun sense will be considered to have the same co-occurrence ratio than their respective tops.

as discussed in section 4.3.2. Moreover, conceptual distance over a taxonomy such as WordNet can only be computed between senses belonging to the same sub-hierarchy (nouns, verbs, adj, adv), which limits the power of this method.

Probably, none of the above kinds of constraints would be described as a powerful and natural way to express semantic relationships. In addition, experiments reported in section 4.3.2 subscribe the idea that they do not capture all necessary knowledge to accurately disambiguate word senses.

One of the most natural way of expressing semantic constraints are the selectional restrictions that a phrase head imposes to its complements and vice-versa, for instance, the noun *table* accepts adjectives referring to its shape (*round, square, ...*), color (*brown, dark, ...*), size (*big, tall, ...*), etc., but it does not accept adjectives such as *intelligent, powerful, ...*. In the same way, verbs impose constraints on their objects, for instance, a subject for verb *think* must be **human** –or at least **animate**–, the direct object for verb *eat* must be **food**, etc.

In our case, since this research is mainly on constraint *application* and not on constraint *acquisition*, we focused on selectional restrictions imposed by a verb to its objects. This choice was made in order to be able to use the selectional restrictions automatically acquired by [Ribas 94, Ribas 95].

Although the research developed by [Ribas 95] was mainly focused on unsupervised learning –due to the lack of large available sense-tagged corpora–, for our purposes of applying a constraint model to perform WSD, the supervised option seems to provide with more accurate restrictions. Thus, although [Ribas 95] applied his technique to both cases, we only will use the constraints he acquired through supervised learning.

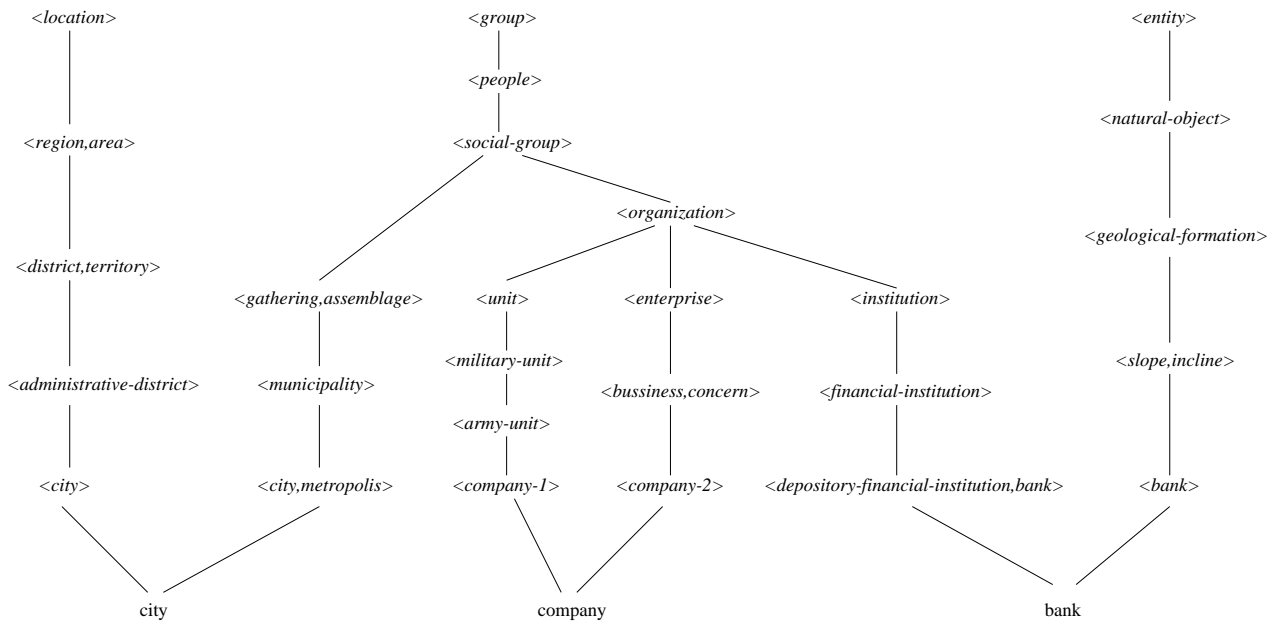
The procedure used by [Ribas 95] to obtain selectional constraints from corpora is outlined below. To find out more about this technique, either in its supervised or unsupervised version, see [Resnik 93, Ribas 95].

Selectional Restrictions Acquisition.

The scenario on which the acquisition technique developed by [Ribas 95] should extract selectional restrictions is displayed in Figure 3.2, where, departing from the three examples of use of the verb *pay* and knowing the semantic categorizations of *banks, company* and *city* as *social-group*, the system should induce that the verb *pay* imposes a selectional restriction over its subject that constrains the content word filling it to be a member of the semantic type *social-group*. Therefore, the aim of the system is to extract, for each word (being a head and having enough occurrences) in the corpus and for each of its syntactic complements, a list of the alternative selectional restrictions that the head word is imposing on the complement words.

Although selectional restrictions have been used to express semantic constraints holding on different syntactic and functional configurations, the work in [Ribas 95] –whose results we are using– focused only on those holding between verbs and their complements. The methodology can be easily exported to other configurations. Moreover, considering the theoretical and practical controversy on doing the argument/adjunct distinction [Adams & McFarland 91] and given that the source of co-occurrences used –the Penn Treebank [Marcus et al. 93]– is not reliably marked with such distinction, it was not taken into account when acquiring selectional restrictions.

- Previous semantic knowledge



- Three examples of use of *pay*

For nearly a decade, banks have paid high interest rates to small customers.

The company still has to pay its debts to creditors.

The city has paid \$ 95,142 to Mr. Dinkins in matching funds although his campaign records are incomplete.

- The acquired Selectional Restriction

(pay, SUBJ, <social-group>)

Figure 3.2: Example of the acquisition of Selectional Restrictions.

The Basic Technique

The basic technique used in [Ribas 95] to acquire selectional restrictions is a slight variation of the methodology first introduced in [Resnik 92] and further developed in [Resnik 93].

From the collection of nouns that co-occur as particular complements of a given verb, the basic method tries to generalize the appropriate semantic classes (selectional restrictions) by selecting a level in a taxonomy (WordNet in our case).

The input to the process is a set of co-occurrence triples (*verb, syntactic-relationship, noun*)¹⁰ extracted from syntactic analysis of the corpus. Restrictions are only acquired for noun senses, that is, no knowledge about which is the right verb sense according to its object noun is extracted. If the algorithm does not know the appropriate sense for each noun in the co-occurrence triples, it considers all the noun hyperonyms for all possible noun senses as candidate classes (unsupervised training). Otherwise, if the training corpora is sense-tagged, only the hyperonyms of the right sense are used as candidate classes (supervised training).

Once the candidate classes have been obtained for each pair (*verb, syntactic-relationship*), only those classes that generalize triples with a higher frequency than a given threshold are further considered. Their association is evaluated by means of a statistical measure, *Association Score* (see section 3.2.3), derived from the co-occurrence of verbs and classes of nouns.

The statistical association is used by a selection process to choose the best classes to convey the selectional restrictions. The algorithm, for every pair (*verb, syntactic-relationship*), generalizes a set of selectional restrictions, i.e. pairs (*class, statistical-preference*). This is done by selecting the candidate class with highest association score, and removing all its hyperonyms and hyponyms from the set of candidate classes. Repeating this procedure until no candidate classes are left, the resulting selected classes for the verb and syntactic relationship are mutually disjoint, that is they are not related by hyperonymy, and are a generalization of the classes in the co-occurrence triples.

An Example

As an example of the different results produced by the supervised and unsupervised methods, the candidate classes considered by each kind of training for the situation presented in figure 3.2 are shown in tables 3.1 and 3.2, respectively.

from <i>city</i>	from <i>company</i>	from <i>bank</i>
<city,metropolis>	<company-2>	<depository-financial-institution,bank>
<municipality>	<bussiness,concern>	<financial-institution>
<gathering,assemblage>	<enterprise>	<institution>
<social-group>	<organization>	<organization>
<people>	<social-group>	<social-group>
<group>	<people>	<people>
	<group>	<group>

Table 3.1: Candidate classes for (*pay, SUBJ*) using supervised training.

¹⁰*verb* is the verb lemma, *noun* is the noun lemma, and *syntactic-relationship* may be subject, direct object, indirect object, or prepositional object. In the last case the relationship is labelled with the specific preposition.

from <i>city</i>	
<city>	<city,metropolis>
<administrative-district>	<municipality>
<district,territory>	<gathering,assemblage>
<region,area>	<social-group>
<location>	<people>
	<group>
from <i>company</i>	
<company-1>	<company-2>
<army-unit>	<bussiness,concern>
<military-unit>	<enterprise>
<unit>	<organization>
<organization>	<social-group>
<social-group>	<people>
<people>	<group>
<group>	
from <i>bank</i>	
<depository-financial-institution,bank>	<bank>
<financial-institution>	<slope,incline>
<institution>	<geological-formation>
<organization>	<natural-object>
<social-group>	<entity>
<people>	
<group>	

Table 3.2: Candidate classes for (*pay*, *SUBJ*) using unsupervised training.

The unsupervised acquisition technique would present the following behaviour: Assuming that the <*social-group*> sense has a higher *Association Score* than its relative (hyponym or hyperonym) senses, it would be selected as the best candidate. Its relatives would then be eliminated from the candidate classes set, and thus, the constraint (*pay*, *SUBJ*, <*social-group*>) would be extracted. Nevertheless –unless they had been removed by the threshold filtering– the <*location*> and <*entity*> class families are still candidates, thus, the sense with highest score in each family would be selected. This would cause the final result to consist of three selectional constraints: the first one is the expected solution, with a high association score, and the other two –with a presumably lower association score– are caused by the noise introduced by the unsupervised training and a too low threshold.

(*pay*, *SUBJ*, <*social-group*>)

(*pay*, *SUBJ*, <*entity*>)

(*pay*, *SUBJ*, <*location*>)

In supervised training, the process would be the same, but since the <*location*> and <*entity*> class families are not included in the candidate classes set, the corresponding restrictions would not be extracted. Thus, the only acquired restriction would be:

(*pay*, *SUBJ*, <*social-group*>)

Chapter 4

Experiments and Results

In this chapter we will describe the experiments performed to test the utility of relaxation labelling for NLP purposes. The reported experiments can be classified on three classes: First, a set of tests –using POS tagging as a benchmark– that were performed in order to establish which is the most appropriate parameterization for the relaxation algorithm in our case. Second, tests of the application of relaxation labelling to POS-tagging aiming to establish its ability to deal with different kinds of information, and to establish whether it can outperform current POS taggers. Third, experiments on applying relaxation labelling to NLP tasks other than POS tagging, namely, word sense disambiguation and shallow parsing. The later experiments were also performed to test the ability of the algorithm to deal with multi-feature models as well as its ability to integrate multi-source knowledge.

In section 4.1 the experiments performed to establish the best parameterization are described. Section 4.2 describes the set of experiments on applying the algorithm to POS-tagging, and section 4.3 exposes how relaxation labelling was applied to shallow parsing and word sense disambiguation and the results obtained.

4.1 Parameter selection experiments

The first set of experiments were performed on the task of POS tagging because it is one the simplest and most straightforward NLP tasks. In addition, it is almost straightforward to model it to be solved by the relaxation labelling algorithm.

The performed experiments aimed to find the most appropriate parameters for relaxation labelling when applied to this kind of tasks, in order to establish a starting point for further use of the algorithm at more complex NLP tasks.

The experiments consisted of tagging a corpus using all logical combinations of parameters for the algorithm. The algorithm parameters are those described in section 3.2, that is: support function, updating function and compatibility values.

Different kinds of constraints (bigrams, trigrams, hand-written, and all combinations of them) were used, as a first test of the algorithm flexibility respect to the used language model. The different constraints where used separately as well as combined.

We also tested different normalization functions for support values, and made some trials looking for a support function specifically designed for the case of POS-tagging as well as applying the different kinds of constraints in a back-off hierarchy.

The experiments were repeated on the following three corpora. Each one of them had some feature that made its use interesting.

Corpus **SN** (Spanish Novel) Train set: 15 Kw. Test set: 2 Kw. Tag set¹ size: 68.

This corpus was chosen to test the algorithm in a language distinct than English, and because previous work [Moreno-Torres 94] on it provides us with a good benchmark and with linguist written constraints.

Corpus **Sus** (Susanne) Train set: 141 Kw, Test set: 6 Kw. Tag set size: 150.

The interest of this corpus is to test the algorithm with a large tag set.

Corpus **WSJ** (Wall Street Journal) Train set: 1055 Kw. Test set: 6 Kw. Tag set size: 48.

The interest of this corpus is obviously its size, which gives a good statistical evidence for automatic constraints acquisition.

The performed experiments with their results and conclusions are published in [Padró 95, Padró 96a, Padró 96b].

4.1.1 Baseline results

In order to have a comparison reference we will evaluate the performance of two taggers: A blind most-likely-tag tagger and a bigram HMM tagger [Elworthy 93] performing Viterbi algorithm. The training and test corpora will be the same for all taggers.

Results obtained by the baseline taggers are found in table 4.1 (figures show precision percentage over ambiguous words).

	SN	Sus	WSJ
Most-likely	69.62%	86.01%	88.52%
HMM	94.62%	93.20%	93.63%

Table 4.1: Results achieved by conventional taggers.

The Most-likely tagger produces poorer results on the **SN** corpus than on the others because of the reduced size of this corpus, which does not provide enough evidence for a most-likely model.

4.1.2 Relaxation labelling results

In this section we will expose the results achieved by the relaxation labelling algorithm on the three test corpus.

Although results for each combination of parameters were obtained, the tables presented here contain only the best results produced by *any* parameter combination. As noted below, the best results happened to be obtained in most cases by the same parameterizations.

For each parameter combination, the algorithm was tested with all possible combinations of constraints. The sets of constraints used were bigram constraints (**B**), trigram constraints (**T**) and hand-written constraints (**H**).

¹A listing of tags and descriptions can be found in appendix A.

The sets of hand-written constraints were built according to the procedure described in section 3.3.1, which can be summarized as follows:

For **WSJ** and **Sus** corpora, the test corpus was tagged using the baseline HMM tagger. The most frequent errors made by the HMM tagger were analyzed, and constraints to cover those cases were hand-written. That produced a set of 12 constraints for **WSJ** corpus and a set of 66 constraints for **Sus**.

For **SN** corpus, we adapted some 50 context constraints proposed by [Moreno-Torres 94], who used them to correct the most common errors of his probabilistic tagger.

The compatibility value for these constraints were computed from their occurrences in the corpus, that is, the number of occurrences of the affected word or tag and the number of occurrences of the context described by the constraint is collected from the training corpus. This provides the necessary information to compute the compatibility value for the constraint in any of the forms described in section 3.2.3.

Best results –in precision over ambiguous words– obtained by relaxation using every combination of constraint kinds are shown in table 4.2.

	SN	Sus	WSJ
B	95.77%	91.65%	89.34%
BH	96.54%	92.50%	89.24%
T	90.00%	88.60%	90.87%
BT	93.85%	89.33%	90.81%
TH	92.31%	89.02%	90.78%
BTH	95.00%	89.83%	90.94%

Table 4.2: Best relaxation results using every combination of constraint kinds.

The results presented in table 4.2 are the best results obtained for any parameter combination. Nevertheless, it is interesting to state that all of them were obtained using support function described in equation (3.1) and most of them with the updating function in equation (3.4) and using mutual information as compatibility values.

This suggests that this parameter combination is the most appropriate for this kind of task. Further discussion on this issue can be found in section 5.1.

Some general issues we can draw from this results are:

- In the same conditions than HMM taggers -i.e. using only bigram information– relaxation only performs better than HMM for the small corpus **SN**, and the bigger the corpus is, the worse results relaxation obtains.
- Using trigrams is only helpful in **WSJ**. This is because the training corpus for **WSJ** is much bigger than in the other cases, and so the trigram model obtained is good, while for the other corpora, the training set seems to be too small to provide a good trigram information.
- We can observe that there is a general tendency to “the more information, the better results”, that is, when using **BTH** we get better results that with **BT**, which is in turn better than **T** alone.

- In all corpora results improve when adding hand-written constraints, except in **WSJ**. This is because the constraints used in this case are few (about 12) and only cover a few specific error cases (mainly the distinction past/participle following verbs *to have* or *to be*).

4.1.3 Stopping before convergence

All results presented in section 4.1.2 were obtained stopping the relaxation algorithm when it reaches convergence (no new significant changes are produced from one iteration to the next), but relaxation labelling algorithms do not give necessarily their best results at convergence² [Eklundh & Rosenfeld 78, Richards et al. 81, Lloyd 83], or not always one needs to achieve convergence to know what the result will be [Zucker et al. 81]. So they are often stopped after a few iterations. Actually, what we are doing is changing our convergence criterion to one more heuristic than “stop when there are no more changes”.

SN	Sus	WSJ
96.92% (12)	93.78% (6)	94.17% (6)

Table 4.3: Best results stopping before convergence.

The results presented in table 4.3 are the best overall results that we would obtain if we had a criterion which stopped the iteration process when the result obtained was an optimum. The number in parenthesis is the iteration at which the algorithm should be stopped. These results are clearly better than those obtained at relaxation convergence, and also outperform the established baseline taggers.

To find out which one was the right moment to stop iteration, three lines of research were used (see 3.2.4):

First, several convergence criteria were tested, all of them based on the variation produced from one iteration to the next, to check whether there was any relationship between those measures and the optimal iteration. The tested criteria were: global Euclidean distance (taking each weight of each tag as a dimension of a n-dimensional space), average Euclidean distance per word ([Eklundh & Rosenfeld 78]), average tag support variation, maximum tag support variation, and their respective first derivatives (that is, the variation on the variation from one iteration to the next).

None of these criteria seemed to keep any relationship with the optimal stopping iteration, that is, none of them had any particular behaviour when the algorithm went through the iteration where the optimal result was obtained.

Second, hand analysis of the errors made or solved by the algorithm when approaching convergence was performed. That implied tagging a test corpus of 50 Kw both waiting for convergence and stopping the algorithm at the iteration which yielded the best result. Then the 72 errors introduced by convergence and the 52 errors that it corrected were hand analyzed.

²This is due to two main reasons: (1)The optimum of the support function does not correspond *exactly* to the best solution for the problem, that is, the chosen function is only an approximation of the desired one. And (2) performing too much iterations can produce a more probable solution, which will not necessarily be the correct one.

Those analysis showed that the errors introduced by convergence were mainly due to noise in the training or test corpora, while the corrected ones were mostly real corrections. See section 4.1.6 for further discussion.

Third, the algorithm convergence is closely related to the normalization factor for support values³ since modifying the normalization interval has an effect similar to changing the step size in a gradient algorithm. So, experiments were performed in order to find an objective manner to establish the most suitable normalization factor, and to establish its relation with the stopping criterion.

The results of this line showed that changing the normalization factor changes the iteration at which the optimal result is obtained, as well as the optimal result itself, and that the highest result is obtained when the normalization factor selects as the stopping iteration that of convergence.

As an example, table 4.4 shows the accuracy obtained at convergence and at the optimal stopping iteration for different normalization factor values.

Normalization factor	convergence accuracy	optimal iteration (it.#) – accuracy
5	86.84	(2) – 93.62
10	89.63	(6) – 94.26
15	90.79	(9) – 94.35
20	91.57	(12) – 94.33
25	92.34	(13) – 94.34
30	92.83	(16) – 94.35
35	93.10	(19) – 94.34
40	93.41	(23) – 94.35
45	93.63	(24) – 94.34
50	93.75	(27) – 94.28
55	93.89	(31) – 94.24
60	93.93	(34) – 94.19
65	93.94	(37) – 94.12
70	93.99	(39) – 94.06
75	93.97	(42) – 94.01
80	93.99	(62) – 94.00
85	93.93	(64) – 93.94
90	93.87	(50) – 93.88
95	93.77	(85) – 93.78
100	93.66	(89) – 93.66

Table 4.4: Results at convergence and at the optimal stopping iteration for different normalization factor values.

³As described in section 3.1.2 and discussed in section 3.2.4, when using equation 3.4 support values must be in $[-1, 1]$. Since mutual information is not necessarily in this range, normalization must be performed.

4.1.4 Searching a more specific support function

The support functions described in section 3.1.1 are traditionally used in relaxation algorithms. It seems better for our purpose to choose an additive one, since the multiplicative functions might yield zero or tiny values when—as in our case—for a certain variable or tag no constraints are available for a given subset of variables.

Since those are general-purpose functions, we attempted to find a support function more specific for our problem, inspired on the sequence probability maximization performed by HMMs.

Since HMMs find the maximum sequence probability and relaxation is a maximization algorithm, we can try to make relaxation maximize the sequence probability and we should get similar results, which could be improved afterwards by adding new information to the model. As relaxation labelling performs a vector optimization—as described in section 3.1—mainly dependent on the support function, to make the algorithm maximize the sequence probability, we defined the support function as the sequence probability, computed in the same way than in a classical probabilistic tagger.

Being:

- t^k the tag for variable v_k with highest weight value at the current time step.
- $\pi(v_1, t^1)$ the probability for the sequence to start in tag t^1 .
- $P(v, t)$ the lexical probability for the word represented by v to have tag t .
- $T(t_1, t_2)$ the probability that tag t_2 follows tag t_1 , (bigram probability).

We define:

$$B_{ij} = \pi(v_1, t^1) \times \left(\prod_{k=1}^{i-2} P(v_k, t^k) \times T(t^k, t^{k+1}) \right) \times P(v_{i-1}, t^{i-1}) \times \\ T(t^{i-1}, t_j^i) \times P(v_i, t_j^i) \times T(t_j^i, t^{i+1}) \times \left(\prod_{k=i+1}^{N-1} P(v_k, t^k) \times T(t^k, t^{k+1}) \right) \times P(v_N, t^N)$$

Since it incorporates only bigram information (the $T(t^k, t^{k+1})$ transitions), using B_{ij} as support function would have enabled us to use only binary constraints, so we included in our new support function the contribution of higher order constraints.

The contribution of trigram constraints,

$$T_{ij} = \sum_{r \in R_{ij}^3} \text{Inf}(r, i, j)$$

where R_{ij}^3 is the set of all trigram constraints on tag j for word i .

And the contribution of higher-order constraints

$$C_{ij} = \sum_{r \in R_{ij}^H} \text{Inf}(r, i, j)$$

where R_{ij}^H is the set of all hand-written constraints on tag j for word i .

We chose to combine the support provided by bigrams (B_{ij}) with the support provided by trigrams (T_{ij}) and hand-written constraints (C_{ij}) in a multiplicative form because since B_{ij} is computed as the probability of the whole sequence, it is many magnitude orders smaller than T_{ij} and C_{ij} , which are computed locally; thus, adding them would have the effect of losing the information provided by B_{ij} , since it would be too small to affect the other figures.

But just multiplying them yields another problem: we do not have trigram or hand written constraints for each word or tag. Then a tag with no such an information will have $T_{ij} = C_{ij} = 0$ (or, if we perform some kind of smoothing, a tiny value), and multiplying this value by B_{ij} would make the support value drop. That is, a tag with trigram or hand-written constraints information would have less support than another one with only bigram information, even when the trigram information was *positive*. Since we want trigrams and other constraints to *increase* the support when positive and to *decrease* it when negative, we add one to the value before multiplying it, so when no trigrams are used, support remains unchanged, but if extra information is available, it increases/decreases the support.

Thus, we obtain the new support function:

$$S_{ij} = B_{ij} \times (1 + T_{ij}) \times (1 + C_{ij}) \quad (4.1)$$

Results obtained with this specific support function are summarized in table 4.5.

SN	Sus	WSJ
94.23% (1-3)	92.31% (6)	93.60%(1)

Table 4.5: Best results using a specific support function.

Using this new support function we obtain results slightly below those of the HMM tagger. Although our support function is based on the sequence probability, which is what HMM taggers maximize, we get worse results. There are two main reasons for that. The first one is that we are not optimizing *exactly* the sequence probability, but a support function based on it. The second reason is that relaxation is not an algorithm that finds global optima and can be trapped in local maxima.

4.1.5 Combining information in a back-off hierarchy

We also experimented combining bigram and trigram information in a back-off mechanism: Use trigrams if available and bigrams when not.

Results obtained with that technique are shown in table 4.6

SN	Sus	WSJ
92.31% (3-4)	93.66% (4)	94.29% (4)

Table 4.6: Best results using a back-off technique.

The results here point to the same conclusions than the use of trigrams: if we have a good trigram model (as in **WSJ**) then the back-off technique is useful. In this case, the result obtained with the back-off model was better than the results for any other constraint combination in this corpus. If the trigram model is not so good, results are not better than the obtained with bigrams alone.

4.1.6 Experiment conclusions

The main conclusions of those experiments were the following:

- The most suitable support function is that described in equation 3.1. This is an expected result, since this is the additive formula for computing support. Since zero compatibility constraints will be usual in our application –there may be many phenomena not described by our constraints, or that did not occur in the training set– a multiplicative formula would have the effect of making the support drop to zero when, for instance, a non-observed bigram was found. This makes the additive formula much a more logical choice, and this intuition is confirmed by the experiments.
- The alternative support function proposed in section 4.1.4 does not produce better results than the others. Although trying to simulate a bigram HMM with relaxation algorithms could be an appealing idea –since then we would have a generalization of the Markovian taggers which could be improved easily adding higher order information– The already existing support functions seem to combine the different kinds of constraints in a more efficient way. Nevertheless, we tried only one proposal, and this is still an open issue.
- The better results are obtained when modelling compatibility as mutual information. This is probably caused by the fact that mutual information can be negative or positive, thus, it enables modelling *incompatibility* as well as *compatibility*.
- The updating function which experiments pointed out as the best choice was the zero-centered function, described in equation 3.4, but this is a secondary effect of choosing mutual information as compatibility values, which requires an updating function able to deal with negative support values.
- None of the tested stopping criteria performed significantly better than the others, nor than convergence.
- The difference of 20 errors (52 *vs.* 72, as described in section 4.1.3) between the best iteration and the convergence is not significant in a 50 Kw corpus.
- The hand analysis of the errors showed that most of the introduced errors were due either to noise in the language model –caused by noise in the training corpus– or to noise in the test corpus itself, while most of the corrected tags were real corrections. That changed the balance to a difference of some 20 errors corrected by convergence that is also non-significant.
- The experiments on finding the most suitable normalization factor for support values showed that when the normalization factor is chosen in such a way that the convergence stopping criterion produces its best results, the difference between convergence and the best iteration is either zero or non-significant. That is, the right normalization factor makes the optimal stopping iteration be that of convergence.
- The most suitable normalization factor seems to be directly proportional to the average support received by a word in the corpus. Although it has still to be checked whether this proportionality depends on other factors such as the used corpus, tag set, the

ambiguity rate of the lexicon, etc. The procedure currently used to establish this factor is the use of a part of the training corpus as a tuning set, and choose as a normalization factor the value which produces better results on the tuning set.

4.2 Experiments on Part-of-Speech Tagging

Being the part-of-speech tagging task a basic one in natural language processing, it has been addressed for long and from a range of approaches, from the early linguistic-knowledge based work in [Greene & Rubin 71], to many different statistical approaches [Garside et al. 87, Church 88, Cutting et al. 92]. Great improvements have been done from the seventies, but almost all systems still have about a 3% error rate. The best currently performing system is that of [Karlsson et al. 95, Voutilainen 95], which achieves over a 99% recall, although it does not fully disambiguate all words.

Comparison between systems is difficult, since most of them use different test corpora and different tagsets. Choosing an appropriate tagset is a crucial issue: if the tagset is too coarse, it would provide an excessively poor information. If the tagset is too fine-grained, the tagger precision will be much lower, because the model will be worse estimated (since much more training data are needed to estimate a finer-grained model), and because some ambiguities can not be solved on syntactic or context information only.

In order to minimize the need for tagged data, several researchers as [Cutting et al. 92, Elworthy 94a, Briscoe et al. 94, Sánchez & Nieto 95], use an initial model—either hand build or estimated from a small tagged corpus—, which is further refined using non-tagged data with the Baum-Welch algorithm. [Briscoe et al. 94] applied this technique to tag different languages and tagsets, and conclude that a model acquired from relatively small tagged corpus can be improved up to a reasonably good model through re-estimation. [Elworthy 94a] studies in which cases is worth using this technique, and how good will be the obtained models depending on the re-estimation starting point. He concludes that although it is possible to obtain a fairly good model through re-estimation, the use of as much tagged data as possible is the best policy to obtain accurate n-gram models.

In the case of relaxation labelling the importance of the tagset size is relative, since the constraints are not required to be pure n-grams. They can be written in a coarser level than those of tags. For instance, if tags include information about category, number and gender, the used constraints may take into account only category, or a finer grained distinctions depending on the case. With respect to model re-estimation, relaxation labelling can obviously use re-estimated models, but this is a point that loses relevance as more and more tagged corpora become available. Moreover, the interest of an algorithm such as relaxation labelling is the ability to use complex constraint models, so there is no point in using it with simple models that are more efficiently applied by Markovian taggers.

The experiments performed on POS tagging described in this section were used—once the most appropriate algorithm parameterization had been selected—to check that the POS tagging task was accurately performed by our system, and that it properly combines constraints from multiple sources.

The experiments consisted of tagging the same corpus with different language models: a bigram model, a trigram model, an automatically acquired decision-tree model, and a small set of hand-written constraints. These different models were combined to check whether their collaboration improved the separately obtained results.

The constraint acquisition procedure has been exposed in section 3.3.2.2. For further information on this topic see [Màrquez & Padró 97, Màrquez & Rodríguez 97].

4.2.1 Corpus description

We used the Wall Street Journal corpus to train and test the system. We divided it in three parts: 1,100 Kw were used as a training set, 20 Kw as a model-tuning set, and 50 Kw as a test set.

The tag set size is 48 tags⁴. 36.4% of the words in the corpus are ambiguous, and the ambiguity ratio is 2.45 tags/word over the ambiguous words, 1.52 overall.

We used a lexicon derived from training corpora, that contains all possible tags for a word, as well as their lexical probabilities. For the words in test corpora not appearing in the train set, we stored all possible tags, but no lexical probability (i.e. we assume uniform distribution)⁵.

The noise in the lexicon was filtered by manually checking the lexicon entries for the 200 most frequent words in the corpus⁶ to eliminate the tags due to errors in the training set. For instance the original lexicon entry (numbers indicate frequencies in the training corpus) for the very common word *the* was

the: CD 1, DT 47715, JJ 7, NN 1, NNP 6, VBP 1.

since it appears in the corpus with the six different tags: CD (cardinal), DT (determiner), JJ (adjective), NN (noun), NNP (proper-noun) and VBP (verb:personal-form). It is obvious that the only correct reading for *the* is determiner.

The training set was used to estimate bi/trigram statistics and to perform the constraint learning.

The model-tuning set was used to tune the algorithm parameterizations, and to write the linguistic part of the model.

The resulting models were tested in the fresh test set.

4.2.2 Language model

We will use a hybrid language model consisting of an automatically acquired part and a linguist-written part.

The automatically acquired part is divided in two kinds of information:

On the one hand, we have bigrams and trigrams collected from the annotated training corpus: we obtained 1404 bigram restrictions and 17387 trigram restrictions from the training corpus.

On the other hand, we have context constraints learned from the same training corpus using statistical decision trees acquired for each representative ambiguity class.

The whole WSJ corpus contains 241 different classes of ambiguity. The 40 most representative classes⁷ were selected for acquiring the corresponding decision trees. That produced

⁴See appendix A for a detailed listing.

⁵That is, we assumed a morphological analyzer that provides all possible tags for unknown words.

⁶The 200 most frequent words in the corpus cover over half of it.

⁷In terms of number of examples.

40 trees totaling up to 2995 leaf nodes, and covering 83.95% of the ambiguous words. Given that each tree branch produces as many constraints as tags its leaf involves, these trees were translated into 8473 context constraints.

The linguistic part is very small –since there were no available resources to develop it further– and covers only very few cases, but it is included to illustrate the flexibility of the algorithm. It was written as follows: the model–tuning set was tagged using a bigram model. Then, the most common errors made by the bigram tagger were selected, and some 20 constraints were manually written to cover those cases.

A sample rule of the linguistic part is the following:

```
10.0 (VBN)
(*-1 VAUX BARRIER (VBN) OR (IN) OR (<,>) OR
(<:>) OR (JJ) OR (JJS) OR (JJR));
```

This rule states that a tag *past participle* (**VBN**) is very compatible (10.0) with a left context consisting of a **VAUX** (previously defined macro which includes all forms of “have” and “be”) provided that all the words in between do not have any of the tags in the set **{VBN IN <,> <:> JJ JJS JJR}**. That is, this rule raises the support for the tag *past participle* when there is an auxiliary verb to the left but only if there is not another candidate to be a past participle or an adjective in-between. The tags **{IN <,> <:>}** prevent the rule from being applied when the auxiliary verb and the participle are in two different phrases (a comma, a colon or a preposition are considered to mark the beginning of another phrase).

The constraint language used in this example is the Constraint Grammar formalism [Karlsson et al. 95], with the additional feature of an unrestricted numerical weight for each constraint, instead of only two possible values (SELECT/REMOVE).

4.2.3 Experiment description and results

Once the different language models had been obtained, the tagger was tested on the 50 Kw test set using all the possible combinations of the models.

As a detailed example of the model behaviour, the effect of the acquired rules on the number of errors for some of the most common cases is shown in table 4.7⁸.

In the tables presented in this section, **C** stands for the acquired context constraints, **B** for the 1404–bigram model, **T** for the 17387–trigram model, and **H** for a small set of 20 hand-written constraints. In addition, **ML** indicates a baseline model containing no constraints (this will result in a most-likely tagger) and **HMM** stands for a hidden Markov model bigram tagger [Elworthy 93].

Figures in table 4.7 show that in all cases the extension of a statistical model with the machine–learned constraints led to a reduction in the number of errors.

It is remarkable that when using **C** alone, the number of errors for these cases is lower than with any bigram and/or trigram model, that is, the acquired model performs better than the others estimated from the same training corpus.

⁸XX/YY stands for an error consisting of a word tagged YY when it should have been XX. The meaning of the involved tags can be found in appendix A.

	ML	C	B	BC	T	TC	BT	BTC
JJ/NN+NN/JJ	73+137	70+94	73+112	69+102	57+103	61+95	67+101	62+93
VBD/VBN+VBN/VBD	176+190	71+66	88+69	63+56	56+57	55+57	65+60	59+61
IN/RB+RB/IN	31+132	40+69	66+107	43+17	77+68	47+67	65+98	46+83
VB/VBP+VBP/VB	128+147	30+26	49+43	32+27	31+32	32+18	28+32	28+32
NN/NNP+NNP/NN	70+11	44+12	72+17	45+16	69+27	50+18	71+20	62+15
NNP/NNPS+NNPS/NNP	45+14	37+19	45+13	46+15	54+12	51+12	53+14	51+14
“that”	187	53	66	45	60	40	57	45
Total	1341	631	820	630	703	603	731	651

Table 4.7: Number of some common errors made by each model.

The global results on the test corpus obtained by the baseline taggers can be found in table 4.8 and the results obtained using all the learned constraints together with the bi/trigram models in table 4.9.

	ambiguous	overall
ML	85.31%	94.66%
HMM	91.75%	97.00%

Table 4.8: Results of the baseline taggers.

	ambiguous	overall
B	91.35%	96.86%
T	91.82%	97.03%
BT	91.92%	97.06%
C	91.96%	97.08%
BC	92.72%	97.36%
TC	92.82%	97.39%
BTC	92.55%	97.29%

Table 4.9: Results of our tagger using every combination of constraint kinds.

On the one hand, the results in tables 4.8 and 4.9 show that our tagger performs slightly worse than a HMM tagger in the same conditions⁹, that is, when using only bigram information.

On the other hand, those results also show that since our tagger is more flexible than a HMM, it can easily accept more complex information to improve its results up to 97.39% without modifying the algorithm.

Table 4.10 shows the results adding the hand written constraints. The hand written set is very small and only covers a few common error cases. That produces poor results when using them alone (**H**), but they are good enough to raise the results given by the automatically acquired models up to 97.45%.

Although the improvement obtained might seem small, the difference is statistically significant when the decision–tree model is incorporated to any n–gram model. In addition, it

⁹Hand analysis of the errors made by the algorithm suggest that the worse results may be due to noise in the training and test corpora, i.e., relaxation algorithm seems to be more noise–sensitive than a Markov model. Further research is required on this point.

	ambiguous	overall
H	86.41%	95.06%
BH	91.88%	97.05%
TH	92.04%	97.11%
BTH	92.32%	97.21%
CH	91.97%	97.08%
BCH	92.76%	97.37%
TCH	92.98%	97.45%
BTCH	92.71%	97.35%

Table 4.10: Results of our tagger using every combination of constraint kinds and hand written constraints.

must be taken into account that we are moving very close to the best achievable result with the current techniques and resources. This item is further discussed in section 5.1.1.

4.3 Experiments on other NLP tasks

The second group of experiments consisted of applying the algorithm to different NLP tasks other than POS tagging. The experiments presented in section 4.2 had shown that the performance on POS tagging is at least as good as that of current statistical taggers, and that the relaxation algorithm is able to combine constraints obtained from different knowledge sources.

The set of experiments described in this section was used to test whether the algorithm could easily cope with constraints on features other than part-of-speech and perform other disambiguation tasks, as well as its ability to simultaneously disambiguate more than one feature.

4.3.1 Shallow Parsing

The use of language models based on context constraints has a successful representative in the Constraint Grammar formalism [Karlsson et al. 95] and related work [Voutilainen 95, Samuelson et al. 96, Samuelson & Voutilainen 97]. They employ only constraints written by linguists and successively refined through the use of real text corpora.

Since our system also deals with context constraint models, we set up a collaboration to test a hybrid model, where hand written context constraints could cooperate with statistically acquired constraints, such as bigrams or trigrams. This would enable us to compare the performances of a purely linguistic model with a purely statistical one, and also to check whether they can collaborate to produce better results.

Those experiments were performed on shallow parsing, and consisted of analyzing a test corpus with different models and algorithms. The algorithms were the CG-2 Constraint Grammar environment [Tapanainen 96] and the relaxation labelling algorithm. The language models are: a linguist-written language model, the bi/trigram models and all possible combinations of them. Since the CG-2 environment is not able to deal with statistical information, it will only be used with the linguist-written model. The statistical and hybrid models will be applied with relaxation labelling. This work has been published in [Voutilainen & Padró 97].

4.3.1.1 Setting

Most hybrid approaches combine statistical information with automatically extracted rule-based information [Brill 95, Daelemans et al. 96a]. Relatively little attention has been paid to models where the statistical approach is combined with a truly linguistic model (i.e. one generated by a linguist). This experiment is based on one such approach: syntactic rules written by a linguist are combined with statistical information using the relaxation labelling algorithm.

In this case, the application is very shallow parsing: identification of verbs, premodifiers, nominal and adverbial heads, and certain kinds of postmodifiers. We call this parser a noun phrase parser. The system architecture is presented in figure 4.1, and combines two approaches:

- (i) a linguistic language model which is used as a model to parse the test corpus as well as a model to disambiguate the training corpus and thus obtain a source of almost-supervised knowledge to acquire statistical models from.
- (ii) two n-gram statistical language models –namely, bigram and trigram– acquired from the aforementioned training corpus.

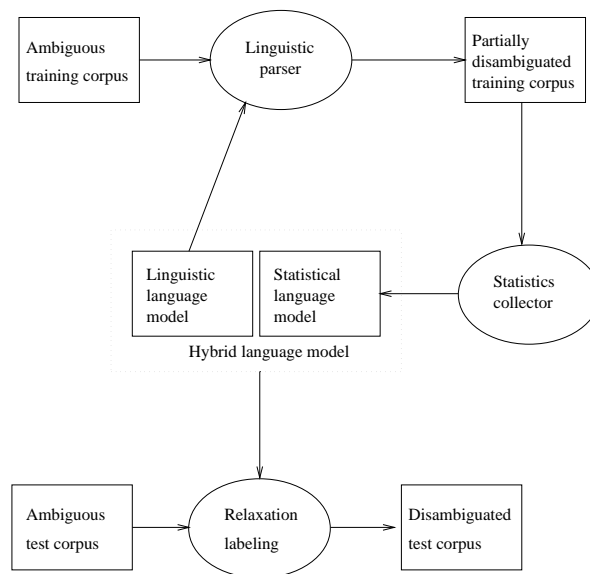


Figure 4.1: Parser architecture.

The input is English text morphologically tagged with a rule-based tagger called EngCG [Voutilainen et al. 1992, Karlsson et al. 95]. Syntactic word-tags –described below– are added as alternatives (e.g. each adjective gets a premodifier tag, postmodifier tag and a nominal head tag as alternatives). The system should remove contextually illegitimate tags and leave intact each word’s most appropriate tag. In other words, the syntactic language model is applied by a disambiguator.

The parser has a *recall* of 100% if all words retain the correct morphological and syntactic reading; the system’s *precision* is 100% if the output contains no illegitimate morphological

or syntactic readings. In practice, some correct analyses are discarded, and some ambiguities remain unresolved.

The system can use linguistic rules and corpus-based statistics. Notable about the system is that minimal human effort was needed for creating its language models (the linguistic consisting of syntactic disambiguation rules based on the Constraint Grammar framework [Karlsson 90, Karlsson et al. 95]; the corpus-based consisting of bigrams and trigrams):

- Only one day was spent on writing the 107 syntactic disambiguation rules used by the linguistic parser.
- No human annotators were needed for annotating the training corpus (218,000 words of journalese) used by the data-driven learning modules of this system: the training corpus was annotated by the following procedure:
 1. It was tagged using the EngCG morphological tagger.
 2. The tagged text was made syntactically ambiguous by adding the alternative syntactic tags to the words.
 3. Finally, the syntactic ambiguities were solved by applying the parser with the 107 disambiguation rules.

The system was tested against a fresh sample of five texts (6,500 words). The system's recall and precision was measured by comparing its output to a manually disambiguated version of the text. Recall is the percentage of words that get the correct tag among the tags proposed by the system. Precision is the percentage of tags proposed by the system that are correct.

Also the relative contributions of the linguistic and statistical components were evaluated. The linguistic rules seldom discard the correct tag, i.e. they have a very high recall, but their problem is remaining ambiguity. The problems of the statistical components are the opposite: their recall is considerably lower, but more (if not all) ambiguities are resolved. When these components are used in a balanced way, the system's overall recall is 97.2% – that is, 97.2% of all words get the correct analysis – and its precision is 96.1% – that is, of the readings returned by the system, 96.1% are correct.

4.3.1.2 Grammatical representation

The input of the parser is morphologically analyzed and disambiguated text enriched with alternative syntactic tags, e.g.

```
"<others>"
  "other" PRON NOM PL @>N @NH
"<moved>"
  "move" <SV> <SVO> V PAST VFIN @V
"<away>"
  "away" ADV ADVL @>A @AH
"<from>"
  "from" PREP @DUMMY
"<traditional>"
  "traditional" A ABS @>N @N< @NH
```

```
"<jazz>"
  "jazz" <-Indef> N NOM SG @>N @NH
"<practice>"
  "practice" N NOM SG @>N @NH
  "practice" <SVO> V PRES -SG3 VFIN @V
```

Every indented line represents a morphological analysis. Syntactic tags start with the "@" sign. A word is syntactically ambiguous if it has more than one syntactic tags (e.g. *practice* above has three alternative syntactic tags). The above sample shows that some morphological ambiguities are not resolved by the rule-based EngCG morphological disambiguator.

Next we describe the syntactic tags:

- @>N represents premodifiers and determiners.
- @N< represents a restricted range of postmodifiers and the determiner "enough" following its nominal head.
- @NH represents nominal heads (nouns, adjectives, pronouns, numerals, ING-forms and non-finite ED-forms).
- @>A represents those adverbs that premodify (intensify) adjectives (including adjectival ING-forms and non-finite ED-forms), adverbs and various kinds of quantifiers (certain determiners, pronouns and numerals).
- @AH represents adverbs that function as head of an adverbial phrase.
- @A< represents the postmodifying adverb "enough".
- @V represents verbs and auxiliaries (including the infinitive marker "to").
- @>CC represents words introducing a coordination ("either", "neither", "both").
- @CC represents coordinating conjunctions.
- @CS represents subordinating conjunctions.
- @DUMMY represents all prepositions, i.e. the parser does not address the attachment of prepositional phrases.

4.3.1.3 Syntactic rules

Rule formalism

The rules follow the Constraint Grammar formalism, and they were applied using the recent parser-compiler CG-2 [Tapanainen 96]. The parser reads a sentence at a time and discards those ambiguity-forming readings that are disallowed by a constraint.

Next we describe some basic features of the rule formalism. The rule

```
REMOVE    (@>N)
           (*1C <<< OR (@V) OR (@CS) BARRIER (@NH));
```

removes the premodifier tag @>N from an ambiguous reading if somewhere to the right (*1) there is an unambiguous (C) occurrence of a member of the set <<< (sentence boundary symbols) or the verb tag @V or the subordinating conjunction tag @CS, and there are no intervening tags for nominal heads (@NH).

This is a partial rule about coordination:

```
REMOVE    (@>N)
          (NOT 0 (DET) OR (NUM) OR (A))
          (1C (CC))
          (2C (DET));
```

It removes the premodifier tag if all three context-conditions are satisfied:

- the word to be disambiguated (0) is not a determiner, numeral or adjective,
- the first word to the right (1) is an unambiguous coordinating conjunction, and
- the second word to the right is an unambiguous determiner.

The rules can refer to words and tags directly or by means of predefined sets. They can refer not only to any fixed context positions; also reference to contextual patterns is possible. The rules never discard a last reading, so every word retains at least one analysis. On the other hand, an ambiguity remains unresolved if there are no rules for that particular type of ambiguity.

Grammar development

A day was spent on writing 107 constraints; about 15,000 words of the parser's output were proof-read during the process. The routine was the following:

1. The current grammar (containing e.g. 2 rules) is applied to the ambiguous input in a 'trace' mode in which the parser also indicates, which rule discarded which analysis,
2. The grammarian observes remaining ambiguities and proposes new rules for disambiguating them, and
3. He also tries to identify misanalyses (cases where the correct tag is discarded) and, using the trace information, corrects the faulty rule.

This routine is useful if the development time is very restricted, and only the most common ambiguity types have to be resolved with reasonable success. However, if the grammar should be of a very high quality (extremely few mispredictions, high degree of ambiguity resolution), a large test corpus, formally similar to the input except for the manually added extra information about the correct analysis, should be used. This kind of test corpus would enable the automatic identification of mispredictions as well as counting of various performance statistics for the rules. However, manually disambiguating a test corpus of a few hundred thousand words would probably require a human effort of at least a month.

Sample output

The following is genuine output of the linguistic (CG-2) parser using the 107 syntactic disambiguation rules. The traces starting with "S:" indicate the line on which the applied rule is in the grammar file. One syntactic (and morphological) ambiguity remains unresolved: *until* remains ambiguous due to preposition and subordinating conjunction readings.

```

"<aachen>" S:46
  "aachen" <*> <Proper> N NOM SG @NH
"<remained>"
  "remain" <SVC/N> <SVC/A> V PAST VFIN @V
"<a>"
  "a" <Indef> DET CENTRAL ART SG @>N
"<free>" S:316, 49
  "free" A ABS @>N
"<imperial>" S:49, 57
  "imperial" A ABS @>N
"<city>" S:46
  "city" N NOM SG @NH
"<until>"
  "until" PREP @DUMMY
  "until" <**CLB> CS @CS
"<occupied>" S:116, 345, 46
  "occupy" <SVO> PCP2 @V
"<by>"
  "by" PREP @DUMMY
"<france>" S:46
  "france" <*> <Proper> N NOM SG @NH
"<in>"
  "in" PREP @DUMMY
"<1794>" S:121, 49
  "1794" <1900> NUM CARD @NH
"<$.>"

```

4.3.1.4 Hybrid language model

To solve shallow parsing with the relaxation labelling algorithm we model each word in the sentence as a variable, and each of its possible readings as a label for that variable. We start with a uniform weight distribution.

We will use the algorithm to select the right syntactic tag for every word. Each iteration will increase the weight for the tag which is currently most compatible with the context and decrease the weights for the others.

Since constraints are used to decide *how compatible* a tag is with its context, they have to assess the compatibility of a combination of readings. We adapt CG constraints described above.

The **REMOVE** constraints express total incompatibility¹⁰ and **SELECT** constraints express total compatibility (actually, they express incompatibility of all other possibilities).

The compatibility value for these should be at least as strong as the strongest value for a statistically obtained constraint (see below), which happens to be about ± 10 .

But because we want the linguistic part of the model to be more important than the statistical part and because a given label will receive the influence of about two bigrams

¹⁰We model compatibility values using mutual information [Cover & Thomas 91], which enables us to use negative numbers to state *incompatibility*.

and three trigrams¹¹, a single linguistic constraint might have to override five statistical constraints. So we will make the compatibility values for linguistic rules six times stronger than the strongest statistical constraint, that is, ± 60 .

Since in our implementation of the CG parser [Tapanainen 96] constraints tend to be applied in a certain order – e.g. **SELECT** constraints are usually applied *before* **REMOVE** constraints – we adjust the compatibility values to get a similar effect: if the value for **SELECT** constraints is +60, the value for **REMOVE** constraints will be lower in absolute value, (i.e. –50). With this we ensure that two contradictory constraints (if there are any) do not cancel each other. The **SELECT** constraint will win, as if it had been applied before.

This enables using any Constraint Grammar with this algorithm although we are applying it more flexibly: we do not decide whether a constraint is applied or not. It is always applied with an influence (perhaps zero) that depends on the weights of the labels.

If the algorithm should apply the constraints in a more strict way, we can introduce an influence threshold under which a constraint does not have enough influence, i.e. it is not applied.

We can add more information to our model in the form of statistically derived constraints. Here we use bigrams and trigrams as constraints.

The 218,000-word corpus of journalese from which these constraints were extracted was build as described in section 4.3.1.1.

It is noticeable that no human effort was spent on creating this training corpus. The training corpus is partly ambiguous, so the bi/trigram information acquired will be slightly noisy, but accurate enough to provide an *almost* supervised statistical model.

For instance, the following constraints have been statistically extracted from bi/trigram occurrences in the training corpus.

-0.4153	(@V)	4.2808	(@>A)
	(1 (@>N));		(-1 (@>A))
			(1 (@AH));

The compatibility value assigned to these constraints is the mutual information between the affected syntactic tag and the context described by the constraint. It is computed from the probabilities estimated from the training corpus. We do not need to manually assign the compatibility values here, since we can estimate them from the corpus.

The compatibility values assigned to the hand-written constraints express the strength of these constraints compared to the statistical ones. Modifying those values means changing the relative weights of the linguistic and statistical parts of the model.

4.3.1.5 Preparation of the benchmark corpus

For evaluating the systems, five roughly equal-sized benchmark corpora not used in the development of our parsers and taggers were prepared. The texts, totaling 6,500 words, were copied from the Gutenberg e-text archive, and they represent present-day American English. One text is from an article about AIDS; another concerns brainwashing techniques; the third

¹¹The algorithm tends to select one label per variable, so there is always a bi/trigram which is applied more significantly than the others.

describes guerilla warfare tactics; the fourth addresses the assassination of J. F. Kennedy; the last is an extract from a speech by Noam Chomsky.

The texts were first analysed by a recent version of the morphological analyser and rule-based disambiguator EngCG, then the syntactic ambiguities were added with a simple lookup module. The ambiguous text was then manually disambiguated. The disambiguated texts were also proof-read afterwards. Usually, this practice resulted in one analysis per word. However, there were two types of exception:

1. The input did not contain the desired alternative (due to a morphological disambiguation error). In these cases, no reading was marked as correct. Two such words were found in the corpora; they detract from the performance figures.
2. The input contained more than one analyses all of which seemed equally legitimate, even when semantic and textual criteria were consulted. In these cases, all the equal alternatives were marked as correct. The benchmark corpus contains 18 words (mainly ING-forms and nonfinite ED-forms) with two correct syntactic analyses.

The number of multiple analyses could probably be made even smaller by specifying the grammatical representation (usage principles of the syntactic tags) in more detail, in particular incorporating some analysis conventions for certain apparent borderline cases (for a discussion of specifying a parser's linguistic task, see [Voutilainen 95]).

4.3.1.6 Experiments and results

We tested linguistic, statistical and hybrid language models, using the CG-2 parser described in [Tapanainen 96] and the relaxation labelling algorithm.

The statistical models were obtained from a training corpus of 218,000 words of journalese, syntactically annotated using the linguistic parser (section 4.3.1.4).

Although the linguistic CG-2 parser does not disambiguate completely, it seems to have an almost perfect recall (Table 4.11), and the noise introduced by the remaining ambiguity is assumed to be sufficiently lower than the signal, following the idea used in [Yarowsky 92].

The collected statistics were bigram and trigram occurrences.

The algorithms and models were tested against the above described hand-disambiguated benchmark corpus.

Models are coded as follows: **B** stands for bigrams, **T** for trigrams and **C** for hand-written constraints. All combinations of information types are tested. Since the CG-2 parser handles only Constraint Grammars, we can not test this algorithm with statistical models.

	CG-2 parser precision - recall	Relaxation labelling precision - recall
C	90.8% – 99.7%	93.3% – 98.4%
forced-C	95.0% – 95.0%	95.8% – 95.8%

Table 4.11: Results obtained with the linguistic model.

Table 4.11 summarizes the results obtained when using only a linguistic model. Results are given in precision and recall since the model does not disambiguate completely. Results when forcing complete disambiguation through random selection are also presented.

	Relaxation labelling precision - recall
B	87.4% – 88.0%
T	87.6% – 88.4%
BT	88.1% – 88.8%
forced-BT	88.5% – 88.5%

Table 4.12: Results obtained with statistical models.

Table 4.12 shows the results given by the statistical models, which are rather worse, since shallow parsing is a task more difficult to capture in a n-gram model than POS tagging.

	Relaxation labelling precision - recall
BC	96.0% – 97.0%
TC	95.9% – 97.0%
BTC	96.1% – 97.2%
forced-BTC	96.7% – 96.7%

Table 4.13: Results obtained with hybrid models.

Finally, table 4.13 presents the results produced by the hybrid models, which are significantly better than the previous ones, that is, the collaboration between models improved the performance in this case as well as in POS-tagging (section 4.2).

These results suggest the following conclusions:

- Using the same language model (107 rules), the relaxation algorithm disambiguates more than the CG-2 parser. This is due to the weighted rule application, and results in more misanalyses and less remaining ambiguity.
- The statistical models are clearly worse than the linguistic one. This could be due to the noise in the training corpus, but it is more likely caused by the inherent difficulty of the task: we are dealing here with shallow syntactic parsing, which is probably more difficult to capture in a statistical model than POS tagging.
- The hybrid models produce less ambiguous results than the other models. The number of errors is much lower than was the case with the statistical models, and somewhat higher than was the case with the linguistic model. The gain in precision seems to be enough to compensate for the loss in recall, although, obviously, this depends on the flexibility of one's requirements.
- There does not seem to be much difference between BC and TC hybrid models. The reason is probably that the job is mainly done by the linguistic part of the model – which has a higher relative weight – and that the statistical part only helps to disambiguate cases where the linguistic model does not make a prediction. The BTC hybrid model is slightly better than the other two.
- The small difference between the hybrid models suggest that some reasonable statistics provide enough disambiguation, and that not very sophisticated information is needed.

4.3.2 Word Sense Disambiguation

The utility of the constraint-based models applied through relaxation labelling algorithms was also checked in the task of word sense disambiguation. Nevertheless, the work described in this section is in an early stage and the obtained results have still to be improved. Factors that affect this part of the work are, apart from the intrinsic difficulty of the task, the lack of large sense-tagged corpus to perform training –we use SemCor [Miller et al. 93, Miller et al. 94], which contains only some 230 Kwords– and the difficulty to obtain accurate context constraints involving word senses.

Since, as stated in [Wilks & Stevenson 96, Wilks & Stevenson 97], knowing the part-of-speech tag for a word helps to reduce the sense ambiguity in a large amount of cases, we addressed the combined problem POS+WSD. The way in which this was performed was the following: we considered that what is assigned to each word is not a single *tag* but a *reading*, being a reading a set of word features, that may include –among others– part-of-speech tag, sense, lemma, etc.

Then, the task of disambiguation consists of selecting the most appropriate reading for the current context, and this can be done through relaxation algorithms if context constraints on the existing features are available.

4.3.2.1 Searching for appropriate semantic constraints

Due to their higher complexity, context constraints on semantic features are more difficult to obtain than other kinds of models, such as statistical information for POS tagging. This difficulty is found not only in automatically acquired models –since the complexity of the task overwhelms most acquisition algorithms, and not enough supervised data is available to feed them–, but also in manually developed models, since the larger number of items to deal with makes it a high labour cost task to manually develop a linguistic model for WSD.

In order to obtain semantic constraints to feed the relaxation algorithm with, we tried to extract knowledge from different sources, and use them either combined or separately.

The used constraints included the following knowledge:

- POS bigrams, which will perform the part-of-speech disambiguation.
- Most likely sense selection once the POS tag is known. The senses are considered to be output by WordNet sorted from most likely to less likely.
- Pairwise conceptual distance [Sussna 93, Agirre & Rigau 95] among noun senses, measured in the WordNet taxonomy [Miller et al. 91]. These constraints try to capture the *topic* the sentence is about.

Each pair of noun senses in WordNet generates a binary constraint, stating that they have a compatibility inversely proportional to their distance, so the nearer they are, the more compatible¹². This raises the support for noun senses that are neighbour in the WordNet taxonomy.

These constraints do not consider the relative position of the words. This means that a noun sense is affected by as many constraints as possible senses may have the nouns in

¹²Obviously, for efficiency reasons, not *all* the possible constraints are generated *a priori*. The distance is computed only when a pair of senses appears. That is, constraints are dynamically generated.

its context –being the context the whole sentence where it appears–, regardless of their relative position.

Obviously, this approach assumes that the nouns appearing in the same sentence tend to have conceptually near senses. This maybe true in some –too obvious– cases such as `The nurse helps the doctor at the hospital.`, but it also may be misleading in many other cases –more likely to happen in a real corpus–, such as `The child felt sick and the nurse had to take him to the hospital to see the doctor.`

In addition, since WordNet consists of separate hierarchies for nouns and verbs, conceptual distance between nouns and verbs can not be computed. This prevents us from using this kind of constraints to detect the difference between sentences like `The crane ate the fish` and `The crane lifted the fish container.`

- WordNet top synsets pairwise co-occurrences, interpreted as class co-occurrences. These constraints try to be a kind of *semantic bigrams*.

Each top synset is considered as a class, and all its descendant synsets are considered to belong to that class. Then, class co-occurrences are computed on a training corpus, and used as binary constraints. As in the previous case, no positional information is considered, two classes are considered to co-occur if they appear in the same sentence, regardless of their position. Nevertheless, this approach enables deriving verb–noun constraints, since there will be co-occurrences of noun and verb classes. Anyway, the flaw here is that verbs are organized in WordNet in a very flat hierarchy, that is, most verbs are tops and constitute a class on their own. This produces a large number of possible verb–noun constraints, which require a much larger corpus to be estimated.

This kind of constraints have also been acquired using WordNet file codes instead of top synsets as class identifiers.

The assumption that this approach requires is that senses belonging to a given class tend to appear more with senses of certain classes than with senses of the others.

- Automatically acquired selectional restrictions on verb objects. The acquisition procedure is described in [Ribas 94, Ribas 95] and has been outlined in section 3.3.2.3.

Selectional restrictions try to capture the constraints that a phrase head imposes to its complements. In our case, we focused on the constraints that a verb imposes to its objects.

The restrictions are acquired in such a way that for each verb, a numerical value (probability, association ratio, ...) is assigned to the preferred classes for each of its syntactic positions (subject, direct object, indirect object, prepositional object). Converting these restrictions to context constraints is straightforward.

The strongest assumption taken in this approach is that verbs are considered as *forms* not as senses, i.e. selectional restrictions for polysemic verbs do not distinguish the different verb senses.

- Hand written selectional restrictions on verb objects. The hand written restrictions were only a small subset covering some sample verbs, and are not statistically significant, but will enable us to check whether appropriate constraints may perform the task accurately.

The small set of hand written constraints was used to test the system with a model without the problems related to overgeneralization presented by the automatically acquired selectional restrictions (see section 4.3.2.2), and without the problems that may be caused by the assumptions described above for the different kinds of constraints employed.

4.3.2.2 Performance analysis of the proposed constraints

The results of the experiments described in section 4.3.2.1 point that the semantic constraints do not significantly improve the performance for WSD respect a most-likely sense assignation once the POS tag is known. Actually, the effect of the semantic constraints is that while they do correct a certain number of noun senses they also turn wrong a similar amount.

Anyway, it must be taken into account that the POS-tagging plus most-likely sense selection produce almost a 58% of correct synset selection and a 63% for correct WN file code selection, *on all words*. If we focus on nouns only, the results are still better, 63% for synsets and 68% for WN file codes. This is due to the fact that the most-likely sense order yielded by WN is based on sense occurrences in SemCor, so we are using over-fitted knowledge, and we have a very high baseline which is difficult to outperform.

Other reasons for the poor contribution of tested constraints are:

- The conceptual distance and top co-occurrences constraints are poorly informed heuristics that may not contain any new information that was not in the most-likely sense heuristic. In addition, the later model was acquired from a rather small training corpus, which causes the co-occurrences estimations to be unreliable, specially those involving verb classes since most verbs in WordNet constitute a class on their own.
- The automatically acquired selectional restrictions were acquired taking into account the syntactic position of the noun, and when the constraints are applied by relaxation, this information is not available, so the first noun to the left of the verb is considered to be its subject, the first to the right the direct object, and so on. This may cause that many constraints are either improperly applied or not applied at all when they should be.
- The automatically acquired selectional restrictions were acquired from only positive examples, which may lead to over-generalization, thus they may be applied in cases when they should not.
- The selectional restrictions do not consider verb sense ambiguity, so, a restriction stating that the object of verb *eat* must be of class *<food>*, would –wrongly– be applied in the sentence: “**the acid ate the soap cake.**”, where the verb *eat* has the sense of *<corrode>*. Thus the *<food>* sense for *cake* would be selected, instead of the correct *<artifact>* sense.

4.3.2.3 Using a small hand-written model

In order to analyze in detail how relaxation uses the semantic constraints and to check whether we can expect better results from it, we focused on one verb and on some of its selectional restrictions and studied the algorithm behaviour. The chosen verb had to have a high

frequency in the corpus and have also a high number of disambiguation errors¹³ in its object nouns, in order to check whether the constraints could solve them. Such conditions were matched by several common verbs such as *to give*, *to find*, *to hold*, etc., probably due to their high ambiguity, and to the fact that they are basis to many phrasal verbs. Although a few restrictions for each of them were written, focus was set on verb *to give* since it was the most frequent verb –apart of the ubiquitous *to be* and *to have*– with errors in its object nouns in the corpus.

We extracted from SemCor all the sentences containing any form of the verb *to give*, and got a small corpus of 6 Kw and 220 sentences. We disambiguated them using the model for POS-bigrams plus most-likely sense selection. Then we extended the language model in two ways: On the one hand, with the selectional constraints for the verb *to give* automatically acquired by the [Ribas 95] algorithm (see section 3.3.2.3), which are listed in table 4.14. On the other hand, we manually wrote the 5 selectional restrictions presented in table 4.15. Verb ambiguity was not considered in any case (*give* has 22 senses in WN, but no distinctions were made).

2.85	[give SUBJECT = < <i>act, human-action</i> >]
2.60	[give SUBJECT = < <i>group, grouping</i> >]
1.11	[give SUBJECT = < <i>person, individual</i> >]
5.94	[give OBJECT-1 = < <i>rate (magnitude-relation)</i> >]
3.59	[give OBJECT-1 = < <i>information (content)</i> >]
3.19	[give OBJECT-1 = < <i>message (communication)</i> >]
2.90	[give OBJECT-1 = < <i>group, grouping</i> >]
2.34	[give OBJECT-1 = < <i>person, individual</i> >]
2.24	[give OBJECT-1 = < <i>state</i> >]
1.55	[give OBJECT-1 = < <i>act, human-action</i> >]
3.93	[give OBJECT-2 = < <i>opportunity, chance</i> >]
3.06	[give OBJECT-2 = < <i>activity, behaviour</i> >]
2.79	[give OBJECT-2 = < <i>attribute</i> >]
2.34	[give OBJECT-2 = < <i>cognition, knowledge</i> >]

Table 4.14: Automatically acquired selectional restrictions for verb *to give*.

10.0	[give SUBJECT = < <i>person, individual</i> >]
10.0	[give OBJECT-1 = < <i>possession</i> >]
10.0	[give OBJECT-1 = < <i>time</i> >]
10.0	[give OBJECT-1 = < <i>freedom, liberty</i> >]
10.0	[give OBJECT-1 = < <i>status, social-state</i> >]

Table 4.15: Hand written selectional restrictions for verb *to give*.

The compatibility values for automatically acquired constraints were computed from the occurrences in training corpus. For the hand written constraints, the compatibility was assigned following the same criterion than in the shallow parsing case. As described in section 4.3.1.4, the compatibility value assigned to the constraints was at least as large as the largest

¹³Disambiguation errors made by most-likely sense selection given the POS tag.

value for a statistical constraint –in this case, the POS bigrams–. Since the larger compatibility for a POS binay constraint is about ± 10 , this is the compatibility assigned to the semantic constraints.

Thus, the *to give* test corpus was disambiguated using the following models:

- POS bigrams plus most-likely sense selection.
- POS bigrams plus most-likely sense selection plus the 14 automatically acquired *to give* constraints.
- POS bigrams plus most-likely sense selection plus the 5 manually written *to give* constraints.

Results point out that automatically acquired constraints seem to perform worse than hand written constraints. This is due not only to their higher overgeneralization degree, but also to the fact that a larger number of constraints may imply a larger number of conflicts, and thus a larger amount of wrongly resolved conflicts. See the examples below for more details.

Although the used selectional restrictions are few in both cases (5 hand-written and 14 automatically learned), the obtained results offer a sample of a wide range of possibilities: Some words are corrected to the synset level while others only to the WN file code level, some are turned wrong because of an incorrect application of a constraint that should distinguish verb senses, and some others are turned wrong by the incorrect application of a constraint that should use more precise syntactic information.

The following examples show some effects of the selectional restrictions presented above. A reading marked with **p** indicates wrong POS tag (and thus, wrong file code and wrong synset). When marked with **f**, it indicates right POS tag but wrong WN file code (and thus, wrong synset). A reading marked with **s** indicates wrong synset but right POS tag and file code. Readings marked with **t** are test corpus incoherences (i.e. a noun POS-tag with a verb sense) and are left out of performance analysis.

Note that the synset assigned to the verb *give* is always $\langle give (state, say) \rangle$. This is because the used selectional constraints only restrict noun senses, so verbs are assigned their most likely sense.

The manual constraints were successful in assigning the right synset to nouns in which the most-likely heuristic was wrong, as in the following example sentence, where the word *award* was correctly changed from the $\langle honour \rangle$ to the $\langle prize \rangle$ synset.

<u>POS + Most Likely</u>	
a	DT
special	JJ special adj.all $\langle special \rangle$
award	f NN award noun.communication $\langle honour \rangle$
was	VBD be verb.stative $\langle have-the-quality-of-being \rangle$
given	f VBN give verb.possession $\langle give (state, say) \rangle$
to	TO
Bob	NP
Nordmann	NP

<u>POS + Most Likely + Hand-written</u>	
a	DT
special	JJ special adj.all <special>
award	NN award noun.possession <prize>
was	VBD be verb.stative <have-the-quality-of-being>
given	f VBN give verb.possession <give (state, say)>
to	TO
Bob	NP
Nordmann	NP

In the following case the algorithm assigned the right WN file code but not the right synset, i.e., the word *host* file code was corrected from *noun.animal* to *noun.person*, but the hand-written constraints were not specific enough to distinguish between the assigned <master-of-ceremonies> synset and the correct <host (adult)> sense.

<u>POS + Most Likely</u>	
their	PP\$
host	f NN host noun.animal <host (organism)>
gives	s VBZ give verb.possession <give (state,say)>
them	PP
fresh	JJ fresh adj.all <fresh>
clothes	NNS clothes noun.artifact <clothes>

<u>POS + Most Likely + Hand-written</u>	
their	PP\$
host	s NN host noun.person <master-of-ceremonies>
gives	s VBZ give verb.possession <give (state, say)>
them	PP
fresh	JJ fresh adj.all <fresh>
clothes	NNS clothes noun.artifact <clothes>

In the same case, the automatically acquired model got wrong the word *host*, because of a restriction conflict: The automatically acquired model not only includes the constraint [give SUBJECT = <person, individual>], but also another constraint on the subject of the verb *give*: [give SUBJECT = <group, grouping>]. Although both constraints are correct, they conflict in the word *host*, since it may take either a <person, individual> sense or a <group, grouping> one (<horde>). In this particular case, the later was –wrongly– selected due to the higher compatibility value assigned to the second constraint. This points out that more context information should be used to correctly disambiguate such cases.

The constraints written to better diambiguate senses, may also help to correct words which would be assigned a wrong POS tag. This happens in the next example, where the word *rein* was assigned a **VB** (verb) tag, but the selection of the <free-rein, rein> synset due to the manual constraint [give OBJECT-1 = <freedom, liberty>] caused the tag to be correctly changed to **NN** (noun).

<u>POS + Most Likely</u>	
had	VBD have verb.possession <have-got, hold>

not		RB not adv.all <not>
dared	s	VBD dare verb.social <presume-to>
to		TO
give	s	VB give verb.possession <give (state, say)>
rein	p	VB rein verb.change <rule, constrol>
to		TO
impulses	f	NNS impulse noun.attribute <momentum>

POS + Most Likely + Hand-written

had		VBD have verb.possession <have-got, hold>
not		RB not adv.all <not>
dared	s	VBD dare verb.social <presume-to>
to		TO
give	s	VB give verb.possession <give (state, say)>
rein		NN rein noun.state <free-rein, rein>
to		TO
impulses	f	NNS impulse noun.attribute <momentum>

On the other hand, the hand-written model also turned wrong two synsets where the right choice was the most likely sense. One of them is presented here: the synset for word *rate* was wrongly changed from <rate (magnitude-relation)> to <rate (charge-per-unit)>. This is due to verb polysemy, since here *give* has the <yield> sense and not the <give (transfer)> one, the constraint [give OBJECT-1 = <possession>] should not be applied. The only way to prevent the constraint from being applied is that it was specific for the <give (transfer)> sense.

POS + Most Likely

This		DT
gives	s	VBZ give verb.possession <give (state, say)>
a		DT
rate		NN rate noun.time <rate (magnitude-relation)>
of		IN
shear		NN shear noun.phenomenon <shear>
of		IN
**f		NN

POS + Most Likely + Hand-written

This		DT
gives	s	VBZ give verb.possession <give (state, say)>
a		DT
rate	f	NN rate noun.possession <rate (charge-per-unit)>
of		IN
shear		NN shear noun.phenomenon <shear>
of		IN
**f		NN

On the contrary, in the same case, the automatically acquired model selected the right sense for the word *rate*. Since the automatic model does not contain the constraint which

selects the wrong *<possession>* sense, [give OBJECT-1 = *<possession>*], it is not selected. In addition, the automatic model does contain a restriction which reinforces the most-likely option anyway: [give OBJECT-1 = *<rate (magnitude-relation)>*].

There was also one error made by the manual model due to a wrong constraint application caused by insufficient syntactic information. The word *figure* was wrongly taken as the subject of *gives* and the constraint [give SUBJECT = *<person>*] gave more support to the *<figure (important-person)>* sense and caused it to be chosen instead of the right *<figure (illustration)>*.

POS + Most Likely

The		DT
temperature		NN temperature noun.attribute <i><temperature></i>
distribution		NN distribution noun.cognition <i><distribution></i>
of		IN
figure		NN figure noun.communication <i><figure (illustration)></i>
4		CD
gives		VBZ give verb.possession <i><give (state, say)></i>
**f		NN
all	t	DT all adj.all <i><all></i>
blowing	t	NN blow verb.weather <i><blow></i>
rates		NNS rate noun.time <i><rate (magnitude-relation)></i>

POS + Most Likely + Hand-written

The		DT
temperature		NN temperature noun.attribute <i><temperature></i>
distribution		NN distribution noun.cognition <i><distribution></i>
of		IN
figure	f	NN figure noun.person <i><figure (important-person)></i>
4		CD
gives		VBZ give verb.possession <i><give (state, say)></i>
**f		NN
for		IN
all	t	DT all adj.all <i><all></i>
blowing	t	NN blow verb.weather <i><blow></i>
rates		NNS rate noun.time <i><rate (magnitude-relation)></i>

The results obtained so far point out that relaxation labelling applies properly the constraints and that it can be used to apply multi-feature models and simultaneously solve different NLP tasks. The main causes of the poor results in WSD are mainly due to the unapropiateness of the used constraint model and semantic taxonomy.

Thus, the WSD issue has to be further addressed to obtain better results with relaxation labelling algorithms. The solution seems to be in the direction of taking the appropriate measures to avoid undesired constraint applications. This will require a model refining and the use of more precise selectional constraints, which may be addressed through the following issues:

- Use a shallow parsing model together with the WSD model to more precisely apply the constraints that require syntactic information.

- Improve the language model, refining the constraints to achieve that they take into account not only verb forms but also verb senses.
- Use constraint which affect not only noun but also verb senses.
- Define a suitable sense granularity level in WordNet coarser than synset level, but finer than top-level.
- Use richer context information, including not only head words, but also qualifyers, prepositional phrases, etc.

Chapter 5

Comparative Analysis of Results

In chapter 4 we described the performed experiments on applying relaxation algorithms to NLP, and reported the obtained results.

In this chapter we will analyze those results and compare the accuracy obtained with different language models in different tasks, as well as compare our results with those produced by other systems. Some considerations on performance evaluation and systems comparison –specially on POS tagging– can be found in section 5.1.1.

5.1 Part-of-speech Tagging

The experiments on POS tagging, as described in section 4.2, consisted of tagging the **WSJ** corpus with different language models. Those models included bigram, trigram, hand-written constraints as well as automatically learned decision trees. The knowledge contained in the different models was combined to take advantage of the collaboration between them. We also used a HMM bigram tagger and a most-likely-tag algorithm to tag the test set and establish a baseline performance. Results are summarized in table 5.1.

From those results, we concluded the following:

- When using only bigram information, the relaxation algorithm is worse than the bigram HMM tagger with a 90% confidence rate. This may be indicating a higher sensitivity of relaxation to noise in the model.
- The use of trigrams, either alone or combined with bigrams yield a small improvement on the average performance, though not at a significant level. That is, the trigram model is slightly better than the bigram model, and the bigram+trigram model is in turn slightly better than the trigram model, but these improvements are not significant.
- The use of an automatically acquired model based on statistical decision trees described in [Márquez & Rodríguez 97] produces results slightly higher than the bigrams and/or trigrams models, but –as in the previous case– there is not a significant difference either.
- The combination of the statistical models (bigram and/or trigram) plus the automatically acquired (decision trees) leads to a significant improvement at a 99% confidence rate respect the bigram/trigram model or the use of the decision trees alone. This enables us to conclude two important issues: First, that the automatically acquired

	ambiguous	overall
ML	85.31%	94.66%
HMM	91.75%	97.00%
B	91.35%	96.86%
T	91.82%	97.03%
BT	91.92%	97.06%
C	91.96%	97.08%
BC	92.72%	97.36%
TC	92.82%	97.39%
BTC	92.55%	97.29%
H	86.41%	95.06%
BH	91.88%	97.05%
TH	92.04%	97.11%
BTH	92.32%	97.21%
CH	91.97%	97.08%
BCH	92.76%	97.37%
TCH	92.98%	97.45%
BTCH	92.71%	97.35%

Table 5.1: Results for POS with different language models. (**ML** stands for most-likely, **B** for bigrams, **T** for trigrams, **C** for automatically acquired constraints and **H** for hand-written constraints.)

constraint model captures relevant information that was not contained in the n-gram models and vice-versa, since the joint result is better than those obtained by any of the two models alone. Second, that the collaboration of both models was correctly performed by the relaxation algorithm, which proves that it is able to correctly combine knowledge from different sources.

- The use of a small set of some twenty hand written constraints improves performance slightly, although not significantly, when added to a model containing the automatically acquired decision-tree constraints. The improvement is significant at a 95% confidence rate when the hand written constraints are added to the bigram model or to the bigram+trigram model. This yields the conclusion that the hand written constraints contain information that was not included in the n-gram models –this is quite obvious since hand written constraints were linguistically motivated– but that this happens to a much smaller extent in the case of the automatically acquired model, which is also reasonable, since the reduced size of the hand-written model makes it quite likely that the modelled phenomena were already captured by the decision-tree model.
- Since our tagger is able to easily incorporate more knowledge, the obtained results are better than other systems that report experiments on WSJ corpus: [Brill 92, Brill 95] reports a 3-4% error rate, and [Daelemans et al. 96a] report 96.7% accuracy. We obtained about 97.4% accuracy using trigrams and automatically acquired constraints. Nevertheless, a more accurate comparison procedure should be established through the use of the same train and test corpus, since –as mentioned in section 4.2– the results

may depend strongly not only on the tagset (which should be the same, since all reported researches use WSJ corpus) but also on the size of the training and test corpus. Another important point that strongly affects POS taggers performance is the noise in the train corpus –which produces a noisy model– as well as in the test corpus. These and other factors affecting taggers evaluation and comparison are discussed in section 5.1.1 below.

5.1.1 Some considerations on error cases

5.1.1.1 On POS taggers evaluation

As stated in section 4.2.3, measuring a tagger performance through its precision percentage, is a technique which is reaching a point where the error in the measure may be higher than the measured performance improvement: Tests are usually performed over noisy corpora, which may contain about 5% of tagging errors, and current taggers perform all above 95%. Thus, the amount of noise in the test corpus is the same order than the tagger error rate. This introduces an uncertainty in the evaluation which may be larger than the reported improvements from one system to another.

Some work related to this issue is presented in [Elworthy 94b], who uses a variable rejection threshold to decide whether a tagger output is reliable. The effect of the threshold is enabling an efficiency vs. accuracy trade-off, i.e. a high threshold will produce less erroneous taggings, but will leave more words ambiguous. In a similar direction, [Jost & Atwell 94] estimate a lower bound for a tagger error rate, depending on the training corpus size.

For instance, if we had a test corpus **A** which we knew to contain about a 5% of tagging errors and we had a tagger that reporting 100% performance on that test set, our tagger, far from being accurate, would be yielding a 5% error rate. And the other way round, if our tagger was *actually* ideal and thus performed *actual* 100% accuracy –that is, perfect ratio over an error-free corpus–, only 95% accuracy would be reported when tested on corpus **A**, since accuracy is computed taking the test corpus as a reference point.

If our tagger instead of being perfect-ratio was, say, 95% accurate on an error-free corpus, and assuming that the 95% accuracy holds for either the words correctly or incorrectly tagged in **A**, when evaluated on corpus **A** the tagger would report between 90.25% and 90.50%, depending on the ambiguity ratio of the words in the corpus. In any case, the obtained value would be significantly lower than the actual tagger precision. Computations are detailed in table 5.2. All figures in this section are computed considering only ambiguous words.

test corpus A	tagger	evaluated as	amount
OK	OK	OK	$95\% \times 0.95 = 90.25\%$
OK	NOK	NOK	$95\% \times 0.05 = 4.75\%$
NOK	OK	NOK	$5\% \times 0.95 = 4.75\%$
NOK	NOK	?	$5\% \times 0.05 = 0.25\%$
total OK			90.25% – 90.50%

Table 5.2: Detailed computation of reported accuracy for an *actual* 95% precise tagger when the probability of rightly tagging a correct/incorrect word in **A** is the same (0.95).

Table 5.3 illustrates the same case, but assuming that the words correctly tagged in corpus **A** correspond to easier ambiguities, and thus they would be more easily solved by the tagger

(e.g. 99% of the times), and the words incorrectly tagged in **A** correspond to more difficult ambiguities in which the tagger would make more errors (81% accuracy to keep the assumed 95% overall precision). The reported accuracy would then range from 94.05% to 98.10% depending on the ambiguity ratio of the corpus.

test corpus A	tagger	evaluated as	amount
OK	OK	OK	$95\% \times 0.99 = 94.05\%$
OK	NOK	NOK	$95\% \times 0.01 = 0.95\%$
NOK	OK	NOK	$5\% \times 0.19 = 0.95\%$
NOK	NOK	?	$5\% \times 0.81 = 4.05\%$
total OK			94.05% – 98.10%

Table 5.3: Detailed computation of reported accuracy for an *actual* 95% precise tagger when the probability of rightly tagging a correct/incorrect word in **A** is 0.99/0.81.

For a corpus with low ambiguity ratio, words wrongly tagged both in the test corpus and in the tagger output would have higher probability of coincidence, and thus of being computed as a correct tag. For higher ambiguity ratios, this coincidence would be less likely, and the tagger output would be more often correctly computed as an error. Figure 5.1 shows how the reported tagger accuracy would vary depending on the ambiguity ratio of test corpus.

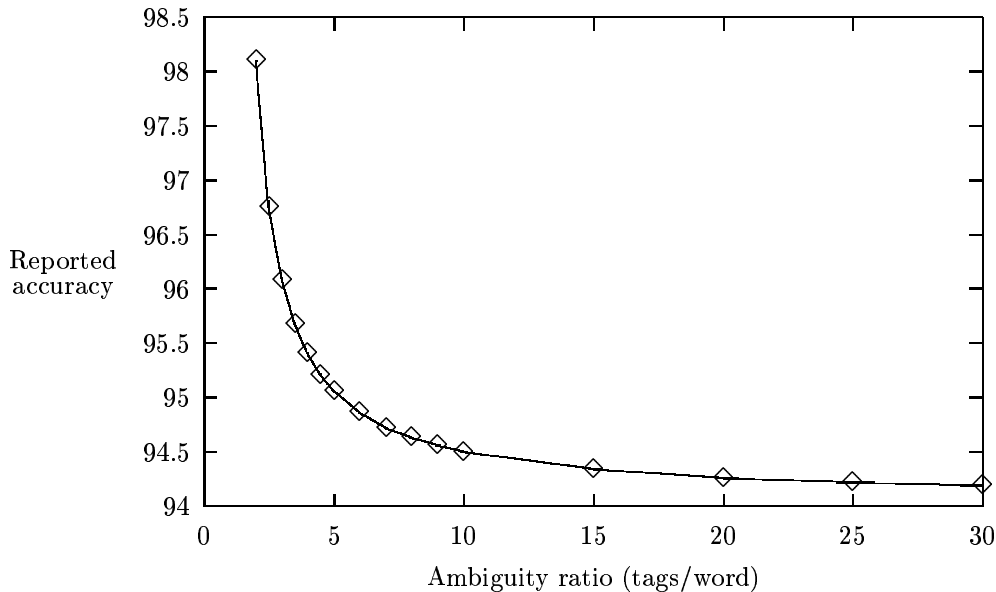


Figure 5.1: Reported accuracy, as a function of the ambiguity ratio, for a an *actual* 95% precise tagger when the probability of rightly tagging a correct/incorrect word in **A** is 0.99/0.81.

Since the ambiguity ratio for a given corpus is a fixed and easily computable value, the main factor affecting the reported accuracy is the distribution of errors between the correctly and the incorrectly tagged parts of the test corpus. For instance, table 5.4 shows how the evaluated precision of our actual 95% precise tagger changes depending on how the probability that the tagger correctly tags a word is distributed between words correctly/incorrectly tagged

in the test corpus **A**. The table is computed taking as the ambiguity ratio for ambiguous words the value 2.5 obtained from the **WSJ** corpus used in the experiments described in section 5.1.

probability that tagger is OK when A is OK (95% of A)	probability that tagger is OK when A is NOK (5% of A)	reported accuracy
0.950	0.950	90.42%
0.955	0.855	91.21%
0.960	0.760	92.00%
0.965	0.665	92.79%
0.970	0.570	93.58%
0.975	0.475	94.38%
0.980	0.380	95.17%
0.985	0.285	95.96%
0.990	0.190	96.75%
0.995	0.095	97.54%
1.000	0.000	98.33%

Table 5.4: Reported accuracy, as a function of the probability of rightly tagging a correct/incorrect word in **A**, for an *actual* 95% precise tagger when the corpus ambiguity ratio is 2.5.

The first column presents the probability that the tagger correctly tags a word that has its right tag in the test corpus. The second column shows the probability that the tagger chooses the right tag for a word that was wrongly tagged in the test corpus. Both probabilities are set in such a way that the overall tagger actual performance keeps being 95%. Third column shows how the reported performance for our tagger would vary between 90.4% and 98.3% only depending on the tagger behaviour on words that are right or wrongly tagged in the test corpus, that is, on to what extent the tagger makes the same errors than those found in the corpus **A**.

All this indicates that the reported accuracy of a tagger does not depend only on the tagset and the train and test corpora sizes, but also on the corpus itself, specially on its ambiguity ratio and on how the tagger behaves over errors in the test corpus. That is, if the train corpus contains the same kind of errors that the test corpus –which is quite likely since they are usually different parts of the same corpus– the tagger will probably learn and make those errors. This will cause the probability of assigning a right tag to a wrongly tagged word to be lower than for well-tagged words, and thus, the tagger performance will be over-evaluated, since more errors will be computed as right tags. If, on the contrary, the tagger makes a similar proportion of errors in right and wrong tagged words, it will be drastically under-evaluated.

This makes very difficult to compare systems, since they must be trained and evaluated in the same corpora to be comparable. In addition, it makes clear that it is not possible –and nonsense– achieving further results on POS-tagging using noisy test corpora and that either error-free test corpora are used, or the distortion on reported performance must be computed using the ambiguity ratio and the tagger error distribution over correct/incorrect words in the test corpus.

5.1.1.2 Some sample error cases

Although a systematic study of corpus errors has not been performed, we analyzed some cases in WSJ corpus in which our tagger made a larger percentage of errors. The main causes of error were identified: one of them was the above discussed issue of mistagged words in the test corpus, another, the noise in the train set, and finally, semantic ambiguities that could not be solved only with morphosyntactic information. Some samples of each follow.

Unsolvable ambiguities include the case of semantic ambiguities which can only be solved with domain, discourse or context semantic information, such as the Noun–Adjective ambiguity for word *metal* in the phrase *the metal container*. It could be an adjective, meaning *the metallic container*, or a noun, meaning *the container full of metal*. This kind of errors are beyond the scope of most current taggers, since they usually deal only with syntactic and/or morphological information. Nevertheless, our flexible system is able to cope with multiple-source knowledge, and constraints relating semantic and morphological features could be used to solve this kind of ambiguities in the same way they were used in section 4.3.2 to perform word sense disambiguation combined with POS-tagging.

Another error case, much more frequent, is the noise in the test and training corpora. For instance, the WSJ corpus used for the experiments described in section 5.1 contains noise (mistagged words) that affects both the training and the test sets.

The noise in the training set produces noisy –and so less precise– models. If the same linguistic structure is not coherently tagged in all its occurrences in the train corpus, the model is not correctly estimated and that structure will be wrongly tagged when the model is applied. If the noise is strong enough it may cause a certain linguistic structure to be tagged in a most-likely basis when the model is supposed to do better than that.

The noise in the test set produces a wrong estimation of accuracy, since correct answers are computed as wrong and vice-versa, as was discussed above.

Samples of some very frequent structures that contain a very high noise level are the following:

1. Verb participle forms are sometimes tagged as *VBN* (verb-participle) and in other sentences with no structural differences they are tagged as *JJ* (adjective).

- ... failing_VBG to_TO voluntarily_RB submit_VB
the_DT requested_VBN information_NN ...
- ... a_DT large_JJ sample_NN of_IN married_JJ women_NNS
with_IN at_IN least_JJS one_CD child_NN ...

2. Another structure not coherently tagged are noun chains when the nouns are ambiguous and can be also adjectives. Although this may obey in many cases to semantic considerations, the same sentence with the same meaning appears tagged with all possible combinations.

- ... Mr._NNP Hahn_NNP ,_, the_DT 62-year-old_JJ chairman_NN and_CC
chief_NN executive_JJ officer_NN of_IN Georgia-Pacific_NNP Corp._NNP ...
- ... Burger_NNP King_NNP 's_POS chief_JJ executive_NN officer_NN ,_,
Barry_NNP Gibbons_NNP ,_, stars_VBZ in_IN ads_NNS saying_VBG ...

- ... and_CC Barrett_NNP B._NNP Weekes_NNP ,-, chairman_NN ,-, president_NN and_CC chief_JJ executive_JJ officer_NN ...
- ... the_DT company_NN includes_VBZ Neil_NNP Davenport_NNP ,-, 47_CD ,-, president_NN and_CC chief_NN executive_NN officer_NN ;_-: ...

Since the occurrence of the incoherently tagged structure are not isolated cases –the number of occurrences of the different combinations are the same order of magnitude–, the noise in these linguistic structures causes its associated model to be almost most-likely choosing. With respect to the test corpus, a significant amount of occurrences of those noisy structures will distort the reported performance.

5.2 Shallow Parsing

The experiments on shallow parsing, described in section 4.3.1, consisted of analyzing the same test corpus using different language models and different analyzers. The used analyzers were the constraint-oriented CG-2 parser [Tapanainen 96] and the relaxation labelling algorithm. Two kinds of language models were employed: the statistically collected, based on bigrams (**B**) and trigrams (**T**) of shallow syntactic tags, and the hand-written CG model with linguistic motivation (**C**). We also used the hybrid models obtained merging them. Results are summarized in table 5.5.

	CG-2 parser precision - recall	Relaxation labelling precision - recall
C	90.8% – 99.7%	93.3% – 98.4%
forced-C	95.0% – 95.0%	95.8% – 95.8%
B	–	87.4% – 88.0%
T	–	87.6% – 88.4%
BT	–	88.1% – 88.8%
forced-BT	–	88.5% – 88.5%
BC	–	96.0% – 97.0%
TC	–	95.9% – 97.0%
BTC	–	96.1% – 97.2%
forced-BTC	–	96.7% – 96.7%

Table 5.5: Results for Shallow Parsing with different language models

The conclusions we can derive from the obtained results are:

- Relaxation disambiguates more words than the CG-2 constraint based parser when using the same language model. This is due to the fact that the rules are applied in a weighted manner, while the CG-2 parser applies them strictly in an established priority order. This has the effect of choosing one among all the possible readings when a small weight difference appears. This obviously causes a higher precision but lower recall for the relaxation algorithm.

For instance, if a certain reading R_1 was affected by a **SELECT** constraint and another reading R_2 for the same word was affected by two different **SELECT** constraints, since

CG-2 there are no reasons to discard any of the two readings, the word would be left ambiguous. On the other hand, when using relaxation applies, all constraints are applied in parallel. Then, the reading R_2 would receive a higher support than R_1 , since it has two positive contributions (constraints) against only one contribution for R_1 . This would have the effect of choosing R_2 as the best candidate.

- When forced¹ to randomly choose an unique reading for each word among the remaining possibilities, relaxation performs significantly better –at a 99% confidence rate– than the CG-2 parser. This is due to the fact that it had already disambiguated more words, so it is choosing randomly in less cases than CG-2.

It could be argued that the CG model was written to be used in a CG-2 like ordered application, and that there is no point in applying it in parallel. Nevertheless, our experiments show that relaxation labelling results are significantly better –in terms of precision– than those of CG-2. Maybe this difference could be increased if the constraint model was developed under an order-free perspective, more adequate to RL needs. These results proof the ability of relaxation labelling to accurately apply linguistic rules, as well as to perform NLP tasks different than POS tagging.

- When the statistical models are used alone, results are clearly worse than the linguist-written model. This is very likely caused by the difficulty of the shallow parsing task, which is not as easy to capture in a n-gram model as a simpler task such as part-of-speech tagging.
- The hybrid models produce less ambiguous output than the other models, that is, they get a higher precision and a lower recall. The combination of the linguistic plus statistical information has also the effect of raising the performance when forced to random disambiguation. The **forced-BTC** results are significantly better (99% confidence rate) than the **forced-C** results, indicating that the both kinds of knowledge are correctly cooperating when applied by the relaxation algorithm. That is, the **BT** model contains information that was not in the **C** model, and is a useful help to further disambiguate the cases where the linguistic model has not enough information.

5.3 Word Sense Disambiguation

The experiments performed on word sense disambiguation reported in section 4.3.2 were neither as extensive nor as intensive as those performed for the POS tagging or shallow parsing tasks. The main reason for that was the lack of appropriate linguistic resources (sense tagged corpora, hand-written semantic constraints, ...) and the high labour cost necessary to develop them. Nevertheless, we tried different statistically acquired semantic constraints, as well as selectional restrictions which had been machine-learned by [Ribas 95]. We also used a few hand written selectional restrictions for some very frequent verbs such as *to give*, *to find* or *to hold*.

Although those experiments on applying relaxation labelling to word sense disambiguation can be considered prospective, the results obtained up to date enable us to draw the following conclusions:

¹The *forced* rows in table 5.5 shows the results when the algorithm was forced to complete disambiguate all words by randomly choosing a reading.

- The sense disambiguation experiments performed with a reduced set of hand-written selectional restrictions for a particular verb show that relaxation labelling is able to deal with multi-feature constraints models and to perform several NLP tasks in parallel, in this case, POS tagging and WSD. Examples in section 4.2 show how the semantic constraints can be useful not only for performing word sense disambiguation but also for assigning the right part-of-speech, and proof the ability of relaxation labelling for taking advantage of cross-feature constraints.
- The experiments also point out that the constraints ruling sense disambiguation must be very precise and use syntactic information as well as distinguish among verb senses, since an important amount of the errors were due to an incorrect application of constraints that were not specific enough. Obtaining more general results for WSD would be possible with a better WSD model.
- The automatically acquired selectional restrictions for verb objects used in the experiments should be more strictly applied, that is, applying the selectional restriction for a verb subject to the first name to the left of the verb, with few or no other warranty of it being the real subject, can produce wrong sense selections. This loose application criterion was selected due to the lack of syntactic information in the model.
- The selectional restrictions acquired in [Ribas 95] are, in some cases, over-generalized. This, as the author indicates, is due to the lack of negative examples, and to the noise introduced by the verbs polysemy. This also leads to undesired applications of selectional restrictions..
- SemCor is not a good test-bench for WSD, since it provides a too small training corpus, and the synset level is too fine-grained to perform WSD. Nevertheless, it is one of the few publicly available sense-tagged corpora.
- Other heuristics tested as possible sense constraints, such as conceptual distance and pairwise tops co-occurrence are not significantly useful to help to disambiguate word senses, since although they do correct some sense selections, they also spoil a similar amount.

The WSD task should be further addressed from constraint-based language models and relaxation labelling algorithm. Some directions in which the described problems can be faced are:

- Use as senses a less fine-grained set of categories than WordNet synsets, but not as coarse as WordNet tops or file codes. That could improve the performance not only when using heuristics such as conceptual distance or top co-occurrence heuristic, but also when using selectional restrictions.
- Another possibility in the same direction is the use of the *Top Ontology* classes or *Domains* defined and used in the EuroWordNet project.
- Conceptual taxonomies different than WordNet, such as those developed in the Micro-Cosmos [Mahesh & Nirenburg 95] or Upper Model [Bateman et al. 95] projects, could also be taken into account.

- Use syntactical information to properly apply selectional restrictions. This could be achieved combining shallow parsing and WSD language models.
- Use selectional restrictions that constraint an object sense not only depending on the verb, but on the verb class or sense. That would filter out the noise derived from verb polysemy.

Chapter 6

Conclusions

This thesis exposes research performed on applying a constraint-based optimization algorithm –relaxation labelling– to natural language processing. The ultimate aim is finding a flexible algorithm able to cope with multi-feature language models, to integrate knowledge from different sources, and to perform several NLP tasks, either separately or at the same time.

We tested different parameterizations of the algorithm to find the most appropriate one to our needs. We then used the algorithm to perform different NLP tasks: POS tagging, shallow parsing, and word sense disambiguation.

In addition, we used hybrid language models to perform those tasks. The used models included simple statistical information such as bigrams and trigrams, linguistically motivated hand-written constraints, and automatically acquired constraints such as decision trees or selectional restrictions.

Those language models included also constraints on different word features, and were used to simultaneously solve more than one NLP task.

6.1 Contributions

6.1.1 Use of optimization techniques in NLP

One of the main points in this thesis is that optimization techniques in general and more particularly relaxation labelling are a good option to process natural language. The main advantage of relaxation labelling over other techniques is its constraint-based domain description, which makes it very suitable for many NLP purposes.

When using the relaxation labelling algorithm, the domain is described through constraints between variable values. In our case, they are constraints among word features such as part-of-speech tags, senses, lemmas, etc.

We proposed and used an extension of the Constraint Grammar formalism, in which a *compatibility value* is assigned to each constraint, as a powerful and well-known way of expressing multi-feature context constraints.

With respect to the objective function optimized by the algorithm, we tested different support functions –which yield different objective functions– and choose the most appropriate, the additive function, which was the one that intuition recommended.

We also tested a new support function, trying to simulate the sequence probability optimized by HMM taggers, but results were not the same, since relaxation performs a *vector*

optimization, that is, the objective function is a vector, and thus, both algorithms are not comparable in these terms.

As a conclusion, we can state that the optimization algorithm correctly performs the NLP tasks, when supplied the right constraint-based language model.

We showed that the model can perform as good as current systems at tasks such as POS tagging or shallow parsing, and that its flexibility enables it to integrate and use more sophisticated kinds of knowledge, yielding better results.

6.1.2 Application of multi-feature models

Another main point in this thesis is that, for a higher accuracy, natural language tasks can not be solved independently, since each one needs information from the others. This is an idea which is getting support from a growing number of researchers [Wilks & Stevenson 97, Ng 97, Oflazer & Tür 97, Rigau et al. 97, Zavrel & Daelemans 97].

The presented system is able to deal with multi-feature models, that is, words are not restricted to have an unique tag, but a set of features.

The language model can include constraints on any word feature, and thus, express relationships between one feature for one word and a different one for a word in the context, for instance stating that the POS tag for a given word depends on the semantics of the preceding word. The formalism that makes it possible is the Constraint Grammar formalism described by [Karlsson et al. 95], which was adopted as a standard way of expressing context rules.

We used multi-feature models to perform shallow parsing and word sense disambiguation, in the former case the used constraints included information about word lemmas, syntactic function, POS, case, verb mode, etc. In the later the used information were POS, senses, WN file codes and lemmas.

Multi-feature models were also used in POS tagging, although to a minor extent, using the word lemma in addition to part-of-speech tag either in constraints derived from automatically acquired decision trees or in the case of hand-written constraints.

The obtained results proof that the relaxation algorithm properly combines different kinds of information since it is able to use constraints relating, for instance, the lemma of a word with the POS tag of one neighbour word and the syntactic function of a third one.

Those constraints are properly applied by the algorithm and the results are better than when using only one-feature models. For instance, the application of a small set of hand written constraints that used as information not only the POS, but also the word lemmas, yielded a significant improvement when added to a bigram model –which, obviously, used only POS information–.

6.1.3 Application of statistical-linguistic hybrid models

The choice to model language through a set of constraints, each of them associated to a compatibility value, makes it possible to merge knowledge acquired from multiple sources. The way to achieve this is converting the different source knowledges to the common formalism of our language model.

We successfully applied the relaxation algorithm, and showed that it is able to integrate knowledge obtained from different sources provided it is expressed in the form of context constraints.

We used constraints obtained from different sources. For POS tagging, we combined bigram and trigram constraints with constraints obtained translating machine-learned decision trees. We used also some sample hand-written constraints.

For shallow parsing, we used a hybrid model containing bigram and trigram information as well as a linguist-written set of constraints.

For word sense disambiguation, we combined POS bigram constraints with selectional restrictions on verb objects both automatically acquired [Ribas 95] and manually written. Other kinds of knowledge which were also written in the form of context constraints and added to the model were the following: co-occurrences of pairs of WordNet top synsets, co-occurrences of pairs of WordNet file codes and conceptual distance between pairs of noun senses.

The conclusions on this issue are that relaxation perfectly combines the different sources knowledge that it is supplied, and produces results which are better than those that would be obtained by any of the integrated sources alone, as for instance, in the POS tagging and shallow parsing experiments reported in chapter 4. Nevertheless, experiments in WSD point out that the knowledge included in the language must be very accurate to produce good results, specially in complex tasks such as word sense disambiguation.

6.1.4 Simultaneous resolution of NLP tasks

Due to the multi-feature nature of constraints, and to the parallel way in which relaxation applies them, the algorithm can select simultaneously the most appropriate combination for several word features, that its, it can solve different NLP disambiguations at the same time.

This is achieved by assigning to each word not only a unique *tag*, but a *reading*, that is, a set of features. When a reading is selected as the correct one, a set of features is being selected and thus the word is manifold disambiguated.

Constraints can express restrictions on any number of these features, from simple homogeneous constraints –such as a POS bigram– to more complex relationships. The selected reading will be the one that has collected more positive evidence in the total of its features.

Modelling word features through *readings* has the advantage of disabling incoherent combinations, since readings with, for instance, a *verb* POS and a noun sense are not considered as candidate readings.

Two of the addressed tasks –shallow parsing and WSD– were solved simultaneously with POS tagging. Results showed that constraints on one kind of knowledge can collaborate to disambiguate the others. For instance, in the WSD experiment described in chapter 4, the hand-written constraints for WSD helped in correcting some POS tag, since the selection of a noun sense forced the POS tag to be changed to *noun*.

6.2 Further Work

The research lines opened by this work can be divided in two main groups: those focused on improving the used constraint language models through both new automatic model acquisition algorithms and linguistic manual model development, and those aiming to better exploit the relaxation algorithms when applied to NLP tasks, including noise analysis, speeding up the algorithm and more accurate applying the constraint models.

On the first group, better language models have to be developed, both through the use of automatic knowledge acquisition techniques and through manual development of the models.

- The future models will have to include constraints on either a single disambiguation task or several of them, use single and multi-feature constraints, obtained from different automatic or manual sources.
- For manual constraints, an automatic procedure for computing compatibility values must be developed. Maximum Entropy seems to be a very promising approach for this issue.
- The model for word sense disambiguation should be extended, probably manually, and will have to include syntactic information to make a good use of selectional restrictions. This could be achieved combining the shallow parsing model with the WSD model.
- The WSD model will also have to use a sense codification of an appropriate granularity. This could be achieved through the use of the *Top Ontology Classes* defined and used in the EuroWordNet project.
- To be able to automatically derive accurate language models, the training corpus must be as noiseless as possible. Thus, debugging techniques should be applied on available corpora in order to minimize their error rate and to establish a coherent evaluation method and an upper bound for the achievable accuracy.

A possible technique to solve this issue could be the comparison of the errors made by different disambiguators on the same test corpus and the study of the rate of agreement and disagreement among them.

- In the same direction, the distortion in reported performance introduced by the noise in the test corpus must be further studied, to find out whether there is an easy way to estimate it, or on the contrary, the only reliable procedure to evaluate a NLP system is using noiseless test corpora.

On improving the algorithm performance, several paths are still to be explored:

- We plan to further test discrete relaxation, which, as described in section 3.1.2, is equivalent to simulated annealing, and compare it with continuous relaxation.
- Studies on which is the most appropriate normalization factor for support values must also be performed, since a correct choice may shorten the number of necessary iterations, improve performance, and confirm the assumption that convergence is the right stopping criterion to choose.
- We also plan to investigate whether the fact that relaxation performs slightly worse than the HMM tagger when both of them use the same bigram model is caused by a higher sensitivity to noise –and thus, it can be solved using better training sets– or else it is an intrinsic feature of the algorithms.
- On improving the algorithm efficiency, a possible future research trend is the compilation of the context constraints into a finite state transducer to speed up their application [Roche & Schabes 95, Morawietz & Cornell 97, Tzoukermann & Radev 97].

From a more general point of view, we plan to develop language models as complete as possible for Spanish and Catalan, and use the system as a basic process in a wider NLP system. The system has already been integrated it in a NLP environment aimed to perform information extraction, as a part of the ITEM project funded by Spanish Research Department (CYCIT) TIC96-1243-C03-02.

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Appendix A

Tagset Descriptions

This appendix contains the tagsets for the Spanish Novel corpus, and the WSJ corpus, which were used in the experiments on POS tagging described in chapter 4.

A.1 WSJ corpus tagset

Tag	Description	Tag	Description
CC	coordinating conjunction	TO	infinitive marker <i>to</i>
CD	cardinal number	UH	interjection
DT	determiner	VB	verb, base form
EX	existential <i>there</i>	VBD	verb, past tense
FW	foreign word	VBG	verb, gerund / present participle
IN	preposition / subordinating conj.	VBN	verb, past participle
JJ	adjective	VBP	verb, non 3rd person singular present
JJR	adjective, comparative	VBZ	verb, 3rd person singular present
JJS	adjective, superlative	WDT	<i>wh</i> -determiner
LS	list item marker	WP	<i>wh</i> -pronoun
MD	modal	WP\$	possessive <i>wh</i> -pronoun
NN	noun, singular or mass	WRB	<i>wh</i> -adverb
NNS	noun, plural	#	pound sign
NP	proper noun, singular	\$	dollar sign
NPS	proper noun, plural	"	straight double quote
PDT	predeterminer	"	left open double quote
POS	possessive ending	"	right close double quote
PP	personal pronoun	'	left open single quote
PP\$	possessive pronoun	'	right close single quote
RB	adverb	(left bracket
RBR	adverb, comparative)	right bracket
RBS	adverb, superlative	,	comma
RP	particle	.	sentence final punctuation
SYM	symbol	:	colon, semi-colon

A.2 Spanish Novel corpus tagset

Tag	Description	Tag	Description
A	adjective	VV	verb personal form
CC	coordinating conjunction	VP	verb personal form + pronoun
CS	subordinating conjunction	VS	verb personal form + <i>se</i>
CA	other conjunctions	VEV	<i>ser</i> personal form
D	adverb	VEP	<i>ser</i> personal form + pronoun
RA	preposition+article contracted	VHV	<i>haber</i> personal form
RP	preposition	VHP	<i>haber</i> personal form + pronoun
TD	demonstrative determiner	VHS	<i>haber</i> personal form + <i>se</i>
TP	possessive determiner	IV	verb infinitive
TQ	definite quantifier determiner	IP	verb infinitive + pronoun
TI	indefinite quantifier determiner	IS	verb infinitive + <i>se</i>
J	article	IEV	<i>ser</i> infinitive
M	number	IEP	<i>ser</i> infinitive + pronoun
N	noun	IHV	<i>haber</i> infinitive
PD	demonstrative pronoun	IHP	<i>haber</i> infinitive + pronoun
PN	interrogative pronoun	IHS	<i>haber</i> infinitive + <i>se</i>
PL	locative pronoun	GV	verb gerund
PO	possessive pronoun	GP	verb gerund + pronoun
PQ	definite quantifier pronoun	GS	verb gerund + <i>se</i>
PI	indefinite quantifier pronoun	GEV	<i>ser</i> gerund
PR	relative pronoun	GEP	<i>ser</i> gerund + pronoun
PS	personal-subject pronoun	GHV	<i>haber</i> gerund
PP	personal pronoun	GHP	<i>haber</i> gerund + pronoun
PA	other pronouns	GHS	<i>haber</i> gerund + <i>se</i>
W	proper noun	UV	verb participle
X	<i>se</i>	UP	verb participle + pronoun
Y	interjection	US	verb participle + <i>se</i>
Z _i	punctuation ;	UEV	<i>ser</i> participle
Z!	punctuation !	UEP	<i>ser</i> participle + pronoun
Z _¿	punctuation ¿	UHV	<i>haber</i> participle
Z?	punctuation ?	UHP	<i>haber</i> participle + pronoun
Z,	punctuation ,	UHS	<i>haber</i> participle + <i>se</i>
Z.	punctuation .		
Z;	punctuation ;		
Z-	punctuation -		
ZX	other punctuations		

A.3 Susanne Corpus tagset

The complete Susanne corpus tagset consists of over 350 tags which distinguish gender, number, person, tense and many other morphosyntactic features. A detailed description can be found in [Sampson 95].

The tagset used in the experiments reported in section 4.1 used the reduced version of the tagset which is listed below. The interested reader can find the detailed description for each tag in the above referenced book by [Sampson 95].

!	CSN	FB	MD	NNT2	PPHS2	RRQV	VH0
\$	CST	FO	MF	NNU	PPIO1	RRR	VHD
(CSW	FW	ND1	NNU1	PPIO2	RRT	VHG
)	DA	ICS	NN	NNU2	PPIS1	RT	VHN
,	DA1	IF	NN1	NP1	PPIS2	TO	VHZ
.	DA2	II	NN2	NP2	PPX1	UH	VM
...	DA2R	IO	NNJ	NPD1	PPX2	VB0	VMK
:	DAR	IW	NNJ1	NPD2	PPY	VBDR	VV0
;	DAT	JA	NNJ2	NPM1	RA	VBDZ	VVD
?	DB	JB	NNL	PN	REX	VBG	VVG
-	DB2	JBR	NNL1	PN1	RG	VBM	VVGK
APP\$	DD	JBT	NNL2	PNQO	RGA	VCN	VVN
AT	DD1	JJ	NNO	PNQS	RGQ	VBR	VVNK
AT1	DD2	JJR	NNS	PNQVS	RGQV	VBZ	VVZ
BTO	DDQ	JJT	NNS1	PP\$	RL	VD0	XX
CC	DDQ\$	LE	NNS2	PPH1	RP	VDD	ZZ1
CCB	DDQV	MC	NNSA1	PPHO1	RPK	VDG	
CS	EX	MC1	NNSB2	PPHO2	RR	VDN	
CSA	FA	MC2	NNT1	PPHS1	RRQ	VDZ	

Appendix B

Sample Constraints

This appendix contains some sample constraints which were used in the experiments on POS tagging and on the Shallow Parsing described in chapter 4. Some of the constraints were statistically acquired in the form of bigrams and trigrams, some others were automatically extracted using the decision-trees learning algorithm described in section 3.3.2.2, and finally, some of them were hand written.

B.1 Sample statistically acquired constraints

The statistically acquired constraints are binary constraints, corresponding to bigrams, and ternary constraints, which correspond to trigram information. Some sample constraints obtained once the n-gram information has been translated into the extended Constraint Grammar formalism are the following:

For instance, some binary constraints derived from bigram occurrences are the following:

First, a constraint that states a high compatibility for a *verb* tag (**VB**) when preceded by a *modal* (**MD**).

$$4.846532 \quad (\text{VB}) \\ (-1 \text{ (MD)});$$

The next constraint states a positive compatibility for a *determiner* tag (**DT**) when followed by a *noun* (**NN**).

$$1.760843 \quad (\text{DT}) \\ (1 \text{ (NN)});$$

The next constraints state a large incompatibility for a *determiner* tag (**DT**) when followed by a *verb* (**VB**), and vice-versa, that is, for a *verb* tag (**VB**) when preceded by a *determiner* (**DT**).

$$\begin{array}{ll} -6.776550 \quad (\text{DT}) & -6.776550 \quad (\text{VB}) \\ (1 \text{ (VB)}); & (-1 \text{ (DT)}); \end{array}$$

Trigram occurrences produce ternary constraints such as the samples below.

The first constraint expresses that a *determiner* tag (**DT**) is quite compatible with a right context consisting of an *adjective* (**JJ**) in the first right position and a *noun* (**NN**) in the second.

2.352891 (DT)
 (1 (JJ))
 (2 (NN));

The second sample ternary constraint states that a *participle* tag (**VBN**) is rather incompatible with an *adjective* (**JJ**) to its left and a *determiner* (**DT**) to its right.

-5.682948 (VBN)
 (-1 (JJ))
 (1 (DT));

B.2 Sample decision–tree learned constraints

The sample constraints presented in this section were automatically acquired by the decision tree learning algorithm [Màrquez & Padró 97] described in section 3.3.2.2. They have no linguistic meaning, and involve a context larger than the immediate one or two words. The context considered in these constraints consists of two words to the right, three to the left and the word form of the focus word.

For instance, the following constraint that the *determiner* (**DT**) tag for the word *all* is rather incompatible with a context consisting of an adverb (**RB**) in the first right position and a word with any of the detailed tags in the second left position.

-2.82059 (DT "all")
 (-2 (WDT) OR (VBD) OR (RB) OR (JJ) OR (POS) OR (MD) OR (CC))
 (1 (RB));

The next constraint states the compatibility of an *adjective* (**JJ**) tag for a word that can be also *participle* (**VBN**) with a context formed by the specified tags in the two left positions and in the first right word.

1.48853 (JJ)
 (0 (VBN))
 (-1 (VB) OR (IN) OR (DT) OR (<,>))
 (-2 (VBZ))
 (1 (VBP) OR (NNP) OR (NNS) OR (NN) OR (JJ) OR (MD));

The next two constraints are in fact the same, and state that a **JJS** tag for the words *earliest* or *least* is slightly compatible with a first left word with any of the detailed tags.

0.11497 ("earliest" JJS)
 (1 (VBN) OR (RB) OR (JJ) OR (TO) OR (<>));

0.11497 ("least" JJS)
 (1 (VBN) OR (RB) OR (JJ) OR (TO) OR (<>));

B.3 Sample hand-written constraints

The third kind of constraints are those which were manually written. They have some – simple– linguistic meaning. Their compatibility values are manually assigned and thus are an arbitrary value. Nevertheless, this value is chosen to be approximately the same than the highest value obtained for any automatically acquired constraint (either statistical or learned).

B.3.1 POS tagging constraints

The following sample constraint were manually written as a part of a small set aiming both to cover the most frequent errors committed by the statistical models and to test the ability of the algorithm to deal with different source information. Thus, although they have some linguistic meaning, they are limited and do not cover all possible cases.

For instance, the first constraint states a high compatibility for a *participle* (**VBN**) tag with an auxiliary verb form (**VAUX**) tagged as a verb¹, provided that there is not any other participle nor any phrase break item (preposition, punctuation or adjective) in between.

```
10 (VBN)
  (*-1 VAUX + (VBD) OR (VB) OR (VBP) OR (VBZ) OR (VBN)
    BARRIER (VBN) OR (IN) OR (<, >) OR (<:>) OR (JJ) OR (JJS) OR (JJR));
```

The second sample constraint states a high compatibility for a *noun* (**NN**) tag with a left context consisting of a determiner –with no other nouns in between– and a right context consisting of no noun tags before the first noun phrase change (punctuation or determiner).

```
10 (NN)
  (*-1 (DT) BARRIER (NN) OR (NNS))
  (*1 (DT) OR (<.>) OR (<, >) OR (<:>) BARRIER (NN) OR (NNS));
```

The four following constraint deal with comparative constructs of the form *as adjective*; *as* and *as adverb*; *as*. In the WSJ corpus, the first *as* is tagged as **RB** and the second as **IN**. These constraints state high compatibility for the right choice and high incompatibility for the wrong one in each case.

```
10 ("as" RB)          -10 ("as" RB)
  (1 (JJ) OR (RB))    (-1 (JJ) OR (RB))
  (2 ("as"));         (-2 ("as"));

-10 ("as" IN)        10 ("as" IN)
  (1 (JJ) OR (RB))    (-1 (JJ) OR (RB))
  (2 ("as"));         (-2 ("as"));
```

B.3.2 Shallow parsing constraints

The constraints used in the shallow parsing experiments were hand written by a linguist. Although they are not an exhaustive model, they have a reasonable coverage, and perform

¹**VAUX** is previously defined in the grammar as any possible word form for verbs *to be* or *to have*. The verb tags are required to avoid applying the constraint in cases such as nominal uses of *being*.

the task accurately. Details about grammar development can be found in section 4.3.1 and in [Voutilainen & Padró 97].

Some sample hand written constraints for the shallow parsing task are the following. The first rule removes the premodifier tag @>N from an ambiguous reading if somewhere to the right (*1) there is an unambiguous (C) occurrence of a member of the set <<< (sentence boundary symbols) or the verb tag @V or the subordinating conjunction tag @CS, and there are no intervening tags for nominal heads (@NH).

```
REMOVE (@>N)
(*1C <<< OR (@V) OR (@CS) BARRIER (@NH));
```

Next is a partial rule about coordination, which removes the premodifier tag if all three context-conditions are satisfied: (i) the word to be disambiguated (0) is not a determiner, numeral or adjective, (ii) the first word to the right (1) is an unambiguous coordinating conjunction, and (iii) the second word to the right is an unambiguous determiner.

```
REMOVE (@>N)
(NOT 0 (DET) OR (NUM) OR (A))
(1C (CC))
(2C (DET));
```