Grammatical analysis in the OVIS spoken-dialogue system

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Abstract

We argue that grammatical processing is a viable alternative to concept spotting for processing spoken input in a practical dialogue system. We discuss the structure of the grammar, the properties of the parser, and a method for achieving robustness. We discuss test results suggesting that grammatical processing allows fast and accurate processing of spoken input.

1 Introduction

The NWO Priority Programme *Language and Speech Technology* is a research programme aiming at the development of spoken language information systems. Its immediate goal is to develop a demonstrator of a public transport information system, which operates over ordinary telephone lines. This demonstrator is called OVIS, Openbaar Vervoer Informatie Systeem (*Public Transport Information System*). The language of the system is Dutch.

At present, a prototype is in operation, which is a version of a German system developed by Philips Dialogue Systems in Aachen (Aust et al., 1995), adapted to Dutch.

This German system processes spoken input using "*concept spotting*", which means that the smallest information-carrying units in the input are extracted, such as names of train stations and expressions of time, and these are translated more or less individually into updates of the internal database representing the dialogue state. The words between the concepts thus perceived are ignored.

The use of concept spotting is common in spoken-language information systems (Ward, 1989; Jackson et al., 1991; Aust et al., 1995; Allen et al., 1996). Arguments in favour of this kind of shallow parsing is that it is relatively easy to develop the NLP component, since larger sentence constructs do not have to be taken into account, and that the robustness of the parser is enhanced, since sources of ungrammaticality occurring between concepts are skipped and therefore do not hinder the translation of the utterance to updates.

The prototype presently under construction departs from the use of concept spotting. The grammar for OVIS describes *grammatical* user utterances, i.e. whole sentences are described. Yet, as part of this it also describes phrases such as expressions of time and prepositional phrases involving e.g. train stations, in other words, the former concepts. By an appropriate parsing algorithm one thus combines the robustness that can be achieved using concept spotting with the flexibility of a sophisticated language model.

The main objective of this paper is to show that our grammatical approach is feasible in terms of accuracy and computational resources, and thus is a viable alternative to pure concept spotting.

Although the added benefit of grammatical analysis over concept spotting is not clear for our relatively simple application, the grammatical approach may become essential as soon as the application is extended in such a way that more complicated grammatical constructions need to be recognized. In that case, simple concept spotting may not be able to correctly process all constructions, whereas the capabilities of the grammatical approach extend much further.

Whereas some (e.g. (Moore et al., 1989)) argue that grammatical analysis may improve recognition accuracy, our current experiments have as yet not been able to reveal a clear advantage in this respect.

As the basis for our implementation we have chosen definite-clause grammars (DCGs) (Pereira and Warren, 1980), a flexible formalism which is related to various kinds of common linguistics description, and which allows application of various parsing algorithms. DCGs can be translated directly into Prolog, for which interpreters and compilers exist that are fast enough to handle real-time processing of spoken input. The grammar for OVIS is in turn written in a way to allow an easy translation to pure DCGs.[1]

The structure of this paper is as follows. In Section 2 we describe the grammar for OVIS, and in Section 3 we describe the output of the NLP module. The robust parsing algorithm is described in Section 4. Section 5 reports test results, showing that grammatical analysis allows fast and accurate processing of spoken input.

2 A computational grammar for Dutch

In developing the OVIS grammar we have tried to combine the short-term goal of developing a grammar which meets the requirements imposed by the application (i.e. robust processing of the output of the speech recognizer, extensive coverage of locative phrases and temporal expressions, and the construction of fine-grained semantic representations) with the long-term goal of developing a general, computational, grammar which covers all the major constructions of Dutch.

The grammar currently covers the majority of verbal subcategorization types (intransitives, transitives, verbs selecting a PP, and modal and auxiliary verbs), NP-syntax (including pre- and post-nominal modification, with the exception of relative clauses), PP-syntax, the distribution of VP-modifiers, various clausal types (declaratives, yes/no and WH-questions, and subordinate clauses), all temporal expressions and locative phrases relevant to the domain, and various typical spoken-language constructs. Due to restrictions imposed by the speech recognizer, the lexicon is relatively small (2000 word forms, most of which are names of stations and cities).

From a linguistic perspective, the OVIS-grammar can be characterized as a constraint-based grammar, which makes heavy use of (multiple) inheritance. As the grammar assumes quite complex lexical signs, inheritance is absolutely essential for organizing the lexicon succinctly. However, we not only use inheritance at the level of the lexicon (which is a well-known approach to computational lexica), but have also structured the rule-component using inheritance.

An important restriction imposed by the grammar-parser interface is that rules must specify the category of their mothers and daughters. That is, each rule must specify the type of sign of its mother and daughters. A consequence of this requirement is that general rule-schemata, as used in Categorial Grammar and HPSG cannot be used directly in the OVIS grammar. A rule which specifies that a head daughter may combine with a complement daughter, if this complement unifies with the first element on SUBCAT of the head (i.e. a version of the categorial rule for functor-argument application) cannot be implemented directly, as it leaves the categories of the daughters and mother unspecified. Nevertheless, capturing generalizations of this type does seem desirable.

We have therefore adopted an architecture for grammar rules similar to that of HPSG (Pollard and Sag, 1994), in which individual rules are classified in various *structures*, which are in turn defined in terms of general *principles*. For instance, the grammar currently contains several head-complement rules (which allow a verb, preposition, or determiner to combine with one or more complements). These rules need only specify category-information and the relative order of head and complement(s). All other information associated with the rule (concerning the matching of head-features, the instantiation of features used to code long-distance dependencies, and the semantic effect of the rule) follows from the fact that the rules are instances of the class *head-complement structure*. This class itself is defined in terms of general principles, such as the *head-feature*, *valence*, *filler* and *semantics* principle. Other rules are defined in terms of the classes *head-adjunct* and *head-filler structure*, which in turn inherit from (a subset of) the general principles mentioned above. Thus, even though the grammar contains a relatively large number of rules (compared to lexicalist frameworks such as HPSG and CG), the redundancy in these rules is minimal.

The resulting grammar has the interesting property that it combines the strong tendency towards lexicalism and positing general combinatoric rule schemata present in frameworks such as HPSG with relatively specific grammar rules to facilitate efficient processing.

3 Interaction with the dialogue manager

The semantic component of the grammar produces (simplified) Quasi-Logical Forms (Alshawi, 1992). These are linguistically motivated, domain-independent representations of the meaning of utterances.

[1] DCGs are called *pure* if they do not contain any calls to external Prolog predicates.

QLFs allow considerable underspecification. This is convenient in this application because most ambiguities that arise, such as ambiguities of scope, do not need to be resolved. These QLFs are translated into domain-specific "updates" to be passed on to the dialogue manager (DM) for further processing. The DM keeps track of the information provided by the user by maintaining an *information state* or *form*. This form is a hierarchical structure, with slots and values for the origin and destination of a connection, for the time at which the user wants to arrive or depart, etc. The distinction between slots and values can be regarded as a special case of ground and focus distinction (Vallduvi, 1990). Updates specify the ground and focus of the user utterances. For example, the utterance *"No, I don't want to travel to Leiden but to Abcoude!"* yields the following update:

```
userwants.travel.destination.
                    ([# place.town.leiden];
                     [! place.town.abcoude])
```

One important property of this representation is that it allows encoding of speech-act information. The "#" in the update means that the information between the square brackets (representing the focus of the user-utterance) must be retracted, while the "!" denotes the corrected information.

4 Robust parsing

The input to the NLP module consists of word-graphs produced by the speech recognizer. A word-graph is a compact representation for all lists of words that the speech recognizer hypothesizes for a spoken utterance. The nodes of the graph represent points in time, and an edge between two nodes represents a word that may have been uttered between the corresponding points in time. Each edge is associated with an *acoustic score* representing a measure of confidence that the word perceived there is the word that was actually uttered. These scores are negative logarithms of probabilities and therefore require addition as opposed to multiplication when two scores are combined.

At an early stage, the word-graph is optimized to eliminate the *epsilon transitions*. Such transitions represent periods of time when the speech recognizer hypothesizes that no words are uttered. After this optimization, the word-graph contains exactly one start node and one or more final nodes, associated with a score, representing a measure of confidence that the utterance ends at that point.

In the ideal case, the parser will find one or more paths in a given word-graph that can be assigned an analysis according to the grammar, such that the paths cover the complete time span of the utterance, i.e. the paths lead from the start node to a final node. Each analysis gives rise to an update of the dialogue state. From that set of updates, one is then passed on to the dialogue manager.

However, often no such paths can be found in the word-graph, due to:

- errors made by the speech recognizer,
- linguistic constructions not covered in the grammar, and
- irregularities in the spoken utterance.

Our solution is to allow recognition of paths in the word-graph that do not necessarily span the complete utterance. Each path should be an instance of some major category from the grammar, such as S, NP, PP, etc. In our application, this often comes down to categories such as "temporal expression" and "locative phrases". Such paths will be called *maximal projections*. A list of maximal projections that do not pair-wise overlap and that lie on a single path from the start node to a final node in the word-graph represents a reading of the utterance. The transitions between the maximal projections will be called *skips*.

The optimal such list is computed, according to criteria to be discussed below. The categories of the maximal projections in the list are then combined and the update for the complete utterance is computed. This last phase contains, among other things, some domain-specific linguistic knowledge dealing with expressions that may be ungrammatical in other domains; e.g. the utterance *"Amsterdam Rotterdam"* does not exemplify a general grammatical construction of Dutch, but in the particular domain of OVIS such an utterance occurs frequently, with the meaning *"departure from Amsterdam and arrival in Rotterdam"*.

We will now describe the robust parsing module in more detail. The first phase that is needed is the application of a parsing algorithm which is such that:

1. grammaticality is investigated for all paths, not only for the complete paths from the first to a final node in the word-graph, and
2. grammaticality of those paths is investigated for each category from a fixed set.

Almost any parsing technique, such as left-corner parsing, LR parsing, etc., can be adapted so that the first constraint above is satisfied; the second constraint is achieved by structuring the grammar such that the top category directly generates a number of grammatical categories.

The second phase is the selection of the optimal list of maximal projections lying on a single path from the start node to a final node. At each node we visit, we compute a partial score consisting of a tuple (S, P, A), where S is the number of transitions on the path not part of a maximal projection (the skips), P is the number of maximal projections, A is the sum of the acoustic scores of all the transitions on the path, including those internal in maximal projections. We define the relation $\prec$ on triples such that $(S_1, P_1, A_1) \prec (S_2, P_2, A_2)$ if and only if:

- $S_1 < S_2$, or
- $S_1 = S_2$ and $P_1 < P_2$, or
- $S_1 = S_2$ and $P_1 = P_2$ and $A_1 < A_2$.

In words, for determining which triple has minimal score (i.e. is optimal), the number of skips has strictly the highest importance, then the number of projections, and then the acoustic scores.

Our branch-and-bound algorithm maintains a priority queue, which contains pairs of the form $(N, (S, P, A))$, consisting of a node N and a triple (S, P, A) found at the node, or pairs of the form $(\widehat{N}, (S, P, A))$, with the same meaning except that N is now a final node of which the acoustic score is incorporated into A. Popping an element from the queue yields a pair of which the second element is an optimal triple with regard to the relation $\prec$ fined above. Initially, the queue contains just $(N_0, (0, 0, 0))$, where N_0 is the start node, and possibly $(\widehat{N_0}, (0, 0, A))$, if N_0 is also a final state with acoustic score A.

A node N is marked as *seen* when a triple has been encountered at N that must be optimal with respect to all paths leading to N from the start node.

The following is repeated until a final node is found with an optimal triple:

1. Pop an optimal element from the queue.
2. If it is of the form $(\widehat{N}, (S, P, A))$ then return the path leading to that triple at that node, and halt.
3. Otherwise, let that element be $(N, (S, P, A))$.
4. If N was already marked as *seen* then abort this iteration and return to step 1.
5. Mark N as *seen*.
6. For each maximal projection from N to M with acoustic score A', enqueue $(M, (S, P + 1, A + A'))$. If M is a final node with acoustic score A'', then furthermore enqueue $(\widehat{M}, (S, P+1, A+A' + A''))$.
7. For each transition from N to M with acoustic score A', enqueue $(M, (S + 1, P, A + A'))$. If M is a final node with acoustic score A'', then furthermore enqueue $(\widehat{M}, (S + 1, P, A + A' + A''))$.

Besides S, P, and A, other factors can be taken into account as well, such as the *semantic* score, which is obtained by comparing the updates corresponding to maximal projections with the meaning of the question generated by the system prior to the user utterance.

We are also experimenting with the bigram score. Bigrams attach a measure of likelihood to the occurrence of a word given a preceding word.

Note that when bigrams are used, simply labelling nodes in the graph as *seen* is not a valid method to prevent recomputation of subpaths. The required adaptation to the basic branch-and-bound algorithm is not discussed here.

Also, in the actual implementation the X best readings are produced, instead of a single best reading. This requires a generalization of the above procedure so that instead of using the label *"seen"*, we attach labels *"seen i times"* to each node, where $0 \leq i \leq X$.

5 Evaluation

This section evaluates the NLP component with respect to efficiency and accuracy.

5.1 Test set

We present a number of results to indicate how well the NLP component currently performs. We used a corpus of more than 20K word-graphs, output of a preliminary version of the speech recognizer, and typical of the intended application. The first 3800 word-graphs of this set are semantically annotated. This set is used in the experiments below. Some characteristics of this test set are given in Table 1. As can be seen from this table, this test set is considerably easier than the rest of this set. For this reason, we also present results (where applicable) for a set of 5000 arbitrarily selected word-graphs. At the time of the experiment, no further annotated corpus material was available to us.

5.2 Efficiency

We report on two different experiments. In the first experiment, the parser is given the utterance as it

	graphs	transitions	words	t/w	w/g
test	5000	54687	16020	3.4	3.2
test	3800	36074	13312	2.7	3.5
total	21288	242010	70872	3.4	3.3

Table 1: This table lists the number of transitions, the number of words of the actual utterances, the average number of transitions per word, and the average number of words per utterances.

was actually spoken (to simulate a situation in which speech recognition is perfect). In the second experiment, the parser takes the full word-graph as its input. The results are then passed on to the robustness component. We report on a version of the robustness component which incorporates bigram-scores (other versions are substantially faster).

All experiments were performed on a HP-UX 9000/780 machine with more than enough core memory. Timings measure CPU-time and should be independent of the load on the machine. The timings include all phases of the NLP component (including lexical lookup, syntactic and semantic analysis, robustness, and the compilation of semantic representations into updates). The parser is a head-corner parser implemented (in SICStus Prolog) with selective memoization and goal-weakening as described in (van Noord, 1997). Table 2 summarizes the results of these two experiments.

From the experiments we can conclude that almost all input word-graphs can be treated fast enough for practical applications. In fact, we have found that the few word-graphs which cannot be treated efficiently almost exclusively represent cases where speech recognition completely fails and no useful combinations of edges can be found in the word-graph. As a result, ignoring these few cases does not seem to result in a degradation of practical system performance.

5.3 Accuracy

In order to evaluate the accuracy of the NLP component, we used the same test set of 3800 word-graphs. For each of these graphs we know the corresponding actual utterances and the update as assigned by the annotators. We report on word and sentence accuracy, which is an indication of how well we are able to choose the best path from the given word-graph, and on concept accuracy, which indicates how often the analyses are correct.

The string comparison on which sentence accuracy and word accuracy are based is defined by the minimal number of substitutions, deletions and insertions that is required to turn the first string into the second (Levenshtein distance). The string that is being compared with the actual utterance is defined as the best path through the word-graph, given the best-first search procedure defined in the previous section. Word accuracy is defined as $1-\frac{d}{n}$ where n is the length of the actual utterance and d is the distance as defined above.

In order to characterize the test sets somewhat further, Table 3 lists the word and sentence accuracy both of the best path through the word-graph (using acoustic scores only), the best possible path through the word-graph, and a combination of the acoustic score and a bigram language model. The first two of these can be seen as natural upper and lower boundaries.

5.4 Concept Accuracy

Word accuracy provides a measure for the extent to which linguistic processing contributes to speech recognition. However, since the main task of the linguistic component is to analyze utterances semantically, an equally important measure is *concept accuracy*, i.e. the extent to which semantic analysis corresponds with the meaning of the utterance that was actually produced by the user.

For determining concept accuracy, we have used a semantically annotated corpus of 3800 user responses. Each user response was annotated with an *update* representing the meaning of the utterance that was actually spoken. The annotations were made by our project partners in Amsterdam, in accordance with the guidelines given in (Veldhuijzen van Zanten, 1996).

Updates take the form described in Section 3. An update is a logical formula which can be evaluated against an information state and which gives rise to a new, updated information state. The most straightforward method for evaluating concept accuracy in this setting is to compare (the normal form of) the update produced by the grammar with (the normal form of) the annotated update. A major obstacle for this approach, however, is the fact that very fine-grained semantic distinctions can be made in the update-language. While these distinctions are relevant semantically (i.e. in certain cases they may lead to slightly different updates of an information state), they often can be ignored by a dialogue manager. For instance, the update below is semantically not equivalent to the one given in Section 3, as the ground-focus distinction is slightly different.

```
userwants.travel.destination.place
                  ([# town.leiden];
                   [! town.abcoude])
```

	mode	total msec	msec/sent	max msec	max kbytes
3800 graphs:	*user utterance*	125290	32	330	86
	word-graph	303550	80	8910	1461
5000 graphs:	*user utterance*	152940	30	630	192
	word-graph	477920	95	10980	4786

	100	200	500	1000	2000	5000
3800 graphs:	80.6	92.4	98.2	99.5	99.9	99.9
5000 graphs:	81.3	91.2	96.9	98.7	99.5	99.9

Table 2: In the first table we list respectively the total number of milliseconds CPU-time required for all 3800 word-graphs, the average number of milliseconds per word-graph, and the maximum number of milliseconds for a word-graph. The final column lists the maximum space requirements (per word-graph, in Kbytes). For word-graphs the average CPU-times are actually quite misleading because CPU-times vary enormously for different word-graphs. For this reason, we present in the second table the proportion of word-graphs that can be treated by the NLP component within a given amount of CPU-time (in milliseconds).

	method	WA	SA
3800 graphs:	Acoustic	78.9	60.6
	Possible	92.6	82.7
	Acoustic + Bigram	86.3	74.3
5000 graphs:	Acoustic	72.7	57.6
	Possible	89.8	81.7
	Acoustic + Bigram	82.3	74.0

Table 3: Word accuracy and sentence accuracy based on acoustic score only (Acoustic); using the best possible path through the word-graph, based on acoustic scores only (Possible); a combination of acoustic score and bigram score (Acoustic + Bigram), as reported by the current version of the system.

However, the dialogue manager will decide in both cases that this is a correction of the destination town.

Since semantic analysis is the input for the dialogue manager, we have therefore measured concept accuracy in terms of a simplified version of the update language. Following the proposal in (Boros and others, 1996), we translate each update into a set of *semantic units*, were a unit in our case is a triple ⟨`CommunicativeFunction, Slot, Value`⟩. For instance, the example above, as well as the example in Section 3, translates as

⟨ `denial, destination_town, leiden` ⟩
⟨ `correction, destination_town, abcoude` ⟩

Both the updates in the annotated corpus and the updates produced by the system were translated into semantic units of the form given above.

Semantic accuracy is given in the following tables according to four different definitions. Firstly, we list the proportion of utterances for which the corresponding semantic units exactly match the semantic units of the annotation (*match*). Furthermore we calculate *precision* (the number of correct semantic units divided by the number of semantic units which were produced) and *recall* (the number of correct semantic units divided by the number of semantic units of the annotation). Finally, following (Boros and others, 1996), we also present concept accuracy as

$$CA = 100 \left(1 - \frac{SU_S + SU_I + SU_D}{SU}\right) \%$$

where SU is the total number of semantic units in the translated corpus annotation, and SU_S, SU_I, and SU_D are the number of substitutions, insertions, and deletions that are necessary to make the translated grammar update equivalent to the translation of the corpus update.

We obtained the results given in Table 4.

The following reservations should be made with respect to the numbers given above.

- The test set is not fully representative of the task, because the word-graphs are relatively simple.
- The test set was also used during the design of the grammar. Therefore the experiment is

	Method	WA	SA	Semantic accuracy			
				match	precision	recall	CA
3800 graphs:	user utterance			97.9	99.2	98.5	98.5
	word-graphs	85.3	72.9	81.0	84.7	86.6	84.4
	word-graphs (+bigram)	86.5	75.1	81.8	85.5	87.4	85.2
5000 graphs:	word-graphs	79.5	70.0				
	word-graphs (+bigram)	82.4	74.2				

Table 4: Evaluation of the NLP component with respect to word accuracy, sentence accuracy and concept accuracy. Semantic accuracy consists of the percentage of graphs which receive a fully correct analysis (match), percentages for precision and recall of semantic slots, and concept accuracy. The first row presents the results if the parser is given the actual user utterance (obviously WA and SA are meaningless in this case). The second and third rows present the results for word-graphs. In the third row bigram information is incorporated in the robustness component.

methodologically unsound since no clear separation exists between training and test material.

- Errors in the annotated corpus were corrected by us.
- Irrelevant differences between annotation and analysis were ignored (for example in the case of the station names *cuijk* and *cuyk*).

Even if we take into account these reservations, it seems that we can conclude that the robustness component adequately extracts useful information even in cases where no full parse is possible: concept accuracy is (luckily) much higher than sentence accuracy.

Conclusion

We have argued in this paper that sophisticated grammatical analysis in combination with a robust parser can be applied successfully as an ingredient of a spoken dialogue system. Grammatical analysis is thereby shown to be a viable alternative to techniques such as concept spotting. We showed that for a state-of-the-art application (public transport information system) grammatical analysis can be applied efficiently and effectively. It is expected that the use of sophisticated grammatical analysis allows for easier construction of linguistically more complex spoken dialogue systems.

Acknowledgments

This research is being carried out within the framework of the Priority Programme Language and Speech Technology (TST). The TST-Programme is sponsored by NWO (Dutch Organization for Scientific Research).

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