

# A Probabilistic Method for Analyzing Japanese Anaphora Integrating Zero Pronoun Detection and Resolution

Kazuhiro Seki<sup>†</sup>, Atsushi Fujii<sup>††,†††</sup> and Tetsuya Ishikawa<sup>††</sup>

<sup>†</sup>National Institute of Advanced Industrial Science and Technology

1-1-1, Chuou Daini Umezono, Tsukuba 305-8568, Japan

<sup>††</sup>University of Library and Information Science

1-2, Kasuga, Tsukuba, 305-8550, Japan

<sup>†††</sup>CREST, Japan Science & Technology Corporation

k.seki@aist.go.jp   fujii@ulis.ac.jp   ishikawa@ulis.ac.jp

## Abstract

This paper proposes a method to analyze Japanese anaphora, in which zero pronouns (omitted obligatory cases) are used to refer to preceding entities (antecedents). Unlike the case of general coreference resolution, zero pronouns have to be detected prior to resolution because they are not expressed in discourse. Our method integrates two probability parameters to perform zero pronoun detection and resolution in a single framework. The first parameter quantifies the degree to which a given case is a zero pronoun. The second parameter quantifies the degree to which a given entity is the antecedent for a detected zero pronoun. To compute these parameters efficiently, we use corpora with/without annotations of anaphoric relations. We show the effectiveness of our method by way of experiments.

## 1 Introduction

Anaphora resolution is crucial in natural language processing (NLP), specifically, discourse analysis. In the case of English, partially motivated by Message Understanding Conferences (MUCs) (Grishman and Sundheim, 1996), a number of coreference resolution methods have been proposed.

In other languages such as Japanese and Spanish, anaphoric expressions are often omitted. Ellipses related to obligatory cases are usually termed zero pronouns. Since zero pronouns are not expressed in discourse, they have to be detected prior to identifying their antecedents. Thus, although in English pleonastic pronouns have to be determined whether or not they are anaphoric expressions prior to resolution, the process of analyzing Japanese zero pronouns is different from general coreference resolution in English.

For identifying anaphoric relations, existing methods are classified into two fundamental approaches: rule-based and statistical approaches.

In rule-based approaches (Grosz et al., 1995; Hobbs, 1978; Mitkov et al., 1998; Nakaiwa and Shirai, 1996; Okumura and Tamura, 1996; Palomar et al., 2001; Walker et al., 1994), anaphoric relations between anaphors and their antecedents are identified by way of hand-crafted rules, which typically rely on syntactic structures, gender/number agreement, and selectional restrictions. However, it is difficult to produce rules exhaustively, and rules that are developed for a specific language are not necessarily effective for other languages. For example, gender/number agreement in English cannot be applied to Japanese.

Statistical approaches (Aone and Bennett, 1995; Ge et al., 1998; Kim and Ehara, 1995; Soon et al., 2001) use statistical models produced based on corpora annotated with anaphoric relations. However, only a few attempts have been made in corpus-based anaphora resolution for Japanese zero pronouns. One of the reasons is that it is costly to produce a sufficient volume of training corpora annotated with anaphoric relations.

In addition, those above methods focused mainly on identifying antecedents, and few attempts have been made to detect zero pronouns.

Motivated by the above background, we propose a probabilistic model for analyzing Japanese zero pronouns combined with a detection method. In brief, our model consists of two parameters associated with zero pronoun detection and antecedent identification. We focus on zero pronouns whose antecedents exist in preceding sentences to zero pronouns because they are major referential expressions in Japanese.

Section 2 explains our proposed method (sys-

tem) for analyzing Japanese zero pronouns. Section 3 evaluates our method by way of experiments using newspaper articles. Section 4 discusses related research literature.

## 2 A System for Analyzing Japanese Zero Pronouns

### 2.1 Overview

Figure 1 depicts the overall design of our system to analyze Japanese zero pronouns. We explain the entire process based on this figure.

First, given an input Japanese text, our system performs morphological and syntactic analyses. In the case of Japanese, morphological analysis involves word segmentation and part-of-speech tagging because Japanese sentences lack lexical segmentation, for which we use the JUMAN morphological analyzer (Kurohashi and Nagao, 1998b). Then, we use the KNP parser (Kurohashi, 1998) to identify syntactic relations between segmented words.

Second, in a zero pronoun detection phase, the system uses syntactic relations to detect omitted cases (nominative, accusative, and dative) as zero pronoun candidates. To avoid zero pronouns overdetected, we use the IPAL verb dictionary (Information-technology Promotion Agency, 1987) including case frames associated with 911 Japanese verbs. We discard zero pronoun candidates unlisted in the case frames associated with a verb in question.

For verbs unlisted in the IPAL dictionary, only nominative cases are regarded as obligatory. The system also computes a probability that case  $c$  related to target verb  $v$  is a zero pronoun,  $P_{zero}(c|v)$ , to select plausible zero pronoun candidates.

Ideally, in the case where a verb in question is polysemous, word sense disambiguation is needed to select the appropriate case frame, because different verb senses often correspond to different case frames. However, we currently merge multiple case frames for a verb into a single frame so as to avoid the polysemous problem. This issue needs to be further explored.

Third, in a zero pronoun resolution (i.e., antecedent identification) phase, for each zero pronoun the system extracts antecedent candidates from the preceding contexts, which are ordered according to the extent to which they can be the antecedent for the target zero pronoun. From

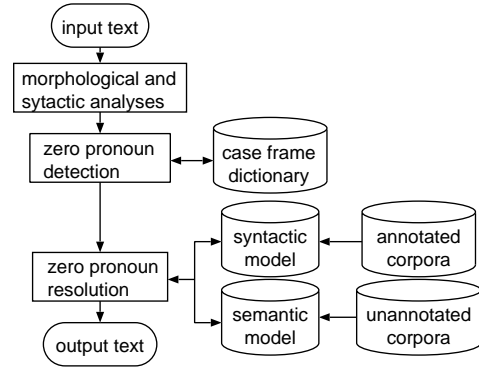


Figure 1: The overall design of our system to analyze Japanese zero pronouns.

the viewpoint of probability theory, our task here is to compute a probability that zero pronoun  $\phi$  refers to antecedent  $a_i$ ,  $P(a_i|\phi)$ , and select the candidate that maximizes the probability score. For the purpose of computing this score, we model zero pronouns and antecedents in Section 2.2.

Finally, the system outputs texts containing anaphoric relations. In addition, the number of zero pronouns analyzed by the system can optionally be controlled based on the certainty score described in Section 2.4.

### 2.2 Modeling Zero Pronouns and Antecedents

According to past literature associated with zero pronoun resolution and our preliminary study, we use the following six features to model zero pronouns and antecedents.

- Features for zero pronouns
  - Verbs that govern zero pronouns ( $v$ ), which denote verbs whose cases are omitted.
  - Surface cases related to zero pronouns ( $c$ ), for which possible values are Japanese case marker suffixes, *ga* (nominative), *wo* (accusative), and *ni* (dative). Those values indicate which cases are omitted.
- Features for antecedents
  - Post-positional particles ( $p$ ), which play crucial roles in resolving Japanese zero pronouns (Kameyama, 1986; Walker et al., 1994).

- Distance ( $d$ ), which denotes the distance (proximity) between a zero pronoun and an antecedent candidate in an input text. In the case where they occur in the same sentence, its value takes 0. In the case where an antecedent occurs in  $n$  sentences previous to the sentence including a zero pronoun, its value takes  $n$ .
- Constraint related to relative clauses ( $r$ ), which denotes whether an antecedent is included in a relative clause or not. In the case where it is included, the value of  $r$  takes *true*, otherwise *false*. The rationale behind this feature is that Japanese zero pronouns tend *not* to refer to noun phrases in relative clauses.
- Semantic classes ( $n$ ), which represent semantic classes associated with antecedents. We use 544 semantic classes defined in the Japanese *Bunruigoihyou* thesaurus (National Language Research Institute, 1964), which contains 55,443 Japanese nouns.

### 2.3 Our Probabilistic Model for Zero Pronoun Detection and Resolution

We consider probabilities that unsatisfied case  $c$  related to verb  $v$  is a zero pronoun,  $P_{zero}(c|v)$ , and that zero pronoun  $\phi_c$  refers to antecedent  $a_i$ ,  $P(a_i|\phi_c)$ . Thus, a probability that case  $c$  ( $\phi_c$ ) is zero-pronominalized and refers to candidate  $a_i$  is formalized as in Equation (1).

$$P(a_i|\phi_c) \cdot P_{zero}(c|v) \quad (1)$$

Here,  $P_{zero}(c|v)$  and  $P(a_i|\phi_c)$  are computed in the detection and resolution phases, respectively (see Figure 1).

Since zero pronouns are omitted obligatory cases, whether or not case  $c$  is a zero pronoun depends on the extent to which case  $c$  is obligatory for verb  $v$ . Case  $c$  is likely to be obligatory for verb  $v$  if  $c$  frequently co-occurs with  $v$ . Thus, we compute  $P_{zero}(c|v)$  based on the co-occurrence frequency of  $\langle v, c \rangle$  pairs, which can be extracted from unannotated corpora.  $P_{zero}(c|v)$  takes 1 in the case where  $c$  is *ga* (nominative) regardless of the target verb, because *ga* is obligatory for most Japanese verbs.

Given the formal representation for zero pronouns and antecedents in Section 2.2, the prob-

ability,  $P(a|\phi)$ , is expressed as in Equation (2).

$$P(a_i|\phi) = P(p_i, d_i, r_i, n_i|v, c) \quad (2)$$

To improve the efficiency of probability estimation, we decompose the right-hand side of Equation (2) as follows.

Since a preliminary study showed that  $d_i$  and  $r_i$  were relatively independent of the other features, we approximate Equation (2) as in Equation (3).

$$\begin{aligned} P(a_i|\phi) &\approx P(p_i, n_i|v, c) \cdot P(d_i) \cdot P(r_i) \\ &= P(p_i|n_i, v, c) \cdot P(n_i|v, c) \\ &\quad \cdot P(d_i) \cdot P(r_i) \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

Given that  $p_i$  is independent of  $v$  and  $n_i$ , we can further approximate Equation (3) to derive Equation (4).

$$P(a_i|\phi_c) \approx P(p_i|c) \cdot P(d_i) \cdot P(r_i) \cdot P(n_i|v, c) \quad (4)$$

Here, the first three factors,  $P(p_i|c) \cdot P(d_i) \cdot P(r_i)$ , are related to syntactic properties, and  $P(n_i|v, c)$  is a semantic property associated with zero pronouns and antecedents. We shall call the former and latter “syntactic” and “semantic” models, respectively.

Each parameter in Equation (4) is computed as in Equations (5), where  $F(x)$  denotes the frequency of  $x$  in corpora annotated with anaphoric relations.

$$\begin{aligned} P(p_i|c) &= \frac{F(p_i, c)}{\sum_j F(p_j, c)} \\ P(d_i) &= \frac{F(d_i)}{\sum_j F(d_j)} \\ P(r_i) &= \frac{F(r_i)}{\sum_j F(r_j)} \\ P(n_i|v, c) &= \frac{F(n_i, v, c)}{\sum_j F(n_j, v, c)} \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

However, since estimating a semantic model,  $P(n_i|v, c)$ , needs large-scale annotated corpora, the data sparseness problem is crucial. Thus, we explore the use of unannotated corpora.

For  $P(n_i|v, c)$ ,  $v$  and  $c$  are features for a zero pronoun, and  $n_i$  is a feature for an antecedent. However, we can regard  $v$ ,  $c$ , and  $n_i$  as features for a verb and its case noun because zero pronouns are omitted case nouns. Thus, it is possible to estimate the probability based on co-occurrences of verbs and their case nouns, which

can be extracted automatically from large-scale unannotated corpora.

## 2.4 Computing Certainty Score

Since zero pronoun analysis is not a stand-alone application, our system is used as a module in other NLP applications, such as machine translation. In those applications, it is desirable that erroneous anaphoric relations are not generated. Thus, we propose a notion of certainty to output only zero pronouns that are detected and resolved with a high certainty score.

We formalize the certainty score,  $C(\phi_c)$ , for each zero pronoun as in Equation (6), where  $P_1(\phi_c)$  and  $P_2(\phi_c)$  denote probabilities computed by Equation (1) for the first and second ranked candidates, respectively. In addition,  $t$  is a parametric constant, which is experimentally set to 0.5.

$$C(\phi_c) = t \cdot P_1(\phi_c) + (1-t)(P_1(\phi_c) - P_2(\phi_c)) \quad (6)$$

The certainty score becomes great in the case where  $P_1(\phi_c)$  is sufficiently great and significantly greater than  $P_2(\phi_c)$ .

## 3 Evaluation

### 3.1 Methodology

To investigate the performance of our system, we used *Kyotodaiigaku* Text Corpus version 2.0 (Kurohashi and Nagao, 1998a), in which 20,000 articles in *Mainichi Shimbun* newspaper articles in 1995 were analyzed by JUMAN and KNP (i.e., the morph/syntax analyzers used in our system) and revised manually. From this corpus, we randomly selected 30 general articles (e.g., politics and sports) and manually annotated those articles with anaphoric relations for zero pronouns. The number of zero pronouns contained in those articles was 449.

We used a leave-one-out cross-validation evaluation method: we conducted 30 trials in each of which one article was used as a test input and the remaining 29 articles were used for producing a syntactic model. We used six years worth of *Mainichi Shimbun* newspaper articles (Mainichi Shimbunsha, 1994–1999) to produce a semantic model based on co-occurrences of verbs and their case nouns.

To extract verbs and their case noun pairs from newspaper articles, we performed a morphological analysis by JUMAN and extracted

dependency relations using a relatively simple rule: we assumed that each noun modifies the verb of highest proximity. As a result, we obtained 12 million co-occurrences associated with 6,194 verb types. Then, we generalized the extracted nouns into semantic classes in the Japanese *Bunruigoihyou* thesaurus. In the case where a noun was associated with multiple classes, the noun was assigned to all possible classes. In the case where a noun was not listed in the thesaurus, the noun itself was regarded as a single semantic class.

### 3.2 Comparative Experiments

Fundamentally, our evaluation is two-fold: we evaluated only zero pronoun resolution (antecedent identification) and a combination of detection and resolution. In the former case, we assumed that all the zero pronouns are correctly detected, and investigated the effectiveness of the resolution model,  $P(a_i|\phi)$ . In the latter case, we investigated the effectiveness of the combined model,  $P(a_i|\phi_c) \cdot P_{zero}(c|v)$ .

First, we compared the performance of the following different models for zero pronoun resolution,  $P(a_i|\phi)$ :

- a semantic model produced based on annotated corpora (*Sem1*),
- a semantic model produced based on unannotated corpora, using co-occurrences of verbs and their case nouns (*Sem2*),
- a syntactic model (*Syn*),
- a combination of *Syn* and *Sem1* (*Both1*),
- a combination of *Syn* and *Sem2* (*Both2*), which is our complete model for zero pronoun resolution,
- a rule-based model (*Rule*).

As a control (baseline) model, we took approximately two man-months to develop a rule-based model (*Rule*) through an analysis on ten articles in *Kyotodaiigaku* Text Corpus. This model uses rules typically used in existing rule-based methods: 1) post-positional particles that follow antecedent candidates, 2) proximity between zero pronouns and antecedent candidates, and 3) conjunctive particles. We did not use semantic properties in the rule-based method because they decreased the system accuracy in a preliminary study.

Table 1: Experimental results for zero pronoun resolution.

$k$	# of Correct cases (Accuracy)					
	<i>Sem1</i>	<i>Sem2</i>	<i>Syn</i>	<i>Both1</i>	<i>Both2</i>	<i>Rule</i>
1	25 (6.2%)	119 (29.5%)	185 (45.8%)	30 (7.4%)	<b>205 (50.7%)</b>	162 (40.1%)
2	46 (11.4%)	193 (47.8%)	227 (56.2%)	49 (12.1%)	<b>250 (61.9%)</b>	213 (52.7%)
3	72 (17.8%)	230 (56.9%)	262 (64.9%)	75 (18.6%)	<b>280 (69.3%)</b>	237 (58.6%)

Table 1 shows the results, where we regarded the  $k$ -best antecedent candidates as the final output and compared results for different values of  $k$ . In the case where the correct answer was included in the  $k$ -best candidates, we judged it correct. In addition, “Accuracy” is the ratio between the number of zero pronouns whose antecedents were correctly identified and the number of zero pronouns correctly detected by the system (404 for all the models). Bold figures denote the highest performance for each value of  $k$  across different models. Here, the average number of antecedent candidates per zero pronoun was 27 regardless of the model, and thus the accuracy was 3.7% in the case where the system randomly selected antecedents.

Looking at the results for two different semantic models, *Sem2* outperformed *Sem1*, which indicates that the use of co-occurrences of verbs and their case nouns was effective to identify antecedents and avoid the data sparseness problem in producing a semantic model.

The syntactic model, *Syn*, outperformed the two semantic models independently, and therefore the syntactic features used in our model were more effective than the semantic features to identify antecedents. When both syntactic and semantic models were used in *Both2*, the accuracy was further improved. While the rule-based method, *Rule*, achieved a relatively high accuracy, our complete model, *Both2*, outperformed *Rule* irrespective of the value of  $k$ . To sum up, we conclude that both syntactic and semantic models were effective to identify appropriate anaphoric relations.

At the same time, since our method requires annotated corpora, the relation between the corpus size and accuracy is crucial. Thus, we performed two additional experiments associated with *Both2*.

In the first experiment, we varied the number of annotated articles used to produce a syntactic model, where a semantic model was produced

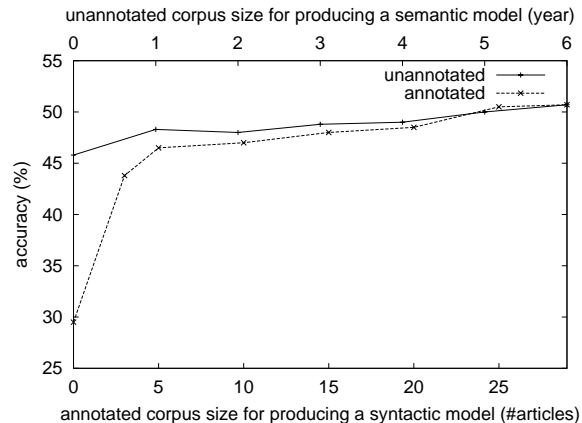


Figure 2: The relation between the corpus size and accuracy for a combination of syntactic and semantic models (*Both2*).

based on six years worth of newspaper articles. In the second experiment, we varied the number of unannotated articles used to produce a semantic model, where a syntactic model was produced based on 29 annotated articles. In Figure 2, we show two *independent* results as space is limited: the dashed and solid graphs correspond to the results of the first and second experiments, respectively. Given all the articles for modeling, the resultant accuracy for each experiment was 50.7%, which corresponds to that for *Both2* with  $k = 1$  in Table 1.

In the case where the number of articles was varied in producing a syntactic model, the accuracy improved rapidly in the first five articles. This indicates that a high accuracy can be obtained by a relatively small number of supervised articles. In the case where the amount of unannotated corpora was varied in producing a semantic model, the accuracy marginally improved as the corpus size increases. However, note that we do not need human supervision to produce a semantic model.

Finally, we evaluated the effectiveness of the

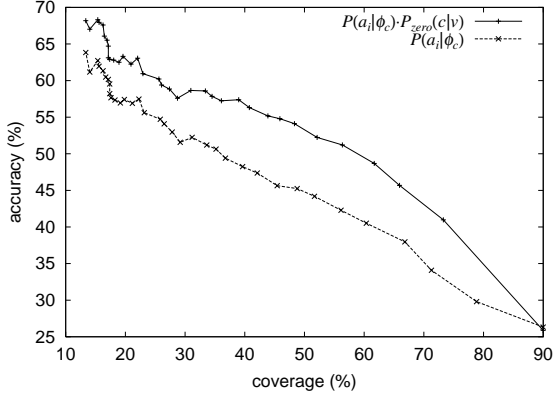


Figure 3: The relation between coverage and accuracy for zero pronoun detection (*Both2*).

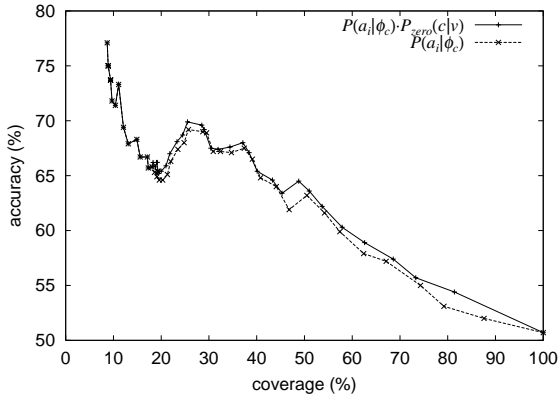


Figure 4: The relation between coverage and accuracy for antecedent identification (*Both2*).

combination of zero pronoun detection and resolution in Equation (1). To investigate the contribution of the detection model,  $P_{zero}(c|v)$ , we used  $P(a_i|\phi_c)$  for comparison. Both cases used *Both2* to compute the probability for zero pronoun resolution. We varied a threshold for the certainty score to plot coverage-accuracy graphs for zero pronoun detection (Figure 3) and antecedent identification (Figure 4).

In Figure 3, “coverage” is the ratio between the number of zero pronouns correctly detected by the system and the total number of zero pronouns in input texts, and “accuracy” is the ratio between the number of zero pronouns correctly detected and the total number of zero pronouns detected by the system. Note that since our system failed to detect a number of zero pronouns,

the coverage could not be 100%.

Figure 3 shows that as the coverage decreases, the accuracy improved irrespective of the model used. When compared with the case of  $P(a_i|\phi)$ , our model,  $P(a_i|\phi) \cdot P_{zero}(c|v)$ , achieved a higher accuracy regardless of the coverage.

In Figure 4, “coverage” is the ratio between the number of zero pronouns whose antecedents were generated and the number of zero pronouns correctly detected by the system. The accuracy was improved by decreasing the coverage, and our model marginally improved the accuracy for  $P(a_i|\phi)$ .

According to those above results, our model was effective to improve the accuracy for zero pronoun detection and did not have side effect on the antecedent identification process. As a result, the overall accuracy of zero pronoun detection and resolution was improved.

## 4 Related Work

Kim and Ehara (1995) proposed a probabilistic model to resolve subjective zero pronouns for the purpose of Japanese/English machine translation. In their model, the search scope for possible antecedents was limited to the sentence containing zero pronouns. In contrast, our method can resolve zero pronouns in both intra/inter-sentential anaphora types.

Aone and Bennett (1995) used a decision tree to determine appropriate antecedents for zero pronouns. They focused on proper and definite nouns used in anaphoric expressions as well as zero pronouns. However, their method resolves only anaphors that refer to organization names (e.g., private companies), which are generally easier to resolve than our case.

Both above existing methods require annotated corpora for statistical modeling, while we used corpora with/without annotations related to anaphoric relations, and thus we can easily obtain large-scale corpora to avoid the data sparseness problem.

Nakaiwa (2000) used Japanese/English bilingual corpora to identify anaphoric relations of Japanese zero pronouns by comparing J/E sentence pairs. The rationale behind this method is that obligatory cases zero-pronominalized in Japanese are usually expressed in English. However, in the case where corresponding English expressions are pronouns and anaphors,

their method is not effective. Additionally, bilingual corpora are more expensive to obtain than monolingual corpora used in our method.

Finally, our method integrates a parameter for zero pronoun detection in computing the certainty score. Thus, we can improve the accuracy of our system by discarding extraneous outputs with a small certainty score.

## 5 Conclusion

We proposed a probabilistic model to analyze Japanese zero pronouns that refer to antecedents in the previous context. Our model consists of two probabilistic parameters corresponding to detecting zero pronouns and identifying their antecedents, respectively. The latter is decomposed into syntactic and semantic properties. To estimate those parameters efficiently, we used annotated/unannotated corpora. In addition, we formalized the certainty score to improve the accuracy. Through experiments, we showed that the use of unannotated corpora was effective to avoid the data sparseness problem and that the certainty score further improved the accuracy.

Future work would include word sense disambiguation for polysemous predicate verbs to select appropriate case frames in the zero pronoun detection process.

## References

- Chinatsu Aone and Scott William Bennett. 1995. Evaluating automated and manual acquisition of anaphora resolution strategies. In *Proceedings of 33th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, pages 122–129.
- Niyu Ge, John Hale, and Eugene Charniak. 1998. A statistical approach to anaphora resolution. In *Proceedings of the Sixth Workshop on Very Large Corpora*, pages 161–170.
- Ralph Grishman and Beth Sundheim. 1996. Message Understanding Conference - 6: A brief history. In *Proceedings of the 16th International Conference on Computational Linguistics*, pages 466–471.
- Barbara J. Grosz, Aravind K. Joshi, and Scott Weinstein. 1995. Centering: A framework for modeling the local coherence of discourse. *Computational Linguistics*, 21(2):203–226.
- Jerry R. Hobbs. 1978. Resolving pronoun references. *Lingua*, 44:311–338.
- Information-technology Promotion Agency, 1987. *IPA Lexicon of the Japanese language for computers (Basic Verbs)*. (in Japanese).
- Megumi Kameyama. 1986. A property-sharing constraint in centering. In *Proceedings of the 24th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, pages 200–206.
- Yeun-Bae Kim and Terumasa Ehara. 1995. Zero-subject resolution method based on probabilistic inference with evaluation function. In *Proceedings of the 3rd Natural Language Processing Pacific-Rim Symposium*, pages 721–727.
- Sadao Kurohashi and Makoto Nagao. 1998a. Building a Japanese parsed corpus while improving the parsing system. In *Proceedings of The 1st International Conference on Language Resources & Evaluation*, pages 719–724.
- Sadao Kurohashi and Makoto Nagao, 1998b. *Japanese morphological analysis system JUMAN version 3.6 manual*. Department of Informatics, Kyoto University. (in Japanese).
- Sadao Kurohashi, 1998. *Japanese Dependency/Case Structure Analyzer KNP version 2.0b6*. Department of Informatics, Kyoto University. (in Japanese).
- Mainichi Shimbunsha. 1994–1999. Mainichi Shimbun CD-ROM.
- Ruslan Mitkov, Lamia Belguith, and Malgorzata Stys. 1998. Multilingual robust anaphora resolution. In *Proceedings of the 3rd Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pages 7–16.
- Hiromi Nakaiwa and Satoshi Shirai. 1996. Anaphora resolution of Japanese zero pronouns with deictic reference. In *Proceedings of the 16th International Conference on Computational Linguistics*, pages 812–817.
- Hiromi Nakaiwa. 2000. An environment for extracting resolution rules of zero pronouns from corpora. In *COLING-2000 Workshop on Semantic Annotation and Intelligent Content*, pages 44–52.
- National Language Research Institute. 1964. *Bunruigoihyou*. Shuei publisher. (in Japanese).
- Manabu Okumura and Kouji Tamura. 1996. Zero pronoun resolution in Japanese discourse based on centering theory. In *Proceedings of the 16th International Conference on Computational Linguistics*, pages 871–876.
- Manuel Palomar, Antonio Ferrández, Lidia Moreno, Patricio Martínez-Barco, Jesús Peral, Maximiliano Saiz-Noeda, and Rafael Mu noz. 2001. An algorithm for anaphora resolution in Spanish texts. *Computational Linguistics*, 27(4):545–568.
- Wee Meng Soon, Hwee Tou Ng, and Daniel Chung Yong Lim. 2001. A machine learning approach to coreference resolution of noun phrases. *Computational Linguistics*, 27(4):521–544.
- Marilyn Walker, Masayo Iida, and Sharon Cote. 1994. Japanese discourse and the process of centering. *Computational Linguistics*, 20(2):193–233.