Experiences with the GTU grammar development environment

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Abstract

In this paper we describe our experiences with a tool for the development and testing of natural language grammars called GTU (German: Grammatik-Testumgebumg; grammar test environment). GTU supports four grammar formalisms under a window-oriented user in-Additionally, it contains a set terface. of German test sentences covering various syntactic phenomena as well as three types of German lexicons that can be attached to a grammar via an integrated lexicon interface. What follows is a description of the experiences we gained when we used GTU as a tutoring tool for students and as an experimental tool for CL researchers. From these we will derive the features necessary for a future grammar workbench.

1 Introduction

GTU (German: Grammatik-Testumgebung; grammar test environment) was developed as a flexible and user-friendly tool for the development and testing of grammars in various formats. Throughout the last 7 years it has been successfully used as a tutoring tool to supplement syntax courses in computational linguistics at the Universities of Koblenz and Zurich.

GTU has been implemented in Arity Prolog under DOS and OS/2, and in SICStus Prolog under UNIX. In this paper we will concentrate on the UNIX version. GTU in this version is a stand-alone system of about 4.5 MB compiled Prolog code (not counting the lexicons)¹. GTU interacts with 3 German lexicons:

- a small hand-coded stem-lexicon whose vocabulary has been tailored towards the test sentences (This lexicon also contains selectional restrictions for all its nouns and adjectives.),
- 2. GerTWOL (Oy, 1994), a fast morphology analysis program, and
- 3. PLOD, a full-form lexicon that has been derived from the CELEX lexical database (Baayen, Piepenbrock, and van Rijn, 1995).

GTU supports grammars under four formalisms:

- 1. Definite Clause Grammar (DCG, (Pereira and Shieber, 1987)) augmented with feature structures,
- 2. Immediate Dominance / Linear Precedence Grammar (ID/LP; a subset of GPSG),
- 3. Generalized Phrase Structure Grammar (GPSG, (Gazdar et al., 1985)),
- 4. Lexical Functional Grammar (LFG, (Kaplan and Bresnan, 1982)).

Additionally, GTU provides a first step towards semantic processing of LFG f-structures. Thus a grammar developer may specify the way the semantic module computes logical expressions for an fstructure using semantic rules. In another module the selectional restrictions of the hand-coded lexicon can be used to compute if (a reading of) a sentence is semantically anomalous. This module can be switched on and off when parsing a sentence.

GTU's features have been published before (see (Jung, Richarz, and Volk, 1994) or (Volk, Jung, and Richarz, 1995)). In this paper we concentrate on evaluating GTU's features, comparing them to some other workbenches that we have access to (mostly GATE (Gaizauskas et al., 1996) and the Xerox LFG workbench (Kaplan and Maxwell, 1996)). From this we derive recommendations for future grammar workbenches.

¹According to rearrangements of the operating system the actual memory requirements total about 7 MB for both SUN OS 4.x and SUN OS 5.x.

2 GTU - its merits and its limits

Grammar rule notation

One of the primary goals in the GTU project was to support a grammar rule notation that is as close as possible to the one used in the linguistics literature. This has been a general guideline for every formalism added to the GTU system. Let us give some examples. Typical ID-rules in GTU are:

Rule (1) says, that a constituent of type S consists of constituents of type NP and VP. The feature structures are given in square brackets. A capital letter in a feature structure represents a variable. Identical variables within a rule stand for shared values. Hence, the feature structures for NP and VP in rule (1) are declared to be identical. In addition the feature structure equation behind the vertical bar | specifies that X must be unified with the feature structure [kas=nom]. Rule (2) says that an NP consists of a Det, an optional AdjP and an N. It also says that the features kas and num are set to be identical across constituents while only the feature kas is passed on to the NP-node.

There are further means for terminal symbols within a grammar and a reserved word representing an empty constituent.

In our experience the grammar rule notation helps the students in getting acquainted with the system. But students still need some time in understanding the syntax. In particular they are sometimes misled by the apparent similarity of GTU's ID-rules to Prolog DCG-rules. While in Prolog constituent symbols are atoms and are usually written with lower case letters, GTU requires upper case letters as is customary in the linguistic literature. In addition students need a good understanding of feature structure unification to be able to manipulate the grammatical features within the grammar rules.

For writing grammar rules GTU has an integrated editor that facilitates loading the grammar into GTU's database. A grammar thus becomes immediately available for testing. Loading a grammar involves the translation of a grammar rule into Prolog. This is done by various grammar processors (one for each formalism). The grammar processors are SLR parsers generated from metagrammars. There is one metagrammar for each grammar formalism describing the format of all admissible grammar rules and lexicon interface rules under this formalism.

Writing large grammars with GTU has sometimes lead to problems in navigation through the grammar files. A grammar browser could be used to alliviate these problems. The Xerox LFG-WB contains such a browser. It consists of a clickable index of all rule heads (i.e. all defined constituent symbols). Via this index the grammar developer can comfortably access the rule definitions for a given constituent.

Static grammar checks

For the different formalisms in GTU, different types of parsers are produced. GPSG grammars are processed by a bottom-up chart parser, DCG and LFG grammars are processed by top-down depth-first parsers. All parsers have specific problems with some structural properties of a grammar, e.g. topdown depth-first parsers may run into infinite loops if the grammar contains (direct or indirect) left recursive rules.

Therefore GTU provides a static check for detecting left recursions. This is done by building up a graph structure. After processing all grammar rules and inserting all possible edges into the graph, the grammar contains a possible left recursion if this graph contains at least one cycle. In a similar manner we can detect cycles within transitive LP rules or within alias definitions.

These checks have shown to be very helpful in uncovering structural problems once a grammar has grown to more than two dozen rules. The static checks in GTU have to be explicitly called by the grammar developer. It would be better to perform these checks automatically any time a grammar is loaded into the system.

A model for the employment of grammar checks is the workbench for affix grammars introduced by (Nederhof et al., 1992), which uses grammar checks in order to report on inconsistencies (conflicts with well-formedness conditions such as that every nonterminal should have a definition), properties (such as LL(1)), and information on the overall grammar structure (such as the is-called-by relation).

Output in different granularities

One of GTU's main features is the graphics display of parsing results. All constituent structures can be displayed as parse trees. For LFG-grammars GTU additionally outputs the f-structure. For DCG and GPSG the parse tree is also displayed in an indented fashion with all features used during the parsing process. Output can be directed into one or multiple windows. The multiple window option facilitates the comparison of the tree structures on screen. Parsing results can also be saved into files in order to use them in documentations or for other evaluation purposes.

The automatic graphic display of parsing results is an important feature for using GTU as a tutoring tool. For students this is the most striking advantage over coding the grammar directly in a programming language. The GTU display works with structures of arbitrary size. But a structure that does not fit on the screen requires extensive scrolling. A zoom option could remedy this problem.

Zooming into output structures is nicely integrated into the Xerox LFG-WB. Every node in the parse tree output can be enlarged by a mouse click to its complete feature structure. Every label on a chart edge output can be displayed with its internal tree structure and with its feature structure.

Automatic comparison of output structures

When developing a grammar it often happens that the parser finds multiple parses for a given sentence. Sometimes these parses differ only by a single feature which may be hard to detect by a human. Automatic comparison of the parses is needed. This can also be used to compare the parses of a given sentence before and after a grammar modification.

It is difficult to assess the effects of a grammar modification. Often it is necessary to rerun long series of tests. In these tests one wants to save the parse structure(s) for a given test sentence if a certain level of coverage and correctness has been reached. Should a modification of the grammar become necessary, the newly computed parse structure can be automatically compared to the saved structure. We have included such a tool in GTU.

The comparison tool works through three subsequent levels. First, it checks whether the branching structures of two parse trees are identical, then it compares the node names (the constituent symbols), and finally it detects differences in the feature structures. The procedure stops when it finds a difference and reports this to the user.

Implementing such a comparison tool is not too difficult, but integrating it into the testing module of a grammar workbench is a major task, if this module supports different types of tests (single sentence tests and series of tests; manual input and selections from the test suite). At the same time one needs to ensure that the module's functionality is transparent and its handling is easy. For example, what should happen if a sentence had two readings before a grammar modification and has three readings now? We decided to compare the first two new structures with the saved structures and to inform the user that there now is an additional reading. In our comparison tool series of comparisons for multiple sentences can be run in the background. Their results are displayed in a table which informs about the numbers of readings for every sentence.

This comparison tool is considered very helpful, once the user understands how to use it. It should be complemented with the option to compare the output structures of two readings of the same input sentence.

Tracing the parsing process

Within GTU the parsing of natural language input can be traced on various levels. It can be traced

- during the lexicon lookup process displaying the morpho-syntactical information for every word,
- during the evaluation of the lexicon interface rules displaying the generated lexical rules for a given word,
- during the application of the grammar or semantic rules.

For GPSG grammars GTU presents every edge produced by the bottom-up chart parser. For DCG and LFG grammars GTU shows ENTRY, EXIT, FAIL and REDO ports for a predicate, as in a Prolog development environment. But GTU does not provide options for selectively skipping the trace for a particular category or for setting special interrupt points that allow more goal-oriented tracing. Furthermore, the parser cannot be interrupted by an abort option in trace mode. These problems lead to a reluctance in using the trace options since most of the time too much information is presented on the screen. Only elaborate trace options are helpful in writing sizable grammars.

Lexicon interface

The flexible lexicon interface is another of GTU's core elements. With special lexicon interface rules that are part of every grammar formalism the grammar developer can specify which lexicon information the grammar needs and how this information should be structured and named.

For each word a lexicon provides information about the possible part of speech and morphosyntactical information. Lexicon interface rules determine how this information is passed to the grammar.

A lexicon interface rule contains a test criterion and a specification and has the following format: if_in_lex (test criterion) then_in_gram
(specification) .

The test criterion is a list of feature-value pairs to be checked against a word's lexical information. Additionally, constraints are allowed that check if some feature has a value for the given word. For example, the test

(pos=verb, !tense, "reflexive)

will only succeed for irreflexive finite verbs².

While it is necessary that the test contains only features available in the lexicon, the specification part may add new information to the information found in the lexicon. For example, the specification

case = #kasus, number = #numerus, person = 3

assigns the value of the feature **kasus** found in the lexicon (which is indicated by #) to a feature named **case** (and the like for number). Additionally, a new feature **person** is added with the value 3. In this way every noun may get a specification for the **person** feature.

The specification part defines how lexicon information shall be mapped to a syntactic category in case the test criterion is met. While the format of the test criterion is the same for all formalisms, the format of the specification has been adjusted to the format of every grammar formalism. In this way the definition of lexical entries can be adapted to a grammar formalism while reusing the lexical resources.

Writing lexicon interface rules requires a good understanding of the underlying lexicon. And sometimes it is difficult to see if a problem with lexical features stems from the lexicon or is introduced by the interface rules. But overall this lexicon interface has been successful. With its simple format of rules with conditions and constraints it can serve as a model for interfacing other modules to a grammar workbench.

Test suite administration

GTU contains a test suite with about 300 sentences annotated with their syntactic properties. We have experimented with two representations of the test suite (Volk, 1995). One representation had every sentence assigned to a phenomenon class and every class in a separate file. Each sentence class can be loaded into GTU and can be separately tested. In a second representation the sentences were organized as leaves of a hierarchical tree of syntactic phenomena. That is, a phenomenon like 'verb group syntax' was subdivided into 'simple verb groups', 'complex verb groups', and 'verb groups with separated prefixes'. The sentences were attached to the phenomena they represented. In this representation the grammar developer can select a phenomenon resulting in the display of the set of subsumed sentences. If multiple phenomena are selected the intersection of the sets is displayed.

It turned out that the latter representation was hardly used by our students. It seems that grammar writing itself is such a complex process that a user does not want to bother with the complexities of navigating through a phenomena tree. The other, simple representation of sentence classes in files is often used and much appreciated. It is more transparent, easier to select from, and easier to modify (i.e. it is easier to add new test sentences).

Few other grammar workbenches include an elaborate test module and only PAGE (Oepen, 1997) comprises a test suite which is integrated similarly to GTU. PAGE's test suite, however, is more comprehensive than GTU's since it is based on the TSNLP (Test Suites for Natural Language Processing) database. TSNLP provides more than 4000 test items for English, French and German each. We are not aware of any reports of this test suite's usability and acceptability in PAGE.

Output of recognized fragments in case of ungrammaticality

In case a parser cannot process the complete natural language input, it is mandatory that the grammar developer gets feedback about the processed fragments. GTU presents the largest recognized fragments. That is, starting from the beginning of the sentence it takes the longest fragment, from the end of this fragment it again takes the longest fragment and so on. If there is more than one fragment of the same length, only the last one parsed is shown. The fragments are retrieved from the chart (GPSG) or from a well-formed substring table (DCG, LFG). Obviously, such a display is sometimes misleading since the selection is not based on linguistic criteria.

As an alternative we have experimented with displaying the shortest paths through the chart (i.e. the paths from the beginning to the end of the input with the least number of edges). In many cases such a path is a candidate close to a parsing solution. In general, it fares better than the longest fragments but again it suffers from a lack of linguistic insight.

Yet another way is to pick certain combinations of constituents according to predefined patterns. It is conceivable that the grammar developer specifies an expected structure for a given sentence and that

²'!feature' means that the feature must have some value, while '~feature' prohibits any value on the feature.

the system reports on the parts it has found. Or the display system may use the grammar rules for selecting the most promising chart entries. Displaying the complete chart, as done in the Xerox LFG-WB, will help only for small grammars. For any sizable grammar this kind of display will overwhelm the user with hundreds of edges.

Selecting and displaying chart fragments is an interesting field where more research is urgently needed, especially with respect to treating the results of parsing incomplete or ill-formed input.

Lexicon extension module

When writing grammars for real natural language sentences, every developer will soon encounter words that are not in the lexicon, whatever size it has. Since GTU was meant as a tutoring tool it contains only static lexicons. In fact, its first lexicon was tailored towards the vocabulary of the test suite. GTU does not provide an extension module for any of the attached lexical resources. The grammar developer has to use the information as is. Adding new features can only be done by inserting them in lexicon interface rules or grammar rules. Words can be added as terminal symbols in the grammar.

This is not a satisfactory solution. It is not only that one wants to add new words to the lexicon but also that lexicon entries need to be corrected and that new readings of a word need to be entered. In that respect using GerTWOL is a drawback, since it is a closed system which cannot be modified. (Though its developers are planning on extending it with a module to allow adding words.³) The other lexicons within GTU could in principle be modified, and they urgently need a user interface to support this. This is especially important for the PLOD-lexicon derived from the CELEX lexical database, which contains many errors and omissions.

Models for lexicon extension modules can be found in the latest generation of commercial machine translation systems such as IBM's Personal Translator or Langenscheidts T1. Lexicon extension in these systems is made easy by menus asking only for part of speech and little inflectional information. The entry word is then classified and all inflectional forms are made available.

Of course in a multi-user system these modifications need to be organized with access restrictions. Every developer should be able to have his own sublexicon where lexicon definitions of any basic lexicon can be superseded. But only a designated user should be allowed to modify the basic lexicon according to suggestions sent to him by the grammar developers.

Combination of lexical resources

GTU currently does not support the combination of lexical resources. Every lexical item is taken from the one lexicon selected by the user. Missing features cannot be complemented by combining lexicons. This is a critical aspect because none of the lexicons contains every information necessary. While GerTWOL analyzes a surprising variety of words and returns morphological information with high precision, it does not provide any syntactical information. In particular it does not provide a verb's subcategorization. This information can be found in the PLOD/CELEX lexicon to some degree. For example, the grammar developer can find out whether a verb requires a prepositional object, but he cannot find out which preposition the phrase has to start with.⁴

Clear modularization

The development of a large grammar - like a large software system - makes it necessary to split the work into modules. GTU supports such modularisation into files that can be loaded and tested independently. But GTU only recommends to divide a grammar into modules, it does not enforce modularisation. For a consistent development of large grammars, especially if distributed over a group of people, we believe that a grammar workbench should support more engineering aspects we know from software development environments such as a module concept with clear information hiding, visualisation of call graphs on various levels, or summarisation of selected rule properties.

General remarks on GTU

GTU focuses on grammar writing. It does not include any means to influence parsing efficiency. But parsing efficiency is another important aspect of learning to deal with grammars and to write NLP systems. It would therefore be desirable to have a system with parameterizable parsers. On the other hand this might result in an unmanageable degree of complexity for the user and - like with the alternative test suite - we will end up with a nice feature that nobody wants to use.

The GTU system has been implemented with great care. Over time more than a dozen program-

³Personal communication with Ari Majorin of Lingsoft, Helsinki, in December 1996.

⁴The next version of CELEX will contain such prepositional requirements. (Personal communication with CELEX manager Richard Piepenbrock in April 1997)

mers have contributed modules to the overall system. The robust integration of these modules was possible since the core programmers did not change. They had documented their code in an exemplary way. Still, the problem of interfacing new modules has worsened. A more modular approach seems desirable for building large workbenches.

3 Different grammar development environments

In order to position GTU within the context of grammar development environments, let us classify them according to their purpose.

Tutoring environments are designed for learning to write grammars. They must be robust and easy to use (including an intuitive format for grammar rules and an intuitive user interface). The grammar developer should be able to focus on grammar writing. Lexicon and test suite should be hidden. Tutoring environments therefore should contain a sizable lexicon and a test suite with a clear organisation. They should provide for easy access to and intuitive display of intermediate and final parsing results. They need not bother with efficiency considerations of processing a natural language input. GTU is an example of such a system.

Experimentation environments are

designed for professional experimentation and demonstration. They must also be robust but they may require advanced engineering and linguistic skills. They should provide for checking the parsing results. They must support the grammars and parsers to be used outside the development system. We think that Alvey-GDE (Carroll, Briscoe, and Grover, 1991) and Pleuk (Calder and Humphreys, 1993) are good examples of such environments. They allow the tuning of the parser (Alvey) and even redefining the grammar formalism (Pleuk). The Xerox LFG-WB is partly a tutoring environment (especially with its grammar index and zoom-in displays) and partly an experimentation environment since it lacks a test suite and a lexicon.

Note that the systems also differ in the number of grammar formalisms they support. The Alvey-GDE (for GPSG) and the Xerox LFG-WB work only for one designated formalism. GTU has built-in processors for three formalisms, and Pleuk supports whatever formalism one defines. NLP environments are designed as platforms for the development of multi-module NLP systems. Rather than being a closed system they provide a shell for combining multiple linguistic modules such as tokenizers, taggers, morphology analyzers, parsers (with grammars) and so on. A grammar workbench is a tool to develop such a module. All the modules can be tailored and tuned to the specific needs of the overall system. We consider ALEP (Simpkins, 1994) and GATE (Gaizauskas et al., 1996) to be examples of such environments. Although it seems logical and desirable that NLP environments should provide for the delivery of stand-alone systems this aspect has been neglected so far. In particular we suspect that the interface format, as required e.g. between GATE modules, will have negative effects on the processing efficiency of the complete system.⁵

GTU was designed as a tutorial system for grammar development. Over time it has grown into a system that supports most functions of experimentation environments. Its main limitations are its closed architecture and the inability to use the grammars outside the system. Many of its modules can be employed by an NLP environment. GTU's most successful modules are its flexible lexicon interface, the tight integration of the test suite and the module for comparison of output structures.

An NLP environment should be an open platform rather than a closed workbench, as is the core concept of ALEP and GATE. This is needed to allow special treatment for special linguistic problems. For instance, the treatment of separable prefix verbs in German is so specific that it could be tackled by a preprocessor before parsing starts. Only after the separated prefix and the main verb have been recompounded the verb's subcategorization can be determined.

Another specific problem of German is the resolution of elliptical coordinated compounds (e.g. *Inund Ausland* standing for *Inland und Ausland*). If such ellipses are filled in before parsing starts such a coordination does not need special grammar rules. Other peculiarities such as date, time, currency, distance expressions will also need special modules. In this way only the processing of the core syntactic phenomena is left to the parser.

An NLP environment should allow parametrisation of parsers or multiple parsers of different pro-

⁵GATE requires modules to communicate via a so called CREOLE interface, which is a layer wrapped around an existing module.

cessing strategies (e.g. a combination of symbolic and statistic parsing) and processing depths (e.g. shallow parsing if no complete parse can be found).

4 Conclusions

Tools like GTU are well suited for learning to develop grammars, for experimenting with grammar formalisms, and for demonstrating the work of computational linguistics. The use of GTU as an educational tool in computational linguistics courses has been very successful. In a recent project GTU's flexibility is being challenged in a joint project with the Institute of Germanic Language at the University of Koblenz. In this project we examine the use of GTU for the benefit of courses in German as a foreign language.

For the development of large grammars in combination with large linguistic resources and for processing them efficiently, GTU is less suited. We are now convinced that we need an open platform that provides a framework for combining modules for such a task. For this it is necessary to develop interface standards for different types of modules (taggers, grammars, lexicons, test suites etc.).

Finally, we should keep in mind that a computational environment for grammar development offers help in engineering NLP modules for wellunderstood phenomena. The real hard problems in NLP (most importantly the resolution of ambiguity) need to be solved by bringing to bear the right information at the right time. But this is of yet a complex area with many questions that have not received a theoretical answer let alone an engineering solution.

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