

# Recovering From Parser Failures: A Hybrid Statistical/Symbolic Approach

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## Abstract

We describe an implementation of a hybrid statistical/symbolic approach to repairing parser failures in a speech-to-speech translation system.<sup>1</sup> We describe a module which takes as input a fragmented parse and returns a repaired meaning representation. It negotiates with the speaker about what the complete meaning of the utterance is by generating hypotheses about how to fit the fragments of the partial parse together into a coherent meaning representation. By drawing upon both statistical and symbolic information, it constrains its repair hypotheses to those which are both likely and meaningful. Because it updates its statistical model during use, it improves its performance over time.

## Introduction

Natural language processing of spontaneous speech is particularly difficult because it contains false starts, out of vocabulary words, and ungrammatical constructions. Because of this, it is unreasonable to hope to be able to write a grammar which will cover all of the phenomena which a parser is likely to encounter in a practical speech translation system. In this paper we describe an implementation of a hybrid statistical/symbolic approach to recovering from parser failures in the context of a speech-to-speech translation system of significant scope (vocabulary size of 996, word recognition accuracy 60 %, grammar size on the order of 2000 rules). The domain which the current system focuses on is the scheduling domain where two speakers attempt to set up a meeting over the phone.

Because this is an interlingua-based translation system, the goal of the analysis stage of the translation process is to map the utterance in the source language onto a feature-structure representation called an interlingua which represents meaning in a language-independent way. (This approach extends to other feature structure based meaning representations as well.) If the parser

cannot derive a complete analysis for an utterance, it derives a partial parse by skipping over portions of the utterance in order to find a subset which can parse. It also returns an analysis for the skipped portions which can be used to rebuild the meaning of the input utterance. The goal of our repair module is to interactively reconstruct the meaning of the full utterance by generating predictions about the way the fragments can fit together and checking them with the user. In this way it negotiates with the user in order to recover the meaning of the user's utterance.

The repair module described in this paper uses both symbolic and statistical information in order to reconstruct the speaker's meaning from the partial analysis which the parser produces. It generates predictions based on constraints from a specification of the interlingua representation and from mutual information statistics extracted from a corpus of naturally occurring scheduling dialogues. Mutual information is intuitively a measure of how strongly associated two concepts are.

Although the syntactic structure of the input utterance certainly plays an important role in determining the meaning of an utterance, it is possible with the use of the interlingua specification to reason about the meaning of an utterance when only partial structural information is available. This can be accomplished by fitting the partial features structures together against the mold of the interlingua specification. During the parsing process, two structural representations are generated, one which is a tree-like structure generated from the structure of the context-free portion of the parsing grammar rules, and one which is a feature-structure generated from the unification portion of the parsing grammar rules. There is a many-to-one mapping between tree-structures and feature-structures. Both of these structures are important in the repair process.

The repair process is analogous in some ways to fitting pieces of a puzzle into a mold which contains receptacles for particular shapes. The interlingua specification is like the mold with receptacles of different shapes, making it possible to compute all of the ways partial analyses can fit together in order to create a structure which is valid for that interlingua. But the number of

<sup>1</sup>The research described in this paper was sponsored by the Department of the Navy, Office of Naval Research, grant #N00014-93-1-0806. The ideas described in this paper do not necessarily reflect the position or the policy of the government, and no official endorsement should be inferred.

ways it is possible to do this are so numerous that the brute force method is computationally intractable. Mutual information statistics are used to guide the search. These mutual information statistics encode regularities in the types of fillers which tend to occur in particular slots and which feature structures associated with particular non-terminal symbols in the parsing grammar tend to be used in a particular way in the interlingua representation. By drawing upon both statistical and symbolic sources of information, the repair module can constrain its repair predictions to those which are both likely and meaningful.

One advantage to the design of this module is that it draws upon information sources which were already part of the system before the introduction of the repair module. Most of the additional information which the module needs was trained automatically with statistical techniques. The advantage to such a design is that the module can be easily ported to different domains with minimal additional effort. Another strength is that the statistical model the repair module makes use of continually adapts during use. This is desirable in a statistical approach in order to overcome problems with unbalanced training sets or training sets which are too small leading to over-fitting.

### Motivation

The overwhelming majority of research in symbolic approaches to handling ill-formed input has focused on flexible parsing strategies. Jerry Hobbs [Hobbs et al.1991], David McDonald [McDonald1993], Jaime Carbonell [Carbonell et al.1984], Wayne Ward [Woszcyna et al.1993], Jill Lehman [Lehman1989], and Alon Lavie [Lavie and Tomita1993] have all developed types of flexible parsers. Hobbs and McDonald each employ grammar-specific heuristics which are suboptimal since they fall short of being completely general. Ward and Carbonell take a pattern matching approach which is not specific to any particular grammar but the structure of the output representation is not optimal for an application where the output representation is distinct from the structure of the parse, e. g. a feature structure, as in an interlingua-based machine translation system.

Both Lehman and Lavie take an approach which is independent of any particular grammar and makes it possible to generate an output representation which is distinct from the structure of the parse. Lehman's least-deviant-first parser can accommodate a wide range of repairs of parser failures. But as it adds new rules to its grammar in order to accommodate idiosyncratic language patterns it quickly becomes intractable for multiple users. Also, because it does not make use of any statistical regularities, it has to rely on heuristics to determine which repair to try first. Lavie's approach is a variation on Tomita's Generalized LR parser which can identify and parse the maximal subset of the utterance which is grammatical according to its parsing grammar.

He uses a statistical model to rank parses in order to deal with the extraordinary amount of ambiguity associated with flexible parsing algorithms. His solution is a general one. The weakness of this approach is that part of the original meaning of the utterance may be thrown away with the portions of the utterance which were skipped in order to find a subset which can parse.

From a different angle, Gorin has demonstrated that it is possible to successfully build speech applications with a purely statistical approach. He makes use of statistical correlations between features in the input and the output which purely symbolic approaches do not in general make use of. The evidence provided by each feature combines in order to calculate the output which has the most cumulative evidence. In Gorin's approach, the goal is not to derive any sort of structural representation of the input utterance. It is merely to map the set of words in the input utterance onto some system action. If the goal is to map the input onto a meaning representation, as is the case in an interlingua-based machine translation project, the task is more complex. The set of possible meaning representations even in a relatively small domain such a scheduling is so large that such an approach does not seem practical in its pure form. But if the input features encode structural and semantic information, the same idea can be used to generate repair hypotheses.

The repair module described in this paper builds upon Lavie's and Gorin's approaches, reconstructing the meaning of the original utterance by combining the fragments returned from the parser, and making use of statistical regularities in order to naturally determine which combination to try first. In our approach we have attempted to abstract away from any particular grammar in order to develop a module which could be easily ported to other domains and other languages. Our approach allows the system to recover from parser failures and adapt without adding any extra rules to the grammar, allowing it to accommodate multiple users without becoming intractable.

Given a maximum of 10 questions to ask the user, it can raise the accuracy of the parser (point value derived from automatically comparing generated feature structures to hand-coded ones) from 52% to 64% on speech data and from 68% to 78% on transcribed data. Given a maximum of 25 questions, it can raise the accuracy to 72% on speech-data and 86% on transcribed data.

### Symbolic Information

The system which this repair module was designed for is an interlingua-based machine-translation system. This means that the goal of the analysis stage is to map the input utterance onto a language-independent representation of meaning called an interlingua. Currently, the parsing grammar which is used is a semantic grammar which maps the input utterance directly onto the interlingua representation. Although the goal of an interlingua is to be language independent, most interlinguas

are domain dependent. Although this may seem like a disadvantage, it actually makes it possible for domain knowledge to be used to constrain the set of meaningful interlingua structures for that domain which is particularly useful for constraining the set of possible repairs which can be hypothesized. The domain which the current system focuses on is the scheduling domain where two speakers attempt to set up a meeting over the phone.

The interlingua is a hierarchical feature-structure representation. Each level of an interlingua structure contains a frame name which indicates which concept is represented at that level, such as \*busy or \*free. Each frame is associated with a set of slots which can be filled either by an atomic value or by another feature-structure. At the top level, additional slots are added for the sentence-type and the speech-act. Sentence-type roughly corresponds to mood, i.e. \*state is assigned to declarative sentences and \*query-if is assigned to yes/no questions. The speech-act indicates what function the utterance performs in the discourse context. See sample interlingua structure in Figure 1.

```
((SPEECH-ACT (*MULTIPLE*
              *STATE-CONSTRAINT *REJECT))
 (SENTENCE-TYPE *STATE)
 (FRAME *BUSY)
 (WHO ((FRAME *I)))
 (WHEN
  ((FRAME *SPECIAL-TIME)
   (NAME WEEK)
   (SPECIFIER (*MULTIPLE* ALL-RANGE
                     NEXT))))))
```

Figure 1: Sample interlingua representation returned by the parser for "I'm busy all next week."

The interlingua specification determines the set of possible interlingua structures. This specification is one of the key symbolic knowledge sources used for generating repair hypotheses. It is composed of BNF-like rules which specify subsumption relationships between types of feature-structures and other types or between types of feature-structures and a feature-structure specification.

A feature-structure specification is a feature-structure whose slots are filled in with types rather than with atomic values or feature-structures. Feature-structure specifications are the leaves of the subsumption hierarchy of interlingua specification types.

## Statistical Knowledge

Intuitively, repair hypotheses are generated by computing the mutual information between semantic grammar non-terminal symbols and types in the interlingua specification and also between slot/type pairs and types

```
(< TEMPORAL > = < SIMPLE - TIME >
                < INTERVAL >
                < SPECIAL - TIME >
                < RELATIVE - TIME >
                < EVENT - TIME >
                < TIME - LIST >)
```

Figure 2: Sample interlingua specification rule for expressing a subsumption relationship between type < TEMPORAL > and more specific temporal types.

```
(< BUSY > = ((frame *busy)
             (topic < FRAME >)
             (who < FRAME >)
             (why < FRAME >)
             (when < TEMPORAL >)
             (how-long < LENGTH >)
             (degree [degree])))
```

Figure 3: Sample interlingua specification rule for expressing a subsumption relationship between the type < BUSY > and the feature-structure specification for the frame \*busy.

which are likely to be fillers of that slot. Mutual information is roughly a measure of how strongly associated two concepts are. It is defined by the following formula:

$$\log[P(c_k|v_m)/P(c_k)]$$

where  $c_k$  is the  $k$ th element of the input vector and  $v_m$  is the  $m$ th element of the output vector.

Based on Gorin's approach, statistical knowledge in our repair module is stored in a set of networks with weights which correspond to the mutual information between an input unit and an output unit. Gorin's network formalism is appealing because it can be trained both off-line with examples and on-line during use. Another positive aspect of Gorin's mutual information network architecture is that rather than provide a single hypothesis about the correct output, it provides a ranked set of hypotheses so if the user indicates that it made the wrong decision, it has a natural way of determining what to try next. It is also possible to introduce new input units at any point in the training process. This allows the system to learn new words during use. They will be skipped by the parser, but the repair module can treat them like parser non-terminal symbols and learn how to map them onto interlingua representations. This gives the system the additional ability to handle nil parses. It treats each word in the input utterance as a chunk and proceeds as usual. (A chunk is the Repair Module's internal representation of a skipped portion of the input utterance.)

Our implementation of the repair module has code for generating and training five instantiations of Gorin's

network architecture, each used in a different way in the repair process.

The first network is used for generating a set of hypothesized types for chunks with feature structures that have no type in the interlingua specification. The parse associated with these chunks is most commonly a single symbol dominating a single word. This symbol is used to compute a ranked set of likely types this symbol is likely to map onto based on how much mutual information it has with each one. In the case that this is a new symbol which the net has no information about yet, it will return a ranked list of types based on how frequently those types are the correct output. This effect falls naturally out of the mutual information equation.

The second network is used for calculating what types are likely fillers for particular frame slot pairs, e. g. a slot associated with a particular frame. This is used for generating predictions about likely types of fillers which could be inserted in the current interlingua structure. This information can help the repair module interpret chunks with uncertain types in a top-down fashion.

The third network is similar to the first network except that it maps collections of parser non-terminal symbols onto types in the interlingua specification. It is used for guessing likely top level semantic frames for sentences and for building larger chunks out of collections of smaller ones.

The fourth network is similar to the third except instead of mapping collections of parser non-terminal symbols onto types in the interlingua specification, it maps them onto sentence types (see discussion on interlingua representation). This is used for guessing the sentence type after a new top level semantic frame has been selected.

The fifth and final network maps a boolean value onto a ranked set of frame slot pairs. This is used for generating a ranked list of slots which are likely to be filled. This network complements the second network. A combination of these two networks yields a list of slots which are likely to be filled along with the types they are likely to be filled with.

My implementation of the mutual information networks allows for a mask to filter out irrelevant hypotheses so that only the outputs which are potentially relevant at a give time will be returned.

## The Repair Process: Detailed Description

In this section I give a detailed high-level description of the operation of the Repair Module.

### System Architecture

The heart of the Repair Module, see Figure 5, is the Hypothesis Generation Module whose purpose it is to generate repair hypotheses which are instructions for reconstructing the speaker's meaning by performing operations on the Chunk Structure of the parse. The Chunk

Structure represents the relationships between the partial analysis and the analysis for each skipped segment of the utterance. See Figure 4.

**Speaker's Utterance:** *Tuesday afternoon the ninth would be okay for me though.*

**Speech Hypothesis From the Recognizer:** Tuesday afternoon the ninth be okay for me that.

**Partial Analysis:**

```
((sentence-type *fragment)
 (when ((frame *simple-time)
        (time-of-day afternoon)
        (day-of-week Tuesday)
        (day 9)))
```

**Paraphrase of partial analysis:** Tuesday afternoon the ninth

**Skipped Portions:**

1. ((value be))
2. ((frame \*free) (who ((frame \*i))) (good-bad +))
3. ((frame \*that))

Figure 4: Sample Partial Parse

The Initialization module builds this structure from the fragmented analysis returned by the parser. It inserts this structure into the Dynamic Repair Memory structure which serves as a blackboard for communication between modules. The Dynamic Repair Memory also contains slots for the current repair hypothesis and the status of that hypothesis, i.e. test, pass, fail. There are essentially four types of repair hypotheses that the Hypothesis Generation Module can generate. These are guessing the top level semantic frame for the interlingua structure of the sentence, guessing the sentence type, combining chunks into larger chunks, and inserting chunks into the current interlingua structure.

The Hypothesis Generation Module has access to eight different strategies for generating repair hypotheses. The strategy determines which of the four types of hypotheses it should generate on each iteration. A meta-strategy selects which strategy to employ in a given case.

Once the hypothesis is generated, it is sent to the Question Generation Module which generates a question for the user to check whether the hypothesis is correct. After the user responds, the status of the hy-

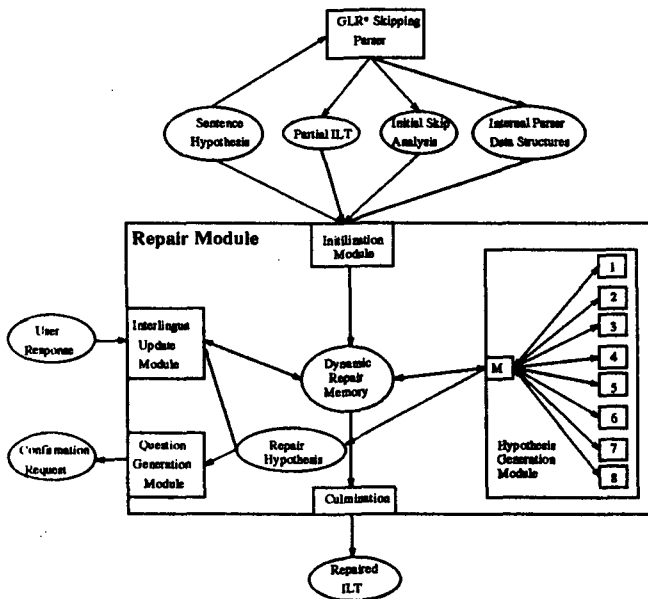


Figure 5: Repair Module System Architecture

hypothesis is noted in the Dynamic Repair Memory and if the response was positive, the Interlingua Update Module makes the specified repair and updates the Dynamic Repair Memory structure. It is the Interlingua Update Module which uses these hypotheses to actually make the repairs in order to derive the complete meaning representation for the utterance from the partial analysis and the analysis for the skipped portions.

If the status indicates that the speaker's response was negative, the Hypothesis Generation Module will suggest an alternative repair hypothesis which is possible since the mutual information nets return a ranked list of predictions rather than a single one. In this way the repair module negotiates with the speaker about what was meant until an acceptable interpretation can be constructed. See Figure 6. When the goal returns positive, the networks are reinforced with the new information so they can improve their performance over time.

### The Three Questions

The eight strategies are generated by all possible ways of selecting either top-down or bottom-up as the answer to three questions.

The first question is, "What will be the top level semantic frame?". The top-down approach is to keep the partial analysis returned by the parser as the top level structure thereby accepting the top level frame in the partial analysis returned by the parser as representing the gist of the meaning of the sentence. The bottom-up

### Interlingua Representation:

```
((sentence-type *state)
 (frame *free)
 (who ((frame *i)))
 (when ((frame *simple-time)
        (time-of-day afternoon)
        (day-of-week Tuesday)
        (day 9))))
```

Paraphrase: I am free Tuesday afternoon the ninth.

Figure 6: Complete Meaning Representation After Repair

approach is to assume that the partial analysis returned by the parser is merely a portion of the meaning of the sentence which should fit into a slot inside of some other top level semantic frame. This is the case in the example in Figure 4.

If bottom-up is selected, a new top level semantic frame is chosen by taking the set of all parser non-terminal symbols in the tree structure for the partial analysis and from each skipped segment and computing the mutual information between that set and each interlingua specification type. This gives it a ranked set of possible types for the top level interlingua structure. The interlingua specification rule for the selected type would then become the template for fitting in the information extracted from the partial analysis as well as from the skipped portions of the utterance. See Figure 7. If a new top-level frame was guessed, then a new sentence-type must also be guessed. Similar to guessing a top level frame, it computes the mutual information between the same set of parser non-terminal symbols and the set of sentence-types.

The second question is, "How will constituents be built?". The top-down approach is to assume that a meaningful constituent to insert into the current interlingua structure for the sentence can be found by simply looking at available chunks and portions of those chunks. See Figure 8. The bottom-up approach is to assume that a meaningful chunk can be constructed by combining chunks into larger chunks which incorporate their meaning. The process of generating predictions about how to combine chunks into larger chunks is similar to guessing a top-level frame from the utterance except that only the parser non-terminal symbols for the segments in question are used to make the computation.

The third question is, "What will drive the search process?". The bottom-up approach is to generate predictions of where to insert chunks by looking at the chunks themselves and determining where in the interlingua structure they might fit in. See Figure 9.

The top-down approach is to look at the interlingua structure, determine what slot is likely to be filled in,

**Question:** What will be the top level structure?

**Answer:** Try Bottom-Up.

**Hypothesis:** (top-level-frame ((frame-name \*free)))

**Question:** Is your sentence mainly about someone being free?

**User Response:** Yes.

**New Current Interlingua Structure:**

((frame \*free))

**Skipped Portions:**

1. ((value be))
2. ((frame \*free) (who ((frame \*i))) (good-bad +))
3. ((frame \*that))
4. ((frame \*simple-time) (time-of-day afternoon) (day-of-week Tuesday) (day 9))

Figure 7: The First Question

and look for a chunk which might fill that slot. See Figure 10.

The difference between these strategies is primarily in the ordering of hypotheses. But there is also some difference in the breadth of the search space. The bottom-up approach will only generate hypotheses about chunks which it has. And if there is some doubt about what the type of a chunk is, only a finite number of possibilities will be tested, and none of these may match something which can be inserted into one of the available slots. The top-down approach generates its predictions based on what is likely to fit into available slots in the current interlingua structure. It first tries to find a likely filler which matches a chunk which has a definite type, but in the absence of this eventuality, it will assume that a chunk with no specific type is whatever type it guesses can fit into a slot. And if the user confirms that this slot should be filled with this type, it will learn the mapping between the symbols in that chunk and that type. Learning new words is more likely to occur with the top-down approach than with the bottom-up approach.

The meta-strategy answers these questions, selecting the strategy to employ at a given time. Once a strategy is selected, it continues until it either makes a repair or cannot generate anymore questions given the current state of the Dynamic Repair Memory. Also, once the first question is answered, it is never asked again

**Question:** How will constituents be built?

**Answer:** Try Top-Down.

**Available Chunks:**

1. ((value be))
2. ((frame \*free) (who ((frame \*i))) (good-bad +))
3. ((frame \*that))
4. ((frame \*simple-time) (time-of-day afternoon) (day-of-week Tuesday) (day 9))

**Constituents:**

1. ((frame \*simple-time) (time-of-day afternoon) (day-of-week Tuesday) (day 9))
2. ((frame \*free) (who ((frame \*i))) (good-bad +))
3. ((frame \*i))
4. ((frame \*that))
5. ((value be))

Figure 8: The Second Question

since once the top level frame is confirmed, it can be depended upon to be correct.

The meta-strategy attempts to answer the first question at the beginning of the search process. If the whole input utterance parses or the parse quality indicated by the parser is good and the top level frame guessed as most likely by the mutual information nets matches the one chosen by the parser, it assumes it should take the top-down approach. If the parse quality is bad, it assumes it should guess a new top level frame, but it does not remove the current top level frame from its list of possible top level frames. In all other cases, it confirms with the user whether the top level frame selected by the parser is the correct one and if it is not, then it proceeds through its list of hypotheses until it locates the correct top level frame.

Currently, the meta heuristic always answers the second question the same way. Preliminary results indicated that in the great majority of cases, the repair module was more effective when it took the top down approach. It is most often the case that the chunks which are needed can be located within the structures of the chunks returned by the parser without combining them. And even when it is the case that chunks should be combined in order to form a chunk which fits into the current interlingua structure, the same effect can be generated by mapping the top level structure of the would be combined chunk onto an available chunk with an uncertain type and then inserting the would be

**Question:** What will drive the search process?

**Answer:** Try Bottom-Up.

**Current Constituent:**

```
((frame *simple-time)
 (time-of-day afternoon)
 (day-of-week Tuesday)
 (day 9)))
```

**Hypothesis:**

```
(frame-slot ((frame-name *free)
             (when ((frame *simple-time)
                    (time-of-day afternoon)
                    (day-of-week Tuesday)
                    (day 9))))))
```

**Question:** Is Tuesday afternoon the ninth the time of being free in your sentence?

**User Response:** Yes.

**New Current Interlingua Structure:**

```
((sentence-type *state)
 (frame *free)
 (when ((frame *simple-time)
        (time-of-day afternoon)
        (day-of-week Tuesday)
        (day 0))))
```

Figure 9: The Third Question - Part 1

constituent chunks into this hypothesized chunk later. Preliminary tests indicated that the option of combining chunks only yielded an increase in accuracy in about 1% of the 129 cases tested. Nevertheless, it would be ideal for the meta heuristic to sense when it is likely to be useful to take this approach, no matter how infrequent. This will be a direction for future research.

The third question is answered by taking the bottom-up approach early, considering only chunks with a definite type and then using a top down approach for the duration of the repair process for the current interlingua structure.

The final task of the meta heuristic is for it to decide when to stop asking questions. Currently it does this when there are no open slots or it has asked some arbitrary maximum number of questions. An important direction of future research is to find a better way of doing this. Currently, the repair module asks primar-

**Question:** What will drive the search process?

**Answer:** Try Top-Down.

**Current Slot:** who

**Hypothesis:** (frame-slot ((frame-name \*free) (who ((frame \*i))))))

**Question:** Is it "I" who is being free in your sentence?

**User Response:** Yes.

**New Current Interlingua Structure:**

```
((sentence-type *state)
 (frame *free)
 (who ((frame *i)))
 (when ((frame *simple-time)
        (time-of-day afternoon)
        (day-of-week Tuesday)
        (day 0))))
```

Figure 10: The Third Question - Part 2

ily useful questions (yielding an increase in accuracy) early (within the first 5 or 10 questions) and then proceeds to ask a lot of irrelevant questions. But I have not found an optimal maximum number of questions. If the number of questions is too small, it will not be able to learn some new input patterns and sometimes fails to recover information it would have been able to recover had it been allowed to ask a few more questions. But if the number is too large, it is unnecessarily annoying for the user, particularly in cases where the important information was recovered early in the process.

### User Interaction

User interaction is an essential part of our approach. The ideal in speech-to-speech translation has been direct through-put from input speech to output speech. But this leaves the speaker with no idea of what the system understood from what was said or what is ultimately communicated to the other speaker. This is particularly a problem with flexible parsing techniques where the parser must take some liberties in finding a parse for ill-formed input.

Because our Hypothesis Generation Module makes hypotheses about local repairs, the questions generated focus on local information in the meaning representation of the sentence. For instance, rather than confirm global meaning representations as in, "Did you mean to say X?", it confirms local information as in, "Is two o'clock the time of being busy in your sentence?" which confirms that the representation for "two o'clock" should be inserted into the *when* slot in the *\*busy* frame.

## Results

Figure 11 displays the relative performance of the eight strategies compared to the meta strategy on speech data.

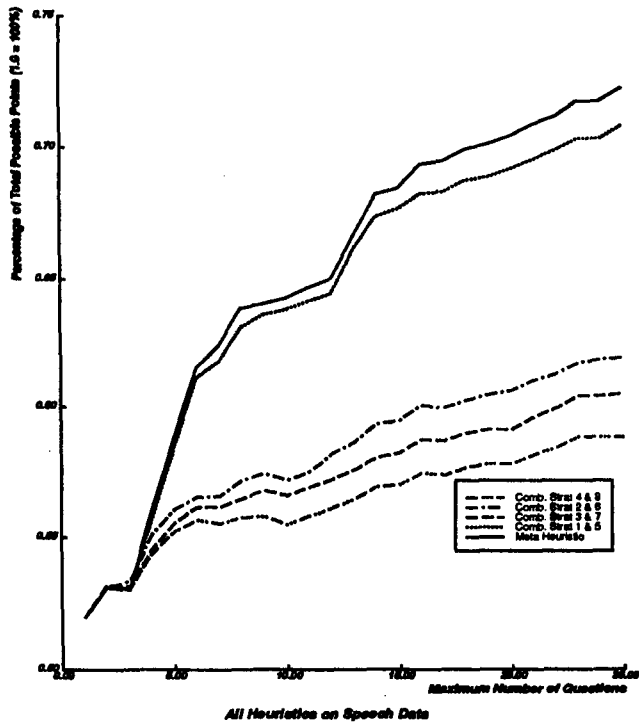


Figure 11: Results from All Strategies on Speech Data

Given a maximum of 10 questions to ask the user, the repair module can raise the accuracy of the parser (point value derived from automatically comparing generated feature structures to hand-coded ones) from 52% to 64% on speech data and from 68% to 78% on transcribed data. Given a maximum of 25 questions, it can raise the accuracy to 72% on speech-data and 86% on transcribed data.

## Conclusions and Future Directions

This document describes an approach to interactive repair of fragmented parses in the context of a speech-to-speech translation project of significant scale. It makes it possible to use symbolic knowledge sources to the extent that they are available and uses statistical knowledge to fill in the gaps. This gives it the ability to keep the preciseness of symbolic approaches wherever possible as well as the robustness of statistical approaches wherever symbolic knowledge sources are not available.

It is a general approach which applies regardless of how degraded the input is, even if the sentence completely fails to parse.

The primary weakness of this approach is that it relies too heavily on user interaction. One goal of future research will be to look into various ways of reducing this burden on the user. The following is a list of potential avenues of exploration:

1. Reduce unnecessary positive confirmations by developing a reliable confidence measure.
2. Use contextual knowledge and possibly some domain knowledge to eliminate hypotheses which don't make sense.
3. Develop heuristics for rejecting sentences which are out of domain.
4. Introduce a mechanism for enforcing global constraints, i. e. agreement, and other selectional restrictions.

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