Using a Broad-Coverage Parser for Word-Breaking in Japanese
Hisami Suzuki, Chris Brockett and Gary Kacmarcik
Microsoft Research
One Microsoft Way
Redmond WA 98052 USA
{hisamis, chrisbkt, garykac}@microsoft.com

Abstract
We describe a method of word segmentation in Japanese in which a broad-coverage parser selects the best word sequence while producing a syntactic analysis. This technique is substantially different from traditional statistics- or heuristics-based models which attempt to select the best word sequence before handing it to the syntactic component. By breaking up the task of finding the best word sequence into the identification of words (in the word-breaking component) and the selection of the best sequence (a by-product of parsing), we have been able to simplify the task of each component and achieve high accuracy over a wide variety of data. Word-breaking accuracy of our system is currently around 97–98%.

1. Introduction
Word-breaking is an unavoidable and crucial first step toward sentence analysis in Japanese. In a sequential model of word-breaking and syntactic analysis without a feedback loop, the syntactic analyzer assumes that the results of word-breaking are correct, so for the parse to be successful, the input from the word-breaking component must include all words needed for a desired syntactic analysis. Previous approaches to Japanese word segmentation have relied on heuristics- or statistics-based models to find the single most likely sequence of words for a given string, which can then be passed to the syntactic component for further processing. The most common heuristics-based approach utilizes a connectivity matrix between parts-of-speech and word probabilities. The most likely analysis can be obtained by searching for the path with the minimum connective cost (Hisamitsu and Nitta 1990), often supplemented by additional heuristic devices such as the longest-string-match or the least-number-of-hunsetsu (phrase). Despite its popularity, the connective cost method has a major disadvantage in that hand-tuning is not only labor-intensive but also unsafe, since adjusting the cost for one string may cause another to break. Various heuristic (e.g. Kurohashi and Nagao 1998) and statistical (e.g. Takeuchi and Matsumoto 1997) augmentations of the minimum connective cost method have been proposed, bringing segmentation accuracy up to around 98–99% (e.g. Kurohashi and Nagao 1998, Fuchi and Takagi 1998).

Fully stochastic language models (e.g. Nagata 1994), on the other hand, do not allow such manual cost manipulation and precisely for that reason, improvements in segmentation accuracy are harder to achieve. Attaining a high accuracy using fully stochastic methods is particularly difficult for Japanese due to the prevalence of orthographic variants (a word can be spelled in many different ways by combining different character sets), which exacerbates the sparse data problem. As a result, the performance of stochastic models is usually not as good as the heuristics-based language models. The best accuracy reported for statistical methods to date is around 95% (e.g. Nagata 1994).

Our approach contrasts with the previous approaches in that the word-breaking component itself does not perform the selection of the best segmentation analysis at all. Instead, the word-breaker returns all possible words that span the given string in a word lattice, and the best word sequence is determined by applying the syntactic rules for building parse trees. In other words, there is no task of selecting the best segmentation per se; the best word-breaking analysis is merely a concomitant of the best syntactic parse. We demonstrate that a robust, broad-coverage parser can be implemented directly on a word lattice input and can be used to resolve word-breaking ambiguities effectively without adverse performance effects. A similar model of word-breaking is reported for the problem of Chinese word segmentation (Wu and Jiang 1998), but the amount of ambiguity that exists in the word
lattice is much larger in Japanese, which requires a different treatment. In the following, we first describe the word-breaker and the parser in more detail (Section 2); we then report the results of segmentation accuracy (Section 3) and the results of related experiments assessing the effects of the segmentation ambiguities in the word lattice to parsing (Section 4). In Conclusion, we discuss implications for future research.

2. Using a broad-coverage parser for word-breaking

The word-breaking and syntactic components discussed in the current study are implemented within a broad-coverage, multi-purpose natural language understanding system being developed at Microsoft Research, whose ultimate goal is to achieve deep semantic understanding of natural language. A detailed description of the system is found in Heidorn (in press). Though we focus on the word-breaking and syntactic components in this paper, the syntactic analysis is by no means the final goal of the system; rather, a parse tree is considered to be an approximate first step toward a more useful meaning representation. We also aim at being truly broad-coverage, i.e., returning useful analyses irrespective of the genre or the subject matter of the input text, be it a newspaper article or a piece of e-mail. For the proposed model of word-breaking to work well, the following properties of the parser are particularly important.

- The bottom-up chart parser creates syntactic analyses by building incrementally larger phrases from individual words and phrases (Jensen et al. 1993). The analyses that span the entire input string are the complete analyses, and the words used in that analysis constitutes the word-breaking analysis for the string. Incorrect words returned by the word-breaker are filtered out by the syntactic rules, and will not make it into the final complete parse.

- All the grammar rules, written in the formalism of Augmented Phrase Structure Grammar (Heidorn 1975), are binary, a feature crucial for dealing with free word-order and missing constituents (Jensen 1987). Not only has the rule formalism proven to be indispensable for parsing a wide range of English texts, it is all the more critical for parsing Japanese, as the free word-order and missing constituents are the norm for Japanese sentences.

- There is very little semantic dependency in the grammar rules, which is essential if the grammar is to be domain-independent. However, the grammar rules are elaborately conditioned on morphological and syntactic features, enabling much finer-grained parsing analyses than just relying on a small number of basic parts-of-speech (POS). This gives the grammar the power to disambiguate multiple word analyses in the input lattice.

Because we do not utilize semantic information, we perform no semantically motivated attachment of phrases during parsing. Instead, we parse them into a default analysis, which can then be expanded and disambiguated at later stages of processing using a large semantic knowledge base (Richardson 1997, Richardson et al. 1998). One of the goals of this paper is to show that the syntactic information alone can resolve the ambiguities in the word lattice sufficiently well to select the best breaking analysis in the absence of elaborate semantic information. Figure 1 (see Appendix) shows the default attachment of the relative clause to the closest NP. Though this structure may be semantically implausible, the word-breaking analysis is correct.

The word-breaking component of our system is described in detail in Kacmarcik et al. (2000). For the purpose of robust parsing, the component is expected to solve the following two problems:

- Lemmatization: Find possible words in the input text using a dictionary and its inflectional morphology, and return the dictionary entry forms (lemmas). Note that multiple lemmas are often possible for a given inflected form (e.g. surface form かって (katie) could be an inflected form of the verbs かう (kau "buy"), かつ (katu "win") or かる (karu "trim")), in which case all these forms must be returned. The dictionary the word-breaker uses has about 70,000 unique entries.

- Orthography normalization: Identify and normalize orthographic variants. This is a non-trivial task in Japanese, as words can be spelled using any combination of the four character
4.3 Parser precision

An initial concern in implementing the present model was that parsing ambiguous input might proliferate syntactic analyses. In theory, the number of analyses might grow exponentially as the input sentence length increased, making the reliable ranking of parse results unmanageable. In practice, however, pathological proliferation of syntactic analyses is not a problem. Figure 4 tallies the average number of parses obtained in relation to sentence length for all successful parses in the 5,000-sentence test corpus (corpus A in Table 1). There were 4,121 successful parses in the corpus, corresponding to 82.42% coverage. From Figure 4, we can see that the number of parses does increase as the sentence grows longer, but the increment is linear and the slope is very moderate. Even in the highest-scoring range, the mean number of parses is only 2.17. Averaged over all sentence lengths, about 68% of the successfully parsed sentences receive only one parse, and 22% receive two parses. Only about 10% of sentences receive more than 2 analyses. From these results we conclude that the overgeneration of parse trees is not a practical concern within our approach.

4.4 Performance

A second potential concern was performance: would the increased number of records in the chart cause unacceptable degradation of system speed?

This concern also proved unfounded in practice. In another experiment, we evaluated the processing speed of the system by measuring the time it takes per character in the input sentence (in milliseconds) relative to the sentence length. The results are given in Figure 5. This figure shows that the processing time per-character grows moderately as the sentence grows longer, due to the increased number of intermediate analyses created during the parsing. But the increase is linear, and we interpret these results as indicating that our approach is fully viable and realistic in terms of processing speed, and robust against input sentence length. The current average parsing time for our 15,000-sentence corpus (with average sentence length of 49.02 characters) is 23.09 sentences per second on a Dell 550MHz Pentium III machine with 512MB of RAM.

Figure 5. Processing speed on a 15,000-sentence corpus

5. Conclusion

We have shown that a practical, broad-coverage parser can be implemented without requiring the word-breaking component to return a single segmentation analysis, and that it can at the same time achieve high accuracy in POS-labeled word-breaking. Separating the tasks of word identification and best sequence selection offers flexibility in enhancing both recall and precision without sacrificing either at the cost of the other.

Our results show that morphological and syntactic information alone can resolve most word-breaking ambiguities. Nonetheless, some ambiguities require semantic and contextual information. For example, the following sentence allows two parses corresponding to two word-breaking analyses, of which the first is semantically preferred:

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5 A similar observation is made by Charniak et al. (forthcoming), who find that the number of final parses caused by additional POS tags is far less than the theoretical worst case in reality.
Likewise, the sentence below allows two different interpretations of the morpheme de, either as a locative marker (1) or as a copula (2). Both interpretations are syntactically and semantically valid; only contextual information can resolve the ambiguity.

(1) minen-ha isuraeru-de aru
next year-TOP Israel-LOC be-held
"It will be held in Israel next year".

(2) rainen-ha isuraeru de-aru
next year-TOP Israel be-PRES
"It will be Israel next year".

In both these sentences, we create syntactic trees for all syntactically valid interpretations, leaving the ambiguity intact. Such ambiguities can only be resolved with semantic and contextual information eventually made available by higher processing components. This will be the focus of our ongoing research.

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Appendix
あいつく隣国に干渉になんできて。
"(It) has been annoyed by the successive interventions by the neighboring country".

Figure 1. Example of ambiguous attachment. RELCL1 can syntactically modify either NOUN2 or NOUN4. NOUN4 (non-local attachment) is the semantically correct choice. Shown above the parse tree is the input word lattice returned from the word-breaker.

Figure 2. Example of an incomplete parse with correct word-breaking results.