Searching for Grammaticality: Propagating Dependencies in the Viterbi Algorithm

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Abstract

In many text-to-text generation scenarios (for instance, summarisation), we encounter human-authored sentences that could be composed by recycling portions of related sentences to form new sentences. In this paper, we couch the generation of such sentences as a search problem. We investigate a statistical sentence generation method which recombines words to form new sentences. We propose an extension to the Viterbi algorithm designed to improve the grammaticality of generated sentences. Within a statistical framework, the extension favours those partially generated strings with a probable dependency tree structure. Our preliminary evaluations show that our approach generates less fragmented text than a bigram baseline.

1 Introduction

In abstract-like automatic summary generation, we often require the generation of new and previously unseen summary sentences given some closely related sentences from a source text. We refer to these as Non-Verbatim Sentences. These sentences are used instead of extracted sentences for a variety of reasons including improved conciseness and coherence.

The need for a mechanism to generate such sentences is supported by recent work showing that sentence extraction is not sufficient to account for the scope of written human summaries. Jing and McKeown [1999] found that only 42% of sentences from summaries of news text were extracted sentences. This is also supported by the work of Knight and Marcu [2002] (cited by [Daumé III and Marcu, 2004]), which finds that only 2.7% of human summary sentences are extracts. In our own work on United Nations Humanitarian Aid Proposals, we noticed that only 30% of sentences are extracted from the source document, either verbatim or with trivial string replacements.

While the figures do vary, it shows that additional mechanisms beyond sentence extraction are needed. In response to this, our general research problem is one in which given a set of related sentences, a single summary sentence is produced by recycling words from the input sentence set.

1 Narrowing the Search Space: A Description of the Statistical Sentence Generation Problem

In this work, sentence generation is essentially a search for the most probable sequence of words, given some source text.
However, this constitutes an enormous space which requires efficient subset searching. Whilst reducing a vocabulary to a suitable subset narrows this space somewhat, we can use statistical models, representing properties of language, to prune the search space of word sequences further to those strings that reflect real language usage. For example, n-gram models limit the word sequences examined to those that seem grammatically correct, at least for small windows of text.

However, n-grams alone often result in sentences that, whilst near-grammatical, are often just gibberish. When combined with a (word) content selection model, we narrow the search space even further to those sentences that appear to make sense. Accordingly, approaches such as Witbrock and Mittal [1999] and Wan et al. [2003] have investigated models that improve the choice of words in the sentence. Witbrock and Mittal’s content model chooses words that make good headlines, whilst that of Wan et al. attempts to ensure, given a short document like a news article, only words from sentences of the same subtopic are combined to form a new sentence. In this paper, we narrow the search space to those sequences that conserve dependency structures from within the input text.

Our algorithm extension essentially passes along the long-distance context of dependency head information of the preceding word sequence, in order to influence the choice of the next word appended to the sentence. This dependency structure is constructed statistically by an O(n) algorithm, which is folded into the Viterbi algorithm. Thus, the extension is in an O(n^2) algorithm. The use of dependency relations further constrains the search space. Competing paths through the search space are ranked taking into account the proposed dependency structures of the partially generated word sequences. Sentences with probable dependency structures are ranked higher. To model the probability of a dependency relation, we use the statistical dependency models inspired by those described in Collins [1996].

3 Using The Viterbi Algorithm for Sentence Generation

We assume that the reader is familiar with the Viterbi algorithm. The interested reader is referred to Manning and Schutze [1999] for a more complete description. Here, we summarise our re-implementation (described in [Wan et al., 2003]) of the Viterbi algorithm for summary sentence generation, as first introduced by Witbrock and Mittal [1999].

In this work, we begin with a Hidden Markov Model (HMM) where the nodes (ie, states) of the graph are uniquely labelled with words from a relevant vocabulary. To obtain a suitable subset of the vocabulary, words are taken from a set of related sentences, such as those that might occur in a news article (as is the case for the original work by Witbrock and Mittal). In this work, we use the clusters of event related sentences from the Information Fusion work by Barzilay et al. [1999]. The edges between nodes in the HMM are typically weighted using bigram probabilities extracted from a related corpus.

The three probabilities of the unmodified Viterbi algorithm are defined as follows:

**Transition Probability** (using the Maximum Likelihood Estimate to model bigram probabilities):

\[
Pr_{\text{bigram}}(w_{i+1}|w_i) = \frac{\text{count}(w_i, w_{i+1})}{\text{count}(w_i)}
\]

**Emission Probability**: (For the purposes of testing the new transition probability function described in Section 4, this is set to 1 in this paper):

\[
p_{\text{em}}(w) = 1
\]

**Path Probability** is defined recursively as:

\[
P_{\text{path}}(w_0, \ldots, w_i) = Pr_{\text{bigram}}(w_{i+1}|w_i) \times p_{\text{em}}(w) \times P_{\text{path}}(w_0, \ldots, w_i)
\]

The unmodified Viterbi algorithm as outlined here would generate word sequences just using a bigram model. As noted above, such sequences will often be ungrammatical.

4 A Mechanism for Propagating Dependency Features in the Extended Viterbi Algorithm

In our extension, we modify the definition of the Transition Probability such that not only do we consider bigram probabilities but also dependency-based transition probabilities. Examining the dependency head of the preceding string then allows us to consider long-distance context when appending a new word. The algorithm ranks highly those words with a plausible dependency relation to the preceding string, with respect to the source text being generated from (or summarised).

However, instead of considering just the likelihood of a dependency relation between adjacent pairs of words, we can consider the likelihood of a word attaching to the dependency tree structure of the partially generated sentence. Specifically, it is the rightmost root-to-leaf branch that can still be modified or governed by the appending of a new word to the string. This rightmost branch is stored as a stack. It is updated and propagated to the end of the path each time we add a word.

Thus, our extension has two components: **Dependency Transition** and **Head Stack Reduction**. Aside from these modifications, the Viterbi algorithm remains the same.

In the remaining subsections, we describe in detail how the dependency relations are computed and how the stack is reduced. In Figure 3, we present pseudo-code for the extended Viterbi algorithm.

4.1 Scoring a Dependency Transition

**Dependency Parse Preprocessing of Source Text**

The Dependency Transition is simply an additional weight on the HMM edge. The transition probability is the average of the two transition weights based on bigrams and dependencies:

\[
Pr_r(w_{i+1}|w_i) = \text{average}(Pr_{\text{bigram}}(w_{i+1}|w_i), Pr_{\text{dep}}(w_{i+1}|w_i))
\]

Before we begin the generation process, we first use a dependency parser to parse all the sentences from the source text to

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1Here the subscripts refer to the fact that this is a transition probability based on n-grams. We will later propose an alternative using dependency transitions.
obtain dependency trees. A traversal of each dependency tree yields all parent-child relationships, and we update an adjacency matrix of connectivity accordingly. Because the status of a word as a head or modifier depends on the word order in English, we consider relative word positions to determine if a relation has a forward or backward direction. Forward and backward directional relations are stored in separate matrices. The Forward matrix stores relations in which the head is to the right of the modifier in the sentence. Conversely, the Backward matrix stores relations in the head to left of the modifier. This distinction is required later in the stack reduction step.

As an example, given the two strings (using characters in lieu of words) "b e a c" and "b e d c a" and the corresponding dependency trees:

```
  a
 b
  c
 d
 e
```

we obtain the following adjacency matrices:

**Forward (or Right-Direction) Adjacency Matrix**

```
  0 0 0 0 1
  0 0 0 1 0
  0 0 0 0 0
  0 0 0 0 0
  0 0 0 0 0
```

**Backward (or Left-Direction) Adjacency Matrix**

```
  0 0 0 0 0
  0 0 0 0 0
  0 0 0 0 0
  0 0 0 0 0
  0 0 0 0 0
```

We refer to the matrices as $\text{Adj}_\text{Right}$ and $\text{Adj}_\text{Left}$, respectively. The cell value in each matrix indicates the number of times word $i$ (that is, the row index) governs word $j$ (that is, the column index).

**Computing the Dependency Transition Probability**

We define the Dependency Transition weight as:

$$p_{\text{Dep}_{\text{sym}}}(w_{i+1} | w_i) = p(\text{Dep}_{\text{sym}}(w_{i+1}, \text{headStack}(w_i)))$$

where $\text{Dep}_{\text{sym}}$ is the symmetric relation stating that some dependency relation occurs between a word and any of the words in the stack, irrespective of which is the head. Intuitively, the stack is a compressed representation of the dependency tree corresponding to the preceding words. The probability indicates how likely it is that the new word can attach itself to this incrementally built dependency tree, either as a modifier or a governor. Since the stack is cumulatively passed on at each point, we need only consider the stack stored at the preceding word.

This is estimated as follows:

$$p(\text{Dep}_{\text{sym}}(w_{i+1}, \text{headStack}(w_i))) = \max_{h \in \text{headStack}(w_i)} p(\text{Dep}_{\text{sym}}(w_{i+1}, h))$$

![Figure 1: A path through a lattice. Although separated on two lines, it represents a single sequence of words. The stack (oriented upwards) grows and shrinks as we add words. Note that the modifiers to dog are popped off before it is pushed on. Note also that modifiers of existing items on the stack, such as over are merely pushed on. Words with no connection to previously seen stack items are also pushed on (eg. quick) in the hope that a head will be found later.](image)

Here, we assume that a word can only attach to the tree once at a single node; hence, we find the node that maximises the probability of node attachment. The relationship $\text{Dep}_{\text{sym}}(a, b)$ is modelled using a simplified version of Collins’ [1996] dependency model.

Because of the status of word as the head relies on the preservation of word order, we keep track of the directionality of a relation. For two words $a$ and $b$ where $a$ precedes $b$ in the generated string,

$$p(\text{Dep}_{\text{sym}}(a, b)) \approx \frac{\text{Adj}_\text{Right}^\text{cnt}(a, b) + \text{Adj}_\text{Left}^\text{cnt}(b, a)}{\text{co-occur}(a, b)}$$

where $\text{Adj}_\text{Right}$ and $\text{Adj}_\text{Left}$ are the right and left adjacency matrices. Recall that row indices are heads and column indices are modifiers.

**4.2 Head Stack Reduction**

Once we decide that a newly considered path is better than any other previously considered one, we update the head stack to represent the extended path. At any point in time, the stack represents the rightmost root-to-leaf branch of the dependency tree (for the generated sentence) that can still be modified or governed by concatenating new words to the string.

Within the stack, older words may be modified or governed by concatenating new words to the string. There are three possible alternative outcomes of the reduction. The first is that the proposed top-of-stack (ToS) has no dependency relation to any of the existing stack items, in which case the stack remains unchanged. For the second and third cases, we check each item on the stack and keep a record

\[^2\text{These are defined analogously to similar concepts in Combinatory Categorial Grammar [Steedman, 2000].}\]

\[^3\text{Note that we can scan through the stack as well as push onto and pop from the top; this is thus the same type of stack as used in, for example, Nested Stack Automata.}\]

\[^4\text{That is, if } w_i \text{ depends on } w_j \text{, all words in between } w_i \text{ and } w_j \text{ are also dependent on } w_j.\]
reduceHeadStack(aNode, aStack) returns aStack
Node\textsubscript{new} ← aNode
Stack ← aStack # duplicate
Node\textsubscript{max} ← NULL
Edge\textsubscript{prob} ← 0

# Find best chunk
While notEmpty(aStack)
    Head ← pop(aStack)
    if $p(\text{dep}_{sym}(\text{Node}_{new}, \text{Head})) > \text{Edge}_{prob}$
        Node\textsubscript{max} ← Head
        Edge\textsubscript{prob} ← $\text{dep}_{sym}(\text{Node}_{new}, \text{Head})$

# Keep only best chunk
While top(aStack) ≠ Node\textsubscript{max}
    pop(aStack)

# Determine new head of existing string
if isReduced(\text{Node}_{new}, \text{Node}_{max})
    pop(aStack)
else
    push(\text{Node}_{new}, aStack)

Figure 2: Pseudocode for the Head Stack Reduction operation

only of the best probable dependency between the proposed ToS and the appropriate stack item. The second outcome, then, is that the proposed ToS is the head of some item on the stack. All items up to and including that stack item are popped off and the proposed ToS is pushed on. The third outcome is that it modifies some item on the stack. All stack items up to (but not including) the stack item are popped off and the proposed ToS is pushed on. The pseudocode is presented in Figure 2. An example of stack manipulation is presented in Figure 1. We rely on two external functions. The first function, $\text{dep}_{sym}/2$, has already been presented above. The second function, isReduced/2, relies on an auxiliary function returning the probability of one word being governed by the other, given the relative order of the words. This is in essence our parsing step, determining which word governs the other. The function is defined as follows:

$$\text{isReduced}(w_1, w_2) = p(\text{isHeadRight}(w_1, w_2)) > p(\text{isHeadLeft}(w_1, w_2))$$

where $w_1$ precedes $w_2$, and:

$$p(\text{isHeadRight}(w_1, w_2)) = \frac{n_{\text{adj}_{\text{right}}(w_1, w_2)}}{n_{\text{hasRelation}(w_1, w_2, \text{where}(w_1) < \text{i}(w_2))}}$$

and similarly,

$$p(\text{isHeadLeft}(w_1, w_2)) = \frac{n_{\text{adj}_{\text{left}}(w_2, w_1)}}{n_{\text{hasRelation}(w_1, w_2, \text{where}(w_1) < \text{i}(w_2))}}$$

where hasRelation/2 is the number of times we see the two words in a dependency relation, and where $i(w_1)$ returns a word position in the corpus sentence. The function isReduced/2 makes calls to $p(\text{isHeadRight})/2$ and $p(\text{isHeadLeft})/2$. It returns true if the first parameter is the head of the second, and false otherwise. In the comparison, the denominator is constant. We thus need only the numerator in these auxiliary functions.

Collins’ distance heuristics [1996] weight the probability of a dependency relation between two words based on the distance between them. We could implement a similar strategy by favouring small reductions in the head stack. Thus a reduction with a more recent stack item which is closer to the proposed ToS would be less penalised than an older one.

5 Related Work

There is a wealth of relevant research related to sentence generation. We focus here on a discussion of related work from statistical sentence generation and from summarisation.

In recent years, there has been a steady stream of research in statistical text generation. We focus here on work which generates sentences from some sentential semantic representation via a statistical method. For examples of related statistical sentence generators see Langkilde and Knight [1998] and Bangalore and Rambow [2000]. These approaches begin with a representation of sentence semantics that closely resembles that of a dependency tree. This semantic representation is turned into a word lattice. By ranking all traversals of this lattice using an n-gram model, the best surface realisation of the semantic representation is chosen. The system then searches for the best path through this lattice. Our approach differs in that we do not start with a semantic representation. Instead, we paraphrase the original text. We search for the best word sequence and dependency tree structure concurrently.

viterbiSearch(maxLength, stateGraph) returns bestPath
numStates ← getNumStates(stateGraph)

viterbi ← a matrix[numStates+2, maxLength+2]
viterbi[0,0].score ← 1.0
for each time step $t$ from 0 to maxLength do

# Termination Condition
if (\{viterbi[endState, $t$].score \neq 0\) AND isAcceptable(endState, headStack))
    # Backtrace from endState and return path
    Backtrace from $viterbi[endState, t]$ and return path

# Continue appending words
for each state $s$ from 0 to numStates do
    for each transition $s'$ from $s$
        newScore ← $viterbi[s,t].score \times p_{r1}(s'|s) \times p_{em}(s')$
        if (\{viterbi[s',t+1].score = 0\) OR (newScore > viterbi[s', t+1])
            viterbi[s', t+1].score ← newScore
            viterbi[s', t+1].headStack ← reduceHeadStack($s'$, viterbi[s, t].headStack)
            backPointer[$s'$, t+1] ← $s'$

Backtrace from $viterbi[endState, t]$ and return path

Figure 3: Extended Viterbi Algorithm
Research in summarisation has also addressed the problem of generating non-verbatim sentences; see [Jing and McKeown, 1999], [Barzilay et al., 1999] and more recently [Daumé III and Marcu, 2004]. Jing presented a HMM for learning alignments between summary and source sentences trained using examples of summary sentences generated by humans. Daumé III also provides a mechanism for sub-sentential alignment but allows for alignments between multiple sentences. Both these approaches provide models for later recombining sentence fragments. Our work differs primarily in granularity. Using words as a basic unit potentially offers greater flexibility in pseudo-paraphrase generation since we are able to modify the word sequence within the phrase.

It should be noted, however, that a successful execution of our algorithm is likely to conserve constituent structure (ie. a coarser granularity) via the use of dependencies, whilst still making available a flexibility at the word level. Additionally, our use of dependencies allows us to generate not only a string but a dependency tree for that sentence.

6 Evaluation

In this section, we outline our preliminary evaluation of grammaticality in which we compare our dependency based generation method against a baseline. To study any improvements in grammaticality, we compare our dependency based generation method against a baseline consisting of sentences generated using bigram model.

In the evaluation, we do not use any smoothing algorithms for dependency counts. For both our approach and the baseline, Katz’s Back-off smoothing algorithm is used for bigram probabilities.

For our evaluation cases, we use the Information Fusion data collected by [Barzilay et al., 1999]. This data is made up of news articles that have been first grouped by topic, and then component sentences further clustered by similarity of events. There are 100 sentence clusters and on average there are 4 sentences per cluster. Each sentence in the cluster is initially passed through the Connexor dependency parser (www.connexor.com) to obtain dependency relations. Each sentence cluster forms an evaluation case in which we generate a single sentence. Example output and the original text of the cluster is presented in Figure 4.

To give both our approach and the baseline the greatest chance of generating a sentence, we obtain our bigrams from our evaluation cases.\(^5\) Aside from this preprocessing to collect input sentence bigrams and dependencies, there is no training as such. For each evaluation case, both our system and the baseline method generates a set of answer strings, from 3 to 40 words in length.

For each generated output of a given sentence length, we count the number of times the Connexor parser resorts to returning partial parses. This count, albeit a noisy one, is used as our measure of ungrammaticality. We calculate the average ungrammaticality score across evaluation cases for each sentence length.

\(^5\)Note that this is permissible in this case because we are not making any claims about the coverage of our model.
The results are presented in Figure 5. Our approach almost always performs better than the baseline, producing less errors per sentence length. Using the Wilcoxon Signed Rank Text (alpha = 0.5), we found that for sentences of length greater than 12, the differences were usually significant.

7 Conclusion and Future Work

In this paper, we presented an extension to the Viterbi algorithm that statistically determines dependency structure of partially generated sentences and selects of words that are likely to attach to this structure. The resulting sentence is more grammatical than that generated using a bigram base-line. In future work, we intend to conduct experiments to see whether the smoothing approaches chosen are successful in parsing without introducing spurious dependency relations. We would also like to re-integrate the emission probability (that is, the word content selection model). We are also in the process of developing a measure of consistency. Finally, we intend to provide a comparison evaluation with Barzilay’s Information Fusion work.

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