Hierarchical Word Structure-based Parsing: A Feasibility Study on UD-style Dependency Parsing in Japanese

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Abstract

In applying word-based dependency parsing such as Universal Dependencies (UD) to Japanese, the uncertainty of word segmentation emerges for defining a word unit of the dependencies. We introduce the following hierarchical word structures to dependency parsing in Japanese: morphological units (a short unit word, SUW) and syntactic units (a long unit word, LUW). This paper describes the results of a feasibility study on the ability and the effectiveness of parsing methods based on hierarchical word structure (LUW chunking + parsing) by comparing them with methods using single layer word structure (SUW parsing). We also show joint analysis of LUW-chunking and dependency parsing improves the performance of identifying predicate-argument structures, while there is not much difference between overall results of them.

1 Introduction

Some research has recently been introducing word-based dependency schemes into Japanese syntactic parsing from a cross-lingual standpoint such as Universal Dependencies (UD) (Nivre et al., 2016; Kanayama et al., 2015; Tanaka et al., 2016), although syntactic structures are traditionally represented as dependencies between chunks called bunsetsus.

However, for languages like Japanese where words are not segmented by white spaces in orthography, word-based dependency parsing is problematic due to difficulties in defining a word unit. Actually, in Japanese several word unit standards exists that can be found in corpus annotation schemes or in the outputs of morphological analyzers. The word unit must be more consistently defined in word-based dependencies than bunsetsu-based dependencies, since the inconsistency of word units directly affects the discordance of the syntactic structure. UD for Japanese adopted a “short unit word” (SUW) defined for building the Balanced Corpus of Contemporary Written Japanese (BCCWJ) (Maekawa et al., 2014), since the word unit is designed to maintain internal consistency in the corpus.

An SUW is the smallest token that conveys morphological information, and generally corresponds to the head word of a morphological analysis dictionary called UniDic, which is compiled based on linguistic analysis and is used for morphological analyzers. Even though SUWs are well-organized as morphological units, they are sometimes too short to represent syntactic construction. Therefore, we also introduce another unit named “long unit word” (LUW), which consists of one or more SUWs with a single syntactic function, and is also defined for BCCWJ. For constructing an LUW-based syntactic structure, we need two types of analyses: LUW chunking and LUW-based dependency parsing. Note that LUWs include two kinds of multiwords: lexicalized phrases and institutionalized phrases (Sag et al., 2001), and for syntactic parsing, it is essential to discriminate functional multiwords that are classified into the latter in particular. Even though a pipeline process is a simple way of combining these two analyses, it may cause inconsistency between dependency parsing and chunking. Therefore, we introduce a joint analysis method of parsing and chunking to unify these two analyses by deciding dependency structures and chunks in the same process.

We describe two methods of hierarchical word-based parsing in Section 3: a pipeline analysis using a current LUW-chunking method and a joint analysis method. We present our evaluation of the
Figure 1: Examples of word-based dependencies. “luw” is a special dependency type that denotes intra-dependencies in an LUW. The symbols ‘||’ denote the borders of bunsetsu chunks.

### Table 1: Corpus statistics.

| JP Dep | 5Sent | 1SUW | 1LUW |
|--------|-------|------|------|
| test   | 2,000 | 53,193 | 41,192 |
| train  | 17,953 | 497,309 | 383,797 |

2 Hierarchical Word Dependencies

We employed two levels of word unit definitions as described in Section 1. A sentence is consistently segmented into morphological units of SUWs, while a syntactic structure is constructed based on syntactic units of LUWs since compound nouns and functional multiwords have a single syntactic function and are usually treated as single LUWs. The relationship between SUW and LUW almost correspond to the one between single word and multiword in other language. Note that an LUW that consists of just an SUW exists, and about 20% of LUWs belongs to a multiword.

Figure 1 shows the differences between SUW- and LUW-based dependency structures. Note that the scheme (described in Section 4.1) in the figure is similar to UD, but they differ in the manners of head selection. For instance, the scheme selects the case particle に -DAT as the head of the noun あなた you, while UD treats the noun as the head of the particle. In SUW-based dependencies (top left), SUW verb もつ have, a component of functional multiword を-もって 1 by mean of, is treated as a main verb, creating a spurious complex structure between a verb and an argument.

1The SUW boundaries in an LUW are denoted by “||”, a symbol that is not actually used in orthography.

The pseudo predicates hinder the extraction of true predicate argument structures as shown in the top right of the figure. In an LUW-based dependency structure (bottom left), multiword を-もって is considered an LUW with a flat structure, which clearly indicates the relation between main verb 通知する notify and argument あなた に you-DAT. The conversion from SUW sequences into LUWs contains ambiguity. For example, sequence を いつも in the sentence, “彼 は その 本 を いつも いる”, lit. He has the book., is not just a single LUW but three LUWs with a main verb.

The amount of research on Japanese word-based dependency parsing is much less than bunsetsu-based parsing. Tanaka and Nagata (2015) proposed LUW based analysis using a scheme that resembles Stanford typed dependencies (SD) (de Marneffe and Manning, 2008), however, they do not treat LUW-chunking problems. Kato et al. (2017) explored English dependency parsing models that predict multiword expression (MWE)-aware structure. We treat broader categories of multiword in this paper, e.g. LUWs contain ordinary compound nouns as well as named entities. The test set has 8,291 multiwords (LUWs) in 2,000 sentences, while their corpus has 27,949 MWE instances in 37,015 sentences.

3 Analysis Methods

3.1 Pipeline analysis

The pipeline method sequentially runs two analyses; multiword analysis chunks an input SUW sequence into an LUW sequence, and parsing analysis constructs LUW-based dependency structures,
LUW transition

ShLUW (σ_S, σ_L, β |x_k, A, L) ⇒ (σ_S|p⟨x_k⟩, σ_L, β, A, L) |σ_S| = 0
ReLUWL (σ_S, σ_L, q(x_m), β |x_k, A, L) ⇒ (σ_S, σ_L[q(x_m)], β, A, L) |σ_L| ≥ 2
PopLUW (σ_S[p(x_k)], σ_L, β, A, L) ⇒ (σ_S, σ_L[p(x_k)], β, A, L) |σ_S| = 1

SUW transition

ShSUW (σ_S[p(x_k)], σ_L, β |x_k, A, L) ⇒ (σ_S[p(x_k)], σ_L[x_k], β, A, L) |σ_S| ≥ 2
ReSUWL (σ_S[p(x_k)], σ_L[x_k], β, A, L) ⇒ (σ_S[p(x_k)], σ_L[x_k], β, A, L) |σ_S| ≥ 2
ResSUWR (σ_S[p(x_k)], σ_L[x_k], β, A, L) ⇒ (σ_S[p(x_k)], σ_L[x_k], β, A, L) |σ_S| ≥ 2

Figure 2: Transitions in our joint parsing algorithm.

as shown in the bottom left of Figure 1.

Kozawa et al. (2014) proposed a method that creates an LUW sequence from an SUW sequence in two steps: chunking an SUW sequence using an LUW-chunking model and assigning an LUW POS to each LUW with an LUW POS estimation model. LUW chunking is done by assigning each SUW in a given sequence either a “B” tag or an “I” tag by a sequence labeling method using CRF.

3.2 Joint analysis

The joint method simultaneously processes an SUW sequence with LUW chunking and syntactic parsing so that the LUW chunking is consistent with the syntactic analysis. The method directly constructs a dependency structure from an SUW sequence, as shown at the bottom right of Figure 1. LUWs consisting of multiple SUWs such as を-もって and 通知する are represented as a flat structure with a special dependency type _luw_.

We employed an algorithm based on shift-reduce parsing and defined two types of transitions: LUW chunking and dependency parsing. This algorithm is devised by applying a joint analysis method of word segmentation and dependency parsing in Chinese (Zhang et al., 2014; Hatori et al., 2012), or a method which combines lexical and syntactic analysis (Constant and Nivre, 2016). One of features of our algorithm is that a shift transition (ShLUW) assigns a leftmost SUW of an LUW with a POS. We found this obtains better scores than a pop transition (PopLUW) does.

Two stacks, σ_S and σ_L, are provided for SUWs to be processed and chunked LUWs respectively. The algorithm outputs an LUW sequence and an LUW-based parsed tree to a set of internal dependencies in LUW chunks L, and a set of dependencies A. A parsing status is represented as quintuple (σ_S, σ_L, β, A, L), where β is a buffer that initially contains all SUWs in an input sentence, (x_0,...,x_n). Figure 2 shows transitions used in our algorithm. The necessary condition for each action is shown in the rightmost column. The notion |σ| denotes depth of stack σ. For example, |σ_S| = 0 represents the condition that stack |σ_S| is empty.

4 Evaluation

We compared two LUW-based parsing methods and an SUW-based parsing method. A simple SUW-based parsing method directly constructs a dependency structure without considering LUWs. The SUW-based method regards “luw” as an ordinary dependency type.

4.1 Setting

Since the current UD Japanese corpora are SUW-based and do not have complete LUW information, we used another typed word dependency treebank in Japanese described in (Tanaka and Nagata, 2015)(JP Dep). JP Dep is annotated with LUW-based dependencies in accordance with

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3They have partly compound word information by annotating dependencies with relation types “mwe”(UD1.2), “fixed”(UD 2.0) and so on.
a scheme that resembles SD, and consists of 20,000 sentences (Table 1) from a newspaper corpus, Kyoto Corpus (Kurohashi and Nagao, 2003).

SR joint employs a shift-reduce parser based on dynamic programming (Huang and Sagae, 2010; Hayashi et al., 2013) that is expanded with LUW-chunking transitions. We used the features related to LUW and the function compound words, in addition to the original features. Moreover, we employ features with flag where SUW may form an LUW of a function compound word. The flag becomes 1 only if a function compound word that begins with a target SUW exists in dictionaries, and otherwise is 0. The features are similar to the additional features used for the joint model (Joint+dict) proposed in (Kato et al., 2017) in terms of utilizing lexical knowledge in dictionaries. We chose 12 for the beam width based on trial results.

For the pipeline methods, we used Comainu (Coma) (Kozawa et al., 2014) as an LUW chunker that is independent of a syntactic parser. We compared the following three parsers by combining them with Comainu: MST Parser (McDonald et al., 2006), MaltParser (Nivre et al., 2007), and SR joint without LUW-chunking transition (SR single). The LUW-chunking model and the LUW-based dependency parsing models were built with the training division of JP Dep.

The SUW-based dependency parsing models were also trained to directly test the parsing of the SUW sequence. The model was trained with LUW-based structures decomposed into SUWs as a structure shown at the bottom right of Figure 1.

4.2 Results

The parsing results are shown in Table 2. UAS and LAS are calculated on two conditions: the scores of all the dependencies (all deps) and only the scores of the dependencies between LUWs (w/o luw deps), i.e., ignoring the internal dependencies in LUWs. Since the internal dependencies in LUWs are right-to-left and monotonous structures, as shown in Figure 1, and easier to be estimated than the inter-LUW dependencies, the scores of all the dependencies tend to be higher than those of inter-LUW dependencies.

Overall, the results of LUW-based dependency parsing outperformed the SUW-based ones as shown in Table 2. Regarding the LUW-based parsing results, we found few differences between SR joint and the pipeline methods. Nevertheless, the differences between the scores of the inter-LUW dependencies (w/o luw deps) is larger than those between the scores of all the dependencies. This indicates SR joint preferentially obtained better results of syntactic parsing instead of the results of LUW chunking. The differences between the results in the major dependent types are clearer as shown in Table 3. We can see the F1 scores of the individual categories of the dependency types in the table, where predicate-argument categories (Pred Args) include “nsubj,” “dobj,” and “iobj.”

| Multiword            | Freq | SR joint | SR single |
|----------------------|------|----------|-----------|
| case particle        | 19   | 89       | 58        | 84        | 47       |
|conjunctive particle  | 138  | 94       | 58        | 88        | 88       |
| と-して by way of explanation | 83   | 84       | 74        | 81        | 74       |
| に-ぶる-と according to | 21   | 91       | 71        | 81        | 67       |
| に-よって by          | 12   | 92       | 83        | 75        | 67       |

Table 4: Attachment scores of dependencies including functional multiwords.

5 Conclusion

We presented methods for processing word dependency parsing by treating hierarchical word structures by combining LUW chunking and LUW-based dependency parsing for Japanese syntactic parsing. LUW-based parsing outperformed the SUW-based method, and the joint analysis method is superior to the pipeline methods in identifying the major syntactic relations.

We are planning to apply our joint analysis method on an UD corpus for Japanese and other languages to handle multiword units in syntactic parsing based on UD schemes.
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