A Comparison of Various Methods for Concept Tagging for Spoken Language Understanding

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Abstract
The extraction of flat concepts out of a given word sequence is usually one of the first steps in building a spoken language understanding (SLU) or dialogue system. This paper explores five different modelling approaches for this task and presents results on a French state-of-the-art corpus, MEDIA. Additionally, two log-linear modelling approaches could be further improved by adding morphologic knowledge. This paper goes beyond what has been reported in the literature, e.g. in (Raymond & Riccardi 07). We applied the models on the same data in Section 4., the experimental results are presented in Section 5. A summary is given in Section 6. The paper concludes with an outlook in Section 7.

1. Introduction
The task of concept tagging is usually defined as the extraction of a sequence of concepts out of a given word sequence. A concept represents the smallest unit of meaning that is relevant for a specific task. A concept may contain various information, like the attribute name or the corresponding value. An example from the MEDIA corpus can be represented as:

\[ \text{...au sept avril dans cet hotel...} \]
\[ \text{temps-date[07/04] objetBB[hôtel]} \]

where the attribute values are written in square brackets behind the attribute name. Within this paper we distinguish between two tasks, the extraction of just the attribute name and the extraction of the attribute name and the corresponding attribute value. In the following section, the various methods which are explored in this paper are shortly described. Section 3. introduces the morphologic features which led to an improved performance for the log-linear models. After the presentation of the training and testing data in Section 4., the experimental results are presented in Section 5. A summary is given in Section 6. The paper concludes with an outlook in Section 7.

2. Methods
2.1. Log-Linear Models

We are using two log-linear models, which only differ in the normalization term. The first one is normalized on a positional level (abbreviated with log-pos) and the second one on sentence level (conditional random fields, abbreviated with CRF). The general representation of these models is described in equation 1 as a conditional probability of a concept sequence \( c^N_1 = c_1, \ldots, c_N \) given a word sequence \( w^N_1 = w_1, \ldots, w_N \):

\[
p(c^N_1 | w^N_1) = \frac{1}{Z} \exp \left( \sum_{m=1}^{M} \lambda_m \cdot h_m(c_{n-1}, c_n, w_{n+2}^{s-2}) \right).
\]

(1)

The log-linear models are based on feature functions \( h_m(c_{n-1}, c_n, w_{n+2}^{s-2}) \) representing the information extracted from the given utterance, the corresponding parameters \( \lambda_m \) which are estimated in a training process, and a normalization term \( Z \) discussed in section 2.1.2. and section 2.1.3, respectively for each model.

2.1.1. Feature Functions

In our experiments we use binary feature functions \( h_m(c_{n-1}, c_n, w_{n+2}^{s-2}) \), i.e. they either return the value “0” or “1”. If a pre-defined combination of the values \( c_{n-1}, c_n, w_{n+2}^{s-2} \) is found within the date, the value “1” is returned, otherwise the value “0”. E.g. a feature function may fire if and only if the predecessor word \( w_{n-1} \) is “the” and the concept \( c_n \) is “name”. Another example of a feature function would be, if and only if the predecessor concept \( c_{n-1} \) is “number” and the concept \( c_n \) is “currency”. We will call the feature functions based on predecessor, current, and successor word lexical features and the features based on the predecessor concept bigram features.

For clarity we will abbreviate the term in the numerator of equation 1 by

\[
H(c_{n-1}, c_n, w_{n+2}^{s-2}) = \exp \left( \sum_{m=1}^{M} \lambda_m \cdot h_m(c_{n-1}, c_n, w_{n+2}^{s-2}) \right)
\]

resulting in

\[
p(c^N_1 | w^N_1) = \frac{1}{Z} \prod_{n=1}^{N} H(c_{n-1}, c_n, w_{n+2}^{s-2}).
\]

(2)
2.1.2. Log-Linear on position level

One possible normalization of Equation 2 is on a positional level:

\[ p(c_i^N|w_i^N) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} \frac{H(c_{n-1}, c_n, w_{n+2}^N)}{\sum_{c_n} H(c_{n-1}, c_n, w_{n+2}^N)}. \]

This results in the following normalization term:

\[ Z = \prod_{n=1}^{N} \sum_{c_n} H(c_{n-1}, c_n, w_{n+2}^N). \quad (3) \]

Using equation 2 with normalization 3 and a given training dataset \( \{\{c_i^N\}, \{w_i^N\}\}_i \), the criteria for training and decision making are given by

\[ \hat{\lambda}_i^M = \arg\max_{\lambda^M} \left\{ \sum_{t=1}^{T} \log p(\{c_i^N\}, \{w_i^N\}) \right\} \quad (4) \]

and

\[ \hat{\lambda}_i^N(\{w_i^N\}) = \arg\max_{\lambda_i^N} \left\{ p(c_i^N|w_i^N) \right\} \quad (5) \]

respectively. This modelling approach is usually referred to as Maximum Entropy approach in the literature, e.g. in \( \text{Bender \\ Macherey}^+ (03) \).

2.1.3. Linear Chain Conditional Random Field (CRFs)

Linear Chain Conditional Random Fields (CRFs) as defined in \( \text{Lafferty \\ McCallum}^+ (01) \) could be represented with equation 2 and a normalization Z on sentence level:

\[ Z = \sum_{\hat{c}_i^N} \prod_{n=1}^{N} H(\hat{c}_{n-1}, \hat{c}_n, w_{n+2}^N). \quad (6) \]

resulting in the probability

\[ p(c_i^N|w_i^N) = \frac{\prod_{n=1}^{N} H(c_{n-1}, c_n, w_{n+2}^N)}{\sum_{\hat{c}_i^N} \prod_{n=1}^{N} H(\hat{c}_{n-1}, \hat{c}_n, w_{n+2}^N)}. \quad (7) \]

For both log-linear modelling approaches, the same training and decision criterion is applied. For our experiments, we apply the CRF++ toolkit \( \text{(Kudo 05)} \) used in \( \text{(Kudo \\ Yamamoto}^+ 04) \).

2.2. Machine Translation (MT)

We use a standard phrase-based machine translation method, which combines several models: phrase-based models in source-to-target and target-to-source direction, IBM-1 like scores at phrase level, again in source-to-target and target-to-source direction, a target language model, and additional word and phrase penalties. These models are log-linearly combined and the respective model weights \( \lambda_m \) are optimized using minimum error training. A detailed description of the single models can be found in \( \text{(Mauser \\ Zens}^+ 06) \).

2.3. Support Vector Machines (SVMs)

SVMs realize a standard classifier-based approach to concept tagging. Binary classifiers are trained for each pair of competing classes. For the final classification, the weighted voting of the single classifiers is considered. We apply the open-source toolkit YAMCHA \( \text{(Kudo \\ Matsumoto} 01) \).

2.4. Stochastic Final State Transducers (SFSTs)

In the SFST approach, the translation process from word sequences \( w_i^N \) to concept sequences \( c_i^N \) is implemented by Finite State Machines. The transducer representing the translation process is a composition of

- a transducer \( \lambda_{w\to c} \), which groups transducers translating words to concepts,

- a transducer \( \lambda_{SLM} \), representing the stochastic conceptual language model

\[ P(w_i^N, c_i^N) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} P(w_n | c_n) \]

with \( h_n = \{w_{n-1}c_{n-1}, w_{n-2}c_{n-2}\} \) (3-gram),

- a transducer \( \lambda_{w\to c} \), which is the FSM representation of the sentence \( w_i^N \).

The best translation is the best path in \( \lambda_{SLU} \):

\[ \lambda_{SLU} = \lambda_{w\to c} \circ \lambda_{w\to c} \circ \lambda_{SLM} \quad (8) \]

All operations are done using the AT&T FSM/GRM Library \( \text{(Mohri \\ Pereira}^+ 02) \).

3. Morphologic Features

In addition to the lexical and concept bigram features described in Section 2.1.1., we also tested a set of morphological features. E.g. a capitalized word is a hint for the concept “name”. We integrated the following features within both log-linear models:

- capitalization: The capitalization feature is true, if a word is capitalized, longer than three letters (to omit abbreviations), and is not after a fullstop (to omit words at the beginning of a sentence).

- prefixes with given length \( n \): The prefix feature is true, if the first \( n \) letters of a word are equal to a predefined sequence of letters, e.g. for length 2: “in-formal”.

- suffixes with given length: Similar to the prefix feature, but works on the last letters of a word, e.g. for length 2: “current-ly”.

Before the model parameters \( \lambda_m \) are estimated, a list containing all features which have been seen within the training corpus at least once is generated.

4. Corpus Description

For the comparison of the various concept tagging methods respectively modelling approaches described in the previous Section 4., we have chosen a state-of-the-art corpus from a spoken language understanding task, namely the MEDIA corpus \( \text{(Devillers \\ Maynard}^+ 04) \). This corpus was collected within the scope of the French Media/Evalda project and covers the domain of the reservation of hotel rooms and tourist information. It is divided into three parts: a training set (approx. 13k sentences), a development set (approx. 1.3k sentences) and an evaluation set.
approx. 3.5k sentences). Since the corpus has been collected for the Evaluation of Dialogue systems, there are complete dialogues annotated, i.e. the utterances from the user and from the operator. For this paper, we only consider the dialogue turns uttered by the human users of the system. There are 74 different concept tags ranging from simple date and time expressions (annotated as date resp. temps) to more complex ones like coreferences (annotated as lienRef-coRef). So also the attribute names are written in French since they have been developed within the scope of a French project. One example sentence from the Media training corpus would be:

```
je veux une chambre double pour deux personnes.
```

It translates to "I would like one double room for two persons". The same sentence, annotated on concept level:

```
null{je veux} nombre-chambre{une} chambre-type{double} sejour-nbPersonne{pour deux personnes}
```

So the annotation on concept level is basically a segmentation of the input sentence into various chunks. Since the null-tag mainly tags words without semantic meaning or hesitations etc., the corresponding attribute name and value pairs which have to be extracted by the various algorithms would be

```
nombre-chambre[1] chambre-type[double] sejour-nbPersonne[2]
```

The statistics of the corpora are presented in Table 1. Within this corpus, there is a much richer annotation used than explored within this paper. Here, we just evaluate the concept tagging performance of the various approaches and drop some specifiers and modal information. I.e., the result of the input sentence into various chunks. Since the resulting corpus does not stick completely to the MEDIA evaluation guidelines but fits well for a comparison of the systems. Thus, only the statistics w.r.t. the word and concept level are presented in the aforementioned table.

### 5. Experiments and Results

For all experiments in this paper, we use exactly the same evaluation corpus and the same scoring script, based on the NIST evaluation toolkit (NIST). Thus, we ensure, that the results of the different modelling approaches are comparable. As evaluation criteria, we use the well-established Concept Error Rate (CER) and Sentence Error Rate (SER). The CER is defined as the ratio of the sum of deleted, inserted and confused concepts w.r.t. the Levenshtein-alignment for a given reference concept string, and the total number of concepts in that reference string. The SER is defined as ratio of the number of wrong tag sequences and the total number of tag sequences w.r.t. the concept level.

In a first experiment, we compare the various models as described in Section 2. w.r.t. tagging performance on the MEDIA eval corpus set (cf. Table 2). The CRF approach outperforms all other models, on both tasks, the attribute name extraction and the additional attribute value extraction. We obtain a CER of 11.8% on the evaluation corpus just considering attribute names and 16.2% also considering attribute values. The log-linear approach on a positional level is second best. Thus, exponential models seem to have a better tagging performance than the other three approaches. For all of the five systems, the attribute value extraction is done in the same way using a rule-based approach.

In a second experiment, we explore the effect of morphologic features within log-linear models. Here, we only report results on attribute name extraction. We tried various feature sets and optimized the parameter settings on the development set of the MEDIA corpus. For the CRF model, we get a CER of 12.8% with taking into account only features on word and concept level. Adding morphologic features could reduce the CER by 8% relative from 12.8% CER down to 11.8% CER (cf. Table 3). The gain in SER is also roughly 8% relative.

For the position dependent log-linear modelling approach, the CER drops from 16.0% with just the elementary features down to 14.9% CER, a gain of 7% relative. The SER can be improved by roughly 6% relative. The results are presented in Table 4.

### 6. Conclusion

In this paper, we presented a comparison of various models for concept tagging on the MEDIA corpus w.r.t. tagging performance. Two of the models could further be improved
by adding morphologic knowledge. To ensure the comparability of the models, they were trained and tested on exactly the same data sets and the evaluation of the tagging hypotheses was done using the NIST evaluation toolkit. With the best model, we achieved a CER of 11.8% on the MEDIA evaluation set.

7. Outlook

Additionally to improving the single systems we plan to do experiments on system combination. Also, since there usually is an ASR component involved in an SLU system, we will explore the effect of ASR errors on the tagging performance. It would also be interesting to apply the presented models on lattices and use ASR-based scores, e.g. word posterior confidences, to improve the SLU systems.

Acknowledgements

This work was partly funded by the European Union under the specific targeted research project LUNA - spoken language understanding in multilingual communication systems (FP6-033549).

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