Precompilation of HPSG in ALE into a CFG For Fast Parsing

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Abstract
Context free grammars parse faster than TFS grammars, but have disadvantages. On our test TFS grammar, precompilation into CFG results in a speedup of 16 times for parsing without taking into account additional mechanisms for increasing parsing efficiency. A formal overview is given of precompilation and parsing. Modifications to ALE rules permit a closure over the rules from the lexicon, and analysis leading to a fast treatment of semantic structure. The closure algorithm, and retrieval of full semantic structure are described.

Introduction
Head Driven Phrase Structure Grammar (HPSG), Pollard and Sag (1994) is expressed in Typed Feature Structures (TFSs). Context Free Grammar (CFG) without features supports much faster parsing, but a TFS grammar has many advantages. Fast parsing can be obtained by precompiling a CFG approximation, with TFSs converted into CF near-equivalents. CFG parsing eliminates impossible trees, and TFS unification over the remainder eliminates more, and instantiates path values. Our method treats slashes separately in a precompiled table, and careful allocation of categories to TFSs makes TFS unification unnecessary: instead skeleton semantic structures are formed in parsing, and full structures retrieved afterwards.

A prototype precompiler and fast parser were built in Prolog, and tested with an HPSG grammar of English by Matheson (1996), written in the ALE formalism, by Carpenter and Penn (1996). This has the 6 schemas and 5 principles of HPSG, with 184 lexemes.

A complex sentence, “*kim can believe sandy can expect sandy to persuade kim to promise sandy to try to expect sandy to persuade kim to promise kim to give sandy a happy happy book*”, parsed in 3.3s. with retrieval, 5.6 times faster than with TFSs, Brown and Manandhar (2000). An 11 word sentence was 18 times faster at 87ms., or 16 times counting retrieval.

1 Relationship to Work Elsewhere

In precompilation, Torisawa et. al. (2000) repeatedly applied rules leading to maximal projections from lexical heads, allocating categories to mothers and non-head daughters. Our approach allocates categories in a closure over the rules starting with the lexicon, as in Kiefer and Krieger (2000). We differ from both these in that the CFG grammar equates to the TFS grammar, accepting exactly the same strings; a CFG parse tree translates into a TFS tree with no loss of nodes.

We precompiled 550 CF categories and 18,000 rules in 1 hour on a 280MHz. Pentium II. This compares to 5,500 categories and 2,200,000 rules from 11,000 lexemes in 45 hours by Kiefer and Krieger on a 300MHz. Sun Ultraspare 2, where sets of TFSs in the closure are replaced by common most-general unifiers. The common unifier technique was used to add a CFG back-bone to a unification grammar by Carroll (1993). An np has the same number, person and gender features irrespective of an optional specifier and multiple adjectives. A lexical vp, partially saturated vp and sentence contain decreasing subcategorisation data. Therefore numbers of phrasal and lexical categories are comparable,

1 Downloadable code on
http://www.cs.york.ac.uk/~johnb or
http://www.soft.net.uk/research/hsppar.htm.
even with exact CF representation. Since this eliminates Kiefer and Krieger’s annotation with values of relevant paths, large rule numbers are more tolerable.

Our parsing speed-ups are comparable with Kentaro Torisawa’s speed-ups of between 47 and 4 in C++ with arrays to store rules and edges, on a 300MHz. Sun Ultrasparc. We used Prolog without constant-time access arrays, with clauses hash-indexed on just the first argument. Global data structures for edges in a chart necessitate dynamic clauses with heavy assertion costs: when referenced, all arguments are treated before matching any against precompiled tables. Tree-structured tables are inefficient, using either one clause per arc with heavy invocation costs, or arguments of nested structures, copied on clause invocation. From full instrumentation revealing bottlenecks, we predict a further speed-up of 10 times, using ideal global data structures in imperative code.

2 Formal View of Precompilation and Parsing

Our CF and TFS grammars are equivalent for two reasons. First, in CF category allocation, TFSs in the list reached by NONLOCAL: INHERITED: SLASH are allocated separate categories and are otherwise ignored. The filler-head schema unifies a list member with a TFS from the first daughter, so a precompiled table can predict the outcome during CF parsing. This avoids over-generation of categories formed by alternative slash TFSs in multiple phrasal TFSs arising in long-range dependencies. Second, although semantic substructure (also containing word morphology) is omitted in category allocation, its index structure may be considered depending on the HEAD value. This makes CFG categories maximally selective. The now unnecessary TFS unification over the CFG parse tree is replaced by semantic TFS retrieval from skeleton structures in constituents.

The method treats grammar rules where mother and daughters each comprise a TFS, expressed as conjoined constraints:

\[ TFS_0 \rightarrow TFS_1, \ldots, TFS_n \]  

where a TFS is given by:

\[
\langle TFS \rangle \rightarrow \langle FS \rangle \mid \langle FS \rangle \langle type \rangle \\
\langle FS \rangle \rightarrow \langle path \rangle \langle value \rangle \mid \langle FS \rangle \langle FS \rangle \\
\langle value \rangle \rightarrow \langle TFS \rangle \langle variable \rangle \mid \langle TFS \rangle \\
\langle path \rangle \rightarrow \langle feature \rangle \langle feature \rangle \langle path \rangle \tag{2}
\]

The value following a feature in a TFS of a particular type is a sub-type of that given by an appropriateness function \( \text{Approp}: T \times F \rightarrow T \) where \( F \) and \( T \) denote a finite sets of feature symbols and types. \( T \) is organised into a subsumption hierarchy with a single root bot.

The grammar may either be lexicalist, or have a large number of specialised rules. Each TFS is well-formed, containing no feature not appropriate to its type: it is not totally well-formed with all appropriate features present. TFS unification involves type-coercion which also occurs in constraint application to a TFS, for example of \( \text{feature}: \text{value} \) in a rule. Where a TFS of type \( t_i \) does not contain \( \text{feature} \), it is coerced into the most general sub-type \( t_j \) of \( t_i \) for which \( \text{Approp}(t_j, \text{feature}) \) is defined.

An integer \( T_j \), corresponding to a CFG category, is allocated in our precompilation to each unique lexical \( TFS_i \), ignoring nested TFSs encoding slashes and semantics, so that \( T_j = \text{retrieve}^3(\text{omit}(\text{slash} : v1, \text{re-introduce}(\text{index} : v2, \text{omit}(\text{semantics} : v3, TFS_i)))) \)

where \( \text{slash, semantics and index} \) are paths and \( v1, v2 \) and \( v3 \) are values. Implementation is by matching against a discrimination tree which is traversed in correspondence with \( TFS_i \), from which types are ignored in a subtree reached by \( \text{path} \) where \( \text{omit}(\text{path} : v, TFS_i) \) applies and considered where \( \text{re-introduce}(\text{path} : v, TFS_i) \) applies.

Where corresponding types from \( TFS_i \) and the tree are unequal, a new branch is grown, terminating with a new \( T_j \); this mechanism ensures each terminal is marked. Because co-indexing by syntactic paths in a rule (Section 5) unifies \( \text{index}, \) this is re-introduced in an np and in a category that unifies with an np to form an np. The function in (3) is an example
of a restrictor, Shieber (1985), although here we shall show that it does not lead to any approximation in parsing.

Precompilation generates multiple instantiations of each rule (1), paired with equivalent CFG rules, stored in a tuple:

\[ \langle \text{rule name} \rangle \]

(4)

Each represents the pair-wise unification of some \( TFS_1, \ldots, TFS_n \) with a sequence of TFSs where each is either lexical, like \( TFS_1 \), or derives from some rule instantiation, like \( TFS_0 \). For each sequence \( T_1 \ldots T_n \) of categories derivable from such instantiations, using the discrimination tree, only the first corresponding instantiation encountered is treated, since all generate the same \( T_0 \).

By these means the closure becomes a bounded operation. This approach is valid since slashes are treated separately during parsing, and as in GPSG, Gazdar et. al. (1985), no phrase acceptable on syntactic grounds is then rejected on semantic grounds.

The CFG rules (4) are treated by a parser with a chart containing constituents:

\[ \langle \text{start}, \text{end}, T_1, \ldots, T_n \rangle \]

(5)

The latter requires a CFG rule \( T_0 \to T_1 \ldots T_n \) and consequent constituents:

\[ \langle \text{start}, \text{end}, T_0, \ldots, T_n \rangle \]

(6)

where for \( j > 1, \text{start}_j = \text{end}_{j-1} \)

Slashes are treated by precompiling a table with entries \( \langle T_1, T \rangle \) where \( T \) represents \( T_1 \) or \( T_0 \), and \( T \) is the category assigned to a slash taken from a lexical TFS, and where \( \text{retrieved}(T) \) unifies with \( \text{retrieved}(T) \) prefixed by SYNSEM : LOC. Where in (4) \( \text{rule name} = \text{filler - head} \), (5) is formed only if \( \exists \langle T_1, T \rangle \cdot T = T_1, T = T_2 \in \text{slashes} \).

This mimics the operation of the filler - head schema. In this case, in (5),

\[ \text{slashes} = \text{slashes}_1 \cup \text{slashes}_2 \setminus \{ T_2 \} \]

whereas with other schemas \( \{ T_3 \} \) = \( \emptyset \) : this mimics the operation of the non-local-feature principle. The CFG grammar generated by this method accepts the same strings as the HPSG grammar and does not just approximate it.

The semantic component \( \text{sem}_0 \) represents a TFS, identical to \( \text{sem}_j \) in that sub-constituent known as the semantic head, according to the semantics principle of HPSG, except that some paths are co-indexed with paths in the semantic components of the other sub-constituents:

\[ \text{sem}_0 = f(\text{sem}_1, \ldots, \text{sem}_n) \]

(7)

To reduce copying overheads and eliminate TFS unification, \( \text{sem}_0 \) is encoded in a skeleton form, which is a Prolog structure:

\[ s_n(\text{sem}_0, [p_1, \ldots, p_m]) \]

(8)

The type \( \text{sem}_0 \) is not equal to \( T_0 \), and is the category of the lexical source of \( \text{sem}_0 \), which is a transitive semantic head of the corresponding \( TFS_0 \). For example, the sentence TFS contains a semantic component that derives from the head verb. In parsing, \( p_k, 1 \leq k \leq m \) is bound to the unique identifier of the sub-constituent containing a path that must be co-indexed with a path in \( \text{sem}_j \). In the prototype parser this path is the \( k \)-th one during a traversal of \( \text{sem}_j \) in the lexical source, that is found to be co-indexed with a syntactic path, that is in turn found to be prefixed by a path co-indexed between the corresponding daughters of the original rule (1) forming \( TFS_0 \) (see Section 5).

At retrieval time,

\[ \text{sem}_0 = \text{sem}(\text{sem}_0, [p_1, \ldots, p_m]) \]

(9)

where this indicates the semantic sub-structure in \( \text{retrieved}(\text{sem}_0) \), with the addition that each path for co-indexing associated with \( 1 \leq k \leq m \) is co-indexed with the appropriate path in the \( TFS \) given by \( \text{sem}(\text{sem}_0, [p_k, \ldots, p_m]) \)

(10)

from the \( p_k \) th. sub-constituent. A retrieval graph is compiled at category allocation time to support retrieval. Currently the semantic details of the slash are not recovered: sentences with slashes are accepted identically to ALE.
3 Modification of ALE rules

Figure 1 is the head-subject-complement schema in the ALE formalism. Figure 2 shows sections of the single Prolog clause containing 57 goals in 61 lines including the head, produced when ALE compiles the schema. This is invoked by the ALE chart parser after choosing the first of a speculative edge sequence. Its TFS is the structure SVs, which resembles (2): the functor represents the type, and each argument is a value from a (feature: value) pair. The feature is retrieved by successive instantiations of an ALE clause compiled from the grammar definition:

\[
\text{aprops( +type, (-aprop_feature: 
\text{-aprop_type})) (10)}
\]

\[
\text{(phrase,Mother,synsem:loc:(cat) 
: (spr[:],subj[:],comps[:])) M} \quad \text{===>}
\]

cat> word,HeadDr,.synsem:loc:(cat):
\[
\text{(head:inv:+plus, 
\text{spr:Spr, 
\text{subj:[SubjSynsem], 
\text{comps:CompSynsems)}, D1}}
\]
goal> (list_sign_to_synsem(CompDtrs, 
\text{CompSynsems)), P1)

cat> (SubjDr),
\quad \text{D2}
goal> (sign_to_synsem(SubjDr, 
\text{SubjSynsem}), P2)
cat> (CompDtrs,ne_list),
\quad \text{D3}
goal> head_feature_principle(Mother, 
\text{HeadDr}), \quad \text{P3}
semantics_principle(Mother,HeadDr), \quad \text{P4}
marking_principle(Mother,HeadDr), \quad \text{P5}
nonlocal_feature_principle(Mother, 
\text{HeadDr,[SubjDr|CompDtrs]}). \quad \text{P6}

Figure 1: The Head-subject-complement Schema from HPSG

Goals treat a TFS in a structure Tag-SVs, to allow type-coercion during unification into a sub-type, possibly supporting additional (never fewer) features. Tag, originally unbound, is then bound to a new copy: argument values are appropriate types (10) for new features, and unchanged for existing ones. Goal 21 references the second edge in the sequence, corresponding to D2 of the original schema.

\[
\text{rule(Tag, SVs, Iqs, Start, End,Edge_no) :- 1}
\text{add_to_type_word(Tag-SVs, Iqs, Iqs_out0), 2}
\text{ud(A-bot, Tag-SVs, Iqs_out0, Iqs_out1), 3}
\text{featval_synsem(Tag-SVs, FS2, Iqs_out1, 
\text{Iqs_out2}, 4}
\text{featval_inv(FS3, FS6, Iqs_out5, Iqs_out6), 8}
\text{add_to_type_plus(FS6, Iqs_out6, Iqs_out7), 9}
\text{featval_subj(FS4, FS7, Iqs_out7, Iqs_out8), 10}
\text{featval_hd(FS7, Tag2-SVs2, Iqs_out8, 
\text{Iqs_out9), 11}
\text{ud(B-bot, Tag2-SVs2, Iqs_out9, 
\text{Iqs_out10), 12}
\text{featval_tl(FS7, FS8, Iqs_out10, Iqs_out11), 13}
\text{add_to_type_e_list(FS8, Iqs_out11, 
\text{Iqs_out12), 14}
\text{featval_comps(FS4, Tag3-SVs3, Iqs_out12, 
\text{Iqs_out13), 15}
\text{ud(C-bot, Tag3-SVs3, Iqs_out13, 
\text{Iqs_out14), 16}
\text{ud(D-bot, E-bot, Iqs_out15, Iqs_out16), 18}
\text{ud(C-bot, F-bot, Iqs_out16, Iqs_out17), 19}
\text{solve(list_sign_to_synsem(E-bot,F-bot),[]}, 
\text{Iqs_out17, Iqs_out18), 20}
\text{edge(Edge_noB,End,EndB,TagB,SVsB, 
\text{IqsB,DaughtsRuleB), 21}
\text{deref(I, bot, Tag4, SVsList), 31}
\text{SVsList=.[Type|MemList], 32}
\text{match_list_rest(Type,MemList,EndB, 
\text{EndEdges,Edge_nos,[]},Iqs_out27, 
\text{Iqs_out28), 33}
\text{solve(head_feature_principle(K-bot,L-bot),46}
\text{[semantics_principle(M-bot,N-bot), 47}
\text{marking_principle(O-bot,P-bot), 48}
\text{nonlocal_feature_principle(Q-bot,R-bot, 
\text{S-bot), Iqs_out40,Iqs_out41}, 49}
\text{add_to_type_phrase(Z-bot, Iqs_out41, 
\text{Iqs_out42), 50}
\text{add_edge_deref(Start,EndEdges,Z-bot, 
\text{Iqs_out52,[Edge_no,Edge_noB|Edge_nos], 
\text{head_subject_complement). 61}

Figure 2: The Head-subject-complement Schema after Compilation by ALE

Goal 33 corresponding to D3 references the remaining edges: their number equals the
number in the *comps* list of the sub-constituent unifying with the head daughter *D1*. Goal 61 creates the edge of the new phrase and corresponds to the mother *M*. Goal 20, and lines 46 to 49 forming one goal, are invocations of ALE procedures, corresponding to *P1*, and *P3* to *P6*. Apart from the first, these lines invoke HP SG principles.

ALE supports inequalities which HP SG does not use, here in lists with names of the form *Iqs_#:* the output from one goal is input to the next, and edges contribute new lists for concatenation. The following three goals enforce constraints in the schema:

```
ud(Tag1-SVs1, Tag2-SVs2, Iqs_in, Iqs_out),
featval_FEAT(FS_in, FS, Iqs_in, Iqs_out),
add_to_type_TYPE(FS_in, Iqs_in, Iqs_out)
```

The first invokes a general purpose procedure for full-scale unification of the TFSs in its first two arguments. Often this just generates a co-indexing variable for reference elsewhere: *A* in goal 3 corresponds to *HeadDir* in *D1*. *A* is an unbound *Tag* and *bot* is the most general type in the hierarchy: *ud* makes *A* reference *Tag-SVs*. If *SVs* becomes subject to type coercion, *A* references the new structure through *Tag*.

The second returns in *FS* the value of FEAT from *FS_in*, type-coercing this when FEAT is not appropriate. The *add_to_TYPE* goal obtains the common sub-type of TYPE and the type of *FS_in*, which is coerced to adopt this sub-type: the procedure is precompiled from the type hierarchy. Goals 4 to 9 use featval_FEAT and *add_to_TYPE* to enforce a (*path: value*) constraint in the first line of *D1*. Goals 10 to 16 treat three other constraints in *D1*; two of the values are co-indexing variables. For conciseness, the figure omits such goals after the first edge reference. Goals 31 and 32 extract the list of synsem structures *CompDtrs*, returned by the ALE procedure list_sign_to_synsem: the list derives from the value of the list *CompSysems*.

Goal 50 coerces the initial type of *Z-bot*, the new constituent, to *phrase* as required in *M*. Then unshown goals constrain paths in this TFS according to the (*path: value*) constraints in *M*. Goal 61 invokes a procedure that asserts a new edge containing this coerced TFS referenced by *Z*, between positions *Start*, and *EndEdges* from the last edge of goal 33. The new edge contains a list of edge identifiers in the sequence, and the schema name, from the last two arguments.

The schema of Figure 2 is extended by our precompiler, to generate the tuples in a closure and details of co-indexing in order to guide semantics treatment. The modified goals are shown in Figure 3: clause modification is easier than modifying the complex compiler code in ALE, and the compiled schema already invokes ALE procedures appropriately.

During the closure, procedures invoked by goals 21 and 33 must constrain rule application so each sequence of edges is treated just once by each rule. Prolog backtracking cannot be altered to achieve this, and the edge and match_list_rest goals are modified. A list of identifiers of edges already invoked is passed between instances of these goals.

Detection of co-indexing requires access to the TFS in each sub-constituent after constraint application, and to the new TFS inside add_edge_deref before edge assertion, when co-indexing information is lost in copying. Since each schema is applied without backtracking to a single sequence of edges each containing *Tag-Bot*, the list of sub-constituent TFSs can be returned through the head of the rule: the new TFS, *Z-bot* appears as two arguments of the last goal.

```
rulejcb(Tag,SVs,Iqs,Start,End,Edge_no,  
  - [Tag-SVs,Tag-B-SVs,B,MemList],  
  - Z-bot, + Edge_countA, 
  - head_subject_complement, + Edges_in,  
  - Edges_outC):-
```

```
edgejcb(Edge_noB,StartB,EndB,TagB,SVsB,  
  IqsB,DaughtersB,RuleB,Edge_countA,  
  Edge_countB, Edges_in, Edges_outB),  
match_list_restjcb(Type,MemList,EndB,  
  EndEdges,Edge_nos,[],Iqs_out27,  
  Iqs_out28,Edge_countB, Edge_countC,  
  Edges_outB, Edges_outC),  
replace_add_edge_deref(Start, EndEdges,  
  Z, bot, Iqs_out52,  
  [Edge_no, Edge_noB | Edge_nos],  
  head_subject_complement )
```

Figure 3: The Head_subject_complement Schema after Further Compilation
The extra argument 7 of rulejcb is a list of sub-constituent TFSs after constraint application. Z-bot is the new TFS. Edge_countA is an initial count of 1 of the edges encountered so far. Remaining arguments are the rule name, and lists of edge identifiers before and after rule application.

Goal 21 invokes a new clause that invokes edge, and adds 1 to Edge_countA to form Edge_countB. The edge number, Edge_noB, is added to the head of Edges_in, to form Edges_out. Goal 33 invokes a recursive clause which similarly treats elements of MemList.

Goal 61 invokes a new procedure without additional arguments, to assign $T_0$ to the new TFS, Z-bot, using the discrimination tree and to assert a tuple (4). If $T_0$ is new, a fully dereferenced Z-bot is added to the retrieval graph, and a new edge asserted with the retrieved TFS. Another asserted clause associates $T_0$ with the edge number: similar clauses were asserted in lexical edge creation. They are referenced in tuple formation, from edge numbers in argument 6.

For debugging, an asserted clause contains the string deriving a tuple, structured into sub-phrases using brackets. Only the first sub-phrase deriving each category is used, to restrict numbers. Even so, this permitted the detection of over-generation arising from ungrammatical strings. This arose from the verbs is, can, be, seen, and the infinitival to not specifying their subject beyond co-indexing it with the subject of their complement, which is variously another (sometimes infinitival) verb or a predicate. This allowed generation of infinite sequences like “X is is...” where X is any phrase. It was cured by hand-specifying each subject as np. Complements were similarly treated for believe and expect. An automatic approach would propagate possible subjects, including alternatives to np in a larger grammar, from the complement into the outer verb.

To allow for large numbers of phrasal edges, edges optionally have unbound SVs arguments which are bound using the retrieval graph when referenced With over-generation cured, only 18,000 tuples were generated, and the facility was unused.

4 The Closure Algorithm

Using the TFS of each lexeme, an edge is asserted with an identifier between Bottom and Last_free_edge_number-1: Start and End are unbound so every sequence of edges is considered by rulejcb. Then the algorithm of Figure 4 is executed. On each recursive invocation, numbered in argument three, repeat_apply makes a pass over these edges and new edges generated in previous invocations. The first unused identifier after a pass is asserted in last_free_edge_number, and when this is unchanged after a pass in which no edges were asserted, termination occurs.

The first edge in a sequence is selected by apply_schemas_to_a_first_edge: $N$ is the identifier which is incremented on each recursion between Bottom and End. If SVs in an edge is unbound, it is re-formed from the retrieval graph by add_SVs_to_edge.

Selection of the remaining edges in a sequence occurs non-deterministically within the compiled grammar rules. These are invoked by try_all_rules which references rule names, previously asserted to identify all rules in a list. It invokes try_all_rules/4 to recursive through the list, each time invoking try_all_edges inside a negation, since a failure-driven loop treats multiple edge sequences by invoking the non-deterministic rulejcb. The TFS of the first edge appears in the first two arguments: its identifier $N$ appears alone and as the first in a list of edge identifiers for the sequence, completed inside rulejcb.

To minimise compilation time, each sequence must be treated once by each rule. Sequences unpredictably contain 2 or 3 edges, and a first edge $E1$ can combine with edges created by sequences of edges treated after $E1$. No edge can ever be discarded as a candidate for any daughter in any rule. Sequences are too numerous to record by asserting clauses to be referenced before rule application.

The chosen solution is straightforward and fairly efficient. On each pass of repeat_apply, a range of acceptable edge identifiers is established. Four global variables holding identifiers, Bottom, Top, End and Last_free_edge_number are asserted in clauses bottom, top, end and last_free_edge_number
respectively. The first three are adjusted in repeat_apply, whilst the last is incremented in replace_add_edge_deref on edge assertion.

On any pass, edges with $N>End$ are asserted, and apply_schemas_to_a_first_edge treats first edges between $Bottom$ and $End$. At the end of a pass, $Top$ is set equal to $End$ and $End$ is then set to $Last_free_edge_number-1$: before the first pass $Top$ is set to $Bottom – 1$.

repeat_apply($Bottom,Last_free_edge_number$, 
  Pass_no):-
  end(End),
  apply_schemas_to_a_first_edge($Bottom,End$),
  last_free_edge_number($Last_free_edge_no2$),
  End2 is last_free_edge_number2 - 1,
  retractall(end(End2)),
  Pass_no_out is Pass_no + 1,
  (!,(not(last_free_edge_number = 
    last_free_edge_number2))
  ->
    (repeat_apply($Bottom,Last_free_edge_no2$, 
      Pass_no_out!),)
  ;true).
apply_schemas_to_a_first_edge($N,L$):-
  edge($N,Start,End,Tag$, SVs, Iqs, Dtrs,
    Rule_name).
  (var(SVs) -> add_SVs_to_edge($N,Tag,SVs$)
    ;true),
  try_all_rules($Tag,SVs,N$),!
  New_N is $N + 1$,
  (not(New_N > L) ->
    (apply_schemas_to_a_first_edge(New_N,L))
    ;true).
  try_all_rules($Tag,SVs,N$),
  rulenames(Rulenames),
  try_all_rules($Tag$, SVs,N,Rulenames),
  try_all_rules($Tag$, SVs,N,
    [Rule_name|Rulenames]),!
  not(try_all_edges($Tag$, SVs,N,Rulename)),
  try_all_rules($Tag$, SVs,N,Rulenames),!
  try_all_edges($Tag$, SVs,N,Rulename),
  rulejcb($Tag$, SVs, [],_ , , $N$, Daughters,
    Mother,1,Rulename,[N],D2),
  fail.

Figure 4: Algorithm for Tuple Generation

Consequently, edges between $Top+1$ and $End$ were always created during the last pass: initially this is the set of lexical edges.

In edgejcb and match_list_restjcb, an edge identified by $d2$ or $d3$ depending on position in a sequence, has its $SV$s unified with the rule daughter if a following test succeeds. Test 1 succeeds if $d1$ was created on the previous pass (or as a lexical edge, for pass 1), and $d2$ (and $d3$ for a 3-daughter sequence), were created on any pass (including lexemes) up to and including the last. The $d1$ restriction prevents treatment on multiple passes. If Test 1 fails, Test 2 succeeds if $d2$ is newly created on the previous pass, and $d1$, (and $d3$), were created on any pass (including lexemes) up to and including the last. If this fails, Test 3 is passed if $d1$ and $d2$ were created on any pass up to but not including the last pass, and if the same rule successfully treated them earlier as the start of a 3-edge sequence.

By delaying combination of a new edge into a sequence, until the pass after its creation, we avoid a repeat pass to catch the case where the other edges do not yet exist at creation time. Overall this necessitates $< 1$ extra, low cost pass. HPSG eliminates sequences mainly by constraints between daughters, avoided on this extra pass by trivial arithmetic comparisons in $O((End – Top)\times(End – Bottom))$ whilst the unavoidable $O(End – Top)$ costs of first-daughter unification are small.

Test 3 treats a new $d3$, with old $d1$ and $d2$, one of which must have been new on an earlier pass, when it was treated under Test 1 or 2. Since $d3$ is a potential complement of either $d1$ or $d2$, some sequence $[d1, d2, d3']$ was treated earlier, even if $d3'$ failed unification: at that time treated_edges_before(Rulename, $[d1,d2]$) was asserted. Unification of $d2$ in $[d1, d2, d3]$ takes place (on repeated passes) only if this asserted edge is found. Successful unifications will be repeated, but the closure on our test grammar has only 7 passes, and in backtracking only one $[d1, d2]$ unification takes place for all $[d1, d2, d3]$. 

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5 Treatment of Semantic Structures

In a constituent, the co-indexing of paths in a copy of the semantic sub-structure of a semantic head was explained in (7) to (10). Figure 5 illustrates this for the head-complement schema. In the verb (the semantic head), the semantic and syntactic paths Pm and Ps co-index at the variable Ind2, where:

\[
Pm = \text{SYNSEM: LOCAL: CONTENT: NUCLEUS: LIKEE and Ps = SYNSEM: LOCAL: CATEGORY: COMPS: HD: LOCAL: CONTENT: INDEX}
\]

The rule co-indexes a pair of syntactic paths in head and non-head daughters:

\[
Ph = \text{SYNSEM: LOCAL: CATEGORY: COMPS: HD and Pnh = SYNSEM}
\]

Since the concatenation (Ph : Psuffix) = Ps where Psuffix = LOCAL: CONTENT: INDEX, then the TFS reached by Pm in the head unifies with that reached by (Pnh : Psuffix) in the other sub-constituent. The index structure reached by INDEX has a dual role in an np: as well as appearing in the semantic structure of the phrase, it also tests syntactic agreement of its number, person and gender features via co-indexing in the rule. It was therefore considered in category allocation.

Analysis involves applying each grammar rule to a sequence of Tag-bots structures. In these, the Tag of each co-indexed node is bound to a 3-digit integer xyy, where yy and x are ordinals identifying the co-indexed node in the rule, and the first daughter with a path to that node. The head daughter is distinguished since its path SYSEM: LOCAL: CONTENT co-indexes with that path in the mother. This leads to <Ph, Pnh> pairs, each identified by an integer Path_no, for each rule. For each pair in each rule a clause is asserted: rule_paths(Rulename, Path_no, _, Daught_no) where Daught_no locates Pnh.

Each lexeme that a tuple (4) shows to be unifiable with the head daughter of some rule, is treated to detect 3-tuples of the form:

\[
<\text{Indn, Path_no, Suffix_no}>
\]

A skeleton semantic structure (8) is derived,
where each $p_k$ argument corresponds to a 3-tuple, ordered as $Ind_n$ nodes are encountered in a TFS traversal. $Path_no$ fields appear in the same order in an asserted clause $r_n(cat, Paths)$ where $cat$ is $T_i$ allocated to the lexeme. During constituent construction in CFG parsing, $Daught_no$ of the sub-constituent is known, and $Rulename$ is deduced from the tuple (4), so $r_n$ and rule_paths identify the $p_k$ argument in (8) to bind to the edge identifier of the sub-constituent.

Retrieval graph arcs leading to nodes like $Ind2$ are marked by asserted clauses:

$$\text{arc_to_retrieval_tag2}(\text{+Current_arc_no,}$$
$$\text{+Category,} \text{,-Path_no, -Suffix_no).}$$

For each possible $<Path_no, Suffix_no>$ pair generating $(Pnh : Psuffix)$, this path is speculatively followed in the retrieval graph for each lexeme to identify a node and assert:

$$\text{find_type_node_compiled(+Path_no,}$$
$$\text{+Category, +Suffix_no,}$$
$$\text{-Type_node_no, -Arc_no_in).}$$

When retrieving the $TFS_n$ of a CFG constituent from the retrieval graph, once the semantic path semantics from (3) is encountered, the $\text{sem_type}_0$ of (8) is treated, starting at the node reachable by $\text{semantics}$. Where an arc number matches that in an $\text{arc_to_retrieval_tag2}$ clause, $Path_no$ and $Suffix_no$ are used to address $\text{find_type_node_compiled}$. Category here derives from $\text{sem_type}_{p_k}$ from (10), being the category of the semantic skeleton in a sub-constituent identified by the appropriate $p_k$ in (8): the ordering ensures that successive arcs matching $\text{arc_to_retrieval_tag2}$ clauses correspond correctly with consecutive $p_k$ arguments. The arc in the TFS being constructed is redirected to a copy of the indicated node, and traversal of the retrieval graph continues from that node. $\text{Arc_no_in}$ is used recursively with $\text{arc_to_retrieval_tag2}$ to detect if the target type-node should itself be replaced by a node derived from a further sub-constituent.

This technique also properly treats the head-subject-complement, subject-head and adjunct-head rules. In this last case the $\text{RESTR}$ set of identifiers for the noun and adjectives is properly constructed. This set is not accessible from the semantic TFS of the sentence since the grammar (probably incorrectly) co-indexes the $Ind_n$ of the verb with the node reached by INDEX in the $\text{np}$, rather than with that from which the INDEX and $\text{RESTR}$ arcs emerge. The specifier-head rule uses a different form of co-indexing which we have not yet treated: appropriate semantic structures are still returned for the sample grammar, where no specifier has a more specific $\text{index}$ structure than any head $\text{np}$. The counter-example "a sheep" which derives its number from the specifier is not in the lexicon. Similarly, the approximation that an arc in the head is redirected to a node in another sub-constituent avoids unification of $\text{index}$ structures to properly treat "...sheep eat(s)"; such low-cost unification can easily be added to retrieval.

Our precompiled CFG is an exact equivalent of the TFS grammar rather than an approximation, since our restrictor does not eliminate paths affecting agreement except for slash: slashes are treated separately in our parsing algorithm, as in CFG. Since the schemas treated enforce agreement through a syntactic path in the head, the semantics in the head can be omitted by the restrictor. This also eliminates the major source of TFS expansion in a closure. The test grammar does not make the daughter TFSs of a phrase accessible except through its semantics, so these are also eliminated from consideration.

The path to the $\text{index}$ structure in an $\text{np}$ is co-indexed by the mechanism in Figure 5, and by other schemas, some of which co-index it with $\text{index}$ in another sign combining with $\text{np}$ to produce $\text{np}$. Therefore it is re-introduced for category allocation after semantics is excluded (3). The $\text{RESTR}$ component is still excluded: a linguistic reason is that its value depends on word morphology, whilst syntactic agreement depends on more general features.

However, no automatic mechanism could restrict the $\text{index}$ treatment as we do. Verbs like believe, seem, persuade, expect and promise take a $\text{vp}$ or an $\text{s}$ as complement. They could potentially specify agreement with the semantic part of a $\text{vp}$ of varying saturation. In practice only the syntactic HEAD of the
complement is constrained, so these verbs differ from verbs that take np as a subject. A linguistic reason is that the semantic structure of a verb depends on its word morphology as in Figure 5, whilst in an np this dependency applies only to RESTR and not to INDEX.

An automatic mechanism to generate our restrictor would necessitate a closure from a sample of the lexicon, since only when syntactic agreement occurs can the need for semantic agreement be assessed. The linguist can predict such agreement by inspection, so a better approach might be to automatically generate diagrams like Figure 5 to guide in the choice of restrictor. An over-drastic restrictor becomes apparent only when a retrieved TFS from CF parsing does not match the original from TFS parsing. Automatic mechanisms for comparison might be worth investigating.

Automatic mechanisms to derive our treatment of slashes may be possible, since they are associated with lists that grow during parsing, not shrink as do subjcat, subj or comps lists. Our test grammar does not maintain quantifier lists, but their behaviour is in many ways similar to that of slashes.

We do not currently retrieve the semantic structure of slashes. If each slash is paired with the edge number of its lexical origin, and details of slashes satisfying the filler-head schema during parsing are indexed by edge number, then the semantics can be retrieved from the TFS corresponding to $T_i$ in (6), when the slash is encountered during retrieval.

6 Conclusion

It has proved practical to precompile in an acceptable time a realistic HPSG grammar into exactly equivalent (neglecting semantics) CFG categories and rules, of reasonable number and compact size, together with a table to control slash agreement. It was also possible to generate data structures for building skeleton semantic structure and retrieving its full structure after parsing, obviating the need for TFS unification. A Prolog prototype parses 18 times faster, and is estimated to be 180 times faster in an optimum imperative code solution. This predicted speed-up would exceed that obtained with a CFG approximation, where TFS unification must follow CFG parsing. The kind of co-indexing used in the specifier-head schema is not treated in semantic retrieval, but the method seems extensible to embrace this.

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