The Hidden TAG Model: Synchronous Grammars for Parsing Resource-Poor Languages

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Abstract

This paper discusses a novel probabilistic synchronous TAG formalism, synchronous Tree Substitution Grammar with sister adjunction (TSG+SA). We use it to parse a language for which there is no training data, by leveraging off a second, related language for which there is abundant training data. The grammar for the resource-rich side is automatically extracted from a treebank; the grammar on the resource-poor side and the synchronization are created by handwritten rules. Our approach thus represents a combination of grammar-based and empirical natural language processing. We discuss the approach using the example of Levantine Arabic and Standard Arabic.

1 Parsing Arabic Dialects and Tree Adjoining Grammar

The Arabic language is a collection of spoken dialects and a standard written language. The standard written language is the same throughout the Arab world, Modern Standard Arabic (MSA), which is also used in some scripted spoken communication (news casts, parliamentary debates). It is based on Classical Arabic and is not a native language of any Arabic speaking people, i.e., children do not learn it from their parents but in school. Thus most native speakers of Arabic are unable to produce sustained spontaneous MSA. The dialects show phonological, morphological, lexical, and syntactic differences comparable to those among the Romance languages. They vary not only along a geographical continuum but also with other sociolinguistic variables such as the urban/rural/Bedouin dimension.

The multidialectal situation has important negative consequences for Arabic natural language processing (NLP): since the spoken dialects are not officially written and do not have standard orthography, it is very costly to obtain adequate corpora, even unannotated corpora, to use for training NLP tools such as parsers. Furthermore, there are almost no parallel corpora involving one dialect and MSA.

The question thus arises how to create a statistical parser for an Arabic dialect, when statistical parsers are typically trained on large corpora of parse trees. We present one solution to this problem, based on the assumption that it is easier to manually create new resources that relate a dialect to MSA (lexicon and grammar) than it is to manually create syntactically annotated corpora in the dialect. In this paper, we deal with Levantine Arabic (LA). Our approach does not assume the existence of any annotated LA corpus (except for development and testing), nor of a parallel LA-MSA corpus.

The approach described in this paper uses a special parameterization of stochastic synchronous TAG (Shieber, 1994) which we call a “hidden TAG model.” This model couples a model of MSA trees, learned from the Arabic Treebank, with a model of MSA-LA translation, which is initialized by hand and then trained in an unsupervised fashion. Parsing new LA sentences then entails simultaneously building a forest of MSA trees and the corresponding forest of LA trees. Our implementation uses an extension of our monolingual parser (Chiang, 2000) based on tree-substitution.

*This work was primarily carried out while the first author was at the University of Maryland Institute for Advanced Computer Studies.
grammar with sister adjunction (TSG+SA).

The main contributions of this paper are as follows:

1. We introduce the novel concept of a hidden TAG model.

2. We use this model to combine statistical approaches with grammar engineering (specifically motivated from the linguistic facts). Our approach thus exemplifies the specific strength of a grammar-based approach.

3. We present an implementation of stochastic synchronous TAG that incorporates various facilities useful for training on real-world data: sister-adjunction (needed for generating the flat structures found in most treebanks), smoothing, and Inside-Outside reestimation.

This paper is structured as follows. We first briefly discuss related work (Section 2) and some of the linguistic facts that motivate this work (Section 3). We then present the formalism, probabilistic model, and parsing algorithm (Section 4). Finally, we discuss the manual grammar engineering (Section 5) and evaluation (Section 6).

2 Related Work

This paper is part of a larger investigation into parsing Arabic dialects (Rambow et al., 2005; Chiang et al., 2006). In that investigation, we examined three different approaches:

- Sentence transduction, in which a dialect sentence is roughly translated into one or more MSA sentences and then parsed by an MSA parser.

- Treebank transduction, in which the MSA treebank is transduced into an approximation of a LA treebank, on which a LA parser is then trained.

- Grammar transduction, which is the name given in the overview papers to the approach discussed in this paper. The present paper provides for the first time a complete technical presentation of this approach.

Overall, grammar transduction outperformed the other two approaches.

In other work, there has been a fair amount of interest in parsing one language using another language, see for example (Smith and Smith, 2004; Hwa et al., 2004). Much of this work, like ours, relies on synchronous grammars (CFGs). However, these approaches rely on parallel corpora. For MSA and its dialects, there are no naturally occurring parallel corpora. It is this fact that has led us to investigate the use of explicit linguistic knowledge to complement machine learning.

3 Linguistic Facts

We illustrate the differences between LA and MSA using an example:

(1) a.  

لا يحب الرجل هذا العمل (LA)

AlrjAl byHbw $ AlSgl hdA the-men like not the-work this

the men do not like this work

b.  

لا يحب الرجل هذا العمل (MSA)

$ LA yHb AlrjAl h* A AlEml
not like the-men this the-work

the men do not like this work

Lexically, we observe that the word for ‘work’ is $ AlSgl in LA but $의 남 in MSA.

In contrast, the word for ‘men’ is the same in both LA and MSA: $_ALrjAl. There are typically also differences in function words, in our example $ (LA) and $ LA (MSA) for ‘not’. Morphologically, we see that $ LA and $yHb. However, with two additional morphemes: the present aspect marker $ which does not exist in MSA, and the agreement marker $-w, which is used in MSA only in subject-initial sentences, while in LA it is always used.

Syntactically, we observe three differences. First, the subject precedes the verb in LA (SVO order), but follows in MSA (VSO order). This is in fact not a strict requirement, but a strong preference: both varieties allow both orders, but in the dialects, the SVO order is more common, while in MSA, the VSO order is more common. Second, we see that the demonstrative determiner follows the noun in LA, but precedes it in MSA. Finally, we see that the negation marker follows the verb in LA, while it precedes the verb in MSA. (Levantine also has other negation markers that precede the verb, as well as the circumfix $-m$.)

The two phrase structure trees are shown in Figure 1 in the convention of the Linguistic Data Consortium (Maamouri et al., 2004). Unlike the phrase...
structure trees, the (unordered) dependency trees for the MSA and LA sentences are isomorphic, as shown in Figure 2. They differ only in the node labels.

4 Model

4.1 The synchronous TSG+SA formalism

Our parser (Chiang, 2000) is based on synchronous tree-substitution grammar with sister-adjunction (TSG+SA). Tree-substitution grammar (Schabes, 1990) is TAG without auxiliary trees or adjunction; instead we include a weaker composition operation, sister-adjunction (Rambow et al., 2001), in which an initial tree is inserted between two sister nodes (see Figure 4). We allow multiple sister-adjunctions at the same site, similar to how Schabes and Shieber (1994) allow multiple adjunctions of modifier auxiliary trees.

A synchronous TSG+SA is a set of pairs of elementary trees. In each pair, there is a one-to-one correspondence between the substitution/sister-adjunction sites of the two trees, which we represent using boxed indices (Figure 5). A derivation then starts with a pair of initial trees and proceeds by substituting or sister-adjointing elementary tree pairs at coindexed sites. In this way a set of string pairs \( \langle S, S' \rangle \) is generated.

Sister-adjunction presents a special problem for synchronization: if multiple tree pairs sister-adjoint at the same site, how should their order on the source side relate to the order on the target side? Shieber’s solution (Shieber, 1994) is to allow any ordering. We adopt a stricter solution: for each pair of sites, fix a permutation (either identity or reversal) for the tree pairs that sister-adjoint there. Owing to the way we extract trees from the Treebank, the simplest choice of permutations is: if the two sites are both to the left of the anchor or both to the right of the anchor, then multiple sister-adjointed tree pairs will appear in the same order on both sides; otherwise, they will appear in the opposite order. In other words, multiple sister-adjunction always adds trees from the anchor outward.

A stochastic synchronous TSG+SA adds probabilities to the substitution and sister-adjunction operations: the probability of substituting an elementary tree pair \( \langle \alpha, \alpha' \rangle \) at a substitution site pair...
Figure 4: Sister-adjunction, with inserted material shown with shaded background

Figure 5: Example elementary tree pair of a synchronous TSG: the SVO transformation (LA on left, MSA on right)
\( \langle \eta, \eta' \rangle \) is \( P_n(\alpha, \alpha' \mid \eta, \eta') \), and the probability of sister-adjoining \( \langle \alpha, \alpha' \rangle \) at a sister-adjunction site pair \( \langle \eta, i, \eta', i' \rangle \) is \( P_{na}(\alpha, \alpha' \mid \eta, i, \eta', i') \), where \( i \) and \( i' \) indicate that the sister-adjunction occurs between the \( i \) and \((i + 1)st\) (or \( i' \) and \((i' + 1)st\)) sisters. These parameters must satisfy the normalization conditions

\[
\sum_{\alpha, \alpha'} P_{na}(\alpha, \alpha' \mid \eta, \eta') = 1 \quad (1)
\]

\[
\sum_{\alpha, \alpha'} P_{na}(\alpha, \alpha' \mid \eta, i, \eta', i') + P_{na}(\text{STOP} \mid \eta, i, \eta', i') = 1 \quad (2)
\]

### 4.2 Parsing by translation

We intend to apply a stochastic synchronous TSG+SA to input sentences \( S' \). This requires projecting any constraints from the unprimed side of the synchronous grammar over to the primed side, and then parsing the sentences \( S' \) using the projected grammar, using a straightforward generalization of the CKY and Viterbi algorithms. This gives the highest-probability derivation of the synchronous grammar that generates \( S' \) on the primed side, which includes a parse for \( S' \) and, as a by-product, a parsed translation of \( S' \).

Suppose that \( S' \) is a sentence of LA. For the present task we are not actually interested in the MSA translation of \( S' \), or the parse of the MSA translation; we are only interested in the parse of \( S' \). The purpose of the MSA side of the grammar is to provide reliable statistics. Thus, we approximate the synchronous rewriting probabilities as:

\[
P_{n}(\alpha, \alpha' \mid \eta, \eta') \approx P_{n}(\alpha \mid \eta)P_{t}(\alpha' \mid \alpha) \quad (3)
\]

\[
P_{na}(\alpha, \alpha' \mid \eta, i, \eta', i') \approx P_{na}(\alpha \mid \eta, i)P_{t}(\alpha' \mid \alpha) \quad (4)
\]

These factors, as we will see shortly, are much easier to estimate given the available resources.

This factorization is analogous to a hidden Markov model: the primed derivation is the observation, the unprimed derivation is the hidden state sequence (except it is a branching process instead of a chain); the \( P_{n} \) and \( P_{na} \) are like the transition probabilities and the \( P_{t} \) are like the observation probabilities. Hence, we call this model a “hidden TAG model.”

### 4.3 Parameter estimation and smoothing

\( P_{n} \) and \( P_{na} \) are the parameters of a monolingual TSG+SA and can be learned from a monolingual Treebank (Chiang, 2000); the details are not important here.

As for \( P_{t} \), in order to obtain better probability estimates, we further decompose \( P_{t} \) into \( P_{t1} \) and \( P_{t2} \) so they can be estimated separately (as in the monolingual parsing model):

\[
P_{t}(\alpha' \mid \alpha) \approx P_{t1}(\theta' \mid \theta)P_{t2}(w' \mid w, t) \quad (5)
\]

where \( w \) and \( t \) are the lexical anchor of \( \alpha \) and its POS tag, and \( \overline{\alpha} \) is the equivalence class of \( \alpha \) modulo lexical anchors and their POS tags. \( P_{t2} \) represents the lexical transfer model, and \( P_{t1} \) the syntactic transfer model. \( P_{t1} \) and \( P_{t2} \) are initially assigned by hand; \( P_{t1} \) is then reestimated by EM.

Because the full probability table for \( P_{t1} \) would be too large to write by hand, and because our training data might be too sparse to reestimate it well, we smooth it by approximating it as a linear combination of backoff models:

\[
P_{t1}(\theta' \mid \theta, w, t) \approx \lambda_{1}P_{t11}(\theta' \mid \theta, w, t) + \lambda_{2}P_{t12}(\theta' \mid \theta, w, t) + \lambda_{3}P_{t13}(\theta' \mid \theta) \quad (6)
\]

where each \( \lambda_{i} \), unlike in the monolingual parser, is simply set to 1 if an estimate is available for that level, so that it completely overrides the further backoff models.

The initial estimates for the \( P_{t1i} \) are set by hand. The availability of three backoff models makes it easy to specify the initial guesses at an appropriate level of detail: for example, one might give a general probability of some \( \overline{\alpha} \) mapping to \( \overline{\alpha'} \) using \( P_{t13} \), but then make special exceptions for particular lexical anchors using \( P_{t11} \) or \( P_{t12} \).

Finally \( P_{t2} \) is reestimated by EM on some held-out unannotated sentences of \( L' \), using the same method as Chiang and Bikel (2002) but on the syntactic transfer probabilities instead of the monolingual parsing model. Another difference is that, following Bikel (2004), we do not recalculate the \( \lambda_{i} \) at each iteration, but use the initial values throughout.

### 5 A Synchronous TSG-SA for Dialectal Arabic

Just as the probability model discussed in the preceding section factored the rewriting probabilities
into three parts, we create a synchronous TSG-SA and the probabilities of a hidden TAG model in three steps:

- $P_a$ and $P_{sa}$ are the parameters of a monolingual TSG+SA for MSA. We extract a grammar for the resource-rich language (MSA) from the Penn Arabic Treebank in a process described by Chiang and others (Chiang, 2000; Xia et al., 2000; Chen, 2001).

- For the lexical transfer model $P_{t_2}$, we create by hand a probabilistic mapping between word (word, POS tag) pairs in the two languages.

- For the syntactic transfer model $P_{t_1}$, we created by hand a grammar for the resource-poor language and a mapping between elementary trees in the two grammars, along with initial guesses for the mapping probabilities.

We discuss the hand-crafted lexicon and synchronous grammar in the following subsections.

5.1 Lexical Mapping

We used a small, hand-crafted lexicon of 100 words which mapped all LA function words and some of the most common open-class words to MSA. We assigned uniform probabilities to the mapping. All other MSA words were assumed to also be LA words. Unknown LA words were handled using the standard unknown word mechanism.

5.2 Syntactic Mapping

Because of the underlying syntactic similarity between the two varieties of Arabic, we assume that every tree in the MSA grammar extracted from the MSA treebank is also a LA tree. In addition, we define tree transformations in the Tsurgeon package (Levy and Andrew, 2006). These consist of a pattern which matches MSA elementary trees in the extracted grammar, and a transformation which produces a LA elementary tree. We perform the following tree transformations on all elementary trees which match the underlying MSA pattern. Thus, each MSA tree corresponds to at least two LA trees: the original one and the transformed one. If several transformations apply, we obtain multiple transformed trees.

- Negation (NEG): we insert a $\$ negation marker immediately following each verb.

- VSO-SVO Ordering (SVO): Both Verb-Subject-Object (VSO) and Subject-Verb-Object (SVO) constructions occur in MSA and LA treebanks. But pure VSO constructions (without pro-drop) occur in the LA corpus only 10 ordering in MSA. Hence, the goal is to skew the distributions of the SVO constructions in the MSA data. Therefore, VSO constructions are replicated and converted to SVO constructions. One possible resulting pair of trees is shown in Figure 5.

- The $bd$ construction (BD): $bd$ is a LA noun that means ‘want’. It acts like a verb in verbal constructions yielding VP constructions headed by NN. It is typically followed by an enclitic possessive pronoun. Accordingly, we defined a transformation that translated all the verbs meaning ‘want’/’need’ into the noun $bd$ and changed their respective POS tag to NN. The subject clitic is transformed into a possessive pronoun clitic. Note that this construction is a combination lexical and syntactic transformation, and thus specifically exploits the extended domain of locality of TAG-like formalisms. One possible resulting pair of trees is shown in Figure 6.

6 Experimental Results

While our approach does not rely on any annotated corpus for LA, nor on a parallel corpus MSA-LA, we use a small treebank of LA (Maamouri et al., 2006) to analyze and test our approach. The LA treebank is divided into a development corpus and a test corpus, each about 11,000 tokens (using the same tokenization scheme as employed in the MSA treebank).

We first use the development corpus to determine which of the transformations are useful. We use two conditions. In the first, the input text is not tagged, and the parser hypothesizes tags. In the second, the input text is tagged with the gold (correct) tag. The results are shown in Table 1. The baseline is simply the application of a pure MSA Chiang parser to LA. We see that important improvements are obtained using the lexical mapping. Adding the SVO transformation does not improve the results, but the NEG and BD transformations help slightly, and their effect is (partly)
cumulative. (We did not perform these tuning experiments on input without POS tags.)

The evaluation on the test corpus confirms these results. Using the NEG and BD transformations and the small lexicon, we obtain a 17.3% error reduction relative to the baseline parser (Figure 2).

These results show that the translation lexicon can be integrated effectively into our synchronous grammar framework. In addition, some syntactic transformations are useful. The SVO transformation, we assume, turns out not to be useful because the SVO word order is also possible in MSA, so that the new trees were not needed and needlessly introduced new derivations. The BD transformation shows the importance not of general syntactic transformations, but rather of lexically specific syntactic transformations: varieties within one language family may differ more in terms of the lexico-syntactic constructions used for a specific (semantic or pragmatic) purpose than in their basic syntactic inventory. Note that our tree-based synchronous formalism is ideally suited for expressing such transformations since it is lexicalized, and has an extended domain of locality. Given the impact of the BD transformation, in future work we intend to determine more lexicostuctural transformations, rather than pure syntactic transformations. However, one major impediment to obtaining better results is the disparity in genre and domain which affects the overall performance.

7 Conclusion

We have presented a new probabilistic synchronous TAG formalism, synchronous Tree Substitution Grammar with sister adjunction (TSG+SA). We have introduced the concept of a hidden TAG model, analogous to a Hidden Markov Model. It allows us to parse a resource-poor language using a treebank-extracted probabilistic grammar for a resource-rich language, along with a hand-crafted synchronous grammar for the resource-poor language. Thus, our model combines statistical approaches with grammar engineering (specifically motivated from the linguistic facts). Our approach thus exemplifies the specific strength of a grammar-based approach. While we have applied this approach to two closely related languages, it would be interesting to apply this approach to more distantly related languages in the future.

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Table 1: Results on development corpus: LP = labeled precision, LR = labeled recall, F1 = balanced F-measure

|       | no tags |             | gold tags |             |
|-------|---------|-------------|-----------|-------------|
|       | LP      | LR          | F1        | LP          | LR          | F1          |
| Baseline | 59.4    | 51.9        | 55.4      | 64.0        | 58.3        | 61.0        |
| Lexical | 63.0    | 60.8        | 61.9      | 66.9        | 67.0        | 66.9        |
| + SVO |         |             |           | 66.9        | 66.7        | 66.8        |
| + NEG |         |             |           | 67.0        | 67.0        | 67.0        |
| + BD  |         |             |           | 67.4        | 67.0        | 67.2        |
| + NEG + BD |     |             |           | 67.4        | 67.1        | 67.3        |

Table 2: Results on the test corpus: F1 = balanced F-measure

|       | no tags | gold tags |
|-------|---------|-----------|
|       | F1      | F1        |
| Baseline | 53.5    | 60.2      |
| Lexical + NEG + BD | 60.2    | 67.1      |

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