Abstract

This paper describes our corpus annotation project. The annotated corpus has relevance tags which consist of predicate-argument relations, relations between nouns, and coreferences. To construct this relevance-tagged corpus, we investigated a large corpus and established the specification of the annotation. This paper shows the specification and difficult tagging problems which have emerged through the annotation so far.

1 Introduction

A text has several types of relevance between words/phrases, such as predicate-argument relations, relations between nouns, and coreferences. Syntactic structure of a text indicates only a small part of them. To understand a text, it is necessary to recognize implicit relations as well as syntactically explicit relations. As a first step to recognize them by computers, we started a project which constructs a Japanese corpus marked with relevance.

To construct the corpus, we must investigate real texts and establish the specification of the corpus annotation: what expressions these relations have and how to annotate them. So far, however, these relations have not been investigated on a large scale, and existent corpora with these relations are not large or have only a small part of them (Marcus et al., 1994; Takezawa et al., 1998; Marcu et al., 1999; Poesio, 2000).

Our project utilizes the Kyoto University corpus (Kurohashi and Nagao, 1998) which consists of 40,000 syntactically tagged sentences (3500 newspaper articles; 11.4 sentences per article). Tags are assigned to words in each article.

In September 2001, we made a draft of the specification of the annotation, and started trial annotation. In the trial, we asked two annotators to tag the same articles, checked their difference, and established the specification of the annotation. The specification was getting stable when tagging of about 1,000 sentences was finished, and we started the constant annotation in February 2002. So far, 1,300 sentences have been tagged, and an annotator can annotate 12 sentences per hour.

2 Tags

We give relevance tags to words using the annotation tool which was developed through the Kyoto University corpus project (Figure 1).

This annotation is performed by modifying tags that are automatically provided by our case and ellipsis analyzer. We deal with the following three classes of relevance.
2.1 Predicate-argument relations

In Japanese, postpositions function as case markers such as `ga` (nominative), `wo` (accusative), and `ni` (dative)\(^1\). A tag consists of an argument word and a case-marking relation (postposition itself), and is given to its predicate.

(1) *Taro* `ga` *shimbun* `wo` *yonda*.

(Taro read a newspaper.)

In this example, *Taro* and *shimbun* ‘newspaper’ modify *yonda* ‘read’, and are arguments of *yonda*. The relation between *Taro* and *yonda* is `ga` (nominative), which is indicated by the postposition following *Taro*, and the relation between *shimbun* and *yonda* is `wo` (accusative). Accordingly, the tags “`ga`: *Taro*” and “`wo`: *shimbun*” are given to *yonda*.

The important decision we have to make is whether surface cases or deep cases are used as the relations. If we use semantic relations such as deep cases, it is difficult to make the set of the relations and to select one relation for tagging, because boundaries of them are not clear. This makes the annotation task more difficult.

So, our project employs surface cases as the relations.

The tags in (1) are provided correctly by our automatic analyzer. However, Japanese has two phenomena which often cause incorrect automatic analyses: disappearance of case makers and omission of arguments (zero-pronouns).

(2) *Taro* `ga` *shimbun* `wo` *yonda*.

(Taro read a newspaper. He often reads φ.)

In the second sentence, *Taro* has a case-marking relation to *yomu* ‘read’, but this relation is hidden by a topic marker `wa`. Since its actual case is nominative, the tag “`ga`: *Taro*” is given to *yomu*. In addition, the accusative of *yomu* is a zero-pronoun. Its referent is *shimbun* ‘newspaper’, so the tag “`wo`: *shimbun*” is given to *yomu*. Since the automatic analyzer possibly produces incorrect tags, it is necessary for annotators to modify incorrect ones.

Predicate-argument tags are also given to nouns which mean actions.

(3) *Kare-no daigaku* `ni` *nyuugaku* `wa` *yoi* *da*. (His admission to the university is good news.)

The noun *nyuugaku* ‘admission’ means an action of passing. We assign tags to *nyuugaku* by considering it as a verb ‘admit’.

2.2 Relations between nouns

Not only predicates but also nouns have some intrinsic relations with other nouns in a text. When two nouns in a text are related to each other, a tag is given to the latter noun.

(4) *Taro* `wa` *se ga hikui*.

(Taro is short. But his sister is tall.)

Since *imouto* ‘sister’ means “*Taro no imouto*” ‘Taro’s sister’, the tag “*no*: *Taro*” is given to *imouto*, though “*Taro no*” does not appear in the sentence. In this example, *imouto* requires intrinsic relations to other nouns. This is a so-called relational noun. *no* in Japanese has many meanings, but all of them are tagged as one relation *no* for the same reason as marking with surface cases.

Not only relational nouns but also almost all of nouns have some intrinsic relations: kuruma ‘car’ and *handle*, *mado* ‘window’ and *curtain*. We also handle these relations.

\(^1\)In the examples of this paper, we use the abbreviations of the cases: nom (nominative), acc (accusative), dat (dative).
2.3 Coreferences

When two nouns refer to the same entity, these two nouns are coreferential. To mark a coreference relation, "=" is used. A tag of this relation is given to the latter noun of two coreferential nouns.

(5) Taro - wa futotteiru. \( \text{Kare} \) - wa TM be fat TM
itsumo nanika tabeteiru. always something be eating

(Taro is fat. He is always eating something.)

\( \text{Kare} \leftarrow =: \text{Taro} \)

In this example, \( \text{Kare} \) ‘he’ refers to Taro, and the tag "=:Taro" is given to \( \text{Kare} \).

These coreference tags are given to not only pronouns but also definite noun phrases as follows:

(6) Onnanoko - ga aruiteiru.
girl nom be walking
ano onnanoko - wa Mary da. that girl TM be

(A girl is walking. That girl is Mary.)

\( \text{Onnanoko} \leftarrow =: \text{Onnanoko} \)

When two nouns do not refer to the same entity but have an is-a or generic/non-generic relation, "\( \equiv \)" is used to mark this relation instead of "=".

(7) kuruma - no hanbai-daisuu - wo sale acc
miruto, jikayousya - wa TM
check owner-driven car

(When we check the sales of cars, owner-driven cars are ...)

\( \text{jikayousya} \leftarrow =: \text{kuruma} \)

Since \( \text{kuruma} \) ‘car’ and \( \text{jikayousya} \) ‘owner-driven car’ have an is-a relation, the tag "=:kuruma" is given to \( \text{jikayousya} \).

(8) Chiisana PC\(_1\) - ga ureteiru.
small nom-CM be selling
Taro no PC\(_2\) - wa chiisai ga,
Taro’s TM small but
Hanako no PC\(_3\) - wa furuku-te ookii.
Hanako’s TM old big

(Small PCs are selling. Taro’s PC is small, but Hanako’s PC is old and big.)

\( \text{PC}_2 \leftarrow =: \text{PC}_1 \)
\( \text{PC}_3 \leftarrow =: \text{PC}_1 \)
\( \text{PC}_3 \leftarrow =: \text{PC}_2 \)

\( \text{PC}\(_1\) \) is a generic noun, but \( \text{PC}\(_2\) \) and \( \text{PC}\(_3\) \) are non-generic nouns. Accordingly, the tag "=:PC\(_1\)" is given to \( \text{PC}\(_2\) \) and \( \text{PC}\(_3\) \). \( \text{PC}\(_2\) \) and \( \text{PC}\(_3\) \) are not the same entity but are related indirectly in this text, because \( \text{PC}_2\)-PC\(_1\) and \( \text{PC}_3\)-PC\(_1\) are linked by "=:" relations. The tag "=:PC\(_2\)" is given to \( \text{PC}_3\).

3 Difficult Tagging Problems

The following is the difficult problems of the annotation.

3.1 The tagging unit of the annotation

The tagging unit is a word, but the notion of a word is not clear in Japanese. A compound noun can be one word or several words, since Japanese sentences have no word segmentation. For example, \( \text{houichi} \) ‘a visit to Japan’ is one word in our dictionary. It is, however, also regarded as \( \text{hou} \) ‘visit’ and \( \text{nichi} \) ‘Japan’. In our framework, the latter segmentation is better, because it is necessary to annotate the relation between these two words. For example, \( \text{houichi} \) refers to \( \text{nippon} \) ‘Japan’ in an article. In such cases, we modify the word segmentation of the original corpus. An annotator must consider whether a word is appropriately segmented or not at every moment of tagging.

3.2 Tags with multiple referents

There is a case that a tag has more than one referent. This is divided into two cases.

It is the first case that every referent in a tag is obligatory. When a predicate has two arguments and they are coordinate, both of them are tagged to their predicate.
(9) Taro - to Hanako - ga
and nom

gakko - kara kaetta.
school from be back

(Taro and Hanako were back from the school.)

kaetta \(\leftarrow ga:Taro,Hanako \text{ [and]}\)

In this example, since Taro and Hanako are coordinate, both of them play a role of ga (nominative) case of their predicate kaetta ‘be back’. A tag which consists of both of them is given to kaetta with “and” flag, which means all of the elements are obligatory.

On the other hand, when two nouns are not coordinate and their predicate subordinates to (with) case, tags are assigned differently from the above.

(10) Hanako - to Taro - ga
with nom

kekkon-shita.
get married

(Taro got married with Hanako.)

kekkon-shita \(\leftarrow ga:Taro\) to:Hanako

In this example, kekkon-shita ‘get married’ subordinates to (with) case.

Even though two nouns, whose relation is indicated by ka ‘or’, ya ‘or’ and so on, are logically alternative, they are tagged with “and” flag.

(11) Watashi - wa Canada ka
I TM or
America - ni sumitai.
in want to live

(I want to live in Canada or America.)

sumitai \(\leftarrow ni:Canada, America \text{ [and]}\)

Canada and America is alternative in this sentence. Since both of them are arguments of their predicate sumitai ‘want to live’, their tag has “and” flag.

It is the second case of the multiple referent phenomena that any of the referents in a tag are proper. When there are more than one proper entity for a referent in a text, a tag which consists of all of them is given to their reference word with “or” flag, which means one of the elements is a referent.

(12) Kouchi ken - no Hashimoto pref. of
chiji - wa kokusekijoukou - wo
governor TM nationality clause acc

<teppai-suru houshin-da>
abolish plan

(The governor of Kouchi pref. Hashimoto plans to abolish the nationality clause.)

teppai-suru \(\leftarrow ga:Kouchi\) ken, chiji [or]

<ga (nominative) case of teppai-suru ‘abolish’ can be understood as Kouchi ken ‘Kouchi pref.’ or chiji ‘governor’. A tag which consists of both of them is given to teppai-suru with “or” flag.

3.3 Noun-modifying clauses

When a noun is modified by a clause, the noun normally has a predicate-argument relation to its predicate.

(13) kare - ga katta kuruma
nom buy car

(the car which he bought)

katta \(\leftarrow ga:kare\) wo:kuruma

In this example, kuruma ‘car’ is a noun modified by a clause and is an argument of the predicate of the clause katta ‘buy’. Since the relation between kuruma and katta, which does not appear in the sentence, is wo (accusative) case, the tag “wo:kuruma” is given to katta.

On the other hand, there is a case that the noun and its predicate do not have a predicate-argument relation.
In this example, "fact" does not have a predicate-argument relation to "receive". The tag "non-gapping:\textit{jijitsu}" is given to "receive".

In addition, the predicate in a clause also has a relation to the modified noun in reverse. This relation has two types: 'content' and "no", which is used to mark relations between nouns. In the above example, "receive" has a content relation to "jijitsu", because the clause of "receive" is a content clause.

Next, we show a "no" example.

\begin{itemize}
\item \textbf{Hanako - ga ryokou - ni demean} \textit{depard} \textit{the day before}
\item \textit{deakkeru} \textit{zenjitsu}
\item \textit{the day before Hanako departs to travel}
\end{itemize}

\textit{zenjitsu} 'the day before' has a relative relation to \textit{deakkeru} 'depart', because the day before is relatively before the day of departure. In this case, the tag "no:\textit{deakkeru}" is given to \textit{zenjitsu}. The reason why we use "no" as this relation is that we can paraphrase the above expression into "deakkeru hi no zenjitsu" in Japanese.

The following example does not include a noun-modifying clause, but has 'content' relation.

\begin{itemize}
\item \textbf{seijika - ga wairo - wo politican - nom bribe - acc}
\item \textit{receive} \textit{the fact TM}
\item \textit{uketotta} \textit{Jijitsu}
\end{itemize}

In this example, "fact" in the second sentence is tagged, because it refers to the first sentence.

3.4 Unspecified people
Some referents are not specific entities, but people without antecedents expressed in a text. These are tagged as "Unspecified people".

3.5 Conclusion
This paper described our corpus annotation project. The corpus has relevance which consists of predicate-argument relations, relations between nouns, and coreferences. Such
linguistic/semantic annotations can be exploited to enhance NLP systems such as machine translation, information retrieval, and automatic summarization. They are useful also for end-user content, as advocated by GDA (http://i-content.org/GDA/), MPEG-7 (http://mpeg.telecomitalialab.com/), Semantic Web (http://www.semanticweb.org/), and so forth.

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