Parsing of Spoken Language under Time Constraints *

Wolfgang Menzel
Fachbereich Informatik, Universität Hamburg
Vogt-Kölln-Straße 30, D-22527 Hamburg, Germany
email: menzel@informatik.uni-hamburg.de

Abstract

Spoken language applications in natural dialogue settings place serious requirements on the choice of processing architecture. Especially under adverse phonetic and acoustic conditions parsing procedures have to be developed which do not only analyse the incoming speech in a time-synchronous and incremental manner, but which are able to schedule their resources according to the varying conditions of the recognition process. Depending on the actual degree of local ambiguity the parser has to select among the available constraints in order to narrow down the search space with as little effort as possible.

A parsing approach based on constraint satisfaction techniques is discussed. It provides important characteristics of the desired real-time behaviour and attempts to mimic some of the attention focussing capabilities of the human speech comprehension mechanism.

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1 INTRODUCTION

Apart from psycholinguistic evidence about the basic principles of human speech comprehension incrementality is an obvious requirement for advanced spoken language systems even due to very practical reasons:

1. Natural dialogue settings require an instantaneous response capability, which cannot be provided by the usual “past-the-carriage-return”-type of language processing. The analysis has to keep pace with the incoming speech data, and even follow-up activities such as the generation of the desired response have to be carried out in a concurrent fashion, thus facilitating fluency in discourse and smooth man-machine-interaction.

2. Incremental speech comprehension is a fundamental prerequisite for the participation in mixed initiative dialogues: The decision to take the initiative relies crucially on an immediate analysis and interpretation of partial speech utterances in order to keep the time delay as short as possible.

3. Procedures running with minimal time delay are particularly advantageous since they satisfy the desire to constrain the memory capacity for maintaining intermediate results in a natural way.

4. Speech understanding is a heavily expectation driven process with expectations derived from a discourse or domain model being most prominent. Hence, incrementality in speech analysis is essential for an effective generation of predictions on all levels of language processing.

5. Incrementality, furthermore, is an inevitable property in ambitious applications such as the simultaneous interpretation of speech.

Under all these conditions a utility function can be assumed which decreases steadily as the analysis time for the incoming speech signal grows. Responses to past utterances will neither yield a sensible contribution in a dialogue nor a useful hypothesis about what the speaker will probably produce next. Almost always an approximate or incomplete analysis might be of considerably more benefit than a perfect but late contribution.
Time-synchronous and incremental analysis of spoken language requires a system architecture which at least supports the necessary synchronization between the speech signal and the processing activities of all system components involved. This corresponds to the minimum of external control assumed in highly decentralized, distributed architectures based on the message passing paradigm \[7\]. Here, synchronization is attempted by controlling the individual time horizon of each component and simply suppressing the delivery of recognition hypotheses generated with a too big time delay.

Controlling the temporal behaviour of a system by interrupting its internal message flow, on the other hand, presumes system components with the ability to schedule their own workload depending on the time yet available. This causes no serious problems if time is not considered to be a critical resource. However, for most practical settings this assumption is not justified. Even for the unique speech comprehension capabilities of the human, time may become a decisive factor influencing the “degree of understanding” considerably. This is typical for situations which are characterized by the presence of one or possibly several stress factors, including e.g. fast speech, non-native languages, poor articulation and noisy environments.

In such situations there is not an even workload distribution across the speech signal: In a kind of “scanning understanding” the hearer tries to pick up parts of the input signal, a procedure which makes heavy use of relevancy estimations. Each attempt to try to focus too much attention on a particular part of the input may severely disturb the ongoing speech perception.

If spoken language systems are desired which are capable of adapting dynamically to varying time constraints, their components have to cope with the phenomenon of a steadily shrinking time horizon. To supply sensible results under such conditions, there must be a predictable relation between the amount of time spent to solve a task and the expected quality of the output produced. In particular a tradeoff between processing time and output quality should be expected.

Procedures which show the desired monotonic growth of output quality have been termed anytime modules (Boddy and Dean \[1\], \[2\], Russell and Zilberstein \[8\]). Their role for the development of spoken language systems has first been noted by Wahlster \[4\]. The most prominent feature of an anytime module is the existence of a quality measure (e.g. certainty, accuracy or specificity). Its (probabilistic) variation over time is described by a performance profile. Russell and Zilberstein distinguish between
two cases of anytime behaviour:

1. *Interruptible algorithms*, where interruptions may occur without previous warning. The component will always be able to deliver a solution of the quality specified by the performance profile.

2. *Contract algorithms*, which will only yield a sensible result of the specified output quality level if they are supplied with a previously determined time interval. Otherwise they will not be able to produce any useful result.

In both of these cases the performance profile for the task at hand is expected to be known in advance. However, this requirement is a rather restrictive one which for certain types of combinatorical algorithms simply cannot be presumed.

2 ANYTIME PARSING

Traditional parsing algorithms do not meet the anytime condition at all. For instance, a depth-first analysis spends all but the very last part of its processing time with the inspection of useless blind alleys. Breadth-first on the other hand seems to be better suited from the anytime point of view, but in fact it provides a monotonic growth of the *completeness* of individual parses instead of continuously improving a quality parameter of an overall input description. If interrupted before finishing at least a single complete parse, a chart will contain either a set of not yet verified and incomplete parse trees (top down mode) or a set of competing and possibly contradictory
partially analysis results (bottom up mode). In general, no knowledge will be available on how these fragments may be combined in order to form a useful parsing result. More seriously, there is no suitable quality measure at hand with which the improvement of parsing results can be described [4], not to mention a predictable performance profile.

In fact, there have been proposed alternative parsing schemata which much better fit into anytime demands than the usual chart parsing approach. One example is the attempt to parse sentences by tree-to-tree transductions, which already has been used in the framework of the machine translation system ARIANE-78 [3] more than a decade ago. The sentence to be parsed is provided as a completely flat tree where all the terminal leaves are immediately dominated by the topmost node. Parsing takes place by successively replacing partial trees by more structured ones aiming at a description of constituency structure in the usual sense. On the one hand, this approach offered the possibility to develop the modules for analysis, structural transfer, and generation by means of a single uniform formalism (ROBRA). On the other hand, it provided a quite natural fail-soft feature as an inherent property of the basic processing mechanism: If the parser fails to find a good parse by applying its tree-to-tree transduction rules, it simply passes the (partially) unmodified tree to the transfer stage. In such cases a word-by-word translation with a considerably worse quality is produced.

Assuming an almost monotonic improvement of the translation results by successively applying additional transduction rules, the degree of structural
complexity of a tree can be used as a rough quality measure in the sense of the anytime condition: Whenever a tree-to-tree transducer happens to be interrupted it will be able to supply one or several descriptions of the input sentence. These descriptions always cover the input completely but they are more or less well structured, depending on the amount of time spent. This indeed corresponds to a kind of anytime behaviour in the desired sense: The more time is available, the higher the structural complexity of the parsing trees and - hopefully - the better the translation quality will be.

Unfortunately, structural quality makes sense as a quality measure only in the specific domain of machine translation. If e.g. a semantic representation, like a logical form, is desired, partially structured trees will be of little value. Moreover, tree-to-tree transformation suffers from quite the same disadvantage as a normal chart parsing procedure does: There is no predictable dependency which could be used to relate (at least in a probabilistic manner) the expected output quality to the allocated parsing time.

First of all, this difficulty results from a specific property of the parsing problem. Natural language parsing is characterized by a rather unstructured kind of search space which is individually created during the parsing process. In contrast to other common search problems (c.f. VITERBI-search in the area of speech recognition) neither the depth nor the breadth of the space can be estimated prior to the parsing itself. Hence, techniques like iterative deepening are appropriate to influence the output quality of a tree-to-tree transduction parser, but certainly do not make its performance profile more predictable. Although there is an individual (namely instance specific) monotonic profile, it cannot be generalized over classes of possible inputs.

This situation suggests a notion of anytime behaviour independently of the predictability of a module’s performance profile. Therefore, a new distinction is introduced between algorithms with a strong anytime behaviour and others with a weaker one. A component satisfies the strong anytime property if for a certain quality parameter a general monotonic performance profile exists and is known prior to the computation itself. Weak anytime algorithms have a monotonic performance profile as well but since it is instance specific it cannot be estimated in advance and allows no prediction of the quality level to be expected.

According to this distinction parsing by tree-to-tree transduction turns out to be an interruptable weak anytime algorithm. It can be finished arbitrarily and the later an interrupt is requested the better the results can be
The notion of a contract module can be given a sensible interpretation for weak anytime algorithms as well. Again, a contract algorithm does require a minimal amount of time in order to be able to produce useful results. Then weak anytime behaviour can be observed, if the module is apt to optimize its internal processing with the goal of achieving the best possible output quality in the time interval allocated. This requires a kind of scheduling mechanism which carries out a dynamic means-ends analysis with respect to the results achieved so far and the time yet available.

Neither traditional chart parsing nor the tree-transduction approach seem to comply with the conditions for a weak anytime contract algorithm. In general, it will even be difficult to decide how to continue best when only trying to finish a particular analysis in due time. The scheduling mechanism would have to find good guesses for a two-dimensional decision problem

- Which sequence of inactive edges in the chart (or which tree fragment in the transduction approach) looks most promising for applying the next rule to it?
- Which rule in the grammar should be selected to continue with a partial solution?

Obviously the necessary heuristics are not easily available. Even after having applied a rule successfully there is almost no possibility to conclude that this might have been a contribution towards the attempted final result. Not surprisingly, almost all of today’s parsing systems still rely on purely combinatorical algorithms, whose time behaviour is difficult to predict. Under these circumstances there is reason to assume that parsing algorithms of the weak anytime contract type should be based on radically different computational principles.

3 PARSING AS CONSTRAINT SATISFACTION

Constraint propagation represents a certain exception among the computational paradigms for combinatorical problem solving, since it meets the
requirements of graceful degradation under time constraints already due to its very fundamental principles. Within a search space defined by the assignment of (finite) domains to a finite number of variables $V_i = \{x | x \in Dom(V_i)\}$ a solution is desired, which simultaneously satisfies all the conditions from a set of constraints $C$. Constraints can be thought of as forming a network through which value restrictions are propagated. At any time in the course of the computation the network contains all the solutions which are still consistent with respect to the already applied constraints. In particular the network will always contain - among others - all the globally consistent solutions to the constraint satisfaction problem.

Constraint satisfaction has first been applied to the structural disambiguation of natural language by Maruyama. Local constraints on admissible utterance structures are defined in the framework of a dependency grammar, where word forms $w_i \in W$ are modified by others according to certain dependency relations $l_i \in L$.

A possible modification to a node in a dependency tree is a pair consisting of a dominating node and a corresponding arc label. These pairs are taken as possible values of the constraint satisfaction problem $V_i = \{p | p \in W \times L\}$. Hence, the current state of the analysis is described by all the remaining relations by which a word form can modify another one.

A constraint $c \in C$ then is a relation defined over value assignments for an arbitrary subset of variables $c \subset V_m \times \ldots \times V_n$. In order to produce a manageable implementation, constraints should be restricted to local (i.e. unary or binary) ones. If $pos(x)$ is defined to denote the position index of a node, $mod(x)$ its modifiee, $lab(x)$ the modifying relation of a node and $cat(x)$ the category of an input word form attached to a node\footnote{Only a single role identifier per word form is considered. The approach can easily be generalized to a multidimensional dominance relation. The treatment of position indices differs slightly from that of \cite{Maruyama} in order to later allow the generalization to non-sequential input descriptions.} the unary constraint

$$cat(x) = D \rightarrow (lab(x) = DET \land \neg \exists (mod(x) \in N \land pos(x) < pos(mod(x))))$$

describes the fact that a determiner (D) can modify a noun (N) on its right hand side with the dependency relation DET\footnote{Only a single role identifier per word form is considered. The approach can easily be generalized to a multidimensional dominance relation. The treatment of position indices differs slightly from that of \cite{Maruyama} in order to later allow the generalization to non-sequential input descriptions.}.
not restrict the set of possible value assignments in the usual sense but instead license a particular initial state of the network.

The mutual compatibility of value assignments then can be encoded by binary constraints, as for instance the verb second condition of German main clauses:

\[(\text{mod}(x) = \text{mod}(y) \land \text{lab} (\text{mod}(x)) = V \land \text{pos}(x) < \text{pos} (\text{mod}(x))) \land \text{pos} (y) < \text{pos} (\text{mod}(y))) \rightarrow x = y\]

“two words which modify the main verb cannot be placed both left of the verb”

Another binary constraint is the projectivity condition usually assumed to hold for dependency grammars [4]

\[\text{pos} (\text{mod}(x)) < \text{pos} (y) < \text{pos} (x) \]
\[\rightarrow \text{pos} (\text{mod}(x)) \leq \text{pos} (\text{mod}(y)) \leq \text{pos} (x).\]

By applying constraints of this type to the sets of possible modifications at the network nodes certain value combinations can be excluded and the search space is reduced successively. If sufficient constraints are available eventually a state will be reached where each node modifies exactly another one (except the topmost node, of course) and a unique description of the input string has been established.

In contrast to the usual chart parsing approach, parsing by constraint satisfaction no longer is a procedure which monotonically adds new partial
results but instead monotonically restricts the space of valid structuring possibilities.

Besides the fact that constraint satisfaction procedures can be parallelized without serious difficulties, they offer yet another important advantage: By simply analysing some formal parameters (e.g. the size of the value sets at different nodes of the constraint network) it becomes possible to evaluate the current state of computation as well as the recent progress. Additionally, a few simple but rather effective heuristics are available to select a place in the network where constraint application will probably yield the most effective reduction of the search space.

Under the perspective of the anytime condition this advantage is of crucial importance. For the first time an internal workload scheduling of the parsing procedure becomes possible. The analysis can be made to concentrate on those places in the network where disambiguation is most urgent. Scheduling can be improved further, if a particular ordering on the set of constraints is assumed which gives a rough estimation of the restrictive power of a constraint. Again a two-dimensional decision problem is given. The procedure tries to find the optimal sequence of constraint applications which allows to determine the global state of consistency with a minimum of computational effort. In contrast to the unification grammar tradition, available constraints are not applied at once, but the parser will decide selectively where to apply which kind of constraint considering the current state of analysis.

For the purpose of an interactive machine translation system MARUYAMA proposes a kernel grammar approach. It starts with a minimal but fairly general set of constraints and adds more specific restrictions only if this becomes necessary to solve remaining ambiguities.

Constraints can be syntactic as well as semantic or domain specific ones and no fixed order of constraint application is defined. Therefore, domain specific constraints which usually are much more restrictive than those from a general grammar can be taken into consideration as soon as all of their application conditions hold. If e.g. disambiguation succeeds using only domain specific knowledge, syntactic constraints will never be invoked and certain types of ungrammaticality are accepted without additional effort. Furthermore, constraints are not necessarily static ones. Additional constraints can be requested on demand from other modelling components (e.g. dynamic domain, discourse or user models) and therefore are particularly interesting for the design of interactive system structures (c.f.)
4 QUALITY OPTIMIZATION

Parsing by constraint propagation always departs from a structural description of maximal ambiguity and aims at successively reducing the number of different readings for the input as far as possible. Therefore the degree of remaining ambiguity seems appropriate as a measure to evaluate the progress of computation. It can be used to schedule the sequence of constraint applications in such a way that the amount of time required to reach a unique description will be minimized. On the other hand, it is quite doubtful whether the degree of remaining ambiguity can be taken as a useful criterion for output quality per se. In the long run only a largely disambiguated description can serve as a sensible basis for further processing.

Even in case of time stress or lack of general constraints this goal can be reached by the application of heuristic or even brute force methods. Heuristic constraints may be based on rules of thumb which e.g. reduce the search space to the most frequent cases. For instance a subject-first heuristics for German might be stated in the following way

\[
\text{cat}(x) = \text{V} \land \text{mod}(y) = x \land \text{lab}(y) = \text{SUBJ} \rightarrow \text{pos}(y) < \text{pos}(x)
\]

This constraint is a rather restrictive one and will ultimately exclude all the other constituents of the sentence from being topicalized.

Another well known heuristics is the minimal attachment rule which prefers shorter dependency relations over longer ones. Heuristics of this kind no longer restrict the consistency of individual input descriptions, but instead define preferences based on a comparison of different readings. Therefore it will be difficult to express them as logical constraints in the usual way. However, preferences can be expressed as (nonmonotonic) rules which directly manipulate the search space by eliminating less preferred modification possibilities from the value sets.

\[
\text{mod}(x) = y \land \text{mod}(z) = x \land y \neq z \land \text{pos}(y) < \text{pos}(z) < \text{pos}(x) \\
\Rightarrow \text{DELETE}(\text{mod}(x) = y)
\]

“For a node \(x\) which modifies two others (\(y\) and \(z\)) simultaneously the modification of the more distant node is suppressed.”
The same result can be obtained by a dynamic constraint which puts a time dependent upper limit on the distance between modifier and modifiee

\[
\text{mod}(x) = y \land \text{mod}(x) = z \land y \neq z \land pos(y) < pos(z) < pos(x)
\]

\[
\rightarrow pos(x) < pos(\text{mod}(x)) + n
\]

where \( n \) should be directly proportional to the remaining time \( T \). In a very similar fashion other dynamic distance heuristics (e.g. the attachment of a determiner) may be described as well.

Heuristic constraints can be roughly ordered according to their (estimated) reliability. Then, the selection problem becomes a three-dimensional one:

1. different nodes in the constraint network have different degrees of ambiguity,
2. different constraints are expected to have a different potential for ambiguity reduction, and
3. different constraints have a different degree of reliability.

In order to guide the processing in a nearby optimal manner, all three criteria have to be weighted against the utility profile of the parsing module. As long as time pressure is negligible, a general solution to the parsing problem is attempted using more restrictive constraints first. Only growing time pressure combined with a comparatively high degree of ambiguity might justify the activation of heuristic constraints in order to speed up the analysis.

A quality measure for a weak anytime contract module should be defined in a such a way that it properly reflects the basic bias between the remaining ambiguity and the reliability of the constraints used. Let \( a(t) \) denote the remaining ambiguity normalized by the initial one and \( r(t) \) the mean degree of reliability during parsing which both are defined for the interval \( (0, 1) \). A sensible quality measure might then be defined as

\[
q(t) = \frac{e^{r(t)[1-a(t)]} - 1}{e - 1}
\]
Figure 4: Quality measure for disambiguation using heuristic constraints

Hence, high quality results require both, a low degree of remaining ambiguity and a high degree of reliability. Low quality on the other hand is characterized by high ambiguity and/or low reliability.

The introduction of heuristic constraints into the processing provides the advantage of being able to generate useful output even in the presence of rather strong time constraints. Although a quality measure can hardly be determined for individual input utterances, the procedure will nevertheless exhibit the desired weak anytime behaviour in a general probabilistic sense.

On the other hand, there is a number of problems which have to be dealt with:

1. Heuristic constraints will almost certainly be in contradiction with constraints applied earlier or elsewhere in the network. Therefore they should be introduced carefully and in a strictly local manner just to solve a very particular disambiguation problem. At any rate global inconsistencies have to be avoided, since they prevent the analysis from producing complete descriptions.

2. The application of heuristic constraints is in principle irreversible. Heuristics should therefore be considered only if a unique description cannot be reached otherwise.

3. The use of heuristic constraints impairs the additive continuation behaviour, a fundamental property of customary anytime modules. Let
\( \Delta q(\langle t_1, t_2 \rangle) \) denote the (measured) quality increase of a contract module during time interval \( \langle t_1, t_2 \rangle \), where \( t_1 \neq 0 \) has to be interpreted as a continuation of work after an initial contract time \( t_1 \). Given the strong anytime condition, the following equation will always hold

\[
\Delta q(\langle 0, t_1 \rangle) + \Delta q(\langle t_1, t_2 \rangle) = \Delta q(\langle 0, t_2 \rangle)
\]

However, this condition does not need to be valid any longer if heuristic constraints have been used in order to observe the initial contract time \( t_1 \). In general, only a reduced quality increase should be expected for the time period after continuation and for a sufficiently large \( t_2 - t_1 \) even

\[
\Delta q'(\langle 0, t_1 \rangle) + \Delta q'(\langle t_1, t_2 \rangle) < \Delta q(\langle 0, t_2 \rangle).
\]

will be observed. The reduced increase is caused by irreversible restrictions due to the use of heuristic constraints during the initial time period \( t_1 \) which prevent the analysis from reaching a nearby optimal quality level again. In the definition of a quality measure above, this is considered by the impossibility to reach a maximum level of quality with a mean reliability less than one.

5 PARSING OF SPOKEN LANGUAGE

Spoken language parsing has to cope with at least two kinds of phenomena

- the inherent uncertainty of partial recognition results and
- the missing of reliable phrasal boundaries in the speech signal.

Usually word lattices are used to avoid unreliable decisions in the presence of uncertainty at the interface between speech recognition and language processing. Each word hypothesis is effectively time stamped by its starting and ending points and possibly supplemented by a confidence estimation.

As a first consequence all linear ordering constraints introduced in the examples above need to be generalized from position indices to relations over
time intervals: Positional ordering is replaced by interval precedence, identity constraints by a time overlap condition. Furthermore, additional constraints can be invoked to rule out abnormal dependency structures. Because constraints are always defined on inconsistent modification possibilities, restrictions on overlapping nodes have to be stated in terms of modification relations as well:

\[
\text{mod}(a) = b \land \text{mod}(c) = d \rightarrow \neg (\text{overlap}(a, b) \\
\lor \text{overlap}(a, c) \lor \text{overlap}(a, d) \lor \ldots \lor \text{overlap}(c, d))
\]

"Whenever two modifying relations are considered, the nodes involved must not overlap each other."

This constraint prevents all nodes with no more than two dependency relations in between from overlapping each other. Obviously, this condition is not strong enough because modification is a transitive relation and the transitive closure would have to be taken into consideration. To improve the effectiveness of simultaneity constraints a (partial) linearization of dependency trees will become necessary. It allows to generalize the reasoning about overlap conditions from single word forms to partial trees but bears a serious risk of bloating the search space. Therefore it can be tried only in cases of almost unambiguous dependency relations.

Exactly this turns out to be the main difficulty of lattice parsing by constraint satisfaction: Important and efficient constraints can only be applied if the search space has already been narrowed down to a certain degree. One could try to approach this problem by resorting to extremely restrictive (usually domain specific) constraints and extending singular “islands of certainty” successively. Considering the enormous variety of modifying possibilities within a word lattice it will, however, remain the clear exception that a modifying relation can be ruled out with absolute certainty by means of compatibility conditions alone.

Here, probabilistic measures are suitable to supply additional information. This includes

- bigram-statistics of word form sequences,
• probability estimations for dominance possibilities and
• confidence values for the word forms involved.

Instead of using a Boolean decision, the compatibility of two modification links is then described as a fuzzy value. Heuristic constraints can be devised to put awards on the preferred dominance possibilities and penalties on the unlikely ones. Modification links with a low valuation can be excluded under growing time pressure.

The second important condition for spoken language parsing is the missing of appropriate phrase boundaries in the speech signal. Parsing therefore becomes a time synchronous procedure and the number of nodes in the constraint network — although finite at every time point during the processing — will no longer be known in advance. The network is continuously extended by incoming word hypotheses and outputs all nodes leaving the time horizon given by the contract time. For each newly created node all modification links licensed by unary constraints are established and constraint propagation tries to reduce the number of readings towards a unique interpretation where each word modifies exactly another one. In order to meet the anytime condition a unique interpretation for each node should have been achieved before the allocated time interval is exceeded. Again the analysis is guided by the remaining degree of ambiguity and the actual time delay.

6 CONCLUSIONS

Constraint satisfaction techniques are well suited to provide natural language parsing with a weak type of anytime behaviour at least in the case of deterministic input. Since the paradigm facilitates explicit reasoning about the available and the required means for disambiguation, it enables the parsing procedure to dynamically adapt to external time constraints which are typical for spoken language applications. Knowledge from very different sources (syntax, semantics, discourse, domain, user status, ...) can interact in a coordinated way. The approach is not restricted to static (i.e. universally valid) constraints and allows to introduce dynamic (i.e. only locally valid) knowledge even in areas with a traditionally prevalent static point of view. Thus, for instance, it becomes possible to model the increased probability
of certain topicalized constructions in the context of very specific surface indicators, like a negation or a possessive pronoun.

A rather simple local measure exists which allows to determine those parts of the network where disambiguation is most urgent. Combined with an estimation of the restrictive power of constraints this allows for a dynamic resource scheduling. The most efficient constraints are applied first and thus a kind of optimal time behaviour is achieved. Probabilistic measures can be included without difficulties.

There is some reason to assume that the approach can be extended in principle to the treatment of spoken language. First of all, this requires to provide the means for parsing in dynamically extending lattices. For the time being the main problem rests with the lack of a tradition in writing linguistic knowledge as local constraints. No conclusive judgement about the feasibility of the approach can be found unless at least a nontrivial fragment of a natural language has been described and tested in order to clarify the most essential questions

- To which degree language specific knowledge can be expressed by means of strictly local constraints on modification possibilities?
- How effective is the restrictive power of a grammar compared to the typical recognition uncertainty embodied in a word lattice?
- Can the restrictive power of a single constraint be estimated in a reliable way to allow an effective scheduling procedure being devised?

Unfortunately, the predominant trend in contemporary computational linguistics is driving into just the opposite direction. Within the framework of unification-based grammars increasingly complex constraints are used to describe combinability conditions and structure building operations by means of a single uniform formalism. It is just this complexity which makes it difficult for a system designer

- to estimate a constraint’s restrictive power,
- to determine those parts of a constraint which are sufficient to solve a particular disambiguation problem,
• to determine those parts of a constraint which - on demand - can be replaced by stronger (heuristic) ones,

• to find reliable heuristics for determining those partial results which look most promising with respect to a final solution and

• to devise algorithms for an incremental analysis where partial constraints are applied as soon as possible and partial results are extended later when additional data comes in.

Since on the other hand the merits of the unification-based approach for writing concise and hence comprehensible grammars should not be debated, one of the most interesting questions will be, whether it becomes possible to (semi-) automatically derive local constraints as needed for constraint satisfaction from the complex feature structures used in unification based approaches to natural language processing.

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