

COMPUTATIONAL MODELS OF DISCOURSE

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CONTENTS

Foreword Michael Brady	xiii
Preface David Israel	xvii
Computational aspects of discourse Robert C. Berwick	27
Why computational models?	27
The syntax of discourse: Webber and Sidner Creating and linking discourse entities Creating discourse entities: Webber Computing the Webber LF Linking discourse entities: Sidner Evidence for Sidner's focus theory	37 37 42 46 50 59
The world as database: Kaplan MQL and the interaction of syntax and semantics The interaction of syntax and semantics Questions, empty sets, and intentions	63 66 68 70
Allen: Meaning and plans Allen's system: the details	74 77
McDonald: saying what you mean The McDonald model	84 87
Recognizing intentions from natural language utterances James Allen	107
Introduction	107
An overview of the model Actions, plans, and speech acts Plan construction Plan inference Obstacle detection Related work	110 110 111 112 113 114
Plan inference and obstacle detection	115

Contents vi

Actions and plans	116
	117
The plan inference rules	120
Rating heuristics	126
The control of plan inferencing	129
Obstacle detection	132
Examples of helpful responses	134
The train domain	134
The speech act definitions	135
Example I: providing more information than requested	137
Example II: a yes/no question answered no	142
Indirect speech acts	144
Speech acts and mutual belief	148
Surface linguistic acts	151
Extended plan inferencing	152
Examples of indirect acts	155
Using general knowledge	159
Discussion	160
Analyzing sentence fragments	161
An example of a sentence fragment	162
Conclusions	164
Cooperative responses from a portable natural language database query system Jerrold Kaplan	167
Introduction	
	167
	167
Computational pragmatics	170
Computational pragmatics What is a loaded question?	170 172
Computational pragmatics What is a loaded question? Corrective indirect responses	170 172 174
Computational pragmatics What is a loaded question? Corrective indirect responses Relevance to database queries	170 172 174 175
Computational pragmatics What is a loaded question? Corrective indirect responses	170 172 174
Computational pragmatics What is a loaded question? Corrective indirect responses Relevance to database queries Language-driven and domain-driven inference CO-OP: a cooperative query system	170 172 174 175 176
Computational pragmatics What is a loaded question? Corrective indirect responses Relevance to database queries Language-driven and domain-driven inference CO-OP: a cooperative query system The Meta Query Language	170 172 174 175 176 177
Computational pragmatics What is a loaded question? Corrective indirect responses Relevance to database queries Language-driven and domain-driven inference CO-OP: a cooperative query system The Meta Query Language Computing corrective indirect responses	170 172 174 175 176 177 178 180
Computational pragmatics What is a loaded question? Corrective indirect responses Relevance to database queries Language-driven and domain-driven inference CO-OP: a cooperative query system The Meta Query Language	170 172 174 175 176 177
Computational pragmatics What is a loaded question? Corrective indirect responses Relevance to database queries Language-driven and domain-driven inference CO-OP: a cooperative query system The Meta Query Language Computing corrective indirect responses Focus and suggestive indirect responses	170 172 174 175 176 177 178 180 183
Computational pragmatics What is a loaded question? Corrective indirect responses Relevance to database queries Language-driven and domain-driven inference CO-OP: a cooperative query system The Meta Query Language Computing corrective indirect responses Focus and suggestive indirect responses Vagueness and supportive indirect responses CO-OP sample queries	170 172 174 175 176 177 178 180 183 187
Computational pragmatics What is a loaded question? Corrective indirect responses Relevance to database queries Language-driven and domain-driven inference CO-OP: a cooperative query system The Meta Query Language Computing corrective indirect responses Focus and suggestive indirect responses Vagueness and supportive indirect responses CO-OP sample queries Portability	170 172 174 175 176 177 178 180 183 187 189
Computational pragmatics What is a loaded question? Corrective indirect responses Relevance to database queries Language-driven and domain-driven inference CO-OP: a cooperative query system The Meta Query Language Computing corrective indirect responses Focus and suggestive indirect responses Vagueness and supportive indirect responses CO-OP sample queries	170 172 174 175 176 177 178 180 183 187

Results and examples	201
Conclusion	205
Natural language generation as a computational problem: an introduction David D. McDonald	209
Introduction	209
Results for test speakers The different input representations The LOGIC domain Planner-style assertions	210 212 214 219
A computational model Characterizing the problem Language generation as decision-making Restrictions on the model	222 223 224 224
The relationship between the speaker and the linguistics component Messages Run-time relationships	226 226 229
The internal structure of the linguistics component A cascade of two transducers Representing linguistic context: the tree The controller	231 231 234 236
An example Recursive descent through the formula Stepping the controller through the tree The realization process Continuing through the tree Delaying decisions Interactions between decisions Realizing message elements in terms of their roles	244 247 248 249 252 254 257 258
Contributions and limitations Specific contributions of this research Relation to previous AI work on natural language generation When is this linguistics component appropriate? What this model cannot do	259 259 260 262 264
Focusing in the comprehension of definite anaphora Candace L. Sidner	267
Introduction Research on anaphora	267 270

Contents viii

The focusing approach to anaphora	273
The definition of focus	278
A sketch of the process model of focusing	278
The representation of focus	280
Finding the discourse focus	283
Rejecting the expected focus	287
Inferring and focusing	289
An algorithm for focusing	291
Focus movement	295
Backwards focus movement	293 299
Using the focusing algorithm for movement	302
Focus for pronoun interpretation	304
Using focus for pronoun interpretation rules	305
Focus and knowledge representation	310
Focus restrictions on co-specification	314
Pronouns which have no co-specifiers	316
The problem of parallelism	318
The problem of paramensin	310
The interpretation of this and that	320
Co-present foci in anaphor disambiguation	320
Interpretation of co-present <i>this</i> and <i>that</i>	321
This and that in focus movement	323
Using the focus movement algorithm	323
Osing the focus movement algorithm	321
Conclusions	328
So what can we talk about now?	
Bonnie L. Webber	331
Y	
Introduction	331
Fundamental assumptions	334
T diffidantental assumptions	334
Factors in forming discourse-dependent descriptions	339
The definite/indefinite distinction	340
Quantifier scoping	342
Member/set information	345
Three uses of plurals	345
Tiffee uses of piurals	343
An appropriate formalism for computing descriptions	347
Noun phrases in general	347
Singular noun phrases	349
Plural noun phrases	350
Taxai noun pinases	330
Deriving discourse entity IDs	353
IDs for specific discourse entities	353
-20 Tot oppositio discourse citatios	333

IDs for derived entities: generic sets	361
One anaphora	364
Conclusion	370
Bibliography	373
Index	391

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FOREWORD

Michael Brady

It should be noted at the outset that my personal research interests in artificial intelligence are in vision and robotics, not in linguistics. Two years ago, however, at the time that I was joining MIT, my general reading of the natural language literature in artificial intelligence suggested to me an undercurrent of change in computational linguistics analogous to that which has taken place, for example, in vision [Brady 1981]. This book on computational models of discourse stems from a series of conversations between myself and the other editor, Robert C. Berwick, that explored that change and the closeness of the analogy with vision.

What is the nature of the change? In a nutshell, it seems to me that artificial intelligence is crystallizing into more or less independent subdisciplines as an inevitable side-effect of maturing. Specialist journals have appeared, catering to specialized subdisciplines from linguistics to robotics. Even the field's traditional non-specialist journal *Artificial Intelligence* recently devoted a special issue to vision [Brady 1981]. It recognized that artificial intelligence researchers outside vision increasingly feel out of touch with work in that area. On the other hand, increasing numbers of perceptual psychologists want to become familiar with the computational approach to vision. Many artificial intelligence researchers feel similarly out of touch with other subdisciplines, notably robotics, search, and automated deduction.

Before exploring the symptoms of change, let us consider the state of natural language understanding research, say up to the time of the Schank and Colby's collection [Schank and Colby 1973], or the influential workshop on *Theoretical issues in natural language processing*. The vast expenditure of time and money on the machine translation projects of the 1950's and early 1960's, and the detailed formal mathematical study of parsing in the 1960's, provided little real insight into the problems of how natural language could be understood by, or through the use of, computers. The first wave of efforts in what is nowadays called computational linguistics had a considerable impact both on artificial intelligence and on a

limited number of conventional linguists. The work of Schank, Winograd, Wilks, Woods, and their associates, suggested that it was possible to build a (huge) computer program capable of interesting linguistic behavior.

Although the emphases of different research efforts were in different aspects of language, they shared the characteristic that they resulted in entire (mostly) working systems. All the systems were required to deal with a wide range of linguistic challenges. They included a parser, a lexicon, and embodied proposals about the representation and role of semantic and pragmatic information in understanding and responding to an English sentence. The detailed interaction between the various subsystems was a central concern. In Winograd's system, for example, the fact that the sequence of processing could not be specified in advance was claimed as a major feature. The program SHRDLU contributed to the theory that sophisticated process interaction is central to modeling the flexibility of human thought, perception, and language understanding. In retrospect, however, these approaches to computational linguistics seem to be overly concerned with mechanism.

Inevitably, in order to achieve a total, working, natural language understanding program, early systems were forced to ignore, gloss over, or otherwise compromise on, many aspects of language understanding. treatment of time, mood, purpose, theme, the determination of focus and reference, as well as many other issues, were accorded only a preliminary treatment. Some of the main insights which informed the construction of these systems were computational, and some of the main lessons which the authors claimed could be learned from their research, were about computational issues. the architecture of process interactions and the design of representations for semantic processing. For this reason, the detailed operation of the early natural language understanding systems and the issues they addressed were largely accessible to the general artificial intelligence community. At the interdisciplinary workshop on Theoretical issues in natural language processing [Nash-Webber and Schank 1975], six of the eight sessions concerned memory and knowledge representation. Most of the papers in those sessions could have just as easily been presented at a workshop on vision or reasoning (many were). Interestingly, only one of the forty papers presented at that workshop is referenced in this volume. 1

What are the symptoms of change in computational linguistics that I referred to earlier? First, like vision, robotics, search, and formal reasoning, it has become

^{1.} To be fair, some of the systems described at TINLAP-1 were refined and re-presented at TINLAP-2. Several references are made to TINLAP-2.

increasingly technical. In vision and robotics technical typically refers to sophisticated mathematical analysis. Although linguistics is, for the most part, (currently) less demanding mathematically than vision, there are, as always, exceptions. Berwick's grammatical analysis (and many similar analyses) of the Marcus parser and the McDonald generation program (chapter 4) is a model of precision. Similarly, Webber's (chapter 6) representation of the possible meanings of noun phrases fully exploits the power of the predicate calculus. Mathematics aside, technical refers to the precision and close attention to detail that is a feature of much current work in computational linguistics.

Second, though related to the first point, the problem with which any individual researcher is concerned in any particular project, seems to have narrowed considerably, with a corresponding increase in depth of analysis. The individual chapters in this volume restrict their attention to response generation, the determination of reference and focus, and the scope of quantifiers. In vision, people work on such problems as directional selectivity, the shape of subjective contours, and binocular stereo. The subject matter is primarily limited to what might be considered modules in the human's visual or linguistic system rather than being limited by a domain of application that potentially requires the deployment of the full panoply of linguistic or visual abilities. This does not imply that the epistemological base of a piece of work can always be completely unrestricted, as the paper by Allen in this volume illustrates. Domain restrictions are mostly a reflection of the lack of muscle and inappropriate architecture of today's computers. As the subject matter of individual research papers has become more restricted and specialized, so they in turn have become of less interest to artificial intelligence researchers whose primary interests are in other subdisciplines.

Recent papers in computational linguistics are also more demanding to read. One reason for this is immediately apparent to the casual artificial intelligence reader. Considerably more than lip service is paid to *non-* computational linguistics and vision. A more specialized background is assumed of the reader. Although the architects of early systems referred to the linguistics literature, they typically did so in general terms. Indeed it was even suggested by some authors that linguistics researchers simply had not uncovered ideas which were precise enough to constrain the detailed construction of a program or against which to evaluate its detailed behavior. There seems to have been an implicit assumption that the new conceptualizations introduced by computation were so radically different from anything that had been used previously in modeling language understanding that it was appropriate to make a completely fresh start.

In many recent papers, including those in this volume, extensive reference is made to detailed psychological and linguistic data. Results cited are used as evidence in support of the importance or appropriateness of a piece of work, as a source of constraint, or to justify some constraint or design decision, for example of a representation. Mitchell Marcus, for example, claims to have designed his parsing system PARSIFAL [Marcus 1980] to embody the constraints on human parsing which Chomsky has uncovered. The constraints are extremely detailed, concerning technical issues such as subject raising and embedded complements. Moreover, Marcus makes a number of detailed claims about program organization which he claims are implied by Chomsky's linguistics findings. The flow is not one way however. Computation contributes powerful ideas about representation and process, even if they are not omnipotent. While, the coupling of artificial intelligence with linguistics and psychology is not new, it has perhaps become more earnest and detailed.

One consequence of this change in computational linguistics is the tendency, remarked earlier, to publish in specialized journals, and to have the work recognized by the linguistics, philosophy, and psychology communities. This requires that computational linguists be able to discuss their ideas at least in part in terms that regular linguists are familiar with. A growing number of computational linguists have a formal qualification in linguistics, philosophy, or psychology.

The editors chose the contributions to this volume in part to illustrate the issues raised above, and in part to form a coherent whole. Jerrold Kaplan and James Allen provide rather different views of what is involved in understanding the meaning of a question in a discourse. An issue of deep and immediate concern for both of them is the need to generate responses, to participate in the discourse. David McDonald's contribution can be critically evaluated in the context of their work, and conversely. Also, they need to determine reference and focus, for, as both of them point out, much is left unstated in a discourse, and a participant has to exploit his or her knowledge to the full to keep talking. These are the questions studied by Candace Sidner and Bonnie Webber. Robert Berwick's introduction explores these interactions in more depth, and provides an overall context and critical review of the other five contributions. The overlap between the separate contributions is apparent even from the references cited; accordingly we have provided a unified bibliography.