

Efficient Parameterizable Type Expansion for Typed Feature Formalisms*

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Abstract

Over the last few years, constraint-based grammar formalisms have become the predominant paradigm in natural language processing and computational linguistics. From the viewpoint of computer science, typed feature structures can be seen as data structures that allow the representation of linguistic knowledge in a uniform fashion. Type expansion is an operation that makes constraints of a typed feature structure explicit and determines its satisfiability. We describe an efficient expansion algorithm that takes care of recursive type definitions and permits the exploration of different expansion strategies through the use of control knowledge. This knowledge is specified on a separate layer independent of grammatical information. The algorithm, as presented in the paper, has been fully implemented in COMMON LISP and is an integrated part of the typed feature formalism *TDC* that is employed in several large NL projects.

1 Introduction

Over the last few years, constraint-based grammar formalisms [Shieber, 1986] have become the predominant paradigm in natural language processing and computational linguistics. While the first approaches relied on annotated phrase structure rules (e.g. PATR-II [Shieber *et al.* 1983]), modern formalisms try to specify grammatical knowledge as well as lexicon entries entirely through feature structures. In order to achieve this goal, one must enrich the expressive power of the first unification-based formalisms with different forms of disjunctive descriptions. Later, other operations come into play, e.g., (classical) negation.

However, the most important extension to formalisms consists of the incorporation of *types*, for instance in modern systems like TFS [Zajac, 1992], CUF [Dorra and Dorna, 1993] or *TDC* [Krieger and Schafer, 1994].

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Types are ordered hierarchically as is known from object-oriented programming languages: a feature heavily employed in lexicalized grammar theories like Head-Driven Phrase Structure Grammar (HPSG) [Pollard and Sag, 1987]. This leads to multiple inheritance in the description of linguistic entities. In general, not only is a type related to other types through the inheritance hierarchy, but is also provided, with feature constraints that are idiosyncratic to this type. Hence, a type symbol can serve as an *abbreviation* for a complex expression and an untyped feature structure becomes a typed one. If a formalism is intended to be used as a stand-alone system, it must also implement *recursive types* if it does not provide phrase-structure recursion directly (within the formalism) or indirectly (via a parser/generator)¹. In addition, certain forms of relations (like *append*) or additional extensions of the formalism (like functional uncertainty) can be nicely modelled through recursive types.

Now, because types allow us to refer to complex constraints through the use of symbol names, we need an operation that is responsible for deducing the constraints that are inherent to a type. This means, reconstructing the idiosyncratic constraints of a type, plus those that are inherited from the supertypes. We will call such a mechanism *type expansion* (TE) or type unfolding³. Thus TE is faced with two main tasks:

- 1 making some or all feature constraints explicit (type expansion is a structure-budding operation)
- 1 determining the global consistency of a type or more generally, of a typed feature structure

Types not only serve as a shorthand, like templates, but also provide other advantages which can only be accomplished if a mechanism for TE is available.

For instance, ALE employs a bottom-up chart parser, whereas TFS relies entirely on type deduction. Note that recursive types can be substituted by definite clauses (equivalences) as is the case for CUF, and that parsing/generation roughly corresponds to PROLOG's SLD resolution.

It is worth noting that our notion of TE shares similarities with Ait-Kaci's *sort unfolding* [Ait-Kaci *et al.*, 1993] and Carpenter's *total well typedness* [Carpenter, 1992, Ch. 6]. However, the latter notion is not well-defined for true recursive typed feature structures in that such structures cannot be totally well-typed within finite time and space.

- STRUCTURING KNOWLEDGE

Hierarchically ordered types allow for a modular way of representing linguistic knowledge. Generalizations can be put at the appropriate levels of representation. Type expansion, then, is responsible for gathering the distributed information that is attached to the type symbols.

- SAVING MEMORY

In practice, it is not possible to hold huge lexica in full detail in memory. However, only the idiosyncratic information of a lexicon entry needs to be represented. Type expansion is employed in making the constraints imposed by lexical types explicit.

- EFFICIENT PROCESSING

Working with type names only or with partially expanded types minimizes the costs of copying structures during processing and speeds up unification. This can only be accomplished if the system makes a mechanism for type expansion available.

- TYPE CHECKING

Type definitions allow a grammarian to declare which attributes are appropriate for a given type and which types are appropriate for a given attribute, therefore disallowing one from writing inconsistent feature structures. Again, type expansion is necessary to determine the global consistency of a given description.

- RECURSIVE TYPES

Recursive types give a grammar writer the opportunity to formulate *certain function*'s or relations as recursive type specifications. Working in the type deduction paradigm forces a grammar writer to replace the context-free backbone through recursive types. Here, parameterized delayed type expansion is the key to controlled linguistic deduction [Usikoreit 1991].

- ANYTIME BEHAVIOUR

Complex architectures for NL processing require modules that can be interrupted at any time, returning an incomplete, nevertheless useful result [Wahlster, 1993]. Such modules are able to continue processing with only a negligible overhead, instead of having been restarted from scratch. Type expansion can serve as an anytime module for linguistic processing.

In the next section, we introduce the basic inventory to describe our own novel approach to TE. We then describe the basic structure of the algorithm, present several improvements, and show how it can be parameterized with different dimensions. Finally, we have a few words on theoretical results and compare our treatment with others.

2 Preliminaries

In order to describe our algorithm, we need only a small inventory to abstract from the concrete implementation in TDC [Kneger and Schafer, 1994] and to make the approach comparable to others. First of all, we assume

pairwise disjoint sets of features (attributes) \mathcal{F} , atoms (constants) \mathcal{A} , logical variables \mathcal{V} , and types \mathcal{T} .

In the following, we refer to a type hierarchy \mathcal{I} by a pair (\mathcal{T}, \preceq) , such that $\preceq \subseteq \mathcal{T} \times \mathcal{T}$ is a decidable partial order, i.e., \preceq is reflexive, antisymmetric, and transitive.

A typed feature structure (TFS) θ is essentially either a ψ -term or an ϵ -term [Ait-Kaci 1986], i.e.,

$$\theta = \langle x, \tau, \Phi \rangle \mid \langle x, \tau, \Theta \rangle$$

such that $x \in \mathcal{V}$, $\tau \in \mathcal{T}$, $\Phi = \{f_1 = \theta_1, \dots, f_n = \theta_n\}$, and $\Theta = \{\theta_1, \dots, \theta_n\}$ where each $f_i \in \mathcal{F}$ and θ_i is again a TFS.

We will call the equation $f = \theta$ a feature constraint (or an attribute-value pair)³. Φ is interpreted conjunctively, whereas Θ represents a disjunction. Variables are used to indicate structure sharing.

Let us give a small example to see the correspondences. The typed feature structure

$$\langle x \text{ cyc-list } \{ \text{FIRST} = 1 \text{ REST} = x \} \rangle$$

should denote the same set of objects as the following two-dimensional attribute-value matrix (AVM) notation

$$\begin{bmatrix} \text{cyc-list} \\ \text{FIRST} & 1 \\ \text{REST} & x \end{bmatrix}$$

It is worth noting that for the purpose of simplicity and clarity, we restrict TFS to the above two cases. Actually, our algorithm is more powerful in that it handles other cases, for instance conjunction, disjunction, and negation of types and feature constraints.

A type system ft is a pair $(\mathcal{O}, \mathcal{I})$, where \mathcal{O} is a finite set of typed feature structures and \mathcal{I} an inheritance hierarchy. Given U we call $\theta \in \mathcal{O}$ a type definition.

Our algorithm is independent of the underlying deduction system—we are not interested in the normalization of feature constraints (i.e., how unification of feature structures is actually done) nor are we interested in the logic of types, e.g., whether the existence of a greatest lower bound is obligatory (TFS [Zajac, 1992], ALE [Carpenter and Perm 1994]) or optional as in TDC [Kneger and Schafer, 1994]. We assume here that typed unification is simply a black box and can be accessed through an interface function (say *unify tfs*). From this perspective, our expansion mechanism can be either used as a stand-alone system or as an integrated part of the typed unification machinery.

We only have to say a few words on the semantic foundations of our approach at the end of this paper. This is because we could either choose extensions of feature logic [Smolka, 1989] or directly interpret our structures within the paradigm of (constraint) logic programming [Lloyd, 1987, Jaffar and Lapses 1987].

³It should be noted that we define TFS to have a nested structure and not to be flat (in contrast to feature clauses in a more logic-oriented approach, e.g., [Ait-Kaci et al., 1993]) in order to make the connection to the implementation clear and to come close to the structured attribute-value matrix notation.

3 Algorithm

The overall design of our TE algorithm was inspired by the following requirements

- support a *complete* expansion strategy
- allow *lazy expansion* of recursive types
- minimize the number of unifications
- make expansion parameterizable for delay and preference information

Before we describe the algorithm we modify the syntax of TFS to get rid of unimportant details. First, we simplify TFS in that we omit variables. This can be done without loss of generality if variables are directly implemented through structure-sharing (which is the case for our system). Hence conjunctive TFS have the form $\langle \tau, \{f_1 = \theta_1, \dots, f_n = \theta_n\} \rangle$ whereas disjunctive are of the form $\langle \tau, \{\theta_1, \dots, \theta_n\} \rangle$.

Given a TFS θ , *type-of*(θ) returns the type of θ whereas *typedef*(τ) obtains the type definition without inherited constraints as given by the type system $\Omega = \langle \Theta, \mathcal{I} \rangle$. We call this TFS a *skeleton*. It is either $\langle \sigma, \{\theta_1, \dots, \theta_n\} \rangle$ or $\langle \sigma, \{f_1 = \theta_1, \dots, f_n = \theta_n\} \rangle$, where σ are the direct supertype(s) of τ .

Because the algorithm should support partially expanded (delayed) types, we enrich each TFS θ by two flags

- 1 Δ -*expanded*(θ)=true, iff *typedef*(*type-of*(θ)) and the definitions of all its supertypes have been unified with θ and false otherwise
- 2 *expanded*(θ)=true iff Δ -*expanded*(θ)=true and *expanded*(θ_i)=true for all elements θ_i of TFS θ

Hence Δ -*expanded* is a local property of a TFS that tells whether the *definition* of its type is already present while *expanded* is a global property which indicates that all substructures of a TFS are Δ -expanded. Clearly, atoms and types that possess no features are always expanded. The exploitation of these flags leads to a drastic reduction of the search space in the expansion algorithm.

3.1 Basic Structure

The following functions briefly sketch the basic algorithm. It is a destructive depth-first algorithm with a special treatment of recursive types that will be explained in Section 3.3.

expand-tfs is the main function that initializes TE. The while loop is executed until the TFS θ is expanded or so-called 'resolved' (see keyword *resolved-predicate* in Section 3.5). Several passes may be necessary for recursive TFS.

```

expand-tfs( $\theta$ ) =
  while not (expanded p( $\theta$ ) or resolved-p( $\theta$ ) or
            no unification occurred in last pass)
    depth-first-expand( $\theta$ )
    /* or types first-expand( $\theta$ ) resp */

```

depth-first-expand and *types-first-expand* recursively traverse a TFS. Which of both functions is employed can be specified by the user. The visited check is done by comparing variables (actually, structure-sharing in

the implementation makes variables obsolete). *types-first-expand* is defined analogously by first expanding the root type of a TFS, and then processing the feature constraints.

```

depth-first-expand( $\theta$ ) =
  if  $\theta$  has been already visited in this pass
  then return
  else
    if  $\theta = \langle \tau, \{\theta_1, \dots, \theta_n\} \rangle$ 
    then
      for every  $\theta \in \{\theta_1, \dots, \theta_n\}$ 
        depth-first-expand( $\theta$ )
      else do /*  $\theta = \langle \tau, \{f_1 = \theta_1, \dots, f_n = \theta_n\} \rangle$  */
        for every  $\theta \in \{\theta_1, \dots, \theta_n\}$ 
          depth-first-expand( $\theta$ ),
          if not  $\Delta$  expanded( $\theta$ )
          then unify-type-and-node( $\tau, \theta$ )
        od

```

unify-type-and-node destructively unifies θ with the expanded TFS of τ . The index i specifies which 'prototype' of τ is chosen (see Section 3.2).

```

unify-type-and-node( $\tau, \theta$ ) =
  if  $\tau = \neg\sigma$ 
  then unify-tfs (negate-fs (expand-type( $\sigma, i$ )),  $\theta$ )
  else unify-tfs (expand-type( $\tau, i$ ),  $\theta$ ),
   $\Delta$  expanded( $\theta$ )  $\leftarrow$  true

```

We adapt Smolka's treatment of negation for our TFS [Smolka 1989]. Note that we only depict the conjunctive case here.

```

negate-fs( $\theta = \langle \tau, \{f_1 = \theta_1, \dots, f_n = \theta_n\} \rangle$ ) =
  return
   $\langle \neg\tau, \{\neg\theta_1, \dots, \neg\theta_n\} \rangle$ 
   $\langle \neg\tau, \{f_1 \uparrow\} \rangle \langle \neg\tau, \{f_1 = \text{negate-fs}(\theta_1)\} \rangle$ 
   $\langle \neg\tau, \{f_i \uparrow\} \rangle \langle \neg\tau, \{f_i = \text{negate-fs}(\theta_n)\} \rangle$ 

```

3.2 Indexed Prototype Memoization

The basic idea of *memoization* [Michie 1968] is to tabulate results of function applications in order to prevent wasted calculations. We adapt this technique to the type expansion function. The argument of our memoized expansion function is a pair consisting of a type name (or a name of a lexicon entry or a rule) and an arbitrary index that allows access to different TFS of the same type which may be expanded in different ways (e.g., partially or fully). Such feature structures are called *prototypes*.

Once a prototype has been expanded according to the attached control information its expanded version is recorded and all future calls return a copy of it, instead of repeating the same unifications once again.

```

expand-type( $\tau$  index) =
  if protomemo( $\tau$  index) undefined
  then  $\theta \leftarrow$  expand-tfs(typedef( $\tau$ )),
    protomemo( $\tau$  index)  $\leftarrow$   $\theta$ ,
    return copy-tfs( $\theta$ )
  else return copy-tfs(protomemo( $\tau$ , index))

```

Most of these computations can be done at compile time (*partial evaluation*), and hence speed up unification at run time. The prototypes can serve as *basic blocks* for building a partially expanded grammar.

Some empirical results indicate the usefulness of indexed prototype memoization. Figure 1 contains statistical information about the expansion of an HPSG

grammar with approx 900 type definitions. About 250 additional lexicon entries and rules have been expanded from scratch, i.e., all types are unexpanded (are *skeletons*) at the beginning. The type and instance skeletons together consist of about 9000 nodes, whereas the resulting structures have a total size of approx. 50000 nodes.

The measurements show that memoization speeds up expansion by a factor of 5 here (or 10 if all types except the lexicon entries are pre-expanded). These factors are directly proportional to the number of unifications. The time difference between the memoized and non-memoized algorithm may be even bigger if disjunctions are involved. The sample grammar contains only a few disjunctions.

3.3 Detecting Recursion

The memoization technique is also employed in detecting recursive types. This is important in order to prevent infinite computations. We use the so-called 'expand stack' of *expand-type* to check whether a type is recursive or not (see Section 3.4). Each call of *expand-type*(τ index) will push τ onto the expand stack. This stack then is passed to *expand-tfs*.

If a type τ on top of the expand stack also occurs below in the stack ($\tau \sigma_n, \sigma_1 \tau \rho_m, \rho_1$) we immediately know that the types $\tau \sigma_n, \sigma_1$ are recursive. Furthermore these types form a *strongly connected component* (scc) of the type dependency (or occurrence) graph $\tau \sigma$, each type in the scc is reachable from every other type in the scc. Examples for such sccs are (*cons list*) and (*state!*) in the trace of the example below (Section 3.4).

Testing whether a type is recursive or not thus reduces to a simple *find* operation in a global list that contains all sccs. The expansion algorithm uses this information in *expand-tfs* to delay recursive types if the expand stack contains more than one element. Otherwise, prototype memoization would loop.

If a recursive type occurs in a TFS and this type has already been expanded under a subpath and no features or other types are specified at this node then this type will be delayed since it would expand forever (we call this *lazy expansion*). An instance of such a recursive type that stops is the recursive version of *lst*, as defined below.

3.4 Example

In the following, we define a finite automaton with two states that accepts the language $a^*(a + b)$. The input is specified through a list under path INPUT of the definition of type *ab* below. The distributed (or named) disjunction [Eisele and Doric 1990] headed by \$! in type *state!* is used to map input symbols to state types (and vice versa). Defining FA this way provides a solid basis for the integration of automata-based allomorphy (e.g., 2-level morphology) and morphotactics within the same constraint-based formalism (cf. [Krieger et al. 1993]).

$$\begin{aligned}
 lst &\Rightarrow \{cons \langle \rangle\} \\
 cons &\Rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{l} FIRST \ T \\ REST \ lst \end{array} \right] \text{ we abbr. } cons \text{ via } \langle \rangle
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 non\ final &\Rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{l} INPUT \ \langle \textcircled{1} \ \textcircled{2} \rangle \\ EDGE \ \textcircled{1} \\ NEXT \ \left[INPUT \ \textcircled{2} \right] \end{array} \right] \\
 final &\Rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{l} INPUT \ \langle \rangle \\ EDGE \ \text{undef} \\ NEXT \ \text{undef} \end{array} \right] \\
 state! &\Rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{l} non\ final \\ EDGE \ \$! \{a, \{a, b\}\} \\ NEXT \ \$! \{state!, final\} \end{array} \right] \\
 ab &\Rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{l} state! \\ INPUT \ \langle a \ b \rangle \end{array} \right]
 \end{aligned}$$

Fig. 2 shows a trace of the expansion of type *ab*. The algorithm is *depth-first-expand* without any delay or preference information. In this trace we assume that it was not known before that the types *cons* (abbreviated as $\langle \rangle$), *lst*, and *state!* are recursive, hence the sccs will be computed on the fly.

The result of *expand-type*(*ab*) is the following feature structure

$$\begin{aligned}
 expand\ type(ab) &\Rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{l} ab \\ INPUT \ \langle \textcircled{1} a \ \textcircled{2} (\textcircled{3} b \ \textcircled{4} \langle \rangle) \rangle \\ EDGE \ \textcircled{1} \\ NEXT \ \left[\begin{array}{l} state! \\ INPUT \ \textcircled{2} \\ EDGE \ \textcircled{3} \\ NEXT \ \left[\begin{array}{l} final \\ INPUT \ \textcircled{4} \\ EDGE \ \text{undef} \\ NEXT \ \text{undef} \end{array} \right] \end{array} \right] \end{array} \right]
 \end{aligned}$$

If we ran our automaton on the input *abb*,

$$abb \Rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{l} state! \\ INPUT \ \langle a \ b \ b \rangle \end{array} \right]$$

it would be rejected: *expand-type*(*abb*) \Rightarrow fail

3.5 Declarative Specification of Control Information

Control information for the expansion algorithm can be specified globally locally for each *prototype*, as well as for a specific *expand-tfs* call. The following control keywords have been implemented so far:

- *expand-function* {depth|types}-first-expand specifies the basic expansion algorithm
- *delay* { ({type | (type [pred]) } {path}+) }* specifies types at *path* to be delayed. *path* may be a feature path or a complex path pattern with wildcard symbols *, +, ? feature and segment variables. *pred* is a test predicate to compare types, e.g., = or \leq (checked in *unify-type-and-node*)
- {expand|expand-only} { ({type | (type [index [pred]]) } {path}+) }* There are two mutually exclusive modes concerning expansion of types. If the *expand-only* list is specified, only types in this list will be expanded with the specified prototype *index*; all others will be delayed. If the *expand* list

algorithm	depth-first-expand		types-first-expand		depth-first-expand		types-first-expand	
memoization	yes		yes		no		no	
time (secs)	45	23*	46	23*	216		218	
unifications	27221	14495*	27207	14481*	155888		155876	
number of calls to	853	*cons*	260	*cons*	8330	*avm*	8454	*avm*
expand type	316	cat type	147	*diff-list*	2392	sem-expr	2503	sem-expr
	269	*diff-list*	143	morph-type	1379	term-type	1420	term type
	243	morph type	94	nmorph-head	1161	*cons*	1196	*cons*
with types	208	atomic-wff	83	sort expr	1003	wff-type	1073	wff-type
pre-expanded	202	rp-type	71	atomic-wff	933	agr-feat	951	agr feat
	146	conj-wff-type	62	rp-type	880	semantics	747	semantics
	120	var type	53	subwff-inst	823	indexed-wff	730	indexed-wff

Figure 1 Efficiency of depth-first vs types first expansion with/without indexed prototype memoization

step	expand type	in type	under path	expand stack
1	cons	ab	INPUT REST	(ab)
2	lst	cons	REST	(cons ab)
3	cons	lst	ε	(lst cons ab) → (cons lst) is new scc delay cons here
4	cons	ab	INPUT	(ab)
5	state1	ab	ε	(ab)
6	state1	state1	NEXT	(state1 ab) → (state1) is new scc delay state1 here
7	final	state1	NEXT	(state1 ab)
8	non final	state1	ε	(state1 ab)
9	cons	non final	INPUT	(non final state1 ab)
10	state1	ab	NEXT	(ab)

Figure 2 Tracing the expansion of type *ab* *ab* is consistent hence the finite automata accepts input (a, b)

- is specified all types will be expanded (checked in *unify type and node*)
- maxdepth integer specifies that all types at paths longer than *integer* will be delayed anyway (checked in *unify-type-and-node*)
- attribute-preference {*attribute*} defines a partial order on attributes that will be considered in the functions *depth-first-expand* and *types-first-expand*. The substructures at the attributes leftmost in the list will be expanded first. This non-numerical preference may speed up expansion if no numerical heuristics are known
- use-{conj|disj} heuristics {*t|nil*} [Uszkoreit 1991] suggested exploiting numerical preferences to speed up unification. Both keywords control the use of this information in functions *depth-first-expand* and *types-first-expand*
- resolved-predicate {resolved-p|always-false| } This slot specifies a user definable predicate that may be used to stop recursion (see function *expand-tfs*). The default predicate is *always-false* which leads to a complete expansion algorithm if no other delay information is specified
- ask-disj-prefer-need {*t|nil*} If this flag is set to *t*, the expansion algorithm interactively asks for the order in which disjunction alternatives should be expanded (checked in *depth-first-expand* and *types-first-expand*)

- ignore-global-control {*t|nil*} Specifies whether globally specified *expand-only*, *expand*, and *delay* information should be ignored or not

Let us give an example to show how control information can be employed. Note that we formulate this example in the concrete syntax of *TDC*.

```
defcontrol verb
(( delay ((sign Subsumes)
          SYNSEM NONLOCAL ? SLASH))
  ,, ? matches INHERITED and TO-BIND
  ( attribute-preference
    SYNSEM DTRS SUBCAT HEAD)
  ( use-disj-heuristics T)
  ( ignore-global-control T)
  ( expand ((local initial) *)))
,, * matches all paths in type local
index 1
```

3.6 How to Stop Recursion

Type expansion with recursive type definitions is undecidable in general, i.e., there is no complete algorithm that halts on arbitrary input (TFS) and decides whether a description is satisfiable or not (see Section 5). However, there are several ways to prevent infinite expansion in our framework

- The first method is part of the expansion algorithm (lazy expansion) as described before
- The second way is brute force: use the *maxdepth* slot to cut expansion at a suitable path depth

- The third method is to define delay patterns or to select the expand-only mode with appropriate type and path patterns
- The fourth method is to use the attribute-preference list to define the "right" order for expansion
- Finally one can define an appropriate resolved-predicate that is suitable for a class of recursive types

4 Applications

In Section 3.4 we have already mentioned an NL application in which type expansion was employed viz in the formulation of the interface between allomorphy and morphotactics [Krieger *et al* 1993]. Let us quickly present two other areas that profit from type expansion parsing/generation as type expansion and distributed parsing with partially expanded information.

Parsing and generation can be seen in the light of type expansion as a uniform process where only the phonology (for parsing) or the semantics (for generation) must be given for instance

Parsing $\left[\begin{array}{l} \textit{phrase} \\ \text{PHCN} \{ \textit{John} \textit{ likes} \textit{ bagels} \} \end{array} \right]$

Type expansion together with a sufficiently specified grammar then is responsible in both cases for constructing a fully specified feature structure which is maximal informative and compatible with the input structure.

Distributed parsing is a strategy which reduces the representational overhead given out grammar which co-specifies syntax and semantics proper constraints (1 e filters) are separated from purely representational constraints. The resulting subgrammars are then processed by two parsers in parallel. This presupposes that we can properly handle partially expanded typed feature structures.

5 Theoretical Results

It is worth noting that testing for the satisfiability of feature descriptions admitting recursive type equations/definitions is in general undecidable [Rounds and Manaster-Ramer, 1987] were the first to have shown that a Rasper-Rounds logic enriched with recursive types allows one to encode a Turing machine. Later [Smolka, 1989] argued that the undecidability result is due to the use of coreference constraints. He demonstrated his claim by encoding the word problem of Time systems. Hence our expansion mechanism is faced with the same result in that expansion might not terminate.

However, we conjecture that non-satisfiability and thus failure of type expansion is, in general, semi-decidable. The intuitive argument is as follows given an arbitrary recursive TFS and assuming a fair type unfolding strategy, the only event under which TE terminates in finite time follows from a local unification failure which then leads to a global one. In every other case the unfolding process goes on by substituting types through their definitions. Recently, [Ait-Kaci *et al* 1993] have formally shown a similar result by using the compactness theorem of first-order logic. However, their proof

assumes the existence of an infinite OSF clause (generated by unfolding a ψ -term).

Thus, our algorithm might not terminate if we choose the complete expansion strategy. However, we noted above that we can even parameterize the complete version of our algorithm to ensure termination for instance to restrict the depth of expansion (analogous to the off-line parsability constraint). The non-complete version always guarantees termination and might suffice in practice.

Semantically, we can formally account for such recursive feature descriptions (with respect to a type system) in different ways either directly on the descriptions, or indirectly through a transformational approach into (first-order) logic. Both approaches rely on the construction of a fixpoint over a certain continuous function⁴. The first approach is in general closer to an implementation (and thus to our algorithm) in that the function which is involved in the fixpoint construction corresponds more or less to the unification/substitution of TFS (see for instance [Ait-kaci, 1986] or [Pollard and Moshier 1990]). The latter approach is based on the assumption that TFS are only syntactic sugar for first-order formulae. If we transform these descriptions into an equivalent set of definite clauses, we can employ techniques that are fairly common in logic programming, viz characterizing the models of a definite program through a fixpoint. Take for instance our *cyc-list* example from the beginning to see the outcome of such a transformation (assume that *cyc-list* is a subtype of *list*)

$$\forall x \textit{ cyc-list}(x) \leftrightarrow \exists y z \textit{ list}(x) \wedge \text{FIRST}(x \ y) \wedge \text{REST}(x \ z) \wedge y = 1 \wedge z = x$$

6 Comparison to other Approaches

To our knowledge, the problem of type expansion within a typed feature-based environment was first addressed by Hassan Ait-Kaci [Ait-kaci 1986]. The language he described was called KBL and shared great similarities with LOGIN, see [Ait-Kaci and Nasr, 1966]. However, the expansion mechanism he outlined was order dependent in that it substituted types by their definition instead of unifying the information. Moreover it was non-lazy thus it will fail to terminate for recursive types and performs TE only at definition time as is the case for ALE [Carpenter and Penn, 1994]. However, ALE provides recursion through a built-in bottom-up chart parser and through definite clauses. Allowing TE only at definition time is in general space consuming thus unification and copying is expensive at run time.

Another possibility one might follow is to integrate TE into the typed unification process so that TE can take place at run time. Systems that explore this strategy are TFS [Zajac, 1992] and LIFE [Ait-Kaci, 1993]. However, both implementations are not lazy, thus hard to control and moreover, might not terminate. In addition, if prototype memoization is not available, TE at run time is

⁴In both cases, there is in general, more than one fixpoint, but it seems desirable to choose the *greatest* one as it would not rule out, for instance, cyclic structures.

inefficient, cf Fig 1) A system that employs a lazy strategy on demand at run time is CUF [Dorre and Dorna, 1993] Laziness can be achieved here by specifying delay patterns as is familiar from PROLOG This means delaying the evaluation of a relation until the specified parameters are instantiated

7 Summary

Type expansion is an operation that makes constraints of a typed feature structure explicit and determines its satisfiability We have described an expansion algorithm that takes care of recursive types and allows us to explore different expansion strategies through the use of control knowledge Efficiency is addressed through specialized techniques (l) prototype memoization reduces the number of unifications, and (n) preference information directs the search space Because our notion of type expansion is conceived as a stand-alone module here, one can freely choose the time of its invocation, e.g., during typed unification, parsing, etc

The algorithm as presented in the paper, has been fully implemented within the *TDCj/Dibfe* system [Kneger and Schafer, 1994, Backofen and Wejers, 1994] and is an integrated part of DISCO [Uszkoreit *et al*, 1994]

We are convinced that our approach is also of interest to those who are working with (possibly recursive and hierarchically ordered) record-like data structures in other areas of computer science

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