

Spoken Language Interaction

Natural language
...understanding (NLU)
...generation (NLG)

Jurafsky & Martin (2000) *Speech and Language Processing*. Prentice Hall.

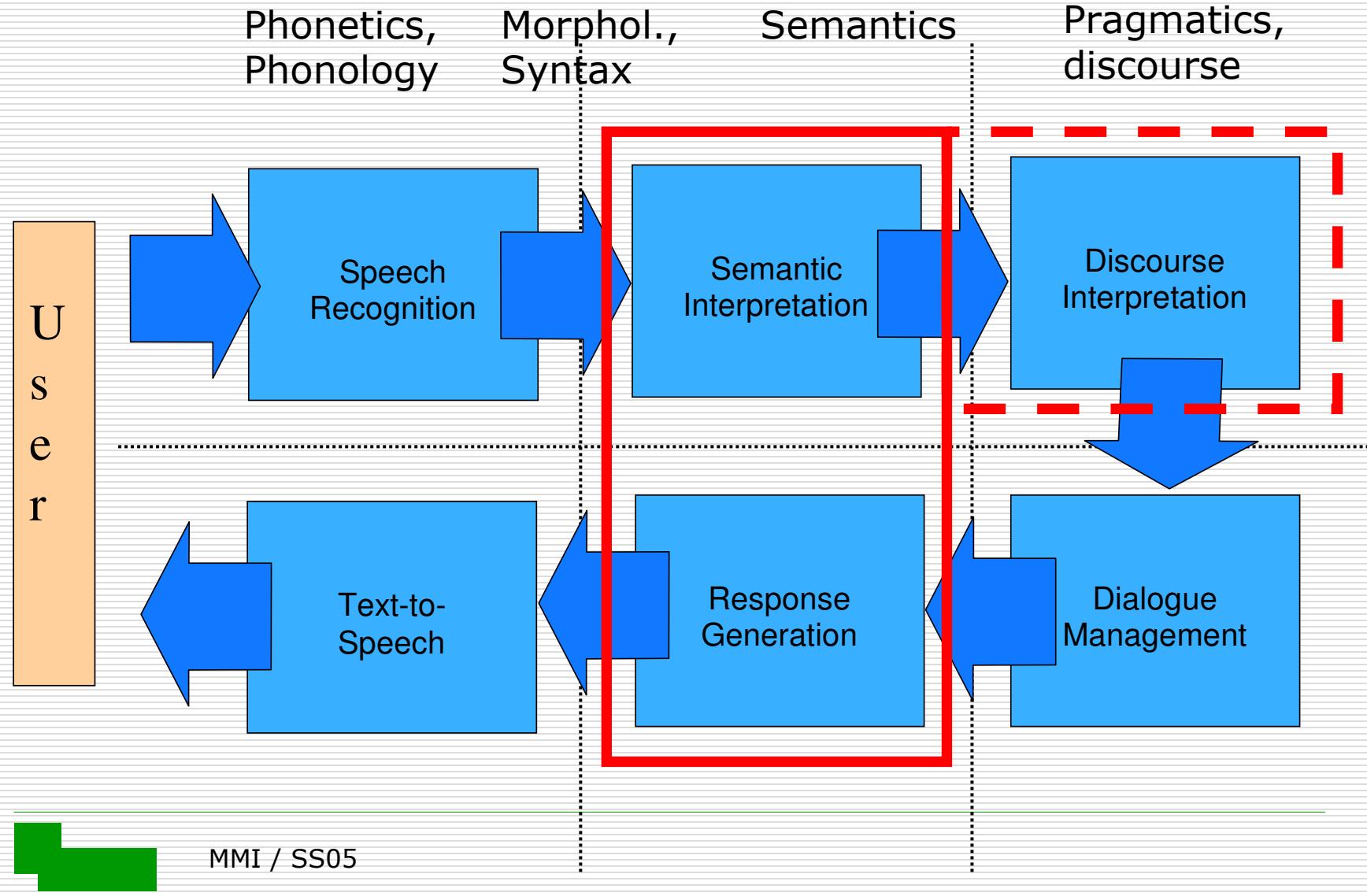
Spoken Dialogue Systems



- A system that allows a user to *speak* his queries in natural language and receive useful spoken *responses* from it
- Provides an interface between the user and a computer-based application that permits *spoken interaction* with the application in a “relatively natural manner”



Spoken Dialogue System - overview

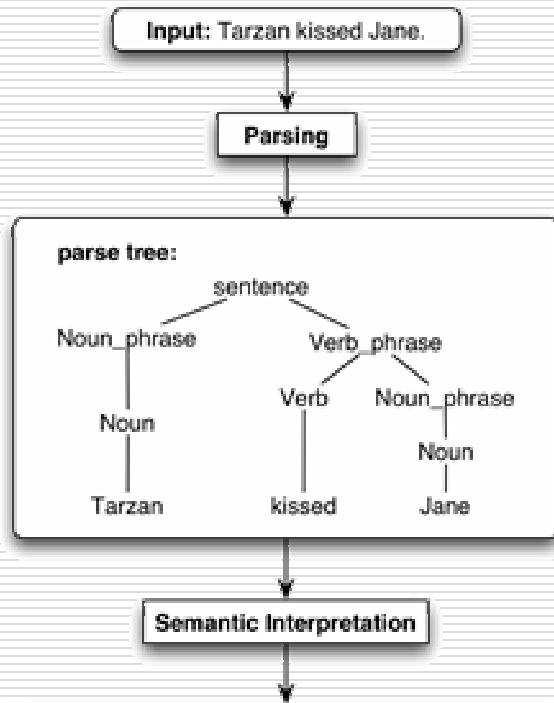


Natural language understanding

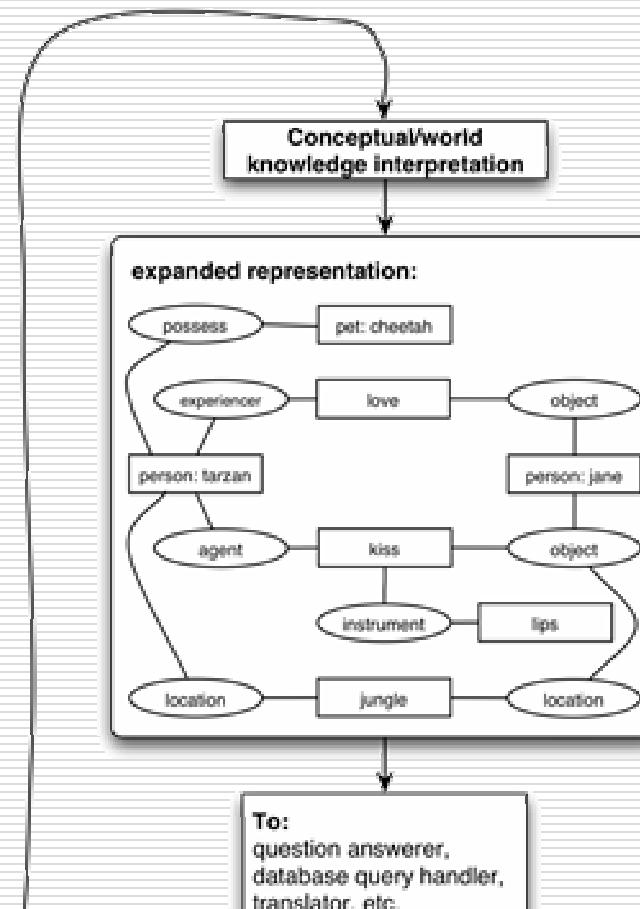
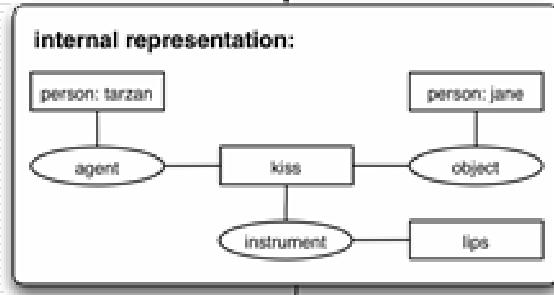
Syntax analysis

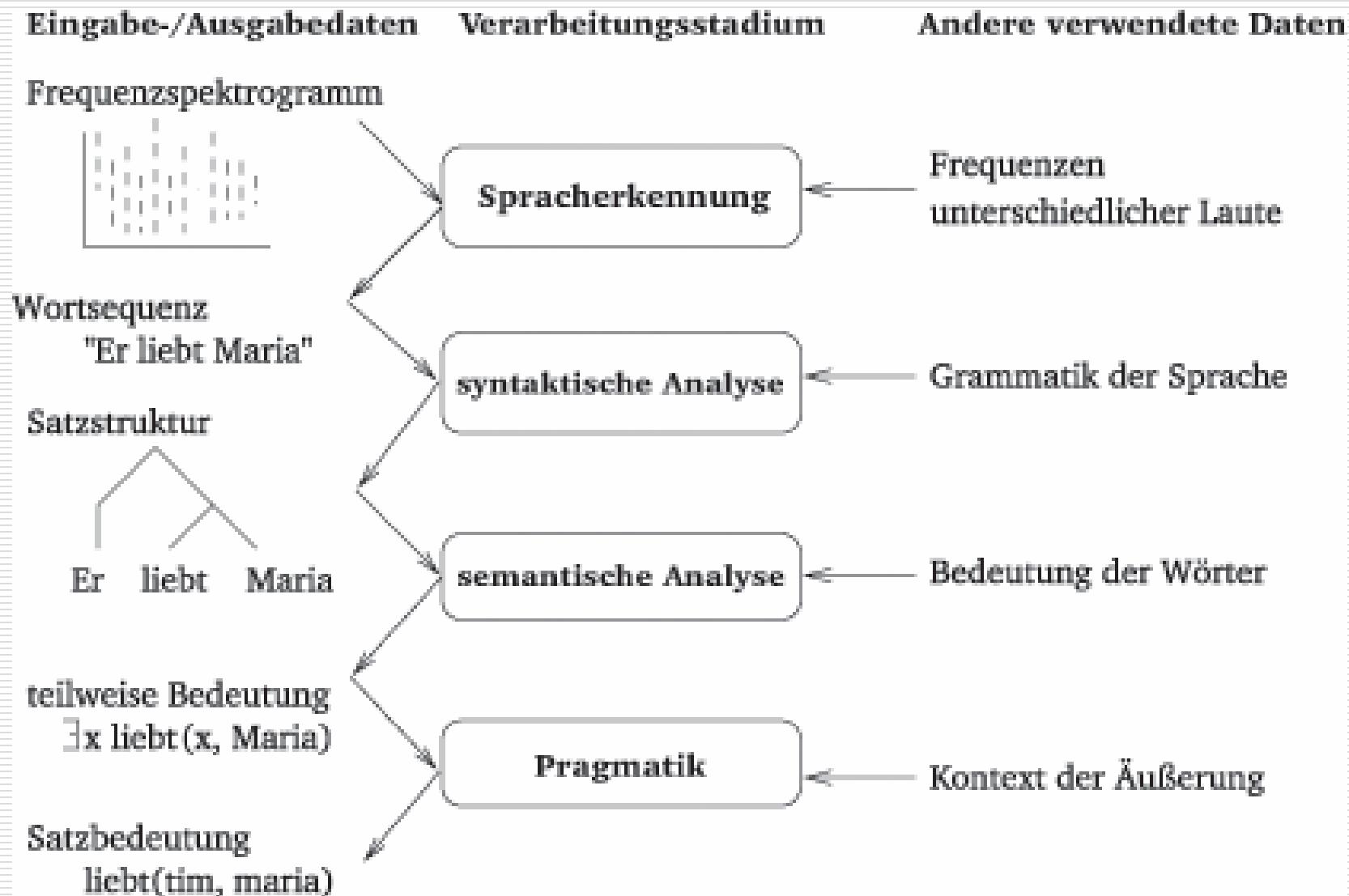
Semantic & discourse interpretation

Syntax



Semantics





Natural language understanding

- Syntax analysis:
 - Determine sentence structure from sequence of words
- Semantic interpretation/analysis:
 - Determine word meanings and the overall meaning of their composition in the sentence
- Discourse interpretation/pragmatic analysis:
 - Use context information to complete and disambiguate sentence meaning
 - Determine intention behind the sentence



Syntax analysis



Grammars
Parsing

Syntax analysis

Ziel: Baumartige Zerlegung des sprachlichen Ausdrucks in seine Komponenten gemäß einer *Grammatik*

PARSE ("the dog is dead", G) :

```
[S: [NP: [Article: the] [Noun: dog]]  
[VP: [Verb: is] [Adjective: dead]]]
```

- Ausgangspunkt für Bedeutungsanalyse: Komposition der Teilbedeutungen (*kompositionale Semantik*)
 - (1) *Der Hund fraß den Knochen*
 - (2) *Der Knochen wurde vom Hund gefressen*
 - Struktur aus Syntaxregeln hilft der Bedeutungsfindung
 - Nicht: „es ist immer das 2. Substantiv, das gefressen wird“
 - Sonder: auf Basis von syntaktischen Zerlegungen
- (3) *sp[Der Hase mit den langen Ohren] erfreute sich an sp[einem großen grünen Salatblatt]*



Grammars

- Prinzipielle, endliche Beschreibung der *Struktur* der Elemente einer (evtl. unendlichen) Sprache
- Zentrale Eigenschaften
 - *Korrekt*: Generiert nur wohlgeformte (wf) Ausdrücke
 - *Vollständig*: Jeder wf. Ausdruck ist generierbar
 - *Adäquat*: korrekt und vollständig für eine Sprache
 - *Entscheidbar*: Wortproblem immer lösbar
 - *Effizienz*: Wortproblem im *worst case* effizient lösbar
- Elementarformen:
 - Phrasenstrukturgrammatiken (PS-Grammatik)
 - Kategorialgrammatiken (C-Grammatik)



Phrasenstrukturgrammatik

- Basiert auf *Konstituentenstruktur*
- Beispiel: NP -> Det Adj N beschreibt einfache Sätze wie
 - „der alte Mann“
 - „ein junger Mann“
 - „dem großen Haus“
- Menge von Regeln bilden PS-Grammatik (PSG)
- PSG sind formale Regelgrammatiken

Grammatik	$G = (\Sigma, \Phi, P, S)$
Terminale	$\Sigma = \{alte, dem, der, ein, großen, Haus, junger, Mann, Vater, \dots\}$
Nonterminale	$\Phi = \{Adj, Det, N, NP, \dots\}$
Regeln	$P = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} S \rightarrow NP VP \mid \dots, NP \rightarrow Det N \mid Det Adj N \mid \dots \\ Det \rightarrow dem \mid der \mid ein \mid \dots, Adj \rightarrow alte \mid junger \mid \dots, \\ N \rightarrow Haus \mid Mann \mid Vater \mid \dots \end{array} \right\}$
Startsymbol	S



PS-Grammatiken

- Weitere, abgeleitete Formalismen
 - Syntactic structures
 - Generative semantics
 - (Revised) (Extended) Standard theory (R)(E)ST
 - Government and binding (GB)
 - Generalized phrase structure grammar (GPSG)
 - Lexical functional grammar (LFG)
 - Head-driven phrase structure grammar (HPSG)



Probleme mit PS-Grammatiken

- NP -> Det Adj N beschreibt auch Sätze wie
 - „Der alter Vater“
 - „Ein junges Mann“
 - „Dem großen Häusern“

Regel generiert über → Grammatik inkorrekt
- Deutsch erfordert Übereinstimmung von Kasus, Genus, Numerus innerhalb einer NP, Adjektiva flektieren abhängig vom Determiner
- NPs kontextfrei beschreibbar:
 - Aufspaltung der Nichtterminale nach *agreement-Merkmalen* und Ersetzung durch Menge neuer Regeln
 - Große Menge an Regeln
 - Generalisierung geht verloren



Mächtigkeit von PS-Grammatiken

- Reguläre Sprachen (z.B. a^k)
 - Entscheidbar in $O(n)$
- Kontextfreie Sprachen (z.B. $a^k b^k$)
 - Entscheidbar in $O(n^k)$
- Kontextsensitive Sprachen (z.B. $a^k b^k c^k$)
 - Entscheidbar in $O(k^n)$
- Rekursiv aufzählbare Sprachen/allg. Regelsprachen
 - Unentscheidbar
- Natürliche Sprachen sind nicht kontextfrei beschreibbar
- *Mild-kontextsensitive* Varianten (Joshi, 1985)
 - Parsing-Problem lösbar in polynomialer Zeit
 - Längenmonotonie
 - Endliche obere Schranke für die Anzahl der kreuzweisen Abhängigkeiten (z.B. Wörter der Form: $x_1 \dots x_n \dots y_1 \dots y_n$)



Kategorialgrammatik

- Basiert auf Funktor-Argument-Strukturen
- Grundidee: Nicht nur Kategorien wie Noun & Verb, sondern auch *komplexe* Kategorien
- Komplexe Kategorien sind Phrasentypen, denen noch Teile fehlen können
 - S/VP : Funktor, der eine VP als Argument nimmt und einen Satz (S) liefert
 - V/(NP/S): Funktor, der ein Verb liefert und einen NP-Funktor nimmt, der einen Satz nimmt
 - Argument kann rechts oder links stehen:

A/B ... I need a B to my right to become an A

A \ B ... I need a B to my left to become an A



C-Grammatiken

$$G = \langle W, C, LX, R, CE \rangle$$

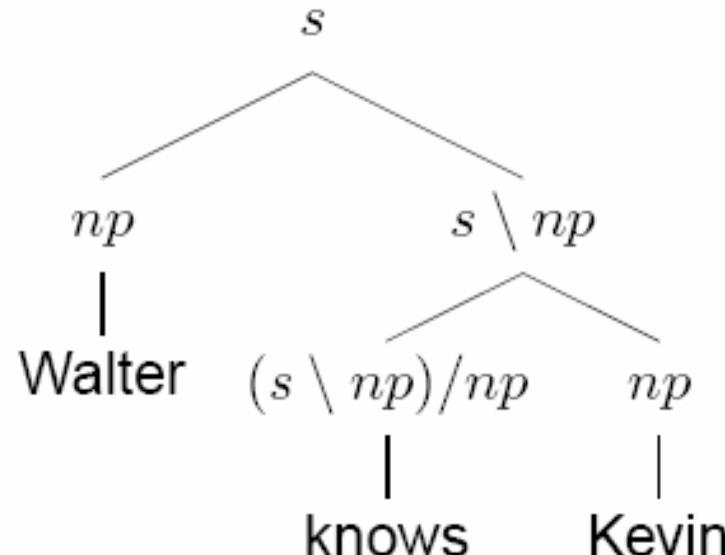
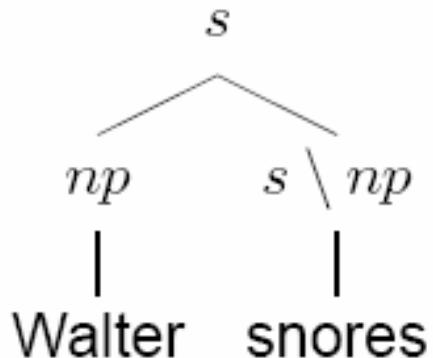
- W: endliche Menge von Wortformoberflächen
- C: Menge von Kategorien, rekursiv definiert nach
 - Vorbedingung: u,v aus C (elementare Kategorien)
 - Induktion: X,Y aus C \rightarrow (X/Y) und (X\Y) aus C
- LX: endliche Teilmenge von (W x C)
 - definiert welche Wörter welche Kategorien nehmen
 - Elemente geschrieben als A_Y, F_(Y/X)
- R: Regelmenge mit Regeln der Form
 - F_(X/Y) A_Y \rightarrow FA_X *(Cancellation)*
 - A_Y F_(X\Y) \rightarrow AF_X *(Backward Cancellation)*
- CE: Menge der Kategorien (aus C) vollständiger Ausdrücke



C-Grammatik - Beispiel

CE = {s}; LX =

- Walter, Kevin : np
- snores : s\np
- knows : (s\np)/np



C-Grammatiken

□ Probleme

- Kompliziert, komplex, ineffizient
- Nicht offensichtlich, wo in einer Eingabe die Ableitung beginnen soll
- Hoher Grad an lexikalischer Ambiguität nötig, um alternative Wortstellungen in Kategorien zu kodieren

□ Abgeleitete Formalismen

- Montague-Grammatik (MG)
- Functional Unification Grammar (FUG)
- Categorial Unification Grammar (CUG)
- Combinatory Categorial Grammar (CCG)
- Unification-based Categorial Grammar (UCG)

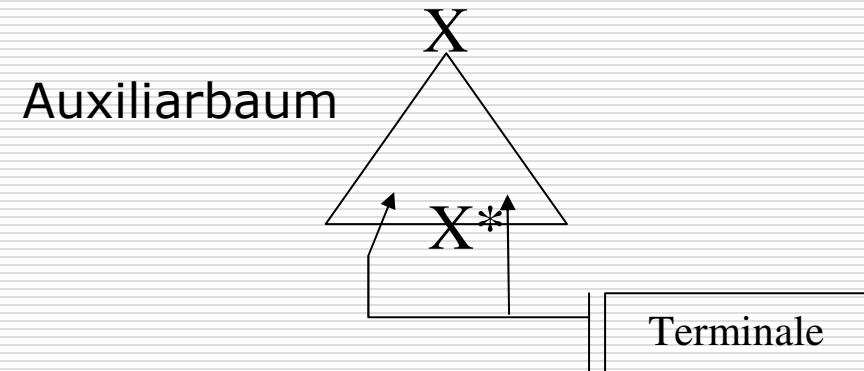
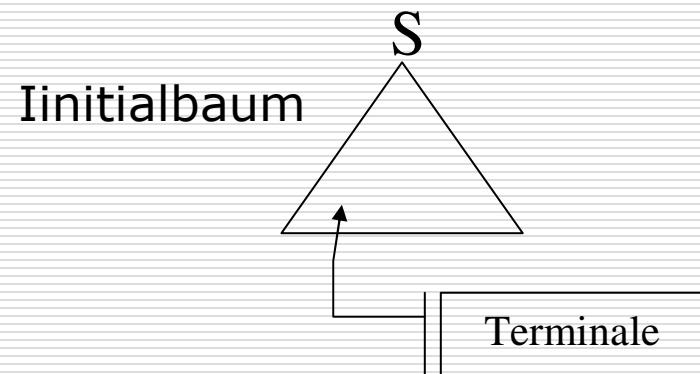


Baumadjunktionsgrammatiken

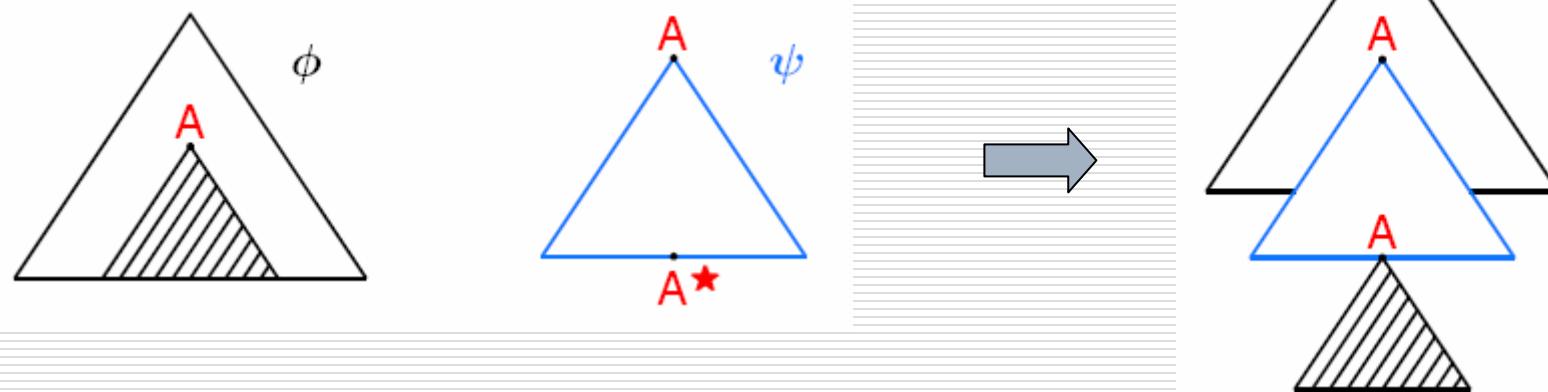
- *Tree Adjoining Grammars (TAG) (Joshi, 1985)*
 - Konkatenation als zweidimensionale Baumstruktur
- Zwei Baumarten:
 - *Initialbaum (IB)*: Wurzel=Startsymbol S, Blätter sind ausschließlich Terminalsymbole
 - *Auxiliarbaum (AB)*: Blätter sind beliebige Anzahl von Terminalsymbolen und genau ein Nichtterminal, dieses ist das gleiche wie die Wurzel des AB.
- IBs repräsentieren gültige Sätze der Sprache
- *Adjunktion* als Standardoperation:
 - AB kann einen beliebigen Teilbaum ersetzen, wenn er dessen Wurzel „matched“
 - Erzeugt komplexe Sätze (Bäume)



TAGs



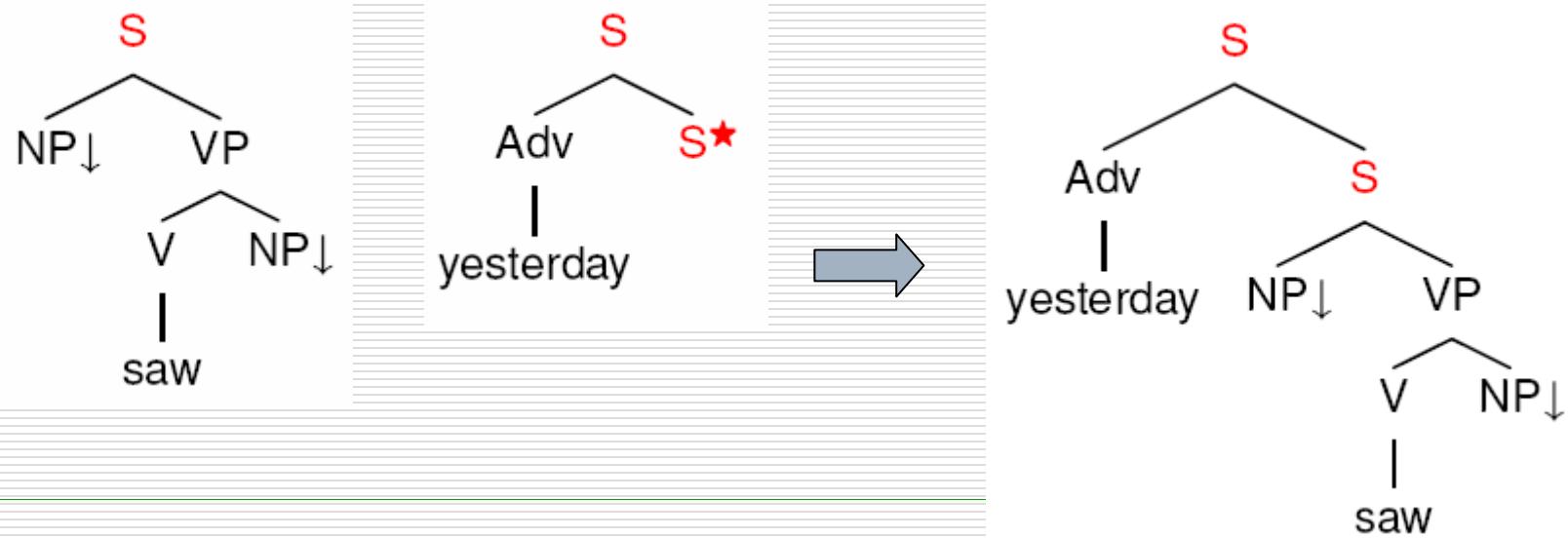
Adjunktion



TAG

□ $G = \langle N, T, I, A, S \rangle$

- N : Menge von Nichtterminalsymbolen
- T : Menge von Terminalsymbolen
- I : Menge von Initialbäumen
- A : Menge von Auxiliarbäumen
- S : Startsymbol aus N



TAGs

- Oftmals verwendet für natürliche Sprache
 - Große Menge an Elementarbäumen vorhanden
 - z.B. XTAG-Projekt
<http://www.cis.upenn.edu/~xtag/>

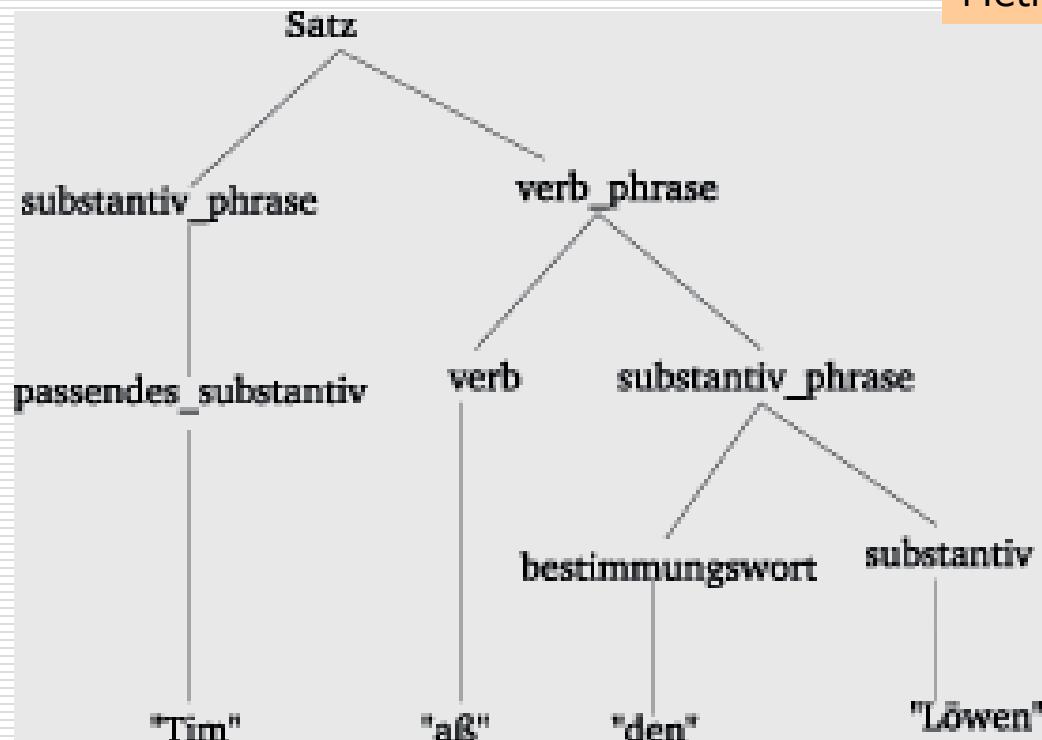
- Mächtigkeit:
 - können kontextabhängige Sprachen darstellen
 - können auch Bäume zuweisen, welche durch eine PSG nicht erzeugbar wären



Parson

- Suchen nach einer möglichen Ableitung eines Satzes in einer Grammatik
- Top-down, bottom-up, chart parser, ATN parser, ...
- Ergebnis: Ableitungsbaum
 - Beispiel für „*Tim aß den Löwen*“

Siehe z.B. VL „Spezielle Methoden der KI“



Semantic & discourse interpretation

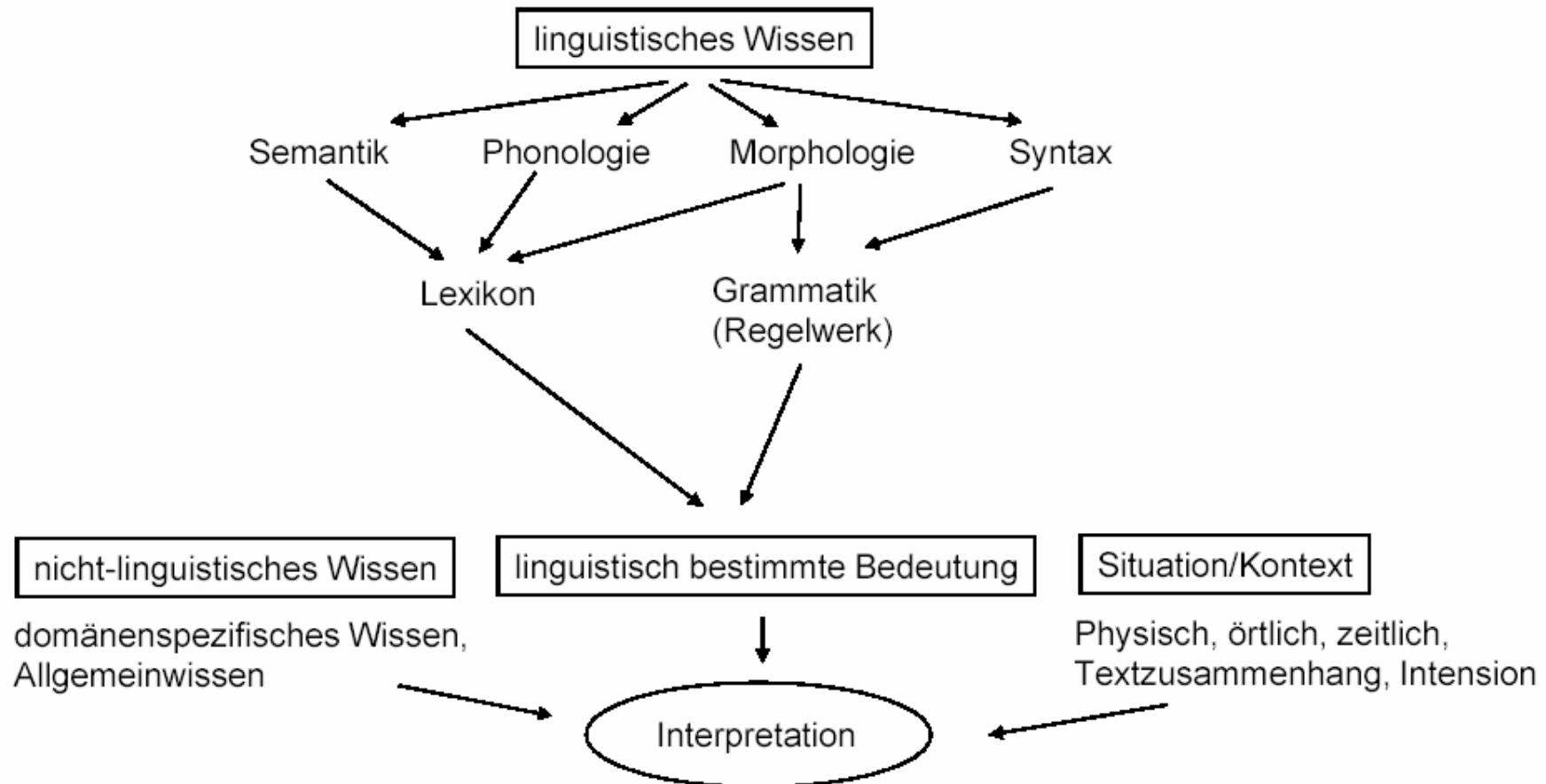
Lexical & compositional semantics
Discourse interpretation
Reference resolution
Intention recognition, speech act theory

Interpretation

- Aufgabe: *Bedeutungsrekonstruktion*
 - Was ist die *Bedeutung* der folgenden natürlich-sprachlichen Eingabekette: „*Er beginnt um zwei im Raum V2-122.*“
- Unterscheide:
 - *Semantisches Potential:* Linguistisch bestimmte Bedeutung, lässt sich allein mit linguistischem Wissen ermitteln
$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Begin}(e, t, l) \wedge \text{Event}(e) \wedge \text{Time}(t) \wedge \text{Location}(l) \\ & \wedge \text{Equal}(t, 2) \wedge \text{Room}(l, \text{V2-122}, ?b) \end{aligned}$$
 - *Aktueller semantischer Wert:* Volle Interpretation unter Anwendung nicht-linguistischen Wissens (Kontext, Domäne, Welt):
$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Begin}(e, t, l) \wedge \text{Event}(e) \wedge \text{Time}(t) \wedge \text{Location}(l) \\ & \wedge \text{Equal}(t, 2) \wedge \text{Room}(l, \text{V2-122}, ?b) \\ & \wedge \text{Talk}(e, s, l) \wedge \text{Professor}(s, \text{Cambridge}) \\ & \wedge \text{Name}(s, \text{Steven - Hawking}) \wedge \text{Building}(b, \text{Uni - Bielefeld}) \wedge \dots \end{aligned}$$



Interpretation



Semantic interpretation/analysis

Ziel: Bestimmung des semantischen Potenzials

- Umformung des *Parse-Baumes* in eine *interne Repräsentation* (z.B. Prädikatenlogik, Frames, ...)
- Zwei wesentliche Schritte:
 1. *Lexikalische Semantik*: Bestimmung der Bedeutung einzelner Wörter
 - Homonymie, Polysemie: bank/bank
 - Synonyme: big/large
 - Antonyme: boy/girl, hot/cold
 - Siehe z.B. *WordNet* (<http://wordnet.princeton.edu/>)
 2. *Satzsemantik*: Konstruktion der Gesamtbedeutung aus den Einzelbedeutungen (*kompositionelle Semantik*)



Satzsemantik

- *Kompositionalitätsproblem*: Wie kann die Satzsemantik auf Basis der syntaktischen Struktur ermittelt werden?

- *Tom arbeitet.* arbeitet(Tom)
 - *Jemand arbeitet.* $\exists x \text{ arbeitet}(x)$
 - *Jeder Student arbeitet.* $\forall x(\text{student}(x) \rightarrow \text{arbeitet}(x))$
 - *Kein Student arbeitet.* $\neg \exists x(\text{student}(x) \wedge \text{arbeitet}(x))$

Alle syntaktisch gleich (NP + intransitives Verb)

- häufig folgt man direkt der syntaktischen Struktur;
syntaktisch-semantisches Parsen

- Zerlegung in Parse-Baum enthält nicht nur syntaktische (NP, Verb, Nomen, ...), sondern auch semantische Kategorien (Personenname, Aktionsbeschreibung, etc.), z.B. C-Grammatiken
 - damit schon während des Parsens *interne Repräsentation* der Bedeutung aufgebaut



Discourse interpretation

Ziel: Von Satzsemantik zu Text-/Diskurssemantik

- Nötige Wissensquellen (über ling. Wissen hinaus):
 - Domänenwissen (banking transaction)
 - Diskurswissen (satzübergreifend)
 - Weltwissen (*Common-sense knowledge, Situationswissen*)

- Beispiel:

U: I would like to open a **fixed deposit account**.

S: For what amount?

U: Make **it** for **8000 Rupees**.

S: For what duration?

U: What is the **interest rate** for **3 months**?

S: Six percent.

U: Oh good then make **it** for **that duration**.



Discourse interpretation

- *Referenzauflösung*: worauf wird Bezug genommen bei...
 - ausgelassenen Wörtern (oder Phrasen)
 - Pronomen: "*John likes that blue car. He buys it.*"
 - Kontext nötig, um die Referenten von "*that blue car*", "*he*", und "*it*" zu bestimmen
 - Erst dann: likes(john, car1), buys(john, car1)
 - Auch bezeichnet als: Ko-Referenz, Anapher



Pronominale Referenz

- Auflösung nach *Salienz* der potentiellen Referenten
 - Neuheitswert, Wiederholungen
 - Grammatikalische Rolle (z.B. Subj > Obj)
 - Parallelen: „*Mary went with Sue to... Sally went with her to...*“
 - Verbsemantik: „*John telephoned Bill. He lost...*“ vs „*John criticized Bill. He lost...*“
- Beispiel: Diskursrepräsentationstheorie (Kamp & Reyle)
 - Beschränkungen für die Sichtbarkeit von Referenten
 - Hierarchische Diskursrepräsentation: pronominale Referenz nur auf gleicher oder höherer Ebene
- Siehe auch: Salienz-basierte Algorithmen in Jurafsky & Martin (S. 684 ff)



Weitere zentrale Fragen der Pragmatik

- *Intentionserkennung*: Was will der Sprecher?
 - "Do you have the time?" → will die Zeit wissen
 - "When is the last train to London?" → will nach London
- *Informationsstruktur*: Was ist neu?
- *Rhetorische und narrative Struktur*: Wie ist der Bezug zum vorher Gesagten?
- *Konversationsanalyse*: Mit welchen sprachlichen Mitteln wurde etwas erreicht?
→ Alles eine Theorie für sich.



Speech Act theory

- Austin 1962, *How to Do Things With Words*
 - some utterances don't just 'say', but 'do' something
 - *performative verbs*: explicate the action they take (promise, swear, ...)
- Searle 1969, *Speech Acts*
 - Different forces/acts of an utterance (locution)
 - *Locutionary act*: the act of uttering something
 - *Illocutionary force*: the action performed by the utterance
 - *Perlocutionary force*: the change it is meant to bring about
 - Example: "I'm cold."
 - Illuctionary act: *inform* the addressee that speaker is cold
 - Perlocutionary force: wish to have the window closed
 - Speech act is the expression of the *illocutionary force*
 - Basic speech acts: *request, inform, ask*



Intention recognition

- Goal:
to recognize the intent of each user utterance as one of a (usually limited) set of speech acts based on context information
- Sample dialogue actions:
 - Switchboard DAMSL (Allen)
 - Conventional-closing
 - Statement-(non-)opinion
 - Agree/Accept
 - Acknowledgment
 - Yes-No-Question/Yes-Answer
 - Non-verbal
 - Abandoned
 - Verbmobil
 - Greet/Thank/Bye
 - Suggest
 - Accept/Reject
 - Confirm
 - Clarify-Query/Answer
 - Give-Reason
 - Deliberate
- On-going standardization efforts
 - Discourse Resource Initiative
 - Allen's Multiparty discourse group
<http://www.cs.rochester.edu/research/cisd/resources/damsl>



Summary

- Von Sätzen, die John zu/über Fred sagt,...
 - "What is the time?"
 - "He has missed the train."
- ...können wir jetzt
 - Parsen → syntaktische Struktur
 - Auf strukturierte Repräsentation abbilden, die Inferenz erlaubt → linguistische bestimmte Semantik
 - Mit Wissen um Kontext und Ziele/Pläne vollständige Interpretation herleiten:
 - wants(john, know(john, time1))
 - believes(john, missed(fred, train2))



Geht's auch ohne Syntax und Semantik?

Ja, z.B. mit "*keyword-spotting*":

- durchsuchen der Benutzereingabe nach bestimmten Schlüsselworten, z.B. "Wetter"
- generieren einer Antwort, die zum Schlüsselwort paßt
- Grundlage vieler *Chatterbots*
 - Eliza (Weizenbaum, 1969), die Mutter aller chatterbots
 - ALICE (<http://www.alicebot.org/>)
 - Anna (www.ikea.de)
 - ...
- bereits bei einfachen syntaktischen Kniffen überfordert

Benutzer: "Ich möchte auf keinen Fall über's Wetter reden!"

Bot: "Gern! Hier in Bielefeld regnet es mal wieder."



Natural Language generation

E. Reiter & R. Dale (2000) *Building Natural Language Generation Systems*. Cambridge University Press.

What is NLG?

- Goal:
 - produces understandable and appropriate output in natural language, possibly along with prosodic information
- Input:
 - some underlying non-linguistic representation of information
- Output:
 - text to speak, prosodic information
- Knowledge sources required:
 - linguistic knowledge (of language)
 - domain and world knowledge



Language Generation

- Simplest generation method is using *templates*, mapping representation straight to text template (with variables/slots to fill in).
 - $\text{loves}(X, Y) \rightarrow X \text{ "loves" } Y$
 - $\text{gives}(X, Y, Z) \rightarrow X \text{ "gives the" } Y \text{ "to" } Z$
- Templates are very rigid, much more to NLG in general..
 - Consider “John eats the cheese. John eats the apple. John sneezes. John laughs.”
 - Better as “John eats the cheese and apple, then sneezes. He then laughs.”
- Getting good style involves working out how to map many facts to one sentence, when to use pronouns, when to use “connectives” like “then” etc.



Language Generation

- Serious language generation involves deciding
 - what to say
 - how to order and structure it
 - how to break it up into sentences
 - how to refer to objects (using pronouns, and expressions like "the cat" etc)
 - How to express things in terms of grammatically correct sentences
- Often starting point is a *communicative goal*

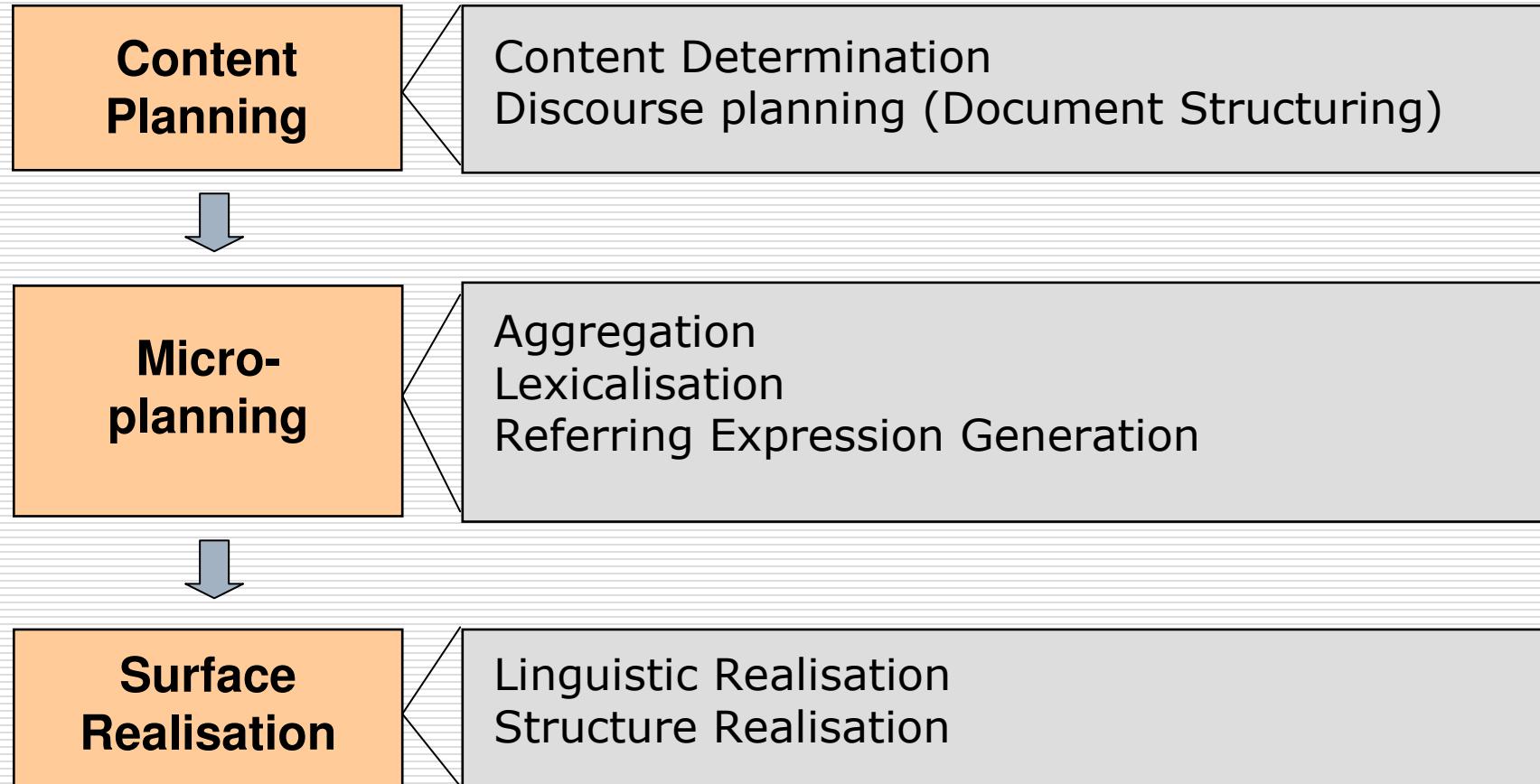


Why is NLG hard?

- Linguistics does not provide us with a precise theory about how to make such choices
- The choices to be made interact with one another in complex ways
- Many results of choices (e.g. text length) are only visible at the end of the process
- There doesn't seem to be any simple and reliable way to order the choices



Tasks in NLG



1. Content Planning

Goals:

- to determine what information to communicate (content)
- to determine how to structure this information to make a coherent text/discourse

Results: messages, predefined data structures that...

- correspond to informational elements (units)
- collect underlying data in ways convenient for ling. expression
- Essentially, a domain-dependent expert-systems-like task
- Common approaches:
 1. based on observations about common utterance structures
 2. based on reasoning about discourse coherence and the purpose of the utterance



1b. Discourse planning via *schemas*

Basic idea (McKeown 1985):

- texts often follow conventionalized patterns
- can be captured by means of 'text grammars' that dictate content and structure
- specify how a content plan can be constructed using smaller schemas or atomic messages
 - can specify degrees of variability and optionality
- currently the most popular content planning approach in applied NLG systems



1b. Discourse planning via reasoning

□ Observation:

- discourse coherent by virtue of relationships between their parts – relationships like *narrative sequence*, *elaboration*, *justification* ...

□ Approach:

- segment knowledge of what makes a discourse coherent into separate rules
- use these rules to dynamically compose utterance from constituent elements by reasoning about the role of these elements in the overall discourse



1b. Discourse planning via explicit reasoning

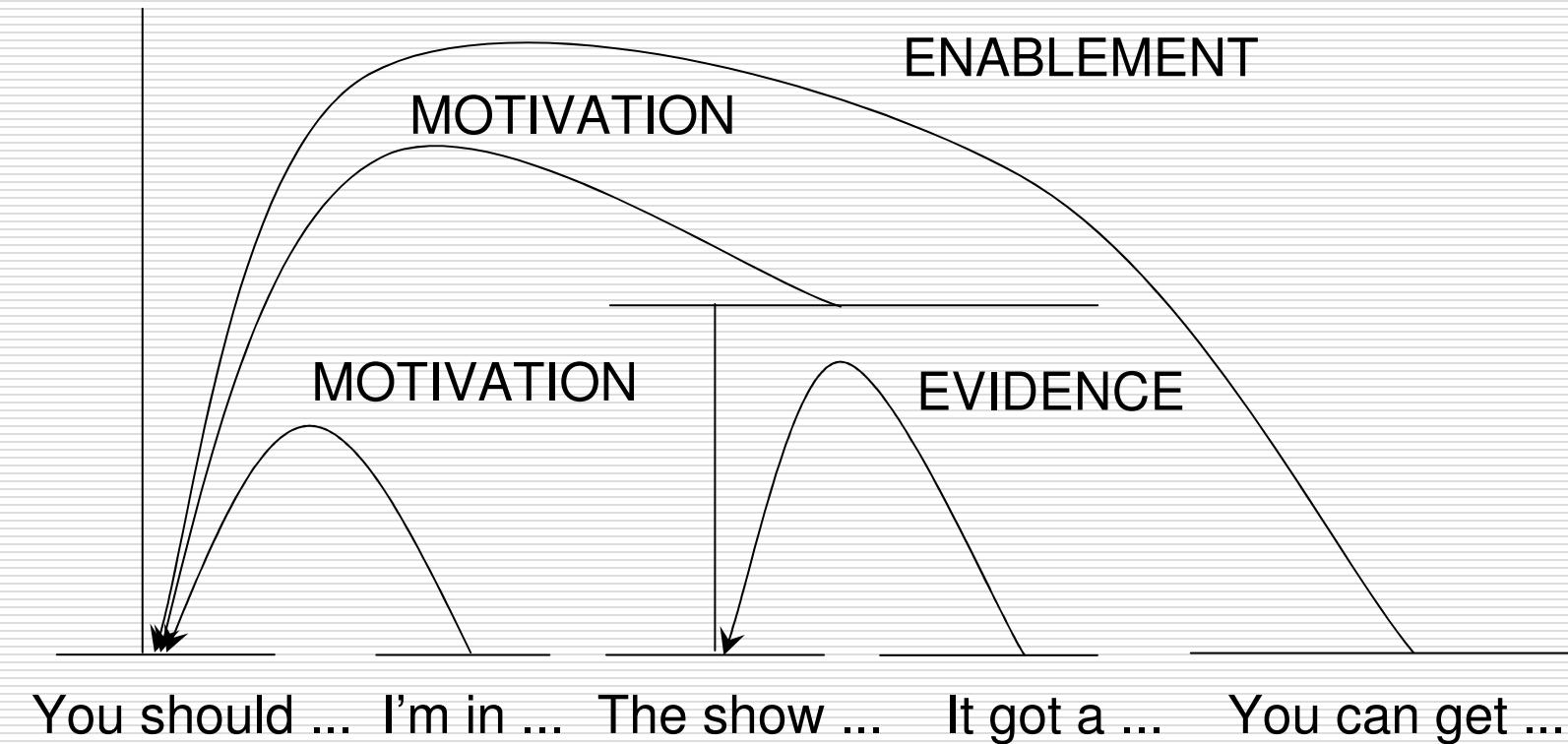
- Adopt AI planning techniques:
 - Goal = desired communicative effect(s)
 - Plan constituents = messages or structures that combine messages (subplans)
- Can involve reasoning about addressee's beliefs, e.g. using modal logics
- Often based on *Rhetorical Structure Theory* (RST) (Mann et al., 1983; <http://www.sfu.ca/rst/>)
 - every part of a coherent text has some function, some relationship to another part (e.g. *elaborate* a previous part)
 - distinction between *nucleus*, the central segment, and the *satellite*, the less central and more peripheral one
 - many relations asymmetric, defined in terms of constraints on nucleus, satellite, and their combination

See also: Seminal work on discourse structure by Webber (78/83); Grosz (77); Sidner (79/83)



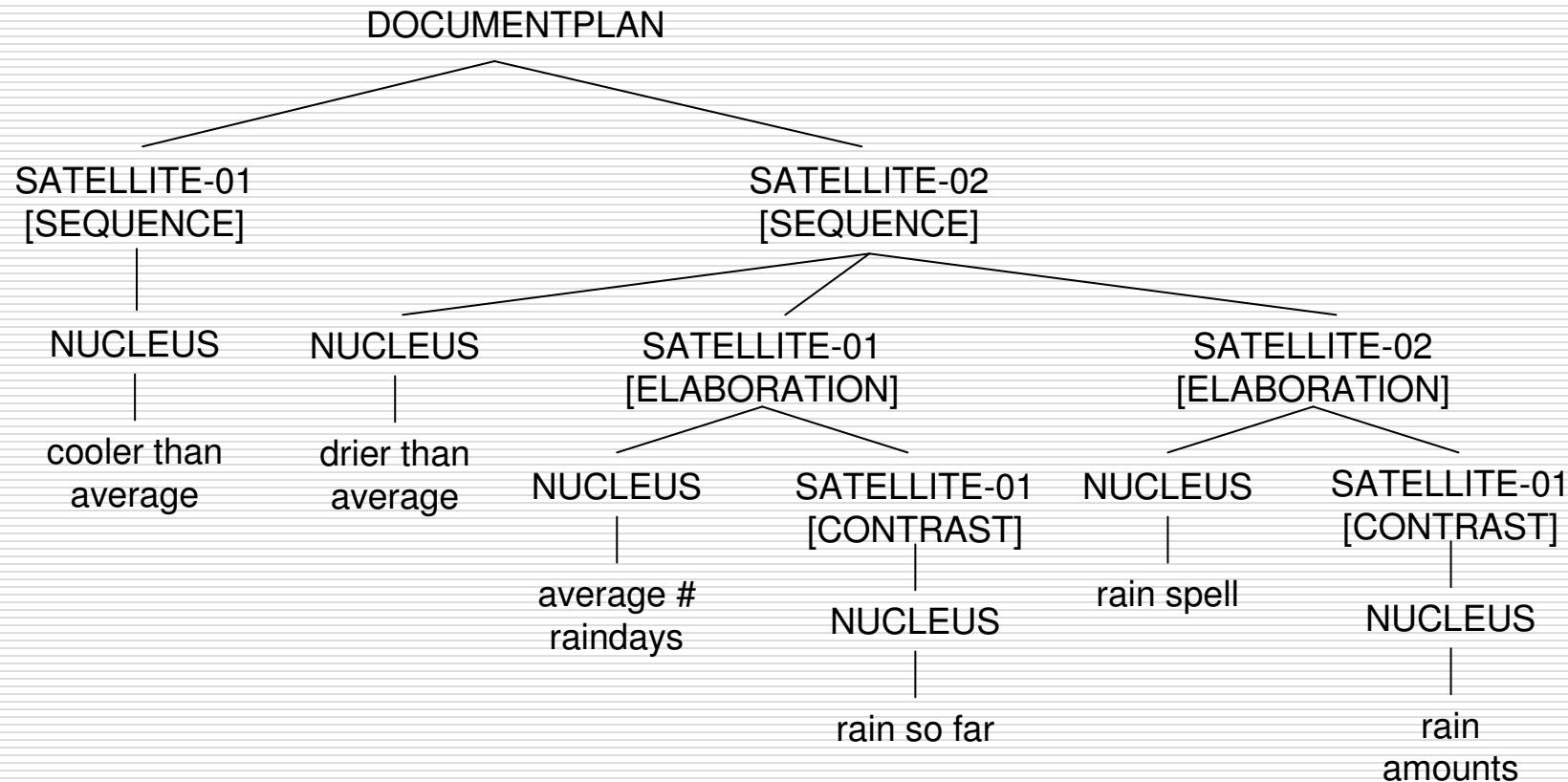
Rhetorical relations from RST

Elaboration, Contrast, Condition, Purpose, Sequence, Result, ...
(inventory of 23 relations)



Content plan (aka. document plan)

- Tree structure with messages at its leaf nodes
- Example from *WeatherReporter* system (Reiter et al.):



2. Microplanning

A lot of (older) systems leave this out, but then *generation gap*: discrepancy between the actual content plan and the expected input of the surface realization process

Goal:

- Close that gap! - convert a content plan into a sequence of sentence or phrase specifications

Tasks:

- Aggregation
- Lexicalisation
- Reference



2a. Aggregation

Example – noun phrase design

- A noun phrase can convey an arbitrary amount of information:

- *someone* vs
- *a designer* vs
- *an old designer* vs
- *an old designer with red hair* vs
- ...

Example – clausal structure construction

- Multiple messages can be conveyed by one sentence
 - *Heavy rain fell on the 27th. Heavy rain fell on the 28th.* vs
 - *Heavy rain fell on the 27th and 28th.* vs
 - ...



2a. Aggregation - some possibilities

- aggregation via simple *conjunction*:
 - Heavy rain fell on the 27th and heavy rain fell on the 28th.
- aggregation via *ellipsis*:
 - Heavy rain fell on the 27th and [] on the 28th.
- aggregation via *set introduction*:
 - Heavy rain fell on [the 27th and 28th].

Without aggregation:

- March had a rainfall of 120mm. It was the wettest month.
- aggregation via *embedding*:
 - March, which was the wettest month, had a rainfall of 120mm.



2a. Aggregation - some heuristics

There are usually many ways to aggregate a given message set: how do we choose?

- conform to genre conventions and rules
 - for example, only aggregate messages which are siblings in the document plan tree
- observe structural properties
 - for example, only aggregate messages which are siblings in the document plan tree
- take account of pragmatic goals
 - be emphatic, make the text friendlier
 - make the text easier for poor readers
 - ...



2b. Lexicalisation

- The process of choosing words to communicate the information in messages
- If several lexicalisations are possible, consider:
 - user knowledge and preferences
 - consistency with previous usage
 - in some cases, it may be best to vary lexemes
 - interaction with other aspects of microplanning
 - pragmatics
 - It is encouraging that you have many reasons to stop.
(more precise meaning)
 - It's good that you have a lot of reasons to stop.
(lower reading level)



2c. Referring expression generation

How to refer to specific domain objects and entities?

Two issues:

1. *Initial* introduction of an object into the discourse

- use a full name: *Jeremy*
- relate to an object that is already salient: *Jane's goldfish*
- specify location: *the goldfish in the bowl on the table*
(not really well understood)

2. *Subsequent* references to an already known and salient object

- Pronouns: *It swims in circles.*
- Definite NPs: *The goldfish swims in circles.*
- Proper names, possibly abbreviated: *Jeremy swims in circles.*



2c. Choosing a form of reference

Some suggestions from the literature:

- use a pronoun if it refers to an entity mentioned in the previous clause, and there is no other entity in the previous clause that the pronoun could refer to
- otherwise use a name, if a short one exists
- otherwise use a definite NP

Also important to conform to genre conventions –
for example, there are more pronouns in
newspaper articles than in technical manuals



3. Surface realisation

Goal:

to convert text specifications into actual text

Purpose:

to hide the peculiarities of English (or whatever the target language is) from the rest of the NLG system

Tasks:

Structure realisation

- Choose markup to convey document structure

Linguistic realisation

- Insert function words
- Choose correct inflection of content words
- Order words within a sentence
- Apply orthographic rules



3b. Linguistic realisation - techniques

Use handcrafted templates

- Ex: “shallow” generation with *TG/2* (DFKI) (Busemann, 1996,98)
 - Canned text, templates and context free rules
 - All expressed as production rules whose actions are determined by conditions on input structure (written in TGL)
 - Input structures specified in the *Generation Interface Language* (GIL)
 - Three-step processing cycle as in AI production systems on the available TGL rules:
 - identify all applicable rules,
 - select an applicable rule (e.g. according to preferences),
 - fire that rule
 - Output can easily include formatting elements



3b. Linguistic Realisation - techniques

Utilize *grammars* tuned for generation

- Provides a set of choices for realisation, made based on input text spec
- Grammar can *only* be used for NLG
- Important approaches
 - Systemic grammar
 - Functional unification grammar
 - Tree-adjoining grammar



Speech Output

- the NLG Perspective: enhances output possibilities
 - communicate via spoken channels (e.g. telephone)
 - add explicit information (e.g. emotion, importance)
- the speech synthesis perspective: intonation carries information
 - need information about syntactic structure, information status, homographs, focus, contrast etc.
 - currently obtained by text analysis
 - can be obtained from an NLG system automatically, the idea of *concept-to-speech*

