Towards a Standardized Dataset for Noun Compound Interpretation

Girishkumar Ponkiya*, Kevin Patel*, Pushpak Bhattacharyya*, Girish K Palshikar[†]

*Indian Institute of Technology Bombay, Mumbai, India {girishp,kevin.patel,pb}@cse.iitb.ac.in

[†]TRDDC, Pune, India gk.palshikar@tcs.com

Abstract

Noun compounds are interesting constructs in Natural Language Processing (NLP). Interpretation of noun compounds is the task of uncovering a relationship between component nouns of a noun compound. There has not been much progress in this field due to lack of a standardized set of relation inventory and associated annotated dataset which can be used to evaluate suggested solutions. Available datasets in the literature suffer from two problems. Firstly, the approaches to creating some of the relation inventories and datasets are statistically motivated, rather than being linguistically motivated. Secondly, there is little overlap among the semantic relation inventories used by them. We attempt to bridge this gap through our paper. We present a dataset that is (a) linguistically grounded by using Levi (1978)'s theory, and (b) uses frame elements of FrameNet as its semantic relation inventory. The dataset consists of 2,600 examples created by an automated extraction from FrameNet annotated corpus, followed by a manual investigation. These attributes make our dataset useful for noun compound interpretation in a general-purpose setting.

Keywords: noun compounds, compounds, interpretation, semantic relations.

1. Introduction

Noun compounds are continuous sequences of nouns that act as a single semantic construct. They raise interesting challenges in Natural Language Processing. Without proper interpretation and paraphrasing of noun compounds, NLP methods may fail miserably at different tasks. The meaning of a noun compound is composed of the meanings of the individual constituents and the way they are semantically related.

Noun compound interpretation is the task of detecting this underlying semantic relation (*e.g., student protest: student* \leftarrow AGENT \leftarrow *protest*). It is an important submodule for various NLP tasks such as machine translation (Baldwin and Tanaka, 2004; Balyan and Chatterjee, 2014), question answering (Ahn et al., 2005), *etc.*

Noun compound interpretation can manifest itself in two settings: out-of-context interpretation and contextdependent interpretation. In out-of-context interpretation, given the noun compound, the task is either to annotate it with a relation from a semantic relation inventory (*e.g., student protest*: AGENT), or to produce a paraphrase (*e.g., student protest*: "*protest carried out by student*").

Any automated approaches for noun compound interpretation need a semantic relation inventory of noun-noun relations and an annotated dataset on which models can be trained. However, there is little agreement among researchers regarding the set of relations that can hold between the constituents of a noun compound. None of the proposed semantic relation inventories has been accepted by the community as complete and appropriate for generalpurpose text. Some are coarse-grained, while others are fine grained. There is little overlap among them. Also, some of these inventories and their accompanying dataset are created from another application's perspective, and not for the sake of creating a noun compound dataset. Thus they cannot be used for learning noun compound interpretation in a general-purpose setting.

A dataset that can be used in general-purpose setting needs to be linguistically grounded. One such work is that of

Levi's, who claims that noun compounds are created either through predicate deletion or through predicate nominalization. For example, *student protest* and *student demonstration* are examples of predicate nominalization with heads as verbal form and nominalized form, respectively. *Orange juice* is an example of predicate deletion as connecting predicate (like, *made_of*) has been simply dropped while creating the compound. We ground our dataset on this theory.

FrameNet is a lexical resource based on the theory of frame semantics. Among other things, it captures predicate-argument interactions. Such information can be used for compounding. For instance, *border camp* with RESIDENCE:LOCATION and *rescue attempt* with AT-TEMPT:GOAL are examples of predicate deletion and predicate nominalization, respectively, with corresponding frame and frame-element as labels. Intuitively, the frame elements are descriptive enough of the relation between the predicate and argument.

One can use FrameNet information – definition and examples of frame elements – to develop a system for automatic interpretation. In addition, one can use FrameNet dataset (annotated at sentence level) to add-on the frame element prediction for noun compounds. One can also use the hierarchy of frame elements (defined along with frame relations) to generalize the semantic relations. Thus, through this paper, we release a dataset¹ that is linguistically grounded (by Levi's theory) and uses frame elements as a semantic relation inventory.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows: Section 2. covers some background needed for further discussion. Section 3. discusses other semantic relation inventories, highlighting their shortcomings. Section 4. discusses the creation and statistics of our dataset. Section 5. presents several observations during this activity, followed by the conclusion and future work.

¹Available at http://www.cfilt.iitb.ac.in/ standard_nc_sr

2. Background

A noun compound can be of any length. A typical way for interpretation of longer (having more than two components) is parsing it to get a binary tree based on headmodifier pairs and interpret each internal node of the tree with two children of the node as components. For example, parse trees (in bracketed form) for "*plastic water bottle*" and "*water bottle cap*" are as follows:

[plastic [water bottle]] [[water bottle] cap]

After parsing, the problem reduces to the interpretation of two components of each internal node. In literature, most work focuses on the interpretation of noun-noun compounds, *i.e.*, noun compounds composed of two nouns. In the rest of this paper, by noun compound, we mean nounnoun compounds.

For representation of the semantic relation between the components of noun compounds, there are two major ways:

- **Paraphrasing:** paraphrase a noun compound to show how the components are related (*e.g.*, *orange juice: "juice made of orange*", "*a drink consisting of the juice from oranges*", *etc.*) (Butnariu et al., 2009; Hendrickx et al., 2013). There can be multiple paraphrases of a noun compound.
- Labeling: Assign a relation from a predefined set of abstract relations (*e.g.*, *orange juice*: SUB-STANCE/MATERIAL/INGREDIENT). (Levi, 1978; Warren, 1978; Tratz and Hovy, 2010)

Labeling is the most widely used representation in literature for noun compound. There are some attempts to paraphrase noun compounds. In between the two representation, researchers have also used scoring of template-based paraphrases for assigning abstract labels (Nakov, 2008; Nakov and Hearst, 2013).

2.1. FrameNet

FrameNet (Baker et al., 1998)² is a lexical database that shows usage of words in actual text based on annotated examples. It is based on a theory of meaning called Frame Semantics (Fillmore, 1976). The theory claims that meanings of most words can be inferred from a semantic frame: a conceptual structure that denotes the type of event, relation, or entity and the involved participants. For example, the concept of walking involves a person walking (SELF_MOVER), the PATH on which walking occurs, the DIRECTION in which the walking occurs, and so on. In FrameNet, this information is represented by a frame called SELF_MOTION. SELF_MOVER, PATH, DIRECTION, etc. are called frame elements (FEs). Such frames are invoked in running text via words known as lexical units (LUs). Continuing the above example, some of the lexical units for the frame SELF_MOTION are advance, crawl, dash, drive, march, run, walk, etc. Most LUs are verbs. But, it can be a noun or an adjective, too.

²https://framenet.icsi.berkeley.edu

An example sentence in FrameNet annotated data contains a target word along with linked LU, arguments of the target, and an FE for each of the targets. The following is an example of SELF_MOTION frame with *march.v* LU:

[$_{Time}$ On Jan. 15] [$_{Self_mover}$ up to 20,000 students and pacifists] MARCHED^{Target} [$_{Path}$ through Madrid].

In this work, we generate noun compounds from the FrameNet annotated sentences, and assign FEs as semantic relations. For example, from the above sentence, we generate *student march*: SELF_MOVER, *pacifist march*: SELF_MOVER and *Madrid march*: PATH.

3. Related Work

For interpretation (as well as other) tasks, we need a representation of semantic relations (SRs) which is based on linguistic intuition. Many inventories of abstract relations have been proposed over the years. But, we found that each inventory had some shortcoming.

Levi (1978)'s study on noun compound generation is the most influential one. The study categorizes noun compounds based on the compounding process as (1) predicate deletion, where a predicate between the components is simply dropped to create a compound, and (2) predicate nominalization, where the head is nominalized form of a verb and modifier is an argument of the verb. They proposed a set of abstract predicates for the former category, but no labels for the latter category.

In contract to Levi (1978)'s study, Warren (1978) proposed a four-level hierarchy of semantic relations based on analysis of the Brown corpus. Nastase and Szpakowicz (2003) extended Warren (1978)'s approach. Their proposed set of relations is also based on Barker and Szpakowicz (1998)'s semantic relations.

Barker and Szpakowicz (1998)'s proposed set of relations based on Levi (1978)'s theory and Warren (1978)'s inventory. They claim that SRs in their inventory are the most widely used and can improve with time. Kim and Baldwin (2005) prepare a dataset for this inventory, but the dataset is highly imbalanced. For instance, out of 20 relations, TOPIC relation has 42% examples and PURPOSE relation has 23% examples in contrast to less than 10 examples of 3 SRs.

Vanderwende (1994) used 13 relations based on the syntactical category and types of questions. Girju et al. (2005) provided another inventory of semantic relation based on Moldovan et al. (2004)'s semantic relation in noun phrases. But, most examples in the dataset uses prepositions as SRs. Also, fourteen of total thirty-five SRs has not any example in their dataset, and seven more SRs has less than 1% examples. For an inventory of SRs, if an SR has no example, then it raises a question on the base of the inventory.

Ó Séaghdha and Copestake (2009) proposed an inventory of SRs based on RDP (recoverable deleted predicates) of Levi (1978). Along with five SRs for compositional NCs – the meaning of the compound is composed of the meaning of the components – they proposed five more SRs for other categories like lexicalized compounds, wrongly tagged compounds. The five compositional SRs has been further categories in total eleven categories. They have also prepared a dataset with 1443 examples for the five coarsegrained and eleven fine-grained relations.

In addition to the above-mentioned dataset for the general domain, Rosario et al. (2002) proposed an inventory of SRs for medical domain.

Tratz and Hovy (2010) claims that they have a created a new inventory of semantic relations by comparing and consolidating the existing inventories. But, in contract, their inventory creation process is an iterative process to improve inter-annotator agreement. Ponkiya et al. (2016) reports many problems with this inventory.

Unfortunately, these inventories are not used in actual scenarios which need an interpretation of noun compounds. For instance, Balyan and Chatterjee (2014) shows how the interpretation of NCs can help automatic machine translation (MT). But, they didn't use any existing repository. We now propose our dataset.

4. Proposed Dataset

In this version of the dataset, we generate only noun-noun compounds (noun compounds with only 2 components).

4.1. Dataset Fields

Our dataset contains the following fields:

- 1. w_1 : The first word of the noun compound.
- 2. w_2 : The second word of the noun compound.
- 3. Frame: ID and name of the frame from which the example was created.
- 4. FE: ID and name of the frame element from which the example was created.
- 5. KB05: Label in Kim and Baldwin (2005)'s dataset (hereafter, KB05) (NA if not found).
- 6. OS09: Label in Ó Séaghdha and Copestake (2009)'s dataset (hereafter, OS09) (NA if not found).
- 7. TH10: Label in Tratz and Hovy (2010)'s dataset (hereafter, TH10) (NA if not found).
- 8. Type: Type of noun compound according to Levi's theory.

4.2. Dataset Creation

The dataset was created in two phases: an automated phase where candidate noun compounds are extracted from FrameNet annotated corpus, followed by a manual phase where we annotate each candidate according to Levi's theory.

Automated Phase

In this phase, we take the example sentences for each frame F from FrameNet. Each example sentence is processed as follows:

- 1. Find the target word T
- 2. Let S_T be the set of all possible verbal forms and nominalized forms of T

- 3. For each chunk C annotated with frame element E
 - (a) Let H be the head word of the dependency parse of the chunk C
 - (b) If $\langle H, W \rangle$ occur in either KB05, OS09, or TH10 (where $W \in S_T$)
 - Output $\langle H, W \rangle$ as candidate NC, along with F, E, and labels in KB05, OS09, or TH10

Consider the example sentence from the frame PROTEST:

The civil was that began in February with [$_{Degree}$ mass] PROTESTS^{Target} [$_{Issue}$ against Kadafi 's rule] had paralyzed the industry.

Here, the target word is *protest*. The chunk *mass* is annotated with frame element DEGREE, and the word itself is the head word. $\langle mass \ protest \rangle$ is present only in TH10, thus the process outputs $\{mass, \ protest, \ PROTEST, \ DEGREE, NA, NA, COMMUNICATOR_OF_COMMUNICATION\}.$

Similarly, the chunk "against Kadafi's rule" is annotated with frame element ISSUE, and has rule as the head word. However $\langle rule \ protest \rangle$ is not present in either KB05, OS09, or TH10. Thus, we do not consider it as a candidate noun compound.

Note that a candidate noun compound can be generated from more than one frames, thereby having multiple {frame_i, frame_element_i} labels. In that case, we repeat the candidate noun compound, once for each label.

Manual Phase

In this phase, we check the correctness of labels (especially, frame and FE) manually. For example, consider the following annotated sentence:

If the scientists are right, then a major clue about how [$_{Entity}$ cancer] DEVELOPS^{Target} [$_{Place}$ in children] has been found.

The previous automated phase generates *children development* as a candidate noun compound with the label {COMING_TO_BE, PLACE}. But, in general, usage of *children development* means "*development of children*", and not "*development in children*". We simply drop such noun compounds.

Then, each of these candidate NCs were manually annotated as follows:

- PD: The candidate is an NC created through predicate deletion. Examples: *orange juice* (juice made of orange), *cricket bat* (bat made for cricket), *etc*.
- PN: The candidate is an NC created through predicate nominalization. Examples: *student protest, gender segregation, etc.*

4.3. Statistics

The final dataset contains 2,600 noun compounds, formed through the combination of 818 modifiers and 806 heads. The set of unique modifiers and heads contains 1401 words, with 223 words appearing both as modifiers and as heads. The total number of unique frames is 409. The total number of unique frame + frame-element combinations is 893.



Figure 1: An example of dependency parsing output from CoreNLP. For *government action*, the CoreNLP assigns compound (red-colored label). Using our approach, we can revise it as nsubj (in green color).

5. Discussion

Here, we discuss some of the advantages of creating the dataset in the proposed manner.

- In FrameNet, the hierarchy of FE (defined in addition to FE relations) can help generalization of the relations. For instance, our dataset has *student protest*: PROTESTER as an example. Using FE relations (*e.g.*, PROTESTER of PROTEST –ISA→ AGENT of INTENTIONALLY_ACT), we can infer *student protest*: AGENT.
- As each noun compound has been annotated with frame and FE, details of the corresponding frame and FE helps in paraphrasing the NC.
- On an average, the number of frames that can be invoked by a head of an NC is not too high (3.27 for our dataset). This limits the number of corresponding FEs, thereby reducing ambiguity. So, even though we have thousands of FEs in FrameNet, the actual search space for an NC is relatively small.
- Example of FEs from FrameNet annotated data can help in disambiguation of FEs for a given NC. For example, while labeling *fee-hike protest* with FEs of PROTEST frame, there may be confusion between IS-SUE and PURPOSE. In such case, examples of those FEs from FrameNet annotated data can help in disambiguation.
- We intended to create a dataset that can be used as a gold standard for further research in noun compound interpretation. Therefore, we tried to reduce false positives as much as possible, *i.e.*, ensure that a noun compound included in the dataset is labeled with correct frame and frame element. In the process, we decided to remove certain examples where the assigned label seemed to be a corner case. Consider the following example sentence:

[$_{Entity}$ The theater] PRESENTS^{Target} [$_{Phenomenon}$ sky shows and IMAX films]. be at the theatre. Thus, we do not include such examples in our dataset.

• This exercise also lead to fixing errors present in other datasets. For instance, Ó Séaghdha and Copestake (2009) states that their dataset contains noun compounds created only by predicate deletion. However, we observed that out of the 145 noun compounds that matched with their dataset, 25 were of the type predicate nominalization. For instance, they label *questionnaire reply* as predicate deletion, but it is an example of predicate nominalization.

6. Potential Applications

A direct application of this dataset that can benefit the community is its potential to enrich dependency parsing. We believe that a dependency parser can be modified to include noun compound detection, and then use the appropriate frame element to improve erroneously labeled arcs. The dependency parser from CoreNLP tool (Manning et

al., 2014)³ tags the dependecy between components of a compounds as compound. There are 50 different pairs (of parts of speech) which are connected with compound relation. Among instances of those 50 types, NOUN+NOUN appear around 53% times.⁴

For NOUN+NOUN compounds, we can extract such compounds, reparse the dependency (if required; in case of more than two consecutive nouns) and tag it with more meaningful dependency labels than the compound.

For instance, as shown in Fig. 1, CoreNLP tags government action as government $\stackrel{compound}{\leftarrow}$ action. The knowledge that government is an AGENT in INTENTIONALLY_ACT frame (invoked by action), can help the parser to correctly parse it as government $\stackrel{nsubj}{\leftarrow}$ action.⁵

7. Conclusion and Future Work

In this paper, we proposed a dataset for noun compound interpretation. The dataset is linguistically grounded using Levi's theory. It uses frames and frame elements of FrameNet as the semantic relation inventory. We took this steps with the goal of creating a standardized dataset, the

Our automated phase generates *theatre presentation* as a candidate noun compound, with the label {CAUSE_TO_PERCEIVE, ENTITY}, implying that the presentation is by the theatre. However, this seems like a corner case, as a presentation is more likely to

³https://stanfordnlp.github.io/CoreNLP ⁴http://universaldependencies.org/

treebanks/en/en-dep-compound.html

⁵As per guideline of nsubj relation. http:// universaldependencies.org/u/dep/nsubj.html

lack of which is severely affecting research in noun compound interpretation. Our dataset contains 2,600 examples. Each noun compound is annotated according to the type of noun compound (predicate deletion vs predicate nominalization), the frame and frame element through which the noun compound was created in the first place, and its label in three other datasets. We also discussed how this dataset could be useful to improve dependency parsers.

In the future, we will extend this dataset to include more noun compounds. Currently, we severely restricted our dataset size by considering only those noun compounds that occur in other datasets as valid noun compounds. For example, out of the 259 candidates generated automatically, a manual investigation suggested 58 valid noun compounds. However, our restrictions led to the inclusion of only six noun compounds. Thus, there is a scope for including many more noun compounds. We will also investigate whether the set of frame elements applicable to noun compounds is a proper subset of the entire set of frame elements.

8. Acknowledgments

We thank CFILT members at IIT Bombay for their valuable comments and suggestions. This work is funded by Tata Consultancy Services Limited (TCS) under NGIE (Next Generation Information Extraction) with project code 13TCSIRC001.

9. Bibliographical References

- Ahn, K., Bos, J., Kor, D., Nissim, M., Webber, B. L., and Curran, J. R. (2005). Question answering with QED at TREC 2005. In *Text REtrieval Conference*.
- Baker, C. F., Fillmore, C. J., and Lowe, J. B. (1998). The Berkeley FrameNet project. In *COLING-ACL '98: Proceedings of the Conference*, pages 86–90, Montreal, Canada.
- Baldwin, T. and Tanaka, T. (2004). Translation by machine of complex nominals: Getting it right. In *Proceedings* of the Workshop on Multiword Expressions: Integrating *Processing*, pages 24–31. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Balyan, R. and Chatterjee, N. (2014). Translating noun compounds using semantic relations. *Computer Speech & Language*.
- Barker, K. and Szpakowicz, S. (1998). Semi-automatic recognition of noun modifier relationships. In *Proceedings of the 17th international conference on Computational Linguistics-Volume 1*, pages 96–102. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Butnariu, C., Kim, S. N., Nakov, P., Ó Séaghdha, D., Sz-pakowicz, S., and Veale, T. (2009). Semeval-2010 task
 9: The interpretation of noun compounds using paraphrasing verbs and prepositions. In *Proceedings of the Workshop on Semantic Evaluations: Recent Achievements and Future Directions*, pages 100–105. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Fillmore, C. J. (1976). Frame semantics and the nature of language. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences: Conference on the Origin and Development of Language and Speech*, 280(1):20–32.

- Girju, R., Moldovan, D., Tatu, M., and Antohe, D. (2005). On the semantics of noun compounds. *Computer speech & language*, 19(4):479–496.
- Hendrickx, I., Nakov, P., Szpakowicz, S., Kozareva, Z., Séaghdha, D. O., and Veale, T. (2013). Semeval-2013 task 4: Free paraphrases of noun compounds. *Atlanta, Georgia, USA*, page 138.
- Kim, S. N. and Baldwin, T. (2005). Automatic interpretation of noun compounds using wordnet similarity. In *Natural Language Processing–IJCNLP 2005*, pages 945–956. Springer.
- Levi, J. N. (1978). *The syntax and semantics of complex nominals*. Academic Press New York.
- Manning, C. D., Surdeanu, M., Bauer, J., Finkel, J., Bethard, S. J., and McClosky, D. (2014). The Stanford CoreNLP natural language processing toolkit. In *Association for Computational Linguistics (ACL) System Demonstrations*, pages 55–60.
- Moldovan, D., Badulescu, A., Tatu, M., Antohe, D., and Girju, R. (2004). Models for the semantic classification of noun phrases. In *Proceedings of the HLT-NAACL Workshop on Computational Lexical Semantics*, pages 60–67. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Nakov, P. I. and Hearst, M. A. (2013). Semantic interpretation of noun compounds using verbal and other paraphrases. *ACM Transactions on Speech and Language Processing (TSLP)*, 10(3):13.
- Nakov, P. (2008). Noun compound interpretation using paraphrasing verbs: Feasibility study. In *Artificial Intelligence: Methodology, Systems, and Applications*, pages 103–117. Springer.
- Nastase, V. and Szpakowicz, S. (2003). Exploring nounmodifier semantic relations. In *Fifth International Workshop on Computational Semantics (IWCS-5)*, pages 285– 301.
- Ó Séaghdha, D. and Copestake, A. (2009). Using lexical and relational similarity to classify semantic relations. In *Proceedings of the 12th Conference of the European Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, pages 621–629. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Ponkiya, G., Bhattacharyya, P., and Palshikar, G. K. (2016). On why coarse class classification is a bottleneck for noun compound interpretation. In 13th International Conference on Natural Language Processing, page 293.
- Rosario, B., Hearst, M. A., and Fillmore, C. (2002). The descent of hierarchy, and selection in relational semantics. In *Proceedings of the 40th Annual Meeting on Association for Computational Linguistics*, pages 247–254. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Tratz, S. and Hovy, E. (2010). A taxonomy, dataset, and classifier for automatic noun compound interpretation.
 In *Proceedings of the 48th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, pages 678–687.
 Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Vanderwende, L. (1994). Algorithm for automatic interpretation of noun sequences. In *Proceedings of the* 15th conference on Computational linguistics-Volume 2,

pages 782–788. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Warren, B. (1978). Semantic patterns of noun-noun compounds. *Acta Universitatis Gothoburgensis. Gothenburg Studies in English Goteborg*, 41:1–266.