# Natural Language Processing with Deep Learning CS224N/Ling284



Christopher Manning and Richard Socher

Lecture 6: Dependency Parsing



#### **Lecture Plan**

- 1. Syntactic Structure: Consistency and Dependency
- 2. Dependency Grammar
- 3. Research highlight
- 4. Transition-based dependency parsing
- Neural dependency parsing

#### Reminders/comments:

Assignment 1 due tonight ©

Assignment 2 out today 🕾

Final project discussion – come meet with us

Sorry that we've been kind of overloaded for office hours



# Two views of linguistic structure: Constituency = phrase structure grammar context-free grammars (CFGs)

Phrase structure organizes words into nested constituents.

the cat

a dog

large in a crate

barking on the table

cuddly by the door



# 1. Two views of linguistic structure:

# Constituency = phrase structure grammar = context-free grammars (CFGs)

Phrase structure organizes words into nested constituents.

			NP-> Det N			
	the	cat	•			
	а	dog		Nra bet (A) N (PP)		
	lar	·ge	in a crate			
	ba	rking	on the table	pp-> p Np		
	cu	ddly	by the door	No.		
	large	barking	٨	1P -> Det A* N PP*		
talk to			1	P -> V PP		
look for			V	V		



# Two views of linguistic structure: Dependency structure

 Dependency structure shows which words depend on (modify or are arguments of) which other words.

Look for the large barking dog by the door in a crate



# Two views of linguistic structure: Dependency structure

 Dependency structure shows which words depend on (modify or are arguments of) which other words.





### **Ambiguity: PP attachments**

Scientists study whales from space



#### **Ambiguity: PP attachments**

Scientists study whales from space

Scientists study whales from space



#### **Attachment ambiguities**

- A key parsing decision is how we 'attach' various constituents
  - PPs, adverbial or participial phrases, infinitives, coordinations,

The board approved [its acquisition] [by Royal Trustco Ltd.]

[of Toronto]

[for \$27 a share]

[at its monthly meeting].



#### **Attachment ambiguities**

- A key parsing decision is how we 'attach' various constituents
  - PPs, adverbial or participial phrases, infinitives, coordinations,

The board approved [its acquisition] [by Royal Trustco Ltd.]

[of Toronto]

[for \$27 a share]

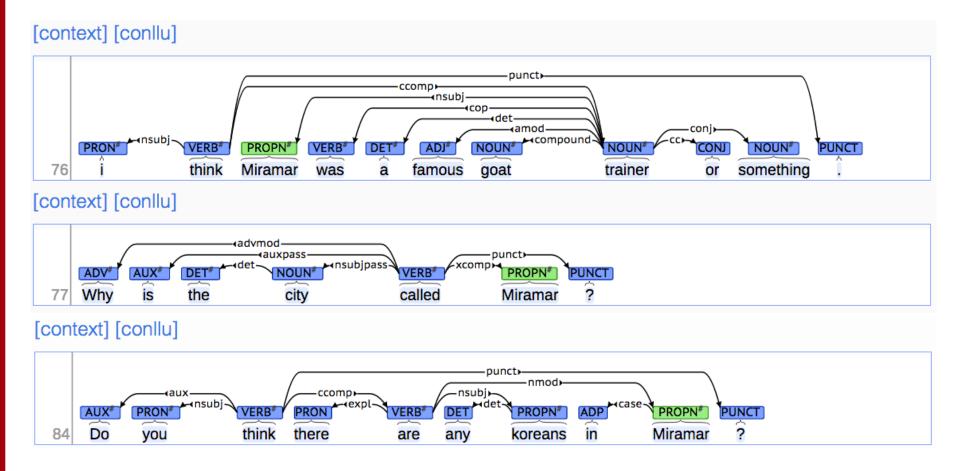
[at its monthly meeting].

- Catalan numbers:  $C_n = (2n)!/[(n+1)!n!]$
- An exponentially growing series, which arises in many tree-like contexts:
  - E.g., the number of possible triangulations of a polygon with n+2 sides
    - Turns up in triangulation of probabilistic graphical models....



# The rise of annotated data: Universal Dependencies treebanks

[Universal Dependencies: <a href="http://universaldependencies.org/">http://universaldependencies.org/</a>; cf. Marcus et al. 1993, The Penn Treebank, *Computational Linguistics*]





#### The rise of annotated data

Starting off, building a treebank seems a lot slower and less useful than building a grammar

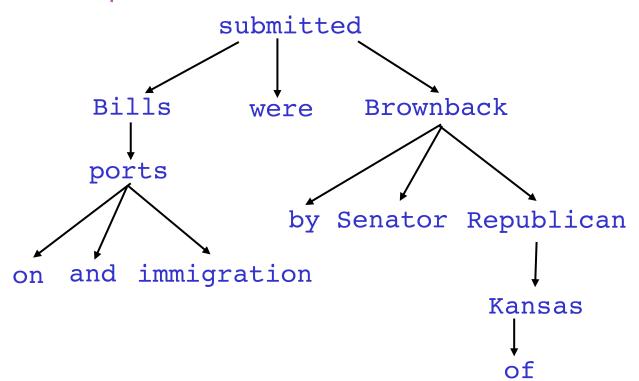
But a treebank gives us many things

- Reusability of the labor
  - Many parsers, part-of-speech taggers, etc. can be built on it
  - Valuable resource for linguistics
- Broad coverage, not just a few intuitions
- Frequencies and distributional information
- A way to evaluate systems



# 2. Dependency Grammar and Dependency Structure

Dependency syntax postulates that syntactic structure consists of relations between lexical items, normally binary asymmetric relations ("arrows") called dependencies

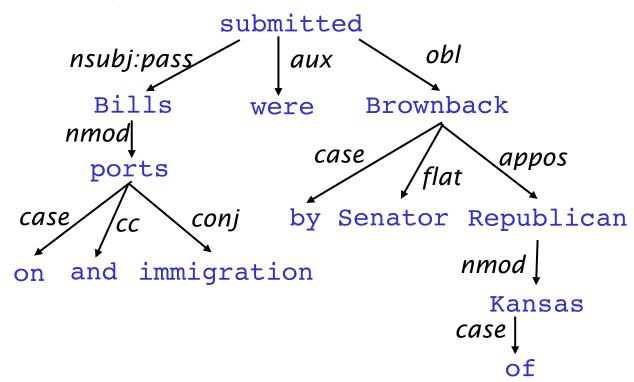




# **Dependency Grammar and Dependency Structure**

Dependency syntax postulates that syntactic structure consists of relations between lexical items, normally binary asymmetric relations ("arrows") called dependencies

The arrows are commonly typed with the name of grammatical relations (subject, prepositional object, apposition, etc.)



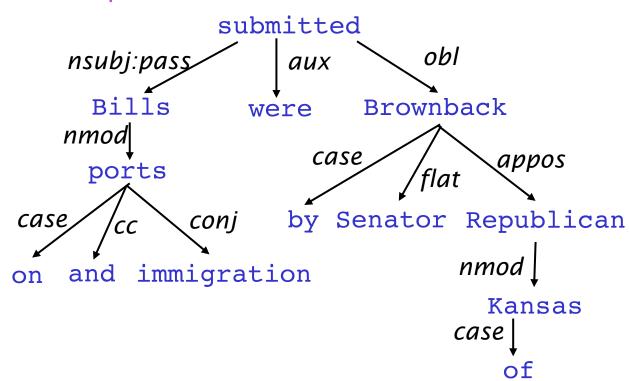


# **Dependency Grammar and Dependency Structure**

Dependency syntax postulates that syntactic structure consists of relations between lexical items, normally binary asymmetric relations ("arrows") called dependencies

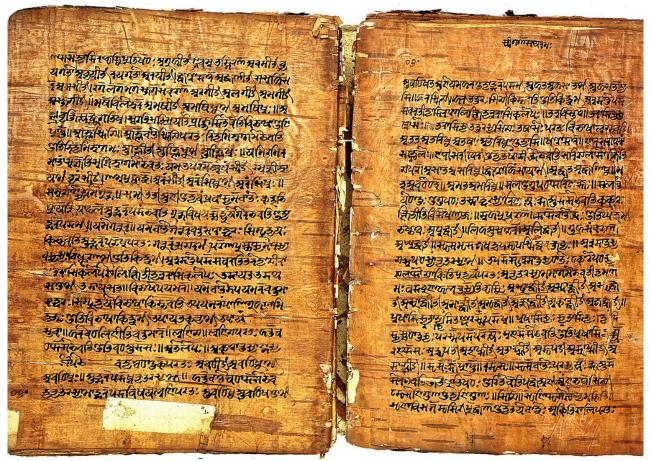
The arrow connects a head (governor, superior, regent) with a dependent (modifier, inferior, subordinate)

Usually, dependencies form a tree (connected, acyclic, single-head)





# Pāṇini's grammar (c. 5th century BCE)



Gallery: <a href="http://wellcomeimages.org/indexplus/image/L0032691.html">http://wellcomeimages.org/indexplus/image/L0032691.html</a>

CC BY 4.0 File:Birch bark MS from Kashmir of the Rupavatra Wellcome L0032691.jpg



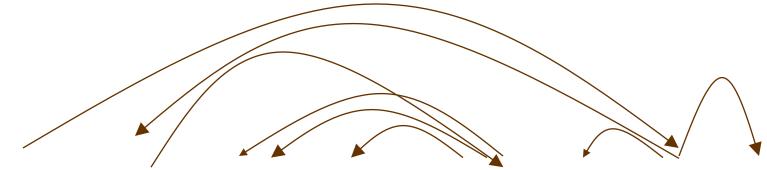
### **Dependency Grammar/Parsing History**

- The idea of dependency structure goes back a long way
  - To Pāṇini's grammar (c. 5th century BCE)
  - Basic approach of 1st millennium Arabic grammarians
- Constituency/context-free grammars is a new-fangled invention
  - 20th century invention (R.S. Wells, 1947)
- Modern dependency work often linked to work of L. Tesnière (1959)
  - Was dominant approach in "East" (Russia, China, ...)
    - Good for free-er word order languages
- Among the earliest kinds of parsers in NLP, even in the US:
  - David Hays, one of the founders of U.S. computational linguistics, built early (first?) dependency parser (Hays 1962)





# **Dependency Grammar and Dependency Structure**



ROOT Discussion of the outstanding issues was completed .

- Some people draw the arrows one way; some the other way!
  - Tesnière had them point from head to dependent...
- Usually add a fake ROOT so every word is a dependent of precisely 1 other node



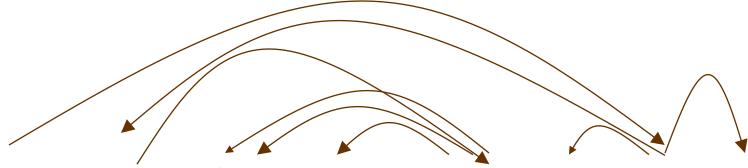
### **Dependency Conditioning Preferences**

What are the sources of information for dependency parsing?

- 1. Bilexical affinities [discussion  $\rightarrow$  issues] is plausible
- 2. Dependency distance mostly with nearby words
- 3. Intervening material

  Dependencies rarely span intervening verbs or punctuation
- 4. Valency of heads

How many dependents on which side are usual for a head?

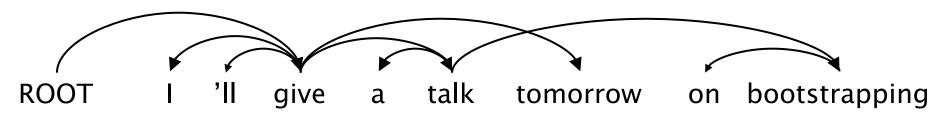


ROOT Discussion of the outstanding issues was completed .



#### **Dependency Parsing**

- A sentence is parsed by choosing for each word what other word (including ROOT) is it a dependent of
- Usually some constraints:
  - Only one word is a dependent of ROOT
  - Don't want cycles  $A \rightarrow B$ ,  $B \rightarrow A$
- This makes the dependencies a tree
- Final issue is whether arrows can cross (non-projective) or not





### **Methods of Dependency Parsing**

#### 1. Dynamic programming

Eisner (1996) gives a clever algorithm with complexity O(n<sup>3</sup>), by producing parse items with heads at the ends rather than in the middle

#### 2. Graph algorithms

You create a Minimum Spanning Tree for a sentence McDonald et al.'s (2005) MSTParser scores dependencies independently using an ML classifier (he uses MIRA, for online learning, but it can be something else)

#### 3. Constraint Satisfaction

Edges are eliminated that don't satisfy hard constraints. Karlsson (1990), etc.

4. "Transition-based parsing" or "deterministic dependency parsing" Greedy choice of attachments guided by good machine learning classifiers MaltParser (Nivre et al. 2008). Has proven highly effective.

# Improving Distributional Similarity with Lessons Learned from Word Embeddings

Omer Levy, Yoav Goldberg, Ido Dagan

Presented by: Ajay Sohmshetty

**Count-based distributional models** 

**Neural network-based models** 

#### **Count-based distributional models**

- SVD (Singular Value Decomposition)
- PPMI (Positive Pointwise Mutual Information)

#### **Neural network-based models**

- SGNS (Skip-Gram Negative Sampling)/ CBOW
- GloVe

#### **Count-based distributional models**

- SVD (Singular Value Decomposition)
- PPMI (Positive Pointwise Mutual Information)

#### **Neural network-based models**

- SGNS (Skip-Gram Negative Sampling)
  / CBOW
- GloVe

#### **Conventional wisdom:**

Neural-network based models > Count-based models

#### **Count-based distributional models**

- SVD (Singular Value Decomposition)
- PPMI (Positive Pointwise Mutual Information)

#### Neural network-based models

- SGNS (Skip-Gram Negative Sampling)/ CBOW
- GloVe

#### Levy et. al.:

Hyperparameters and system design choices more important, not the embedding algorithms themselves.

## Hyperparameters in Skip-Gram

$$J_t(\theta) = \log \sigma \left(u_o^T v_c\right) + \sum_{i=1}^k \mathbb{E}_{j \sim P(w)} \left[\log \sigma \left(-u_j^T v_c\right)\right]$$
 
$$P(w) = U(w)^{3/4}/Z$$

Unigram distribution smoothing exponent

→ These can be transferred over to the count-based variants.

## Context Distribution Smoothing

$$PMI_{\alpha}(w,c) = \log \frac{\hat{P}(w,c)}{\hat{P}(w)\hat{P}_{\alpha}(c)}$$
$$\hat{P}_{\alpha}(c) = \frac{\#(c)^{\alpha}}{\sum_{c} \#(c)^{\alpha}}$$

#### Shifted PMI

$$SPPMI(w,c) = \max(PMI(w,c) - \log k, 0)$$

### All Transferable Hyperparameters

**Preprocessing** 

Association Metric

**Postprocessing** 

	Hyperparameter	Explored Values	Applicable Methods		
	Window	2, 5, 10	All		
	Dynamic Context Window	None, with	All		
	Subsampling	None, dirty, clean	All		
	Deleting Rare Words	None, with	All		
	Shifted PMI	1, 5, 15	PPMI, SVD, SGNS		
	Context Distribution Smoothing	1, 0.75	PPMI, SVD, SGNS		
	Adding Context Vectors	Only w, w+c	SVD, SGNS, GloVe		
	Eigenvalue Weighting	0, 0.5, 1			
Vector Normalization		None, row, col, both	All		

## Results

	Word Similarity Tasks						Analogy Tasks		
win	Method	WordSim	WordSim	Bruni et al.	Radinsky et al.	Luong et al.	Hill et al.	Google	MSR
WIII		Similarity	Relatedness	MEN	M. Turk	Rare Words	SimLex	Add / Mul	Add / Mul
	PPMI	.732	.699	.744	.654	.457	.382	.552 / .677	.306 / .535
2	SVD	.772	.671	.777	.647	.508	.425	.554 / .591	.408 / .468
2	SGNS	.789	.675	.773	.661	.449	.433	.676 / <b>.689</b>	.617 / <b>.644</b>
	GloVe	.720	.605	.728	.606	.389	.388	.649 / .666	.540 / .591
	PPMI	.732	.706	.738	.668	.442	.360	.518 / .649	.277 / .467
_	SVD	.764	.679	.776	.639	.499	.416	.532 / .569	.369 / .424
5	SGNS	.772	.690	.772	.663	.454	.403	.692 / <b>.714</b>	.605 / <b>.645</b>
	GloVe	.745	.617	.746	.631	.416	.389	.700 / .712	.541 / .599
	PPMI	.735	.701	.741	.663	.235	.336	.532 / .605	.249 / .353
10	SVD	.766	.681	.770	.628	.312	.419	.526 / .562	.356 / .406
10	SGNS	.794	.700	.775	.678	.281	.422	.694 / .710	.520 / <b>.557</b>
	GloVe	.746	.643	.754	.616	.266	.375	.702 / <b>.712</b>	.463 / .519

## Key Takeaways

- This paper challenges the conventional wisdom that neural network-based models are superior to count-based models.
- While model design is important, hyperparameters are also KEY for achieving reasonable results. Don't discount their importance!
- Challenge the status quo!



# 4. Greedy transition-based parsing

#### [Nivre 2003]



- A simple form of greedy discriminative dependency parser
- The parser does a sequence of bottom up actions
  - Roughly like "shift" or "reduce" in a shift-reduce parser, but the "reduce" actions are specialized to create dependencies with head on left or right
- The parser has:
  - a stack σ, written with top to the right
    - which starts with the ROOT symbol
  - a buffer β, written with top to the left
    - which starts with the input sentence
  - a set of dependency arcs A
    - which starts off empty
  - a set of actions



### Basic transition-based dependency parser

Start: 
$$\sigma = [ROOT], \beta = w_1, ..., w_n, A = \emptyset$$

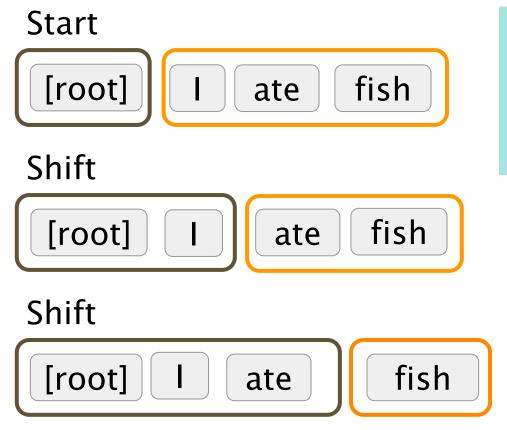
- 1. Shift  $\sigma, w_i | \beta, A \rightarrow \sigma | w_i, \beta, A$
- 2. Left-Arc<sub>r</sub>  $\sigma|w_i|w_j$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $A \rightarrow \sigma|w_j$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $A \cup \{r(w_j,w_i)\}$
- 3. Right-Arc<sub>r</sub>  $\sigma|w_i|w_j$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $A \rightarrow \sigma|w_i$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $A \cup \{r(w_i,w_j)\}$

Finish:  $\sigma = [w]$ ,  $\beta = \emptyset$ 



#### **Arc-standard transition-based parser**

(there are other transition schemes ...)
Analysis of "I ate fish"

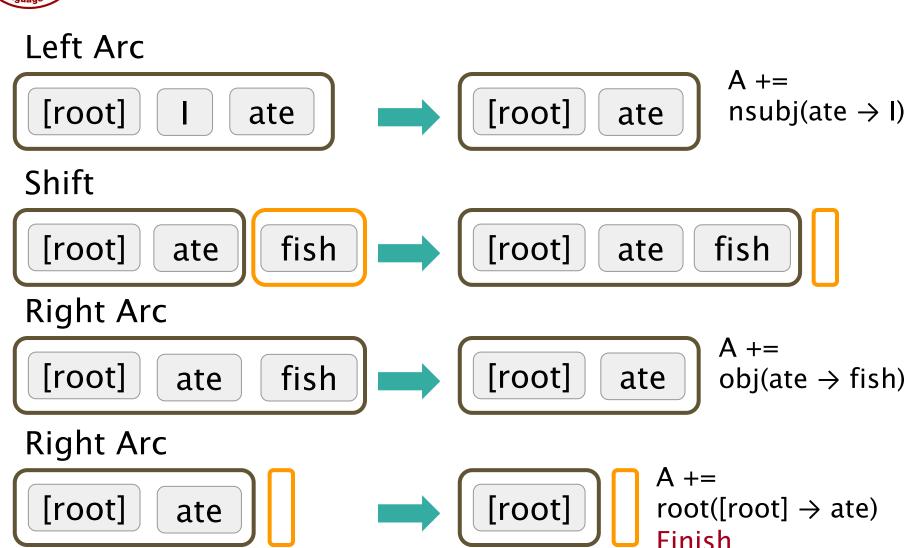


```
Start: \sigma = [ROOT], \beta = w_1, ..., w_n, A = \emptyset
1. Shift \sigma, w_i | \beta, A \rightarrow \sigma | w_i, \beta, A
2. Left-Arc<sub>r</sub> \sigma | w_i | w_j, \beta, A \rightarrow \sigma | w_i, \beta, A \rightarrow
```



### **Arc-standard transition-based parser**

Analysis of "I ate fish"





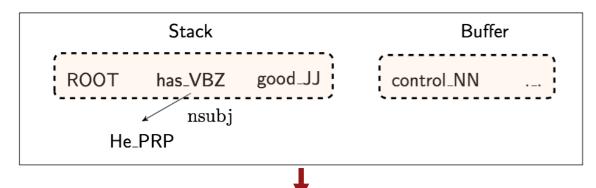
#### **MaltParser**

#### [Nivre and Hall 2005]

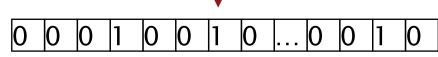
- We have left to explain how we choose the next action
- Each action is predicted by a discriminative classifier (often SVM, can be perceptron, maxent classifier) over each legal move
  - Max of 3 untyped choices; max of |R| × 2 + 1 when typed
  - Features: top of stack word, POS; first in buffer word, POS; etc.
- There is NO search (in the simplest form)
  - But you can profitably do a beam search if you wish (slower but better)
- It provides VERY fast linear time parsing
- The model's accuracy is slightly below the best dependency parsers, but
- It provides fast, close to state of the art parsing performance



## **Feature Representation**



binary, sparse dim =  $10^6 \, ^{\sim} \, 10^7$ 



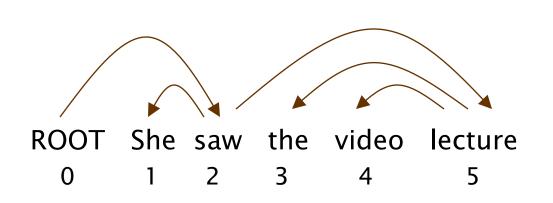
Feature templates: usually a combination of  $1 \sim 3$  elements from the configuration.

Indicator features

$$s1.w = \operatorname{good} \wedge s1.t = \operatorname{JJ}$$
  
 $s2.w = \operatorname{has} \wedge s2.t = \operatorname{VBZ} \wedge s1.w = \operatorname{good}$   
 $lc(s_2).t = \operatorname{PRP} \wedge s_2.t = \operatorname{VBZ} \wedge s_1.t = \operatorname{JJ}$   
 $lc(s_2).w = \operatorname{He} \wedge lc(s_2).l = \operatorname{nsubj} \wedge s_2.w = \operatorname{has}$ 



# **Evaluation of Dependency Parsing:** (labeled) dependency accuracy



Acc = 
$$\frac{\text{# correct deps}}{\text{# of deps}}$$

UAS =  $\frac{4}{5} = 80\%$ 

LAS =  $\frac{2}{5} = 40\%$ 

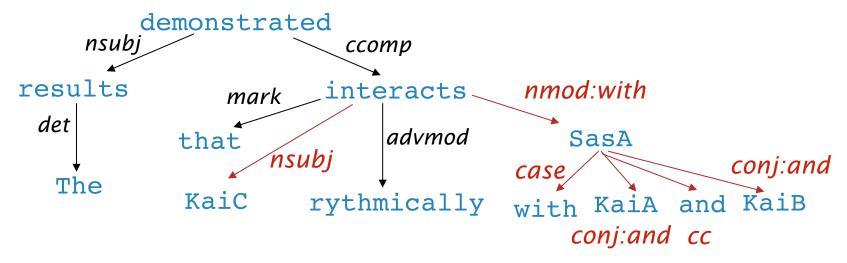
Gold						
1	2	She	nsubj			
2	0	saw	root			
3	5	the	det			
4	5	video	nn			
5	2	lecture	obj			

Parsed						
1	2	She	nsubj			
2	0	saw	root			
3	4	the	det			
4	5	video	nsubj			
5	2	lecture	ccomp			



# Dependency paths identify semantic relations – e.g, for protein interaction

[Erkan et al. EMNLP 07, Fundel et al. 2007, etc.]



KaiC ←nsubj interacts nmod:with → SasA

KaiC ←nsubj interacts nmod:with → SasA conj:and → KaiA

KaiC ←nsubj interacts prep\_with → SasA conj:and → KaiB



### **Projectivity**

- Dependencies parallel to a CFG tree must be projective
  - There must not be any crossing dependency arcs when the words are laid out in their linear order, with all arcs above the words.
- But dependency theory normally does allow non-projective structures to account for displaced constituents
  - You can't easily get the semantics of certain constructions right without these nonprojective dependencies





### Handling non-projectivity

- The arc-standard algorithm we presented only builds projective dependency trees
- Possible directions to head:
  - 1. Just declare defeat on nonprojective arcs
  - 2. Use a dependency formalism which only admits projective representations (a CFG doesn't represent such structures...)
  - 3. Use a postprocessor to a projective dependency parsing algorithm to identify and resolve nonprojective links
  - 4. Add extra transitions that can model at least most non-projective structures (e.g., add an extra SWAP transition, cf. bubble sort)
  - 5. Move to a parsing mechanism that does not use or require any constraints on projectivity (e.g., the graph-based MSTParser)



# 5. Why train a neural dependency parser? Indicator Features Revisited

- Problem #1
- Problem #2
- Problem #3

Stack Buffer

ROOT has\_VBZ good\_JJ control\_NN ...

nsubj

He\_PRP

dense dim Nor Office of parsing time is consumed by feature computation.

```
s1 with s2.w = has \land s2.t = VBZ \land s1.w = good learn a dense and compact feature representation <math>lc(s_2).t = PRP \land s_2.t = VBZ \land s_1.t = JJ lc(s_2).w = He \land lc(s_2).l = nsubj \land s_2.w = has
```



# A neural dependency parser [Chen and Manning 2014]



- English parsing to Stanford Dependencies:
  - Unlabeled attachment score (UAS) = head
  - Labeled attachment score (LAS) = head and label

Parser	UAS	LAS	sent. / s
MaltParser	89.8	87.2	469
MSTParser	91.4	88.1	10
TurboParser	92.3*	89.6*	8
C & M 2014	92.0	89.7	654



## **Distributed Representations**

- We represent each word as a d-dimensional dense vector (i.e., word embedding)
  - Similar words are expected to have close vectors.
- Meanwhile, part-of-speech tags (POS) and dependency labels are also represented as d-dimensional perfects.
  - The smaller discrete sets also exhibit may semantical inities.

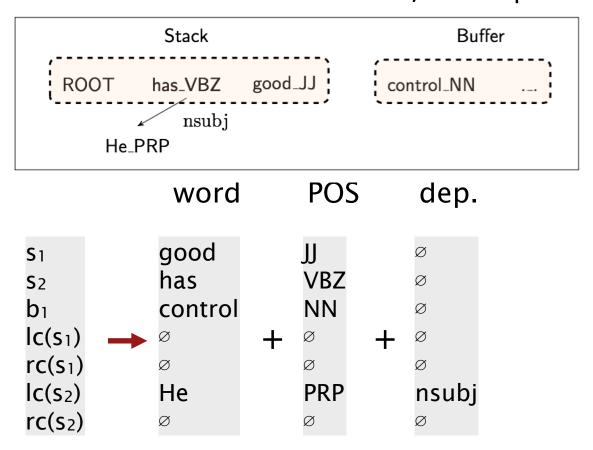
NNS (plural noun) should be close to NN (singular noun).

num (numerical modifier) should be close to amod (adjective modifier).



# **Extracting Tokens and then vector** representations from configuration

We extract a set of tokens based on the stack / buffer positions:

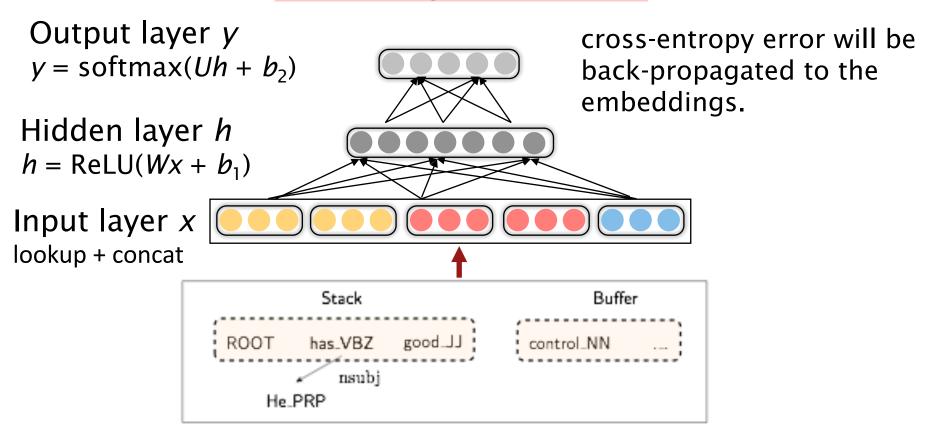


We convert them to vector embeddings and concatenate them



#### **Model Architecture**

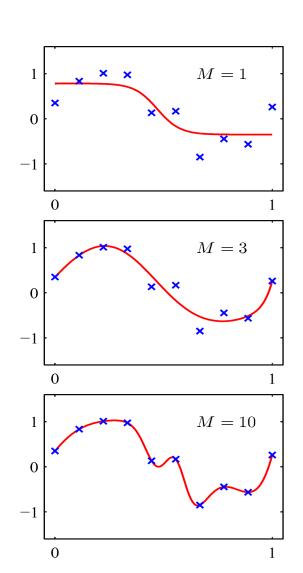
### Softmax probabilities





# Non-linearities between layers: Why they're needed

- For logistic regression: map to probabilities
- Here: function approximation,
   e.g., for regression or classification
  - Without non-linearities, deep neural networks can't do anything more than a linear transform
    - Extra layers could just be compiled down into a single linear transform
- People use various non-linearities

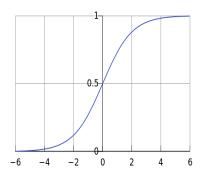




#### Non-linearities: What's used

#### logistic ("sigmoid")

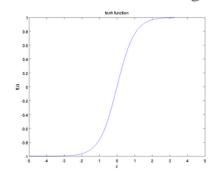
$$f(z) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-z)}.$$



$$f'(z) = f(z)(1 - f(z))$$

#### tanh

$$f(z) = \tanh(z) = \frac{e^z - e^{-z}}{e^z + e^{-z}},$$



$$f'(z) = 1 - f(z)^2$$

tanh is just a rescaled and shifted sigmoid tanh(z) = 2logistic(2z) - 1tanh is often used and often performs better for deep nets

It's output is symmetric around 0



### Non-linearities: What's used

#### hard tanh

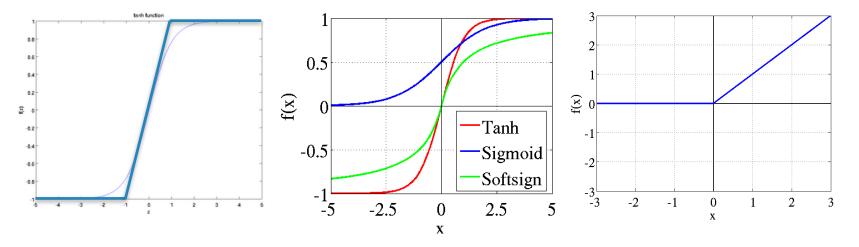
## HardTanh(x) = $\begin{cases} -1 & \text{if } x < -1 \\ x & \text{if } -1 <= x <= 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } x > 1 \end{cases} \text{ softsign}(z) = \frac{a}{1 + |a|} \qquad \text{rect}(z) = \max(z, 0)$

#### soft sign

$$\operatorname{softsign}(z) = \frac{a}{1 + |a|}$$

linear rectifier (ReLU)

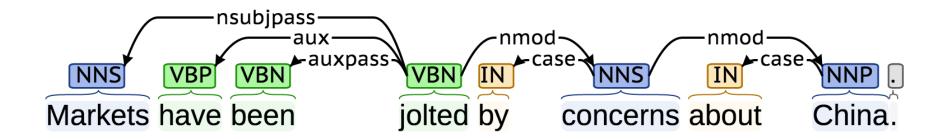
$$rect(z) = max(z,0)$$



- hard tanh similar but computationally cheaper than tanh and saturates hard.
- [Glorot and Bengio AISTATS 2010, 2011] discuss softsign and rectifier
- **Rectified linear unit** is now mega common transfers linear signal if active

#### **Dependency parsing for sentence structure**

Neural networks can accurately determine the structure of sentences, supporting interpretation



Chen and Manning (2014) was the first simple, successful neural dependency parser

The dense representations let it outperform other greedy parsers in both accuracy and speed

## Further developments in transition-based neural dependency parsing

This work was further developed and improved by others, including in particular at Google

- Bigger, deeper networks with better tuned hyperparameters
- Beam search
- Global, conditional random field (CRF)-style inference over the decision sequence

Leading to SyntaxNet and the Parsey McParseFace model

https://research.googleblog.com/2016/05/announcing-syntaxnet-worlds-most.html

Method	UAS	LAS (PTB WSJ SD 3.3
Chen & Manning 2014	92.0	89.7
Weiss et al. 2015	93.99	92.05
Andor et al. 2016	94.61	92.79