Natural Language Processing with Deep Learning CS224N/Ling284



Richard Socher

Lecture 7: Dependency Parsing



Reminders/comments:

- Final project discussion come meet with us
- Extra credit for most prolific piazza student answerers
- Midterm in two weeks
 - Practice exams are on the website



Lecture Plan

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



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

Phrase structure organizes words into nested constituents.

Basic unit: words

the, cat, cuddly, by, door

Words combine into phrases

the cuddly cat, by the door

Phrases can combine into bigger phrases

the cuddly cat by the door

4



Two views of linguistic structure:

Constituency = phrase structure grammar

= context-free grammars (CFGs)

Phrase structure organizes words into nested constituents.

Can represent the grammar with CFG rules

Basic unit: words

the, cat, cuddly, by, door Det N Adi P N

Words combine into phrases

the cuddly cat, by the door NP -> Det Adj N PP -> P NP

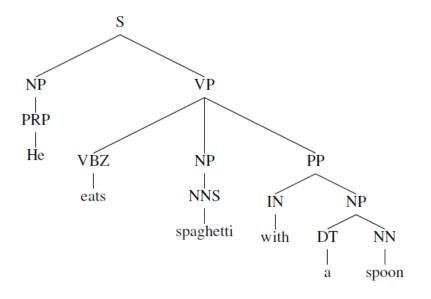
Phrases can combine into bigger phrases

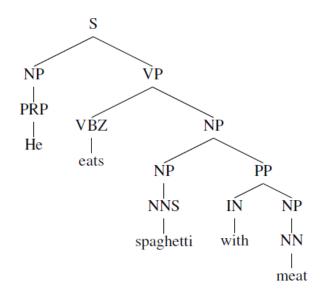
the cuddly cat by the door



Example Constituency Trees

PP attachment ambiguities in constituency 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



- Dependency structure shows which words depend on (modify or are arguments of) which other words.
 - Determiners, adjectives, and (sometimes) verbs modify nouns

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

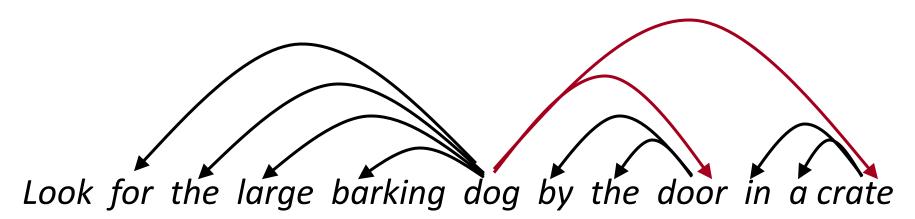


- Dependency structure shows which words depend on (modify or are arguments of) which other words.
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 - We will also treat prepositions as modifying nouns



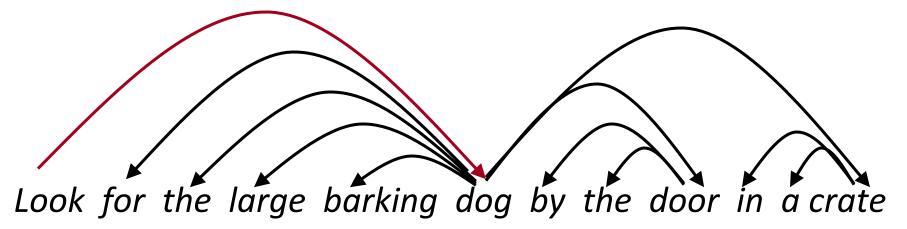


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- Dependency structure shows which words depend on (modify or are arguments of) which other words.
 - Determiners, adjectives, and (sometimes) verbs modify nouns
 - We will also treat prepositions as modifying nouns
 - The prepositional phrases are modifying the main noun phrase
 - The main noun phrase is an argument of "look"





Ambiguity: PP attachments

Scientists study whales from space



PP attachment ambiguities in dependency structure

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

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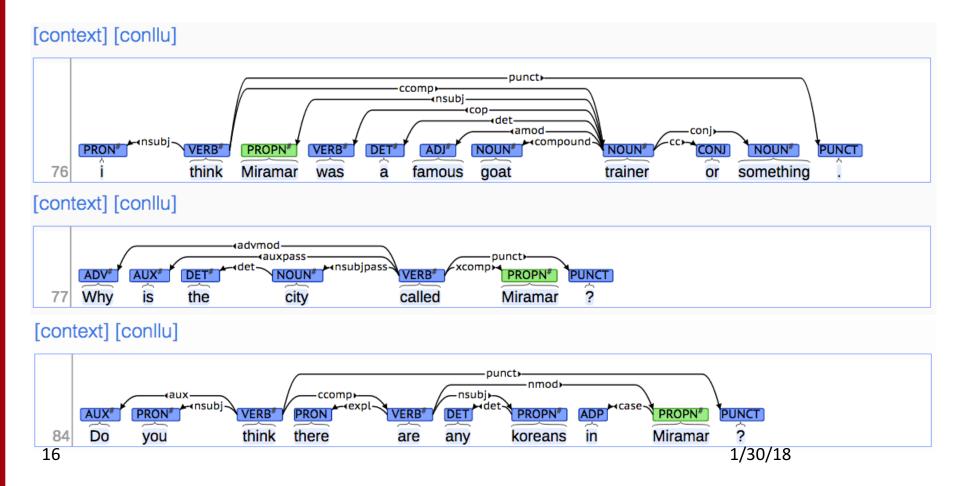
[at its monthly meeting].

- Catalan numbers: $C_n = (2n)!/[(n+1)!n!]$
- An exponentially growing series, which arises in many tree-like contexts
- **1**5 But normally, we assume nesting.



The rise of annotated data: Universal Dependencies treebanks

[Universal Dependencies: http://universaldependencies.org/; cf. Marcus et al. 1993, The Penn Treebank, *Computational Linguistics*]





The rise of annotated data

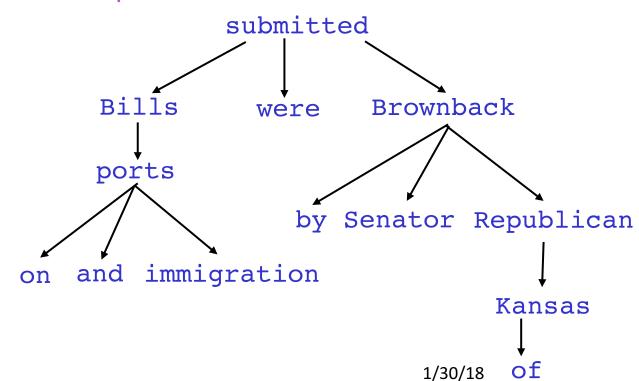
Starting off, building a treebank seems a lot slower and less useful than building a grammar

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



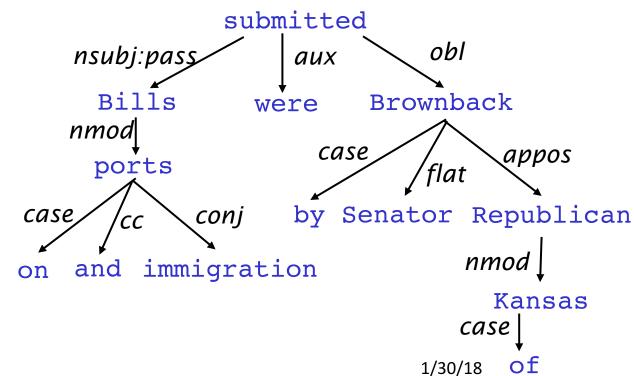
Dependency syntax postulates that syntactic structure consists of relations between lexical items, normally binary asymmetric relations ("arrows") called dependencies





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

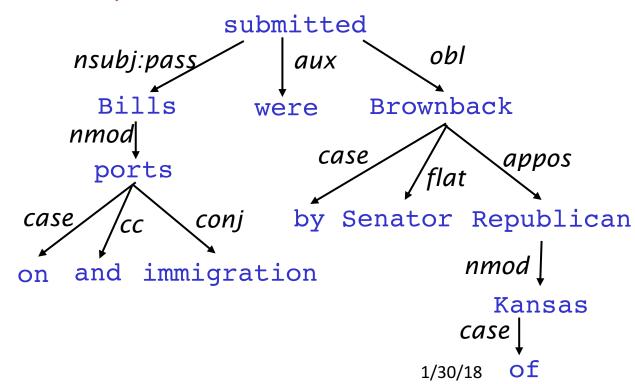




Dependency syntax postulates that syntactic structure consists of relations between lexical items, normally binary asymmetric relations ("arrows") called dependencies

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

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



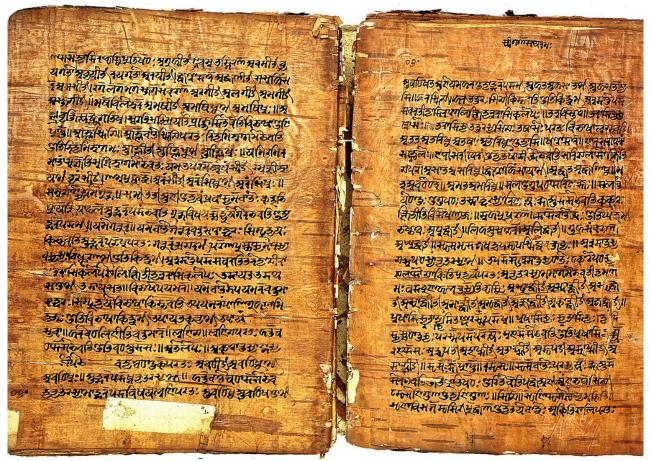


Dependency Relations

Clausal Argument Relations	Description
NSUBJ	Nominal subject
DOBJ	Direct object
IOBJ	Indirect object
CCOMP	Clausal complement
XCOMP	Open clausal complement
Nominal Modifier Relations	Description
NMOD	Nominal modifier
AMOD	Adjectival modifier
NUMMOD	Numeric modifier
APPOS	Appositional modifier
DET	Determiner
CASE	Prepositions, postpositions and other case markers
Other Notable Relations	Description
CONJ	Conjunct
CC	Coordinating conjunction



Pāṇini's grammar (c. 5th century BCE)



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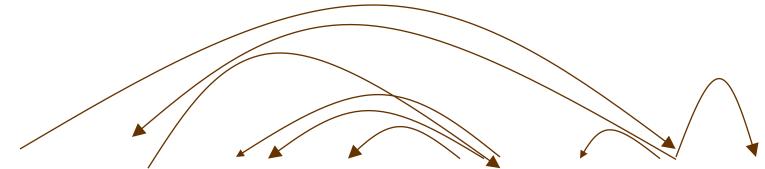
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Dependency Grammar/Parsing History

- 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 more recent invention
 - 20th century (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)





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...
 - Ours will point from head to dependent
- Usually add a fake ROOT so every word is a dependent of precisely 1 other node



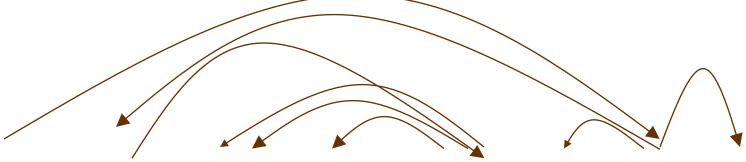
Dependency Conditioning Preferences

What are the sources of information for dependency parsing?

- 1. Bilexical affinities [discussion → 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?

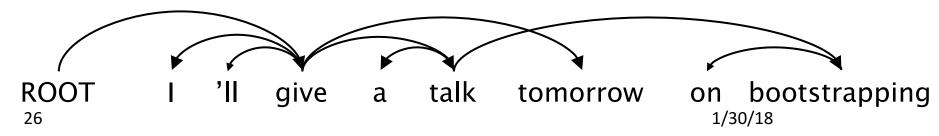


25ROOT Discussion of the outstanding issues was completed



Dependency Parsing

- A sentence is parsed by choosing for each word what other word (including ROOT) it is a dependent of
 - i.e., find the right outgoing arrow from each word
- 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
- 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.



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

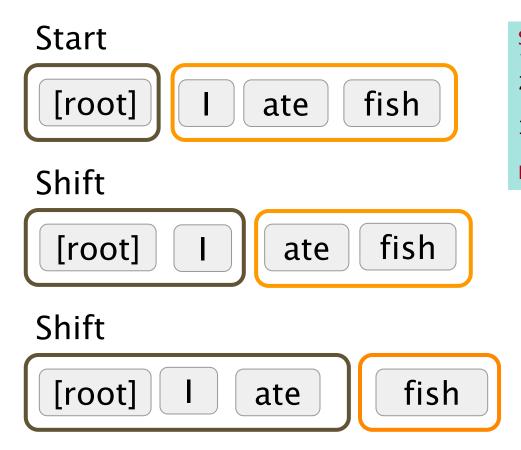
- 1. Shift $\sigma, w_i | \beta, A \rightarrow \sigma | w_i, \beta, A$
- 2. Left-Arc_r $\sigma|w_i|w_j$, β , $A \rightarrow \sigma|w_j$, β , $A \cup \{r(w_j,w_i)\}$
- 3. Right-Arc_r $\sigma|w_i|w_j$, β , $A \rightarrow \sigma|w_i$, β , $A \cup \{r(w_i,w_j)\}$

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



Arc-standard transition-based parser

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

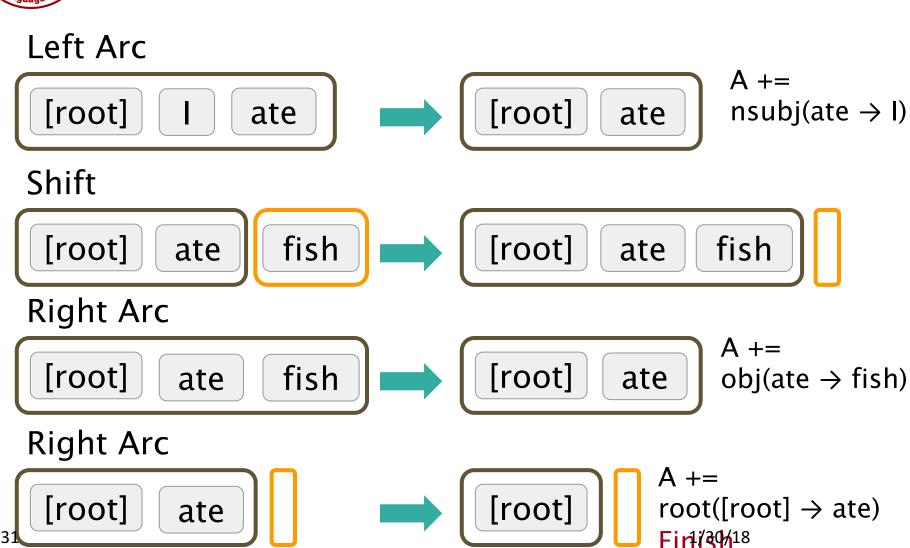


```
Start: \sigma = [ROOT], \beta = w_1, ..., w_n, A = \emptyset
1. Shift \sigma, w_i | \beta, A \Rightarrow \sigma | w_i, \beta, A
2. Left-Arc<sub>r</sub> \sigma | w_i | w_j, \beta, A \Rightarrow \sigma | w_i, \beta, A \Rightarrow \sigma | w_j, \beta, A \Rightarrow \sigma | w_i, \delta, A \Rightarrow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



Arc-standard transition-based parser

Analysis of "I ate fish"





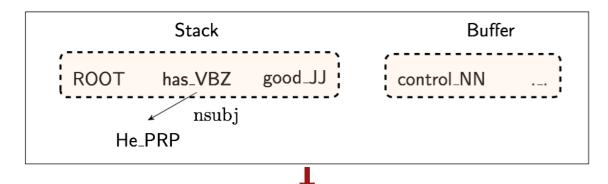
MaltParser

[Nivre and Hall 2005]

- How could we choose the next action?
- Each action is predicted by a discriminative classifier (eg. SVM or logistic regression classifier) over each legal move
 - 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 only slightly below the best dependency parsers



Feature Representation



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

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

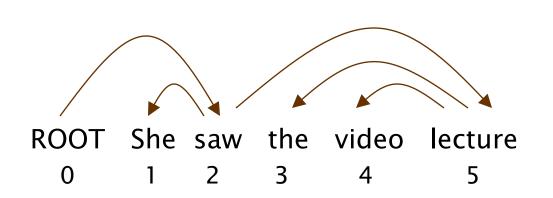
Indicator features

$$s1.w = \operatorname{good} \wedge s1.t = \operatorname{JJ}$$

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



Evaluation of Dependency Parsing: (labeled) dependency accuracy



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

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

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

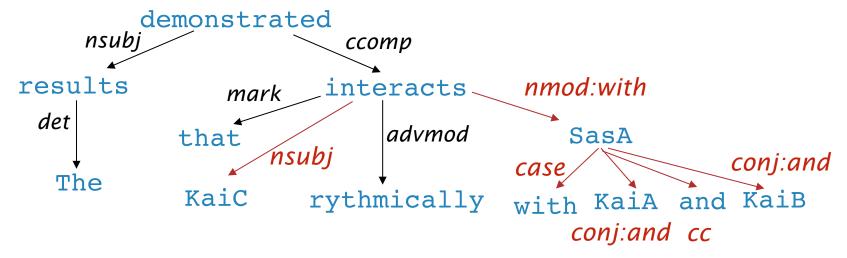
Gold				
1	2	She	nsubj	
2	0	saw	root	
3	5	the	det	
4	5	video	nn	
5	2	lecture	obj	

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



- 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

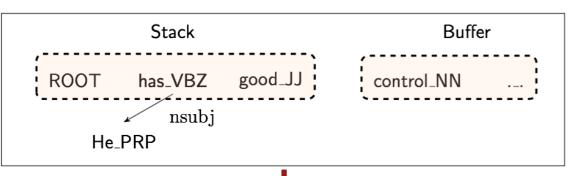
- The arc-standard algorithm we presented only builds projective dependency trees
- Possible directions:
 - 1. Just declare defeat on nonprojective arcs
 - 2. Use a dependency formalism which only admits projective representations (a CFG doesn't represent such structures...)
 - 3. Use a postprocessor 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)

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Why train a neural dependency parser? Indicator Features Revisited

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



dense dim Nor Pan 95% of parsing time is consumed by feature computation.

```
s1 where 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

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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 many similarities.

come

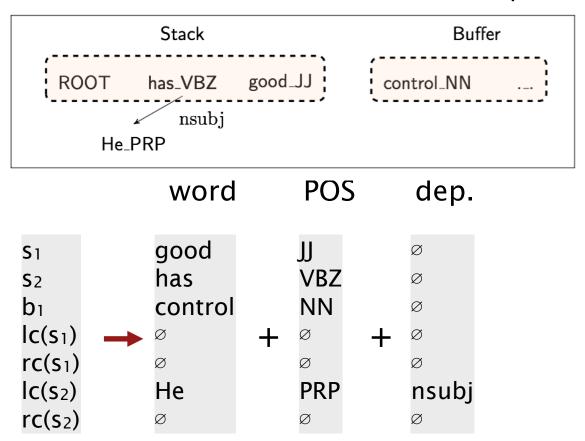
NNS (plural noun) should be close to NN (singular noun).

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:

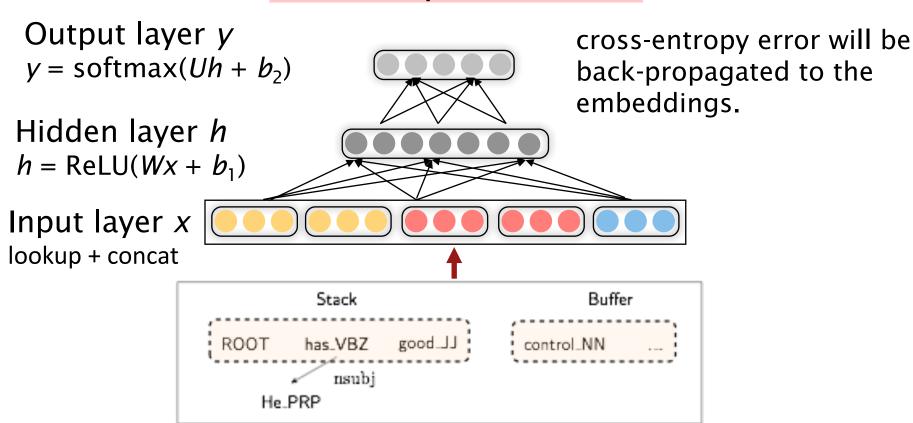


We convert them to vector embeddings and concatenate them 41



Model Architecture

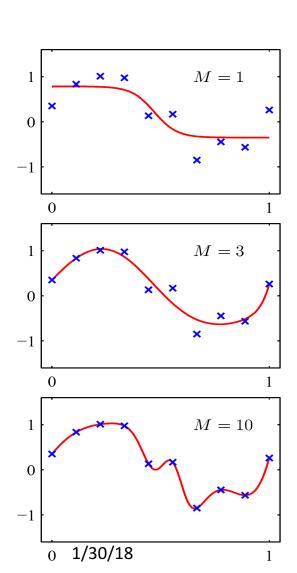
Softmax probabilities





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

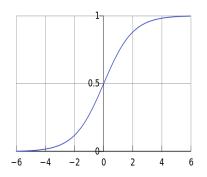




Non-linearities: sigmoid and tanh

logistic ("sigmoid")

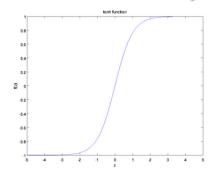
$$f(z) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-z)}.$$



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

tanh

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



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

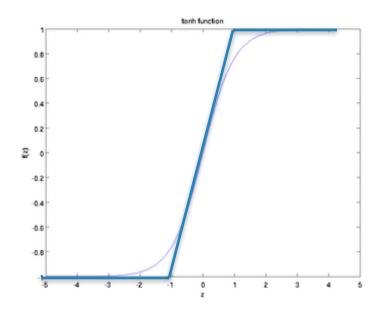
tanh is just a rescaled and shifted sigmoid tanh(z) = 2logistic(2z) - 1 tanh is often used and often performs better for deep nets



Non-linearities: hard tanh

- Faster to compute than tanh (no exps or division)
- But suffers from "dead neurons"
 - If our model is initialized such that a neuron is always 1, it will never change!
 - "Saturated neurons" can also be a problem for regular tanh – initializing NNs right is really important!

HardTanh(x) =
$$\begin{cases} -1 & \text{if } x < -1 \\ x & \text{if } -1 <= x <= 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } x > 1 \end{cases}$$

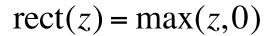


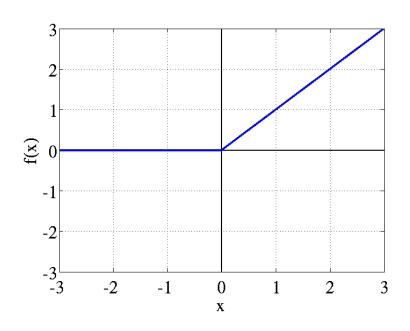
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Non-linearities: ReLU

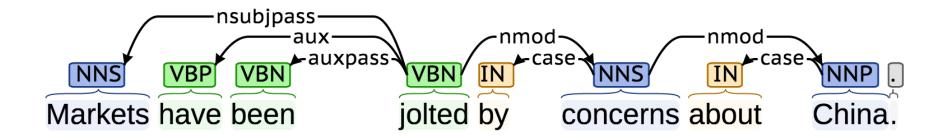
- Also fast to compute, but also can cause dead neurons
- Mega common: "go-to" activation function
- Transfers a linear activation when active
- Lots of variants: LReLU, SELU, ELU, PReLU...





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

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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

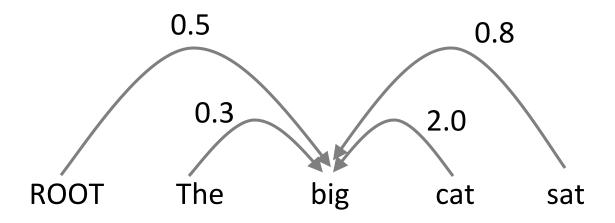
Leading to SyntaxNet and the Parsey McParseFace model

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

92.0	89.7
93.99	92.05
94.61	92.79
	93.99

Graph-based dependency parsers

- Compute a score for every possible dependency
 - Then add an edge from each word to its highest-scoring candidate head

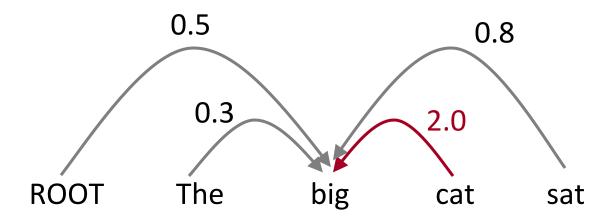


e.g., picking the head for "big"

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Graph-based dependency parsers

- Compute a score for every possible dependency
 - Then add an edge from each word to its highest-scoring candidate head



e.g., picking the head for "big"

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Neural graph-based dependency parsers

- Compute a score for every possible dependency
 - Then add an edge from each word to its highest-scoring candidate head
- Really great results!
 - But slower than transition-based parsers: there are n^2 possible dependencies in a sentence of length n.

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
Dozat & Manning 2017	95.74	93.08

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