



# Memory Based Statistical Parsing

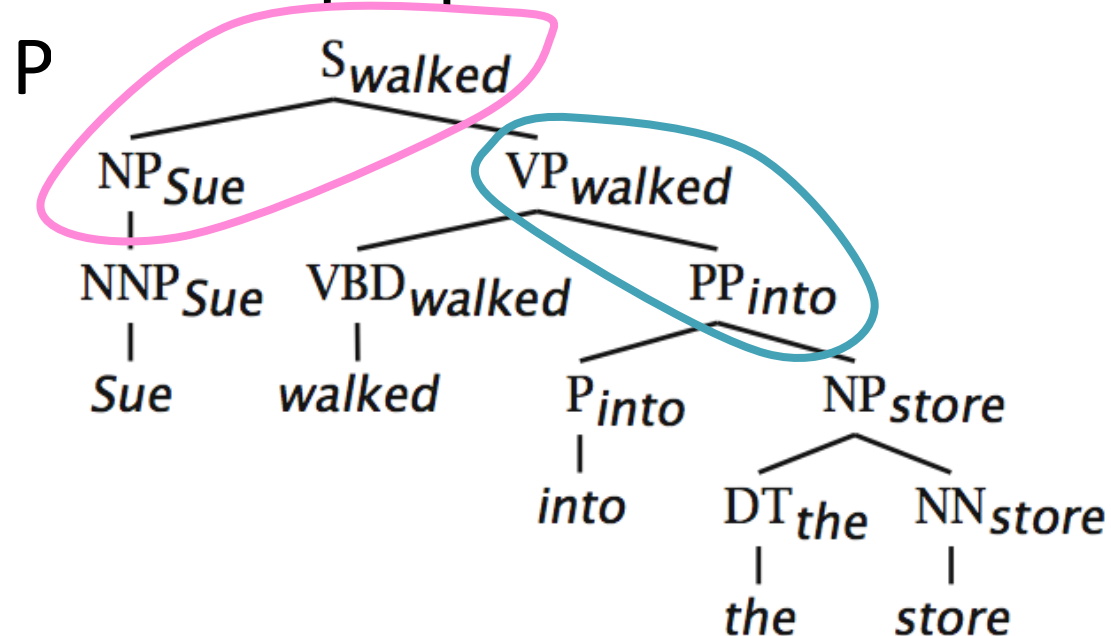
COSI 114 – Computational Linguistics  
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March 10, 2015  
Brandeis University

# (Head) Lexicalization of PCFGs

[Magerman 1995, Collins 1997; Charniak 1997]

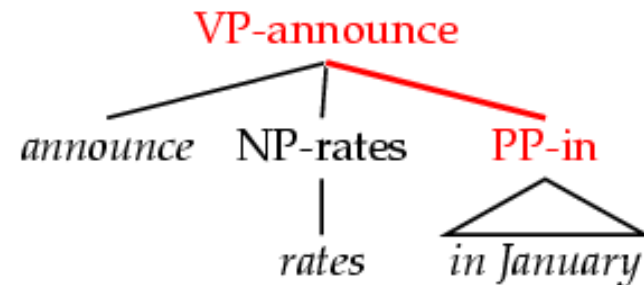
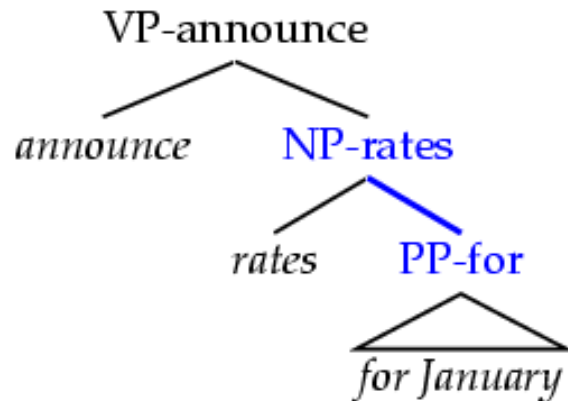
- The head word of a phrase gives a good representation of the phrase's structure and meaning
- Puts the properties of words back into a



# (Head) Lexicalization of PCFGs

[Magerman 1995, Collins 1997; Charniak 1997]

- Word-to-word affinities are useful for certain ambiguities
  - PP attachment is now (partly) captured in a local PCFG rule.
    - Think about: What useful information isn't captured?



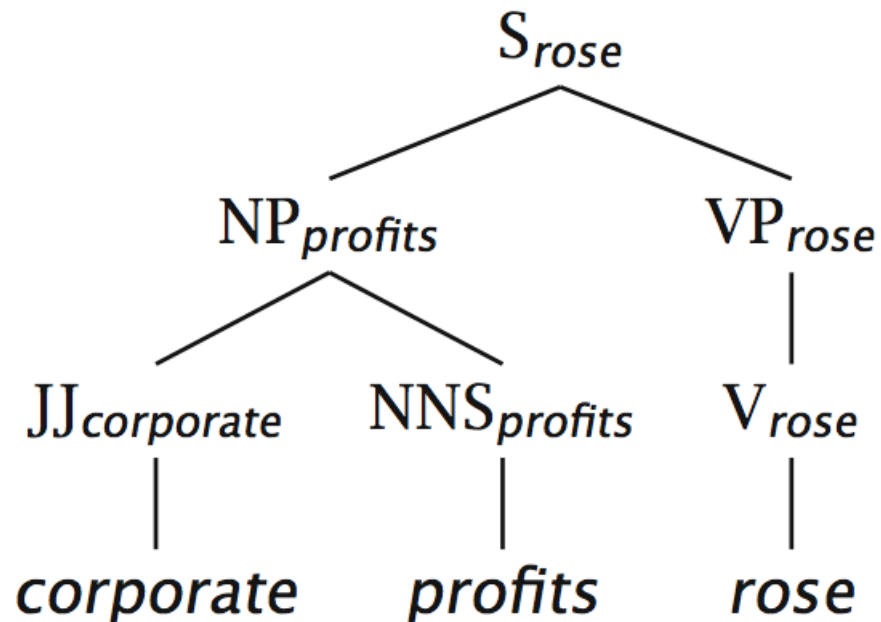
- Also useful for: coordination scope, verb complement patterns

# Lexicalized parsing was seen as *the* parsing breakthrough of the late 1990s

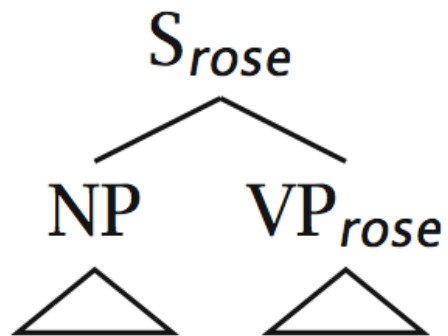
- Eugene Charniak, 2000 JHU workshop: “To do better, it is necessary to condition probabilities on the actual words of the sentence. This makes the probabilities much tighter:
  - $p(\text{VP} \rightarrow \text{V NP NP})$  = 0.00151
  - $p(\text{VP} \rightarrow \text{V NP NP} \mid \text{said})$  = 0.00001
  - $p(\text{VP} \rightarrow \text{V NP NP} \mid \text{gave})$  = 0.01980 ”
- Michael Collins, 2003 COLT tutorial: “Lexicalized Probabilistic Context-Free Grammars ... perform vastly better than PCFGs (88% vs. 73% accuracy)”

# Charniak (1997)

- A very straightforward model of a lexicalized PCFG
- Probabilistic conditioning is “top-down” like a regular PCFG
  - But actual parsing is bottom-up, somewhat like the CKY algorithm we saw



# Charniak (1997) example

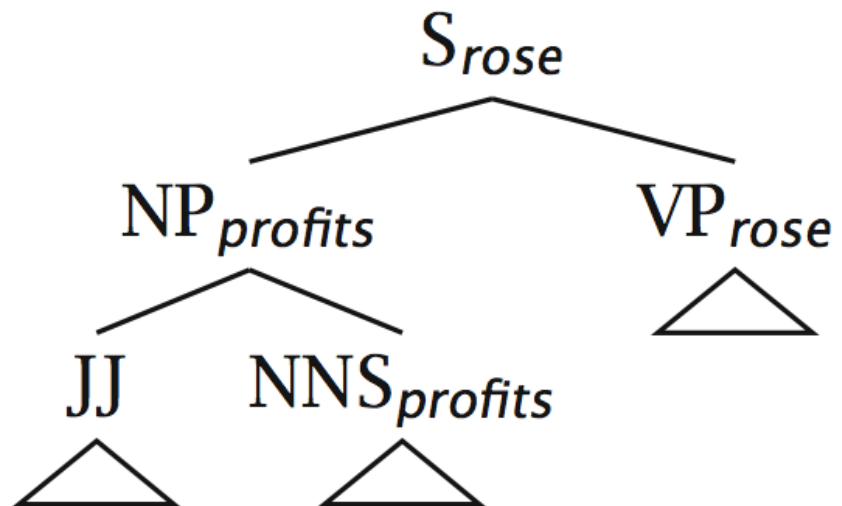
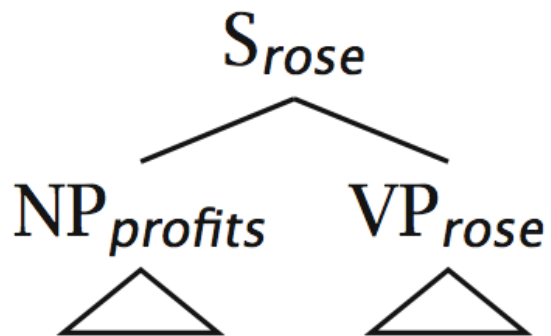


a.  $h = \textit{profits}; c = \textit{NP}$

b.  $ph = \textit{rose}; pc = \textit{S}$

c.  $P(h|ph, c, pc)$  h: head word  
r:rule

d.  $P(r|h, c, pc)$



# Lexicalization models argument selection by sharpening rule expansion probabilities

- The probability of different verbal complement frames (i.e., “subcategorizations”) depends on the verb:

<i>Local Tree</i>	<i>come</i>	<i>take</i>	<i>think</i>	<i>want</i>
VP → V	9.5%	2.6%	4.6%	5.7%
VP → V NP	1.1%	32.1%	0.2%	13.9%
VP → V PP	34.5%	3.1%	7.1%	0.3%
VP → V SBAR	6.6%	0.3%	73.0%	0.2%
VP → V S	2.2%	1.3%	4.8%	70.8%
VP → V NP S	0.1%	5.7%	0.0%	0.3%
VP → V PRT NP	0.3%	5.8%	0.0%	0.0%
VP → V PRT PP	6.1%	1.5%	0.2%	0.0%



“monolexical” probabilities

# Lexicalization sharpens probabilities: Predicting heads

“Bilexical probabilities”

- $P(\text{prices} \mid \text{n-plural}) = .013$
- $P(\text{prices} \mid \text{n-plural, NP}) = .013$
- $P(\text{prices} \mid \text{n-plural, NP, S}) = .025$
- $P(\text{prices} \mid \text{n-plural, NP, S, v-past}) = .052$
- $P(\mathbf{\text{prices}} \mid \text{n-plural, NP, S, v-past, } \mathbf{\text{fell}}) = .146$



## Charniak (1997) linear interpolation/shrinkage

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{P}(h|ph, c, pc) = & \lambda_1(e)P_{\text{MLE}}(h|ph, c, pc) \\ & + \lambda_2(e)P_{\text{MLE}}(h|C(ph), c, pc) \\ & + \lambda_3(e)P_{\text{MLE}}(h|c, pc) + \lambda_4(e)P_{\text{MLE}}(h|c)\end{aligned}$$

- $\lambda_i(e)$  is here a function of how much one would expect to see a certain occurrence, given the amount of training data, word counts, etc.
- $C(ph)$  is semantic class of parent headword
- Techniques like these for dealing with data sparseness are vital to successful model construction

## Charniak (1997) shrinkage example

	$P(\text{prft} \text{rose, NP, S})$	$P(\text{corp} \text{prft, JJ, NP})$
$P(h ph, c, pc)$	0	0.245
$P(h C(ph), c, pc)$	0.00352	0.0150
$P(h c, pc)$	0.000627	0.00533
$P(h c)$	0.000557	0.00418

- Allows utilization of rich highly conditioned estimates, but smoothes when sufficient data is unavailable
- One can't just use MLEs: one commonly sees previously unseen events, which would have probability 0.

# Sparseness & the Penn Treebank

- The Penn Treebank – 1 million words of parsed English WSJ – has been a key resource (because of the widespread reliance on supervised learning)
- But 1 million words is like nothing:
  - 965,000 constituents, but only 66 WHADJP, of which only 6 aren't *how much* or *how many*, but there is an infinite space of these
    - *How clever/original/incompetent (at risk assessment and evaluation)*  
...
- Most of the probabilities that you would like to compute, you can't compute

# Sparseness & the Penn Treebank (2)

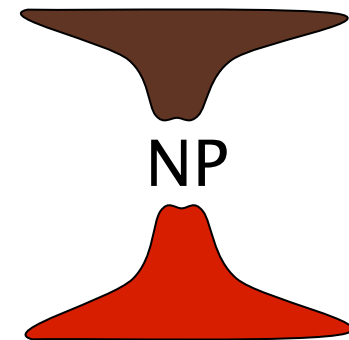
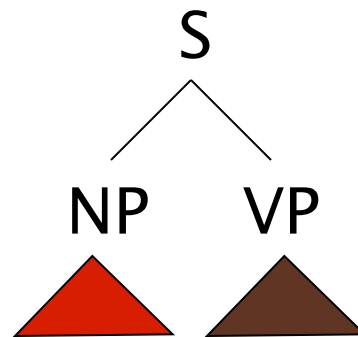
- Many parse preferences depend on bilexical statistics: likelihoods of relationships between pairs of words (compound nouns, PP attachments, ...)
- Extremely sparse, even on topics central to the WSJ:
  - *stocks plummeted* 2 occurrences
  - *stocks stabilized* 1 occurrence
  - *stocks skyrocketed* 0 occurrences
  - *#stocks discussed* 0 occurrences
- There has been only modest success in augmenting the Penn Treebank with extra unannotated materials or using semantic classes – given a reasonable amount of annotated training data.
  - Cf. Charniak 1997, Charniak 2000
  - But McClosky et al. 2006 doing self-training and Koo and Collins 2008 semantic classes are rather more successful!

# PCFGs and Independence

- The symbols in a PCFG define independence assumptions:

$S \rightarrow NP VP$

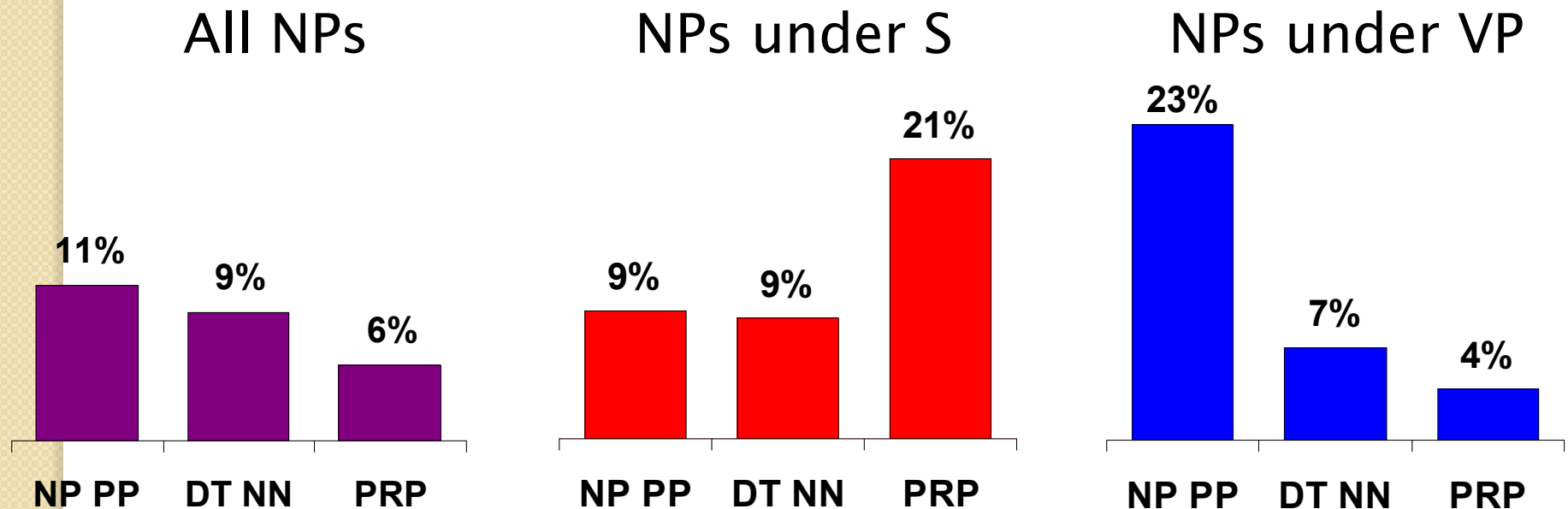
$NP \rightarrow DT NN$



- At any node, the material inside that node is independent of the material outside that node, given the label of that node
- Any information that statistically connects behavior inside and outside a node must flow through that node's label

# Non-Independence I

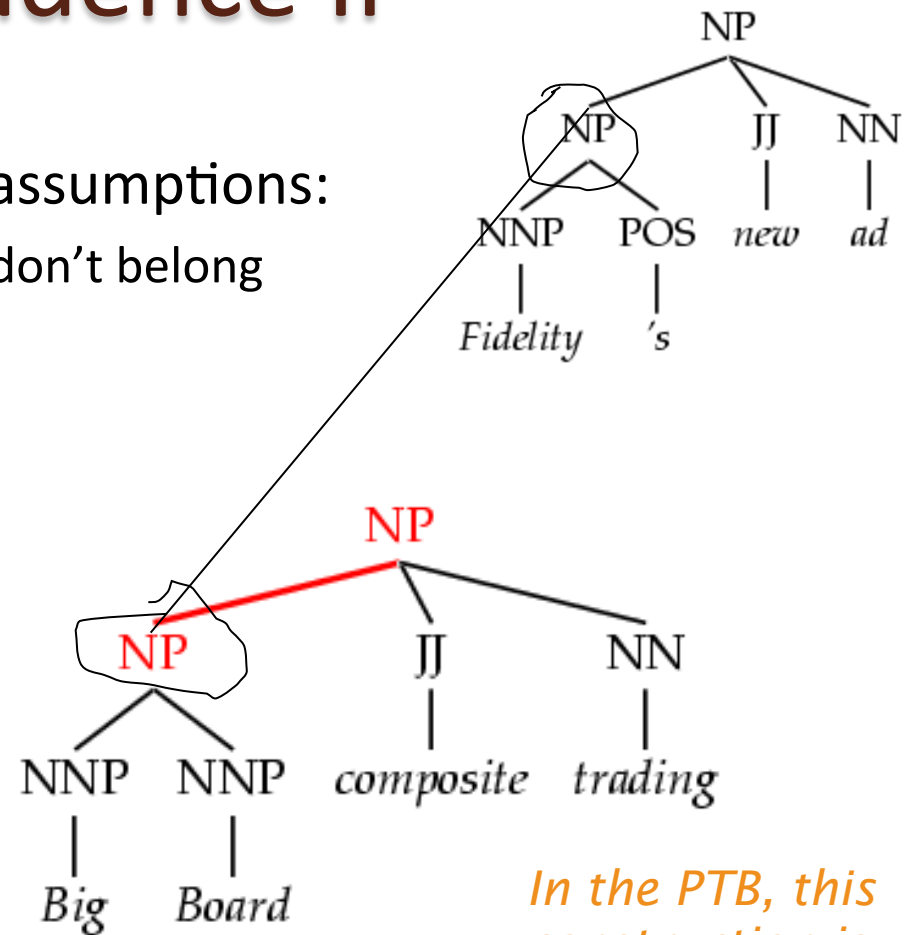
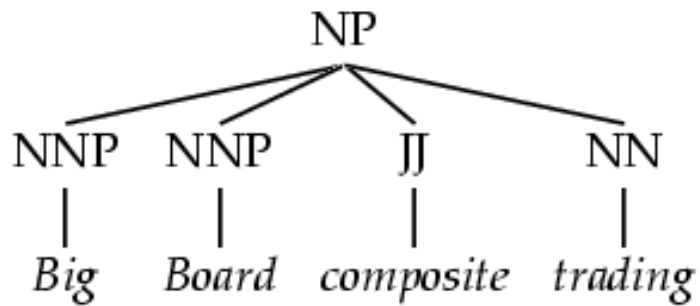
- The independence assumptions of a PCFG are often too strong



- Example: the expansion of an NP is highly dependent on the parent of the NP (i.e., subjects vs. objects)

# Non-Independence II

- Symptoms of overly strong assumptions:
  - Rewrites get used where they don't belong

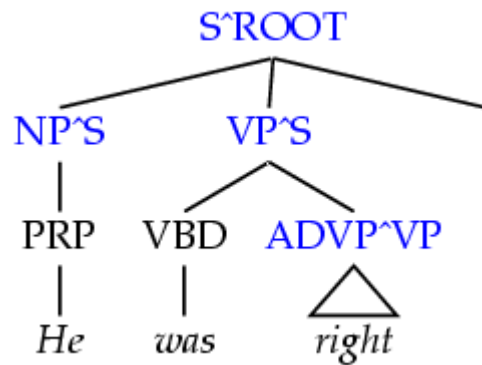


*In the PTB, this construction is for possessives*

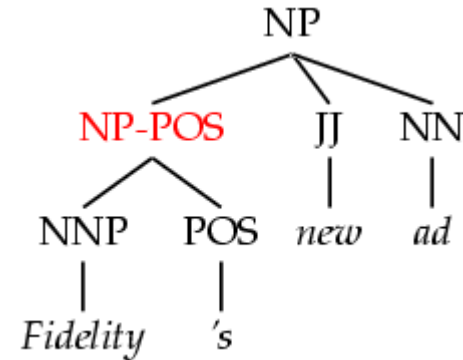
# Refining the Grammar Symbols

- We can relax independence assumptions by encoding dependencies into the PCFG symbols, by **state splitting**:

Parent annotation  
[Johnson 98]



Marking  
possessive NPs



- Too much state-splitting → sparseness (no smoothing used!)
- What are the most useful features to encode?



# Annotations

- Annotations split the grammar categories into sub-categories.
- Conditioning on history vs. annotating
  - $P(\text{NP}^{\wedge S} \rightarrow \text{PRP})$  is a lot like  $P(\text{NP} \rightarrow \text{PRP} \mid S)$
  - $P(\text{NP-POS} \rightarrow \text{NNP POS})$  isn't history conditioning.
- Feature grammars vs. annotation
  - Can think of a symbol like  $\text{NP}^{\wedge \text{NP-POS}}$  as  $\text{NP} [\text{parent:NP}, +\text{POS}]$
- After parsing with an annotated grammar, the annotations are then stripped for evaluation.

# Accurate Unlexicalized Parsing

[Klein and Manning 1993]

- What do we mean by an “unlexicalized” PCFG?
  - Grammar rules are not systematically specified down to the level of lexical items
    - NP-stocks is not allowed
    - NP^S-CC is fine
  - Closed vs. open class words
    - Long tradition in linguistics of using function words as features or markers for selection (VB-have, SBAR-if/whether)
    - Different to the billexical idea of semantic heads
    - Open-class selection is really a proxy for semantics
- Thesis
  - Most of what you need for accurate parsing, and much of what lexicalized PCFGs actually capture *isn't* lexical selection between content words but just basic grammatical features, like verb form, finiteness, presence of a verbal auxiliary, etc.

# Experimental Approach

- Corpus: Penn Treebank, WSJ; iterate on small dev set



Training: sections 02-21

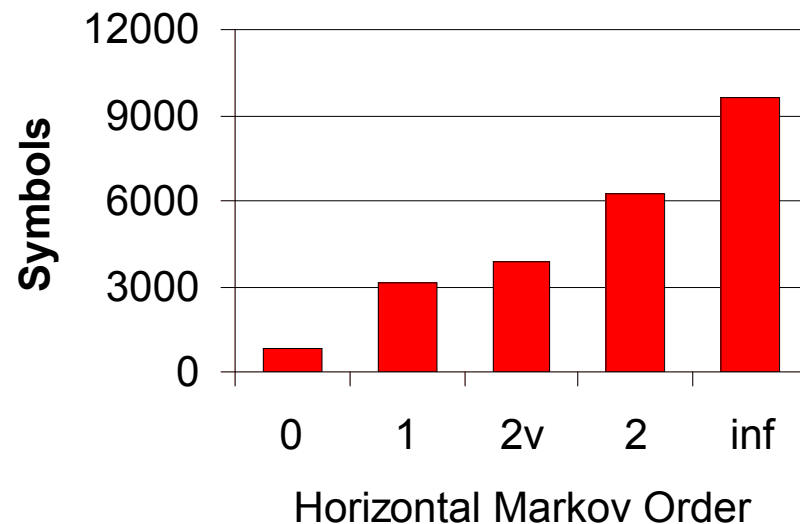
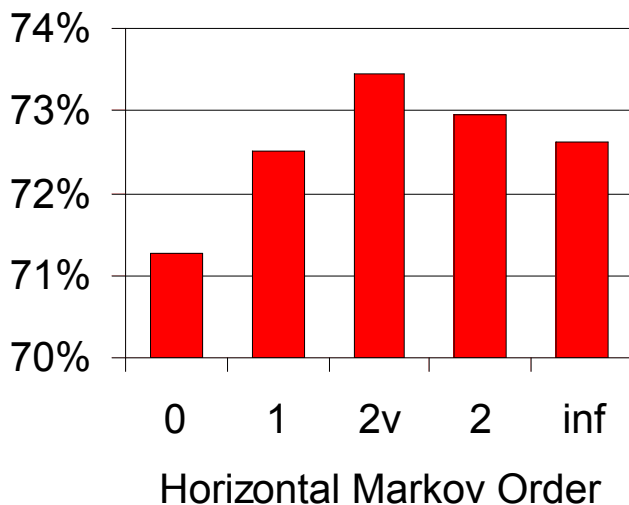
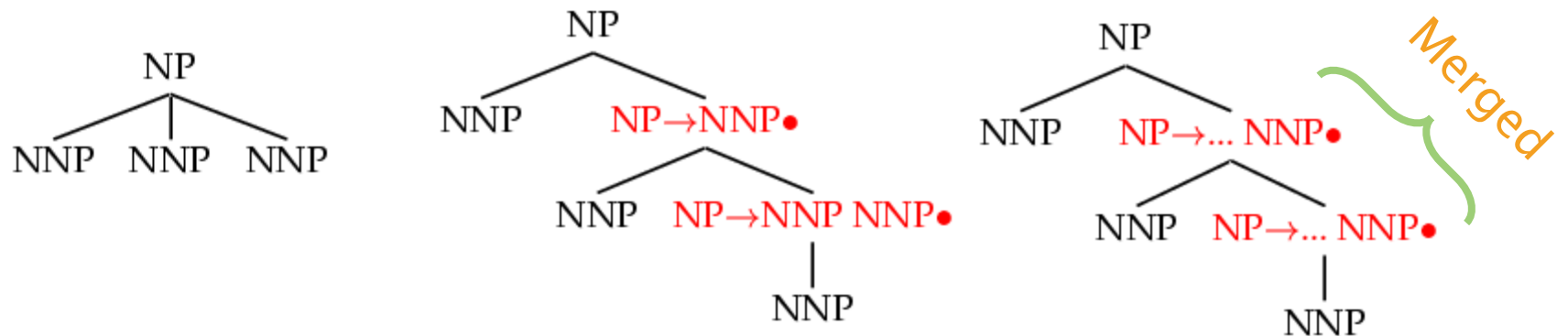
Development: section 22 (first 20 files) ←

Test: section 23

- Size – number of symbols in grammar.
  - Passive / complete symbols: NP, NP^S
  - Active / incomplete symbols: @NP\_NP\_CC [from binarization]
- We state-split as sparingly as possible
  - Highest accuracy with fewest symbols
  - Error-driven, manual hill-climb, one annotation at a time

# Horizontal Markovization

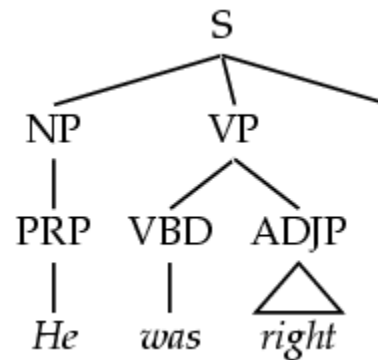
- Horizontal Markovization: Merges States



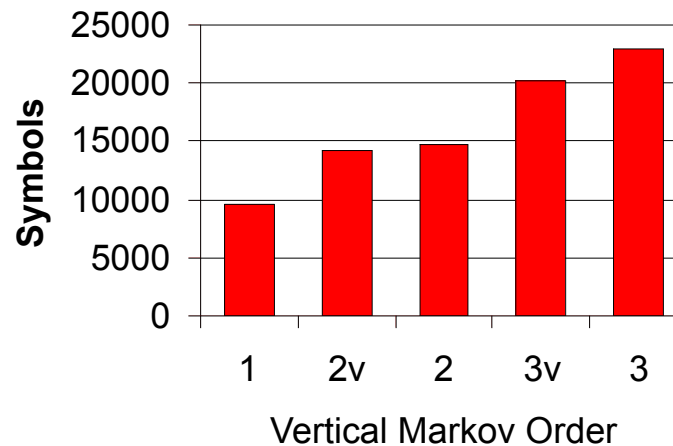
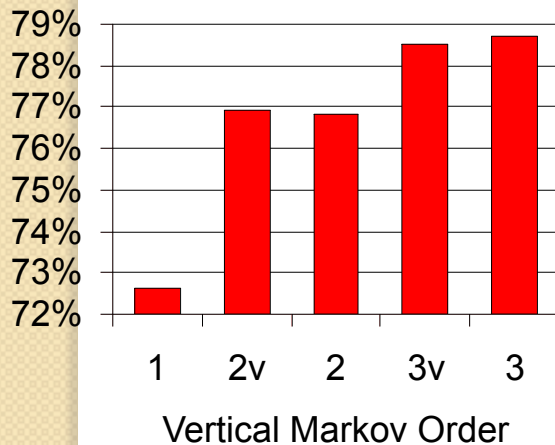
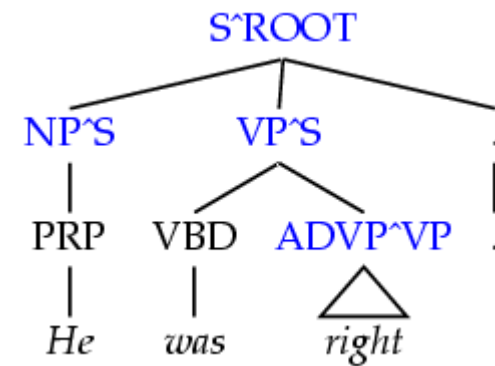
# Vertical Markovization

- Vertical Markov order: rewrites depend on past  $k$  ancestor nodes. (i.e., parent annotation)

Order 1



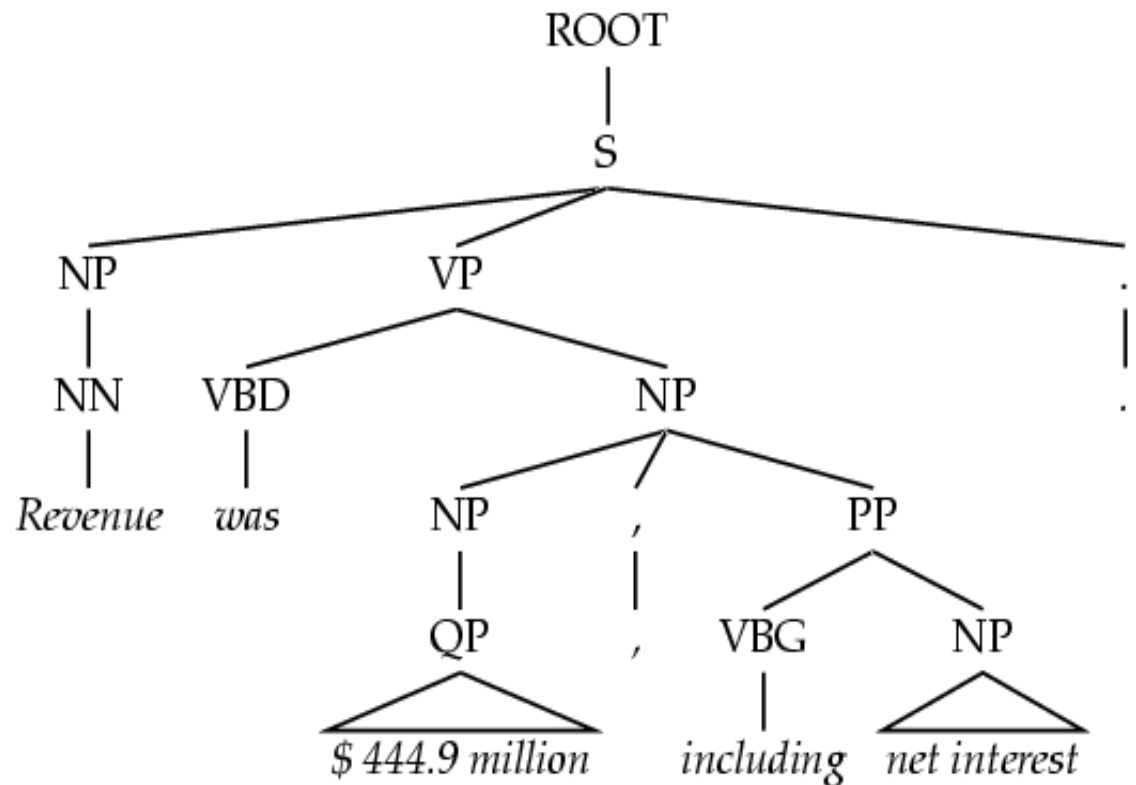
Order 2



Model	F1	Size
v=h=2v	77.8	7.5K

# Unary Splits

- Problem: unary rewrites are used to transmute categories so a high-probability rule can be used.

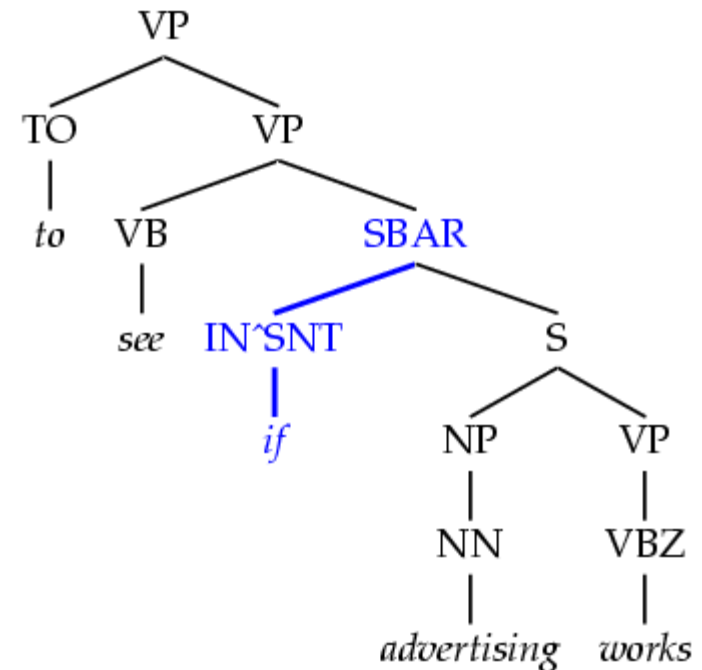


- Solution: Mark unary rewrite sites with -U

Annotation	F1	Size
Base	77.8	7.5K
UNARY	78.3	8.0K

# Tag Splits

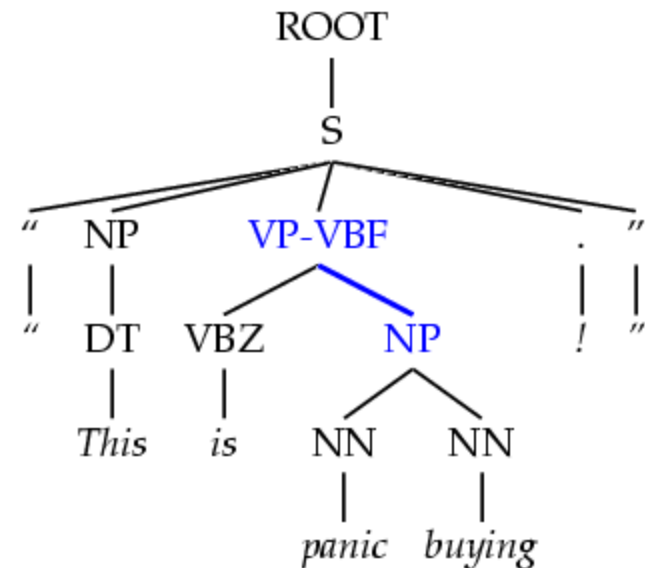
- Problem: Treebank tags are too coarse.
- Example: SBAR sentential complementizers (*that*, *whether*, *if*), subordinating conjunctions (*while*, *after*), and true prepositions (*in*, *of*, *to*) are all tagged IN.
- Partial Solution:
  - Subdivide the IN tag.



Annotation	F1	Size
Previous	78.3	8.0K
SPLIT-IN	80.3	8.1K

# Yield Splits

- Problem: sometimes the behavior of a category depends on something inside its future yield.
- Examples:
  - Possessive NPs
  - Finite vs. infinite VPs
  - Lexical heads!
- Solution: annotate future elements into nodes.

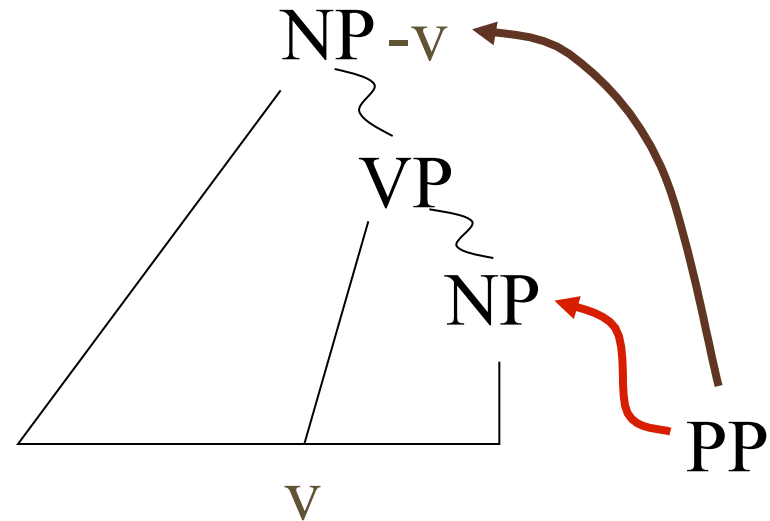


Annotation	F1	Size
tag splits	82.3	9.7K
POSS-NP	83.1	9.8K
SPLIT-VP	85.7	10.5K



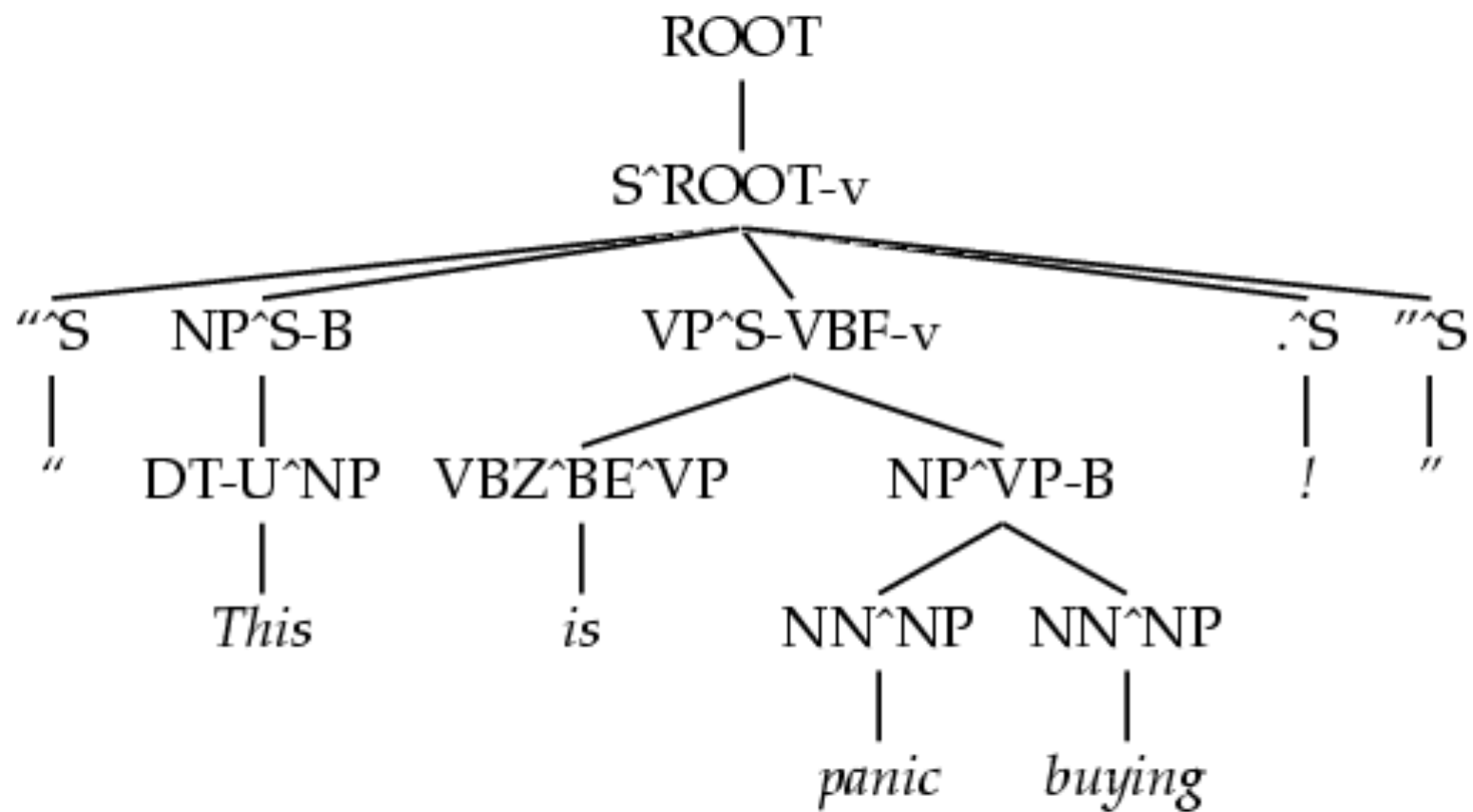
# Distance / Recursion Splits

- Problem: vanilla PCFGs cannot distinguish attachment heights.
- Solution: mark a property of higher or lower sites:
  - Contains a verb.
  - **Is (non)-recursive.**
    - Base NPs [cf. Collins 99]
    - Right-recursive NPs



Annotation	F1	Size
<b>Previous</b>	<b>85.7</b>	<b>10.5K</b>
BASE-NP	86.0	11.7K
DOMINATES-V	86.9	14.1K
RIGHT-REC-NP	87.0	15.2K

# A Fully Annotated Tree



# Final Test Set Results

Parser	LP	LR	<b>FI</b>
Magerman 95	84.9	84.6	<b>84.7</b>
Collins 96	86.3	85.8	<b>86.0</b>
Klein & Manning 03	86.9	85.7	<b>86.3</b>
Charniak 97	87.4	87.5	<b>87.4</b>
Collins 99	88.7	88.6	<b>88.6</b>

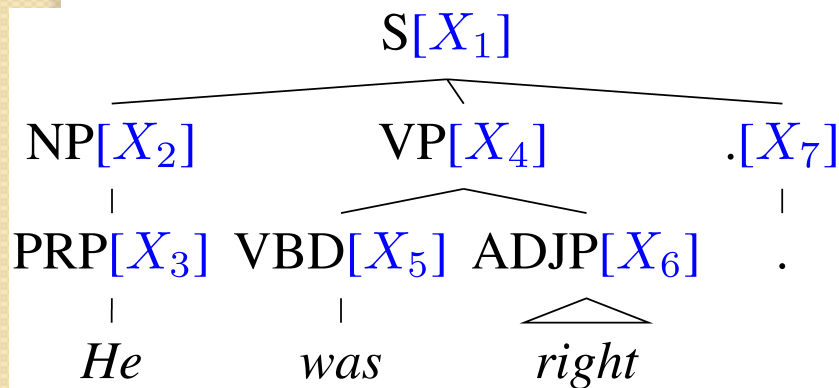
- Beats “first generation” lexicalized parsers

# Learning Latent Annotations

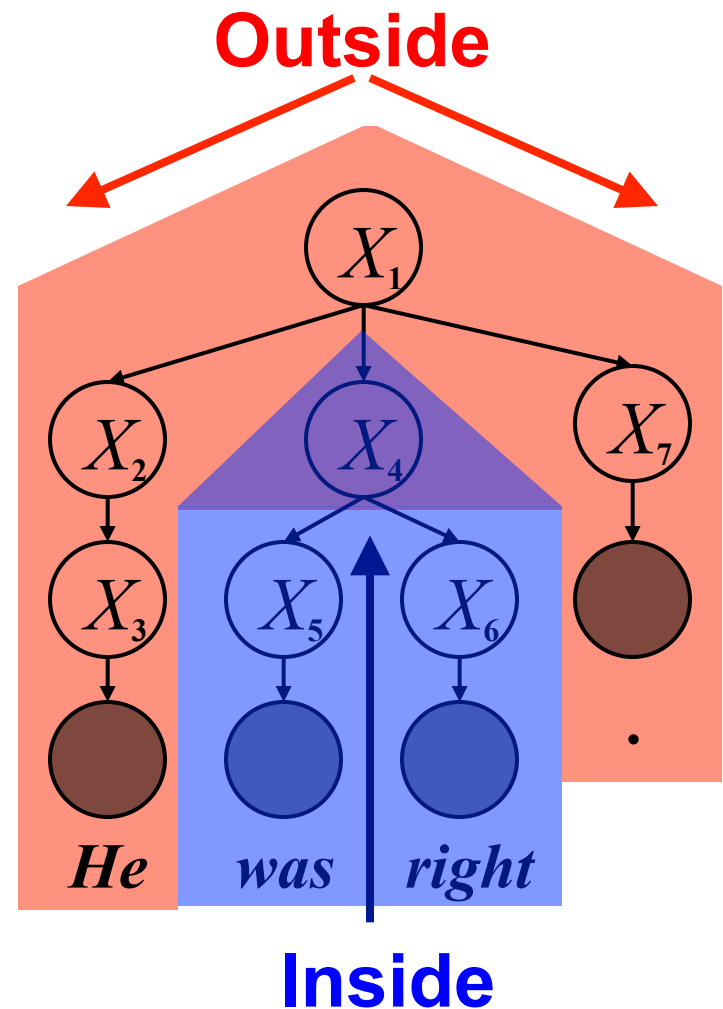
[Petrov and Klein 2006, 2007]

Can you automatically find good symbols?

- Brackets are known
- Base categories are known
- Induce subcategories
- Clever split/merge category refinement



EM algorithm, like Forward-Backward for HMMs, but constrained by tree



## POS tag splits' commonest words: effectively a semantic class-based model

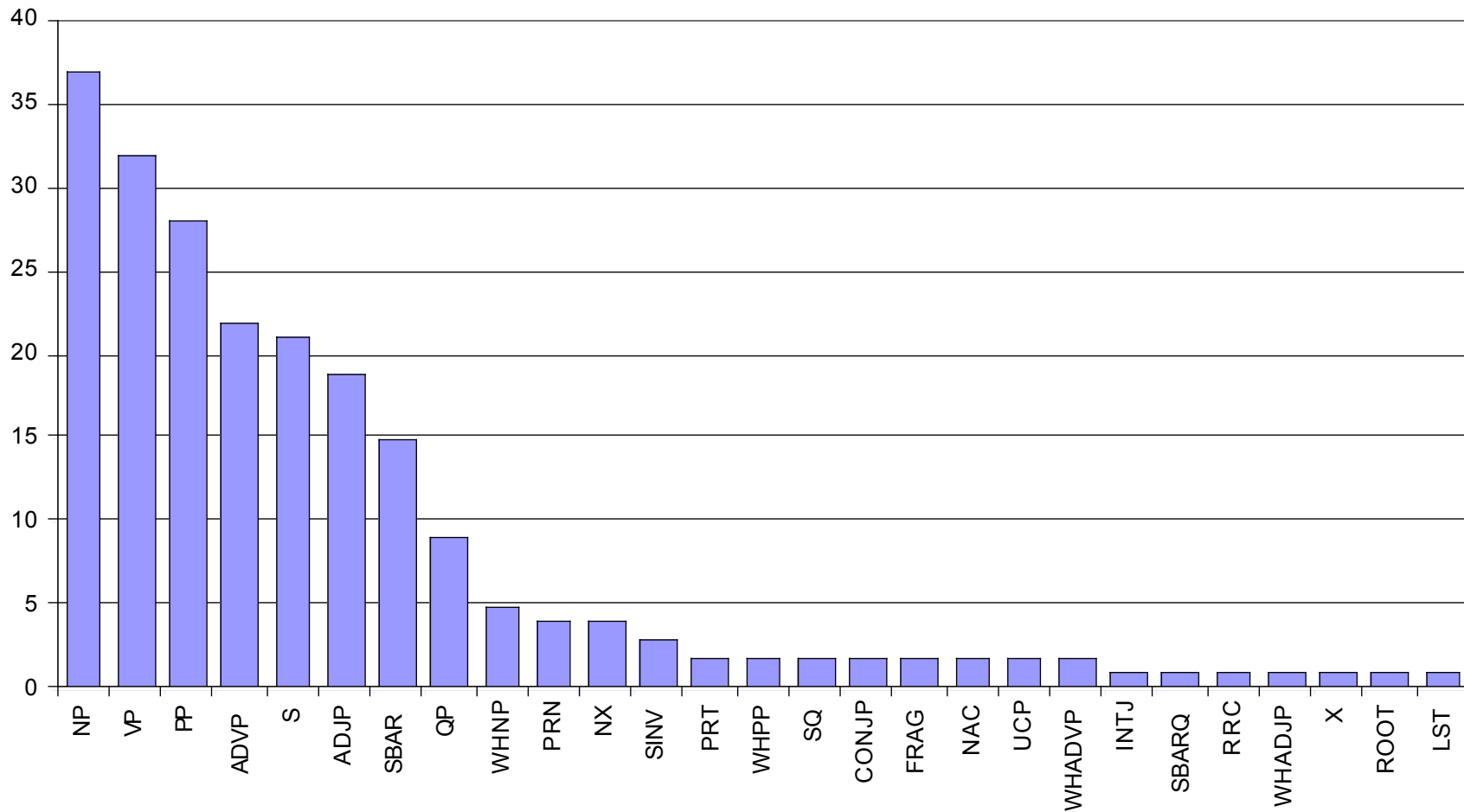
- Proper Nouns (NNP):

NNP-14	Oct.	Nov.	Sept.
NNP-12	John	Robert	James
NNP-2	J.	E.	L.
NNP-1	Bush	Noriega	Peters
NNP-15	New	San	Wall
NNP-3	York	Francisco	Street

- Personal pronouns (PRP):

PRP-0	It	He	I
PRP-1	it	he	they
PRP-2	it	them	him

# Number of phrasal subcategories



# The Latest Parsing Results... (English PTB3)

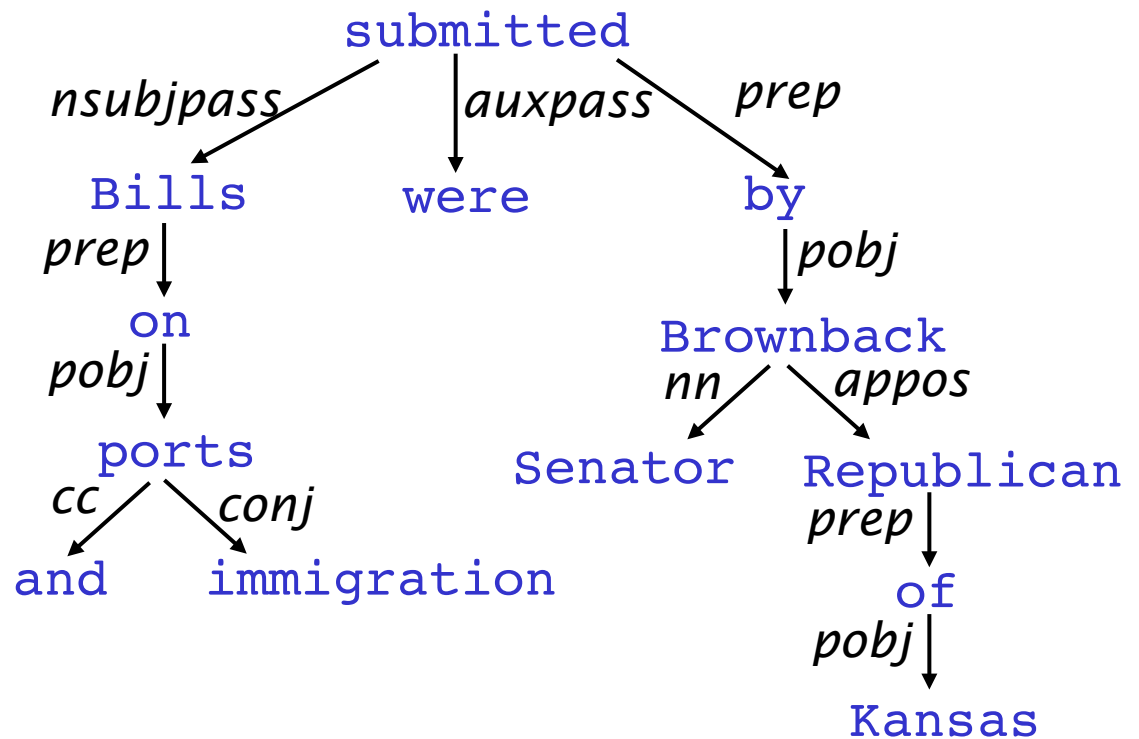
WSJ train 2-21, test 23)

<i>Parser</i>	<i>F1 ≤ 40 words</i>	<i>F1 all words</i>
Klein & Manning unlexicalized 2003	86.3	85.7
Matsuzaki et al. simple EM latent states 2005	86.7	86.1
Charniak generative, lexicalized (“maxent inspired”) 2000	90.1	89.5
Petrov and Klein NAACL 2007	90.6	90.1
Charniak & Johnson discriminative reranker 2005	92.0	91.4
Fossum & Knight 2009 combining constituent parsers		<b>92.4</b>

# Dependency Grammar and Dependency Structure

Dependency syntax postulates that syntactic structure consists of lexical items linked by binary asymmetric relations (“arrows”) called dependencies

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



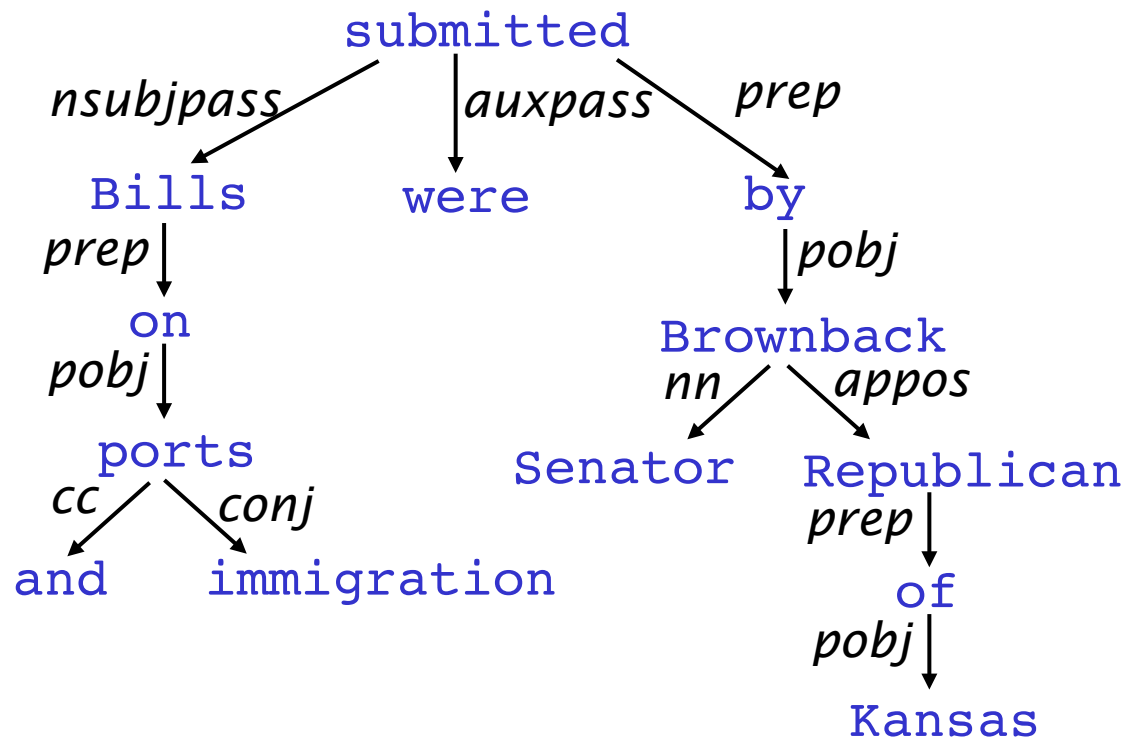


# Dependency Grammar and Dependency Structure

Dependency syntax postulates that syntactic structure consists of lexical items linked by binary asymmetric relations (“arrows”) called dependencies

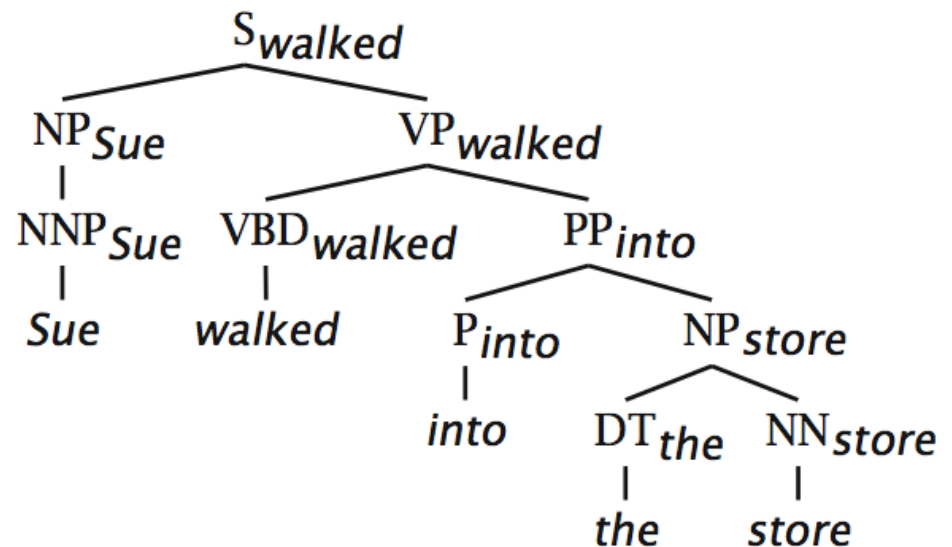
The arrow connects a **head** (governor, superior, regent) with a **dependent** (modifier, inferior, subordinate)

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



# Relation between phrase structure and dependency structure

- A dependency grammar has a notion of a head. Officially, CFGs don't.
- But modern linguistic theory and all modern statistical parsers (Charniak, Collins, Stanford, ...) do, via hand-written phrasal “head rules”:
  - The head of a Noun Phrase is a noun/number/adj/...
  - The head of a Verb Phrase is a verb/modal/....
- The head rules can be used to extract a dependency parse from a CFG parse
- The closure of dependencies give constituency from a dependency tree
- But the dependents of a word must be at the same level (i.e., “flat”) – there can be no VP!



# Methods of Dependency Parsing

## 1. Dynamic programming (like in the CKY algorithm)

You can do it similarly to lexicalized PCFG parsing: an  $O(n^5)$  algorithm  
Eisner (1996) gives a clever algorithm that reduces the complexity to  $O(n^3)$ , by producing parse items with heads at the ends rather than in the middle

## 2. Graph algorithms

You create a Maximum Spanning Tree for a sentence

McDonald et al.'s (2005) MSTParser scores dependencies independently using a ML classifier (he uses MIRA, for online learning, but it could be MaxEnt)

## 3. Constraint Satisfaction

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

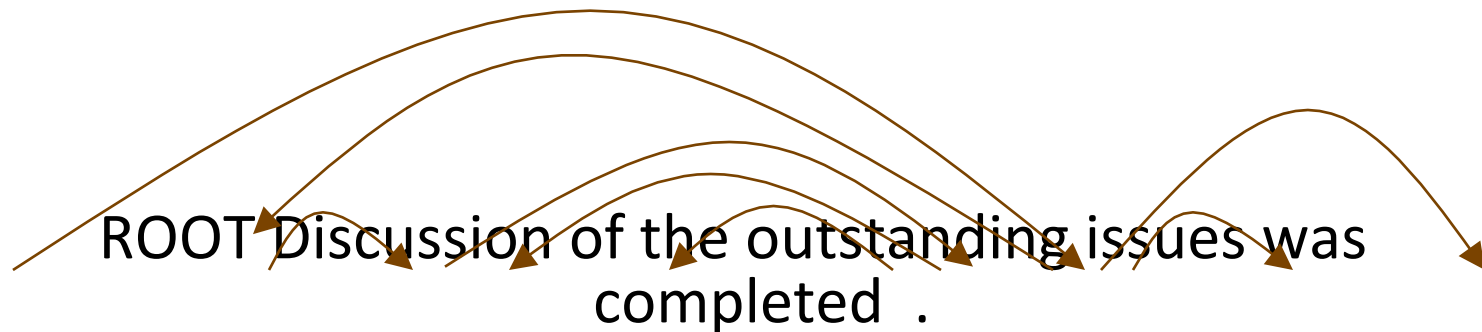
## 4. "Deterministic parsing"

Greedy choice of attachments guided by machine learning classifiers  
MaltParser (Nivre et al. 2008) – discussed in the next segment

# Dependency Conditioning Preferences

What are the sources of information for dependency parsing?

1. Bilexical affinities [issues → the] 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?



# MaltParser

[Nivre et al. 2008]

- 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  $\sigma$ , written with top to the right
    - which starts with the ROOT symbol
  - a buffer  $\beta$ , 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:**  $\sigma = [\text{ROOT}]$ ,  $\beta = w_1, \dots, w_n$ ,  $A = \emptyset$

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:**  $\beta = \emptyset$

Notes:

- Unlike the regular presentation of the CFG reduce step, dependencies combine one thing from each of stack and buffer

# Actions (“arc-eager” dependency parser)

**Start:**  $\sigma = [\text{ROOT}]$ ,  $\beta = w_1, \dots, w_n$ ,  $A = \emptyset$

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

Precondition:  $r'(w_k, w_i) \notin A$ ,  $w_i \neq \text{ROOT}$

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

3. Reduce     $\sigma | w_i, \beta, A \rightarrow \sigma, \beta, A$

Precondition:  $r'(w_k, w_i) \in A$

4. Shift     $\sigma, w_i | \beta, A \rightarrow \sigma | w_i, \beta, A$

**Finish:**  $\beta = \emptyset$

This is the common “arc-eager” variant: a head can immediately take a right dependent, before *its* dependents are found

# Example

1. Left-Arc<sub>r</sub>  $\sigma | w_i, w_j | \beta, A \rightarrow \sigma, w_j | \beta, A \cup \{r(w_j, w_i)\}$   
Precondition:  $(w_k, r', w_i) \notin A, w_i \neq \text{ROOT}$
2. Right-Arc<sub>r</sub>  $\sigma | w_i, w_j | \beta, A \rightarrow \sigma | w_i | w_j, \beta, A \cup \{r(w_i, w_j)\}$
3. Reduce  $\sigma | w_i, \beta, A \rightarrow \sigma, \beta, A$   
Precondition:  $(w_k, r', w_i) \in A$
4. Shift  $\sigma, w_i | \beta, A \rightarrow \sigma | w_i, \beta, A$

*Happy children like to play with their friends .*

	[ROOT]	[Happy, children, ...]	$\emptyset$
Shift	[ROOT, Happy]	[children, like, ...]	$\emptyset$
LA <sub>amod</sub>	[ROOT]	[children, like, ...]	$\{\text{amod}(\text{children}, \text{happy})\} = A_1$
Shift	[ROOT, children]	[like, to, ...]	$A_1$
LA <sub>nsubj</sub>	[ROOT]	[like, to, ...]	$A_1 \cup \{\text{nsubj}(\text{like}, \text{children})\} = A_2$
RA <sub>root</sub>	[ROOT, like]	[to, play, ...]	$A_2 \cup \{\text{root}(\text{ROOT}, \text{like})\} = A_3$
Shift	[ROOT, like, to]	[play, with, ...]	$A_3$
LA <sub>aux</sub>	[ROOT, like]	[play, with, ...]	$A_3 \cup \{\text{aux}(\text{play}, \text{to})\} = A_4$
RA <sub>xcomp</sub>	[ROOT, like, play]	[with their, ...]	$A_4 \cup \{\text{xcomp}(\text{like}, \text{play})\} = A_5$



# Example

1. Left-Arc<sub>r</sub>  $\sigma | w_i, w_j | \beta, A \rightarrow \sigma, w_j | \beta, A \cup \{r(w_i, w_j)\}$   
Precondition:  $(w_k, r', w_i) \notin A, w_i \neq \text{ROOT}$
2. Right-Arc<sub>r</sub>  $\sigma | w_i, w_j | \beta, A \rightarrow \sigma | w_i | w_j, \beta, A \cup \{r(w_i, w_j)\}$
3. Reduce  $\sigma | w_i, \beta, A \rightarrow \sigma, \beta, A$   
Precondition:  $(w_k, r', w_i) \in A$
4. Shift  $\sigma, w_i | \beta, A \rightarrow \sigma | w_i, \beta, A$

*Happy children like to play with their friends .*

RA <sub>xcomp</sub>	[ROOT, like, play]	[with their, ...]	$A_4 \cup \{\text{xcomp}(\text{like}, \text{play}) = A_5$
RA <sub>prep</sub>	[ROOT, like, play, with]	[their, friends, ...]	$A_5 \cup \{\text{prep}(\text{play}, \text{with}) = A_6$
Shift	[ROOT, like, play, with, their]	[friends, .]	$A_6$
LA <sub>poss</sub>	[ROOT, like, play, with]	[friends, .]	$A_6 \cup \{\text{poss}(\text{friends}, \text{their}) = A_7$
RA <sub>pobj</sub>	[ROOT, like, play, with, friends]	[.]	$A_7 \cup \{\text{pobj}(\text{with}, \text{friends}) = A_8$
Reduce	[ROOT, like, play, with]	[.]	$A_8$
Reduce	[ROOT, like, play]	[.]	$A_8$
Reduce	[ROOT, like]	[.]	$A_8$
RA <sub>punc</sub>	[ROOT, like, .]	[ ]	$A_8 \cup \{\text{punc}(\text{like}, .) = A_9$

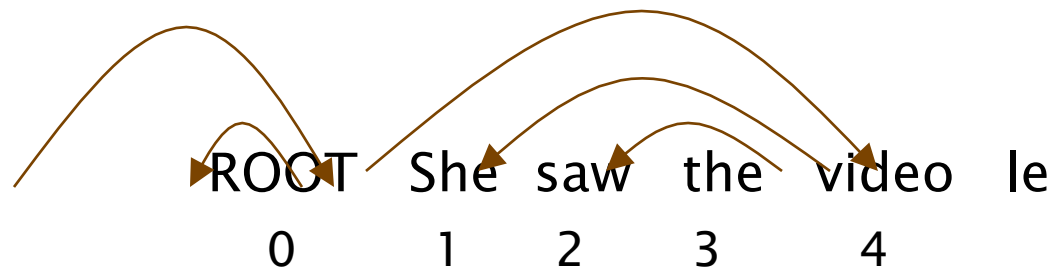
You terminate as soon as the buffer is empty. Dependencies =  $A_9$

# MaltParser

[Nivre et al. 2008]

- We have left to explain how we choose the next action
- Each action is predicted by a discriminative classifier (often SVM, could be maxent classifier) over each legal move
  - Max of 4 untyped choices, max of  $|R| \times 2 + 2$  when typed
  - Features: top of stack word, POS; first in buffer word, POS; etc.
- There is NO search (in the simplest and usual form)
  - But you could do some kind of beam search if you wish
- The model's accuracy is *slightly* below the best LPCFGs (evaluated on dependencies), but
- It provides close to state of the art parsing performance
- It provides **VERY** fast linear time parsing

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



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

$$\text{UAS} = 4 / 5 = 80\%$$

$$\text{LAS} = 2 / 5 = 40\%$$

### Gold

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

### Parsed

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

# Representative performance numbers

- The CoNLL-X (2006) shared task provides evaluation numbers for various dependency parsing approaches over 13 languages
  - MALT: LAS scores from 65–92%, depending

Parser	UAS%
Sagae and Lavie (2006) ensemble of dependency parsers	92.7
Charniak (2000) generative, constituency	92.2
Collins (1999) generative, constituency	91.7
McDonald and Pereira (2005) – MST graph-based dependency	91.5
Yamada and Matsumoto (2003) – transition-based dependency	90.4

# Projectivity

- Dependencies from a CFG tree using heads, 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

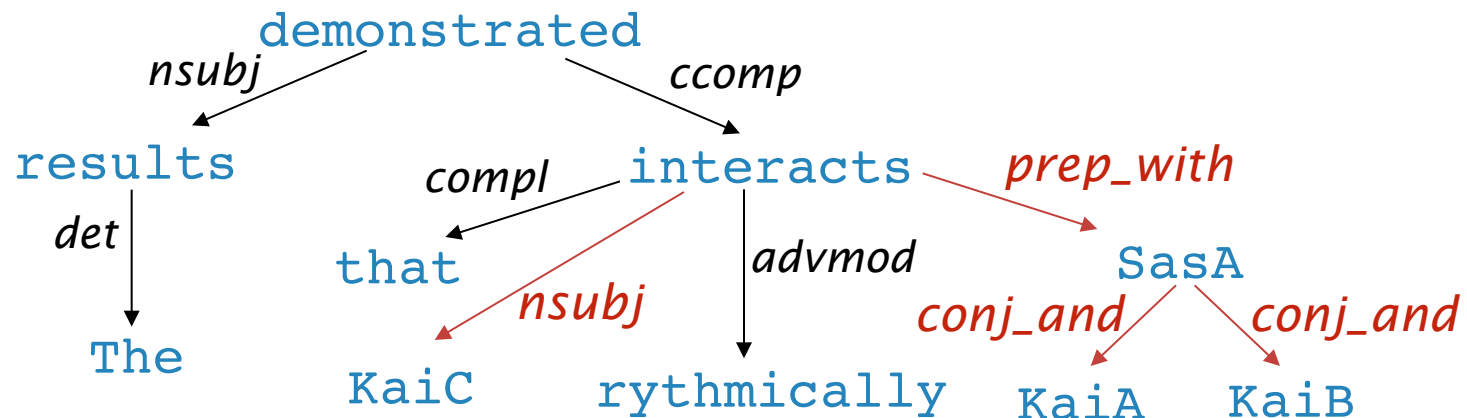


# Handling non-projectivity

- The arc-eager 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 types of transitions that can model at least most non-projective structures
  5. Move to a parsing mechanism that does not use or require any constraints on projectivity (e.g., the graph-based MSTParser)

# Dependency paths identify relations like protein interaction

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



KaiC  $\leftarrow$  nsubj interacts prep\_with  $\rightarrow$  SasA

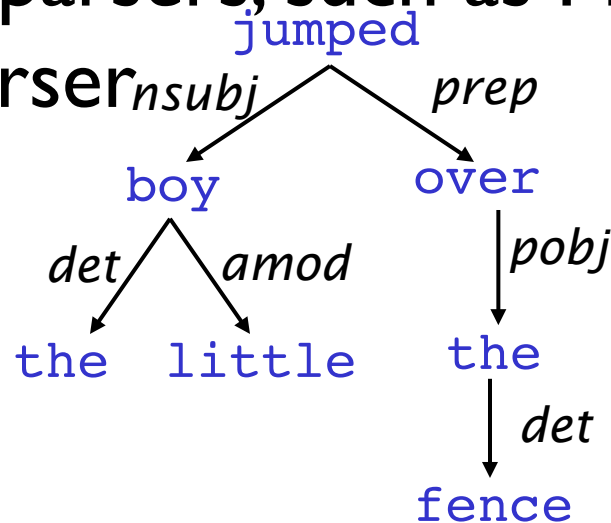
KaiC  $\leftarrow$  nsubj interacts prep\_with  $\rightarrow$  SasA conj\_and  $\rightarrow$  KaiA

KaiC  $\leftarrow$  nsubj interacts prep\_with  $\rightarrow$  SasA conj\_and  $\rightarrow$  KaiB

# Stanford Dependencies

[de Marneffe et al. LREC 2006]

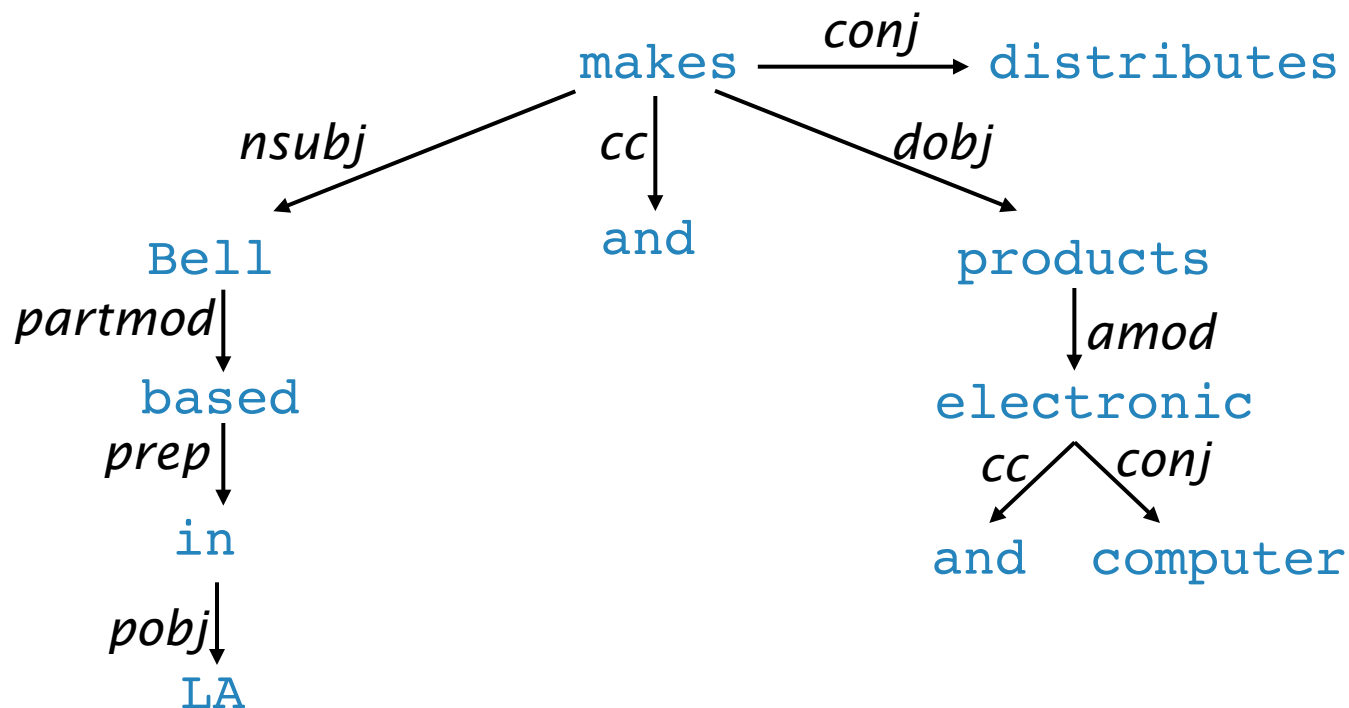
- The basic dependency representation is projective
- It can be generated by postprocessing headed phrase structure parses (Penn Treebank syntax)
- It can also be generated directly by dependency parsers, such as MaltParser, or the Easy-First Parser





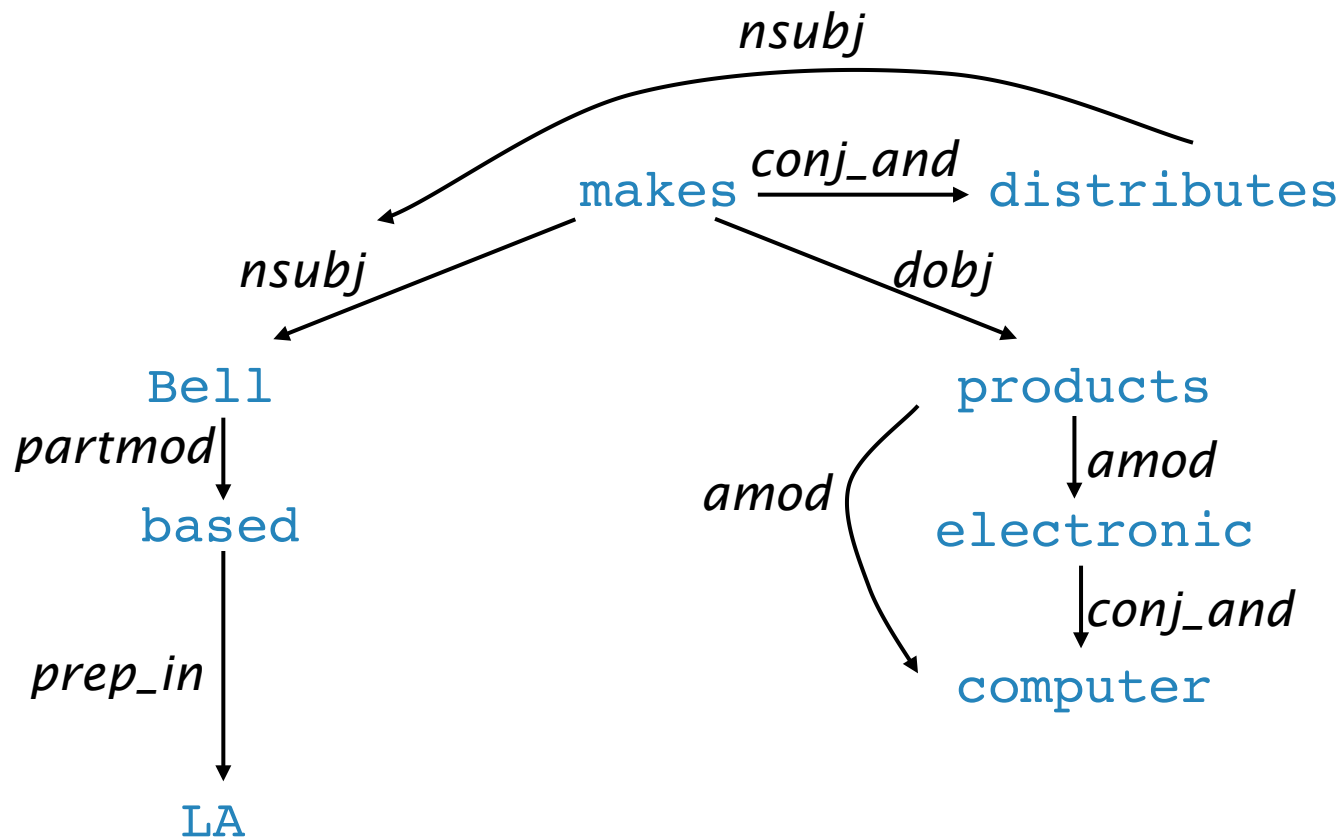
# Graph modification to facilitate semantic analysis

Bell, based in LA, makes and distributes  
electronic and computer products.



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# BioNLP 2009/2011 relation extraction shared tasks [Björne et al. 2009]

