Abstract

Dependency parsing has made many advancements in recent years, in particular for English. There are a few dependency parsers that achieve comparable accuracy scores with each other but with very different types of errors. This paper examines creating a new dependency structure through ensemble learning using a hybrid of the outputs of various parsers. We combine all tree outputs into a weighted edge graph, using 4 weighting mechanisms. The weighted edge graph is the input into our ensemble system and is a hybrid of very different parsing techniques (constituent parsers, transition-based dependency parsers, and a graph-based parser). From this graph we take a maximum spanning tree. We examine the new dependency structure in terms of accuracy and errors on individual part-of-speech values.

The results indicate that using a greater number of more varied parsers will improve accuracy results. The combined ensemble system, using 5 parsers based on 3 different parsing techniques (constituent parsers, transition-based dependency parsers, and a graph-based parser). From this graph we take a maximum spanning tree. We examine the new dependency structure in terms of accuracy and errors on individual part-of-speech values.

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1 Introduction

Dependency parsing has made many advancements in recent years. A prime reason for the quick advancement has been the CoNLL shared task competitions. These competitions gave the community a common training/testing framework along with many open source systems. These systems have, for certain languages, achieved fairly high accuracy. Many of the top systems have comparable accuracy but vary on the types of errors they make. The approaches used in the shared task vary from graph-based techniques to transition-based techniques to the conversion of constituent trees produced by state-of-the-art constituent parsers. This varied error distribution makes dependency parsing a prime area for the application of new hybrid and ensemble algorithms.

Increasing accuracy of dependency parsing often is in the realm of feature tweaking and optimization. The idea behind ensemble learning is to take the best of each parser as it currently is and allow the ensemble system to combine the outputs to form a better overall parse using prior knowledge of each individual parser. This is often done by different weighting or voting schemes.

2 Related Work

Ensemble learning (Dietterich, 2000) has been used for a variety of machine learning tasks and recently has been applied to dependency parsing in various ways and with different levels of success. (Surdeanu and Manning, 2010; Hafafari et al., 2011) showed a successful combination of parse trees through a linear combination of trees with various weighting formulations. To keep their tree constraint, they applied Eisner’s algorithm for reparsing (Eisner, 1996).

Parser combination with dependency trees has been examined in terms of accuracy (Sagae and Lavie, 2006; Sagae and Tsujii, 2007; Zeman and Žabokrtský, 2005). However, the various techniques have generally examined similar parsers along with many open source systems. These systems have, for certain languages, achieved fairly high accuracy. Many of the top systems have comparable accuracy but vary on the types of errors they make. The approaches used in the shared task vary from graph-based techniques to transition-based techniques to the conversion of constituent trees produced by state-of-the-art constituent parsers. This varied error distribution makes dependency parsing a prime area for the application of new hybrid and ensemble algorithms.

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or parsers which have generated various different models. To the best of our knowledge, our experiments are the first to look at the accuracy and part of speech error distribution when combining together constituent and dependency parsers that use many different techniques. However, POS tags were used in parser combination in (Hall et al., 2007) for combining a set of Malt Parser models with success.

Other methods of parser combinations have shown to be successful such as using one parser to generate features for another parser. This was shown in (Nivre and McDonald, 2008), in which Malt Parser was used as a feature to MST Parser. The result was a successful combination of a transition-based and graph-based parser, but did not address adding other types of parsers into the framework.

3 Methodology

The following sections describe the process flow, choice of parsers, and datasets needed for others to recreate the results listed in this paper. Although we describe the specific parsers and datasets used in this paper, this process flow should work for any number of hybrid combinations of parsers and datasets.

3.1 Process Flow

To generate a single ensemble parse tree, our system takes \( N \) parse trees as input. The inputs are from a variety of parsers as described in 3.2. All edges in these parse trees are combined into a graph structure. This graph structure accepts weighted edges. So if more than one parse tree contains the same tree edge, the graph is weighted appropriately according to a chosen weighting algorithm. The weighting algorithms used in our experiments are described in 3.5.

Once the system has a weighted graph, it then uses an algorithm to find a corresponding tree structure so there are no cycles. In this set of experiments, we constructed a tree by finding the maximum spanning tree using ChuLiu/Edmonds’ algorithm, which is a standard choice for MST tasks. Figure 1 graphically shows the decisions one needs to make in this framework to create an ensemble parse.

Figure 1: General flow to create an ensemble parse tree.

3.2 Parsers

To get a complete representation of parsers in our ensemble learning framework we use 5 of the most commonly used parsers. They range from graph-based approaches to transition-based approaches to constituent parsers. Constituency output is converted to dependency structures using a converter (Johansson and Nugues, 2007). All parsers are integrated into the Treex framework (Zabokrtský et al., 2008; Popel et al., 2011) using the publicly released parsers from the respective authors but with Perl wrappers to allow them to work on a common tree structure.

- **Graph-Based**: A dependency tree is a special case of a weighted edge graph that spawns from an artificial root and is acyclic. Because of this we can look at a large history of work in graph theory to address finding the best spanning tree for each dependency graph. In this paper we use MST Parser (McDonald et al., 2005) as an input to our ensemble parser.

- **Transition-Based**: Transition-based parsing creates a dependency structure that is parameterized over the transitions used to create a dependency tree. This is closely related to shift-reduce constituency parsing algorithms. The benefit of transition-based parsing is the use of greedy algorithms which have a linear time complexity. However, due to the greedy algorithms, longer arc parses can cause error propagation across each transition (Kühler et al., 2009). We make use
of Malt Parser (Nivre et al., 2007b), which in the shared tasks was often tied with the best performing systems. Additionally we use Zpar (Zhang and Clark, 2011) which is based on Malt Parser but with a different set of non-local features.

• Constituent Transformation While not a true dependency parser, one technique often applied is to take a state-of-the-art constituent parser and transform its phrase based output into dependency relations. This has been shown to also be state-of-the-art in accuracy for dependency parsing in English. In this paper we transformed the constituency structure into dependencies using the Penn Converter conversion tool (Johansson and Nugues, 2007). A version of this converter was used in the CoNLL shared task to create dependency treebanks as well. For the following ensemble experiments we make use of both (Charniak and Johnson, 2005) and Stanford’s (Klein and Manning, 2003) constituent parsers.

In addition to these 5 parsers, we also report the accuracy of an Oracle Parser. This parser is simply the best possible parse of all the edges of the combined dependency trees. If the reference, gold standard, tree has an edge that any of the 5 parsers contain, we include that edge in the Oracle parse. Initially all nodes of the tree are attached to an artificial root in order to maintain connectedness. Since only edges that exist in a reference tree are added, the Oracle Parser maintains the acyclic constraint. This can be viewed as the maximum accuracy that a hybrid approach could achieve with this set of parsers and with the given data sets.

3.3 Datasets
Much of the current progress in dependency parsing has been a result of the availability of common data sets in a variety of languages, made available through the CoNLL shared task (Nivre et al., 2007a). This data is in 13 languages and 7 language families. Later shared tasks also released data in other genres to allow for domain adaptation. The availability of standard competition, gold level, data has been an important factor in dependency based research.

For this study we use the English CoNLL data. This data comes from the Wall Street Journal (WSJ) section of the Penn treebank (Marcus et al., 1993). All parsers are trained on sections 02-21 of the WSJ except for the Stanford parser which uses sections 01-21. Charniak, Stanford and Zpar use pre-trained models ec50wppfinal, wsfPCFG.ser.gz, english.tar.gz respectively. For testing we use section 23 of the WSJ for comparability reasons with other papers. This test data contains 56,684 tokens. For tuning we use section 22. This data is used for determining some of the weighting features.

3.4 Evaluation
As an artifact of the CoNLL shared tasks competition, two standard metrics for comparing dependency parsing systems emerged. Labeled attachment score (LAS) and unlabeled attachment score (UAS). UAS studies the structure of a dependency tree and assesses whether the output has the correct head and dependency arcs. In addition to the structure score in UAS, LAS also measures the accuracy of the dependency labels on each arc. A third, but less common metric, is used to judge the percentage of sentences that are completely correct in regards to their LAS score. For this paper since we are primarily concerned with the merging of tree structures we only evaluate UAS (Buchholz and Marsi, 2006).

3.5 Weighting
Currently we are applying four weighting algorithms to the graph structure. First we give each parser the same uniform weight. Second we examine weighting each parser output by the UAS score of the individual parser taken from our tuning data. Third we use plural voting weights (De Pauw et al., 2006) based on parser ranks from our tuning data. Due to the success of Plural voting, we try to exaggerate the differences in the parsers by using UAS\textsuperscript{10} weighting. All four of these are simple weighting techniques but even in their simplicity we can see the benefit of this type of combination in an ensemble parser.

• Uniform Weights: an edge in the graph gets incremented +1 weight for each matching edge in each parser. If an edge occurs in 4 parsers, the weight is 4.

• UAS Weighted: Each edge in the graph gets
incremented by the value of its parser's individual accuracy. So in the UAS results in Table 1 an edge in Charniak’s tree gets .92 added while MST gets .86 added to every edge they share with the resulting graph. This weighting should allow us to add poor parsers with very little harm to the overall score.

- **Plural Voting Weights:** In Plural Voting the parsers are rated according to their rank in our tuning data and each gets a “vote” based on their quality. With $N$ parsers the best parser gets $N$ votes while the last place parser gets 1 vote. In this paper, Charniak received 5 votes, Stanford received 4 votes, MST Parser received 3 votes, Malt Parser received 2 votes, and Zpar received 1 vote. Votes in this case are added to each edge as a weight.

- **UAS$^{10}$:** For this weighting scheme we took each UAS value to the 10th power. This gave us the desired effect of making the differences in accuracy more apparent and giving more distance from the best to worst parser. This exponent was empirically selected from results with our tuning data set.

### 4 Results

Table 1 contains the results of different parser combinations of the 5 parsers and Table 2 shows the baseline scores of the respective individual parsers. The results indicate that using two parsers will result in an “average” score, and no combination of 2 parsers gave an improvement over the individual parsers, these were left out of the table. Ensemble learning seems to start to have a benefit when using 3 or more parsers with a few combinations having a better UAS score than any of the baseline parsers, these cases are in bold throughout the table. When we add a 4th parser to the mix almost all configurations lead to an improved score when the edges are not weighted uniformly. The only case in which this does not occur is when Stanford’s Parser is not used.

Uniform voting gives us an improved score in a few of the model combinations but in most cases does not produce an output that beats the best individual system. UAS weighting is not the best overall but it does give improved performance in the majority of model combinations. Problematically UAS weighted trees do not give an improved accuracy when all 5 parsers are used. Given the slight differences in UAS scores of the baseline models in Table 2 this is not surprising as the best graph edge can be outvoted as the number of $N$ parsers increases. The slight differences in weight do not seem to change the MST parse dramatically when all 5 parsers are used over Uniform weighting. Based on the UAS scores learned in our tuning data set, we next looked to amplify the weight differences using Plural Voting. For the majority of model combinations in Plural voting we achieve improved results over the individual systems. When all 5 parsers are used together with Plural Voting, the ensemble parser improves over the highest individual parser’s UAS score. With the success of Plural voting we looked to amplify the UAS score differences in a more systematic way. We looked at using $UAS^x$ where $x$ was found experimentally in our tuning data. UAS$^{10}$ matched Plural voting in the amount of system combinations that improved over their individual components. The top overall score is when we use UAS$^{10}$ weighting with all parsers. For parser combinations that do not feature Charniak’s parser, we also find an increase in overall accuracy score compared to each individual parser, although never beating Charniak’s individual score.

To see the maximum accuracy a hybrid combination can achieve we include an Oracle Ensemble Parser in Table 1. The Oracle Parser takes the edges from all dependency trees and only adds each edge to the Oracle Tree if the corresponding edge is in the reference tree. This gives us a ceiling on what ensemble learning can achieve. As we can see in Table 1, the ceiling of ensemble learning is 97.41% accuracy. Because of this high value with only 5 parsers, ensemble learning and other hybrid approaches should be a very prosperous area for dependency parsing research.

In (Kübler et al., 2009) the authors confirm that two parsers, MST Parser and Malt Parser, give similar accuracy results but with very different errors. MST parser, a maximum spanning tree graph-based algorithm, has evenly distributed errors while Malt Parser, a transition based parser, has errors on mainly longer sentences. This re-
Table 1: Results of the maximum spanning tree algorithm on a combined edge graph. Scores are in bold when the ensemble system increased the UAS score over all individual systems.

| System                        | Uniform Weighting | UAS Weighted | Plural Weighting | UAS Voting Weighted | Oracle UAS |
|-------------------------------|-------------------|--------------|------------------|---------------------|------------|
| Charniak-Stanford-Mst         | 91.86             | 92.27        | 92.28            | 92.25               | 96.48      |
| Charniak-Stanford-Malt        | 91.77             | 92.28        | 92.3             | 92.08               | 96.49      |
| Charniak-Stanford-Zpar        | 91.22             | 91.99        | 92.02            | 92.08               | 95.94      |
| Charniak-Mst-Malt             | 88.80             | 89.55        | 90.77            | 92.08               | 96.3       |
| Charniak-Mst-Zpar             | 90.44             | 91.59        | 92.08            | 92.08               | 96.16      |
| Charniak-Malt-Zpar            | 88.61             | 91.3         | 92.08            | 92.08               | 96.21      |
| Stanford-Mst-Malt             | 87.84             | 88.28        | 88.26            | 88.28               | 95.62      |
| Stanford-Mst-Zpar             | 89.12             | 89.88        | 88.84            | 89.91               | 95.57      |
| Stanford-Malt-Zpar            | 88.61             | 89.57        | 87.88            | 87.88               | 95.47      |
| Mst-Malt-Zpar                 | 86.99             | 87.34        | 86.82            | 86.49               | 93.79      |
| Charniak-Stanford-Mst-Malt    | 90.45             | 92.09        | 92.34            | 92.56               | 97.09      |
| Charniak-Stanford-Mst-Zpar    | 91.57             | 92.24        | 92.27            | 92.26               | 96.97      |
| Charniak-Stanford-Malt-Zpar   | 91.31             | 92.14        | 92.4             | 92.42               | 97.03      |
| Charniak-Mst-Malt-Zpar        | 89.60             | 89.48        | 91.71            | 92.08               | 96.79      |
| Stanford-Mst-Malt-Zpar        | 88.76             | 88.45        | 88.95            | 88.44               | 96.36      |
| All                           | 91.43             | 91.77        | 92.44            | 92.58               | 97.41      |

Table 2: Our baseline parsers and corresponding UAS used in our ensemble experiments

| Parser | UAS |
|--------|-----|
| Charniak | 92.08 |
| Stanford | 87.88 |
| MST   | 86.49 |
| Malt  | 84.51 |
| Zpar  | 76.06 |

As we can see the range of POS errors varies dramatically depending on which parser we examine. For instance for CC, Charniak has 83.54% accuracy while MST has only 71.16% accuracy. The performance for certain POS tags is almost universally low such as the left parenthesis ( . Given the large difference in POS errors, weighting an ensemble system by POS would seem like a logical choice in future work. As we can see in Figure 2, the varying POS accuracies indicate that the parsing techniques we have incorporated into our ensemble parser, are significantly different. In almost every case in Table 3, our ensemble parser achieves the best accuracy for each POS, while reducing the average relative error rate by 9.82%.

The current weighting systems do not simply default to the best parser or to an average of all errors. In the majority of cases our ensemble parser obtains the top accuracy. The ability of the ensemble system to use maximum spanning tree on a graph allows the ensemble parser to connect nodes which might have been unconnected in a subset of the parsers for an overall gain, which is preferable to techniques which only select the best model for a particular tree. In all cases, our ensemble parser is never the worst parser. In
| POS | Charniak | Stanford | MST | Malt | Zpar | Best Ensemble | Relative Error Reduction |
|-----|----------|----------|-----|------|------|---------------|-------------------------|
| CC  | 83.54    | 74.73    | 71.16 | 65.84 | 20.39 | **84.63**     | 6.62                    |
| NNP | 94.59    | 92.16    | 88.04 | 87.17 | 73.67 | **95.02**     | 7.95                    |
| VBN | 91.72    | 89.81    | 90.35 | 89.17 | 88.26 | **93.81**     | 25.24                   |
| CD  | 94.91    | 92.67    | 85.19 | 84.46 | 82.64 | **94.96**     | 0.98                    |
| RP  | 96.15    | 95.05    | 97.25 | 95.60 | 94.51 | **97.80**     | 42.86                   |
| JJ  | 95.41    | 92.99    | 94.47 | 93.90 | 89.45 | **95.85**     | 9.59                    |
| PRP | 97.82    | 96.21    | 96.68 | 95.64 | 95.45 | **98.39**     | 26.15                   |
| TO  | 94.52    | 89.44    | 91.29 | 89.73 | 88.63 | 94.35         | -3.10                   |
| WRB | 63.91    | 60.90    | 68.42 | 73.68 | 4.51  | 63.91         | 0.00                    |
| RB  | 86.26    | 79.88    | 81.49 | 81.44 | 80.61 | **87.19**     | 6.77                    |
| WDT | 97.14    | 95.36    | 96.43 | 95.00 | 9.29  | **97.50**     | 12.59                   |
| VBZ | 91.97    | 87.35    | 83.86 | 80.78 | 57.91 | **92.46**     | 6.10                    |
| (   | 73.61    | 75.00    | 54.17 | 58.33 | 15.28 | 73.61         | 0.00                    |
| POS | 98.18    | 96.54    | 98.54 | 98.72 | 0.18  | **98.36**     | 9.89                    |
| VB  | 93.04    | 88.48    | 91.33 | 90.95 | 84.37 | **94.24**     | 17.24                   |
| MD  | 89.55    | 82.02    | 83.05 | 78.77 | 51.54 | **89.90**     | 3.35                    |
| NNS | 93.10    | 89.51    | 90.68 | 88.65 | 78.93 | **93.67**     | 8.26                    |
| NN  | 93.62    | 90.29    | 88.45 | 86.98 | 83.84 | **94.00**     | 5.96                    |
| VBD | 93.25    | 87.20    | 86.27 | 82.73 | 64.32 | **93.52**     | 4.00                    |
| DT  | 97.61    | 96.47    | 97.30 | 97.01 | 92.19 | **97.97**     | 15.06                   |
| RBS | 90.00    | 76.67    | 93.33 | 93.33 | 86.67 | 90.00         | 0.00                    |
| IN  | 87.80    | 78.66    | 83.45 | 80.78 | 73.08 | 87.48         | -2.66                   |
| )   | 70.83    | 77.78    | 96.46 | 55.56 | 12.50 | **72.22**     | 4.77                    |
| VBG | 85.19    | 82.13    | 82.74 | 82.25 | 81.27 | **89.35**     | 28.09                   |
| Average |         |         |       |       |       | **9.82**      |                         |

Table 3: POS accuracies for each of our systems that are used in the ensemble system. We use these accuracies to obtain the POS error distribution for our best ensemble system, which is the combination of all parsers using UAS\textsuperscript{10} weighting. Relative error reduction is calculated between our best ensemble system against the Charniak Parser which had the best individual scores.
cases where the POS is less frequent, our ensemble parser appears to average out the error distribution.

5 Conclusion

We have shown the benefits of using a maximum spanning tree algorithm in ensemble learning for dependency parsing, especially for the hybrid combination of constituent parsers with other dependency parsing techniques. This ensemble method shows improvements over the current state of the art for each individual parser. We also show a theoretical maximum oracle parser which indicates that much more work in this field can take place to improve dependency parsing accuracy toward the oracle score of 97.41%.

We demonstrated that using parsers of different techniques, especially including transformed constituent parsers, can lead to the best accuracy within this ensemble framework. The improvements in accuracy are not simply due to a few edge changes but can be seen to improve the accuracy of the majority of POS tags over all individual systems.

While we have only shown this for English, we expect the results to be similar for other languages since our methodology is language independent. Future work will contain different weighting mechanisms as well as application to other languages which are included in CoNLL data sets.

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