

Stanford typed dependencies manual

Marie-Catherine de Marneffe and Christopher D. Manning

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1 Introduction

The Stanford typed dependencies representation was designed to provide a simple description of the grammatical relationships in a sentence that can easily be understood and effectively used by people without linguistic expertise who want to extract textual relations. In particular, rather than the phrase structure representations that have long dominated in the computational linguistic community, it represents all sentence relationships uniformly as typed dependency relations. That is, as triples of a relation between pairs of words, such as “the subject of *distributes* is *Bell*.” Our experience is that this simple, uniform representation is quite accessible to non-linguists thinking about tasks involving information extraction from text and is quite effective in relation extraction applications.

Here is an example sentence:

Bell, based in Los Angeles, makes and distributes electronic, computer and building products.

For this sentence, the Stanford Dependencies (SD) representation is:

```
nsubj(makes-8, Bell-1)
nsubj(distributes-10, Bell-1)
partmod(Bell-1, based-3)
nn(Angeles-6, Los-5)
prep_in(based-3, Angeles-6)
conj_and(makes-8, distributes-10)
amod(products-16, electronic-11)
conj_and(electronic-11, computer-13)
amod(products-16, computer-13)
conj_and(electronic-11, building-15)
amod(products-16, building-15)
dobj(makes-8, products-16)
dobj(distributes-10, products-16)
```

This maps straightforwardly onto a directed graph representation, in which words in the sentence are nodes in the graph and grammatical relations are edge labels. Figure 1 gives the graph representation for the example sentence above.

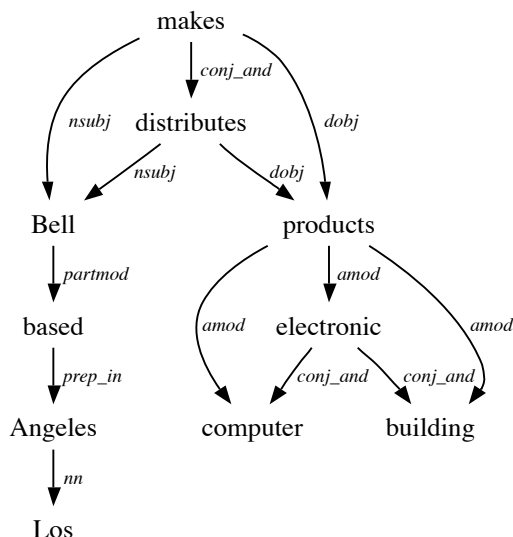


Figure 1: Graphical representation of the Stanford Dependencies for the sentence: *Bell, based in Los Angeles, makes and distributes electronic, computer and building products.*

This manual provides documentation about the set of dependencies defined for English. (There is also a Stanford Dependency representation available for Chinese, but it is not further discussed here.) The bulk of the manual defines the relations and the taxonomic hierarchy over them. This is then followed by some details of the software we have for generating Stanford Dependencies, a description of the several variant dependency representations suitable in different contexts, and references to further discussion and use of the SD representation.

2 Definitions of the Stanford typed dependencies

The current representation contains 55 grammatical relations. The dependencies are all binary relations: a grammatical relation holds between a governor and a dependent. The grammatical relations are defined below, in alphabetical order according to the dependency abbreviated name (which appears in the parser output). The definitions make use of the Penn Treebank part-of-speech tags and phrasal labels.

***abbrev*: abbreviation modifier**

An abbreviation modifier of an NP is a parenthesized NP that serves to abbreviate the NP (or to define an abbreviation).

“The Australian Broadcasting Corporation (ABC)” *abbrev*(Corporation, ABC)

***acomp*: adjectival complement**

An adjectival complement of a VP is an adjectival phrase which functions as the complement (like an object of the verb); an adjectival complement of a clause is the adjectival complement of the VP which is the predicate of that clause.

“She looks very beautiful” *acomp*(looks, beautiful)

***advcl*: adverbial clause modifier**

An adverbial clause modifier of a VP or S is a clause modifying the verb (temporal clause, consequence, conditional clause, etc.).

“The accident happened as the night was falling” *advcl*(happened, falling)
“If you know who did it, you should tell the teacher” *advcl*(tell, know)

***advmod*: adverbial modifier**

An adverbial modifier of a word is a (non-clausal) RB or ADVP that serves to modify the meaning of the word.

“Genetically modified food” *advmod*(modified, genetically)
“less often” *advmod*(often, less)

***agent*: agent**

An agent is the complement of a passive verb which is introduced by the preposition “by” and does the action.

“The man has been killed by the police” *agent*(killed, police)
“Effects caused by the protein are important” *agent*(caused, protein)

***amod*: adjectival modifier**

An adjectival modifier of an NP is any adjectival phrase that serves to modify the meaning of the NP.

“Sam eats red meat” *amod*(meat, red)

***appos*: appositional modifier**

An appositional modifier of an NP is an NP immediately to the right of the first NP that serves to define or modify that NP. It includes parenthesized examples.

“Sam, my brother” *appos*(Sam, brother)
“Bill (John’s cousin)” *appos*(Bill, cousin)

***attr*: attributive**

An attributive is a WHNP complement of a copular verb such as “to be”, “to seem”, “to appear”.

“What is that?” *attr*(is, What)

***aux*: auxiliary**

An auxiliary of a clause is a non-main verb of the clause, e.g. modal auxiliary, “be” and “have” in a composed tense.

“Reagan has died”	<i>aux</i> (died, has)
“He should leave”	<i>aux</i> (leave, should)

***auxpass*: passive auxiliary**

A passive auxiliary of a clause is a non-main verb of the clause which contains the passive information.

“Kennedy has been killed”	<i>auxpass</i> (killed, been)
	<i>aux</i> (killed,has)
“Kennedy was/got killed”	<i>auxpass</i> (killed, was/got)

***cc*: coordination**

A coordination is the relation between an element of a conjunct and the coordinating conjunction word of the conjunct.

“Bill is big and honest”	<i>cc</i> (big, and)
“They either ski or snowboard”	<i>cc</i> (ski, or)

***ccomp*: clausal complement**

A clausal complement of a verb or adjective is a dependent clause with an internal subject which functions like an object of the verb, or adjective. Clausal complements for nouns are limited to complement clauses with a subset of nouns like “fact” or “report”. We analyze them the same (parallel to the analysis of this class as “content clauses” in Huddleston and Pullum 2002). Such clausal complements are usually finite (though there are occasional remnant English subjunctives).

“He says that you like to swim”	<i>ccomp</i> (says, like)
“I am certain that he did it”	<i>ccomp</i> (certain, did)
“I admire the fact that you are honest”	<i>ccomp</i> (fact, honest)

***complm*: complementizer**

A complementizer of a clausal complement (*ccomp*) is the word introducing it. It will be the subordinating conjunction “that” or “whether”.

“He says that you like to swim”	<i>complm</i> (like, that)
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***conj*: conjunct**

A conjunct is the relation between two elements connected by a coordinating conjunction, such as “and”, “or”, etc. We treat conjunctions asymmetrically: The head of the relation is the first conjunct and other conjunctions depend on it via the *conj* relation.

“Bill is big and honest”	<i>conj</i> (big, honest)
“They either ski or snowboard”	<i>conj</i> (ski, snowboard)

***cop*: copula**

A copula is the relation between the complement of a copular verb and the copular verb.

“Bill is big”	<i>cop</i> (big, is)
“Bill is an honest man”	<i>cop</i> (man, is)

***csubj*: clausal subject**

A clausal subject is a clausal syntactic subject of a clause, i.e. the subject is itself a clause. The governor of this relation might not always be a verb: when the verb is a copular verb, the root of the clause is the complement of the copular verb. In the two following examples, “what she said” is the subject.

“What she said makes sense”	<i>csubj</i> (makes, said)
“What she said is not true”	<i>csubj</i> (true, said)

***csubjpass*: clausal passive subject**

A clausal passive subject is a clausal syntactic subject of a passive clause. In the example below, “that she lied” is the subject.

“That she lied was suspected by everyone”	<i>csubjpass</i> (suspected, lied)
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***det*: determiner**

A determiner is the relation between the head of an NP and its determiner.

“The man is here”	<i>det</i> (man, the)
“Which book do you prefer?”	<i>det</i> (book, which)

***dobj*: direct object**

The direct object of a VP is the noun phrase which is the (accusative) object of the verb; the direct object of a clause is the direct object of the VP which is the predicate of that clause.

“She gave me a raise”	<i>dobj</i> (gave, raise)
“They win the lottery”	<i>dobj</i> (win, lottery)

***expl*: expletive**

This relation captures an existential “there”. The main verb of the clause is the governor.

“There is a ghost in the room”	<i>expl</i> (is, There)
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***infmod*: infinitival modifier**

An infinitival modifier of an NP is an infinitive that serves to modify the meaning of the NP.

“Points to establish are ...”	<i>infmod</i> (points, establish)
“I don’t have anything to say”	<i>infmod</i> (anything, say)

***iobj*: indirect object**

The indirect object of a VP is the noun phrase which is the (dative) object of the verb; the indirect object of a clause is the indirect object of the VP which is the predicate of that clause.

“She gave me a raise” *iobj*(gave, me)

***mark*: marker**

A marker of an adverbial clausal complement (*advcl*) is the word introducing it. It will be a subordinating conjunction different from “that” or “whether”: e.g. “because”, “when”, “although”, etc.

“Forces engaged in fighting after insurgents attacked” *mark*(attacked, after)

***measure*: measure-phrase modifier**

The measure-phrase modifier is the relation between the head of an ADJP/ADVP and the head of a measure-phrase modifying the ADJP/ADVP.

“The director is 65 years old” *measure*(old, years)
 “6 feet long” *measure*(long, feet)

***neg*: negation modifier**

The negation modifier is the relation between a negation word and the word it modifies.

“Bill is not a scientist” *neg*(scientist, not)
 “Bill doesn’t drive” *neg*(drive, n’t)

***nn*: noun compound modifier**

A noun compound modifier of an NP is any noun that serves to modify the head noun. (Note that in the current system for dependency extraction, all nouns modify the rightmost noun of the NP – there is no intelligent noun compound analysis. This is likely to be fixed once the Penn Treebank represents the branching structure of NPs.)

“Oil price futures” *nn*(futures, oil)
 nn(futures, price)

***nsubj*: nominal subject**

A nominal subject is a noun phrase which is the syntactic subject of a clause. The governor of this relation might not always be a verb: when the verb is a copular verb, the root of the clause is the complement of the copular verb.

“Clinton defeated Dole” *nsubj*(defeated, Clinton)
 “The baby is cute” *nsubj*(cute, baby)

***nsubjpass*: passive nominal subject**

A passive nominal subject is a noun phrase which is the syntactic subject of a passive clause.

“Dole was defeated by Clinton” *nsubjpass*(defeated, Dole)

***num*: numeric modifier**

A numeric modifier of an NP is any number phrase that serves to modify the meaning of the NP.

“Sam eats 3 sheep” *num*(sheep, 3)

***number*: element of compound number**

An element of compound number is a part of a number phrase or currency amount.

“I lost \$ 3.2 billion” *number*(\$, billion)

***parataxis*: parataxis**

The parataxis relation (from Greek for “place side by side”) is a relation between the main verb of a clause and other sentential elements, such as a sentential parenthetical, or a clause after a “:” or a “;”.

“The guy, John said, left early in the morning” *parataxis*(left, said)

***partmod*: participial modifier**

A participial modifier of an NP or VP is a participial verb form that serves to modify the meaning of the NP or VP.

“Truffles picked during the spring are tasty” *partmod*(truffles, picked)
“Bill tried to shoot demonstrating his incompetence” *partmod*(shoot, demonstrating)

***pcomp*: prepositional complement**

The prepositional complement of a preposition is the head of a clause following the preposition.

“We have no information on whether users are at risk” *pcomp*(on, are)
“They heard about you missing classes” *pcomp*(about, missing)

***pobj*: object of a preposition**

The object of a preposition is the head of a noun phrase following the preposition, or the adverbs “here” and “there”. (The preposition in turn may be modifying a noun, verb, etc.) Unlike the Penn Treebank, we here define cases of VBG quasi-prepositions like “including”, “concerning”, etc. as instances of *pobj*. (The preposition can be called a FW for “pace”, “versus”, etc. It can also be called a CC – but we don’t currently handle that and would need to distinguish from conjoined prepositions.) In the case of preposition stranding, the object can precede the preposition (e.g., “What does CPR stand for?”).

“I sat on the chair” *pobj*(on, chair)

***poss*: possession modifier**

The possession modifier relation holds between the head of an NP and its possessive determiner, or a genitive 's complement.

“their offices”	<i>poss</i> (offices, their)
“Bill’s clothes”	<i>poss</i> (clothes, Bill)

***possessive*: possessive modifier**

The possessive modifier relation appears between the head of an NP and the genitive 's.

“Bill’s clothes”	<i>possessive</i> (John, 's)
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***preconj*: preconjunct**

A preconjunct is the relation between the head of an NP and a word that is part of a conjunction, an puts emphasis on it (e.g., “either”, “both”, “neither”).

“Both the boys and the girls are here”	<i>preconj</i> (boys, both)
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***predet*: predeterminer**

A predeterminer is the relation between the head of an NP and a word that precedes and clarifies the use of the NP determiner.

“All the boys are here”	<i>predet</i> (boys, all)
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***prep*: prepositional modifier**

A prepositional modifier of a verb, adjective, or noun is any prepositional phrase that serves to modify the meaning of the verb, adjective, or noun. In the collapsed representation, this is used only for prepositions with NP complements.

“I saw a cat in a hat”	<i>prep</i> (cat, in)
“I saw a cat with a telescope”	<i>prep</i> (saw, with)
“He is responsible for meals”	<i>prep</i> (responsible, for)

***prepc*: prepositional clausal modifier**

In the collapsed representation (see section 4), a prepositional clausal modifier of a verb, adjective, or noun is a clause introduced by a preposition which serves to modify the meaning of the verb, adjective, or noun.place.

“He purchased it without paying a premium”	<i>prepc_without</i> (purchased, paying)
--	--

***pvt*: phrasal verb particle**

The phrasal verb particle relation identifies a phrasal verb, and holds between the verb and its particle.

“They shut down the station” *prrt*(shut, down)

***punct*: punctuation**

This is used for any piece of punctuation in a clause, if punctuation is being retained in the typed dependencies. By default, punctuation is not retained in the output.

“Go home!” *punct*(Go, !)

***purpcl*: purpose clause modifier**

A purpose clause modifier of a VP is a clause headed by “(in order) to” specifying a purpose. At present the system only recognizes ones that have “in order to” as otherwise the system is unable to distinguish from the surface representations between these and open clausal complements (*xcomp*). It can also recognize “to” clauses introduced by “be VBN”.

“He talked to him in order to secure the account” *purpcl*(talked, secure)

***quantmod*: quantifier phrase modifier**

A quantifier modifier is an element modifying the head of a QP constituent.

“About 200 people came to the party” *quantmod*(200, About)

***rcmod*: relative clause modifier**

A relative clause modifier of an NP is a relative clause modifying the NP. The relation points from the head noun of the NP to the head of the relative clause, normally a verb.

“I saw the man you love” *rcmod*(man, love)
“I saw the book which you bought” *rcmod*(book,bought)

***ref*: referent**

A referent of the head of an NP is the relative word introducing the relative clause modifying the NP.

“I saw the book which you bought” *ref*(book, which)

***rel*: relative**

A relative of a relative clause is the head word of the WH-phrase introducing it.

“I saw the man whose wife you love” *rel*(love, wife)

This analysis is used only for relative words which are not the subject nor the object of the relative clause. Relative words which act as the subject of a relative clause are analyzed as a *nsubj*, relative words which acts as the object of a relative clause are analyzed as a *obj*.

***tmod*: temporal modifier**

A temporal modifier of a VP or an ADJP is any constituent that serves to modify the meaning of the VP or the ADJP by specifying a time; a temporal modifier of a clause is a temporal modifier of the VP which is the predicate of that clause.

“Last night, I swam in the pool”

tmod(swam, night)

***xcomp*: open clausal complement**

An open clausal complement (*xcomp*) of a VP or an ADJP is a clausal complement without its own subject, whose reference is determined by an external subject. These complements are always non-finite. The name *xcomp* is borrowed from Lexical-Functional Grammar.

“He says that you like to swim”

xcomp(like, swim)

“I am ready to leave”

xcomp(ready, leave)

***xsubj*: controlling subject**

A controlling subject is the relation between the head of an open clausal complement (*xcomp*) and the external subject of that clause.

“Tom likes to eat fish”

xsubj(eat, Tom)

3 Hierarchy of typed dependencies

The grammatical relations defined in the above section stand in a hierarchy. The most generic grammatical relation, dependent (*dep*), will be used when a more precise relation in the hierarchy does not exist or cannot be retrieved by the system.

dep - dependent

aux - auxiliary

auxpass - passive auxiliary

cop - copula

arg - argument

agent - agent

comp - complement

acompl - adjectival complement

attr - attributive

ccomp - clausal complement with internal subject

xcomp - clausal complement with external subject

compl - complementizer

obj - object

dobj - direct object

iobj - indirect object

pobj - object of preposition

mark - marker (word introducing an *advcl*)

rel - relative (word introducing a *rcmod*)

subj - subject

nsubj - nominal subject

nsubjpass - passive nominal subject

csbj - clausal subject

csubjpass - passive clausal subject
cc - coordination
conj - conjunct
expl - expletive (expletive “there”)
mod - modifier
 abbrev - abbreviation modifier
 amod - adjectival modifier
 appos - appositional modifier
 advcl - adverbial clause modifier
 purpcl - purpose clause modifier
 det - determiner
 predet - predeterminer
 preconj - preconjunct
 infmod - infinitival modifier
 partmod - participial modifier
 advmod - adverbial modifier
 neg - negation modifier
 rcmod - relative clause modifier
 quantmod - quantifier modifier
 tmod - temporal modifier
 measure - measure-phrase modifier
 nn - noun compound modifier
 num - numeric modifier
 number - element of compound number
 prep - prepositional modifier
 poss - possession modifier
 possessive - possessive modifier (’s)
 prt - phrasal verb particle
parataxis - parataxis
punct - punctuation
ref - referent
sdep - semantic dependent
 xsubj - controlling subject

4 Different styles of dependency representation

Five variants of the typed dependency representation are available in the dependency extraction system provided with the Stanford parser. The representations follow the same format. In the plain text format, a dependency is written as *abbreviated_relation_name*(governor, dependent) where the governor and the dependent are words in the sentence to which the word number in the sentence is appended. The parser also provides an XML format which captures the same information. The differences between the five formats are that they range from a more surface-oriented representation, where each token appears as a dependent in a tree, to a more

semantically interpreted representation where certain word relationships, such as prepositions, are represented as dependencies, and the set of dependencies becomes a possibly cyclic graph.

4.1 Basic

The basic typed dependencies use the dependencies defined in section 2, and form a tree structure. Each word in the sentence (except the head of the sentence) is the dependent of one other word. For the sentence, “Bell, a company which is based in LA, makes and distributes computer products.”, the basic typed dependencies will be:

```
nsubj(makes-11, Bell-1)
det(company-4, a-3)
appos(Bell-1, company-4)
nsubjpass(based-7, which-5)
auxpass(based-7, is-6)
rcmod(company-4, based-7)
prep(based-7, in-8)
pobj(in-8, LA-9)
cc(makes-11, and-12)
conj(makes-11, distributes-13)
nn(products-15, computer-14)
dobj(makes-11, products-15)
```

4.2 Collapsed dependencies

In the collapsed representation, additional dependencies are considered, even ones that break the tree structure (turning the dependency structure into a *directed graph*) as well as non-projective dependencies. So in the above example, the following relation will be added:

```
ref(company-4, which-5)
```

That relation does not appear in the basic representation since it creates a cycle with the `rcmod` and `nsubjpass` relations. Relations that break the tree structure are the ones taking into account elements from relative clauses and their antecedents (as shown in this example), the controlling (*xsubj*) relations, and the (*pobj*) relation in the case of preposition stranding.

Moreover, dependencies involving prepositions, conjuncts, as well as information about the referent of relative clauses are collapsed to get direct dependencies between content words. This “collapsing” is often useful in simplifying patterns in relation extraction applications. For instance, the dependencies involving the preposition “in” in the above example will be collapsed into one single relation:

```
prep(based-7, in-8)
pobj(in-8, LA-9)
```

will become

```
prep_in(based-7, LA-9)
```

English has some very common multi-word constructions that function like prepositions. These are also collapsed. At the moment, the system handles the multi-word prepositions listed in

according to	as per	compared to	instead of	preparatory to
across from	as to	compared with	irrespective of	previous to
ahead of	aside from	due to	next to	prior to
along with	away from	depending on	near to	pursuant to
alongside of	based on	except for	off of	regardless of
apart from	because of	exclusive of	out of	subsequent to
as for	close by	contrary to	outside of	such as
as from	close to	followed by	owing to	thanks to
as of	contrary to	inside of	preliminary to	together with

Table 1: List of two-word prepositions that the system can collapse.

Tables 1 and 2.

The same happens for dependencies involving conjunction:

```
cc(makes-11, and-12)
```

```
conj(makes-11, distributes-13)
```

become

```
conj_and(makes-11, distributes-13)
```

A few variant conjunctions for “and (not)” are collapsed together in this representation as shown in Table 3.

The information about the antecedent of the relative clause (`ref(company-4, which-5)`) will serve to expand the following dependency:

```
nsubjpass(based-7, which-5)
```

becomes

```
nsubjpass(based-7, company-4)
```

In the end the collapsed dependencies that the system gives you for the sentence are:

```
nsubj(makes-11, Bell-1)
```

```
det(company-4, a-3)
```

```
appos(Bell-1, company-4)
```

```
nsubjpass(based-7, company-4)
```

```
auxpass(based-7, is-6)
```

```
rcmod(company-4, based-7)
```

```
prep_in(based-7, LA-9)
```

```
conj_and(makes-11, distributes-13)
```

```
nn(products-15, computer-14)
```

```
dobj(makes-11, products-15)
```

4.3 Collapsed dependencies with propagation of conjunct dependencies

When there is a conjunction, you can also get propagation of the dependencies involving the conjuncts. In the sentence here, this propagation will add two dependencies to the collapsed

by means of	in case of	in place of	on behalf of	with respect to
in accordance with	in front of	in spite of	on top of	
in addition to	in lieu of	on account of	with regard to	

Table 2: List of three-word prepositions that the system can collapse.

Mapped to				
<i>conj_and</i>	as well as	not to mention	but also	&
<i>conj_negcc</i>	but not	instead of	rather than	but rather

Table 3: Mapping of select conjunct relations in the collapsed representation.

representation; due to the conjunction between the verbs “makes” and “distributes”, the subject and object relations that exist on the first conjunct (“makes”) will be propagated to the second conjunct (“distributes”):

```
nsubj(distributes-13, Bell-1)
dobj(distributes-13, products-15)
```

Since this representation is an extension of the collapsed dependencies, it does not guarantee a tree structure.

4.4 Collapsed dependencies preserving a tree structure

In this representation, dependencies which do not preserve the tree structure are omitted. As explained above, this concerns relations between elements of a relative clause and its antecedent, as well as the controlling subject relation (*xsubj*), and the object of preposition (*pobj*) in the case of preposition stranding. This also does not allow propagation of conjunct dependencies. In our example, the dependencies in this representation will be:

```
nsubj(makes-11, Bell-1)
det(company-4, a-3)
appos(Bell-1, company-4)
nsubjpass(based-7, which-5)
auxpass(based-7, is-6)
rcmod(company-4, based-7)
prep_in(based-7, LA-9)
conj_and(makes-11, distributes-13)
nn(products-15, computer-14)
dobj(makes-11, products-15)
```

4.5 Non-collapsed dependencies

This representation gives the basic dependencies as well as the extra ones (which break the tree structure), without any collapsing or propagation of conjuncts. There are options to get the extra dependencies separated from the basic dependencies (see section 5). At print time, the dependencies in this representation can thus look as follows:

```

nsubj(makes-11, Bell-1)
det(company-4, a-3)
appos(Bell-1, company-4)
nsubjpass(based-7, which-5)
auxpass(based-7, is-6)
rcmod(company-4, based-7)
prep(based-7, in-8)
pobj(in-8, LA-9)
cc(makes-11, and-12)
conj(makes-11, distributes-13)
nn(products-15, computer-14)
dobj(makes-11, products-15)
=====
ref(company-4, which-5)

```

4.6 Alteration of the sentence semantics

In some cases, collapsing relations introduces a slight alteration of the semantics of the sentence. In all the representation styles involving collapsing, the two following phenomena may appear.

Introduction of copy nodes marked with an apostrophe. A copy node will be introduced in the case of PP conjunction as in “Bill went over the river and through the woods”. In this example, the two prepositions “over” and “through” are conjoined and governed by the verb “went”. To avoid disjoint subgraphs when collapsing the relations (preposition and conjunction), sentences like this are transformed into VP coordination, which requires making a copy of the word “went”. A copy node will be marked with one or more apostrophes in the plain text output or by a copy attribute in the XML output. This gives the following representation, which corresponds to a sentence like “Bill went over the river and went through the woods”:

```

prep_over(went-2, river-5)
prep_through(went-2', woods-10)
conj_and(went-2, went-2')

```

Distortion in governors of preposition modifiers. Another instance where collapsing sacrifices some linguistic fidelity is the case of preposition modifiers. When turning the preposition into a relation, the preposition does not appear as a word of the sentence anymore. Therefore preposition modifiers become dependent on the head of the clause in which they appear, and not on the preposition itself. In *He left his office just before lunch time*, *just* will be an adverbial modifier of the verb *left*. This induces some distortion in the exact semantics of the sentence.

4.7 Comparison of the representation styles

The table below shows the dependencies for the first four variants, to facilitate comparison. The “non-collapsed” variant contains all the relations in the “basic” variant plus one extra dependency: `ref(company-4, which-5)`.

basic	collapsed	propagation	collapsed tree
nsubj(makes, Bell)	nsubj(makes, Bell)	nsubj(makes, Bell)	nsubj(makes, Bell)
		nsubj(distributes, Bell)	
det(company, a)	det(company, a)	det(company, a)	det(company, a)
appos(Bell, company)	appos(Bell, company)	appos(Bell, company)	appos(Bell, company)
nsubjpass(based, which)	nsubjpass(based, company)	nsubjpass(based, company)	nsubjpass(based, which)
auxpass(based, is)	auxpass(based, is)	auxpass(based, is)	auxpass(based, is-)
rmod(company, based)	rmod(company, based)	rmod(company, based)	rmod(company, based)
prep(based, in)			
	prep_in(based, LA)	prep_in(based, LA)	prep_in(based, LA)
pobj(in, LA)			
cc(makes, and)			
	conj_and(makes, distributes)	conj_and(makes, distributes)	conj_and(makes, distributes)
conj(makes, distributes)			
nn(products, computer)	nn(products, computer)	nn(products, computer)	nn(products, computer)
dobj(makes, products)	dobj(makes, products)	dobj(makes, products)	dobj(makes, products)
		dobj(distributes, products)	

5 In practice

In practice, two classes can be used to get the typed dependencies of a sentence using the code in the Stanford parser (downloadable at <http://nlp.stanford.edu/software/lex-parser.shtml>).

★ `edu.stanford.nlp.parser.lexparser.LexicalizedParser`

If you need to parse texts and want to get different formatting options for the parse tree, you should use this class. To get the dependencies, add `typedDependencies` in the `-outputFormat` option. By default, this will give you collapsed dependencies with propagation of conjunct dependencies. If you want another representation, specify it in the `-outputFormatOptions` using the following commands according to the type of dependency representation you want:

<code>basicDependencies</code>	basic dependencies
<code>collapsedDependencies</code>	collapsed dependencies (not necessarily a tree structure)
<code>CCPropagatedDependencies</code>	collapsed dependencies with propagation of conjunct dependencies (not necessarily a tree structure) [this representation is the default, if no option is specified]
<code>treeDependencies</code>	collapsed dependencies that preserve a tree structure
<code>nonCollapsedDependencies</code>	non-collapsed dependencies: basic dependencies as well as the extra ones which do not preserve a tree structure
<code>nonCollapsedDependenciesSeparated</code>	non-collapsed dependencies where the basic dependencies are separated from the extra ones (by “=====”)

You also need to use the `-retainTmpSubcategories` option to get best performance in recognizing temporal dependencies. In the following command, `file.txt` contains your input sentences. (With this command-line, the parser will attempt to tokenize and sentence-break them. There are options to the parser to specify that this has already been done.) The `penn` option will also give you the context-free phrase structure grammar representation of the sentences.

Command line example:

```
java -mx200m edu.stanford.nlp.parser.lexparser.LexicalizedParser
-retainTmpSubcategories -outputFormat "penn,typedDependencies"
-outputFormatOptions "collapsedDependencies" englishPCFG.ser.gz file.txt
```

* edu.stanford.nlp.trees.EnglishGrammaticalStructure

If you already have Penn treebank-style trees (whether hand-annotated or as output from another parser), you can use this class to get the Stanford dependencies. Use the `-treeFile` option as shown in the command line example below. The options to get the different types of representation are as follows:

<code>-basic</code>	basic dependencies
<code>-collapsed</code>	collapsed dependencies (not necessarily a tree structure)
<code>-CCprocessed</code>	collapsed dependencies with propagation of conjunct dependencies (not necessarily a tree structure)
<code>-collapsedTree</code>	collapsed dependencies that preserve a tree structure
<code>-nonCollapsed</code>	non-collapsed dependencies: basic dependencies as well as the extra ones which do not preserve a tree structure

If you want the non-collapsed version of the dependencies where the basic ones are separated from the extra ones, add the flag `-extraSep`. This will print the basic dependencies, a separator (====) and the extra dependencies.

Command line example:

```
java -mx100m edu.stanford.nlp.trees.EnglishGrammaticalStructure
-treeFile file.tree -collapsedTree -CCprocessed
```

You can get the dependencies in the CoNLL format by using the option `-conllx`. There is also an option to get dependencies involving punctuation: `-keepPunct`.

You can read files that contain Stanford dependencies in the CoNLL format (e.g., the basic Stanford dependencies), and transform them into another representation (e.g., the CCprocessed representation): you need to pass the file using the option `-conllxFile`.

You can also use this class to parse texts, but the input has to be formatted as strictly one sentence per line, and you will not be able to specify options for the parse tree output on the command line. You will only be able to specify the type of the dependencies. Use the option `-sentFile` instead of `-treeFile`. You will need to specify the parser file using the `-parserFile` option. You can print the parse tree by using the `-parseTree` option.

Command line example:

```
java -mx100m edu.stanford.nlp.trees.EnglishGrammaticalStructure
-sentFile file.txt -collapsedTree -CCprocessed -parseTree -parserFile
englishPCFG.ser.gz
```

★ GrammarScope

Bernard Bou has written GrammarScope, a GUI interface to the Stanford Dependencies representation, which allows not only viewing dependencies, but altering their definitions. This is a separate download. It is available at: <http://grammarscope.sourceforge.net/>.

★ Other parsers

A number of dependency parsers have now been trained to parse to the basic Stanford Dependencies. These can then be postprocessed to the collapsed or CCprocessed representation using `EnglishGrammaticalStructure`, as above. For more information on other parser options, see:

<http://nlp.stanford.edu/software/stanford-dependencies.shtml>

6 Further references for Stanford Dependencies

The Stanford Dependencies representation was first made available in the 2005 version of the Stanford Parser. Subsequent releases have provided some refinements to and corrections of the relations defined in the original release. The initial written presentation was (de Marneffe et al. 2006). A more thorough discussion of the motivations behind the design of the representation appears in (de Marneffe and Manning 2008).

The SD representation has seen considerable use within the biomedical text mining community. It has been used to give a task relevant evaluation scheme for parsers (Clegg and Shepherd 2007, Pyysalo et al. 2007) and as a representation for relation extraction (Erkan et al. 2007, Greenwood and Stevenson 2007, Urbain et al. 2007, Fundel et al. 2007, Clegg 2008, Airola et al. 2008, Giles and Wren 2008, Özgür et al. 2008, Ramakrishnan et al. 2008, Björne et al. 2008). Pyysalo et al. (2007) develops a version of the BioInfer corpus annotated with (a slight variant of) the SD scheme. It is available for download at <http://mars.cs.utu.fi/BioInfer/>. A small amount of SD gold standard annotated data was separately prepared for the Parser Evaluation Shared Task of the Workshop on Cross-Framework and Cross-Domain Parser Evaluation (see de Marneffe and Manning 2008) and is available at <http://www-tsujii.is.s.u-tokyo.ac.jp/pe08-st/>, but the BioInfer corpus is the main source of gold-standard SD data which is currently available.

The SD representation has also been used in other domains, such as for extracting opinions, sentiment, and relations (Zhuang et al. 2006, Meena and Prabhakar 2007, Banko et al. 2007, Zouaq et al. 2006; 2007, Chaumartin 2007, Kessler 2008). Several groups used it as a representation in recent PASCAL Recognizing Textual Entailment (RTE) challenges (Adams et al. 2007, Blake 2007, Chambers et al. 2007, Harmeling 2007, Wang and Neumann 2007).

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