Reflexives in Universal Dependencies

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ABSTRACT
We explore the annotation of reflexives in Universal Dependencies (UD) 2.2 tree-banks (Nivre et al., 2018), with a stronger focus on Slavic languages. We have tried to find out if the current guidelines are transparent and clear enough for the annotators to follow them successfully. We point out a number of inconsistencies in the current annotation across languages, and propose improvements—sometimes of the guidelines, but mostly of the annotation. The goal of the paper is to contribute to more consistent annotation of reflexives in future releases of UD, which, in turn, will enable broader cross-linguistic studies of this phenomenon.

KEYWORDS: Universal Dependencies, reflexive pronoun, reflexive construction, annotation consistency.
1 Introduction

Reflexive verbs can be found in a significant number of languages, varying from language to language (Geniušienė 1987, p. 361). This term can be used for verbs with a reflexive marker (RM) as their element (affix, inflection, etc.) or as a part of their environment (particle, pronoun, etc.) (Geniušienė 1987, p. 237). The term ‘reflexive’ implies that the main function of the reflexive marker is to mark reflexivity, i.e., that a reflexive marker is coreferential with the subject of the clause in which it appears. Nonetheless, marking reflexivity is not the only function of the reflexive marker; it is just one of many functions (Svoboda, 2014, p. 1). The term ‘reflexive’ is certainly ambiguous but it is broadly used in literature and we will use it in this paper, too. Reflexive markers can be (Geniušienė, 1987, p. 242 and 303):

- affixal morphemes (e.g. prefixes like t- in Amharic; suffixes like -l- and -n- in Turkic languages or -sja in Russian; infixes like -mi- in Lingala);
- changes in the verbal paradigm (e.g. a change in the agreement paradigm, or a special reflexive conjugation);
- a word or phrase (refl. pronoun like zibun “oneself” in Japanese, or a series of pronouns like the Swedish mig/dig/oss/er/sig);
- a more or less desemanticized noun meaning “soul”, “head”, “body”, “self” etc., sometimes with a possessive (Basque buru “head”, e.g., nere burua (lit. my head) “myself”, bere burua (lit. his head) “himself”).

The feature of reflexivity can also apply to modifiers that are neither reflexive verbs nor their arguments. This is the case with reflexive possessives, which indicate that the modified noun is possessed by, or relates to the subject. The Czech example in Figure 1 shows both a reflexive pronoun (sebe) and a reflexive possessive (svého).

Both words are coreferential with the subject of the clause, here Jana. Thus the two people registered were Jana and Jana’s brother (not someone else’s brother). The reflexive pronoun is a noun phrase of its own, while reflexive possessives are typically embedded in larger noun phrases. In this paper we focus on various functions of reflexive markers that replace noun phrases or appear at positions similar to those of noun phrases; possessives are not relevant for us, and we will mostly ignore them from now on.

![Figure 1: Reflexive object and possessive.](image1.png)

![Figure 2: Inherently reflexive.](image2.png)
Furthermore, reflexives in some languages have the same or similar form as intensifiers (emphatic pronouns) such as *himself* in

(1)  **John *himself* built this house.**

While in most European languages intensifiers differ from reflexive pronouns (e.g. German *selbst:*sich; Italian *stesso:*se), in many other languages (Turkic, Finno-Ugric, Indic, Persian...), intensifiers are identical with reflexives in form, although not in distribution (König and Siemund 2000, p. 41). Due to the limited space (and to the language groups focused on in this paper), we do not take intensifiers into account.

Although reflexivity has been intensively studied for the last couple of decades, both in individual languages and from a cross-linguistic perspective, annotating all the functions of all reflexive markers is a complex and sensitive task (Kettnerová and Lopatková, 2014).

In the present paper, we look at reflexives in the context of one particular treebank annotation scheme—Universal Dependencies (UD) (Nivre et al. 2016). The nature of the Universal Dependencies project makes annotating reflexive markers particularly difficult, since it aims at developing cross-linguistically consistent treebank annotation for many languages. Discussing the annotation options for reflexives in their various functions is thus very important. This paper is just a starting point for a more comprehensive study of reflexives in UD. At present, such a study is complicated by various imperfections in the data, which we emphasize below. We hope to contribute to better annotation of RMs in future releases of UD; in particular, we have the following goals:

- to present an overview of syntactic and semantic functions of RMs in Slavic languages and to examine their current and desired annotation;
- to present a brief review of selected RMs in Romance and Germanic languages;
- to propose improvements in order to make the data more consistent;
- possibly also to suggest how the guidelines could be made more transparent.

We do not discuss the appropriateness of classifying the RM as a pronoun (in languages where it has a form of a reflexive clitic). In our opinion, this is a controversial question, but we are not sure that a more widely acceptable solution exists.

2  **Detecting Reflexives in the UD Treebank Data**

In order to make any cross-linguistic claims about reflexives, one must be able to recognize them in corpora. In Universal Dependencies, reflexive words should be annotated with the feature Reflex=Yes. Hence, the feature is our primary source of information; but it apparently has not been used everywhere it should. In UD 2.2, 56 treebanks use the feature.

[^1]: http://universaldependencies.org/ext-feat-index.html#reflex
In the treebanks where Reflex=Yes is found, it mostly occurs with the PRON part of speech (pronoun) or with DET (determiner; used for reflexive possessives in some languages). A few treebanks use the feature with verbs, adjectives or particles.

There are languages that have reflexive pronouns, yet their treebanks fail to mark them with Reflex=Yes. The list omits, for instance, Hindi, although Hindi has reflexive pronouns such as apne. Our observations in the present work are mostly limited to treebanks where the feature is used.

3 Relations / Constructions

3.1 Core and Oblique Dependents

In the simplest case, a reflexive pronoun is used as an object or an oblique dependent of the verb. An irreflexive personal pronoun could occur in the same position, and the syntactic structure is the same regardless of whether the pronoun is or is not reflexive. In the present work, we refer to these cases as true or semantic reflexivity.

In some languages reflexive pronouns are used also with reciprocal meaning (other languages have dedicated reciprocal pronouns such as “each other” in English). For instance in German

(2) **Braut und Bräutigam haben sich geküsst.** “The bride and groom kissed each other.”

Here the reflexive pronoun is coreferential with the plural subject as a whole. With regard to semantic roles, each of the two individuals takes the role of the subject and the object at the same time; syntactically however, they function as the subject and the RM as object or oblique dependent (see the second example in Figure 3).

The UD annotation guidelines do not distinguish true reflexives from reciprocally used RMs. They distinguish whether the RM occurs in place of a direct object (labeled...
obj), indirect object (iobj) or oblique dependent (labeled obl or one of its subtypes such as obl:arg).

3.2 Inherently Reflexive Verbs

Certain verbs in certain languages require a reflexive clitic without assigning it any semantic role or syntactic function. Traditional grammar treats the clitic as a free lexical morpheme, which is part of the verbal lexeme.

For example, the Slovenian verb *smejati se* “to laugh” is inherently reflexive and never occurs without *se* (see Figure 2). Here the UD guidelines specify that the RM shall be attached as expl:pv (standing for “expletive, subtype pronominal verb”).

Some authors restrict the class of inherently reflexive verbs to those that do not have irreflexive counterparts from which they can be derived (Svoboda, 2014, p. 11). Others claim that many transitive verbs have an inherently reflexive variant that is not semantically equivalent to the transitive form, though it is related to it in some way. However, the nature of this semantic relation cannot always be captured easily (Waltereit, 2000, p. 257). Hence it may be difficult to evaluate whether its meaning is “different enough” to rule out the possibility that the reflexive pronoun is just a normal object.

Sometimes a translation into another language may provide a clue. For example, the Latvian *mācīt kām* corresponds to English “to teach somebody”, while the reflexive *mācīties* corresponds to “to learn”. The difference in translation suggests that the reflexive verb is semantically different and can thus be considered a derived inherently reflexive verb. A more general (but vaguer) clue results from comparing the action performed by the actor of the verb: in Bulgarian *върна нешо някъде* (*vărna nešto njakāde*) “to return something somewhere”, the actor takes an object and moves it in space; even if the object is animate and can move independently, some physical or mental force is applied to make it move in the right direction, quite possibly against its own will. On the other hand, *върна се някъде* (*vărna se njakāde*) “to return somewhere” describes independent and free movement of the actor to a place where they have been in the past. Again, we can conclude that it describes a different action and is no longer transitive.

The decision is easier if the irreflexive counterpart is intransitive, as in Spanish *ir* “to go” (irreflexive, intransitive) vs. *irse* “to leave” (inherently reflexive).

3.3 Reflexive Passives and Impersonal Constructions

Reflexives in some languages have grammaticalized into markers of alternations in voice (diathesis). They serve as additional means of expressing passive of transitive verbs (especially if their object is inanimate): the original object becomes subject, the

http://universaldependencies.org/u/dep/expl.html#Reflexives
original subject is removed, and a reflexive appears in object position. If a reflexive clause of the form “X did itself” can be paraphrased as “X was done” or “Somebody did X”, it is a reflexive passive.\footnote{The guidelines specify that the RM be attached by the relation \texttt{expl:pass} in these cases. For example, in Upper Sorbian}

\begin{enumerate}
\item Serbski institut je so k 1. januarej 1992 wot Swobodneho stata Sakska wutworil. “The Sorbian Institute was created on January 1, 1992 by the Free State of Saxony.”
\end{enumerate}

the RM \textit{so} forms a reflexive passive.

Although the construction is presented as a variant of the passive voice, the verb is actually in its active form; as \cite{Sussex:Cubberley:2011} note, the verb-reflexive complex “is not unlike the Greek middle voice in function and meaning.”

Another category, representing another shade of meaning, is called in the literature anticausative \cite{Svoboda:2014}, decausative or inchoative \cite{Silveira:2016}. Examples include Czech and Portuguese

\begin{enumerate}
\item Dveře se otevřely. “The door opened.”
\item O vaso se quebrou. “The vase broke.”
\end{enumerate}

There must be an external cause of the event but the cause is unknown or unidentifiable, and the event seems to come about spontaneously. The difference between anticausative, middle voice and reflexive passive is semantic rather than syntactic, very subtle and hard to discern. Hence it does not seem to be something that can or should be distinguished in UD; we will call them all ‘reflexive passive’.

Reflexives can also be used in impersonal constructions, i.e., clauses without subject. They resemble very much the reflexive passive except that the verb is not transitive and there is no object that could be promoted to the subject position. Consequently, the default agreement is triggered on the verb. What exactly it means is language-dependent; for example, in Slavic languages it is the third person, singular, neuter—cf. Polish

\begin{enumerate}
\item Po Edenie chodziło się nago. (lit. Along Eden walked itself nude.) “One would walk nude in Eden.” \cite{Patejuk:Przepiorkowski:2015}.
\end{enumerate}

\footnote{While the term reflexive passive is used in some classical grammars, other authors regard it as controversial, pointing out differences between reflexive and periphrastic passivization. The stance depends on what one considers the defining properties of passive. In UD, the primary purpose of the \texttt{:pass} relation subtype is to signal non-canonical mapping between syntactic relations and semantic roles: auxiliaries in periphrastic passives use \texttt{aux:pass}, reflexives use \texttt{expl:pass}.}
Table 1: German object and reflexive pronouns. The two forms are dative and accusative; some pronouns have one form for both cases.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sing</th>
<th>Plur</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1(Reflex)</td>
<td>mir, mich</td>
<td>uns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2(Reflex)</td>
<td>dir, dich</td>
<td>euch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Masc</td>
<td>ihm, ihn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Fem</td>
<td>ihr, sie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Neut</td>
<td>ihm, es</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Reflex</td>
<td>sich</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The reflexive marker should be attached as `expl:impers` in these cases.

Silveira (2016, p. 124) notes that in some languages impersonal construction can contain even a transitive verb. The ‘internal argument’ (object) then does not become subject (unlike in passive). It keeps the accusative case and does not trigger verb agreement in person and number; the verb stays in the default third person singular: Spanish

(7)  
*Se observa cambios en la economía.* “Changes are observed in the economy.”

3.4 Double Function / Haplology

A reflexive marker can have a double function. For instance, if an inherently reflexive verb is used in an impersonal construction, there will be just one RM, not two (Patejuk and Przepiórkowski, 2015). Another point is that sometimes one reflexive is shared by two verbs, as in Slovenian, with one inherently reflexive verb controlling another:

(8)  
*Bal se je smejati.* “He was afraid to laugh.”

The guidelines currently do not specify the preferred solution of such cases.

4 Reflexives in Germanic Languages

While English has two parallel sets of irreflexive and reflexive pronouns, in many other languages only the third person has a special reflexive form. First and second person pronouns have the same form whether they are used reflexively or not, but the reflexive usage can be easily recognized because the verb form and the subject pronoun is in the same person and number as the object pronoun. Table 1 shows the pronouns in German.

Table 2 shows that 13 out of 19 Germanic treebanks use the `Reflex` feature. The remaining 6 treebanks indeed contain reflexive pronouns but they do not tag them as such. Only 6 treebanks use the feature also with 1st and 2nd person pronouns,
Table 2: \( R_{12} \) = Number of first and second person non-possessive reflexives per 10,000 tokens. \( R_{3} \) = Number of third person non-possessive reflexives per 10,000 tokens. \( \text{obj} \) = Percentage of reflexives attached as objects. \( \text{iobj} \) = % indirect objects. \( \text{obl} \) = % oblique arguments and adjuncts. \( \text{expl:pv} \) = % inherently reflexive verbs.

Although these pronouns are sometimes used reflexively in the other treebanks, too.

Most RMs are attached as true reflexive arguments (\( \text{obj} \), \( \text{iobj} \), \( \text{obl} \)). Only in German and Dutch we see some inherently reflexive verbs. They should probably appear elsewhere too, with the exception of English. For instance, we believe that Norwegian "Jeg føler meg som..." should be inherently reflexive.

5 Reflexives in Romance Languages

The situation is even less satisfactory in the Romance languages (Table 3). Only 7 treebanks out of 21 tag their RMs with \text{Reflex=Yes}. In addition, the Italian ISDT treebank does not use the feature but it uses the reflexive-specific relations \text{expl:pass} and \text{expl:impers}. Furthermore, two French treebanks use \text{Reflex=Yes} for disjoint sets of pronouns: Sequoia for the clitics \textit{se}, \textit{me}, \textit{te}, \textit{nous}, \textit{vous}, GSD for the tonic reflexives such as \textit{lui-même}, \textit{eux-mêmes}.

Some treebanks label all reflexive clitics as core arguments: Spanish GSD as indirect objects, Italian ParTUT (and according to Silveira (2016, p. 126, 129) also French GSD) as direct objects. It is obvious that a significant number of instances are non-argumental and should thus be labeled as expletives.

The Sequoia treebank of French uses just the universal label \text{expl} for all non-argumental RMs and does not further distinguish inherent, passive and impersonal constructions. This solution is advocated by Silveira (2016, p. 143) who says that the distinction is a source of uncertainty for both parsers and annotators.
Romanian differs from the other Romance languages by having two sets of reflexive pronouns, one in the accusative, and one in the dative (Cojocaru, 2003). The Romanian treebanks do distinguish various subtypes of expl as defined by the guidelines and summarized in Sections 3.2 and 3.3. Reflexives analyzed as core arguments are much less frequent than expletives. There is also a Romanian-specific relation, expl:poss, used for possessive or benefactive meaning of dative clitics (note that this construction is different from the reflexive possessives mentioned in Section 1).

6 Reflexives in Slavic Languages

Slavic personal pronouns, including reflexive pronouns, have full and clitic forms. Unlike Germanic and Romance languages, the same form is used in all persons and numbers. The full forms occur in all cases except nominative and vocative, and are used to encode true reflexivity, i.e., a nominal that is coreferential with the subject of the clause. The clitic forms are used as true reflexives, too, but they often have other grammatical functions listed in Section 3. There are one or two reflexive clitics per language, which can be characterized as accusative (se/sa/so/się/sę) and dative (si/sej) forms. In East Slavic (and also in Baltic) languages the reflexive clitic has become a suffix of the verb (Geniušienė, 1987, p. 241).

Clitics and full pronouns are semantically equivalent when they function as true reflexives, and the choice of one of them over the other is made for prosodic and/or pragmatic reasons (topic-focus articulation). The default form for expressing true reflexivity in South and West Slavic languages is the clitic form, while the full form is reserved for expressing emphasis or contrast, when the reflexive pronoun is coordinated with another noun phrase, or after prepositions. The full form can only be used in truly reflexive and reciprocal contexts (Svoboda, 2014, p. 5–6).

6.1 Annotation in Slavic Treebanks

Table 4 gives a summary of RMs in West and South Slavic treebanks. Fourteen treebanks (out of 15) use the Reflex=Yes feature. The first observation is that RMs
Table 4: Slavic treebanks. **RM** = Number of non-possessive reflexives per 10,000 tokens. Other columns as in Table 2; `compound` instead of `expl` in Serbian.

are much more frequent than in the Germanic and Romance languages. The counts include both clitics and full pronouns, but the latter are only a small fraction of the whole. Two thirds or more are the occurrences of the clitic `se`.

We do not include East Slavic treebanks in the overview because reflexive clitics are not independent words there. The current UD guidelines actually assume that reflexive verbs should be treated as multi-word tokens, consisting of the verb proper and the clitic suffix. For example, Russian просну́ться (prosnut’+sja) “to wake up” would be split to two syntactic words, prosnut’ and sja, which would make it parallel to the other Slavic languages (e.g. Czech vzbudit se “to wake up”). However, this is not what we find in the data. The reflexive verbs are kept together and marked either with `Voice=Mid` (in Russian and Belarusian) or nothing at all (in Ukrainian). Note that the corresponding verb in Spanish is also sometimes written together with the clitic (despertarse “to wake up”) but in UD it is split into two words (despertar se). East Slavic languages express true reflexivity using the full pronoun, sebja (Svoboda, 2014, p. 29). However, although -sja no longer functions as a truly reflexive marker, it can mark the other functions which we investigate in this study.

The next observation is that Old Church Slavonic (OCS) is an outlier. Only true reflexives are tagged as pronouns with `Reflex=Yes`. The vast majority of occurrences of se are tagged `AUX` and attached via the dependency relation `aux`. This is perhaps inherited from the original PROIEL annotation, but it does not seem to be in accord with the UD guidelines. Supposedly, these occurrences of se function as the RM for

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4In the infinitive and imperative.
inherent reflexives, passives and impersonal constructions.

As for dependency relations, the non-AUX RMs in OCS are attached as \texttt{obj}, \texttt{iobj} or \texttt{obl}, which supports the hypothesis that only true reflexives are annotated in the way described in Section 3.

Three other languages (Bulgarian, Serbian and Slovenian) make no difference between the various functions of the RM \textit{se}. They uniformly attach it as \texttt{expl1} (in case of Bulgarian and Slovenian) or \texttt{compound} (Serbian). Samardžić et al. (2017, p. 41, 42) explain the reasoning behind their use of \texttt{compound} for all instances of \textit{se}. They view this form as a detachable morpheme belonging to the verb to which it is attached both in lexical and morphological sense. In their view, \textit{se} is not just a prosodic variant of the full reflexive pronoun. In fact, they claim that it is not a pronoun at all, and consequently, it should be analyzed in the same way in all its uses: as a free morpheme marking absence of one of the verb’s core arguments. They also state that the different functions noticeable in the other treebanks are higher-level interpretations of the same syntactic form, which should not be part of UD. While we can agree that in many cases this is true, there are still cases where \textit{se} is a true reflexive pronoun, that is, both full and clitic form are possible and it is commutable with clitics of irreflexive personal pronouns. Furthermore, if a single relation is used for all functions other than true reflexives and reciprocals, \texttt{expl1} seems to be a better solution than \texttt{compound}, as argued by Silveira (2016) and codified by the UD guidelines.

Figures 4 and 5 show the transitive verb \textit{smatrati} “to consider” in Serbian and Croatian, in both cases in a passive construction. The “\texttt{compound} everywhere” approach is not able to distinguish this from an inherently reflexive verb. Figure 6 is an example of \textit{se} functioning as a core object. We believe that the corresponding Serbian sentence should use \texttt{obj} here too (instead of \texttt{compound}). Therefore, the annotation should differentiate between true reflexivity and the other functions \textit{se} can have.

Polish distinguishes \texttt{expl:impers} but not \texttt{expl:pass}. On the other hand, Czech, Slovak, Upper Sorbian and Croatian distinguish the passive RMs (Croatian labels them \texttt{aux:pass} instead of \texttt{expl:pass}), but they do not use \texttt{expl:impers}. We would argue that both types of constructions exist in all these languages. For example, the Czech FicTree treebank contains impersonal \textit{zapomnělo se na ně} “they were forgotten”. In Polish LFG, the anticausative \textit{Drzwi zamknęły się} “The door closed” could be analyzed as \texttt{expl:pass} but has \texttt{expl:pv} instead. However, genuinely passive examples in Polish seem to be rare, presumably because Polish favors the impersonal constructions that keep objects in the accusative: \textit{Maluje się ściany} “The walls are painted.”
Izgradnja autoputa smatra se ključnom za povećanje investicija.

“Construction of the highway is considered crucial for increasing the investment.”

Figure 4: The Serbian treebank always attaches se as compound. Here, its real function is the reflexive passive.

Portugalski trener smatra se vjerojatnim nasljednikom Rehhagela.

“The Portuguese coach is considered a likely successor of Rehhagel.”

Figure 5: In the Croatian treebank, this se is annotated with expl:pv, although arguably it has the passive meaning.

Osoba se smatra bezvrijednom i beznačajnom.

“One considers themselves worthless and insignificant.”

Figure 6: This example is from Croatian but its Serbian counterpart would be similar. Here, se is commutable with the full reflexive sebe. Hence se should be obj in this context, in both languages. (We had to shorten the tree due to lack of space, but the full sentence rules out potential ambiguity with expl:pass, as osoba is the actor: Osoba ne nalazi nikakvo uporište u sebi samoj, ne vjeruje u sebe, dapače, smatra se bezvrijednom i beznačajnom. “The person does not find any strength in herself, does not believe in herself, in fact, considers herself worthless and insignificant.”)
7 How to Improve the Treebanks

Annotating all RMs with Reflex=True should be easy to achieve because the feature is often tied to just a few lemmas (but it is still helpful for users who do not know the lemmas). Germanic and Romance languages should consider disambiguating reflexive usages of 1st and 2nd person pronouns, as it is already done in German.

As a minimum, all treebanks should distinguish between true reflexivity (obj / iobj / obl) and the non-argumental RMs (expl and subtypes). The distinction can often be based on lists of verb lemmas, but it still means that significant manual effort is needed in Bulgarian, Serbian and Slovenian, as well as in some Germanic and Romance languages.

Distinguishing various subtypes of expl is optional in UD, yet we would like to advocate at least the distinction between expl:pv as a lexical morpheme on one side, and expl:imper or expl:pass as grammatical means on the other side. Clearer instructions for identifying inherently reflexive verbs are needed, and we have proposed some heuristics in Section 3. The UD guidelines must be modified if East Slavic languages shall keep their reflexive verbs as single syntactic words. The middle voice should then be used in all three languages (it is currently not used in Ukrainian) in order to live up to the UD motto that “same thing should be annotated same way.”

Croatian aux:pass should be replaced by expl:pass and the current aux instances should be fixed manually. In Old Church Slavonic, the AUX/aux annotation should be replaced by labels that follow the guidelines.

The UD guidelines should specify the priorities when se has a double function or is shared by two verbs. In general, the guidelines should provide a broader overview of reflexives with examples from multiple languages; at present, the relevant rules are scattered under various labels.

8 Conclusion

We have shown that the annotation of reflexives in Universal Dependencies is currently unsatisfactory, inconsistent and unpredictable. There is a range of possible causes. First and foremost, constructions with reflexives are a difficult and sometimes controversial issue in many European languages. Multiple analogies with other parts of grammar are available, but most of them have their downsides too. Maintainers of UD treebanks often disagree in their choice of annotation options. More attention should be paid to reflexives in the guidelines and there should be a section devoted to reflexives and discussing all their functions, with examples from many languages. Finally, the data providers should be encouraged to follow a single interpretation of the guidelines, especially in cases where the current annotation can be fixed by an automated procedure.
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