## Lexical v. Morphosyntactic Cues to Dependencies

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#### Overview

- overview of a methodology for analysing behavior of neural dependency parsers: controlled language alterations
- a few experiments on Polish dependency parsing (with Universal Dependencies) still work in progress

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- in DELPH-IN the lexical information is only exploited during parse ranking
- the neural parsers for UD get word-embeddings as inputs, which encode a mixture of lexical and morphosyntactic information
- To what extent the models exploit those different cues? To what extent they are capable of exploiting them?

Why answering this question is important?

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- it could reveal the typological biases present in the models
- which cues are used has consequences for the model's robustness and its ability to generalize

## Controlled Language Alterations

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Could be used both at training and testing: to get insight into the models capacity to exploit different cues.

Or just at testing: to get insight into what cues the models rely on.

## Some Examples

#### Lemmatisation



#### \*Results in ungrammatical sentences

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#### Word Order Permutation



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#### Mixed Noun Lexemes





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Other experiments (not discussed here)

- Removing case marking
- Mixing in very rare/nonce words
- Varying the word order of the core elements in the clause; SVO, SOV etc.
- And more...

#### Closely Related Work

- Ravfogel et al. (2019) create synthetic versions of English, by changing the typological parameters, and experiment with RNNs on predicting agreement features for verbs.
- Gulordava et al. (2018) substitute content words by random words with matching POS and morphology, and experiment on predicting long-distance number agreement.
- Kasai and Frank (2019) evaluate parsers in the absence of lexical information, by zeroing out word embeddings (they become OOVs).
- Zheng et al. (2020) craft adversarial examples for parsers by replacing few words in an input sentence, while maintaining both syntactic and semantic coherence.

## Experiments

#### Model: (Dozat and Manning, 2017)



Different inputs:

- fastText (Bojanowski et al., 2017) an embedding for a word is constructed by summing the embeddings of its n-grams
- CNN over characters (Kim et al., 2016)
- fastText + CNN
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Data:

- The Polish PDB-UD treebank (Wróblewska, 2018)
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Metric reported in all graphs: Labeled Attachment Score

# 1. An insight into the models' capability to exploit different cues

the models are trained and evaluated on the altered data









## Insights

- the models can exploit different cues to make predictions
- the models do not have to make use of morphological cues to get good performance

# 2. An insight into what cues are exploited by models trained on unaltered data.

the models are only evaluated on the altered data









Zooming Into Core Verbal Arguments: Rotation of Core Verbal Arguments



\*Results in grammatical sentences

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## Zooming Into Core Verbal Arguments

**CNN Results** unchanged rotated args unchanged rotated args 100 100 75 75 Labeled Attachment Score Labeled Attachment Score 50 50 25 25 0 nsubi obi iobi nsubi obi iobi

#### **BERT Results**

\*Evaluation on sentences with transitive verbs.

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## Concluding Remarks and Questions

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### Concluding Remarks and Questions

- the models use a mixture of different cues
- they do rely on morphology and strongly rely on word order
- but at times the lexical signal overpowers the morphosyntactic cues

#### Is this *semantic overfitting* a big issue?

Could this methodology help to further reveal whether the models have a 'preference' for any particular morphosyntactic signal, e.g. rigid word order over flexible word order, adpositions over case markings? Compared to other interpretability approaches (Belinkov et al., 2020)

Unlike probing (Hewitt and Manning, 2019; Hewitt and Liang, 2019) the goal is not to reveal whether the model's representations capture a specific feature, but to understand how the different parts of the model's 'knowledge' are used to make predictions.

The approach is related to constructing challenge sets (McCoy et al., 2019; Paperno et al., 2016), but quite different – we have multiple altered versions of the original data that can be ungrammatical.

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