

Empirical Evaluation of LSTM Language Models on Syntactic Dependencies

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Abstract

- language model, number agreement
- able to learn the numbers of nouns and verbs
- modest sensitivity to syntactic structure

1 Introduction

Neural networks have become increasingly popular for the task of language modeling. While feed-forward networks only take into account a fixed history of preceeding words to predict the next word, standard recurrent neural networks (RNN) and Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) network architectures have the ability to capture long-distance statistical regularities. The access to potentially unlimited history has resulted in substantial improvements in perplexity and error rates compared to feed-forward networks (Mikolov *et al.*, 2010; Sundermeyer *et al.*, 2013).

Regularities in natural language are often sensitive to syntactic structure. RNNs and LSTMs are sequence models that do not explicitly incorporate syntactic structure, capturing such dependencies is therefore challenging. Linzen *et al.* (Linzen *et al.*, 2016) investigate the capability of LSTMs to learn syntactic dependencies, taking number agreement in noun-verb dependencies as an example. Their results show that the language modeling objective by itself is not sufficient for learning structure-sensitive dependencies; and that a more explicit grammatical target is required.

In this paper we investigate an LSTM language model in more detail to get a better insight into what information these models actually encode. We consider statistic, syntactic and semantic¹ information and analyse how the model uses this information to establish number agreement. We take

¹ Unfortunately the experiment was not completed because one of the team members quite the project.

an empirical approach. That is, we treat the model as a black box and learn about it by observing its behavior in carefully designed experiments.

In line with the results of (Linzen *et al.*, 2016), our model was able to establish number agreement for most of the simple sentences, i.e. sentences without intervening nouns. This shows that our model is able to learn the plurality number for nouns and verbs. A detailed analysis of the errors made in simple cases showed that they could be explained partially by statistics on the training data. That is, we identified verbs with a strong prediction bias towards either the plural or the singular form, and found a positive correlation with the frequency ratio between the plural and singular forms of those verbs in the training data.

As expected from (Linzen *et al.*, 2016), our model performed worse-than-change on complex sentences with intervening nouns of opposite number. The additional challenge in this case is to identify the head of the subject without being distracted by other, structurally irrelevant nouns. The head of the subject is typically implied by the syntactic structure of a sentence; e.g. the sentence “The toys of the boy lay” requires a plural verb, while the sentence “The toys that the boy plays with” calls for a singular verb. The function words ‘that’ and ‘of’ provide the crucial information regarding the plurality of the verb. We experimented with various syntactic templates to see if our model shows sensitivity to syntactic structure. The results suggest a modest sensitivity to syntactic information exposed by function words.

Outline The remainder of this paper is organized as follows: We first summarize (Linzen *et al.*, 2016) in Section 2. Next, in Section 3, we replicate some of the experiments of this paper. We then describe our own experiments (Section 4) and end with our conclusion and recommenda-

tions for future work (Section 5).

2 Related Work

Our work builds on the results described in (Linzen *et al.*, 2016). We summarize this paper below.

LSTMs are sequence models that can capture long distance statistical regularities, but do not have built-in hierarchical representations. Linzen *et al.* investigate whether LSTMs are able to capture dependencies that follow from syntactic structure. More specific, the paper investigates number agreement in English subject-verb dependencies as an example of a structure sensitive dependency.

The paper compares the performance of LSTMs trained with an explicit grammatical target as training objective, as well as a more generic language model trained with the target to predict the next word. The models are trained on a corpus without syntactic annotations (Wikipedia). The models are evaluated on real sentences taken from this corpus that were sampled based on their grammatical complexity.

All models achieved an overall error rate below 7%. However, the explicitly trained models perform much better (0.8% for the best performing model) compared to the language model (6.8%). The overall high accuracy for all models can be explained by the fact that most naturally occurring sentences are actually simple, that is, no intervening nouns between verb and subject.

The differences between the models become more pronounced when evaluating them on grammatically complex sentences. The performance of the grammatically trained models degrades slowly, achieving error rates below 20% even with four intervening nouns of opposite number (attractors). The language model at the other hand performs worse-than-chance on most complex cases. The worse-than-chance performance indicates that the intervening nouns actively confuse the language model. Repeating the experiment with a state of the art language model (Józefowicz *et al.*, 2016) does not change the picture, the state-of-the-art language model performs poorly on complex sentences compared to the explicitly supervised models.

The accuracy of the grammatically trained models strongly suggests that the models are sensitive to structural dependencies. To find additional support for syntactic sensitivity the authors

of the paper inspected the inner workings of one of these models. Principal component analysis on embeddings of singular and plural nouns shows that the first principal component corresponds almost perfectly to the expected number of the noun, which suggests that the model learns these numbers very well. Analysis of activations in response to specific grammatical constructs reveals units that store relevant structural information such as the number of the main clause subject, the number of the most recent noun of the current phrase and the embedding status.

The authors conclude that LSTMs can capture grammatical structure given targeted supervision; while the language modeling objective of predicting the next word is insufficient. They advice to supplement language modeling objectives with more explicit targets for tasks in which it is desirable to capture syntactic dependencies.

3 Replication

In this section we replicate some experiments of (Linzen *et al.*, 2016) to get a general impression of how well our model is able to establish number agreement. All experiments in this paper are performed using an LSTM model trained on a general language modeling task².

3.1 Singular and Plural Nouns

Data: The language model was tested on lower case sentences that were generated from the Wall Street Journal section of the Penn Treebank (Marcus *et al.*, 1993). Therefore, 40 nouns and verbs, that were amongst the most common and occur in the test corpus as well as in the language model’s corpus, were extracted. Those words build the base for the sentence generation for the subsequent experiments.

Model evaluation: In order to evaluate the performance of our model, we query it with sentences containing both, the plural (1) and the singular (2) mode of the verb:

the producer plan (1)

the producer **plans** (2)

Following the experiments in (Linzen *et al.*, 2016) we examine the models error rate predicting the

² https://github.com/pytorch/examples/tree/master/word_language_model

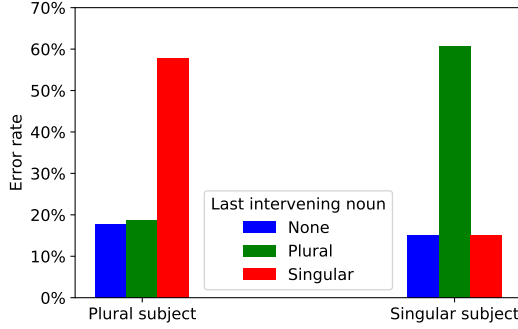


Figure 1: Error rates of the language model plotted against: presence and number of last intervening noun

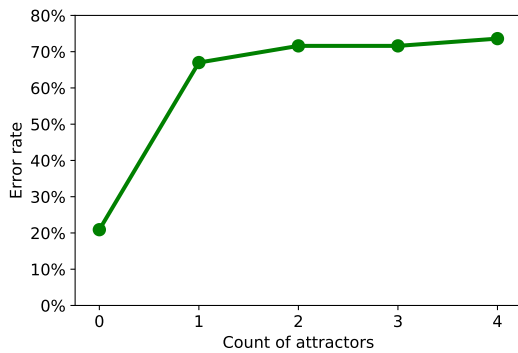


Figure 2: Error rates of the language model plotted against count of attractors in dependencies with homogeneous intervention.

number of a verb. That is, the model receives the words leading up to the verb and needs to decide between the singular and plural forms of a particular verb.

We first test how the model’s ability to predict the number of the verb is affected by none and one intervening noun, respectively. If there is an intervening noun we keep track whether the number of the noun differs from the number of the subject. If it does so it is referred to as an *agreement attractor*. In this way we can easily spot whether the model makes use of the most obvious heuristic: choosing the the number of the verb only in dependence of the last intervening noun in the sentence.

As depicted in Figure 1 our model performs slightly worse for plural subjects (17.7% error rate) than for singular (15.2% error rate) when no intervening nouns are present. An intervening noun with the same number as the subject causes a slight increase of the error rate to 18.6% and a

decrease to 15.1%, respectively. However, when the number of the subject differs from the intervening noun the error rates increased dramatically; in singular subjects to 57.9% in plural subjects to 60.8%. The fact that it performs worse than predicting the number by chance implies that the model indeed predicts the number of the verb in dependence of the last noun and therefore fails to find the dependency between verb and noun.

3.2 Multiple Attractors

In the following we examine the error rate when adding multiple attractors to the sentence. In order to avoid the model of being distracted by an intervening noun with the same number as the subject we only insert nouns with the same number. Linzen et al. (Linzen *et al.*, 2016) refer to such as *dependencies with homogeneous intervention*. Consider the following example sentences:

the **interest** in the shares of the businesses **rises** ... (3)

the **interest** in the shares of the *business* **rises** ... (4)

In (3) the underlined represent homogeneous interventions, whereas in (4) the number of the intervening nouns differ. The bold words highlight the dependency between noun and corresponding verb.

Figure 3.1 shows that with an increasing number of noun interventions the error rate goes from 20.8% (0 attractors) up to 73.6% (4 attractors) which is worse than randomly guessing the number of the verb.

4 Own Experiments

To predict the correct number of a given verb, the language model should be able to 1. identify the noun that is the head of the subject for the verb 2. establish the number of the noun (non-trivial since no knowledge of -s postfix for plurals) 3. establish the number of the given verb forms (also non-trivial).

In the first sub section we investigate if our model is able to do this for simple cases with only a single noun in the prefix. In the second sub section we investigate if our model can handle more complex cases with two nouns in the prefix, and what information it then uses to identify the head of the subject.

4.1 Noun-Verb Agreement in Simple Cases

In this section we further investigate the ability of the model to establish number agreement for nouns and verbs in the simplest case, following the pattern: “The [noun] [verb]”. From this we hope to gain insights into whether or not the model is able to learn the plurality number for nouns and verbs. This is a prerequisite for establishing number agreement for simple as well as complex cases.

Using the 40 most frequent nouns and verbs that we already used earlier in the replication section, we generated 80 x 40 sentences that cover each noun verb combination and include both the plural and the singular version of the noun. We tested for each noun-verb combination whether the model predicts the singular or the plural form of the verb, and how sure it is about this prediction.

As a result of this experiment we obtained a matrix in which the rows represent the nouns, the columns represent the verbs, and the entries indicate the models preference for the plural form of the verb. The upper half of the matrix contains all noun-verb combinations for the singular nouns, while the lower half contains the plural nouns. We calculate each entry value as

$$v = \frac{P(< VBP >)}{P(< VBP >) + P(< VBZ >)}$$

where P is the models prediction probability, VBP is the plural form of the verb and VBZ the singular form of the verb. In this manner the matrix entries represent a preference score for plurality ranging from $v = 0$ (surely singular) to $v = 1$ (surely plural). We call v the plurality preference.

In order to get a better visual impression we sorted the verbs after their total plurality preference, i.e. the sums of the columns. The rows were sorted in a similar manner, but each half separately in order to conserve the separation between singular (upper half) and plural (lower half) nouns. The resulting matrix is shown in Fig. 4.1.2.

As we expected the majority of the verbs in the upper half of the matrix are predicted correctly to be singular with a high certainty. The same for the lower, plural half. Overall it can be said that around the horizontal centre as well as at the vertical borders we can observe that there are specific noun/verb combinations for which the model is rather uncertain and/or incorrect. In the following we will investigate the two special cases of verbs and nouns where the model goes wrong.

4.1.1 Verb Statistics

In the columns close to the left border of the matrix, we can find verbs for which the model prefers the plural verb over the singular, regardless the number of the subject. For example the verb ‘buy’ in column 0 has a plurality preference of 0.95. At the other hand, in the far right columns we find the verbs for which the singular verb is most often preferred over the plural form. The verb ‘say’ in column 39, for example, has a plurality preference value of 0.16.

We expect as a possible explanation that for these verbs a high bias exists in the training data for respectively the plural or the singular form. Figure 4 provides some support for this assumption. It shows the plurality rate in the training data plotted against the plurality preference for each verb. The plurality rate is measured as

$$r = \frac{Count(< VBP >)}{Count(< VBP >) + Count(< VBZ >)}$$

We see that with an increasing plurality rate the plurality preference tend to increase as well, as expected. The line in the figure was generated by performing a linear regression through the points.

4.1.2 Noun Statistics

There are also nouns which show preference for the wrong number and nouns that seem to follow the preference of the verbs, rather than influencing the preference rate with their own number. Around the middle of the matrix we can observe a few nouns that are clearly predicted wrong in most cases. The singular noun ‘income’ (column 39) with a plurality rate of 0.15 is mostly predicted plural, whereas for example in columns 40 to 44 the plural nouns ‘weeks’ (0.9), ‘months’ (0.9), ‘years’ (0.85), and ‘days’ (0.7), are incorrectly predicted singular most of the times.

To investigate the impact of noun frequencies in the training data on the plurality rate (and therefore on the error rate), we calculated the error rate for each noun and plotted it against the frequency of the same noun. We expected a high error rate for low frequent nouns. However, as Fig. 5 shows, we could not found clear evidence that a low frequency in the training data leads to wrong predictions of the model. Figure 5 shows that there are singular as well as plural nouns with a low count that are predicted correctly most of the times.

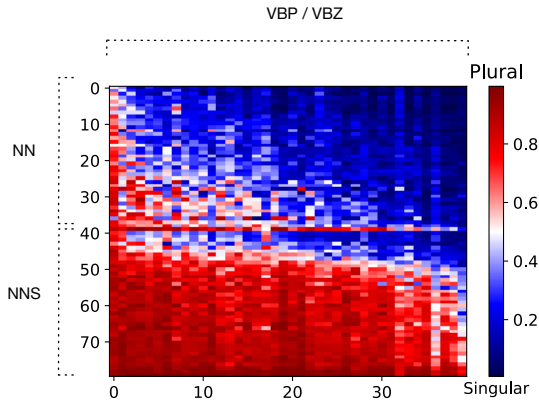


Figure 3: Singularity/plurality ratio for 80 x 40 sentences (generated from the most frequent 40 nouns and verbs). The upper half contains the singular nouns (NN), the lower half contains the plural nouns (NNS). A red cell indicates a plural preference for a specific word/noun combination, whereas a blue cell indicates a singular preference.

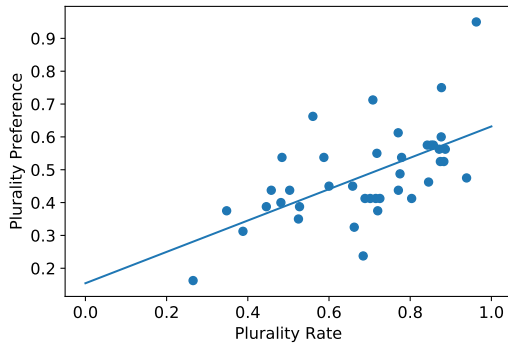


Figure 4: Plurality rate plotted against the plurality preference of the model for all nouns. The line arises from a linear regression through the points.

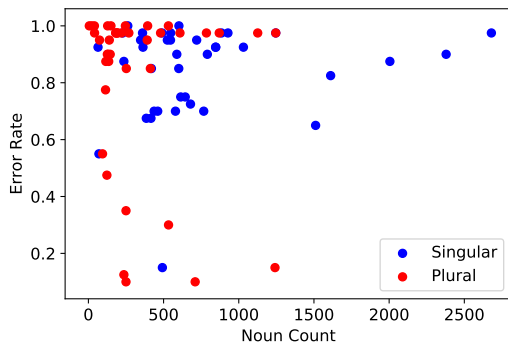


Figure 5: Influence of the noun frequency on the error rate of the model.

The previous experiment neglects the fact that even though a word is frequent in the corpus it does not necessarily occur frequent as the subject of a training sentence. For those cases, the model will presumably not be able to establish their numbers correctly. We manually inspected sentences in the training data in which the nouns with a high error rate occurred. We saw indeed that those nouns were rarely the subject of a sentence. As a future experiment we plan to use a parser in order to only count the nouns when they act as the subject of a sentence.

4.2 Noun-Verb Agreement in Complex Cases

In Section 3 we analysed the performance of the model on complex sentences, containing one or more nouns. The results show that the model is very sensitive to the most recent noun, performing worse-than-chance with only one single attractor.

In this section we investigate whether syntactic and semantic information can still help the model to establish number agreement in case of multiple nouns. We focus on sentences with exactly two nouns of opposite number.

4.2.1 Syntactic Information

Function words such as ‘that’ or ‘of’ carry important information about the syntactic structure of a sentence. In this Section we investigate if the model uses this information to establish number agreement for complex sentences.

We generated sets of sentence prefixes using different syntactic templates. An example is “The _ of the _” We instantiate these templates by randomly picking two nouns and a verb from a set of frequently used nouns and verbs. Each combination of nouns and verbs instantiates two prefixes that differ by their plurality. For example “The company of the governments” and “The companies of the government”, with the option to choose between the verb forms ‘know’ and ‘knows’. Since the nouns and verbs are randomly picked, the generated prefixes are typically not semantically meaningful.

We generated 2 x 1000 sentences per template, for a total of 11 templates. The sentences for each template are constructed using the same noun and verb combinations. We defined 7 templates for which the first noun is the head of the subject (table 1), while 4 templates have the second noun as the head of the subject (table 2). The templates were defined after a manual inspection of

sentences from the corpus.

We evaluate how the model responds to the generated test inputs. That is, for each test prefix we let the model decide between the singular and plural form of the given verb. We measure the error rate for each template. However, instead of showing the error rates we show how much the language model tends to agree with the most recent noun. This corresponds to the error rate for the templates in table 1, while it corresponds to accuracy for the templates in table 2. Showing the ‘last noun agreement rate’ makes it easier to compare the behavior of the model for different templates.

The results are shown in Figure 6, using green and red colors to indicate if the last noun is actually the head of the subject (green) or not (red). We see that all bars are above the 0.5 rate, which shows that the model is most likely to agree with the last noun, even in cases where this is syntactically incorrect. We also see that the red bars are slightly lower than the green bars, 0.67 compared to 0.79 on average. This shows that the model is even more likely to agree with the last noun if this is also syntactically correct. This suggests that the model has at least some sensitivity to syntactic information carried by function words.

We further discuss two special cases, namely the first red bar (T1) and the last green bar (T11). T1, “the _ and the _”, is a special case because it actually contains two singular nouns instead of one singular and one plural noun. The predicted verb should be plural because of the conjunction word ‘and’. The existence of two singular nouns makes it hard for the model to pick the plural verb, which could explain the high error rate for T1 in Figure 6. T11 uses different templates for the singular (the _ ’s _) and the plural (the _ ’ _) possessive form. The last green bar in Figure 6 shows the average result. We suspect that the relatively low accuracy in this case might be explained by the infrequent occurrence of the plural possessive form in written text. Indeed, a closer inspection of the numbers showed that the singular template had an accuracy of 0.77 (compared to 0.71 for all singular prefixes), while the accuracy of the plural template was lower, namely 0.66 (compared to 0.63 overall for plural prefixes).

We conclude that, although the model performs poorly on syntactically complex sentences it still shows some sensitivity for syntactic information exposed by function words.

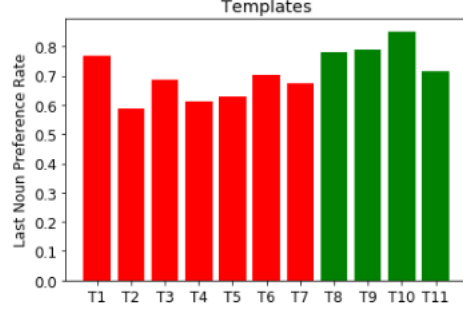


Figure 6: Preference rates for agreement to the last noun. The colors indicate whether this is syntactically correct (green) or incorrect (red).

T1	the _ and the _	0.77
T2	the _ in the _	0.59
T3	the _ by the _	0.69
T4	the _ of the _	0.61
T5	the _ near the _	0.63
T6	the _ at the _	0.70
T7	the _ without the _	0.67

Table 1: Templates for which the number of the verb is opposite to the number of the last noun

4.2.2 Semantic Information

We now look at semantic clues, i.e. companies are more likely to produce than employees. We investigate if the model is able to establish number agreement between the verb and the semantic related noun, ignoring the non-semantic related attractor noun.

1. **TEST DATA:** We construct a testset (100+ sentences) consisting of pairs with singular and plural prefixes, in the following format “The NN of the NNS ...[VBZ/VBP]” and “The NNS of the NN ...[VBZ/VBP]” whereby the head of the subject (the first noun) is semantically related to the verb, while the attractor (the second noun) is randomly picked. An example is: “The prices of the employee ...[stabilizes/stabilize]” and “The price of the employees ...[stabilizes/stabilize]”.

In addition we construct a comparison set consisting of the same prefixes (same verb and attractor noun), but with the difference that the first noun is also randomly picked and therefore most likely not semantically related. Example: “The newspapers of the employee ...[stabilizes/stabilize]” and “The newspaper of the employees ...[stabilizes/stabilize]”.

EXPERIMENT: Evaluate our model on the constructed testset and on the comparison set. If the

T8	the _ the _	0.78
T9	the _ that the _	0.79
T10	the _ whether the _	0.85
T11	the _ 's _ (for plural: the _ ' _)	0.72

Table 2: Templates for which the number of the verb corresponds to the number of the last noun

model scores significantly better on the testset than it shows sensitivity to semantic clues.

HOW TO FIND CO-OCCURRENCE RATIOS

We use PMI to measure associations between verbs and nouns.

- find all nouns (NN) and verbs (VBZ) in a tagged corpus (sec02-21.gold.tagged). (pick a random selection if all is too much but make sure you are not only looking at frequent verbs since they tend to be general like 'is/are' instead of specific like 'stabilize')
- build a matrix with nouns as rows and columns as verbs
- fill entries with Count('noun and verb co-occur in a sentence') i.e. loop over all sentences and add one if noun and verb exists in sentence (or use skip grammar, but only count noun that appears before verb, see also lab4)
- Also keep track of the total occurrences for the Verbs and nouns
- replace each entry by the PMI calculated from the co-occurrence count, the total occurrences of the noun, and the occurrences of the verb
- select for each column the entry with the highest score(s) (you may ignore very general verbs like is/are)

Remark: can be learned from tagged data set, no need to look at training data

5 Conclusion and Future Work

Overall, we conclude that LSTM language models are able to capture grammatical properties to some extent. Our model was able to predict the correct number of noun/verb pairs for most of the simple sentences; from which we conclude that it

does encode the plurality number of those words. Through further analysis of the models decisions in the simplest cases, we could find some evidence that the model occasionally falls back to statistical properties of the training corpus, such as word frequencies. This may happen for example when the ratio between the plural and the singular form of a verb is biased.

On more complex cases, e.g. sentences containing intervening nouns of opposite number in between the subject and the verb, the model most often fails to establish number agreement. In this case we could observe that the model at least shows some sensitivity for syntactic information. That is, the model is most likely to agree with the most recent noun, but it is a bit less likely to do so in case this is syntactically incorrect.

For future work it would be interesting to perform similar experiments on real world sentences rather than on artificially constructed ones. The sentences that we generated are typically not semantically meaningful, in addition, they are syntactically less diverse than real world sentences. It remains an open question whether our model would perform differently on those.

An interesting aspect of analysing LSTMs is to look into the embeddings and further investigate the internal state of the network rather than treating it like a black box. Looking at the activations of the LSTMs might give further insights into the strengths and weaknesses of the model and could lead to a better error analysis than by looking solely at the predictions.

To follow up on the experiments it would also be interesting to train the model with explicit syntactic structures instead of relying too much on statistical properties of the training corpus.

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