

# Does Topological Ordering of Morphological Segments Reduce Morphological Modeling Complexity? A Preliminary Study on 13 Languages

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## Abstract

Generalization to novel forms and feature combinations is the key to efficient learning. Recently, Goldman et al. (2022) demonstrated that contemporary neural approaches to morphological inflection still struggle to generalize to unseen words and feature combinations, even in agglutinative languages. In this paper, we argue that the use of morphological segmentation in inflection modeling allows decomposing the problem into sub-problems of substantially smaller search space. We suggest that morphological segments may be globally topologically sorted according to their grammatical categories within a given language. Our experiments demonstrate that such segmentation provides all the necessary information for better generalization, especially in agglutinative languages.

## 1 Introduction

Generalization is a form of abstraction where common patterns, or properties, that are observed across specific instances are then extended to a wider class of instances. This form of deductive inference allows humans to learn language more efficiently, form sophisticated concepts, and introduce semantic relations such as hypernymy. Still, computer systems are considered to be less successful in making generalizations from data (Lake and Baroni, 2018). Morphological inflection task is a popular playground to compare and evaluate systems’ ability to generalize. The morphological inflection task is a type of language modelling that focuses on producing inflected forms from a given dictionary form (a *lemma*) and a set of morphosyntactic features (a *tagset*) that describes the word form to be produced, as in “*spider*, ( $N; PL$ )  $\rightarrow$  *spiders*”. Table 1 provides a sample paradigm table for Czech and Turkish nouns for “cat”. Annual contests on morphological inflection prediction were held since 2016, covering a variety of typologically diverse languages (Cotterell et al., 2016,

2017, 2018; McCarthy et al., 2019; Vylomova et al., 2020; Pimentel et al., 2021). With the introduction of neural systems and the availability of large datasets, the task deemed to be solved with top performing systems achieving over 90% accuracy on most languages, even morphologically complex ones such as Uralic or Turkic. Most challenging cases were associated with under-resourced languages such as Chukchi or Evenki where majority of morphological paradigms were incomplete and sparse (Vylomova et al., 2020). However, a more fine-grained analysis from Pimentel et al. (2021) and Goldman et al. (2022) revealed that accuracy dropped substantially on unseen lemmas (i.e. in the condition where train, development, and test sets did not overlap lexically).

Case	Czech		Turkish	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Nom	<b>kočka</b>	kočky	<b>kedî</b>	kediler
Gen	kočky	koček	kedinin	kedilerin
Dat	kočce	kočkám	kediyeye	kedilere
Acc	kočku	kočky	kediyi	kedileri
Ins	kočkou	kočkami	–	–
Ess	kočce	kočkách	kedide	kedilerde
Voc	kočko	kočky	–	–
Abl	kočko	kočky	kediden	kedilerden

Table 1: Sample paradigm tables for Czech and Turkish “cat” (its lemma form is in **bold**). The tags follow the UniMorph annotation schema (Sylak-Glassman, 2016). Turkish paradigm omits possessive and predicative forms.

This observation led to a significant reconsideration of the shared task design in 2022. The 2022 shared task (Kodner et al., 2022) focused on controlling the training, development, and test sets with respect to observed lemmas and tagsets. More specifically, the task organizers provided four conditions in which: 1) both the test lemma and tagset were observed in the training set (but separately!); 2) the test lemma was presented in the training set

but the test tagset was not included in the training set; 3) the test tagset was observed in the training set while the lemma was not; 4) (the most challenging where) both the lemma and the tagset appeared exclusively in the test set. The performance assessment and analysis were carried out separately for each of the four categories and revealed a notable lack of generalization ability in all submitted systems, the vast majority of which were neural sequence-to-sequence models. It is particularly striking that systems failed at modelling agglutativity, the ability to compose novel combinations of morphemes that were previously observed in other combinations. Or, the opposite, deducing morphemes for a subset of a previously observed tagset. Many agglutination rules that seem to be simple to human learners, appear to be challenging when it comes to machines. This fact tells us that sequence-to-sequence models do not generalise well, and current approaches to morphology modelling should be reconsidered.

In this paper, we suggest that annotated morphological segmentation can significantly improve the generalization ability. We propose augmenting the inflection model with segmentation as an intermediate step. We aim to evaluate the claim that such task is easier to solve than the reinflection task in its classical setting, especially in agglutinative languages. We suggest that the reinflection task can be formalized as a classification task rather than a string-to-string transduction task. This approach dramatically reduces the search space during the inference phase as well as enhances the model’s robustness to data sparsity.

## 2 The Dataset

In our experiments we used datasets for inflectional paradigms and segmentation for Catalan (cat), Czech (ces), German (deu), English (eng), Finnish (fin), French (fra), Hungarian (hun), Italian (ita), Mongolian (mon), Portuguese (por), Russian (rus), Spanish (spa), and Swedish (swe) provided in MorphyNet resource (Batsuren et al., 2021).

## 3 Learning the Order of Segments

We hypothesise that the order of morphological segments<sup>1</sup> within a language is defined by the order of their corresponding grammatical categories (such as grammatical number, person, case). For instance,

<sup>1</sup>We will use morphological segments and morphemes interchangeably.

Turkish nouns would first specify the number and then the case (as shown on Table 1).

In the dataset described above, each word form  $w^j$  stands for a sequence of  $[(s_i, t_i)]^j$ , where  $s_i$  is  $i$ -segment in word form  $j$ ,  $t_i$  is a tagset describing the segment (*segmental tagset*; such as “*GEN; PL*” for fusional or “*GEN*” for agglutinative languages). Let us illustrate this notation by the following example from Catalan, taken from MorphyNet dataset.

```

    ossificar          ossificaven
V|IND;PST;IPFV|3;PL  ossificar|ava|en

```

Here, an inflected form is expressed as a sequence of three segments:  $s_0 = \text{“ossificar”}$ ,  $s_1 = \text{“ava”}$  and  $s_2 = \text{“en”}$ . Each segment bears its respective tagset. In such a way, a *whole* word’s Unimorph tagset “*V; IND; PST; IPFV; 3; PL*” associated with the word form is represented as a sequence of three segmental tagsets  $t_0 \dots t_2$ , where  $t_0 = V$ ,  $t_1 = \text{IND;PST;IPFV}$  and  $t_2 = \text{3;PL}$ .

As we mentioned, we suggest that segment tagsets are strictly ordered globally withing a given language. More formally, we claim that it is possible to sort all unique tag combinations  $t = (t_i)_{i=0 \dots i_{max}(j)}$  topologically, i.e. to associate each *unique*  $t$  with a number  $ord(t^j)$  in such a way that for each  $w^j$  we have:

$$k > i \Rightarrow ord(t_k^j) > ord(t_i^j) \quad (1)$$

To test the hypothesis, we propose the following learning algorithm. First, we initialize  $ord(t_i^j) := 0$  for all segment-wise tag combinations  $t_i^j$ . Then, in each epoch, for each  $w^j$  observed in the dataset we check whether the equation 1 has already been satisfied for all  $i, k$ . If not, we add  $(i - \tilde{i})$  to  $ord(t_i^j)$  for each  $i$ , where  $\tilde{i}$  is mean  $i$  value (half the number of segments in  $w^j$ ). This way, we attempt to either learn the global segmental tagset order or disprove existence of it. We repeat the procedure until the number of forms in which segmentation was compliant to equation (1), stops to increase. A simplified pseudocode which implements such a process is given below.

```

RATE = 0.01          ▷ A tunable hyperparameter
function FITTAGORDER(tagsets, update)
  mixed := false
  last := LEFTPAD    ▷ A dummy tagset
  S = |tagsets|
  for  $i \in 0 \dots S - 1$  do
    if update then

```

```

    increment  $L[tagsets[i]]$  by RATE
     $\times (2i - S + 1)$ , default = 0
    if  $L[tagsets[i]] \leq L[last]$  then
        mixed = true
        last :=  $\max_{set \rightarrow L[set]}(last, tagset)$ 
return mixed
procedure EPOCH(samples)
for sample  $\in$  samples do
    ts = segment tagsets in sample
    if FITTAGORDER(ts, false) then
        FITTAGORDER(ts, true)
        report sample as outlier

```

Indeed, we find that the global order of segmental tagsets *does* exist in all languages represented in MorphyNet. Swedish is the only language where a few (only two) exceptions were found; however, even those exceptions may be attributed to fuzziness of segment tagging rules. This result suggests that for a morphological inflection system it should be sufficient to produce a set of segments and use their global topological order to properly sort them rather than deal with segmentation order for every sample individually. Therefore, a “full scale” character-level sequence-to-sequence model can be replaced by a simpler classifier model to carry out the segmentation process. This important finding allows to reduce the model decision space without any loss in accuracy while enabling better generalization, especially in agglutinative languages (and higher robustness to training data sparsity).

#### 4 Decomposing Tagsets

As grammatical feature combinations are often complex, one might expect that there should be numerous ways to decompose those corresponding to morphological segments, thus, making decomposition a separate complex subtask. In this section, we refute it by demonstrating the statistics on decomposition variety per distinct segmental tagset.

As both segments and their corresponding tagsets are listed for each word form in MorphyNet, it may appear that a “natural” way of segmentation modelling would look as follows. First, decompose the initial tagset into segment-wise sub-combinations and, second, map each sub-combination into a distinct morphological segment. However, as we discovered, this technique does not work well because the assignment of tag combinations to segments appears to be highly ambiguous in MorphyNet. In many cases, it is due to the

tags that represent an inherent property of a lemma. These tags, therefore, are not realized as a segment (e.g., animacy in nouns). The lack of consistent rules governing tag-to-segment annotation is another source of ambiguity as it frequently leads to different tagging across similar samples. Fortu-

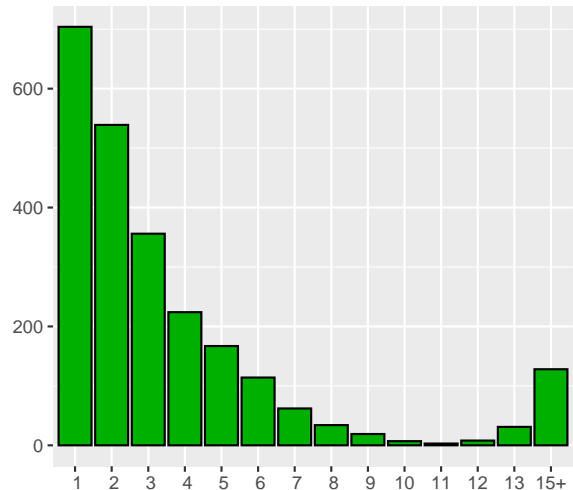


Figure 1: A frequency distribution for the number of different morphological segments per tagset. Here we consider distinct (language, tagset) pairs.

nately, there is an *alternative technique* that works better. Namely, we should consider *unique combinations* of resulting morphological segments rather than focus on the variants of tagset decomposition. Our experiments demonstrate that the number of distinct morphological segments per tagset is less than 4 for the majority of tag combinations, and only in 5% cases reaches 15 (in total, approximately 2,400 tag combinations were considered, as counted separately for each language). The stem segment of any word was replaced by a wildcard symbol matching with other word stem segments.<sup>2</sup> Figure 1 shows the distribution of the number of segment variants per a distinct tag combination. It is worth mentioning that more than a half of tag combinations that are realized by “15 or more segment sequences” each were Russian verb forms. The first letter of suffixes in those verbs may depend on the adjacent ending of the verb’s stem. This dependency results in either copying of a stem trailing consonant or a consonant mutation. Thus, it is necessary to take adjacent letter into account in order to predict the segment correctly.

<sup>2</sup>To keep the setting simple, we excluded inflected forms of German compounds, in which the order of two stems was swapping.

## 5 Segment Composability

In Section 3 we have demonstrated that the order of segments is deterministic. Still, in the condition when the data is sparse an inflection system should be able to retrieve relevant segments from training samples, especially in agglutinative languages. Typically, the observed tagsets are different from the one that needs to be predicted. We define a “segment composability” measure over a segmentation dataset as a percentage of tagsets  $T$  with the following property: *The segment has ever been seen in at least two data samples, one with tagset  $t$  and one, with tagset  $t' \neq t$ .* While evaluating this percentage, we prune all tagsets that contain tags that only occur once, i.e. in that particular tagset (which means the tagset cannot be reconstructed from the rest of the data). A “segment composability” is a probability for a segmentation corresponding to the tagset to be reconstructed from segments observed in other tagsets, given that the predictor uses a “perfect” oracle over segments observed in a training set. The composability values measured over MorphyNet are provided in Table 2. They appear to be close to 100% for languages with high agglutinativity,<sup>3</sup> demonstrating a notable usability of MorphyNet segmentation datasets for the inference of unseen word forms. Here is a pseudocode explaining our approach to computation of composability.

**function** COMPOSABILITYRATE

**for**  $sample \in samples$  **do**

$(segments, tagsets) = sample$

$T = \{\forall tag \in \forall set \in tagsets\}$

**for**  $(seg, set) \in sample^T$  **do**

**for**  $\tau \in set$  **do**  $\triangleright$  single tags

$uses_t[\tau] := uses_t[\tau] \cup \{T\}$

$uses_s[seg] := uses_s[seg] \cup \{T\}$

$$combined = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} T : \\ \exists \tau : \{T\} \subset uses_t[\tau] \\ \neg \exists \tau : \{T\} = uses_t[\tau] \end{array} \right\}$$

$\triangleright$  Word tag sets without exclusive tags

<sup>3</sup>High composability figures, besides a language’s agglutinativity, may result from a large size of the corresponding dataset or high variety of word forms presented there. As shown in Table 2, values for closely related language may differ significantly. A high composability is particularly important for agglutinative morphology modelling. However, it shouldn’t be perceived as a *measure* of a language’s agglutinativity.

$$compos = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} T \in combined : \\ \neg ISSTEM(seg) \wedge \\ \neg \exists s : \{T\} = uses_s[seg] \end{array} \right\}$$

$\triangleright$  "Composable" word tag sets that share all representing segments to some other tag sets

**return**  $|compos|/|combined|$

$\mathcal{L}$	Interc., %	$\mathcal{L}$	Interc., %
cat	85	hun	88
ces	100	ita	55
deu	96	por	55
eng	50	rus	98
fin	100	spa	96
fra	52	swe	97

Table 2: "Segment composability" as measured over MorphyNet datasets.

## 6 From Segments to Surface Forms

Even when all morphological segments are predicted, a conversion into a surface form is yet to be done. Luckily, in most cases, such a conversion only requires to remove segment separators and concatenate the substrings. However, to account for phonotactics, additional string edit operations may be necessary. Our analysis discovered the following major cases when they are needed: (1) removal or modification of *affixes* that are relevant only to the lemma form and are not separated from the stem into a different segment. This mostly concerns verbs. For example, deletion of -ar and insertion of -u- in Spanish (catalogar  $\rightarrow$  cataloguem V|IND;PRS;1;PL catalogar|em); (2) removal of adjacent duplicate letters in some languages; (3) replacement of certain adjacent letter combinations at segment boundaries as in the following Czech example: čtverec  $\rightarrow$  čtvercem N;SG|INST;MASC;INAN čtverec|em.

Predicting such transformations is generally a sequence-to-sequence task. Still, it is rather specific sub-task in which source and target sequences are aligned, and only local character modifications are to be learnt. In our experiments, a hard attention model (Aharoni and Goldberg, 2017) yields nearly perfect prediction of segments “gluing” into a word.<sup>4</sup> German was the only exception due to compounding.

<sup>4</sup>Grammatical tags were ignored (set to some constant value).

$\mathcal{L}$	Accuracy	$\mathcal{L}$	Accuracy
cat	0.99	hun	0.98
ces	0.98	ita	0.99
deu	0.89	mon	1.00
eng	0.99	por	1.00
fra	0.99	swe	0.98

Table 3: Segments-to-form conversion accuracy achieved with a hard attention model

## 7 Discussion

The experiment results suggest that the usage of morphological segmentation dataset enables principal reduction of the complexity of the morphological inflection task. This allows breaking the inflection task into two consecutive stages, (1) producing segments for a given (lemma, tagset) pair, and (2) concatenating segments into a surface word form. As our experiments suggest, prediction of segments in stage (1) is a classification task with a relatively limited feature set, while stage (2) translates into a (minor) string edit task. Here, we have just outlined this perspective direction; a detailed performance exploration is yet to be done. Still, the statistics we collected in our experiments allows us to be optimistic about filling two major gaps in the state-of-the-art systems’ performance on these tasks: (1) the ability to generalize to unseen grammatical tag combinations (Kodner et al., 2022), and (2) to better account for phonotactics, as described in Section 6. Also, the proposed reduction of search space should be beneficial for smaller training sets and is crucial for under-resourced languages.

Although morphological segmentation allows a decent amount of fuzziness, it facilitates the discovery of important latent variables that participate in inflection processes. We hypothesize that it would be sufficient to allow an inflection system consider the latent variables within its architecture and fit them during the training process. While the above is the only option for the languages not yet represented in MorphyNet and similar resources, the usage of annotated segmentation datasets should significantly increase generalization ability in the inflection task.

## 8 Conclusion

We conducted a series of experiments with morphological segmentation and demonstrated that annotated segment sequences may significantly simplify the prediction of inflected forms. We outlined that

inflection task can be transformed from sequence-to-sequence into a classification task, with better capacities to address language agglutinativity challenges.

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