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From Raw Corpus to Word Lattices: Robust Pre-parsing Processing with SxPipe

Benoît Sagot and Pierre Boullier

INRIA - Projet Atoll
Domaine de Voluceau, Rocquencourt B.P. 105
78153 Le Chesnay Cedex, France
{benoit.sagot,pierre.boullier}@inria.fr

Abstract

We present a robust full-featured architecture to preprocess text before parsing. This architecture, called SxPipe, converts raw noisy corpora into word lattices, one by sentence, that can be used as input by a parser. It includes sequentially named-entity recognition, tokenization and sentence boundaries detection, lexicon-aware named-entity recognition, spelling correction, and non-deterministic multi-words processing, re-accentuation and un-/re-capitalization. Though our system currently deals with the French language, almost all components are in fact language-independent, and the others can be straightforwardly adapted to virtually any inflectional language. The output is a sequence of word lattices, all words being present in the lexicon. It has been applied on a large scale during a French parsing evaluation campaign and during experiments of large corpora parsing, showing both good efficiency and very satisfying precision and recall.

1. Introduction

One of the main tasks in Natural Language (NL) processing is parsing, i.e., the syntactic analysis of text. This is an unavoidable step before any further complex processing such as automatic translation or advanced information extraction. When performed according to a formal linguistic theory, it is also an empirical way to validate this theory, or in the contrary to exhibit its weaknesses and limitations.

However, parsing systems for NL, known as *parsers*, can not usually deal with raw text such as found in large-scale corpora. Indeed, we shall see in the remainder of this paper different kinds of differences between raw text and standard parsers inputs, but most differences can be classified in three main types: boundary detection (between sentences, between words), error correction (spelling errors, typographic noise) and “named entities” (sequences of words that come from productive mechanisms, such as addresses, dates, acronyms, and many others). This paper presents a full-featured architecture, called SxPipe, which can transform raw text into word lattices, i.e., valid input for (advanced) parsers. We call this transformation “pre-parsing processing”, or in short “pre-processing”.

Pre-processing of raw text is usually seen as an easy task on which no further research is worth doing. However, experiments show that this step is crucial when dealing with real-life corpora, and that available tools are not always satisfying, for example because they lack a spelling error correction component, because they are specialized in some kind of corpora, or because they are not able to handle non-determinism.

We took part last year in the French parsing evaluation campaign named EASy, and had to parse a set of about 35,000 sentences coming from very diverse corpora (journalistic, e-mail, medical, legal, oral, literature, and so on) with a correct to very poor quality. Hence, we had to design a very robust pre-processing system to turn this

extremely noisy text into individual tokenized sentences,¹ with a minimal loss of information, and without losing the link between output words² and original tokens of the corpus.³ More recently, we performed experiments on deep parsing of large corpora (several million words), and used SxPipe to pre-process these corpora before parsing.

We first give an overview of the architecture of our system. Then we briefly focus on the different components, namely named-entity recognition steps, tokenization and spelling error correction,⁴ and non-deterministic multi-word identification, re-accentuation and un- or re-capitalization. We conclude with a brief evaluation of the system.

2. Overall architecture

The overall architecture of our pre-processing system SxPipe is illustrated in Figure 1. During the whole process, input tokens are stored in *comments* (surrounded by braces and decorated with their position in the input string) which are immediately followed by the associated word-form.⁵

For example,

contactez-moi au 1 av. Foch, 75016 Paris, ou par e-mail à my.name @my-email.com.

¹Corpora were in fact already splitted into sentences, but only partly. Hence, we almost ignored this segmentation.

²In this paper, we use *word* as a synonym of *word form* in the sense of (?).

³This is needed to be able to link back the output of the parser to tokens of the corpus, even if words can cover many input tokens, and tokens many words.

⁴And not *spell checking*, since we do not only check but also correct spelling errors.

⁵We use the following conventions: an artificial token (e.g., a named-entity identifier) starts with a “_” ; in the corpus, characters “_”, “{” and “}” are replaced by the artificial tokens *_UNDERSCORE*, *_O_BRACE* and *_C_BRACE*. Thus, these three characters are available as meta-characters.

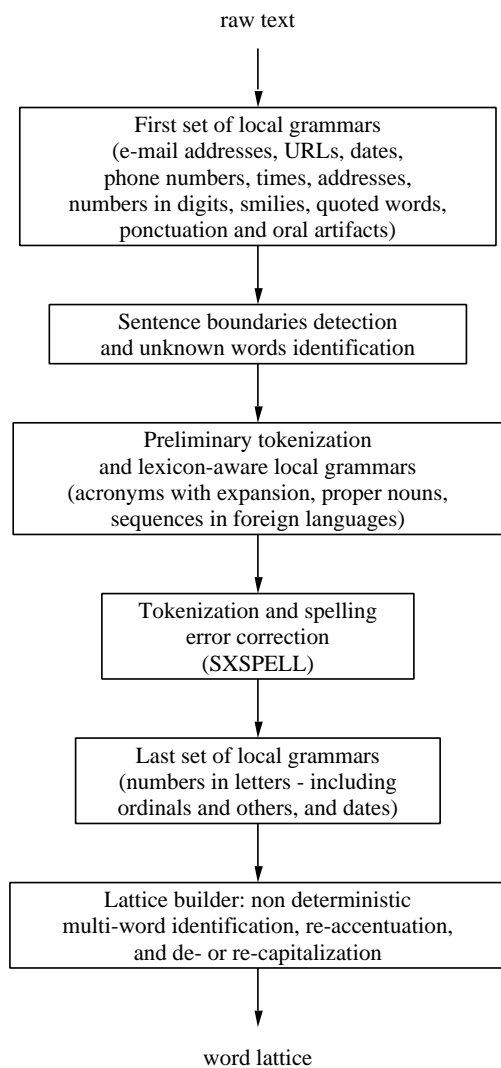


Figure 1: Overall architecture of SxPipe.

will become, if ignoring ambiguities, something like

{contactez_{0..1} contactez {-moi_{1..2} moi {au_{2..3} à {au_{2..3} le {1 av. Foch, 75016 Paris_{3..9} } _ADDRESS {_{9..10} , {ou_{10..11} ou {par_{11..12} par {e-mail_{12..13} e-mail {à_{13..14} à {my.name@my-email.com_{14..15} } _EMAIL {_{15..16} } . {_{15..16} } _SENT_BOUND.

3. Sentence boundaries detection and named-entities recognition

Real-word corpora are not like sentences built by linguists. They include sequences of tokens that are not analysable at a syntactic nor morphological level, but belong to productive patterns, which means that they have to be identified before spelling error correction. Most of them are grouped under the term *named entities* (?). However, we will use this term in a slightly broader sense, including all such sequences of token, even if not usually considered as named entities (e.g., numbers). We call *local grammar* a grammar recognizing named-entities of a given family.

We designed a set of large-coverage robust⁶ local

⁶By robust, we mean that named-entities with errors are also

grammars, implemented as *perl* programs involving numerous regular expressions.

Some named entities contain characters that are usually punctuation marks, most importantly the period (e.g., in URLs), but also the comma (e.g., in addresses) and all kind of other characters (e.g., in smilies). Therefore, some local grammars must be applied *before* tokenization, including the current version of SxPipe:

- e-mail addresses** with detection of erroneous spaces,
- URLs** with detection of many kinds of errors and formats,
- dates** including various formats as well as date ranges (e.g., *du 29 au 31 janvier*⁷ will become *du _DATE au _DATE*, even if *29*, if isolated, would not be recognized as a date),
- telephone numbers** in various formats,
- times** including several formats as well as time ranges (e.g., *2-3 heures, 3 ou 4 minutes*,⁸ etc.),
- addresses** in a lot of different formats,
- numbers** including different formats, as well as ordinals written with digits (e.g., *2ème – 2nd*),
- smilies** such as *:-)* or *:D*,
- quoted words** : *un «test»*⁹ becomes *un {«test»} test*,
- formatting artifacts** to deal with special punctuation phenomena (like replacing (...) by a single-word (...)) and with oral transcription artifacts (repetition more than twice of the same word, or more than once if it belongs to a predefined list, removal of hesitation markers, and so on).

After the application of these local grammars, we segment the text in sentences. This task is performed by a huge set of *perl* regular expressions that extends the basic ideas proposed for example in (?), helped by a list of known words containing a period (often abbreviations). It is designed to be able to handle all kind of false negatives and false positives that arise in real-life corpora. After this step, the artificial word *_SENT_BOUND* represents sentence boundaries.

We then apply the tokenizer and spelling error corrector described in the next section in a degraded way, in the sense that no spelling error correction is performed, but the text is tokenized in the same way it would be with error correction. The aim of this is to identify words in the input string that can not be analysed as known words (present in the lexicon or *easily* correctable) or combinations of known words (in French, things like *l'idée, anti-Bush* or *done-m'en*, for example,¹⁰ are valid combinations of correctable words – *done* should be *donne*).

recognized, like *ttp://strange.url.com/index.html*.

⁷from the 29th to the 31st of january

⁸3 or 4 minutes

⁹a "test"

¹⁰the idea, anti-Bush or give me some

Once unknown words are identified (recall that *unknown* means here that it is not tokenizable in a way that would give only words present in the lexicon or easily correctable), special local grammars that take this information into account are applied. They recognize:

acronyms that are followed or preceded by their expansion, with various typographic possibilities,

proper nouns preceded by a title (like *Dr.* or *Mr.*),

phrases in other languages than French.

The two last local grammars deserve a special comment. They are based on the following technique. Let $w_1 \dots w_n$ be a sentence whose words are the w_i 's. We define a tagging function t that associates (thanks to regular expressions) a tag $t_i = t(w_i)$ to each word w_i , where the t_i 's are taken in a small finite set of possible tags (resp. 9 and 12 for the two local grammars). Hence, a sequence of tags $t_1 \dots t_n$ is associated to $w_1 \dots w_n$. Then, a (huge) set of finite transducers is performed over $t_1 \dots t_n$, transforming it in a new sequence $t'_1 \dots t'_n$ of tags. If in this sequence a sub-sequence $t'_i \dots t'_j$ matches a given pattern, then the corresponding sequence of words $w_i \dots w_j$ is considered recognized by the grammar.

Let us consider for example the following sentence,

*Peu après, le Center for irish Studies publiait...*¹¹

where *Center*, *irish* and *Studies* have been identified as unknown words. It gets the following tags: `cnpNFFucn...` (c stands for *capitalized*, n for *probably French* (default case), p for *punctuation*, N for *known as French*, F for *known as foreign* and u for *unknown*). Regular expressions on these tags lead to `cnpNfffn...`, where *f* stands for *foreign*, meaning that *Center for irish Studies* is recognized as a phrase in a foreign language.¹² The sentence becomes (`_FP` stands for *foreign phrase*):

Peu après, le {Center for irish Studies}_FP publiait...

4. Tokenization and spelling error correction

4.1. An isolated-word corrector: SxSpell

The next step in SxPipe is the spelling error corrector. Real-life corpora have diverse rate of spelling errors, that can go from virtually zero (as in literature corpora) to an extremely high rate (as in e-mail corpora). Moreover, if they remain uncorrected, misspelled words become unknown words for the parser. This must be avoided as much as possible, since they usually get default underspecified syntactic information, which leads both to low precision and very high ambiguity at the syntactic level. Therefore, we designed a spelling error corrector, named SxSpell.

A lot of work has been done on spelling correction (see for example the review of (?)). Techniques used for isolated-word correction mainly fall in two categories: trained and untrained. Trained techniques cover stochastic (often n -gram based) techniques and neural

nets. Untrained techniques include *minimum edit distance* (based on operations like insertion, deletion, substitution or swapping) and *rule-based* techniques (based on context-sensitive rewriting rules, the origin of which comes from finite-state phonology). The latter is clearly more powerful and more adapted to the task,¹³ but the cited operations can also be useful as such. Hence, our corrector is rule-based, but these operations are also available to build underspecified rules.

Applying a rule is called an *elementary correction*. We associate to each rule a *local cost* and a *composition cost*. The total cost of a correction is the sum of the local costs of all elementary corrections, plus, if more than one elementary correction has been performed, the sum of all composition costs. This allows to have a global cost that is more than the sum of local costs. The best correction is of course the one with the lower total cost.

Our purpose was to have an efficient implementation of these simple techniques, even if used with numerous appropriate rules and a real-size spelling lexicon (our spelling lexicon for French language has more than 400,000 different inflected forms and parts of multi-word units). To achieve this goal, we considered the spelling lexicon as a deterministic finite automaton \mathcal{F} , the input word w as a finite transducer \mathcal{T}_w^0 , and rewrite rules as finite transducers $\mathcal{T}^i (i > 0)$. First, we compute the finite transducer \mathcal{T}_w^{all} of all possible sequences of characters that can be obtained from w by applying the rules, and their costs.¹⁴ Then we extract from \mathcal{T}_w^{all} all words that indeed exist in the lexicon, by intersecting \mathcal{F} with \mathcal{T}_w^{all} .

The difficulty of this approach is not the underlying theory, which is well known, but comes from the size of the automata that we have to handle. Indeed, with a typical number of rules of several hundreds, the automaton \mathcal{T}_w^{all} has easily billions and billions of paths. And it has to be intersected with \mathcal{F} and its 400,000 paths. Therefore, we extensively used tabulation and compact representation techniques. One must admit that the feasibility of such an approach was not *a priori* clear, but we have very good results, both in terms of quality (with appropriate rules) and response time (with an appropriate threshold cost).

4.2. In-sentence spelling correction

Spelling error correction can not be performed on a purely isolated-word basis. Indeed, at least four phenomena involve the environment of a word during recognition by the lexicon or during its correction:

- words starting with a capital letter,
- words that have initial position in the sentence (which interacts strongly with the previous point),

¹³A very simple example of that is the following: *o* and *eau* are two possible spellings for the [o] sound in French. Thus, transforming *o* into *eau* is a reasonable rule. It is more natural and more sensible w.r.t. correction costs, to see this operation as a replacement of *eau* by *o* than as two deletions followed by a substitution.

¹⁴Of course, a threshold cost can be given as a parameter, thus preventing from computing too many very costly corrections.

¹¹Soon afterwards, the *Center for irish Studies published...*

¹²In fact, we also designed a prototype tool to identify the language of such a phrase. In this case, the correct answer, English, is correctly found.

- multi-words that are consequence of productive derivational morphology (e.g., *anti-Bush*) or syntactic agglutination (e.g., *préchoisis-t'en*,¹⁵ that must be tokenized as *pré-/choisis/t'/en*),
- spelling errors that involve more than one token (e.g., *correction* instead of *correction*) or more than one word (e.g., *unproblème* instead of *un problème*¹⁶).

Hence, we developed a full-featured in-sentence spelling corrector (or tokenizer/corrector), which is able to deal with these phenomena and to send queries to SxSpell, so as to simultaneously tokenize and correct the text (we do not correct capitalized words, but other unknown words can remain if no correction is found for a word that costs less than a given threshold). It turned out that the interaction between tokenization of multi-words, capitalization and spelling error correction is not easy to deal with, especially when one deals with the first token of a sentence. However, we defined some heuristics that give pretty good results.

5. Non-deterministic light spelling correction and multi-word identification

In many cases, the simple concatenation of words cannot express the subtleties and ambiguities of natural languages. Therefore, the output of our process is a lattice (or DAG, standing for Direct Acyclic Graph) of word-forms (or words), which can be given as input to our syntactic parsers.¹⁷ Moreover, we do not produce only *simple* DAGs in the sense of (?), because they are not sufficient (see for example Figure 2).

Let us consider the French phrase *pomme de terre cuite*.¹⁸ Each word is a valid inflected form, as are the compound words *pomme de terre* and *terre cuite*.¹⁹ Therefore, it is represented by the DAG shown in Figure 2.

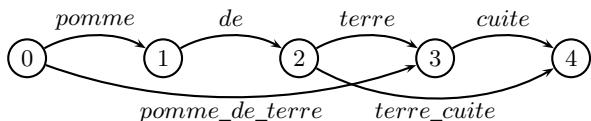


Figure 2: DAG associated to *pomme de terre cuite*.

On the contrary, French language (as others) has *agglutinates*. For example, *du* is either a valid word (meaning *some*) or must be decomposed as *de le* (meaning *of the*). It is therefore represented as shown in Figure 3.

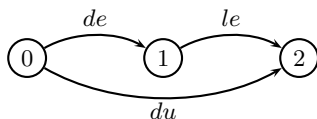


Figure 3: DAG associated to *du*.

¹⁵*pre-chose one of them for you*

¹⁶*a problem*

¹⁷Most classical parsers are not able to handle DAGs as input, which leads to the need of an extra step before parsing, namely (super-/hyper-)tagging, which may delete valid alternatives.

¹⁸This can mean either *cooked potato*, *cooked clay apple* or *terracotta apple*, which leads to the 3 different paths in the graph.

¹⁹respectively *potato* and *terracotta*.

Named-entity family	Occ.	Precision	Recall
URLs	174	100%	100%
(surface) addresses	35	100%	100%
Phrases in foreign lang. ²³	42	83%	88%

Table 1: Partial evaluation of named-entities recognition.

These operations are performed as follows. The input of the DAGing step is considered as a (linear) DAG \mathcal{D} . To each compound and to each agglutinate of the lexicon is associated a transducer. The composition of all these transducers is applied to \mathcal{D} , possibly creating new paths.

The resulting DAG is then passed through other transducers that create other alternatives. For example, capitalized words for which the non-capitalized word is present in the lexicon are represented as an alternative between both. Unknown words remaining at this point (including many capitalized words) and for which adding a diacritic on some letters leads to a known word are also represented as an alternative between both.²⁰ Finally, unknown words in the DAG are all replaced by one of two special entry of the lexicon, $_Uw$ and $_uw$, according to their capitalization. The resulting DAG is the final output.

6. Evaluation

The evaluation of such a system is difficult, because we lack an appropriate gold-standard corpus. However, some insights can be given thanks to tests we did on a 1,100,000-word journalistic corpus.²¹ The whole process²² takes 13'01", which corresponds approximately to 1400 tokens/sec. Considering the complexity of the performed tasks, and in particular the sizes of the automata involved in SxSpell, this is a very good performance.

We also selected a few named-entity families for which over-generating detectors can be easily designed, so as to allow a manual validation. Results are shown in Table 1.

The evaluation of the sentence boundary detection needs a manual annotation. We did it on the first 400 sentences of the corpus, which gives a 100% precision rate and a 100% recall rate. This is pretty satisfying, considering the fact that our journalistic corpus is full of quotations, footnotes, book references and meta-information that makes sentence boundary detection pretty difficult.

The evaluation of the spelling error corrector is not straightforward. Indeed, as said before, the spelling error correction and tokenization step is performed by a component that uses SxSpell but also deals with tokenization and

²⁰We also try and correct parts of compound words that do not exist as standalone words but do not take part one of their compound words. For example, *brac* in French exists only as part of the phrase *bric à brac*. Thus, *un brac* has not been corrected by the previous step, but is corrected here as *un bras*.

²¹We did evaluations on the different corpora of the parsing evaluation campaign cited above, but we are not yet allowed to publish these results. We can just say that the frequency of detection of named-entities strongly depends on the kind of corpus.

²²Test performed on an AMD Athlon XP 2100+ (1.7 Ghz) architecture running Mandrake Linux 10.1.

²³Test performed only on the first 2000 sentences, because manual annotation is necessary.

capitalization phenomena. Which means that there are two sub-components that need to be evaluated: the SxSpell spelling error corrector and the tokenizer/corrector that uses SxSpell. Moreover, we need to isolate the performances of this component from the characteristics of the lexicon and from the quality of the corpus.

To perform this evaluation, we automatically identified among the 1.1 million tokens of our corpus those which are not recognized by the tokenizer/corrector as known words (present in the lexicon or *easily* correctable) or combinations of known words. We then manually identified, among these unknown tokens, those that should be corrected in words present in the lexicon (or combinations thereof), and we corrected them manually (taking into account their context, when relevant). Then we compared these manual corrections with those given by our tokenizer/corrector. Out of 150 misspelled tokens, 91% received the correct correction (and sometimes tokenization). Some examples are given in Tables 2 and 3.

Input token	Correction
<i>arisiennne</i>	<i>parisienne</i>
<i>barrière</i>	<i>barrière</i>
<i>celuici</i>	<i>celui-ci</i>
<i>l'intervent_ionnisme</i>	<i>l'_interventionnisme</i>
<i>n'aspire-til</i>	<i>n'_aspire_-t-il</i>
<i>monde-tel-qu'il-est</i>	<i>monde_tel_qu'_il_est</i>
<i>plrrase</i>	<i>phrase</i>
<i>redou-table</i>	<i>redoutable</i>

Table 2: Exemples of valid corrections performed by the tokenizer/corrector.

Input token	Auto. correction	Man. correction
<i>argurnent</i>	<i>arguèrent</i>	<i>argument</i>
<i>lls</i>	<i>las</i>	<i>ils</i>
<i>de'investissement</i>	<i>dé_invest...</i>	<i>de_l'_invest...</i>

Table 3: Exemples of erroneous corrections performed by the tokenizer/corrector (“...” stands for “*issement*” for space reasons).

Furthermore, 1846 tokens are analysed as combination of known words with (at least) one prefix (in 1712 cases) or one suffix (in 54 cases, only *-né*, *-clef* and their variants being concerned²⁴). For example, the sequence *quasi-parti_unique_chrétien-libéral-conservateur*²⁵ is transformed into *quasi_ parti_unique_chrétien_ libéral_ conservateur*, where “-” is by convention the mark of prefixes.

At this point, we need to point out two facts. First, the corpus we used for this evaluation is a high quality corpus (only 150 misspelled words out of 1.1 million). Second, this evaluation of the tokenizer/corrector made us realize

and decrease the incompleteness of our lexicon, in particular for words that come from foreign languages. But the aim of our paper is not to evaluate our lexicon.

7. Conclusion

We have presented SxPipe, a full-featured architecture that produces words lattices out of raw text, and is able to handle various phenomena that occur at a high frequency in real-life corpora. This includes several named-entity families, spelling errors, tokenization ambiguities while detecting sentence and word boundaries, and lexical ambiguities between words differing only by diacritics or capitalization. Moreover, SxPipe is extremely efficient, and gives high-quality results. Such a pre-processing is a crucial step to be able to parse correctly real-life corpora.

In the future, we intend to implement a better treatment of derivational morphology and an extension of existing named-entity recognizers and design of new one. Moreover, we should slightly adapt SxPipe in order to be compliant with the current ISO working draft on normalization of morphosyntactic annotation (?), based on XML representation of tokens, words (or word-forms) and lattices. Furthermore, we are about to make the whole system available under a free-software licence.

²⁴For example, *un artiste-né* means *an genuine artist* (where *-né* means approximately *born as such*), and *un problème-clef* means *a key problem*.

²⁵quasi-single christian-liberal-conservative party