Abstract

We report on our work-in-progress to generate a synthetic error dataset for Swedish by replicating errors observed in the authentic error-annotated dataset. We analyze a small subset of authentic errors, capture regular patterns based on parts of speech, and design a set of rules to corrupt new data. We explore the approach and identify its capabilities, advantages and limitations as a way to enrich the existing collection of error-annotated data. This work focuses on word order errors, specifically those involving the placement of finite verbs in a sentence.

1 Introduction

The lack of sufficient data to train algorithms capable of detecting, labeling and correcting grammatical errors calls for the need to generate synthetic (i.e. machine-made, not human-produced) error datasets to enrich the existing resources. As mentioned by Stahlberg and Kumar (2021), the need for synthetic datasets (aka corrupt or artificial datasets) exists not only for low-resource languages, but also for high-resource languages like English. This is due to the fact that data for error detection and correction is far more sparse than required for most tasks in NLP, as grammatical errors are found in different frequencies and distributed unevenly across written language. Moreover, the appearance of grammatical errors in student essays depend notably on the speaker’s particularities, such as their proficiency level, native language(s) and age. The need is especially acute for languages that are on the low-resource end in this respect, as is the case for Swedish.

In this paper, we present a pilot study to generate artificial error data for Swedish by mimicking error patterns present in authentic error datasets, namely, in the SweLL learner corpus (Volodina et al., 2019) and its one-error-per-sentence DaLAJ derivative (Volodina et al., 2021). We create a corruption pipeline to insert artificial errors into the sentences from COCTAILL, a corpus of textbooks used for teaching Swedish (Volodina et al., 2014). We expect the artificially produced error data to be a valuable resource for such tasks as Grammatical Error Detection / Labeling (GED) and Grammatical Error Correction (GEC) for Swedish, which at the moment are dormant fields.

In this pilot, we focus on word order errors involving placement of finite verbs (tagged S-FinV). The final dataset comprises 31,788 corrupted sentences each containing one error of the syntactical error type "S-FinV", paired with their correct counterparts. The code and the generated data can be found on GitHub.

2 Related work

Recently much attention has been given to practical and theoretical aspects of artificial error data generation as a way to enhance performance of grammatical error correction systems, both with respect to methods of generation, source (aka seed) corpora used for corruption and the ways pseudo-data is used in system architectures (e.g. Flachs et al., 2021). Takahashi et al. (2020) give probably the most nuanced introduction to the problem.

Approaches to generation of synthetic error datasets can be roughly divided into rule-based and model-based ones, which further exhibit variation with regards to presence or absense of error labels. Advantages of model-based approaches (e.g. Stahlberg and Kumar, 2021) is that they capture the variety of error types present in the authentic data and the artificial data is fast to generate. However, training a model for replicating errors requires access to large amounts of such data, which often is a problem to start with. It has also been observed that models may show biases towards the data they have been trained on, with a consequence that they are...
Advantages of rule-based approaches (e.g. Grundkiewicz et al., 2019) are directly opposite, namely, that they can be created with zero or minimal access to gold data and can better generalize since they are kept on an abstract level. Some known rules include simple random operations, e.g. deletion of a word, randomly swapping neighbouring words, exchange of one inflected form with another or use of so-called confusion pairs, i.e. incorrect segment/token > corrected variant (e.g. Choe et al., 2019; Grundkiewicz et al., 2019).

A more linguistic approach to error rules, e.g. through abstracting to part of speech (POS) patterns or patterns including morpho-syntactic information, requires more time for designing corruption rules, but has one obvious advantage: using such rules allows control over the generated data and, importantly, it is possible to add error labels to corrupted sentences, which makes the pseudo-data applicable both to error correction and to error classification tasks. It also has an advantage of inserting realistic errors typical of learners, and has been shown to increase performance of GEC systems, compared to random error types (Takahashi et al., 2020).

Given the scarcity of the Swedish authentic data, we experiment with rule-based approaches using linguistic analysis to extract typical error patterns and to generate synthetic errors based on those.
(B2) and Advanced (C1). The Proficiency level (C2) is not represented. We assume that the lexical, grammatical and syntactical patterns in COCTAIL texts would be relatively close to the ones used in learner essays, thus fitting perfectly for our purposes. Out of the 25,960 sentences present in the COCTAIL corpus texts, 20,307 were deemed useful, as a filtering process was carried out to discard sentences not containing verbs as well as sentences shorter than two tokens.

3.3 POS tagging pipeline
Språkbanken Text’s Sparv pipeline\(^5\) (Borin et al., 2016) was used to extract grammatical information in the form of morphosyntactic tags. This pipeline was used in two distinct phases of the project: in the analysis of the error patterns and in the generation of corrupted data. The Sparv pipeline is a tool for text analysis that can be run from the command line or called programmatically through an API.

4 Methods
4.1 Error patterns
Swedish is a so-called “verb-second” language, which means that finite verbs, with a few exceptions, take the second position in a sentence (where positions are counted in phrases). Errors with placement of finite verbs are considered among the most typical ones for L2 learners of Swedish. Linguistic analysis of approx. 100 DaLAJ sentence pairs containing S-FinV errors has shown that three POS in specific positions in the sentence, have a tendency to be the cause of S-FinV errors, namely: pronouns (PN), nouns (NN) and adverbs (AB) (in the order of frequency). Additionally, there is a need to make a special case for proper names (PM).

**Pronouns** in the studied dataset are the most fruitful part of speech tag in the production of verb order errors, making two thirds of all S-FinV errors. The error production patterns involving pronouns can be grouped into two distinct groups: PN-VB → VB-PN and VB-PN → PN-VB (where the first part is correct → the second is erroneous).

To exemplify, in PN-VB → VB-PN\(^3\) errors, the error tends to happen right after a conjunction (KN), an interrogative or relative adverb (HA), or at the beginning of a sentence, like in the example below:

\[\text{Eng: My name is Karin.}\quad ^4 \text{Jag heter Karin.} \quad ^5 \rightarrow \text{Heter jag Karin.}\]

The VB-PN → PN-VB* pattern, is decidedly the most frequent one in the "pronoun"-subtype, and appears in subordinate clauses, which requires the reversal of pronoun and verb positions. This phenomenon usually appears after interrogative or relative pronouns (HP) and adverbs (AB).

Errors involving the positions of verbs in relation to **adverbs** are also well-represented in our dataset, even though not as frequent as pronoun-related errors. Their typical error production patterns are: VB-AB → AB-VB* and AB-VB → VB-AB*.

In VB-AB → AB-VB* errors, the learner writes the adverb before the verb when its correct position is after the verb. It usually occurs in a sentence’s main clause, probably because the writer wrongly applies the rule for subordinate clauses.

In contrast, errors of type AB-VB → VB-AB* appear in subordinate clauses where the verb and the adverb must switch positions in the sentence:

\[\text{Eng: (...) if little brother must not be afraid of (…) → (...) om lillebror inte ska vara rädd för (…)} \quad ^*\]

Error patterns involving **nouns** in close relation to verbs are slightly more varied than those having to do with pronouns and adverbs. The reason is that nouns can be modified by other parts of speech, such as determiners, possessives and adjectives. They can in addition be modified by adjective-like subordinate clauses.

Within this category, the primary error pattern is VB-NN → NN-VB* (or rather noun phrases), in which the verb needs to be placed before an unmodified noun. These errors are likely to occur when the initial position in a clause is taken by another word class, most frequently by an adverb:

\[\text{Ibland kommer mormor.} \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{Ibland mormor kommer.}\]

\[\text{Eng: Grandma comes sometimes.}\]

Other subtypes involve pre-modifiers, e.g. determiners (DT), possessives (PS), adjectives (JJ):

\[\begin{align*}
(1) \quad & \text{VB-DT-NN → DT-NN-VB;} \\
(2) \quad & \text{VB-PS-NN → PS-NN-VB, and} \\
(3) \quad & \text{VB-JJ-NN → JJ-NN-VB.}
\end{align*}\]

\(^{4,5}\)In the examples, the first sentence is correct and the second one contains one error. The verbs are in bold, whereas the parts of speech that are being treated are underlined.

\(^{3}\)All examples, unless stated otherwise, belong to the SweLL and DaLAJ datasets.
The final pattern is based on proper names, exhibiting similar behaviour to noun-based error patterns. Due to pseudonymization, pseudonyms are used instead of the originally used proper names (as in the example below).

Han visste inte om Brad Pitt vann priset. \(\rightarrow\) Han visste inte om vann Brad Pitt priset.*

Eng: He didn’t know if Brad Pitt won the prize.

The typical patterns are: (1) PM-VB \(\rightarrow\) VB-PM and (2) PM-PM-VB \(\rightarrow\) VB-PM-PM.

4.2 Corruption method

Using the identified error patterns, we reverse them to a set of rules for each error subtype (pronouns, adverbs, nouns and proper names) for shifting the position of words in COCTAILL sentences. We first extract POS tags from the correct sentences and store them. In the process, sentences shorter than two tokens and those not containing verbs are discarded. All of them share an initial filter to avoid changing the position of words before a colon, in case a verb is present, like in the example below.

Capitalization is toggled if the initial capitalized word is involved in the corruption.

Stryka subjektet: Jag är mycket trött. \(\rightarrow\) Stryka subjektet: Är jag mycket trött.*

Eng: Cross out the subject: I am very tired.

We strictly keep to the rule of having one error per sentence. However, sentences may appear more than once in the synthetic dataset, as they can be corrupted several times, for example, if sentences contain more than one verb or fit into several error sub-patterns. In the end, a final scramble is performed to the order of the sentences before they are stored in a .csv file, with suggestions for data splits (80%-10%-10%) and confusion pairs (Figure 2).

5 Results

A total of 31,788 sentences were corrupted from the 20,307 usable sentences available. The distribution of error sub-types is shown in Table 1:

Similarly to the frequency distribution in student essays, pronoun-dependent verb order errors are the most frequent ones in the corrupted data, with 41.05% of synthetic errors being of this type. The second most productive rules are the ones involving adverbs, with 31.21% of errors, followed by nouns at 25.3%. Finally, as expected, the corruption pipeline produced a considerably lesser quantity of errors involving proper names at 2,44%. The distribution in the corrupted data, thus, reflects the observed tendency in the authentic data.

To assess the quality of the corruption method, we carried out a small-scale evaluation. Two people have independently checked 100 randomly selected corrupted sentences in terms of how similar they are to hypothetical learner-made errors (i.e. to make sure they are high quality). Following Bryant et al. (2017), we used a three level scale of assessment: Good, Acceptable and Bad. For Acceptable and Bad, a reason could be indicated for further analysis.

The evaluation shows that 76% (67%) of sentences are Good, 14% (25%) are Acceptable and 10% (8%) are Bad. The numbers in brackets come from the second annotator. Some observed problems had to do with more complex phrase shifts that were missed. In others, the problem comes from the source data, incl. unfinished sentences with an uncertain sentence type (affirmative vs interrogative), which then sounds correct even if the verb and noun change places. It should be noted that the main purpose of this evaluation was to see whether humans think that the synthetic data will be useful for training algorithms, and the result where on average 90% sentences are either Good or Acceptable is very encouraging. It has been earlier claimed that even unrealistic errors are use-

| Error subtype | Produced errors |
|---------------|-----------------|
| Pronoun-Verb | 13,049          |
| Adverb-Verb  | 9,922           |
| Noun-Verb    | 8,041           |
| Proper Name-Verb | 776         |

Table 1: Error count of the final corrupted data.
ful for pre-training GEC models (e.g. Flachs et al., 2021; Grundkiewicz et al., 2019). Given our results, therefore, we consider the produced dataset appropriate for the task.

We have run the first experiments exploring effects of pseudo-data on the model performance for the task of error detection and classification, where classification is limited to the top error categories (Orthographic, Lexical, Morphological, Punctuation, Syntactical). Detailed description of that experiment is the topic of another publication, however, we can shortly name here that we have observed a tangible improvement of the classification results when 500 FakeDaLAJ sentences of S-FinV nature were added to the training data. When more sentences were added, the models seemed to learn to classify syntactical errors disadvantaging other error types. A sample of the results obtained, measured with the F0.5 score, are shown in Table 2.

### Table 2: F0.5 score results from some selected models on error classification task.

| Data type                      | Model type | Lexical | Morphological | Orthographic | Punctuation | Syntactical |
|--------------------------------|------------|---------|---------------|--------------|-------------|-------------|
| Original learner data          | BERT Bi-LSTM | 0.54894179 | 0.60539215 | 0.57565789 | 0.46072507 | 0.64680232 |
| Original learner data + 500 FakeDaLAJ | BERT Bi-LSTM | 0.60634328 | 0.63834422 | 0.61026936 | 0.56034482 | 0.69732297 |
| Original learner data + 1500 FakeDaLAJ | BERT Bi-LSTM | 0.51798561 | 0.58823529 | 0.50641940 | 0.37499999 | 0.71934945 |

6 Conclusions and future work

This paper introduces a process for generation of synthetic error datasets with corresponding error labels based on linguistic analysis of real-life learner errors in the context of limited error-annotated learner data. This process could be replicated for other error tags, or extended and adapted to other low-resource languages. Manually studying and designing corruption rules is time-consuming and can be inaccurate due to human error and language biases. Therefore, an alternative to optimize time and avoid human mistakes could be to rely on guided models as suggested by Stahlberg and Kumar (2021) or Sennrich et al. (2016). However, we have to adhere to rule-based approaches due to the lack of sufficient amount of gold data. Yet, we foresee considerable benefits of generating realistic errors.

The resulting fakeDaLAJ (S-FinV) dataset is released for public use. Currently, we are testing this dataset in a task for error detection and classification. In the near future, we will also release a set of cleaned 100 DaLAJ sentences per each error tag in the SweLL-gold data, so that the community of interested researchers and developers can use them for generation of synthetic datasets for other error types.

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