Abstract

We present a detailed description of our submission to the EmpiriST shared task 2015 for tokenization and part-of-speech tagging of German social media text. As relatively little training data is provided, neither tokenization nor PoS tagging can be learned from the data alone. For tokenization, our system uses regular expressions for general cases and word lists for exceptions. For PoS tagging, adding unsupervised knowledge beyond the available training data is the most important factor for reaching acceptable tagging accuracy. A learning curve experiment shows furthermore that more in-domain training data is very likely to further increase accuracy.

1 Introduction

Tokenization and part-of-speech (PoS) tagging are two fundamental NLP tasks. Tokenization aims at detecting word and sentence boundaries in text while PoS tagging uses the recognized words and assigns each word its syntactical category. Both tasks are especially challenging when applied on noisy social media texts (Eisenstein, 2013).

The main challenge when tokenizing social media text is the ambiguity of punctuation characters which occurs more frequently than in other domains. A major source of ambiguity are emoticons that show a surprising degree of complexity ranging from two-character emoticons such as :) to n-character emoticons such as \((.*)#\). Additionally challenges are introduced by missing whitespace characters and the use of non-standard abbreviations such as in [...] aus meiner (Doz.)Sicht: [...] [...].

For PoS tagging, the main source of error are the frequently occurring unknown word forms that are spelling variations of words found in the dictionary. Those spelling variations are usually not contained in the (newswire) training data of the model which leads to a strong decline in accuracy on social media data (Ritter et al., 2011; Eisenstein, 2013).

There has been little work for German social media processing, the EmpiriST (Beißwenger et al., 2016) provides for both tasks two data sets composing of dialogical and monological text of the social media domain to help the development of robust tools for German. The results of our approaches for tokenization and PoS tagging are reported under the name LTL-UDE in the EmpiriST rankings.

2 Tokenization

While tokenization usually comprises of two subtasks (sentence boundary detection and token boundary detection), in the EmpiriST shared task, the sentence boundaries are already given and only the token boundaries should be detected.

2.1 Task Analysis

A main challenge in this task lies in dealing with missing whitespace characters, Table 1 shows a few examples with their correct tokenization. In case (1), it is difficult to determine that in the character sequence ‘?’< the arrow symbol form a semantic unit that should not be split. This problem occurs in various forms such as in (2) where a dot indicates an abbreviation and a following word appear as single token, case (3) shows how numbers and following punctuation marks form a token and cannot just be separated.

While (1) is a case which might be solved by regular expressions, (2) requires to know that the first word is an abbreviation to which the dot belongs. An additional challenge comes from the
tokenization rules defined in the EmpiriST guidelines. For example the version number \( v.14.4 \) in (3) should be tokenized as \( v._14.4 \) even if it is actually one entity.

### 2.2 Implementation

Our tokenizer performs three steps: In the first step, we split the input text into units at every whitespace character. In the second step, we use regular expressions to refine the splitting by separating alpha-numerical text segments from punctuation characters. This will also erroneously split up smilies and other character sequences. Thus, in the third step, we re-assemble sequences of punctuation characters which have been separated in the previous step. This mainly serves to restore smilies but also other symbols such as arrows and alike. We examined the training data to find the most common combinations of those character sequences and merge them to a single token when we encounter them. Furthermore, we use word lists to merge abbreviations with their following dot character. The list of abbreviations are obtained from the Tüba-DZ corpus (Telljohann et al., 2004), the German Web1T uni-gram corpus (Brants and Franz, 2006), and lists we manually obtained from Wikipedia.

### Baseline Systems

We compare our approach to three reference systems: a plain whitespace tokenization (i.e. the first step of our approach), tokenization with the Break-Iterator-Segmenter (BreakIter) as implemented in the NLP DKPro Core framework (Eckart de Castilho and Gurevych, 2014), and a specialized social media tokenizer from the ArkTools suite (Gimpel et al., 2011). Whitespace tokenization and BreakIter are expected to perform poorly as neither tool is designed for processing social media text. The ArkTools tokenizer is tailored to English Twitter messages which are quite similar to the EmpiriST dataset, but will obviously not capture phenomena that are specific for German.

### 2.3 Results & Discussion

In Table 2, we show the results of applying our methods and baseline systems to the provided training and test data. The CMC data set is harder to tokenize than the Web data. Our approach performed well on the training data set but fails to generalize to unseen data. Of our baselines systems, ArkTools is the only competitive one, which is not surprising as it aims at tokenizing tweets which are a subdomain of the provided data.

Challenging cases for our approach are situations when more than two tokens have to be separated because several whitespace characters are missing or punctuation marks belonging to abbreviations are involved. Table 3 shows examples for a few selected error cases. Example (1) shows a case of a dot terminated abbreviation which is not contained in our word lists. Example (2) shows an issue when more than one whitespace character is missing. We experimented with splitting camel case expressions but found on the training data that it does more harm than good and decided not to implement such a rule. In example (3) an abbreviation is involved which is based on two words shortened to a single letter each followed by a dot character. This abbreviation had to be split up into two tokens consisting of a letter and a dot in order to conform to the tokenization guidelines.

### 3 Part-of-Speech Tagging

Tagging social media text with off-the-shelf PoS taggers leads to a huge drop in accuracy compared to tagging newswire text (Ritter et al., 2011; Horsmann et al., 2015). The main cause for this drop is the high rate of out-of-vocabulary words, which are mainly caused by orthographical variations of known words (Eisenstein, 2013).

#### 3.1 Shared Task Data

The EmpiriST training dataset contains about 10k tokens of PoS annotated German social media text (the test data contains about 13k tokens). The dataset is annotated with an extended version of the STTS tagset which adds 18 new PoS tags to account for German social media phenomena.
Table 2: Tokenization results

| Method          | CMC       | Web      | ∅  |
|-----------------|-----------|----------|----|
|                 | P  | R  | F1  | P  | R  | F1  | F1 |
| Train data      |   |   |     |   |   |     |    |
| Whitespace      | 81.7| 99.9| 89.8| 84.4| 100| 91.5| 90.7|
| BreakIter       | 99.4| 90.2| 94.5| 99.7| 98.3| 99.0| 96.8|
| ArkTools        | 98.7| 98.7| 98.7| 98.2| 99.2| 98.7| 98.7|
| LTL-UDDE        | 99.7| 99.7| 99.7| 99.9| 99.9| 99.9| 99.8|
| Test data       |   |   |     |   |   |     |    |
| Whitespace      | 80.7| 99.8| 89.2| 87.0| 99.9| 93.0| 91.1|
| BreakIter       | 97.9| 90.3| 93.9| 99.7| 98.3| 98.9| 96.4|
| ArkTools        | 97.5| 98.4| 97.9| 99.3| 99.0| 99.1| 98.5|
| LTL-UDDE        | 98.2| 99.0| 98.6| 99.5| 98.9| 99.2| 98.9|

Table 3: Tokenization errors

| Empiri STTS PoS tags | Freq. | Standard STTS-PoS tags | Freq. |
|----------------------|-------|------------------------|-------|
| EMOASC               | 115   | PTKANT                 | 42    |
| PTKMA                | 103   | PWAV                   | 39    |
| PTKIFG               | 99    | KOKOM                  | 28    |
| AKW                  | 49    | XY                     | 28    |
| HST                  | 46    | PDAT                   | 28    |
| ADR                  | 35    | VAINF                  | 26    |
| PTKMWL               | 28    | PWS                    | 23    |
| EMOIMG               | 22    | VVIMP                  | 18    |
| URL                  | 18    | TRUNC                  | 12    |
| VVPPPER              | 7     | KOUI                   | 10    |
| VAPPER               | 4     | PWAT                   | 8     |
| DM                   | 3     | VVIZU                  | 7     |
| VMPPER               | 1     | PIDAT                  | 7     |
| ADVART               | 1     | PTKA                   | 5     |
| KOUSPPPER            | 1     | APZIR                  | 5     |
| ONO                  | 1     | VMINF                  | 3     |
|PPERPPPER            | 1     | VAPP                   | 3     |
| EML                  | 0     | VMPP                   | 1     |

Table 4: All 18 newly added PoS tags with their frequency of occurrence in the training data compared to the frequency of the 18 least frequent standard STTS PoS tags

3.2 Implementation

We train a CRF classifier (Lafferty et al., 2001) using the FlexTag tagger (Zesch and Horsmann, 2016) which is based on the DKProTC (Daxenberger et al., 2014) machine learning framework. Our feature set uses a context window of ±2 tokens, the five-hundred most-frequent character ngrams over all bi, tri and four-grams and boolean features if a token is capitalized, a number, etc.

General Domain Adaptation As the provided training data will not be sufficient to train a competitive model, we decided to apply a domain adaption strategy that has been proposed as an effective method for improving tagging accuracy on social media texts (Ritter et al., 2011; Rehbein, 2013). We closely follow the process outlined in our previous research, where we examined which domain adaption strategies are most likely to improve results (Horsmann and Zesch, 2015). We train a single model on the training data (CMC and Web subsets) and add additional 100k tokens of newswire text from the Tiger corpus (Brants et al., 2004). To inform the classifier about spelling variations of social media and German morphology we add the following resources:

- **Brown cluster** We create Brown clusters (Brown et al., 1992) from 70 million tokens of German Twitter messages. Spelling variations of the same word form tend to be placed into the same cluster (Ritter et al., 2011), e.g. the unknown word i-wann occurs in the same...
cluster as the correctly spelled and known word form *irgendwann*. This enables the classifier to learn that *i-wann* and *irgendwann* are distributional similar which provides a bias to assign *i-wann* the same PoS tag as *irgendwann*. We use 1000 clusters and consider words which occur at least 40 times as suggested by Ritter et al. (2011) we provide the resulting bit string in various length as feature to the classifier i.e. 2, 4, 6, ..., 16 (Owoputi et al., 2013) to inform the classifier about (partial) similarity between words.

- **Morphology lexicon** We extract the word class, number and comparative of a word from a German morphology lexicon\(^1\) to inform the classifier about German morphology.

- **PoS dictionary** We create a PoS dictionary which stores the three most frequent PoS tags of a word. We build the dictionary using the Hamburg Dependency Treebank (Foth et al., 2014) which contains STTS annotated text from the technical German website [www.heise.de](http://www.heise.de). We choose this corpus for its size of almost five million tokens and its technical nature which let it seem more suited for the social media domain than a business newswire corpus.

**EmpiriST-specific Adaptation** As we have seen in Table 4, some PoS tags are rather rare in the training data and cannot be learned from the data. In order to tackle at least some of those cases, we utilize a post-processing step based on heuristics. For example, all instances of the token *sehr* in the training data are annotated with the same PoS tag. All occurrences of words that start with an @ character are set to ADR and those with # are set to HST. We also matchUrls and Email addresses with regular expressions and assign URL or EML to them. The word form *sehr* is always assigned PTKIFG. Additionally, all words ending in a hyphen are set to TRUNC.

We use word lists from Wikipedia and Wiktionary to improve named entity recognition with name lists for person names, cities, countries etc. In those lists, we remove words which occur in the Tiger corpus with a word class other than named entity to filter for words that can occur with other PoS tags, too. Due to unreliable upper- and lowercase usage in social media, we use case-insensitive matching.

A main drawback of adding data from a foreign text domain such as the Tiger corpus is a different annotation scheme and its dominating size that decreases the weight of the EmpiriST training data. This causes a bias for choosing the tags from the bigger Tiger corpus. We attempt to adjust for this bias by adding boolean features if a word can occur with a PoS tag for one of the sparse new word classes to assign a higher weight for choosing a new PoS tag. We added features for instance for focus particles such as *nur, schon, etwas* or words that are verbs merged with personal pronouns such as *schreibste, willste, machste*.

**Baseline Systems** We use the German model of TreeTagger (Schmid, 1995) as reference point for the performance of our PoS tagger. We report results of applying TreeTagger alone and additionally with our shared-task fitted post-processing to ensure a fair comparison.

### 3.3 Results & Discussion

Table 5 shows our results on the released gold test data. Each row shows a setting that is applied on the two subsets CMC and Web. For each data set we provide two accuracy values by applying the current setting in its generic form and with our shared task-specific (ST-specific) post-processing.

The first row in Table 5 shows the performance of the TreeTagger baseline which performs a lot better on the Web data than on CMC data which indicates that Web is much closer to standard German text on which the TreeTagger is known to perform well (Horsmann et al., 2015). The second row shows the performance of tagging the data with a model trained only on the provided EmpiriST training data which performs poorly due to data sparsity. In the third row, we add the foreign domain Tiger corpus which improves accuracy substantially and let our model even beat the baseline on CMC. The subsequent rows show the improvement of adding each of the three resources if added to the EmpiriST and Tiger training data. The morphological lexicon shows the smallest improvements on both data sets. Adding the Brown cluster increases accuracy by 4.6 percent points on the CMC data set but only by 2.5 points on the Web data. We assume that the higher similarity of the Web data to standard German also reduces

\(^1\) [http://www.danielnaber.de/morphologie/](http://www.danielnaber.de/morphologie/)
### Table 5: Results of applying our trained PoS tagger against the released gold test data, we present additional to the overall result the accuracy gain of adding 100k token Tiger and the gains of adding each individual resource compared to training on Empiri+Tiger. We compare our performance against the German TreeTagger model.

|               | CMC Generic | CMC ST-specific | Web Generic | Web ST-specific | All resources |
|---------------|-------------|-----------------|-------------|-----------------|---------------|
| TreeTagger    | 73.8        | 77.3            | 91.6        | 91.8            | 84.2          | 84.6          |
| EmpiriST      | 72.2        | 73.4            | 75.5        | 76.3            | 73.9          | 74.9          |
| +Tiger        | 79.6        | 80.6            | 88.8        | 88.9            | 84.2          | 84.8          |
| +Tiger+Brown  | 84.4        | 85.2            | 90.8        | 90.6            | 87.6          | 87.9          |
| +Tiger+MorphLex | 81.1      | 81.5            | 90.6        | 90.8            | 85.9          | 86.2          |
| +Tiger+PosDict | 82.4      | 83.8            | 91.0        | 91.4            | 86.7          | 87.6          |
| All resources | 85.6        | 86.1            | 92.0        | 92.1            | 88.8          | 89.1          |

Table 6: Accuracy per word class with an accuracy of less than 50%. PoS tags newly added in the extended STTS tagset are highlighted in grey.

| PoS tag      | Occr | Acc (%) |
|--------------|------|---------|
| PTKMA        | 85   | 32.9    |
| FM           | 49   | 26.5    |
| VAPPER       | 4    | 25.0    |
| VVIMP        | 32   | 15.6    |
| PTKIFG       | 133  | 15.0    |
| PTKMWL       | 24   | 8.3     |
| XY           | 17   | 5.9     |
| ADVART       | 3    | 0       |
| APPO         | 1    | 0       |
| DM           | 6    | 0       |
| KOUSPPER     | 2    | 0       |
| ONO          | 2    | 0       |
| PIDAT        | 4    | 0       |
| PPERPPER     | 1    | 0       |

The number of spelling variations in the text which explains the smaller effect of the Brown cluster on the Web data set. The PoS dictionary is with an improvement of 2.5 percent points most effective on the Web data set. If we combine all resources, we improve accuracy on CMC by 8.8 percent points compared to our baseline. On the Web data, the baseline is already quite high, but we still slightly improve by 0.3 points.

To better understand the challenge arising from data sparsity, we show the PoS tags of the test data set which have an accuracy below 50% and are thus especially difficult to tag in Table 6. Noteworthy is that seven word classes have an accuracy of zero. Five of those classes are newly added tags which confirms our assumption that they are too infrequent to be reliably learned.

Figure 1 shows the learning curve of our classifier using both, the provided training data and gold test data. We computed the learning curve as an averaged value with 10fold cross validation. The blue learning curve (triangle) shows the accuracy gain without using any resources. The red curve (square) shows the accuracy gain by additionally adding all of our resources including our shared-task post-processing. The curve without any resources confirms the data sparsity issue. The curve with our resources shows how well our resources compensate data sparsity, but still indicates that more actual training data of the target domain will bring further improvements. Thus, we consider annotating more training data as a promising method to achieve further accuracy improvements.

### 4 Summary

We presented our approach in the EmpiriST shared task 2015 for the tokenization and PoS tagging of German social media text. We tackled the tokenization task with regular expressions and word lists.

An analysis of the provided training and test data for PoS tagging shows that many of the fine word class distinctions do not occur frequently enough to be learned effectively. We thus utilize foreign domain data, PoS and morphological dictionaries, and clusters of distributional word similarity to overcome sparsity of training data. The added resources show a much higher effectiveness on the CMC data set than on the Web data set,
probably as the Web data set is much closer to standard German text than the CMC data. Furthermore, we presented a learning curve experiment that shows that using more annotated data is likely to yield further improvements.

We make the source code of our experiments publicly available.²

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²https://github.com/Horsmann/EmpiriSharedTask2015.git

Figure 1: Learning Curve on Empiri-Train and Empiri-Test data averaged in 10fold cross validation, learning curve is shown for using no resources and for using all resources including our post processing.
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