CCOHA: Clean Corpus of Historical American English

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Abstract

Modelling language change is an increasingly important area of interest within the fields of sociolinguistics and historical linguistics. In recent years, there has been a growing number of publications whose main concern is studying changes that have occurred within the past centuries. The Corpus of Historical American English (COHA) is one of the most commonly used large corpora in diachronic studies in English. This paper describes methods applied to the downloadable version of the COHA corpus in order to overcome its main limitations, such as inconsistent lemmas and malformed tokens, without compromising its qualitative and distributional properties. The resulting clean corpus of historical American English (CCOHA) contains a larger number of cleaned word tokens which can offer better insights into language change and allow for a larger variety of tasks to be performed.

Keywords: COHA, Corpora, Historical Linguistics, Language Change

1. Introduction

Languages are in a constant process of evolution. That is, they constantly change over time on all levels of linguistic structure. These changes reflect—and are driven by—external factors such as cultural changes and technological advances (Blank, 1999; Fromkin et al., 2018). The field of historical or diachronic linguistics is concerned with the study and analysis of language change over time. Over the past two decades, researchers have shown an increased interest in the various aspects of diachronic language change. This can be attributed to the advances in technology such as the digitization of historical texts, improved computational power and availability of large-scale historical corpora designed specifically for diachronic studies (Tahmasebi et al., 2018; Fang, 2018; Bowern, 2019). Large historical corpora first appeared a decade ago and quickly gained popularity because they allow researchers to test hypotheses using computational approaches that are only possible with corpora of such volume (Kutuzov et al., 2018; Dubossarsky et al., 2019; Perrone et al., 2019; Schlichtweg et al., 2019).

The Corpus of Historical American English (COHA) (Davies, 2012) is a popular large-scale resource for studying lexical, syntactic and semantic change in English. Despite its many features and advantages, COHA is not without its limitations. These shortcomings, which include inconsistent lemmas and malformed tokens, can complicate certain tasks and increase the required time and effort to complete them. As a case in point, let us consider the original task for which we needed COHA. The task required sentence-level context extraction for a set of target words, but was hindered by the presence of malformed tokens around sentence boundaries. To clarify, let us consider Example 1 which shows two sentences that have been merged due to the boundary loss between the words in bold. When attempting to extract the sentence-level context for the target word guy, the following occurrence causes erroneous results such as the position of the target word within the sentence, and the length of the sentence.

(1) “[...] know many of the people. I have a daughter that’s on the Sheriff’s Department. As far as the gay issue, I don’t give a damn one way or the other as long as they don’t bother me.”

In light of this, we explored the data in COHA with the intention of identifying limitations that may obstruct Natural Language Processing (NLP) tasks. Then we cleaned COHA as much as possible without compromising the qualitative and distributional properties of the original data. The remainder of this paper is structured as follows: In the next section, we describe the related work on data clean-up. Further, we give an overview of COHA and describe its features and limitations. Then, we discuss the approach taken to clean COHA and overcome its limitations in Section 4. The resulting clean corpus is presented and compared to the original corpus in Section 5.

2. Related Work

Data clean-up is an essential yet time-consuming process in research (Hill and Hengchen, 2019). Over the years, there have been various attempts to clean corpora for both specific and general use in NLP with some contributions aiming to automate the process (Reynaert, 2006). In the field of machine translation, Imamura and Sumita (2002) present a method for cleaning bilingual corpora based on translation literalness as measured by word-level and phrase-level correspondence in sentence pairs. As for more general applications, the special interest group of the Association for Computational Linguistics (ACL) on the Web as Corpus (ACL SIGWAC) released the shared task CLEANER (Baroni et al., 2008), which aimed to clean web data for use as corpora in NLP. More recent efforts include Graëen et al. (2014) who cleaned the Europarl Corpus, a collection of the European Parliament’s debates. Similarly, Faas and Eckart (2013) cleaned the German web corpus deWaC of the WaCky project (Baroni et al., 2009). Our work is close to that of Faas and Eckart as we adopt a similar approach that requires several passes over the data with a measure to test the corpus quality.
3. COHA

The Corpus of Historical American English (COHA), developed by Brigham Young University, is a structured collection of carefully selected historical English texts taken from newspapers, popular magazines, fiction and non-fiction books published between 1810 and 2009. The corpus offers nearly 406 million words and around 107,000 texts. Additionally, it is balanced by genre, sub-genre and domain across decades. For example: the genre ‘fiction’ accounts for 48 to 55 percent of all texts in each decade starting with the 1810s and ending with the 2000s. The creators of COHA argue that this balance helps researchers ascertain that the changes they observe in COHA reflect ‘real world’ changes rather than artifacts of differences in genre balance (Davies, 2012).

While COHA can be searched for free using its web portal, there is a limit on the number of daily queries one can make. Alternatively, the corpus can be purchased and downloaded in three different formats which we briefly describe here.

**Database** The first format is that of tabular data suitable for relational databases. This format contains three tables: (i) The ‘lexicon’ table which provides information about each word (including punctuation) in the corpus such as word form, lemma and POS tag. Every word is assigned a unique identifier using the ‘wordID’ field which is also the index or rank of the word. (ii) The ‘sources’ table which contains information about the text or document such as title, author, year of publication, number of words and genre. Each text is assigned a unique identifier using the ‘textID’ field. (iii) The ‘corpus’ table which connects the previous tables by mapping words to their texts. A typical row in this table shows only a wordID (taken from the lexicon) to indicate which text the word appears in. Each row in this table is also assigned a unique identifier using the ‘ID’ field. The COHA web portal provides a brief description of the database along with illustrative sample data.

**Annotated Corpus** The second format is tokenized data annotated for lemma and part-of-speech (POS) tags using CLAWS (Rayson and Garside, 1998). This is referred to as the tagged or annotated corpus format.

**Linear Text Corpus** The third format is linear text in paragraphs, which appears to have been generated from the tokens of the annotated corpus. All tokens, including punctuation, are separated by white space. This format is known as the text corpus.

To provide a better idea of these formats, we present a sample of the actual data from the file fic_1813_7433.txt in COHA. The database format is shown in Table 1 which depicts the mapping between the IDs of the first five words in the sentence and the text file ID. The annotated data format in Table 2 shows the tokens, lemmas and POS tags for the same words. The malformed token &c.; is present in all formats of the corpus.

| Text ID | ID  | Word ID |
|---------|-----|---------|
| 7433    | 47437489 | 474 |
| 7433    | 47437490 | 3  |
| 7433    | 47437491 | 244|
| 7433    | 47437492 | 3301|
| 7433    | 47437493 | 1  |

Table 1: Sample data from the downloadable version of COHA showing the database format.

| Token | Lemma | POS |
|-------|-------|-----|
| By    | by    | ii  |
| the   | the   | at  |
| same  | same  | da  |
| rule  | rule  | nn1 |
| .     | .     | y   |

Table 2: Sample data from the downloadable version of COHA showing the annotated corpus format.

An important aspect of the downloadable version of the corpus is that both the database format, via its lexicon table, and the linear text format stem from the annotated format of the corpus. According to the creators of COHA, the annotated data was created first, before the database which utilized not only the annotated tokens, but also their frequency and meta-data such as source document, year, and author (Davies, 2012, p. 125). This helped the creators of COHA manually correct errors for both formats. The last format created was the linear text which was generated using the tokens of the annotated corpus. The main drawback of this process is error propagation; errors not corrected in the annotated data will spread to the other formats and may lead to more errors like incorrect frequency (database format) or loss of sentence boundaries (text format).

3.1. Features

At the time of its release in 2010, the structured nature of the data in COHA allowed it to provide researchers with useful features that were not available in larger unstructured corpora such as Google Books Ngrams (Google, 2010). The most common features of the COHA web portal include: word search, frequency charts, collocations, and key word in context (KWIC). Relevant to this paper is the word search feature, shown in Figure 1 which allows users to find occurrences of a target word within COHA using the word form or its morphosyntax. Figure 2 illustrates the results of running a search for the target word condominium as a noun. The word search feature is used during the evaluation process, which is presented in section 4.

A more comprehensive overview of the features of the web portal is provided by the creators of COHA (Davies, 2012).
3.2. Limitations

Despite offering various formats and useful features COHA is not without limitations. One known drawback of COHA is the lack of rare words which limits its use to studies of relatively common words (Tahmasebi et al., 2018). We briefly describe some of the other limitations we encountered while using the corpus.

Special Token ‘@’ The documentation of COHA states that ‘@’ tokens comprise 5% of the entire downloadable corpus due to legal reasons. In an effort to adhere to copyright regulations, the creators of COHA replace 10 consecutive tokens every 200 tokens with ‘@’ characters for each text in the corpus. This replacement process prevents the use of these texts for their originally intended purpose as reading material. However, this has several disadvantages: (i) Loss of tokens. (ii) For tasks where the context of a target word is needed, all instances containing ‘@’ tokens will be discarded. (iii) Sentence boundaries can be lost as a result of the replacement process since ‘@’ characters can replace punctuation. To illustrate, let us look at (2) which shows a sentence from the 1979 novel “Good as Gold” by Joseph Heller as it appears in the web portal results (2a) and in the downloadable corpus (2b). If we search for the target word condominium, (2b) can no longer be retrieved using this version of the corpus. Furthermore, the boundary between the sentences What about your condominium? and His father was taken off guard is lost.

(2) a. “Never mind my Niles,” he put it bluntly. “What about your condominium? ” His father was taken off guard.

b. “Never mind my Niles ,” he put it bluntly . “ @ @ @ @ @ @ @ @ @ @ off guard .

Malformed Tokens The corpus contains malformed tokens which can be classified into three categories: (i) Malformed valid tokens that are combinations of valid words, punctuation, or other special characters. These tokens usually follow several patterns such as those in Table 3 where words are not separated from punctuation. (ii) Invalid tokens which contain punctuation or special characters and are not part of the original text. Most tokens in this category have the special string value “null” as their POS tag. (iii) Empty tokens containing the control character “NUL” which causes encoding errors. This control character is not to be confused with the special string “null” mentioned in the previous category as “NUL” is a single reserved character that signifies the end of a string in various programming languages. Subsequently, having this character as the token can lead to tokenization errors.

| Malformation Type                  | Examples          |
|-----------------------------------|-------------------|
| Valid malformed tokens            | them:First        |
| Invalid malformed tokens          | &c?;              |
| Empty tokens                      | Windows NUL character |

These malformed tokens are possibly artifacts of the digitization process which were not corrected, or artifacts of the data processing and clean-up which was performed using a web interface (Davies, 2012, cf.).

Malformed Lemmas Some of the lemmas in the corpus are malformed, and can be classified into three groups: (i) Malformed lemmas resulting from the malformed tokens. (ii) Malformed lemmas of valid tokens. (iii) Empty lemmas which contain only the control character “NUL”. Notably, groups 2 and 3 have lemmas which contain special characters that cause encoding errors. As an example of the second group, we consider the lemma sautée which contains the french accent. This particular lemma is linked to valid well-formed tokens but causes encoding errors since the accented letter é seems to be corrupt in some files. The first row in Table 4 illustrates this case, as the token sauteed has the corrupt lemma sautÁ© instead of sauté.

Malformed POS Tags Malformed POS tags in COHA are those which contain only the control character “NUL”. Unlike normal empty tags, malformed POS tags cause encoding errors.

Inconsistent Lemmas Another limitation is the fact that in some cases different lemmas exist for the same word forms. Again we consider the lemmas for various forms of the word sautée. As shown in Table 4 the lemma differences may be caused by diverse spellings. However, the different lemmas for the word aesthetic have forms with the same spelling. A final example where the lemma is not only different but also incorrect is the word tape where the lemmas tape and tpe both appear. This particular case could be an artifact of the manual correction process which occurred during the creation of the corpus.
Table 4: Various forms of the word *sauté* with different and at times malformed lemmas.

| Token     | Lemma   | POS Tag |
|-----------|---------|---------|
| sauteed   | sauté   | vv0     |
| saute     | sauté   | vv0,nn1 |
| saut      | sauté   | vv0,nn1 |
| sauteed   | sauteed | nn1,lvv0|
| sauteed   | sauf    | vv0     |
| saute     | saute   | nn1     |
| saut      | saut    | nn1     |
| sauteing  | sauté   | vvg     |
| saut      | NUL     | vvi     |

**Escaped HTML Characters** The last limitation in COHA affects the downloadable data and seems to originate from the process of preparing data for use in the web portal. Specifically, the downloaded data contains escaped hypertext markup language (HTML) characters which are automatically unescaped by browsers when using the COHA web portal. Moreover, some of these escaped characters are part of valid tokens and cannot be simply removed. Instances of this limitation include `MOIS&EACUTE` and `&lt;center&gt;{<center>}`.

**Formats** All limitations mentioned here apply to both versions of the corpus: the web-accessible data and the downloadable corpus with its three formats. The only exceptions are the first limitation (@ tokens) and the last one (escaped HTML characters), both of which apply only to the downloadable corpus. Furthermore, it should be emphasized that the database format of the corpus excludes empty tokens, lemmas, and POS tags which leads to further loss of information. A final observation is that these limitations are present in both the annotated data format and the linear text format.

4. Cleaning Process

The effect of the above-described limitations is amplified when moving from studies on the word level to the sentence level. Such is the case for our original task where COHA was used to extract sentential context for a set of target words. The extracted context was to be composed of a triplet of sentences: the previous sentence, the current sentence containing the target word, and the following sentence. In order to determine sentence boundaries, we used a sentence tokenizer to acquire a list of sentences. Then, using these boundaries as a guideline, we attempted to rebuild sentences from the list of tokens in the annotated corpus. This was not possible for some sentences because the sentence tokenizer was able to split the malformed tokens with punctuation, which lead to a mismatch between the current sentence from the tokenizer and the current rebuilt sentence from the tokens list (which still contained the unsplit malformed tokens). To clarify, let us consider Example (3) which shows two different versions of the 95th sentence in the annotated file “fic.2000.13995.txt”. For this file, the sentence tokenizer produced sentence (3a) which ends with ”do.” since it was able to split the malformed token “do. I”.

(3) a. And I didn’t know what to do.
   b. And I did n’t know what to do. I

On the other hand, the rebuilt sentence (3b), which was obtained by concatenating the tokens as they appeared in the tagged file, ends with the malformed token “do. I”. Such malformed tokens cause mismatches when trying to reconstruct sentences from the annotated data since the sentence boundary is lost in the original annotated files. Moreover, we observed that it is not possible to use the database format or the linear text format instead since these formats were built from the annotated corpus and contain the same malformed tokens.

Both the database format, via its lexicon table, and the linear text format stem from the annotated format of the corpus. Keeping this in mind, we aimed to clean the annotated format first and then generate the dependent parts of the other formats using the cleaned corpus. Accordingly, the steps described in this section were performed on the annotated corpus.

4.1. Annotated Corpus clean-up

The corpus clean-up was implemented using Python (Rossum, 1995) and the natural language toolkit (NLTK) (Bird and Loper, 2004). Specifically, the NLTK “Averaged Perceptron Tagger” was used to tag tokens, and NLTK “Punkt Sentence Tokenizer” was used to segment the data into sentences. The cleaning process, illustrated in Figure 2, was performed iteratively such that data were first cleaned and then manually evaluated. Based on the results of the evaluation, the cleaning algorithm would be updated and a new iteration would start where the original annotated corpus is cleaned and then evaluated. The cycle is repeated until the results of the evaluation reveal that no further improvements are needed. We explain the clean-up process in this subsection and explain the evaluation, which is based on our original task, in subsection 4.1.3.

In its final version, the cleaning script did two passes over the data. In the first pass, empty and “null” token and POS tags were cleaned, HTML characters were unescaped, and lemmas were unified for different forms of the same word. In the second pass, empty and “null” lemmas were cleaned, sentence boundaries were marked, and malformed tokens around sentence boundaries were cleaned (see Example 1). We describe the clean-up process in more details in the following subsections.

4.1.1. First Pass

During this pass over the annotated data, all occurrences of the ‘NUL’ control character in the token form and POS tag fields were replaced with the special string “<nul>”.

Figure 2: Diagram of the annotated corpus clean-up.
Table 5: Example of a malformed token before and after the cleaning process.

| Malformed Token | First Pass | Second Pass |
|-----------------|------------|-------------|
| Form            | Lemma      | POS         | Form | Lemma | POS         | Form | Lemma | POS         |
| stripes–she     | stripes    | she nn1     |      | stripes| stripe vv0 |      | stripes| stripe vv0 |
|                  |            |             |      | –      | –          |      | –      | –          |
|                  |            |             |      | –      | <temp>    |      | –      | z<sub>     |
|                  |            |             |      | –      | <temp>    |      | She    | she pphs1  |

4.1.2. Second Pass

In this pass, the data from the previous pass was read and split into sentences using NLTK Punkt sentence tokenizer. Next, all occurrences of the ‘NUL’ control character in the lemma field were replaced with the special string “<nul>”. Then, all tokens away from sentence boundaries where the lemma was either “<nul>” or “<temp>” were tagged and lemmatized given the full sentence as context. The only exception was the special token “@” which has a “<nul>” lemma. Similarly all tokens where the POS tag was “<nul>” were tagged and lemmatized in the same fashion. Considering that the NLTK “Averaged Perceptron Tagger” uses the Penn Treebank tagset (Marcus et al., 1994), the resulting POS tags were mapped to their CLAWS7 counterparts and appended with the special string “<sub>” to help identify cleaned tokens. The mapping was manually created by the first author of this paper. In order to detect the malformed tokens around sentence boundaries, sentences were reconstructed using the NLTK segmentation results as a guide. Specifically, upon reading each token in the annotated file, it would be appended to a list of tokens that were not part of the previous NLTK sentence. This list or “partial sentence” was then compared to the current NLTK sentence and when the sentences matched, a special end-of-sentence token (’<eos>’) was added to the data to clearly mark the sentence boundary. Whenever the partial sentence was longer than the NLTK-based sentence, then the last added token, which is the current token being processed, was considered a malformed token and cleaned accordingly. The cleaning process for malformed tokens around sentence boundaries includes not only splitting, tagging and lemmatizing the new tokens, but also completing the sentence in order to match the NLTK-based sentence boundaries and then inserting the special end-of-sentence token.

Figure 3: A Diagram of the evaluation process.

4.1.3. Evaluation

To prevent erroneous cleaning of valid tokens and ensure the maximum amount of limitations were overcome, the cleaned data were evaluated after every clean-up. The evaluation process is based on our original task which motivated the clean-up. To reiterate, The task required us to extract sentence-level context for a set of target words. The context consists of a triplet of sentences: the previous sentence, the current sentence containing the target word, and the next sentence. The set of target words contains 50 words. The evaluation process, shown in Figure 3, consists of several steps. As can be seen, sentential context is extracted for the target words from both corpora: COHA, via the word search feature of its web portal, and CCOHA, by means of running a script to extract the contexts from the annotated data. The next step is to examine the quality of the extracted sentences and to compare the number of occurrences per target word in each corpus. That is to say, we compare the number of occurrence of the target word in CCOHA to that in COHA. Given the first limita-

https://www.ims.uni-stuttgart.de/data/ccoха
tion of the downloadable corpus, where tokens are replaced by ‘@’ characters, we did not aim to match the number of retrieved contexts using the web portal, but rather aimed to increase the amount and quality of retrieved contexts in CCOHA. The quality was checked by manually inspecting the sentences to ensure the correctness of retrieved occurrences and to ensure that words and sentences contained minimal or no malformed and invalid tokens.

We demonstrate this step by relying on one of the target words as a test case. Let us consider the noun condominium which occurs in the COHA corpus 524 times when searching using its lemma to ensure the inclusion of the plural form condominiums. When attempting to extract contexts for this lemma using the downloadable corpus we first obtained only 473 occurrences. Naturally, some cases were due to the replacement of tokens with the special symbol ‘@’ (i.e. the first limitation). However, upon examining the results we observed some very large values for the in-sentence-position for some of the occurrences. Upon closer inspection, we noticed that the sentence boundaries were lost, which lead to the limitation of malformed tokens near sentence boundaries. Further qualitative examination revealed the other limitations such as HTML tags. Currently, the clean annotated corpus yields 498 results for the lemma condominium.

4.2. Cleaning Linear Texts

Acquiring a cleaned version of the linear text format of the corpus was a straightforward process. Namely, we used the cleaned annotated corpus to generate the linear text files for each document in the same format as the original linear text data. That is to say, all tokens were separated by white space including punctuation.

4.3. Cleaning the Database

Bearing in mind that our main task is not the cleansing of COHA but rather processing the annotated version to suit our needs, we were unable to spare the time and resources necessary to recreate the database files from the clean annotated corpus. This being said, it is possible to clean the database format by following these steps: (i) Rebuild the lexicon table to reflect the frequency and rank (wordID) changes. (ii) Update the corpus table to use the new updated word IDs.

5. Clean Corpus (CCOHA)

The resulting cleaned corpus CCOHA uses UTF-8 character encoding and is larger than the original COHA corpus. The main differences shown in Table 6 reveal an increase of over 25 million word tokens and an increase of nearly two million non-word tokens such as dashes and end-of-sentence markers (<eos>). The large increase in the number of lemma types—nearly three times its original size—is indicative of the presence of new words in the clean corpus. However, it should be noted that part of this increase is attributed to the problem of inconsistent lemmas.

5.1. Features

Supplementary to the already existing features of COHA, this cleaned version provides some new useful features.

Sentence Boundary Markers Most sentences in the annotated corpus are now followed by a special token signaling the end of the sentence. As is shown in Table 7, the end-of-sentence token “<eos>” has the same value for its lemma and POS tag to make it easier to identify and avoid erroneous inflation of the frequency of any POS tags.

No Empty Fields Currently, there are no more empty fields in the annotated corpus. All token forms or POS tags were initially filled with the special string “<nul>”, then given valid values during clean-up. As for lemmas, a distinction must be made between the lemmas where the token form is the special replacement string ‘@’ (first limitation) and those where the token form is something else (e.g., malformed or invalid). We observe a reduction of 3,562,464 in the number of “<nul>” lemmas where the token form is not equal to ‘@’.

An unintended limitation in the original corpus arises from the annotation of the special replacement tokens (‘@’). More precisely, each ‘@’ token is assigned a ‘NUL’ lemma and ‘ii’ POS tag which refers to general prepositions. Nevertheless, other tokens in the corpus have the same values for their lemmas and POS tags. In the downloadable COHA corpus, there are 14,402 such tokens. In contrast, the clean corpus CCOHA contains 10,881 of these tokens, which amounts to a 24.4% reduction. Although we believe this limitation can lead to inaccurate frequency counts when attempting to extract data using lemmas and POS tags without considering the token form, we did not assign a special lemma and POS tag to this token. The reasons for that are

Table 6: Statistics for COHA before and after cleaning.

| COHA          | CCOHA          |
|---------------|---------------|
| Word Tokens   | 406,232,024   | 431,391,376  |
| Non-Word Tokens | 66,186,836   | 64,101,011   |
| All Tokens    | 472,418,860   | 495,492,387  |
| Lemma Types   | 795,806       | 2,246,898    |

Encoding | Windows-1252 | UTF-8 |
Sentence Marker | None | <eos> |
Available formats | Annotated, text, and database | Annotated and text

Find information on the availability of the corpus at https://www.ims.uni-stuttgart.de/data/ccoha.
the preservation the original data and the fact that the above problem can be resolved by considering the token form.

| Token | Lemma | POS |
|-------|-------|-----|
| He    | he    | pphs1 |
| pictured | picture | vvd. <sub> |
| himself | himself | prp. <sub> |
| in | in | ii |
| sabots | sabot | nn2 |
| and | and | cc |
| a | a | at1 |
| rough | rough | jj |
| blue | blue | ji |
| peasant | peasant | nn1 |
| smock | smock | nn1 |
| . | . | y |
| <eos> | <eos> | <eos> |

Table 7: A sentence from the clean annotated data in CCOHA.

**Cleaned Fields Detection** With regards to detection of modifications to the original corpus, the fact that POS tag fields for cleaned tokens end with the string “-_<sub>” allows for convenient extraction of these tokens. Additionally, the mid-sized en dash and double dashes (“-“) have been replaced by “<ndash>” in both tokens and lemma fields. These are part of the unescaped HTML characters which were causing encoding errors when using UTF-8 encoding. Extraction of cleaned fields may be needed for purposes of further processing, running a different lemmatizer or POS tagger, or for handling the HTML en dash character.

**5.2. Limitations**

**Malformed Tokens** As is the case with all automatic cleaning processes, the one presented in this paper missed a number of malformed tokens in the original corpus. Some of the types of malformed or invalid tokens that were missed are:

- Tokens that contain the pattern “P1X1X2” where X1X2 are digits in the range [0-9]. This pattern can come before or after the actual word in the token, and sometimes between two words. Furthermore, it is sometimes preceded by the | symbol. Instances of such tokens include “|p103And” and “Agnesp106said”.

- Tokens where two or more words are not separated by white space. Examples of this are “sentimentalyarns”, “endlesslyvariable” and “investigatingthose”.

- Tokens tagged as “null” but are not control sequences or white space. The tokens “&Joni:wore?now;”, “act” and “acts” are examples of such tokens.

- Malformed tokens containing numbers [0-9] and the special characters such as financial or mathematical ones (e.g., $+%©).

The special token “q!” which is present in the corpus was removed but its corresponding end-of-sentence marker (<eos>), which was added during clean-up, was deliberately kept because some files contain only the “q!” token. The decision to keep the end-of-sentence marker for such cases was motivated by the fact that removing this token meant these entries were now empty and should be deleted. However, the database format contained references to these files which would have been problematic when attempting to clean the database format.

**Inconsistent Lemmas** The limitation of inconsistent lemmas was not tackled during this clean-up process with the exception of the lemma sautee due to its malformed instances. Moreover, upon evaluating the results of the clean-up, we became aware that the NLTK WordNet lemmatizer produces lemmas that may differ from the ones already present in the original COHA corpus thereby contributing to this limitation. As a test case, let us examine the noun aesthetics which was part of the target words used for evaluation and error analysis. The only lemma for this noun in the original corpus was aesthetics, yet after the clean-up, the new lemma aesthetic appears as well for this noun.

**POS Tag Granularity** As mentioned earlier, the POS tags produced by the NLTK tagger for cleaned malformed tokens were mapped to CLAWS7 tags. Granted that some coarse grained tags do not exist in the CLAWS7 tagset, we extended the tagset for COHA to accommodate these tags. It is important to remember here that the original COHA already extended its tagset by introducing the tags “y” for punctuation (.,:), “zz” for single letters of the alphabet (a,b,... etc.) and tokens containing dashes, “z” for double dashes (--), and “null” for invalid tokens. The tagset extension is summarized in Table 8 where it is possible to see how the special tag “y” was extended to include more punctuation like quotation marks (“‘””) and symbols like the dollar sign ($).

| Tag | Meaning |
|-----|---------|
| PRP | N\A Personal pronoun (I, you, he) |
| PNQ | N\A Wh-pronoun (what, who) Wh-possessive (whose) |
| Y | Punctuation (.) Punctuation & Invalid tokens Invalid tokens(<>, &apps) Symbols ($, #, +) |

Table 8: Extensions and additions to the COHA POS tagset.

**6. Conclusion**

This paper presented our approach taken to clean the downloadable version of the COHA corpus. The resulting corpus CCOHA offers more word tokens, less non-words, and less invalid tokens than the original COHA. While the annotated and linear text formats are available in CCOHA, the database format should be generated by interested parties. In conclusion, we discuss some of the possible improvements and steps that can be taken to further clean the corpus. First, malformed tokens that contain the pattern “P1X1X2” may be cleaned using regular expressions.
Second, malformed tokens that consist of one or more words could be cleaned using one of the many approaches for compound word splitting (Koehn and Knight, 2003; Norvig, 2009; Macherey et al., 2011). Third, if one wishes to use the more fine-grained POS tags of CLAWS7, it is feasible to extract tokens tagged using the coarse-grained tags and then retag them using CLAWS tagger or some heuristics. Last, by following the steps in Section 4.3, the database format of the clean corpus can be generated from the annotated data.

7. Acknowledgements

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