Abstract

Morfette is a modular, data-driven, probabilistic system which learns to perform joint morphological tagging and lemmatization from morphologically annotated corpora. The system is composed of two learning modules which are trained to predict morphological tags and lemmas using the Maximum Entropy classifier. The third module dynamically combines the predictions of the Maximum-Entropy models and outputs a probability distribution over tag-lemma pair sequences. The lemmatization module exploits the idea of recasting lemmatization as a classification task by using class labels which encode mappings from wordforms to lemmas. Experimental evaluation results and error analysis on three morphologically rich languages show that the system achieves high accuracy with no language-specific feature engineering or additional resources.

1. Introduction

This paper describes and evaluates the Morfette system for data-driven morphological analysis. Morphological analysis usually involves two subtasks: the assignment of morphological features to the wordform, and lemmatization. Many data-driven approaches to morphology involve encoding morphological features as tags (henceforth morpho-tags), and use some sequence labeling method to assign morpho-tag sequences to sentences. In the case of morphologically rich inflectional or agglutinative languages, the classification decision is often constrained by the use of a morphological lexicon, or a finite-state morphological analyzer: in such systems the data-driven component is limited to performing morphological disambiguation rather than morphological analysis itself (Hajič and Hladká, 1998; Hajič, 2000; Tufiš, 1999; Tufiš and Dragomirescu, 2004; Ceauşu, 2006; Han and Palmer, 2004; Habash and Rambov, 2005; Hakkani-Tür et al., 2002; Yuret and Türe, 2006).

In an morphological disambiguation setting, lemmatization is simple: either the lexicon or the morphological analyzer already returns the correct lemma corresponding to each of the candidate analyses. The problematic cases are unknown words: most systems are able to guess the morpho-tag of an unknown word, but not the corresponding lemma. (Erjavec and Dzeroski, 2004) solve the problem of lemmatizing unknown words by using a two stage architecture, first sentences are assigned morpho-tag sequences by a POS-tagger, and then an Inductive Logic Programming system assigns lemmas to unknown wordform-tag pairs. (Chrupala, 2006) takes a different approach to lemmatization. His method automatically induces lemma-classes: they correspond to the shortest edit script between reversed wordforms and the corresponding lemmas. Then a standard classifier is used to “tag” words with their lemma-classes, from which the words’ lemmas can be obtained by executing the edit script on the wordforms. Thus in this approach lemmatization becomes quite similar to POS tagging or morphological tagging.

In the current study we present a modular, data-driven model which performs both morphological tagging and lemmatization, i.e. it maps a sequence of wordforms of length \( n \) to the sequence of morpho-tag - lemma pairs:

\[ M : W^n \rightarrow (M \times \Lambda)^n \]  

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We use a generic, language-independent feature-set in our models and investigate how well such an approach generalizes to three morphologically rich languages. In Section 2. we present the architecture of our model, the features used and the search algorithm. In Section 3. we present experimental evaluation results for three languages and corpora. Section 4. contains the error analysis and finally Section 5. presents our conclusions and ideas for further improvements in data-driven morphological analysis.

2. The Morfette System

2.1. Architecture

The Morfette system is composed of two learning modules, one for morphological tagging and one for lemmatization, and one decoding module which searches for the best sequence of pairs of morphological tags and lemmas for an input sequence of wordforms. Both modules learn Maximum Entropy classifiers such as that described for POS tagging in (Ratnaparkhi, 1996). For the lemmatization model we use (Chrupala, 2006)’s method of inducing lemma classes.¹

In his method the class assigned to a wordform - lemma pair is the corresponding shortest edit script (henceforth SES) between the two reversed strings (Myers, 1986). A SES stands for the shortest sequence of instructions (insertions or deletions) which transforms a string \( w \) into a string \( w' \). For example, considering the strings \( w = pidieron \) and \( w' = pedir \), the corresponding SES is \{\( \langle D, i, 2 \rangle, \langle I, e, 3 \rangle, \langle D, e, 5 \rangle, \langle D, a, 7 \rangle, \langle D, n, 8 \rangle \}\}, where a triple such as \( \langle D, i, 2 \rangle \) stands for delete character i at position 2. Since one needs to abstract away from the length of words as much as possible, and since inflection affects predominantly word endings, the strings are reversed prior to the computation of SESs. In this way, pairs such as \( \langle pidieron, pedir \rangle \) and \( \langle repitieron, repetir \rangle \) are correctly

¹We do not, however, use the features or the SVM classifier as presented in that paper, as we found that such a configuration is impractically slow in practice and scales poorly.
assigned the same class, corresponding to their shared position in the verb inflection paradigm.

2.2. Features
In our architecture we can use arbitrary features of the focus word and the context sentence. We use a rather minimalistic and language independent feature set in the experiments in Section 3. This has the advantage of being very general and using very little domain expertise but obviously for maximum performance it is desirable to extend and refine it using language and domain specific features. Table 1 shows the features extracted for the morphological tagging and lemmatization models. Table 2 exemplifies the morpho-tagging feature extraction for the words in the example sentence in Figure 1.

For the morphological tagging model we extract the wordform, lemma, and morpho-tag of the preceding two words, suffixes of length 1-7 and prefixes of length 1-5 of the focus wordform, as well as the spelling pattern of the focus wordform (wordform features are lower-cased). The spelling pattern feature encodes character classes such as upper-case and lower-case letters, digits, hyphens, underscores and other punctuation. Additionally we use the wordform of one following token, the set of morpho-tags present in the training data for its wordform, and a concatenation of the part-of-speech component of the morpho-tags of the previous two words.

For the lemmatization model a similar but smaller feature set is used: wordform, morpho-tag, suffixes of length 1-7, prefixes of length 1-5 and spelling pattern of the focus word. The fact that we use the morpho-tag of the focus word as a feature for the lemmatizer is important for the search algorithm described in Section 2.3.

2.3. Search
Maximum entropy models trained on examples such the ones shown above predict probability distributions over classes (i.e. morpho-tags or lemma-classes) for the current focus wordform given its context as encoded in the features. That is for a focus word \( w_i \) in context \( c \in C \) for each possible morpho-tag \( m \in M \) the morpho-tagging model gives \( p(m|c) \), and for each possible lemma-class \( l \in L \) the lemmatization model gives \( p(l|c, m) \). The context includes the focus wordform as well as the preceding and following wordforms in the same sentence.

The algorithm is a beam search which maintains a list of \( n \)-best sequences of \((m, l) \in M \times L \) (morpho-tag - lemma-class) pairs up to the current position in the input word sequence. The conditional probability of a candidate sequence for words \( w_0..w_i \) is given by

\[
P(m_0..m_i, l_0..l_i|w_0..w_i) = \sum_{k=0}^{i} p_k \leq T, \]

where \( T \) is a threshold parameter. Each of the retained morpho-tags for word \( w_i \) is added to each candidate sequence and for each of those combinations we obtain lemma-class probability distribution from the lemmatization model. The lemma-class set is pruned according to the same method as for morpho-tags. The probability of candidate sequences is updated according to equation 2, and the \( n \) highest ranking candidate sequences for \( w_0..w_i \) are retained as the algorithm proceeds to word \( w_{i+1} \).

3. Evaluation
For evaluation we chose three morphologically rich languages for which we have expertise to perform error analysis. We have not tuned the features or parameters of our system to any particular dataset. At this stage we are not interested in necessarily improving on the best published results for a particular language; rather we want to see how well the system performs with a minimalistic feature set and no language-dependent engineering effort and identify the main source of mistakes for each language. We use the following data sets:

- Romanian: MULTTEXT-EAST corpus (Erjavec, 2004), approx. 13,500 tokens (chapters 1-3) as a test set, approx. 11,800 tokens (chapters 5 and 6) for development and 88,000 tokens (chapters 7-23) for training.
- Spanish: CESS-ECE treebank (Martí et al., 2007), approx. 10,000 tokens each for test and development set, and approx. 168,000 tokens for the FULL training set, and approx. 70,000 for the SMALL training set.
- Polish: Korpus Słownika Frekwencyjnego (IPI PAN)\(^2\), 10,000 tokens each for test and development sets, and approx. 219,000 for FULL training set, and approx. 70,000 for the SMALL training set.

The SMALL training set was used in order to be able to have similar training set sizes across the three languages. Additionally for Polish and Spanish the FULL set contains all the available data. No larger-size training data is available in the Romanian corpus.

For all the experiments reported in the following sections a beam size of 3 was used, with the pretraining threshold set to 0.3: validation on the development sets showed that those settings give good results for all the languages.

Table 3 shows the evaluation results for the SMALL training set for all three languages. Table 4 shows the results for Spanish and Polish, for which there is a larger training set available. More data is clearly beneficial: the scores improve substantially for both languages.

Both the morphological tagging and lemmatization scores for Polish are lower than for the other two languages: this is to be expected for a Slavic language with a rich inflection

\(^2\)Available at http://korpus.pl/index.php?page=download
Figure 1: Example of a sentence in the Romanian MULTEXT-EAST corpus

Table 1: Features used for the morphological tagging and lemmatization models

| Feature notation | Description |
|------------------|-------------|
| $f_0$            | Lowercased wordform of the focus token |
| $s_n(f_0), n = 1 \ldots 7$ | Suffixes of length $n$ |
| $p_n(f_0), n = 1 \ldots 5$ | Prefixes of length $n$ |
| $sp(F_0)$        | Spelling pattern of the (non-lowercased) wordform |
| $s_1(m_{-2}) \oplus s_1(m_{-1})$ | Concatenation of the first element of the two previous morpho-tags |
| $f_{-2}, f_{-1}, f_1$ | Lowercased wordform of two previous tokens and of one following token |
| $m_{-2}, m_{-1}$ | (Predicted) Morpho-tag of two previous tokens |
| $l_{-2}, l_{-1}$ | (Predicted) Lemma of two previous tokens |
| $m_{\text{train}_n}$ | Set of morpho-tags seen in training data for wordform of next token |

Table 3: Evaluation results with SMALL training sets

| All words | Morpho-tagging | Lemmatization | Joint |
|-----------|----------------|---------------|-------|
| Romanian  | 96.83          | 97.78         | 96.08 |
| Spanish   | 94.33          | 97.84         | 93.83 |
| Polish    | 81.87          | 93.29         | 81.19 |

| Unseen words | Morpho-tagging | Lemmatization | Joint |
|--------------|----------------|---------------|-------|
| Romanian     | 86.68          | 82.88         | 78.50 |
| Spanish      | 74.79          | 89.20         | 71.26 |
| Polish       | 61.93          | 76.88         | 59.17 |

Table 5: Average morpho-tag ambiguity per token and percentage of tokens with lemmas identical to wordforms.

For comparison we have experimented with simple alternative data-driven methods for morpho-tagging and lemmatization. The accuracy achieved using these methods can be considered a non-trivial baseline for our joint model. The BASELINE model we constructed is composed of the following two components working in a pipeline:

- **Morphological tagging**: A tagger is obtained from training material using the MBT memory-based tagger generator (Daelemans et al., 2007).
- **Lemmatization**: For each wordform in the test set the morpho-tag predicted by MBT is retrieved. If the word-morpho-tag pair has been encountered in the training set, then it is assigned its predominant lemma; otherwise a lemma identical to the wordform is assigned.

Table 6 shows the performance of these two methods on morphological tagging and lemmatization as well as their joint accuracy on morpho-tag - lemma prediction. The results reported are obtained using the FULL training sets. Numbers in parentheses compare the results with the accuracy scores obtained with our model.
Errors in morphological tagging and lemmatization tend to co-occur: often an incorrectly assigned morphological category triggers lemmatization which is consistent with this category but incorrect given the gold morpho-tag. We will therefore discuss the issues related to both morphological tags and lemma-class tags jointly.

**Named entities** A common source of errors in Spanish and Romanian is failure to detect proper names (the tagset used in Polish does not have a separate tag for proper nouns). This results in the assignment of the wrong morphological tags and sometimes also the wrong lemma-class. For example in Spanish certain person or place names, such as Reyes or Chiapas have the plural suffix but, unlike for common nouns, their correct lemma-class should not delete it. Poor performance in this area is to be expected as our focus here is on learning morphological structure and not on detecting and classifying named entities. The only feature designed to capture some characteristics of those is the spelling pattern feature, which is clearly very rudimentary. In order to deal with named entities properly a dedicated module would be probably the best solution.

**Suffix ambiguity** A common phenomenon in all the three languages is suffix ambiguity, i.e. certain word endings can be indicative of more than one morphological category. In Spanish and Romanian, nouns and adjectives are difficult to distinguish based only on word endings and are sometimes mistagged and mislemmatized. This happen mostly in constructions with adjectives preceding nouns, which are rare and marked in comparison to adjectives post-modifying the noun.

In Romanian third person singular verbs in the imperfect tense have the same ending as nouns marked with a definite feminine article, and are also sometimes misclassified.\(^3\)

**Syncretism** This is an especially frequent error type for Polish. Often different grammatical cases of the same lexical item have the same form, i.e. feminine genitive singular

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\(^3\)This affects only the written language as in speech those two forms differ in stress.
noun forms and feminine genitive plural forms, or masculine singular nominative and accusative. There is sometimes genuine semantic ambiguity in the sentence but in many other cases, especially for number ambiguity, the correct morphological tag can be determined from context, but our system fails to do so. The determination of the right grammatical case is more difficult as it often involves non-local dependencies on the head verb or preposition and is unlikely to be solved completely by examining local context only.

**Ambiguous function words** Some high frequency function words are ambiguous: Spanish *que* (coordinating conjunction or relative pronoun), *se* (third person pronoun or impersonal pronoun); Romanian *a* (ininitive particle or a form of auxiliary *avea*, “have”), *lui* and *o* (article or pronoun); Polish *na* (locative or directional preposition). These distinctions are based on function rather than form and can be difficult to determine locally.

**Annotation problems** A nonnegligible number of errors in both morphological tagging and lemmatization are actually mistakes or inconsistencies in the training and test data. In the Polish dataset de-verbal nouns such as *działanie*, “doing”, are sometimes tagged as nouns and sometimes as gerunds (where the corresponding lemma is the verb infinitive). There seems to be no consistent pattern to which tag is used when. Some Spanish plurals are assigned incorrect lemmas in the corpus.

**Prefixal morphology** Even though in the languages we examined inflectional morphology is almost exclusively suffixal, Polish offers one isolated but important exception. The superlative form of adjectives is formed by attaching the prefix *naj-* to the (already inflected) comparative form. Thus the comparative of *wysoki*, “tall”, is *wyszy* and the superlative is *najwyszy*. Lemma-classes are computed using the *shortest edit script* on reverse form and lemma, and this class induction method fails to generalize over word initial transformations. As a result, lemmas for superlatives are correct only in the case of very frequent words, and in general are not predicted correctly.

5. Conclusion

**Morfette** has two important features. Firstly, it is modular in the sense that the morphological-tagging and lemmatization models can use different features, can be trained separately, and even use different classifiers. Secondly, in spite of such modularity, the way our search algorithm combines morpho-tag and lemma-class conditional probabilities means that the two outputs of the two models are integrated at decoding time and their predictions are combined into an overall scoring over morpho-tag - lemma-class pair sequences.

From the evaluation and error analysis performed for three languages we have found that some error categories occur in all three languages; others are language and corpus specific. We suspect that the error classes which mostly affect unknown words could be dealt with successfully by (i) providing more training data, (ii) incorporating language-specific resources such as gazetteers or lexicons into our model. Other problems such as nominal/accusative syncretism or some ambiguous function words are more of a challenge, and although some improvement may be obtained by using more context and smarter features, it may be necessary to defer ambiguity resolution until a full syntactic structure is built.

Finally, the lemma-class induction mechanism is biased to dealing with suffixal morphology exclusively. We are currently experimenting with versions of this approach which feature a more linguistically accurate learning bias, and we expect this new version of Morfette to successfully deal with combined prefixal-suffixal morphological phenomena.

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