Natalie Parde UIC CS 421

Text Preprocessing and Edit **Distance**

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What is text preprocessing?

• The process of automatically organizing, normalizing, and manipulating text so it can be handled more easily by downstream language processing tasks.

"Have some wine," the March Hare said in an encouraging tone.

Alice looked all round the table, but there was nothing on it but tea. "I don't see any wine," she remarked.

"There isn't any," said the March Hare.

- Lewis Carroll, *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland*

have some wine [PERSON 1] said in an encouraging tone

[PERSON 2] looked all round the table but there was nothing on it but tea

i don't see any wine she remarked

there isn't any said [PERSON 1]

- Lewis Carroll, *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland*

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Text preprocessing steps can (and should!) vary depending on your needs.

British vs. American spellings (for English text)

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Not Important

One way to preprocess text is by using regular expressions.

- Regular expressions: A formal language for specifying text strings.
- How can we search for any of these?
	- Donut
	- donut
	- Doughnut
	- doughnut
	- Donuts
	- doughnuts

Regular Expression Terminology

Regex: Common abbreviation for **reg**ular **ex**pression

Disjunction: Logical OR

Range: All characters in a sequence from c_1 - c_2

Negation: Logical NOT

Scope: Indicates to which characters the regex applies

Anchor: Matches the beginning or end of a string

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Disjunctions and Ranges

- Disjunction: Letters inside square brackets [az]
- Range: Hyphen between the first and last characters in the range [a-z]

Negation in **Disjunction**

- Negation: A caret (^) at the beginning of a disjunction [^az]
	- The caret must be at the beginning of the disjunction to negate it

More about disjunctions!

- The pipe | indicates the union (logical OR) of two regular expressions
- a|b|c is equivalent to [abc]

Special Characters in Regular **Expressions**

- *****: Means that there must be 0 or more occurrences of the preceding expression
- **.**: A wildcard that can mean any character
- **+**: Means that there must be 1 or more occurrences of the preceding expression
- **?**: Means that there must be 0 or 1 occurrences of the preceding expression
- **{m}**: Means that there must be *m* instances of the preceding expression
- **{m,n}**: Means that there must be between *m* and *n* instances of the preceding expression
- **(abc)**: Means that the operation should be applied to the specified sequence
- ****: Used to escape special characters so that the regular expression searches for their literal form

Regular Expressions: Special **Characters**

Regular Expressions: Anchors

• Indicate that a pattern should be matched only at the beginning or end of a word

Shorthand Character Classes

- Many programming languages support several predefined, shorthand character classes for regular expressions:
	- **\d:** Any digit
	- **\D:** Any non-digit
	- **\s:** Any whitespace
	- **\S:** Any non-whitespace
	- **\w:** Any alphanumeric character
	- **\W:** Any non-alphanumeric character
	- **\b:** Empty string or certain characters at word boundaries
- Can be very helpful, but make sure to understand what patterns they're matching before using them
	- May be defined differently from what you need!

More about shorthand character classes….

- Can be used inside or outside disjunctions
- Can be negated
- Note that different programming languages may vary in which shorthand character classes they offer, and how they implement them

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Regular expressions are often trickier than they initially seem….

Errors

- When we match strings that we didn't want to match, we have **false positive** (Type I) errors
- When we don't match strings that we wanted to match, we have **false negative** (Type II) errors

Errors

- This is a recurring theme in NLP!
- Regardless of what application we're developing, we often try to do two things to improve performance:
	- Increase **accuracy** or **precision** (minimizing false positives)
	- Increase **coverage** or **recall** (minimizing false negatives)

Regular Expressions: Takeaway Points

- Regular expressions are powerful and have many different uses
	- Text tokenization
	- Text normalization
	- Feature extraction
- They allow us to search for specific strings of text using disjunctions, negations, and special characters

Regular expressions can be matched using finite state automata.

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What are finite state automata?

- **Computational models of states and the transitions between them**
- Can be used to model regular expressions, but are also used in other applications that function by **transitioning between finite states**
	- Dialogue systems
	- Morphological parsing
- Terminology:
	- Singular: Finite State Automaton (FSA)
	- Plural: Finite State Automata (FSAs)

Key Components

- Finite set of states
	- Start state
	- Final state
- Set of transitions from one state to another

How do FSAs work?

- For a given sequence of items (e.g., characters or words) that you hope to match, **begin in the start state**
- **If the next item** in the sequence **can be matched by transitioning to another state** from the current state, **make that transition**
- **Repeat**
	- If no transitions are possible, **stop**
	- If the state you stopped in is a final state, **accept the sequence**

FSAs are often represented graphically.

- Nodes = states
- Arcs = transitions

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What do we know about this FSA?

- Five states
	- q_0 is the start state
	- q_4 is the final (accept) state
- Five transitions
- Alphabet = $\{a, b, \cdot\}$

Note: More than one FSA can correspond to the same test string in a regular language!

Test String: baaa!

Formal Definition

- A finite state automaton can be specified by enumerating the following properties:
	- The set of states, *Q*
	- A finite alphabet, *Σ*
	- A start state, q_0
	- A set of accept/final states, *F*⊆*Q*
	- A transition function or transition matrix between states, **δ(***q***,***i***)**
- $\delta(q,i)$: Given a state q∈Q and input i∈Σ, **δ(***q***,***i***) returns a new state q'**∈**Q**.

Example: FSA for Dollar Amounts

Next Item in Sequence

Next Item in Sequence

State transition tables simplify the process of determining whether your input will be accepted by the FSA.

- For a given sequence of items to match, **begin in the start state** with the first item in the sequence
- **Consult the table** …is a transition to any other state permissible with the current item?
- If so, **move to the state indicated by the table**
- If you make it to the end of your sequence and to a final state, **accept**

Algorithmically, this looks like:

```
index \leftarrow beginning of sequencecurrent state ← initial state of FSA
loop:
       if end of sequence has been reached:
              if current state is an accept state:
                      return accept
               else:
                      return reject
       else if transition table[current state, sequence[index]] is empty:
              return reject
       else:
               current state ← transition table[current state, sequence[index]]
              index \leftarrow index + 1end
```
Deterministic vs. Non-Deterministic FSAs

Deterministic FSA: At each point in processing a sequence, there is one valid transition that can be made (no choices!)

Non-Deterministic FSA: At one or more points in processing a sequence, there are multiple permissible transitions (choices!)

Deterministic or Non-Deterministic?

Deterministic or Non-Deterministic?

Deterministic or Non-Deterministic?

Every nondeterministic FSA can be converted to a deterministic FSA.

- Both are equally powerful
- Deterministic FSAs can accept as many languages as non-deterministic ones

Non - **Deterministic** FSAs: How to check for input acceptance?

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· Either:

- 1. Convert the non-deterministic FSA to a deterministic FSA and then check that version, or
- 2. Manage the process as a statespace search

Non-**Deterministic** FSA Search Assumptions

There is at least one path through the FSA for inputs that are members of the language defined by the FSA

Not all paths through the FSA for an "accept" input lead to an accept state

No paths through the FSA lead to an accept state for inputs that are not valid members of the language

Non - Deterministic FSA Search

- States in the search space are pairings of sequence indices and states in the FSA
- By keeping track of which states have and have not been explored, we can systematically explore all the paths through an FSA given an input

Non-**Deterministic** FSA Search Assumptions

- **Success:** Path is found for a given input that ends in an accept
- **Failure:** All possible paths for a given input lead to failure

Example: Non-Deterministic FSA Search

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Additional Characteristics of FSAs

• You can apply set operations to any FSA

- Union
- Intersection
- Concatenation
- Negation
	- For non-deterministic FSAs, first convert to a deterministic FSA
- To do so, you may need to utilize an ε transition
	- ϵ transition: Move from one state to another without consuming an item from the input sequence

Summary: Regular Expressions and Finite **State** Automata

- Regular expressions allow us to capture patterns defined by regular languages
- Complex regular expressions may be most effectively implemented using disjunction, negation, or other special characters
- FSAs are computational models that describe regular languages
- To determine whether an input item is a member of an FSA's language, you can process it sequentially from the start to (hopefully) the final state
- State transitions in FSAs can be represented using tables
- FSAs can be either deterministic or non deterministic

FSAs allow us to model regular languages, but they don't allow us to define mappings between sets of items.

- How can we extend this model to accommodate those mappings?
	- **Finite state transducers**

Finite State **Transducers**

Finite State Transducer (FST): A special type of FSA that describes mappings between two sets of items

Each transition is defined by an (input, output) pair

FSAs can be converted to FSTs by labeling each arc with input and output items (e.g., **a**:**b** for an input of **a** and an output of **b**)

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Formal Definition

- A finite state transducer can be specified by enumerating the following properties:
	- The set of states, *Q*
	- A finite **input** alphabet, *Σ*
	- **A finite output alphabet,** *Δ*
	- A start state, q_0
	- A set of accept/final states, *F*⊆*Q*
	- A transition function or transition matrix between states, **δ(***q***,***i***)**
	- **An output function giving the set of possible outputs for each state and input, σ(***q***,***i***)**
- δ(q,i): Given a state q \in Q and input i \in Σ, **δ(***q***,***i***) returns a new state q'**∈**Q**.

Formal Properties

• **FSTs are compositional:**

- Letting T_1 be an FST from I_1 to O_1 , and
- Letting T_2 be an FST from I_2 to O_2 ,
- The two FSTs can be composed such that the resulting FST maps directly from I_1 to $O₂$

• **FSTs can be inverted:**

• Letting T be an FST that maps from I to O, its inversion (T-1) will map from O to I.

Deterministic vs. Non-Deterministic FSTs

Just like FSAs, **FSTs can be non-deterministic** …one input can be translated to many possible outputs!

Unlike FSAs, **not all non- deterministic FSTs can be converted to deterministic FSTs**

FSTs with underlying deterministic FSAs (at any state, a given input maps to at most one transition out of the state) are called **sequential transducers**

Examples: Non-Deterministic and Sequential (Deterministic) Transducers

When can we use FSTs in NLP?

- Case example: **Morphological parsing**
	- The task of recognizing the component morphemes of words (e.g., foxes \rightarrow fox + es) and building structured representations of those components

• **Morphemes**:

- Small meaningful units that make up words
- **Stems**: The core meaning-bearing units
- **Affixes**: Bits and pieces that adhere to stems and add information
	- -ed
	- -ing
	- $-S$

Example Morphological Lexicon

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Why is morphological parsing necessary?

- Useful for breaking language into more easily interpretable parts
- Morphemes can be **productive**
	- Example: -ing attaches to almost every verb, including brand new words
		- "Why are you Instagramming that?"
- Some languages are very **morphologically complex**
	- Uygarlastiramadiklarimizdanmissinizcasina
		- Uygar "civilized" + las "become"
		- \cdot + tir "cause" + ama "not able"
		- \cdot + dik "past" + lar "plural"
		- \cdot + imiz "p1pl" + dan "abl"
		- + mis "past" + siniz "2pl" + casina "as if"

Goal: Take input surface realizations and produce morphological parses as output

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Key Takeaways: Finite State **Transducers**

- FSTs are FSAs that describe mappings between two sets
- All non-deterministic FSAs can be converted to deterministic versions, but all non-deterministic FSTs cannot
- FSTs with underlying deterministic FSAs are called sequential transducers

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• FSTs are particularly useful for morphological parsing

What are some other ways that we can preprocess text?

- Text tokenization is an important first step for most NLP tasks
	- Often implemented using regular expressions
- Typical NLP pipeline:
	- Segmenting sentences (if applicable)
	- Tokenizing words
	- Normalizing word formats (e.g., favourite \rightarrow favorite)

Sentence Segmentation and Text **Tokenization**

Alice looked all round the table, but there was nothing on it but tea. "I don't see any wine," she remarked.

How many words in a string of text?

- I do uh main- mainly business data processing
	- Fragments, filled pauses
- Seuss's **cat** in the hat is different from other **cats**!
	- **Lemma**: Words with the same stem, coarse-grained part of speech, and general word sense
		- cat and cats = same lemma
	- **Wordform**: The full inflected surface form of a word
		- cat and cats = different wordforms

Types vs. Tokens

Alice looked all round the table, but there was nothing on it but tea.

- **Type**: an element of the vocabulary.
- **Token**: an instance of that type in running text.
- How many?
	- 14 tokens (or 16 if punctuation is tokenized separately)
	- 13 types (or 15 if punctuation is tokenized separately)

N = number of tokens

V = vocabulary = set of types |*V*| is the size of the vocabulary

Tokenization requires many individual decisions!

-
-
-
-
- a.m., Ph.D. \rightarrow ??
- Finland's capital ® *Finland 's* or *Finland's* ?
- isn't \rightarrow *is not* or *isn't* or *is n't* ?
- Hewlett-Packard ® *Hewlett Packard* or *Hewlett-Packard* or *Hewlett- Packard* or *Hewlett -Packard* ?
- San Francisco \longrightarrow one token or two?
	-

Some of these decisions are language-specific:

Contractions

- L'ensemble \rightarrow one token or two?
	- *L* ? *L'* ? *Le* ?
	- Want *l'ensemble* to match with *un ensemble*

Tokens Not Delineated by Whitespace

- *Lebensversicherungsgesellschaftsangestellter*
	- life insurance company employee
- 莎拉波娃现在居住在美国东南部的佛罗里达。
	- Sharapova now lives in Florida in the southeastern United States.

Text Normalization

- **Normalization:** Manipulating text such that all **forms** of the same word match $(e.g., U.S.A. = USA,$ flavour = flavor, etc.)
- To normalize text, you must define **equivalence classes**
	- Example: "." characters in a term \rightarrow not important
- Words with the same characters but different capitalization are often considered equivalent to one another (**case folding**)
	- Example: Hello = hello
	- Not a perfect strategy!
		- \cdot US $!=$ us
- Useful equivalence classes vary depending on task
	- Capitalization can be very important in sentiment analysis

Lemmatization

- Reduce inflections or variant forms to base form
	- *am, are, is* \rightarrow *be*
	- *car, cars, car's, cars'* \rightarrow *car*
- \cdot *the boy's cars are different colors* \rightarrow *the boy car be differ color*
- Tricky because you need to find the correct dictionary headword form

Stemming

- Automatically reduces words to their stems using simple rules
	- language dependent
	- Example: {automate(s), automatic, automation $\} \rightarrow$ automat
- Pros: Very quick, simple to implement
- Cons: Groups together some words that don't really mean the same thing, and doesn't group together some words that do mean the same thing
	- {meanness, meaning} \rightarrow mean
	- ${good} \rightarrow{goos}$, ${geese} \rightarrow{gees}$

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Porter Stemming

- • **Step 1a**
	- sses \rightarrow ss caresses \rightarrow caress
	- ies $\rightarrow i$ ponies \rightarrow poni
	- ss \rightarrow ss caress \rightarrow caress
	- s $\rightarrow \emptyset$ cats \rightarrow cat
- • **Step 1b**
	- (*v*)ing $\rightarrow \emptyset$ walking \rightarrow walk
		- $sing \rightarrow sing$
	- (*v*)ed $\rightarrow \emptyset$ plastered \rightarrow plaster
	- \bullet \bullet \bullet \bullet \bullet \bullet
- • **Step 2 (for long stems)**
	- ational \rightarrow ate relational \rightarrow relate
	- izer \rightarrow ize digitizer \rightarrow digitize
	- ator \rightarrow ate operator \rightarrow operate
	- \bullet ……
- • **Step 3 (for longer stems)**
	- al $\rightarrow \emptyset$ revival \rightarrow reviv
	- able $\rightarrow \emptyset$ adjustable \rightarrow adjust
	- ate $\rightarrow \emptyset$ activate \rightarrow activ
	- \bullet ……

Much like tokenization, stemming methods generally need to be customized for specific languages!
Sentence Segmentation

- !, ? are relatively unambiguous
- . is more ambiguous
	- Sentence boundary
	- Abbreviations like Inc. or Dr.
	- Numbers like .02% or 4.3

We know how to preprocess strings now …but how can we find the distance between them?

Popular string (or other sequence) comparison technique:

• Minimum edit distance

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Edit **Distance**

- Simple way to answer the question: How similar are two strings?
	- Note: This distance is not necessarily associated with **semantic** distance

Other Uses of Edit Distance in NLP

• Evaluating machine translation and speech recognition using **word error rate** Spokesman confirms senior government adviser was shot Spokesman said the senior adviser was shot dead S is a set of Σ is a set of Σ

Minimum Edit **Distance**

- Minimum number of editing operations needed to transform one string into another
- Possible editing operations:
	- Insertion
	- Deletion
	- Substitution

Minimum Edit **Distance**

- Assuming we have the two aligned strings on the right:
	- If each operation has a cost of 1 (Levenshtein distance)
		- Distance between these is 5
	- If substitutions cost 2 (alternative also proposed by Levenshtein)
		- Distance between them is 8

How to find the minimum edit distance?

- Search for a path (sequence of edits) from the start string to the final string:
	- **Initial state**: the word we're transforming
	- **Operators**: insert, delete, substitute
	- **Goal state**: the word we're trying to get to
	- **Path cost**: what we want to minimize (the number of edits)

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However, \circ the search space of all edit sequences is huge!

- It's very inefficient to navigate naïvely
- Lots of distinct paths wind up at the same state
	- We don't have to keep track of all of them (just the shortest paths)

Formal Definition: Minimum **Edit** Distance

- For two strings
	- X of length *n*
	- Y of length *m*
- We define D(*i,j*) as the edit distance between X[1..*i*] and Y[1..*j*]
	- X[1..*i*] = the first *i* characters of X
- The edit distance between X and Y is thus D(*n,m*)

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Intuition: Dynamic Programming

- Minimum edit distance can be solved using **dynamic programming**
	- Stores intermediate outputs in a table
	- Intuition: If some string B is in the optimal path from string A to string C, then that path must also include the optimal path from A to B
- D(n,m) is computed tabularly, combining solutions to subproblems
- Bottom-up
	- We compute D(i,j) for small *i,j*
	- And compute larger D(i,j) based on previously computed smaller values
		- \cdot i.e., compute $D(i,j)$ for all *i* (0 < $i < n$) and $j (0 < j < m)$

Algorithmically, this looks like:

• Initialization

- $D(i, 0) = cost_{ins} * i$ $D(0, j) = cost_{del} * j$
- Algorithm*:* For

For each
$$
i = 1...n
$$

\nFor each $j = 1...m$
\n $D(i,j) = min$
\n
$$
\begin{cases}\nD(i-1,j) + cost_{ins} \\
D(i,j-1) + cost_{del} \\
D(i-1,j-1) + cost_{sub}; if X(i) \neq Y(j) \\
0; if X(i) = Y(j)\n\end{cases}
$$

• Termination*:*

D(N, M) is distance

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Backtrace for Computing **Alignments**

- We know the minimum edit distance now …but what is the alignment between the two strings?
- We can figure this out by maintaining a **backtrace**
	- For each new cell, remember where we came from!
		- $D(i-1,j)$?
		- $D(i,j-1)$?
		- $D(i-1,j-1)$?
- Once we reach the end of the table (upper right corner), we can trace backward using these pointers to figure out the alignment

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Algorithmically, this looks like:

```
• Base conditions: Termination:
  D(i,0) = cost_{ins} * i D(0,j) = cost_{del} * j D(N,M) is distance
• Algorithm:
  For each i = 1...nFor each j = 1...m D(i-1,j) + costins
   D(i,j) = min \left\{ D(i,j-1) + cost_{del} \right\}D(i-1,j-1) + \intcost<sub>sub</sub>; if X(i) \neq Y(j)
  0; if X(i) = Y(j) LEFT (INSERT)
  ptr(i,j)= DOWN (DELETE)
   DIAG (SUBSTITUTE)
```
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Summary

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- Finite state transducers are an extension of FSAs that allow for the creation and processing of mappings between sequences
- Text Preprocessing: Preparing text for downstream language processing tasks
	- Tokenization
	- Normalization
	- Lemmatization
	- Stemming
- Regular expressions are a powerful tool for text preprocessing!
- Minimum Edit Distance: A dynamic programming algorithm that determines the similarity between two strings based on the smallest number of insertions, deletions, and substitutions needed to transform one into another