The CLE Urdu POS Tagset

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Abstract

The paper presents a design schema and details of a new Urdu POS tagset. This tagset is designed due to challenges encountered in working with existing tagsets for Urdu. It uses tags that judiciously incorporate information about special morpho-syntactic categories found in Urdu. With respect to the overall naming schema and the basic divisions, the tagset draws on the Penn Treebank and a Common Tagset for Indian Languages. The resulting CLE Urdu POS Tagset consists of 12 major categories with subdivisions, resulting in 32 tags. The tagset has been used to tag 100k words of the CLE Urdu Digest Corpus, giving a tagging accuracy of 96.8%.

Keywords: POS Tagset, Urdu, Corpus

1. Introduction

Choosing an appropriate tagset is a preliminary and vital task for successful POS tagging. A tagset needs to be able to encode the grammatical distinctions that are of interest for further steps in natural processing or for linguistic research, while allowing for efficient and accurate automatic tagging (MacKinlay, 2005). With respect to the South Asian language Urdu (spoken mainly in Pakistan and India), several different POS tagsets have already been developed. However, in the process of POS tagging the CLE Urdu Digest corpus, the only large generally available corpus for Urdu,1 we identified several shortcomings with the existing POS tagsets and came to the conclusion that a new revised tagset needed to be designed to: (a) provide access to the kinds of linguistic distinctions we found necessary for further natural language processing such as grammar development, machine translation and generation; (b) improve the automatic tagging. This paper discusses the existing tagsets for Urdu (Muaz, Ali & Hussain, 2009; Sajjad, 2007; Sajjad & Schmid, 2009; Schmid, 1995) and presents a new POS tagset that has been used to tag the CLE Urdu Digest Corpus.

2. Literature Review

POS tagsets have been reviewed and revised for a variety of languages due to a variety of motivations. Lüdeling & Kytö (2008) provides a detailed comparison of a range of English POS tags (including tags for the Brown, LOB, UPENN, BNC-C5, BNC-C6, ICE, PoW and LLe corpora) along with their differences. Lüdeling reports that these tagsets differ in accordance to the requirement of the target application of the tagged corpus as well as according to the underlying linguistic theory. For example, the ICE tagging scheme differs from other tagsets mainly due to the fact that it was developed at the time when syntactic theories like Generalized Phrase Structure Grammar and Lexical-Functional Grammar had proposed the notion that a category is composed of a bundle of features. Therefore, this tagging scheme was more useful for feature-based parsers. It is not uncommon to experiment with different tagset designs and to repeatedly revise an existing tagset in order to capture typological properties in a more linguistically adequate and computationally efficient manner. Some examples come from work on Vietnamese (Tran et al., 2009), Slovene (Dzeroski, Erjavec & Zavrel, 2000), Swedish (Carlberger & Kann, 1999) and Persian (Oroumchian et al., 2006).

2.1 South Asian POS tagsets

With respect to South Asian languages, several different tagsets have been designed. These differ in terms of morpho-syntactic features, tag definition and tag granularity. However, South Asian languages form a common linguistic area and therefore share many structural characteristics. This realization is reflected in Baskaran et al. (2008), which contains a proposal for a framework that defines an overall common POS tagset for the languages of India (see also Chandrashekar (2007) on Sanskrit). The framework follows certain principles, i.e., a tagset should be hierarchically organized and include reference to morpho-syntactic features. Further, a balanced approach should be followed in using the form vs. function as criteria for the classification of tags. This framework ensures that common categories across Indian languages are annotated in the same way.

2.2 Urdu POS tagsets

The search for a good Urdu POS tagset has already gone through multiple iterations. In 2003, Hardie designed the first POS tagset for Urdu. He followed the EAGLES guidelines (Hardie, 2003). This tagset was based on morpho-syntactic categories of Urdu and contained 350 tags. As a large number of tags is difficult to handle for computational processing (with a small-sized corpus), there has been limited follow up work based on this tagset, beyond the initial POS tagger through the EMILLE project (Lüdeling & Kytö, 2008). Sajjad (2007) & Sajjad & Schmid (2009) designed a

1 See http://www.cle.org.pk/clestore/.
tagset consisting of 42 tags (after analyzing the grammatical categories based on grammars of Urdu) and the tagset proposed through the EMILLE project (Hardie, 2003). This tagset contains finer distinctive categories for pronouns and demonstratives, but does not do sufficient justice to the Urdu verbal and tense/aspect system.

In 2008, another tagset2 was developed by the Center for Research on Urdu Language Processing (CRULP), following the guidelines of the Penn Treebank, which contains 46 tags. In this tagset, a verb category has multiple tags based on the morphology of the verbs. Similarly, common nouns were also classified with finer distinctions than previously available. Muaz, Ali & Hussain (2009) make a comparison of these tagsets and propose a new tagset with 32 tags. 17 tags are the same as in the previous two tagsets, but differences among types of nouns, for example, (with or without case, compounding) were eliminated as their syntactic distribution is identical.

3. Tagset Design

As part of a larger effort whose aim it is to develop and tag a balanced corpus of Urdu (Ijaz & Hussain, 2007; Urooj et al., 2012) for use in Urdu linguistic and computational research, a revision of (Muaz, Ali & Hussain, 2009), the most recent tagset, has been undertaken.

We analyzed design principles and individual tags of the currently available tagsets, and provide a new tagset which combines qualities of all of them. The new CLE Urdu POS Tagset is logically hierarchical i.e. it provides 12 primary POS categories and then 35 subcategories. For the design of individual tags, our primary inspiration is the tagset by Muaz, Ali & Hussain (2009). However, we added, deleted and merged different tags on the basis of: (a) comparison with other tags, (b) syntactic distribution and other linguistic issues (examples provided below in the discussion of the tags) and, (c) the tagging of 100K words of the CLE Urdu Digest balanced corpus. Mainly, we improved the tagset by proposing tags that are motivated by a readily identifiable morpho-syntactic pattern and distribution. The following is a brief description of the tags. The detailed tagset is available via the CLE website.3

3.1 Noun

Nouns are divided into two sub-categories, common noun (NN) and proper noun (NPN). We decided that a single POS tag will be assigned to multwords and name entities. For example, “islAm AbAd” (having a space or zero-width-joiner) is tagged as NNP. Some canonical examples of common nouns are kitAb ‘book’, pANi ‘water’ and yAd ‘memory’. However, the category also includes other nouns that display an adverbial nature like time, place, manner, etc. Some examples of these are: andar ‘inside’ and yahAN ‘here’ etc. These adverbial nominals can occur with or without specifiers/modifiers.

(1) 
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PRP</th>
<th>NNP</th>
<th>VB</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>vuh</td>
<td>andar</td>
<td>AI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3Sg</td>
<td>inside</td>
<td>come.Perf.Sg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘She came inside.’</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There was a disagreement in previous tagsets about these adverbial nominals. The Hindi/Indian language Tagset (Bharati et al., 2006) introduced a new tag category NST (Noun Spatial Temporal) for these words. The previous Urdu tagset (Muaz, Ali & Hussain, 2009) classifies these words as postpositions. We differ from both of these approaches for the following reason. These words allow specifiers/modifiers (cf. example (2) above) and so are different from the case markers and simple postpositions that have a noun or pronoun preceding them. Hence, we do not classify adverbial nominals with the postpositions. The other choice was to create a separate noun (sub-)tag for these words. However, we found that their syntactic behavior is similar to that of common nouns. Hence, we did not create a new tag to cater to the semantic difference between two sets of words and instead subsumed these adverbial nominals under the common noun (NN) tag.

3.2 Pronoun

Pronouns are divided into 7 subcategories. The personal pronoun (PRP) appears as a replacement of the noun. Some examples are meN (1Sg.Nom/Erg), mujHE (1Sg.Acc/Dat), vuh (3Sg.Nom) and usE (3Sg.Acc/Dat). The demonstrative (PDM) appears before a noun as its specifier., as in (3).

(3) 
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PRP</th>
<th>NNP</th>
<th>VB</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>vuh</td>
<td>laRkI</td>
<td>AI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3Sg</td>
<td>girl</td>
<td>come.Perf.F.Sg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘That girl came.’</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note that the same form vuh acts as personal pronoun (PRP) or demonstrative (PDM). They can be differentiated on the basis of syntactic context. In (6), vuh is the head of noun phrase, hence it is tagged as PRP. The possessive pronouns (PRS) are the pronouns used to show the relation of ownership. Some examples are mErA ‘my’, tumhArA ‘your’ and hamArA ‘our’. The reflexive pronouns (PRF) are used for referring to oneself. The examples are xud ‘self’ and apnE Ap ‘self’. The reflexive apna (APNA) is used to show self’s relation with the noun. An example is given in (4)

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3 See [http://www.cle.org.uk/software/langproc/POStagset.htm](http://www.cle.org.uk/software/langproc/POStagset.htm)
There are two separate subcategories for relative pronouns: Relative Personal (PRR) and Relative Demostrative (PRD). The syntactic behaviour of these pronouns is different from personal pronouns and demonstrative. The following example demonstrates the relative personal (PRR) ‘jo ‘who’.

(5) vuh laRkI jo AI
    PRP NN PRR VB
    3Sg girl who come.Perf.F.Sg
    ‘The girl who came.’

It was discussed whether we should create separate categories for interrogative pronouns. We found that the interrogative pronoun can replace other related POS tags e.g. pronoun, adverb and quantifier etc. Hence no special tag for interrogative pronouns is created, and the interrogative words are merged into the relevant POS category. For example, kon ‘who’ is personal pronoun (PRP) and kita ‘how much’ is quantifier (Q).

3.3 Verb

Urdu verbs can be differentiated into canonical main verbs (6) light verbs appearing with a noun or adjective (7), and copular verbs (8).

(6) vuh AI
    PRP VB
    3Sg come.Perf.F.Sg
    ‘She came.’

(7) usE [yAd AI]
    PRP NN VB
    3Sg memory come.Perf.F.Sg
    ‘He/She remembered.’

(8) vuh xuS he
    PRP JJ VB
    3Sg happy be.Pres.3.M.Sg
    ‘He/She is happy.’

We followed the decision of Muaz, Ali & Hussain (2009) and Bharati et al. (2006) and did not create a separate tag for these categories because all of these verbs show a similar syntactic behavior. However, we differ with the decision of Muaz, Ali & Hussain (2009) in which the copula ‘be’ is merged with the tense auxiliary simply because both have the same surface form (cf. (8) vs. (9)).

(9) vuh ghar AI he
    PRP NN VB AUXT
    3Sg home come be.Pres.3.M.Sg
    ‘She came home.’

In (9), he comes after the main verb and expresses tense information, hence it is a tense auxiliary. However, in (8) it is functioning as a main verb. For this reason, it is tagged as VB.

3.4 Auxiliary

The tagset encodes the fine distinctions necessary for the complex nature the verbal complex in Urdu. There are 4 types of auxiliaries; Aspectual (AUXA), Progressive (AUXP), Tense (AUXT) and Modals (AUXM). An example of a tense auxiliary (AUXT) is given in (9). The examples of the other tags are as follows:

(10) sigrET pInA burA he
    NN VBI JJ VB
    cigarette drink.Inf.M.Sg bad be.Pres
    ‘Smoking cigarettes is bad.’

3.5 Nominal Modifiers

Nominal modifiers convey information about a noun. This include adjectives (JJ) e.g. accHA ‘good’, quantifiers (Q) e.g. kucH ‘some’, cardinal (CD) e.g. dO ‘two’, ordinal (OD) e.g. dUsrA ‘second’, fraction (FR) e.g. AdHA ‘half’ and multiplicative (QM) e.g. gunA ‘times’.

We found that there are many adjectives that also appear as a noun. We decided to assign the POS according to the syntactical function. For example, GulAm ‘slave’ appears as an adjective in (15) and as a noun in (16).
3.6 Adverb

There are two sub-categories of adverbs: general adverb (RB) and negation (NEG). The adverbs expressing negative e.g. nahIN, na, mat are tagged as NEG. The negatives have a different (more restricted) syntactic distribution than other adverbs and have therefore received a special tag. Other adverbs e.g. manner adverbs are tagged as RB. The examples are given below.

(17) vuh AhistA call
    PRP RB VB
    3Sg home walk.Perf.3.F.Sg
    ‘She walked slowly.’

(18) vuh nahIn AI
    PRP NEG VB
    3Sg not come.Perf.3.F.Sg
    ‘She did not come.’

We discussed in section 3.5 that spatial and temporal adverbials e.g. andar ‘inside’, ab ‘now’, kal ‘tomorrow’ are tagged as common noun (NN) because of their syntactic behavior.

3.7 Adposition

There are two subcategories of adpositions:. re- and postpositions. Some examples of Urdu prepositions are: fl ‘in’/‘per’, az ‘from’, sivAE ‘except’ and bajuz ‘except’ etc. (Raza, 2011). An example with fl (borrowed from Arabic) has been given below.

(19) 50 rupe [fl kilogram]
    CD NN PRE NN
    50 rupees per kilogram
    ‘50 rupees per kilogram’

Examples of postpositions are nE (the ergative marker), kO (the accusative and dative), tak ‘till’, liE ‘for’ and bin ‘without’. As discussed in section 3.1, we consider adverbial nominals e.g. andar ‘inside’, Upar ‘above’/‘over’ etc. as common nouns.

3.8 Conjunction

The category conjunction is divided into the usual coordinate and subordinate conjunction, but also provides for two Urdu specific categories. The examples of co-ordinating conjunction (CC) are or ‘and’ and ekin ‘but’/‘however’ etc. The examples of subordinating conjunctions (SC) are kiyUnkah ‘because’ and tO ‘then’ etc. An example of a SC is given below.

(20) agar mahnat karO gE
    SCP NN VB AUXT
    If hard-work do.Sub. future

Then successful be future ‘if (you) will work hard then (you) will be successful.’

The above example have agar ‘if’ as pre-sentential (SCP). These words appear before the first clause in subordinating constructions.

Following Bharati et al. (2006), we introduced the tag subordinating-conjunction-kar (SCK) for the verb kari(kE) ‘do’ appearing at the the end of embedded non-finite clauses. An example of this construction is given below.

(21) vuh [ghar bEc kar] AI
    PRP NN VB SCK VB
    3SG house sell do come.Perf
    ‘She came after selling the house.’

3.9 Interjection

The interjection (INJ) normally occurs at the start of the sentence. It is kept as a separate category in the tagset. Some examples are vAh ‘bravo’/‘well done’, arE ‘O’/‘hey’ and subh2An Allah ‘glory to Allah’ etc. It is important to note that the multiword subh2An Allah gets a single tag INJ.

3.10 Particle

Particles are divided into two subcategories: a general particle tag (PRT) and a VALA tag for a language specific category (‘the X one’).

The general particle tag (PRT) includes emphatic particles e.g. bHI ‘also’ and h1 ‘even’.

(22) [vuh bHI] AE gI
    PRP PRT VB AUXT
    3SG too come.Perf future
    ‘She too will come.’

The usages of the particle vAl- are described in detail in Muaz & Khan (2009). An example of is given below.

(23) sabzI valA
    NN VALA
    vegetable one
    ‘The thing (e.g. meal) that has vegetables’/
    ‘the person who sells vegetable.’
3.11 Symbol
Symbol has two categories: Punctuation (PU) and other symbols (SYM).

3.12 Residual
Residual contains one tag for Foreign Fragment (FF) covering all foreign language elements. This tag is assigned only in that situation when we cannot assign an Urdu POS tag to that word (or multiword). For example, subh2An Allah ‘glory to Allah’ is an Arabic fragment, but we assign the interjection tag (INJ) to it. Similarly, the English noun book in the following example is treated as noun because it has been absorbed into standard Urdu usage via intensive language contact with English.

(24) us nE buk paRHI
PRP PSP NN VB
3Sg Erg book read.Perf.F.Sg
‘He/She read the book.

If we cannot assign an Urdu POS tag to a foreign fragment, then we consider it as a foreign fragment (FF).

4. Tagging the CLE Urdu Digest Corpus
The updated tagset was used to tag the CLE Urdu Digest Corpus, covering an 80% training corpus and a 20% testing corpus. The files were selected randomly. The Tree Tagger (Schmid, 1994; Schmid, 1995) was used for automatic tagging, with a machine learning technique of Decision Trees and smoothing technique of Class Equivalence. The results are given in table 1. It shows a tagging accuracy of 96.8%, indicating that our tagset is performing well.

5. Discussion and Conclusion
In analyzing the results of the tagger, it was observed that the tagger encounters problems in disambiguating between some particular pairs of tags. While there are two tags for nouns (noun vs. proper noun), Urdu does not make a clear distributional distinction between these nouns. We have decided to nevertheless keep both tags since information about proper nouns is generally important for further natural language processing.

Nouns are confused with adjectives when they occur adjacent to one another. The same issue was found by Muaz, Ali & Hussain (2009). Due to the fact that the postposition ‘in’ and the personal pronoun ‘I’ are written the same in Urdu (نا), the tagger confuses the two when they occur in syntactic positions where both options are possible. Similarly, the tagger finds the Urdu word ہی ‘to’ confusing, as it can act both as a discourse particle and as introducing a subordinate clause.

On the other hand, the results of the newly added tag Foreign Fragment (FF) has shown a good accuracy as compared to the previous tagsets where this category was dealt with under expressions (Exp) (Sajjad, 2007, Sajjad & Schmid, 2009) or was ignored (Muaz, Ali & Hussain, 2009). In conclusion, we have presented a new POS tagset for Urdu. It is based on a critical analysis of several previous iterations of tagset proposals and builds on these. The new CLE Urdu POS Tagset has been used to tag 100k words of the publically available balanced CLE Urdu Digest corpus. Work is continuing to extend the tagged corpus to 1 million words.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tag</th>
<th>Total Tokens</th>
<th>Error %</th>
<th>Maximum Misclassification</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>VBF</td>
<td>2602</td>
<td>4.57</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AUXA</td>
<td>760</td>
<td>13.42</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PDM</td>
<td>428</td>
<td>17.99</td>
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<tr>
<td>PRP</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<tr>
<td>JJ</td>
<td>1820</td>
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<tr>
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</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Results and Error Analysis

6. Acknowledgement
This work has been supported by a DAAD Research Grant, Essential Urdu Linguistic Resources.5

7. References
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