

# TurkishDelightNLP: A Neural Turkish NLP Toolkit

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## Abstract

We introduce a neural Turkish NLP toolkit called TurkishDelightNLP that performs computational linguistic analyses from morphological level to semantic level that involves tasks such as stemming, morphological segmentation, morphological tagging, part-of-speech tagging, dependency parsing, and semantic parsing, as well as high-level NLP tasks such as named entity recognition. We publicly share the open-source Turkish NLP toolkit through a web interface that allows an input text to be analysed in real-time, as well as the open source implementation of the components provided in the toolkit, an API, and several annotated datasets such as word similarity test set to evaluate word embeddings and UCCA-based semantic annotation in Turkish. This will be the first open-source Turkish NLP toolkit that involves a range of NLP tasks in all levels. We believe that it will be useful for other researchers in Turkish NLP and will be also beneficial for other high-level NLP tasks in Turkish.

## 1 Introduction

Turkish is one of the low-resource languages with a rich morphology. Although still limited, there has been an increasing interest in Turkish NLP in the last decade. Being a morphologically productive language is the main drawback of the Turkish NLP research. Current deep learning models are notoriously data-hungry. When it comes to morphologically productive languages, the data requirement substantially increases compared to other morphologically poor languages. This is due to the number of different word forms that can be generated via inflection and/or derivation. Although current word embedding models such as BERT (Devlin et al., 2019) rely on tokenization that considers sub-word tokens rather than word tokens, the recent research (Haley, 2020) still shows that the performance of such models degrades with novel words.

We introduce a new neural Turkish NLP toolkit that involves the following linguistic and NLP tasks in Turkish: Stemming, morphological segmentation, morphological tagging, part-of-speech tagging, dependency parsing, semantic parsing, and named entity recognition. Morphological segmentation, morphological tagging, part-of-speech tagging, and dependency parsing are learned jointly using a multi-task learning approach. Most of the previous work on Turkish morphology and syntax considers morphological and syntactic tasks as independent problems. However, syntax is strongly defined by morphology and vice versa, especially in agglutinative languages. Therefore, in this study, we benefit from the mutual interaction between morphological and syntactic layers in the language.

All components apart from semantic parsing model are built on LSTMs that are capable of learning especially long distance relations. The models also utilise a Bahdanau (Bahdanau et al., 2015) attention mechanism in various layers for an efficient learning of the valuable contextual information within the sentence/word. Moreover, we investigate cross-level information flow between the layers by incorporating information between words in different time steps. As distinct from the other components, semantic parsing model adopts an encoder-decoder model where the encoder is based on self-attention mechanism (Vaswani et al., 2017).

TurkishDelightNLP is available at <http://rgcl.wlv.ac.uk/TurkishNLP/> and the source codes of all components are also publicly available, which are specified in each section below. We also provide API to allow users to process their data using HTTP requests<sup>1</sup>. In addition to the NLP toolkit, we provide few datasets; that are an UCCA-based semantic annotation for Turkish,

<sup>1</sup>The REST API for the TurkishDelightNLP toolkit is available at <https://github.com/halecakir/turkish-delight-nlp-api>.

a Turkish stemming training set based on METU-Sabancı Turkish Treebank (Ofłazer et al., 2003b), and a word similarity test set along with the human judgements for assessing morphologically rich Turkish word embeddings.

## 2 Related Work and Tools on Turkish NLP

Despite being a low-resource language, Turkish has been one of the actively studied languages among other low-resource languages especially in the last decade. Numerous models have been recently released for Turkish. However, most of them were not released publicly available, and they were not shared as tools that facilitate generating a result in real time. The earlier studies on Turkish morphology include **morphological analyzers** such as the two-level description of Turkish morphology (Ofłazer, 1993), the stochastic morphological analyzer based on finite state transducers (Sak et al., 2009), paradigmatic approaches (Can and Manandhar, 2009, 2012, 2018), and few other open source analyzers such as Zemberek (Akin and Akin, 2007), TRmorph (Çöltekin, 2010), and the syntactically expressive morphological analyzer by Oztürel et al. (2019). The earlier studies also involve **dependency parsers** such as the probabilistic and deterministic dependency parser by Eryiğit et al. (2008), the two-phase statistical parser based on Conditional Random Fields (CRFs) by Durgar El-Kahlout et al. (2014), and the recent neural parser by Tuç and Can (2020). There are a couple of Turkish **stemmers** introduced such as the probabilistic stemmer by Dincer and Karaođlan (2003), and the finite state machine-based Govde-Türk by Yücebas and Tintin (2017); a few **part-of-speech taggers** were also proposed such as the Hidden Markov Model-based PoS tagger by Dinçer et al. (2008), the deterministic tagger using the two-level morphological description by Ofłazer and Kuruoz (1994), and unsupervised Bayesian approaches (Bölücü and Can, 2019, 2021). The first **semantic parsing** annotation for Turkish (Azin and Eryiğit, 2019) has been presented for Abstract Meaning Representation (AMR) (Flanigan et al., 2014) and there is not any other semantic parser introduced for Turkish yet, to our knowledge.

As seen, most of the linguistic analysis tasks on Turkish are based on either statistical or deterministic approaches. Currently, the Turkish NLP research focuses more on NLP applications such

as **named entity recognition** (Güneş and Tantuğ, 2018; Güngör et al., 2019; Eşref and Can, 2019), text classification (Tokgoz et al., 2021), sentiment analysis (Gezici et al., 2019; Demirci et al., 2019), offensive language identification (Ozdemir and Yeniterzi, 2020), text summarisation (Ertam and Aydın, 2021), text normalisation (Göker and Can, 2018) with especially the availability of the large pretrained neural word embeddings in almost any language.

Most of the NLP tools in Turkish were released before the deep learning era and they still have not been replaced by the neural network approaches and the researchers in the field still use the old-fashioned statistical and deterministic models for morphological or syntactic processing. We aim to fill this gap with our Turkish NLP toolkit by introducing better performing neural-based methods for Turkish linguistic analysis and NLP. The most similar one to our toolkit is ITU NLP Toolkit (Eryiğit, 2014) that also involves a wide range of NLP tools such as normalization, spell correction, morphological analysis, dependency parsing, and named entity recognition. However, all of their models are independent from each other and they are built on either deterministic or statistical machine learning algorithms. Our toolkit deviates from theirs by adopting neural models and analysing morphology and syntax jointly by considering the interaction between them. Moreover, their toolkit does not involve any semantic parsing as ours.

## 3 About Turkish

Turkish is an agglutinating language with a rich morphology. The morphological rules are quite regular in Turkish that define the order of the morphemes in a word, as well as the morphophonemic processes such as consonant mutation and vowel harmony, which lead the suffix and the final consonant and vowel in a word to be harmonised with each other mutually. Therefore, a morpheme can have tens of different surface forms in Turkish, which are allomorphs of the same morpheme. In Turkish, syntactic information is encoded in inflectional morphemes. For example, the word ‘*yapabileceğim*’ (in English, ‘I will be able to do’) involves the following inflectional morphemes that each correspond to a syntactic role: ‘*-abil*’ (‘be able’), ‘*-eceğ*’ (‘will’), and ‘*-im*’ (‘I’).

In this paper, we propose to process every word considering its left and right context through a

cross-level information from morphological segments up to dependencies in a moving window, so that morphological information of the contextual words help to analyse the PoS tags, and the PoS information of the contextual words help to analyse the dependency relations in a sentence.

## 4 A Neural Turkish NLP Toolkit

The introduced toolkit involves different components that are all described thoroughly below.

### 4.1 Stemmer

The stemmer is built on an encoder-decoder model that employs a bidirectional LSTM (Can, 2019). The model has two versions, one without an attention mechanism considering all characters with equal probability and another version with Bahdanau attention (Bahdanau et al., 2015) over characters of a given word in both directions to learn character-based contextual information. The model is trained on a dataset with 17025 word types along with their stems obtained from Metu-Sabancı Treebank (Ofłazer et al., 2003b). Both the model that is implemented in DyNet (Neubig et al., 2017) and the dataset are publicly available<sup>2</sup>. The accuracy of the stemmer is 85% and comparable to that of Zemberek (Akın and Akın, 2007), and outperforms the other open-source Turkish stemmers (Zafer, 2015).

### 4.2 Joint Morphology and Syntax Model

A multi-task learning model is proposed for joint learning of morphology and syntax (Can et al., 2022). The model is built upon a multi-layer LSTM structure where each layer contributes to the overall loss in a joint learning framework and the errors from all layers backpropagate from top layer to the bottom. LSTM structure has been preferred both due its low size data requirement compared to transformers and the flexibility of processing sequential information by controlling the vertical information flow between the layers. The model is trained on IMST Turkish Treebank (Sulubacak et al., 2016). The model involves 4 layers where each of them adopts a bidirectional LSTM that is specialised in either morphology or syntax. The layers are dedicated for morphological segmentation, morphological tagging, part-of-speech tagging, and dependency parsing. The order of the layers has been designed based on the direction of the information

flow and the size of the units (from smaller to bigger). A separate component for morph2vec (Üstün et al., 2018) that is used to pretrain the morpheme embeddings is also involved.

The joint model is trained and evaluated on UD Turkish Treebank, which is called IMST Treebank (Sulubacak and It, 2018) and it is a re-annotated version of the METU-Sabancı Treebank (Ofłazer et al., 2003a). For the pre-trained word embeddings, we use pre-trained 200-dimensional word embeddings trained on Boun Web Corpus (Sak et al., 2008) provided by CoNLL 2018 Shared Task. The overall architecture of the joint model is given in Figure 1, where each coloured component belongs to a different level of processing that starts from morphological segmentation till dependency parsing. Each level is built on LSTMs that sequentially process every unit (i.e. character, morpheme, word, or syntactic information) in a given sentence by utilising the contextual information as well (see Section 4.2.6 for the details of the cross-level information flow). An example analysis is also provided in Figure 2 and Figure 3. All layers are described in detail below. The open-source implementation in DyNet (Neubig et al., 2017) is publicly available<sup>3</sup>.

#### 4.2.1 Morpheme-based Word Embeddings: morph2vec

Morph2vec (Üstün et al., 2018) is a morpheme-based word embedding model that learns word embeddings as a weighted sum of word embeddings each of which are obtained from a particular morphological segmentation of a word. It is assumed that the correct morphological segmentation of a word is not known apriori; therefore, each potential morphological segmentation of a word is predicted before training the model. Each morphological segmentation is fed into a bidirectional LSTM with each LSTM unit being fed with a morpheme embedding that is randomly initialised. So each LSTM generates a word embedding for that particular morphological segmentation. Finally, Bahdanau attention mechanism (Bahdanau et al., 2015) is employed to learn the weight of each segmentation-specific word embedding. The morpheme-based embeddings give a better Spearman correlation with the human judgements in word similarity tasks compared to both char2vec (Cao and Rei, 2016) and fasttext (Bojanowski et al.,

<sup>2</sup><https://github.com/burcu-can/Stemmer>

<sup>3</sup><https://github.com/halecakir/JointParser>

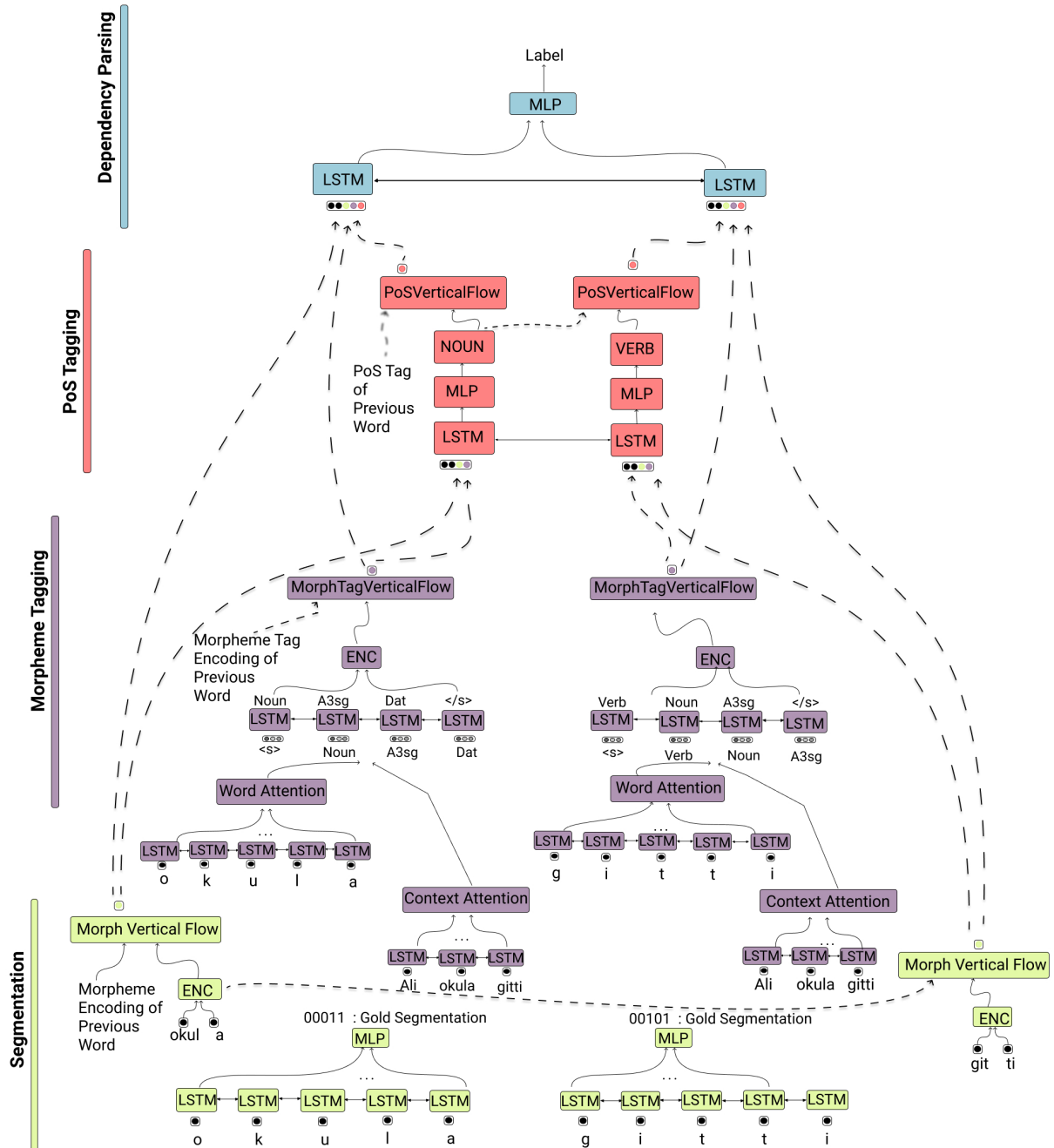


Figure 1: The layers of the proposed joint learning framework. The sentence “Ali okula gitti.” (“Ali went to school”) is processed from morphology up to dependencies (Can et al., 2022).

2017). The source code in DyNet is publicly available<sup>4</sup>, and the datasets for syntactic analogy and word similarity along with the human judgement scores are also publicly available<sup>5</sup>.

Morph2vec is pre-trained on METU-Sabancı

<sup>4</sup>[https://github.com/burcu-can/morph2vec\\_dynet](https://github.com/burcu-can/morph2vec_dynet)

<sup>5</sup><https://nlp.cs.hacettepe.edu.tr/projects/morph2vec/>

Turkish Treebank (Ofazer et al., 2003b) before training the joint morphology and syntax model. Therefore, pretrained morpheme embeddings are used during joint learning.

## 4.2.2 Morphological Segmentation

The lowest layer of the joint model performs morphological segmentation through a bidirectional

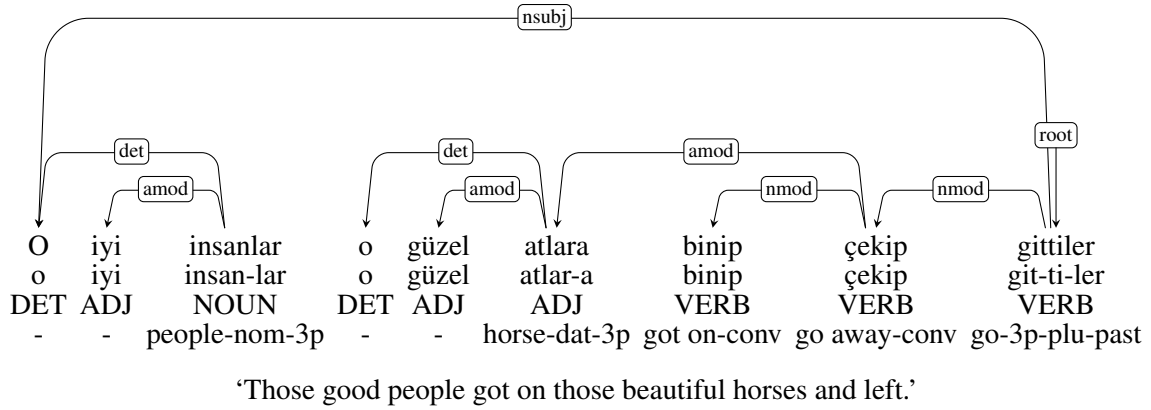


Figure 2: An example analysis of the toolkit for a sentence in Turkish. First line: The orthographic form. Second line: morphological segments. Third line: PoS tags. Fourth line: morphological features (‘-’ is for null). Dependencies in the article are arrowed (head to dependent) and labeled UD dependencies (de Marneffe et al., 2021).

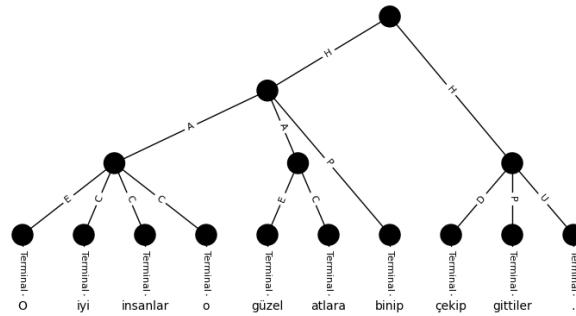


Figure 3: The UCCA-based semantic parse tree of the sentence, *O iyi insanlar o güzel atlara binip çekip gittiler*. (in English, “Those good people got on those beautiful horses and left”)

LSTM that encodes each character of a given word with one hot encoding. The output at each time step is reduced to a single dimension using a multilayer perceptron (MLP) with sigmoid function to predict whether there is a morpheme boundary after that character or not. Each value above 0.6 refers to a morpheme boundary, and below means that there is not a morpheme boundary at that time step after the current character. Binary cross entropy is used for this layer that contributes to the overall loss of the joint model.

We obtain the gold segments from the rule-based morphological analyser Zemberek (Akin and Akin, 2007) to train the segmentation component since the IMST Treebank does not involve morphological segmentations but only morphological tags. Our joint model performs 98.97% of accuracy on morphological segmentation task<sup>6</sup>.

### 4.2.3 Morphological Tagging

We adopt an encoder-decoder model for the morphological tagging layer. To encode the relevant

contextual information both within the word and within the sentence, we use a character encoder and word encoder respectively. The character encoder processes the characters within the given word that will be analysed and the word encoder processes the contextual words in that sentence to better predict the morphological tagging of the given word in a particular context, which can also help to disambiguate the word in a particular context. Both of the encoders are built on bidirectional LSTMs and both of them adopt a Bahdanau attention (Bahdanau et al., 2015) to learn the weights over characters and words. The input to the decoder is the concatenation of the weighted outputs obtained from both character and context encoders. The decoder is also built on a bidirectional LSTM that generates morpheme tags using a softmax function at each time step. Our joint model performs 87.59% FEATS score on morphological tagging, and comparable to a recently introduced neural Turkish morphological tagger that performs 89.54% FEATS score (Dayanik et al., 2018).

<sup>6</sup>It should be noted that the test set is also obtained from Zemberek.

#### 4.2.4 Part-of-Speech Tagging

The PoS tagging layer is built upon a bidirectional LSTM that is fed with the concatenation of word-level (i.e. word2vec embeddings), character-level (learned through a character BiLSTM for each word), morpheme-level (i.e. morph2vec), and morpheme tag encodings of each particular word in a sentence. Morpheme-level word embeddings are obtained from pretrained morph2vec as mentioned before. However, the other embeddings are all randomly initialised and learned during training. The output at each time step is passed through an MLP with softmax activation function to predict the PoS tag of the word at that time step. Our joint model performs exactly the same with the state-of-art PoS tagger by [Che et al. \(2018\)](#) with an accuracy of 94.78%.

#### 4.2.5 Dependency Parsing

The dependency parsing is also built on BiLSTM that is fed with the same embeddings used in PoS tagging layer, and in addition, we concatenate the PoS encodings of the words that are obtained from the previous layer. PoS encodings are randomly initialised and learned during training. The arcs are scored by an MLP that involves a pointer network that predicts whether there is an arc between the given two words or not. Once the scores are predicted by the MLP, the projective trees are generated using Eisner’s decoding algorithm ([Eisner, 1996](#)). Labels are analogously predicted using another MLP with a softmax function. Our joint model gives comparable results with the state-of-art dependency parsing results of [Straka \(2018\)](#) with 71% UAS and 63.92% LAS (whereas [Straka \(2018\)](#) achieves 72.25% UAS and 66.44% LAS).

#### 4.2.6 Cross-Level Information Flow

The custom in such a multi-layered and multi-task models is to feed the obtained information regarding the current word from the previous layers to pass it over to the upper layers for the same word ([Nguyen and Nguyen, 2021](#)). However, to our knowledge, we are the first to analyse cross-level information flow between the layers by allowing information flow across different words in different layers. For this, we incorporate contextual information from the previous word to the current word in different layers, by adding contextual information obtained from morpheme tagging encoding and morpheme encoding of the previous word to POS and dependency layers of the current word.

Similarly, we incorporate POS tagging encoding of the previous word into the dependency layer of the current word. This is shown in [Figure 1](#) with PoSVerticalFlow, MorphTagVerticalFlow, and MorphVerticalFlow. The results show that such cross-level information flow improves the performance of the model especially in upper layers.

#### 4.3 Semantic Parsing

We use the Universal Conceptual Cognitive Annotation (UCCA) ([Abend and Rappoport, 2013](#)) framework for semantic annotation, which is a cross-lingual semantic annotation framework. Since there is no Turkish UCCA dataset, the model is trained using a combination of English, German and French datasets ([Hershcovich et al., 2017](#))<sup>7</sup>, and the Turkish annotations are obtained in a zero-shot setting and manually revised. We annotated 50 sentences obtained from METU-Sabaci Turkish Treebank that is also publicly available<sup>8</sup>.

We adopt an encoder/decoder model that tackles the semantic parsing task in the form of a chart-based constituency parsing ([Bölücü and Can, 2021](#))<sup>9</sup>. Self-attention layers ([Vaswani et al., 2017](#)) are used in the encoder where the encoding is fed into an MLP with two fully-connected layers with ReLU activation function, and the CYK (Cocke-Younger-Kasami) algorithm ([Chappelier and Rajman, 1998](#)) is used within the decoder that generates the tree with the maximum score using the scores obtained from the encoder. Our Turkish UCCA-based semantic parser performs 81.11% F1 score on labeled evaluation and 90.24% F1 score on unlabeled evaluation in few shot learning.

#### 4.4 Named Entity Recognition (NER)

We use a BiLSTM-CRF model where each word is encoded through a BiLSTM and decoded with a CRF layer to learn the named entities in a given text ([Kağan Akkaya and Can, 2021](#)). We feed the BiLSTM with character-level (learned through a character-level BiLSTM), character n-gram-level (fasttext), morpheme-level (morph2vec), and word-level word embeddings (word2vec), as well as orthographic embeddings that are learned either with a CNN or BiLSTM by encoding alphabetic characters similar to that of [Aguilar et al. \(2017\)](#).

<sup>7</sup><https://github.com/UniversalConceptualCognitiveAnnotation>

<sup>8</sup><https://github.com/necvabolucu/semantic-dataset>

<sup>9</sup><https://github.com/necvabolucu/ucca-parser>



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