Native Language Identification on Text and Speech

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Abstract

This paper presents an ensemble system combining the output of multiple SVM classifiers to native language identification (NLI). The system was submitted to the NLI Shared Task 2017 fusion track which featured students essays and spoken responses in form of audio transcriptions and iVectors by non-native English speakers of eleven native languages. Our system competed in the challenge under the team name ZCD and was based on an ensemble of SVM classifiers trained on character *n*-grams achieving 83.58% accuracy and ranking 3rd in the shared task.

1 Introduction

Native language identification (NLI) is the task of automatically identifying non-native speakers' native language based on their foreign language production. As evidenced in Malmasi (2016) NLI is a vibrant research area in NLP and is usually modeled as single-label text classification.

NLI is based on the assumption that the mother tongue influences second language acquisition (SLA) and production. Corpora containing texts and utterances by non-native speakers are used to train systems that are able to recognize features that are prominent in the production of speakers of a particular native language. These features are subsequently used to identify texts (or utterances) that are likely to be written or spoken by speakers of the same language.

There are two important reasons to study NLI. Firstly, there is SLA. NLI methods can be applied to learner corpora to investigate the influence of native language in second language acquisition and production complementing corpus-based and corpus-driven studies. The second reason is a practical one. NLI methods can be an important part of several NLP systems including, for example, author profiling systems developed for forensic linguistics.

This paper presents the system submitted by the ZCD team to the NLI Shared Task 2017 (Malmasi et al., 2017). The organizers of the challenge provided participants with a dataset containing essays and spoken responses in form of transcriptions and acoustic features (iVectors) by nonnative English speakers of eleven native languages taking a standardized assessment of English proficiency for academic purposes. Native languages included are: Arabic, Chinese, French, German, Hindi, Italian, Japanese, Korean, Spanish, Telugu, and Turkish. To discriminate between these eleven native languages we apply an ensemble of multiple linear SVM classifiers trained on character ngrams. The main motivation behind the choice of this approach is the success of linear SVMs and SVM ensembles in NLI and in similar text classification tasks such as dialect, language variety, and similar language identification as will be discussed in Section 2.

2 Related Work

There have been several NLI studies published in the past few years. Due to the availability of suitable language resources for English (e.g. learner corpora), the vast majority of these studies dealt with English (Brooke and Hirst, 2012; Bykh and Meurers, 2014), however, a few NLI studies have been published on other languages. Examples of NLI applied to languages other than English include Arabic (Ionescu, 2015), Chinese (Wang et al., 2016), and Finnish (Malmasi and Dras, 2014).

To the best of our knowledge, the NLI Shared Task 2013 (Tetreault et al., 2013) was the first

Team	Approach	System Paper
Jarvis	SVM trained on character <i>n</i> -grams (1-9), word <i>n</i> -grams (1-4),	(Jarvis et al., 2013)
	and POS <i>n</i> -grams (1-4)	
Oslo	SVM trained on character <i>n</i> -grams (1-7)	(Lynum, 2013)
Unibuc	String Kernels and Local Rank Distance (LRD)	(Popescu and Ionescu, 2013)
MITRE	Bayes ensemble of multiple classifiers	(Henderson et al., 2013)
Tuebingen	SVM trained on word <i>n</i> -grams (1-2), and POS <i>n</i> -grams (1-5), and	(Bykh et al., 2013)
	syntactic features (dependencies)	
NRC	Ensemble of SVM classifiers trained on character trigrams, word	(Goutte et al., 2013)
	n-grams (1-2), POS n-grams (2-4), and syntactic features (depen-	
	dencies)	
CMU-Haifa	Maximum Entropy trained on word <i>n</i> -grams (1-4), POS <i>n</i> -grams	(Tsvetkov et al., 2013)
	(1-4), and spelling features	
Cologne-Nijmegen	SVM classifier with TF-IDF weighting trained on character n-	(Gebre et al., 2013)
	grams (1-6), word <i>n</i> -grams (1-2), and POS <i>n</i> -grams (1-4)	
NAIST	SVM trained on character <i>n</i> -grams (2-3), word <i>n</i> -grams (1-2),	(Mizumoto et al., 2013)
	and POS n-grams (2-3), and syntactic features (dependencies and	
	TSG)	
UTD	SVM trained on word <i>n</i> -grams (1-2)	(Wu et al., 2013)

Table 1: Top ten NLI Shared Task 2013 entries ordered by performance.

shared task to provide a benchmark for NLI focusing on written texts by non-native English speakers. A few years later, the 2016 Computational Paralinguistics Challenge (Schuller et al., 2016) included an NLI task on speech data. The NLI Shared Task 2017 combines these two modalities of non-native language production by including essays and spoken responses of test takers in form of transcriptions and iVectors.

The combination of text and speech has been previously used in similar shared tasks such as the dialect identification shared tasks organized at the VarDial workshop series (Zampieri et al., 2017) and described in more detail in Section 2.2.

In the next sections we present the most successful entries submitted for the NLI Shared Task 2013 and their overlap with methods applied to dialect, language variety, and similar language identification.

2.1 NLI Shared Task 2013

The aforementioned NLI Shared Task 2013 (Tetreault et al., 2013) established the first benchmark for NLI on written texts. Organizers of the first NLI task provided participants with the TOEFL 11 (Blanchard et al., 2013) dataset which contained essays written by students native speakers of the same eleven languages included in the NLI Shared Task 2017.

Twenty-nine teams participated in the competition, testing a wide range of computational methods for NLI. In Table 1 we list the top ten best entries ranked by performance along with their respective system description papers.

The best system by Jarvis et al. (2013) applied a linear SVM classifier trained on character, word, and POS n-grams. Seven out of the ten best entries in the shared task used SVM classifiers. This indicates that SMVs are a very good fit for NLI and motivates us to test SVM classifiers in our ensemble-based system described in this paper.

2.2 Overlap with Dialect Identification

In the last few years, we observed a significant and important overlap between NLI approaches and computational methods applied to dialect, language variety, and similar language identification. So far the overlap between the two tasks has not been substantially explored in the literature.

Members of several teams that submitted systems to the NLI Shared Task 2013, some of them presented in Table 1, also participated in the dialect identification shared tasks organized within the scope of the VarDial workshop series held from 2014 to 2017. The three related shared tasks organized at the VarDial workshop thus far are the Discriminating between Similar Languages (DSL) task organized from 2014 to 2017, Arabic Dialect Identification (ADI) organized in 2016 and 2017, and German Dialect Identification (GDI) organized in 2017.

Next we list some of the teams that adapted systems from NLI to dialect identification in the past few years.

- Variations of the string kernels method by the Unibuc team (Popescu and Ionescu, 2013) competed in the ADI task in 2016 (Ionescu and Popescu, 2016) and in 2017 (Ionescu and Butnaru, 2017) achieving the best results.
- Cologne-Nijmegen's TF-IDF-based approach (Gebre et al., 2013) competed in the DSL shared task 2015 (Zampieri et al., 2015a) as team MMS ranking among the top 3 systems.
- A variation of NRC's SVM approach (Goutte et al., 2013) competed in the DSL 2014 (Goutte et al., 2014) achieving the best results.
- Bobicev applied Prediction for Partial Matching (PPM) in the NLI shared task (Bobicev, 2013) with results that did not reach top ten performance. A similar improved approached competed in the DSL 2015 (Bobicev, 2015) ranking in the top half of the table.
- A similar approach to the one by Jarvis (Jarvis et al., 2013) that ranked 1st place in the NLI task 2013 competed in the DSL 2017 (Bestgen, 2017), achieving the best performance in the competition.
- Variations of MQ's SVM ensemble approach (Malmasi et al., 2013) have competed in the DSL 2015 (Malmasi and Dras, 2015) and the ADI 2016 (Malmasi and Zampieri, 2016), achieving the best performance in both shared tasks.

This section evidenced an important overlap between NLI methods and dialect identification methods both in terms of participation overlap in the shared tasks and in terms of successful approaches. With the exception of Bobicev (2013), most teams that were ranked among the top ten entries in the NLI shared task were also successful at the VarDial workshop shared tasks.

Detailed information about all approaches and performance obtained in these competitions can be found in the VarDial shared task reports (Zampieri et al., 2014, 2015b; Malmasi et al., 2016b; Zampieri et al., 2017) and in the evaluation paper by Goutte et al. (2016).

3 Methods

In the next sections we describe the data provided by the shared task organizers and the ensemble SVM approach applied by the ZCD team.

3.1 Data

The organizers of the NLI Shared Task 2017 provided participants with data corresponding to eleven native languages: Arabic, Chinese, French, German, Hindi, Italian, Japanese, Korean, Spanish, Telugu and Turkish. The training dataset consists of 11,000 essays, orthographic transcriptions of 45-second English spoken responses, and iVectors (1,000 instances for each of the eleven native languages), while the development dataset was stratified similarly, containing 100 instances for each native language.

There were individual tracks in which only the essays or only the responses could be used and a fusion track in which both the essays and the speech transcriptions (including iVectors) could be used. The test dataset, containing 1,100 instances with essays, speech transcriptions and iVectors, was released at a later date.

The use of a dataset containing text and speech is the main new aspect of the 2017 NLI task so we decide to compete in the fusion track taking both modalities into account. The approach used in our submission is described next.

3.2 Approach

We built a classification system based on SVM ensembles, following the methodology proposed by Malmasi and Dras (2015).

The idea behind classification ensembles is to improve the overall performance by combining the results of multiple classifiers. Such systems have proved successful not only in NLI and dialect identification, as evidenced in the previous sections, but also in numerous text classification tasks, among which are complex word identification (Malmasi et al., 2016a) and grammatical error diagnosis (Xiang et al., 2015). The classifiers can differ in a wide range of aspects, such as algorithms, training data, features or parameters.

In our system, the classifiers used different features. We experimented with the following features: character *n*-grams (with *n* in $\{1, ..., 10\}$) from essays and speech transcripts, word *n*-grams (with *n* in $\{1, 2\}$) from essays and speech transcripts, and iVectors. For the n-gram features we

System	F1 (macro)	Accuracy
Essays + Transcriptions + iVectors	0.8358	0.8355
Essays + Transcriptions	0.8191	0.8191
Official Baseline (with iVectors)	0.7901	0.7909
Official Baseline (without iVectors)	0.7786	0.7791
Random Baseline	0.0909	0.0909

Table 2: ZCD results and baselines for the fusion track.

used TF-IDF weighting applied on the tokenized version of the essays and speech transcripts (provided by the organizers). As a pre-processing step, we lowercased all words.

We first trained a classifier for each type of feature using the essays as input data, and performed cross-validation to determine the optimal value for the SVM hyperparameter C, searching in $\{10^{-5}, ..., 10^{5}\}$. Further, for the n-gram features we kept only those classifiers whose individual cross-validation performance was higher than 0.8. Thus, our first ensemble consisted of individual classifiers using character *n*-grams (with *n* in $\{6, 7, 8\}$) from essays and speech transcripts.

For the second ensemble, we introduced an additional classifier using the iVectors as features. To combine the classifiers, we employed a majority-based fusion method: the class label predicted by the ensemble is the one that was predicted by the majority of the classifiers. We used the SVM implementation provided by Scikit-learn (Pedregosa et al., 2011), based on the Liblinear library (Fan et al., 2008).

On the development dataset, the first ensemble (essays + speech transcripts) obtained 0.83 accuracy, and the second ensemble (essays + speech transcripts + iVectors) obtained 0.84 accuracy.

4 **Results**

We submitted two runs of our system. The first run included the essays and the transcriptions of responses, whereas the second run included also the iVectors. We present the results obtained by the two runs along with a random baseline and the performance of the unigram-based official baseline system in terms of F1 score and accuracy in Table 2.

The best results were achieved by the second run, reaching 83.55% accuracy and 83.58% F1 score. As can be seen in Table 2, the iVectors bring a performance improvement of about 1.6 percentage points in terms of accuracy and F1 score. Ten teams participated in the fusion track and our best run was ranked 3rd by the shared task organizers. Ranks were calculated using McNemars test for statistical significance, a common practice in many NLI shared tasks (e.g. DSL 2016 (Malmasi et al., 2016b), and the shared tasks at WMT (Bojar et al., 2016)).

The confusion matrix of our best submission is presented in Table 3. We observed that the best performance was obtained for Japanese and the worst performance was obtained for Arabic. Not surprisingly, most confusion occurred between Hindi and Telugu. Our initial analysis indicates that this confusion occurred because of geographic proximity and not by intrinsic linguistic properties shared by these two languages, as Hindi and Telugu do not belong to the same language family - Hindi is a Hindustani language and Telugu is a Dravidian language.

5 Most Informative Features

As briefly discussed in the introduction of this paper, NLI methods can provide interesting information about patterns in non-native language that can be used to study second language acquisition and L1 interference or language transfer. For this purpose, in Table 4 we present the top ten most informative character 8-grams for each of the eleven languages in the dataset according to our classifier.

It is not surprising that named entities are very informative for our system and highly discriminative for most native languages. For example, essays and responses from China often contain place names like *China, Taipei, Taiwan*, and *Beijing*, whereas those from Turkey contain *Istanbul* and, of course, *Turkey*. These features are very frequent in essays and responses by Chinese and Turkish speakers due to topical bias and not because of any intrinsic linguistic property of Chinese or Turkish. However, in other languages, interesting linguistic patterns can be identified by looking at these features.

	CHI	JPN	KOR	HIN	TEL	FRE	ITA	SPA	GER	ARA	TUR
CHI	91	3	2	0	0	0	2	0	0	1	1
JPN	2	93	2	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0
KOR	4	14	77	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	1
HIN	1	0	1	80	18	0	0	0	0	0	0
TEL	0	0	1	18	78	0	0	1	0	2	0
FRE	2	0	0	2	1	87	5	0	2	1	0
ITA	0	0	0	1	0	6	85	3	3	2	0
SPA	1	1	2	2	1	4	7	77	2	2	1
GER	0	1	0	3	0	3	2	1	90	0	0
ARA	2	2	2	3	2	7	1	2	1	77	1
TUR	1	2	0	3	0	2	3	1	1	3	84

Table 3: Confusion matrix on the test set.

Language	Most Informative Features
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alot of alot of y thing statmen statment e alot o tatment ery thin very thi every the
i think taiwan i think beijing beijing taipei in chin in china n china chinese
indeed . indeed . indee indeed , ndeed , france developp french to concl o conclu
, that and um germany germany berlin , that t have to have to um yeah um yeah
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Table 4: Top ten most informative character 8-grams for each language.

In the most informative features for French, for example, we find *developp* from the French *développé* which leads to a misspelling of the English word *developed*. In Arabic we observed a number of features that indicate misspellings. The Arabic alphabet is very different from the Latin one, making spelling English words particularly challenging for native speakers of Arabic. The top ten most informative features for Arabic include word boundary errors such as *every thing* for *everything*, and *alot* for *a lot*, as well as the omission of vowels such as *statment* for *statement*.

6 Conclusion

To the best of our knowledge, the NLI Shared Task 2017 fusion track was the first shared task to provide both written and spoken data for NLI. It was an interesting opportunity to evaluate the performance of NLI methods beyond written texts.

In this paper we highlighted the overlap between NLI and dialect, language variety, and similar language identification and used an approach that achieved high results in both tasks. We applied an SVM ensemble approach trained character *n*-grams achieving competitive results of 83.55% accuracy ranking 3^{rd} in the fusion track.

Even though the results obtained by our approach were not low, we believe that there is still room for improvement. In previous shared tasks (e.g. NLI 2013, DSL 2015, and ADI 2016) we observed that SVM ensembles ranked higher in the results tables than our method did in the NLI 2017. We are investigating whether the combination of features or the implementation itself can be optimized for better performance.

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