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## Meta-Learning for Phonemic Annotation of Corpora

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Véronique Hoste  
Walter Daelemans  
Erik Tjong Kim Sang  
Steven Gillis

HOSTE@UIA.UA.AC.BE  
DAELEM@UIA.UA.AC.BE  
ERIKT@UIA.UA.AC.BE  
GILLIS@UIA.UA.AC.BE

CNTS Language Technology Group, University of Antwerp, Universiteitsplein 1, 2610 Wilrijk, Belgium

### Abstract

We apply rule induction, classifier combination and meta-learning (stacked classifiers) to the problem of bootstrapping high accuracy automatic annotation of corpora with pronunciation information. The task we address in this paper consists of generating phonemic representations reflecting the Flemish and Dutch pronunciations of a word on the basis of its orthographic representation (which in turn is based on the actual speech recordings). We compare several possible approaches to achieve the text-to-pronunciation mapping task: memory-based learning, transformation-based learning, rule induction, maximum entropy modeling, combination of classifiers in stacked learning, and stacking of meta-learners. We are interested both in optimal accuracy and in obtaining insight into the linguistic regularities involved. As far as accuracy is concerned, an already high accuracy level (93% for Celex and 86% for Fonilex at word level) for single classifiers is boosted significantly with additional error reductions of 31% and 38% respectively using combination of classifiers, and a further 5% using combination of meta-learners, bringing overall word level accuracy to 96% for the Dutch variant and 92% for the Flemish variant. We also show that the application of machine learning methods indeed leads to increased insight into the linguistic regularities determining the variation between the two pronunciation variants studied.

word spoken corpus is collected and linguistically annotated. One of the annotation layers is a representation of the pronunciation of the recorded speech (the phonemic representation). As available speech recognition technology is not yet up to generating this annotation automatically, it has to be produced from the (manually transcribed) orthographic transcription. The task is complicated by the fact that these pronunciation representations should reflect either Flemish (the variant of Dutch spoken in the North of Belgium) or Dutch pronunciation, depending on the origin of different parts of the corpus.

To generate the phonemic representations, we need accurate grapheme-to-phoneme conversion (the part of speech synthesis which converts spelling into phonemic representations). It can be described as a function mapping the spelling of words to their phonetic symbols. Since the spelling of a word is ambiguous regarding its pronunciation, what is a correct phonemic transcription is contextually determined. One of the possibilities to tackle the problem is to develop a system that captures the linguistic knowledge of a given language in a set of rules with the disadvantage that hand crafting linguistic rules is a rather difficult and time consuming task. Moreover, this task has to be restarted every time a grapheme-to-phoneme convertor is developed for a new language. Examples of knowledge-rich expert systems are those of Allen (1987) and of Divay and Vitale (1997). Manual encoding of linguistic information, however, is being challenged by data-driven methods since the extraction of linguistic knowledge from a sample text corpus can be a powerful method for overcoming the linguistic knowledge acquisition bottleneck. Different approaches have already been used, such as the use of learning algorithms to pronounce unknown words by analogy to familiar lexical items (Dedina & Nusbaum, 1991), decision-tree learning (Dietterich, 1997), a neural network or connectionist approach (Sejnowski & Rosenberg, 1987) or memory-based learning (Daele-

### 1. Introduction

The context of this research is a large-scale Dutch-Flemish project “Corpus Gesproken Nederlands” (Corpus Spoken Dutch, CGN) in which a 10 million

mans & van den Bosch, 1996). Data-driven approaches can yield comparable (and sometimes even more accurate) results than the rule-based approach.

In this paper, we are concerned with two questions. First, we investigate the level of accuracy that can be obtained using various machine learning techniques trained on two available lexical databases containing examples of the pronunciation of Flemish and Dutch. We examine whether one variant of Dutch can add valuable information to the prediction of the other in cascaded or stacked classifiers. Different individual classifiers were combined in order to obtain an improved estimator. In the machine learning literature, this approach is called ensemble, stacked or combined classifiers (Dietterich, 1997). The underlying idea is that, when the errors committed by the individual classifiers are uncorrelated to a sufficient degree and their error rate is low enough, the resulting combined classifier will perform better. This approach, while common in the Machine Learning literature, has only recently been introduced in natural language processing research (e.g., van Halteren, Zavrel, and Daelemans (1998) for word class disambiguation). In the research presented here, we discuss the combination of different classifiers trained on the same or slightly different tasks. This contrasts with other ensemble methods which combine subsets of the training data (as in bagging) or which combine multiple versions of the training data in which previously misclassified examples get more weight (as in boosting). In this paper, we empirically examine whether these combined classifiers result in substantial accuracy improvements in learning *grapheme-to-phoneme conversion*. Our second research question concerns the use of rule induction as a method to model the systematicity implicit in the differences between Flemish and Dutch pronunciation.

The training data for our experiments consists of two lexical databases representing Dutch and Flemish. For Dutch, Celex (release 2) was used and for Flemish Fonilex (version 1.0b). The Celex database contains frequency information (based on the INL corpus), and phonological, morphological, and syntactic lexical information for more than 384,000 word forms, and uses the DISC representation as encoding scheme for word pronunciation. Fonilex is a list of more than 200,000 word forms together with their Flemish pronunciation. For each word form, an abstract lexical representation is given, together with the concrete pronunciation of that word form in three speech styles: highly formal speech, sloppy speech and “normal” speech (which is an intermediate level). A set of phonological rewrite rules was used to deduce these concrete

speech styles from the abstract phonological form. The initial phonological transcription was obtained by a grapheme-to-phoneme converter and was afterwards corrected by hand. Fonilex uses YAPA (comparable to DISC) as encoding scheme. The Fonilex entries also contain a reference to the Celex entries, since Celex served as basis for the list of word forms in Fonilex. The word forms in Celex with a frequency of 1 and higher are included in Fonilex and from the list with frequency 0 (words not attested in a reference corpus), only the monomorphemic words were selected.

In the following section, we first explain our experimental setup, describing the data sets being used in the different experiments. An overview of the experiments is also provided. In section 3, we introduce the experimental methods and we go on to report the overall results of the experiments. Section 4 shows that the use of machine learning techniques, and especially the use of rule induction techniques, leads to an increased insight into the linguistic regularities determining the variation between the two pronunciation variants. In a final section we conclude with a summary of the most important observations.

## 2. Experimental Setup

The training data for the text-to-pronunciation experiments are two corpora, representing the Northern Dutch and Flemish variants. The data set we used consists of all Fonilex entries with omission of the double entries. In case of double word forms with different possible transcriptions, all different transcriptions were taken, as in the word “caravan”, which can be phonemically represented as /karavan/ or as /kærɛvən/. These double transcriptions only appear in Fonilex, which explains why the text-to-pronunciation task for Flemish is more difficult. Also words the phonemic transcription of which is longer than the orthography and for which no compound phonemes are provided, are omitted, e.g. ”b’tje” (Eng.: “little b”)(phonemically: /bɛ:tjə/). DISC is used as phonemic encoding scheme. All DISC phonemes are included and new phonemes are created for the phonemic symbols which only occur in the Fonilex data base.

Before passing the data through the machine learning program, alignment (Daelemans & van den Bosch, 1996) is performed for the graphemic and phonemic representations of Celex and for those of Fonilex, since the phonemic representation and the spelling of a word often differ in length. Therefore, the phonemic symbols are aligned with the graphemes of the written word form. In case the phonemic transcription is shorter than the spelling, null phonemes (/-/) are used

to fill the gaps. In the example “aalmoezenier” (Eng.: “chaplain”) this results in the following alignment:

Table 1. The use of phonetic null insertion in the word “aalmoezenier”

a	a	l	m	o	e	z	e	n	i	e	r
a:	-	l	m	u:	-	z	ə	n	i:	-	r

A further step in the preparation of the data, consists of the use of an extensive set of so-called “compound phonemes”. Compound phonemes are used whenever graphemes map with more than one phoneme, e.g. the word ‘jubileum’ aligns to /j}bIl]}m/ in which the compound phoneme /j/ stands for /ej/. Both alignment and the use of compound phonemes leads to a corpus consisting of 173,874 word forms or 1,769,891 phonemes for each of the variants.

In order to achieve the grapheme-to-phoneme mapping task, we used different approaches:

1. Training two single classifiers on lexical databases containing examples of the pronunciation of Dutch and Flemish, respectively, using memory-based learning.
2. Training classifiers for each pronunciation variant using the predicted output for the other as an additional information source in
  - a cascaded approach and
  - classifier combination.
3. Trying to improve the results of classifier combination by combining the combination classifiers.

In these experiments, the text-to-pronunciation task is defined as the conversion of fixed-size instances representing the grapheme with a certain context to a class representing the target phoneme, as shown in Table 2, using a technique proposed by Sejnowski and Rosenberg (1987).

Table 2. Example of instances generated from the word “eet” (Eng. “eat”) for the word-pronunciation task in the single classifier training experiment.

left context	focus	right context	classification
= = =	e	e t =	e
= = e	e	t = =	-
= e e	t	= = =	t

In the cascade and classifier combination experiments, the instances contain both graphemic and phonemic information. In this study, we choose a fixed window width of seven, which offers sufficient context information for adequate performance. Extending the window

would make the meta-meta-classifier experiment computationally very costly.

In all experiments, except when explicitly mentioned otherwise, ten-fold cross-validation (Weiss & Kulikowski, 1991) is used as experimental method for error estimation. All experiments, both the component and combination experiments were performed on the same data set partitions for both variants of Dutch. E.g., in the classifier combination experiment, where output of both a classifier trained on Celex and a classifier trained on Fonilex is used as input, this parallel way of working is necessary, since it has to be avoided that one component classifier is trained on data held out in the training of the other component classifier. A non-parallel way of working could lead to over-optimistic accuracies for the classifier combination experiments.

### 3. Learning Dutch Word Pronunciation

In the following subsections a brief introduction is given to each approach, followed by a description of the experiments and a brief discussion of the results.

#### 3.1 Single Classifiers

In order to obtain a high accuracy grapheme-to-phoneme convertor, different approaches were studied. In a first approach, one single classifier is trained on Fonilex and another classifier on Celex.

For this experiment we have made use of Timbl (Daelemans et al., 1999), a software package implementing several memory-based learning (lazy learning) techniques. *Memory-based learning* is a learning method which is based on storing all examples of a task in memory and then classifying new examples by similarity-based reasoning from this memory of examples. The approach is argued to be especially suited for natural language processing (NLP) because of the abundance of sub-regularities and exceptions in most NLP problems (Daelemans, van den Bosch, & Zavrel, 1999), and has been successfully applied to the grapheme-to-phoneme conversion problem before (Daelemans & van den Bosch, 1996). The algorithm used for this experiment is called IB1-IG. IB1-IG (Daelemans et al., 1997) extends the basic k-nn algorithm with information gain ratio (Quinlan, 1991) feature weighting. IB1-IG builds a database of instances during learning. During testing, the distance between a test item and each memory item is defined as the number of features for which they have a different value. IG (information gain ratio) weighting looks at each feature in isolation and measures how much

information it contributes to the reduction of uncertainty about the correct class label. These measures are used as feature weights in computing the distance between items.

In Table 3, an overview is given of the generalisation accuracy using the IB1-IG algorithm on Celex and Fonilex. For Celex, a generalisation accuracy of 99.16% is reached at the phoneme level, and of 93.00% on the word level. For Fonilex, which has a more complex phonemic representation and in which word forms can have more than one phonemic transcription, percentages are lower: IB1-IG correctly classifies 98.18% of the phonemes and 86.37% of the words.

Table 3. Generalisation accuracy on the word and phoneme level of two single classifiers, trained on Celex and Fonilex, respectively. The last column provides the standard deviation on the phoneme level.

	Words	Phonemes	$\pm$
Celex	93.00	99.16	0.03
Fonilex	86.37	98.18	0.04

Apart from the spelling, we did not have additional information to further improve the generalization accuracy. Given that the classifiers for Flemish and Dutch are trying to learn very similar but nevertheless slightly different mappings, we investigate in the next subsection whether the predicted output of the one could help in making more accurate the predicted output of the other to further improve the accuracy of the grapheme-to-phoneme convertors.

### 3.2 Cascade and Classifier Combination

In this section, the experiments in which single classifiers are trained on Celex and Fonilex, respectively, are taken as the basis for various experiments, as displayed in Figure 1. Four different experiments are performed using this point of view. In all experiments, the IB1-IG algorithm, as described in 3.1, is used to perform the text-to-pronunciation mapping task.

- In (i) a single classifier is trained on one of both pronunciation variants; in a second step, the output of this process is used as input for training another classifier for the other variant.
- In (ii), the same information is used, but the spelling information, together with the predicted output of the classifier trained on the *other variant* in the experiment described in 3.1 is used as an input pattern for a second classifier.
- In (iii), spelling information together with the output of *both* classifiers described in Section 3.1., is given to train a classifier.

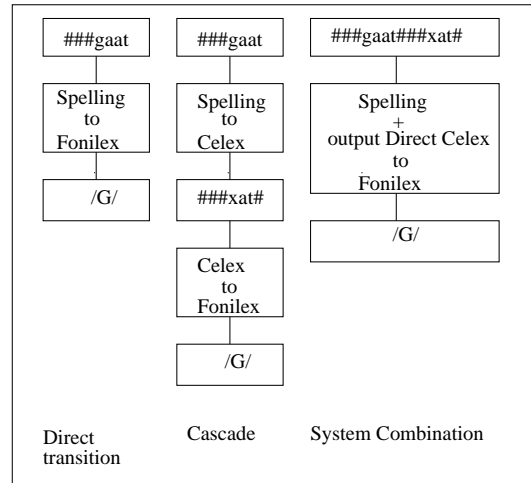


Figure 1. Architecture of three different approaches applied to the Fonilex phonemic transcription: training a single classifier for Fonilex, training a classifier for Fonilex using the predicted output for Celex as an additional information source in a cascade and in classifier combination.

In Table 4, an overview is given of the generalisation accuracy of the different classifiers. The combination classifier which generates the highest percentage of generalisation errors is indicated in bold.

Table 4. Generalisation accuracy of the cascaded approach and classifier combination.

CELEX	Words	Phonemes	$\pm$
(i)	92.90	99.10	0.04
(ii)	94.18	99.28	0.03
(iii)	<b>95.16</b>	<b>99.40</b>	0.02
FONILEX			
(i)	87.58	98.29	0.03
(ii)	88.03	98.36	0.03
(iii)	<b>91.55</b>	<b>98.89</b>	0.04

For both Celex and Fonilex, the experiment in which spelling and predicted output for both problems are combined in a meta-classifier yields the highest accuracy: 99.40% on the phoneme level for Celex and 98.89% for Fonilex, corresponding with 95.16% and 91.55% respectively at the word level. Interestingly, adding a classifier in the combination having learned a particular task (e.g. Flemish) can help boost performance on a different but similar task (Dutch).

### 3.3 Combining the Combination Classifiers

In this section we further explore the use of system combination in the grapheme-to-phoneme conversion

task by combining combined classifiers, as displayed in Figure 2.

Four different meta-classifiers are used, viz. C5.O (described in Section 4), IB1-IG (described in 3.1), IGTREE (Daelemans, van den Bosch, & Weijters, 1997) and MACCENT.<sup>1</sup> IGTREE is an optimised approximation of the instance-based learning algorithm IB1-IG. In IGTREE, the database of instances is compressed into a decision tree, consisting of paths of connected nodes ending in leaves which contain classification information. Information gain is used to determine the order in which the feature values are added as arcs to the tree. The last meta-classifier, MACCENT, is an implementation of maximum entropy modeling allowing symbolic features as input. The package takes care of the translation of symbolic values to binary feature vectors, and implements the iterative scaling approach to finding the probabilistic model.

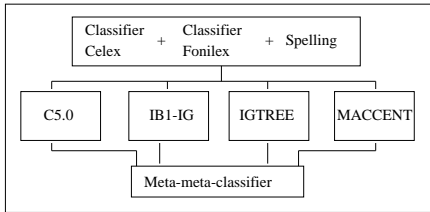


Figure 2. Architecture of the meta-meta-learning process. Component meta-classifiers are C5.O, IB1-IG, IGTREE, MACCENT

The results of these four combination classifiers are used to train a so-called “meta-meta-classifier”, for the training of which IB1-IG is used. The reasoning behind this experiment is that the same way a meta-classifier can overcome some of the errors of different “object-classifiers” learning a similar task, a “meta-meta-classifier” should be able to do the same for meta-classifiers. In these experiments, the combination classifiers are trained on spelling information together with the output of both object classifiers described in Section 3.1. The predictions of the four stacked classifiers are then fed to a new combination classifier.

In this section we reported research on the generation of a maximally accurate phonemic representation for both Dutch and Flemish reflecting the pronunciation of a given word on the basis of its orthographic representation. In order to obtain high accuracy automatic annotation, different approaches were used. These ex-

<sup>1</sup>Details on how to obtain Maccent can be found on: <http://www.cs.kuleuven.ac.be/~ldh/>

Table 5. Generalisation accuracy of each meta-classifier and the meta-meta-classifier (indicated by “IB1-IG-meta”).

CELEX	Words	Phonemes	$\pm$
(C5.0)	93.03	99.16	0.03
(IB1-IG)	95.16	99.40	0.02
(IGTREE)	94.94	99.37	0.03
(MACCENT)	92.07	99.03	0.05
(IB1-IG-meta)	<b>95.53</b>	<b>99.45</b>	0.02
<b>FONILEX</b>			
(C5.0)	88.41	98.48	0.05
(IB1-IG)	91.55	98.89	0.04
(IGTREE)	91.33	98.85	0.04
(MACCENT)	87.27	98.28	0.04
(IB1-IG-meta)	<b>92.25</b>	<b>98.99</b>	0.03

periments showed that the memory-based learning algorithms performed well on the text-to-pronunciation mapping task. Training single classifiers on both variants of Dutch already resulted in generalisation accuracies of about 99% at the phoneme level for Celex and 98% for Fonilex (93% and 86% at the word level respectively). Making use of classifier combination with information predicted by a classifier for the other pronunciation variant led to further reductions of the error at the word level of about 31% for Celex and 38% for Fonilex to which meta-meta-learning added a limited but significant additional reduction (5%). The already high accuracy level for single classifiers is boosted significantly using combination of classifiers and combination of meta-learners. With this high level of accuracy, automatic phonemic conversion becomes an increasingly more useful annotation tool.

## 4. Rule Induction

Apart from being after high accuracy, we are also interested in insight into the linguistic regularities governing the differences between the two regional variants of Dutch. Using rule induction techniques, we investigate whether machine learning techniques reproduce the theoretical analysis of linguists, and whether rules can be induced that accurately translate one variant into the other.

### 4.1 Experiments

We first focus on the question whether it is possible to predict one variant on the basis of the phonemic representation of the other. Our starting point is the assumption that the differences in the phonemic transcriptions between Flemish and Dutch are highly systematic, and can be represented in a set of rules, which provide linguistic insight into the overlap and discrep-

ancies between both variants. Moreover, they can be used to adapt pronunciation databases for Dutch automatically to Flemish and vice versa. In our experiment we used two rule induction techniques, viz. Transformation-based error-driven learning (TBEDL) (Brill, 1995), a learning method popular in NLP, and the well-known C5.0 (Quinlan, 1993).

In *TBEDL*, transformation rules are learned by comparing a corpus that is annotated by an initial-state annotator to a correctly annotated corpus, which is called the “truth”. In this study, the Fonilex representation functions as “truth”, and the Celex representation as initial-state annotation. The task is to learn how to transform Celex representations into Fonilex representations (i.e., translate Dutch pronunciation to Flemish pronunciation). Rule induction is greedy, is triggered by differences between the initial-state representations and the truth, and constrained by a number of user-defined patterns restricting the context. This learning process results in an ordered list of transformation rules which reflects the systematic differences between both representations. A rule is read as: “change x (Celex) into y (Fonilex) in the following triggering environment”. E.g.,

```
/i:/ /ɪ/ NEXT 1 OR 2 OR 3 PHON /e:/
(change a tense /i/ to a lax /i/ when one of the
three following Celex phonemes is a tense /e/).
```

*C5.0*, on the other hand, which is a commercial version of the C4.5 program, generates a classifier in the form of a decision tree. Since decision trees can be hard to read, the decision tree is converted to a set of production rules, which are more intelligible to the user. The rules have the form “L -> R”, in which the left-hand side is a conjunction of attribute-based tests and the right-hand side is a class. When classifying a case, the list of rules is examined to find the first rule whose left-hand side satisfies the case. In this experiment we have made use of a context of three phonemes preceding (indicated by f-1, f-2, and f-3) and following (f+1, f+2, f+3) the focus phoneme, which is indicated by an ‘f’. The predicted class for this case is then the right-hand side of the rule. At the top of the rule the number of training cases covered by the rule is given together with the number of cases that do not belong to the class predicted by the rule. The “lift” is the estimated accuracy of the rule divided by the prior probability of the predicted class. E.g.,

```
(6422/229, lift 79.0)
f = i:
f+1 in {m, b, t, r, k, ŋ, ʎ, f, n, v, h, d, l, p,
s, z, ʃ, (...)}
-> class ɪ [0.964]
```

In *TBEDL*, the complete training set of 90% was used

for learning the transformation rules. A threshold of 15 errors was specified, which means that learning stops if the error reduction lies under that threshold. For the C5.0 experiment, 50% (796,841 cases) of the original training set served as training set (more training data was computationally not feasible on our hardware). A decision tree model and a production rule model were built from the training cases. The tree gave rise to 671 rules, which were applied to the original 10% test set we used in the Brill experiment. In order to make the type of task comparable for the transformation based approach used by *TBEDL*, in the classification-based approach used in *C5.0*, the output class to be predicted by *C5.0* was either ‘0’ when the Celex and Fonilex phoneme are identical (i.e. no change), or the Fonilex phoneme when Celex and Fonilex differ (mimicking a transformation approach).

Table 6 gives an overview of the overlap between Celex and Fonilex after application of both rule induction techniques. A comparison of these results shows that, when evaluating both *TBEDL* and *C5.0* on the test set, the transformation rules learned by the Brill-tagger have a higher error rate, even when *C5.0* is only trained on half the data used by *TBEDL*. On the word level, the initial overlap of 55.25% is raised to 83.01% after application of the 430 transformation rules, and to 85.93% when using the *C5.0* rules. On the phoneme level, the 92.20% of the initial overlap is increased to 97.74% (*TBEDL*) and 98.14% (*C5.0*). A closer analysis of the rules produced during *TBEDL* reveals that the first 50 rules lead to a considerable increase of performance from 55.25% to 76.19% on the word level and from 92.20% to 96.62% on the phoneme level, which indicates the high applicability of these rules. Afterwards, the increase of accuracy is more gradual: from 76.19% to 83.01% (words) and from 96.62% to 97.74% (phonemes).

Table 6. Overlap between Celex and Fonilex after application of all transformation rules and *C5.0* production rules.

	Words	Phonemes
<i>TBEDL</i>	83.01	97.74
<i>C5.0</i>	85.93	98.14

When looking only at those cases where Celex and Fonilex differ, we see that it is possible to learn transformation rules which predict 62.0% of the differences at the word level and 71.0% of the differences at the phoneme level. The *C5.0* rules are more or less 5-7% more accurate: 68.6% (words) and 76.2% (phonemes). It is indeed possible to reliably ‘translate’ Dutch into Flemish. These results, however, are below the results generated in the preceding experiment where

there is a direct transition from spelling to Fonilex and from spelling to Celex. The rule-induction process described above requires a first component which does the transition from spelling to the phonemic Celex transcription. In order to obtain a Fonilex transcription, the rules generated by TBEDL or C5.0 are applied to the output of the first component.

## 4.2 Linguistic Regularities

In this section we will discuss some example rules generated for consonants and vowels. Starting point is the first ten rules that were learned during TBEDL, which will be compared with the ten C5.0 rules, which most reduce the error rate.

### 4.2.1 CONSONANTS

Nearly half of the differences on the consonant level concerns the alternation between voiced and unvoiced consonants. In this group, the alternation between /x/ and /ɣ/ is the most frequent one. In the word “gelijkaardig” (Eng.: “equal”), for example, we find a /xələika:rdəx/ with a voiceless velar fricative in Dutch and /ɣələika:rdəx/ with a voiced velar fricative in Flemish. The word “machiavellisme” (Eng.: “Machiavellism”) is pronounced as /mɑɣi:ja:vəlɪsmə/ in Dutch and as /makɪjəvəlɪzmə/ in Flemish.

This alternation also is the subject of the first transformation rule that was learned, namely “x ɣ PREV 1 OR 2 PHON STAART” which can be read as “/x/ changes into /ɣ/ in case of a word beginning one or two positions before”. When looking at the ten most important C5.0 rules, this alternation is described in:

```
(6814/27, lift 109.5)
f-1 in {=, ε;}
f = x
-> class ɣ [0.996]
```

Another important phenomenon is the use of palatalisation in Flemish, as in the word “aaitje” (Eng.: “stroke”), where Fonilex uses the palatalized form /ɑ:jtʃə/ instead of /ɑ:jtjə/. This change is also described by both top ten Brill and C5.0 rules.

### 4.2.2 VOWELS

The most frequent difference at the vowel level between Dutch and Flemish concerns the use of a lax vowel instead of a tense vowel for the /i:/, /e:/, /a:/, /o:/ and /u:/. Tense Celex-vowels not only correspond with tense, but also with lax vowels in Fonilex. Other less frequent differences are glide insertion, e.g. in “geschaket” and the use of schwa instead of another vowel,

as in “teleprocessing” in Flemish.

Five out of the first ten transformation rules indicate a transition from a tense vowel into a lax vowel in a certain triggering environment. A closer look at the top ten C5.0 production rules shows that seven rules describe this transition from a Celex tense vowel to a Fonilex lax vowel. An example is the word “multipliceer” (Eng.: “multiply”) which is transcribed as /mʌltɪrplɪsɛ:r/ in Celex and as /mʌltɪplɪsɛ:r/ in Fonilex. The change of the second /i:/ into a /ɪ/ is described in the following transformation rule: “/i:/ changes into /ɪ/ if the NEXT 1 OR 2 OR 3 PHON is an /e:/. The corresponding C5.0 rule describing this phenomenon is the following:

```
(7758/623, lift 75.4)
f = i:
f+1 in {m, b, t, k, ɣ, f, n, v, d, p, s, z, g}
f+2 in {m, ɔ, t, r, k, y, a, f, i:, e:, n, (...)}
-> class ɪ [0.920]
```

These rules, describing the differences between Dutch and Flemish consonants and vowels also make linguistic sense. Linguistic literature, such as (Booij, 1995) indicates tendencies such as voicing and devoicing on the consonant level and the confusion of tense and lax vowels as important differences between Dutch and Flemish. The same discrepancies are found in the transcriptions made by Flemish subjects in the Dutch transcription experiments described in Gillis (1999).

## 5. Conclusion and Future Work

The development of accurate and understandable annotation tools is of prime importance in current Natural Language Processing research, which is based to a large extent on the development of reliable corpora. We discussed the task of phonemic annotation in such a large-scale corpus development project. We were able to show that for this text-to-pronunciation task, machine learning techniques provide an excellent approach to bootstrapping the annotation and modeling the linguistic knowledge involved. We do not know of any approach based on hand-crafting with similar or better accuracy for grapheme-to-phoneme conversion for Dutch.

We were both interested in optimal accuracy and in obtaining increased insight into the linguistic regularities involved. We have empirically examined whether combination of different systems (in this case classifiers trained on different variants of Dutch) enables us to raise the performance ceiling which can be observed when using data driven systems. A comparison of the results of training single classifiers and the use of a meta-classifier indeed indicates a significant decrease

in error of 31% Dutch and 38% for Flemish. Going one step further, namely combining the combination classifiers results in an additional error decrease of 5% for both Flemish and Dutch.

The use of rule induction techniques to predict one variant on the basis of the phonemic transcription of the other variant, on the other hand, generates more generalisation errors. However, This rule induction process leads to an increased insight into the systematic differences between both variants of Dutch.

In the text-to-pronunciation task, described in this study, disambiguation in context is required, which is also the case for other problems in language processing, such as tagging and chunking. Therefore, we plan to explore whether combining classifiers and combining combined classifiers can lead to accuracy boosts for these other NLP problems as well. We will also investigate other methods that have proved to be promising combination methods for our task (e.g. Naive Bayes). A possible limitation of the current approach may be that different tasks can only be combined when they are very similar (in this case pronunciation prediction of two related dialects), a situation which may be rare.

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