

# All, and only, the errors: more complete and consistent spelling and OCR-error correction evaluation

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## Abstract

Some time in the future, some spelling error correction system will correct all the errors, and only the errors. We need evaluation metrics that will tell us when this has been achieved and that can help guide us there. We survey the current practice in the form of the evaluation scheme of the latest major publication on spelling correction in a leading journal. We are forced to conclude that while the metric used there can tell us exactly when the ultimate goal of spelling correction research has been achieved, it offers little in the way of directions to be followed to eventually get there. We propose to consistently use the well-known metrics Recall and Precision, as combined in the F score, on 5 possible levels of measurement that should guide us more informedly along that path. We describe briefly what is then measured or measurable at these levels and propose a framework that should allow for concisely stating what it is one performs in one's evaluations. We finally contrast our preferred metrics to Accuracy, which is widely used in this field to this day and to the Area-Under-the-Curve, which is increasingly finding acceptance in other fields.

## 1. Introduction

Some day one will be able to run a text through a computer program and be confident that all lexical inadequacies, inaccuracies or downright errors, regardless of their origin, have been removed. Which evaluation metric is capable of eventually telling us this day has arrived? This is what we explore in this paper. Obviously, this perfect spelling corrector will need to have these features: not only will it have to be able to unerringly classify errors as errors, given their particular context, and to correct these, but it will also have to be able to decide that given its context a particular word string is correct (even if erroneous, when viewed out of its particular context) and is to be left untouched. So we will need to use metrics that tell us how well a system corrects the errors, and only the errors.

This paper focuses on consistent **metrics** for evaluating spelling checking and correction systems (further: SCCs), by which we mean not solely systems for the correction of human-made spelling errors and typographical mistakes: the framework we propose is also straightforwardly applicable to the evaluation of OCR post-correction systems. Whatever their origin, we simply refer to all distinguishable error types as 'errors'.

This paper focuses solely on the metrics for evaluating SCCs. More aspects of evaluation are indeed important, in our opinion, not least the test sets used, how these were acquired, whether they represent real-world data or fabricated data, how large the sets are and what they are composed of. We leave these topics for a future paper, but the interested reader is referred to (Reynaert, 2005) where these aspects are treated to greater or lesser extent.

In Section 2 we take an introductory look at current practice in the field. In Section 3 we introduce the task, the measures and the metrics we propose to be used. In Section 4 we describe and motivate how we would evaluate SCCs. For fear of kicking in open doors, we present what we take

to be a straightforward approach to measuring various levels of performance of an SCC and stress that reporting on fully automatic spelling error correction should include reporting on how the system performs with respect to non-erroneous word forms. In Section 5 we revisit the topic of current practice and outline how and why we think evaluations based on our framework are more informative. In Section 6 we study related work on the evaluation of SCCs in (Starlander and Popescu-Belis, 2002) and (van Huyssteen et al., 2004) and contrast their main proposals with our own. Section 7 briefly contrasts the metrics we propose to be used to Accuracy, the metric employed most often in the evaluation of SCCs, and to the Area-Under-the-Curve, another metric which in other fields is gaining more and more acceptance. Section 8 concludes this paper.

## 2. Current Practice

We take it that current practice in the evaluation of SCCs is best exemplified by the latest major publication on spelling correction in a leading journal. In Section 10 of (Ringlstetter et al., 2006), the authors report on experiments geared at the fully automated correction of English web-documents using different web-crawled domain dictionaries. The full test text contains 17,697 tokens, of which 418 (2.36%) were found to be erroneous on the basis of a manually created corrected version (gold standard) of the text. Evaluation results are listed in a table, containing the numbers of entries in the specific dictionaries, the coverage (in percentages, defined as: 'percentage of tokens of the correct version of the input text found in the dictionary'), the correction accuracy (in percentages, defined as: 'percentage of correct tokens after automated correction'), the improvement in accuracy (in percentages, qualified by: 'taking the input text as a baseline') and the 'false friends' (in real numbers, defined as 'erroneous tokens of the text that – by accident – represent entries of the crawled dictionaries').

So what is done here is to take the text to be corrected and to measure the percentage to which this original text is accurate on the basis of comparison with the gold standard. Then to have the text corrected automatically by the system and finally to measure the percentage of the accuracy of the resulting text. This does indeed tell us how far we are from the actual goal that is pursued, the measure of inaccuracy of the corrected text states precisely how many percentages we are from a perfectly correct text. However, this is not at all informative in terms of the number of actual errors that were corrected, nor about the numbers of already correct words in the text that were replaced by other words from the dictionary. In fact, this does not tell one where the system’s weaknesses and strengths lie and how one might proceed towards the ultimate goal of obtaining perfect accuracy. In the next Section we propose how both these aspects of an SCC’s performance can be measured more precisely and more informatively. The point we want to make here is that this particular corrected text is still 1.26% inaccurate. Granted, the input text was less accurate at 97,64%, but was actually chosen for its degree of inaccuracy. Nevertheless, most well-edited texts have far greater accuracy, e.g. the accuracy of a novel containing 200,000 words, one of which being a single typesetting error, would in fact be 99,9995%. Still, one would like to see that single error corrected automatically some day. And none of the other words changed. This is a hard task, of which none of the systems available today is in fact capable. The metrics we propose next allow for precise measuring of the actual performance of SCCs on the task and help one to see more clearly the strengths and weaknesses of the particular system evaluated, pointing out more clearly the way to possible future improvement.

### 3. Evaluation metrics

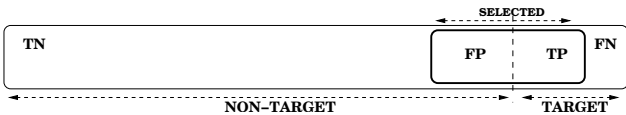


Figure 1: Schematic representation of the task faced by a spelling error detection and correction system.

We start by presenting what we see as the task faced by an SCC. This view is biased. We will motivate our particular bias at the beginning of Section 6. Figure 1 gives a graphic representation of the task. The large box represents the set of word strings in a text or language. The typically much larger, left portion depicts the correct or acceptable word forms, the smaller portion to the right the incorrect or unacceptable word forms. The dashed line between both represents the fact that the boundary between these two categories is not always razor-sharp: what is and what is not correct depends on the definition of ‘correctness’ used. Words to the left of the boundary are non-target items for spelling error correction, the words to the right form the target. The diagram therefore describes the problem of distinguishing between correct words (the non-target) and incorrect words (the target). The system selects or retrieves a set of words of which it assumes that they are incorrect (the selected set). The intersection between the selected

	Target	Non-target	
Selected	TP	FP	
Not selected	FN	TN	
Totals	P	N	TOTAL

Table 1: Confusion matrix. P = positive, N = negative T = true, F = false.

set and the target set defines the set of incorrect words correctly identified as such and corrected (True Positives or TPs). Non-selected non-target items form the set of True Negatives or TNs, which typically forms the majority class and often displays great skew. The False Positives or FPs are those items retrieved that are in fact correct word forms. The part of the target which was not retrieved by the system forms the set of False Negatives or FNs. The aim of any SCC will be to maximize the overlap between the target and selected sets, achieving perfection when this is 100%. Achievement on this task can be measured on two levels: on the level of the word **types** present and on the level of the word **tokens** present. The skew in the distribution of correct versus incorrect word types will be all the larger when the measurement is taken on the level of the word tokens.

The interrelations between True and False Positives and Negatives are conventionally represented in a confusion matrix (often referred to as a contingency table). This is shown in Table 1. From the confusion matrix many metrics can be derived. We propose our framework on the basis of Recall and Precision because the process of spelling error detection and correction has a lot in parallel with the processes involved in information retrieval, in the framework of which these metrics were developed by (van Rijsbergen, 1975). Other candidate metrics, notably Accuracy and the Area-under-the-Curve (AUC), will briefly be discussed in Section 7.

From the TP, FN and FP we can derive Recall and Precision as follows (Manning and Schütze, 1999) (p. 268-269):

$$\text{Recall} = \mathbf{R} = \frac{TP}{TP+FN} \quad \text{Precision} = \mathbf{P} = \frac{TP}{TP+FP}$$

Since we deem Recall and Precision to be equally important, the harmonic mean of R and P, the simplified F measure, F, is given by:

$$\text{F score} = \mathbf{F} = \frac{2 \times R \times P}{R + P}$$

In fact the confusion matrix represents the full ‘universe’ of an evaluation. As such, it can be used to help guide the evaluation process. This is perhaps best illustrated by an example where the evaluators were led astray. (Schaback and Li, 2007) start their piece on evaluation by writing they ‘base their evaluation on precision and recall measures as if spell checking were a retrieval task’. This creates false expectations because their definition of ‘precision’ is incompatible with the standard definition: ‘preciseness’ might have been a possible term for what they measure. We will not needlessly repeat their definition here. Suffice it to say that they evaluate and compare systems on the basis of a list of errors. However, correction candidates (further: CCs) for non-target items can only be retrieved when the system is

faced with the full task, i.e. when given not only a list of incorrect word forms to correct, but also correct word forms, so that for every item in the list the decision must be made whether or not it needs correcting. When the system then reports that a correct item is incorrect and ‘corrects’ it, it changes a non-target item into a target item and creates a False Positive. This will cost Precision points. One of the reasons why the definition of Precision handled by these authors is not valid is because the sum of the numbers observed for TPS, FNS and FPS should always be equal to the number of items selected or retrieved and the sum of TPS and FNS should correspond exactly to the target, i.e. the known number of errors in the particular test set. We will call this the ‘sum’ test.

They are not alone in erring here, we have done so in (Reynaert, 2005). On page 107 we stated: ‘The score for False Positives, i.e. Precision errors, is incremented in the same manner by the type’s token frequency for those types for which the system returns correction candidates, but where the correct one is missing . . .’. In so far that these are in fact errors that are not corrected and therefore already counted as False Negatives, this was plain wrong. For the record, the actual number of cases affected by this was very small (i.e.: 3) in our test set and any effect in the scores reported rounded to the nearest thousandth should be obliterated by rounding to the nearest hundredth. In any case, the simple ‘sum’ test described above should help evaluators to avoid this kind of painful mistake.

#### 4. Evaluation Framework Proposal

We propose a framework for evaluation firmly based on the contingency matrix at all levels of evaluation. The task an SCC is set to perform can be thought of as existing on different levels, representing the subtasks. In the scheme we propose, performance can be measured at each level by means of the same metrics. We discern the following 5 levels:

1. Core-correction mechanism: how well is the algorithm capable of handling all the types of errors the system is said to be able to tackle? This amounts to measuring the numbers of TPS and FNS.
2. Error detection: how well is the algorithm capable of distinguishing between what is erroneous and what is not? How many true and how many false alarms are raised? This amounts to measuring the numbers of TPS, FNS and FPS.
3. Suggesting correction candidates: how often is the correct CC among the set of CCs? This amounts to measuring the number of TPS in the set of CCs, those not present being FNS. The number of FPS is as determined on Level 2.
4. N-best ranking: how often is the correct CC among the n-best ranked CCs? This gives the (in comparison to the previous level: likely smaller) number of TPS, the rest are the FNS. The number of FPS is as determined on Level 2.
5. First-best ranking: how often is the correct CC among the first-best ranked CCs? or: how often is the only CC

returned the correct one? This gives the (in comparison to the previous levels: likely even smaller) number of TPS, the rest are the FNS. The number of FPS is as determined on Level 2.

We denote the core-correction mechanism as the first level because we regard it as the only level on which it is sufficient to evaluate on lists containing errors only. All other levels, in our opinion, demand evaluation on both correct and incorrect word forms. On whatever level tested, in this framework, the actual formulae employed to measure do not differ. All that differs is the subtasks involved in the various levels, each subtask of a lower level being implied in the next and performance failures at the lower levels naturally percolating through to the higher. If the core-correction mechanism cannot handle errors at e.g. Levenshtein distance 4 (further: LD, (Levenshtein, 1966)), errors of that type will never be corrected by the system that is based on it.

One may well think that an error needs to be detected before it can be corrected and argue that detection should be denoted Level 1. This is in fact contradicted by common practice in spelling correction research where in fact the system is often evaluated only on its correction capabilities, by presenting it with a list of errors only. Highly influential and interesting examples of this practice are (Brill and Moore, 2000), (Toutanova and Moore, 2002). We regard detection as Level 2 in the evaluation of SCCs, because this is where two components, i.e. the correction mechanism and the detection mechanism work in concert and should be evaluated in concert. In fact, the detection of CCs is often a concomitant of the correction mechanism. The point is that when an SCC is equipped with a more powerful correction mechanism, i.e. with a higher reach in terms of LD it can cover, it will retrieve more CCs, retrieving actual typos which lie at greater LD from their correct version, but also more False Positives, e.g. existing words not present in the dictionary which resemble in-dictionary words within the particular LD.

Depending on the level at which an evaluation is to be performed, the test set required may differ. We will further refer to evaluations on lists of errors only as the **limited task** and evaluations by means of word frequency lists or running text containing both correct and incorrect words as the **full task**. The ratio between correct and incorrect words present should then be stated. We see both limited and full as legitimate evaluation operations, but think that the limited task is more suited to developers of say new ‘core-correction’ mechanisms, while the full task should be performed when a full system covering all aspects of the process is presented and claims are made towards automatic spelling correction or comparisons between systems are made.

Fig. 2 lists only global types of evaluations. The scores thus obtained are in fact all accumulated or cumulative scores. These global tests can be further refined to zoom in on more specific, local aspects of a system’s performance. For developers it may well be very rewarding to study how their system behaves as regards errors that are at different LDs to their correct form. Also it may be revealing how the system behaves in relation to short words in comparison to

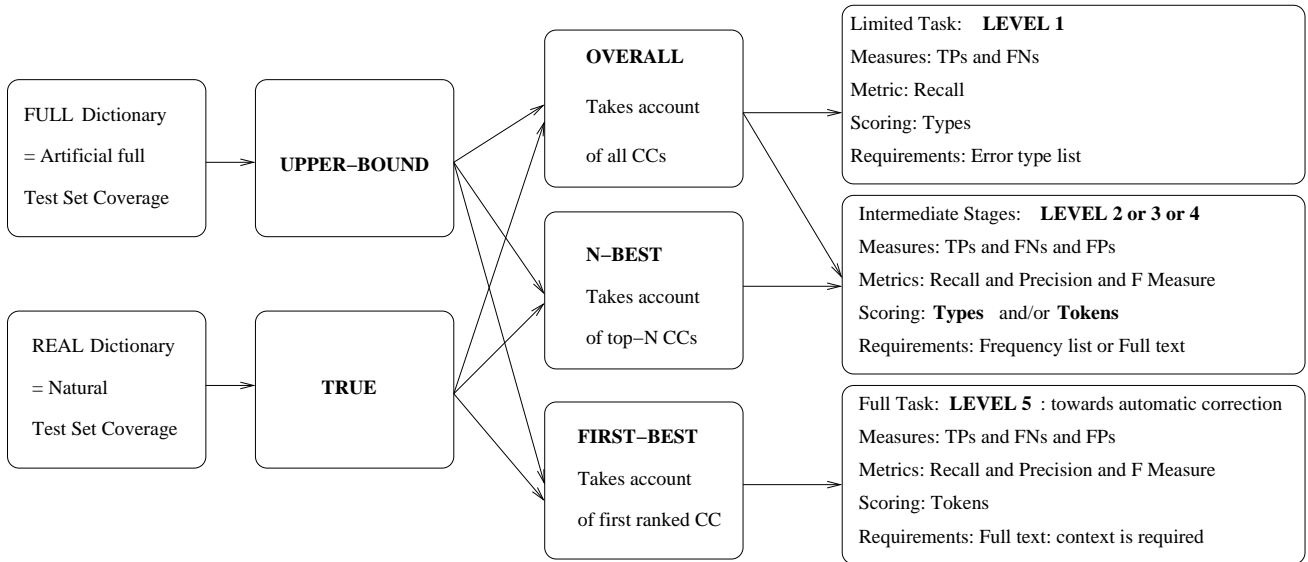


Figure 2: Evaluation Framework

longer words, i.e. by measuring these scores by (ranges) of word length(s). In diagnostic tests on the level of the core-correction mechanism, it may be revealing to separately test on the various types of errors. We distinguish between the following evaluation subtypes:

- To effectively remove the effect of dictionary shortcomings on a system’s scores, one may add all the correct word forms for the errors to be corrected to the system’s spelling dictionary. This allows for measuring the upper bound on correction attainable by a particular system to be measured and we therefore refer to this as the **upper bound score**, which is to be reported for **types**.
- The scores achieved without ensuring that all the correct forms are in the dictionary, i.e. with the system’s ‘natural’ dictionary, we then refer to as the **true scores**, which are to be reported for **types**.
- When we measure the scores without taking into account the ranking of the CCs we call these the **overall scores**. These may be reported for the upper bounds or for the true scores, for **types** and/or for **tokens**.
- One may wish to measure and report scores on a particular rank, e.g. measure how often the correct CC is returned within the first  $n$  ranked candidates. This can be called the **n-best ranking score** and can be reported for **types** and/or for **tokens**.
- When we focus on best-first ranking of the candidates and measure those that effectively are ranked with the desired candidate (given the context) presented as the first or only CC, we measure the **first-best ranking scores**. When context is fully taken into account this requires reporting on **tokens**, but this can be reported on **types** for correction experiments on very large corpora as e.g. in (Reynaert, 2008).

In scoring on types, each type gives one TP or FN or FP. In scoring on tokens, the type’s token frequency in the text

determines the total number of TPs and/or FNs and/or FPs as dictated by each token’s context and the particular (n-best) CC(s) proposed by the system.

## 5. Current practice revisited

We posit that no lexicon can ever be complete. A fuller discussion of this can be found in (Reynaert, 2005). A system encountering a word absent from its dictionary will try to correct it and will suggest correction candidates. This needs measuring. It is not really sufficient to only state how many items the system’s dictionary contains and what percentage of a given evaluation text is thereby covered. It is necessary to state how the system deals with words it does not have in its dictionary and to measure this. Precision is strongly determinative of a system’s ‘fitness’ for automatic correction. We have known at least since (Pollock and Zamora, 1984) (p. 104) that ‘Automatic correction requires a much more precise detection phase than manual correction and, surprisingly, it seems easier to achieve high accuracy in correction than in detection.’ Furthermore, if one measures Precision, one thereby also measures the lexical coverage of a system, although indirectly.

In the concisely storable terms of the framework we have just proposed, (Ringstetter et al., 2006) perform a True, First-Best, Level 5 evaluation on Tokens. Given the information in the article, we cannot know exactly what their scores in terms of the metrics we propose are. We are given information about the True Positives, however. In view of the accuracy of the corrected text, 1.26% or 223 (rounded to the nearest whole number) of the 17,697 tokens in the test set remain uncorrected by the best system. At this point we do not know whether these are true errors which the system failed to correct, i.e. False Negatives, or correct words, which the system replaced by other words from its dictionary, i.e. False Positives. Nevertheless, given that there were originally 418 errors in the test set, 195 errors, the True Positives, were in fact corrected.

The system proposes correction candidates for unknown words and it is explained that the system uses a threshold

parameter to decide whether or not to accept the most likely correction candidate or to let the original word form stand. We are not given actual performance scores for this variable threshold. If the system in fact replaces the unknown correct words by other correct words, it creates real-word errors in the text. In terms of our proposal, these should be seen as False Positives. The rest are then uncorrected true typos, the False Negatives. We would in fact very much like to learn how the variable threshold in practice performs, as it is very similar to the ‘Zipf Filters’ we have proposed in (Reynaert, 2005). In terms of our proposal, a full evaluation of this kind of work would entail first a Level 1 evaluation in order to assess how many of the real-life errors in the test text are in fact covered by the error dictionaries used by the system. Second, a Level 2 evaluation to assess the performance of the threshold set at a particular level in order to see how many of the CCs retrieved are in fact retained and the actual correction effected in the text and to simultaneously assess how often this is performed when the word replaced was actually correct to begin with. Finally, a Level 5 evaluation to assess the first-best ranking achieved.

## 6. Related Approaches to SCC Evaluation

As stated at the beginning of Section 3, there is an obvious bias in our description of the task an SCC is set to perform in that we unhesitatingly denote as the target the non-words in the list or text to be corrected. Indeed, there appears no reason why one cannot denote the correct words in the text as the target. In fact, (van Huyssteen et al., 2004) propose to measure Recall and Precision on both the correct and incorrect word forms. We see no good point in this, because the incorrect forms are typically outnumbered by the correct ones, thereby constituting the minority class. Given very large skew, scores on the majority class are likely in the upper reaches of the scale and far less distinctive between systems than scores on the minority class. Another good reason is that while incorrect or unacceptable word forms can be pretty well defined, whatever the definition of correctness actually applied, it is a lot harder to rigorously define the correct class of word forms as it is in fact an open class.

Further, the authors refer to an EAGLES specification that a metric should ‘constantly provide the same results when applied to the same phenomena’ (EAGLES-I, 1996). They argue that huge differences in results in two of their scores obtained by a single spelling checker on three different texts, differing both in length and percentages of errors present, ‘motivate the need to re-evaluate current best-practices in the evaluation of spelling checkers’. The way we see things, texts differing in length and error percentages are simply not ‘the same phenomena’ and metrics should reflect the fact. The metrics we propose, do.

The approach advocated here allows for analysing at the various levels where a system’s strengths and weaknesses lie. This is not in the words of (Starlander and Popescu-Belis, 2002) ‘unfairly penalizing a system twice for the same mistake’ which leads them and (van Huyssteen et al., 2004) to not measure Precision at the correction level. This forces them to look for new, less concise metrics to measure

the higher levels of a system’s performance. Our approach simply takes into account level by level what went right and what wrong providing intermediate scores with real diagnostic value and leading to a final score with real interpretive value about a system’s true overall performance.

## 7. Accuracy, F measure and AUC

As we have seen, very often in spelling correction research it is stated that what is measured is Accuracy. Accuracy is another of the metrics derivable from the confusion matrix presented in Section 3 and is defined as follows:

$$\text{Accuracy} = A = \frac{TP+TN}{P+N}$$

To determine Accuracy the system is then tested on lists containing erroneous word forms only. In that case there are no negative cases and the formula for accuracy reduces to  $\frac{TP}{P}$ . This is also known as the True Positive Rate. In that P equals TP + FN, what is then in fact measured is Recall, **R**, as in a Level 1 test in our framework.

In discussing Accuracy versus the F measure, (Manning and Schütze, 1999) (page 270, Table 8.1.b) show that identical Accuracy scores may nevertheless translate into increasing F measure values, because Accuracy is sensitive only to the number of classification errors and the F measure is biased towards maximizing the TPs. In the same vein we have in (Reynaert, 2005) looked in depth at the **area under the ROC curve** or AUC first advocated by (Bradley, 1997).

The AUC is a single scalar value between 0.0 and 1.0 representing a system’s performance. The AUC is a reduction of a Receiver Operating Characteristic or ROC curve depicting performance. A ROC curve is obtained by plotting the systems’ False Positive Rates on the X-axis and the True Positive Rates on the Y-axis (Fawcett, 2003). ROC curves are insensitive to changes in class distribution. In that the AUC is derived from these, it too should be insensitive. To calculate the AUC we need to know the True and False Positive Rates of a system.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{True Positive Rate} &= tpr = \frac{TP}{P} \\ \text{False Positive Rate} &= fpr = \frac{FP}{N} \end{aligned}$$

The formula for the AUC of a single discrete classifier is (as derived from (Fawcett, 2003):

$$\text{Area under the curve} = \mathbf{AUC} = ((0.5 * (tpr * fpr)) + (tpr * (1.0 - fpr)) + (0.5 * ((1.0 - tpr) * (1.0 - fpr))))$$

Now, consider these two hypothetical correction systems: for a 10,000 token text containing 1% of typos, i.e. 100 typos, system A returns the full 10,000 item list with 100 best-first ranked corrections. System B returns only 100 items with 50 best-first ranked CCs. The scores are listed in Table 2. It can be seen that in terms of the AUC both systems are near equivalent, with a score which is halfway between random and perfect behaviour. The F score for system B tells us that the job was half done. For system A the F score clearly indicates that this is not so, with Precision stating the obvious fact that the full list returned is a hundred times longer than the one returned by system B.

System	Ret.	Cor.	R	P	F	AUC
1-best True Scores						
A	10,000	100	1	0.01	0.02	0.750
B	100	50	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.747

Table 2: Results for two hypothetical correctors on the basis of a fictitious 10,000 word token text containing 100 typos. Shown are items returned (Ret.), items corrected (Cor.), Recall (R), Precision (P), F score (F) and AUC. Reproduced from (Reynaert, 2005).

System B thus requires only one hundredth times the work to get half the job done right than system A requires to get the full job done. In the absence of fully automatic systems with great Precision as well as great Recall, we think system B, requiring us to examine a 100 item list to reduce error with 50% is the better option than system A requiring us to examine the full list to get the job done to perfection. In our opinion, this information is better captured by the combination of Recall and Precision scores than by the AUC.

To conclude, we would like to point out that Recall and Precision allow for direct interpretation of the results. In plain words the scores obtained by system B can actually straightforwardly be read: ‘the system manages to correct half the errors present in the test set. For every error corrected it has erroneously changed one correct word in the test set into another correct word, producing 50 real-word errors in the text’.

## 8. Conclusion

The framework given should allow for more complete evaluations being conducted. Detailed evaluations on commercial and open-source SCCs for English and Dutch along the lines further developed in this paper were undertaken in (Reynaert, 2005). The framework should further allow future authors to state concisely and explicitly what they are doing, e.g. ‘Table x lists the results of True, 5-Best, Level 4 evaluations on Types’.

We hope this work will contribute to greater transparency in future evaluations of SCCs and will help to allow for more meaningful comparison between systems and approaches.

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