

# Consistency scores in text data \*

**Rohan Alexander** *University of Toronto*

**Ke-Li Chiu** *University of Toronto*

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In this paper we introduce a process to clean the text extracted from PDFs using GPT-3. Our approach compares originally extracted text with the text generated from GPT-3 using earlier text as stimulus. To guide this process, we introduce the notion of a consistency score, which refers to the proportion of text that is unchanged by the model. This is used to monitor changes during the cleaning process, and to compare the messiness of different texts. We illustrate our process on text from the Canadian Hansard and introduce both a Shiny application and an R package to make our process easier for others to adopt.

*Keywords:* text-as-data; GPT-3; quantitative analysis; cleaning.

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## Introduction

When we think of quantitative analysis, we may like to think that our job is to ‘let the data speak’. But this is rarely the case in practise. Datasets can have errors, be biased, incomplete, or messy. In any case, it is the underlying statistical process of which the dataset is an artifact that is typically of interest. In order to use statistical models to understand that process, we typically need to clean and prepare the dataset in some way. This is especially the case when we work with text data. But this cleaning and preparation requires us to make many decisions. To what extent should we correct obvious errors? What about slightly-less-obvious errors? Although cleaning and preparation is a necessary step, we may be concerned about the extent to which have we introduced new errors, and the possibility that we have made decisions that have affected, or even driven, our results.

In this paper we introduce the concept of consistency in a text corpus. Consistency refers to the proportion of words that are able to be forecast by a statistical model, based on preceding words and surrounding context. Further, we define internal consistency as when the model is trained on the corpus itself, and external consistency as when the model is trained on a more general corpus. Together, these concepts provide a guide to the cleanliness and consistency of a text dataset. This can be important when deciding whether a dataset is fit for purpose; when carrying out data cleaning and preparation tasks; and as a comparison between datasets.

To provide an example, consider the sentence, ‘the cat in the...’. A child who has read this book could tell you that the next word should be ‘hat’. Hence if the sentence was actually ‘the cat in the bat’, then that child would know something was likely wrong. The consistency score would likely be lower than if the sentence were ‘the cat in the hat’. After we correct this error, the consistency score would likely increase. By examining

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\*A Shiny app for interactive and small-scale examples is available: [HERE](#). An R package for larger scale applications is available: [HERE](#). Our code and datasets are available: [HERE](#). Comments on the 14 July 2020 version of this paper are welcome at: [rohan.alexander@utoronto.ca](mailto:rohan.alexander@utoronto.ca).

how the consistency scores evolve in response to changes made to the text during the data preparation and cleaning stages we can better understand the effect of the changes. Including consistency scores when text corpora are shared allows researchers to be more transparent about their corpus. And finally, the use of consistency scores allows for an increased level of automation in the cleaning process.

The model that we use to forecast is GPT-3 by OpenAI. OpenAI is an artificial intelligent research group who claims to be an pursuer of beneficial artificial general intelligence. Their works, including GPT-3, have a focus on generative models who have the capacity to generate data that resemble human creation. GPT-3, the Generative Pretrained Transformer 3, is an unsupervised language model that has more than 175 billions of parameters, referring to the weights of the connections that enable the neural network to learn **(Keli add citation)**. GPT-3 can learn NLP tasks with few examples and without task-specific dataset **(Keli add citation)**. This means GPT-3 can learn like human do, which makes the creation of NLP technologies more accessible.

We apply our approach to the Canadian Hansard. The Canadian Hansard was digitised by **(Rohan add ref)**. This was a process by which PDFs were scanned, put through optical character recognition (OCR), and then corrected to a reasonable extent. The dataset is extensive, fit-for-purpose, and, appropriately, it has been used considerably **(Rohan add refs)**. However, there are many issues with the dataset in terms of reading it. We focus on one particular year - **(Rohan pick one)** - and show that our approach can be used to relatively quickly improve the quality of the dataset in a reproducible and consistent manner.

The remainder of our paper is structured as follows: **(Rohan add structure)**. Additionally, we construct a Shiny app available at: **(Rohan add link)**. That app computes internal and external consistency scores for corpus excerpts, and have developed an R Package that allows our approach to be used on larger datasets, which is available at: **(Rohan add link)**.

## Background

### *PDF text extraction and n-grams*

PDFs contain a lot of information, but typically that information is not able to be analysed directly by statistical models. It needs to first be extracted from the PDF, often by optical character recognition (OCR), and then cleaned, prepared and made into some type of tabular dataset.

One issue in this process is that OCR is not perfect. Hence there is a need to correct the output before it can be analysed. Traditionally, word-correction techniques evaluate errors one by one without considering the context of the surrounding words. This was no longer the case in modern correction techniques as statistical language models (SLMs) and feature-based methods have been used for context-sensitive correction (citation). Without exception, all human languages have some words that co-occur more frequently with others. Under this assumption, we can regard the production of English text as a set of conditional probabilities, written as  $\Pr(w_k \mid w_1^{k-1})$ , where  $k$  is the number of words in a sentence,  $w_k$  is the predicted word, and  $w_1^{k-1}$  is the history of the word oc-

currence in a sequence (citation). In other words, the generation of prediction  $w_k$  is based on the history  $w_1^{k-1}$ . This conditional probability is the foundation of an n-gram language model.

An n-gram model is a probabilistic language model that predicts the next word in a sequence of words. The  $n$  in n-gram represents the number of words in a sequence. Taking an incomplete sentence from the Jane Eyre excerpt as an example:

“We had been wandering,”

“We” is a unigram, “We had” is a bigram, “We had been” is a trigram, and “We had been wandering” is a 4-gram. On the other hand, the trigrams of the excerpt are “We had been,” and “had been wandering.” The overlapping chaining of words reveals the statistical behaviour in human language. Moreover, N-gram then enables us to assign a probability to the occurrence of a sequence of words or the likelihood of a word occurring next. Consider the two sentences: “We had been wandering,” and “We had been wangling.” The former is likely to be more frequently encountered in a training corpus. Thus, the n-gram would assign a higher probability to “wandering” than to “wangling.”

The probability of a sequence appearing in a corpus follows the chain rules:

$$P(\text{We,had,been,wandering}) = P(\text{We}) \cdot P(\text{had} \mid \text{We}) \cdot P(\text{been} \mid \text{We,had}) \cdot P(\text{wandering} \mid \text{We,had,been})$$

This will soon grow weary if the sentences are long. Instead, the Markov assumption permits us to approximate the probability using only the last  $n$  words. More specifically:

$$P(\text{We,had,been,wandering}) \approx P(\text{We}) \cdot P(\text{had} \mid \text{We}) \cdot P(\text{been} \mid \text{had}) \cdot P(\text{wandering} \mid \text{been})$$

Simplified and formalized to:

$$P(w_1^n) \approx P(w_1) \cdot P(w_2 \mid w_1) \dots P(w_n \mid w_{n-1})$$

The application of n-gram is versatile. N-gram is widely applied in text prediction, spelling-correction, machine translation...

*Article: Class-Based n-gram Models of Natural Language (1992)*

Syntax-based (grammatical) and semantic-based (sensible) word classifications in n-gram models.

*Article: A Statistical Approach to Automatic OCR Error Correction in Context (1996)*

Context-sensitive correction system to both non-word and real-word errors based on n-gram models applied to OCR postprocessing.

*Article: Unsupervised Learning of Sentence Embeddings using Compositional n-Gram Features (2017)*

Embedding of sentences (sequence of words with semantic representations) compositional n-gram features.

## *Pre-trained language models*

Draw on and cite: ‘Language Models are Few-Shot Learners’

In recent years, the use of pre-trained language models has played a significant role in advancing natural language processing (NLP) tasks such as reading comprehension, text generation, and X (Ke-Li add ref). Pre-trained models remove the need for researchers to create training datasets or devote computational resources to this stage. Because of this, there has been substantial development in NLP research.

OpenAI’s GPT-3 is a generative, pre-trained, task-agnostic, language model that was released by OpenAI in Ke-Li add month 2020 (Ke-Li add ref). OpenAI is (Ke-Li add background). GPT-3 is the Ke-Li add number X model publicly released by OpenAI. It has ‘175 billion parameters’ and OpenAI claim that it as the ‘capacity to generate text that resembles human creation’ (Ke-Li add ref). Initial research has found... (Ke-Li please find papers that use it, describe them, and add refs - look on arXiv).

GPT-3 is pre-trained, and takes a sample of text as an input (Ke-Li add more detail about what it needs and what it outputs and how it works).. It adapts to the the style of the data that is used an input (Ke-Li please find the language that they use for this and then we need to make ours consistent with theirs).

## **Stylized example**

**(TODO: This stylized example need to be changed and updated to actually use GPT-3 at some point.)**

In our application, we deploy OpenAI GPT-3 to generate text and ...

As a stylized example, let’s consider the following actual paragraph from Jane Eyre, by Charlotte Bronte:

There was no possibility of taking a walk that day. We had been wandering, indeed, in the leafless shrubbery an hour in the morning; but since dinner (Mrs. Reed, when there was no company, dined early) the cold winter wind had brought with it clouds so sombre, and a rain so penetrating, that further out-door exercise was now out of the question.

Let’s pretend that this text had been created from optical character recognition and that it had the following errors: some ‘h’ were replaced with ‘b’; and some ‘d’ have been replaced with ‘al’:

There was no possibility of taking a walk that day. We had been wandering, indeed, in tbe leafless shrubbery an hour in tbe morning; but since dinner (Mrs. Reeal, when tthere was no company, dined early) the cold winter wind had brought with it clouds so sombre, and a rain so penetrating, tbat further out-door exercise was now out of the question.

Assume a model that is trained to perfectly forecast the next word in Jane Eyre. For this fragment there are 62 words, comprising 5 errors and 57 correct words. So the internal

consistency score of this fragment would be:  $57/62 = 0.919$ . When we recognise and correct the errors, this consistency score would increase to 1.

Similarly, assume a model that is trained on an external data source. This means that it will recognise the cases where some 'h' were replaced with 'b', but not recognise that 'Reed' has become 'Reeal'. Hence, the external consistency score would be  $58/62 = 0.935$ .

## **Data**

Various data can be used...

## **Application**

## **Discussion**

Internal validity vs external- one is their own words the other is a general set of words.

In the same way that precision and recall provide important measures...

## **Appendix**

### *Literature summaries*

(These are just here for now - we'll remove later.)

### *Article: Improving Language Understanding by Generative Pre-Training (2018)*

Introduction of a semi-supervised approach for language understanding machine learning tasks. The approach is the combination of unsupervised pre-training and supervised fine-tuning.

### *Article: Language Models are Few-Shot Learners (2020)*

Official paper from OpenAI to introduce OpenAI GPT-3. Emphasizes on the "fewer-shots" and "task-agnostic" aspects of the latest language model compared to its predecessor GPT-2.

### *Discussion of how GPT-3 works*

**(Ke-Li - it would be good for us to go through how it actually works in as much detail as we can manage (in our own words). This is mostly just to force us to learn how it works and may be taken out of the final version of the paper, but it's still an important exercise.)**