

Week 4: Textual Data

LSE MY472: Data for Data Scientists

<https://lse-my472.github.io/>

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Introduction

- This week we will focus on processing textual data
- Most file formats we work with in this course (.csv, .xml, .json, etc.) use text to store data
- The quantitative analysis of textual data is highly relevant in social science research and beyond
- We will discuss some basic analyses, but for a full course see **MY459** in Winter Term

Plan for today

- Character encoding
- Text search: Globbs and regular expressions
- Elementary text analysis
- Coding

Character encoding

Revisited: Basic units of data

→ Bits

- Smallest unit of storage; a 0 or 1
- With n bits, can store 2^n patterns

→ Bytes

- “eight bit encoding” represents characters through 8 bit, e.g. A represented as $65 = 01000001$
- 8 bits = 1 byte
- Hence, 1 byte can store 256 patterns

Encoding

- A “character set” is a list of characters with associated numerical representations
- The unique numbers associated with characters are called “code points”
- ASCII: The original character set, uses just 7 bits (2^7), see <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/ASCII>
- ASCII was later extended, e.g. **ISO-8859**, using 8 bits (2^8)
- Unfortunately, encoding has become a mess of differing standards, see http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Character_encoding

ASCII

Dec	Hx	Oct	Char	Dec	Hx	Oct	Html	Chr	Dec	Hx	Oct	Html	Chr	Dec	Hx	Oct	Html	Chr
0	0	000	NUL (null)	32	20	040	##32;	Space	64	40	100	##64;	@	96	60	140	##96;	`
1	1	001	SOH (start of heading)	33	21	041	##33;	!	65	41	101	##65;	A	97	61	141	##97;	a
2	2	002	STX (start of text)	34	22	042	##34;	"	66	42	102	##66;	B	98	62	142	##98;	b
3	3	003	ETX (end of text)	35	23	043	##35;	#	67	43	103	##67;	C	99	63	143	##99;	c
4	4	004	EOT (end of transmission)	36	24	044	##36;	\$	68	44	104	##68;	D	100	64	144	##100;	d
5	5	005	ENQ (enquiry)	37	25	045	##37;	%	69	45	105	##69;	E	101	65	145	##101;	e
6	6	006	ACK (acknowledge)	38	26	046	##38;	&	70	46	106	##70;	F	102	66	146	##102;	f
7	7	007	BEL (bell)	39	27	047	##39;	'	71	47	107	##71;	G	103	67	147	##103;	g
8	8	010	BS (backspace)	40	28	050	##40;	(72	48	110	##72;	H	104	68	150	##104;	h
9	9	011	TAB (horizontal tab)	41	29	051	##41;)	73	49	111	##73;	I	105	69	151	##105;	i
10	A	012	LF (NL line feed, new line)	42	2A	052	##42;	*	74	4A	112	##74;	J	106	6A	152	##106;	j
11	B	013	VT (vertical tab)	43	2B	053	##43;	+	75	4B	113	##75;	K	107	6B	153	##107;	k
12	C	014	FF (NP form feed, new page)	44	2C	054	##44;	,	76	4C	114	##76;	L	108	6C	154	##108;	l
13	D	015	CR (carriage return)	45	2D	055	##45;	-	77	4D	115	##77;	M	109	6D	155	##109;	m
14	E	016	SO (shift out)	46	2E	056	##46;	.	78	4E	116	##78;	N	110	6E	156	##110;	n
15	F	017	SI (shift in)	47	2F	057	##47;	/	79	4F	117	##79;	O	111	6F	157	##111;	o
16	10	020	DLE (data link escape)	48	30	060	##48;	0	80	50	120	##80;	P	112	70	160	##112;	p
17	11	021	DC1 (device control 1)	49	31	061	##49;	1	81	51	121	##81;	Q	113	71	161	##113;	q
18	12	022	DC2 (device control 2)	50	32	062	##50;	2	82	52	122	##82;	R	114	72	162	##114;	r
19	13	023	DC3 (device control 3)	51	33	063	##51;	3	83	53	123	##83;	S	115	73	163	##115;	s
20	14	024	DC4 (device control 4)	52	34	064	##52;	4	84	54	124	##84;	T	116	74	164	##116;	t
21	15	025	NAK (negative acknowledge)	53	35	065	##53;	5	85	55	125	##85;	U	117	75	165	##117;	u
22	16	026	SYN (synchronous idle)	54	36	066	##54;	6	86	56	126	##86;	V	118	76	166	##118;	v
23	17	027	ETB (end of trans. block)	55	37	067	##55;	7	87	57	127	##87;	W	119	77	167	##119;	w
24	18	030	CAN (cancel)	56	38	070	##56;	8	88	58	130	##88;	X	120	78	170	##120;	x
25	19	031	EM (end of medium)	57	39	071	##57;	9	89	59	131	##89;	Y	121	79	171	##121;	y
26	1A	032	SUB (substitute)	58	3A	072	##58;	:	90	5A	132	##90;	Z	122	7A	172	##122;	z
27	1B	033	ESC (escape)	59	3B	073	##59;	;	91	5B	133	##91;	[123	7B	173	##123;	(
28	1C	034	FS (file separator)	60	3C	074	##60;	<	92	5C	134	##92;	\	124	7C	174	##124;	
29	1D	035	GS (group separator)	61	3D	075	##61;	=	93	5D	135	##93;]	125	7D	175	##125;)
30	1E	036	RS (record separator)	62	3E	076	##62;	>	94	5E	136	##94;	^	126	7E	176	##126;	~
31	1F	037	US (unit separator)	63	3F	077	##63;	?	95	5F	137	##95;	_	127	7F	177	##127;	DEL

Source: www.LookupTables.com

Potential encoding issues

(Wrongly) detected encoding:

- Encoding type/character set is not stored as metadata in plain text files
- So software guesses which encoding is used, which might go wrong
- Assuming the wrong encoding when reading in/parsing a text file leads to import errors and corrupted characters (**Mojibake**): Underlying bit sequences are translated into the wrong characters

Space:

- 8 bits are too few to store all known characters
- Encoding with 32 bits, however, would imply a lot of rarely used bits
- Those bits take up memory, implying unnecessarily large file sizes

Widely used character encoding today: Unicode

- Created by the **Unicode Consortium**
- Common Unicode encoding formats: **UTF-8** and **UTF-16** (Unicode transformation format)
- UTF-8 is a variable-width character encoding and by far the most frequent character encoding on the web today
- Variable amounts of bits are used for each character with the first byte/8 bits corresponding to ASCII
- Common characters therefore need less space, but system capable of storing vast amounts of character code points

UTF-8 details

Number of bytes	Byte 1	Byte 2	Byte 3	Byte 4
1	0xxxxxxx			
2	110xxxxx	10xxxxxx		
3	1110xxxx	10xxxxxx	10xxxxxx	
4	11110xxx	10xxxxxx	10xxxxxx	10xxxxxx

<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/UTF-8>

Try it out: Create two .txt files, one containing a single line with the character *a*, the other one a single line with the character *ü*. Then check the sizes of both files in bytes which should be different if files are encoded in UTF-8.

Things to watch out for

- Many text production softwares (e.g. MS Office-based products) might still use proprietary character encoding formats, such as Windows-1252
- Windows tends to use UTF-16, while Unix-based platforms use UTF-8
- Text editors can be misleading: the client may display mojibake but the encoding might still be as intended
- Generally, no easy method of detecting encodings in basic text files

Some things to try with encoding issues

To determine the estimated character encoding of a file (note that this estimate might be incorrect)

- Linux, Unix, Mac: For example, `file -I filename.txt`, `file -I filename.json`, etc. in terminal
- Windows: For example, open with Notepad and check field in the lower right hand corner of the window

To change a file's encoding (see e.g. [this Stack Overflow post](#))

- Linux, Unix, Mac: For example, `iconv -f ISO-8859-15 -t UTF-8 in.txt > out.txt` in terminal
- Windows: For example, open the text with Notepad, click “Save As”, and choose a name and UTF-8 encoding. Alternatively, use PowerShell

Some things to try with encoding issues (in R)

In R, e.g. via `readr` (for more discussion, see [R4DS](#))

- For a character vector `x`, obtain texts assuming a different encoding with `parse_character(x, locale = locale(encoding = "Latin1"))`
- Make guess about encoding with `guess_encoding(charToRaw(x))`

Globs and regular expressions

Globs

- Searching and counting specific words in texts is key for quantitative textual analysis
- Globbs offer a simple and intuitive approach to search through text with wildcard characters
- Glob patterns originally used to search file and folder names

Globs: Exemplary syntax

Wildcard	Description	Examples	Exemplary matches
*	Any number (also zero) of characters	tax*, *tax*	taxation, overtaxed
?	Single character	??flation	inflation or deflation
[ab], [AB], [17], etc.	List of characters	module-[17].Rmd	module-1.Rmd or module-7.Rmd
[a-z], [A-Z], [0-9]	Range of characters	module-[A-Z].Rmd	module-A.Rmd or module-B.Rmd or module-C.Rmd ...

Regular expressions

- Powerful and much more flexible tool to search (and replace) text
- Different syntax than globs
- Text editors (e.g. VS Code) can usually find and replace terms with regular expressions
- Can also be used in many programming languages, e.g. when counting or collecting certain keywords in text analysis
- In R, we can e.g. use `stringr` or `quanteda` to search for keywords with regular expressions
- Topic could fill lectures itself, we will cover some basics here

Sample text

Inflation in the Eurozone

2pm

2:30pm

2.15pm

2 15

11.30

22-30

5-15pm

Münster

Muenster

Munster

@

@JoeBiden

@KamalaHarris

Regular expressions: Syntax

- Regular expressions can consist of literal characters and metacharacters
- **Literal characters:** Usual text
- **Metacharacters:** `^ $ [] () {} * + . ?` etc.
- When a meta character shall be treated as usual text in a search, escape it with (unless it is in a set `[]`) `\`
- For example, searching `.` in regex notation will select any character, but searching `\.` will select the actual full stop character

Syntax: Specifying characters (1/2)

- `.`: Matches any character (also white spaces)
- `\d`: Matches any digit 0-9
- `\w`: Matches any character a-z, A-Z, 0-9, `_`
- `\s`: Matches white spaces
- Capitalised versions negate: `\S` matches everything that is not a white space etc.

Syntax: Specifying characters (2/2)

- `^`: Matches characters at the beginning of the line or string,
 - E.g. `^M` will select all capital m at the beginning of strings or lines
- `$`: Matches characters at the end of the line or string,
 - E.g. `m$` will select all lowercase m at the end of strings or lines
- `[]`: Character set, e.g. `[a-zA-Z]` selects single characters from the Latin alphabet in lower and upper case letters, `[ai]` selects characters that are “a” or “i”, `[0-9]` digits from 0 to 9
- `[^]`: In brackets, `^` has a different meaning namely “not”, e.g. `[^a-z]` selects all characters that are not from the lower case alphabet

Syntax: Selecting sequences of characters

In order to select whole words, we need to add quantifiers to individual characters:

- *: Zero or more times, e.g. `in[a-z]*` will select *in* and also *inflation* in a search;
 - We could use `.*` to represent all characters and white spaces
- +: One or more times, e.g. `in[a-z]+` will not select *in* but *inflation*
- ?: Denotes optional characters, e.g. `re?ally` will select *really* and *rally*
- {}: Specifies lengths of sequences, e.g. `\d{3}` selects sequences of 3 digits, `\w{3,4}` selects sequences between 3 and 4 general characters, and `\d{3,}` selects sequences of at least 3 digits

Syntax: Boolean or and capturing groups

- |: Boolean or
- (): Capturing groups, e.g. `(ue?|ü)` selects `u`, `ue`, and `ü`.
 - This means that when searching text, the regular expression `M(ue?|ü)nster` will find *Münster*, *Muenster*, and *Munster*.
 - The captured groups can also be referenced with integer counts, which can be very helpful when replacing text
- https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Regular_expression

Regular expressions in R and beyond

- Regular expressions are used for flexible word searches in the `quanteda` package
- `stringr` is another good package for strings that uses regular expressions:
 - `str_view()` show results of searches with regular expressions
 - `str_extract()` allows you to extract keywords from strings through regular expressions
 - `str_replace()` finds and replaces regular expressions
- Detailed discussion of strings and regular expressions with `stringr` in R [here](#)
- R markdown with many examples [here](#)

More resources

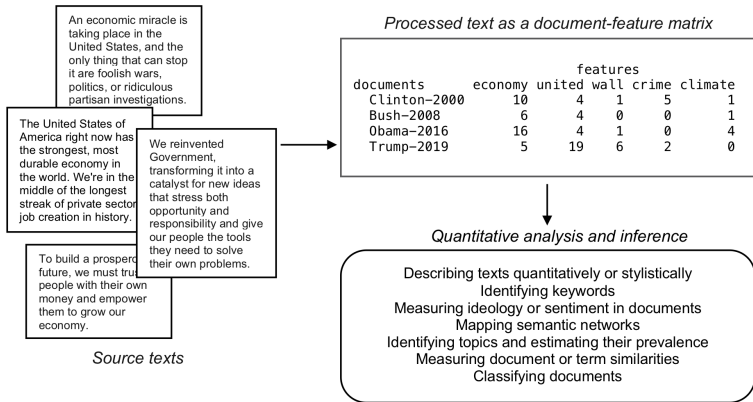
- Some good general discussions of the topic also on Youtube, e.g. [here](#)
- In depth treatment of regular expression (programming language independent): *Mastering Regular Expressions* by Jeffrey E. F. Fried
- A good place to test regular expressions and see the results visually is [regxr.com](#)
 - You can provide sample text, write a regex, and it will highlight matches

Elementary text analysis

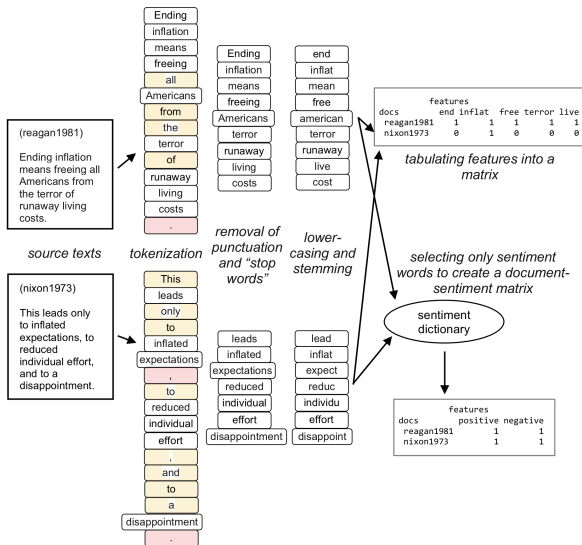
Moving from texts to numbers

- To analyse text quantitatively, the key question is how to move from text to numbers
- We will look at very common approaches that count words in documents
- This abstracts from the sequential dependency of words (beyond n-grams) and is sometimes referred to as a bag-of-words approach

Common workflow



Common workflow: Tokenisation + dictionary method



Some key concepts

- Document-feature matrix (dfm): As many rows as documents, as many columns as words/features after cleaning
- Stopwords: Common words such as “the”, “to”, etc.
- Stemming: Heuristic process to obtain the stem of words which in essence groups terms, see the following [link](#) for a detailed discussion
- n-grams: Sequences of words, e.g. bigrams (2) or trigrams (3). For example allows to record “not good” as a feature

Dictionary approaches

- Map each word or phrase to a “dictionary” of words, e.g. associated with a known “sentiment” or psychological state or with certain topics
- Treats matches within each dictionary as equivalent
- Examples: Linguistic Inquiry and Word Count, or the General Inquirer

Dictionary example (from LIWC 2015)

Dictionary object with 1 key entry.

- [posemo]:

- like, like*, :), (:, accept, accepta*, accepted, accepting, interests, invigor*, joke*, joking, jolly, joy*, keen*, kind, kindly, kindn*, kiss*, laidback, laugh*, legit, liber, likeab*, liked, likes, liking, livel*, lmao*, lmfaao*, lol,

Problems with dictionary approaches

- Polysemy – multiple meanings: The word “kind” has three!
- From State of the Union corpus: 318 matches
 - kind/NOUN – 95%
 - kind (of)/ADVERB – 1%
 - kind/ADJECTIVE – 4%
- These are known as false positives
- Other problem: False negatives (what we miss)
 - Missed: kindness
 - Also missed: altruistic and magnanimous
- How to treat conflicting keywords in the same string? “Had a great day . . . not.”

Further topics

- Text classification: How do we use a feature matrix to predict document labels (e.g. spam/not spam)?
- Topic models: How do we find sets of words which tend to appear together?
- Word and document embeddings: How can we represent words or documents as vectors and analyse their distances/similarities?
- How do we take into account the sequential nature of text?
- Etc.

Coding

Markdown files

- 01-regular-expressions-in-r.Rmd
- 02-text-analysis.Rmd
- 03-parsing-pdfs.Rmd