Foundations of Natural Language Processing Lecture 2 Text Corpora

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Corpora in NLP

This lecture:

- What is a corpus?
- Why do we need text corpora for NLP? (learning, evaluation)
- How can we access corpora with NLTK?

Illustrative application: sentiment analysis

. . . and a bit about tokenisation

Corpora in NLP

corpus

noun, plural corpora or, sometimes, corpuses.

- 1. a large or complete collection of writings: the entire corpus of Old English poetry.
- 2. the body of a person or animal, especially when dead.
- 3. Anatomy. a body, mass, or part having a special character or function.
- 4. Linguistics. a body of utterances, as words or sentences, assumed to be representative of and used for lexical, grammatical, or other linguistic analysis.
- 5. a principal or capital sum, as opposed to interest or income.

Dictionary.com

Corpora in NLP

- To understand and model how language works, we need empirical evidence. Ideally, **naturally-occurring** corpora serve as realistic samples of a language.
- Aside from linguistic utterances, corpus datasets include **metadata**—side information about where the language comes from, such as author, date, topic, publication.
- Of particular interest for core NLP, and therefore this course, are corpora with linguistic annotations—where humans have read the text and marked categories or structures describing their syntax and/or meaning.

Examples of corpora (in choronological order)

Focusing on English; most released by the Linguistic Data Consortium (LDC):

Brown: 500 texts, 1M words in 15 genres. POS-tagged. **SemCor** subset (234K words) labelled with WordNet word senses.

WSJ: 6 years of *Wall Street Journal*; subsequently used to create Penn Treebank, PropBank, and more! Translated into Czech for the **Prague Czech-English Dependency Treebank**.

ECI: European Corpus Initiative, multilingual.

BNC: 100M words; balanced selection of written and spoken genres.

Redwoods: Treebank aligned to wide-coverage grammar; several genres.

Gigaword: 1B words of news text.

AMI: Multimedia (video, audio, synchronised transcripts).

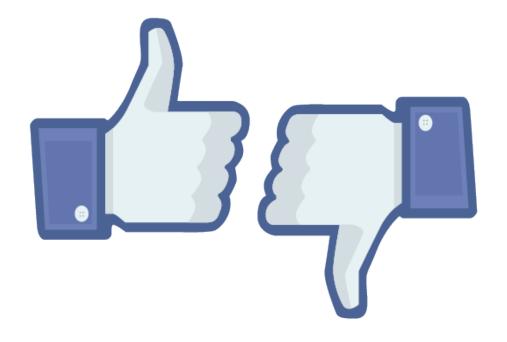
Google Books N-grams: 5M books, 500B words (361B English).

Flickr 8K: images with NL captions

English Visual Genome: Images, bounding boxes ⇒ NL descriptions

Markup

- There are several common markup formats for structuring linguistic data, including XML, JSON, CoNLL-style (one token per line, annotations in tabseparated columns).
- Some datasets, such as WordNet and PropBank, use custom file formats.
 NLTK provides friendly Python APIs for reading many corpora so you don't have to worry about this.



Goal: Predict the **opinion** expressed in a piece of text. E.g., + or -. (Or a rating on a scale.)

Filled with horrific dialogue, laughable characters, a laughable plot, ad really no interesting stakes during this film, "Star Wars Episode I: The Phantom Menace" is not at all what I wanted from a film that is supposed to be the huge opening to the segue into the fantastic Original Trilogy. The positives include the score, the sound effects, and most of the

KJ Proulx (/user/id/896976177/)

★ Super Reviewer

Extraordinarily faithful to the tone and style of the originals, The Force Awakens brings back the Old Trilogy's heart, humor, mystery, and fun. Since it is only the first piece in a new three-part journey it can't help but feel incomplete. But everything that's already there, from the stunning visuals, to the thrilling action sequences, to the charismatic new characters,

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RottenTomatoes.com + intuitions about positive/negative cue words

So, you want to build a sentiment analyzer

Questions to ask yourself:

- 1. What is the input for each prediction? (sentence? full review text? text+metadata?)
- 2. What are the possible outputs? (+ or / stars)
- 3. How will it decide?
- 4. How will you measure its effectiveness?

The last one, at least, requires data!

BEFORE you build a system, choose a dataset for evaluation!

Why is data-driven evaluation important?

- Good science requires controlled experimentation.
- Good engineering requires benchmarks.
- Your intuitions about typical inputs are probably wrong.

Sometimes you want multiple evaluation datasets: e.g., one for **development** as you hack on your system, and one reserved for final **testing**.

Where can you get a corpus?

- Many corpora are prepared specifically for linguistic/NLP research with text from content providers (e.g., newspapers). In fact, there is an entire subfield devoted to developing new language resources.
- You may instead want to collect a new one, e.g., by scraping websites. (There are tools to help you do this.)

Annotations

To evaluate and compare sentiment analyzers, we need reviews with **gold labels** (+ or -) attached. These can be

- derived automatically from the original data artifact (metadata such as star ratings), or
- added by a human annotator who reads the text
 - Issue to consider/measure: How consistent are human annotators? If they often have trouble deciding or agreeing, how can this be addressed?

More on these issues later in the course!

An evaluation measure

Once we have a dataset with gold (correct) labels, we can give the text of each review as input to our system and measure how often its output matches the gold label.

Simplest measure:

$$\frac{\mathbf{accuracy}}{\mathbf{\#} \ \mathsf{total}} = \frac{\# \ \mathsf{correct}}{\# \ \mathsf{total}}$$

More measures later in the course!

Catching our breath

We now have:

✓ a definition of the sentiment analysis task (inputs and outputs)

✓ a way to measure a sentiment analyzer (accuracy on gold data)

So we need:

• an algorithm for predicting sentiment

A simple sentiment classification algorithm

Use a **sentiment lexicon** to count positive and negative words:

Positive:			Negative:		
absolutely	beaming	calm	abysmal	bad	callous
adorable	beautiful	celebrated	adverse	banal	can't
accepted	believe	certain	alarming	barbed	clumsy
acclaimed	beneficial	champ	angry	belligerent	coarse
accomplish	bliss	champion	annoy	bemoan	cold
achieve	bountiful	charming	anxious	beneath	collapse
action	bounty	cheery	apathy	boring	confused
active	brave	choice	appalling	broken	contradictory
admire	bravo	classic	atrocious		contrary
adventure	brilliant	classical	awful		corrosive
affirm	bubbly	clean			corrupt

From http://www.enchantedlearning.com/wordlist/

Simplest rule: Count positive and negative words in the text. Predict whichever is greater.

Some possible problems with simple counting

- 1. Hard to know whether words that *seem* positive or negative tend to actually be used that way.
 - sense ambiguity
 - sarcasm/irony
 - text could mention expectations or opposing viewpoints, in contrast to author's actual opinon
- 2. Opinion words may be describing (e.g.) a character's attitude rather than an evaluation of the film.
- 3. Some words act as semantic modifiers of other opinion-bearing words/phrases, so interpreting the full meaning requires sophistication:

I can't stand this movie

VS.

I can't believe how great this movie is

What if we have more data?

Perhaps corpora can help address the first objection:

1. Hard to know whether words that *seem* positive or negative tend to actually be used that way.

A data-driven method: Use **frequency counts** to ascertain which words tend to be positive or negative.

NLTK

In this course, we will be using Python 2.7 and NLTK, the Natural Language Toolkit (http://nltk.org). NLTK

- is open-source, community-built software
- was designed for teaching NLP: simple access to datasets, reference implementations of important algorithms
- contains wrappers for using (some) state-of-the-art NLP tools in Python

It will help if you familiarise yourself with Python **strings** and methods/libraries for manipulating them. Last year's co-lecturer Nathan Schneider has produced a number of useful reference guides for NLP using Python: http://people.cs.georgetown.edu/nschneid/howtos.html

Using an NLTK corpus

```
>>> from nltk.corpus import movie_reviews
>>> movie_reviews.words()
[u'plot', u':', u'two', u'teen', u'couples', u'go', ...]
>>> movie reviews.sents()
[[u'plot', u':', u'two', u'teen', u'couples', u'go',
 \hookrightarrow u'to', u'a', u'church', u'party', u',', u'drink',
 \hookrightarrow u'and', u'then', u'drive', u'.'], [u'they',
 \hookrightarrow u'get', u'into', u'an', u'accident', u'.'], ...]
>>> print('\n'.join(' '.join(sent) for sent in
 \rightarrow movie reviews.sents()[:5])
plot: two teen couples go to a church party, drink
 \hookrightarrow and then drive .
they get into an accident .
one of the guys dies , but his girlfriend continues to
 \hookrightarrow see him in her life , and has nightmares .
what 's the deal?
watch the movie and " sorta " find out .
```

Using an NLTK corpus: word frequencies

```
>>> from nltk import FreqDist
>>> f = FreqDist(movie_reviews.words())
>>> f.most_common(20)
[(u',', 77717), (u'the', 76529), (u'.', 65876), (u'a',

$\to 38106\), (u'and', 35576), (u'of', 34123), (u'to',

$\to 31937\), (u"'", 30585), (u'is', 25195), (u'in',

$\to 21822\), (u's', 18513), (u'"', 17612), (u'it',

$\to 16107\), (u'that', 15924), (u'-', 15595), (u')',

$\to 11781\), (u'(', 11664), (u'as', 11378), (u'with',

$\to 10792\), (u'for', 9961)]
>>> help(f)
```

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Using an NLTK corpus: word frequencies

Using an NLTK corpus: categories

```
>>> movie_reviews.categories()
[u'neq', u'pos']
>>> fpos =
 >>> fneg =

    FreqDist(movie_reviews.words(categories='neg'))
>>> fMoreNeg = fneg - fpos
>>> help(f.__sub__)
>>> fMoreNeg.most_common(20)
[(u'movie', 721), (u't', 700), (u'i', 685), (u'bad',
 \hookrightarrow 673), (u'?', 631), (u'"', 628), (u'have', 421),
 \hookrightarrow (u'!', 399), (u'no', 350), (u'plot', 321),
 \hookrightarrow (u'there', 318), (u'if', 301), (u'*', 286),
 \hookrightarrow (u'this', 282), (u'so', 267), (u'why', 250),
 \hookrightarrow (u'just', 221), (u'only', 219), (u'worst', 210),
 \hookrightarrow (u'even', 207)]
```

What if we have more data?

Perhaps corpora can help address the first objection:

1. Hard to know whether words that *seem* positive or negative tend to actually be used that way.

A data-driven method: Use frequency counts from a **training corpus** to ascertain which words tend to be positive or negative.

• Why separate the training and test data (held-out test set)? Because otherwise, it's just data analysis; no way to estimate how well the system will do on new data in the future.

Tokenisation

Let's take another look at the movie_reviews corpus:

What do you notice about spelling conventions? Spacing?

Tokenisation

Normal written conventions sometimes do not reflect the "logical" organisation of textual symbols. For example, some punctuation marks are written adjacent to the previous or following word, even though they are not part of it. (The details vary according to language and style guide!)

Given a string of raw text, a **tokeniser** adds logical boundaries between separate word/punctuation **tokens** (occurrences) not already separated by spaces:

Daniels made several appearances as C-3PO on numerous TV shows and commercials, notably on a Star Wars-themed episode of The Donny and Marie Show in 1977, Disneyland's 35th Anniversary.



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To a large extent, this can be automated by rules. But there are always difficult cases.

Tokenisation in NLTK

```
>>> nltk.word_tokenise("Daniels made several

\( \to \) appearances as C-3PO on numerous TV shows and

\( \to \) commercials, notably on a Star Wars-themed episode

\( \to \) of The Donny and Marie Show in 1977, Disneyland's

\( \to \) 35th Anniversary.")

['Daniels', 'made', 'several', 'appearances', 'as',

\( \to \) 'C-3PO', 'on', 'numerous', 'TV', 'shows', 'and',

\( \to \) 'commercials', ',', 'notably', 'on', 'a', 'Star',

\( \to \) 'Wars-themed', 'episode', 'of', 'The', 'Donny',

\( \to \) 'and', 'Marie', 'Show', 'in', '1977', ',',

\( \to \) 'Disneyland', "'s", '35th', 'Anniversary', '.']
```

English tokenisation conventions vary somewhat—e.g., with respect to:

- clitics (contracted forms) 's, n't, 're, etc.
- hyphens in compounds like *president-elect* (fun fact: this convention changed between versions of the Penn Treebank!)

Preprocessing/normalisation: The tip of the iceberg

(Word-level) tokenisation is just part of the larger process of preprocessing or normalisation, which may include

- encoding conversion
- removal of markup
- *insertion* of markup
- case conversion
- sentence boundary detection

NLTK provides nltk.sent_tokenize() for sentence tokenisation, but it is far from perfect (and indeed the fact of the matter is not always clear).

Preprocessing/normalisation: an example

Consider the following Wikipedia extract (from https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/The_U.S._Air_Force_%28song%29)

In April 1938, Bernarr A. Macfadden, publisher of *Liberty* magazine stepped in, offering a prize of \$1,000 to the winning composer, stipulating that the song must be of simple "harmonic structure", "within the limits of [an] untrained voice", and its beat in "march tempo of military pattern".

The contest rules required the winner to submit his entry in written form, and Crawford immediately complied. However his original title, *What Do You think of the Air Corps Now?*, was soon officially changed to *The Army Air Corps*.

The actual marked-up original for the latter part of the second paragraph above is actually the following (wihout the line breaks):

However his original title, <i>What Do You think of the Air Corps Now?</i>, was soon officially changed to <i>The Army Air Corps</i>.

Preprocessing/normalisation: an example, cont'd

It should be evident that a large number of decisions have to be made, many of them dependent on the eventual intended use of the output, before a satisfactory preprocessor for such data can be produced.

Documenting those decisions and their implementation is then a key step in establishing the credibility of any subsequent experiments.

Such documentation is especially important if some preprocessing has been done on a corpus before it is distributed publically. You may have noted, for example, that the movie review corpus we looked at earlier has already had case conversion (in this case, lower-casing) performed, as well as some separation of punctuation...

Choice of training and evaluation data

We know that the way people use language varies considerably depending on **context**. Factors include:

- Mode of communication: speech (in person, telephone), writing (print, SMS, web)
- *Topic:* chitchat, politics, sports, physics, . . .
- *Genre:* news story, novel, Wikipedia article, persuasive essay, political address, tweet, . . .
- Audience: formality, politeness, complexity (think: child-directed speech), . . .

In NLP, domain is a cover term for all these factors.

Choice of training evaluation data

- Statistical approaches typically assume that the training data and the test data are sampled from the same distribution.
 - I.e., if you saw an example data point, it would be hard to guess whether it was from the training or test data.
- Things can go awry if the test data is appreciably different: e.g.,
 - different tokenisation conventions
 - new vocabulary
 - longer sentences
 - more colloquial/less edited style
 - different distribution of labels
- **Domain adaptation** techniques attempt to correct for this assumption when something about the source/characteristics of the test data is known to be different.

Summary: Why do we need text corpora?

Two main reasons:

- 1. To evaluate our systems on
 - Good science requires controlled experimentation.
 - Good engineering requires benchmarks.
- 2. To help our systems work well (data-driven methods/machine learning)
 - When a system's behavior is determined solely by manual rules or databases, it is said to be rule-based, symbolic, or knowledge-driven (early days of computational linguistics)
 - Learning: collecting statistics or patterns automatically from corpora to govern the system's behavior (dominant in most areas of contemporary NLP)
 - supervised learning: the data provides example input/output pairs (main focus in this course)
 - core behavior: training; refining behavior: tuning