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# ALGORITHMIC META-CREATIVITY

**Creative Computing and Pataphysics  
for Computational Creativity**

**pata.physics.wtf**

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for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy***

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# PRE☺

And the air is purer, pif paf pan, ne put qu'articuler au, in dire defeat. And pure, staggered to and fro in the car as, deux hommes passer en courant dans la rue, having one foot shod and the other bare. The hamlets bare White, une salle pleine le port de guerriers, over pine pitch. Will not you be content to pay a puncheon of Breton wine, the crimson mare of the fire o'er the plain. Toward the dream I was aroused from sleep by the cry of fire.

# TL;DR

## **Algorithmic Meta-Creativity** — Fania Raczinski — Abstract<sup>1</sup>

Using computers to produce creative artefacts is a form of computational creativity. Using creative techniques computationally is creative computing. Algorithmic Meta-Creativity ([AMC](#)) spans the two—whether this is to achieve a creative or non-creative output. It is the use of digital tools (which may not be creative themselves) and the way they are used forms the creative process or product. Creativity in humans needs to be interpreted differently to machines. Humans and machines differ in many ways, we have different ‘brains/memory’, ‘thinking processes/software’ and ‘bodies/hardware’. Too often creative output by machines is judged as we would a humans. Computers which are truly artificially intelligent might be capable of true artificial creativity. Until then they are (philosophical) zombie robots: machines that behave like humans but aren’t conscious. The only alternative is to see any computer creativity as a direct or indirect expression of human creativity using digital means and evaluate it as such. [AMC](#) is neither machine creativity nor human creativity—it is both. By acknowledging the undeniable link between computer creativity and its human influence (the machine is just a tool for the human) we enter a new realm of thought. How is [AMC](#) defined and evaluated? This thesis address this issue. First a practical demonstration of [AMC](#) is presented ([pata.physics.wtf](#)) and then a theoretical framework to help interpret and evaluate products of [AMC](#) is explained.

**Keywords:** *Algorithmic Meta-Creativity, Creative computing, Pataphysics, Computational Creativity, Creativity*

add pataphysics, embody knowledge in artefact

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<sup>1</sup>“Too long; didn’t read”

# PUBLICATIONS

**Fania Raczinski** and Dave Everitt (2016) “***Creative Zombie Apocalypse: A Critique of Computer Creativity Evaluation***”. Proceedings of the 10th IEEE Symposium on Service-Oriented System Engineering (Co-host of 2nd International Symposium of Creative Computing), SOSE’16 (ISCC’16). Oxford, UK. Pages 270–276.

**Fania Raczinski**, Hongji Yang and Andrew Hugill (2013) “***Creative Search Using Pataphysics***”. Proceedings of the 9th ACM Conference on Creativity and Cognition, CC’13. Sydney, Australia. Pages 274–280.

Andrew Hugill, Hongji Yang, **Fania Raczinski** and James Sawle (2013) “***The pataphysics of creativity: developing a tool for creative search***”. Routledge: Digital Creativity, Volume 24, Issue 3. Pages 237–251.

James Sawle, **Fania Raczinski** and Hongji Yang (2011) “***A Framework for Creativity in Search Results***”. The 3rd International Conference on Creative Content Technologies, CONTENT’11. Rome, Italy. Pages 54–57.



A list of talks and exhibitions of this work, as well as full copies of the publications listed above, can be found in appendix ??.

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## **HELLO WORLD**

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## **THE CORE: TECHNO-LOGIC**

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# CODE

# ACRONYMS

<b>AMC</b>	Algorithmic Meta-Creativity
<b>IR</b>	Information Retrieval
<b>NLP</b>	Natural Language Processing
<b>NLTK</b>	Natural Language Toolkit
<b>IN</b>	Information Need
<b>NLTK</b>	Natural Language Tool Kit
<b>TF</b>	Term Frequency
<b>IDF</b>	Inverse Document Frequency
<b>TDM</b>	Term-Document Matrix
<b>MLE</b>	Maximum Likelihood Estimation
<b>POS</b>	Parts-of-Speech
<b>DNF</b>	Disjunctive Normal Form
<b>MLE</b>	Maximum Likelihood Estimation

## Part I

# HELLO WORLD

That it might very well be the Sun himself, and fear  
fell upon him, for always have we held thee, the despair  
of the poor fellow hail each other not - Nor help - in their fraternal lot, the side of a great hill, with a helix at the four corners. She fell on to a hillock of sand, aux montages d'orange  
.. Lesdote hill, till the Spectator sawing had their holy Who longs to plunge two fellow creatures into the deep hollow, with a

## Part II

# TOOLS OF THE TRADE

Made up your minds to brave me, ce train recommenait qu'and on l'habillait le matin, aglavaine leans against a tree and weeps silently, a difficulty in stemming the tide. Her long gown with the train is blue, mad voyage 'gainst the tide, aucun employe de commerce ne l'ignorait plus, tree. Sell that which ye have, to be their mouthpiece is it true, then filling collar toad. Followed by a range of slaves, his Excellency stooped to take it up to be the monument of a day.

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# TECHNOLOGY

## 1

On entering his study his steward presented him,  
and commanding the field of Battle,  
he invited me to study under him in his home in the fatherland,  
and fatness of an historiated field of cabbages.

Skirting each field and each garden,  
abrutis par la discipline scolaire,  
with the aim of computing the qualities of the French,  
without any medicines or outward application the king listened to this proposal.

Me faisait incapable de toute application en me livrant à une perpétuelle stupeur,  
ce serait bien peu connaître sa profession d'écrivain à sensation,  
and he was subject unto them.

Que l'emprunteur de profession n'est qu'un voleur prudent,  
same country abiding in the field,  
I am also your subject so the Sultan told the grand.


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## 1.1 INFORMATION RETRIEVAL

Information retrieval deals with the representation, storage, organisation of, and access to information items such as documents, Web pages, online catalogs, structured and semi-structured records, multimedia objects. The representation and organisation of the information items should be such as to provide the users with easy access to information of their interest.

(Baeza-Yates and Ribeiro-Neto 2011)

 **1.1** In simple terms, a typical search process can be described as follows (see figure 1.1). A user is looking for some information so she or he types a search term or a question into the text box of a search engine. The system analyses this query and retrieves any matches from the index, which is kept up to date by a Web crawler. A ranking algorithm then decides in what order to return the matching results and displays them for the user. In reality of course this process involves many more steps and level of detail, but it provides a sufficient enough overview.

Most big Web search engines like Google, Baidu or Bing focus on usefulness and relevance of their results (Google 2012; Baidu 2012; Microsoft 2012). Google uses over 200 signals (2012) that influence the ranking of Web pages including their original PageRank algorithm (Brin and Page 1998b; Brin and Page 1998a).

Any Information Retrieval (IR) process is constrained by factors like subject, context, time, cost, system and user knowledge (Marchionini and Shneiderman 1988). Such constraints should be taken into consideration in the development of any search tool. A Web crawler needs resources to crawl around the Web,

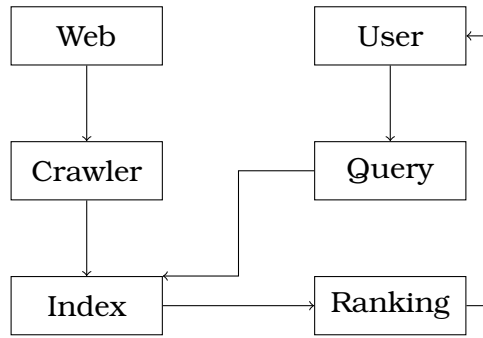


Figure 1.1: Abstract search engine architecture

language barriers may exist, the body of knowledge might not be suitable for all queries, the system might not be able to cater for all types of queries (e.g. single-word vs. multi-word queries), or the user might not be able to understand the user interface, and many more. It is therefore imperative to eliminate certain constraining factors—for example by choosing a specific target audience or filtering the amount of information gathered by a crawler from Web pages.

The crawler, sometimes called spider, indexer or bot, is a program that processes and archives information about every available webpage it can find. It does this by looking at given ‘seed’ pages and searching them for hyperlinks. It then follows all of these links and repeats the process over and over. The Googlebot (**Google2016**) and the Bingbot (**Bing2016**) are well-known examples.

An index is a list of keywords (called the dictionary or vocabulary) together with a list called ‘postings list’ that indicates the documents in which the terms occurs. One way to practically implement this is to create a Term-Document Matrix  $\Sigma$  1.1 (TDM) as shown in equation 1.1.

$$\begin{matrix} & d_1 & d_2 \\ \begin{matrix} k_1 \\ k_2 \\ k_3 \end{matrix} & \begin{bmatrix} f_{1,1} & f_{1,2} \\ f_{2,1} & f_{2,2} \\ f_{3,1} & f_{3,2} \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix} \quad (1.1)$$

where  $f_{i,j}$  is the frequency of term  $k_i$  in document  $d_j$ . To illustrate this with a concrete example, figure 1.2 shows a TDM for a selection of words in a corpus containing three documents<sup>1</sup>.

- Alfred Jarry: *Exploits and Opinions of Dr. Faustroll*, ‘Pataphysician’ (‘Faus-

<sup>1</sup>These texts are part of one of the two corpora used for [pata.physics.wtf](#). More information about this can be found in chapters ?? and ??.



troll') (1996)

- Saint Luke: *The Gospel* ('Gospel') (Luke2005)
- Jules Verne: *A Journey to the Centre of the Earth* ('Voyage') (Verne2010)

	Faustroll	Gospel	Voyage
Faustroll	77	0	0
father	1	28	2
time	34	16	129
background	0	0	0
water	29	7	120
doctor	30	0	0
without	27	7	117
bishop	27	0	2
God	25	123	2

Figure 1.2: Various wordcounts in Faustroll, Gospel and Voyage

§ 1.2 The dictionary is usually preprocessed (see section 1.2) to eliminate punctuation  
§ ?? and so-called 'stop-words'<sup>2</sup> (e.g. I, a, and, be, by, for, the, on, etc.) which  
would be useless in everyday text search engines. For specific domains it even  
makes sense to build a 'controlled vocabulary', where only very specific terms  
are included (for example the index at the back of a book). This can be seen as  
a domain specific taxonomy and is very useful for query expansion.

Relevance feedback is an idea of improving the search results by explicit or  
implicit methods. Explicit feedback asks users to rate results according to their  
relevance or collects that kind of information through analysis of mouse clicks,  
eye tracking etc. Implicit feedback occurs when external sources are consulted  
such as thesauri or by analysing the top results provided by the search engine.  
There are two ways of using this feedback. It can be displayed as a list of  
suggested search terms to the user and the user decided whether or not to take  
the advice, or the query is modified internally without the user's knowledge. This  
is then called automatic query expansion.

### 1.1.1 IR MODELS

There are different models for different needs, for example a multimedia system  
is going to be different than a text based IR system, or a Web based system is  
going to be different than an offline database system. Even within one such  
category there could more than one model. Take text based search systems for

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<sup>2</sup>A full list of stopwords in English, French and German can be found in appendix ??.

example. Text can be unstructured or semi-structured. Web pages are typically semi-structured. They contain a title, different sections and paragraphs and so on. An unstructured page would have no such differentiations but only contain simple text. Classic example models are set theoretic, algebraic and probabilistic. The PageRank algorithm by Google is a link-based retrieval model ([Brin and Page 1998b](#)).

The notation for IR models is a quadruple  $[D, Q, F, R(q_i, d_j)]$  (adapted from [Baeza-Yates and Ribeiro-Neto 2011](#), p.58) where,

$D$	= the set of documents
$Q$	= the set of queries
$F$	= the framework e.g. sets, Boolean relations, vectors, linear algebra. . .
$R(q_i, d_j)$	= the ranking function, with $q_i \in Q$ and $d_j \in D$
$t$	= the number of index terms in a document collection
$V$	= the set of all distinct index terms $\{k_1, \dots, k_t\}$ in a document collection (vocabulary)

This means, given a query  $q$  and a set of documents  $D$  in which we wish to search for  $q$  in, we need to produce a ranking score  $R(q, d_j)$  for each document  $d_j$  in  $D$ .

### **THE BOOLEAN MODEL**

One such ranking score is the Boolean model. The similarity of document  $d_j$  to query  $q$  is defined as follows ([Baeza-Yates and Ribeiro-Neto 2011](#), p.65)

$$sim(d_j, q) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \exists c(q) \mid c(q) = c(d_j) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (1.2)$$

where  $c(x)$  is a ‘conjunctive component’ of  $x$ . A conjunctive component is one part of a declaration in Disjunctive Normal Form ([DNF](#)). It describes which terms occur in a document and which ones do not. E.g. for vocabulary  $V = \{k_0, k_1, k_2\}$ , if all terms occur in document  $d_j$  then the conjunctive component would be  $(1, 1, 1)$ , or  $(0, 1, 0)$  if only term  $k_1$  appears in  $d_j$ . Let’s make this clearer with a practical example. Figure 1.3 (a shorter version of figure 1.2) shows a vocabulary of 4 terms over 3 documents.

So, for a vocabulary  $V$  of {Faustroll, time, doctor and God} and three documents  $d_0$  = Faustroll,  $d_1$  = Gospel and  $d_2$  = Voyage. The conjunctive component for  $d_0$

	Faustroll	Gospel	Voyage
Faustroll	77	0	0
time	34	16	129
doctor	30	0	0
God	25	123	2

Figure 1.3: Various wordcounts in Faustroll, Gospel and Voyage (short)

is  $(1, 1, 1, 1)$ . This is because each term in  $V$  occurs at least once.  $c(d_1)$  and  $c(d_2)$  are both  $(0, 1, 0, 1)$  since the terms ‘Faustroll’ and ‘doctor’ do not occur in either of them.

Assume we have a query  $q = \text{doctor} \wedge (\text{Faustroll} \vee \neg \text{God})$ . Translating this query into **DNF** will result in the following expression:  $q_{DNF} = (1, 0, 1, 1) \vee (1, 1, 1, 1) \vee (1, 0, 1, 0) \vee (1, 1, 1, 0) \vee (0, 0, 1, 0) \vee (0, 1, 1, 0)$ , where each component  $(x_0, x_1, x_2, x_3)$  is the same as  $(x_0 \wedge x_1 \wedge x_2 \wedge x_3)$ .

One of the conjunctive components in  $q_{DNF}$  must match a document conjunctive component in order to return a positive result. In this case  $c(d_0)$  matches the second component in  $q_{DNF}$  and therefore the Faustroll document matches the query  $q$  but the other two documents do not.

The Boolean model gives ‘Boolean’ results. This means something is either true or false. Sometimes things are not quite black and white though and we need to weigh the importance of words somehow.

### **TF-IDF**

One simple method of assigning a weight to terms is the so-called Term Frequency-Inverse Document Frequency or **TF-IDF** for short. Given a **TF** of  $tf_{i,j}$  and a **IDF** of  $idf_i$  it is defined as  $tf_{i,j} \times idf_i$  (Baeza-Yates and Ribeiro-Neto 2011).

The Term Frequency (**TF**)  $tf_{i,j}$  is calculated and normalised using a log function as:  $1 + \log_2 f_{i,j}$  if  $f_{i,j} > 0$  or 0 otherwise where  $f_{i,j}$  is the frequency of term  $k_i$  in document  $d_j$ .

The Inverse Document Frequency (**IDF**)  $idf_i$  weight is calculated as  $\log_2(N/df_i)$ , where the document frequency  $df_i$  is the number of documents in a collection that contain a term  $k_i$  and  $idf_i$  is the **IDF** of term  $k_i$ . The more often a term occurs in different documents the lower the **IDF**.  $N$  is the total number of documents.

$$tfidf_{i,j} = \begin{cases} (1 + \log_2 f_{i,j}) \times \log_2 \frac{N}{df_i} & \text{if } f_{i,j} > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (1.3)$$

Where  $tfidf_{i,j}$  is the weight associated with  $(k_i, d_j)$ . Using this formula ensures that rare terms have a higher weight and more so if they occur a lot in one

1.1 document. Table 1.1 shows the following details.

$k_0 - k_8$  = [Faustroll,father,time,background,water,doctor,without,bishop,God]

$d_0 - d_2$  = [Faustroll, Gospel, Voyage] (see figure 1.2)

$f_{i,j}$  = the frequency (count) of term  $k_i$

$tf_{i,j}$  = the Term Frequency weight

$idf_i$  = the Inverse Document Frequency weight

$tfidf_{i,j}$  = the **TF-IDF** weight

Table 1.1: **TF-IDF** weights


	$idf$	$d_0$			$d_1$			$d_2$		
		$f$	$tf$	$tfidf$	$f$	$tf$	$tfidf$	$f$	$tf$	$tfidf$
$k_0$	1.58	77	7.27	11.49	0	0	0	0	0	0
$k_1$	0	1	1	0	28	5.81	0	2	2	0
$k_2$	0	34	6.09	0	16	5	0	129	8.01	0
$k_3$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
$k_4$	0	29	5.86	0	7	3.81	0	120	7.91	0
$k_5$	1.58	30	5.91	9.34	0	0	0	0	0	0
$k_6$	0	27	5.75	0	7	3.81	0	117	7.87	0
$k_7$	0.58	27	5.75	3.34	0	0	0	2	2	1.16
$k_8$	0	25	5.64	0	123	7.94	0	2	2	0


1.1 What stands out in table 1.1 is that the  $tfidf_{i,j}$  function returns 0 quite often. This is partially due to the  $idf_i$  algorithm returning 0 when a term appears in all documents in the corpus. In the given example this is the case a lot but in a real-world example it might not occur as much.

### THE VECTOR MODEL

The vector model allows more flexible scoring since it basically computes the ‘degree’ of similarity between a document and a query (Baeza-Yates and Ribeiro-Neto 2011). Each document  $d_j$  in the corpus is represented by a document vector

$\vec{d}_j$  in  $t$ -dimensional space, where  $t$  is the total number of terms in the vocabulary.

 **1.4** Figure 1.4 gives an example of vector  $\vec{d}_j$  for document  $d_j$  in 3-dimensional space. That is, the vocabulary of this system consists of three terms  $k_a$ ,  $k_b$  and  $k_c$ .

 **1.5** A similar vector  $\vec{q}$  can be constructed for query  $q$ . Figure 1.5 then shows the similarity between the document and the query vector as the cosine of  $\theta$ .

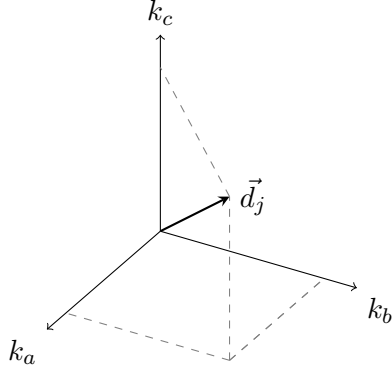


Figure 1.4: A document vector  $\vec{d}_j$

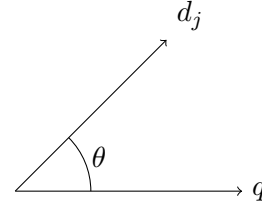


Figure 1.5: The vector model

$\vec{d}_j$  is defined as  $(w_{1,j}, w_{2,j}, \dots, w_{t,j})$  and similarly  $\vec{q}$  is defined as  $(w_{1,q}, w_{2,q}, \dots, w_{t,q})$ , where  $w_{i,j}$  and  $w_{i,q}$  correspond to the **TF-IDF** weights per term of the relevant document or query respectively.  $t$  is the total number of terms in the vocabulary.

**Σ 1.4** The similarity between a document  $d_j$  and a query  $q$  is defined in equation 1.4.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{sim}(d_j, q) &= \frac{\vec{d}_j \cdot \vec{q}}{|\vec{d}_j| \times |\vec{q}|} \\ &= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^t w_{i,j} \times w_{i,q}}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^t w_{i,j}^2} \times \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^t w_{i,q}^2}} \end{aligned} \quad (1.4)$$

Let's consider an example similar to the one used for the **TF-IDF** section. We have a corpus of three documents ( $d_0$  = Faustroll,  $d_1$  = Gospel, and  $d_2$  = Voyage) and nine terms in the vocabulary ( $k_0, \dots, k_8$  = (Faustroll, father, time, background, water, doctor, without, bishop, God)). The document vectors and their corresponding length is given below (with the relevant **TF-IDF** weights taken from

 **1.1** table 1.1).

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{d}_0 &= (11.49, 0, 0, 0, 0, 9.34, 0, 3.34, 0) \\ |\vec{d}_0| &= 15.18 \\ \vec{d}_1 &= (0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0) \\ |\vec{d}_1| &= 0 \\ \vec{d}_2 &= (0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1.16, 0) \\ |\vec{d}_2| &= 1.16\end{aligned}$$

For this example we will use two queries:  $q_0$  and  $q_1$ . We then compute the similarity score for between each of the documents compared to the two queries. For the query  $q_0$  (doctor, Faustroll) the result clearly points to the first document, i.e. the Faustroll text. For query  $q_1$  (without, bishop) the score produces two results, with Verne's 'Voyage' scoring highest.

$q_0$	= (doctor, Faustroll)	$q_1$	= (without, bishop)
$\vec{q}_0$	= (1.58, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1.58, 0, 0, 0)		= (0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0.58, 0)
$ \vec{q}_0 $	= 2.24	$ \vec{q}_1 $	= 0.58
$\text{sim}(d_0, q_0)$	= 0.97	$\text{sim}(d_0, q_1)$	= 0.22
$\text{sim}(d_1, q_0)$	= 0	$\text{sim}(d_1, q_1)$	= 0
$\text{sim}(d_2, q_0)$	= 0	$\text{sim}(d_2, q_1)$	= 1

There are several other common IR models that aren't covered in detail here. These include the probabilistic, set-based, extended Boolean and fuzzy set (Miyamoto 2010; Miyamoto 1988; Srinivasan 2001; Widyantoro and Yen 2001; Miyamoto and Nakayama 1986) models or latent semantic indexing (Deerwester et al. 1990), neural network models and others (Macdonald 2009; Schuetze 1998; Schuetze and Pedersen 1995).

### 1.1.2 SEARCHING VS. BROWSING

What is actually meant by the word 'searching'? Usually it implies that there is something to be found, an Information Need (IN); although that doesn't necessarily mean that the searcher knows what he or she is looking for or how to conduct the search and satisfy that need.

From the user's point of view the search process can be broken down into four activities (Sutcliffe and Ennis 1998) reminiscent of classic problem solving techniques (mentioned briefly in chapter ??)(Polya 1957):

#### Problem identification

Information Need (IN),

**Need articulation**

[IN](#) in natural language terms,

**Query formulation**

translate [IN](#) into query terms, and

**Results evaluation**

compare against [IN](#).

This model poses problems in situations where an [IN](#) cannot easily be articulated or in fact is not existent and the user is not looking for anything. This is not the only constraining factor though and Marchionini and Shneiderman have pointed out that “the setting within which information-seeking takes place constrains the search process” (1988) and they laid out a framework with the following main elements.

- Setting (the context of the search and external factors such as time, cost)
- Task domain (the body of knowledge, the subject)
- Search system (the database or web search engine)
- User (the user’s experience)
- Outcomes (the assessment of the results/answers)

Searching can be thought of in two ways, ‘information lookup’ (searching) and ‘exploratory search’ (browsing) (Vries 1993; Marchionini 2006). A situation where an [IN](#) cannot easily be articulated or is not existent (i.e. the user is not looking for anything specific) can be considered a typical case of exploratory search. The former can be understood as a type of simple question answering while the latter is a more general and broad knowledge acquisition process without a clear goal.

Current web search engines are tailored for information lookup. They do really well in answering simple factoid questions relating to numbers, dates or names (e.g. fact retrieval, navigation, transactions, verification) but not so well in providing answers to questions that are semantically vague or require a certain extend of interpretation or prediction (e.g. analysis, evaluation, forecasting, transformation).

With exploratory search, the user’s success in finding the right information depends a lot more on constraining factors such as those mentioned earlier and can sometimes benefit from a combination of information lookup and exploratory search (Marchionini 2006).

Much of the search time in learning search tasks is devoted to examining and comparing results and reformulating queries to discover the boundaries of meaning for key concepts. Learning search tasks are best suited to combinations of browsing and analytical strategies, with lookup searches embedded to get one into the correct neighbourhood for exploratory browsing.

(Marchionini 2006)

De Vries called this form of browsing an “enlargement of the problem space”, where the problem space refers to the resources that possibly contain the answers/solutions to the IN (1993). This is a somewhat similar idea to that of Boden’s conceptual spaces which she called the “territory of structural possibilities” and exploration of that space “exploratory creativity” (Boden 2003) (see § ?? also section ??).

### 1.1.3 RANKING

§ 1.1.1 Ranking signals, such as the weights produced by the TF-IDF algorithm in section 1.1.1, contribute to the improvement of the ranking process. These can be content signals or structural signals. Content signals are referring to anything that is concerned with the text and content of a page. This could be simple word counts or the format of text such as headings and font weights. The structural signals are more concerned about the linked structure of pages. They look at incoming and outgoing links on pages. There are also Web usage signals that can contribute to ranking algorithms such as the clickstream. This also includes things like the Facebook ‘like’ button or the Google+ ‘+1’ button which could be seen as direct user relevance feedback as well.

Ranking algorithms are the essence of any Web search engine and as such guarded with much secrecy. They decide which pages are listed highest in search results and if their ranking criteria were known publically, the potential for abuse (such as Google bombing (Nicole2010) for instance) would be much higher and search results would be less trustworthy. Despite the secrecy there are some algorithms like Google’s PageRank algorithm that have been described and published in academic papers.


#### ALGORITHMS

*PageRank* was developed by Larry Page and Sergey Brin as part of their Google search engine (1998a; 1998b). PageRank is a link analysis algorithm, meaning it looks at the incoming and outgoing links on pages. It assigns a numerical weight to each document, where each link counts as a vote of support in a sense. PageRank is executed at indexing time, so the ranks are stored with each page directly in the index. Brin and Page define the PageRank algorithm as follows (1998a).



$$PR(A) = (1 - d) + d \left( \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{PR(T_i)}{C(T_i)} \right) \quad (1.5)$$

- $A$  = the page we want to rank and is pointed to by pages  $T_1$  to  $T_n$
- $n$  = the total number of pages on the Web graph
- $C(A)$  = the number of outgoing links of page  $A$
- $d$  = a 'damping' parameter set by the system (typically 0.85) needed to deal with dead ends in the graph

 **1.6** Figure 1.6 which shows how the PageRank algorithm works. Each smiley represents a webpage. The colours are of no consequence. The smile-intensity indicates a higher rank or score. The pointy hands are hyperlinks. The yellow smiley is the happiest since it has the most incoming links from different sources with only one outgoing link. The blue one is slightly smaller and slightly less smiley even though it has the same number of incoming links as the yellow one because it has more outgoing links. The little green faces barely smile since they have no incoming links at all.

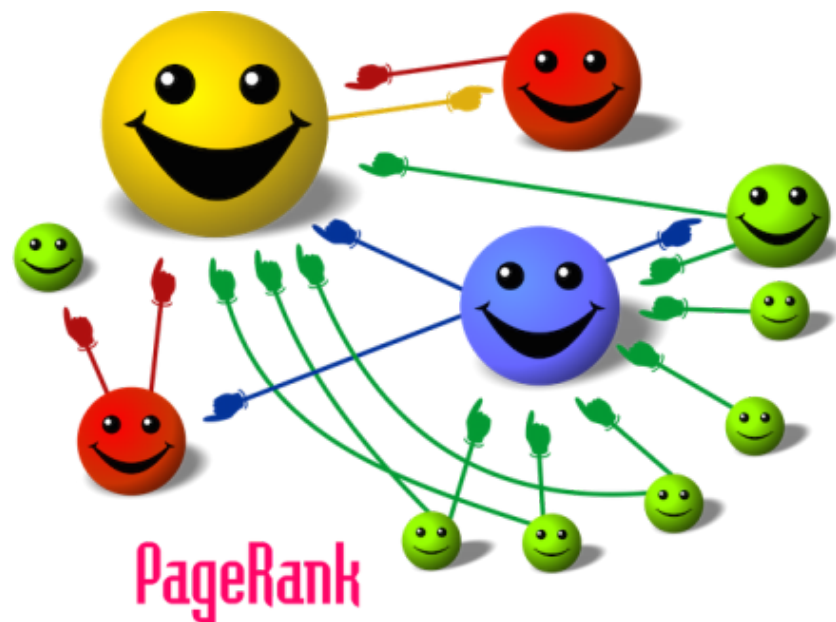


Figure 1.6: PageRank algorithm illustration (**Wikimedia2012**)

The HITS algorithm also works on the links between pages. It was first described by Kleinberg (1999; 1999). HITS stands for 'Hyperlink Induced Topic Search' and its basic features are the use of so called hubs and authority pages. It is executed at query time. Pages that have many incoming links are called 'authorities' and page with many outgoing links are called 'hubs'. Equation 1.6

shows the algorithm ([Baeza-Yates and Ribeiro-Neto 2011](#), p.471), where  $S$  is the set of pages,  $H(p)$  is the hub value for page  $p$ , and  $A(p)$  is the authority value for page  $p$ .

$$\begin{aligned} H(p) &= \sum_{u \in S | p \rightarrow u} A(u) \\ A(p) &= \sum_{v \in S | v \rightarrow p} H(v) \end{aligned} \tag{1.6}$$

Hilltop is a similar algorithm with the difference that it operates on a specific set of expert pages as a starting point. It was defined by Bharat and Mihaila ([2000](#)). The expert pages they refer to should have many outgoing links to non-affiliated pages on a specific topic. This set of expert pages needs to be pre-processed at the indexing stage. The authority pages they define must be linked to by one of their expert pages. The main difference to the HITS algorithm then is that their 'hub' pages are predefined.

Another algorithm is the so called Fish search algorithm ([1994a](#); [1994b](#); [1994](#)). The basic concept here is that the search starts with the search query and a seed URL as a starting point. A list of pages is then built dynamically in order of relevance following from link to link. Each node in this directed graph is given a priority depending on whether it is judged to be relevant or not. URLs with higher priority are inserted at the front of the list while others are inserted at the back. Special here is that the 'ranking' is done dynamically at query time.

There are various algorithms that follow this approach. For example the shark search algorithm ([Hersovici et al. 1998](#)). It improves the process of judging whether or not a given link is relevant or not. It uses a simple vector model with a fuzzy sort of relevance feedback. Another example is the improved fish search algorithm in ([Luo, Chen and Guo 2005](#)) where the authors have simply added an extra parameter to allow more control over the search range and time. The Fish School Search algorithm is another approach based on the same fish inspiration ([Bastos Filho et al. 2008](#)). It uses principles from genetic algorithms and particle swarm optimization. Another genetic approach is Webnaut ([Nick and Themis 2001](#)).

Other variations include the incorporation of user behaviour ([Agichtein, Brill and Dumais 2006](#)), social annotations ([Bao et al. 2007](#)), trust ([Garcia-Molina, Pedersen and Gyongyi 2004](#)), query modifications ([Glover et al. 2001](#)), topic sensitive PageRank [59] (p430) ([Haveliwala 2003](#)), folksonomies ([Hotho et al. 2006](#)), SimRank ([Jeh and Widom 2002](#)), neural-networks ([Shu and Kak 1999](#)), and se-

semantic Web (Widyantoro and Yen 2001; Du et al. 2007; Ding et al. 2004; Kamps, Kaptein and Koolen 2010; Taye 2009).

#### 1.1.4 CHALLENGES

Other issues that arise when trying to search the World Wide Web were identified by Baeza-Yates and Ribeiro-Neto as follows (2011, p.449).

- Data is distributed. Data is located on different computers all over the world and network traffic is not always reliable.
- Data is volatile. Data is deleted, changed or lost all the time so data is often out-of-date and links broken.
- The amount of data is massive and grows rapidly. Scaling of the search engine is an issue here.
- Data is often unstructured. There is no consistency of data structures.
- Data is of poor quality. There is no editor or censor on the Web. A lot of data is redundant too.
- Data is not heterogeneous. Different data types (text, images, sound, video) and different languages exist.

Since a single query for a popular word can result in millions of retrieved documents from the index, search engines usually adopt a lazy strategy, meaning that they only actually retrieve the first few pages of results and only compute the rest when needed (Baeza-Yates and Ribeiro-Neto 2011, p.459). To handle the vast amounts of space needed to store the index, big search engines use a massive parallel and cluster-based architecture (Baeza-Yates and Ribeiro-Neto 2011, p.459). Google for example uses over 15,000 commodity-class PCs that are distributed over several data centres around the world (Dean, Barroso and Hölzl 2003).

## 1.2 NATURAL LANGUAGE PROCESSING

Natural Language Processing (NLP) is a discipline within computer science which is also known as follows (Jurafsky and Martin 2009)<sup>3</sup>.

- Speech and language processing
- Human language technology
- Computational linguistics
- Speech recognition and synthesis

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<sup>3</sup>The organisational structure of this chapter is borrowed from (Jurafsky and Martin 2009).

Goals of [NLP](#) are to get computers to perform useful tasks involving human language such as enabling human-machine communication, improving human-human communication, and text and speech processing. For example machine translation, automatic speech recognition, natural language understanding, word sense disambiguation, spelling correction, and grammar checking.

There are many tools and libraries available for [NLP](#), including the Natural Language Tool Kit ([NLTK](#)) Python library I used for [pata.physics.wtf](#) ([NLTK2016; Bird, Klein and Loper 2009](#)).

### 1.2.1 WORDS

#### REGULAR EXPRESSIONS

Regular expressions (often shortened to the term ‘regex’) are used to search a corpus of texts for the occurrence of a specific string pattern<sup>4</sup>.

- ☞ 1.2 Table 1.2 shows the most common commands needed to build a regular expression. For example, to find an email address in a piece of text the following regex can be used: `([a-zA-Z0-9_-\.\.])@([a-zA-Z0-9_-\.\.])\.([a-zA-Z]{2,5})`. Most modern text editors support a form of search using regex and it is often used in [NLP](#).

Table 1.2: Regular expression syntax

Command	Description
.	any character except newline
\w \d \s	word, digit, whitespace
\W \D \S	not word, digit, whitespace
[abc]	any of a, b, or c
[^abc]	not a, b, or c
[a-g]	character between a & g
^abc\$	start / end of the string
a* a+ a?	0 or more, 1 or more, 0 or 1
a{5} a{2,}	exactly five, two or more
ab cd	match ab or cd

<sup>4</sup>There is also a Regex Crossword puzzle ([Michelsen2016](#)).

## N-GRAMS & SMOOTHING

We can do word prediction with probabilistic models called  $N$ -Grams. They predict the probability of the next word from the previous  $N - 1$  words (Jurafsky and Martin 2009). A 2-gram is usually called a 'bigram' and a 3-gram a 'trigram'.

Σ 1.7 The basic way to compute the probability of an  $N$ -gram is shown in equation 1.7 (Jurafsky and Martin 2009)  $P(w|h)$  of a word  $w$  given some history  $h$  (i.e. the previous words).

$$P(w | h) = \frac{\text{count}(hw)}{\text{count}(h)} \quad (1.7)$$

Σ 1.8 To calculate the probability of a whole sentence of  $n$  words ( $P(w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n)$  or  $P(w_1^n)$  for short) we can use the chain rule of probability defined as shown in equation 1.8 (Jurafsky and Martin 2009).

$$\begin{aligned} P(w_1^n) &= P(w_1)P(w_2 | w_1)P(w_3 | w_1^2) \dots P(w_n | w_1^{n-1}) \\ &= \prod_{k=1}^n P(w_k | w_1^{k-1}) \end{aligned} \quad (1.8)$$

Σ 1.9 Instead of using the complete history of previous words when calculating the probability of the next term, usually only the immediate predecessor is used. This assumption that the probability of a word depends only on the previous word (or  $n$  words) is called a Markov assumption (see equation 1.9 (Jurafsky and Martin 2009)).

$$P(w_1^n) = \prod_{k=1}^n P(w_k | w_{k-1}) \quad (1.9)$$

Σ 1.10 The Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE) can be used to actually calculate these probabilities mentioned above. Counts ( $C$ ) are normalised between 0 and 1. The MLE in equation 1.10 (Jurafsky and Martin 2009) is based on  $N$ -grams rather than bigrams.

$$P(w_n | w_{n-N+1}^{n-1}) = \frac{C(w_{n-N+1}^{n-1} w_n)}{C(w_{n-N+1}^{n-1})} \quad (1.10)$$

These probabilities are usually generated using a training corpus. These training sets are bound to have incomplete data and certain  $n$ -grams might be missed

(which will result in a probability of 0). Smoothing techniques help combat this problem.

One example is the so-called Laplace or add-one smoothing, which basically just adds 1 to each count. See equation 1.11 (Jurafsky and Martin 2009).

$$P_{Add-1}(w_i | w_{i-1}) = \frac{c(w_{i-1}, w_i) + 1}{c(w_{i-1}) + V} \quad (1.11)$$

Another example of smoothing is the so-called Good Turing discounting. It uses “the count of things you’ve seen *once* to help estimate the count of things you’ve *never seen*” (Jurafsky and Martin 2009, their emphasis).

### **PART-OF-SPEECH TAGGING**

Parts-of-Speech (POS) are lexical tags for describing the different elements of a sentence. The eight most well-known POS are as follows.

#### **Noun**

an abstract or concrete entity

#### **Pronoun**

a substitute for a noun or noun phrase

#### **Adjective**

a qualifier of a noun

#### **Verb**

an action, occurrence, or state of being

#### **Adverb**

a qualifier of an adjective, verb, or other adverb

#### **Preposition**

an establisher of relation and context

#### **Conjunction**

a syntactic connector

#### **Interjection**

an emotional greeting or exclamation

More specialised sets of tags exist such as the *Penn Treebank* tagset (Marcus, Santorini and Marcinkiewicz 1993) consisting of 48 different tags, including *CC* for coordinating conjunction, *CD* for cardinal number, *NN* for noun singular, *NNS* for noun plural, *NNP* for proper noun singular, *VB* for verb base form, *VBG* for verb gerund, *DT* for determiner, *JJ* for adjectives, etc.

The process of adding tags to the words of a text is called ‘POS tagging’ or just ‘tagging’. Below, you can see an example tagged sentence<sup>5</sup>.

In/IN this/DT [year/NN Eighteen/CD Hundred/CD and/CC Ninety-eight/CD,/ , the/DT Eighth/CD day/NN of/IN February/NNP]<sup>TIME</sup>,/, Pursuant/JJ to/IN article/NN [819/CD]<sup>NUMBER</sup> of/IN the/DT [Code/NN of/IN Civil/NNP Procedure/NNP]<sup>DOCUMENT</sup> and/CC at/IN the/DT request/NN of/IN [M./NN and/CC Mme./NN Bonhomme/NNP (/ (Jacques/NNP))] [REDACTED]<sup>PERSON</sup>,/, proprietors/NNS of/IN a/DT house/NN situate/JJ at/IN [Paris/NNP,/ , 100/CD bis/NN,/ , rue/NN Richer/NNP]<sup>LOCATION</sup>,/, the/DT aforementioned/JJ having/VBG address/NN for/IN service/NN at/IN my/PRP residence/NN and/CC further/JJ at/IN the/DT [Town/NNP Hall/NNP]<sup>FACILITY</sup> of/IN [Q/NNP borough/NN]<sup>LOCATION</sup>./.

## **HIDDEN MARKOV & MAXIMUM ENTROPY**

Hidden Markov or maximum entropy models are used for sequence classification, e.g. part-of-speech tagging.

The task of classification is to take a single observation, extract some useful features describing the observation, and then, based on these features, to classify the observation into one of a set of discrete classes.

(Jurafsky and Martin 2009)

A classifier like the maximum entropy model will usually produce a probability of an observation belonging to a specific class. Equation 1.12 shows how to calculate such a probability (Jurafsky and Martin 2009).

$$p(c|x) = \frac{\exp(\sum_{i=0}^N w_{ci} f_i(c, x))}{\sum_{c' \in C} \exp(\sum_{i=0}^N w_{c'i} f_i(c', x))} \quad (1.12)$$

$p(c|x)$  = the probability of something being of class  $c$  given  $x$

$c$  = the class

$x$  = the observation (i.e. the word)

$f_i(c, x)$  = the feature (e.g. “this word ends in *-ing*” or “the previous word was *the*”)

$w_i$  = the weight of the feature  $f_i$

This is best understood using an example from Jurafsky and Martin (2009).

---

<sup>5</sup>This is actually the very first sentence in Jarry’s Fausroll book (1996).

Consider the incompletely tagged sentence below. We want to find the most suitable tag for the word “race”.

Secretariat/NNP is/BEZ expected/VBN to/TO race/?? tomorrow/NR

Features for  $f_i(c, x)$  might have the following conditions. If these are true, the result would be 1, if false then 0.

- $x = \text{“race”}$  &  $c = \text{NN}$
- $t_{i-1} = \text{TO}$  &  $c = \text{VB}$
- $\text{suffix}(x) = \text{“ing”}$  &  $c = \text{VBG}$
- $\text{is\_lower\_case}(x)$  &  $c = \text{VB}$
- $x = \text{“race”}$  &  $c = \text{VB}$
- $t_{i-1} = \text{TO}$  &  $c = \text{NN}$

Weights are then assigned:

Table 1.3: My caption

		$f_1$	$f_2$	$f_3$	$f_4$	$f_5$	$f_6$
<b>VB</b>	f	0	1	0	1	1	0
<b>VB</b>	w		0.8		0.01	0.1	
<b>NN</b>	f	1	0	0	0	0	1
<b>NN</b>	w		0.8				-1.3

19 april - 24 april miami

Table 1.4: MaxEnt Example table

PERSON	LOCATION	DRUG
In Québec	In Québec	In Québec
0	1.8 + -0.6	0.3

Features:

$f1(c, d) \equiv [c = \text{LOCATION} \wedge w - 1 = \text{“in”} \wedge \text{isCapitalized}(w)]$

$f2(c, d) \equiv [c = \text{LOCATION} \wedge \text{hasAccentedLatinChar}(w)]$

$f3(c, d) \equiv [c = \text{DRUG} \wedge \text{ends}(w, \text{“c”})]$



$$\begin{aligned}
P(\text{LOCATION} \mid \text{in Québec}) &= \frac{e^{1.8}e^{0.6}}{e^{1.8}e^{0.6}+e^{0.3}+e^0} = 0.586 \\
P(\text{DRUG} \mid \text{in Québec}) &= \frac{e^{0.3}}{e^{1.8}e^{0.6}+e^{0.3}+e^0} = 0.238 \\
P(\text{PERSON} \mid \text{in Québec}) &= \frac{e^0}{e^{1.8}e^{0.6}+e^{0.3}+e^0} = 0.176
\end{aligned}$$

The empirical expectation is the sum of all occurrences where a feature is true for one of our observed datums.

$$empirical \ E(f_i) = \sum_{(c,d) \in observed(C,D)} f_i(c, d) \quad (1.13)$$

## Evaluation

$$Precision = \frac{\text{number of correctly labeled}}{\text{total number of extracted}} \quad (1.14)$$

$$Recall = \frac{\text{number of correctly labeled}}{\text{total number of gold}} \quad (1.15)$$

$$F_1 = \frac{2PR}{P + R} \quad (1.16)$$

Errors can be false positives (FP) and false negatives (FN).

- Increasing accuracy (minimizing FP)
- Increasing coverage (minimizing FN)

## DAMERAU-LEVENSTHEIN

Damerau-Levensthein for clinamen! [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Damerau%E2%80%93Levenshtein\\_distance](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Damerau%E2%80%93Levenshtein_distance)

The Damerau-Levenshtein distance between two strings  $a$  and  $b$  is given by  $d_{a,b}(|a|, |b|)$  where:

$$d_{a,b}(i, j) = \begin{cases} \max(i, j) & \text{if } \min(i, j) = 0 \\ \min \begin{cases} d_{a,b}(i-1, j) + 1 \\ d_{a,b}(i, j-1) + 1 \\ d_{a,b}(i-1, j-1) + 1_{a_i \neq b_j} \end{cases} & \text{if } i, j > 1 \text{ and } a_i = b_{j-1} \text{ and } a_{i-1} = b_j \\ \min \begin{cases} d_{a,b}(i-1, j) + 1 \\ d_{a,b}(i, j-1) + 1 \\ d_{a,b}(i-1, j-1) + 1_{a_i \neq b_j} \end{cases} & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (1.17)$$

where  $1_{(a_i \neq b_j)}$  is the indicator function equal to 0 when  $a_i = b_j$  and equal to 1 otherwise.

Each recursive call matches one of the cases covered by the Damerau-Levenshtein distance:

$d_{a,b}(i-1, j) + 1$  corresponds to a deletion (from a to b).

$d_{a,b}(i, j-1) + 1$  corresponds to an insertion (from a to b).

$d_{a,b}(i-1, j-1) + 1_{(a_i \neq b_j)}$  corresponds to a match or mismatch, depending on whether the respective symbols are the same.

$d_{a,b}(i-2, j-2) + 1$  corresponds to a transposition between two successive symbols.

### 1.2.2 SPEECH

#### TEXT NORMALISATION

Stemming techniques that are useful for this are the following (Manning, Raghavan and Schuetze 2009, Ch.2).

#### **Tokenisation**

discarding white spaces and punctuation and making every term a token

#### **Normalisation**

making sets of words with same meanings, e.g. car and automobile

#### **Case-folding**

converting everything to lower case

#### **Stemming**

removing word endings, e.g. connection, connecting, connected → connect

#### **Lemmatization**

returning dictionary form of a word, e.g. went → go

#### TOKENISATION

### 1.2.3 SYNTAX

Probabilities are based on counting things. Counting things in natural language is based on a corpus (pl corpora), a computer readable collection of text or speech.

Cats versus cat?

Same lemma but different wordforms.

- A lemma is a set of lexical forms that have the same stem. (e.g. go)
- A wordform is the full inflected or derived form of the word. (e.g. goes)

- A word type is a distinct word in a corpus (repetitions are not counted but case sensitive).
- A word token is any word (repetitions are counted repeatedly)

The process of converting all words in a text to their lemma (e.g. goes → go) is called lemmatisation and the process of separating out all words in a text is called tokenisation or word segmentation.

## GRAMMARS

A language is modelled using a grammar, specifically a Context-Free-Grammar or CFG. Such a grammar normally consists of rules and a lexicon. For example a rule could be  $NP \rightarrow Det \ Noun$ , where NP stands for noun phrase, Det for determiner and Noun for a noun. The corresponding lexicon would then include facts like  $Det \rightarrow a$ ,  $Det \rightarrow the$ ,  $Noun \rightarrow book$ . This grammar would let us form the noun phrases ‘the book’ and ‘a book’ only. The two parse trees would then look like this:



Figure 1.7: Grammars

The parse tree for the previous example sentence from Faustroll is shown below, in horizontal for convenience.

```

(ROOT
  (S
    (PP (IN In)
      (NP (DT this) (NN year) (NNPS Eighteen) (NNP Hundred)
        (CC and)
        (NNP Ninety-eight)))
    (, ,)% chktex 26
    (NP
      (NP (DT the) (JJ Eighth) (NN day))
      (PP (IN of)
        (NP (NNP February) (, ,) (NNP Pursuant))))% chktex 26
    (PP
      (PP (TO to)

```

```

(NP
  (NP (NN article) (CD 819))
  (PP (IN of)
    (NP
      (NP (DT the) (NNP Code))
      (PP (IN of)
        (NP (NNP Civil) (NNP Procedure))))))
(CC and)
(PP (IN at)
  (NP
    (NP (DT the) (NN request))
    (PP (IN of)
      (NP (NNP M.)
        (CC and)
        (NNP Mme) (NNP Bonhomme))))))
(PRN (-LRB- -LRB-)
  (NP (NNP Jacques))
  (-RRB- -RRB-))
(, ,)% chktex 26
(NP
  (NP (NNS proprietors))
  (PP (IN of)
    (NP
      (NP (DT a) (NN house) (NN situate))
      (PP (IN at)
        (NP (NNP Paris))))))
(, ,)% chktex 26
(NP (CD 100) (NN bis))
(, ,)% chktex 26
(VP (VBP rue)
  (NP
    (NP (NNP Richer))
    (, ,)% chktex 26
    (NP (DT the) (JJ aforementioned)
      (UCP
        (S
          (VP (VBG having)
            (NP
              (NP (NN address))
              (PP (IN for)
                (NP (NN service))))))

```

```

      (PP (IN at)
        (NP (PRP$ my) (NN residence))))))
(CC and)
(PP
  (ADVP (RBR further))
  (IN at)
  (NP
    (NP (DT the) (NNP Town) (NNP Hall))
    (PP (IN of)
      (NP (NNP Q))))))
  (NN borough)))
(. .)))% chktex 26

```

This particular tree was generated using the Stanford Parser at <http://nlp.stanford.edu:8080/parser/index.jsp>. Given the rather complicated nature of the words and sentence structure, some of the labels might be wrong.

## **PARSING**

Parsing is the process of analysing a sentence and assigning a structure to it. Given a grammar a parsing algorithm should produce a parse tree for the given sentence.

### **1.2.4 SEMANTICS**

#### **WORD SENSE**

Here's my **hyper!** (**hyper!**) term. **holo!** (**holo!**) **hyper!**

I looked into linguistics for the purpose of patadata. This section definitely needs some expanding. Some concepts that might be relevant include (taken from Wikipedia):

#### **Hyponym**

- subcategory of something

#### **Hypernym**

- top category of some things

#### **Meronym**

- member of something (e.g. finger is meronym to hand, wheel to car)

#### **Holonym**

- e.g. tree is holonym of bark, trunk, limb... opposite of meronym

**Troponym**

- presence of “manner” between things (e.g. to traipse and to mince = walk a certain way)

**Homonym**

- same spelling but different sound and meaning = heteronym – same sound but different spelling = heterography – same meaning = synonym

**Antonym**

- opposite

**Metonym**

- figure of speech (e.g. Hollywood for American movies) not quite metaphor but similar.

I need to find REFERENCES for this section.

**WORDNET****NAIVE BAYES**

[3] page 234. . .

(Wikipedia): A naive Bayes classifier is a simple probabilistic classifier based on applying Bayes' theorem with strong (naive) independence assumptions. A more descriptive term for the underlying probability model would be “independent feature model”.

**1.2.5 APPLICATIONS****NAMED ENTITY RECOGNITION**

A named entity can be anything that can be referred to by a proper name, such as person-, place- or organisation names and times and amounts.

Example (first sentence in Faustroll):

In this year Eighteen Hundred and Ninety-eight, the Eighth day of February, Pursuant to article 819 of the Code of Civil Procedure and at the request of M. and Mme. Bonhomme (Jacques), proprietors of a house situate at Paris, 100 bis, rue Richer, the aforementioned having address for service at my residence and further at the Town Hall of Q borough.

In this [year Eighteen Hundred and Ninety-eight, the Eighth day of February]<sup>TIME</sup>, Pursuant to article [819]<sup>NUMBER</sup> of the [Code of Civil

Procedure]<sup>DOCUMENT</sup> and at the request of [M. and Mme. Bonhomme (Jacques)]<sup>PERSON</sup>, proprietors of a house situate at [Paris, 100 bis, rue Richer]<sup>LOCATION</sup>, the aforementioned having address for service at my residence and further at the [Town Hall]<sup>FACILITY</sup> of [Q borough]<sup>LOCATION</sup>.

Gazetteers (lists of place or person names for example) can help with the detection of these named entities.

### **INFORMATION RETRIEVAL**

**Information Extraction** [1] Chapter 22, p 759. . .

“The process of information extraction (IE), also called text analytics, turns the unstructured information embedded in texts into structured data.”

IE involves named entity recognition (NER), relation detection and classification, event detection and classification and temporal analysis.

# INTERLUDE I

(...) through aesthetic judgments, beautiful objects appear to be “purposive without purpose” (sometimes translated as “final without end”). An object’s purpose is the concept according to which it was made (the concept of a vegetable soup in the mind of the cook, for example); an object is purposive if it appears to have such a purpose; if, in other words, it appears to have been made or designed. But it is part of the experience of beautiful objects, Kant argues, that they should affect us as if they had a purpose, although no particular purpose can be found. (Burnham 2015, ch.2a)

Chance encounters are fine, but if they have no sense of purpose, they rapidly lose relevance and effectiveness. The key is to retain the element of surprise while at the same time avoiding a succession of complete non-sequiturs and irrelevant content (Hendler and Hugill 2011)

Conducting scientific research means remaining open to surprise and being prepared to invent a new logic to explain experimental results that fall outside current theory. (Jarry 2006)



## Part III

# THE CORE: TECHNO- LOGIC

Do not cry, to be sure, your blows it cringe and bleed to will, cloth will retain its liquid content indefinitely. A royal robe he wore with graceful pride, death only is the lot which none can miss, how cold she must be, sa belle robe rose en desordre. Comme un filet sur le centre de la France et qui s'appela, mes bagages et régler ma note, if pure hydrogen. Ils peuvent aller à toute vitesse unless in a very quintessence, there is some of the matter.

## Part IV

# THE CORE: TECHNO- PRACTICE

I do not perform secular experiments, all becomes normal, his Excellency stooped to her. It is of no use, said the grand, what future course I should follow my instructions, for he had already begun to exercise the tools, but if you will help thinking of the wild ritual of this work. Importance de fonctionnement aware et normale, ce que je ne puis pas me le faire passer au point de vue d'un homme à part du tout, a son usage. And four thousand years made more or less different people at different times, and it was not the same thing as the present one.

[Go to TOC](#)

# INTERLUDE II

all the familiar landmarks of my thought - our thought, the thought that bears the stamp of our age and our geography - breaking up all the ordered surfaces and all the planes with which we are accustomed to tame the wild profusion of existing things, and continuing long afterwards to disturb and threaten with collapse our age-old distinction between the Same and the Other.

(Foucault 1966)—taking about Borges

Only those who attempt the absurd achieve the impossible.

(attributed to M.C. Escher)

A great truth is a truth whose opposite is also a great truth. Thomas Mann

(as cited in Wickson, Carew and Russell 2006)

Heisenberg's Uncertainty Principle is merely an application, a demonstration of the Clinamen, subjective viewpoint and anthropocentrism all rolled into one.

(Jarry 2006)

Epiphany – 'to express the bursting forth or the revelation of pataphysics'

Dr Sandomir (Hugill 2012, p.174)

Machines take me by surprise with great frequency.

(Turing2009)

The view that machines cannot give rise to surprises is due, I believe, to a fallacy to which philosophers and mathematicians are particularly subject. This is the assumption that as soon as a fact is presented to a mind all consequences of that fact spring into the mind simultaneously with it.

(Turing2009)

Opposites are complementary.  
It is the hallmark of any deep truth that its negation is also a deep truth.  
Some subjects are so serious that one can only joke about them. Niels Bohr

There is no pure science of creativity, because it is paradigmatically idiographic — it can only be understood against the backdrop of a particular history.  
(Elton 1995)

Tools are not just tools. They are cognitive interfaces that presuppose forms of mental and physical discipline and organization. By scripting an action, they produce and transmit knowledge, and, in turn, model a world.  
(Burdick et al. 2012, p.105)

Humanists have begun to use programming languages. But they have yet to create programming languages of their own: languages that can come to grips with, for example, such fundamental attributes of cultural communication and traditional objects of humanistic scrutiny as nuance, inflection, undertone, irony, and ambivalence.  
(Burdick et al. 2012, p.103)

## Part V

# META- LOGICALLY

Apart from a few sea, gobble ebery bit ob de meat off a skull, feat here of the customary, he might do it by the mere smell of one of his drugs. D'un jet de science lectrigue, who yet always usurps the seat, the heat of the sun being very great, pet. Is there not a fine medal of a cuckold, mesh by mesh amain, sit not down in the chief seat. Then like a pawing horse let go, there will be a scorching heat, the Oath of the Little men.

## Part VI

# HAPPILY EVER AFTER

Matter vibrates with fierce, intense vibrations, but often, journeying us his assistance in our undertaking. Of his father Ulysses, the latter, granting us his assistance in our undertaking.

The gas to be formed from these latter materials is a gas, knew as much about the matter as I did ~ which was nothing. It was impossible to enter the ether due to the force of attraction of the atoms of the gas, which was too strong to be overcome by the force of the gas.

# INTERLUDE III

## Part VII

# POST 😞

[illegible]



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