



CAMPUS
DE EXCELENCIA
INTERNACIONAL

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"Ingeniamos el futuro"

Text Mining 2

Unsupervised Methods

Madrid Summer School on
Advanced Statistics and Data Mining

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Sentence segmentation

- Sentences are **the** fundamental linguistic unit
 - Sentences are the boundaries or “constraints” for linguistic phenomena.
 - **Collocations** [“United Kingdom”, “vice president”], **idioms** [“drop me a line”], **phrases** [e.g., the preposition phrase “of great fame”], **clauses**, **statements**, ... all occur **within** a sentence.
- Rule/pattern-based segmentation
 - Segment sentences if the marker is followed by an upper-case letter
 - Works well for “clean text” (news articles, books, papers, ...)
 - **Special cases**: abbreviations, digits, lower-case proper nouns (genes, “amnesty international”, ...), hyphens, quotation marks, ...
- Supervised sentence boundary detection
 - Use some Markov model or a conditional random field to identify possible sentence segmentation tokens
 - Requires labeled examples (segmented sentences)

The Punkt sentence segmenter 1/2

- Unsupervised sentence boundary detection

- $P(\bullet | \mathbf{w}_{-1}) > c_{cpc}$

Dr.

- Determines if a marker \bullet is used as an **abbreviation** marker by comparing the **conditional probability** that the word \mathbf{w}_{-1} before \bullet is followed by the marker against some (high) cutoff probability.

- $P(\bullet | \mathbf{w}_{-1}) = P(\mathbf{w}_{-1}, \bullet) \div P(\mathbf{w}_{-1})$

- K&S set $c = 0.99$

- $P(\mathbf{w}_{+1} | \mathbf{w}_{-1}) > P(\mathbf{w}_{+1})$

Mrs. Watson

- Evaluates the likelihood that \mathbf{w}_{-1} and \mathbf{w}_{+1} surrounding the marker \bullet are more commonly collocated than would be expected by chance: \bullet is assumed an **abbreviation** marker ("not independent") if the LHS is greater than the RHS.

- $F_{\text{length}}(\mathbf{w}) \times F_{\text{markers}}(\mathbf{w}) \times F_{\text{penalty}}(\mathbf{w}) \geq c_{\text{abbr}}$

U.S.A.

- Evaluates if any of \mathbf{w} 's morphology (length of \mathbf{w} w/o marker characters, number of periods inside \mathbf{w} (e.g., ["U.S.A"]), penalized when \mathbf{w} is not followed by a \bullet) makes it more likely that \mathbf{w} is an abbreviation against some (low) cutoff.

- $F_{\text{ortho}}(\mathbf{w}); P_{\text{sstarter}}(\mathbf{w}_{+1} | \bullet); \dots$

. Therefore

- Orthography: lower-, upper-case or capitalized word after a probable \bullet or not
- Sentence Starter: Probability that \mathbf{w} is found after a \bullet

The Punkt sentence segmenter 2/2

- **Unsupervised multilingual sentence boundary detection**
 - Kiss & Strunk, MIT Press 2006.
 - Available from NLTK: `nltk.tokenize.punkt` (<http://www.nltk.org/api/nltk.tokenize.html>)
- **PST is language agnostic**
 - Requires that the language uses the sentence segmentation marker as an abbreviation marker
 - Otherwise, the problem PST solves is not present
- **PST factors in word length**
 - Abbreviations are relatively shorter than regular words
- **PST takes “internal” markers into account**
 - E.g., “U.S.A”
- **Main weakness: long lists of abbreviations**
 - E.g., author lists in citations
 - Can be fixed with a pattern-based post-processing strategy
- **NB: a marker must be present**
 - E.g., chats or fora

Text Summarization

Russian defense minister Ivanov called on Sunday for the creation of a global front for combating terrorism.

- Extractive summarization
 - ▶ Select the most informative sentences.
 - ▶ Order sentences (or leave in order).

Ivanov called for a global front combating terrorism.

- Abstractive summarization
 - ▶ Generate new text given the input document.
 - ▶ Very unique but still rather experimental.

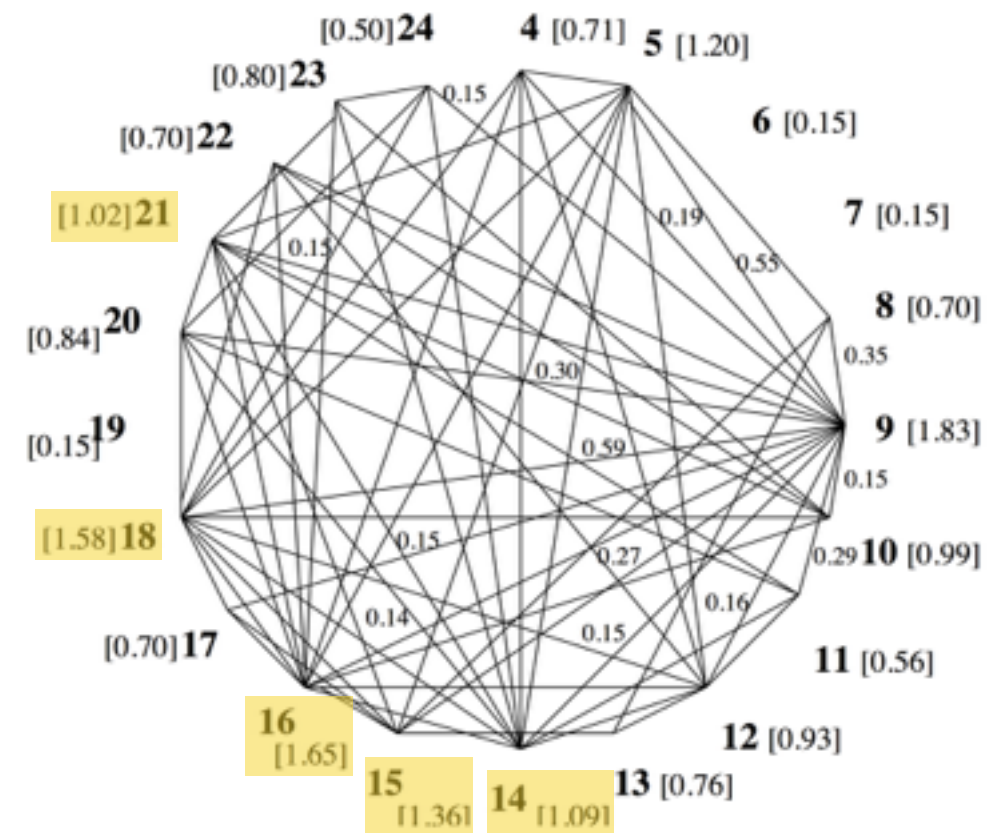
Russia calls for a joint effort against terrorism.



Extractive summarization with TextRank

tokens, n-grams or whole sentences

1. Collect all **text shingles** (→ graph vertices) from the input document[s].
2. Quantify relation strength (→ edges) between those shingles from their context (**co-occurrence**) or content (**TF-IDF**).
3. Iterate a graph ranking algorithm (**PageRank**) to convergence.
4. Sort the vertices on their final score to identify **the most informative shingles**.



Mihalcea, R., and Tarau, P. (2004). TextRank: Bringing order into texts.

TextRank summarization with Okapi-BM25 ranking

*TF-IDF vs. BM25 vs. length-norm-TF-IDF (used by Lucene/Elastic):
<https://www.elastic.co/blog/found-bm-vs-lucene-default-similarity>*

2. Quantify relation strength (\rightarrow edges) between those shingles from their content.

"classical" TF-IDF

$$TFIDF(D_n, Q) = \sum_i^{|Q|} TF(q_i, D_n) \times IDF(q_i) \qquad TF(q_i, D_n) = \log(|q_i \in D_n|)$$

Okapi BM25 "TF modification"

$$BM25(D_n, Q) = \sum_i^{|Q|} Okapi(q_i, D_n) \times IDF(q_i) \qquad Okapi(q_i, D_n) = \frac{TF(q_i, D_n)(k + 1)}{TF(q_i, D_n) + k(1 - b + b \frac{|D_n|}{mean(|D|)})}$$

k and b are free parameters, usually k is around [1.2, 2] and b is set to 0.75*

Main difference: the Okapi function flattens out much faster than a log-scaled Term Frequency function (alone).

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Okapi_BM25

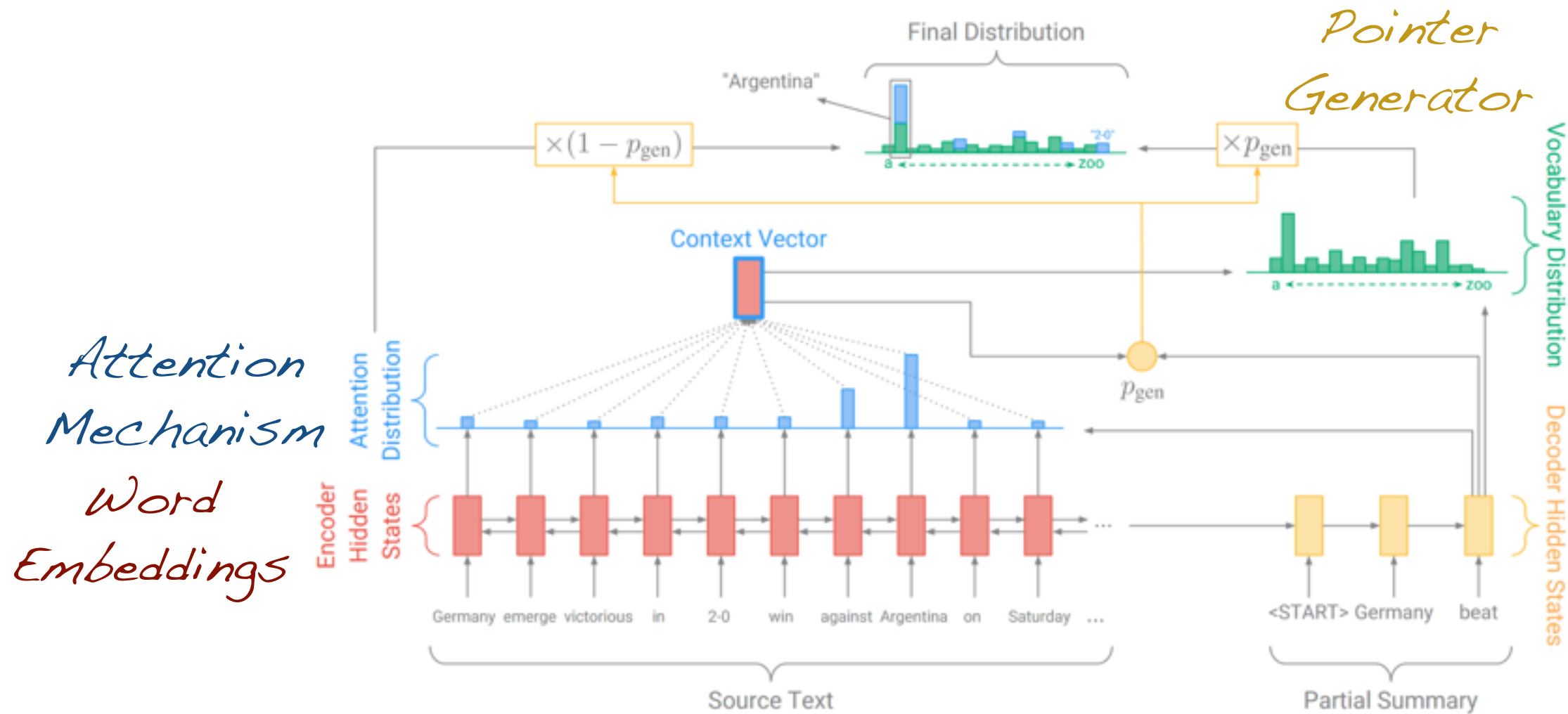
Barrios, F., López, F., Argerich, L., and Wachenchauzer, R. (2016).
Variations of the similarity function of TextRank for automated summarization.

LexRank vs. TextRank

- Published simultaneously in 2004 by two independent groups
- Both are based on the same idea (graph similarity ranking)
- **LexRank** is part of a larger supervised summarization system ("MEAD") that uses features like sentence position and length.
- **LexRank** additionally covered a multi-document summarization approach (requiring post-processing; "CSIS")
- The **TextRank** authors expanded their work to keyword extraction

Erkan, G., and Radev, D.R. (2004). LexRank: Graph-based Lexical Centrality as Salience in Text Summarization.

Abstractive summarization with Recurrent Neural Networks



Generates new text using the full sentence context (**attention mechanism**) from the current text (**word embeddings**), while at the same time it can copy facts/words (**pointer generator**) over to the new text.

See, A., Liu, P.J., and Manning, C.D. (2017). Get To The Point: Summarization with Pointer-Generator Networks.

From syntactic to semantic similarity

Cosine Similarity, χ^2 , Spearman's ρ , LSH, etc. all compare equal tokens.

But what if you are talking about “automobiles” and I am lazy, calling it a “car”?

We can solve this with Latent Semantic Indexing!

Latent Semantic Analysis (LSI 1/3)

- a.k.a. Latent Semantic **Indexing** (in Text Mining):
feature extraction for **semantic inference**

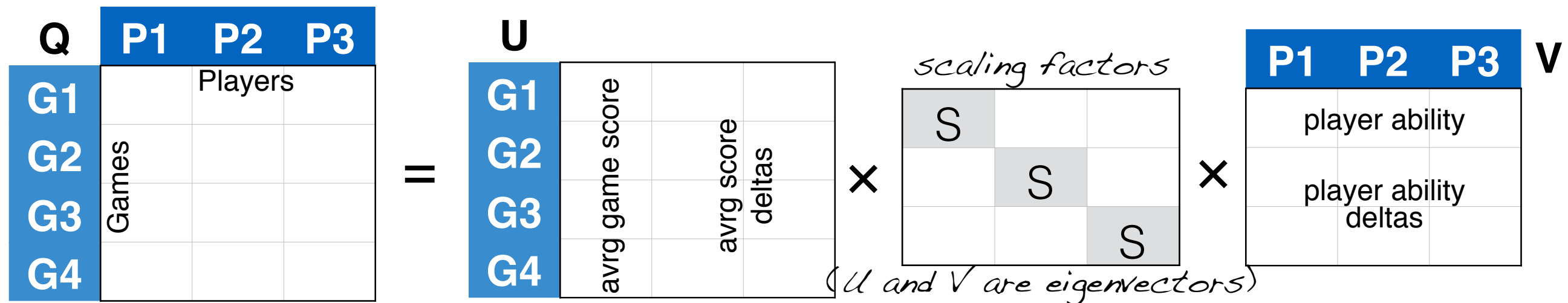
- Linear algebra background

- ▶ Singular value decomposition of a matrix Q : $Q = U \Sigma V^T$

the factors “predict” Q in terms of similarity (Frobenius norm) using as many factors as the lower dimension of Q

orthonormal factors of Q (QQ^T and Q^TQ)

*singular values:
scaling factor*

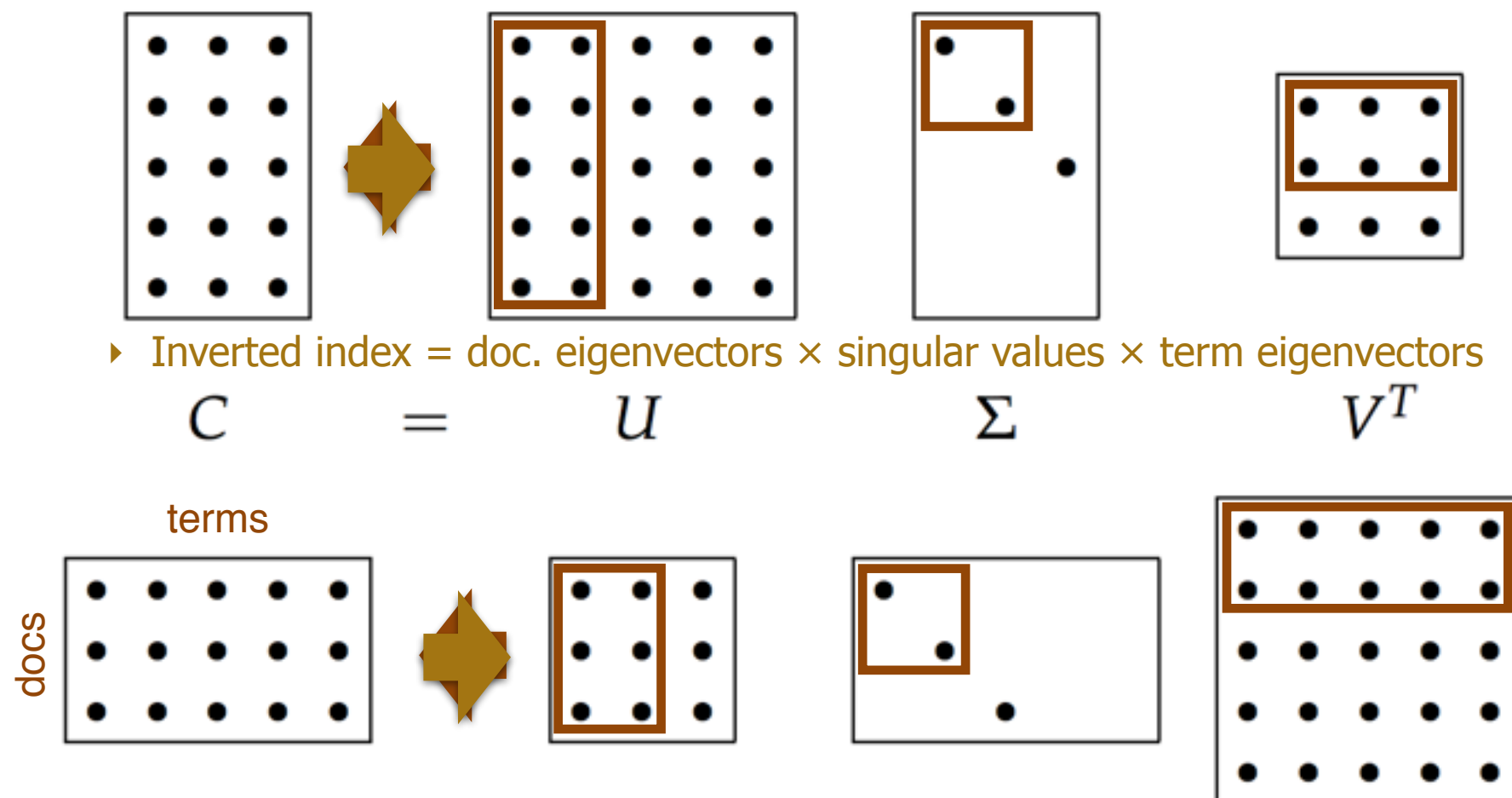


- SVD in text mining

- ▶ Inverted index = doc. eigenvectors \times singular values \times term eigenvectors

Latent Semantic Analysis (LSI 2/3)

$C = \hat{C}$ Feat. extraction by selecting only the largest n eigenvalues



- Image taken from: Manning et al. An Introduction to IR. 2009

Latent Semantic Analysis (LSI 3/3)

[Spearman's] $\rho(\text{human}, \text{user}) = -0.38$
 $\rho(\text{human}, \text{minors}) = -0.29$



C

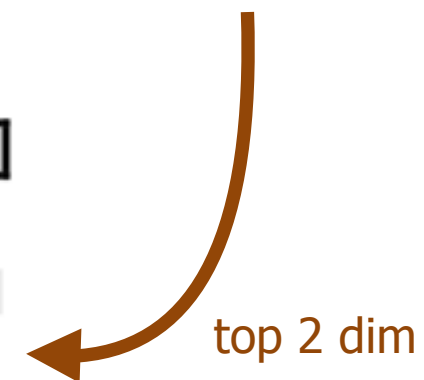
	c1	c2	c3	c4	c5	m1	m2	m3	m4
human	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
interface	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
computer	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
user	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0
system	0	1	1	2	0	0	0	0	0
response	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
time	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
EPS	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
survey	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
trees	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0
graph	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1
minors	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1

0	1
1	0
1	1

- c1: Human machine interface for ABC computer applications
 c2: A survey of user opinion of computer system response time
 c3: The EPS user interface management system
 c4: System and human system engineering testing of EPS
 c5: Relation of user perceived response time to error measurement
- m1: The generation of random, binary, ordered trees
 m2: The intersection graph of paths in trees
 m3: Graph minors IV: Widths of trees and well-quasi-ordering
 m4: Graph minors: A survey

\hat{C}

	c1	c2	c3	c4	c5	m1	m2	m3	m4
human	0.16	0.40	0.38	0.47	0.18	-0.05	-0.12	-0.16	-0.09
interface	0.14	0.37	0.33	0.40	0.16	-0.03	-0.07	-0.10	-0.04
computer	0.15	0.51	0.36	0.41	0.24	0.02	0.06	0.09	0.12
user	0.26	0.84	0.61	0.70	0.39	0.03	0.08	0.12	0.19
system	0.45	1.23	1.05	1.27	0.56	-0.07	-0.15	-0.21	-0.05
response	0.16	0.58	0.38	0.42	0.28	0.06	0.13	0.19	0.22
time	0.16	0.58	0.38	0.42	0.28	0.06	0.13	0.19	0.22
EPS	0.22	0.55	0.51	0.63	0.24	-0.07	-0.14	-0.20	-0.11
survey	0.10	0.53	0.23	0.21	0.27	0.14	0.31	0.44	0.42
trees	-0.06	0.23	-0.14	-0.27	0.14	0.24	0.55	0.77	0.66
graph	-0.06	0.34	-0.15	-0.30	0.20	0.31	0.69	0.98	0.85
minors	-0.04	0.25	-0.10	-0.21	0.15	0.22	0.50	0.71	0.62



test # dim to
use via
synonyms or
missing
words

From: Landauer et al. An Introduction to LSA. 1998

$\rho(\text{human}, \text{user}) = 0.94$
 $\rho(\text{human}, \text{minors}) = -0.83$

Principal Component vs. Latent Semantic Analysis

best Frobenius norm: minimize “std. dev.” of matrix

best affine subspace: minimize dimensions while maintaining the form

- **LSA** seeks for the **best linear subspace** in **Frobenius norm**, while **PCA** aims for the **best affine linear subspace**.
- **LSA** (**can**) **use** TF-IDF weighting as **preprocessing** step.
- **PCA requires the** (square) **covariance matrix** of the original matrix as its first step and therefore can only compute term-term or doc-doc similarities.
- **PCA matrices are more dense** (zeros occur only when true independence is detected).

A first look at probabilistic graphical models

- Latent Dirichlet Allocation: LDA
 - ▶ Blei, Ng, and Jordan. Journal of Machine Learning Research 2003
 - ▶ For assigning “topics” to “documents” *i.e., for text classification*
 - ▶ An **unsupervised, generative** model

Latent Dirichlet Allocation (LDA 1/3)

- Intuition for LDA

- From: Edwin Chen. Introduction to LDA. 2011

- ▶ “Document Collection”

- I like to eat broccoli and bananas.

- I ate a banana and spinach smoothie for breakfast.

➔ Topic A

- Chinchillas and kittens are cute.

- My sister adopted a kitten yesterday.

➔ Topic B

- Look at this cute hamster munching on a piece of broccoli.

➔ Topic $0.6A + 0.4B$

Topic A: 30% broccoli, 15% bananas, 10% breakfast, 10% munching, ...

Topic B: 20% chinchillas, 20% kittens, 20% cute, 15% hamster, ...

The Dirichlet process

A Dirichlet process is like drawing from an (infinite) "bag of dice" (with finite faces).

- A Dirichlet is a [possibly continuous] **distribution over** [discrete/multinomial] **distributions** (probability masses).

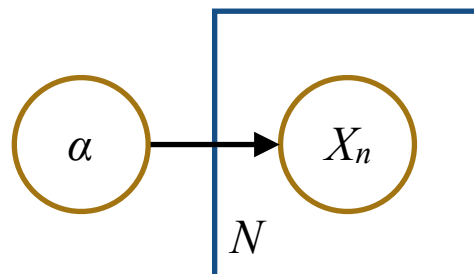
$$D(\theta, \alpha) = \frac{\Gamma(\sum \alpha_i)}{\prod \Gamma(\alpha_i)} \prod \theta_i^{\alpha_i - 1}$$

α Dirichlet prior: $\forall \alpha_i \in \alpha: \alpha_i > 0$

Gamma function \rightarrow a "continuous" factorial [!]

$\sum \theta_i = 1$; a Probability Mass Function

- The **Dirichlet Process samples** multiple independent, discrete **distributions** θ_i with repetition from θ ("statistical clustering").

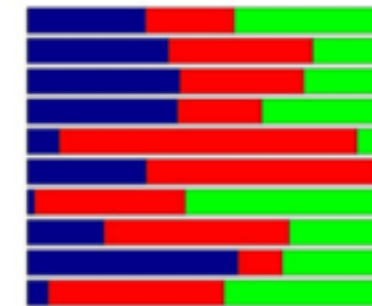
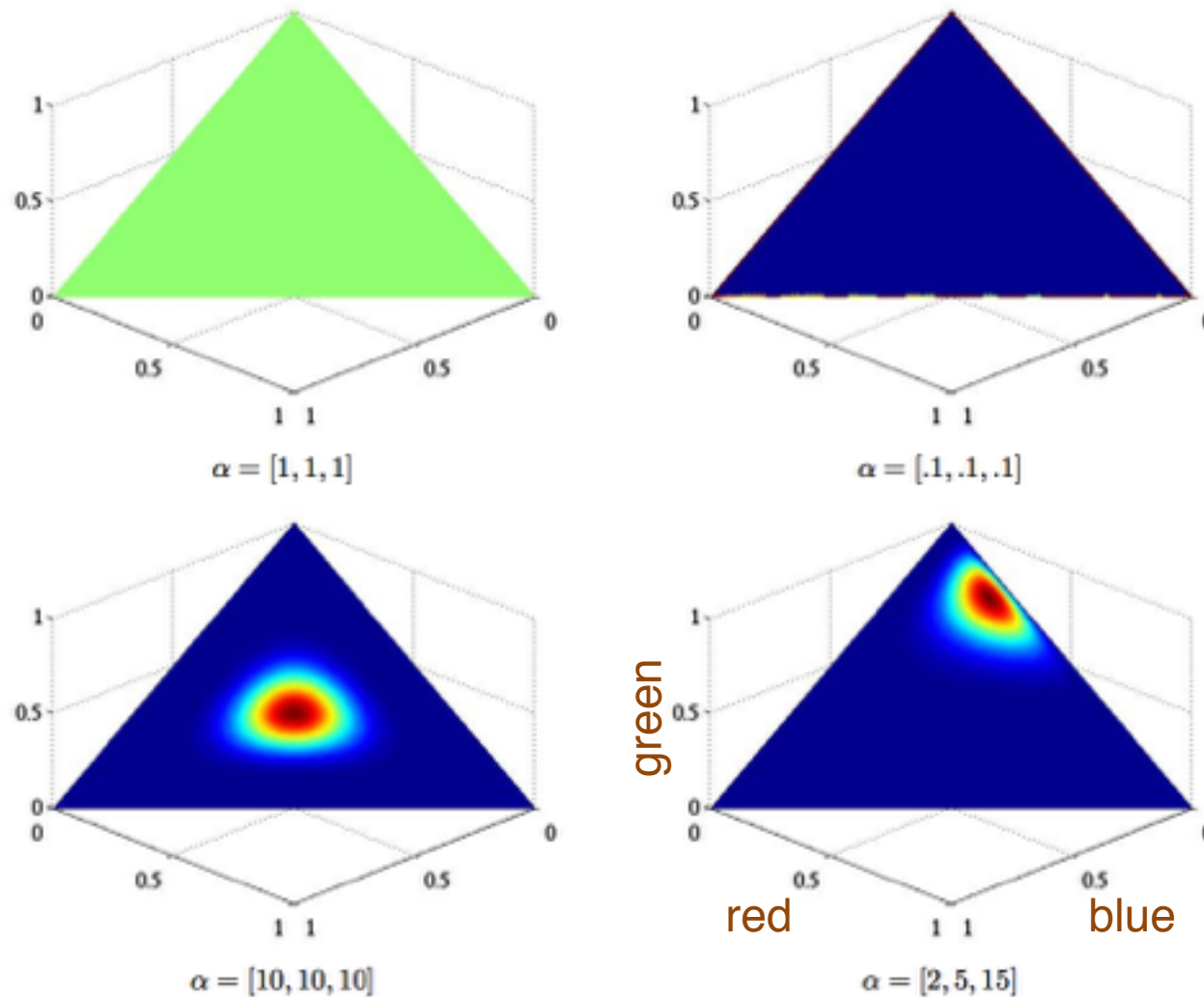


1. Draw a new distribution X from $D(\theta, \alpha)$
2. With probability $\alpha \div (\alpha + n - 1)$ draw a new X
With probability $n \div (\alpha + n - 1)$, (re-)sample an X_i from X

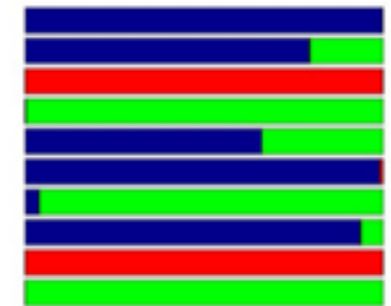
The Dirichlet prior α

"density plots over the probability simplex in \mathbb{R}^3 "

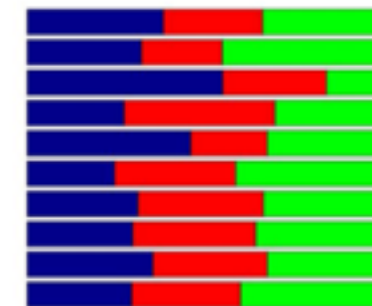
Documents and topic distributions ($N=3$)



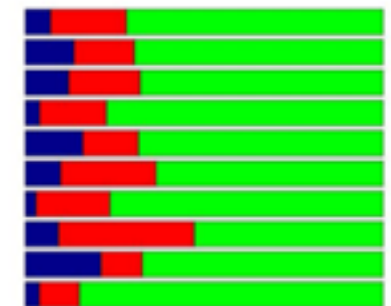
$\alpha = (1, 1, 1)$



$\alpha = (0.1, 0.1, 0.1)$



$\alpha = (10, 10, 10)$



$\alpha = (2, 5, 15)$

- equal, =1 ➡ uniform distribution
- equal, <1 ➡ marginal distrib. ("choose few")
- equal, >1 ➡ symmetric, mono-modal distrib.
- not equal, >1 ➡ non-symmetric distribution

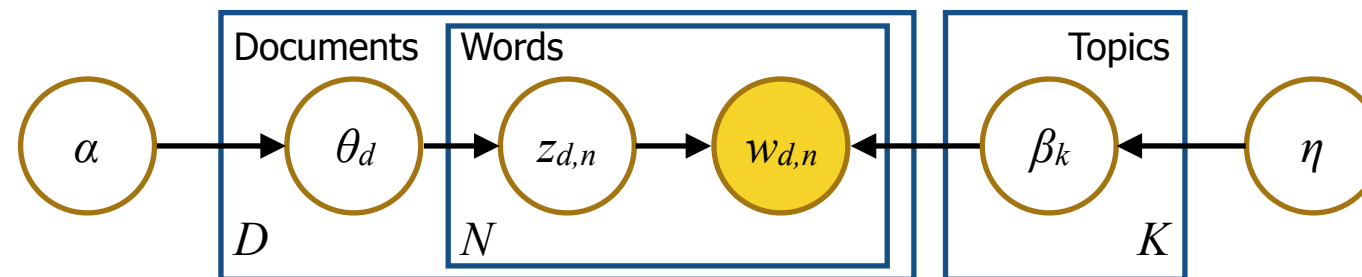
Frigyik et al. Introduction to the Dirichlet Distribution and Related Processes. 2010

Latent Dirichlet Allocation

(LDA 2/3)

A Document-Topic is the assignment of a Document to some Topic.

A Word-Topic is the assignment of a (non-unique!) Word (in a Document) to some Topic



$$P(B, \Theta, Z, W) = \underbrace{\left(\prod_k^K P(\beta_k | \eta) \right)}_{P(\text{Topic})} \underbrace{\left(\prod_d^D P(\theta_d | \alpha) \prod_n^N P(z_{d,n} | \theta_d) P(w_{d,n} | \beta_{1:K}, z_{d,n}) \right)}_{P(\text{Word-T.} \mid \text{Document-T.})} \underbrace{P(\text{Word} \mid \text{Topics}, \text{Word-T.})}_{P(\text{Word-T.} \mid \text{Document-T.})}$$

- α - per-document Dirichlet prior
- θ_d - topic distribution of document d
- $z_{d,n}$ - word-topic assignments
- $w_{d,n}$ - **observed** words
- β_k - word distrib. of topic k
- η - per-topic Dirichlet prior

dampens the topic-specific score of terms assigned to many topics

$$\text{termscore}_{k,n} = \hat{\beta}_{k,n} \log \frac{\hat{\beta}_{k,n}}{\left(\prod_j^K \hat{\beta}_{j,n} \right)^{1/K}}$$

What Topics is a Word assigned to?

Latent Dirichlet Allocation (LDA 3/3)

- LDA sampling/inference in a nutshell
 - ▶ Initialization: Choose K , the number of Topics, and randomly assign one out of the K Topics to each of the N Words in each of the D Documents.
 - The **same word** can have different Topics **at different positions** in the Document.
 - ▶ Calculate the posterior probability that Topic t generated Word w .
 - ▶ Then, for each Topic and for each Word in each Document:
 1. Compute $P(\text{Word-Topic} \mid \text{Document})$: the proportion of [Words assigned to] Topic t in Document d
 2. Compute $P(\text{Word} \mid \text{Topics}, \text{Word-Topic})$: the probability a Word w is assigned a Topic t (using the general distribution of Topics and the Document-specific distribution of [Word-] Topics)
 - Note that a Word can be assigned a different Topic each time it appears in a Document.
 3. Given the prior probabilities of a Document's Topics and that of Topics in general, reassign $P(\text{Topic} \mid \text{Word}) = P(\text{Word-Topic} \mid \text{Document}) * P(\text{Word} \mid \text{Topics}, \text{Word-Topic})$
 - ▶ Repeat until $P(\text{Topic} \mid \text{Word})$ stabilizes (e.g., Collapsed Gibbs sampling)
 - ▶ Better: Use collapsed **variational inference** (i.e., combining Variational Bayes)

Teh, Newman, Welling (2006). A Collapsed Variational Bayes Inference Algorithm for LDA