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1 Homework information

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Master's programme: Data Analytics and Social Statistics

Task: Module 2. Hard skills project № 4 'Text analysis'

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1.1 Import libraries

```
[1]: #import libraries
     import pandas as pd
     from matplotlib import pyplot as plt
     import spacy
     import seaborn as sns
     from sklearn.metrics import accuracy_score, classification_report
     from sklearn.metrics import confusion_matrix
     from sklearn.cluster import KMeans
     from sklearn.manifold import TSNE
     from sklearn.feature_extraction.text import TfidfVectorizer
     from textblob import TextBlob
     from nltk.corpus import stopwords
     from nltk.stem import WordNetLemmatizer
     from nltk.tokenize import TreebankWordTokenizer
     import nltk
     import re
     import string
     import numpy as np
     import warnings
     # disable warnings
     warnings.filterwarnings("ignore")
     # making ggplot style
     plt.style.use('ggplot')
```

1.2 Task №1

data.info()

1.2.1 1.1 Load "text" and "target" columns to pandas.

```
<class 'pandas.core.frame.DataFrame'>
RangeIndex: 1600000 entries, 0 to 1599999
Data columns (total 6 columns):
# Column Non-Null Count Dtype
--- -----
0 target 1600000 non-null int64
           1600000 non-null int64
1
    ids
           1600000 non-null object
2
    date
   flag
           1600000 non-null object
4 user
         1600000 non-null object
5
           1600000 non-null object
   text
dtypes: int64(2), object(4)
memory usage: 73.2+ MB
```

Conclusion: data loaded correctly and contain and information same as at the description.

```
[4]: # filter the columns we'll be working with
data_filtered = data[["target", "text"]]
# filter the random 1000 rows and making final df for work
df = data_filtered.sample(n=1000, random_state=42425).reset_index(drop=True)
# take a look at final df
df.head()
```

Conclusion: data frame for work have been made.

1.2.2 1.2 Compute average text length, and dictionary size.

```
[7]: print ("\033[1mConclusion:\033[0m") print(f"Average text length: {average_length:.2f} tokens") print(f"Dictionary size: {dictionary_size} tokens")
```

Conclusion:

[5]: # load model

Average text length: 11.97 tokens Dictionary size: 2914 tokens

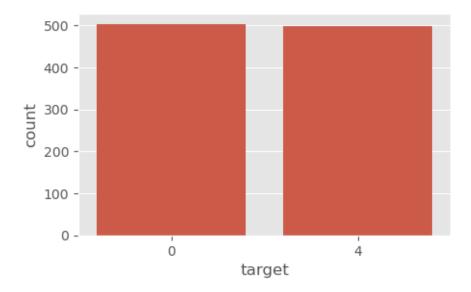
1.3 Task №2

In this section we are conducting our sentiment analysis. We chose to use the textblob pretrained model and preprocessed the data with spacy. We use textblob to produce negative/positive sentiment classification, which correlates well with our "target" column for easier comparison later on. Compared to some tools for sentiment analysis from spacy or other packages, this model is usually more accurate and convenient to use.

For this task and tasks 6 and 7 we are preprocessing our tweets since the functions used for these tasks do not perform these changes automatically. This is needed because tweets have a lot of special characters and words that are difficult for the model to interpret.

```
[8]: # preprocessing
     # !for first use, uncomment these commands!
     #nltk.download('stopwords')
     #nltk.download('punkt', force=True)
     #nltk.download('wordnet')
     stop_words = set(stopwords.words('english'))
     lemmatizer = WordNetLemmatizer()
     tokenizer = TreebankWordTokenizer()
     def preprocess_tweet(tweet):
         # removing URLs
         tweet = re.sub(r"http\S+|www\S+|https\S+", "", tweet, flags=re.MULTILINE)
         # removing mentions and hashtags
         tweet = re.sub(r"@\w+|\#\w+", "", tweet)
         # removing punctuation and special characters
         tweet = tweet.translate(str.maketrans("", "", string.punctuation))
         # removing numbers
         tweet = re.sub(r"\d+", "", tweet)
         # converting text to lowercase
         tweet = tweet.lower()
         # tokenizing the tweet
         words = tokenizer.tokenize(tweet)
         # removing stopwords and lemmatize words
         processed_words = [
             lemmatizer.lemmatize(word) for word in words \
             if word not in stop_words and len(word) > 1
         # joining words back into a single string
         return " ".join(processed_words)
     df["processed_text"] = df["text"].apply(preprocess_tweet)
```

```
[9]: # target column values (sentiment) count
plt.figure(figsize=(5, 3))
sns.countplot(x='target', data=df)
plt.show()
```



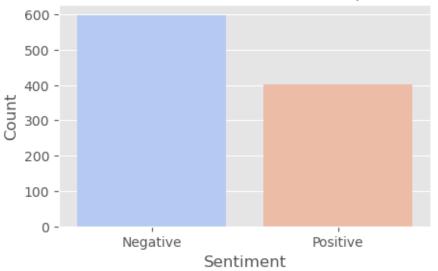
As we can see from the graph, the dataset has no tweets with neutral (target=2) sentiment. Thus, our model will be classifying tweets as positive and negative.

```
[10]: # spacy/textblob sentiment analysis

# sentiment classification function
def get_sentiment(tweet):
    # textblob for sentiment polarity
    blob = TextBlob(tweet)
    polarity = blob.sentiment.polarity # polarity range is from -1 to 1
    if polarity > 0:
        return "Positive"
    else:
        return "Negative"

# applying sentiment function
df["sentiment"] = df["processed_text"].apply(get_sentiment)
```





From the graph we can see that the model classified more tweets as negative, while the target-indicated sentiments have almost equal number of negative and positive tweets. This gives us an idea that the model did not perform perfectly, which we will check in the next section.

1.4 Task №3

In this part we are comparing our model's sentiment analysis results with the "target" column provided in the original dataset. While the "target" column can have three possible values: 0 for negative, 2 for neutral, and 4 for positive tweets, in fact there are only negative and positive tweets, as discussed in the previous section.

```
[12]: # mapping target numeric values
sentiment_mapping = {0: "Negative", 4: "Positive"}
df["target_map"] = df["target"].map(sentiment_mapping)

# comparing sentiment results to the target
accuracy = accuracy_score(df["target_map"], df["sentiment"])
print(f"Accuracy: {accuracy * 100:.2f}%")

# report on accuracy
report = classification_report(
    df["target_map"],
    df["sentiment"],
    target_names=["Negative", "Positive"]
)
print("\nClassification Report:\n", report)
```

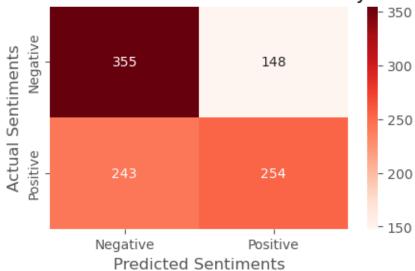
Accuracy: 60.90%

Classification Report:

	precision	recall	f1-score	support
Negative Positive	0.59 0.63	0.71 0.51	0.64 0.57	503 497
accuracy			0.61	1000

```
macro avg 0.61 0.61 0.60 1000 weighted avg 0.61 0.61 0.61 1000
```

Confusion Matrix for Sentiment Analysis



Overall, the accuracy of the model's analysis is around 60%. Based on the results we can conclude that the model is moderately accurate with negative and positive sentiment classification. This can be explained by the fact that vocabulary that people use on social media and on twitter specifically can be very different from the vocabulary used in the data that was used to train the model.

1.5 Task №4

expanded_rows = []

For finding all persons and organizations in positive tweets, we will use spaCy.

The spaCy model "en_core_web_sm" contains information about entities. By using it, we can find organizations or persons in tweets.

```
[14]: # filter df by only positive tweets
    df_pos = df[df["sentiment"] == "Positive"]

[15]: def entities_in_texts(df):
        # list to store new rows
```

```
# iterate over each row in the df
    for _, row in df.iterrows():
        text = row['text'] # extract text from the current row
        doc = nlp(text)
                         # process the text with the NLP model
# find entities in the processed text
        for ent in doc.ents:
            # check if the entity is an organization or a person
            if ent.label_ == "ORG" or ent.label_ == "PERSON":
                # create a new row for each entity found
                expanded_rows.append({
                    'target': row['target'],
                    'text': text,
                    'tokens': row['tokens'],
                    'sentiment': row['sentiment'],
                    'entity': ent.text,
                    'entity_type': ent.label_
                })
    # create a new df from the expanded rows
    expanded_df = pd.DataFrame(expanded_rows)
    return expanded_df # return the new DataFrame
# call the function and create a new df with entities
df_entities = entities_in_texts(df_pos)
df_entities[["entity","entity_type"]].head() # display the new df
```

```
[15]:
                 entity entity_type
                              PERSON
      0
                    urg
      1
                     BD
                                 ORG
      2
         @AritheGenius
                              PERSON
      3
                              PERSON
                     F.B
                              PERSON
         @mitchelmusso
```

Conclusion: 1. The spaCy model "en_core_web_trf" could find entities in tweets, but it doesn't do it really good. 2. The reason why this model is not good for working with tweets could be that tweets are written in a specific language, while this model is not designed for specific textsts. 3. Therefore, for working with tweets, it is better to use specialized models or train such models yourself.

1.6 Task №5

For find most friquent organizations and persons in positive tweets lets use pandas and counter.

```
[16]: # most friquent organizations
      df_entities[df_entities['entity_type'] == 'ORG'] \
      ['entity'].value_counts().head(5)
[16]: entity
      Twitter
                     2
      BD
                     1
      @oziangie
                     1
      UP
                     1
      BBC iPlayer
                     1
      Name: count, dtype: int64
[17]: # most friquent persons
      df_entities[df_entities['entity_type'] == 'PERSON'] \
      ['entity'].value_counts().head(5)
```

```
[17]: entity
    @stephenfry 2
    @jesseowen 1
    @fraseredwards 1
    Gary 1
    alison 1
    Name: count, dtype: int64
```

Conclusion: 1. The most friquent ORG is Twitter 2. The most friquent Person is @stephenfry 3. Some entities could be recognized with mistakes (e.g., 'urg', 'shell', etc.) because it is not specific to Twitter language.

1.7 Task №6

In this section we are going to perform k-means clustering of tweets with negative sentiments and use tf-idf function to rank important phrases.

```
[18]: # filtering out positive tweets
    neg_tweets = df[df["sentiment"] == "Negative"]["processed_text"]

[19]: # converting the documents to a TF-IDF matrix
    vectorizer = TfidfVectorizer(stop_words='english')
    X = vectorizer.fit_transform(neg_tweets)
```

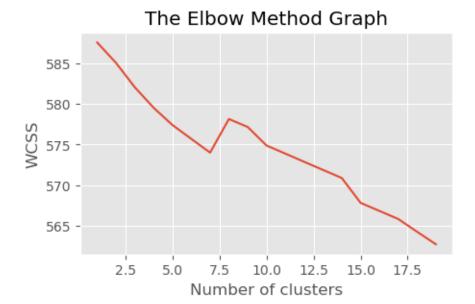
print("TF-IDF Matrix Shape:", X.shape) # the shape of the matrix

```
TF-IDF Matrix Shape: (598, 1696)
```

Before we do clustering we need to determine an optimal number of clusters (k) by the elbow method.

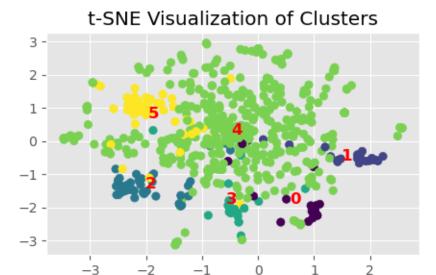
```
[20]: number_of_clusters=20
    wcss=[] # within-cluster sum of squares
    for i in range(1,number_of_clusters):
        kmeans = KMeans(n_clusters=i, random_state=0)
        kmeans.fit(X)
        wcss.append(kmeans.inertia_)

# plot the elbow
plt.figure(figsize=(5, 3))
plt.plot(range(1, number_of_clusters), wcss)
plt.title('The Elbow Method Graph')
plt.xlabel('Number of clusters')
plt.ylabel('WCSS')
plt.show()
```



Based on the graph above, we see an "elbow" at around k=6, after which the rate of change becomes smaller, so our best-fitting k is equal to 6.

```
[21]: # performing k-means clustering
num_clusters = 6
kmeans = KMeans(n_clusters=num_clusters, random_state=42)
kmeans.fit(X)
labels = kmeans.labels_
```



Looking at the graph we can see that the yellow cluster is dispersed, likely suggesting that there are a low of tweets sharing a general sentiment/topic. There are also clusters that are more defined which means they share more similarities between each other.

1.8 Task №7

```
[23]: def get_top_keywords(n_terms):
    # groups the TF-IDF vector by cluster
    df = pd.DataFrame(X.todense()).groupby(labels).mean()
    # access tf-idf terms
    terms = vectorizer.get_feature_names_out()
    # for each row, find the n terms that have the highest tf idf score
    for i,r in df.iterrows():
        print('\nCluster {}'.format(i))
        print(','.join([terms[t] for t in np.argsort(r)[-n_terms:]]))

get_top_keywords(10)
```

```
Cluster 0
cincinnati,slang,mandy,understood,moore,right,come,swamped,year,wish

Cluster 1
home,tsk,buddy,babbbyyy,mcfly,honey,house,time,ill,miss

Cluster 2
rainy,hard,busy,need,school,till,today,bad,twitter,day

Cluster 3
flight,bread,night,morning,office,got,raining,today,tomorrow,work

Cluster 4
time,think,got,make,going,feel,dont,want,like,know

Cluster 5
come,tired,hungry,bored,sleep,hear,sick,sad,sorry,im
```

The dispersed cluster (5) has words such as make/feel/like that are often used to express anything,

including negative sentiments. Other clusters present words that are less used in general and are more specific, this explains why we have one very disperesed cluster and other more tightly packed clusters. Another point to note is that the top words in clusters cannot be summarised easily, thus it is hard to describe each cluster by one specific topic that is the most reccurent. This can be explained by the nature of tweets where people can be negative about so many different things that it becomes difficult to capture.

1.9 Conclusions

To summarise our project's findings, text analysis is heavily reliant on tools suitable for particular purposes. Although preprocessing can help increase the quality of the analysis, the model and the data it was trained on also plays an important role. On the example of the tweets dataset we can see that models made for general text analysis are not as accurate with the unique language that is being used on social media, twitter especially. Moreover, regular procedures and tools used to preprocess the text might not work as well as expected due to such unique vocabulary and signs used to convey meaning and sentiment on social media. The main outtake is that for the purpose as specific as analysing tweets it is better to use models made specifically for that, although it is worth mentioning that common text analysis models do a decent enough job and can give a general understanding of what is going on in the dataset.