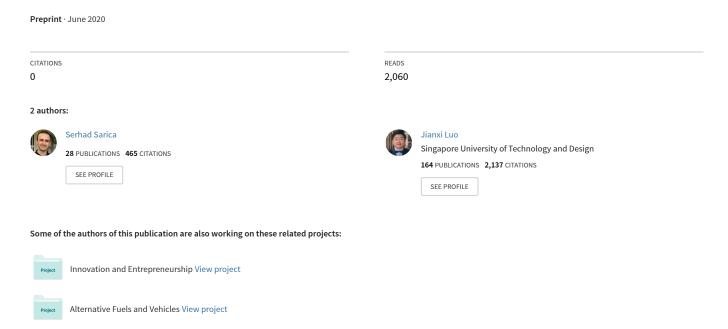
Stopwords in Technical Language Processing



STOPWORDS IN TECHNICAL LANGUAGE PROCESSING

A PREPRINT

Serhad Sarica

Data-Driven Innovation Lab Singapore University of Technology and Design Singapore, 487372 serhad_sarica@mymail.sutd.edu.sg

Jianxi Luo

Data-Driven Innovation Lab Singapore University of Technology and Design Singapore, 487372 luo@sutd.edu.sg

June 5, 2020

ABSTRACT

There are increasingly applications of natural language processing techniques for information retrieval, indexing and topic modelling in the engineering contexts. A standard component of such tasks is the removal of stopwords, which are uninformative components of the data. While researchers use readily available stopwords lists which are derived for general English language, the technical jargon of engineering fields contains their own highly frequent and uninformative words and there exists no standard stopwords list for technical language processing applications. Here we address this gap by rigorously identifying generic, insignificant, uninformative stopwords in engineering texts beyond the stopwords in general texts, based on the synthesis of alternative data-driven approaches, and curating a stopwords list ready for technical language processing applications.

Keywords Stopwords · Technical language · Data-driven

1 Introduction

Natural language processing (NLP) and text analysis have been growingly popular in engineering analytics [1, 2, 3, 4]. To ensure the accuracy and efficiency of such NLP tasks as indexing, topic modelling and information retrieval [5, 6, 7, 8, 9], the uninformative words, often referred to as "stopwords", need to be removed in the pre-processing step, in order to increase signal-to-noise ratio in the unstructured text data. Example stopwords include "each", "about", "such" and "the". Stopwords often appear frequently in many different natural language documents or parts of the text in a document but carry little information about the part of the text they belong to.

The use of a standard stopword list, such as the one distributed with popular Natural Language Tool Kit (NLTK) [10] python package, for removal in data pre-processing has become an NLP standard in both research and industry. There have been efforts to identify stopwords from generic knowledge sources such as Brown Corpus [8, 11], 20 newsgroup corpus [6], books corpus [12], etc, and curate a generic stopword list for removal in NLP applications across fields. However, the technical language used in engineering or technical texts is different from layman languages and may use stopwords that are less prevalent in layperson languages. When it comes to engineering or technical text analysis, researchers and engineers either just adopt the readily available generic stopword lists for removal [1, 2, 3, 4] leaving many noises in the data or identify additional stopwords in a manual, ad hoc or heuristic manner [5, 13, 14, 15]. There exist no standard stopword list for technical language processing applications.

Here, we address this gap by rigorously identifying generic, insignificant, uninformative stopwords in engineering texts beyond the stopwords in general texts, based on the synthesis of alternative data-driven approaches. The resultant stopword list is statistically identified and human-evaluated. Researchers, analysts and engineers working on technology-related textual data and technical language analysis can directly apply it for denoising and filtering of their technical textual data, without conducting the manual and ad hoc discovery and removal of uninformative words by themselves.

2 Our approach

To identify stopwords in technical language texts, we statistically analyse the natural texts in patent documents which are descriptions of technologies at all levels. The patent database is vast and provides the most comprehensive coverage of technological domains. Specifically, our patent text corpus contains 781,156,082 tokens (words, bi-, tri- and fourgrams) from 30,265,976 sentences of the titles and abstracts of 6,559,305 of utility patents in the complete USPTO patent database from 1976 to 31st December 2019 (access date: 23 March 2020). Non-technical design patents are excluded. Technical description fields are avoided because they include information on contexts, backgrounds and prior arts that may be non-relevant to the specific invention and repetitive, lead to statistical bias and increase computational requirements. We also avoided legal claim sections which are written in repetitive, disguising and legal terms.

In general text analysis for topic modelling or information retrieval, various statistical metrics, such as term frequency (TF) [7, 9], inverse-document frequency (IDF) [7], term-frequency-inverse-document-frequency (TFIDF) [5], entropy [6, 12], information content [6], information gain [16] and Kullback-Leibler (KL) divergence [7], are employed to sort the words in a corpus [6, 16]. Herein we use TF, TFIDF and information entropy to automatically identify candidate stopwords.

Furthermore, some of the technically significant terms such as "composite wall", "driving motion" and "hose adapter" are statistically indistinguishable from such stopwords "be", "and" and "for", regardless of the statistic metrics for sorting. That is, automatic and data-driven methods by themselves are not accurate and reliable enough to return stopwords. Therefore, we also use a human-reliant step to further evaluate the automatically identified candidate stopwords and confirm a final set of stopwords which do not carry information on engineering and technology.

In brief, the overall procedure as depicted in Figure 1 consists of three major steps: 1) basic pre-processing of the patent natural texts, including punctuation removal, lower-casing, phrase detection and lemmatization; 2) using multiple statistic metrics from NLP and information theory to identify a ranked list of candidate stopwords; 3) term-by-term evaluation by human experts on their insignificance for technical texts to confirm stopwords that are uninformative about engineering and technology. In the following, we describe implementation details of these three steps.

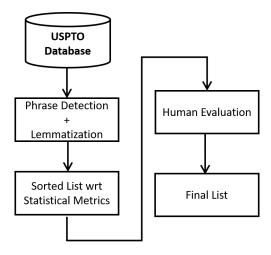


Figure 1: Overall procedure

3 Implementation

3.1 Pre-processing

The patent texts in the corpus are first transformed into a line-sentence format, utilizing the sentence tokenization method in the NLTK, and normalized to lowercase letters to avoid additional vocabulary caused by lowercase/uppercase differences of the same words. The punctuation marks in sentences are removed except "-" and "/". These two special characters are frequently used in word-tuples, such as "AC/DC" and "inter-link", which can be regarded as a single term. The original raw texts are transformed into a collection of 30,265,976 sentences, including 796,953,246 unigrams.

Phrases are detected with the algorithm of Mikolov et al [17] that finds words that frequently appear together, and in other contexts infrequently, by using a simple statistical method based on the count of words to give a score to each bigram such that:

$$score(w_i, w_j) = \frac{(count(w_i w_j) - \delta)|N|}{count(w_i)count(w_j)}$$
(1)

where $count(w_iw_j)$ is the count of w_i and w_j appearing together as bigrams in the collection of sentences and $count(w_i)$ is the count of w_i in the collection of sentences. δ is the discounting coefficient to prevent too many phrases consisting of very infrequent words, and set $\delta=1$ to prevent having scores higher than 0 for phrases occurring less than twice. The term $N=\sum_{t,p\in P}n(t,p)$ represents the total number of tokens in the patent database where

n(t,p) is the count of the term t in the patent p. Bigrams with a score over a defined threshold (T_{phrase}) are considered as phrases and joined with a "_" character in the corpus, to be treated as a single term. We run the phrasing algorithm of Mikolov et al. [17] on the pre-processed corpus twice to detect n-grams, where n=[2,4]. The first run detects only bigrams by employing a higher threshold value T^1_{phrase} , while the second run can detect n-grams up to n=4 by using a lower threshold value T^2_{phrase} to enable combinations of bigrams. Via this procedure of repeating the phrasing process with decreasing threshold values of T_{phrase} , we detected phrases that appear more frequently in the first step using the higher threshold value, e.g., "autonomous vehicle", and detected phrases that are comparatively less frequent in the second step using the lower threshold value, e.g., "autonomous vehicle platooning". In this study, we used the best performing thresholds (5, 2.5) found in a previous study [13].

The phase detection computation resulted in a vocabulary of 15,435,308 terms, including 13,730,320 phrases. Since the adopted phrase detection algorithm is purely based on cooccurrence statistics, the detection of some faulty phrases including stopwords such as "the_", "a_", "and_", and "to_" is inevitable. Therefore, the detected phrases are processed one more time to split the known stopwords from the NLTK [10] and USPTO [18] stopwords lists. For example, "an_internal_combustion_engine" is replaced with "an internal_combustion_engine". Then the vocabulary is reduced to 8,641,337 terms, including 6,900,263 phrases.

Next, all the words are represented with their regularized forms to avoid having multiple terms representing the same word or phrase and thus decrease the vocabulary size. This step is achieved by first using a part-of-speech (POS) tagger [19] to detect the type of words in the sentences and lemmatize those words accordingly. For example, if the word "learning" is tagged as a VERB, it would be regularized as "learn" while it would be regularized as "learning" if it is tagged as a NOUN. The lemmatization procedure further decreased the vocabulary to 8,144,852 terms including 6,418,992 phrases.

As a last step, we removed the words contained in famous NLTK [10] and USPTO [18] stopwords lists. The NLTK stopwords list focuses more on general stopwords that can be encountered in daily English language such as "a, an, the, ..., he, she, his, her, ..., what, which, who, ...", in total 179 words. On the other hand, USPTO stopwords list include words that occur very frequently in patent documents and do not contain critical meaning within patent texts, such as "claim, comprise, ... embodiment, ... provide, respectively, therefore, thereby, thereof, thereto, ...", in total 99 words. The union of these two lists contains 220 stopwords.

Additionally, we also discarded the words appearing only 1 time in the whole patent database, which leads to a final set of 6,645,391 terms including 5,834,072 phrases.

3.2 Term Statistics

To identify the frequently occurring words or phrases that carry little information content about engineering and technology, we use four metrics together: 1) direct term frequency (TF), 2) inverse-document frequency (IDF), 3) term-frequency-inverse-document-frequency (TFIDF) and 4) Shannon's information entropy [20].

We use f(t) to denote direct frequency of term t. Consider a corpus C of P patents.

$$TF(t) = \frac{n(t)}{n(p)} \tag{2}$$

where $n(p) = \sum_t n(t,p)$ is the number of terms in the patent $p, n(t) = \sum_{p \in P} n(t,p)$ is total count of term t in all patents.

The term frequency is an important indicator of commonality of a term within a collection of documents. Stopwords are expected to have high term frequency.

Inverse-document-frequency (IDF) is calculated as follows

$$IDF(t) = \log \frac{|C|}{DF(t)} \tag{3}$$

where $DF(t) = |\{p \in C : t \in p\}|$ is the number of patents containing term t and |C| represents the number of patents in the database. This metric penalizes the frequently occurring terms and favours the ones occurring in a few documents only. The metric's lower bound is 0 which refers to the terms that appear in every single document in the database. The upper bound is defined by the terms appearing only in one document, which is $\log |C|$.

Term frequency-inverse-document-frequency (TFIDF) is calculated as follows

$$TFIDF(t) = \frac{1}{DF(t)} \sum_{p} \frac{n(t,p)}{n(p)} \frac{|C|}{DF(t)}$$

$$\tag{4}$$

This metric favours the terms that appear in a few documents, with a considerably high term frequency within the document. If a term appears in many documents, its TFIDF score will be penalized by IDF score due to its commonality. Here, we did not use the traditional IDF metric but removed the log normalizing function to penalize the terms commonly occurring in the entire patent database harder regardless of their in-document (patent) term frequencies. We eventually used the mean of the single document TFIDF scores for each term.

The entropy of term t is calculated as follows. The metric indicates how uneven the distribution of term t is in the corpus C.

$$H(t|C) = -\sum_{p} P(p|t) \log P(p|t)$$
(5)

where $P(p|t) = \frac{n(t,p)}{n(t)}$ is the distribution of term t over patent documents. This indicates how evenly distributed a term is in the patent database. Maximum attainable entropy value for a given collection of documents is basically an even distribution to all patents which leads to $\log |C|$. Therefore, the terms having higher entropy values will contain less information about the patents where they appear, compared to other terms with lower entropy.

We reported the distributions of terms in our corpus according to these four metrics in the Appendix (see Figure A1). The term-frequency distribution has a very long right tail, indicating most of the terms appear a few times in the patent database while some words appear so frequently. Our further tests found that the distribution follows the a power law [21, 22]. By contrast, the distribution by IDF has a long left tail, indicating the existence of a few terms that appears commonly in all patents. The TFIDF distribution also has a long right tail that indicates the existence of highly common terms in each patent and highly strong domain-specific terms dominating a set of patents. Moreover, the long right tail of entropy distribution indicates comparingly few high valued terms that are appearing commonly in the entire database. Therefore, assessing the four metrics together will allow us to detect the stopwords with varied occurrence patterns.

3.3 Human Evaluation

We formed 4 different lists of terms sorted by their decreasing TF, increasing IDF, increasing TFIDF, and decreasing entropy. Table A1 in the appendix presents the top ranked 30 terms in respective lists. Then the top 2,000 terms in each of the four lists are used to form a union set of terms. The union only includes 2,305 terms, which indicates that the lists based on four alternative statistic metrics overlap significantly. Then the terms in the union set are evaluated by two researchers with more than 20 years of engineering experience each, in terms of whether a term carries information about engineering and technology, to identify stopwords. The researchers initially achieved an inter-rater reliability of 0.83 [23] and then discussed the discrepancy to reach the consensus on a final list of 62 insignificant terms.

3.4 Final List

This list, compared to our previous study which identified a list of stopwords [13] (see Table A2 in the Appendices) by manually reading 1,000 randomly selected sentences from the same patent text corpus, includes 26 new uninformative stopwords that the previous list did not cover. In the meantime, we also found the previous list contains other 25 stopwords, which are still deemed qualified stopwords in this study. Therefore, we integrate these 25 stopwords from the previous study with the 62 stopwords identified here to derive a final list of 87 stopwords for technical language

analysis. The final list is presented in Table 1 together with the NLTK stopwords list and the USPTO stopwords list¹. It is suggested to apply the three stopwords lists together in technical language processing applications across technical fields.

Table 1: Stopwords lists for technical language processing applications

NLTK Stopword List [10] (179 words)			USPTO Stopword List [18] (99 words)		This Study (87 words)		
a	hadn't	on	wasn't	a (,,,,,,	onto	able	others
about	has	once	we	accordance	or	above-mentioned	otherwise
above	hasn	only	were	according	other	accordingly	overall
after	hasn't	or	weren	all	particularly	across	rather
again	have	other	weren't	also	preferably	along	remarkably
against	haven	our	what	an	preferred	already	significantly
ain	haven't	ours	when	and	present	alternatively	simply
all	having	ourselves	where	another	provide	always	sometimes
am	he	out	which	are	provided	among	specifically
an	her	over	while	as	provides	and/or	straight forward
and	here	own	who	at	relatively	anything	substantially
any	hers	re	whom	be	respectively	anywhere	thereafter
are	herself	S	why	because	said	better	therebetween
aren	him	same	will	been	should	disclosure	therefor
aren't	himself	shan	with	being	since	due	therefrom
as	his	shan't	won	by	some	easily	therein
at	how	she	won't	claim	such	easy	thereinto+
be	i	she's	wouldn	comprises	suitable	eg	thereon
because	if	should	wouldn't	corresponding	than	either	therethrough
been	in	should've		could	that	elsewhere	therewith
before	into	shouldn	y you	described	the	enough	together
being	is	shouldn't	you'd	desired	their	especially	toward
below	isn	SO SO	you'll	do	then	essentially	towards
between	isn't	some	you're	does	there	et al	typical
both	it	such	you've	each	thereby	etc	typically
but	it's	t	your	embodiment	therefore	eventually	upon
by	its	than	yours	fig	thereof	excellent	via
can	itself	that	yourself	figs	thereto	finally	vice versa
couldn		that'll	yourselves	for	these	furthermore	whatever
couldn't	just ll	the	yourserves	from	they	good	whereas
d	m	their		further	this	hence	whereat
did	ma	theirs			those	he/she	wherever
didn		them		generally had	thus	him/her	whether
didn't	me	themselves		has		his/her	whose
do	mightn	then		have	to	ie	within
	mightn't	there			use	ii	without
does doesn	more			having	various	iii	
	most	these		herein	was		yet
doesn't	mustn	they this		however if	were	instead later	
doing	mustn't				what	like	
don	my	those		in	when		
don't	myself needn	through		into	where	little	
down		to		invention	whereby	many	
during	needn't	too under		1S	wherein	may	
each	no	under		it	which	meanwhile	
few	nor	until		its	while	might	
for	not	up		means	who	moreover	
from	now	ve		not	will	much	
further	0	very		now	with	must	
had	of	was		of	would	never	
hadn	off	wasn		on		often	

 $^{^1} This\ list\ can\ be\ downloaded\ from\ our\ Git Hub\ repository\ \texttt{https://github.com/SerhadS/TechNet}$

4 Concluding Remarks

To develop a comprehensive list of stopwords in engineering and technology-related texts, we mined the patent text database with several statistical metrics from term frequency to entropy together to automatically identify candidate stopwords and use human evaluation to validate, screen and finalize stopwords from the candidates. In this procedure, the automatic data-driven detection of four statistic metrics yield highly overlapping results, and the human evaluations also came with high inter-rater reliability, suggesting evaluator independence. Our final stopwords list can be used as a complementary list to NLTK and USPTO stopwords lists in NLP and text analysis tasks related to technology, engineering design, and innovation.

References

- [1] Danni Chang and Chun-hsien Chen. Product concept evaluation and selection using data mining and domain ontology in a crowdsourcing environment. *Advanced Engineering Informatics*, 29(4):759–774, oct 2015.
- [2] Yi Zhang, Alan L. Porter, Zhengyin Hu, Ying Guo, and Nils C. Newman. "Term clumping" for technical intelligence: A case study on dye-sensitized solar cells. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change*, 85:26–39, 2014.
- [3] Mattyws F Grawe, Claudia A Martins, and Andreia G Bonfante. Automated Patent Classification Using Word Embedding. In 2017 16th IEEE International Conference on Machine Learning and Applications (ICMLA), pages 408–411. IEEE, dec 2017.
- [4] Qiyu Liu, Kai Wang, Yan Li, and Ying Liu. Data-driven Concept Network for Inspiring Designers' Idea Generation. *Journal of Computing and Information Science in Engineering*, pages 1–39, 2020.
- [5] Antoine Blanchard. Understanding and customizing stopword lists for enhanced patent mapping. *World Patent Information*, 29(4):308–316, 2007.
- [6] Martin Gerlach, Hanyu Shi, and Luis A.Nunes Amaral. A universal information theoretic approach to the identification of stopwords. *Nature Machine Intelligence*, 2019.
- [7] Rachel Tsz-Wai Lo, Ben He, and Iadh Ounis. Automatically Building a Stopword List for an Information Retrieval System. In 5th Dutch-Belgium Information Retrieval Workshop, Utrecht, 2005.
- [8] Christopher Fox. A stop list for general text. ACM SIGIR Forum, 24(1-2):19–21, sep 1989.
- [9] W. John Wilbur and Karl Sirotkin. The automatic identification of stop words. *Journal of Information Science*, 18(1):45–55, 1992.
- [10] Steven Bird, Ewan Klein, and Edward Loper. *Natural language processing with Python: analyzing text with the natural language toolkit*. O'Reilly Media, Inc., 2009.
- [11] Henry Kučera and Winthrop Nelson Francis. Computational analysis of present-day American English. *International Journal of American Linguistics*, 35(1):71–75, 1969.
- [12] Marcelo A. Montemurro and Damián H. Zanette. Towards the quantification of the semantic information encoded in written language. *Advances in Complex Systems*, 13(2):135–153, 2010.
- [13] Serhad Sarica, Jianxi Luo, and Kristin L. Wood. TechNet: Technology semantic network based on patent data. *Expert Systems with Applications*, 142, 2020.
- [14] Kazuhiro Seki and Javed Mostafa. An application of text categorization methods to gene ontology annotation. *SI-GIR 2005 Proceedings of the 28th Annual International ACM SIGIR Conference on Research and Development in Information Retrieval*, pages 138–145, 2005.
- [15] Dan Crow and John Desanto. A hybrid approach to concept extraction and recognition-based matching in the domain of human resources. *Proceedings International Conference on Tools with Artificial Intelligence, ICTAI*, (Ictai):535–539, 2004.
- [16] Masoud Makrehchi and Mohamed S. Kamel. Automatic extraction of domain-specific stopwords from labeled documents. *Lecture Notes in Computer Science (including subseries Lecture Notes in Artificial Intelligence and Lecture Notes in Bioinformatics)*, 4956 LNCS:222–233, 2008.
- [17] Tomas Mikolov, Kai Chen, Greg Corrado, and Jeffrey Dean. Distributed Representations of Words and Phrases and their Compositionality. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems (NIPS)* 26, pages 1–9, 2013.
- [18] USPTO. Stopwords, USPTO Full-Text Database.

- [19] Kristina Toutanova and Christopher D. Manning. Enriching the knowledge sources used in a maximum entropy part-of-speech tagger. In *EMNLP '00 Proceedings of the 2000 Joint SIGDAT conference on Empirical methods in natural language processing and very large corpora*, pages 63–70, 2007.
- [20] C. E. Shannon. A Mathematical Theory of Communication. Bell System Technical Journal, 27(3):379–423, jul 1948.
- [21] George Kingsley Zipf. The Psychobiology of Language. Routledge, London, 1936.
- [22] George Kingsley Zipf. Human Behavior and the Principle of Least Effort. Addison-Wesley, New York, 1949.
- [23] Lee J. Cronbach. Coefficient alpha and the internal structure of tests. Psychometrika, 16(3):297–334, sep 1951.

Appendices

Table A1: Top 30 terms for term-frequency, IDF, TFIDF and entropy

	Term-Frequency	IDF	TFIDF	Entropy
1	method	method	include	method
2	first	include	method	include
3	include	one	one	one
4	second	first	comprise	form
5	form	form	form	first
6	one	comprise	system	comprise
7	system	system	first	system
8	plurality	second	least	second
9	device	plurality	second	apparatus
10	comprise	apparatus	apparatus	plurality
11	apparatus	device	plurality	least
12	least	least	receive	disclose
13	least_one	disclose	disclose	device
14	may	receive	device	receive
15	connect	may	connect	may
16	process	least_one	may	connect
17	control	connect	position	least_one
18	portion	control	control	control
19	receive	process	least_one	process
20	position	position	portion	position
21	mean	portion	base	base
22	surface	base	determine	portion
23	say	surface	generate	surface
24	base	determine	make	determine
25	disclose	generate	surface	make
26	configure	make	within	generate
27	determine	mean	process	relate
28	generate	produce	accord	produce
29	substrate	configure	end	configure
30	signal	relate	allow	within

Table A2: The stopwords identified in the previous study. * indicates that the term is also identified in the current study. + indicates that the term is a stopword as defined in the current study. Rest of the terms are no longer considered as stopwords as defined in the current study.

able*	etc*	one another	therethrough*
above-mentioned+	eventually+	otherwise*	therewith*
already*	finally*	possibly	towards*
always*	furthermore*	rather*	typical+
and/or*	he/she+	remarkably+	via*
anything+	hence*	significantly+	vice versa+
anywhere+	him/her+	simply*	whatever+
better*	his/her+	sometimes+	whereat+
disclosure+	instead*	straight forward+	wherever+
easily*	may*	substantially	whether*
eg*	meanwhile+	therebetween*	whose*
either*	might+	therefor*	within*
elsewhere+	moreover+	therefrom*	without*
enough+	must*	therein*	wrt
especially*	often+	thereinto+	yet*
et al+	one	thereon*	

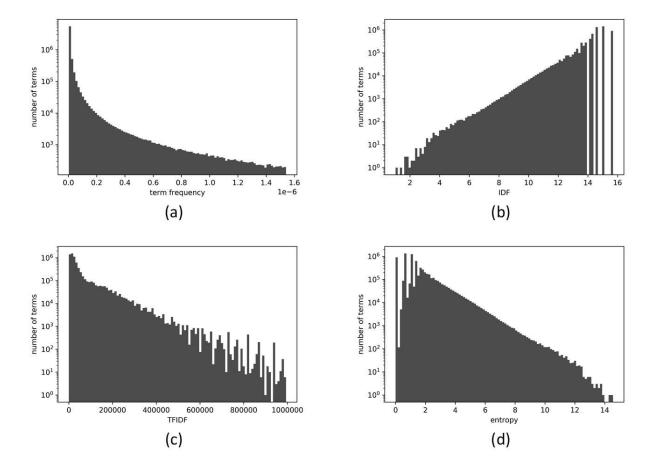


Figure A1: Distribution of terms by (a) term-frequency, (b) IDF, (c) TFIDF and (d) entropy. Term-frequency and TFIDF histograms arbitrarily filtered (term-count <=1000, TFIDF score $<=10^6$) for visualization purposes. In fact, they have longer right tails.