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Size Matters: Acquiring Vague Spatial Size Information from Textual Sources



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Declaration

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Abstract

Size estimation of an object is a task that humans can perform easily but struggle to explain the process of. It is common sense to be able to estimate the size of an object. This dissertation project aims to create a database of objects with their commonly found sizes to assist software in being able to make these same estimates. The project will achieve this by using information extraction techniques to find written examples of object's sizes. The final system will use named entity recognition and relationship extraction to obtain this information from a text source.

COVID-19 Impact Statement

The lockdown imposed because of COVID-19 caused additional challenges for the completion of this project. In the second semester of the project, the university switched to online delivery of all teaching, and university buildings were closed. All project meetings were shifted to email correspondence and video meetings.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Understanding an object's size can help machine learning models in image and video recognition by allowing estimation of an unknown object's size by comparing it with other objects in the image. For example, if you had to classify an object in an image as either a dog or a horse knowing that it was standing next to a person, and that on average a person is larger than a dog but smaller than a horse, this could inform your classification.

This dissertation takes on the problem of determining the general sizes of different objects. Humans are talented at estimating sizes of objects based on common sense or memory. This can help us make estimations about new objects, judge the distance of an object, or to generate accurate simulated landscapes.

Named entity recognition techniques have been shown to produce accurate results, as have relationship extraction models. Combining this with gazetteers for objects or units of size is likely to give good results. The limitation to these models will be the quality and quantity of the training data. This is a trade-off, increasing the quality of our data takes more time and therefore reduces the quantity we can gather. Therefore, this project will go with a semi-supervised learning technique that tries to strike a good balance between the two.

1.1 Aims and Objectives

The aim of this dissertation is to make progress towards creating a database containing information about objects and their usual sizes. This can be broken down into three stages. Stage one is fulfilling our requirement to acquire data containing various objects and sizes. The aim is to train machine learning models to be able to identify objects and sizes within a sentence and determine if they are related. To collect enough data to adequately train these models we will use semi-supervised learning, which means that this stage will run simultaneously alongside stage two.

Stage two is building the named entity recognition and relationship extraction models for both identifying objects and sizes in text and determining if they are related. To help with the semi-supervised learning we can build some very basic models to start collecting data. Using regular expressions to determine sizes, and part-of-speech tagging to determine nouns, we can build models with poor accuracy but that will help in collecting data that can be refined into the final training set. This final training set will be used to train the models and

from there we can refine them to get the most accurate results.

The final stage of the project will be to collect all the results into a database. The accuracy of the collected data can be improved if objects have been found multiple times. We can look at previously found sizes of the object to determine if this new measurement is accurate. If we introduce an object hierarchy to determine if objects are related, then we can also use similar objects to estimate realistic sizes.

Examples of the sort of sentences we will be trying to identify and extract information from:

“Mountains are usually at least 500m tall.”

“My house is 500m from the closest shop.”

“The average apple is 6cm (2 inches) in diameter.”

In the first sentence there is one object, one size, and they are related. In the second sentence there are two objects and one size, none of which are related, and in the third there is one object and two sizes, both which describe the object. It becomes apparent very quickly the variety in which objects can be described and this is going to be the challenge in fulfilling the aims of this project.

1.2 Overview of the Report

This report will begin with a literature survey, explaining the different options and previously tried techniques for various problems this project will face. It will give an overview of the techniques, their advantages, and disadvantages.

This will be followed by an in-depth investigation into the requirements of the project and an analysis of the problem and how the project will be tackling it. This will be similar to the literature survey except it will only discuss why a technique has been chosen over another with regards to the nature of the project.

This will be followed by explaining the design and implementation of the techniques used in this project, as well as how the results were obtained and what tests were run.

Finally, there will be a discussion and conclusion about the projects aims and final results.

Chapter 2

Literature Survey

There has not been much previous work done on this topic, but each of the individual aspects of the project has been researched in depth by other parties. The majority of the project is an information extraction task which has been widely researched with many techniques to perform well on various forms of data. Other considerations to be made will be what tools or programming languages to use, and how to store both the training data and the results.

2.1 Information Extraction

The information extraction task can be broken down into two parts, named entity recognition and relationship extraction. The difference in these two tasks would be identifying the objects and sizes within the sentence, and then determining if they are related. For example, with the sentence “Beech trees can grow to more than 40m.”, named entity recognition is the task of identifying “Beech trees” as an object and “40m” as a size. Relationship extraction is the task of determining whether the size is a description of the object i.e. whether they are related. This section will overview the problem, different techniques for the tasks, their advantages, and their disadvantages.

2.1.1 Named Entity Recognition

Named entity recognition is the process of identifying entities in text. This task can be broken down into finding the entities and classifying them into classes. The most common classes used for named entities are person names, organisations, and locations but you can build models to identify any class of entity. There are many challenges that come along with this, such as coreference, which is when an entity is referred to in the text but not by name. For example: “Henry Ford was born in 1863. He is known for founding the Ford Motor Company.”. In the second sentence the entity “Henry Ford” is referred to as “He”. This is called coreference and needs to be resolved before entities can be identified if you want to capture all occurrences of the entities.

Three primary approaches to named entity recognition are knowledge-engineering, supervised learning, and semi-supervised learning (Barrault 2019a):

Knowledge-Engineering

Knowledge-engineering approaches use gazetteers and human written rules to determine if a token is an entity. Its strengths are its high performance (on its specific domain) and its transparency. However, its weaknesses are that it requires domain experts to write the rules, changing to another domain requires possibly rewriting all the rules, and you need domain specific gazetteers.

Supervised Learning

Supervised learning is a technique that attempts to fix the generalisation problem in knowledge-engineering approaches (Lison 2015). Supervised learning systems learn from labelled examples, moving to a new domain only requires a new set of labelled examples. These labelled examples include features which inform the model as to the context in which the token was found. Features for a named entity recognition model would usually include information about the token, previous and future tokens, their part of speech tag, and any other information that might be useful in identifying a specific class of entity. There are a variety of different models that can be built using supervised learning such as decision trees, support vector machines, and neural networks (Caruana & Niculescu-Mizil 2006). The advantages of this approach are that the model is easier to generalise towards different domains, depending on your problem the level of expertise to label the data is usually less than would be required to write rules, and you don't need any domain specific additional information such as gazetteers (although these can help improve accuracy). Issues with this approach are usually that you need a large amount of annotated data for accurate results. Manually labelling that amount of data can take many hours, and in domains where the labelling might be subjective you would need multiple labellers to ensure high accuracy in your training data.

Semi-Supervised Learning

Semi-supervised learning is a similar approach to supervised, but the advantage is that you do not need as many labelled examples in your training data (Zhu & Goldberg 2009). You have a small amount of labelled data as part of a larger unlabelled training data set. Using the labelled examples and by looking at the structure of the unlabelled data you attempt to form a model, you are relying on assumptions that either points close to one another share a class, points within a cluster share the same class, or the classes can be inferred by patterns hidden on a lower dimension than the input space (Olivier Chapelle 2006).

Active Learning

Active learning is similar to semi-supervised in that you start with a small amount of labelled data that allows the model to begin making classifications. Where it differs is that before the model feeds it's classifications back into the training data, there is a manual intervention step where a human will verify the classification results. This is done to reduce semantic drift and help generate large amounts of training data more easily without sacrificing performance (Stikic et al. 2008).

2.1.2 Relationship Extraction

Relationship extraction is the process of determining if two or more entities in a text are related. Due to needing to know which tokens are entities this process can only be performed after named entity recognition or on a manually labelled set of text. An example of this relevant to the project would be the sentence: “The average apple is 7cm in diameter”. The relationship extraction task is to determine if the two entities, in this case the object “apple” and the size “7cm”, are related. There are techniques to tackle this problem with good results but there are some key challenges. Relationships over multiple sentences are much harder to detect and usually systems will ignore these relationships and only attempt to extract ones within a sentence when using semi-supervised or bootstrapping techniques. Semantic drift is another challenge the model will face. It describes the issue that arises when you use a small set of labelled training data for your model. If the model attempts to learn its own rules to generate more training data, an incorrect rule will generate more incorrect examples which will then generate more incorrect rules and repeat exponentially. This causes an exponential drift away from the initial accuracy of the labelled examples. Techniques to combat this include human intervention. In the first few iterations where there are still relatively few examples, a human can manually check the results to see if they are accurate. However, this is not a perfect solution and semantic drift can be a significant factor in decreasing your model’s accuracy.

Four primary approaches to relationship extraction are knowledge-engineering, supervised learning, bootstrapping and distant supervision (Barrault 2019b):

Knowledge-Engineering

Knowledge-Engineering approaches follow rules for identifying relationships. They can be split into two different categories: shallow, and deep. Shallow systems use pattern-action rules to determine if a relationship exists. For example:

Pattern: “\$Person, \$Position of \$Organisation”

Action: add-relation(is-employed-by(\$Person, \$Organisation))

Then the sentence “Mr. Wright, executive vice president of Merrill Lynch Canada” would match the pattern and the system would determine that “Mr. Wright” has a relationship to “Merrill Lynch Canada” of type “is-employed-by”.

Deep systems use language rules to determine relationships. This means looking at examples and determining the grammatical relationships between the entities. For example, a subject, person, and an object, organisation, separated by a verb such as “works for” would indicate an is-employed-by relationship.

Advantages of this approach are that it has high precision and is transparent, i.e. a human can read the rules to understand why a relationship has been classified in the way that it was. However, the disadvantages usually outweigh this as it is impossible to write all rules to capture all instances and the approach would need new rules to be written for every different domain.

Supervised Learning

Supervised learning for relationship extraction is similar to that for named entity recognition, covered in section 2.1.1. The differences come when choosing the features for the training data. Due to already having the entities identified the features would include these classifications. They would also include the tokens between the two entities as this could be informative in classifying their relationship.

To reiterate, the strengths of this approach are its adaptability to new domains and the no requirement for writing complex rule sets. Disadvantages are that the model performance greatly relies on the quality and quantity of training data and the degree of which this data represents the real problem.

Bootstrapping

Bootstrapping can be thought of as a self-teaching model that starts by seeding it with a few examples. An example of this method is illustrated in Brin (1999). Given either some pattern examples or some relationship examples the model parses the training text to find relationships that fit these patterns or patterns that fit the relationships given. From here it will build new patterns from relationships found or build new relationships from patterns found. It can do this iteratively until the rule set is deemed large enough. In the Brin (1999) example pairs of authors and their books are given as examples. These were then used to find patterns relating the authors to their books from 24 million web pages. These patterns were then used to generate new pairs of authors and books, and so on, until they had 15,257 unique books, all from starting with only 5.

The strengths of this approach are that it requires no labelled data, just a few examples, which it can very quickly generate more from. The disadvantage to this is semantic drift, if the model incorrectly matches two entities to a relationship it will generate a rule from this pairing. This rule will then allow the model to discover more incorrect relationships. Every iteration the number of incorrect rules will exponentially increase decreasing the accuracy of the model.

Distant Supervision

The aim of this approach is to reduce the need to manually label examples. Distant supervision is a way of generating training data by using an existing knowledge base to label an unstructured text dataset. In essence it is a way to map relations in a knowledge base to text which can then be used to teach the model the general form in which relations might appear in text.

The advantages of this is the reduced need to label training data and the speed at which the model learns new rules. The accuracy of these models is worse than that of supervised models (or very narrow domain knowledge-engineering models) but it requires much less labelling.

2.1.3 Feature Selection

Machine learning models use features to inform themselves about the context in which the information has been found. For example, information such as if the word is in a dictionary,

if the word is capitalised, and what the preceding and succeeding words are, could all be informative in determining if an entity is a person. Without features the model would have to see every example of a person entity in text to be able to classify them, essentially making it a fancy look up table. Features allow the model to identify new contexts as similar to previous examples it has encountered and make a classification based on that similarity.

For the sake of computational efficiency and reducing the complexity of the model, the number of features should be kept low. This generally also increases the accuracy of the model by removing features that are not informative or are even misleading (Hira & Gillies (2015), Ramaswami & Bhaskaran (2009)).

2.1.4 Preprocessing

Preprocessing is the process of analysing, editing, or removing text from the data to allow the model to classify more accurately. Some of the processes proved to be useful in text mining and information extraction (Vijayarani et al. 2015) are stop-word removal and stemming. Stop-word removal is the removal of words that add little information to the text. These are words that are commonly used and do not inform the classifier about the specific situation in any great way. Stemming is the process of removing the ends of words and reducing them to their root form. This usually helps the model learn faster as it does not have to learn different endings for a word that all essentially mean the same thing i.e. “car” and “cars” will both be written as “car” and it likely will not affect the meaning of the text. Both of these processes have been shown to work well with various text mining and text related tasks, however they may not perform well with this specific named entity recognition and relationship extraction task.

2.1.5 Labelling Scheme

Training the models requires labelled examples of data similar to that which they will be classifying. A common way of labelling for named entity recognition is the BIO scheme (Baldwin 2009). BIO stands for Beginning-Inside-Outside, as this is how it labels tokens. For example, the following sentence would be labelled as:

“Granny Smith Apples are 6cm in diameter.”

“Granny[B-Obj] Smith[I-Obj] Apples[I-Obj] are[O] 6cm[B-Size] in[O] diameter[O].[O]”

This allows the models to learn multi-word entities as well as single words.

2.2 Programming Languages

Python has recently become the go to language for data science and machine learning. Due to this there are a lot of libraries that have been built to assist programmers in these two domains. There are libraries for data manipulation and storage (numpy and pandas), libraries for natural language processing (NLTK), and libraries for building machine learning models (sci-kit learn). Pickle can also be used for saving Python objects which would enable the saving of models for later testing and classifications. Python has the advantage of being easy to write and understand due to its simplified syntax, this in turn makes programming faster and more efficient.

However, due to Python being a relatively new language there are some advantages to using languages that have been around for longer. Another language that has some natural language processing roots is Java. One of the best natural language processing toolkits is StanfordNLP, a library for Java. Many academic projects investigating natural language processing techniques have been written with the assistance of this library and it has been proven to be a very powerful tool. Another advantage Java has over Python is that Java is a compiled language whereas Python is interpreted. This means that the run time of the Java system will be significantly faster once it has been compiled.

2.3 Datasets

One of the requirements for this project will be a large textual dataset that contains mentions of objects and their sizes. Other datasets that would be useful to the project would be any labelled sets that contain information on either objects, sizes, or both. The Linguistic Data Consortium hosts various datasets that have been used in other academic studies with promising results, such as English Gigaword (Zhou et al. (2017) and Suzuki & Isozaki (2008)) and Treebank (Socher et al. 2013). Another readily available text dataset is Wikipedia which has been used successfully for many natural language processing projects before (Zesch et al. (2007) and Ferrari et al. (2017)).

2.4 Databases

Once information about the objects has been identified it will need to be stored in a database. There are two main different types of databases, relational databases (SQL) and non-relational (NoSQL). SQL databases are used in situations where one item's relationship to another is important. They follow strict standards to ensure low data redundancy and high reliability. However, if the data you need to store does not require relationships between items then a NoSQL database is often faster and more adaptable.

2.5 Evaluation

A standard evaluation technique in machine learning projects is to use an F1 score.

$$F_1 = 2 \cdot \frac{precision \cdot recall}{precision + recall}$$

$$Precision = \frac{TruePositive}{TruePositive + FalsePositive}$$

$$Recall = \frac{TruePositive}{TruePositive + FalseNegative}$$

Precision is the measure of how many classifications made by the model are correct and recall is a measure of how many correct classifications are made by the model. F1 scores use a harmonic mean between precision and recall, meaning that if there is a large difference

between the two, the score will be significantly skewed towards the lower. This prevents models from scoring too highly if their approach is play safe and label almost everything as the most common class.

Chapter 3

Requirements and analysis

The primary objective of the project is to generate a machine learning model that is able to detect related objects and sizes in text. This can be broken down into a number of smaller aims and objectives as shown below:

1. Build a data labelling tool
2. Find a suitable text data source
3. Label text data
4. Build and train NER and RE model
5. Evaluate models
6. Build database
7. Retrain models on new data

Objective 6 marks the end goal of the project from a definition standpoint. Reaching this objective would mean that the project will have implemented the minimum requirements. The models might not be accurate, and the data might be poor, but a database of objects and their relative sizes can be built using the models to classify new data. Objective 7 is an additional step that could help improve the accuracy of the model. This goes alongside 4 and 5 where improving the features or models used could drastically change the outcome of the project.

There is also an extension to this project that would be to include sizes of objects relative to others. For example, “That tree is as tall as a house.”, if you know the size of a house from previous text then you can infer that some trees are equal to this height.

The evaluation of the project’s success will be difficult to measure. Testing the machine learning models using the labelled training data is an easy enough task. However, how the training data is gathered might skew our models. This means that although it might perform well on the test set, we need to ensure that the test set is an accurate representation of the real text we are trying to extract information from. We can limit the gap by trying to include examples of all classifications. Sentences with just objects, just sizes, both objects and sizes, sentences where the object and size are related and sentences where they are not. The means that the model will have an accurate representation of all different possibilities.

3.1 Information Extraction

Active learning is the technique that this project will employ in order to train models. This is due to the limited time in which the project must be completed, as well as a lack of readily available datasets that would be helpful for this task. It is a good compromise between supervised and semi-supervised learning.

Other approaches for information extraction such as knowledge-engineering could be a good fit for certain aspects of this project such as recognising sizes. Knowledge-engineering techniques approach the problem by using domain experts to write rules to capture the information. Rules for objects such as sizes could be as follows: The token must contain a unit of size (metres, m, ft, inches, etc), and the token must contain a numeric value (a scale of the size).

3.1.1 Features

Choosing the features for information extraction to inform the model is a challenging task. Tools can be used to analyse training data to determine which features are providing the most information. Features with a high correlation can usually be reduced which helps to improve model size, run time, and accuracy. A starting set of features for named entity recognition can be found in Figure 3.1 below. The gazetteer in this feature set will contain different units of size to help identify size entities and also words classified as objects in WordNet. To adapt this feature set for relationship extraction we will include the number of words between the two entities, the identity of both entities, and the order in which they appear in the text, i.e. object then size or size then object. From this base we can use evaluate the models to see what features are most helpful in informing our classification.

identity of w_i , identity of neighboring words
 embeddings for w_i , embeddings for neighboring words
 part of speech of w_i , part of speech of neighboring words
 base-phrase syntactic chunk label of w_i and neighboring words
 presence of w_i in a gazetteer
 w_i contains a particular prefix (from all prefixes of length ≤ 4)
 w_i contains a particular suffix (from all suffixes of length ≤ 4)
 w_i is all upper case
 word shape of w_i , word shape of neighboring words
 short word shape of w_i , short word shape of neighboring words
 presence of hyphen

Figure 3.1: Set of features found in *Speech and Language Processing* by Jurafsky & Martin (2019) pp. 4. for named entity recognition

From Tkachenko & Simanovsky (2012) we can see the how effective many different features are on the performance of named entity recognition models. Some of the features that performed well in the paper such as suffixes and prefixes most likely will not improve the performance of our models due to objects not commonly having prefixes and suffixes. However, features such as sub-tokens could be adapted to help identify units of size. The paper also goes into depth about different forms of clustering and how they can be used to help inform the model. Clustering is useful as it allows better generalisation to previously unseen words,

as they can be assigned to a cluster of semantically similar words and then classified using the clusters information (Lin & Wu 2009).

Bach & Badaskar (2007) discusses the important of features in a relationship extraction task. It lays out 5 important features: the entities themselves, the types of the two entities, word sequence between the entities, number of words between the entities, and then path in the parse tree containing the two entities. For our project, the types of the two entities is irrelevant as we will only be classifying sentences containing an object and a size entity.

3.1.2 Preprocessing

Due to the nature of the task, preprocessing the data may actually be detrimental to results. For example, when attempting to classify a relationship between two entities it is likely that the only words between them will be stop words. Removing them in preprocessing actually may hinder the performance of the model as it will have less contextual information on which to make its classification. However, this project will test the effectiveness of stop-word removal as well as lemmatisation on the performance of the models. Stemming has been left out as it will be used as a feature rather than a preprocessing technique. This is due to the similarity between lemmatisation and stemming and wanting to test the effects stemming has as a feature.

3.1.3 Labelling Data

Once the raw text data has been acquired from our data source we will need to process and label it. The labelling process will be made easier by the creation of a labelling tool that will allow us to label entities using the BIO scheme as well as labelling the entities as having relationships or not. This will also allow us to be able to classify multi-token entities as well as single word so we can generalise to a wider range of examples that our model will be able to classify. To properly evaluate the performance of the models a minimum number of labelled examples are needed for both sizes, objects, and relationships. Named entity recognition has been shown to perform at expert levels with less than 100 labelled examples (Foley et al. 2018), so the minimum requirement for our project will be set at 100. There has not been much literature on relationship extraction with a limited number of training records, so it is hard to estimate our requirement for implementing this project. In light of this we will perform tests to study the effects the number of records has on the performance of our models.

3.2 Programming Languages

Despite the faster run time of Java and existence of the StanfordNLP library, for machine learning and data science, Python has the advantage. There are a significant number of libraries that will allow the implementation of this project to be much more efficient. Also, despite Python running more slowly, once the models are trained the processing time of classifying a token or relationship is small enough that it will not be an issue.

3.3 Datasets

The most readily available dataset that is likely to contain information on object size would be Wikipedia. English Wikipedia can be downloaded into an xml file of just over 60GB. Due to the nature of Wikipedia and the type of information it contains it is a good candidate for our primary text dataset. As it is used for educational purposes, sentences describing objects should be more common than in other text datasets.

Another dataset that could be used to improve the performance of named entity recognition is Wordnet. Wordnet is a large lexical database of English and could be used as a gazetteer to identify entities that are objects. Wordnet will also allow the identification of multiple references to the same object as it lists alternative words for the same noun object.

3.4 Databases

The database for this project will be relatively simple and can be created using SQL, specifically MySQL it can be easily integrated with Python. Database design guidelines explain the importance of normalising the tables to ensure that information is not stored multiple times. In the case of this project all we need to store is a reference to an object, a list of found sizes, and a link back to where each relationship was found, which is why we prefer this method over a NoSQL approach.

This is the database to store the results of our information extraction. We must also use a database to store the training data for the machine learning models. These will not need a relational database structure as all information can be contained in one row but due to the results being stored in an SQL database it makes sense for all data to be stored in the same place.

3.5 Evaluation

Dividing the labelled dataset intended for training the models into a training and testing dataset will allow us to test our models on a dataset in which we know the correct classifications. Dividing up the dataset can be done randomly and repeated a number of times to generate and average performance for each model, allowing us to get a better idea of the general performance. The metrics we will use to measure performance are precision, recall, and F1 score. The testing will test different types of model as well as how effective different features are in informing the models' classifications.

Chapter 4

Methodology

4.1 Design

Although the primary objective of the project is to generate a machine learning model that is able to detect related objects and sizes in text, there are steps that have be taken in order to get stage where we can generate and test such a model. Along with this the project also includes steps on improving the model's performance by feeding corrected low confidence classifications back into the training data. See Figure 4.3 below for an overview.

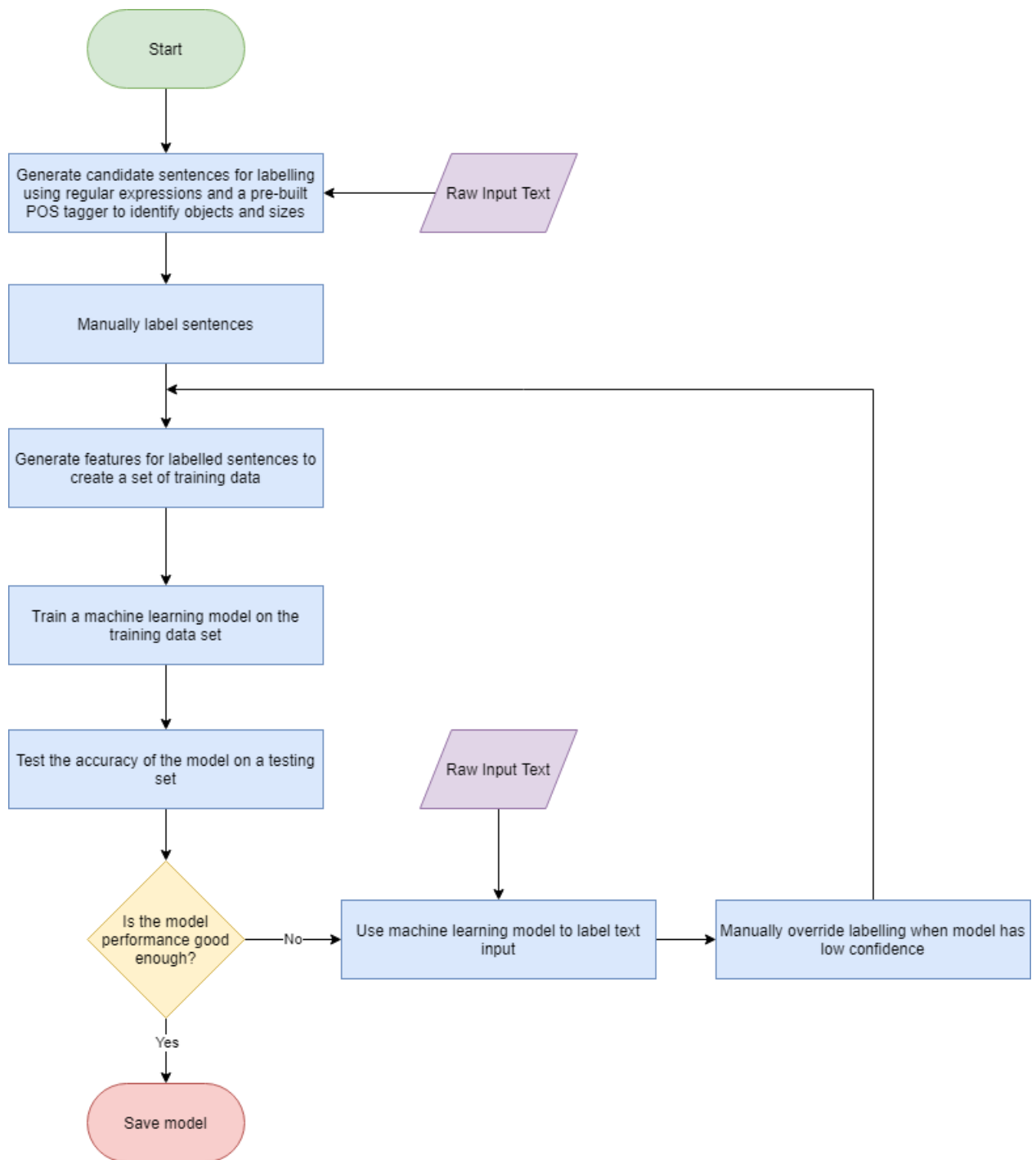


Figure 4.1: Flow diagram to show the process of generating and iteratively improving the model

Working from this design we can break down the functions needing to be written and establish what functionality each will have to implement.

- Convert raw text input into a workable format for labelling and feature generation
This will be the process of sentence tokenisation, breaking down the input text into single line sentences. This code will also use version 1 of the named entity recognition model to only keep sentences that it perceives to contain either an object, a size, or both.
- Manually label the entities in the sentences and label the sentences as containing a relationship or not
This function will allow us to label the training data more easily. It will present each sentence one by one and take keyboard inputs to label the words within the sentence as well as the relationship.
- Generate the features from the labelled sentences
This will be its own function as it is important that it is easy to switch between different feature sets for testing the models. This will take the labelled sentences as an input and output a list of features class tuples where features is a dictionary.
- Train the models
Use the training data to train the models and save them as pickle files to be loaded in later.
- Test the models
Test the models on some unseen text data and recording the results for later analysis.

4.1.1 Preprocessing

Stop-word removal and lemmatisation will be performed on the data before the generation of features but after the manual labelling process. This is to increase the accuracy of manually labelling as the text will be more readable and more easily understood by humans before preprocessing.

4.1.2 Model Design

The design of the models comes down to the features being used to inform the classifier and the classifier itself. The features inform the classifier as to the context of the word or relationship that it has been asked to classify.

Features

The full lists of features is given in Table 4.1 and Table 4.2. All of the features will be implemented into the feature generation script and different combinations of the features will be tested against one another to optimise the performance of the models.

Table 4.1: *Features for named entity recognition*

Feature	Description	Example
Token/word in lowercase	The token or word to be labelled	“cars”
Stemmed token	Shortened form of the token	“car”
Shape	The shape of the token how it appeared	“Xxxx”
Part of speech tag	The part of speech identified by a PoS tagger	“noun”
Previous 3 tokens	The 3 tokens to come previously in the text, blank if no more words before it	“”, “two”, “red”
Previous 3 token labels	The labels given by the model the previous 3 tokens	“”, “o”, “o”
Next 3 tokens	The 3 tokens to come next in the text, blank if no more words after	“went”, “down”, “the”
Contains numbers	Does the token contain numerical characters?	“False”
Contains a unit of size	Does the token contain a unit of size from a predefined list of units?	“False”
Sub-tokens	If the token contains numbers and letters, separate them into separate tokens	“3”, “m”

Table 4.2: *Features for relationship extraction*

Feature	Description	Example
Object entity	The object entity in the sentence	“car”
Size entity	The size entity in the sentence	“3m”
Words between entities	Bag of words of all words between the two entities	“is”, “about”
Number of words between entities	Count of the number of words between the entities	2
Presence of verb between entities	Are any of the words between the entities a verb?	“True”
Order of appearance	Which entity appeared in the sentence first	“object”

Models

The models are implementations of models from the Python library scikit-learn (Pedregosa et al. 2011). Sci-kit learn provides a variety of models and by using the library we were able to implement different models and compare how they each performed on the test dataset. The models implemented are:

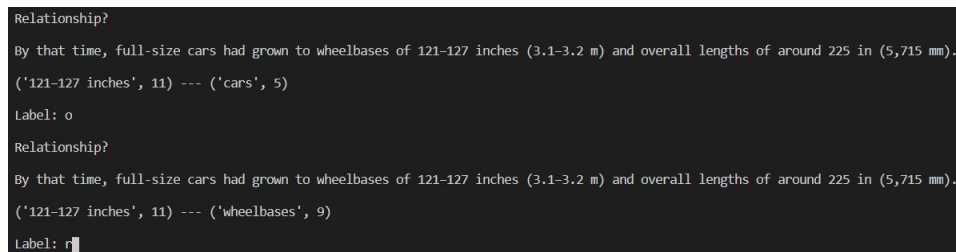
- **Multinomial Naive Bayes**
Naive Bayes model for discrete features. Has been used in text classification and has been shown to have results comparing to those of SVMs (Rennie et al. 2003).
- **Bernoulli Naive Bayes**
Naive Bayes model for discrete features very similar to multinomial Naive Bayes, however it differs in that it is designed for binary features. This model is being included as some of the features will be binary and this model could help inform the combined voting model.
- **Logistic Regression**
Implements regularized logistic regression.
- **Stochastic Gradient Descent**
A standard stochastic gradient descent model that implements a regularised linear model with stochastic gradient descent.
- **Support Vector**
A linear support vector that implements it’s linear classifier from libsvm (Chang & Lin 2011).

- Linear Support Vector
A linear support vector that implements it's linear classifier from liblinear (Fan et al. 2008) meaning that it is more suited for large datasets than the support vector model.
- Combined Voting
The combined voting model will use a set of the above models to each classify the input, it will classify the input by majority vote. This aims to reduce the variance in the performance of the models. If there is an anomalous result that one of the models would have misclassified then the other models will override the vote and will correct the classification.

4.2 Implementation

4.2.1 Generating the labelled data

As outlined earlier there are a number of steps between the raw input data and the labelled features. One of the steps that could potentially be very time consuming when implementing a project of this size is labelling training data. To reduce the amount of time spent on labelling the data for this project we developed a labelling tool that allowed us to more quickly label entities and relationships. It works by displaying each candidate sentence to the user one at a time. An input of “q” means that the sentence does not contain an entity or relationship, else you would either label the entities using the BIO scheme, or label the sentence as having a relationship, depending on what you are labelling the data for.



```
Relationship?
By that time, full-size cars had grown to wheelbases of 121-127 inches (3.1-3.2 m) and overall lengths of around 225 in (5,715 mm).
('121-127 inches', 11) --- ('cars', 5)
Label: o
Relationship?
By that time, full-size cars had grown to wheelbases of 121-127 inches (3.1-3.2 m) and overall lengths of around 225 in (5,715 mm).
('121-127 inches', 11) --- ('wheelbases', 9)
Label: r
```

Figure 4.2: Screenshot showing the process of labelling relationships

Having to process and label a large number of sentences is still very time consuming, so again to speed this up we created a basic “version 1” named entity recognition model. This model identified “candidate sentences”. These are sentences that should have a higher likelihood of containing entities. The version 1 model uses regular expressions to identify sentences that contain a unit of size in them. It also uses nltk’s built in part-of-speech tagger to identify nouns along with Wordnet, although accuracy in identifying candidate sentences is practically identical whether you also use Wordnet or not.

4.2.2 Generating the features

Once the data has been labelled, we need to generate the features to inform the models as to the context of each classification. To do this for named entity recognition we use the sentence the token was found in, along with the labels for each token. Then using the nltk library for

stemming and part of speech tagging, along with a few custom written functions for getting the token shape or the previous tokens etc, we generate a dictionary of features that can then be written to a file or added to a list of training data, along with its class label.

The process is similar for relationship extraction. In this case to generate the features we use the sentence the two types of entity were found in, along with the positions of those entities in the sentence. This is so that we can generate features such as the order that they appeared in, as well as being able to get all the words between them. Once these are generated, again we write the dictionary to a file or list with its class label.

4.2.3 Training and testing the models

The labelled features are loaded in using pickle as a list of tuples containing feature dictionaries and a class label. They are then split into a training and testing set. When testing the average performance of the models over different training data the labelled features dataset will be randomly sorted before splitting. The split of the data is 90% for training and 10% for testing. The models are then successively trained on the training dataset as well as combined into the voting model before they are all tested.

4.2.4 Creating the database

The database consists of two tables: one for storing the objects and their average size from all references, and another for storing the references found in the text to the entities and their sizes. The second table is used to calculate the average size of each object from all the various references to them found in the text. The table to store the references also stores the sentence in which the relationship was found, and this is helpful when later trying to analyse the performance of the models.

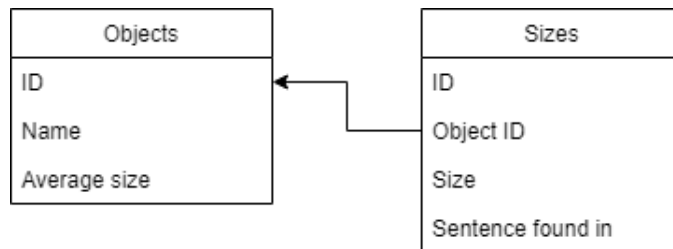


Figure 4.3: *Diagram to show database tables and their relations*

4.2.5 Extracting objects and sizes from text

Once the models have been generated, they are saved as pickle files. They can then be loaded into another Python script and used to classify incoming text inputs. The implementation of this part is very similar to the implementation of the version 1 model which was used to identify candidate sentences for labelling. The input text is broken down into sentences and run through the named entity recognition model, if both an object and size entity exist in the sentence then it is run through the relationship extraction model. If the entities are classified as being related the database is searched to see if the object has been found before, if not

the a new record is added to the objects table, else a new reference will be added in the references table and the average size updated.

4.3 Testing

All four parts of main functionality from generating the training data through to training and testing the models was tested thoroughly. Each part was tested on various inputs and edge cases to ensure that all variations of input will result in a correct output. Full tables of all tests can be found in the appendix.

Chapter 5

Results

All the subsequent tests were completed on the same training and testing datasets, the only variance between them was the set of features used to inform the models, and the type of model making the classification. All measures of precision, recall, or F1 score have been averaged over a number of tests to reduce the effect of anomalies.

5.1 Named Entity Recognition

Table 5.1: *The features within each feature set*

Feature	Set 1	Set 2	Set 3	Set 4
Token/word in lowercase	X	X	X	X
Stemmed token	X		X	X
Shape	X	X	X	X
Part of speech tag	X	X	X	X
Previous 3 tokens	X	X		X
Previous 3 token labels	X	X		X
Next 3 tokens	X	X		X
Contains numbers	X	X	X	
Contains a unit of size	X	X	X	
Sub-tokens	X	X	X	

All of these feature sets were tested on each model both with preprocessing and without. Feature sets 1 - 4 have been tested both with and without preprocessing applied.

Table 5.2: *Models performance on feature set 1 with preprocessing for named entity recognition*

Model	Precision	Recall	F1
Multinomial Naive Bayes	0.66	0.70	0.63
Bernoulli Naive Bayes	0.27	0.49	0.34
Logistic Regression	0.79	0.73	0.69
Stochastic Gradient Descent	0.81	0.76	0.76

Support Vector	0.14	0.38	0.21
Linear Support Vector	0.84	0.81	0.82
Combined Voting	0.82	0.76	0.72

Table 5.3: Models performance on feature set 2 with preprocessing for named entity recognition

Model	Precision	Recall	F1
Multinomial Naive Bayes	0.59	0.70	0.62
Bernoulli Naive Bayes	0.56	0.62	0.53
Logistic Regression	0.79	0.78	0.74
Stochastic Gradient Descent	0.84	0.81	0.81
Support Vector	0.19	0.43	0.26
Linear Support Vector	0.85	0.84	0.84
Combined Voting	0.79	0.78	0.74

Table 5.4: Models performance on feature set 3 with preprocessing for named entity recognition

Model	Precision	Recall	F1
Multinomial Naive Bayes	0.48	0.59	0.50
Bernoulli Naive Bayes	0.48	0.59	0.50
Logistic Regression	0.53	0.62	0.54
Stochastic Gradient Descent	0.77	0.65	0.60
Support Vector	0.11	0.32	0.16
Linear Support Vector	0.53	0.65	0.57
Combined Voting	0.53	0.62	0.54

Table 5.5: Models performance on feature set 4 with preprocessing for named entity recognition

Model	Precision	Recall	F1
Multinomial Naive Bayes	0.77	0.70	0.65
Bernoulli Naive Bayes	0.27	0.51	0.35
Logistic Regression	0.82	0.78	0.76
Stochastic Gradient Descent	0.80	0.73	0.73
Support Vector	0.21	0.46	0.29
Linear Support Vector	0.76	0.76	0.74
Combined Voting	0.82	0.78	0.76

Table 5.6: *Models performance on feature set 1 without preprocessing for named entity recognition*

Model	Precision	Recall	F1
Multinomial Naive Bayes	0.76	0.83	0.79
Bernoulli Naive Bayes	0.69	0.79	0.72
Logistic Regression	0.79	0.85	0.82
Stochastic Gradient Descent	0.83	0.83	0.82
Support Vector	0.51	0.71	0.59
Linear Support Vector	0.82	0.85	0.83
Combined Voting	0.77	0.83	0.80

Table 5.7: *Models performance on feature set 2 without preprocessing for named entity recognition*

Model	Precision	Recall	F1
Multinomial Naive Bayes	0.80	0.86	0.82
Bernoulli Naive Bayes	0.57	0.67	0.57
Logistic Regression	0.78	0.83	0.79
Stochastic Gradient Descent	0.86	0.83	0.84
Support Vector	0.35	0.59	0.44
Linear Support Vector	0.87	0.86	0.86
Combined Voting	0.78	0.85	0.80

Table 5.8: *Models performance on feature set 3 without preprocessing for named entity recognition*

Model	Precision	Recall	F1
Multinomial Naive Bayes	0.90	0.89	0.89
Bernoulli Naive Bayes	0.76	0.86	0.81
Logistic Regression	0.89	0.91	0.90
Stochastic Gradient Descent	0.91	0.89	0.90
Support Vector	0.62	0.79	0.69
Linear Support Vector	0.92	0.92	0.92
Combined Voting	0.89	0.91	0.90

Table 5.9: *Models performance on feature set 4 without preprocessing for named entity recognition*

Model	Precision	Recall	F1
Multinomial Naive Bayes	0.66	0.76	0.70
Bernoulli Naive Bayes	0.62	0.73	0.64
Logistic Regression	0.80	0.83	0.79
Stochastic Gradient Descent	0.86	0.83	0.83

Support Vector	0.46	0.68	0.55
Linear Support Vector	0.90	0.89	0.87
Combined Voting	0.82	0.86	0.83

Table 5.10: *Preprocessing F1 averages for all models on different feature sets*

Feature Set	Preprocessing	No Preprocessing
1	0.60	0.77
2	0.65	0.73
3	0.49	0.86
4	0.61	0.74

The results show that the support vector model was consistently the weakest model, Bernoulli Naive Bayes had the greatest amount of inconsistency in its results, and stochastic gradient descent or combined voting were the most consistent high performers. As shown in Table 5.10 and as hypothesised in section 3.1.2, we can see that preprocessing is detrimental to the results.

5.2 Relationship Extraction

These tests were performed on labelled entity information not from sentences labelled by the named entity recognition model. Due to the small number of features used, only one set was tested. The models were not tested with preprocessing applied due to the features used for the model relying heavily on the words between entities which are likely to be stop-words.

Table 5.11: *Models performance without preprocessing for relationship extraction*

Model	Precision	Recall	F1
Multinomial Naive Bayes	0.66	0.69	0.66
Bernoulli Naive Bayes	0.83	0.77	0.72
Logistic Regression	0.83	0.77	0.72
Stochastic Gradient Descent	0.48	0.69	0.57
Support Vector	0.48	0.69	0.57
Linear Support Vector	0.66	0.69	0.66
Combined Voting	0.83	0.77	0.72

5.3 Number of training records

We ran a series of tests to determine how the number of training records effects the model's performance. For these tests we used the combined voting model on feature set 1 without preprocessing.

As shown in the figures above, the performance of the models does increase as the amount

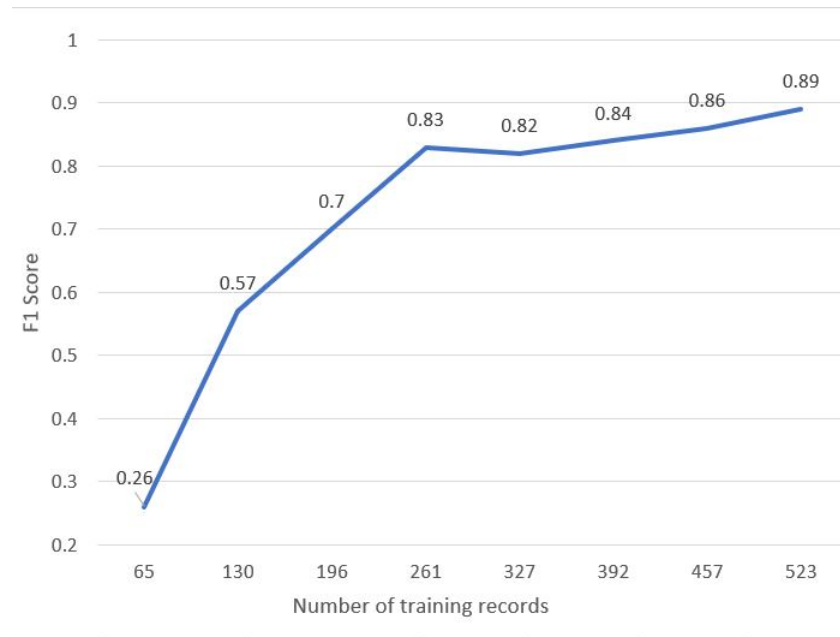


Figure 5.1: *F1 score with respect to training records for named entity recognition*

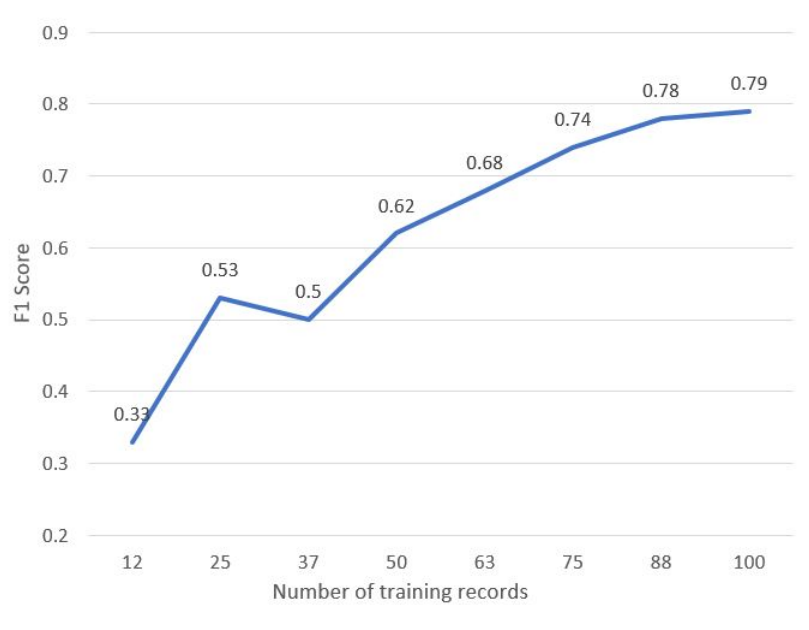


Figure 5.2: *F1 score with respect to training records for relationship extraction*

of training data increases, this is as expected for any machine learning model. However, as you increase to more and more records you get diminishing returns on the increase in performance. The graphs indicate that with more training data even greater model performance could be achieved. This suggests that the limiting factor with our model performance is the training data.

5.4 Active learning

Testing the performance of the model classifications on unseen data is problematic and the classifications need to be checked manually. After one active learning loop and verified classifications being added into the models training data, the training data had doubled in size for named entity examples and had increased by 30% for relationships. Performance on the testing set was tested for feature set 1 without preprocessing.

Table 5.12: *Models performance on feature set 1 without preprocessing for named entity recognition*

Model	Old data F1	New data F1	Change
Multinomial Naive Bayes	0.79	0.79	+ 0.00
Bernoulli Naive Bayes	0.72	0.65	- 0.07
Logistic Regression	0.82	0.89	+ 0.07
Stochastic Gradient Descent	0.82	0.91	+ 0.09
Support Vector	0.59	0.65	+ 0.06
Linear Support Vector	0.83	0.91	+ 0.08
Combined Voting	0.80	0.89	+ 0.09

Table 5.13: *Models performance without preprocessing for relationship extraction*

Model	Old data F1	New data F1	Change
Multinomial Naive Bayes	0.66	0.74	+ 0.08
Bernoulli Naive Bayes	0.72	0.58	- 0.14
Logistic Regression	0.72	0.66	- 0.06
Stochastic Gradient Descent	0.57	0.74	+ 0.17
Support Vector	0.57	0.58	+ 0.01
Linear Support Vector	0.66	0.74	+ 0.08
Combined Voting	0.72	0.74	+ 0.02

Performance for both named entity recognition and relationship extraction has improved. Although it is important to note that the tests are not a true test of how the models will perform on unseen data.

Chapter 6

Discussion

6.1 Goals achieved

Successfully having built machine learning models to identify objects, sizes, and relationships between them, was the primary goal of this project and it has been met. We also successfully tested the effect of many different features on the performance of the models, as well as the effects of changing the amount of training data available. Using the model to generate its own candidate data for labelling and feeding back into the training data was shown to be a viable way to improve its performance.

6.2 Challenges

The main challenge in this project was having a sufficient amount labelled data that was representative of the data we wanted to classify. Initially the plan was to generate candidate sentences using a very simple regular expression and noun identifier model, however the number of candidate sentences generated that contained examples of relationships between objects and sizes was very low. It quickly became apparent that gathering enough examples of relationships this way was infeasible given the time scale of the project. To combat this, we wrote 30 examples containing objects, sizes, and relationships. Using this data to train the model we were able to classify new text data and reduce the error rate significantly. From here the iterative process begun of feeding the classifications, once verified, back into the model.

6.3 Future Improvements

It was due to the lack of sufficient data that we decided to take an active learning approach over semi-supervised or supervised learning. There would be potential given a longer period of time to gather training data to use either of these other two approaches. It would also be possible to use the system built during this project to generate that dataset and then explore those techniques.

With more time and computational power, a wider variety of machine learning models could be tested to see how they perform. Sci-kit learn from which the models implemented

are taken, provides more models that were not implemented due to the scope of the project. There could also be investigation into other libraries or custom implementations of models.

Again, given more time, the scope of this project could have been expanded in terms of the different features tested and the size of the training dataset. These likely would have a greater effect on the performance than a different type of model. These could be achieved by further analysis of the target text datasets to help indicate what features could be informative in making a classification, as well as further reading around the topic into existing named entity recognition and relationship extraction projects.

One of the features tested was the class label of previous tokens. This could be expanded to also include class labels on the next tokens in the sentence. To do this the model needs to perform two passes over the sentence, the first in which it does not take into account the labels of other tokens, and the second in which it does.

Chapter 7

Conclusion

In this project we set out to build a set of machine learning models that would be able to identify object and size entities within sentences, and to determine if they are related. These models can be used to build a database containing objects and their average sizes which could be used in video or image recognition, computer generated scenes, or object comparison applications.

The objectives were:

- To build a data labelling tool
- To build named entity recognition and relationship extraction models
- To be able to identify objects, sizes, and relationships in sentences
- To use these models to label new training data (active learning)
- To test the performance increase of iteratively generating more training data

By the end of this dissertation project we were able to build both a named entity recognition and relationship extraction model. Testing the performance of both using different underlying algorithms, feature sets, and preprocessing techniques. These models allow us to be able to classify unseen sentences and determine the size of objects found in text.

We were able to evaluate the different machine learning approaches when being applied to our problem and determine the most effective approach. The evaluation metrics used were precision, recall, and F1 score. This allowed us to compare our different approaches to determine which was most effective. These evaluations will help to inform any future work on the project and progress the field forwards.

If the project were to continue, we would first investigate potentially better data sources and ways to process them to more efficiently generate training data. The main challenge in implementing this project was a lack of training data containing descriptions of objects. This led us to having to write our own training data in order to kick start the model which introduced some inaccuracies as our data was not exactly the same as the data the model would be classifying (although it was kept as similar as possible, it is difficult to imitate something you have few examples of).

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Appendices

Appendix A

Testing

A.0.1 Getting candidate sentences

Table A.1: *Tests performed on the generation of candidate sentences for the labelled training data*

Test	Input	Expected Output	Pass/Fail
Iterating through all sentences	Text containing multiple sentences per line	Iterates over each sentence on each line	Pass
Outputs candidate sentences to file	-	candidate sentences text file	Pass
Wordnet detects noun	Sentence with no Wordnet noun	Not candidate sentence	Pass
	Sentence with Wordnet noun	Candidate sentence	Pass
Part of speech tagger detects noun	Sentence not containing noun	Not candidate sentence	Pass
	Sentence containing noun	Candidate sentence	Pass
Regex detects size	Sentence with no unit of size	Not candidate sentence	Pass
	Sentence with unit of size	Candidate sentence	Pass

A.0.2 Labelling sentences

Table A.2: Tests performed on the labelling tool for generating labelled training data

Test	Input	Expected Output	Pass/Fail
Iterating through all sentences	Text containing multiple sentences per line	Iterates over each sentence on each line	Pass
Labelling different entities	Sentence containing objects, sizes, and non-entities	Labels entities using BIO scheme	Pass
Labelling relationships	Sentence containing relationship	Labels sentence as "relationship"	Pass
	Sentence not containing relationship	Labels sentence as "o"	Pass
Outputting labelled sentences to a file	-	labelled sentences text file	Pass
Skipping relationship labelling of not at least one of each entity	Text only containing an object	Labels as "o"	Pass
	Text only containing a size	Labels as "o"	Pass
	Text containing no entities	Labels as "o"	Pass
Label all as "o" input	Inputting "q" at start of sentence	Labels sentence as "o"	Pass
Label rest of sentence as "o" input	Inputting "q" midway through sentence	Labels first half as input, second has as "o"	Pass

A.0.3 Generating features

Table A.3: Tests performed on the generation of different features for the named entity recognition models

Test	Input	Expected Output	Pass/Fail
Token	"token"	"token"	Pass
Stemmed token	"build"	"build"	Pass
	"builds"	"build"	Pass
	"building"	"build"	Pass
	"buildings"	"build"	Pass

Shape	"Title"	"XXXXX"	Pass
	"lower"	"xxxxx"	Pass
	"UPPER"	"XXXXX"	Pass
Part of speech tag	"saw" in sentence as noun	Tagged as noun	Pass
	"saw" in sentence as verb	Tagged as verb	Pass
Previous 3 tokens	Token, 1st in sentence	Three empty strings	Pass
	Token, 2nd in sentence	Two empty strings and previous token	Pass
	Token, 3rd in sentence	One empty string and two previous tokens	Pass
	Token, 4th in sentence	Three previous tokens	Pass
Next 3 tokens	Token, 4th last in sentence	Next three tokens	Pass
	Token, 3rd last in sentence	Next two tokens and empty string	Pass
	Token, 2nd last in sentence	Next token and two empty strings	Pass
	Token, last in sentence	Three empty strings	Pass
Presence in Wordnet as a noun	Token that is noun in Wordnet	"True"	Pass
	Token that isn't noun in Wordnet	"False"	Pass
Contains numbers	"nonumbers"	"False"	Pass
	"numbers123"	"True"	Pass
Contains a unit of size	"nunit"	"False"	Pass
	"cm"	"True"	Pass
Sub-tokens	"token"	Empty tuple	Pass
	"12cm"	"12", "cm"	Pass

Table A.4: Tests performed on the generation of different features for the relationship extraction models

Test	Input	Expected Output	Pass/Fail
Object entity	Sentence with object entity "Alex"	"Alex"	Pass
Size entity	Sentence with size entity "6 foot 3 inches"	"6 foot 3 inches"	Pass
Bag of words between entities	No words between entities	Empty list	Pass
	No repeating words between entities	List of words	Pass
	Repeating words between entities	List of unique words	Pass
Number of words between entities	No words between entities	0	Pass
	5 words between entities	5	Pass
Presence of verb between entities	No words between entities	"False"	Pass
	Non-verbs between entities	"False"	Pass
	Verb between entities	"True"	Pass
Order of appearance	Object appears first	"Object"	Pass
	Size appears first	"Size"	Pass

A.0.4 Training and testing models

Table A.5: Tests performed on the labelling tool for generating labelled training data

Test	Input	Expected Output	Pass/Fail
Split labelled features into training and testing sets	Labelled features dataset	Training and testing datasets	Pass
Trains models	Training data	Trained model	Pass
Tests models	Testing data, model	Model performance	Pass
Outputs models as pickle files	-	A pickle file for each model	Pass
Outputs model performance into logfile	-	Logfile	Pass