

# Text Technologies for Data Science INFR11145

# **Text Classification**

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## **Lecture Objectives**

- <u>Learn</u> about text basic of text classification
  - Definition
  - Types
  - Methods
  - Evaluation



#### **Text Classification**

- Text classification is the process of <u>classifying</u> documents into <u>predefined categories</u> based on their content.
- Input: Text (document, article, sentence)
- Task: Classify into predefined one/multiple categories
- Categories:
  - Binary: relevant/irrelevant, spam .. etc.
  - Few: sports/politics/comedy/technology
  - Hierarchical: patents

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#### Classification is and is not

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- Classification (a.k.a. "categorization"): a ubiquitous enabling technology in data science; studied within pattern recognition, statistics, and machine learning.
- Definition:
   the activity of predicting to which among a predefined finite set
   of groups ("classes", or "categories") a data item belongs to
- Formulated as the task of generating a hypothesis (or "classifier", or "model")

 $h: D \rightarrow C$ 

where D =  $\{x_1, x_2, ...\}$  is a domain of data items and C =  $\{c_1, ..., c_n\}$  is a finite set of classes (the classification scheme)



#### Classification is and is not

- Different from <u>clustering</u>, where the groups ("clusters") and their number are not known in advance
- The membership of a data item into a class <u>must not be</u> determinable with certainty
  - e.g., predicting whether a natural number belongs to Prime or Non-Prime is not classification
- In text classification, data items are
  - Textual: e.g., news articles, emails, sentences, queries, etc.
  - Partly textual: e.g., Web pages

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## **Types of Classification**

• Binary:

item to be classified into one of two classes

$$h: D \rightarrow C, C = \{c_1, c_2\}$$

- e.g., Spam/not spam, male/female, rel/irrel
- Single-Label Multi-Class (SLMC)

item to be classified into only one of *n* possible classes.

$$h: D \rightarrow C$$
,  $C = \{c_1 \dots c_n\}$ , where n>2

- e.g., Sports/politics/entertainment, positive/negative/neutral
- Multi-Label Multi-Class (MLMC)

item to be classified into none, one, two, or more classes

$$h: D \rightarrow 2^C$$
,  $C = \{c_1 \dots c_n\}$ , where n>1

- e.g., Assigning CS articles to classes in the ACM Classification System
- Usually be solved as n independent binary classification problems  $\frac{1}{N}$   $\frac{1}$



#### **Dimension of Classification**

- Text classification may be performed according to several dimensions ("axes") orthogonal to each other
- by topic; by far the most frequent case, its applications are global
- by sentiment; useful in market research, online reputation management, social science and political science
- by language (a.k.a. "language identification"); useful, e.g., in query processing within search engines
- by genre; e.g., AutomotiveNews vs. AutomotiveBlogs, useful in website classification and others;
- by author (a.k.a. "authorship attribution"), by native language ("native language identification"), or by gender; useful in forensics and cybersecurity
- by usefulness; e.g., product reviews
- .....

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#### **Rule-based classification**

- An old-fashioned way to build text classifiers was via knowledge engineering, i.e., manually building classification rules
  - E.g., (Viagra or Sildenafil or Cialis) → Spam
  - E.g. (#MAGA or America great again) → support Trump
- Common type: dictionary-based classification
- Disadvantages:
  - Expensive to setup and to maintain
  - Depends on few keywords → bad coverage (recall)

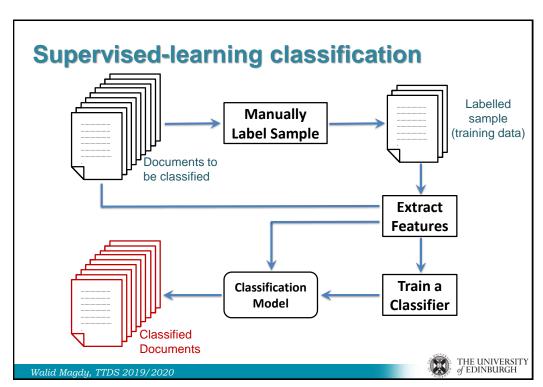
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## **Supervised-learning classification**

- A generic (task-independent) learning algorithm is used to train a classifier from a set of manually classified examples
- The classifier learns, from these training examples, the characteristics a new text should have in order to be assigned to class c
- Advantages:
  - Generating training examples cheaper than writing classification rules
  - Easy update to changing conditions (e.g., addition of new classes, deletion of existing classes, shifted meaning of existing classes, etc.)

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#### **Extract Features**

- In order to be input to a learning algorithm (or a classifier), all training (or unlabeled) documents are converted into vectors in a common vector space
- The <u>dimensions</u> of the vector space are called <u>features</u>
- In order to generate a vector-based representation for a set of documents D, the following steps need to be taken
  - Feature Extraction
- 融合
- 2. Feature Selection or Feature Synthesis (optional)
- 3. Feature Weighting

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#### **Step 1: Feature Extraction**

- What are the features that should be different from one class to another?
- Simplest form: BOW
  - Each term in a document is a feature
  - Feature space size = vocabulary in all docs
  - Standard IR preprocessing steps are usually applied
    - · Tokenisation, stopping, stemming
- Other simple features forms:
  - Word n-grams (bigrams, trigrams, ....)
    - Much larger + more sparse
  - · Sometimes char n-grams are used
    - Especially for degraded text (OCR or ASR outputs)



## **Step 1: Feature Extraction**

- What other text features could be used?
- Sentence structure (NLP):
  - POS (part-of-speech tags)
  - Syntactic tree structure
- Topic-based features (NLP):
  - LDA topics discovering the abstract "topics" that occur in a collection of documents.
  - · NEs (named entities) in text
  - Links / Linked terms
- Non-textual features:
  - Average doc\sentence\word length
  - % of words start with upper-case letter
  - % of links/hashtags/emojis in text



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## **Step 1: Feature Extraction**

- What preprocessing to apply?
  - · Case-folding? really vs Really vs REALLY
  - Punctuations? "?", "!", "@", "#"
  - Stopping? "he", "she", "what", "but"
  - Stemming? "replaced" vs "replacement"
- Other Features:
  - Start with Cap, All Cap
  - Repeated characters "congraaaaaats" "help!!!!!!!"
  - LIWC: Linguistic Inquiry and Word Count
- Which to choose?
  - Classification task/application



#### **Step 2: Feature Selection**

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- Number of distinctive features = feature space = length of feature vector.
- Vector can be of length O(10<sup>6</sup>), and might be sparse
  - → High computational cost
  - → Overfitting 可能有的词只在有的文本出现了一次
- What are the most important features among those?
  - e.g. Reduce O(10<sup>6</sup>) to O(10<sup>4</sup>)
- For each class, find the top representative k features for it → get the Union over all classes → reduced feature space

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## **Step 2: Feature Selection Functions**

- Document frequency
  - % of docs in class  $c_i$  that contain the term  $t_k$
  - Very basic measure. Will select stop words as features

$$\#(t_k, c_i) = P(t_k|c_i)$$

- Mutual Information
  - How term  $t_k$  appear in class  $c_i$  compared to other classes
  - Highly used in feature selection in text classification

$$MI(t_k,c_i) = \sum_{c \in \{c_i,\bar{c}_i\}} \sum_{t \in \{t_k,\bar{t}_k\}} P(t,c) \cdot log_2 \frac{P(t,c)}{P(t) \cdot P(c)}$$

- Pearson's Chi-squared (x²)
  - used more in comparisons between classes



## **Step 2: Feature Selection Functions**

Function	Denoted by	Mathematical form	
Document frequency	$\#(t_k,c_i)$	$P(t_k c_i)$	
DIA association factor	$z(t_k, c_i)$	$P(c_i t_k)$	
Information gain	$IG(t_k, c_i)$	$\sum_{c \in \{c_t, \overline{c}_t\}} \sum_{t \in \{t_k, \overline{t}_k\}} P(t, c) \cdot \log \frac{P(t, c)}{P(t) \cdot P(c)}$	
Mutual information	$MI(t_k, c_i)$	$\log \frac{P(t_k, c_i)}{P(t_k) \cdot P(c_i)}$	
Chi-square	$\chi^2(t_k,c_i)$	$\frac{ Tr  \cdot [P(t_k, c_i) \cdot P(\overline{t}_k, \overline{c}_i) - P(t_k, \overline{c}_i) \cdot P(\overline{t}_k, c_i)]^2}{P(t_k) \cdot P(\overline{t}_k) \cdot P(c_i) \cdot P(\overline{c}_i)}$	
NGL coefficient	$NGL(t_k, c_i)$	$\frac{\sqrt{ Tr } \cdot [P(t_k, c_i) \cdot P(\overline{t}_k, \overline{c}_i) - P(t_k, \overline{c}_i) \cdot P(\overline{t}_k, c_i)]}{\sqrt{P(t_k) \cdot P(\overline{t}_k) \cdot P(c_i) \cdot P(\overline{c}_i)}}$	
Relevancy score	$RS(t_k, c_i)$	$\log \frac{P(t_k c_i) + d}{P(\bar{t}_k \bar{c}_i) + d}$	
Odds Ratio	$OR(t_k, c_i)$	$\frac{P(t_k c_i) \cdot (1 - P(t_k \overline{c}_i))}{(1 - P(t_k c_i)) \cdot P(t_k \overline{c}_i)}$	
GSS coefficient	$GSS(t_k, c_i)$	$P(t_k, c_i) \cdot P(\overline{t}_k, \overline{c}_i) - P(t_k, \overline{c}_i) \cdot P(\overline{t}_k, c_i)$	

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## **Step 2: Feature Synthesis**

矩阵分解

- Matrix decomposition techniques (e.g., PCA, SVD, LSA) can be used to synthesize new features that replace the features discussed above
- These techniques are based on the principles of distributional semantics, which states that the semantics of a word "is" the words it co-occurs with in corpora of language use
  - Pros: the synthetic features in the new vectorial representation do not suffer from problems such as polysemy and synonymy
  - Cons: computationally expensive
- Word embeddings: the "new wave of distributional semantics", as from "deep learning"
- PCA: Principle component analysis
- SVD: Singular value decomposition
- LSA: latent semantic analysis



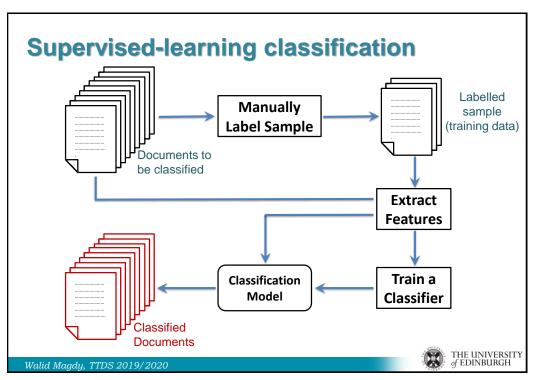
## **Step 3: Feature Weighting**

- Attributing a value to feature t<sub>k</sub> in document d<sub>i</sub>
   This value may be
  - binary (representing presence/absence of  $t_k$  in  $d_i$ );
  - numeric (representing the importance of t<sub>k</sub> for d<sub>i</sub>);
     obtained via feature weighting functions in the following two classes:
    - unsupervised: e.g., tfidf or BM25,
    - supervised: e.g., tf \* MI, tf \*  $x^2$
- The similarity between two vectors may be computed via cosine similarity; if these vectors are prenormalized, this is equivalent to computing the dot product between them

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## **Training a Classifier**

- For binary classification, essentially any supervised learning algorithm can be used for training a classifier; popular choices include
  - Support vector machines (SVMs)
  - Random forests
  - Naïve Bayesian methods
  - Lazy learning methods (e.g., k-NN)
  - •
- The "No-free-lunch principle" (Wolpert, 1996) → there is no learning algorithm that can outperform all others in all contexts
- Implementations need to cater for
  - the very high dimensionality
  - the sparse nature of the representations involved

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## **Training a Classifier**

- For Multiclass classification, some learning algorithms for binary classification are "SLMC-ready"; e.g.
  - Decision trees
  - · Random forests
  - Naive Bayesian methods
  - Lazy learning methods (e.g., k-NN)
- For other learners (notably: SVMs) to be used for SLMC classification, combinations / cascades of the binary versions need to be used
  - e.g. multi-class classification SVM
  - Could be directly used for MLMC as well



## **Parameter Optimisation of Classifier**

- Most classifiers has some parameters to be optimized:
  - The C parameter in soft-margin SVMs
  - The r, d parameters of non-linear kernels
  - · Decision threshold for binary SVM
- Optimising the parameters on test data is cheating!
- Data Split:

Usually labelled data would be split into three parts

- Training: used to train the classifier (typically **80%** of the data)
- Validation: used to optimise parameters. Apply the classifier on this
  data with different values of the parameters and report the one that
  achieves the highest results (usually 10% of the data)
- Test: used to test the performance of the trained classifier with the optimal parameters on these unseen data (usually 10% of the data)

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#### **Cross-Validation**

- Sometimes the amount of labelled data in hand is limited (e.g. 200 samples). Having evaluation of a set of 20 samples only might be misleading
- Cross-validation is used to train the classifier with all data and test on all data without being cheating
- Idea:
  - Split the labelled data into *n* folds
  - Train classifier on n-1 fold and test on the remaining one
  - Repeat n times
- 5-fold cross validation Training Test
- Extreme case: LOOCV LOOCV: leave-one-out cross-validation



#### **Evaluation**

- Efficiency / Effectiveness
- Baselines
- Efficiency:
  - Speed in learning
    - SVM with linear kernel is known to be fast
    - DNNs are known to be much slower (specially with large # layers)
  - Speed in classification
    - . K-NNs are known to be one of the slowest
  - Speed in feature extraction
    - BOW vs POS vs Link analysis features
- Effectiveness:
  - · Global effectiveness measures
  - Per class effectiveness measures



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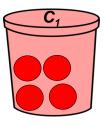
#### **Evaluation: Baselines**

- There are standard methods for creating baselines in text classification to compare your classifier with
- Most popular/simplest baselines
  - Random classification
    - Classes are assigned randomly
    - How better classifier is doing than random?
  - Majority class baseline
    - · Assign all elements to the class that appears the most
    - · How better you are doing that the stupidest classifier
  - Simple algorithm, e.g. BOW
    - Usually used when you introduce new interesting features



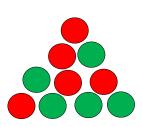
# **Evaluation: Binary Classification**

- Accuracy:
  - How many of the samples are classified correctly?
- A = 9/10 = 0.9



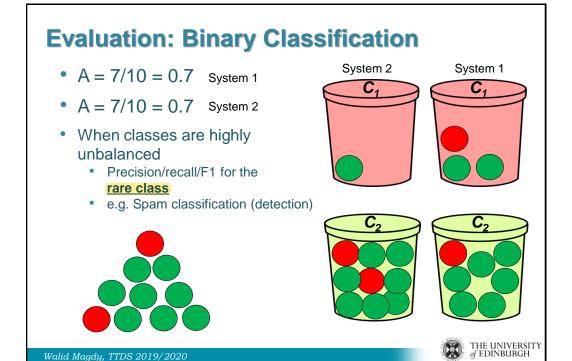




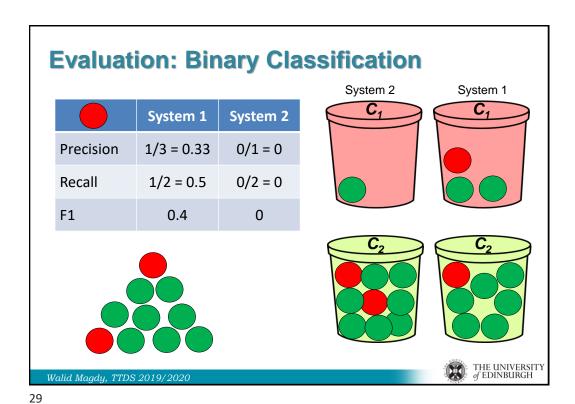


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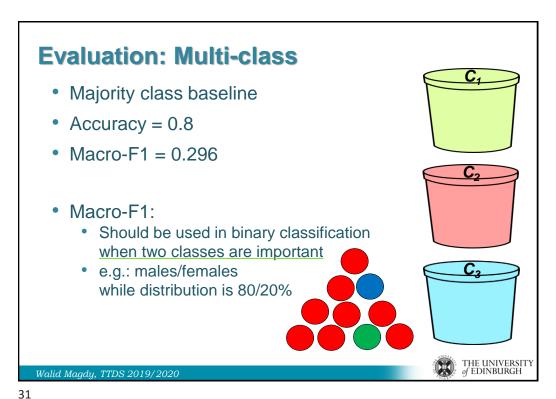
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**Evaluation: Multi-class** Accuracy = (3+3+1)/10 = 0.7Good measure when Classes are nearly balanced Preferred: Precision/recall/F1 for each class Ρ 0.75 1 0.333 R 0.75 0.75 0.5 F1 0.75 0.86 0.4 Macro-F1 = (0.75+0.86+0.4)/3= 0.67THE UNIVERSITY of EDINBURGH Walid Magdy, TTDS 2019/2020



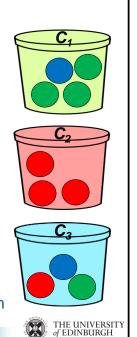
# **Error Analysis**

 Confusion Matrix How classes get confused?

3	0	1
0	3	1
1	0	1

- Useful:
  - Find classes that get confused with others
  - Develop better features to solve the problem

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## **Summary**

- Text Classification tasks
- Feature extraction/selection/synthesis/weighting
- Learning algorithms
- Cross-validation
- Baselines
- Evaluation measures
  - Accuracy/precision/recall/Macro-F1

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#### **Resources**

Fabrizio Sebastiani
 Machine Learning in Automated Text Categorization
 ACM Computing Surveys, 2002
 Link: <a href="https://arxiv.org/pdf/cs/0110053">https://arxiv.org/pdf/cs/0110053</a>

