

# Day 4: Quantitative methods for comparing texts

Kenneth Benoit

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## Documents as vectors

- ▶ The idea is that (weighted) features form a vector for each document, and that these vectors can be judged using metrics of **similarity**
- ▶ A document's vector for us is simply (for us) the row of the document-feature matrix

## Characteristics of similarity measures

Let  $A$  and  $B$  be any two documents in a set and  $d(A, B)$  be the distance between  $A$  and  $B$ .

1.  $d(x, y) \geq 0$  (the distance between any two points must be non-negative)
2.  $d(A, B) = 0$  iff  $A = B$  (the distance between two documents must be zero if and only if the two objects are identical)
3.  $d(A, B) = d(B, A)$  (distance must be symmetric:  $A$  to  $B$  is the same distance as from  $B$  to  $A$ )
4.  $d(A, C) \leq d(A, B) + d(B, C)$  (the measure must satisfy the triangle inequality)

## Euclidean distance

Between document  $A$  and  $B$  where  $j$  indexes their features, where  $y_{ij}$  is the value for feature  $j$  of document  $i$

- ▶ Euclidean distance is based on the Pythagorean theorem
- ▶ Formula

$$\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^j (y_{Aj} - y_{Bj})^2} \quad (1)$$

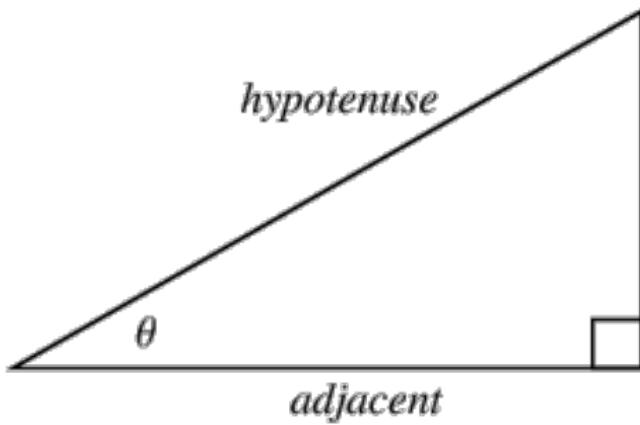
- ▶ In vector notation:

$$\|\mathbf{y}_A - \mathbf{y}_B\| \quad (2)$$

- ▶ Can be performed for any number of features  $J$  (or  $V$  as the vocabulary size is sometimes called – the number of columns in of the dfm, same as the number of feature types in the corpus)

## Remember Mr. Cosine?

In a right angled triangle, the cosine of an angle  $\theta$  or  $\cos(\theta)$  is the length of the adjacent side divided by the length of the hypotenuse



We can use the vectors to represent the text location in a  $V$ -dimensional vector space and compute the angles between them

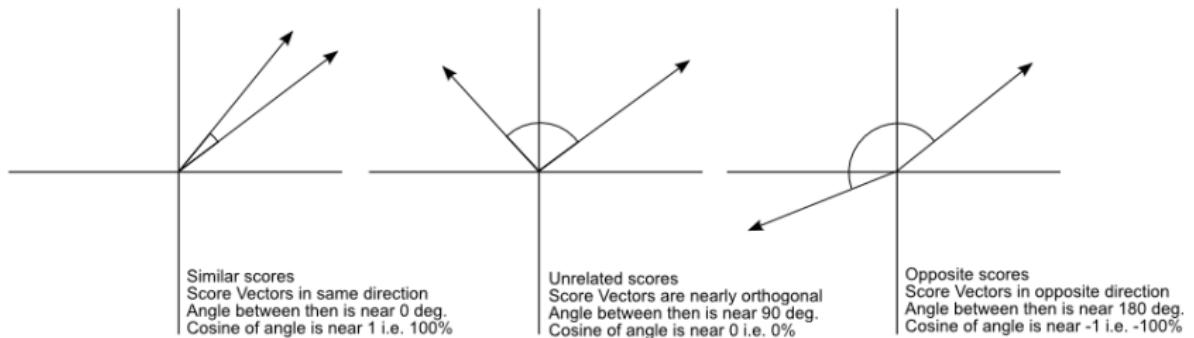
## Cosine similarity

- ▶ Cosine distance is based on the size of the angle between the vectors
- ▶ Formula

$$\frac{\mathbf{y}_A \cdot \mathbf{y}_B}{\|\mathbf{y}_A\| \|\mathbf{y}_B\|} \quad (3)$$

- ▶ The  $\cdot$  operator is the inner product, or  $\sum_j y_{Aj} y_{Bj}$
- ▶ The  $\|\mathbf{y}_A\|$  is the vector norm of the (vector of) features vector  $\mathbf{y}$  for document  $A$ , such that  $\|\mathbf{y}_A\| = \sqrt{\sum_j y_{Aj}^2}$
- ▶ Nice property: independent of document length, because it deals only with the angle of the vectors
- ▶ Ranges from -1.0 to 1.0 for term frequencies, or 0 to 1.0 for normalized term frequencies (or tf-idf)

# Cosine similarity illustrated



# Example text

**Hurricane Gilbert** swept toward the Dominican Republic Sunday , and the Civil Defense alerted its heavily populated south coast to prepare for high **winds**, heavy **rains** and high seas.

The **storm** was approaching from the southeast with sustained **winds** of 75 mph gusting to 92 mph .

"There is no need for alarm," Civil Defense Director Eugenio Cabral said in a television alert shortly before midnight Saturday .

Cabral said residents of the province of Barahona should closely follow **Gilbert** 's movement .

An estimated 100,000 people live in the province, including 70,000 in the city of Barahona , about 125 miles west of Santo Domingo .

Tropical **Storm Gilbert** formed in the eastern Caribbean and strengthened into a **hurricane** Saturday night

The National **Hurricane** Center in Miami reported its position at 2a.m. Sunday at latitude 16.1 north , longitude 67.5 west, about 140 miles south of Ponce, Puerto Rico, and 200 miles southeast of Santo Domingo.

The National Weather Service in San Juan , Puerto Rico , said **Gilbert** was moving westward at 15 mph with a "broad area of cloudiness and heavy weather" rotating around the center of the **storm**.

The weather service issued a flash flood watch for Puerto Rico and the Virgin Islands until at least 6p.m. Sunday.

Strong **winds** associated with the **Gilbert** brought coastal flooding , strong southeast **winds** and up to 12 feet to Puerto Rico 's south coast.

## Example text: selected terms

- ▶ **Document 1**

Gilbert: 3, hurricane: 2, rains: 1, storm: 2, winds: 2

- ▶ **Document 2**

Gilbert: 2, hurricane: 1, rains: 0, storm: 1, winds: 2

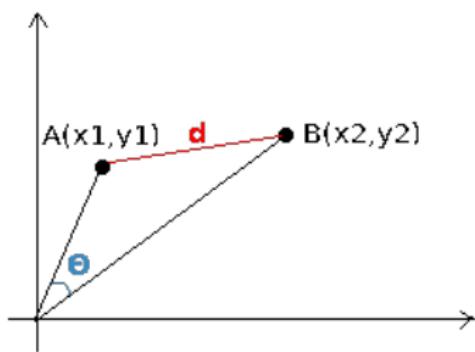
## Example text: cosine similarity in R

```
> toyDfm <- matrix(c(3,2,1,2,2, 2,1,0,1,2), nrow=2, byrow=TRUE)
> colnames(toyDfm) <- c("Gilbert", "hurricane", "rain", "storm", "winds")
> rownames(toyDfm) <- c("doc1", "doc2")
> toyDfm
      Gilbert hurricane rain storm winds
doc1      3          2    1     2     2
doc2      2          1    0     1     2
> simil(toyDfm, "cosine")
      doc1
doc2 0.9438798
```

The former measures the similarity of vectors with respect to the origin, while the latter measures the distance between particular points of interest along the vector.

## Relationship to Euclidean distance

- ▶ Cosine similarity measures the similarity of vectors with respect to the origin
- ▶ Euclidean distance measures the distance between particular points of interest along the vector



## Relationship to Euclidean distance

- ▶ Euclidean distance is  $\|\mathbf{y}_A - \mathbf{y}_B\|$
- ▶  $\cos(A, B) = \frac{\mathbf{y}_A \cdot \mathbf{y}_B}{\|\mathbf{y}_A\| \|\mathbf{y}_B\|}$

If  $A$  and  $B$  are normalized to unit length (term proportions instead of frequencies), such that  $\|A\|^2 = \|B\|^2 = 1$ , then

$$\begin{aligned}\|\mathbf{y}_A - \mathbf{y}_B\|^2 &= (A - B)'(A - B) \\ &= \|A\|^2 + \|B\|^2 - 2 A'B \\ &= 2(1 - \cos(A, B))\end{aligned}$$

where  $(1 - \cos(A, B))$  is the complement of the cosine similarity, also known as *cosine distance*

so the Euclidean distance is twice the cosine distance for normalized term vectors

## Jacquard coefficient

- ▶ Similar to the Cosine similarity
- ▶ Formula

$$\frac{\mathbf{y}_A \cdot \mathbf{y}_B}{\|\mathbf{y}_A\| + \|\mathbf{y}_B\| - \mathbf{y}_A \cdot \mathbf{y}_B} \quad (4)$$

- ▶ Ranges from 0 to 1.0
- ▶ The  $\times$  operator is a ????

## Can be made very general for binary features

Example: In the Choi et al paper, they compare vectors of features for (binary) absence or presence – called (“operational taxonomic units”)

**Table 1** OTUs Expression of Binary Instances  $i$  and  $j$

$j \backslash i$	1 (Presence)	0 (Absence)	Sum
1 (Presence)	$a = i \bullet j$	$b = \bar{i} \bullet j$	$a+b$
0 (Absence)	$c = i \bullet \bar{j}$	$d = \bar{i} \bullet \bar{j}$	$c+d$
Sum	$a+c$	$b+d$	$n=a+b+c+d$

- ▶ Cosine similarity:

$$s_{\text{cosine}} = \frac{a}{\sqrt{(a+b)(a+c)}} \quad (5)$$

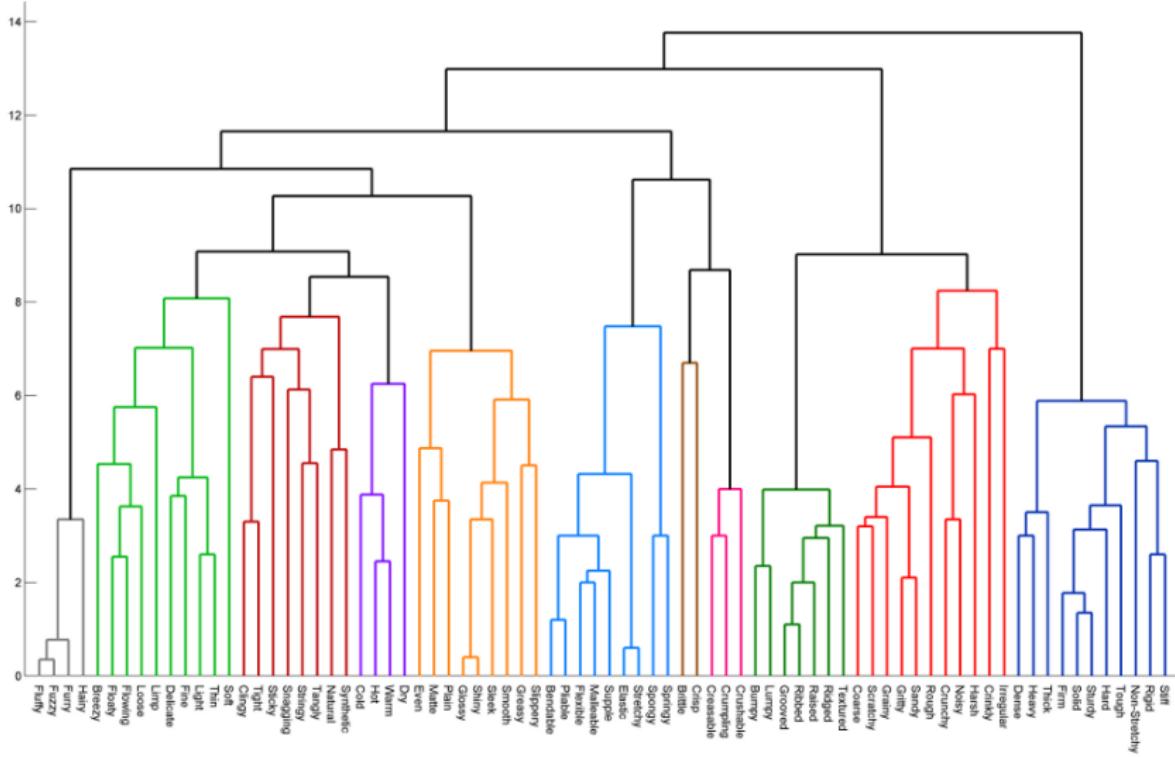
- ▶ Jaccard similarity:

$$s_{\text{Jaccard}} = \frac{a}{\sqrt{(a+b+c)}} \quad (6)$$

## Typical features

- ▶ Normalized term frequency (almost certainly)
- ▶ Very common to use tf-idf – if not, similarity is boosted by common words (stop words)
- ▶ Not as common to use binary features

## Uses for similarity measures: Clustering



## Other used for similarity measures

- ▶ Used extensively in information retrieval
- ▶ Summary measures of how far apart two texts are – but be careful exactly how you define “features”
- ▶ Some but not many applications in social sciences to measure substantive similarity — scaling models are generally preferred

## Edit distances

- ▶ Edit distance refers to the number of operations required to transform one string into another
- ▶ Common edit distance: the **Levenshtein distance**
- ▶ Example: the Levenshtein distance between "kitten" and "sitting" is 3
  - ▶ kitten → sitten (substitution of "s" for "k")
  - ▶ sitten → sittin (substitution of "i" for "e")
  - ▶ sittin → sitting (insertion of "g" at the end).
- ▶ Not common, as at a textual level this is hard to implement and possibly meaningless

## Detecting “keywords”: Constructing the association table

	Class A	Class B	Total
Word	$a$	$b$	$a+b$
$\sim$ Word	$c$	$d$	$c+d$
Total	$a+c$	$b+d$	$N = a+b+c+d$

## Pearson's chi-squared statistic

$$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(observed - expected)^2}{expected} = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{(Y_i - np_i)^2}{np_i}$$

$$d.f. = k - 1$$

## Chi-squared test of independence

Basic intuition: if the two variables were independent of each other, the relative proportions should be similar to the marginal distributions.

E.g. a word would occur at equal relative frequencies in each subset of a corpus

Since we have two margins, we need to calculate the proportion as:

$$\hat{p}_{\text{word}, \text{subset}} = \hat{p}_{\text{word}} \times \hat{p}_{\text{subset}}$$

Generally:

$$\text{Expected Frequency} = \frac{r}{N} \cdot \frac{c}{N} \cdot n = \frac{rc}{N}$$

where  $r$  and  $c$  refer to row and column marginals

## Quantifying Uncertainty

- ▶ Critical if we really want to compare texts
- ▶ Question: How?
  - ▶ Make parametric assumptions about the data-generating process. For instance, we could model feature counts according to a Poisson distribution.
  - ▶ Use a sampling procedure and obtain averages from the samples. For instance we could sample 100-word sequences, compute reliability, and look at the spread of the readability measures from the samples
  - ▶ Bootstrapping: a generalized resampling method

# Bootstrapping

- ▶ *Bootstrapping* refers to repeated resampling of data points **with replacement**
- ▶ Used to estimate the error variance (i.e. the **standard error**) of an estimate when the sampling distribution is unknown (or cannot be safely assumed)
- ▶ Robust in the absence of parametric assumptions
- ▶ Useful for some quantities for which there is no known sampling distribution, such as computing the standard error of a median

## Bootstrapping illustrated

```
> ## illustrate bootstrap sampling
> # using sample to generate a permutation of the sequence 1:10
> sample(10)
[1] 6 1 2 4 5 7 9 3 10 8
> # bootstrap sample from the same sequence
> sample(10, replace=T)
[1] 3 3 10 7 5 3 9 8 7 6
> # bootstrap sample from the same sequence with probabilities that
> # favor the numbers 1-5
> prob1 <- c(rep(.15, 5), rep(.05, 5))
> prob1
[1] 0.15 0.15 0.15 0.15 0.15 0.05 0.05 0.05 0.05 0.05
> sample(10, replace=T, prob=prob1)
[1] 10 4 7 6 5 2 9 5 1 5
```

## Bootstrapping the standard error of the median

Using loops:

```
bs <- NULL
for (i in 1:100) {
  bs[i] <- median(sample(spending, replace=TRUE))
}
quantile(bs, c(.025, .5, .975))
median(spending)
```

## Bootstrapping the standard error of the median

Using lapply and sapply:

```
resamples <- lapply(1:100, function(i) sample(spending, replace=TRUE))
bs <- sapply(resamples, median)
quantile(bs, c(.025, .5, .975))
```

## Bootstrapping the standard error of the median

Using a user-defined function:

```
b.median <- function(data, n) {  
    resamples <- lapply(1:n, function(i) sample(data, replace=T))  
    sapply(resamples, median)  
    std.err <- sqrt(var(r.median))  
    list(std.err=std.err, resamples=resamples, medians=r.median)  
}  
summary(b.median(spending, 10))  
summary(b.median(spending, 100))  
summary(b.median(spending, 400))  
median(spending)
```

## Bootstrapping the standard error of the median

Using R's **boot** library:

```
library(boot)
samplemedian <- function(x, d) return(median(x[d]))
quantile(boot(spending, samplemedian, R=10)$t, c(.025, .5, .975))
quantile(boot(spending, samplemedian, R=100)$t, c(.025, .5, .975))
quantile(boot(spending, samplemedian, R=400)$t, c(.025, .5, .975))
```

**Note:** There is a good reference on using `boot()` from  
<http://www.mayin.org/ajayshah/KB/R/documents/boot.html>

## Guidelines for bootstrapping text

- ▶ Bootstrap by resampling tokens.

Advantage: This is easily done from the document-feature matrix.

Disadvantage: Ignores the natural units into which text is grouped, such as sentences

- ▶ Bootstrap by resampling sentences.

Advantage: Produces more meaningful (potentially readable) texts, more faithful to data-generating process.

Disadvantage: More complicated, cannot be done from dfm, must segment the text into sentences and construct a new dfm for each resample.

- ▶ Other options:

- ▶ paragraphs

- ▶ pages

- ▶ chapters

- ▶ stratified: words within sentences or paragraphs