Enhancing keyword correlation for event detection in social networks using SVD and $k$-means: Twitter case study

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Abstract
Extracting textual features from tweets is a challenging task due to the noisy nature of the content and the weak signal of most of the words used. In this paper, we propose using singular value decomposition (SVD) with clustering to group related words as enhanced signals for textual features in tweets in order to improve the correlation with events. The proposed method applies SVD to the time series vector for each feature to factorize the matrix of feature/day counts, to ensure the independence of the feature vectors. Then, $k$-means clustering is applied to build a look-up table that maps members of each cluster to the cluster centroid. The look-up table is used to map each feature in the original data to the centroid of its cluster. Then, we calculate the sum of the term-frequency vectors of all features in each cluster to the term-frequency vector of the cluster centroid. To evaluate the method, we calculated the correlations of the cluster centroids with the golden standard record vector before and after summing the vectors of the cluster members to the centroid vector. The proposed method is applied to multiple correlation techniques including the Pearson, Spearman, distance correlation, and Kendal Tao. The experiments also considered the different word forms and lengths of the features including keywords, n-grams, skip grams, and bags-of-words. The correlation results are enhanced significantly as the highest correlation scores have increased from 0.22 to 0.70, and the average correlation scores have increased from 0.22 to 0.60.

Keywords Social network · Event detection · Feature extraction · Correlation · SVD

1 Introduction
Social networks such as Twitter and Facebook are frequently used to organize protests, rallies, and revolutions. Social events such as protests can be organized through the follower–followee scheme or through the spontaneous propagation scheme (Gonzlez-Bailn and Wang 2016; Lee and Chan 2015). The follower–followee scheme has a leader that calls his followers to a specific protest at a specific place and time. This pattern is easy to detect by tracking the effective leaders, those with a large number of followers, assuming that their identities are known in advance. On the other hand, the spontaneous propagation scheme is initiated by multiple standard users with limited followers and impact, who speak out for their cause. The initial messages are propagated through close friends and followers to spread the word at an exponentially growing rate (Tufekci and Wilson 2012; Anduiza et al. 2014; Valenzuela 2013). Identifying these events requires tracking the growth in usage rate for one or more keywords that are sufficiently associated with protests and rallies.

Using Twitter text as features is challenging for multiple reasons such as the limited length of each tweet, the informal nature of the tweets and the multilingual nature of Twitter (Fung et al. 2005; Mathioudakis and Koudas 2010; Petrović et al. 2010). Tackling Twitter challenges can be performed via NLP preprocessing steps such as lemmatization,
stemming, lexical analysis, morphological analysis, syntactic analysis, and Parts-of-Speech tagging (Hossny et al. 2008). These tasks can be performed using rule-based techniques or machine learning techniques such as Inductive logic programming or deep neural networks depending on the amount of data to be processed (Hossny et al. 2009; Azzam et al. 2017). The main challenges affecting text mining in Twitter are listed below:

- The tweet length of 140 characters makes topic modeling and sentiment analysis very challenging for individual tweets.
- The frequent usage of acronyms, misspelled words, and non-standard abbreviations make many words difficult to detect.
- Using Roman script to write non-English language distorts the feature signals due to similar words from other languages (e.g., the term “boss” means “look” in Arabic, while in English, it means “manager”).
- Semantic ambiguity: many words have multiple meanings (e.g., “strike” may refer to a protest, a lightning strike or a football strike).
- Synonyms: conversely, the same meaning can be expressed by multiple words (e.g., the terms “protest” and “rally” are used interchangeably).

The correlation between the social events vector and the time series of the keyword frequency is affected by three factors. The first factor is the word form, whether single words, n grams, skip grams or bags-of-words (BOWs) (Fernández et al. 2014). The second factor is the number of words used as a feature in the n gram, skip gram, and the BOWs (Li et al. 2012; Martínez-Cámara et al. 2015). The third factor is the correlation technique used, such as Pearson, Spearman, distance correlation, or mutual information (Eysenbach 2011; Riquelme and Gonzalez-Cantergiani 2016). The combination of word forms, word counts, and correlation techniques selects different sets of words as the best features to identify civil unrest events. In this paper, we apply the proposed technique in experiments involving all of the mentioned word forms, word counts, and correlation techniques. Correlation scores were improved for most of the experiments with different ratios.

This research aims to improve the correlation between textual features and events by calculating the sum of the time series vectors of multiple features having similar meanings, to form a single feature that represents all of its constituent time series vectors. This representative feature is selected by clustering the features and finding the one with the minimum distance to all others, which is known as the cluster centroid. Therefore, we transform the features using SVD and cluster the transformed features to build the look-up table mapping the features labels (e.g., Bags-of-Words) to the centroid feature label. Then, we use the look-up table to know which vectors of time series raw counts (not-transformed) should be summed up. Adding the related features to the centroid feature improves the correlation score for the centroid feature significantly without affecting the correlation score of the other features within the cluster.

Enhancing the correlation will give us more informative features with stronger signals that will allow us to perform live detection of ongoing events as soon as it occurs. In this paper, we use civil unrest events in Melbourne as a case study for correlating keywords with social events, then use these keywords to detect protest immediately as soon it occur, once the keywords of interest occur more than a specific threshold. Here, we consider the golden standard records as a count vector describing how many civil unrest events happened in a specific day within the time frame, which manually curated from news article along the time frame of the experiment. We also consider the features as the vectors describing the daily counts of each of keywords, n grams, skip grams, or bags-of-words (BOWs) along the time frame. In the proposed method, we aim to combine the vectors of related BOWs having similar meaning in the context of event (civil unrest) such as the BOWs of (“Melbourne”, “protest”), (“Melbourne”, “rally”), (“Melbourne”, “strike”), and (“Melbourne”, “march”), as each of them has a relatively weak signal, which means a small magnitude for the daily counts within each vector. Then, combine the signals of the four BOWs into one BOW gives a stronger signal that has the same meaning and higher matching scores with events, as indicated in Fig. 1.

The proposed technique is to use singular value decomposition (SVD) to factorize the feature/day matrix into a feature matrix, the daily event matrix, and the singular matrix mapping the features to the events (Golub and Reinsch 1970; Klema and Laub; Lange 2010). SVD is important to ensure that features’ locations in the space are mapped to orthogonal dimensions, as k-means use Euclidean distance and require an orthogonal relation among the features. This orthogonality is not guaranteed in the original matrix, as the textual features are not guaranteed to be independent of each other and neither are the days. Once the SVD is applied, the resulting matrices are guaranteed to represent the features (BOWs) as orthogonal vectors in the features matrix and the days are represented as orthogonal vectors in the observation matrix. After decomposition, the feature matrix is clustered using k-means and the centroids of the clusters are used as the master feature for correlation with the event vector.

In Sect. 2, we describe the most recognized feature extraction techniques. Section 3 explains the proposed technique including the SVD and how it is applied to our problem. Section 4 will explain the experiments and the results. Section 5 will state our conclusion and directions for future work.
2 Feature extraction techniques

Feature extraction is the process of preparing the features selected from data to be used for training the learning model. Feature extraction aims to reduce computational complexity, eliminate misleading features, and strengthen weak signals. Computational complexity is reduced through dimensionality reduction. Misleading features can be eliminated through filtration according to the frequency range, the variance or the signal-to-noise ratio. Weak signals are improved by combining multiple features into one via clustering. The feature extraction process can be performed in geometric space using PCA or SVD by transforming the feature vectors into orthogonal vectors that can be projected, eliminated or clustered as needed. Latent Semantic Indexing (LSI) is an example of feature reduction via projection (Evangelopoulos 2013), and K-SVD is an example of improving the signal via clustering (Jiang et al. 2013). Many techniques have been proposed for feature reduction including principal component analysis (PCA), singular value decomposition (SVD), independent component analysis (ICA), common spatial patterns (CSP), and latent Dirichlet allocation (LDA). We will describe these briefly in the following subsections.

2.1 Principal component analysis

Principal component analysis is the process of finding the best linear subspace, where the first component is a straight line with the smallest orthogonal distance to all points. PCA ranks the features according to their variance in descending order, where the new components are orthogonal to each other. PCA is performed using eigenvalue decomposition of the covariance matrix for the feature/observation matrix. This process results in two matrices, the first is the set of eigenvectors and the other matrix is diagonal with eigenvalues $\lambda_i$ in decreasing order along the diagonal (Wold et al. 1987; Abdi et al. 2010).

The goal of PCA is to ensure that each of the feature vectors (eigenvectors in the first matrix) is independent and orthogonal to the other features. This makes the process of projecting higher dimensions onto lower dimensions applicable. Meanwhile, sorting eigenvalues in the second matrix in a descending order simplifies the feature reduction process, as the smallest eigenvalues indicate the least significant features, which can be eliminated. PCA is also described as rotation, scaling, and projection of the original matrix to match the reduced matrix where all the vectors are orthogonal (Shlens 2014).

The applicability of PCA is limited by the assumption of linearity, as it simplifies the problem by limiting the basis and by formalizing the continuity assumption. This assumption limits PCA to representing the data as a linear combination of its features (Spiegelberg and Rusz 2017). PCA has been used frequently to enhance signals or to increase the signal-to-noise ratio in fields such as image processing (Potapov et al. 2017), medical imaging (fMRI and XRAY) (Soltysek et al. 2015; Chen et al. 2005), control theory (Hamadache and Lee 2017), remote sensing (Koutsias et al. 2009), and neuro-computing (Yu et al. 2014; Sun et al. 2008).

2.2 Singular value decomposition

Singular value decomposition is the process of factorizing the feature/document matrix into three matrices. The first
matrix represents the features, the third matrix represents the documents and the matrix in between is a diagonal matrix that maps the features to the documents (Ewerbring 1989; Golub and Reinsch 1970). The two matrices resulting from the SVD consist of orthonormal vectors, which make distance measurement between vectors in the same matrix possible using Euclidean distance or cosine similarity. This concept is applied in Latent Semantic Indexing (LSI) that is used in recommender systems, and we apply the same concept to clustering as well. SVD is considered an extended version of PCA, as the feature matrix resulting from SVD is exactly the same eigenvector matrix that results from PCA, enabling SVD to be used for feature reduction similar to PCA (Wall and Rechtsteiner 2003).

2.3 Latent semantic indexing

Latent semantic indexing or latent semantic analysis is a method to analyze the relationships between documents and their word contents using a set of mapping concepts. LSA assumes that text follows the distributional hypothesis, where words with similar meanings will appear in similar contexts with similar distribution (Landauer 2006). Therefore, LSA formulates the term frequency per document as a matrix with rows representing words and columns representing documents. LSI uses SVD to decompose the term-frequency matrix into the orthonormal term matrix, the orthonormal document matrix and the concept-mapping matrix. LSA can be used to reduce the number of terms used as features in the first matrix (Dumais 2004), or to evaluate two documents’ similarity by calculating the cosine similarity of any two vectors in the document matrix.

2.4 Independent component analysis

Independent component analysis is a statistical technique that utilizes a mix of PCA and factor analysis to find the latent variables controlling a set of observations. This technique assumes that the observations are linear mixtures of non-Gaussian and mutually independent latent variables (Hyvärinen et al. 2004), and finds statistically independent features regardless of their influence on the response variable (Hyvärinen and Oja 2000). ICA transforms the feature space linearly into a new feature space, where each of the new features is statistically independent of any other transformed features. This transformation makes the mutual information of any two vectors equal to zero and the mutual information of the two-feature matrix as high as possible (Comon 1994).

2.5 Common spatial pattern

Common spatial pattern (CSP) is a feature extraction technique that learns spatial filters from the data by maximizing the variance of filtered signals in the first class and minimizing the variance of the other class (Ramoser et al. 2000; Blankertz et al. 2008). CSP is similar to ICA as it decomposes the multivariate signal into multiple additive sub-signals with maximum differences in variance between two classes (Lotte and Guan Lotte and Guan). CSP is usually used in binary classification, and it can be extended for multiple classifications by following the one-vs-rest scheme. CSP is sensitive to noise and can overfit easily with small sets of training data. The objective of CSP is to achieve the optimal classification for the signal using the band power features (Diggle 2013).

2.6 Latent Dirichlet allocation

Latent Dirichlet allocation is a generative probabilistic model that is used frequently in topic modelling. It represents the documents as a random mix of latent topics (Blei et al. 2003), with each topic identified by the distribution of the used words. LDA is formulated as a Bayesian model of three levels, where each document is modelled as a mix of underlying topics and each topic is also modelled as a mix of underlying probabilities of words (Hoffman et al. 2010). LDA is used frequently for feature extraction, as Wang et al. (2012) used it to reduce the features for crime prediction using Twitter. It has also been used for tracking user interests in Twitter by Sasaki et al. (2014).

3 The proposed technique: decompose-cluster map

The proposed model extracts words, n grams, skip grams, or bags-of-words of each tweet and uses them as features to determine whether an event will occur on a specific day.

![Fig. 2 Pipeline to extract the textual features, correlate them with events then use SVD and k-means to enhance the correlation by merging the related weak features](image-url)
The features are counted on a daily basis into vectors representing the times series of the keyword volume. The feature vectors are then correlated with the vector of daily events as illustrated in Fig. 2.

The total number of words extracted as features exceeds 10 million per day, rendering most data processing techniques computationally infeasible. To solve this issue, the features are filtered to exclude those with very low correlations, which comprise the majority of the features processed.

We retain only the 10,000 features with the highest correlations for further processing. The challenge in dealing with the remaining data is that individual features have relatively low correlation scores, which implies a low association between features and events.

Enhancing the correlation between the textual features and the events requires finding new features with time series highly associated with the event-time series. To accomplish this, we propose grouping semantically similar features into a combined feature, and calculate the sum of the similar features’ vectors into a single vector representing them all.

Here, we use the idea of matrix factorization that is used in LSI, but for the purpose of clustering rather than finding the most similar documents (or days in this case). We analyze the relation between events (i.e., protests) and the features used to the events of the day.

We assume that words with similar meaning are more likely to occur in similar contexts (i.e., days) with similar variability according to the distributional hypothesis. Therefore, we formulate the feature-count-per-day relation as a matrix, where features are represented as rows and days are represented as columns. Then, we use singular value decomposition (SVD) to decompose the matrix into a features matrix, a day matrix and a singular matrix mapping the two matrices to each other.

After decomposition, instead of measuring the distance with the daily vectors to cope with large data sets, we will cluster the feature matrix to create a look-up table mapping the features within each cluster to its centroid.

The proposed technique consists of five steps to be applied after the initial selection of features. The first step is ensuring feature independence using singular value decomposition (SVD). SVD factorizes the feature/day matrix into a feature matrix \( U \) and observation matrix \( V \) and a singular matrix mapping the features to observations according to the following equation:

\[
X = U\Sigma V^T, \tag{1}
\]

where \( m \) is the number of features and \( n \) is the number of days. \( A \) is an \( m \times n \) matrix representing the feature/day vectors. \( U \) is an \( m \times m \) matrix representing the feature vectors. This matrix is unitary and orthogonal. \( \Sigma \) is a diagonal \( m \times m \) matrix of non-negative real numbers. \( V^T \) is the transpose of the \( n \times n \) unitary matrix \( V \), representing the days.

The values of the diagonal matrix \( \Sigma \) are the singular values of the original matrix \( A \). These singular \( \sigma_i \) values are usually listed in a descending order. The singular values determine the strength of its related vector in \( U \) as a feature, as formulated in the following equation:

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
x_{1,1} & \cdots & x_{1,n} \\
\vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
x_{m,1} & \cdots & x_{m,n}
\end{bmatrix} =
\begin{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix} u_1^T \\
\vdots \\
u_m^T 
\end{bmatrix} & 0
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
\sigma_{1,1} & \cdots & 0 \\
\vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
0 & \cdots & \sigma_{m,n}
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
v_1 \\
\vdots \\
v_n
\end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
(2)
\]

Since \( U \) and \( V^T \) are unitary, the columns of each of them form a set of orthogonal vectors, which can be considered as basis dimensions. The matrix \( \Sigma \) maps the basis dimensions of \( v_i \) to the vector \( u_i \) after being stretched using \( \sigma_i \).

Since \( U, U^T, V \) are unitary matrices and their columns are orthogonal, we can measure the distance between any two features using Euclidean distance. This measures the similarity between any two words considering the context of the original matrix.

The second step is to cluster the independent features using \( k \)-means to partition the orthogonalized features into a set of clusters \( S = \{S_1, S_2, S_3, \ldots, S_k\} \), with size \( k \). The objective is to minimize the pairwise distance of points within the same cluster, by minimizing the sum of squares in each cluster.

The objective function is formulated by the following equation:

\[
\arg \min_S \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{u \in S_i} ||u - \mu||^2 = \arg \min_S \sum_{i=1}^k |S_i| \text{Var} S_i, \tag{3}
\]

where \( S \) is the set of \( k \) clusters and \( \mu \), is the mean of points in \( S_i \). The clusters are initialized using multiple random partitioning and the distance between any two points is calculated using the Euclidean distance. The Lloyd algorithm is used for \( k \)-means, consisting of the two steps for assignment and update as described below.

Assignment step: to assign each data item to the cluster that has the closest mean value:

\[
S_i^{(t)} = \left\{ u_p : ||u_p - m_i^{(t)}||^2 < ||u_p - m_j^{(t)}||^2 \forall j, \quad 1 < j < k \right\}. \tag{4}
\]

Update step: to find the new cluster centroid that achieves the minimum distance with all other data items within the cluster:

\[
m_i^{(t+1)} = \frac{1}{|S_i^{(t)}|} \sum_{u_j \in S_i^{(t)}} u_j. \tag{5}
\]

Although the algorithm achieves relatively good clustering results, it does not guarantee to achieve the optimum solution, as it is an NP-Hard problem.
The clusters resulting from the $k$-means are used to build a look-up table mapping the features in each cluster to the cluster centroid that represents the contents of the whole cluster. The third step is to apply this mapping to the original data, where all the signals of all the words in each cluster are summed to the cluster centroid using the following equation:

$$c_i = \sum_{j \in C_i} x_j, 1 \ldots n$$ (6)

where $i \in \{1, \ldots k\}$ and $C_i$ is the set of the original raw non-orthogonal vectors associated with the keywords that belong to the cluster $S_i$ resulting from $k$-means, and $c_i$ is the sum of all vectors in $C_i$.

The last step is to recalculate the correlation scores after the aforementioned summation. This process increases the correlation scores for the cluster centroids, which promises better results for classification or prediction purposes.

4 Experiment and results

The experiments are designed to calculate the correlations between the term-frequency vector of the features and the frequency vector of the civil unrest events within a specific time frame. In our experiments, we will consider words of different forms and counts as our features and the count of the civil unrest events as our golden standard record (GSR). Afterwards, the proposed technique is applied by decomposing the feature/day matrix $X$ to extract the feature matrix $U$. The feature matrix $U$ is clustered using $k$-means to build the look-up table. The look-up table is used to merge the features within each cluster by adding the sum of the vectors of all features within a cluster to the vector of the centroid BOW of the cluster.

The data used in this experiment consist of the tweets used as a predictor for the future events and the news used as a descriptor for the events already happened along the same time frame. The tweets are collected from Twitter using the GNIP service, where we bought all the tweets issued by any user within Australia for the studied time frame. The tweets are automatically collected using RSS feeds and manually labelled using a set of field experts from police and intelligence that identified the civil unrest events of interest. This labelled data can be described as follows:

- The time frame is 640 days of tweets that are mapped to 640 days of news articles reporting civil unrest events.
- Each day has 3 million tweets on average in Melbourne, 3.5 million tweets in Sydney, 2 million tweets in Brisbane, 1 million tweets in Perth and 500 thousands tweets in Adelaide.
- Each tweet has 10 words on average, which forms 90 BOWs per tweet, which form 270 million BOWs per day in Melbourne.
- Aggregating similar BOWs by summing the counts of similar BOWs will reduce the total number of BOWs to less than 50.
- Filtering out all BOWs with small counts can eliminate more than 90% of the BOWs according to the filter threshold, in our experiment we eliminate any BOW occurred for less than five times per day.
- The resulting total number of BOWs is to be used as features is around 10 million BOWs per day.
- The total number of BOWs used along the whole time frame is 6400 million BOW.

The experiment has been performed on a time frame of 640 days within the geographical area of Melbourne. The location of the tweets is determined using (1) tweet location, (2) the longitude and latitude, (3) the time zone, and (4) the profile location. The first step is preprocessing, where we clean and prepare the data and extract the BOWs for correlation. Data preparation is a multi-step process that includes data cleaning, NLP analysis, word counts, and GSR preparation. Example 1 shows how the tweet is cleaned, prepared, and vectorized to be used in correlation. These steps are explained as follows:

1. The data are cleaned by excluding all tweets in any language other than English and all tweets with any URLs, and removing non-Latin characters, hash tags, HTML tags, punctuation, and stopping words (using the NLTK list; Loper and Bird 2002) from the remainder.
2. Each tweet is split into a list of features with different lengths varying between one and three as follows:
   (a) Keywords: each individual word within the tweet.
   (b) N-grams: any $N$ contiguous words in the tweet.
   (c) Skip grams: any $N$ non-contiguous words within the same tweet in the same order [e.g., (“march”, “melbourne”) is a different feature than (“melbourne”, “march”)].
   (d) Bags-of-Words: any non-contiguous $N$ words within the same tweet irrespective of order [e.g., (“march”, “melbourne”) is exactly the same feature as (“melbourne”, “march”).]
3. All words in each BOW are lemmatized using the NLTK lemmatizer to return each word to its origin, to avoid
grammatical effects on the word shape (e.g., “Went” → “Go”).

4. After lemmatization, all words in each BOW are stemmed using the Lancaster stemmer to return similar words to their dictionary origin (e.g., “Australian” → “Austral”).

5. Each BOW is counted in the tweets of Melbourne for each day to prepare the term-frequency vectors.

6. Load the press events as GSR and count them per day.

The correlation process is described in Eq. 7, where \( v \) is the term frequency for a specific word in a specific feature, \( e \) is the number of civil unrest events that happened in each day, \( c \) is the correlation between each word and event vector, and \( \otimes \) is the correlation method used in each experiment, such as the Pearson or Spearman correlation.

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
1 & \cdots & 1
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
\vdots \\
\vdots \\
\vdots \\
\vdots
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
e_1 \\
e_2 \\
e_3 \\
e_4
\end{bmatrix}
= \\
\begin{bmatrix}
c_1 \\
c_2 \\
c_3 \\
c_4
\end{bmatrix}
\]  

(7)

### Example 1:

Tweet: Highlight sign from #KeepSydneyOpen march: “My Friends Have Gone To Melbourne”

Tweet after cleaning and stemming: highlights ign march friend go melbourn

List of BOWs: [highlight, sign], [highlight, march], [highlight, all], [highlight, friend], [highlight, go], [highlight, melbourn], [sign, march], [sign, all], [sign, friend], [sign, go], [sign, melbourn], [all, friend], [all, go], [all, melbourn], [friend, go], [friend, melbourn], [go, melbourn]

- [highlight, sign]: \([x_{1,1}, x_{1,2}, x_{1,3}, \ldots, x_{1,640}]\)
- [highlight, march]: \([x_{2,1}, x_{2,2}, x_{2,3}, \ldots, x_{2,640}]\)
- [highlight, all]: \([x_{3,1}, x_{3,2}, x_{3,3}, \ldots, x_{3,640}]\)
- [sign, march]: \([x_{4,1}, x_{4,2}, x_{4,3}, \ldots, x_{4,640}]\)
- [sign, all]: \([x_{5,1}, x_{5,2}, x_{5,3}, \ldots, x_{5,640}]\)
- [sign, friend]: \([x_{6,1}, x_{6,2}, x_{6,3}, \ldots, x_{6,640}]\)
- [sign, go]: \([x_{7,1}, x_{7,2}, x_{7,3}, \ldots, x_{7,640}]\)

GSR (Event Count per day): \([e_1, e_2, e_3, \ldots, e_{640}]\)

### Table 1

|                  | Pearson | Spearman | Kendal Tao | Distance correlation | Mutual info |
|------------------|---------|----------|------------|----------------------|-------------|
|                  | Before  | After    | Before  | After    | Before  | After    | Before  | After    | Before  | After    |
| Uni-gram         | 0.302   | 0.751    | 0.215   | 0.425    | 0.205   | 0.376    | 0.264   | 0.808    | 0.811   | 0.863    |
| Bi-gram          | 0.314   | 0.714    | 0.241   | 0.464    | 0.231   | 0.425    | 0.291   | 0.723    | 0.533   | 0.827    |
| Tri-gram         | 0.284   | 0.648    | 0.214   | 0.381    | 0.205   | 0.346    | 0.252   | 0.691    | 0.512   | 0.723    |
| Skip gram-2      | 0.308   | 0.645    | 0.241   | 0.650    | 0.231   | 0.542    | 0.286   | 0.744    | 0.705   | 0.854    |
| Skip gram-3      | 0.308   | 0.632    | 0.224   | 0.580    | 0.214   | 0.541    | 0.258   | 0.707    | 0.551   | 0.873    |
| BOW-2            | 0.310   | 0.669    | 0.260   | 0.621    | 0.244   | 0.525    | 0.299   | 0.759    | 0.702   | 0.851    |
| BOW-3            | 0.327   | 0.515    | 0.274   | 0.720    | 0.261   | 0.683    | 0.284   | 0.814    | 0.699   | 0.850    |
After selecting the top correlated words from the correlation step, we will decompose the matrix of the selected words/days using SVD and use the feature representation matrix $U$ from Eq. 1 for clustering in the next step. Although SVD is usually used for feature reduction, we will use all the features in the clustering step to build a mapping table. Then, we apply the $k$-means to find 1000 clusters, which gathers each word with 10 other words. A smaller cluster makes the resulting signal weaker, while a larger cluster makes the signal noisy as it will include unrelated component signals that will corrupt each other.

The clustering process set the target number of clusters ($k$) to 2000 to have five words per cluster on average, though the cluster size is not guaranteed in $k$-means. The centroids are seeded to the algorithm using random numbers for 50 runs. The maximum number of iterations per each run is set to 35 as most of the runs saturate before the 25th iteration. This technique increased the maximum correlation scores for the selected centroids of the 2000 clusters from an average of 0.3–0.65 for Pearson correlation, from 0.23 to 0.54 correlation scores for the same combinations before and after applying the method are stated in Table 2.

The same experiment is applied to five cities in Australia, and the correlations are enhanced with various margins, where Sydney achieved the highest marginal in the correlation scores and Adelaide achieved the least enhancement in the correlation scores, we also applied the same experiment using the Indonesian language in the city of Jakarta and the correlation scores are enhanced as well, even though we did not use any Indonesian lemmatizer or stemmer. The top correlated BOWs for the civil unrest are listed below, where the words are lemmatized and stemmed using Lancaster stemmer. Most of the top correlated BOWs are related to protests in Melbourne, or related to some political figure or some cause. However, some other BOWs are not related to civil unrest as they got accidental spurious correlation with the events days because of some statistical bias. For example, most protesters prefer to act on Mondays, while some TV show is displayed each Monday, this will lead to spurious correlation and fake association.

### Table 2

|                  | Pearson Before | Pearson After | Spearman Before | Spearman After | Kendal Tao Before | Kendal Tao After | Distance correlation Before | Distance correlation After | Mutual info Before | Mutual info After |
|------------------|----------------|---------------|------------------|---------------|-------------------|-------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------|------------------|
| Uni-gram         | 0.228          | 0.221         | 0.182            | 0.207         | 0.173             | 0.189             | 0.1993                    | 0.213                   | 0.687             | 0.732            |
| Bi-gram          | 0.244          | 0.285         | 0.183            | 0.310         | 0.175             | 0.292             | 0.205                     | 0.383                   | 0.314             | 0.420            |
| Tri-gram         | 0.230          | 0.188         | 0.172            | 0.246         | 0.164             | 0.221             | 0.197                     | 0.269                   | 0.178             | 0.249            |
| Skip gram-2      | 0.269          | 0.433         | 0.206            | 0.437         | 0.197             | 0.411             | 0.228                     | 0.537                   | 0.445             | 0.620            |
| Skip gram-3      | 0.268          | 0.374         | 0.200            | 0.439         | 0.192             | 0.411             | 0.223                     | 0.425                   | 0.496             | 0.293            |
| BOW-2            | 0.270          | 0.434         | 0.210            | 0.414         | 0.200             | 0.394             | 0.231                     | 0.520                   | 0.472             | 0.659            |
| BOW-3            | 0.286          | 0.457         | 0.219            | 0.593         | 0.209             | 0.563             | 0.247                     | 0.590                   | 0.490             | 0.643            |

### 5 Discussion

The correlation scores for single words as features were too low and were not expressive. The single word data are noisy and misused frequently within the different contexts.
In addition, many words had relatively high correlations due to coincidence.

The n-grams produced slightly higher correlations without effective significance. The n-gram vectors had a high number of zeros because of the low probability of the same word sequence being repeated multiple times with the same pattern. The higher number of n-grams led to a lower probability of re-occurrence, higher frequency of zeros and lower counts per vector. The signal was too weak to use the n-gram as a feature.

The skip-gram produced slightly higher correlations than keywords and n-grams. The main advantage is to maintain the context of the word by pairing it with its co-occurring words in the same context. The number of zeros was lower than that of the n-gram method and higher than the keyword method. The counts per day were slightly higher as well, which strengthened the signal without increasing noise. The best correlation scores are achieved for two-word skip grams due to the highest counts (resulting in the strongest signal). Increasing the number of words per skip gram leads to a higher number of zeros and lower counts, which weakens the signal significantly.

Bags-of-words are the best content-based feature so far as they produce the highest correlation scores as well as the highest number of correlated BOWs. The bags-of-words have limited zeros and high counts, which imply a stronger signal than the other word forms. BOWs also consider the words’ co-occurrences per tweet, which preserves the contextual meaning of each word. The size of the BOW affects the strength signal as well, where two-word BOWs achieved higher correlation, stronger signal, and lower noise.

Three-word and four-word bags-of-words are too limited in their data set to be used as predictors or to be correlated with the GSR events. The vector of counts for each BOW has too many zeros and small values. It is highly improbable to have the same exact four words in multiple tweets unless considering retweets and embedded tweets. This causes the daily counts of a four-word BOW to be low enough that accidental text and spurious data are significant factors. Filtering the data to avoid spurious BOWs leads to filtering most other BOWs as well, causing aggressive limitation of the number of potential predictors. Although it is recommended to use five-word BOWs in topic modelling problems, it is not practical for Twitter due to the limited number of characters per tweet, as 140 characters make around 16 words after excluding URLs, hash tags, and mentions.

6 Conclusion

In this paper, we proposed to enhance the correlation of textual features gathered from Twitter with civil unrest events by combining related features into one. This combination is implemented by finding the sum of the vectors of the related features elementwise. To identify which features are related to each other, we proposed to decompose the feature/event matrix using SVD then cluster the feature matrix using k-means. The importance of SVD is that it guarantees the features’ locations in the space which are mapped to orthogonal dimensions, which is not always the case in the original matrix as neither the features nor the days are guaranteed to form orthogonal dimensions. As k-means uses Euclidean distance and cannot work without orthogonal dimensions, this is necessary. Each cluster will be represented using one feature that has the minimum distance to all other features within the same cluster. The cluster is used to build a look-up table mapping each feature to the centroid feature of its cluster. This look-up table will be used to determine which vectors to sum together using the raw (not-decomposed) vectors.

The experiments and results showed that the proposed technique increased the correlation scores for the centroid of the clusters significantly, with an average increase in correlation score of 0.3. This technique has been tested for multiple correlation techniques including Pearson, Spearman, Kendall Tau, distance correlation and mutual information, and increased correlation scores for all five.

The future work is to try a clustering technique that guarantees equally sized clusters, and to try to eliminate any unrelated keywords within the cluster that may have appeared because of the spurious nature of the data. This method can also be tested on other feature selection and data association techniques such as the maximal information coefficient, cosine similarity index, and Jaccard similarity index.

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