3 Jaccard Similarity and k-Grams

We will study how to define the distance between sets, specifically with the Jaccard distance. To illustrate and motivate this study, we will focus on using Jaccard distance to measure the distance between documents. This uses the common "bag of words" model, which is simplistic, but is sufficient for many applications.

We start with some big questions. This lecture will only begin to answer them.

- Given two homework assignments (reports) how can a computer detect if one is likely to have been plagiarized from the other without *understanding* the content?
- In trying to index webpages, how does Google say a webpage is similar to a keyword. How does Google avoid listing duplicates or mirrors?
- How does a computer quickly understand emails, for either detecting spam or placing effective advertisers? (If an ad worked on one email, how can we determine which others are similar?)

The key to answering these questions will be convert the data (homeworks, webpages, emails) into an object in an abstract space that we know how to measure distance, and how to do it efficiently. The most obvious abstract space is Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^d . An object $v \in \mathbb{R}^d$ can be thought of as a d-dimensional point (or vector) $v = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_d)$. The notation of a list of objects, separated by commas, inside parenthesis (and) represents an ordered set; that is $(a, b) \neq (b, a)$. The Euclidean distance between two points $v, u \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is measured

$$d_{\mathsf{E}}(u,v) = ||u-v|| = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{d} (v_i - u_i)^2}.$$

This is the common *straight line* distance. We will return to this later, as it will not be immediately useful for distances between documents. Instead we will use a different abstract distance between (unordered) *sets*.

3.1 Sets and Distances

A set is a (unordered) collection of objects $\{a, b, c\}$. We use the notation as elements separated by commas inside curly brackets $\{$ and $\}$. They are unordered so $\{a, b\} = \{b, a\}$.

Although we are interested in a "distance," we will actually focus on a dual notion of a *similarity*. A distance d(A, B) has the properties:

- it is small if objects A and B are close,
- it is large if they are far,
- it is (usually) 0 if they are the same, and
- it has value in $[0, \infty]$.

On the other hand, a similarity s(A, B) has the properties:

- it is large if the objects A and B are close,
- it is small if they are far,
- it is (usually) 1 if they are the same, and
- it is in the range [0, 1].

Often we can convert between the two as d(A,B) = 1 - s(A,B), however sometimes it is better to use $d(A,B) = \sqrt{s(A,A) + s(B,B) - 2s(A,B)}$. Both restrict the distance to be a bounded (non infinite) domain, that can be converted with a tan map if one desires.

3.1.1 Jaccard Similarity

Consider two sets $A = \{0, 1, 2, 5, 6\}$ and $B = \{0, 2, 3, 5, 7, 9\}$. How similar are A and B? The *Jaccard similarity* is defined

$$JS(A,B) = \frac{|A \cap B|}{|A \cup B|}$$
$$= \frac{|\{0,2,5\}|}{|\{0,1,2,3,5,6,7,9\}|} = \frac{3}{8} = 0.375$$

More notation, given a set A, the *cardinality* of A denoted |A| counts how many elements are in A. The *intersection* between two sets A and B is denoted $A \cap B$ and reveals all items which are in *both* sets. The *union* between two sets A and B is denoted $A \cup B$ and reveals all items which are in *either* set.

Confirm that JS satisfies the properties of a similarity.

Generalized set similarities. To fully generalize set similarities (at least those that are amenable to large-scale techniques) we introduce a third set operation. The *symmetric difference* between two sets A and B is denoted $A \triangle B = (A \cup B) \setminus (A \cap B)$. Note that \setminus is called *set minus* and $A \setminus B$ is all of the elements in A, except those also in B. Thus the symmetric difference of A and B describes all elements in A or B, but not in both.

We now consider the follow class of similarities. We use $\overline{A \cup B} = [n] \setminus (A \cup B)$, where [n] is a superset that all sets A and B we consider a subsets from.

$$S_{x,y,z,z'}(A,B) = \frac{x|A \cap B| + y|\overline{A \cup B}| + z|A \triangle B|}{x|A \cap B| + y|\overline{A \cup B}| + z'|A \triangle B|}.$$

Now we can define several concrete instances.

• Jaccard Similarity is defined

$$\mathsf{JS}(A,B) = S_{1,0,0,1}(A,B) = \frac{|A \cap B|}{|A \cap B| + |A \triangle B|} = \frac{|A \cap B|}{|A \cup B|}.$$

• Hamming Similarity is defined

$$\operatorname{Ham}(A,B) = S_{1,1,0,1}(A,B) = \frac{|A \cap B| + |\overline{A \cup B}|}{|A \cap B| + |\overline{A \cup B}| + |A \triangle B|} = 1 - \frac{|A \triangle B|}{|[n]|}.$$

• Andberg Similarity is defined

$$\operatorname{Andb}(A,B) = S_{1,0,0,2}(A,B) = \frac{|A \cap B|}{|A \cap B| + 2|A \triangle B|} = \frac{|A \cap B|}{|A \cup B| + |A \triangle B|}.$$

• Rogers-Tanimoto Similarity is defined

$$\mathsf{RT}(A,B) = S_{1,1,0,2}(A,B) = \frac{|A \cap B| + |\overline{A \cup B}|}{|A \cap B| + |\overline{A \cup B}| + 2|A \triangle B|} = \frac{|[n]| - |A \triangle B|}{|[n]| + |A \triangle B|}.$$

• Sørensen-Dice Similarity is defined

$$\text{S-Dice}(A,B) = S_{2,0,0,1}(A,B) = \frac{2|A \cap B|}{2|A \cap B| + 1|A \triangle B|} = \frac{2|A \cap B|}{|A| + |B|}.$$

For JS, Ham, Andb, and RT, the distance D(A,B) = 1 - S(A,B) is a *metric*, and these four are amenable to LSH. We will discuss these topics later. See Chierichetti and Kumar (*LSH-Preserving Functions and their Applications*, SODA 2012) for more details.

3.2 Documents to Sets

How do we apply this set machinery to documents?

Bag of words vs. *k***-Grams** The first option is the *bag of words* model, where each document is treated as an unordered set of words.

A more general approach is to *shingle* the document (or create k-grams). This takes consecutive words and group them as a single object. A k-gram is a consecutive set of k words. So the set of all 1-grams is exactly the bag of words model. An alternative name to k-gram is a k-shingle; these mean the same thing.

```
D_1: I am Sam. D_2: Sam I am. D_3: I do not like green eggs and ham. D_4: I do not like them, Sam I am.
```

```
The (k=1)-grams of D_1 \cup D_2 \cup D_3 \cup D_4 are: {[I], [am], [Sam], [do], [not], [like], [green], [eggs], [and], [ham], [them]}. The (k=2)-grams of D_1 \cup D_2 \cup D_3 \cup D_4 are: {[I am], [am Sam], [Sam Sam], [Sam I],
```

The (k=2)-grams of $D_1 \cup D_2 \cup D_3 \cup D_4$ are: {[I am], [am Sam], [Sam Sam], [Sam I], [am I], [I do], [do not], [not like], [like green], [green eggs], [eggs and], [and ham], [like them], [them Sam]}.

The set of k-grams of a document with n words is at most n - k. The takes space O(kn) to store them all. If k is small, this is not a high overhead. Furthermore, the space goes down as items are repeated.

```
Character level. We can also create k-grams at the character level. The (k=3)-character grams of D_1 \cup D_2 are: {[iam], [msa], [sam], [ami], [mia]}. The (k=4)-character grams of D_1 \cup D_2 are: {[iams], [amsa], [sam], [sams], [sami], [amia], [miam]}.
```

Modeling choices.

- White space? Should we include spaces, and returns? Sometimes. plane has touch down versus threw a touchdown.
- Capitalization? Sam versus sam. Can help distinguish proper nouns.
- **Punctuation?** May be indication of education level, or dialects. For instance English is punctuated differently in US and India. Punctuation is used differently in new articles (very proper style), blogs (more informal), and twitter (what is punctuation?).
- Concatenation? Should we concatenate consecutive documents as above, or not let k-grams span separate documents?
- Characters vs. Words? Long enough grams with characters can simulate words, but will have more *false positives*. Can pick up other dialect patterns. But is less interpretable.
- How large should k be? General rule: probability of (almost all) k-grams is low, so a collision is meaningful.

For word-k-grams: emails k=2 or 3 (small documents), research articles k=3 or 4 (large documents), news articles, blog posts (in between).

In English there are 27 characters (26 letters + 1 whitespace). With k=5 there are $27^5\approx 14$ millions

¹Note here we treat the union of documents as concatenation. e.g. $D_1 \cup D_2 = \mathbb{I}$ am Sam. Sam \mathbb{I} am. This is not always typical for much larger documents.

possible k-grams. (Maybe in practice closer to 20^5 since some letters (e.g. z, q, x are rarely used.)

- Count replicas? Typically bag of words counts replicas, but k-gramming does not.
- Stop words? Words like $\{a, you, for, the, to, and, that, it, is, ...\}$ are very common, and called *stop words*. Sometimes omit these (typically in bag of words). In shingling can be effective to say use k=3 where the first word must be a stop word: the pizza oven.

There are many variations of these methods. Natural Language Processing (NLP) studies these variations, but also focuses on finding much richer representations of bodies of text. Identifying all nouns and verbs, and disambiguating words with multiple meanings went to the retreat versus the troops had to retreat.

3.3 Jaccard with k-Grams

So how do we put this together. Consider the (k = 2)-grams for each D_1 , D_2 , D_3 , and D_4 :

```
D_1: [I am], [am Sam] D_2: [Sam I], [I am] D_3: [I do], [do not], [not like], [like green], [green eggs], [eggs and], [and ham] D_4: [I do], [do not], [not like], [like them], [them Sam], [Sam I], [I am]
```

Now the Jaccard similarity is as follows:

Next time we will see how to use this special abstract structure of sets to compute this distance (approximately) very efficiently and at extremely large scale.

CS 6140 Data Mining; Spring 2016 Instructor: Jeff M. Phillips, University of Utah