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DETECTING IMPORTANT LIFE EVENTS ON TWITTER USING FREQUENT SEMANTIC AND SYNTACTIC SUBGRAPHS

Thomas Dickinson[1], Miriam Fernandez[1], Lisa Thomas[2], Paul Mulholland[1],
Pam Briggs[2] and Harith Alani[1]
[1]KMI, UK
[2]Northumbria University, UK

ABSTRACT

Identifying global events from social media has been the focus of much research in recent years. However, the identification of personal life events poses new requirements and challenges that have received relatively little research attention. In this paper we explore a new approach for life event identification, where we expand social media posts into both semantic, and syntactic networks of content. Frequent graph patterns are mined from these networks and used as features to enrich life-event classifiers. Results show that our approach significantly outperforms the best performing baseline in accuracy (by 4.48% points) and F-measure (by 4.54% points) when used to identify five major life events identified from the psychology literature: Getting Married, Having Children, Death of a Parent, Starting School, and Falling in Love. In addition, our results show that, while semantic graphs are effective at discriminating the theme of the post (e.g. the topic of marriage), syntactic graphs help identify whether the post describes a personal event (e.g. someone getting married).

KEYWORDS

Semantic Networks, Event Detection, Frequent Pattern Mining, Classification, Social Media.

1. INTRODUCTION

Social media platforms are not only the online spaces where billions of people connect and socialise, they are also where much of their prominent life events are captured, shared, and reflected on. Most of these platforms are exploring methods that make use of this content for profiling, marketing, and product recommendation, which constitutes a valuable resource for governments and organisations. More recently, several initiatives are also focusing on exploring the value that this content has for the individuals as a means of self-reflection.

Services such as Museum of Me, Facebook Look Back, and Google Creations aim to generate brief automated biographies for the users based on their generated content. Although these services and technologies are still in their infancy, they raise the need for a more accurate identification of personal life events.

However, as opposed to the identification of large-scale events from social media (e.g., detection of news stories (Wayne, 2000) natural disasters (Sakaki, et al., 2010), music events (Liu, et al., 2011) etc., which has gained much interest in recent years, the identification of personal life events (e.g. getting married, having a child, starting school) is still largely unexplored. This problem poses new requirements and challenges, since these events do not receive the same amount of coverage as large-scale events, unless they involve celebrities (Choudhury & Alani, 2014), and do not show similar geographical or temporal distributions. In addition, the accurate identification of life events in social media requires distinguishing between posts that mention a life event (e.g., I'm getting married in the church today) and posts about the same theme that do not mention a life event (e.g., check out my wedding photography business). While previous works have found that uni-grams are one of the best features for thematically classifying posts in terms of whether or not they mention the topic of a life event (Di Eugenio, et al., 2013) (Dickinson, et al., 2015) current methods cannot adequately distinguish posts describing life events from posts of the same theme that do not.

In our work, we focus on identifying events from Twitter data that are regarded as some of the most significant life events in the psychology literature (Janssen & Rubin, 2011): Getting Married, Having Children, Starting School, Death of a Parent, and Falling in Love. To address the above mentioned challenges we propose a novel approach based on the representation of posts as syntactic and semantic graphs. Our hypothesis is that, by considering the conceptualisations that emerge from social media posts (mined in our work by using WordNet and ConceptNet), as well their syntactic structures (extracted by applying dependency parsing), we can obtain relevant insights for a more accurate detection of personal life events. These insights are extracted by performing frequent pattern mining over the generated graphs and used as features to generate life event classifiers. Our results show that our approach significantly outperforms the state of the art baseline in accuracy (by 4.48% points) and F-measure (by 4.54% points). In addition, we can observe from our results that, while semantic graphs are effective at discriminating the theme of the post, syntactic graphs help identifying whether the personal event is present in the post or not. The main contributions of this paper are:

1. Introduce a semantic and syntactic graph-based approach for identifying five personal-life events using ConceptNet, WordNet, and Dependency Parsing
2. Mine frequent graph patterns, and serialise them as features, in a LibLINEAR classification algorithm
3. Compare several feature reduction techniques to elicit the best performance
4. Construct tri-class classifiers to categorise posts into those about an event, those about the theme of an event, and those that are neither
5. Compare results to the state of the art baseline, showing an average increase of 4.48% points in accuracy, 4.54% points in F-measure
6. Discuss the advantages of using syntactic and semantic graphs for personal life event identification

2. STATE OF THE ART

As mentioned earlier, much work has been done on detecting global and/or famous events, such as natural disasters (Sakaki, et al., 2010) music events (Liu, et al., 2011), and prominent news stories (Wayne, 2000). However, detecting life events differs from the detection of such global events. Life events tend to focus on one particular individual, and only very few posts from a user's history are likely to refer to a particular life event. Few works in the literature have attempted to address this problem, although it is becoming more prevalent. (Di Eugenio, et al., 2013) investigated the identification of life events related to employment, and marriage. Their approach compared several different classifiers trained with different subsets of linguistic features, concluding that uni-grams are the best features to automatically identify these types of events. (Li, et al., 2014) took a slightly different approach. Rather than trying to identify a set of pre-defined life events, this approach focused on detecting life events mentioned on Twitter by clustering posts based on congratulatory and condolence replies such as "Congratulations", and "Sorry to hear that". Their approach is also based on the use of linguistic features including sequences of words within the tweets, named entities, and topic models for different life event categories. (Choudhury & Alani, 2014) studied the use of interaction features to identify several events: marriage, graduation, new job, new born, and surgery. Their approach aggregates linguistic features with interaction features (i.e, features based on the interactions of users with their social network - comments, replies, etc.). (Cavalin, et al., 2015) look at classifying the event "Travel" in both English and Portuguese. Their approach looks at using several different feature sets such as uni-grams, bi-grams, co-occurrence of n-grams in conversations, and a multiple classifier system.

Our work extends the above approaches by representing social media posts as graphs, to capture the interdependencies of linguistic, semantic and interaction features. Although using graphs for finding similar concepts is not a new idea (e.g., (Resnik, 1999) and (Rada, et al., 1989)), applying it for identifying life events is vastly under researched. (Sayyadi, et al., 2009) used graphs for news-event identification, by creating a "key graph" of key words co-occurring within a document, where nodes represent individual keywords and edges represent their co-occurrence. To the best of our knowledge, our work is the first one that uses a combination of syntactic and semantic graphs for personal life event identification.

3. APPROACH

3.1 Representing Posts as Feature Graphs

Before we can extract frequent patterns from social media, we first need to represent our posts as graph structures. An example of a full feature graph for the tweet "**I had a baby**" is displayed in Figure 2. Our graphs can be placed into two specific groups: Semantic, and Syntactic.

3.1.1 Semantic Graphs

We construct semantic graphs by extracting concepts and synsets from the posts, then expanding into two popular semantic networks: ConceptNet, and WordNet. Our hypothesis is that, after expansion, posts may have related nodes amongst one another. For example, the

concepts "mother" and "father" are related by the concept "parent" within ConceptNet. By extending these two posts into ConceptNet, /c/en/parent would then become a feature, appearing in two posts. Figure 1 highlights this example.

In this work, we only expand 1 hop into both ConceptNet and WordNet, to limit the size of the graphs we create. In the case of WordNet, we extend one hop using both hypernyms, and hyponyms with an "IS_A" relationship, whereas for ConceptNet, we include all relationship types. As concepts in ConceptNet are normalised WordNet URIs, we extract N-grams from each post, and use ConceptNet's URI standardisation API.[1]
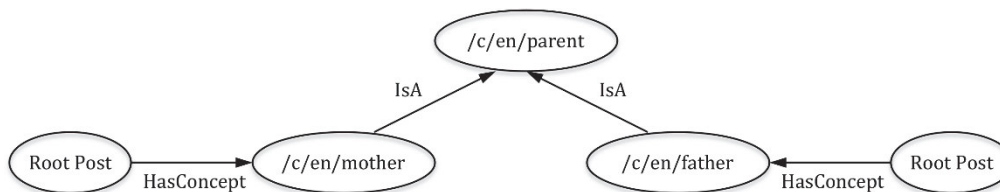

Figure 1. Example of a Semantic Graph

3.1.2 Syntactic Graphs

Syntactic graphs can be divided into two areas: dependency graphs, and token graphs. Dependency graphs can be constructed using dependency parsing (Covington, 2001), which are the syntactic dependencies between words within a sentence. Dependency parsers represent these dependencies as acyclic directed trees with a word, generally the main verb, representing the main node, root, of the tree, and the rest of the words being dependants of the head or other governor nodes. These trees constitute a graph, where words and their associated part of speech (POS) are the nodes, and the edges are the syntactic dependencies between these nodes.

Our hypothesis is that posts about the same life events may share similar syntactic structures. In this work, we use the Stanford Neural Network Dependency parser (Chen & Manning, 2014) to obtain these dependency trees from which syntactic graphs are generated. Use of dependency graphs and n-grams within event detection is not uncommon (Li, et al., 2014). However, we have not seen another approach that mines frequent sub-graphs from syntactic graphs, in order to create feature sets for life event classifiers.

With token graphs we represent the different tokens (words) that emerge from social media posts, with their associated POS, as nodes, and the sequence in which they appear within the posts (i.e., one token before/after another token) as the edges. This is very similar to n-grams.

Our hypothesis is that posts about a particular life event may share common sequences of either tokens or POS tags. We use TweetNLP (Owoputi, et al., 2013) to extract both tokens and POS tags from the text of each post.

3.2 Mining Frequent Patterns

Once the previously described graphs have been generated from the social media posts, we apply frequent pattern mining to the graphs associated with each type of life event. By frequent, we mean a sub-graph appearing more than a minimum number of times n within a

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[1] https://github.com/commonsense/conceptnet5/wiki/API#uri-standardization

set of graphs. For this experiment, we set *n* to 2, which mirrors our baseline choice of filtering n-grams.

To mine our frequent graphs, we use the Parallel and Sequential Mining Suites (ParSeMiS[2]) (Philippsen, et al., 2011), with the following optimisations:

- **Mining Feature Sets Individually:** While it is possible to combine our feature sets into one large graph, we instead mine our feature sets individually for this experiment. This is primarily to help reduce memory usage when mining our sub-graphs. We discuss the possible benefits of mining combined graphs later in section 6

- **CloseGraph**: We detect closed graphs only, where a closed graph has no parent with the same frequency. This has been shown to reduce the time complexity by an order of magnitude when compared to using gSpan without this optimisation. As *n* is very low, it is also a useful way to remove a large number of redundant features, as if graph A is a sub-graph of B, then A always occurs with B, thus A is a redundant data point. We use the CloseGraph (Yan & Han, 2003) algorithm, which is an improvement of gSpan (Yan & Han, 2002) that mines only closed graphs.

- **Limiting Sub-graph Edges**: To improve performance further, we set a limit to the maximum number of edges a sub-graph can have. Limiting the maximum size of the subgraph significantly reduces the search cost of detecting sub-graphs from the dataset.

- **Semantic Graph Pruning**: We also perform graph pruning on our semantic graphs. Not all expansions into networks like ConceptNet would be useful and may contain redundancies, thus increasing memory usage. For example, posts about "Having a Child", may contain the concept /c/en/baby, which when expanded into ConceptNet returns /c/en/play. Within our dataset, if /c/en/play only exists as an expansion of /c/en/baby, then /c/en/play would be redundant as a feature. Given this redundancy, we can prune our graphs prior to frequent sub-graph mining, looking for nodes that only ever appear as expansions of one particular node, vastly reducing our memory complexity.

- **Cyclic Graphs**: In addition to pruning, we also represent our sub-graphs as cyclic, grouping nodes with the same label together.

In Section 5.1 we assess the value of the optimisation steps above. Once frequent patterns are mined, we use them to build event classifiers to identify the five events used in this paper.

4. EXPERIMENT SETUP

4.1 Dataset

Our dataset was collected back in December 2014, by mining Twitter's advanced search features, using query expansion into WordNet with several key concepts for each type of life event. More information can be found in our previous paper (Dickinson, et al., 2015) This dataset is composed of 12,241 tweets manually annotated through CrowdFlower. Five relevant

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[2] https://www2.informatik.uni-erlangen.de/EN/research/zold/ParSeMiS/index.html

life events, common across age and culture (Janssen & Rubin, 2011), are represented in this dataset**: Starting School, Falling in Love, Getting Married, Having Children, and Death of a Parent**.

For each tweet, annotations contain answers to two questions: (i) Is this tweet about an important life event? and (ii) Is this tweet related to a particular event theme? - where event theme refers to one of the previously mentioned types of life events. Additionally, we introduce a random sample of 2,000 tweets collected and internally annotated from a Twitter sample endpoint to generate a "not about event or theme" class. This represents a class where neither category of theme or event exists. The CrowdFlower annotations for this dataset are publicly available.

4.2 Training Set Selection

We use the posts of the previously described dataset to generate the feature graphs (see Section 3.1). These feature graphs are then mined, and the extracted patterns are used as features to train classifiers for each type of life event (Death of a Parent, Having Children, Falling in Love, Getting Married, and Starting School). For each life event, we construct a tri-class classifier with the following labels: About Event and About Theme (+E+T), Not About Event and About Theme (-E+T), Not About Event and Not About Theme (-E-T).

As named, +E+T contains those posts that are both about a particular event, and its given theme, while those in -E+T contain posts that are thematically similar, but do not indicate an event has happened. Our third class, -E-T, contains tweets extracted from Twitter's random sample endpoint. In each case, we balance the training set against the size of the smallest class, with the following distributions: Getting Married (706 per class), Starting School (419 per class), Having Children (387 per class), Death of a Parent (116 per class), and Falling in Love (114 per class).
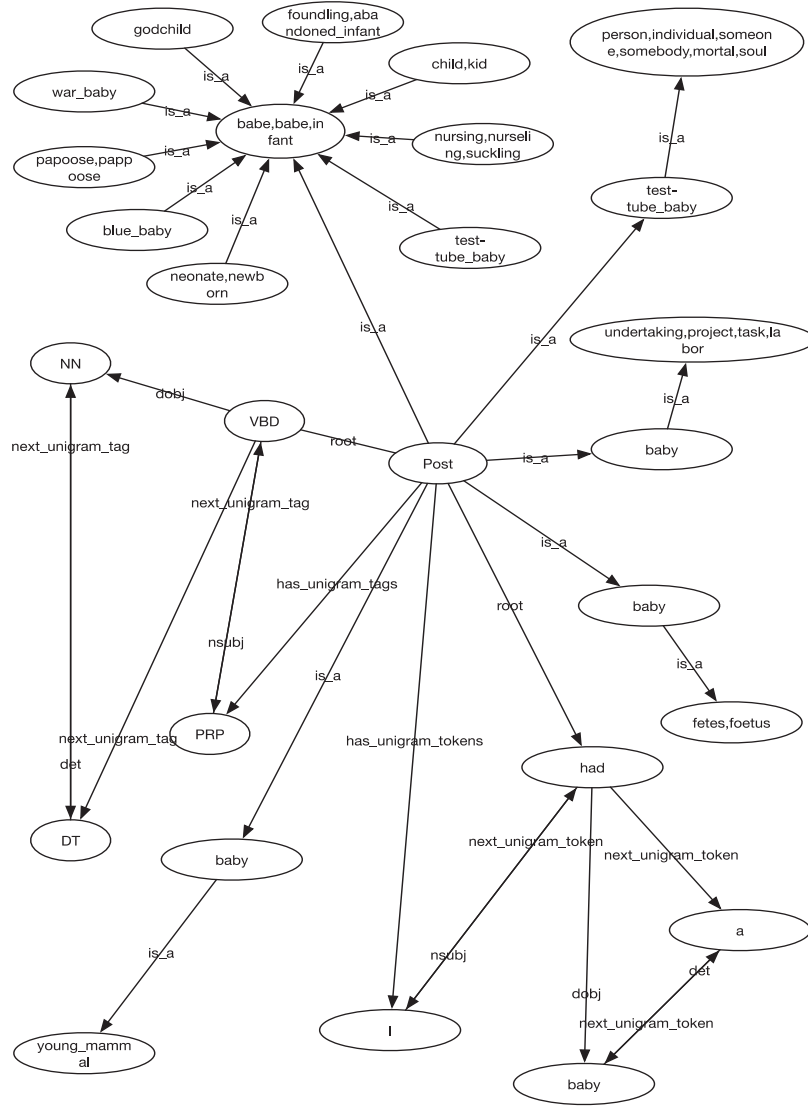
Figure 2. Example of a combined semantic and syntactic graph for the text "I had a baby"

To consider if our approach is statistically significant, we generate our dataset 10 times for each life event, so that we can perform t-tests against our baseline.

4.3 Subgraph Feature Representation

After mining our subgraphs, we need to represent them in our classifier as a vector of features. For simplicity, we represent each frequent pattern as a feature, whose value is either **1,** when a training instance contains that frequent pattern, or **0** when it does not.

4.4 Classifier Generation and Evaluation

Each training dataset, and combination of features (semantic ConceptNet, semantic WordNet, syntactic), is used as input to a LibLINEAR classifier. LibLINEAR works particularly well with very large feature sets. We also independently tested several other classifiers (J48, Naive Bayes, and SVMS with linear, polynomial, sigmoid, and radial bias kernels), but in all cases, LibLINEAR outperformed each in, F-Measure, time performance, and accuracy. The generated classifier is tested using 10-fold cross validation considering Precision, Recall and F1-measure as evaluation metrics. In section 5, we report some of our best performing feature sets using this classification and evaluation set-up.

4.5 Baseline Selection

For our baseline, we implement the features outlined in Li et al. These included **N-grams**, **topic dictionaries**, and **entities**. Entities are extracted using TextRazor[3], and for the case of topic dictionaries, our topic models are generated slightly differently to Li et al, where we discover 5 topics (representing our five chosen life events) across our total annotated dataset. The top 40 words for each topic are used as our topic dictionaries, as outlined in Li et al. Rather than treat n-grams, topics, and entities as a single baseline, for each experiment, we run our classifiers against every permutation of the baseline features, and select the best one to compare against our graph approach.

4.6 T-Tests

For our T-Tests, we generate 10 samples for each type of event. We create permutations of all possible feature combinations (**N-Grams**, **Entities**, **Topics**, **Syntactic**, **Semantic ConceptNet**, and **Semantic WordNet**), and compare against the best performing baseline combination (mentioned in section 4.5).

Thus, the hypotheses for our t-tests are:
- H0: Graph features do not help improve the f-measure over our baseline.
- H1: By introducing our graph features, we improve our f-measure.

4.7 Feature Reduction

Due to the large number of features extracted from our pattern mining approach, we also consider several feature reduction techniques within Weka. Our approach uses a ranker method, where we filter our attributes via a chosen metric. In order to choose the best suitable

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[3] https://www.textrazor.com/

attribute metric, we compared the results of several attribute selection algorithms: Information Gain, Gain Ratio, Correlation, and Symmetrical Uncertainty. We found that Gain Ratio gave a significant improvement of 13 points for F1 score. Initially we remove any feature whose rank is 0, then gradually reduce the number of features over 20 even intervals over the remaining attributes.

5. RESULTS

Our results are displayed in Table 1 for all our events: Getting Married, Death of a Parent, Having Children, Starting School, and Falling in Love. We compare the performance of the best baseline (B) against the best feature combination. We report: F1, change in F1 to baseline (Δ F1), Accuracy (A), Precision (P), Recall (R), and P-Value (P-Val). We observe statistical significance when p-val < 0.05.

As can be seen from Table 1, in all cases, our graph-based methodology merged with some of the baseline features produces a significant improvement in all measures (F1, Accuracy, Precision, and Recall), across each of our events. Our biggest improvement is in Falling in Love, with a 6.8% percentage point increase for F1, while our smallest is in Having Children, with only 1.1%. However, the improvements over the baseline are all statistically significant (p < 0.01).

Overall our improvements show a 4.54% point increase in F-Measure over our baselines. For each classifier, the best performing baseline combination remains constant (N-Grams, Topics, Entities), which is the full methodology outlined in Li et al. The best performing feature combination is also the same (N-grams, Topics, Entities + WordNet and Syntactic patterns).

Table 1. Classifier Results

Theme	Feature Set	F1	Δ F1	A	P	R	P-Val
Getting Married	Best Baseline: Ent,Ngrm,Tpc	85.9%		86.0%	86.1%	86.0%	
	Con	66.5%	-19.4%	67.8%	67.6%	67.8%	<0.01
	Ent	45.4%	-40.4%	51.4%	63.1%	51.4%	<0.01
	Ngrm	83.7%	-2.2%	84.0%	83.8%	84.0%	<0.01
	Syn	79.0%	-6.9%	79.7%	80.8%	79.7%	<0.01
	Tpc	71.0%	-14.9%	72.3%	71.9%	72.3%	<0.01
	WN	70.6%	-15.3%	71.7%	71.4%	71.7%	<0.01
	Best Graph Only: Con, Syn, Wn	86.3%	0.4%	86.5%	86.5%	86.5%	0.04
	Con,Ent,Ngram,Syn,Tpc,Wn	**90.7%**	**4.8%**	**90.8%**	**90.7%**	**90.8%**	**<0.01**
Death of a Parent	Best Baseline: Ent,Ngrm,Tpc	86.2%		86.2%	86.7%	86.2%	
	Con	71.0%	-15.2%	71.6%	71.5%	71.6%	<0.01
	Ent						
	Ngrm	85.4%	-0.8%	85.5%	86.0%	85.5%	0.02
	Syn	82.2%	-4.0%	82.4%	83.9%	82.4%	<0.01
	Tpc	61.1%	-25.1%	60.4%	67.7%	60.4%	<0.01

	WN	79.4%	-6.7%	79.7%	79.7%	79.7%	<0.01
	Best Graph Only: Con,Syn,WN	87.8%	1.6%	87.9%	88.8%	87.9%	0.06
	Ent,Ngrm,Syn,Tpc,WN	**90.7%**	**4.5%**	**90.7%**	**91.1%**	**90.7%**	**<0.01**
Having Children	Best Baseline: Ent,Ngrm,Tpc	89.8%		89.9%	90.2%	89.9%	
	Con	67.7%	-23.1%	67.7%	67.9%	67.7%	<0.01
	Ent	35.5%	-54.3%	41.4%	59.4%	41.4%	<0.01
	Ngrm	87.9%	-1.9%	88.0%	88.3%	88.0%	<0.01
	Syn	79.7%	-10.1%	80.2%	82.9%	80.2%	<0.01
	Tpc	72.4%	-17.4%	73.1%	72.2%	73.1%	<0.01
	WN	73.8%	-16.0%	74.7%	74.8%	74.7%	<0.01
	Best Graph Only:Con,Syn,WN	86.2%	-3.5%	86.5%	88.0%	86.5%	<0.01
	Ent,Ngrm,Syn,Tpc,WN	**90.9%**	**1.1%**	**91.0%**	**91.7%**	**91.0%**	**<0.01**
Starting School	Best Baseline: Ent,Ngrm,Tpc	87.7%		87.8%	88.3%	87.8%	
	Con	64.9%	-22.8%	66.1%	64.9%	66.1%	<0.01
	Ent	32.1%	-55.6%	37.4%	53.4%	37.4%	<0.01
	Ngrm	85.0%	-2.7%	85.2%	85.2%	85.2%	<0.01
	Syn	86.3%	-1.4%	86.6%	87.9%	86.6%	<0.01
	Tpc	72.4%	-15.3%	72.6%	72.4%	72.6%	<0.01
	WN	66.1%	-21.6%	68.0%	67.0%	68.0%	<0.01
	Best Graph Only:Syn,WN	88.9%	1.2%	89.1%	90.1%	89.1%	0.025
	Ent,Ngrm,Syn,Tpc,WN	**93.0%**	**5.5%**	**93.0%**	**93.5%**	**93.0%**	**<0.01**
Falling in Love	Best Baseline: Ent,Ngrm,Tpc	83.7%		83.9%	84.2%	83.9%	
	Con	68.4%	-15.4%	68.9%	69.4%	68.9%	<0.01
	Ent	29.5%	-54.2%	34.6%	53.3%	34.6%	<0.01
	Ngrm	80.4%	-3.3%	80.6%	81.1%	80.6%	<0.01
	Syn	82.1%	-1.6%	82.3%	84.4%	82.3%	<0.01
	Tpc	62.3%	-21.5%	65.1%	65.3%	65.1%	<0.01
	WN	70.3%	-13.5%	71.3%	71.7%	71.3%	0.103
	Best Graph Only:Con,Syn,WN	86.8%	3.0%	86.9%	87.3%	86.9%	0.03
	Ent,Ngrm,Syn,Tpc,WN	**90.5%**	**6.8%**	**90.6%**	**91.2%**	**90.6%**	**<0.01**

5.1 Graph Optimizations

Earlier in Section 3.2, we described a number of steps we take to optimise our graph processing steps. Here we report the outcome of applying those steps on our experiment and results.

By detecting closed graphs only, we succeeded in significantly reducing the number of detected sub-graphs. For example, for Getting Married, the reduction was from 1.2 million to 250k sub-graphs.

We explained that to improve computational performance, we limit the maximum number of edges in a sub-graph to 1 for our semantic networks. For syntactic, as the graphs contain far

fewer nodes than our semantic graphs, we did not have to limit it. While limiting the number of edges comes at a small cost to F-measure, the cost is limited compared to the reduction in time. Table 2 shows some the trade off of limiting the number of edges in terms of F-measure and time for the Death of a Parent dataset using the WordNet feature set. Time taken includes pruning the graph as well as mining it. Note that Death of a Parent is one of our smallest datasets. Running something similar with a larger dataset, such as Having Children, can take several hours to obtain a result without limiting edges. This shows that the gains from this pruning and limiting significantly outweigh the cost.

Table 2. Edge Limiting Results

Edge Limit	Pruned	Time Taken (S)	F1 Score
No Limit	True	492	0.727
No Limit	False	486	0.726
1	True	18	0.706
1	False	14	0.708

After both, pruning and cyclic operations are applied, we reduce our un-pruned graphs to 26% of their original size. Table 3 shows the sizes of serialised graphs for the event Getting Married with ConceptNet features. Without any pruning, our average graph size is around 69kb, with a total size of 132mb of all graphs loaded. After pruning, we see about a 50% reduction in total memory. Table 3 also shows that merging our labels together to create cyclic structures, further reduces by another 50%.

Table 3. Pruning Sizes for Getting Married, ConceptNet Graphs

Pruned Methodology	Average Graph Size	Total Graph Size
Pruned Cyclic	18kb	34mb
Pruned	35kb	67mb
Not Pruned Cyclic	40kb	76mb
Not Pruned	69kb	132mb

5.2 Graph Feature Analysis

In this section, we briefly discuss the performance of our graph features, showing some of our top performing sub-graph features over our classifiers, as well as discuss how our graph features perform individually.

Across all of our classifiers, we see an interesting split in how Gain Ratio has divided our features. At the top of the list, we see a lot of semantic features, such as concepts, and synsets. For example, for Getting Married, we see a number of synsnets such as **officiate**, and **knot**. For Falling in Love, we see a large number of concepts like **/c/en/spouse**, **/c/en/proposing_to_woman**, **/c/en/wonderful_feel**. Death of a Parent has some synsets such as **die**, and **change state** (**die-[Is_a]->change state**). Having Children top features includes synsets such as **babys**, and **child**. Starting School has a number of top features revolving around **school**, and **educational institution.** Interestingly for all of these patterns, we tend to see their associated n-grams much further down the list. This makes sense as these semantic patterns have a higher frequency, as they are comprised of a number of different n-grams.

As we go further down the list however, we start seeing more specific syntactical patterns. Examples of these are shown in figures 3 and 4. As can be seen, rather than functioning as content-based discriminators, these patterns tend to be composed of part of speech tags, spanning both word order, and dependency relationships.
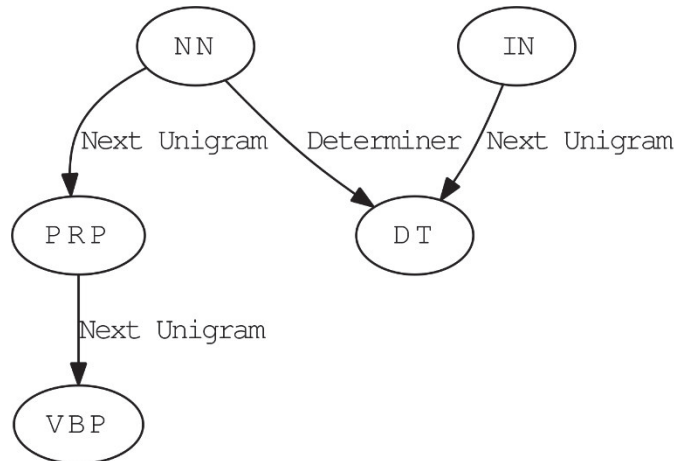

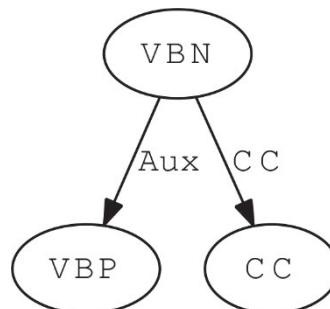Figure 3. An example Syntactic Pattern for Falling in Love

Figure 4. An Example Syntactic Pattern for Starting School

Table 4 displays how our individual graph features are represented in our classifiers after feature selection using Gain Ratio. This table displays:

- **Class Distribution** - The class distribution (About Event and Theme +E+T, Not About Event but About Theme -E+T, Not about Event or Theme -E-T) of each feature set (WordNet, Concept, Syntactic)
- **Post Occurrence** - The average occurrence of the feature set within the posts
- **Ent $\bar{x}$** - The mean entropy for the feature set for our class distribution
- **F1 $\bar{x}$** - The mean F-Measure when only that feature set is used in classification.

From the table we can make several interesting observations. Firstly, we can see the average performance of Concepts is quite low in comparison to our other two features. This may help explaining why as an added feature, it did not always help improving the

classification performance. One explanation for concepts not always appearing in our best classifiers might be that ConceptNet and WordNet have a very similar feature distribution. By adding both, the available features are increased, thus making it more difficult to perform feature selection. Another could be that Concepts may not be effective discriminators.

Another interesting point is that our semantic feature sets bias towards our classes with themes, whereas our syntactic feature set (while still slightly biased), is more evenly distributed. Intuitively this makes sense, as those posts that share a theme should have terms that convey a similar meaning, thus sharing similar synsets and concepts.

We also see a difference in the proportion of posts that our features appear in. Whereas our semantic features occur in a large percentage of our posts, our syntactic ones appear far less often. Our semantic features also have a similar entropy value, whereas for our syntactic features entropy is much lower. This would suggest that, while a syntactic feature may only occur in a small proportion of the dataset, it biases heavily towards a particular class. Interestingly, the higher average entropy for our ConceptNet features may also explain why WordNet performs better in our results.

To summarize, our results indicate that semantic features are useful at establishing whether or not a post is about a particular theme with frequently highly thematically biased features, whereas our syntactic features help separate whether or not a post is about a particular event, using infrequent and highly singular class biased features.

Table 4. Frequent Pattern Analysis

Features	+E+T	-E+T	-E-T	Occurrences	Ent $\bar{x}$	F1$\bar{x}$
WordNet	52.51%	43.99%	3.50%	6.49%	0.23	72.02%
Concept	51.36%	42.99%	5.65%	14.24%	0.46	67.48%
Syntactic	34.19%	48.60%	17.22%	1.19%	0.09	81.84%

6. DISCUSSION

In section 5 we discussed some of our results and observations. In this section we provide further discussion about the proposed approach, the obtained results, and its limitations.

In this work, we focused on the identification of five of the most common life events. A natural future expansion of this work would be to address the full set of life events listed in (Janssen & Rubin, 2011). This would help testing the consistency of our results across other types of events and bring our work closer to the broader goal of the detection of life events in general.

When identifying these life events, our approach considers a classifier for each individual event. As Li et al (Li, Ritter, Cardie, & Hovy, 2014) point out in their work, a single large multi classifier is a more complex task compared to individual theme detection, due to the overlap of n-grams in certain topics. However, given our observation of how our semantic patterns work, we are planning to use these patterns for the construction of multi-class classifiers and observe whether semantic patterns can improve the performance of multi-class classifiers for the problem at hand.

While we have successfully identified a number of interesting frequent graph patterns, there is room for improvement when extracting and using these patterns. Given the scalability issues of the selected gSpan algorithm (Yan & Han, 2002) we have peformed a wide range of

optimisations, which may be partially limiting the acuracy of our results. Our future plans include testing newer state of the art algorithms (e.g., (Pan, Wu, Zhu, Long, & Zhang, 2015)), which consider the feature selection problem as being part of the pattern mining discovery phase, reducing memory and time cost. An alternative might be to consider using a more distributed pattern-mining approach, such as the one outlined in (Bhuiyan & Hasan, 2014).

When extracting our semantic patterns we made the assumption that two concepts that are close together in ConceptNet are similar, but this assumption may not always be valid. For example, two concepts linked by the relationship "IsAntonym" in ConceptNet are not similar, but opposed to each other (e.g., "life" and "death"). As future work we plan to either filter out all negating relationships like this one, or to add a weighting system where a heuristic function could possibly be used to calculate how close two concepts are together in the graph (Rada, Mili, Bicknell, & Blettner, 1989). To further improve the identification and extraction of semantic patterns our future work also considers expanding our semantic graphs into other networks, such as DBpedia and the addition of semantic frames using FrameNet (Baker, Fillmore, & Lowe, 1998).

We opted to serialize our frequent patterns into a key/map pair so that we can represent our training set as a vector of binary values. However, there exist a number of alternative classification algorithms that are designed specifically for graphs; some reliant on frequent patterns themselves, others taking into account the structure of the graph. In terms of our frequent patterns, we also see a number of weak infrequent ones. However, rather than representing these patterns as independent of each other, we could consider a methodology such as COM (Jin, Young, & Wang, 2009) where co-occurrence of disconnected low frequency patterns is considered instead, converting them into higher frequency ones.

Regarding our selected features and results, when combined with our baseline features, our graph features obtain F1 scores that are consistently and significantly higher than the baselines. When looking at our top performing features, we found that patterns extracted from ConceptNet and WordNet were regularly at the top, and tended to help discriminate between our negative class, and our two thematic classes. However, when attempting to discriminate theme from event, these types of patterns were less useful as each will tend to use similar languages and concepts. Instead, we found our syntactical patterns helped to discriminate between events and non-events.

7. CONCLUSION

We have presented a new approach for the problem of life event detection that focuses on five major life events that are regarded as some of the most significant life events in the psychology literature (Janssen & Rubin, 2011): Getting Married, Having Children, Death of a Parent, Starting School, and Falling in Love. Our approach expands a Twitter post into both a syntactic and semantic graph. This network is then mined for frequent sub patterns that can be used as features within a classifier, filtered via their gain ratio. Our results showed consistent and significant improvement over baselines from other work, that consider only features extracted directly from the post (i.e., no graphs). We showed that our graph-based approach achieves significantly better accuracy (4.48% improvement) and F-measure (4.54% improvement) than the top performing baselines.

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