Four-day workshop **Automated Content Analysis with Python** Day 3

Damian Trilling

d.c.trilling@uva.nl @damian0604 www.damiantrilling.net

Afdeling Communicatiewetenschap Universiteit van Amsterdam

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Today

- 1 Recap: Types of Automated Content Analysis
- Unsupervised Machine Learning PCA LDA
- 3 Supervised Machine Learning You have done it before! Applications An implementation

Recap: Types of Automated Content Analysis

Methodological approach

	Dictionary	Machine Learning	Machine Learning
Typical research interests and content features	visibility analysis sentiment analysis subjectivity analysis	frames topics gender bias	frames topics
Common statistical procedures	string comparisons counting	support vector machines naive Bayes	principal component analysis cluster analysis latent dirichlet allocation semantic network analysis

Supervised

Counting and

deductive

inductive

Uncunervised

Supervised machine learning

You have a dataset with both predictor and outcome (independent and dependent variables; features and labels) — a *labeled* dataset.

Supervised machine learning

You have a dataset with both predictor and outcome (independent and dependent variables; features and labels) — a labeled dataset. Think of regression: You measured x1, x2, x3 and you want to predict y, which you also measured

Supervised machine learning

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Unsupervised machine learning

You have no labels.

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Unsupervised machine learning

You have no labels. (You did not measure y)

Unsupervised machine learning

You have no labels.

Again, you already know some techniques to find out how x_1 , x_2 ,... x_i co-occur from other courses:

- Principal Component Analysis (PCA)
- Cluster analysis
- ...

inductive and bottom-up: unsupervised machine learning

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(something you aready did in your Bachelor - no kidding.)

Principal Component Analysis? How does that fit in here?

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In fact, PCA is used everywhere, even in image compression

Principal Component Analysis? How does that fit in here?

PCA in ACA

- Find out what word cooccur (inductive frame analysis)
- Basically, transform each document in a vector of word frequencies and do a PCA

A so-called term-document-matrix

```
1 w1,w2,w3,w4,w5,w6 ...

2 text1, 2, 0, 0, 1, 2, 3 ...

3 text2, 0, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4 ...

4 text3, 9, 0, 1, 1, 0, 0 ...

5 ...
```

A so-called term-document-matrix

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5 ...
```

These can be simple counts, but also more advanced metrics, like tf-idf scores (where you weigh the frequency by the number of documents in which it occurs), cosine distances, etc.

PCA: implications and problems

- given a term-document matrix, easy to do with any tool
- probably extremely skewed distributions
- some problematic assumptions: does the goal of PCA, to find a solution in which one word loads on one component match real life, where a word can belong to several topics or frames?

LDA

LDA, what's that?

No mathematical details here, but the general idea

- There are k topics, $T_1 \dots T_k$
- Each document D_i consists of a mixture of these topics, e.g. $80\% T_1, 15\% T_2, 0\% T_3, \dots 5\% T_k$
- On the next level, each topic consists of a specific probability distribution of words
- Thus, based on the frequencies of words in D_i, one can infer its distribution of topics
- Note that LDA (like PCA) is a Bag-of-Words (BOW) approach

Doing a LDA in Python

You can use gensim (Řehůřek & Sojka, 2010) for this. Let us assume you have a list of lists of words (!) called texts:

```
articles=['The tax deficit is higher than expected. This said xxx ...',
'Germany won the World Cup. After a']
texts=[art.split() for art in articles]
```

which looks like this:

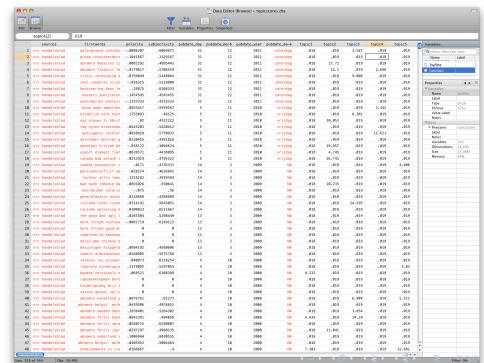
```
[['The', 'tax', 'deficit', 'is', 'higher', 'than', 'expected.', 'This', 'said', 'xxx', '...'], ['Germany', 'won', 'the', 'World', 'Cup.', 'After', 'a']]
```

Řehůřek, R., & Sojka, P. (2010). Software framework for topic modelling with large corpora. *Proceedings of the LREC 2010 Workshop on New Challenges for NLP Frameworks*, pp. 45–50. Valletta, Malta: ELRA.

```
from gensim import corpora, models
2
    NTOPICS = 100
3
    LDAOUTPUTFILE="topicscores.tsv"
4
5
    # Create a BOW represenation of the texts
6
    id2word = corpora.Dictionary(texts)
    mm =[id2word.doc2bow(text) for text in texts]
8
9
    # Train the LDA models.
10
11
    lda = models.ldamodel.LdaModel(corpus=mm, id2word=id2word, num_topics=
         NTOPICS, alpha="auto")
12
    # Print the topics.
13
14
    for top in lda.print_topics(num_topics=NTOPICS, num_words=5):
    print ("\n",top)
15
16
    print ("\nFor further analysis, a dataset with the topic score for each
17
        document is saved to", LDAOUTPUTFILE)
18
    scoresperdoc=lda.inference(mm)
19
20
    with open(LDAOUTPUTFILE, "w", encoding="utf-8") as fo:
21
     for row in scoresperdoc[0]:
22
       fo.write("\t".join(["{:0.3f}".format(score) for score in row]))
23
       fo.write("\n")
24
```

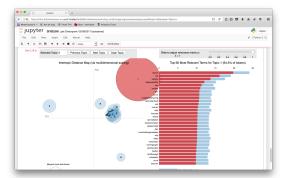
Output: Topics (below) & topic scores (next slide)

```
0.069*fusie + 0.058*brussel + 0.045*europesecommissie + 0.036*europese +
         0.023*overname
   0.109*bank + 0.066*britse + 0.041*regering + 0.035*financien + 0.033*
        minister
   0.114*nederlandse + 0.106*nederland + 0.070*bedrijven + 0.042*rusland +
        0.038*russische
   0.093*nederlandsespoorwegen + 0.074*den + 0.036*jaar + 0.029*onderzoek +
         0.027*raad
   0.099*banen + 0.045*jaar + 0.045*productie + 0.036*ton + 0.029*aantal
   0.041*grote + 0.038*bedrijven + 0.027*ondernemers + 0.023*goed + 0.015*
        iaar
   0.108*werknemers + 0.037*jongeren + 0.035*werkgevers + 0.029*jaar +
        0.025*werk
   0.171*bank + 0.122* + 0.041*klanten + 0.035*verzekeraar + 0.028*euro
   0.162*banken + 0.055*bank + 0.039*centrale + 0.027*leningen + 0.024*
        financiele
   0.052*post + 0.042*media + 0.038*nieuwe + 0.034*netwerk + 0.025*
10
        personeel
11
```



Visualization with pyldavis

- 1 import pyLDAvis
- 2 import pyLDAvis.gensim
- 3 % first estiate gensim model, then:
- vis_data = pyLDAvis.gensim.prepare(lda,mm,id2word)
- 5 pyLDAvis.display(vis_data)



Try it yourself!

```
https://github.com/damian0604/bdaca/blob/master/ipynb/ic2s2.ipynb
```

predefined categories, but no predefined rules: supervised machine learning

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Example: We have 2,000 of these messages grouped into such categories by human coders. We then use this data to group all remaining messages as well.



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Regression

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Regression

- **1** Based on your data, you estimate some regression equation $y_i = \alpha + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \cdots + \beta_p x_{ip} + \varepsilon_i$
- **2** Even if you have some *new unseen data*, you can estimate your expected outcome \hat{y} !
- **3** Example: You estimated a regression equation where y is newspaper reading in days/week: $y = -.8 + .4 \times man + .08 \times age$
- **4** You could now calculate \hat{y} for a man of 20 years and a woman of 40 years − even if no such person exists in your dataset: $\hat{y}_{man20} = -.8 + .4 \times 1 + .08 \times 20 = 1.2$ $\hat{y}_{woman40} = -.8 + .4 \times 0 + .08 \times 40 = 2.4$

You have done it before!

This is Supervised Machine Learning!

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 - e.g., 2000 labeled cases, 1000 for training, 1000 for testing if successful, run on 100,000 unlabeled cases
- We use many more independent variables ("features")
- Typically, IVs are word frequencies (often weighted, e.g. tf×idf) (⇒BOW-representation)

Applications

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In other fields

A lot of different applications

• from recognizing hand-written characters to recommendation systems

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In our field

It starts to get popular to measure latent variables

- frames
- topics

SML to code frames and topics

Some work by Burscher and colleagues

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 (as in: code as 'Human Interest' if regular expression R is matched)

SML to code frames and topics

Some work by Burscher and colleagues

- Humans can code generic frames (human-interest, economic, ...)
- Humans can code topics from a pre-defined list
- But it is very hard to formulate an explicit rule
 (as in: code as 'Human Interest' if regular expression R is matched)
- ⇒ This is where you need supervised machine learning!

Burscher, B., Odijk, D., Vliegenthart, R., De Rijke, M., & De Vreese, C. H. (2014). Teaching the computer to code frames in news: Comparing two supervised machine learning approaches to frame analysis. *Communication Methods and Measures, 8*(3), 190–206. doi:10.1080/19312458.2014.937527

Burscher, B., Vliegenthart, R., & De Vreese, C. H. (2015). Using supervised machine learning to code policy issues: Can classifiers generalize across contexts? *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 659(1), 122–131.



TABLE 4
Classification Accuracy of Frames in Sources Outside the Training Set

	VK/NRC $\rightarrow Tel$	VK/TEL $\rightarrow NRC$	$ \begin{array}{c} NRC/TEL \\ \rightarrow VK \\ \hline .75 \end{array} $	
Conflict	.69	.74		
Economic Cons.	.88	.86	.86	
Human Interest	.69	.71	.67	
Morality .97		.90	.89	

Note. VK = Volkskrant, NRC = NRC/Handelsblad, TEL = Telegraaf

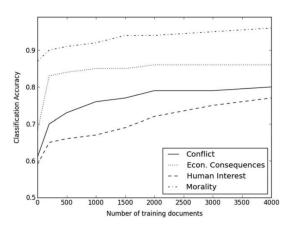
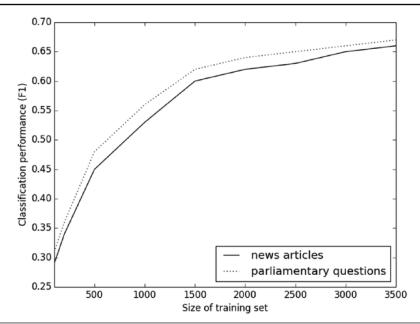


FIGURE 1 Relationship between classification accuracy and number of training documents.

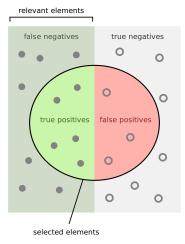
 $\label{eq:FIGURE 1} \textbf{FIGURE 1}$ Learning Curves for the Classification of News Articles and PQs



 ${\it TABLE~1} \\ {\it F1~Scores~for~SML-Based~Issue~Coding~in~News~Articles~and~PQs}$

Issue		News Articles			PQs	
		All Words	Lead Only		All Words	
Features	N	F1	F1	N	F1	
Macroeconomics	413	.54	.63	172	.46	
Civil rights and minority issues	327	.34	.28	192	.53	
Health	444	.70	.71	520	.81	
Agriculture	114	.72	.76	159	.66	
Labor and employment	217	.43	.49	174	.58	
Education	188	.79	.71	229	.78	
Environment	152	.34	.44	237	.59	
Energy	81	.35	.59	67	.66	
Immigration and integration	150	.50	.57	239	.78	
Transportation	416	.58	.67	306	.81	
Law and crime	1198	.70	.69	685	.77	
Social welfare	115	.33	.34	214	.54	
Community development and housing	113	.45	.44	136	.72	
Banking, finance, and commerce	622	.62	.67	188	.58	
Defense	393	.59	.55	196	.71	
Science, technology, and communication	426	.64	.59	57	.53	
International affairs and foreign aid	1,106	.70	.64	352	65	
Government operations	1,301	.71	.72	276	.48	
Other issue	3,322	.84	.80	360	.51	
Total	11,089	.71	.68	4,759	.69	

NOTE: The F1 score is equal to the harmonic mean of recall and precision. Recall is the fraction of relevant documents that are retrieved, and precision is the fraction of retrieved documents that are relevant.



How many selected ltems are relevant? How many relevant ltems are selected? Precision = Recall =

Some measures of accuracy

- Recall
- Precision
- $F1 = 2 \cdot \frac{\text{precision} \cdot \text{recall}}{\text{precision} + \text{recall}}$
- AUC (Area under curve)
 [0,1], 0.5 = random guessing

What does this mean for our research?

What does this mean for our research?

It we have 2,000 documents with manually coded frames and topics. . .

- we can use them to train a SML classifier
- which can code an unlimited number of new documents
- with an acceptable accuracy

Some easier tasks even need only 500 training documents, see Hopkins, D. J., & King, G. (2010). A method of automated nonparametric content analysis for social science. American Journal of Political Science, 54(1), 229–247.

An implementation

Let's say we have a list of tuples with movie reviews and their rating:

```
reviews=[("This is a great movie",1),("Bad movie",-1), ... ...]
```

And a second list with an identical structure:

```
test=[("Not that good",-1),("Nice film",1), ... ...]
```

Both are drawn from the same population, it is pure chance whether a specific review is on the one list or the other.

Based on an example from ${\tt http://blog.dataquest.io/blog/naive-bayes-movies/}$

Training a A Naïve Bayes Classifier

```
from sklearn.naive bayes import MultinomialNB
    from sklearn.feature extraction.text import CountVectorizer
    from sklearn import metrics
4
    # This is just an efficient way of computing word counts
    vectorizer = CountVectorizer(stop_words='english')
6
    train_features = vectorizer.fit_transform([r[0] for r in reviews])
    test_features = vectorizer.transform([r[0] for r in test])
8
9
10
    # Fit a naive bayes model to the training data.
    nb = MultinomialNB()
11
12
    nb.fit(train features, [r[1] for r in reviews])
13
14
    # Now we can use the model to predict classifications for our test
        features.
    predictions = nb.predict(test_features)
15
    actual=[r[1] for r in test]
16
17
18
    # Compute the error.
    fpr, tpr, thresholds = metrics.roc curve(actual, predictions, pos label
19
        =1)
    print("Multinomal naive bayes AUC: {0}".format(metrics.auc(fpr, tpr)))
```

And it works!

Using 50,000 IMDB movies that are classified as either negative or positive,

- I created a list with 25,000 training tuples and another one with 25,000 test tuples and
- trained a classifier
- that achieved an AUC of .82.

Dataset obtained from http://ai.stanford.edu/-amaas/data/sentiment, Maas, A.L., Daly, R.E., Pham, P.T., Huang, D., Ng, A.Y., & Potts, C. (2011). Learning word vectors for sentiment analysis. 49th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (ACL 2011)

Playing around with new data

```
newdata=vectorizer.transform(["What a crappy movie! It sucks!", "This is
awsome. I liked this movie a lot, fantastic actors","I would not
recomment it to anyone.", "Enjoyed it a lot"])
```

- predictions = nb.predict(newdata)
- 3 print(predictions)

This returns, as you would expect and hope:

```
1 [-1 1 -1 1]
```

But we can do even better

We can use different vectorizers and different classifiers.

Different vectorizers

- CountVectorizer (=simple word counts)
- TfidfVectorizer (word counts ("term frequency") weighted by number of documents in which the word occurs at all ("inverse document frequency"))
- additional options: stopwords, thresholds for minimum frequencies etc.

Different classifiers

- Naïve Bayes
- Logistic Regression
- Support Vector Machine (SVM)
- . . .

Typical approach: Find out which setup performs best (see example source code in the book).

Try it yourself!

```
https:
//pastebin.com/KLeq6SGT
```

Damian Trilling

d.c.trilling@uva.nl @damian0604 www.damiantrilling.net