# Two-day workshop Automated Content Analysis with Python Day 2

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## Today

1 Recap: Types of Automated Content Analysis

- 2 Supervised Machine Learning
- 3 Unsupervised machine learning

Recap: Types of Automated Content Analysis

Methodological approach

Recap •0

## Explicit rules vs. implicit patterns

	метноподогат арргоаст			
	Counting and Dictionary	Supervised Machine Learning	Unsupervised 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	

Boumans, J.W., & Trilling, D. (2016). Taking stock of the toolkit: An overview of relevant automated content analysis approaches and techniques for digital journalism scholars. Digital Journalism, 4, 1, 8-23.

deductive



inductive

Recap

## Machine learning: supervised vs. unsupervised

#### Unsupervised

PCA, LDA, Cluster Analysis

- No manually coded data
- We want to identify patterns or to make groups of most similar cases

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Regression, Naïve Bayes, SVM

- We code a small dataset by hand and use it to "train" a machine
- The machine codes the rest

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- The machine codes the rest.

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.

Supervised Machine Learning

## You have done it before!

### Regression

**1** Based on your data, you estimate some regression equation  $y_i = \alpha + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \cdots + \beta_p x_{ip} + \varepsilon_i$ 

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- **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:  $y = -.8 + .4 \times man + .08 \times age$
- **♦** 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:  $\hat{y}_{man20} = -.8 + .4 \times 1 + .08 \times 20 = 1.2$   $\hat{y}_{woman40} = -.8 + .4 \times 0 + .08 \times 40 = 2.4$

This is Supervised Machine Learning!

 We will only use half (or another fraction) of our data to estimate the model, so that we can use the other half to check if our predictions match the manual coding ("labeled data", "annotated data" in SML-lingo)

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- 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

### Some work by Burscher and colleagues

- Humans can code generic frames (human-interest, economic, ...)
- Humans can code topics from a pre-defined list

## SML to code frames and topics

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- But it is very hard to formulate an explicit rule
   (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

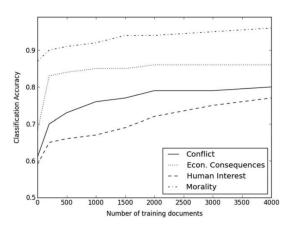
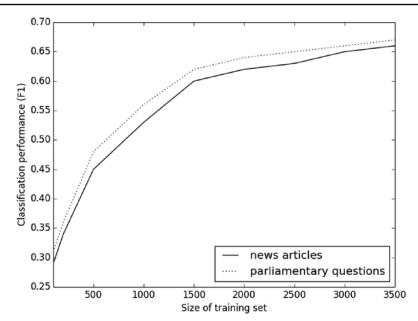


FIGURE 1 Relationship between classification accuracy and number of training documents.

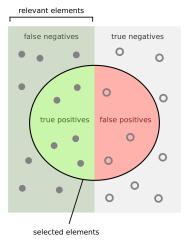
 $\label{eq:FIGURE 1} \textbf{FIGURE 1}$  Learning Curves for the Classification of News Articles and PQs



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

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 items are relevant? How m items:

How many relevant items are selected?

## 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 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])
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)))
```

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)
- . . .

Let's look at the source code together and find out which setup performs best!

Unsupervised machine learning

#### Unsupervised machine learning

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

### Supervised machine learning

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

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You have a dataset with both predictor and outcome (dependent and independent variables) — 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

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Again, you already know some techniques to find out how x1, x2,... $x_i$  co-occur from other courses:

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



Enter topic modeling with Latent Dirichlet Allocation (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<sub>i</sub>, one can infer its distribution of topics
- Note that LDA (likek PCA) is a Bag-of-Words (BOW) approach

## Doing a LDA in Python

You can use gensim (Řehůřek & Sojka, 2010) for this. Furthermore, 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]
```

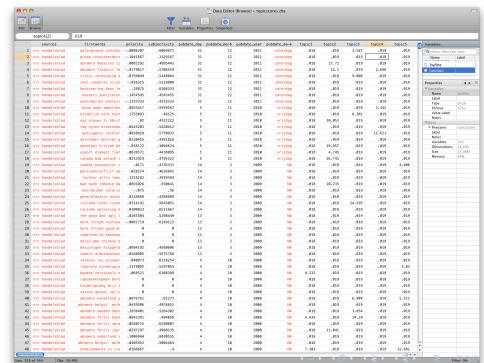
#### which looks like this:

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
23
      fo.write("\t".join(["{:0.3f}".format(score) for score in row]))
      fo.write("\n")
24
```

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

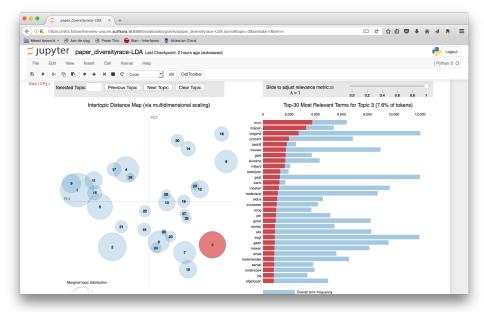
```
0.069*fusie + 0.058*brussel + 0.045*europesecommissie + 0.036*europese +
         0.023*overname
   0.109*bank + 0.066*britse + 0.041*regering + 0.035*financien + 0.033*
        minister
   0.114*nederlandse + 0.106*nederland + 0.070*bedrijven + 0.042*rusland +
        0.038*russische
   0.093*nederlandsespoorwegen + 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
```



## Explore topics interacitvely with pyLDAvis

If you install pyLDAvis, you can interactively explore the data by simply feeding the GenSim-model to pyLDAvis!

- import pyLDAvis
- 2 import pyLDAvis.gensim
- vis\_data = pyLDAvis.gensim.prepare(lda,mm,id2word)
- 4 pyLDAvis.display(vis\_data)



Exercise