# Choosing the right Method for the Task: Bottom-Up and Top-Down Approaches to Automated Content Analysis

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Summer School Computational Social Science July 30th – August 4th, 2018, Los Angeles, USA If you are interested in the whole course on which this talk is based, please find

- all slides of an 8-weeks course
- a 130 page PDF teaching you the basics of Python and how to code up all techniques discussed
- some additional Jupyter Notebooks

at:

https://github.com/damian0604/bdaca/

- Types of Automated Content Analysis
  - The role of theory Top-down vs. bottom-up
- 2 Bottom-up approaches

Word counts

Word co-occurrences

Unsupervised Machine Learning

**PCA** 

I DA

Other techniques

- 3 Top-down approaches
  - Dictionaries and regular expressions Supervised Machine Learning
- 4 From words to meaning
- **5** Take-home messages



Types of Automated Content Analysis

## Let's start with reflecting on the role of theory in CSS...

Three types of epistemologies with regard to Big Data:

• (Reborn) empiricism: purely inductive, correlation is enough

Kitchin, R. (2014). Big Data, new epistemologies and paradigm shifts. Big Data & Society, 1(1), 1–12. doi:10.1177/2053951714528481



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Three types of epistemologies with regard to Big Data:

- (Reborn) empiricism: purely inductive, correlation is enough
- 2 Data-driven science: knowledge discovery guided by theory
- 3 Computational social science and digital humanities: employ Big Data research within existing epistemologies
  - DH: descriptive statistics, visualizations
  - CSS: prediction and simulation

Kitchin, R. (2014). Big Data, new epistemologies and paradigm shifts. Big Data & Society, 1(1), 1-12. doi:10.1177/2053951714528481

#### Things to rember

Before designing an Automated Content Analysis, decide whether you

- want to inductively explore data or find things you did not define in advance; or
- **(B)** have theoretically well-defined concepts you want to operationalize and measure.

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A is a bottom up approach, B is top down.

Top-down vs. bottom-up

## Automated Content Analysis

	Methodological approach		
	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
	deductive		inductive

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.



## Examples

	bottom-up	top-down
event	unusual spikes and (word) dis-	finding pre-defined events
detection	tributions	
topics	words co-occurance patterns; unknown which topics exist (number may be known/set)	finding pre-defined topics (well-defined and knwon)
frames	same as above	same as above

#### **Examples**

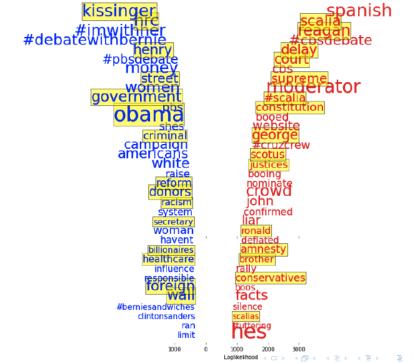
	bottom-up	top-down
event	You want to see when people	you want to know when "your"
detection	suddenly start tweeting about something new	topic receives a lot of attention
topics	You want to know what people write about on review sites	You want to know whether these reviews are (a) complaints, (b) praise, or (c) neutral
frames	You want to know which dif- ferent topic-specific frames are used to discuss nuclear power plants	You want to know whether your data contains a human-interest frame, an economic-consequences frame, and/or a conflict frame.

Bottom-up approaches

#### Counting word frequencies

- Simply counting the most frequently occurring words
- Often visualized as word clouds
- When calculated for different corpora, most characteristic words can be easily determined by calculating the log-likelihood

Example of an application:
Boukes, M., & Trilling, D. (2017). Political relevance in the eye of the beholder: Determining the substantiveness of TV shows and political debates with Twitter data. First Monday, 22(4).



# pro

easy to do and easy to understand

#### con

doesn't tell much; all context is lost and it's hard to guess what a single word "means" 1

 $\Rightarrow$  Specific use cases aside, mostly only a useful first explorative step, but probably not your final analysis.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Can be partly improved by including bigrams (ngrams), i.e. adjacent words

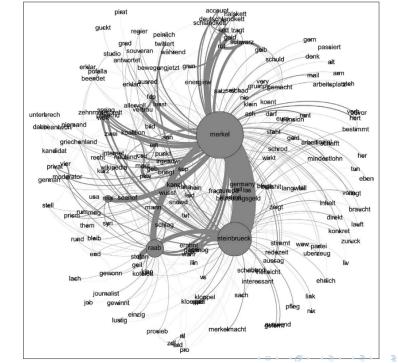
#### Counting word co-occurrences

- Count which words co-occur in the same sentence/paragraph/text
- Often visualized as networks ("semantic map")
   Node size ~ word frequency
   Edge weight ~ number of co-occurrences

#### Examples of applications:

Hellsten, İ., Dawson, J., & Leydesdorff, L. (2010). Implicit media frames: Automated analysis of public debate on artificial sweeteners. *Public Understanding of Science*, 19(5), 590–608.

Trilling, D. (2015). Two Different Debates? Investigating the Relationship Between a Political Debate on TV and Simultaneous Comments on Twitter. Social Science Computer Review, 33(3), 259–276.



#### Counting word co-occurrences

#### pro

Visualizations to show "clusters" (topics, frames)

#### con

sensitive to preprocessing choices, cutoff values, etc.; unclear what's the "right" visualization; hard to "substantiate" findings

⇒ Can be a good way to summarize texts visually, but also a bit out-dated and superseded by, e.g., topic models (more later) Even though some still prefer it over topic models, see

Leydesdorff, L., & Nerghes, A. (2017). Co-word maps and topic modeling: A comparison using small and medium-sized corpora (N < 1,000). Journal of the Association for Information Science and Technology, 68(4), 1024-1035.

#### Things to rember

If you choose for a bottom-up approach, you can start by counting word frequencies and word co-occurrences. These allow for easy-to-understand visualizations (word clouds, co-occurrence networks).

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But let's move on to more advanced approaches.

inductive and bottom-up: unsupervised machine learning

# inductive and bottom-up: unsupervised machine learning

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

#### Supervised machine learning

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

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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

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You have no labels.

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You have no labels.

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
- •

Principal Component Analysis? How does that fit in here?

#### Principal Component Analysis? How does that fit in here?

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

# A so-called term-document-matrix

Unsupervised Machine Learning

```
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 ...
```

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.

Usually, the components (factors) are then interpreted as topics or frames, based on the highest-loading words.

#### Examples of applications:

Hellsten, I., Dawson, J., & Leydesdorff, L. (2010). Implicit media frames: Automated analysis of public debate on artificial sweeteners. *Public Understanding of Science*, 19(5), 590–608.

Van der Meer, G. L. A., Verhoeven, P., Beentjes, H., & Vliegenthart, R. (2014). When frames align: The interplay between PR, news media, and the public in times of crisis. *Public Relations Review*, 40(5), 751–761.

#### ... but there are problems

#### pro

given a term-document matrix, easy to do with any tool; familiar to social scientists

#### con

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?

#### Things to rember

If we represent each document by the frequency the words in it, we can run familiar data reduction techniques like PCA to find topics/frames<sup>1</sup>.

<sup>1</sup>or cluster analysis to group similar documents

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If we represent each document by the frequency the words in it, we can run familiar data reduction techniques like PCA to find topics/frames<sup>1</sup>.

 $^1$  or cluster analysis to group similar documents (I won't discuss a different use of PCA here: using it as a first step to reduce the number of *features* as input for future analyses)

Unsupervised Machine Learning

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 (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]
```

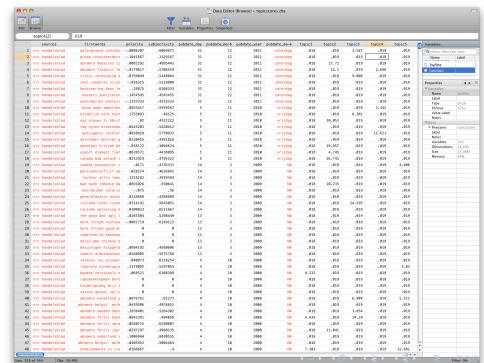
#### which looks like this:

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
    mylda = models.ldamodel.LdaModel(corpus=mm, id2word=id2word, num_topics=
11
         NTOPICS, alpha="auto")
12
    # Print the topics.
13
14
    for top in mylda.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=mylda.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*
        jaar
   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(mylda,mm,id2word)
- 5 pyLDAvis.display(vis\_data)



#### Things to rember

Topic models can be a good way to analyze your data if you cannot specify in advance *what* the topics are; however, even mathematically well-fitting models may be hard to interpret

# Other techniques

#### Cluster analysis

- k-means
- hierarchical clustering (e.g., Ward's method)

Improved topic models that take into accounts co-variates and nested data structures

- Author-topic models
- Structured topic models (STM)

Also have a look at the websites of gensim and scikit-learn!

**Top-down approaches** 

# Dictionaries and regular expressions

- Use a (manually compiled) list of words (dictionary) and search for them
- For example, look for "stock exchange", "exchange rate", "closing price" . . . to find economic news
- Better: regular expressions to look for patterns, e.g. [Ee]conom.?\w
- There are pre-defined lists for many applications

## Dictionaries and regular expressions

#### pro

easy to do and easy to understand

#### con

The more latent the construct, the lower the accuracy Many false positives when using comprehensive lists, many false negatives when using short lists

 $\Rightarrow$  The technique of choice if you try to measure something that is unambigous (how often is party X mentioned?). Largely outdated when it comes to more subtle concepts like topics or frames.



#### Things to rember

Regular expressions are a very powerful way of describing patterns in strings, and the technique of choice when looking for manifest and well-defined concepts (party names, company names) or things that are always formatted in a specific way (numbers, dates, words with specific characters in it)

 $\Rightarrow$  You can formulate a rule? Use regular expressions! You cannot? Then enters. . .

predefined categories, but no predefined rules: supervised machine learning

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- No manually coded data
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- We code a small dataset by hand and use it to "train" a machine
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### Supervised

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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.



# Regression

### 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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- **3** Example: You estimated a regression equation where y is newspaper reading in days/week:

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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:  $\hat{y}_{man20} = -.8 + .4 \times 1 + .08 \times 20 = 1.2$ 

$$\hat{v} = -8 \pm 4 \times 0 \pm 08 \times 40 = 24$$

$$\hat{y}_{woman40} = -.8 + .4 \times 0 + .08 \times 40 = 2.4$$

If we use such a model for prediction, then this is Supervised Machine Learning!



. . . but. . .

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- We use many more independent variables ("features")
- Typically, IVs are word frequencies (often weighted, e.g.  $tf \times idf$ ) ( $\Rightarrow BOW$ -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

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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)

## 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

	$VK/NRC$ $\rightarrow Tel$	$VK/TEL$ $\rightarrow NRC$	$NRC/TEL$ $\rightarrow VK$	
Conflict .69		.74	.75	
Economic Cons.	.88	.86	.86	
Human Interest	.69	.71	.67	
Morality	.97	.90	.89	

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

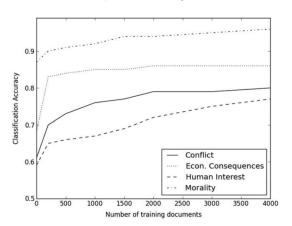
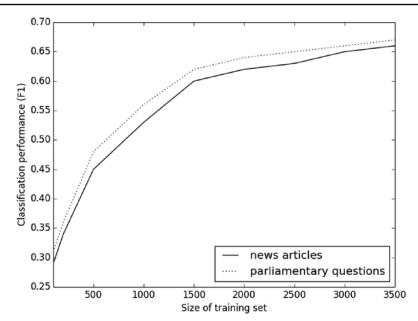


FIGURE 1 Relationship between classification accuracy and number of training documents.

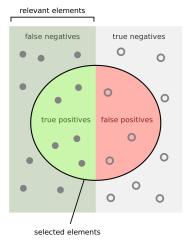
 $\label{eq:FIGURE 1} \textbf{FIGURE 1}$  Learning Curves for the Classification of News Articles and PQs



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

Issue		News Articles		PQs	
		All Words	Lead Only	N	All Words F1
Features	N	F1	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.



# recision =

How many selected

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
5
    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
    # Fit a naive bayes model to the training data.
10
11
    nb = MultinomialNB()
    nb.fit(train features, [r[1] for r in reviews])
12
13
    # Now we can use the model to predict classifications for our test
14
        features.
    predictions = nb.predict(test_features)
15
16
    actual=[r[1] for r in test]
17
18
    # Compute the error.
    fpr, tpr, thresholds = metrics.roc_curve(actual, predictions, pos_label
19
        =1)
```

## 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).

⇒ cross-validation; grid search

## Things to rember

If you cannot formulate an explicit rule ( $\Rightarrow$  regular expressions), but you can get hand-code ("annotate") a subset of your data of sufficient size, then you should consider using supervised machine learning.

From words to meaning  $% \left\{ 1,2,...,N\right\}$ 

# From words to meanings

In everything we discussed so far, our methods were agnostic to word meaning. But can't we incorporate information about the difference between words into our models?



## Let's think about our features

#### Until now:

- basically BOW
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How can we make this more meaningful?

NB: Sometimes it's just predictive performance that counts, sometimes it's meaning

# More meaningful features

# Strategy 1: Standardize

- stemming
- substitute known synonyms (e.g., with regular expressions)
- entity linking (named entity disambiguation)

# More meaningful features

## Strategy 2: Reduce number of features

- stopword removal
- keep only specific POS-tags (e.g., nouns and adjectives)
- if, e.g., NEs don't matter, replace all NER-Ps with PERSON

# More meaningful features

# Strategy 3: From 'identical (yes/no)?' towards 'how similar?'

 Word embeddings, e.g. to calculate Word Mover's Distance (WMD)

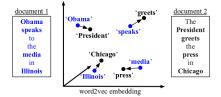


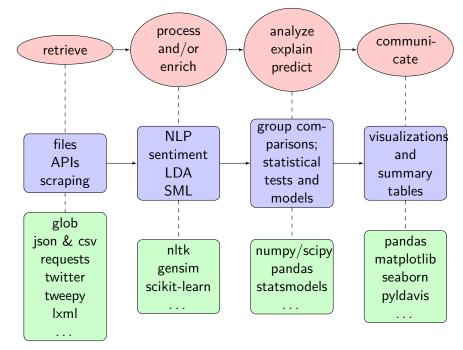
Figure 1. An illustration of the word mover's distance. All non-stop words (bold) of both documents are embedded into a word2vec space. The distance between the two documents is the minimum cumulative distance that all words in document 1 need to travel to exactly match document 2. (Best viewed in color.)

Take-home messages

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- ACA can be bottom-up or top-down
- Which technique is to be used depends on
  - interpretability for non-experts vs. powerful models
  - whether explicit rules can be formulated
  - available data
- Outcomes and performance vary widely based on model specifications, preprocessing, . . .

topic models



# Questions?

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