

# Intro to Machine Learning for the Social Sciences

- I. Exploring how Social Science produces knowledge
- II. Thinking through the benefits of adding Machine Learning to our toolkit

# Lecture Overview

- Review: Knowledge generating process for Social Science
- Introduce you to Machine Learning
- Think through some benefits of ML generally, and for social scientists in particular

# The Nature of Science

- Most people associate science with the natural sciences-
  - Chemistry, physics, and biology
- Probably picture scientist in a white lab coat surrounded by test tubes and microscopes
- 76% of Americans think biology is “very scientific”
- Only 8.9% say the same of social science disciplines such as sociology

# The Aim of Science

- “Science” from Latin “Scientia”, which means “knowledge”
- Aim of science is:
  - To produce knowledge and...
  - To understand and explain some aspect of the world around us
- What characteristics does social science share with natural science?
- What makes them BOTH sciences?

# Science as a Product

- All scientific knowledge shares certain defining characteristics
  - First = types of questions that may be addressed
  - Let's differentiate between some scientific and nonscientific questions

# Scientific Versus Nonscientific Questions

- Scientific questions require answers that are observable.
- Scientists assume that:
  - The world exists,
  - Empirically verifiable knowledge is possible,
  - That we can know the world through our senses,
  - And that there is order in the world.
- Philosophical Qs about morality, essence, existence, outside the realm of science.

# Knowledge as Description

- First step in producing knowledge is description.
  - Must describe objects and events before we can understand/explain relationships among them
    - Each discipline defines new concepts
    - Definition of Concepts:
      - Abstractions communicated by words or other signs that refer to common properties among phenomena.
      - Example: “Weight” as a concept.
        - Symbolizes a conception of a common property of all physical objects
    - B/C scientists care about building knowledge through observation...
      - Concepts are defined in terms of precise, reliable observations
- When concepts are no longer effective at explaining reality, they can be discarded

# Knowledge as Explanation and Prediction

- Scientific knowledge attempts to
  - Explain the past and the present AND
  - To predict the future
- Ideal in science is to
  - Develop the most general understanding:
    - To establish propositions capable of explaining and predicting the widest possible outcomes.



# Knowledge as Explanation and Prediction

- Lots of terms used to denote propositions:
  - May be called empirical generalizations
    - When they are derived from observations
  - Or hypotheses when they have been proposed but not tested
  - If propositions have been repeatedly verified AND are widely accepted, they become known as laws.
- As scientific propositions they
  - Describe, explain, and predict phenomena.

# Knowledge as Explanation and Prediction

- To explain empirical generalizations and laws, science introduces theories...
- Theory, however, is one of the more misunderstood terms in science.
  - A scientific theory consists of a set of interconnected propositions that have the same form as laws but are more general and abstract
  - Theories must be logically consistent and empirically verifiable
- Many theories might explain evidence for the same phenomena.
  - Ultimately, the best theory will
    - Involve the fewest statements and assumptions
    - Explain the broadest range of phenomena, and
    - Make the most accurate predictions

# Knowledge as Explanation and Prediction

- So, to summarize,
  - Scientific concepts describe ***what*** is being studied
  - Scientific hypotheses and theories explain *how* and *why* patterned events occur

# Knowledge as Understanding

- The overarching goal of this process is to create a theory that:
  - Describes the causal process connecting events
  - In other words, accurately contributes an understanding of how patterned events occur
- When science produces the causal process it has contributed to our accurate understanding of reality.

# Knowledge as Understanding

- Scientific hypotheses and theories provide a sense of understanding by describing the underlying causes of phenomena

# Tentative Knowledge

- B.F. Skinner, “science is unique in showing a cumulative progress,” which enables each succeeding generation of scientists to begin a little further along
- Part of the tentative nature of science
  - Answers lead to new questions
  - New fact, law, or theory presents new problems...
  - Such that there is always more to know
- Also, science based on observable evidence
  - Conclusions always open to change with new evidence

Therefore, Knowledge = Best understanding produced thus far

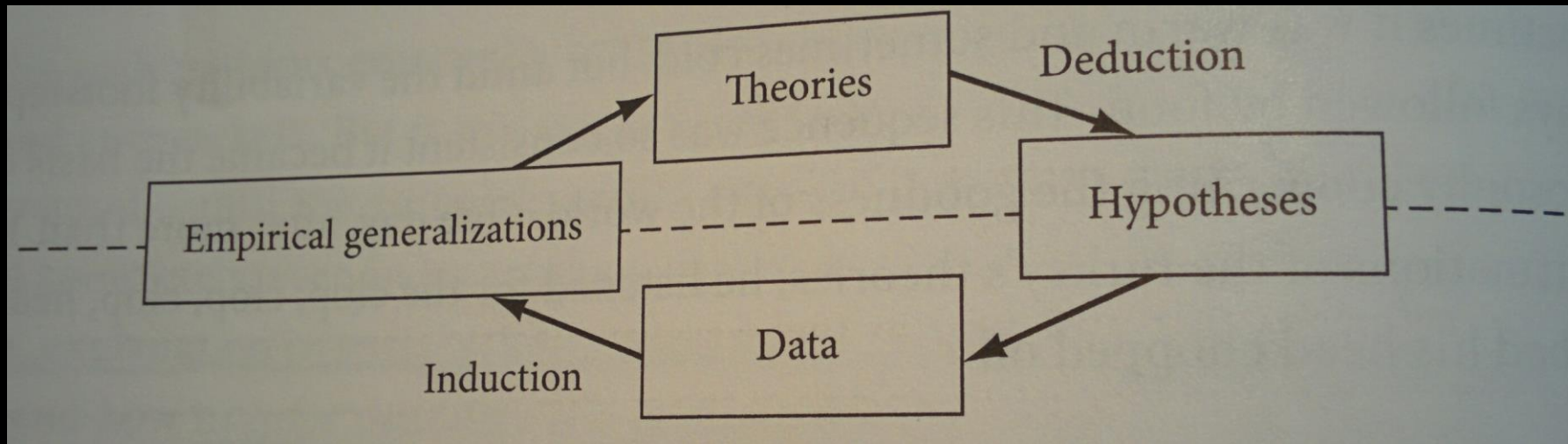
# Science as a Process

- Process defined:
  - Signifies a series of operations or actions that bring about an end result.

# Science as a Process

- What is the scientific process?
  - At some point scientists...
    - Collect data and record facts
    - Then they try to describe and explain what they see
    - Then they make predictions on the basis of their theories
    - Which they check against their observations (i.e.-facts or data) again
  - In the reported words of Einstein,
    - Science “must start with the facts and end with the facts, no matter what theoretical structures it builds in between”





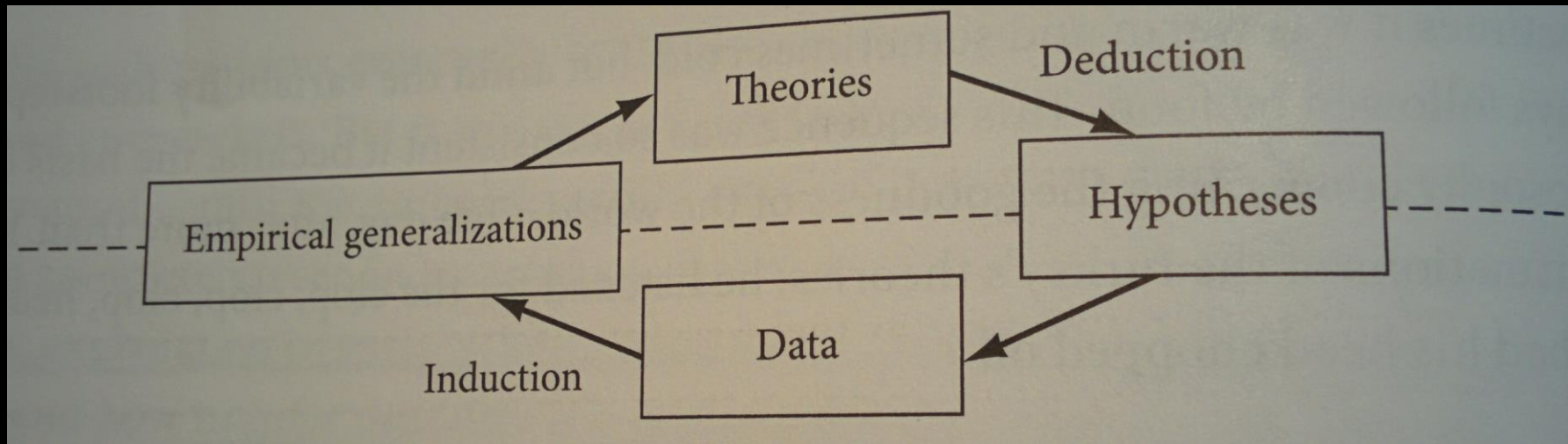
- Essence of science is a cyclical process involving continuous interplay between theory and research
- Development of theory is the ultimate goal
  - (everything above the dotted line separates the world of theory from the world of research)
- Research supports theory building through
  - Systematic observation that generates data
  - Data used to infer theories and to test theories

# Example: Durkheim's Study of Suicide

- Suicide one of most studied social problems of 19<sup>th</sup> century
  - Durkheim's study of suicide (first published in 1897) good example of interplay between theory and research
    - Regarded as model of social research
- Began by considering existing theories
  - Theories were based on nonsocial factors
    - Insanity
    - Alcoholism
    - Climate
- Argued against theory on purely logical grounds
- Then, he presented data to test his reasoning

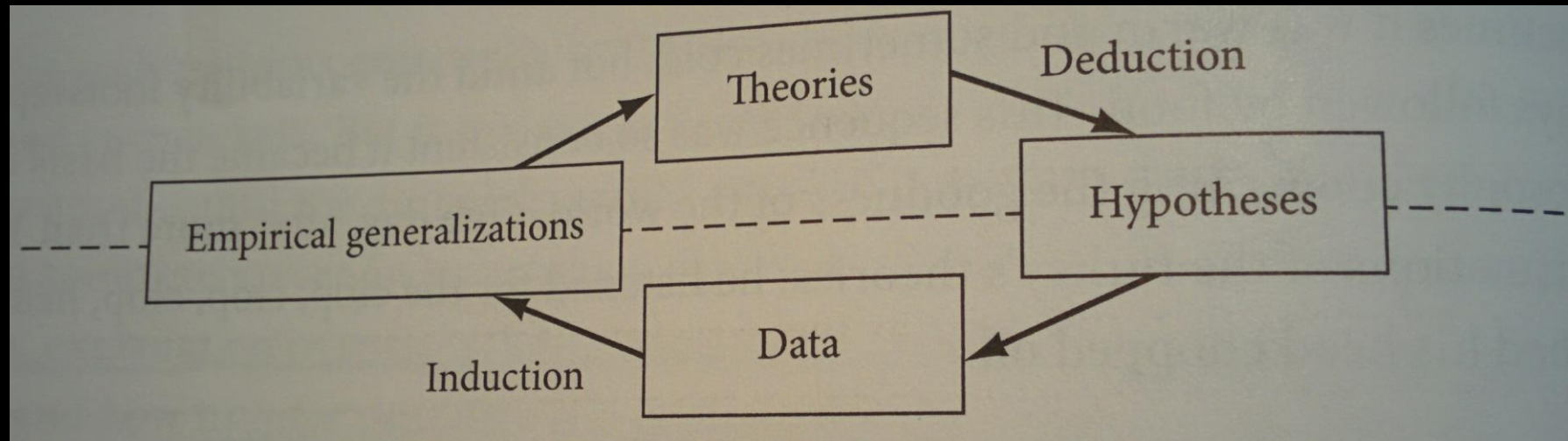
# Example: Durkheim's Study of Suicide

- Arguments against theory that insanity leads to suicide
  - If suicide results from insanity, same groups with high rates of insanity ought to have high rates of suicide
- Data:
  - Women outnumbered men in insane asylums, but men far more likely to commit suicide
  - Jews had high rates of insanity, but low rates of suicide
  - No correlation between rates of insanity and suicide among 10 European countries
- Moving from theories to hypotheses to data (as seen in figure)



Moving from theories to hypotheses to data (as seen in figure)

- After rejecting factors like insanity that did not fit the data, he collected new data and developed new empirical generalizations...
- Durkheim turned to social factors that may explain increased suicide rates
  - Noted that Catholic countries had lower rates of suicide than Protestant countries
  - Wasn't caused by industrialization, b/c same pattern occurred for catholics and protestant populations within industrialized countries
- Durkheim's empirical generalizations—
  - Protestantism allows more individual thought with less common beliefs and practices
  - Leads to Protestants feeling less of a bond with others
  - And weaker social integration of religious community means individuals will be more likely to commit suicide



- **End result of this scientific study is a theory based in fact or data**
- Durkheim called this the theory of “egoistic suicide”
- This study was part of a continuous scientific cycle-
  - It built on work of Wagner, Morselli, and others
  - Many studies since Durkheim have questioned, refined, and tested his insights

# Logical Reasoning

- Scientists rely on deductive and inductive reasoning in this process
- Inductive reasoning is a bottom up process
  - Hubert, Walter, and Joan, who are union members, are Democrats
  - Therefore, all union members are Democrats
  - Sometimes said that induction moves from specific instances to general principles
- Scientists use inductive reasoning when they infer empirical generalizations from data

# Logical Reasoning

- Deductive reasoning is a top down process
  - All union members are Democrats
  - Joan belongs to the union
  - Therefore, Joan is a Democrat
- Sometimes said that deduction moves from general principles to the specific observations or facts
- Scientists use deductive reasoning when they show how a hypothesis explains or predicts specific facts

# Logical Reasoning

- Scientists use deductive reasoning when they show how a hypothesis explains or predicts specific facts
  - Durkheim example:
    - If one group is more socially integrated than another, then its suicide rates will be lower. (HYPOTHESIS)
    - Catholics are more socially integrated than Protestants.
    - Therefore, the suicide rate is lower among Catholics than among Protestants (FACT)
- Deductions are either valid or invalid...
  - Allows science to test theoretical expectations.



# Principles for gathering evidence

- 1) Empiricism
  - Only study problems/issues that can be resolved by making observations
- Empiricism defined:
  - Way of knowing or understanding the world that relies directly or indirectly on what we experience through our senses
  - Data acceptable insofar as they can be observed
- Statements from authorities not accepted to be true without evidence
  - Or b/c tradition or common sense leads to a way of thinking

# Principles for gathering evidence

- 2) Objectivity
  - Typically defined as
    - Observation free from emotion, conjecture, or personal bias.
  - Observation free from bias is assumed to be practically impossible.
  - Instead scientists assign more useful meaning to the word
- Scientific definition:
  - Must be possible to reach **intersubjective testability**
    - Two or more independent observers working under same conditions must be able to agree that they are observing the same thing or event

# Principles for gathering evidence

- 2) Objectivity

- Forces scientists to describe research in detail
  - Outline methods and logic
  - Such that others can retest their findings
- 
- Allows scientific community to judge if subjectivity of research has entered in to empirical generalizations
  - Thus objectivity is determined by scientific community

# Principles for gathering evidence

- 3) Control
  - Research open to variety of interpretations...
  - Idea of control is to employ procedures that rule out all explanations except one research is interested in.

# The Ideal and the Reality of (Social) Scientific Inquiry

- Thus far we have discussed a somewhat idealized view of science
- There are caveats we need to point out that apply to social science
  - First,
    - Social scientific theories tend to be stated less formally than the logical deductions we discussed
    - Certainly they are often stated less formally than the mathematical equations often found in the natural sciences
  - We have defined theory as a set of interrelated propositions from which testable hypotheses can be deduced.

# The Ideal and the Reality of (Social) Scientific Inquiry

- Theory has a much looser meaning in social sciences
- May refer to all sorts of speculative ideas offered as explanations for phenomena
- Common to see the terms “theory” and “hypothesis” used interchangeably
- We study complex social behavior, which leads to a messier process than science in the natural processes.

# The Ideal and the Reality of (Social) Scientific Inquiry

- The course of social science inquiry tends to be irregular and circuitous
- Sociologist Walter Wallace, process of scientific inquiry may occur:
  - Sometimes quickly, sometimes slowly
  - Sometimes with a high degree of formalization and rigor, sometimes quite informally, unconsciously, intuitively
  - Sometimes through interaction of several scientists in distinct roles
    - (of say theorist, research director, interviewer, methodologist, sampling expert, statistician, etc.)
  - Sometimes through the efforts of a single scientist
  - And sometimes only in the scientist's imagination, sometimes in actual fact

# What and Why of Machine Learning



What is machine learning?



Andreas Mueller



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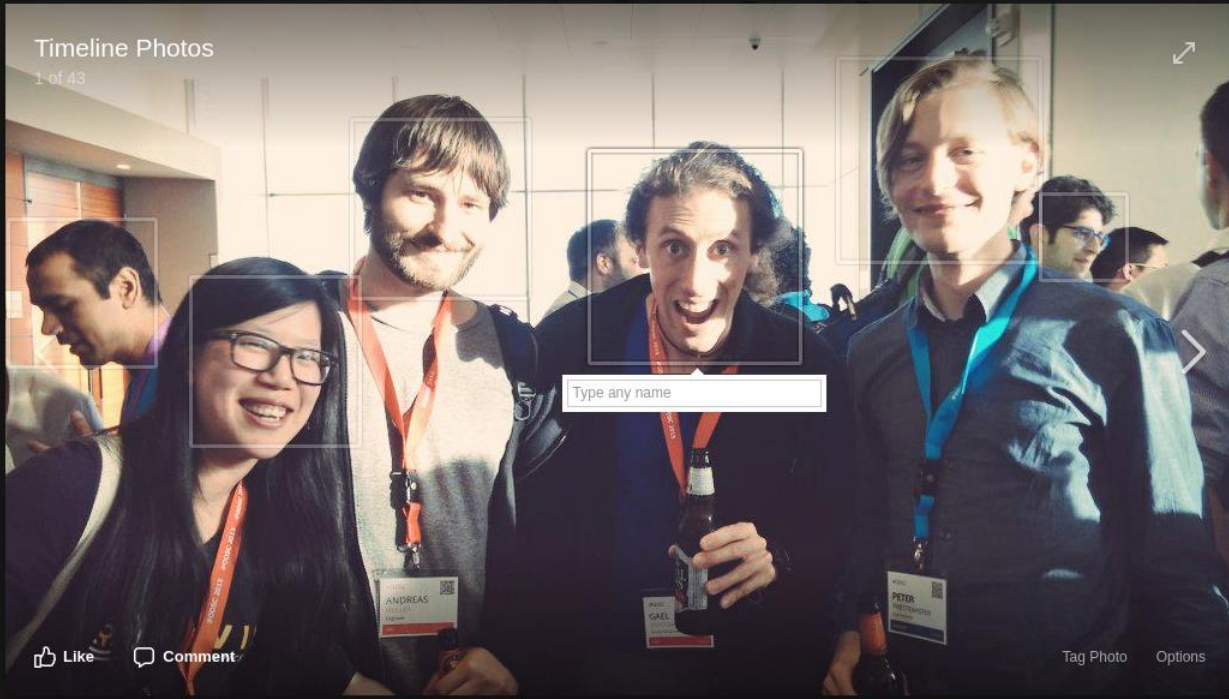
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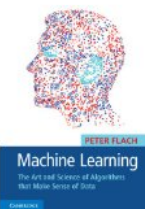
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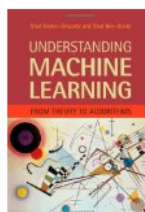
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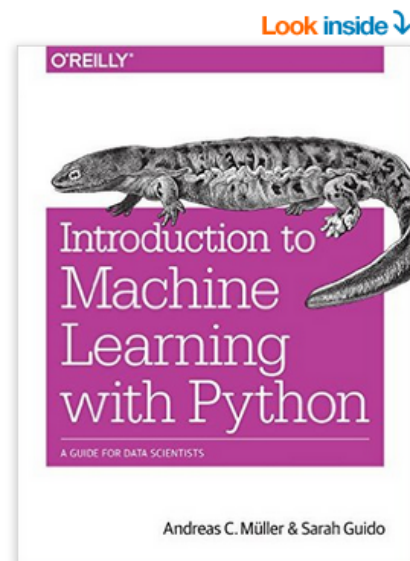
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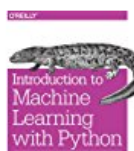
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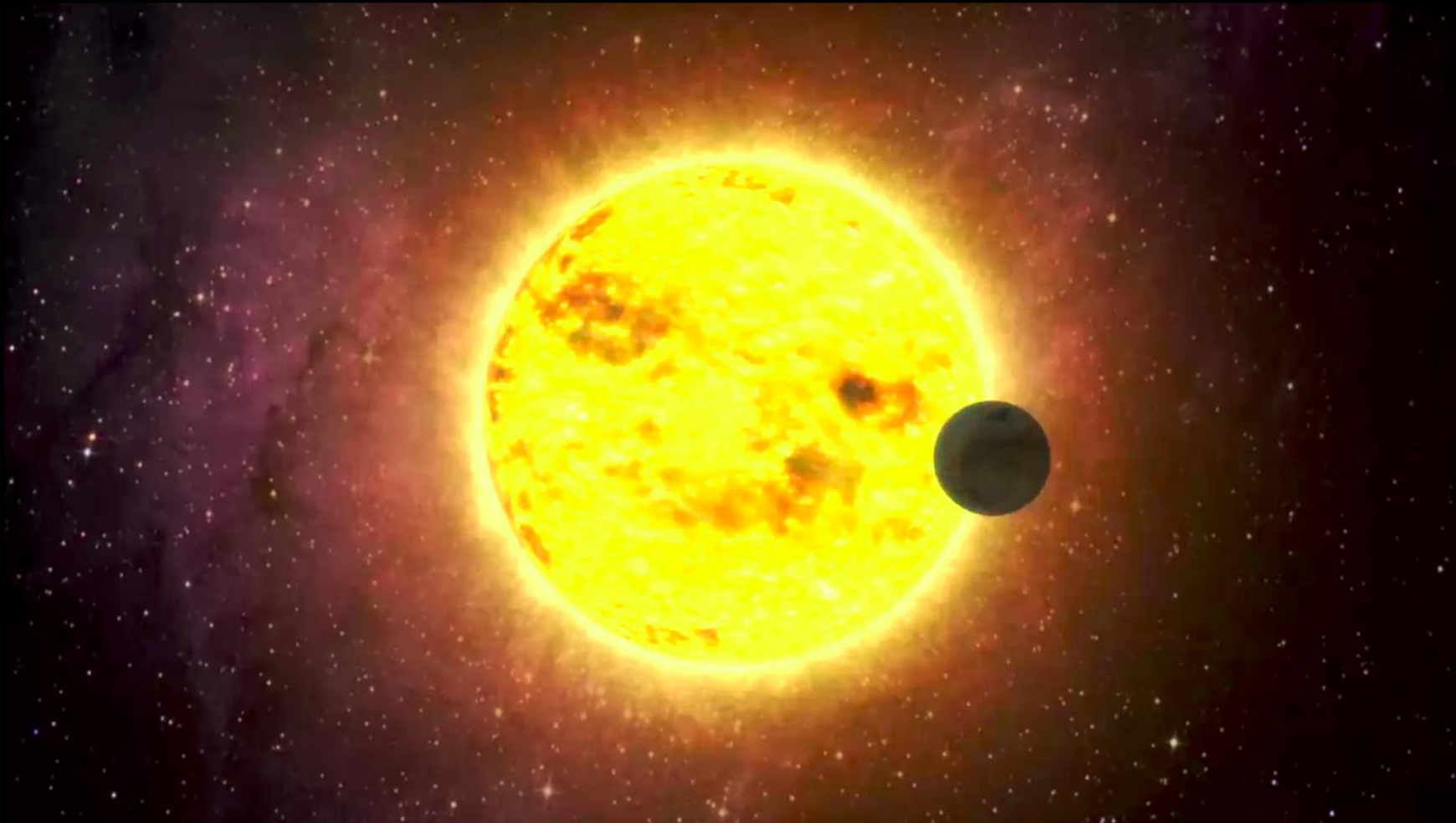


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# Science!





# Types of Machine Learning

# Types of Machine Learning

Supervised

Unsupervised

Reinforcement

# Supervised Learning

$$(x_i, y_i) \propto p(x, y) \text{ i.i.d.}$$

$$x_i \in \mathbb{R}^p$$

$$y_i \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$f(x_i) \approx y_i$$

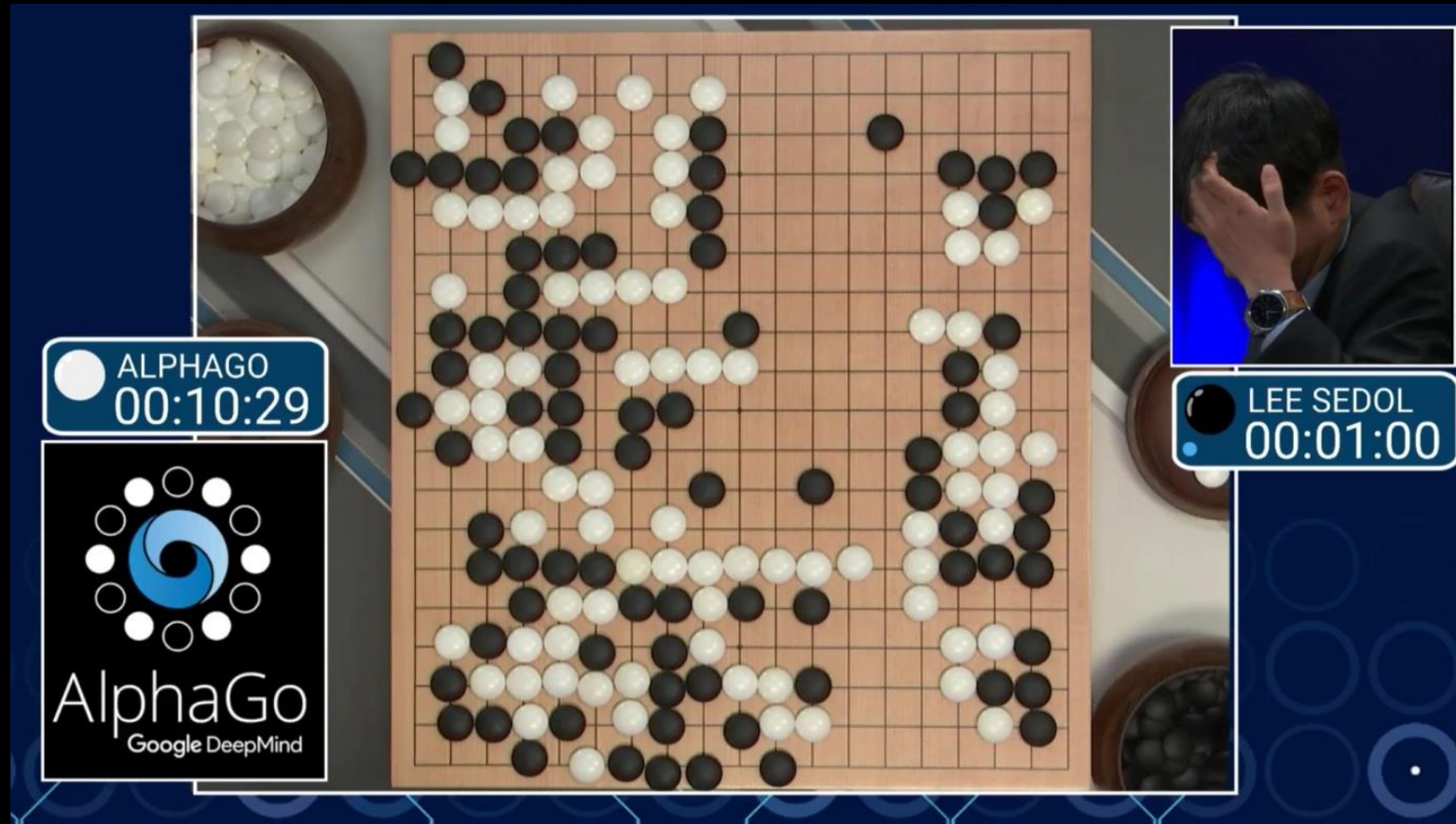
# Some examples of Supervised Learning

# Unsupervised Learning

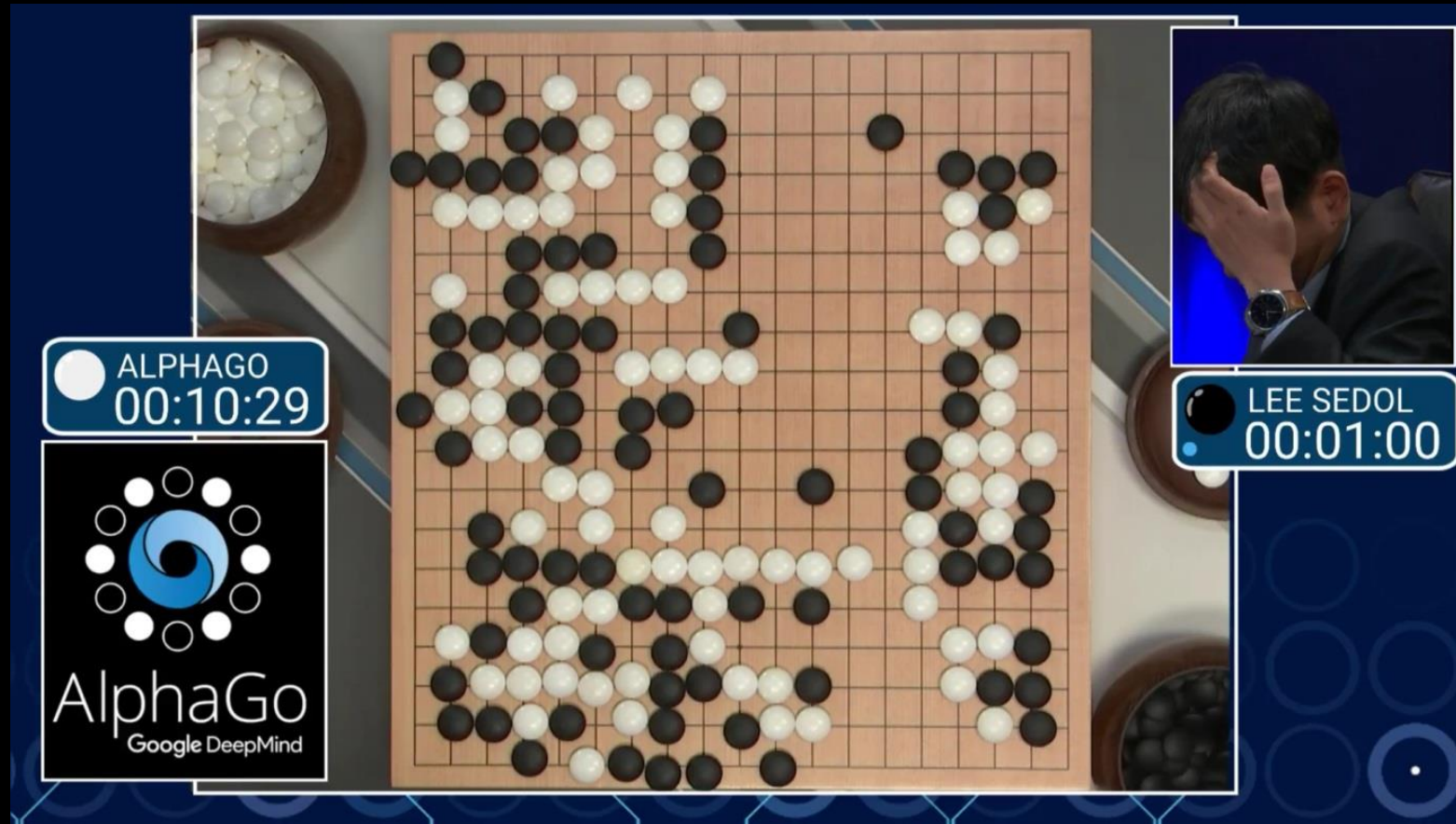
$$x_i \propto p(x) \text{ i.i.d.}$$

Learn about  $p$ .

# Reinforcement Learning



# Reinforcement Learning



Other kinds of learning



# Classification and Regression

## Classification

- target  $y$  discrete
- Will you pass?

## Regression

- target  $y$  continuous
- How many points will you get in the exam?

# Generalization

Not only  
also for new data:

$$f(x_i) \approx y_i,$$
$$f(x) \approx y$$

# Relationship to Social Science approach

- Statistics focus

- Causation
- Inference Making
- Real world insights
- Model coefficients represent potential causal factors

- Machine Learning focus

- Prediction
  - Elevates importance of training data
- Real world insights secondary to accuracy of prediction

# Relationship to Social Science approach

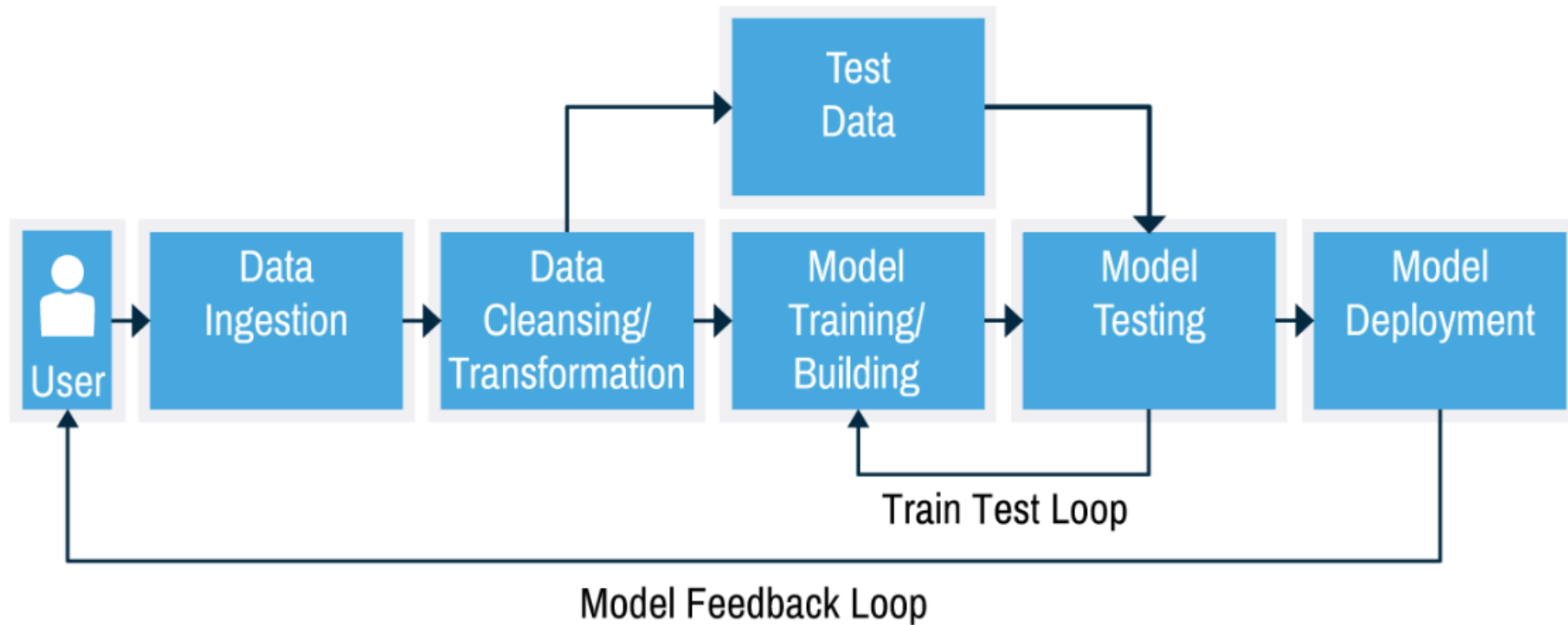
- Statistics focus

- Causation
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- Real world insights
- Model coefficients represent potential causal factors

- Machine Learning focus

- Prediction
  - Elevates importance of training data
- Real world insights secondary to accuracy of prediction

# The Machine Learning Work-Flow



# Overview of the course

# Infrastructure and basic tools

- Python, Jupyter
- Numpy,
- matplotlib,
- Pandas
- (Extra) git, github

# Getting started w/ Supervised Learning

- Generalization in practice
- Nearest Neighbors, Nearest Centroid
- Linear Classification and Regression
- Penalties and Regularization



# Data Preparation

- Preprocessing
- Feature engineering
- Dealing with missing values
- Feature Selection

# Non-linear machine learning models

- Support Vector Machines
- Decision Trees
- Random Forests
- Gradient Boosting
- Model Calibration

# Model evaluation and imbalanced data

- Metrics for binary and multi-class classification
- Metrics for regression
- Analyzing predictions
- Handling imbalanced datasets for classification

# Decomposition Methods

- PCA
- Discriminant Analysis
- Manifold Learning
- Non-negative Matrix Factorization

# Clustering

- K-Means
- DBScan
- Agglomerative Clustering
- Spectral Clustering
- Supervised evaluation metrics
- Unsupervised evaluation metrics

# Outlier Detection

- One Class SVM
- Robust Covariance Estimates
- Isolation Forests

# Neural Networks

- Backpropagation
- Tensorflow
- Keras
- Learning Algorithms
- Image data and convolutional neural networks
- Best practices for neural networks

# What will you take away from the course?

1. Powerful new tools for building datasets
2. Overview of cutting edge modelling techniques
3. Python coding skills for stats/data wrangling/ ML implementation
4. Understanding of main ML algorithms
5. Hopefully, will also help you come up with innovative new ideas for your work



Questions?