Week 7 – Thursday »Looking back and forward«

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# Today

- 1 Looking back
  - Putting the pieces together A good workflow
- 2 Looking forward Techniqes we did not cover
- 3 Advanced Types of Automated Content Analysis
- 4 Unsupervised ML PCA

LDA

**5** Supervised Machine Learning You have done it before!

Applications
An implementation

6 Final steps

| Looking back          |        |  |
|-----------------------|--------|--|
| Putting the pieces to | gether |  |
|                       | _      |  |
|                       |        |  |
|                       |        |  |

Putting the pieces together

# First: Our epistomological underpinnings

Computational Social Science

Putting the pieces together

"It is an approach to social inquiry defined by (1) the use of large, complex datasets, often—though not always— measured in terabytes or petabytes; (2) the frequent involvement of "naturally occurring" social and digital media sources and other electronic databases; (3) the use of computational or algorithmic solutions to generate patterns and inferences from these data; and (4) the applicability to social theory in a variety of domains from the study of mass opinion to public health, from examinations of political events to social movements"

Shah, D. V., Cappella, J. N., & Neuman, W. R. (2015), Big Data, digital media, and computational social science: Possibilities and perils. The ANNALS of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 659(1), 6-13. doi:10.1177/0002716215572084

# Computational Social Science

Putting the pieces together

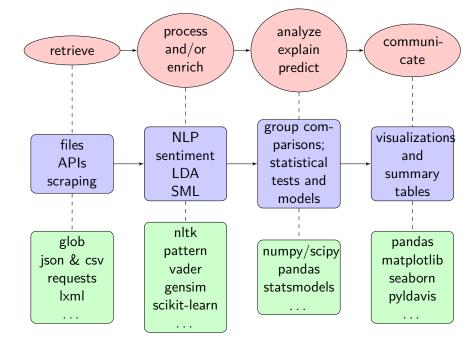
"[...] the computational social sciences employ the scientific method, complementing descriptive statistics with inferential statistics that seek to identify associations and causality. In other words, they are underpinned by an epistemology wherein the aim is to produce sophisticated statistical models that explain, simulate and predict human life."

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

Putting the pieces together

### We learned techniques for:

- retrieving data
- processing data
- analyzing data
- visualising data



A good workflow

A good workflow

# The big picture

A good workflow

### Start with pen and paper

- Draw the Big Picture
- 2 Then work out what components you need

# One script for downloading the data, one script for analyzing

- Avoids waste of resources (e.g., unnecessary downloading multiple times)
- Makes it easier to re-use your code or apply it to other data

### Start small, then scale up

- Take your plan (see above) and solve one problem at a time (e.g., parsing a review page; or getting the URLs of all review pages)
- (for instance, by using functions [next slides])

# Develop components separately

# If you copy-paste code, you are doing something wrong

• Write loops!

A good workflow

 If something takes more than a couple of lines, write a function!

### Copy-paste approach (ugly, error-prone, hard to scale up)

```
allreviews = []
```

2

8

10

11

12 13

```
response = requests.get('http://xxxxx')
```

```
tree = fromstring(response.text)
```

```
reviewelements = tree.xpath('//div[@class="review"]')
reviews = [e.text for e in reviewelements]
```

response = requests.get('http://yyyyy') tree = fromstring(response.text)

reviews = [e.text for e in reviewelements]

reviewelements = tree.xpath('//div[@class="review"]')

allreviews.extend(reviews)

allreviews.extend(reviews)

```
Better: for-loop
(easier to read, less error-prone, easier to scale up (e.g., more
URLs, read URLs from a file or existing list)))
allreviews = []
urls = ['http://xxxxx', 'http://yyyyy']
```

reviewelements = tree.xpath('//div[@class="review"]')

reviews = [e.text for e in reviewelements]

for url in urls:

10

response = requests.get(url)
tree = fromstring(response.text)

allreviews.extend(reviews)

Even better: for-loop with functions (main loop is easier to read, function can be re-used in multiple

```
contexts)
def getreviews(url):
   response = requests.get(url)
   tree = fromstring(response.text)
   reviewelements = tree.xpath('//div[@class="review"]')
```

return [e.text for e in reviewelements]

urls = ['http://xxxxx', 'http://yyyyy']

allreviews.extend(getreviews(url))

7

8 g

10 11

12

13

allreviews = []

for url in urls:

# Scaling up

Looking back

A good workflow

Until now, we did not look too much into aspects like code style, re-usability, scalability

- Use functions and classes (Appendix D.3) to make code more readable and re-usable
- Avoid re-calculating values
- Think about how to minimize memory usage (e.g., Generators, Appendix D.2)
- Do not hard-code values, file names, etc., but take them as arguments

### Make it robust

Looking back

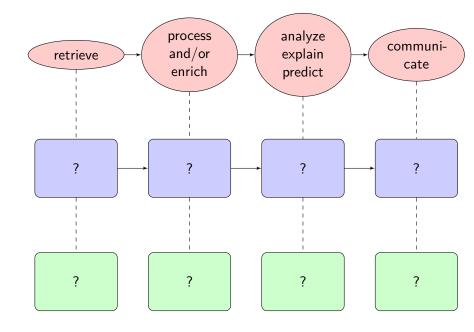
A good workflow

You cannot foresee every possible problem.

Most important: Make sure your program does not fail and loose all data just because something goes wrong at case 997/1000.

- Use try/except to explicitly tell the program how to handle errors
- Write data to files (or database) in between
- Use assert len(x) == len(y) for sanity checks

| Looking forward  What other possibilities do exist for each step? |  |
|---|--|
|   |  |



### Retrieve

### Webscraping with Selenium

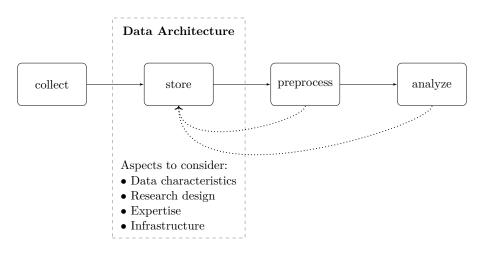
- If content is dynamically loaded (e.g., with JavaScript), our approach doesn't work (because we don't have a browser).
- Solution: Have Python literally open a browser and literally click on things
- → Appendix E

### Retrieve

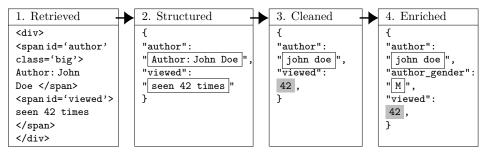
#### Use of databases

We did not discuss how to actually store the data

- We basically stored our data in files (often, one CSV or JSON file)
- But that's not very efficient if we have large datasets; especially if we want to select subsets later on
- SQL-databases to store tables (e.g., MySQL)
- NoSQL-databases to store less structured data (e.g., JSON) with unknown keys) (e.g., MongoDB, ElasticSearch)
- Günther, E., Trilling, D., & Van de Velde, R.N. (2018). But how do we store it? (Big) data architecture in the social-scientific research process. In: Stuetzer, C.M., Welker, M., & Egger, M. (eds.): Computational Social Science in the Age of Big Data, Concepts, Methodologies, Tools, and Applications, Cologne, Germany: Herbert von Halem.



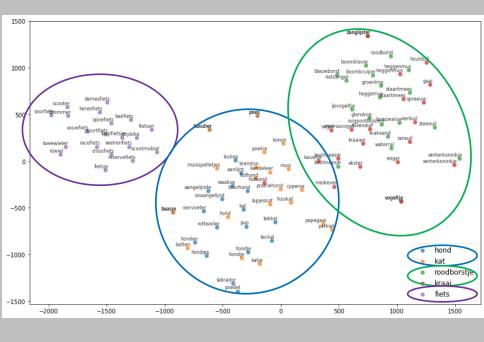
# From retrieved data to enriched data



# Word embeddings

We did not really consider the *meaning* of words

- Word embeddings can be trained on large corpora (e.g., whole wikipedia or a couple of years of newspaper coverage)
- The trained model allows you to calculate with words (hence, word vectors): king - man + woman =?
- You can find out whether documents are similar *even if they* do not use the same words (Word Mover Distance)
- → word2vec (in gensim!), glove

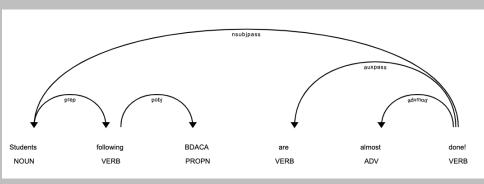


# Process and/or enrich

#### Advanced NLP

We did a lot of BOW (and some POS-tagging), but we can get more

- Named Entity Recognition (NER) to get names of people, organizations, . . .
- Dependency Parsing to find out exact relationships ⇒ nltk, Stanford, FROG, Spacy



PREP: Prepositional modifier NSUBJPASS: Nominal subject (passive) AUXPASS: Auxiliary (passive)

### More advanced modelling

We only did some basic statistical tests

- Especially with social media data, we often have time series (VAR models etc.)
- ⇒ scikit-learn, statsmodels

Recap: Types of Automated Content Analysis

#### Methodological approach

|  | Counting and<br>Dictionary   | Supervised<br>Machine Learning         | Unsupervised<br>Machine Learning   |
|--|--|--|--|
| Typical research interests<br>and content features | visibility analysis<br>sentiment analysis<br>subjectivity analysis | frames<br>topics<br>gender bias        | frames<br>topics   |
| Common statistical<br>procedures                   | string comparisons<br>counting                                     | support vector machines<br>naive Bayes | principal component analysis<br>cluster analysis<br>latent dirichlet allocation<br>semantic network analysis |
|  | deductive  | _                                      | inductive  |

# Some terminology

### Supervised machine learning

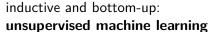
You have a dataset with both predictor and outcome (independent and dependent variables; features and labels) a labeled dataset. Think of regression: You measured x1, x2, x3 and you want to predict y, which you also measured

### Unsupervised machine learning

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

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



insupervised machine rearming

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

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

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

#### PCA in ACA

PCA

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

```
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.  $W_{NN} = tf_{NN} \log(\frac{N}{N})$ 

$$W_{i,j} = tf_{i,j} \cdot log(\frac{N}{df_i})$$

PCA

# PCA: implications and problems

PCA

- 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?

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%  $T_3$ , ... 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

LDA

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.

```
2
3
    NTOPICS = 100
    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
    mylda = models.ldamodel.LdaModel(corpus=mm, id2word=id2word, num_topics=
         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
```

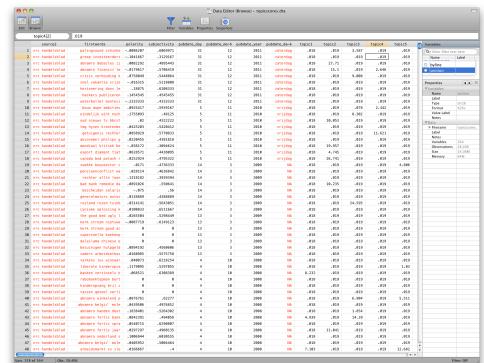
from gensim import corpora, models

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
```

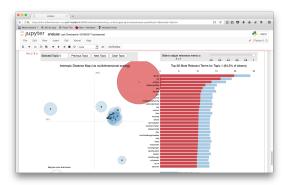


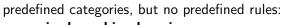
# Visualization with pyldavis

1 import pyLDAvis

LDA

- 2 import pyLDAvis.gensim
- 3 # first estiate gensim model, then:
- vis\_data = pyLDAvis.gensim.prepare(mylda,mm,id2word)
- 5 pyLDAvis.display(vis\_data)





supervised machine learning

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

## Recap: supervised vs. unsupervised

#### Unsupervised

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

Example: We have a dataset of Facebook-massages on an organizations' page. We use clustering to group them and later interpret these clusters (e.g., as complaints, questions, praise, . . . )

## Supervised

- We code a small dataset by hand and use it to "train" a machine
- 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.

#### You have done it before!

#### Regression

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

hut

You have done it before!

- 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)
  - 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.  $tf \times idf$ ) ( $\Rightarrow BOW$ -representation)

# **Applications**

#### In other fields

A lot of different applications

- This principle can be applied to many fields and disciplines –
  for example, it is possible to teach a computer to indicate if a
  tumor is present or not on X-rays of people's brains
- from recognizing hand-written characters to recommendation systems
- Supervised Machine learning does not care about what the features mean, so instead of texts we can also classify pictures

#### 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

- 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                        |

 $\textit{Note}. \ VK = Volkskrant, NRC = NRC/Handelsblad, TEL = Telegraaf$ 

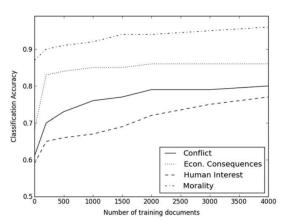
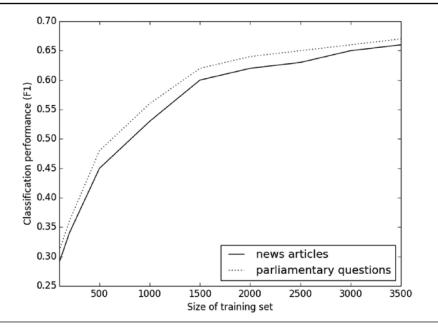


FIGURE 1 Relationship between classification accuracy and number of training documents.

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



All Words Lead Only F1

| Features                         | N   |  |
|----------------------------------|-----|--|
| Macroeconomics                   | 413 |  |
| Civil wights and minority issues | 227 |  |

Civil rights and minority issues

Issue

Health

Agriculture

Education

Energy

Environment

Transportation

Law and crime

Social welfare

Defense

Other issue

Total

Labor and employment

Immigration and integration

Community development and housing

Science, technology, and communication

International affairs and foreign aid

Government operations

ments that are relevant.

Banking, finance, and commerce

327

444

114

217

188

152

81

150

416

1198

115

113

622

393

426

1.106

1.301

3.322

11,089

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 docu-

TABLE 1 F1 Scores for SML-Based Issue Coding in News Articles and PQs

> .54.34 .70

> > .79

.34

.35

.50

.58

.70

.33

.45

.62

.59

.64

.70

.71

.84

.71

News Articles

.43

.63 .28 .71.76 .49 .71.44

F1

POs

N

172

192

520

159

174

229

237

67

239

306

685

214

136

188

196

57

352

276

360

4,759

All Words

F1

.46

.53

.81

.66

.58

.78

.59

.66

.78

.81

.77

.54

.72

.58 .71

.53

..65

.48

.51

.69

.59 .57 .67

.69 .34 .44.67

.55

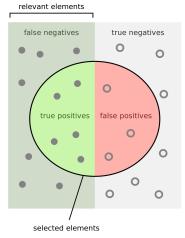
.59

.64

.72

.80

.68



# How many selected items are relevant? Precision = Recall = Recall =

## Some measures of accuracy

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

#### What does this mean for our research?

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

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
1
    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)
    print("Multinomal naive bayes : {0}".format(metrics.auc(fpr, tpr)))
```

An implementation

# 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)
```

- print(predictions)

This returns, as you would expect and hope:

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

An implementation

#### But we can do even better

An implementation

We can use different vectorizers and different classifiers.

#### Different vectorizers

An implementation

- 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).

## Next meeting

#### Monday 20 - 5

Final chance for questions regarding final project (if you don't have any, you don't need to come.)

#### Deadline final exam

Hand in via filesender until Wednesday, 29-5, 23.59 One .zip or .tar.gz file with

- .py and/or .ipynb for code
- .pdf for text and figures
- .csv, .json, or .txt for data
- any additional file we need to understand or reproduce your work

Send to: A.C.kroon@uva.nl