Computational Political Science

Session 4

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Outline for today

1. Supervised machine learning

• Why do we need a labeled set?

2. Probability fundamentals review

- Conditional probability
- Rule of product

3. Bayes theorem

- From conditional probabilities to Bayes theorem
- Example: How good is our spam classifier?

4. Naive Bayes

- Dissecting the Naive Bayes
- Using textmo

5. Coding Exercise

Supervised machine learning

Supervised machine learning

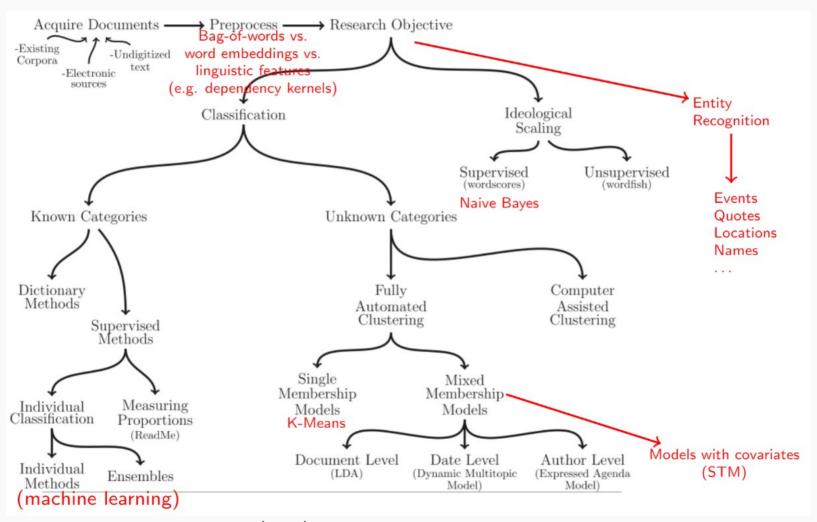


Fig. 1 in Grimmer and Stuart (2013)

Supervised machine learning

The goal is classify documents into pre existing categories.

For example, authors of documents, sentiment of tweets, ideological position of parties based on manifestos, tone of movie reviews...

What we need

- Hand-coded dataset (labeled), to be split into:
 - Training set: used to train the classifier
 - Validation/Test set: used to validate the classifier
- Method to extrapolate from hand coding to unlabeled documents (classifier):
 - Naive Bayes, regularized regression, SVM, CNN, ensemble methods, etc.
- Performance metric to choose best classifier and avoid overfitting:
 - Confusion matrix, accuracy, precision, recall...
- Approach to validate classifier: cross-validation

Creating a labeled set

How do we obtain a labeled set?

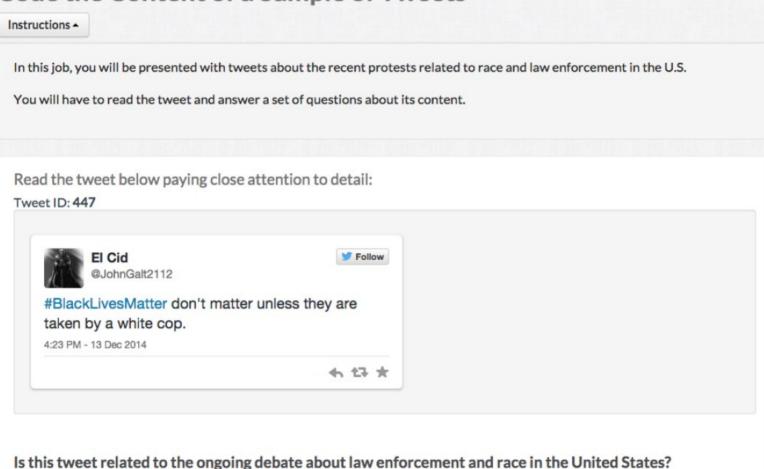
- External sources of annotation
 - Disputed authorship of Federalist papers estimated based on known authors of other documents
- Expert annotation
 - "Canonical" dataset in Comparative Manifesto Project
 - In most projects, undergraduate students (expertise comes from training)
- Crowd-sourced coding
 - Wisdom of crowds: aggregated judgments of non-experts converge to judgments of experts at much lower cost (Benoit et al 2016)
 - Easy to implement with CrowdFlower or MTurk

Labeling example

O Yes

O Don't Know

Code the Content of a Sample of Tweets



Principles of supervised learning

Generalization

A classifier or a regression algorithm learns to correctly predict output from given inputs

Crucially, it predicts correctly not only in previously seen samples but also in previously unseen samples.

Overfitting

A classifier or a regression algorithm learns to correctly predict output from given inputs in previously seen samples.

However, it fails to do so in previously unseen samples. This causes poor prediction/generalization.

The goal is to maximize the frontier of precise identification of true condition with accurate recall

Probability fundamentals review

Motivation

Why should we look more closely into conditional probabilities and Bayes theorem?

After all, we could just learn the broad idea of the Naive Bayes classifier and run textmodel_nb() in R without knowing the details ...

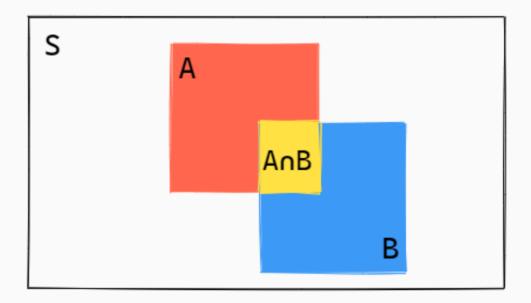
- We introduce classification by the example of the Naive Bayes which requires a better understanding of the model's internal mechanisms
- Although universities mostly teach probability theory for independent events, the most interesting social phenomena are conditional (and not independent of) other factors
- We lay the foundation for interesting and widely used data science applications of Bayesian thinking

Conditional probability

Definition

$$P(A|B) = rac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}, ext{ when } P(B) > 0$$

where A and B are events in a sample space S.



Intuitively, what this formula does is restricting the sample space to events where B occurs, and counting those where both A and B occur.

Example

What is the probability of event A given B?

Let A be the event that a the roll of a dice results in an *odd* number: $A = \{1, 3, 5\}$

Let B be the event that the outcome is smaller or equal to three: $B=\{1,2,3\}$



$$P(A|B) = \frac{|A \cap B|}{|B|} = \frac{|\{1,3\}|}{|\{1,2,3\}|} = \frac{2}{3}$$

More generally, we can rewrite this in terms of probabilities

$$P(A|B) = rac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} = rac{rac{|A \cap B|}{|S|}}{rac{|B|}{|S|}} = rac{rac{2}{6}}{rac{3}{6}} = rac{2}{3}$$

where $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ is the sample space.

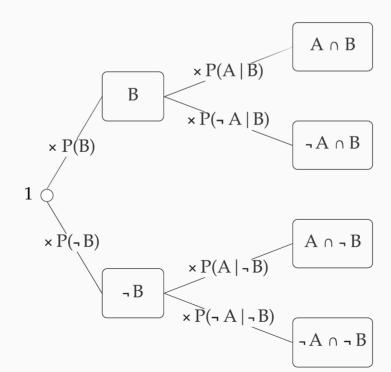
Rule of product

The rule of product allows finding the probability of two (or more) events occurring together

Rule of product for dependent events

$$P(A|B) = rac{P(A\cap B)}{P(B)} \;\Leftrightarrow\; P(A|B)P(B) = P(A\cap B)$$

Rewriting the conditional probability allows finding $P(A \cap B)$ using a tree diagram:



Rule of product

The rule of product allows finding the probability of two (or more) events occurring together

Rule of product for independent events

Two events A and B are independent only if

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B)$$

Independence means that conditional probability of one event given another is the same as the original (prior) probability:

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(A)P(B)}{P(B)} = P(A)$$

Rule of product

Rule of product for independent events (continued)

Sometimes the independence of two events is clear because they do not have a physical interaction with each other

For example, the roll of a dice today and the weather tomorrow

At other times, independence is not obvious so we need to check if they satisfy the independence condition

In the die roll example, we had

$$P(A)=rac{|\{1,3,5\}|}{|S|}=rac{3}{6}=rac{1}{2}$$
 and $P(B)=rac{|\{1,2,3\}|}{|S|}=rac{3}{6}=rac{1}{2}$ and $P(A\cap B)=rac{1}{3}$



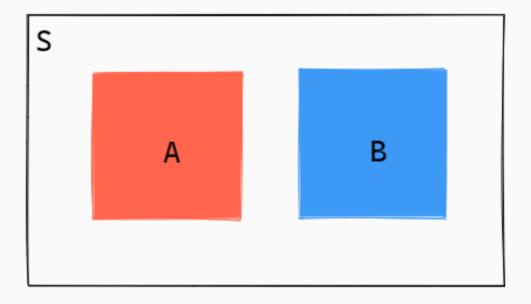
 $oldsymbol{A}$ and $oldsymbol{B}$ are not independent since

$$P(A)P(B) = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 = \frac{1}{4} \qquad \neq \qquad P(A \cap B) = \frac{1}{3}$$

Special cases (I)

If A and B are disjoint they cannot occur together, so $A\cap B=\varnothing$.

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(\varnothing)}{P(B)} = 0$$

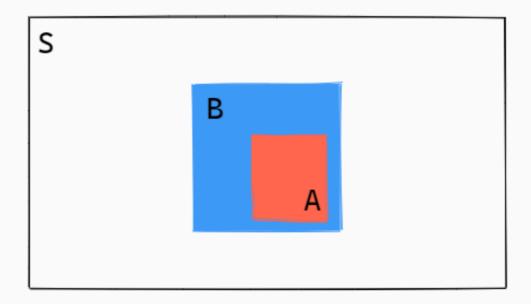


Special cases (II)

If A is a subset of B, then whenever A happens B happens as well.

In this case, $A \cap B = A$.

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(A)}{P(B)}$$

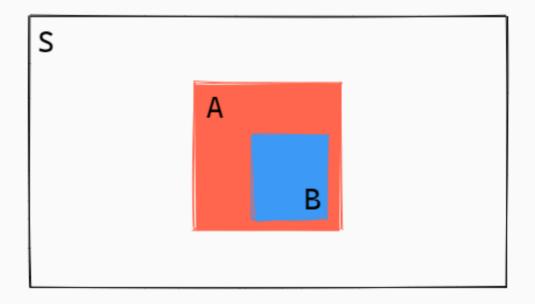


Special cases (III)

If B is a subset of A, then whenever B happens A also happens.

In this case, $A \cap B = B$.

$$P(A|B)=rac{P(A\cap B)}{P(B)}=rac{P(B)}{P(B)}=1$$



Bayes theorem

Bayes theorem

Rearranging the definition of conditional probability gives the probability of the intersection:

$$P(A|B) = rac{P(A\cap B)}{P(B)} \Leftrightarrow P(B)P(A|B) = P(A\cap B)$$

An alternative way of expressing the probability of the intersection is based on P(B|A).

$$P(B|A) = rac{P(A\cap B)}{P(A)} \Leftrightarrow P(A)P(B|A) = P(A\cap B)$$

Setting both equations equal to another and rearranging gives the **Bayes theorem**:

$$P(A)P(B|A) = P(B)P(A|B)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow P(B|A) = \frac{P(B)P(A|B)}{P(A)}$$

Applying Bayes theorem

The rate of spam mails for a certain email address is 2%. A spam filter identifies a spam mail with a probability of 95%. At the same time, 10% of non-spam messages are classified as spam.

- (a) What is the probability that a mail that was marked as spam is truly a spam mail?
- (b) What is the probability that a mail that was not identified as spam is spam?

Naive Bayes

Spam classification

training dfm with known categories

training vector with known categories

	\$	win	prize	earn	easily	paypal	100
k1	2	1	0	0	0	0	0
k2	2	0	1	0	0	0	0
k3	1	0	0	1	1	0	0
k4	1	0	0	0	0	1	1

У
Spam
Spam
Spam
No Spam

P(word | category)

##

Spam

```
dfm(txt, groups = y)
                              # compute word frequency given category
  features
##
## docs $ win prize earn easily paypal 100
                       0
##
   No Spam 1 0
## Spam 5 1 1 1 1
dfm(txt, groups = y) + 1  # but we need to apply Laplacian smoothing
  features
##
## docs $ win prize earn easily paypal 100
##
  No Spam 2 1 1 1
          6 2 2 2 2 1 1
##
    Spam
# get probability of word given category
# divide feature frequency by category frequency (10 and 16 respectively)
(dfm(txt, groups = y) + 1) / rowSums(dfm(txt, groups = y) + 1)
   features
##
## docs $ win prize earn easily paypal 100
    No Spam 0.200 0.100 0.100 0.100 0.2000 0.2000
##
```

0.375 0.125 0.125 0.125 0.125 0.0625 0.0625

nb <- textmodel_nb(x,y,prior="docfreq")</pre>

```
( Pc <- nb$priors )
                                                      # extract prior for class
## No Spam
             Spam
##
      0.25
              0.75
( PwGc <- nb$param )
                                                      # get p of word given category
##
                  win prize earn easily paypal 100
## No Spam 0.200 0.100 0.100 0.100 0.2000 0.2000
           0.375 0.125 0.125 0.125 0.125 0.0625 0.0625
## Spam
# get p of class given word(s)
                                               # categorize based on highest p
( PcGw <- predict(nb, type="prob") )</pre>
                                               ( cats <- predict(nb, type="class") )</pre>
##
      No Spam Spam
                                              ## Spam
## k1
        0.07 0.93
                                              ## Spam
## k2
      0.07 0.93
                                              ## Spam
      0.10 0.90
## k3
                                              ## No Spam
## k4
       0.65 0.35
                                              ## Spam
## u1
        0.15 0.85
                                              ## Spam
        0.09 0.91
## u2
                                              ## Spam
                                                                                    25 / 30
## u3
         0.49 0.51
```

Manually computing P(spam | words)

Recall that we have the prior P(spam)=0.75 and estimated these conditional probabilities:

	\$	win	prize	earn	easily	paypal	100
No Spam	0.200	0.100	0.100	0.100	0.100	0.2000	0.2000
Spam	0.375	0.125	0.125	0.125	0.125	0.0625	0.0625

Notice how our belief of the message being spam changes as we consider various features

P(spam | \$)

[1] 0.85

P(no spam | \$)

$$(.25*.2) / (.25*.2 + .75*.375)$$

[1] 0.15

P(spam | \$ ∩ \$)

```
(.75 * .375^2) /
(.75 * .375^2 + .25 * .2^2)
```

[1] 0.91

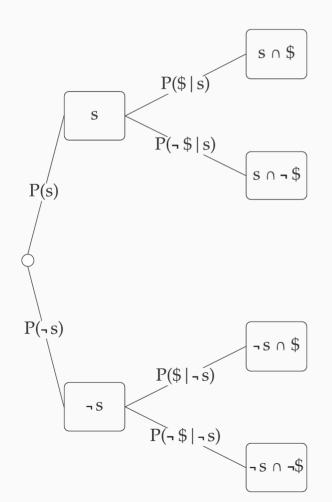
P(spam | \$ ∩ \$ 100 ∩ Paypal)

```
(.75 * .375^2 * .0625^2) /
(.75 * .375^2 * .0625^2 + .25 * .2^4)
```

[1] 0.51 26 / 30

P(spam | \$)

What is the probability of spam given a dollar sign in the message?



$$egin{aligned} P(ext{s}|\$) = & rac{P(ext{s})P(\$| ext{s})}{P(ext{s})P(\$| ext{s}) + P(\lnot ext{s})P(\$|\lnot ext{s})} \ = & rac{0.75 imes 0.375}{0.75 imes 0.375 + 0.25 imes 0.2} \ = & 0.85 \end{aligned}$$

Numerator

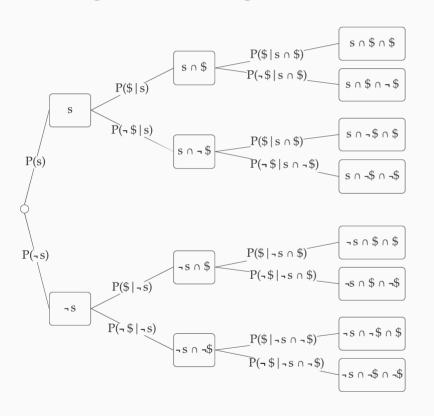
Look at the branches where the evidence (\$) occurs and the hypothesis (spam) is true; compute the joint probability $P(s \cap \$)$

Denominator

Consider all possibilities where the evidence occurs: numerator *added* to the joint probability of the evidence occurring given the hypothesis is not true

P(spam | \$∩\$)

What is the probability of spam given **two** dollar signs in the message?



Assuming independence of features allows us to easily calculate the probability of spam given **multiple** features.

Independence simplifies the calculation, for example

$$P(\$|s\cap\$) = P(\$|s)$$

Substantively, we assume that observing a \$ does not affect the probability of observing further \$ (or any other feature)

$$egin{align*} &P(\mathbf{s}|\$ \cap \$) \ =& rac{P(\mathbf{s})P(\$|\mathbf{s})^2}{P(\mathbf{s})P(\$|\mathbf{s})^2 + P(\lnot \mathbf{s})P(\$|\lnot \mathbf{s})^2} \ =& rac{0.75 imes 0.375^2}{0.75 imes 0.375^2 + 0.25 imes 0.2^2} \ =& 0.91 \end{split}$$

P(spam | $$ \cap $ \cap Paypal \cap 100$)

What is the probability of spam given the message includes \$, \$, Paypal, and 100?

Recall that we have the prior of P(spam)=0.75 and estimated the following conditional probabilities:

	\$	win	prize	earn	easily	paypal	100
No Spam	0.200	0.100	0.100	0.100	0.100	0.2000	0.2000
Spam	0.375	0.125	0.125	0.125	0.125	0.0625	0.0625

$$\begin{split} &P(\mathbf{s}|\$ \cap \$ \cap \text{Paypal} \cap 100) \\ &= \frac{P(\mathbf{s})P(\$|\mathbf{s})^2 P(\text{Paypal}|s) P(100|s)}{P(\mathbf{s})P(\$|\mathbf{s})^2 P(\text{Paypal}|s) P(100|s) + P(\neg \mathbf{s})P(\$|\neg \mathbf{s})^2 P(\text{Paypal}|\neg s) P(100|\neg s)} \\ &= \frac{0.75 \times 0.375^2 \times 0.0625^2}{0.75 \times 0.375^2 \times 0.0625^2 + 0.25 \times 0.2^4} \\ &= 0.51 \end{split}$$

Coding exercise