Supervised Learning for NLP I

HSS 510 / DS 518: NLP for HSS

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Agenda

Things to be covered

- Overview of supervised learning
- Step 1: Building a labeled data set
- Step 2: Training models
- Step 3: Evaluating performance
- Guided labeling: text classification with movie reviews data in Python

Supervised vs. Unsupervised

	Supervised	Unsupervised
Objective	Trained on a labeled data to learn a mapping from input to output	Find patterns or structures within data without labels
Outcome	Pre-defined categories	Not quite pre-defined
Model evaluation	Explicit metrics such as accuracy, precision, recall, or MSE	Can involve qualitative assessment
Examples	Classification/regression for texts	Topic models

Regression vs. Classification

- Regression
 - The outcome of interest is continuous or ordered (beyond binary)
 - E.g., OLS regression (+ non-linear regression algorithms such as random forest regression)
- Classification
 - The outcome is a value in an unordered set (i.e. categories)
- The two approaches share the broad principles of supervised leaning and can be adapted

We will focus on text classification with supervised learning

- Goal
 - To classify documents into pre-defined categories
 - E.g., sentiment of comments (e.g., positive-negative), stance on issues (e.g., for-against-neutral), etc.
- We need
 - Labeled data set (for training and testing)
 - Model (algorithm) that maps texts to labels
 - Evaluation approaches: performance metrics, cross-validation, etc.

Evolution of text classification

- Dictionary methods
 - Based on counting/weighting of relevant keywords
 - Readily available and fast ↔ sub-optimal performance
 - If you want to quick, preliminary analysis for concepts supported by an existing dictionary, it can be helpful
 - E.g., LIWC, VADER, Moral Foundations Dictionaries, etc.

Evolution of text classification (cont'd)

- Traditional ML algorithms
 - This approach laid the groundwork for many foundational concepts in text classification
 - Classifiers (models) are trained to learn the relationships between texts and labels (i.e., classes)
 - So this requires training (labeled) data (pairs of a text and a label)
 - (On average) more training data, higher performance
 - E.g., Logistic regression, random forest, SVM, deep neural networks

Evolution of text classification (cont'd)

- Fine-tuning representation models (e.g., BERT family)
 - These models are pre-trained with massive amounts of text data
 - Given a text, representation models encode it into a vector (an array of numbers) that captures its meaning
 - We can fine-tune such a model for classification with potentially higher performance
 - They tend to achieve higher performance than the traditional ML approaches
 - Week 13 will cover this approach

Evolution of text classification (cont'd)

- Prompting generative models (e.g., GPT family)
 - Like representation models, these models are pre-trained on vast amounts of text data, often even more extensively
 - Generative models are designed to generate text outputs given input text prompts
 - We can prompt such a model with unlabeled texts to generate labels
 - Still requires labeled data (not for training but for evaluating performance)
 - It is also possible to "fine-tune" these models
 - Weeks 14–15 will cover this

Overall process

- Step 1: building a labeled data set
- Step 2: training model(s)
- Step 3: evaluating performance

Overall process

- Step 1: building a labeled data set
- Step 2: training model(s)
- Step 3: evaluating performance
- * Steps 1 and 3 apply to all of the classification approaches

Step 1: build a labeled data set

- Label texts following systematic labeling guidelines and check inter-coder reliability
- This (C) will serve as "ground-truth" or "gold standards"
- *C* is used to training (building a model) and validation (evaluating performance)

Step 1: build a labeled data set

Doc number	Text	У	
1	This is great!	0	
2	% ^{@%} off!	1	
• • •			
9999	This is sick	0	
10000	Love BTS <3	0	

Step 1: build a labeled data set

Doc number	Text	У
1	This is great!	0
2	% ^{@%} off!	1
• • •		
9999	This is sick	0
10000	Love BTS <3	0

Step 2: train models

- Randomly split C into a training set (C_{train}) and a test set (C_{test})
 - Typically, C_{train} : C_{test} = 7:3 or 8:2
 - E.g., identifying YouTube comments containing hate speech
 - \circ C: 10,000 comments labeled for the presence of hate speech
 - \circ $C_{training}$: 8,000 comments for training
 - \circ C_{test} : 2,000 comments for test
- Generate X_{train} (feature matrix) from C_{train}
 - E.g., count vectors, TF-IDF, or embeddings

Step 2: train models

Index	У	Token 1	Token 2	• • •	Token V-1	Token V
1	0	3	1.4	• • •	1.7	6
2	1	-0.8	6.4	• • •	5.7	-1.6
• • •						
7999	0	-2.8	0.9	• • •	3.3	-0.6
8000	0	3.7	1.4	• • •	5.7	-5.8

Step 2: train models

- Choose a model F (e.g., logistic regression) and learn model parameters β (e.g., an array of coefficients)
 - The model provides a mapping between X_{train} and y_{train}
- Loss (cost) function: measures how much model predictions (\hat{y}_{train}) differ from the true labels (y_{train})
 - $\hat{\mathbf{y}}_{train} = F(\hat{\beta} * X_{train})$
 - ullet eta is estimated in a way that minimizes the difference between the two
- As a result, we get a classifier: $\hat{y} = F(\beta * X)$

Step 2: train models

Index	У	ŷ	Token 1	Token 2	• • •	Token V-1	Token V
1	0	1	3	1.4	• • •	1.7	6
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Step 3: evaluate performance

- We held out another labeled set C_{test} (n = 2,000) (why?)
- Use the classifier $F(\hat{\beta} * X)$ to generate predictions \hat{y}_{test}
- Compare the predictions $\hat{\mathbf{y}}_{test}$ and the true labels y_{test}
- Performance metrics include accuracy, precision, recall, etc.
- (Then use the classifier for unlabeled data)

Step 3: evaluate performance

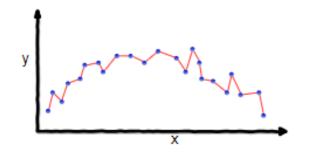
Index	У	ŷ	Token 1	Token 2	• • •	Token V-1	Token V
1	1	1	3.12	1.99	• • •	5.77	0.36
2	1	0	-0.8	1.14	• • •	9.71	-1.66
• • •							
1999	0	0	-2.11	0.95	• • •	1.23	-0.62
2000	0	0	3.71	1.48	• • •	1.7	-5.84

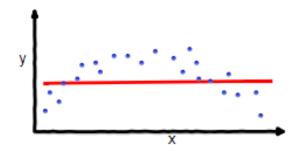
Bias

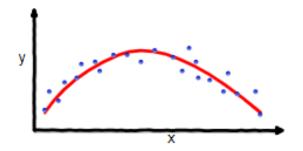
- The degree to which the model's predictions deviate from the true labels in a systematic manner
- A model with high bias make predictions that are consistently offtarget

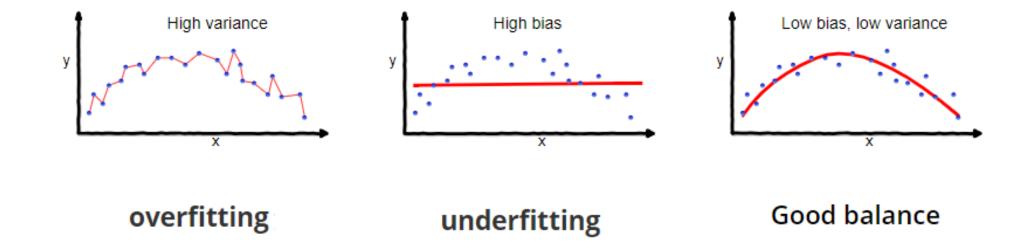
Variance

- The degree to which the model generalizes to different data
- High variance means low generalizability



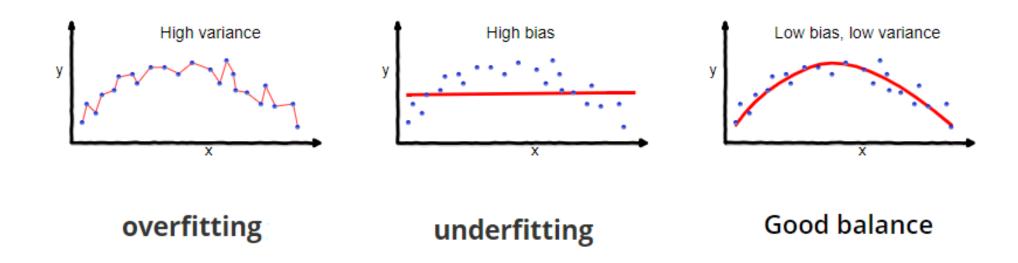






Overfitting and underfitting

- If a model learns the training data "too well" (low bias), it can lead to overfit
- This happens when the model mistakes noise for signal
- The model would not generalize to the test set (high variance)



Training-test split

- A minimal measure to prevent overfitting
- The primary goal here is to make our model as generalizable as possible
- "Generalizable" means being able to perform well on unseen documents (other than the documents the model was trained on)
- When a model learns the noise or random fluctuations in the training set, this typically results in a model that performs poorly on new the test set

In HSS and many other fields, text classification is often used to "measure" concepts using texts

- Some concepts are already available in the form of labeled texts:
 e.g., news categories
- In many cases, however, concepts we are trying to measure using texts need to be measured from scratch
- The process involves definition/conceptualization and manual labeling

How do we build a labeled data set?

- A form of manual content analysis
- Here human labels are often considered "ground truth" or "gold standard"
- Manually labeled data are used for training (train set) and evaluation (test set)

How do we build a labeled data set?

- Expert labeling
 - In many projects, a few domain experts work on labeling
 - E.g., a researcher + two RAs
 - Define the concept and draft coding guidelines
 - Annotators should be trained to learn the concept and related guidelines

How do we build a labeled data set? (cont'd)

- Crowd-sourced labeling
 - "Wisdom of crowd": aggregated judgments of (online) non-experts converge to judgments of experts at much lower cost (Benoit et al, 2016)
 - Difficult to educate annotators on sophisticated tasks
 - Inductive measurement based on a relatively loose conceptualization

Expert labeling vs. Crowd Sourcing

- Deductive vs. inductive
- Degree of training
- Scalability (cost)

Selecting texts for manual labeling

- The selected texts should be representative of the entire corpus.
- These texts are used to train and test your model
- Mismatches between the chosen texts and the texts the model is applied to can reduce generalizability
- E.g., changes in anti-vaccine discourse throughout 2020
 - After mid-2020, anti-vaccine discourse increasingly focused on government mandates
 - If the model is trained only on texts from the first two months of 2020, it may fail to capture these later shifts

Iterative process

- The process of building a labeled set does not often take place at once but in an iterative process
- In many cases, specifying comprehensive annotation guidelines *ex* ante can be challenging
- Preliminary labeling rules are written and applied to an initial set of texts → annotators identify disagreements in their labels and ambiguities in the rules → revision of the rule → manual annotation of another set of texts ...

Dealing with subjectivity

- Many concepts in humanities and social sciences tend to subjective
- This is, from the beginning, why 1) careful conceptualization and 2) writing clear labeling rules, and 3) training coders are extremely important
- Once your final labels are built, it is helpful to assess reliability between annotators (inter-coder reliability)
 - Krippendorf's α, Cohen's κ (alternatives include Pearson's r,
 Spearman's ρ)
 - Relevant tools: krippendorff in Python or irr in R

Who are the annotators?

- Expert coding
 - Academics/students (Javdani and Chang 2023)
- Crowdsourcing
 - Skewed distribution of worked hours (Difallah et al. 2018)
 - Inattentive workers (Peyton et al. 2022; Ternovski 2022)
 - LLM-based responses (Veselovsky et al. 2023)
 - Demographic characteristics (Al Kuwatly et al. 2020)

Step 2: Training Models

We the need to generate features

- Features mean numerical representations of text data that models can process
- $C_{train} \rightarrow X_{train}$
- Options include count vectors, TF-IDF vectors, word/document embeddings, etc.
- Note, as we will see in later weeks, we hardly need manual feature extraction when we fine-tune or prompt pre-trained models

Step 2: Training Models

We the need to generate features (cont'd)

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So far we have:

- Built a labeled data set
- Generated a feature matrix
- This means that we have the outcome (y) and features (X_{train})

Now we will:

- Select a model *F*
- Learn model parameters β to build a classifier $(\hat{y} = F(\hat{\beta} * X))$

Numerous algorithms

- Logistic regression
- Naive Bayes
- Support vector machine
- Tree-based models (decision tree, random forest, XGBoost, etc.)
- Neural networks
- Etc.

Logistic regression

- Used to classify a document into binary categories
 - For more than two categories, multinomial logistic regression
- One of the most useful analytics tools in science (not just NLP/ML)
- The baseline supervised learning algorithm for classification
- Forms the basis of neural networks

Components of classification with logistic regression

- Features
 - A document is represented as a vector of features $\vec{x} = [x_1, ..., x_n]$
- A classification function (*F*)
 - p(y = 1|x) is computed for each document given the feature vector (x) and the parameters $(\beta: \vec{w} \text{ and } b)$
 - The sigmoid function transforms p(y = 1|x) into a value between 0 & 1
- Loss function (measures how model prediction ŷ is different from y during training) and an algorithm for optimizing it (gradient descent)

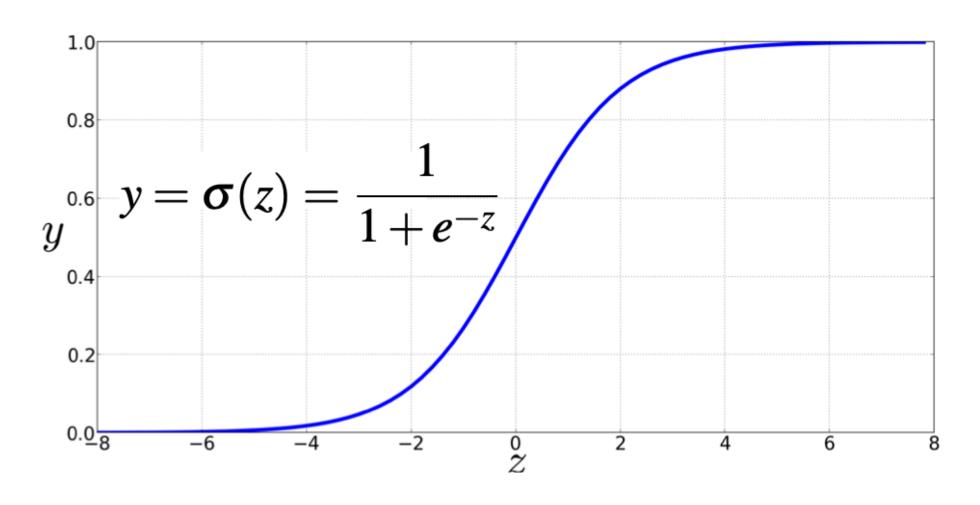
How does logistic regression compute predicted probabilities?

- $\bullet \ p(y=1|x)$
 - The probability of y = 1 given a feature vector $\vec{x} = [x_1, ..., x_n]$
 - E.g., for a simple count vector, it would be # of times each token appears in the document
- Logistic regression learns β , a vector of coefficients
 - A bias term b: a single number (a.k.a. intercept)
 - Weights $\vec{w} = [w_1, ..., w_n]$
 - E.g., tokens signaling hateful intention would get high weights
 - With b, \overrightarrow{w} , and \overrightarrow{x} , we compute $z = (\sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i x_i) + b$

How does logistic regression compute predicted probabilities?

•
$$z = (\sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i x_i) + b = \overrightarrow{w_i} x + b$$

Sigmoid function



How does logistic regression compute predicted probabilities?

•
$$z = (\sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i x_i) + b = \overrightarrow{w_i} x + b$$

•
$$\sigma(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}} = \frac{1}{1 + exp(-z)}$$

How does logistic regression compute predicted probabilities?

•
$$p(y = 1|x) = \sigma(\overrightarrow{w} \cdot \overrightarrow{x} + b)$$

•
$$p(y = 0|x) = 1 - \sigma(\overrightarrow{w} \cdot \overrightarrow{x} + b)$$

How do predicted probabilities turn into binary labels (\hat{y}) ?

$$\begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } P(y = 1|x) > 0.5 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

E.g., sentiment classification from movie reviews

"It's hokey. There are virtually no surprises, and the writing is second-rate. So why was it so enjoyable? For one thing, the cast is great, Another nice touch is the music. I was overcome with the urge to get off the couch and start dancing? It sucked me in, and it'll do the same to you."

Sentiment classification from movie reviews

Var	Definition
$\overline{x_1}$	$count(positive lexicon) \in doc)$
x_2	$count(negative lexicon) \in doc)$
x_3	$\begin{cases} 1 & \text{if "no"} \in \text{doc} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$
x_4	$count(1st and 2nd pronouns \in doc)$
<i>x</i> ₅	$\begin{cases} 1 & \text{if "!"} \in \text{doc} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$
x_6	log(word count of doc)

Sentiment classification from movie reviews

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$$x_1=3$$
 $x_2=3$ $x_3=1$ $x_4=3$ $x_4=3$.

How are the parameters, weights \vec{w} and bias \vec{b} , learned?

- Goal: learn \vec{w} and \vec{b} that make \hat{y}_{train}^i for each training observation as "close" as possible to y_{train}^i (the true label)
- Two components for estimation
 - Metric for "closeness": loss/cost function (e.g., cross entropy loss)
 - Optimization algorithm: (stochastic) gradient descent

Learn parameters that maximize the chance of getting the correct label (Conditional Maximum Likelihood Estimation)

- $p(y|x) = \hat{y}^y * (1 \hat{y})^{1-y}$
- If y = 1, $p(y|x) = \hat{y}$
 - The higher \hat{y} is, the better the classifier
- If y = 0, $p(y|x) = (1 \hat{y})$
 - The higher $(1 \hat{y})$ is (the lower \hat{y} is), the better the classifier

From p(y|x), we drive loss (cost) function

•
$$p(y|x) = \hat{y}^y * (1 - \hat{y})^{1-y}$$

$$\rightarrow \mathsf{Log}(\mathsf{p}(y|x)) = \mathsf{Log}(\hat{\mathsf{y}}^y * (1 - \hat{\mathsf{y}})^{1-y})$$

$$\rightarrow Log(p(y|x)) = ylog\hat{y} + (1-y)log(1-\hat{y})$$

We can turn it into the cross entropy loss function (that should be minimized)

•
$$L_{CE} = -[y\log\hat{y} + (1-y)\log(1-\hat{y})]$$

Gradient descent

- With the cross entropy loss function, we have a metric for discrepancies
- Gradient descent is an algorithm used to find the optimal set of weights (and bias) that minimizes the discrepancies, averaged over all observations

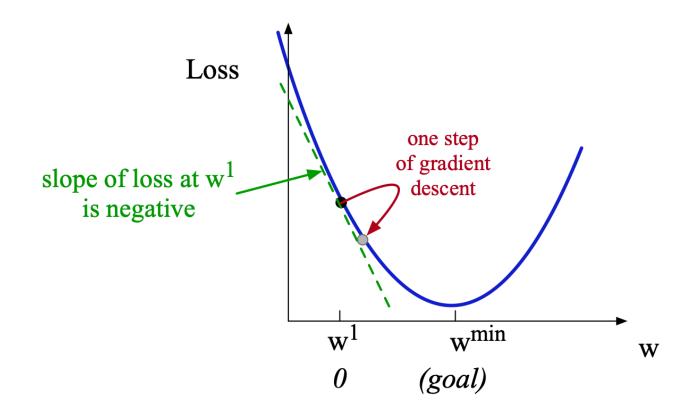
$$\rightarrow \hat{\theta} = \underset{\theta}{\operatorname{argmin}} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} L_{CE}(f(x^{(i)}; \theta), y^{(i)})$$

Gradient descent finds a minimum of a function

- Figures out in which direction the function's slope rises most steeply
- Then move in the opposite direction
- Stops when it reaches the minimum

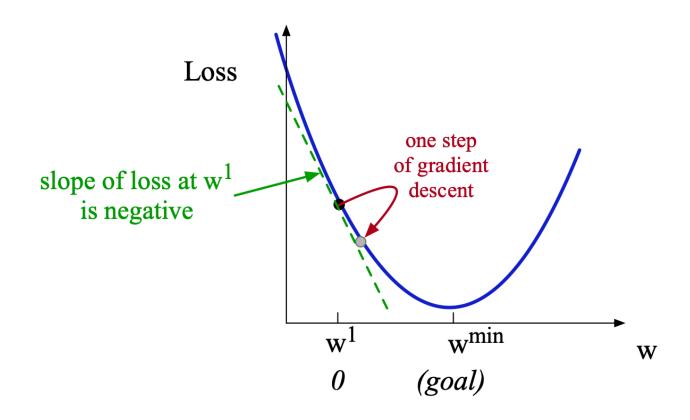
Gradient descent

• 1-dimensional illustration



Gradient descent

• Updating w with learning rate (η) : $w^{t+1} = w^t - \eta \frac{d}{dw} L(f(x; w), y)$



We have

- Manually labeled documents
- Split them into C_{train} (training set) and C_{test} (test set)
- Trained a classifier on C_{train} (with y_{train} and X_{train}) $\rightarrow F(\hat{\beta}^* X)$

Now we need to evaluate its performance on C_{test}

• We compare $\hat{\mathbf{y}}_{test}$ (predicted labels) against y_{test} (true labels)

Performance metrics

- Accuracy: the proportion of all predictions (both positive and negative) that the model got right
- Precision: the proportion of positive predictions that were actually correct
- Recall: the proportion of actual positives that were correctly predicted
- F-1: the harmonic (as opposed to arithmetic) mean of precision and recall

Confusion matrix: predictions against true labels

		True condition	
		Positive	Negative
Prediction	Positive	True Positive	False Positive (Type I error)
Prediction	Negative	False Negative (Type II error)	True Negative

Accuracy: $\frac{TP+TN}{TP+TN+FP+FN}$

		True condition	
			Negative
Prediction	Positive	True Positive	False Positive (Type I error)
	Negative	False Negative (Type II error)	True Negative

Precision: $\frac{TP}{TP+FP}$

		True condition	
		Positive	Negative
Prediction	Positive	True Positive	False Positive (Type I error)
	Negative	False Negative (Type II error)	True Negative

Recall: $\frac{TP}{TP+FN}$

		True condition	
		Positive	Negative
Prediction	Positive	True Positive	False Positive (Type I error)
	Negative	False Negative (Type II error)	True Negative

F-1: $(2 \times precision \times recall) / (precision + recall)$

Reminders

- Random train-test split: C_{train} , C_{test}
 - E.g., 10,000 comments labeled for hate speech into 8,000 and 1,000
- Our classifier learned **parameters**, maximizing performance on C_{train} and evaluating it on C_{test}

Parameters vs. hyper-parameters

- Parameter
 - Learned (estimated) from data (internal to the model)
 - E.g., logistic regression weights/coefficients (= β)
- Hyper-parameters
 - Defines the model structure itself (not internal to the model)
 - E.g., the size of a regularization term in logistic regression, the number of layers or learning rate in neural networks, etc.

Shallow neural network hidden layer input layer output layer output layer Hand-designed feature extraction Deep neural network hidden layer 1 input layer output layer Learn a feature hierarchy all the way from input to output data

Hyper-parameters influence model performance, and we want to "tune" them

- With different hyper-parameter values, we could fit a model configured with each value on C_{train} and evaluate performance on C_{test}
- E.g., regularization strength λ in logistic regression
 - Train different models with different λ values on C_{train}
 - Evaluate on C_{test}
 - Pick the best performing model

What could go wrong?

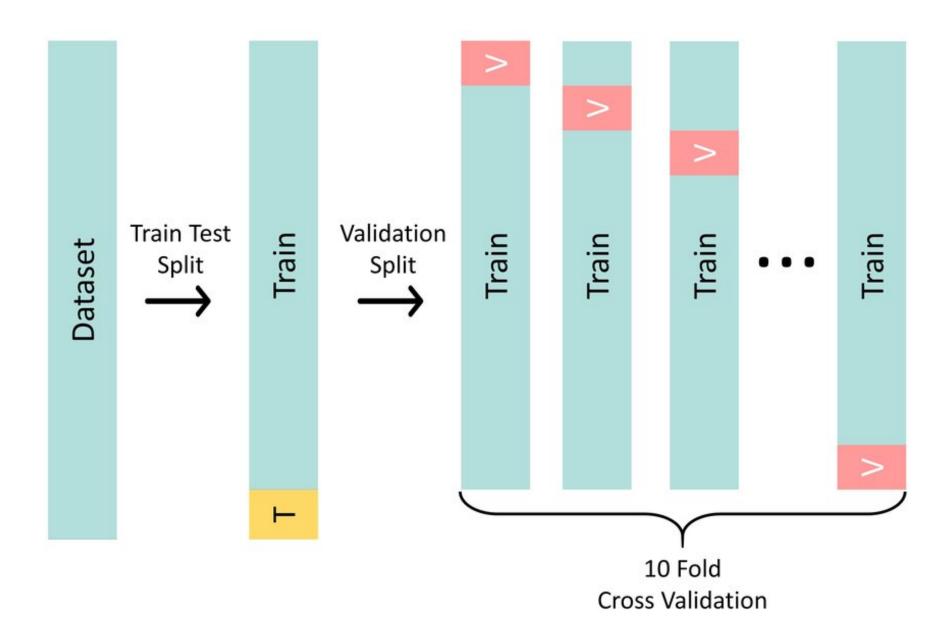
- In comparing different models (different hyperparaemter values), we might overfit on C_{train}
- By repeatedly using the specific train-test split, our comparison can be affected by the specific characteristics of the split

Validation set

- We split the labeled data set into a training set, a "validation set", and a test set: C_{train} , $C_{validation}$, and C_{test}
- Train a model on C_{train} and see how it performs on $C_{validation}$
- Repeat this step for multiple hyper-parameter configurations
- Pick the best-performing configuration
- ullet Train a final model based on the configuration using C_{train} + $C_{validation}$
- Evaluate on C_{test}

K-fold cross-validation

- Randomly split C_{train} into K equal parts or "folds" (commony 5 or 10)
- For each iteration
 - Treat one fold as the "validation set"
 - Train your model on the remaining K-1 folds
 - Evaluate performance on the validation set kept aside
- After cyclig through all iterations
 - Aggregate the performance metrics obtained from each iteration
 - Choose the classifier with the highest cross-validated performance
 - This step may involve not just hyper-parameter tuning but also things like feature repesentation, etc.
- (Re)train the chosen best classifier on C_{train} (all K folds combined) and evalute on C_{test}



Summary

Supervised text classification provides a highly useful tool to assign labels to texts

- Be aware of the principles of building a labeled data set
 - Conceptualization, inter-coder reliability, annotator bias, etc.
- Validate, validate, and validate!
- Choose appropriate evaluation metrics

Guided Coding

Text classification with movie reviews data (link)