

# Learning to Quantify: Estimating Class Prevalence via Supervised Learning

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## 1 MOTIVATION

*Quantification* (also known as “supervised prevalence estimation” [2], or “class prior estimation” [7]) is the task of estimating, given a set  $\sigma$  of unlabelled items and a set of classes  $C = \{c_1, \dots, c_{|C|}\}$ , the relative frequency (or “prevalence”)  $p(c_i)$  of each class  $c_i \in C$ , i.e., the fraction of items in  $\sigma$  that belong to  $c_i$ . When each item belongs to exactly one class, since  $0 \leq p(c_i) \leq 1$  and  $\sum_{c_i \in C} p(c_i) = 1$ ,  $p$  is a *distribution* of the items in  $\sigma$  across the classes in  $C$  (the *true distribution*), and quantification thus amounts to estimating  $p$  (i.e., to computing a *predicted distribution*  $\hat{p}$ ).

Quantification is important in many disciplines (such as e.g., market research, political science, the social sciences, and epidemiology) which usually deal with aggregate (as opposed to individual) data. In these contexts, classifying individual unlabelled instances is usually not a primary goal, while estimating the prevalence of the classes of interest in the data is. For instance, when classifying the tweets about a certain entity (e.g., a political candidate) as displaying either a Positive or a Negative stance towards the entity, we are usually not much interested in the class of a specific tweet: instead, we usually want to know the fraction of these tweets that belong to the class [14].

Quantification may in principle be solved via classification, i.e., by classifying each item in  $\sigma$  and counting, for all  $c_i \in C$ , how many such items have been labelled with  $c_i$ . However, it has been shown in a multitude of works (see e.g., [1, 4, 12–14, 17]) that this “classify and count” (CC) method yields suboptimal quantification accuracy. Simply put, the reason of this suboptimality is that most classifiers are optimized for classification accuracy, and not for quantification accuracy. These two notions do not coincide, since the former is, by and large, inversely proportional to the sum ( $FP_i + FN_i$ ) of the

false positives and the false negatives for  $c_i$  in the contingency table, while the latter is, by and large, inversely proportional to the absolute difference  $|FP_i - FN_i|$  of the two.

One reason why it seems sensible to pursue quantification directly, instead of tackling it via classification, is that classification is a more general task than quantification: after all, a perfect classifier is also a perfect quantifier, while the opposite is not true. A training set might thus contain information sufficient to generate a good quantifier but not a good classifier, which means that performing quantification via “classify and count” might be a suboptimal way of performing quantification. In other words, performing quantification via “classify and count” looks like a violation of “Vapnik’s principle” [33], which asserts that

If you possess a restricted amount of information for solving some problem, try to solve the problem directly and never solve a more general problem as an intermediate step. It is possible that the available information is sufficient for a direct solution but is insufficient for solving a more general intermediate problem.

As a result, quantification has come to be no longer considered a mere byproduct of classification, and has evolved as a task of its own, devoted to designing methods and algorithms (see [15] for a survey) that deliver better prevalence estimates than CC.

There are further reasons why quantification is now considered as a task of its own. One such reason is that, since the goal of quantification is different from that of classification, quantification requires evaluation measures different from those used for classification. A second reason is the growing awareness that quantification is going to be more and more important; with the advent of big data, more and more application contexts are going to spring up in which we will simply be happy with analyzing data at the aggregate level and we will not be able to afford analyzing them at the individual level.

## 2 OBJECTIVES, AND RELEVANCE TO IR

The goal of this course is to introduce the audience to the problem of quantification and to its importance, to the main supervised learning techniques that have been proposed for solving it, to the metrics used to evaluate them, and to what appear to be the most promising directions for further research.

The topic of quantification is relevant to the SIGIR community, because when IR researchers apply classification techniques these researchers are often only interested in results at the aggregate level, which means that they should have used quantification techniques

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instead. One typical example is sentiment classification in Twitter: almost nobody who engages in this task is interested in individual tweets *per se*. Researchers and practitioners who use classification when they should instead use quantification typically do so because they ignore that there is a difference between the two; one of the main goals of this tutorial is to raise awareness of this difference.

### 3 FORMAT AND DETAILED SCHEDULE

The structure of the lectures is as follows (each section also indicates the main bibliographic material discussed within the section):

- (1) Introduction / Motivation
  - (a) Solving quantification via “Classify and Count”
  - (b) Concept drift and distribution drift [24, 31]
  - (c) Vapnik’s principle
  - (d) The “paradox of quantification”
- (2) Applications of quantification in machine learning, data mining, text mining, and NLP [14]
  - (a) Sentiment quantification [11]
  - (b) Quantification in the social sciences [5]
  - (c) Quantification in political science [17]
  - (d) Quantification in epidemiology [19]
  - (e) Quantification in market research [11]
  - (f) Quantification in ecological modelling [3]
- (3) Evaluation of quantification algorithms
  - (a) Desirable properties for quantification evaluation measures [30]
  - (b) Evaluation measures for quantification [30]
  - (c) Experimental protocols for evaluating quantification [10]
- (4) Supervised learning methods for binary and multiclass quantification
  - (a) Aggregative methods based on general-purpose learners [2, 4, 13, 20, 22, 27, 28]
  - (b) Aggregative methods based on special-purpose learners [1, 12]
  - (c) Non-aggregative methods [16, 17]
- (5) Advanced topics
  - (a) Ordinal quantification [6, 8]
  - (b) Quantification for networked data [23, 32]
  - (c) Quantification for data streams [18, 21, 29]
  - (d) Cross-lingual quantification [9]
- (6) Shared tasks [25, 26]
- (7) Conclusions

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