Bayes and Naïve Bayes

Concepts:

Discriminative and Generative model

Bayes Classifier

Modeling joint distribution of discrete variables

Naïve Bayes assumption

Naïve Bayes classifier

Bernoulli and Multi-nomial Naïve Bayes

MLE and MAP estimation, smoothing

Two main approaches for learning probabilistic classifiers

Discriminative:

- Learn $P(y|\mathbf{x})$ directly
- Logistic regression is one of such techniques

Generative:

- Learn P(y) and $P(\mathbf{x}|y)$
- Compute $P(y|\mathbf{x})$ using Bayes rule

$$P(y|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{P(\mathbf{x}|y)P(y)}{P(\mathbf{x})} = \frac{P(\mathbf{x}|y)P(y)}{\sum_{y} P(\mathbf{x}, y)}$$

Generative models

- A generative model specifies a generative story regarding how the data was created
 - E.g. by flipping a coin (with p_h for head)
- Given parameters (p_h) for the model, new data can be generated
 - E.g. flipping the coin again
- Maximum likelihood estimation is typically used for estimation the model parameters

A simple generative model

- Here is a simple generative story:
- 1. Flip a coin to decide the gender of the individual: head = male, tail = female
- 2. If male, sample the weight and height from Gaussian distribution $N(\mu_m, \Sigma_m)$
- 3. If female, sample the weight and height from Gaussian distribution $N(\mu_f, \Sigma_f)$

Repeating this process, we get a population of females and males with weights and heights

- Let's try to define a generative model for emails of two classes (spam vs. non-spam)
- How to represent an email of M words as a feature vector? --- popular options: bag of words

Option 1: binary vector

With a dictionary of size V, $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, x_2, ..., x_V]$ where $x_i \in \{0,1\}$

- $x_i = 1$ if email contains the *i*th dictionary word
- $x_i = 0$ otherwise

Option 2: integer vector

With a dictionary of size V, $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, x_2, ..., x_V]$ where $x_i \in N_0$

x_i: nonnegative integer count of the ith dictionary word

Generative model for emails

- 1. Flip a weighted coin (y)
- 2. If head (y=1, aka spam), generate an email $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, x_2, ..., x_V]$ from the spam distribution
- 3. If tail (y=0, non-spam), generate an email $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, x_2, ..., x_V]$ from the non-spam distribution

$$P(\mathbf{x}, y) = P(\mathbf{x}|y)P(y)$$

Classification with a generative model

- Generative model learns P(y) and P(x|y)
- Prediction is made by

$$P(y|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{P(\mathbf{x}|y)P(y)}{P(\mathbf{x})} = \frac{P(\mathbf{x}|y)P(y)}{\sum_{y} P(\mathbf{x}, y)}$$

 Often referred to as the Bayes Classifier due to using the Bayes rule

Estimating p(y) and p(x|y)

- P(y): prior distribution of y
 - P(y = 1): portion of spams
 - P(y = 0): portion of non-spams
- $P(\mathbf{x}|y)$: the distribution of \mathbf{x} given y
 - $P(\mathbf{x}|y=1)$: distribution of \mathbf{x} given y=1 (spam)
 - $P(\mathbf{x}|y=0)$: distribution of \mathbf{x} given y=0 (non-spam)
- Learning $P(\mathbf{x}|y=1)$ or $P(\mathbf{x}|y=0)$ is a (joint) density estimation problem

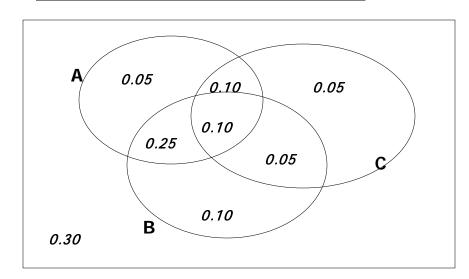
Joint Distribution of Boolean Variables

Recipe for making a joint distribution of M variables:

- 1. Make a table listing all value combinations of the variables (M Boolean variables $\Rightarrow 2^M$ rows).
- 2. For each value combination, say how probable it is.
- 3. Due to the axioms of probability, those numbers must sum to 1.

Example: Boolean variables A, B, C

Α	В	С	Prob
0	0	0	0.30
0	0	1	0.05
0	1	0	0.10
0	1	1	0.05
1	0	0	0.05
1	0	1	0.10
1	1	0	0.25
1	1	1	0.10



Learning a joint distribution

Build a JD table in which the probabilities are unspecified

A	В	С	Prob
0	0	0	?
0	0	1	?
0	1	0	?
0	1	1	?
1	0	0	?
1	0	1	?
1	1	0	?
1	1	1	?

The fill in each row with

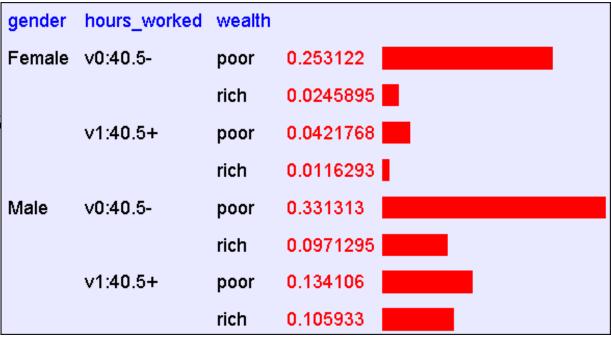
$$\hat{P}(\text{row}) = \frac{\text{examples matching row}}{\text{total number of examples}}$$

A	В	С	Prob
0	0	0	0.30
0	0	1	0.05
0	1	0	0.10
0	1	1	0.05
1	0	0	0.05
1	0	1	0.10
1	1	0	0.25
1	1	1	0.10

Fraction of all training examples in which A and B are True but C is False

Example of Learning a Joint

• This Joint was obtained by learning from three attributes in the UCI "Adult" Census Male Database [Kohavi 1995]



UCI machine learning repository: http://www.ics.uci.edu/~mlearn/MLRepository.html

A basic classifier

Given training data

- Learn P(y)
- Learn $P(\mathbf{x}|y=1)$, $P(\mathbf{x}|y=2)$, ..., $P(\mathbf{x}|y=k)$ each as a large joint distribution table
- Compute

$$P(y|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{P(\mathbf{x}|y)P(y)}{P(\mathbf{x})}$$

Predict with decision theory or use:

$$\operatorname{arg\,max}_{y} P(y|\mathbf{x})$$

Joint distribution overfits

- Let x be a d-dim binary vector, and $y \in \{1,2,...,k\}$
- Learning the joint distribution $P(\mathbf{x}|y=i)$ for i=1,...,k involves estimating $k \times (2^d-1)$ parameters
- For large *d*, this number is prohibitively large and we have not enough data to estimate them accurately
- A common situation: no training examples have the exact $\mathbf{x} = [u_1, ..., u_d]^T$ value combination
 - $-P(\mathbf{x}=[u_1,...,u_d]^T|y=i)=0$ for all values of i
 - Overfitting

Naïve Bayes Assumption

- Assume $p(x_1, x_2, ..., x_d | y) = p(x_1 | y)p(x_2 | y) ... p(x_d | y)$ i.e., the features are independent from one another given the class label
- Conditional independence: x is (conditionally) independent of y given z, if $\forall i, j, k \ P(x = i | y = j, z = k) = P(x = i | z = k)$

Or equivalently

$$\forall i, j, k \ P(x = i, y = j | z = k) = P(x = i | z = k)P(y = j | z = k)$$

Often denoted as

$$p(x|y,z) = p(x|z)$$
or
$$p(x,y|z) = p(x|z)p(y|z)$$

Example

```
p(thunder|raining, lightening)
= p(thunder|lightening)
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- Note that the events thunder and raining are not independent from one another
- However, once we observe lightening, they become independent
- They are conditionally independent given lightening

Conditional independence vs. independence

Conditional independence (x and y are conditionally independent given z):

$$p(x, y|z) = p(x|z)p(y|z)$$

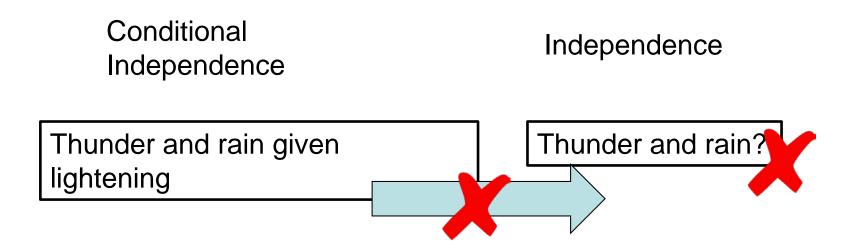
or equivalently: p(x|y,z) = p(x|z)

• Independence (x and y are independent):

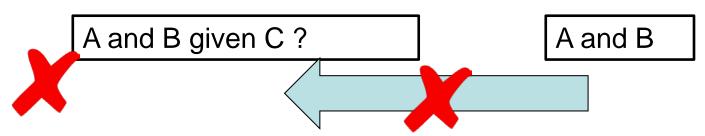
$$p(x,y) = p(x)(y)$$

or equivalently: p(x|y) = p(x)

Conditional independence ≠ Independence



Let A and B be two random variables representing rock paper scissor for two opponents, and C represents the outcome of the game



Naive Bayes Classifier

Given training data

- Learn P(y = j) for j = 1, ..., k
- Learn $P(x_i|y=j)$ for i=1,...,d and j=1,...,k
- Compute

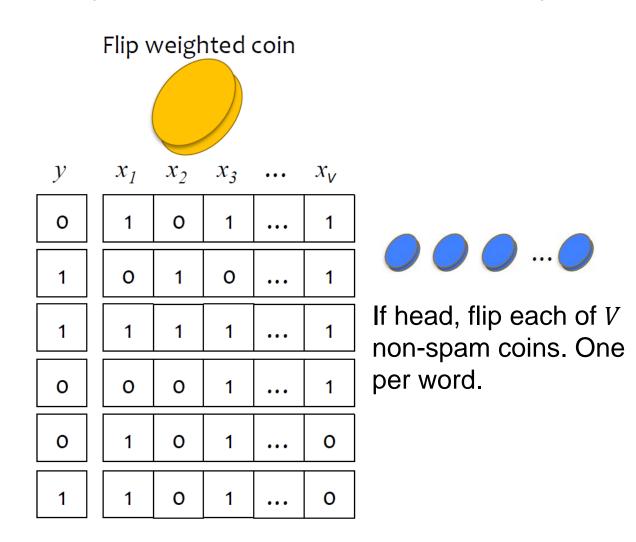
$$P(y|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{P(\mathbf{x}|y)P(y)}{P(\mathbf{x})} = \frac{\prod_{i} P(x_i|y)P(y)}{\sum_{j} \left(\prod_{i} P(x_i|y=j)P(y=j)\right)}$$

Predict with decision theory or use:

$$\operatorname{arg\,max}_{y} P(y|\mathbf{x})$$

of parameters? see concept warehouse question

Generative story for Bernoulli Naïve Bayes



We do not really generate emails this way --- but this is what we assume to be the process how emails are generated

If head, flip each of V

spam coins. One per

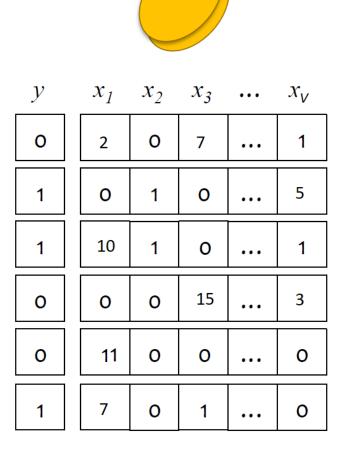
word.

Generative story for Multi-nomial Naïve Bayes

Flip weighted coin



If head, roll the spam die *M* times and record the count for each of the *V* sides





If head, roll the nonspam die *M* times and record the count for each of the *V* sides

We do not really generate emails this way --- but this is what we assume to be the process how emails are generated

Multinomial model vs Bernoulli model

The likelihood of observing one email E:

Bernoulli model: $x_i \in \{0,1\}$

$$P(\mathbf{x}|y) = \prod_{i=1}^{V} P(x_i|y)$$



Single occurrence is equivalent to Multiple occurrences

Multinomial model:

$$x_i \in N_0$$

$$P(\mathbf{x}|y) = p(y) \prod_{i=1}^{V} P(w_i|y)^{x_i}$$



Multiple occurrences make a difference. Allow us to take counts into consideration

MLE for Naïve Bayes with Bernoulli Model

For Spam Filter

Given a set of *N* training emails, MLE of the parameters are:

$$P(y=1) = \frac{N_1}{N}$$
, where N_1 is the number of spam emails

For each feature i, learn a Bernoulli model for each class:

$$P(x_i = 1 \mid y = 1) = \frac{N_{i|1}}{N_1},$$
 # of spam emails the i-th word appeared

i.e., the fraction of spam emails where x_i appeared

$$P(x_i = 1 \mid y = 0) = \frac{N_{i|0}}{N_0}$$
 # of non-spam emails the i-th word appeared

i.e., the fraction of the nonspam emails where x_i appeared

Total number of parameters for k classes? (k-1) + k * V

MLE for Naïve Bayes with Multinomial model

• MLE estimate for the *i*-th word in the dictionary:

$$p(w_i|y) = \frac{\text{total } \# \text{ of word } i \text{ in class } y \text{ emails}}{\text{total } \# \text{ of words in class } y \text{ emails}}$$

Total number of parameters?

$$-k(V-1)+(k-1)$$

Discrete and Continuous Features

- Naïve Bayes can be easily extended to handle features that are not binary-valued
- Discrete: $x_i \in \{1, 2, ..., k_i\}$
 - $P(x_i = j | y)$ for $j \in \{1, 2, ..., k_i\}$ categorical distribution in place of Bernoulli
- Continuous: $x_i \in R$
 - Learn a continuous distribution for each $p(x_i|y)$, e.g., Gaussian
 - Alternatively, we can discretize the feature, then build categorical distribution for each feature. When the feature does not follow Gaussian, this can result in a better classifier

Problem with MLE

- Suppose you picked up a new word "Mahalanobis" in your class and started using it in your email x
- Because "Mahalanobis" (the n+1 th word in the vocabulary) has never appeared in the training emails $P(x_{n+1}=1|y=1)=P(x_{n+1}=1|y=0)=0$
- Now $P(\mathbf{x}|y) = \prod_i P(x_i|y) = 0$ for both y = 0 and y = 1
- Given limited training data, MLE can results in prob. of 0 or 1 which are "too strong" and cause problems
- To solve this problem, we can use Maximum A Posterior (MAP) estimate

Bayesian Parameter Estimation

- Parameters are random variables
- Prior distribution captures our prior believe about the parameter before seeing any data
- When the observed data is sparse, we fall back to the prior and avoid the issues faced by MLE

Example: Bernoulli

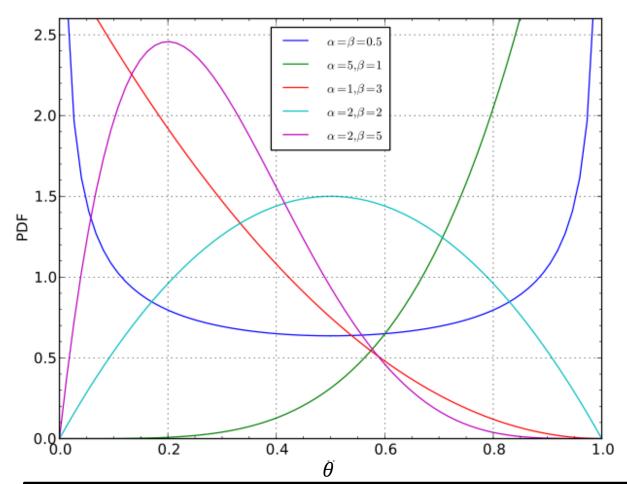
- Given a unfair coin, we want to estimate θ the probability of head
- We toss the coin n times, and observe n_1 heads
- MLE estimate: $\theta = \frac{n_1}{n}$
- Now assume that θ is a random variable and has a prior
- For reasons that will become clear later, we assume the following prior for θ :

$$\theta \sim Beta(\alpha, \beta)$$

$$p(\theta; \alpha, \beta) = \frac{1}{B(\alpha, \beta)} \theta^{\alpha - 1} (1 - \theta)^{\beta - 1}$$

Beta distribution

$$p(\theta; \alpha, \beta) = \frac{1}{B(\alpha, \beta)} \theta^{\alpha - 1} (1 - \theta)^{\beta - 1}$$



- $\alpha = \beta = 1$: uniform
- $\alpha, \beta < 1$: U-shape
- $\alpha, \beta > 1$: unimodel
- $\alpha = \beta$: symmetric
- Mode $(\alpha, \beta > 1)$: $\frac{\alpha 1}{\alpha + \beta 2}$

What parameter should you choose if you strongly believe your parameter is approximately 2/3?

Posterior distribution of θ

$$p(\theta|\mathbf{D}) = \frac{p(D|\theta)p(\theta)}{p(D)}$$

$$p(\theta|\mathbf{D}) \propto p(D|\theta)p(\theta)$$

$$p(\theta|\mathbf{D}) \propto \theta^{n_1}(1-\theta)^{n_0} \frac{1}{B(\alpha,\beta)} \theta^{\alpha-1}(1-\theta)^{\beta-1}$$

$$p(\theta|\mathbf{D}) \propto \frac{1}{B(\alpha,\beta)} \theta^{n_1+\alpha-1}(1-\theta)^{n_0+\beta-1}$$

$$p(\theta|\mathbf{D}) = \frac{1}{B(n_1+\alpha,n_0+\beta)} \theta^{n_1+\alpha-1}(1-\theta)^{n_0+\beta-1}$$

Noting that the posterior has exactly the same form as the prior. This is not a coincidence, it is due to careful selection of the prior distribution – **conjugate prior**

Maximum a-Posterior (MAP)

- A full Bayesian treatment will not care about estimating the parameters
- Instead, it will use the posterior distribution to make predictions for the target variable by marginalizing θ

$$p(y|\mathbf{x}) = \int p(y|\mathbf{x}, \theta)p(\theta|D)d\theta$$

- This can be computationally expensive or intractable
- Frequently, we use Maximum A Posterior estimation:

$$\theta_{map} = \arg\max_{\theta} p(\theta|D)$$

MAP for Bernoulli

$$p(\theta|D) = \frac{1}{B(n_1 + \alpha, n_0 + \beta)} \theta^{n_1 + \alpha - 1} (1 - \theta)^{n_0 + \beta - 1}$$

• Mode: the maximum point for Beta(a, b) (for a, b > 1) is

$$\frac{a-1}{a+b-2}$$

• In this case $a = n_1 + \alpha$, $b = n_0 + \beta$, we have:

$$\theta_{MAP} = \frac{n_1 + \alpha - 1}{n + \alpha + \beta - 2}$$

- Let $\alpha = 2$, $\beta = 2$, we have $\theta_{MAP} = \frac{n_1+1}{n+2}$
 - Comparing to MLE, it is like adding two fake coin tosses (one head, one tail) into the observed data – this is also called Laplace smoothing

MAP for Naïve Bayes Spam Filter

- When estimating $p(x_i|y=1)$ and $p(x_i|y=0)$
 - Bernoulli case:

$$P(x_i = 1 | y = 0) = \frac{N_{i|0}}{N_0}$$
 MLE

$$P(x_i = 1 \mid y = 0) = \frac{N_{i|0} + 1}{N_0 + 2}$$
 MAP $(\alpha = \beta = 2)$, or Laplace smoothing

 When encounter a new word not appeared in training set, now the probabilities do not go to zero

MAP estimation for Multi-nomial

- The conjugate prior for multinomial is called Dirichlet distribution
- For K outcomes, a Dirichlet distribution has K parameters, each serves a similar purpose as Beta distribution's parameters
 - Acting as fake observation(s) for the corresponding output, the count depends on the value of the parameter
- Laplace smoothing for this case:

$$P(z=k) = \frac{n_k + 1}{n + K}$$

Laplace Smoothing for Multi-nomial case

MLE:
$$p(w_i|y=1) = \frac{\text{total } \# \text{ of word } i \text{ in spam emails}}{\text{total } \# \text{ of words in spam emails}}$$

With Laplace smoothing:

$$p(w_i|y=1) = \frac{\text{total } \# \text{ of word } i \text{ in spam emails} + 1}{\text{total } \# \text{ of words in spam emails} + \nu}$$

where *V* is the size of the dictionary

Summary

- Generative classifier
 - learn P($\mathbf{x}|y$) and P(y)
 - Use Bayes rule to compute P(y|x) for classification
 - Predict with $\arg \max_{y} P(y|\mathbf{x})$ or use decision thoery
- Naïve Bayes assumes conditional independence between features given class labels
 - Greatly reduces the numbers of parameters to learn
- Bernoulli and Muti-nomial Naïve Bayes for text classification
- MAP estimation (or smoothing) is necessary to avoid overfitting and extreme probability values