



# Classification: Naive Bayes and Logistic Regression

Natural Language Processing: Jordan Boyd-Graber University of Colorado Boulder SEPTEMBER 17, 2014

Slides adapted from Hinrich Schütze and Lauren Hannah

## By the end of today ...

- You'll be able to frame many standard nlp tasks as classification problems
- Apply logistic regression (given weights) to classify data
- Learn naïve bayes from data

#### Outline

- 1 Classification
- 2 Logistic Regression
- 3 Logistic Regression Example
- Motivating Naïve Bayes Example
- Solution
  Naive Bayes Definition
- 6 Wrapup

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- A training set D of labeled documents with each labeled document  $d \in \mathbb{X} \times \mathbb{C}$

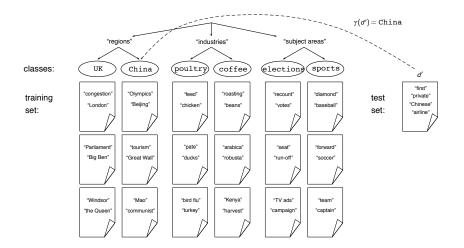
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Using a learning method or learning algorithm, we then wish to learn a classifier  $\gamma$  that maps documents to classes:

$$\gamma: \mathbb{X} \to \mathbb{C}$$

# **Topic classification**



# Examples of how search engines use classification

- Standing queries (e.g., Google Alerts)
- Language identification (classes: English vs. French etc.)
- The automatic detection of spam pages (spam vs. nonspam)
- The automatic detection of sexually explicit content (sexually explicit vs. not)
- Sentiment detection: is a movie or product review positive or negative (positive vs. negative)
- Topic-specific or vertical search restrict search to a "vertical" like "related to health" (relevant to vertical vs. not)

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#### Classification methods: 1. Manual

- Manual classification was used by Yahoo in the beginning of the web.
   Also: ODP, PubMed
- Very accurate if job is done by experts
- Consistent when the problem size and team is small
- Scaling manual classification is difficult and expensive.
- → We need automatic methods for classification.

#### Classification methods: 2. Rule-based

- There are "IDE" type development environments for writing very complex rules efficiently. (e.g., Verity)
- Often: Boolean combinations (as in Google Alerts)
- Accuracy is very high if a rule has been carefully refined over time by a subject expert.
- Building and maintaining rule-based classification systems is expensive.

#### Classification methods: 3. Statistical/Probabilistic

- As per our definition of the classification problem text classification as a learning problem
- Supervised learning of a the classification function  $\gamma$  and its application to classifying new documents
- We will look at a couple of methods for doing this: Naive Bayes, Logistic Regression, SVM, Decision Trees
- No free lunch: requires hand-classified training data
- But this manual classification can be done by non-experts.

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#### Generative vs. Discriminative Models

- Goal, given observation x, compute probability of label y, p(y|x)
- Naïve Bayes (later) uses Bayes rule to reverse conditioning
- What if we care about p(y|x)? We need a more general framework . . .

#### Generative vs. Discriminative Models

- Goal, given observation x, compute probability of label y, p(y|x)
- Naïve Bayes (later) uses Bayes rule to reverse conditioning
- What if we care about p(y|x)? We need a more general framework ...
- That framework is called logistic regression
  - Logistic: A special mathematical function it uses
  - Regression: Combines a weight vector with observations to create an answer
  - More general cookbook for building conditional probability distributions
- Naïve Bayes (later today) is a special case of logistic regression

# **Logistic Regression: Definition**

- Weight vector β<sub>i</sub>
- Observations X<sub>i</sub>
- "Bias"  $\beta_0$  (like intercept in linear regression)

$$P(Y=0|X) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp\left[\beta_0 + \sum_i \beta_i X_i\right]}$$
(1)

$$P(Y=1|X) = \frac{\exp\left[\beta_0 + \sum_i \beta_i X_i\right]}{1 + \exp\left[\beta_0 + \sum_i \beta_i X_i\right]}$$
(2)

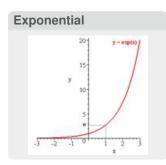
For shorthand, we'll say that

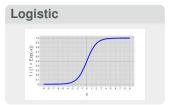
$$P(Y=0|X) = \sigma(-(\beta_0 + \sum_i \beta_i X_i))$$
 (3)

$$P(Y = 1|X) = 1 - \sigma(-(\beta_0 + \sum_i \beta_i X_i))$$
 (4)

• Where  $\sigma(z) = \frac{1}{1 + exp[-z]}$ 

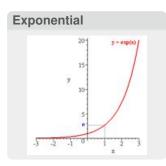
# What's this "exp"?

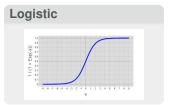




- $\exp[x]$  is shorthand for  $e^x$
- e is a special number, about 2.71828
  - e<sup>x</sup> is the limit of compound interest formula as compounds become infinitely small
  - o It's the function whose derivative is itself
- The "logistic" function is  $\sigma(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$
- Looks like an "S"
- Always between 0 and 1.

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- The "logistic" function is  $\sigma(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$
- Looks like an "S"
- Always between 0 and 1.
  - Allows us to model probabilities
  - Different from linear regression

#### Outline

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feature	coefficient	weight
bias	$eta_0$	0.1
"viagra"	$oldsymbol{eta}_1$	2.0
"mother"	$eta_2$	-1.0
"work"	$oldsymbol{eta_3}$	-0.5
"nigeria"	$eta_4$	3.0

• What does Y = 1 mean?

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# Example 1: Empty Document? X = {}

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# Example 1: Empty Document? $X = \{\}$ • $P(Y = 0) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp[0.1]} =$ • $P(Y = 1) = \frac{\exp[0.1]}{1 + \exp[0.1]} =$

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# **Example 1: Empty Document?**

$$X = \{\}$$

• 
$$P(Y=0) = \frac{1}{1+\exp[0.1]} = 0.48$$

• 
$$P(Y=1) = \frac{\exp[0.1]}{1+\exp[0.1]} = .52$$

• Bias  $eta_0$  encodes the prior probability of a class

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Example 2	
$X = \{Mother, Nigeria\}$	

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 $X = \{Mother, Nigeria\}$ 

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$$P(Y=0) = \frac{1}{1+exp[0.1-1.0+3.0]} =$$

• 
$$P(Y=1) = \frac{\exp[0.1-1.0+3.0]}{1+\exp[0.1-1.0+3.0]} =$$

Include bias, and sum the other weights

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 $X = \{Mother, Nigeria\}$ 

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Example 3  $X = \{Mother, Work, Viagra, Mother\}$ 

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# Example 3

 $X = \{Mother, Work, Viagra, Mother\}$ 

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$$P(Y=0) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp[0.1 - 1.0 - 0.5 + 2.0 - 1.0]} =$$

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# Example 3

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• 
$$P(Y=0) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp[0.1 - 1.0 - 0.5 + 2.0 - 1.0]} = 0.60$$

• 
$$P(Y=1) = \frac{\exp[0.1-1.0-0.5+2.0-1.0]}{1+\exp[0.1-1.0-0.5+2.0-1.0]} = 0.30$$

Multiply feature presence by weight

# **How is Logistic Regression Used?**

- Given a set of weights  $\vec{\beta}$ , we know how to compute the conditional likelihood  $P(y|\beta,x)$
- Find the set of weights  $\vec{\beta}$  that maximize the conditional likelihood on training data (where y is known)
- A subset of a more general class of methods called "maximum entropy" models (next week)
- Intuition: higher weights mean that this feature implies that this feature is a good this is the class you want for this observation

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- Naïve Bayes is a special case of logistic regression that uses Bayes rule and conditional probabilities to set these weights

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#### A Classification Problem

- Suppose that I have two coins, C<sub>1</sub> and C<sub>2</sub>
- Now suppose I pull a coin out of my pocket, flip it a bunch of times, record the coin and outcomes, and repeat many times:

```
C1: 0 1 1 1 1 C1: 1 1 0 C1: 1 1 0 C2: 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 C1: 0 1 C1: 1 1 0 1 1 1 C2: 0 0 1 1 0 1 C2: 1 0 0 0
```

Now suppose I am given a new sequence, 0 0 1; which coin is it from?

#### A Classification Problem

This problem has particular challenges:

- different numbers of covariates for each observation
- number of covariates can be large

However, there is some structure:

- Easy to get  $P(C_1)$ ,  $P(C_2)$
- Also easy to get  $P(X_i = 1 \mid C_1)$  and  $P(X_i = 1 \mid C_2)$
- By conditional independence,

$$P(X = 0 10 | C_1) = P(X_1 = 0 | C_1)P(X_2 = 1 | C_1)P(X_2 = 0 | C_1)$$

• Can we use these to get  $P(C_1|X=001)$ ?

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- Also easy to get  $P(X_i = 1 \mid C_1) = 12/16$  and  $P(X_i = 1 \mid C_2) = 6/18$
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• Can we use these to get  $P(C_1 | X = 001)$ ?

#### A Classification Problem

Summary: have P(data|class), want P(class|data)

Solution: Bayes' rule!

$$P(class | data) = \frac{P(data | class)P(class)}{P(data)}$$

$$= \frac{P(data | class)P(class)}{\sum_{class=1}^{C} P(data | class)P(class)}$$

To compute, we need to estimate P(data|class), P(class) for all classes

This works because the coin flips are independent given the coin parameter. What about this case:

- want to identify the type of fruit given a set of features: color, shape and size
- color: red, green, yellow or orange (discrete)
- shape: round, oval or long+skinny (discrete)
- size: diameter in inches (continuous)



Conditioned on type of fruit, these features are not necessarily independent:



Given category "apple," the color "green" has a higher probability given "size < 2":

P(green | size < 2, apple) > P(green | apple)

Using chain rule,

$$P(apple | green, round, size = 2)$$

$$= \frac{P(green, round, size = 2 | apple)P(apple)}{\sum_{fruits}P(green, round, size = 2 | fruitj)P(fruitj)}$$

$$\propto P(green | round, size = 2, apple)P(round | size = 2, apple)$$

$$\times P(size = 2 | apple)P(apple)$$

But computing conditional probabilities is hard! There are many combinations of (*color*, *shape*, *size*) for each fruit.

Idea: assume conditional independence for all features given class,

$$P(green | round, size = 2, apple) = P(green | apple)$$

$$P(round | green, size = 2, apple) = P(round | apple)$$

$$P(size = 2 | green, round, apple) = P(size = 2 | apple)$$

#### Outline

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- **Naive Bayes Definition**

#### The Naive Bayes classifier

- The Naive Bayes classifier is a probabilistic classifier.
- We compute the probability of a document d being in a class c as follows:

$$P(c|d) \propto P(c) \prod_{1 \leq i \leq \eta_d} P(w_i|c)$$

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## The Naive Bayes classifier

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$$P(c|d) \propto P(c) \prod_{1 \leq i \leq n_d} P(w_i|c)$$

- n<sub>d</sub> is the length of the document. (number of tokens)
- $P(w_i|c)$  is the conditional probability of term  $w_i$  occurring in a document of class c
- $P(w_i|c)$  as a measure of how much evidence  $w_i$  contributes that c is the correct class.
- P(c) is the prior probability of c.
- If a document's terms do not provide clear evidence for one class vs. another, we choose the c with higher P(c).

# Maximum a posteriori class

- Our goal is to find the "best" class.
- The best class in Naive Bayes classification is the most likely or maximum a posteriori (MAP) class c map:

$$c_{\mathsf{map}} = \arg\max_{c_j \in \mathbb{C}} \hat{P}(c_j|d) = \arg\max_{c_j \in \mathbb{C}} \hat{P}(c_j) \prod_{1 \leq i \leq n_d} \hat{P}(w_i|c_j)$$

• We write  $\hat{P}$  for P since these values are *estimates* from the training set.

# Why conditional independence?

- estimating multivariate functions (like  $P(X_1,...,X_m|Y)$ ) is mathematically hard, while estimating univariate ones is easier (like  $P(X_i|Y)$ )
- need less data to fit univariate functions well
- univariate estimators differ much less than multivariate estimator (low variance)
- ... but they may end up finding the wrong values (more bias)

#### Naïve Bayes conditional independence assumption

To reduce the number of parameters to a manageable size, recall the *Naive Bayes conditional independence assumption*:

$$P(d|c_j) = P(\langle w_1, \ldots, w_{n_d} \rangle | c_j) = \prod_{1 \leq i \leq n_d} P(X_i = w_i | c_j)$$

We assume that the probability of observing the conjunction of attributes is equal to the product of the individual probabilities  $P(X_i = w_i | c_i)$ .

Our estimates for these priors and conditional probabilities:  $\hat{P}(c_j) = \frac{N_c + 1}{N + |C|}$ 

and 
$$\hat{P}(w|c) = \frac{T_{cw}+1}{(\sum_{w'\in V} T_{cw'})+|V|}$$

## Implementation Detail: Taking the log

- Multiplying lots of small probabilities can result in floating point underflow.
- From last time lg is logarithm base 2; ln is logarithm base e.

$$\lg x = a \Leftrightarrow 2^a = x \qquad \ln x = a \Leftrightarrow e^a = x \tag{5}$$

- Since ln(xy) = ln(x) + ln(y), we can sum log probabilities instead of multiplying probabilities.
- Since In is a monotonic function, the class with the highest score does not change.
- So what we usually compute in practice is:

$$c_{\text{map}} = \arg \max_{c_j \in \mathbb{C}} \left[ \hat{P}(c_j) \prod_{1 \leq i \leq n_d} \hat{P}(w_i | c_j) \right]$$
$$\arg \max_{c_j \in \mathbb{C}} \left[ \ln \hat{P}(c_j) + \sum_{1 \leq i \leq n_d} \ln \hat{P}(w_i | c_j) \right]$$

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# **Equivalence of Naïve Bayes and Logistic Regression**

Consider Naïve Bayes and logistic regression with two classes: (+) and (-).

# Naïve Bayes

$$\hat{P}(c_+)\prod_i\hat{P}(w_i|c_+)$$
 $\hat{P}(c_-)\prod_i\hat{P}(w_i|c_-)$ 

# **Logistic Regression**

$$\sigma\left(-\beta_0 - \sum_i \beta_i X_i\right) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp\left(\beta_0 + \sum_i \beta_i X_i\right)}$$

$$1 - \sigma\left(-\beta_0 - \sum_i \beta_i X_i\right) = \frac{\exp\left(\beta_0 + \sum_i \beta_i X_i\right)}{1 + \exp\left(\beta_0 + \sum_i \beta_i X_i\right)}$$

These are actually the same if

$$w_0 = \sigma\left(\ln\left(\frac{\rho(c_+)}{1-\rho(c_+)}\right) + \sum_j \ln\left(\frac{1-P(w_j|c_+)}{1-P(w_j|c_-)}\right)\right)$$

• and  $w_j = \ln \left( \frac{P(w_j|c_+)(1-P(w_j|c_-))}{P(w_j|c_-)(1-P(w_j|c_+))} \right)$ 

## Contrasting Naïve Bayes and Logistic Regression

- Naïve Bayes easier
- Naïve Bayes better on smaller datasets
- Logistic regression better on medium-sized datasets
- On huge datasets, it doesn't really matter (data always win)
  - Optional reading by Ng and Jordan has proofs and experiments
- Logistic regression allows arbitrary features (biggest difference!)

## Contrasting Naïve Bayes and Logistic Regression

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- On huge datasets, it doesn't really matter (data always win)
  - Optional reading by Ng and Jordan has proofs and experiments
- Logistic regression allows arbitrary features (biggest difference!)
- Don't need to memorize (or work through) previous slide—just understand that naïve Bayes is a special case of logistic regression

#### Wrapup

#### Next time ...

- Maximum Entropy: Mathematical foundations to logistic regression
- How to learn the best setting of weights
- Extracting features from words