CSC411: Assignment #3

Due on Monday, March 19, 2018

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Environment

Parts 1-6 were created with Python 2.7.14 with numpy 1.14.0, scipy 1.0.0, scikit-image 0.13.1, and matplotlib 2.1.1, as well as all associated dependencies.

The headline dataset consists of two distinct parts: a set of "real" headlines and a set of "fake" headlines. There are 1968 real headlines, averaging 8.33 words per headline and 5.29 characters per word, and 1298 fake headlines, averaging 12.15 words per headline and 4.98 characters per word. Note that fake headlines seem to be longer but use smaller words, suggesting a difference in the language used in both sets. This gives credence to the feasibility of classifying a headline as fake or not based on the words used. Of course, just a headline is not very much information to go on, so it is likely that the accuracy will not be phenomenal.

Some words that might prove useful in identifying a certain headline as fake or not are "says" (178 occurrences in the real data set vs 47 occurrences in the fake data set), "donald" (829 vs 228), and "hillary" (24 vs 159). The code used to obtain these words is given in the submitted code.

To implement a Naive Bayes classifier, the ratio of the probability of a certain headline being fake to the ratio of it being real was examined when attempting to classify the headline:

$$\frac{P(y=c \mid x_1, x_2, ..., x_p)}{P(y=c' \mid x_1, x_2, ..., x_p)} = \frac{P(y=c)) \prod_{i=1}^p P(x_i \mid y=c)}{P(y=c') \prod_{i=1}^p P(x_i \mid y=c')}$$

The above equation involves the product of several thousand different probabilities, many quite small. To prevent the issue of arithmetic underflow, the log of this probability ratio was used instead:

$$\log \frac{P(y=c \mid x_1, x_2, ..., x_p)}{P(y=c' \mid x_1, x_2, ..., x_p)} = \log \frac{P(y=c)}{P(y=c')} + \sum_{i=1}^p \log \frac{P(x_i \mid y=c)}{P(x_i \mid y=c')}$$

as suggested in the handout. In this new formulation, a value greater than 0 denotes fake news. From this point, standard Naive Bayes was used to determine the probabilities.

To tune the prior m and \hat{p} , a basic gradient descent was performed on the validation set with initial values $\hat{p} = 0.5$ and m = 10. A secant approximation with small step size was used to approximate the gradient at each point. This resulted in small but consistent performance improvements of about 2 to 4 percent on the validation and testing set, but a loss in performance on the training set of about 1 to 3 percent. This suggests that this method is working properly to prevent over-fitting. The final accuracy achieved on the training and test sets was 0.9528 and 0.8408, respectively.

3 (a)

To find the words that maximizes the probability that a given text is real or fake given the presence or absence of it, Bayes' rule can be applied:

$$\arg\max_{i} P(y = c \mid x_{i} = a) = \arg\max_{i} \frac{P(x_{i} = a \mid y = c)P(y = c)}{P(x_{i} = a)}$$

where a is either 0 or 1, depending on whether the presence or absence is desired. Unfortunately, the true value of $P(x_i = a)$ is not known very well and may often be 0 if only the dataset is used to determine it, so this formula cannot be applied as is. However, considering that only the ordering of the probabilities $P(y = c \mid x_i)$ is needed to find the maximum and knowing that $P(y = c' \mid x_i = a) = 1 - P(y = c \mid x_i = a)$, the maximizing x_i can also be found as

$$\arg \max_{i} P(y = c \mid x_{i} = a) = \arg \max_{i} \frac{P(y = c \mid x_{i} = a)}{P(y = c' \mid x_{i} = a)}$$

$$= \arg \max_{i} \frac{P(x_{i} = a \mid y = c)P(y = c)}{P(x_{i} = a \mid y = c')P(y = c')}$$

$$= \arg \max_{i} \frac{P(x_{i} = a \mid y = c)}{P(x_{i} = a \mid y = c')}$$

$$= \arg \max_{i} \log(\frac{P(x_{i} = a \mid y = c)}{P(x_{i} = a \mid y = c')})$$

where the log was added to assist in interpreting the value. If $\log(\cdots)$ is greater than zero, it means that $x_i = a$ predicts that the text has the label c and vice versa. Larger magnitudes indicate a greater probability. The top ten words and associated log probability ratios are shown in table 1. Note that the strength of the presence of a word in determining whether a headline is real or fake is significantly larger than the strength of its absence. This makes intuitive sense since a typical headline will not contain the majority of the words, regardless of it being fake or real.

3 (b)

The top ten words, excluding stop words, and associated log probability ratios are shown in table 2.

ban	4.8711	trump	1.6880	breaking	4.6573	donald	0.3265
korea	4.7235	the	0.2619	3	4.4378	trumps	0.1204
travel	4.5503	hillary	0.1040	won	4.2343	us	0.0950
$\operatorname{turnbull}$	4.3693	a	0.0906	soros	4.2343	says	0.0507
australia	4.1123	in	0.0869	u	4.0712	ban	0.0425
tax	3.7654	to	0.0843	woman	4.0712	north	0.0391
paris	3.6560	and	0.0787	because	4.0712	korea	0.0365
james	3.5331	is	0.0742	homeless	4.0712	travel	0.0305
trumps	3.4768	clinton	0.0735	liberty	3.9785	$\operatorname{turnbull}$	0.0254
debate	3.4654	for	0.0592	reason	3.9785	australia	0.0195

⁽a) Presence suggests real. (b) Absence suggests real. (c) Presence suggests fake. (d) Absence suggests fake.

Table 1: Words most likely to denote a headline as real or fake based on its presence or absence with associated importance.

ban	4.8711	trump	1.6880	breaking	4.6573	donald	0.3265
korea	4.7235	hillary	0.1040	3	4.4378	trumps	0.1204
travel	4.5503	clinton	0.0735	won	4.2343	says	0.0507
turnbull	4.3693	$_{ m just}$	0.0532	soros	4.2343	ban	0.0425
australia	4.1123	america	0.0392	\mathbf{u}	4.0712	north	0.0391
tax	3.7654	watch	0.0287	woman	4.0712	korea	0.0365
paris	3.6560	voter	0.0279	homeless	4.0712	travel	0.0305
james	3.5331	new	0.0265	liberty	3.9785	turnbull	0.0254
trumps	3.4768	victory	0.0257	reason	3.9785	australia	0.0195
debate	3.4654	voting	0.0249	7	3.8763	house	0.0188

⁽a) Presence suggests real. (b) Absence suggests real. (c) Presence suggests fake. (d) Absence suggests fake.

Table 2: Words most likely to denote a headline as real or fake based on its presence or absence with associated importance, excluding stop words.

3 (c)

Stop words are present in all written works and normally do not carry with them any particular viewpoint or biases. Additionally, since there is a large number of them and since they are relatively common, slight differences in their prevalence in the trained data set may be exploited, potentially overfitting the data.

From a different perspective, if there is a consistent difference in how stop words are used in real and fake headlines, then excluding these words causes a loss in information. Consider the difference in words present in tables 1b and 2b. Almost all of the words in the original list are stop words and are not present in the second. This confirms an earlier observation made in part 1: fake headlines seem to use more but shorter words, suggesting a greater prevalence of linking words.

A linear regression model was trained on the dataset using L2-regularization. The learning curve with cross-entropy loss is shown in fig. 1, achieving a final accuracy of 0.8143 on the training set. The regularization term was selected by minimizing the validation error at the end of training using the minimize_scalar function provided in scipy.optimize with the Brent algorithm. The resulted in the selection of an regularization weight of 0.000061.

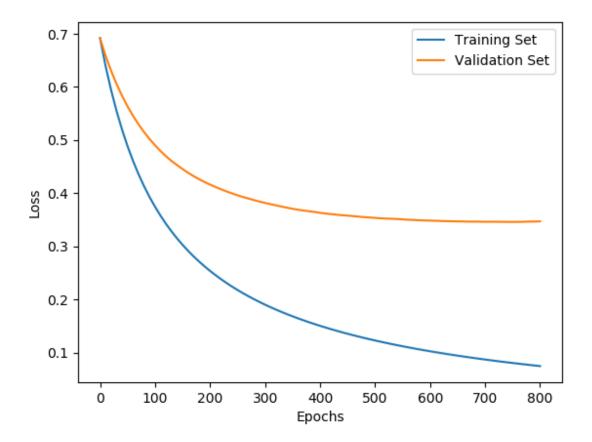


Figure 1: Normalized loss for the training and validation sets for 800 epochs with a regularization term of 0.000061

In both formulations, $I_i(x)$ denotes the selector function, choosing the *i*-th variable of the input vector x. In the case of logistic regression, θ_i are the parameters being directly optimized by the optimization procedure. For Naive Bayes, their meaning can be found by continuing the derivation started in part 2:

$$\log \frac{P(y=c \mid x_{1}, x_{2}, ..., x_{p})}{P(y=c' \mid x_{1}, x_{2}, ..., x_{p})} = \log \frac{P(y=c)}{P(y=c')} + \sum_{i=1}^{p} \log \frac{P(x_{i} \mid y=c)}{P(x_{i} \mid y=c')}$$

$$= \log \frac{P(y=c)}{P(y=c')} + \sum_{i=1}^{p} (\log \frac{P(x_{i}=1 \mid y=c)}{P(x_{i}=1 \mid y=c')} x_{i} + \log \frac{P(x_{i}=0 \mid y=c)}{P(x_{i}=0 \mid y=c')} (1-x_{i}))$$

$$= (\log \frac{P(y=c)}{P(y=c')} + \sum_{i=1}^{p} \log \frac{P(x_{i}=0 \mid y=c)}{P(x_{i}=0 \mid y=c')}) + \sum_{i=1}^{p} (\log \frac{P(x_{i}=1 \mid y=c)}{P(x_{i}=1 \mid y=c)} - \log \frac{P(x_{i}=0 \mid y=c)}{P(x_{i}=0 \mid y=c')}) x_{i}$$

$$= \theta_{0} + \sum_{i=1}^{p} \theta_{i} x_{i}$$

which is the form desired. Compare this with with the formulation obtained in part 3. Hence, in the case of Naive Bayes θ_i represents the combination of the impact of the presence as well as the negation of the impact of its absence, normally present in the constant bias term.

For both logistic regression and naive bayes, the threshold is zero.

6 (a)

Compared with table 1, the resulting parameters share only a couple of the same words, and not in the same order. These similarities suggest that both are generally looking for the same features to classify The larger differences are to be expected, however, since the parameters do not map directly to any of the probabilities in part 3. Instead, they in some sense represent the combination of both the presence of the words negation of its absence (normally accounted for in the constant bias). From a purely subjective perspective however, the words in each list match the same tone as those from before; more neutral, "reportive" words seem to suggest that a headline is real, while more emotional, aggressive, and idealistic terms are associated with it being fake.

6 (b)

As before, there is only slight similarity between tables 2 and 4. However, the removal of stop words seems to have resulted in less of a change in the words selected by logistic regression. This may be the result of the combination of both the presence and negating the absence, as mentioned before - stop words may not be very useful for actually predicting a headline as real or fake and could represent overfitting.

6 (c)

This is probably not a good idea in general since the relationship between the magnitude of the different inputs may not be well known. For example, if the input is not normalized and two variables, having different magnitudes, each contribute about the same to determining the class of an input, then the variable with the larger value will necessarily have a smaller associated parameter. By only considering the largest parameters then, a skewed and potentially incorrect view on what is most important for classification may be developed. Even if the data is normalized, the means of the different variables may still vary. In this specific case however, the input is a binary signal. Thus, each parameter can be interpreted in the same context and thus comparing by magnitude is valid.

vandalised	-1.2439	information	1.3171
share	-1.2043	won	1.3162
business	-1.2039	go	1.3132
debate	-1.1903	alt	1.2981
trumps	-1.1848	erase	1.2293
australia	-1.1791	artificial	1.2283
keating	-1.1749	reset	1.2230
affect	-1.1667	breaking	1.1966
$_{ m speaks}$	-1.1633	autistic	1.1911
love	-1.1324	entire	1.1858
(a) Presence	suggests real.	(b) Presence su	iggests fake.

Table 3: Words with largest and smallest associated parameters, signifying fake or real respectively.

vandalised	-1.2439	information	1.3171
share	-1.2043	won	1.3162
business	-1.2039	alt	1.2981
debate	-1.1903	erase	1.2293
trumps	-1.1848	artificial	1.2283
australia	-1.1791	reset	1.2230
keating	-1.1749	breaking	1.1966
affect	-1.1667	autistic	1.1911
$_{ m speaks}$	-1.1633	entire	1.1858
love	-1.1324	display	1.1806

(a) Presence suggests real.

(b) Presence suggests fake.

Table 4: Words, excluding stop words, with largest and smallest associated parameters, signifying fake or real respectively.

7 (a)

A decision tree was trained on the data set with parameters max_depth = 100, max_features = 1000, criterion = 'gini', splitter = 'best', min_samples_leaf = 1, and min_samples_split = 5. This achieved a final accuracy of 75.91% on the testing set. A plot of the accuracy on the training and validation set versus the selection of the max_depth is shown in fig. 2.

The parameters above were selected by performing a grid search on the a predetermined set of reasonable values. The combinations of parameters that produced the largest accuracy on the validation set was selected as the best settings and saved.

7 (b)

The first two layers of the decision tree are shown in fig. 3. The words present as upper level determination boundaries in this decision tree seem to share somewhat more in common with the words identified from naive bayes rather than logistic regression. Additionally, there are several unique words in these upper layers that do not appear in either previous set. These new words primarily seem to be classifying only a few words at a time; the words that separate the set into two large parts seem to generally overlap with those found previously.

7 (c)

The performance of each different classifier is summarised in table 5.

The best performance outside of the training set was seen in the Naive Bayes model, beating the logistic regression model by about a percentage point. On the training set meanwhile, the best performance was achieved by the logistic regression model, achieving nearly perfect accuracy. This discrepancy suggests greater overfitting in the logistic model than the Naive Bayes model.

The worst performance on the validation and testing sets was observed with the decision tree model. The worst performance in the training set was observed with the Naive Bayes model; however, this is likely the result of tuning the prior to maximize validation accuracy as opposed to training set accuracy.

That decision tree model achieved the worst accuracy on the validation set and testing set despite very high accuracy on the training set suggests that this model overfit the data presented the most out of the three models. Additionally, the drop in accuracy from the validation set to the testing set suggests that there was some overfitting in the selection of hyper parameters. This matches what was observed - most values of the hyper parameters produced similar accuracy hence the difference in accuracy was likely due in part due to random chance in the data set.

Table 5: Summary of the accuracy of the three different tested classification model on the training, validation, and testing set.

	Naive Bayes	Logistic Regression	Decision Tree
Training	0.9528	0.9947	0.9856
Validation	0.8490	0.8327	0.8000
Testing	0.8408	0.8327	0.7591

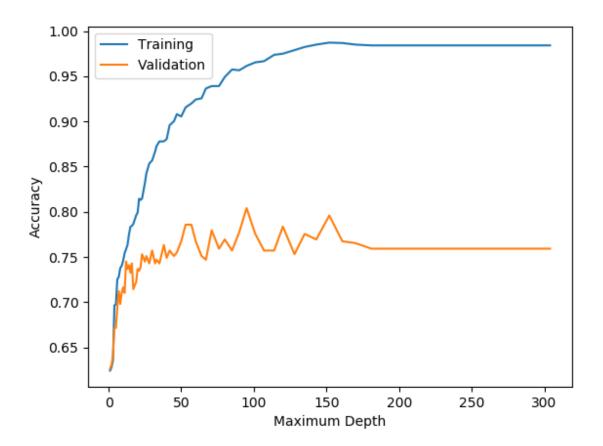


Figure 2: Accuracy on the training and validation set versus the maximum depth of the decision tree.

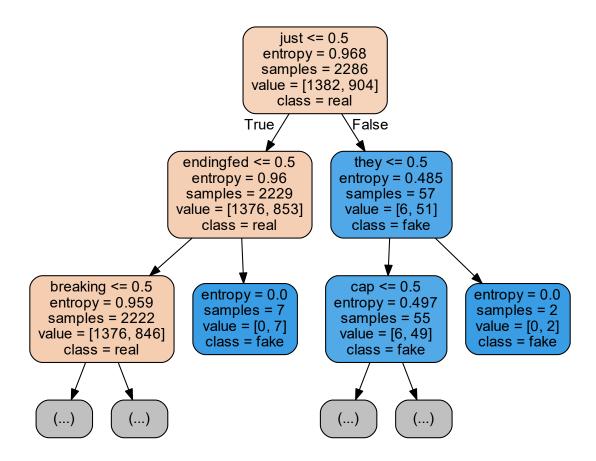


Figure 3: First two layers of the decision tree.