# Foundations of Machine Learning CentraleSupélec — Fall 2016

# 4. Bayesian decision theory

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#### Practical matters...

- Class representatives
  - Abdelhak Lemkhenter
  - Nathan Vermeesch
- Lecture handouts

#### Learning objectives

After this lecture, you should be able to

- Apply Bayes rule for simple inference and decision problems;
- Explain the connection between Bayes decision rule, empirical risk minimization, maximum a priori and maximum likelihood;
- Use a graph to express conditional independence among random variables;
- Apply the Naive Bayes algorithm.

# Let's start by tossing coins...

- Result of tossing a coin: x in {heads, tails}
  - -x = f(z) z: unobserved variables
  - Replace f(z) (maybe deterministic but unknown) with the random variable X in {0, 1} drawn from a probability distribution P(X=x).

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  - Replace f(z) (maybe deterministic but unknown) with the random variable X in {0, 1} drawn from a probability distribution P(X=x).
- What's a good model for the probability distribution P?

E.g: a complex physical function of the composition of the coin, the force that is applied to it, initial conditions, etc.

- Result of tossing a coin: x in {heads, tails}
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  - Replace f(z) (maybe deterministic but unknown) with the random variable X in {0, 1} drawn from a probability distribution P(X=x).
- Bernouilli distribution

$$P(X = x) = p_0^{x} (1 - p_0)^{(1-x)}$$

- We do not know P but a sample  $X = \{x^i\}_{i=1, ..., n}$
- Goal: approximate P (from which X is drawn)

How can we achieve this?

- Result of tossing a coin: x in {heads, tails}
  - -x = f(z) z: unobserved variables
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- We do not know P but a sample  $X = \{x^i\}_{i=1, ..., n}$
- Goal: approximate P (from which X is drawn)

$$p_0$$
 = # heads / # tosses

What's the prediction rule for a new toss?

- Result of tossing a coin: x in {heads, tails}
  - -x = f(z) z: unobserved variables
  - Replace f(z) (maybe deterministic but unknown) with the random variable X in {0, 1} drawn from a probability distribution P(X=x).
- Bernouilli distribution

$$P(X = x) = p_0^{x} (1 - p_0)^{(1-x)}$$

- We do not know P but a sample  $X = \{x^i\}_{i=1, ..., n}$
- Goal: approximate P (from which X is drawn)

$$p_0 = \# heads / \# tosses$$

Prediction of next toss:

heads if  $p_0 > 0.5$ , tails otherwise

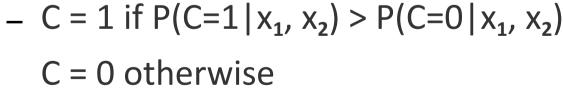
#### Classification

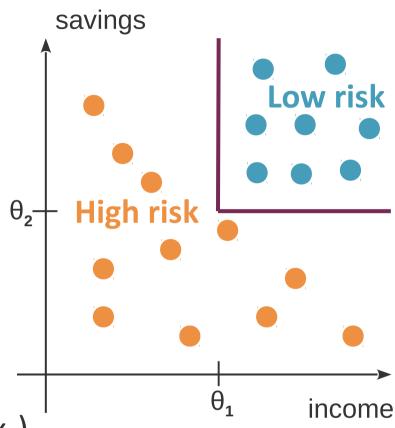
#### • Credit scoring:

- Input = income  $(x_1)$ , savings  $(x_2)$
- Output = {low-risk, high-risk}

#### • Prediction:

- C = 1 if  $P(C=1|x_1, x_2) > 0.5$  C = 0 otherwise or





# **Bayes rule**

# **Reverend Thomas Bayes**

170?-1761



... possibly

### **Bayes rule**

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B)}$$

- test is correct 99% of the time
- disease prevalence = 1 out of 10,000

What is the probability that a patient that tested positive actually has the disease?

99%?

90%?

10%? 1%?

- test is correct 99% of the time
- disease prevalence = 1 out of 10,000

What is the probability that a patient that tested positive actually has the disease?

$$P(d|t) = \frac{P(d)P(t|d)}{P(t)}$$

- test is correct 99% of the time  $P(t|d) = P(\bar{t}|\bar{d}) = 0.99$
- disease prevalence = 1 out of 10,000  $P(d) = 10^{-4}$

# What is the probability that a patient that tested positive actually has the disease?

$$P(d|t) = \frac{P(d)P(t|d)}{P(t)}$$

- test is correct 99% of the time  $P(t|d)=P(\bar{t}|\bar{d})=0.99$  disease prevalence = 1 out of 10,000  $P(d)=10^{-4}$

#### What is the probability that a patient that tested positive actually has the disease?

$$P(d|t) = \frac{P(d)P(t|d)}{P(t)}$$

$$P(t) = P(t|d)P(d) + P(t|\bar{d})P(\bar{d})$$
0.99 0.0001

- test is correct 99% of the time  $P(t|d)=P(\bar{t}|\bar{d})=0.99$  disease prevalence = 1 out of 10,000  $P(d)=10^{-4}$

#### What is the probability that a patient that tested positive actually has the disease?

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$$0.99 \quad 0.0001 \quad (1-0.0001)$$

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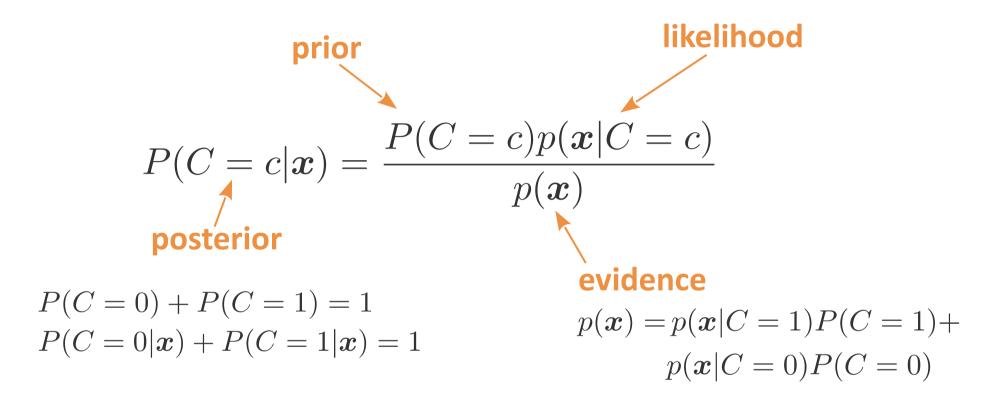
#### What is the probability that a patient that tested positive actually has the disease?

$$P(d|t) = \frac{P(d)P(t|d)}{P(t)} \approx 0.0098.$$

$$P(t) = P(t|d)P(d) + P(t|\bar{d})P(\bar{d})$$

$$0.99 \quad 0.0001 \quad (1-0.0001)$$

# **Bayes rule**



#### **Bayes' decision rule:**

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

#### **Maximum A Posteriori criterion**

#### MAP decision rule:

- pick the hypothesis that is most probable
- i.e. maximize the posterior

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

$$\Lambda_{\text{MAP}}(\boldsymbol{x}) = \frac{P(C=1|\boldsymbol{x})}{P(C=0|\boldsymbol{x})}$$

#### • Decision rule:

If 
$$\Lambda_{MAP}(\mathbf{x}) > 1$$

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

# Likelihood ratio test (LRT)

$$\Lambda_{\text{MAP}}(\boldsymbol{x}) = \frac{P(C=1|\boldsymbol{x})}{P(C=0|\boldsymbol{x})} \qquad \Lambda_{\text{MAP}}(\boldsymbol{x}) > 1 \qquad P(C|\boldsymbol{x}) = \frac{P(C)p(\boldsymbol{x}|C)}{p(\boldsymbol{x})}$$

$$\Lambda_{\text{MAP}}(\boldsymbol{x}) = \frac{P(C=1)p(\boldsymbol{x}|C=1)p(\boldsymbol{x})}{P(C=0)p(\boldsymbol{x}|C=0)p(\boldsymbol{x})}$$

p(x) does not affect the decision rule.

#### Likelihood ratio test:

test whether the likelihood ratio  $\Lambda(\mathbf{x})$  is larger than  $\frac{P(C=0)}{P(C=1)}$ 

$$\Lambda(\boldsymbol{x}) = \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}|C=1)}{p(\boldsymbol{x}|C=0)}$$

#### decision rule:

$$\Lambda(\boldsymbol{x}) > \frac{P(C=0)}{P(C=1)}$$

### **Example: LRT decision rule**

$$\Lambda(x) = \frac{p(x|C=1)}{p(x|C=0)} > \frac{P(C=0)}{P(C=1)}$$

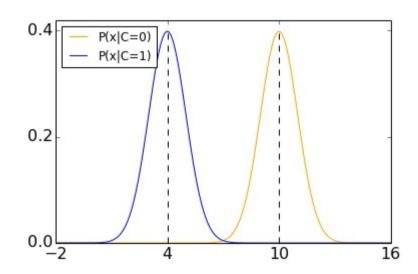
# Assuming the likelihoods below <u>and equal priors</u>, derive a decision rule based on the LRT.

$$p(x|C=1) \sim \mathcal{N}(4,1)$$

$$p(x|C=0) \sim \mathcal{N}(10,1)$$

$$Z \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2) :$$

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-(z-\mu)^2/(2\sigma^2)}$$



Likelihood ratio:

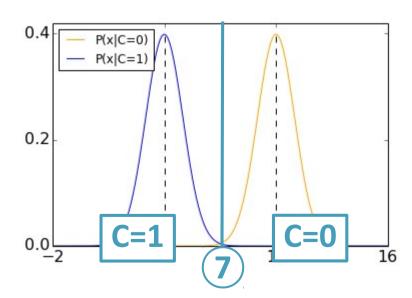
$$\Lambda(x) = \frac{(1/\sqrt{2\pi})e^{-(x-4)^2/2}}{(1/\sqrt{2\pi})e^{-(x-10)^2/2}}$$

Simplifying the equation and taking the log:

$$\log(\Lambda(x)) = -(x-4)^2 + (x-10)^2$$

Equal priors mean we're testing whether log(LR) > 0

Hence: If x < 7 then assign C=1 else assign C=0



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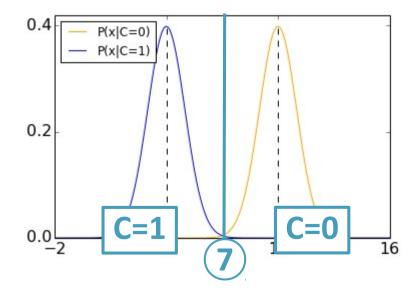
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How does the rule change if P(C=1) = 2 P(C=0)?



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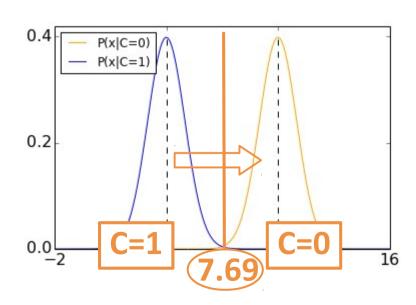
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Hence: If x < 7 then assign C=1 else assign C=0

How does the rule change if P(C=1) = 2 P(C=0)?

$$x < 7 - \log(1/2) \approx 7.69$$

C=1 is more likely.



### Bayes rule for K > 2

Bayes rule:

$$P(C_k|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{x}|C_k)P(C_k)}{\sum_{k=1}^{K} p(\mathbf{x}|C_k)P(C_k)}$$

- $P(C_k) \ge 0$  and  $P(C_1) + P(C_2) + ... + P(C_K) = 1$
- What is the decision rule?

#### Bayes rule for K > 2

#### Bayes rule:

$$P(C_k|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{x}|C_k)P(C_k)}{\sum_{k=1}^{K} p(\mathbf{x}|C_k)P(C_k)}$$

- $P(C_k) \ge 0$  and  $P(C_1) + P(C_2) + ... + P(C_K) = 1$
- Decision:

Choose 
$$C_k$$
 if  $P(C_k \mid \mathbf{x}) = \max_k P(C_k \mid \mathbf{x})$ 

# **Risk minimization**

#### **Losses and risks**

- So far we've assumed all errors were equally costly.
  - But misclassfying a cancer sufferer as a healthy patient is much more problematic than the other way around.
- Action α<sub>k</sub>: assigining class C<sub>k</sub>
- Loss: quantify the cost  $\lambda_{kl}$  of taking action  $\alpha_k$  when the true class is  $C_l$
- Expected risk:

$$R(\alpha_k | \boldsymbol{x}) = \sum_{l=1}^K \lambda_{lk} P(C_l | \boldsymbol{x})$$

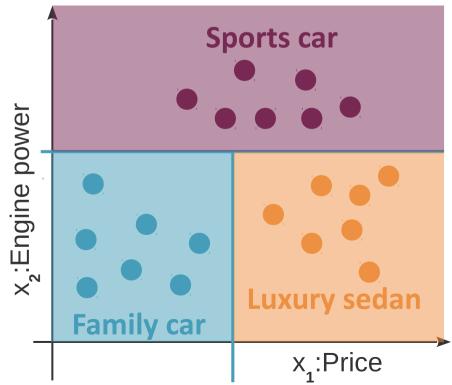
• Decision (Bayes Classifier):  $\arg\min_k R(\alpha_k|\boldsymbol{x})$ 

#### **Discriminant functions**

- Classification = find K discriminant functions  $f_k$  s.t. x is assigned class  $C_k$  if  $k = argmax f_I(x)$
- Bayes classifier:  $f_k(\boldsymbol{x}) = -R(\alpha_k|\boldsymbol{x})$

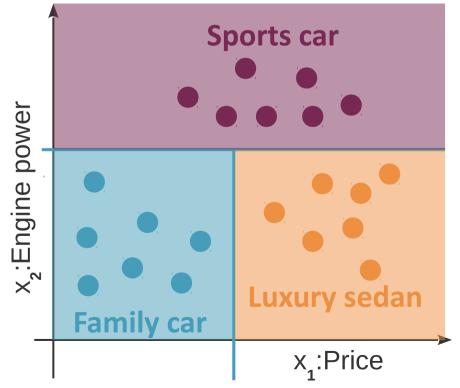
#### **Discriminant functions**

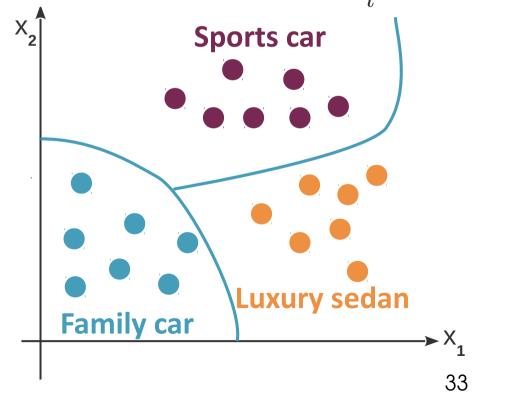
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- Defines K decision regions  $R_k = \{ m{x} : f_k(m{x}) = \max_l f_l(m{x}) \}$



#### **Discriminant functions**

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#### **Bayes risk minimization**

Bayes risk: overall expected risk

$$R(\boldsymbol{x}) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{l=1}^{K} \lambda_{lk} \ p(\boldsymbol{x} \in R_k | C_l) P(C_l)$$

 Bayes decision rule: use the discriminant functions that minimize the Bayes risk.

### **Bayes risk minimization**

Bayes risk: overall expected risk

$$R(\boldsymbol{x}) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{l=1}^{K} \lambda_{lk} \ p(\boldsymbol{x} \in R_k | C_l) P(C_l)$$

- Bayes decision rule: use the discriminant functions that minimize the Bayes risk.
- This is also a LRT.

For 2 classes, let us show that Bayes decision rule is equivalent to:

$$\Lambda(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{x}|C=1)}{p(\mathbf{x}|C=0)} > \frac{(\lambda_{10} - \lambda_{00})P(C=0)}{(\lambda_{01} - \lambda_{11})P(C=1)}$$

# 0/1 Loss

- All misclassifications are equally costly.
- $\lambda_{kl} = 0$  if k=l and 1 otherwise

$$R(\alpha_k | \boldsymbol{x}) = \sum_{l=1}^K \lambda_{lk} P(C_l | \boldsymbol{x})$$

$$= \sum_{l \neq k}^K P(C_l | \boldsymbol{x})$$

$$= 1 - P(C_k | \boldsymbol{x})$$

#### Minimizing the risk:

- choose the most probable class (MAP)
- this is equivalent to the Bayes decision rule.

$$\Lambda(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{x}|C=1)}{p(\mathbf{x}|C=0)} > \frac{(\lambda_{10} - \lambda_{00})P(C=0)}{(\lambda_{01} - \lambda_{11})P(C=1)}$$

### Reject

 Add an artificial "reject" class (K+1) for refusing to take a decision.

E.g. Zip code detection.

• 
$$\lambda_{\mathbf{k}\mathbf{l}} = \begin{cases} \mathbf{0} \text{ if } \mathbf{k} = \mathbf{k} \\ \lambda \text{ if } \mathbf{k} = \mathbf{K} + \mathbf{1} \\ \mathbf{1} \text{ otherwise} \end{cases}$$
 
$$R(\alpha_k | \boldsymbol{x}) = \sum_{l \neq k} P(C_l | \boldsymbol{x}) = 1 - P(C_k | \boldsymbol{x})$$
 
$$R(\alpha_{K+1} | \boldsymbol{x}) = \sum_{l=1}^{K} \lambda P(C_l | \boldsymbol{x}) = \lambda$$
 • Decision:

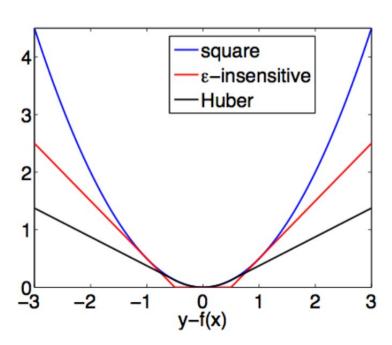
$$R(\alpha_k | \boldsymbol{x}) = \sum_{l \neq k} P(C_l | \boldsymbol{x}) = 1 - P(C_k | \boldsymbol{x})$$
<sub>K</sub>

$$R(\alpha_{K+1}|\boldsymbol{x}) = \sum_{l=1}^{K} \lambda P(C_l|\boldsymbol{x}) = \lambda$$

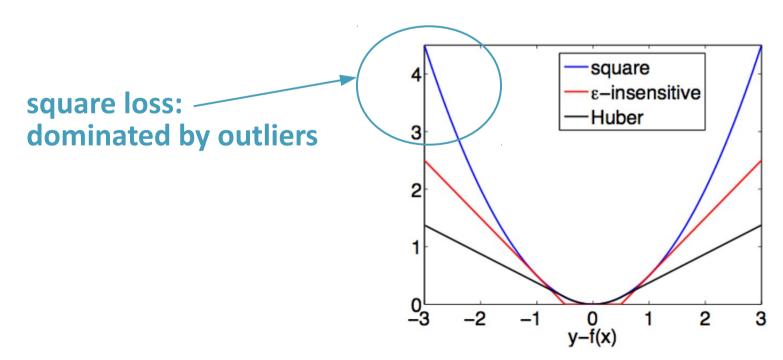
Ck if P(Ck|x) > P(Cl|x) for all  $l \neq k$  and  $P(Ck|x) > 1-\lambda$ else reject.

Only meaningful if  $0 < \lambda < 1$ 

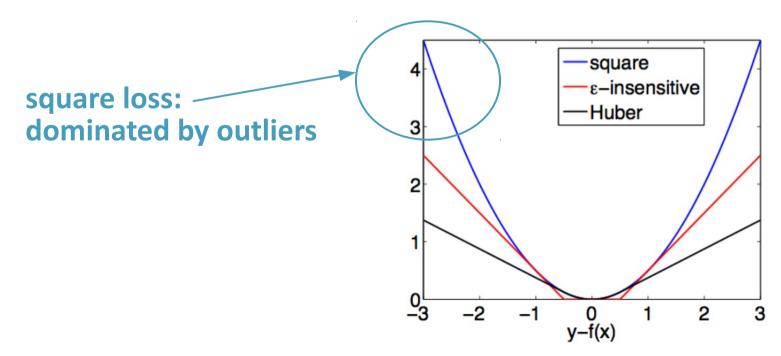
• Square loss:  $L(f(x), y) = (f(x) - y)^2$ 



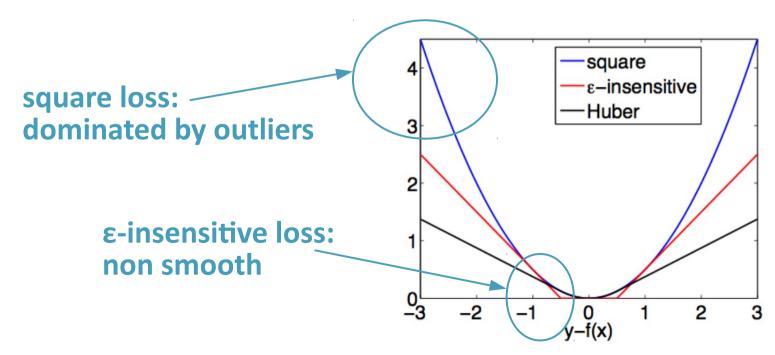
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- Square loss:  $L(f(x), y) = (f(x) y)^2$
- $\epsilon$ -insensitive loss:  $L(f(x), y) = (|f(x) y| \epsilon)_+$

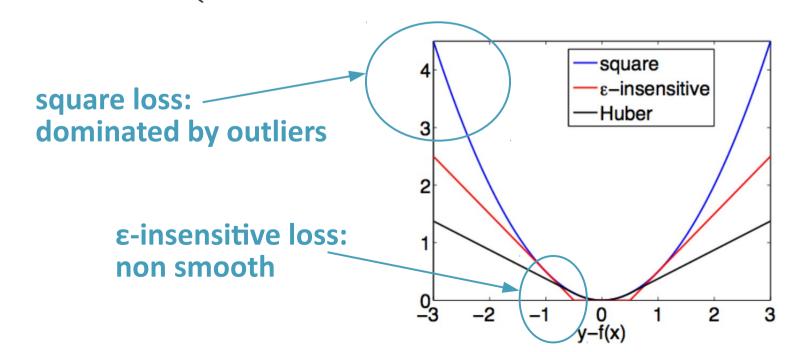


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- Square loss:  $L(f(x), y) = (f(x) y)^2$
- $\epsilon$ -insensitive loss:  $L(f(\mathbf{x}), y) = (|f(\mathbf{x}) y| \epsilon)_+$
- Huber loss: mix of linear and quadratic

$$L_{\delta}(f(\boldsymbol{x}), y) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} (y - f(\boldsymbol{x}))^2 & \text{if } |y - f(\boldsymbol{x})| \leq \delta \\ \delta |y - f(\boldsymbol{x})| - \frac{1}{2} \delta^2 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$



# **Empirical risk minimization (ERM)**

- Loss: L(f(x), y) small when f(x) predicts y well
- Expected risk:

$$R = \mathbb{E}[L(f(\boldsymbol{x}), y)]$$

Empirical risk:

$$R_n(f) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n L(f(\boldsymbol{x}^i), y^i)$$

• The **ERM estimator** of the functional class F is the solution, when it exists, of:

$$\hat{f}_n = \arg\min_{f \in \mathcal{F}} R_n(f)$$

## **Solving ERM**

- There can sometimes be an explicit analytical solution
- Otherwise: convex optimization (if the loss function is convex in f)
- Limits of ERM:
  - ill-posed
  - not statistically consistent

This is particularly true in high dimension.

#### **ERM** is ill-posed

Well-posed problems (Hadamard):

Mathematical models of physical phenomena such that

- a solution exists;
- the solution is unique;
- the solution's behavior changes continuously with the initial conditions.
- It can be that an infinite number of solutions minimize the empirical risk to zero.

# ERM is not statistically consistent

• Statistical consistency: Estimator  $\theta_N$  of  $\theta$  that converges in probability towards  $\theta$  as N increases.

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \quad \lim_{N \to \infty} Pr(|\theta_N - \theta| \ge \epsilon) = 0$$

From the law of large numbers,

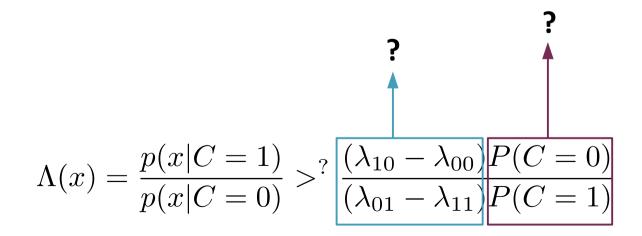
$$\forall f \in \mathcal{F}, \quad R_N(f) \xrightarrow[N \to \infty]{} R(f)$$

but this isn't enough to guarantee that minimizing  $R_N(f)$  gives a good estimator of the minimizer of R(f).

 Vapnik showed that this is only true if the capacity of F is "not too large".

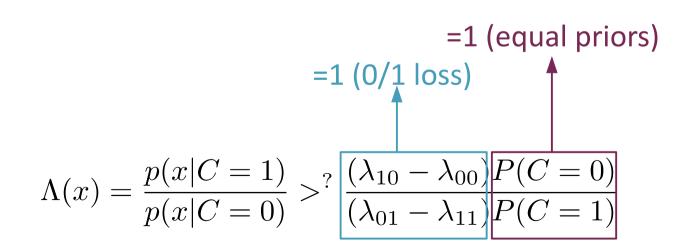
#### Maximum likelihood criterion

- Consider equal priors P(C=1) = P(C=0)
- Consider the 0/1 loss function



#### Maximum likelihood criterion

- Consider equal priors P(C=1) = P(C=0)
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#### Maximum likelihood criterion

- Consider equal priors P(C=1) = P(C=0)
- Consider the 0/1 loss function
- Bayes decision rule seeks to maximize P(x|C=c) and is hence called the Maximum Likelihood criterion

#### **Decision rule:**

If  $\Lambda_{ML}(x) > 1$  then choose C=1 else choose C=0

$$\Lambda_{\rm ML}(x) = \frac{p(x|C=1)}{p(x|C=0)} \\ = 1 \text{ (equal priors)} \\ \Lambda(x) = \frac{p(x|C=1)}{p(x|C=0)} >^? \frac{(\lambda_{10} - \lambda_{00})P(C=0)}{(\lambda_{01} - \lambda_{11})P(C=1)} \\$$

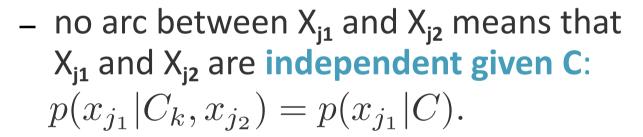
# Multivariate classification: Naive Bayes

#### **Naive Bayes**

- Multivariate classification: x is multidimensional
- Assume the variables  $x_1, x_2, ... x_p$  are conditionally independent:  $p(x_{j_1}|C_k, x_{j_2}) = p(x_{j_1}|C)$

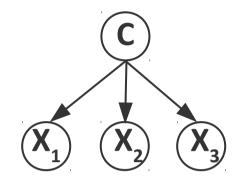
# **Graphical representation**

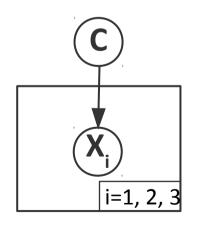
- We can use a graph to represent conditional independence:
  - arc from C to X<sub>j</sub> means the distribution of X<sub>i</sub> depends on C





all X<sub>j</sub> inside the same plate follow the same probability distribution.





### **Naive Bayes**

- Multivariate classification: x is multidimensional
- Assume the variables  $x_1, x_2, ... x_p$  are conditionally independent:  $p(x_{j_1}|C_k, x_{j_2}) = p(x_{j_1}|C)$

$$P(C_k|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{x}|C_k)P(C_k)}{\sum_{k=1}^{K} p(\mathbf{x}|C_k)P(C_k)}$$

$$p(x_1, \dots, x_p|C_k) = p(x_1|C_k)p(x_2|C_k)\dots p(x_p|C_k)$$

Hence:

$$P(C_k|x_1,\ldots,x_p) = \underbrace{\frac{1}{Z}} P(C_k) p(x_1|C_k) p(x_2|C_k) \ldots p(x_p|C_k)$$
 scaling factor, independent of  $\mathbf{C_k}$ 

#### Maximum a posteriori estimation

- MAP decision rule: pick the hypothesis that is most probable
- For Naive Bayes:

$$\hat{y} = \arg \max_{k=1,...,K} p(C_k) \prod_{i=1}^{K} p(\mathbf{x}^i | C_k)$$

# **Naive Bayes spam filtering**

- Input: email
  - bag of words

$$(x_1, x_2, ..., x_p) = (0, 1, ..., 0)$$
rich viagra
CLICK

- Output: spam / ham
- Naive Bayes assumption: conditional independence

$$P(C_k|m{x}) = rac{p(m{x}|C_k)P(C_k)}{\sum_{k=1}^K p(m{x}|C_k)P(C_k)}$$
Samuel Winthrop Journal of Cheminforma

Your Mail-Box has exceeded its storage Limit CLICK=HERE FILL and Click on FINISH for to get more space you wont be able to send Mail

Dear Dr Azencott,

We obtained your contact information from your excellent papers, and would like to know if our company could serve you. Noes your current work require the generation custom monoclonal antibodies? If so, we would be glad to perform this tedious and time-conjuming task on your behalf.

Dear Dr Azencotte,

Thank you very much for your review We greatly appreciate your assistnce.

Best wishes,

P(spam | (x<sub>1</sub>, x<sub>2</sub>, ..., x<sub>p</sub>))

= 1/Z p(spam) p(x<sub>1</sub>|spam) p(x<sub>2</sub>|spam) ... p(x<sub>p</sub>|spam)

•  $P(ham | (x_1, x_2, ..., x_p))$ 

= 1/Z p(ham) p(x<sub>1</sub>|ham) p(x<sub>2</sub>|ham) ... p(x<sub>p</sub>|ham)

• Decision:

If  $P(\text{spam} | (x_1, x_2, ..., x_p)) > P(\text{ham} | (x_1, x_2, ..., x_p))$  then spam else ham

• Inference: we need to determine

p(spam), p(ham),  $p(x_j|spam)$ ,  $p(x_j|ham)$ 

What are p(spam) and p(ham)?

- $P(spam | (x_1, x_2, ..., x_p))$ 
  - = 1/Z p(spam) p(x<sub>1</sub>|spam) p(x<sub>2</sub>|spam) ... p(x<sub>p</sub>|spam)
- P(ham | (x<sub>1</sub>, x<sub>2</sub>, ..., x<sub>p</sub>))
  - = 1/Z p(ham) p(x<sub>1</sub>|ham) p(x<sub>2</sub>|ham) ... p(x<sub>p</sub>|ham)
- Decision:

If  $P(\text{spam} | (x_1, x_2, ..., x_p)) > P(\text{ham} | (x_1, x_2, ..., x_p))$  then spam else ham

• Inference: we need to determine

p(spam), p(ham),  $p(x_j|spam)$ ,  $p(x_j|ham)$ 

frequency of spam in the training data

- $P(spam | (x_1, x_2, ..., x_p))$ 
  - = 1/Z p(spam) p(x<sub>1</sub>|spam) p(x<sub>2</sub>|spam) ... p(x<sub>p</sub>|spam)
- $P(ham | (x_1, x_2, ..., x_p))$ 
  - = 1/Z p(ham) p(x<sub>1</sub>|ham) p(x<sub>2</sub>|ham) ... p(x<sub>p</sub>|ham)
- Decision:

If  $P(\text{spam} | (x_1, x_2, ..., x_p)) > P(\text{ham} | (x_1, x_2, ..., x_p))$  then spam else ham

• Inference: we need to determine

p(spam), p(ham), 
$$p(x_j|spam)$$
,  $p(x_j|ham)$ 

frequency of spam in the training data

#### Bernouilli Naive Bayes:

- Each email is the outcome of p Bernouilli trials
- Naive assumption: the trials are independent word co-occurences in a category aren't independent still, independence assumptions can give good results

$$p(x_j|\text{spam}) = p_j^{x_j} (1 - p_j)^{(1 - x_j)}$$

- S = # spams in train set
- Sj = # spams containing word j in train set

- Direct estimate of p<sub>j</sub>: p<sub>j</sub> = Sj / S
- What happens if a word is never seen?

#### Bernouilli Naive Bayes:

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- S = # spams in train set
- Sj = # spams containing word j in train set

- Direct estimate of p<sub>i</sub>: p<sub>i</sub> = Sj / S
- Laplace-smoothed estimate of  $p_i$ :  $p_i = (Sj + 1) / (S + 2)$

For a word that's not in the training set now  $p_{i=}0.5$  instead of 0

- $P(spam | (x_1, x_2, ..., x_p))$ 
  - = 1/Z p(spam) p( $x_1$ |spam) p( $x_2$ |spam) ... p( $x_p$ |spam)
- $P(ham | (x_1, x_2, ..., x_p))$ 
  - = 1/Z p(ham) p(x<sub>1</sub>|ham) p(x<sub>2</sub>|ham) ... p(x<sub>p</sub>|ham)
- Decision:

If  $P(\text{spam} | (x_1, x_2, ..., x_p)) > P(\text{ham} | (x_1, x_2, ..., x_p))$  then spam else ham

• Inference:

$$p(spam), p(ham), p(x_j|spam), p(x_j|ham)$$

Bernouilli Naive Bayes:  $p_j^{x_j}(1-p_j)^{(1-x_j)}$ 

frequency of spam in the training data

$$p_i = (1 + Sj) / (2 + S)$$

S = # spams in train set

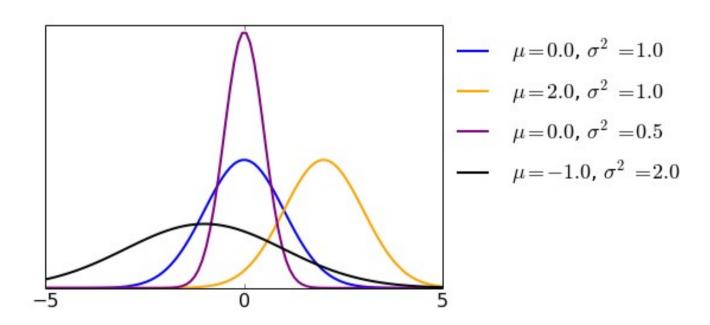
Sj = # spams with word j in train set

### **Gaussian naive Bayes**

#### Assume

p(x<sub>j</sub> | C<sub>k</sub>) univariate Gaussian

$$p(x_j|C_k) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-(x_j-\mu)^2/(2\sigma^2)}$$



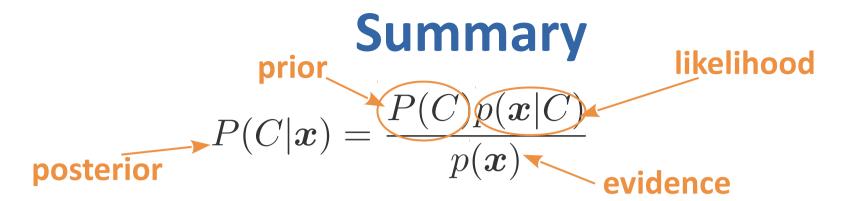
### **Bayesian model selection**

Priors on model: p(model)

$$p(\text{model}|\text{data}) = \frac{p(\text{data}|\text{model})p(\text{model})}{p(\text{data})}$$

- Regularization ≡ prior that favors simpler models.
- Take the log  $\log p(\text{model}|\text{data}) = \log p(\text{data}|\text{model}) + \log p(\text{model}) c$   $\equiv \text{training error}$   $\equiv \text{model complexity}$
- MAP similar to minimizing

 $E' = empirical error + \lambda model complexity$ 



- Bayes decision rule ≡ likelihood ratio test
  - choose the most probable class, given evidence (data) and prior belief.
- Equivalent to minimizing Bayes risk
   usually achieved approximately through empirical risk
   minimization (not equivalent!!)
- For the 0/1 loss, equivalent to maximizing the posterior.
- For the 0/1 loss and equal priors (uniform prior), equivalent to maximizing the likelihood.

## **Further reading**

- Ghahramani, Z. (2015). Probabilistic machine learning and artificial intelligence. *Nature* 521, 452-459.
- Paul Graham, A plan for spam http://www.paulgraham.com/spam.html

#### **Jupyter**

- Web application
- Notebooks: webpages that contain
  - text (explanations, comments, conclusions...)
  - live code
  - equations
  - visualizations.
- Instructions for labs:
  - Get a local version of the notebook
  - Open the .ipynb file in Jupyter
    - > cd ma2823\_2016/lab\_notebooks
    - > jupyter notebook

#### **GitHub**

#### Version control

- Multiple people use/edit the same file(s) at the same time
- Grownup version of mydoc\_v2\_chloe\_new.txt

#### For our labs

- Instead of downloading the latest version of ma\_2823, making sure not to overwrite work from the previous weeks...
  - > git pull automatically updates the files that need updating.
- Fork: to version control your own work
  https://help.github.com/articles/fork-a-repo/

https://github.com/chagaz/ma2823\_2016/blob/master/lab\_notebooks/Lab%202%202016-09-21%20Introduction%20to%20scikit-learn.ipynb