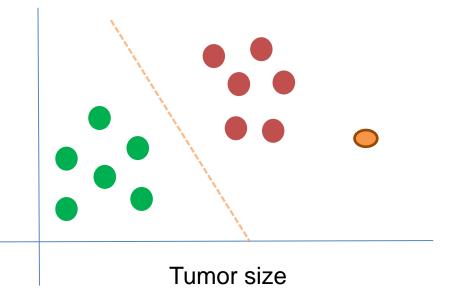
NAÏVE BAYES

Generative vs. Discriminative Classifiers

Training classifiers involves estimating f: $X \rightarrow Y$, or P(Y|X)

Discriminative classifiers (also called 'informative' by Rubinstein&Hastie):

- 1. Assume some functional form for P(Y|X)
- 2. Estimate parameters of P(Y|X) directly from training data

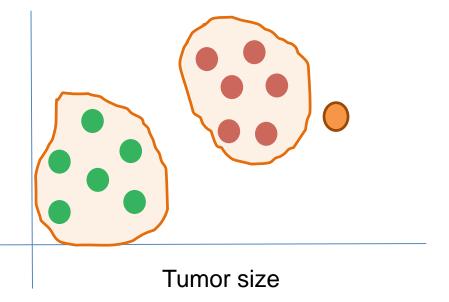


Generative vs. Discriminative Classifiers

Training classifiers involves estimating f: $X \rightarrow Y$, or P(Y|X)

Generative classifiers

- 1. Assume some functional form for P(X|Y), P(X)
- 2. Estimate parameters of P(X|Y), P(X) directly from training data
- 3. Model predictions based on $P(Y|X=x_i)$



Maximum A Posteriori (MAP) Classifier

 Given the data feature vector x, we would like to find the class with the largest probability:

$$\hat{C} \triangleq \underset{C}{\operatorname{arg\,max}} \ p(C|\boldsymbol{x})$$

• To accomplish this, we iterate through all possible classes C_1, C_2, \ldots, C_K and evaluate the quantity $p(C_i|\boldsymbol{x})$, and pick the class that has the largest probability.

MAP Classifier: Bayes Rule

• How do we compute $\,p(C_i|m{x})\,$? Apply Bayes' Rule!

$$p(A|B)p(B) = p(B|A)p(A) \Rightarrow p(A|B) = \frac{p(B|A)p(A)}{p(B)}$$
evidence

- Applying Bayes' rule to $\ p(C_i|m{x})$, we obtain:

$$p(C_i|\boldsymbol{x}) = \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}|C_i)p(C_i)}{p(\boldsymbol{x})}$$

MAP Classifier: Bayes Rule (2)

$$p(C_i|\boldsymbol{x}) = \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}|C_i)p(C_i)}{p(\boldsymbol{x})}$$

- $p(C_i)$ is called the prior probability of a class
- $p(m{x}|C_i)$ is called the likelihood of the data (what is the probability of observing $m{x}$ if the class was C_i)
- p(x) is the probability of seeing the data so its simply a normalizing factor (applies to all C_i), so doesn't affect which C_i attains MAP.

MAP Classifier: Bayes Rule (3)

To compute the normalizing factor, we use:

$$p(oldsymbol{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^K p(oldsymbol{x}|C_i) p(C_i)$$
 So that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{K} p(C_i | \boldsymbol{x}) = 1$$

Hence,
$$p(C_i|\boldsymbol{x}) = \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}|C_i)p(C_i)}{\sum_{\ell=1}^K p(\boldsymbol{x}|C_\ell)p(C_\ell)}$$

But really, we don't need to calculate the denominator p(x), so we can simply write it as

$$p(C_i|x) = p(x|C_i)p(C_i)$$

MAP Classifier: Bayes Rule (4)

- Usually, the likelihood $p(\boldsymbol{x}|C_i)$ is difficult to compute because it is N-dimensional (length of feature vector).
- This is because the distribution considers correlations between the features when computing the likelihood.
- We can write $p(\boldsymbol{x}|C_i)$ equivalently as:

$$p(\boldsymbol{x}|C_i) = p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N|C_i)$$

which makes the dependence on individual features explicit.

Naïve Bayes Classifier: Independence Assumption

- The Naïve Bayes classifier introduces one major assumption regarding the features: independence
- That is, the Naïve Bayes classifier assumes:

$$p(\mathbf{x}|C_i) = p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N|C_i) = \prod_{n=1}^N p(x_n|C_i)$$

- That is, the complicated likelihood $p(\boldsymbol{x}|C_i)$ can now be factored into a product of N 1-dimensional likelihoods, which are easy to compute.
- It is good to note that independence implies that the features are not correlated (but generally not the other way around---so independence is a stronger assumption).

Naïve Bayes Classifier

 With the independence assumption, the MAP classifier (now called the Naïve Bayes Classifier) can be written as:

$$p(C_i|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\prod_{n=1}^{N} p(x_n|C_i)p(C_i)}{\sum_{\ell=1}^{K} \prod_{n=1}^{N} p(x_n|C_\ell)p(C_\ell)}$$

 It turns out that the Naïve Bayes classifier works very well on empirical datasets even if the independence assumption doesn't actually hold.

Naïve Bayes Classifier

$$p(C_i|\boldsymbol{x}) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} p(x_n|C_i)p(C_i)$$

- What happens our training example does not have an instance that is present in the test data?
- To eliminate zeros, we use add-one or Laplace smoothing, which simply adds one to each count.

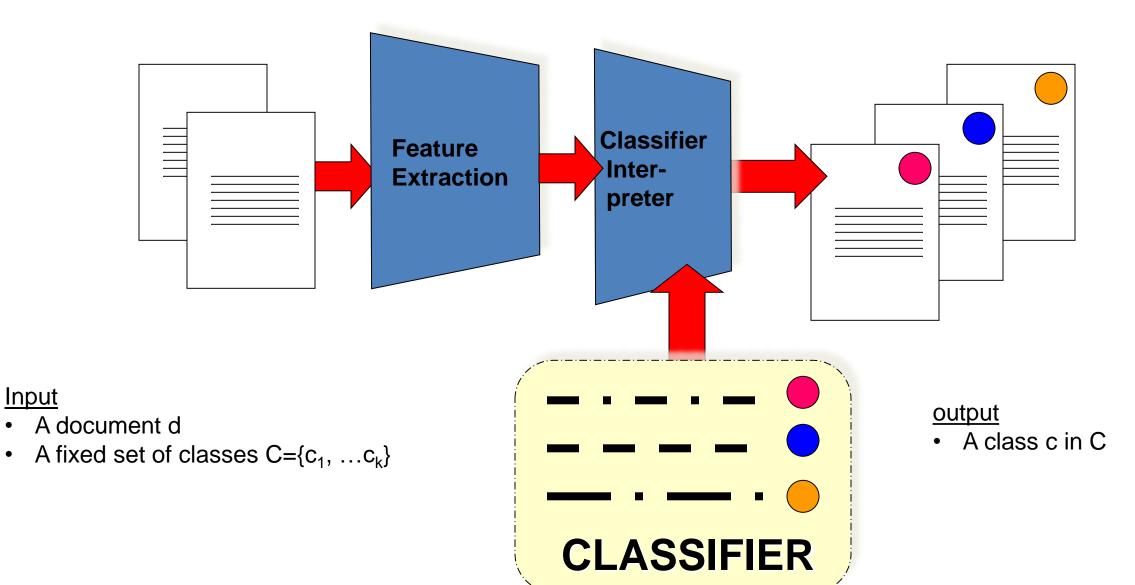
Now, let us see Spark documentation: http://spark.apache.org/docs/latest/mllib-naive-bayes.html

EXAMPLES OF TEXT CATEGORIZATION

- Spam Detection
 - "spam" / "not spam"
- Assigning subject categories, topics, or genres
 - "finance" / "sports" / "asia"
- Sentiment analysis
 - "like" / "hate" / "neutral"
- Authorship iden1fica1on
 - "Shakespeare" / "Marlowe" / "Ben Jonson"
 - The Federalist papers

TEXT CATEGORIZATION

Input



Text Classification Algorithms: Learning

- From training corpus, extract Vocabulary
- Calculate required P(c_i) and P(x_k | c_i) terms
 - For each c_i in C do
 - docs_i ← subset of documents for which the target class is c_i

$$P(c_j) \leftarrow \frac{|docs_j|}{|\operatorname{total} \# \operatorname{documents}|}$$

- Text_i ← single document containing all docs_i
 - for each word x_k in *Vocabulary*
 - $n_k \leftarrow$ number of occurrences of x_k in $Text_i$

$$P(x_k \mid c_j) \leftarrow \frac{n_k + 1}{n + |Vocabulary|}$$

This is called the Bag of Words model.... But how do we select this vocabulary??

Can't possibly use all words!

Chi Square, TF/IDF, etc.

Text Classification Algorithms: Classifying

positions ← all word positions in current document which contain tokens found in Vocabulary

Return cNB, where

$$c_{NB} = \underset{c_{j} \in C}{\operatorname{argmax}} P(c_{j}) \prod_{i \in positions} P(x_{i} \mid c_{j})$$

Naïve Bayes Posterior Probabilities

- Classification results of naïve Bayes (the class with maximum posterior probability) are usually fairly accurate.
- However, due to the inadequacy of the conditional independence assumption, the actual posterior-probability numerical estimates are not.
 - Output probabilities are generally very close to 0 or 1.