# Machine Learning, Machine Learning (extended)

4 – Supervised Learning: Bayesian Classification Kashif Rajpoot

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#### Outline

- Supervised learning
- Classification
  - Probabilistic vs non-probabilistic
  - Generative vs discriminative
- Refresher: probability
- Bayesian classification
- Naïve Bayes classification
- Gaussian classification

## Supervised learning

- Regression
  - Minimised loss (e.g. least squares)
  - Maximum likelihood
- Classification
  - Generative (e.g. Bayesian)
  - Instance-based (e.g. k-NN)
  - Discriminative (e.g. SVM)

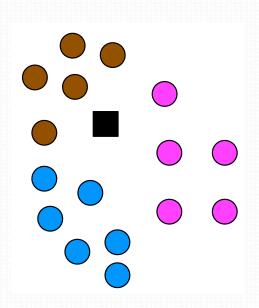
#### Classification

- A set of N objects with attributes (usually vector)  $oldsymbol{x}_n$
- Each object has an associated target label  $t_n$
- Binary classification

$$t_n \in \{0,1\} \text{ or } t_n \in \{-1,1\}$$

Multi-class classification

$$t_n \in \{1, 2, \dots, C\}$$



• Classifier learns from  $x_1, x_2, ..., x_N$  and  $t_1, t_2, ..., t_N$  so that it can later classify  $x_{new}$ 

## Probabilistic vs nonprobabilistic classification

 Probabilistic classifiers produce a probability of class membership

$$P(t_{\text{new}} = k | \mathbf{x}_{\text{new}}, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{t})$$
  
 $P(t_{\text{new}} = 1 | \mathbf{x}_{\text{new}}, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{t})$   
 $P(t_{\text{new}} = 0 | \mathbf{x}_{\text{new}}, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{t})$ 

Non-probabilistic classifiers produce a hard assignment

$$t_{\text{new}} = 1 \text{ or } t_{\text{new}} = 0$$

## Probabilistic vs nonprobabilistic classification

- Probabilities provide us with more information
  - $P(t_{new} = 1) = 0.6$  is more useful than  $t_{new} = 1$
  - Confidence level
- Particularly important where cost of misclassification is high and imbalanced
  - Diagnosis: telling a diseased person they are healthy is much worse than telling a healthy person they are diseased

## Generative vs discriminative classification

- Generative classifiers generate a model for each class, based on training samples available
  - Data in each class can be seen as generated by some model
  - For new test samples, they assign these samples to the class that suits best (e.g. by probability measure)
- In contrast, discriminative classifiers attempt to explicitly define the decision boundary that separates the classes
  - Intuitively, these methods are for binary class problems but can be extended to multi-class problems

## Bayesian classifier

- A classifier built on Bayes rule
  - Builds a probabilistic model of the data, embedding prior knowledge
  - Allows us to extract prior knowledge from observed data
- Generative approach
  - Builds a model from training objects
  - Any new objects can be classified based on the probabilistic model specification

## Refresher: probability

- Conditional probability
- Joint probability
- Marginal probability
- Bayes rule

# Refresher: Conditional probability

- When the outcome of an event is affected (i.e. conditioned) by the outcome of another event
- For example: we toss a coin and then tell the result
  - P(X = 1): probability of coin landing head
  - P(X = 0): probability of coin landing tail
  - P(Y = 1): probability of telling coin landed head
  - P(Y = 0): probability of telling coin landed tail
- P(Y = y | X = x): probability of telling coin landed y, given that coin has landed x

# Refresher: Conditional probability

- If we always tell the true outcome:
  - P(Y = 1|X = 1) = ?
  - P(Y = 1|X = 1) = 1

• 
$$P(Y = 0|X = 0) = ?$$

• 
$$P(Y = 0|X = 0) = 1$$

• 
$$P(Y = 0 | X = 1) = ?$$

• 
$$P(Y = 0|X = 1) = 0$$

• 
$$P(Y = 1|X = 0) = ?$$

• 
$$P(Y = 1|X = 0) = 0$$

# Refresher: Conditional probability

- If we tell the true head outcome only 80% times:
  - P(Y = 1|X = 1) = ?
  - P(Y = 1|X = 1) = 0.8

• 
$$P(Y = 0|X = 0) = ?$$

• 
$$P(Y = 0|X = 0) = 1$$

• 
$$P(Y = 0|X = 1) = ?$$

• 
$$P(Y = 0|X = 1) = 0.2$$

• 
$$P(Y = 1|X = 0) = ?$$

• 
$$P(Y = 1|X = 0) = 0$$

# Refresher: Joint probability

- What is the probability that the coin lands heads and we say heads?
  - This is joint probability (i.e. probability of two or more variables)
  - P(Y = y, X = x)
- In case of no dependence between variables:
  - P(Y = y, X = x) = P(Y = y)P(X = x)
- In case of dependence between variables:
  - P(Y = y, X = x) = P(Y = y | X = x)P(X = x), or
  - P(Y = y, X = x) = P(X = x | Y = y)P(Y = y)

# Refresher: Joint probability

- What is the probability that the coin lands heads and we say heads?
  - P(Y = 1, X = 1) = P(Y = 1|X = 1)P(X = 1) = ?
  - $P(Y = 1, X = 1) = P(Y = 1|X = 1)P(X = 1) = 0.8 \times 0.5 = 0.4$
- Other joint probabilities
  - P(Y = 0, X = 1) = P(Y = 0 | X = 1)P(X = 1) = ?
  - $P(Y = 0, X = 1) = P(Y = 0|X = 1)P(X = 1) = 0.2 \times 0.5 = 0.1$
  - P(Y = 1, X = 0) = P(Y = 1 | X = 0)P(X = 0) = ?
  - P(Y = 1, X = 0) = P(Y = 1|X = 0)P(X = 0) = 0x0.5 = 0
  - P(Y = 0, X = 0) = P(Y = 0 | X = 0)P(X = 0) = ?
  - P(Y = 0, X = 0) = P(Y = 0|X = 0)P(X = 0) = 1x0.5 = 0.5

#### Refresher:

## Marginal probability

- What is the probability of telling that the coin landed heads, or telling that the coin landed tails?
  - P(Y = 1) = ?
  - P(Y = 0) = ?
  - Where is X?
- X has been marginalized from the joint distribution P(Y = y, X = x)
  - $P(Y = y) = \sum_{x} P(Y = y, X = x)$
  - For coin toss example:
    - P(Y = y) = P(Y = y, X = 0) + P(Y = y, X = 1)
- P(Y = 1) = P(Y = 1, X = 0) + P(Y = 1, X = 1)
- P(Y = 1) = 0 + 0.4 = 0.4
- P(Y = 0) = ?

### Refresher: Bayes rule

- Joint probability can be estimated as (assuming dependence between variables):
  - P(Y = y, X = x) = P(Y = y | X = x)P(X = x), or
  - P(Y = y, X = x) = P(X = x | Y = y)P(Y = y)
- By equating the right hand sides:
  - P(X = x | Y = y)P(Y = y) = P(Y = y | X = x)P(X = x), so:

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

 For coin toss example, this is finding the probability that the coin landed in a particular way given what was said about the outcome

## Refresher: Bayes rule

- What is the probability of coin landing head if it was told as head?
  - P(X = 1|Y = 1) = ?

• 
$$P(X = 1|Y = 1) = \frac{P(Y = 1|X = 1)P(X=1)}{P(Y=1)} = \frac{0.8 \times 0.5}{0.4} = 1$$

- What is the probability of coin landing tail if it was told as tail?
  - P(X = 0|Y = 0) = ?
  - $P(X = 0|Y = 0) = \frac{P(Y = 0|X = 0)P(X = 0)}{P(Y = 0)} = \frac{1 \times 0.5}{0.6} = 0.83$
- What is the probability of coin landing head if it was told as tail?
  - P(X = 1|Y = 0) = ?
- What is the probability of coin landing tail if it was told as head?
  - P(X = 0|Y = 1) = ?

## Refresher: Bayes rule

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

- P(X = x) denotes **prior belief**: prior probability of event x occurring, before seeing any data for prediction
- P(Y = y | X = x) denotes **class-conditional likelihood**: probability of the observed data y occurring, given that event x has occurred
- P(Y = y) denotes data evidence: marginal probability of observed data y
  - $P(Y = y) = \sum_{x} P(Y = y, X = x) = \sum_{x} P(Y = y | X = x) P(X = x)$
- P(X = x | Y = y) denotes **posterior probability**: probability of event x occurring after seeing the new data y

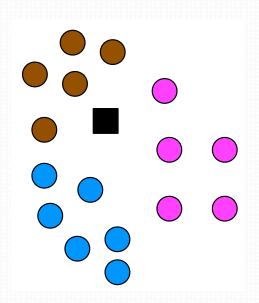
#### Classification

- A set of N objects with attributes (usually vector)  $oldsymbol{x}_n$
- Each object has an associated target label  $t_n$
- Binary classification

$$t_n \in \{0,1\} \text{ or } t_n \in \{-1,1\}$$

Multi-class classification

$$t_n \in \{1, 2, ..., C\}$$



• Classifier learns from  $x_1, x_2, ..., x_N$  and  $t_1, t_2, ..., t_N$  so that it can later classify  $x_{new}$ 

#### Classification

- Let's begin with a simpler problem formulation
- A set of N objects with discrete-valued scalar attribute  $x_n$
- Each object  $x_n$  has an associated target label  $t_n$
- Classifier learns from  $x_1, x_2, ..., x_N$  and  $t_1, t_2, ..., t_N$  so that it can later classify  $x_{new}$
- Let's turn Bayes rule in to a classifier that can predict  $t_{new}$  for unseen data  $x_{new}$

$$P(t_{new} = c | x_{new}) = \frac{P(x_{new} | t_{new} = c)P(t_{new} = c)}{P(x_{new})}$$
What is  $x_{new}$ ?

- $P(t_{new} = c)$  **prior belief**: prior probability of label c occurring, before seeing any data for prediction
- $P(x_{new}|t_{new}=c)$  **class-conditional likelihood**: probability of the data  $x_{new}$  occurring, given that label c is true
- $P(x_{new})$  **data evidence**: marginal probability of data  $x_{new}$ 
  - $P(x_{new}) = \sum_{c=1}^{C} P(x_{new}, t_{new} = c) = \sum_{c=1}^{C} P(x_{new} | t_{new} = c) P(t_{new} = c)$
- $P(t_{new} = c | x_{new})$  **posterior probability**: probability of label c occurring after seeing the data  $x_{new}$

$$P(t_{new} = c | x_{new}) = \frac{P(x_{new} | t_{new} = c)P(t_{new} = c)}{P(x_{new})}$$

can be written as:

$$P(c|x_{new}) = \frac{P(x_{new}|c)P(c)}{P(x_{new})}$$

- The Bayesian classifier estimates probability for all candidate class labels  $c \in \{1,2,...,C\}$ 
  - In this context, each class label c can also be termed as candidate hypothesis whose probability is estimated
  - Let's call set of all target labels or candidate hypotheses as hypotheses space  $H = \{1, 2, ..., C\}$

• Bayesian classifier aims to assign target label  $c \in H$  that has maximum posterior probability

$$\underset{c \in H}{argmax} P(c|x_{new})$$

$$\underset{c \in H}{argmax} \frac{P(x_{new}|c)P(c)}{P(x_{new})}$$

$$\underset{c \in H}{argmax} P(x_{new}|c)P(c)$$

- Note that  $P(x_{new})$  is independent of target label c
  - i.e. it is same for all target labels, thus can be omitted
- This is called maximum a posterior hypothesis

- $P(x_{new}|c)$  denotes class-conditional distribution, specific to class c, evaluated at  $x_{new}$ 
  - We need a class-conditional distribution for each class c, at each discrete-valued scalar attribute  $x_{new}$
  - This distribution can be estimated from training data
- P(c) denotes prior probability that can be set as:
  - Uniform prior:  $P(c) = \frac{1}{c}$  i.e. each class is equally probable
  - Class size prior:  $P(c) = \frac{N_c}{N}$  i.e. class prior as per its frequency in training observations

In cases where the prior is uniform for all labels

$$\underset{c \in H}{argmax} P(x_{new}|c)P(c)$$
 becomes 
$$\underset{c \in H}{argmax} P(x_{new}|c)$$

This is called maximum likelihood hypothesis

- Maximum a posterior (MAP) hypothesis
  - $\underset{c \in H}{argmax} P(x_{new}|c)P(c)$
- Maximum likelihood (ML) hypothesis
  - $\underset{c \in H}{argmax} P(x_{new}|c)$
- Typically, MAP estimate is used for Bayesian classification since it is flexible regarding prior use

# Bayesian classification: Example

- Cancer diagnosis problem
  - A patient takes a lab test and the result comes back positive for cancer.
  - It is known that the test returns a correct positive result in only 98% of the cases and a correct negative result in only 97% of the cases.
  - Furthermore, only 0.008 (i.e. 0.8%) of the entire population has cancer.
- 1. What is the probability that this patient has cancer?
- 2. What is the probability that this patient does not have cancer?
- 3. What is the diagnosis?

# Bayesian classification: Example

- Cancer diagnosis problem
  - A patient takes a lab test and the result comes back positive for cancer.
  - It is known that the test returns a correct positive result in only 98% of the cases and a correct negative result in only 97% of the cases.
  - Furthermore, only 0.008 (i.e. 0.8%) of the entire population has cancer.
  - P(cancer|+) = P(+|cancer)P(cancer) = ?
  - $P(\neg cancer|+) = P(?|?)P(?) = ?$

 In the discussion (and example) so far, the data has only one discrete-valued attribute

$$\underset{c \in H}{argmax} P(x_{new}|c)P(c)$$

- What if data has several discrete-valued attributes?
- Classification problem addressed was:
  - Classifier learns from  $x_1, x_2, ..., x_N$  and  $t_1, t_2, ..., t_N$  so that it can later classify  $x_{new}$
- Now the classification problem becomes:
  - Classifier learns from  $x_1, x_2, ..., x_N$  and  $t_1, t_2, ..., t_N$  so that it can later classify  $x_{new}$

## Naïve Bayes assumption

- Instead of  $\underset{c \in H}{argmax} P(x_{new}|c)P(c)$ , we need to estimate:  $\underset{c \in H}{argmax} P(x_{new}|c)P(c) = \underset{c \in H}{argmax} P(x_{new}^1, x_{new}^2, ..., x_{new}^d|c)P(c)$
- Recall that  $P(x_{new}|c)$  denotes class-conditional distribution, specific to class c, evaluated at  $x_{new}$ 
  - It is extremely difficult to fit class-conditional distribution for each class c, for a high dimensional data
- Naïve Bayes assumption: attributes that describe data are conditionally independent given a hypothesis

$$P(\mathbf{x}_{new}|c) = \prod_{i=1}^{d} P(\mathbf{x}_{new}^{i}|c)$$

- It is a simplifying assumption, obviously it may be violated in reality
- In spite of that, it works well in practice

## Naive Bayes classification

 Naïve Bayes classifier: uses the Naïve Bayes assumption and estimates the maximum a posterior (MAP) hypothesis

$$\underset{c \in H}{\operatorname{argmax}} P(\mathbf{x}_{new}|c)P(c) = \underset{c \in H}{\operatorname{argmax}} \prod_{i=1}^{a} p(x_{new}^{i}|c)P(c)$$

- Note that  $p(x_{new}^i|c)$  denotes probability for the  $i^{\text{th}}$  attribute value
- Each attribute has discrete values (in discussion so far)
  - Continuous attribute values to be discussed later...
- Very simple but practical classification algorithm
- Successful applications:
  - Medical diagnosis
  - Text classification

# Naïve Bayes classification: Learning to diagnose

Given the patients data (symptoms and diagnosis):

chills	runny nose	headache	fever	Flu?
Y	N	Mild	Y	N
Y	Y	No	Ν	Y
Y	N	Strong	Y	Υ
Ν	Y	Mild	Y	Y
N	N	No	N	N
Ν	Y	Strong	Y	Y
N	Y	Strong	Ν	N
Y	Y	Mild	Y	Υ

What is the probability for the following?

Υ	Ν	Mild	Ν	Ś
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# Naïve Bayes classification: Learning to diagnose

What is the probability for the following?

chills	runny nose	headache	fever	Flu?
Υ	Ν	Mild	Ν	ś

- $P(flu = Y | \mathbf{x}_{new}) = P(\mathbf{x}_{new} | flu = Y) P(flu = Y) = ?$
- Using Naïve Bayes classifier:

```
• P(flu = Y | \mathbf{x}_{new}) =
P(chills = Y | flu = Y)
P(runny nose = N | flu = Y)
P(headache = Mild|flu = Y)
P(fever = N | flu = Y)
P(flu = Y) = ?
```

•  $P(flu = N | \mathbf{x}_{new}) = P(\mathbf{x}_{new} | flu = N)P(flu = N) = ?$ 

# Naïve Bayes classification: Learning to classify

Given the tennis playing data:

outlook	temperature	humidity	wind	Play tennis?
sunny	hot	high	weak	N
sunny	hot	high	strong	N
overcast	hot	high	weak	Y
rain	mild	high	weak	Y
rain	cool	normal	weak	Y
rain	cool	normal	strong	N
overcast	cool	normal	strong	Y
sunny	mild	high	weak	N
sunny	cool	normal	weak	Y
rain	mild	normal	weak	Y
sunny	mild	normal	strong	Y
overcast	mild	high	strong	Y
overcast	hot	normal	weak	Y
rain	mild	high	strong	N

# Naïve Bayes classification: Learning to classify

Classify the new data:

outlook	temperature	humidity	wind	Play tennis?
sunny	cool	high	strong	Ś

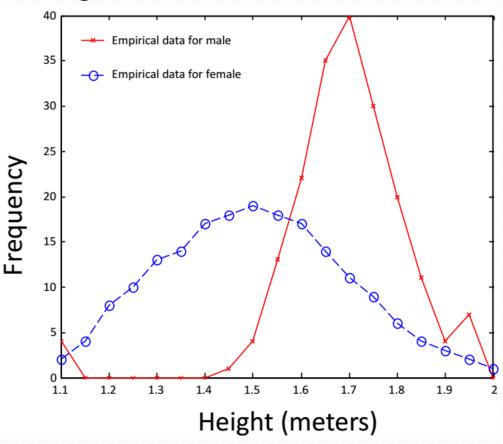
• 
$$P(play = Y | \mathbf{x}_{new}) = P(\mathbf{x}_{new} | play = Y)P(play = Y) = ?$$

• 
$$P(play = N | \mathbf{x}_{new}) = P(\mathbf{x}_{new} | play = N)P(play = N) = ?$$

#### Gaussian classification

- In the discussion (and examples) so far, the data has discrete-valued attributes (e.g. 'sunny', 'Y')
  - What if the attributes are real-valued?
- For discrete-valued attributes, we used probability distributions to estimate attribute value relation with class label
- For real-valued attributes, we need to use probability density function (pdf) to estimate attribute value relation with class label
- Gaussian classifier: Bayes or Naïve Bayes classifier that utilizes Gaussian pdf

- Given heights of 190 male and 190 females, can a classifier learn to predict gender?
- Attribute?
  - Height
- Class labels?
  - $t_{male} = 1$
  - $t_{female} = 0$
- $c \in \{0,1\}$



 Let's recall maximum a posterior estimate from Bayes rule:

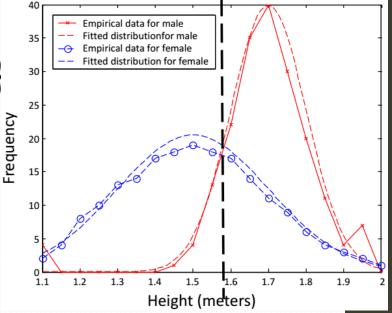
$$p(c|x_{new}) = p(x_{new}|c)p(c)$$

- We need class prior:
  - p(c = 1) = ?
  - p(c = 0) = ?
- We will also need class-conditional likelihood:
  - $p(x_{new}|c=1)$ : probability that a male has height  $x_{new}$
  - $p(x_{new}|c=0)$ : probability that a female has height  $x_{new}$
- Posterior
  - $p(c = 1|x_{new})$ : probability that height  $x_{new}$  is a male
  - $p(c = 0|x_{new})$ : probability that height  $x_{new}$  is a female

- Class-conditional likelihood  $p(x_{new}|c)$ 
  - Class-conditional distribution can be modelled as a Gaussian pdf, for each class
- Univariate Gaussian pdf

$$p(x_{new}|\mu_c, \sigma_c^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_c^2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{(x_{new}-\mu_c)^2}{2\sigma_c^2}\right\}$$

- How to estimate  $\mu_c$  and  $\sigma_c^2$ ?
  - $\bullet \ \mu_c = \frac{1}{N_c} \sum_{n=1}^{N_c} x_n$
  - $\sigma_c^2 = \frac{1}{N_c} \sum_{n=1}^{N_c} (x_n \mu_c)^2$
- We will have a separate Gaussian pdf for each class
  - $\mu_0$  and  $\sigma_0^2$ : mean and variance for female class
  - $\mu_1$  and  $\sigma_1^2$ : mean and variance for male class



 By estimating class-conditional likelihood and class prior, posterior can be estimated:

$$p(c|x_{new}) = p(x_{new}|c)p(c)$$

• Since  $p(x_{new}|c) = p(x_{new}|\mu_c, \sigma_c^2)$ , we get:

$$p(c|x_{new}) = p(x_{new}|\mu_c, \sigma_c^2)p(c)$$

Recall that

$$p(x_{new}|\mu_c, \sigma_c^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_c^2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{(x_{new} - \mu_c)^2}{2\sigma_c^2}\right\}$$

• Thus, the posterior estimate for prediction is:

$$p(c|x_{new}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_c^2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{(x_{new} - \mu_c)^2}{2\sigma_c^2}\right\} p(c)$$

- In the Gaussian classifier discussion so far, the data has only one attribute
  - i.e. one-dimensional input  $x_n$
  - For such case, univariate Gaussian pdf was sufficient to estimate class-conditional likelihood
- What if the data has multiple attributes?
  - i.e. d-dimensional input  $\mathbf{x}_n = \{x_n^1, x_n^2, ..., x_n^d\}$
  - Multivariate Gaussian pdf will be needed for estimation of class-conditional likelihood

$$p(\mathbf{x}_{new}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_c, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_c)$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^d |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_c|}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}_{new} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_c)^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_c^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_{new} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_c)\right\}$$

Multivariate Gaussian pdf for class-conditional likelihood

$$p(\mathbf{x}_{new}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_c, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_c)$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^d |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_c|}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}_{new} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_c)^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_c^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_{new} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_c)\right\}$$

where

$$\mu_c = \frac{1}{N_c} \sum_{n=1}^{N_c} x_n$$

$$\Sigma_{c} = \frac{1}{N_{c}} \sum_{n=1}^{N_{c}} (x_{n} - \mu_{c})(x_{n} - \mu_{c})^{T}$$

What is the difference between  $x_n$  and  $x_{new}$ ?

 By estimating class-conditional likelihood and class prior, posterior can be estimated:

$$p(c|\mathbf{x}_{new}) = p(\mathbf{x}_{new}|c)p(c)$$

• Since  $p(\mathbf{x}_{new}|c) = p(\mathbf{x}_{new}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_c, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_c)$ , we get:

$$p(c|\mathbf{x}_{new}) = p(\mathbf{x}_{new}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_c, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_c)p(c)$$

Recall that

$$p(\boldsymbol{x}_{new}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_c, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_c) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^d |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_c|}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{x}_{new} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_c)^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_c^{-1} (\boldsymbol{x}_{new} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_c)\right\}$$

Thus, the posterior estimate for prediction is:

$$p(c|\mathbf{x}_{new}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^d |\mathbf{\Sigma}_c|}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}_{new} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_c)^T \mathbf{\Sigma}_c^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_{new} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_c)\right\} p(c)$$

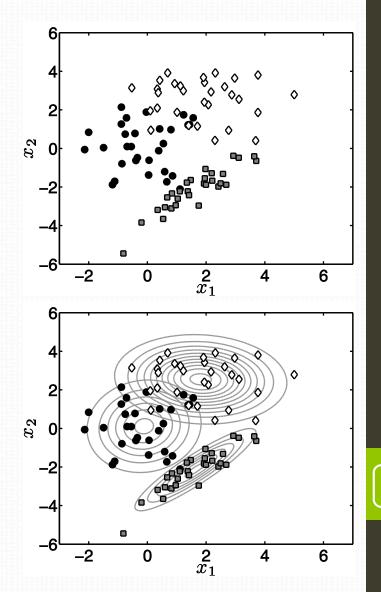
- Example: three class 2d data (30 samples each)
  - 1: black circles
  - 2: white diamonds
  - 3: grey squares
- Class conditional prior

$$p(\mathbf{x}_{new}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_c, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_c)$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^d |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_c|}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}_{new} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_c)\right\}$$

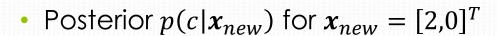
$$-\boldsymbol{\mu}_c)^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_c^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_{new} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_c)$$

Density contours



### Gaussian classification: Making predictions

- Example: three class 2d data (30 samples each)
  - 1: black circles
  - 2: white diamonds
  - 3: grey squares

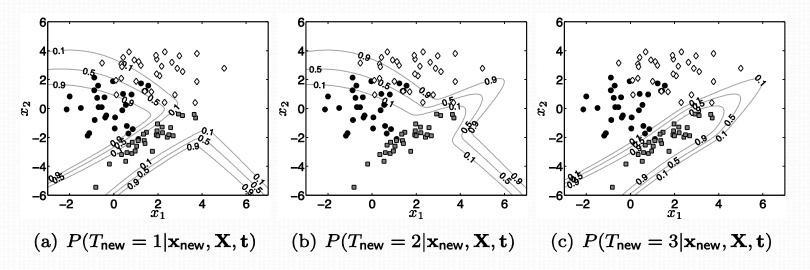


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-4	-				-
-6		<u> </u>			
	<b>-2</b>	0	$\overset{2}{x_1}$	4	6

С	$p(\boldsymbol{x}_{new} \boldsymbol{\mu}_c,\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_c)$	p(c)	$   p(c \mathbf{x}_{new})   = p(\mathbf{x}_{new} \boldsymbol{\mu}_c, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_c)p(c) $	$P(c x_{new})$
1	0.0138	1/3	0.0046	0.6890
2	0.0061	1/3	0.0020	0.3024
3	0.0002	1/3	0.0001	0.0087

#### Gaussian classification: Making predictions

• By evaluating the Gaussian classifier on a grid of many  $x_{new}$  values, we can estimate and draw the classification probability contours



 The steepness of density contours for class 3 partly explains the odd behaviour in (a) and (b)

 How many parameters to estimate multivariate Gaussian pdf with 2d data, for each class?

• 
$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_c = \frac{1}{N_c} \sum_{n=1}^{N_c} \boldsymbol{x}_n$$

• 
$$\Sigma_c = \frac{1}{N_c} \sum_{n=1}^{N_c} (x_n - \mu_c) (x_n - \mu_c)^T$$

- Five parameters: two for  $\mu_c$  and three for  $\Sigma_c$
- In general, for D dimensional data, we need to estimate  $D+D+\frac{D(D-1)}{2}$  parameters
  - For 10-dimensional data, 65 parameters need to be estimated for each class
- What if the training data size is small (e.g. 30 samples)?

#### Gaussian classification: Naive Bayes assumption

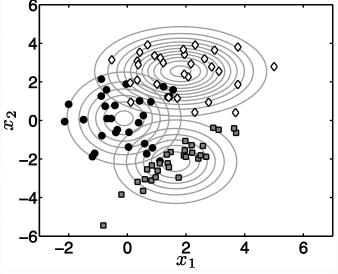
- To "overcome" lack of data, Naïve Bayes assumption can be utilized
  - i.e. each attribute is assumed to be independent
- Class-conditional multivariate distribution is factorized in to product of D univariate distributions, for each class

$$p(\mathbf{x}_{new}|c) = \prod_{d=1}^{D} p(x_{new}^{d}|c) = \prod_{d=1}^{D} p(x_{new}^{d}|\mu_{c}, \sigma_{c}^{2})$$

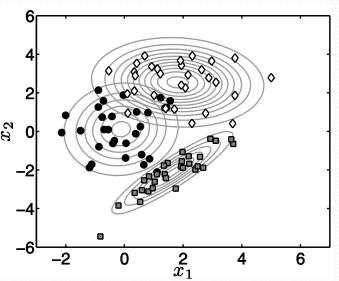
- Each univariate distribution relies on only two parameters: mean  $\mu_c$  and variance  $\sigma_c^2$ 
  - Thus, only 2 \* D parameters need to be estimated with Naïve Bayes assumption

#### Gaussian classification: Naïve Bayes assumption

 Density contours, with Naïve Bayes assumption



 Density contours, <u>without</u> Naïve Bayes assumption



#### Gaussian classification: Naïve Bayes assumption

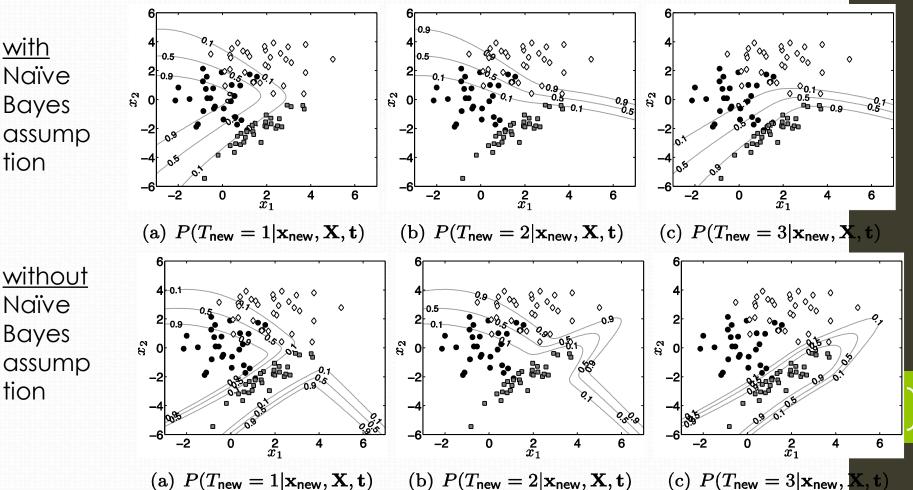
Classification probability contours

with Naïve Bayes assump tion

Naïve

Bayes

tion

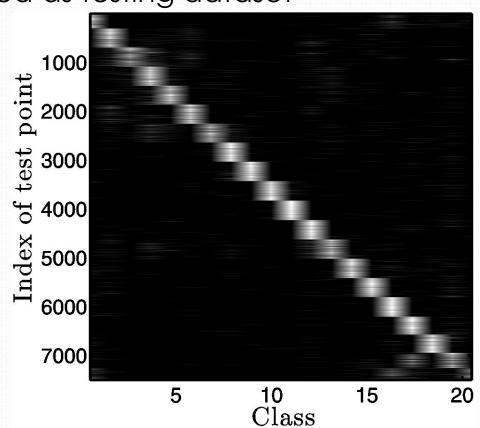


#### Gaussian classification: Learning to classify text

- Automatic text classification
  - 20 newsgroups dataset consisting of 20,000 documents (covering sports, religion, computing, etc)
  - Each document is a post to one of 20 newsgroups
- Learn to classify a new document to one of these 20 newsgroups
- What are the attributes?
  - Words?
- How to encode the document as a vector of numerical values for classification?
  - Bag-of-words
  - Word frequency
- With or without Naïve Bayes assumption?

#### Gaussian classification: Learning to classify text

- ~11,000 documents used as training dataset
- ~7,000 documents used as testing dataset
- Each test document is assigned a class, which has highest probability out of the 20 probability estimates
  - 78% classification accuracy



#### Summary

- Generative approach to classification
- Bayes rule for classification
- Naïve Bayes classifier is a simple but effective classifier for data having several attributes
- Class-conditional likelihood
- Class prior
- Maximum a posteriori Naïve Bayes estimate

#### Exercise (ungraded)

- ML Tom Mitchell: Exercise 6.1
  - Consider the example application (disease diagnosis) of Bayes rule (on slides 27 & 28). Suppose the doctor decides to order a second lab test for the same patient, and suppose the second test returns a positive result as well. What are the posterior probabilities of cancer and ¬cancer following these two tests? Assume that the two tests are independent?

#### Exercise (ungraded)

 Given training data, train a Gaussian classifier (without Naïve Bayes assumption)

Attribute 1	Attribute 2	class
-4	1	1
-5	2	1
-3	3	1
-2.5	4.5	1
-4	5	1
3	1	2
3.5	0	2
4	0.5	2
4	-1	2
3.5	-1	2

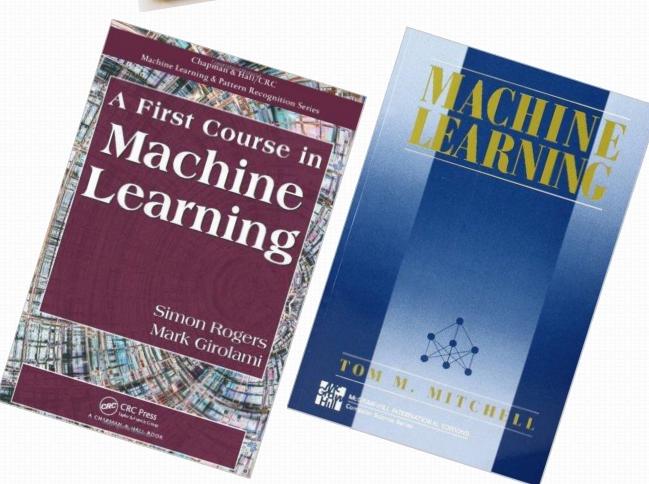
 Predict a new sample by estimating posterior using this Gaussian classifier

Attribute 1	Attribute 2	class
-2	2	Ś

#### Exercise (ungraded)

- Try MATLAB code plotcc.m (from FCML book website)
- Try MATLAB code bayesclass.m (from FCML book website)

## $C_3 R_1 E_1 D_2 I_1 I_3$





Author's material (Simon Rogers)

Ata
 Kaban's
 material
 from
 previous
 years



# Thankyou