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08. Classification

Network Data Analysis - NDA'21 Anastasios Giovanidis

Sorbonne-LIP6







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Classification Setting

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We have seen how to fit models to data when the response y_i to the input x_i is quantitative (e.g. "0.57", "24", "-24.3", etc.)

Question: How do we choose models and define their accuracy, when y_i 's are qualitative?

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Examples: ("Yes", "No"), ("Red", "Blue", "Green"), ("Malaria", "Yellow Fever", "Flu", "COVID") or more generally:
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("Class 1", "Class 2", ..., "Class M")
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Application A: IoT Classifier

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Example application: Internet-of-Things (IoT) for home networks. "Device identification assistant." from [B.2]

- ► Home devices can be controlled from distance. (Camera, Light, Sensor, Mobile, Switch, Alarm, Tablet, Speaker, TV.)
- For better quality-of-service these devices need to be identified by type from the network.
- Massive number of devices with heterogeneous functionality!

Use supervised learning to train an object classifier.

Input data:

- (a) the data-flow information per device, i.e. traffic characteristics.
- (b) a selected list of attributes (features).

A. IoT Features

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Once a device is connected, a MAC address is attributed.

Feature set to use for classification:

- Flow-based statistics:
 - Packet size (mean, max, min)
 - Mean inter-arrival packet time in a flow.
 - ▶ Flow-size measured in number of packets.
 - Protocol type: HTTP, HTTPS, SSDP, mDNS, TFTP, etc.
- Textual attributes (Bag-of-words): 0 or 1 per word per object?
 - ▶ Fabrication mark from MAC address.
 - Model and Type from HTTP.

A. IoT Implementation

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- WiFi access connected to an Ethernet switch.
- A measurement computer is connected at the switch to trace traffic.
- ▶ The computer collects data from the new IoT device during 1 min.
- The computer contains the trained classifier, which decides the most relavant class the IoT device belongs to. The decision is probabilistic.

Types of classifier: K-Nearest Neighbours, Naive Bayes, Random Forest, Tree-based classifier, etc.

Application B: Classifying Video QoE

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■ How to detect video streaming QoE issues from encrypted traffic? (see [B.3])

► Use predictive models to detect different levels of QoE degradation, due to: stalling, average video quality, quality variations.

Labels:

- ► Stalling: (None, Mild, Severe)
- ▶ Video Quality: (Low, Medium, High)
- Quality Switch: use frequency and amplitude of switches.

Features:

- (a) Chunk size percentiles, and average.
- (b) Packet retransmissions, (c) Bandwidth-Delay Product (BDP),
- (d) Bytes-In-Flight (BIF).

Training Accuracy

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Suppose we have training observations:

$$D_n = \{(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)\}, \text{ with } y_1, \dots, y_n \text{ qualitative.}$$

Consider a fitting model with an estimate $\hat{y}_i = \hat{f}(x_i)$. We use the training error rate:

$$\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\mathbf{1}\left(y_{i}\neq\hat{y}_{i}\right).$$

This is the fraction of incorrect classifications:

- \hat{y}_i is the predicted class label for the i-th observation using \hat{f} .
- ▶ $\mathbf{1}(y_i \neq \hat{y}_i) = 0$ for correct classification, else 1.
- \triangleright Similar to MSE_{train} in regression!

Test Accuracy

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Most interested in the error rates of the classifier to test observations $(x_o, y_o) \notin D_n$, not used in training.

Again for an estimate $\hat{y}_o = \hat{f}(x_o)$ we use the test error rate:

Ave
$$(\mathbf{1}(y_o \neq \hat{y}_o))$$
.

A good classifier is the one for which the test error is smallest!

Confusion Matrix

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In abstract terms, the confusion matrix is as follows:

		Actual class		
		Р	N	
Predicted class	P	TP	FP	
	N	FN	TN	

where: P = Positive; N = Negative; TP = True Positive; FP = False Positive; TN = True Negative; FN = False Negative.

Figure: (source: wikipedia "Confusion matrix")

Two types of errors (False Negative, and False Positive)

- ▶ FP: Incorrectly assign an individual of Class N to Class P.
- ► FN: Incorrectly assign an individual of Class P to Class N.

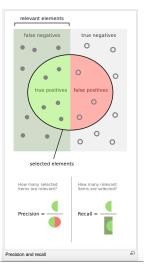
Definitions of performance

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		True con	dition				
	Total population	Condition positive	Condition negative	$\frac{ \sum Condition positive }{ \sum Total population }$	Accuracy (ACC) = Σ True positive + Σ True negative Σ Total population		
condition	Predicted condition positive	True positive	False positive, Type I error	Positive predictive value (PPV), Precision = \$\sum_{\text{True positive}} \$\text{\$\exititt{\$\text{\$\text{\$\text{\$\text{\$\text{\$\text{\$\text{\$\text{\$	False discovery rate (FDR) = Σ False positive Σ Predicted condition positive		
Predicted	Predicted condition negative	False negative, Type II error	True negative	$\frac{\text{False omission rate (FOR)} = }{\Sigma \text{ False negative}}$ $\overline{\Sigma \text{ Predicted condition negative}}$	Negative predictive value (NPV) = $\frac{\Sigma \text{ True negative}}{\Sigma \text{ Predicted condition negative}}$		
		True positive rate (TPR), Recall, Sensitivity, probability of detection, Power $= \frac{\Sigma \text{ True positive}}{\Sigma \text{ Condition positive}}$	False positive rate (FPR), Fall-out, probability of false alarm $= \frac{\Sigma \text{ False positive}}{\Sigma \text{ Condition negative}}$	Positive likelihood ratio (LR+) = TPR	Diagnostic odds	F ₁ score =	
		False negative rate (FNR), Miss rate $= \frac{\Sigma \text{ False negative}}{\Sigma \text{ Condition positive}}$	Specificity (SPC), Selectivity, True $\frac{\text{negative rate (TNR)}}{\sum \text{True negative}} = \frac{\sum \text{True negative}}{\sum \text{Condition negative}}$	Negative likelihood ratio (LR-) = FNR TNR	= LR+	2 · Precision · Recall Precision + Recall	

Figure: (source: wikipedia "Confusion matrix")

Precision and Recall



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Figure: (source: wikipedia "Precision and recall")

Metrics

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Accuracy (ACC)	TP+TN TP+FP+TN+FN	
Precision Positive predictive value (PPV)	TP TP+FP	
Recall (Sensitivity) True positive rate (TPR)	TP TP+FN	False negative rate FNR = 1 - TPR
Specificity True negative rate (TNR)	TN TN+FP	False positive rate FPR = 1 - TNR

ROC Curve

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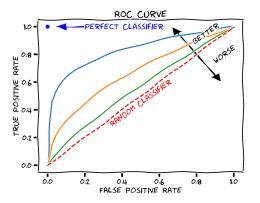


Figure: (source: wikipedia "Receiver operating characteristic")

Examples

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Α			В		С			C'			
TP=63	FP=28	91	TP=77	FP=77	154	TP=24	FP=88	112	TP=76	FP=12	88
FN=37	TN=72	109	FN=23	TN=23	46	FN=76	TN=12	88	FN=24	TN=88	112
100	100	200	100	100	200	100	100	200	100	100	200
TPR = 0.63	3		TPR = 0	.77		TPR = 0.2	24		TPR = 0.7	76	
FPR = 0.28	3		FPR = 0.77			FPR = 0.88			FPR = 0.12		
PPV = 0.69	PPV = 0.69 PPV = 0.50		PPV = 0.21			PPV = 0.86					
F1 = 0.66	F1 = 0.66 F1 = 0.61		F1 = 0.23			F1 = 0.81					
ACC = 0.6	ACC = 0.68 ACC = 0.50		ACC = 0.18			ACC = 0.82					

Figure: Four confusion matrices (source: wikipedia "Receiver operating characteristic")

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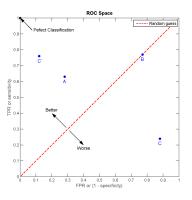


Figure: (source: wikipedia "Receiver operating characteristic")

Classifiers

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We will further consider in this lecture the following classifiers:

- ▶ ★ (Wise) Bayes classifier
- ▶ ★ Naive Bayes classifier
- ► ★ Logistic Regression (LR)

Bayes Classifier

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Optimal Classifier: (If all misclassifications are equally important) Assign each observation to the most likely class, given its predictor values:

$$\max_{1 \le j \le M} Pr(Y = j \mid X = x_o)$$

• We consider *conditional probabilities* given the observed x_o .

In a two-class problem

$$Pr(Y = 1 \mid X = x_o) + Pr(Y = 2 \mid X = x_o) = 1:$$

Class 1, if $Pr(Y = 1 \mid X = x_o) > 0.5$

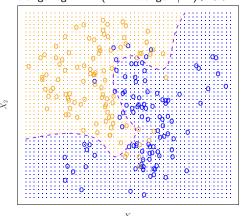
Class 2, if $Pr(Y = 2 \mid X = x_o) > 0.5$

Decision boundary
$$Pr(Y = 1 \mid X = x_o) = Pr(Y = 2 \mid X = x_o)$$

Bayes example

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orange region: $Pr(Y = "orange" \mid X) > 0.5$



 X_1

Figure: Bayes classifier : D_{100} data-set and 2 classes (blue, orange). ¹

¹Source [B.1]

Bayes classifier cont'd

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- ▶ Orange shaded region: $Pr(Y = "orange" \mid X) > 0.5$.
- ▶ Blue shaded region: $Pr(Y = "blue" \mid X) > 0.5$.
- ► The dashed line: Bayes decision boundary.
- Circles that fall in regions with different colour: misclassifications (False-Positives or False-Negatives)

Bayes classifier produces lowest test error rate (irreducible)!

Test
$$Error(x_o) = 1 - \max_j Pr(Y = j \mid X = x_o)$$

Drawback...

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There is one problem however: For real data we do not know the conditional distribution P(Y|X),

(unless we have generated data ourselves, in which case we know the joint distribution P(X, Y)).

Bayes classifier serves as an unreachable golden standard!

If we do not know exactly P(Y|X) we can try to estimate it.

KNN classifier

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How does the KNN classifier work?

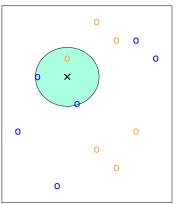
- ▶ Choose a positive integer K > 0.
- ▶ Given a test observation $x_o \notin D_n$, the KNN classifier identifies the K points in the training data-set closest to x_o , it is the set $\mathcal{N}_K(x_o)$.
- ▶ The conditional probability for class j at x_o is estimated as:

$$Pr(Y = j \mid X = x_o) = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{N}_K(x_o)} \mathbf{1}(y_i = j).$$

- ▶ Calculate the estimates for all classes j = 1, ..., M and
- ► Finally, apply Bayes classification: classify x_o to the class with the largest estimated probability.

KNN example





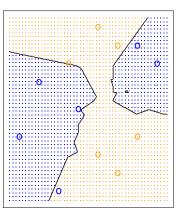


Figure: KNN classifier (K=3): D_{12} data-set and 2 classes. ²

²Source [B.1]

Optimal Choice of K

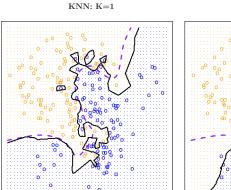
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Despite its simplicity KNN can give classifiers surprisingly close to Bayes. Choice of K is important:

- If K = 1, very flexible decision boundary → Low Training Error (= 0) but! High Test Error.
- ► As K increases (less flexibility) Training Error increases but the Test Error may not!
- ► Find optimal K* with minimum Test Error (U shape)
- ▶ If K = 100 decision boundary close to linear.

Variance vs Bias Tradeoff or Flexibility vs Interpretability

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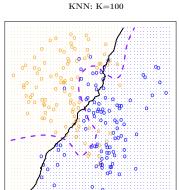


Figure: KNN with K = 1 (left) and K = 100 (right). ³

³Source [B.1]

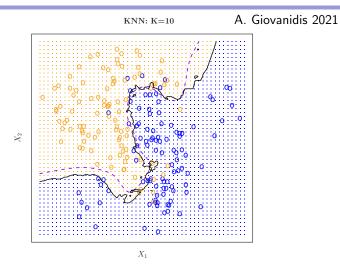


Figure: KNN with K = 10 close to Bayes optimal. ⁴

⁴Source [B.1]

Variance vs Bias Tradeoff

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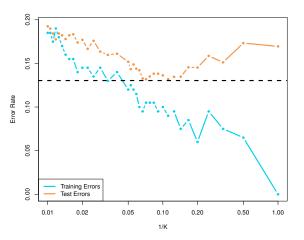


Figure: Training/Test Error Rate. ⁵

What if... Linear Regression?

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Suppose we have again two classes: 'Class 1', 'Class 2' and K=1 feature.

- ▶ What if we used Linear Regression for the P(Y|X)?
- Let 'Class 1': Y = 0 and 'Class 2': Y = 1.
- ightharpoonup We assume that the linear model describes the 0/1 data,

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_t + \epsilon$$

and we look for the regression line

$$\mathbb{E}\left[Y\mid X\right] = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X$$

Since
$$Y_t \in \{0,1\}$$
 then $\mathbb{E}[Y_t \mid X_t] = Pr(Y_t = 1 | X_t) = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_t$.

Wrong Shape! less than 0, more than 1 A. Giovanidis 2021

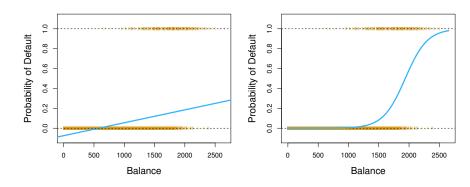


Figure: Pr(Y = 1|X). Linear vs Sigmoidal fit. ⁶

⁶Source [B.1]

Logistic Regression

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Suppose for the two-class problem Pr(Y = 1|X) follows the logistic function.

$$p(X) := Pr(Y = 1|X) = \frac{e^{\beta_o + \beta_1 X}}{1 + e^{\beta_o + \beta_1 X}}$$

- ▶ For $X \to -\infty$: $p(X) \to 0$
- ▶ For $X \to +\infty$: $p(X) \to 1$
- ► It is an S-shaped curve.

We need to fit β_o , β_1 in the non-linear logistic function.

Logistic fit

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We consider a Training data-set D_n with $Y_n = (0, 0, 1, \dots, 0, 1)$.

- ightharpoonup We don't want to use MSE fit ightharpoonup complicated expressions.
- Better use: log-likelihood function.

What is the likelihood $g(D_n)$ of the data-sample?

$$g(D_n) = \prod_{t:y_t=1} p(x_t) \prod_{t':y_{t'}=0} (1 - p(x_{t'}))$$

because we assumed that for any X

$$Y = \begin{cases} 1, & p(X) \\ 0, & 1 - p(X) \end{cases}$$

and for all $x_t \in D_n$ we know what is the y_t answer.

Log-likelihood maximization

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The log-likelihood function, is then equal to

$$\ell(\beta_{0}, \beta_{1}; D_{n}) = \log(g(D_{n}))$$

$$= \sum_{t:y_{t}=1} \log p(x_{t}) + \sum_{t':y_{t'}=0} \log (1 - p(x_{t'}))$$

$$= \sum_{t=1}^{n} \{y_{t} \log p(x_{t}) + (1 - y_{t}) \log (1 - p(x_{t}))\}$$

$$p(X) = \frac{e^{\beta_{0} + \beta_{1}X}}{\frac{1+e^{\beta_{0} + \beta_{1}X}}{2}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \{y_{i} (\beta_{0} + \beta_{1}x_{i}) - \log (1 + e^{\beta_{0} + \beta_{1}X})\}$$

We want to $\max_{\beta_0,\beta_1} \ell(\beta_0,\beta_1; D_n)$.

Newton's method

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We follow standard process:

▶ Hence the log-likelihood logistic function is strictly concave.

$$\begin{bmatrix} \beta_0^{(k+1)} \\ \beta_1^{(k+1)} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0^{(k)} \\ \beta_1^{(k)} \end{bmatrix} - (\nabla^2 \ell(\beta_0, \beta_1; D_n))^{-1} \cdot \nabla \ell(\beta_0, \beta_1; D_n)$$

"What are the odds?"

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One can see the logistic expression of the predictions from a different point-of-view:

$$q(x_t) := \frac{p(x_t)}{1 - p(x_t)} = e^{(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_t)}.$$

odds function: often used in... Horse-racing!

"What are the odds?"

- ▶ If $q(x_t) = 1/4$, then $p(x_t) = P(Y_t = 1 \mid x_t) = 0.2$
- ▶ If $q(x'_t) = 9/1$, then $p(x'_t) = P(Y_t = 1 \mid x'_t) = 0.9$.

The logits (or log-odds)

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$$Q(x_t) := \log \left(\frac{p(x_t)}{1 - p(x_t)} \right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_t.$$

Here we come back to the expression for the Linear Regression!

Separating hyperplane: For p = 0.5, we get the "linear" boundary

$$0 = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{t,1} \quad \left(+ \beta_2 x_{t,2} + \ldots + \beta_K x_{t,K} \right), \qquad \text{for } K \geq 1.$$

e.g. for K = 1, it is a point $x_{bound} = -\beta_0/\beta_1$. (left: 1, right: 0)

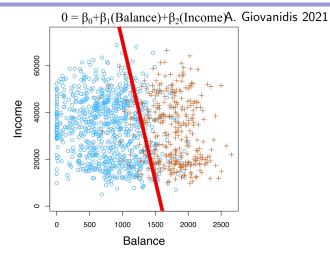


Figure: The boundary separates "blue" from "orange". ⁷

⁷Source [B.1]

Test Data (Logistic)

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If we have test input data $x_o \notin D_n$, how do we choose its Class? Say $x_o = (x_{o,1}, x_{o,2}, \dots, x_{o,K})$.

Use the fitted values of $\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_K$

- ► Either calculate $p(x_o) = \frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{o,1} + \dots + \beta_K x_{o,K}}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{o,1} + \dots + \beta_K x_{o,K}}}$ and check if >, =, < 0.5,
- or check the position of x_o related to the boundary: $\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{o,1} + \beta_2 x_{o,2} + \ldots + \beta_K x_{o,K} >, =, < 0$.

e.g.
$$\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{o,1} + \beta_2 x_{o,2} + \ldots + \beta_K x_{o,K} > 0 \Rightarrow p(x_o) > 0.5$$

™ We need not always use the value of 0.5 for the boundary...

Multiple Logistic Regression

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We have implied that the Logistic Regression is generalised to higher than 1 dimension:

$$\log\left(\frac{p(X)}{1-p(X)}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \ldots + \beta_K X_K,$$

where $X = (X_1, \dots, X_K)$ are K predictors.

Equivalently,

$$p(X) = \frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \ldots + \beta_K X_K}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \ldots + \beta_K X_K}}.$$

 β_0, \ldots, β_K are estimated by the maximum likelihood method.

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Using the data set Default we want to decide, whether an individual is likely to default on its bank account, or not. (balance =credit card debt)

X =(balance, income, student[Yes]), so K = 3.

Y = default[Yes].

• First consider only balance, K = 1.

	Coefficient	Std. error	Z-statistic	P-value
Intercept	-10.6513	0.3612	-29.5	< 0.0001
balance	0.0055	0.0002	24.9	< 0.0001

 \square 1-unit increase in (credit-card) balance is associated to $\beta_1 = 0.0055$ units increase in log-odds of default.

Example (predictions)

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 $\operatorname{default}[\operatorname{Yes}]$ probability for an individual with $\operatorname{balance} = 1000$ EUR

$$\hat{\rho}(\text{balance} = 1000) = \frac{e^{-10.6513 + 0.0055 \times 1000}}{1 + e^{-10.6513 + 0.0055 \times 1000}} = 0.00576$$

• Now consider binary student[Yes], K = 1.

	Coefficient	Std. error	Z-statistic	P-value
Intercept	-3.5041	0.0707	-49.55	< 0.0001
student[Yes]	0.4049	0.1150	3.52	0.0004

$$\hat{p}(\mathrm{student}[\mathrm{Yes}] = 1) = 0.0431 \quad > \quad \hat{p}(\mathrm{student}[\mathrm{Yes}] = 0) = 0.0292$$

Conclusion 1: Students are more likely to default.

Example (multiple)

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• Now consider the entire X vector, K = 3.

	Coefficient	Std. error	Z-statistic	P-value
Intercept	-10.8690	0.4923	-22.08	< 0.0001
balance	0.0057	0.0002	24.74	< 0.0001
income	0.0030	0.0082	0.37	0.7115
student[Yes]	-0.6468	0.2362	-2.74	0.0062

Paradox: Conclusion 2: Students are less likely to default !!!! $(\beta_{\text{student}[Yes]} < 0)$

Why? The student[Yes] and balance predictors are correlated.

Logistic Regression

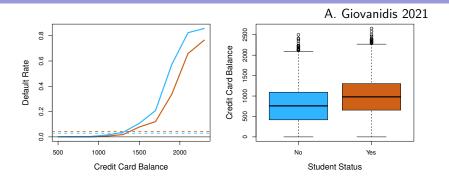


Figure: Students tend to have higher debts in the US/GB/D. ⁸

Conclusion 1: For the same credit-card balance a student is less likely to default.

⁸Source [B.1]

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Logistic Regression for > 2 Classes

We can easily generalise to M classes:

$$\log \frac{Pr(\textit{Class} = 1|X = x)}{Pr(\textit{Class} = M|X = x)} = \beta_{1,0} + \beta_1^T x$$

$$\dots$$

$$\log \frac{Pr(\textit{Class} = M - 1|X = x)}{Pr(\textit{Class} = M|X = x)} = \beta_{M-1,0} + \beta_{M-1}^T x$$

$$Pr(\textit{Class} = M|X = x) = \frac{1}{1 + \sum_{m=1}^{M-1} \exp(\beta_{m,0} + \beta_m^T x)}$$

- We need M-1 log-odds. The probabilities sum-up to 1.
- The choice of denominator class is arbitrary. Max likelihood.

For multiple classes, discriminant analysis is more popular...

The Naive Bayes classifier:

- Assumes that the K features are independent.
- Uses a simple MAP or ML estimator

$$P(Y \mid \mathcal{D}_n) \propto P(\mathcal{D}_n \mid Y)P(Y)$$
 [MAP]
 $P(Y \mid \mathcal{D}_n) \propto P(\mathcal{D}_n \mid Y)$ [ML]

where Y is the class label.

We choose MAP or ML, depending on the prior information over the class distribution Y.

Naive Bayes with discrete features

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Let us classify texts (e.g. books, sentences) in one of two classes:

- 1. History
- 2. Science

To do so, we will use some features from the available data (texts). These are a certain bag-of-words: {'king', 'food', 'equals', 'proof'}

Bag-Of-Words

Label

	1:'king'	2:'food'	3:'equals'	4:'proof'	History	Science
Text 1	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
Text 2	No	No	Yes	No	No	Yes
Text 3	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No
Text n	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes

Naive Bayes with discrete features (II)

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 \mathscr{O} If X contains K binary state features, with $X_{t,k} \in \{0,1\}$, then

$$X_t = (X_{t,1}, \ldots, X_{t,K}), \quad t = 1, \ldots, n.$$

 $X_{t,k}$ says whether feature k appears or not in the t-th data sample of \mathcal{D}_n .

Also, Y is the label of each text. Then, let

$$Y_t = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} 0 & ext{if 'History'} \ 1 & ext{if 'Science'} \end{array}
ight.$$

ML estimators

$$p_1 = p_{Sc} = P(Y = 1) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^{n} Y_t, \qquad p_0 = p_{Hi} = P(Y = 0) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^{n} (1 - Y_t)$$

$$p_{1,k} = p_{Sc,k} = P(X_k = 1 \mid Y = 1) = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{n} Y_t \cdot X_{t,k}}{\sum_{t=1}^{n} Y_t}$$

Naive Bayes with discrete features (III)

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How does Naive Bayes work in 2 classes ('History'-'Science'), for a Test sample (X_o, y_o) ?

- ▶ We make use of the estimated Likelihood!
- Suppose the distribution for each feature k per class j is Bernoulli($p_{j,k}$) and independent of other features. Then for ML posteriors:

$$P(Y = 0 \mid X_o) \propto P(X_o \mid Y = 0) = \prod_{k=1}^{K} p_{0,k}^{X_{o,k}} (1 - p_{0,k})^{1 - X_{o,k}},$$

$$P(Y = 1 \mid X_o) \propto P(X_o \mid Y = 1) = \prod_{k=1}^{K} p_{1,k}^{X_{o,k}} (1 - p_{1,k})^{1 - X_{o,k}}$$

For MAP posteriors we need also the Prior distribution over classes, i.e. $p_0 = P(Y = 0)$ and $p_1 = P(Y = 1)$,

$$P(Y = j \mid \mathcal{D}_n) = P(\mathcal{D}_n \mid Y = j) \cdot P(Y = j), \quad j = 0, 1.$$

Naive Bayes with continuous features

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- $\ensuremath{\mathscr{O}}$ Suppose that X contains K continuous state features.
 - Prior distribution over classes, is assumed uniform, i.e. P(Y = 0) = P(Y = 1) = 0.5.
 - ▶ Suppose the distribution for each feature k per class j is Gaussian $\mathcal{N}(\mu_{j,k}, \sigma_{j,k}^2)$.

ML estimates for mean and variance

$$\overline{X}_{1,k} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t \in \mathcal{D}_n, Y_t = 1} X_{t,k}, \qquad \overline{X}_{0,k} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t \in \mathcal{D}_n, Y_t = 0} X_{t,k}$$

$$\overline{S}_{1,k}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t \in \mathcal{D}_n, Y_t = 1} (X_{t,k} - \overline{X}_{1,k})^2, \qquad \overline{S}_{0,k}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t \in \mathcal{D}_n, Y_t = 0} (X_{t,k} - \overline{X}_{0,k})^2.$$

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Given a Test sample (x_o, y_o) , the estimated class is the one which maximizes the ML (or MAP) estimator, i.e. the maximum between

$$P(Y = 0 \mid \mathcal{D}_n) = \prod_{k=1}^{K} \frac{1}{(2\pi \overline{S}_{0,k}^2)^{1/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x_{o,k} - \overline{X}_{0,k})^2}{2\overline{S}_{0,k}^2}\right) \quad \text{for} \quad \text{Class } 0$$

$$P(Y = 1 \mid \mathcal{D}_n) = \prod_{k=1}^{K} \frac{1}{(2\pi \overline{S}_{1,k}^2)^{1/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x_{o,k} - \overline{X}_{1,k})^2}{2\overline{S}_{1,k}^2}\right) \quad \text{for} \quad \text{Class } 1$$

and similarly as in the discrete case for MAP estimators.

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END