

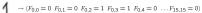
### Model-Based Classification

- Model-based approach
  - Build a model (e.g. Bayes' net) where both the label and features are random variables
  - Instantiate any observed features
  - Query for the distribution of the label conditioned on the features
- Challenges
  - What structure should the BN have?
  - How should we learn its parameters?



### Naïve Bayes for Digits

- Naïve Bayes: Assume all features are independent effects of the label
- Simple digit recognition version:
  - One feature (variable) F<sub>ij</sub> for each grid position <i,j>
  - Feature values are on / off, based on whether intensity is more or less than 0.5 in underlying image
  - · Each input maps to a feature vector, e.g.



- Here: lots of features, each is binary valued
- Naïve Bayes model:  $P(Y|F_{0,0}\dots F_{15,15})\propto P(Y)\prod P(F_{i,j}|Y)$
- What do we need to learn?

### General Naïve Bayes

A general Naive Bayes model:

|Y| parameters

$$P(Y, F_1 ... F_n) = P(Y) \prod_i P(F_i | Y)$$

$$|Y| \times |F|^n \text{ values} \qquad \text{n.x.} |F| \times |Y|$$

- We only have to specify how each feature depends on the class
   Total number of parameters is *linear* in n
- Model is very simplistic, but often works anyway

### Inference for Naïve Bayes

- Goal: compute posterior distribution over label variable Y
- Step 1: get joint probability of label and evidence for each label

$$P(Y, f_1 \dots f_n) = \begin{bmatrix} P(y_1, f_1 \dots f_n) \\ P(y_2, f_1 \dots f_n) \\ \vdots \\ P(y_k, f_1 \dots f_n) \end{bmatrix} \longrightarrow \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} P(y_1) \prod_i P(f_i|y_1) \\ P(y_2) \prod_i P(f_i|y_2) \\ \vdots \\ P(y_k) \prod_i P(f_i|y_k) \end{bmatrix}}_{P(f_1 \dots f_n)}$$

- Step 2: sum to get probability of evidence
- Step 3: normalize by dividing Step 1 by Step 2

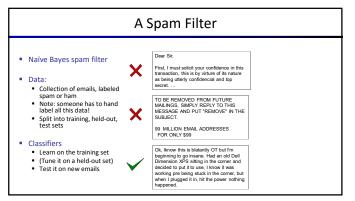
$$P(Y|f_1 \dots f_n)$$

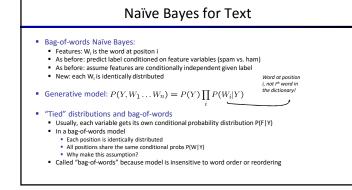
### General Naïve Bayes

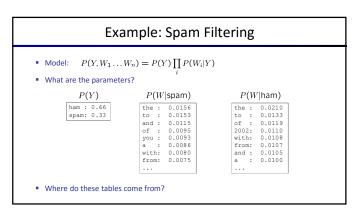
- What do we need in order to use Naïve Bayes?
  - Inference method (we just saw this part)
    - Start with a bunch of probabilities: P(Y) and the P(F<sub>i</sub>|Y) tables Use standard inference to compute P(Y|F<sub>1</sub>...F<sub>n</sub>)
       Nothing new here
  - Estimates of local conditional probability tables

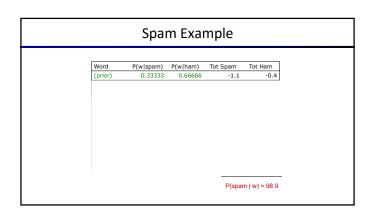
  - P(Y), the prior over labels
     P(F<sub>i</sub>|Y) for each feature (evidence variable)
  - \* These probabilities are collectively called the <code>parameters</code> of the model and denoted by  $\theta$
  - Up until now, we assumed these appeared by magic, but...
  - ...they typically come from training data counts: we'll look at this soon

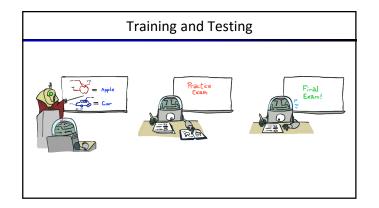
### **Example: Conditional Probabilities** P(Y)

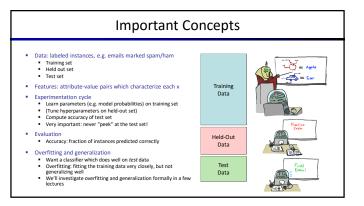


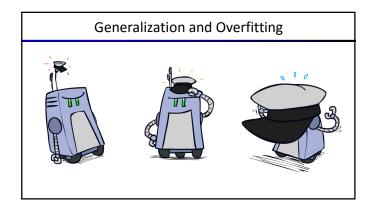


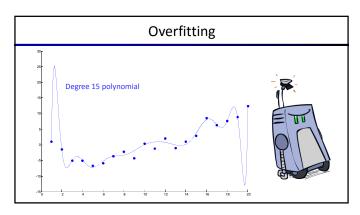


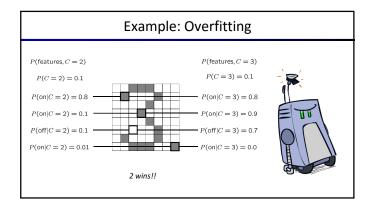


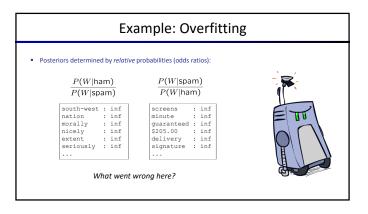




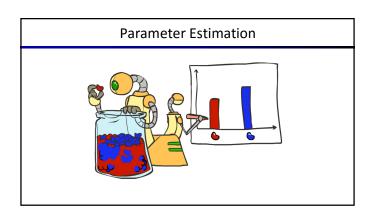








# Relative frequency parameters will overfit the training datal Just because we never saw a 3 with pixel (15,15) on during training doesn't mean we won't see it at test time Unlikely that every occurrence of "minute" is 100% spam Unlikely that every occurrence of "seriously" is 100% ham What about all the words that don't occur in the training set at all? In general, we can't go around giving unseen events zero probability As an extreme case, imagine using the entire email as the only feature Would get the training data perfect (if deterministic labeling) Wouldn't generalize at all Just making the bag-of-words assumption gives us some generalization, but isn't enough To generalize better: we need to smooth or regularize the estimates



### **Parameter Estimation**

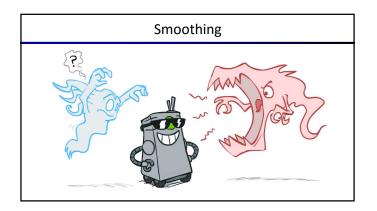
- Estimating the distribution of a random variable
- Elicitation: ask a human (why is this hard?)
- Empirically: use training data (learning!)
  - E.g.: for each outcome x, look at the *empirical rate* of that value:





This is the estimate that maximizes the likelihood of the data

$$L(x,\theta) = \prod_{i} P_{\theta}(x_i)$$



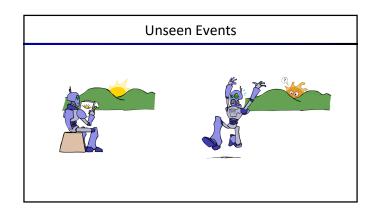
### Maximum Likelihood?

• Relative frequencies are the maximum likelihood estimates

$$\begin{array}{ll} \theta_{ML} = \arg\max_{\theta} P(\mathbf{X}|\theta) \\ = \arg\max_{\theta} \prod P_{\theta}(X_i) \end{array} \qquad \Longrightarrow \quad P_{\mathsf{ML}}(x) = \frac{\mathsf{count}(x)}{\mathsf{total \ samples}} \\ \end{array}$$

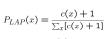
Another option is to consider the most likely parameter value given the data

$$\begin{split} \theta_{MAP} &= \arg\max_{\theta} P(\theta|\mathbf{X}) \\ &= \arg\max_{\theta} P(\mathbf{X}|\theta) P(\theta) / P(\mathbf{X}) \end{split} \qquad \begin{array}{c} ???? \\ ???? \\ &= \arg\max_{\theta} P(\mathbf{X}|\theta) P(\theta) \end{array}$$



### **Laplace Smoothing**

- Laplace's estimate:
  - Pretend you saw every outcome once more than you actually did





$$P_{ML}(X) =$$

$$P_{LAP}(X) =$$

 Can derive this estimate with Dirichlet priors (see cs281a)

### **Laplace Smoothing**

- Laplace's estimate (extended):
  - Pretend you saw every outcome k extra times



- What's Laplace with k = 0?
- k is the strength of the prior
- Laplace for conditionals:Smooth each condition independently:

$$P_{LAP,k}(x|y) = \frac{c(x,y) + k}{c(y) + k|X|}$$





 $P_{LAP,1}(X) =$ 

 $P_{LAP,100}(X) =$ 

### Estimation: Linear Interpolation\*

- In practice, Laplace often performs poorly for P(X|Y):
  - When |X| is very largeWhen |Y| is very large
- Another option: linear interpolation

  - Also get the empirical P(X) from the data
     Make sure the estimate of P(X|Y) isn't too different from the empirical P(X)

$$P_{LIN}(x|y) = \alpha \hat{P}(x|y) + (1.0 - \alpha)\hat{P}(x)$$

- What if α is 0? 1?
- For even better ways to estimate parameters, as well as details of the math, see cs281a, cs288

### Real NB: Smoothing

- For real classification problems, smoothing is critical
- New odds ratios:

### $P(W|\mathsf{ham})$ $\overline{P(W|\text{spam})}$

helvetica	:	11.4
seems	:	10.8
group	:	10.2
ago	:	8.4
areas	:	8.3

### P(W|spam)P(W|ham)







# Tuning

### Tuning on Held-Out Data

- Now we've got two kinds of unknowns
  - Parameters: the probabilities P(X|Y), P(Y)
  - $\blacksquare$  Hyperparameters: e.g. the amount / type of smoothing to do, k,  $\alpha$
- What should we learn where?
  - Learn parameters from training data
  - Tune hyperparameters on different data Why?
  - For each value of the hyperparameters, train and test on the held-out data
  - Choose the best value and do a final test on the test data







### **Features** FEATURES: o 4 Wheels! O Larger than a Breadbox O Made of Metal o 100,000 mile

### Errors, and What to Do

Examples of errors

Dear GlobalSCAPE Customer, Deer GlobalSCAPE Customer, GlobalSCAPE has partnered with ScanSoft to offer you the latest version of GeniPege Pro, for just 899.99° - the regular list price is 46991 The nost common question we've received about this offer is - Is this genuine? We would like to assure you that this offer is authorized by ScanSoft, is genuine and valid. You can get the . . .

. . . To receive your \$30 Amazon.com promotional certificate, click through to

http://www.amazon.com/apparel

and see the prominent link for the \$30 offer. All details are there. We hope you enjoyed receiving this message. However, if you'd rather not receive future e-mails announcing new store launches, please click.

### What to Do About Errors?

- Need more features— words aren't enough!

  - Have you emailed the sender before?
    Have 1K other people just gotten the same email?
  - Is the sending information consistent?
    Is the email in ALL CAPS?

  - Do inline URLs point where they say they point? Does the email address you by (your) name?
- Can add these information sources as new variables in the NB model
- Next class we'll talk about classifiers which let you easily add arbitrary features more easily



### **Baselines**

- First step: get a baseline
  - Baselines are very simple "straw man" procedures
     Help determine how hard the task is

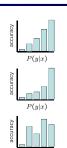
  - Help know what a "good" accuracy is
- Weak baseline: most frequent label classifier
  - Gives all test instances whatever label was most common in the training set
     E.g. for spam filtering, might label everything as ham

  - Accuracy might be very high if the problem is skewed
     E.g. calling everything "ham" gets 66%, so a classifier that gets 70% isn't very good...
- For real research, usually use previous work as a (strong) baseline

### Confidences from a Classifier

- The confidence of a probabilistic classifier:
   Posterior over the top label
  - - $confidence(x) = \max_{y} P(y|x)$
  - Represents how sure the classifier is of the classification

  - Any probabilistic model will have confidences
     No guarantee confidence is correct
- - Weak calibration: higher confidences mean higher accuracy
     Strong calibration: confidence predicts accuracy
  - rate
     What's the value of calibration?



### Summary

- Bayes rule lets us do diagnostic queries with causal probabilities
- The naïve Bayes assumption takes all features to be independent given the class label
- We can build classifiers out of a naïve Bayes model using training data
- Smoothing estimates is important in real systems
- Classifier confidences are useful, when you can get them

### Precision vs. Recall

actual +

guessed +

- Let's say we want to classify web pages as
  - homepages or not
    In a test set of 1K pages, there are 3 homepages

  - Our classifier says they are all non-homepages
    99.7 accuracy!
    Need new measures for rare positive events
- Precision: fraction of guessed positives which were actually positive
- Recall: fraction of actual positives which were guessed as positive
- Say we guess 5 homepages, of which 2 were actually homepages

   Precision: 2 correct / 5 guessed = 0.4
- Recall: 2 correct / 3 true = 0.67
- Which is more important in customer support email automation? Which is more important in airport face recognition?

### Precision vs. Recall

- Precision/recall tradeoff
  - Often, you can trade off precision and recall
  - Only works well with weakly calibrated classifiers
- To summarize the tradeoff:
  - Break-even point: precision value when p = r
  - F-measure: harmonic mean of p and r:

$$F_1 = \frac{2}{1/p + 1/r}$$

