

AI-501 Mathematics for AI

Bayesian Learning: MAP and ML Estimation, Naïve Bayes Classifier

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[https://www.zubairkhalid.org/ai501_2024.html](https://www.zubairkhalid.org/ee514_2022.html)

Outline

- Bayesian Learning Framework
	- MAP Estimation
	- ML Estimation
- Linear Regression as Maximum Likelihood Estimation
- Naïve Bayes Classifier

Reference: Chapter 6 (Machine Learning by Tom Mitchell)

Overview:

- In machine learning, the idea of Bayesian Learning is to use **Bayes Theorem** to find the hypothesis function or parameters of the model.

Example: Test the fairness of the coin!

Frequentist Statistics:

- Conduct trials and observe heads to compute the probability P(H).
- Confidence of estimated P(H) increases with the number of trials.
- In frequentist statistics, we do not use prior **(valuable)** information to improve our Hypothesis. For example, we have information that the coins are not made biased.

Bayesian Learning:

- Assume that $P(H)=0.5$ (prior or beliefs or past experiences).
- Adjust the belief P(H) according to your observations from the trials.
- Better hypothesis by combining our beliefs and observations.
- Each training data point contributes to the estimated probability that a hypothesis is correct.
	- More **flexible** approach as compared to learning algorithms that eliminate a given hypothesis inconsistent with any single data point.

Bayes Rule:

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

Rewriting it using the ML notation:

$$
P(\theta|D) = \frac{P(D|\theta) \cdot P(\theta)}{P(D)}
$$

- $P(\theta|D)$ is called the posterior
- $P(D|\theta)$ is called the likelihood
- $P(\theta)$ is called the prior
- $P(D)$ is called the evidence

Maximum Likelihood Estimation:

$$
P(\theta|D) = \frac{P(D|\theta) \cdot P(\theta)}{P(D)} = \frac{P(D|\theta) \cdot P(\theta)}{\int_{\theta} P(D|\theta) \cdot P(\theta) d\theta}
$$

Given a dataset D, find the parameters θ that maximize the likelihood of the data.

$$
\theta_{\text{MLE}} = \arg\max_{\theta} P(D|\theta)
$$

For example, given a linear regression problem setup, we set the likelihood as normal distribution and find the parameters θ that maximize the likelihood of the data.

Maximum A Posteriori Estimation:

$$
P(\theta|D) = \frac{P(D|\theta) \cdot P(\theta)}{P(D)} = \frac{P(D|\theta) \cdot P(\theta)}{\int_{\theta} P(D|\theta) \cdot P(\theta) d\theta}
$$

Given a dataset D, find the parameters θ that maximize the posterior of the data considering both the likelihood and the prior.

$$
\theta_{\text{MAP}} = \arg\max_{\theta} P(\theta|D) = \arg\max_{\theta} P(D|\theta) \cdot P(\theta)
$$

For example, given a linear regression problem, we assume prior over the parameters θ and find the parameters θ that maximize the posterior of the data.

Main Challenge in Bayesian Inference:

$$
P(\theta|D) = \frac{P(D|\theta) \cdot P(\theta)}{P(D)} = \frac{P(D|\theta) \cdot P(\theta)}{\int_{\theta} P(D|\theta) \cdot P(\theta) d\theta}
$$

Compute the evidence $P(D)$ is intractable in most cases. It involves integrating over all possible values of θ . Thus, computing the posterior $P(\theta|D)$ is intractable in most cases.

Approximate Bayesian Inference with Variational Inference:

$$
P(\theta|D) = \frac{P(D|\theta) \cdot P(\theta)}{P(D)} = \frac{P(D|\theta) \cdot P(\theta)}{\int_{\theta} P(D|\theta) \cdot P(\theta) d\theta}
$$

Approximate the posterior $P(\theta|D)$ with a tractable distribution $Q_{\phi}(\theta)$ characterized by a set of parameters ϕ . Our goal is to find the parameters ϕ that minimize the KL divergence between the approximate posterior $Q_{\phi}(\theta)$ and the true posterior $P(\theta|D)$.

$$
\phi_{\rm VI} = \arg\min_{\phi} \mathrm{KL}\left(Q_{\phi}(\theta)||P(\theta|D)\right)
$$

Approximate Bayesian Inference with Laplace Approximation:

$$
P(\theta|D) = \frac{P(D|\theta) \cdot P(\theta)}{P(D)} = \frac{P(D|\theta) \cdot P(\theta)}{\int_{\theta} P(D|\theta) \cdot P(\theta) d\theta}
$$

Approximate the posterior $P(\theta|D)$ with a Gaussian distribution centered at the MAP estimate θ_{MAP} and the covariance matrix is the inverse of the Hessian matrix of the negative log posterior evaluated at θ_{MAP} .

$$
P(\theta|D) \approx \mathcal{N}(\theta|\theta_{\text{MAP}}, H^{-1})
$$

$$
H = -\nabla^2 \log P(\theta|D)\Big|_{\theta = \theta_{\text{MAP}}}
$$

Approximate Bayesian Inference with Sampling Methods:

$$
P(\theta|D) = \frac{P(D|\theta) \cdot P(\theta)}{P(D)} = \frac{P(D|\theta) \cdot P(\theta)}{\int_{\theta} P(D|\theta) \cdot P(\theta) d\theta}
$$

It is intractable to compute the posterior $P(\theta|D)$ in most cases. But, we can instead get samples from the posterior $P(\theta|D)$.

Overview:

Supervised Learning Formulation:

Data: $D = \{(\mathbf{x_1}, y_1), (\mathbf{x_2}, y_2), \dots, (\mathbf{x_n}, y_n)\}\subseteq \mathcal{X}^d \times \mathcal{Y}$

We call the set of possible functions or candidate models (linear model, neural network, decision tree, etc.) "the hypothesis class".

Denoted by \mathcal{H} .

For a given problem, we wish to select **best** hypothesis (machine) $h \in \mathcal{H}$.

- In Bayesian learning, the **best** hypothesis is the **most probable** hypothesis, given the data D and initial knowledge about the prior probabilities of the various hypotheses in H.
- We can use Bayes theorem to determine the probability of a hypothesis based on its prior probability, the observed data and the probabilities of observing various data given the hypothesis.

Maximum a Posterior (MAP) Hypothesis or Estimation:

• Find h that maximizes the distribution $P(h | \mathcal{D})$.

Using Bayes theorem, we can write this as

- The prior probability $P(h)$ is the probability that the hypothesis holds before looking at the training data. It refelcts our prior knowledge about candidate hypothesis h .
- $P(D)$ is the probability of the training data given no information about hypothesis, that is, independent of h .
- $P(D \mid h)$, likelihood function, quantifies the probability of observing D given hypothesis h .
- $P(h | \mathcal{D})$, posterior probability, quantifies the influence of data on our prior probability or our confidence that h holds after observing the data.

Maximum a Posterior (MAP) Hypothesis or Estimation:

- Find h that maximizes the distribution $P(h | \mathcal{D})$.
- Maximizing posterior probability yields

$$
h_{\text{MAP}} = \underset{h \in \mathcal{H}}{\text{maximize}} \, P(h \mid \mathcal{D}) = \underset{h \in \mathcal{H}}{\text{maximize}} \, \frac{P(\mathcal{D} \mid h) \, P(h)}{P(\mathcal{D})}
$$

$$
h_{\text{MAP}} = \underset{h \in \mathcal{H}}{\operatorname{maximize}} \, P(\mathcal{D} \mid h) \, P(h)
$$

Interpretation:

- We begin with prior distribution of hypothesis.
- Using candidate hypothesis, we determine probability data given hypothesis.
- Using these two, we update posterior probability distribution.

Maximum Likelihood (ML) Hypothesis or Estimation:

• If each hypthesis $h \in \mathcal{H}$ is equally probable, we can reformulate MAP hypothesis as by maximizing the probability of data given hypothesis. This is termed as maximum likelihood hypothesis given by

$$
h_{\text{MAP}} = \underset{h \in \mathcal{H}}{\text{maximize}} \ P(\mathcal{D} \mid h) \ P(h) \qquad \longrightarrow \qquad h_{\text{ML}} = \underset{h \in \mathcal{H}}{\text{maximize}} \ P(\mathcal{D} \mid h) \qquad \mathbf{M}
$$

Maximizing Likelihood function

Example:

- Predict the face side (head, H or tail, T) of the loaded coin.
- If x is our event, we want to learn $P(x=H)$ or $P(x=T)=1-P(x=H)$.
- Data-set: outcomes of n events. $(x_1=H, x_2=T, x_3=H, x_4=H, ...)$
- Intuitive prediction: count the number of heads and divide it by n. If this quantity is greater than 0.5, head is more probable.

Maximum Likelihood (ML) Hypothesis or Estimation:

- **Example:**
• We want to estimate $P(x = H) = 1 P(x = T)$ and therefore hypothesis space can be parameterized by a single variable θ such that $P(x = H)$ = θ , that is, $P(\mathcal{D} | h) = P(\mathcal{D} | \theta)$.
- Assuming independence between events, we have

$$
P(\mathcal{D} \mid h) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} p(x_i \mid \theta)
$$

• We use log of the likelihood function due to notational convenience and since the product of probabilities can be very small:

$$
\log P(\mathcal{D} \mid h) = \log \prod_{i=1}^{n} p(x_i \mid \theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log p(x_i \mid \theta)
$$

• ML estimate is given by

$$
h_{\mathrm{ML}} = \underset{h \in \mathcal{H}}{\operatorname{maximize}} P(\mathcal{D} \mid h) \qquad \Rightarrow \theta_{\mathrm{ML}} = \underset{\theta}{\operatorname{maximize}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log p(x_i \mid \theta)
$$

The maximum likelihood estimation maximizes the log-likelihood.

Maximum Likelihood (ML) Hypothesis or Estimation:

Example:

- We can solve this analytically.
- If number of heads in the data is n_H .

$$
\theta_{\mathrm{ML}} = \underset{\theta}{\text{maximize}} \left(n_H \log \theta + (n - n_H) \log(1 - \theta) \right)
$$

 $\bullet\,$ Derivative with respect to θ yields

$$
\frac{n_H}{\theta} - \frac{n - n_H}{1 - \theta} = 0
$$

$$
\theta_{\rm ML}=\theta=\frac{n_H}{n}
$$

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Linear Regression as ML Estimation

 $y = f(x) + n$

• Assume noise is i.i.d. Gaussian distributed: $n \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$.

 $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}$

• $y_i = f(\mathbf{x_i}) + n_i$ is also Gaussian distributed: $y_i \sim N(f(\mathbf{x_i}), \sigma^2)$.

Linear Regression:

(Assuming bias term is included in the formulation)

- Hypothesis class \mathcal{H} : hypothesis functions of the form $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}$.
- Problem is to find w given data \mathcal{D} . $\mathcal{D} = \{(\mathbf{x_1}, y_1), (\mathbf{x_2}, y_2), \dots, (\mathbf{x_n}, y_n)\} \subseteq \mathcal{X}^d \times \mathcal{Y}$

Linear Regression as ML Estimation

Maximum Likelihood (ML) Hypothesis or Estimation:

 $\bullet\,$ We can define likelihood estimate as

$$
\Rightarrow \quad \mathbf{w}_{\mathrm{ML}} = \operatorname*{maximize}_{\mathbf{w}} P(\mathcal{D} \mid f(\mathbf{x}))
$$

• Noting $y_i \sim N(f(\mathbf{x_i}), \sigma^2)$.

 $h_{\text{ML}} = \operatorname*{maximize}_{h \in \mathcal{H}} P(\mathcal{D} \mid h)$

$$
\mathbf{w}_{\mathrm{ML}} = \underset{\mathbf{w}}{\mathrm{maximize}} \quad \prod_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp \left(-\frac{(y_i - f(\mathbf{x}_i))^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)
$$

 \bullet Maximizes the log (natural, ln) of the function instead.

$$
\mathbf{w}_{\mathrm{ML}} = \underset{\mathbf{w}}{\text{maximize}} \log \left(\prod_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp \left(-\frac{(y_i - f(\mathbf{x}_i))^2}{2\sigma^2} \right) \right) = \underset{\mathbf{w}}{\text{maximize}} \quad \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log \left(\frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp \left(-\frac{(y_i - f(\mathbf{x}_i))^2}{2\sigma^2} \right) \right)
$$
\n
$$
= \underset{\mathbf{w}}{\text{maximize}} \quad \sum_{i=1}^{n} -\log(\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}) + \log \left(\exp \left(-\frac{(y_i - f(\mathbf{x}_i))^2}{2\sigma^2} \right) \right) \qquad = \underset{\mathbf{w}}{\text{maximize}} \quad \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(-\frac{(y_i - f(\mathbf{x}_i))^2}{2\sigma^2} \right)
$$

Linear Regression as ML Estimation

Maximum Likelihood (ML) Hypothesis or Estimation:

$$
\mathbf{w}_{\mathrm{ML}} = \underset{\mathbf{w}}{\operatorname{maximize}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(-\frac{(y_i - f(\mathbf{x}_i))^2}{2\sigma^2} \right)
$$
\n
$$
= \underset{\mathbf{w}}{\operatorname{minimize}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(y_i - f(\mathbf{x}_i) \right)^2 \qquad \text{We have seen this before! Squared-error.}
$$
\n• For linear regression case: $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}$
\n
$$
\mathbf{w}_{\mathrm{ML}} = \underset{\mathbf{w}}{\operatorname{minimize}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(y_i - \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i \right)^2 \qquad \text{We have an analytical solution.}
$$
\n• We can compute variance as:
$$
\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \mathbf{w}_{\mathrm{ML}}^T \mathbf{x})^2
$$

Notes:

- Maximizing ML estimate is equivalent to minimizing least-squared error.
- ML Solution is same as least-squared error solution.
- This is a probabilistic interpretation or Bayesian explanation of the least-squared error solution and why did we choose squared error for defining a loss function. A Not-for-Profit University

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Example:

- Given the name of a person, we want to predict the sex of a person.
- For example, we have a person say 'Firdous'.
- Classifying 'Firdous' as female or male is equivalent to asking is it more probable that 'Firdous' is male or female.
- Mathematically, which one is greater $P(male | \text{Firdous})$ or $P(\text{female} | \text{Firdous})$
- \bullet Let's apply Bayes theorem

Example:

• We will look at the database of names vs gender.

 $P(\text{male} | \text{Firdous}) = \frac{P(\text{Firdous} | \text{male})P(\text{male})}{P(\text{Firdous})}$

- $n = 48$, male count = 28, female count = 20
- Firdous: male count $=4$, female count $=6$

$$
P(\text{Firdous} \mid \text{male}) = \frac{4}{28}
$$
 $P(\text{male}) = \frac{28}{48}$

 $P(\text{Firdous}) = \frac{10}{48}$ P (male | Firdous) = 0.4

Example:

- Given Outlook, Temperature, Humidity and Wind Information, we want to carry out prediction for Play: Yes or No.
- Mathematically, which one is greater

 $P(\text{Play} = \text{Yes} | \text{Outlook}, \text{Temp.}, \text{Humidity}, \text{ Wind})$ $P(\text{Play} = \text{No} | \text{ Outlook}, \text{Temp.}, \text{ Humidity}, \text{ Wind})$

- Predict for Sunny outlook, High humidity, Cool temperatue and Weak wind.
- Predict the most likely.

Reference: Section 6.9.1 (Machine Learning by Tom Mitchell)

Example:

 $P(\text{Play} = \text{Yes} | \text{ Outlook} = \text{Sunny}, \text{Temp} = \text{Cool}, \text{ Humidity} = \text{High}, \text{ Wind} = \text{Weak})$

 $=\frac{P(\text{Outlook} = \text{Sunny}, \text{Temp} = \text{Cool}, \text{ Humidity} = \text{High}, \text{ Wind} = \text{Strong} | \text{Play} = \text{Yes}) P(\text{Play} = \text{Yes})}{P(\text{Outlook} = \text{Sunny}, \text{Temp} = \text{Cool}, \text{ Humidity} = \text{High}, \text{ Wind} = \text{Strong})}$

Naïve Assumption:

 \bullet Feature are mutually independent given the label!

 $P(\text{Outlook} = \text{Sunny}, \text{Temp} = \text{Cool}, \text{Humidity} = \text{High}, \text{Wind} = \text{Strong} | \text{Play} = \text{Yes})$

 $P(1) = P(1)P(2) = P(2)P(3) = P(3)P(4) = P(4)P(5) = P(5)P(5) = P(6)P(6) = P(7)P(7) = P(8)P(7) = P(8)P(7) = P(9)P(8) = P(9)P(7) = P(9)P(8) = P(9)P(9) = P(1)P(1) = P(1)P(1)$

Example:

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$$
P(\text{Outlook} = \text{Sunny} \mid \text{Play} = \text{Yes}) = \frac{2}{9}
$$
\n
$$
P(\text{Temp} = \text{Cool} \mid \text{Play} = \text{Yes}) = \frac{3}{9}
$$
\n
$$
P(\text{Humidity} = \text{High} \mid \text{Play} = \text{Yes}) = \frac{3}{9}
$$
\n
$$
P(\text{Wind} = \text{Strong} \mid \text{Play} = \text{Yes}) = \frac{3}{9}
$$
\n
$$
P(\text{Play} = \text{Yes}) = \frac{9}{14}
$$
\n
$$
P(\text{Outlook} = \text{Sunny} \mid \text{Play} = \text{No}) = \frac{3}{5}
$$
\n
$$
P(\text{Temp} = \text{Cool} \mid \text{Play} = \text{No}) = \frac{1}{5}
$$
\n
$$
P(\text{Humidity} = \text{High} \mid \text{Play} = \text{No}) = \frac{4}{5}
$$
\n
$$
P(\text{Wind} = \text{Strong} \mid \text{Play} = \text{No}) = \frac{3}{5}
$$
\n
$$
P(\text{Play} = \text{No}) = \frac{5}{14}
$$
\n
$$
\bigoplus \text{LUMS}
$$

Example:

 $P(\text{Outlook} = \text{Sunny} | \text{Play} = \text{Yes}) P(\text{Temp} = \text{Cool} | \text{Play} = \text{Yes}) P(\text{Humidity} = \text{High} | \text{Play} = \text{Yes}) P(\text{Wind} = \text{Strong} | \text{Play} = \text{Yes})$

 $\times P(\text{Play} = \text{Yes})$ = $\frac{2}{9} \times \frac{3}{9} \times \frac{3}{9} \times \frac{3}{9} \times \frac{9}{14}$ = 0.0053

 $P(\text{Outlook} = \text{Sunny} | \text{Play} = \text{No}) P(\text{Temp} = \text{Cool} | \text{Play} = \text{No}) P(\text{Humidity} = \text{High} | \text{Play} = \text{No}) P(\text{Wind} = \text{Strong} | \text{Play} = \text{No})$

$$
\times
$$
P(Play = No) $=\frac{3}{5} \times \frac{1}{5} \times \frac{4}{5} \times \frac{3}{5} \times \frac{5}{14} = 0.0206$

 $P(\text{Play} = \text{Yes} \mid \text{Outlook} = \text{Sunny}, \text{Temp} = \text{Cool}, \text{ Humidity} = \text{High}, \text{ Wind} = \text{Strong}) = \frac{0.0053}{0.0053 + 0.0206} = 0.2046$

 $P(\text{Play} = \text{No} \mid \text{Outlook} = \text{Sunny}, \text{Temp} = \text{Cool}, \text{ Humidity} = \text{High}, \text{ Wind} = \text{Strong}) = \frac{0.0206}{53 + 0.0206} = 0.7954$

Play = No is more likely!

Generative Classifier:

- Attempts to model class, that is, build a generative statistical model that informs us how a given class would generate input data.
- Ideally, we want to learn the joint distribution of the input **x** and output label y, that is, P(**x**,y).
- For a test-point, generative classifiers predict which class would have **most-likely** generated the given observation.
- Mathematically, prediction for input **x** is carried out by computing the conditional probability P(y|**x**) and selecting the most-likely label y.
- Using the Bayes rule, we can compute P(y|**x**) by computing P(y) and P(**x**|y).

• Estimating $P(y)$ and $P(x|y)$ is called generative learning.

Overview of Naïve Bayes Classifier:

• We have $D = \{(\mathbf{x_1}, y_1), (\mathbf{x_2}, y_2), \dots, (\mathbf{x_n}, y_n)\}\subseteq \mathcal{X}^d \times \mathcal{Y}$

 $\mathcal{Y} = \{1, 2, ..., M\}$ (M-class classification)

Key Idea:

- Estimate $P(y|\mathbf{x})$ from the data using the Bayes Theorem.
- Using Bayes theorem and MAP learning framework, we can write this as

$$
h_{\text{MAP}}(\mathbf{x}) = \underset{y \in \mathcal{Y}}{\text{maximize}} \quad P(y \mid \mathbf{x}) = \underset{y \in \mathcal{Y}}{\text{maximize}} \quad \frac{P(\mathbf{x} \mid y) \, P(y)}{P(\mathbf{x})} = \underset{y \in \mathcal{Y}}{\text{maximize}} \quad P(\mathbf{x} \mid y) \, P(y)
$$

- Estimating $P(y)$ is easy. If y takes on discrete binary values, coin tossing or spam vs non-spam for example, we simply need to count how many times we observe each class outcome.
- Estimating $P(\mathbf{x}|y)$, however, is not easy, Why?

Overview of Naïve Bayes Classifier:

Example:

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- $M = 2$ and features $d = 6$. Assuming binary features/classification.
- We want to estimate

$$
P(\mathbf{x} \mid y) = P(x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, x^{(3)}, x^{(4)}, x^{(5)}, x^{(6)}|y)
$$

- How many parameters do we need to fully estimate $P(\mathbf{x}|y)$?
- We need to represent all 2^6 outcomes or probabilities for each $y = 0, 1$.
- For d binary features, we need to represent all 2^d outcomes.
- Learning the values for the full conditional probability would require enormous amounts of data.

Naïve Bayes Classifier:

• To overcome this requirement of enormous data for the computation of conditional probability, we can make a 'naive Bayes' assumption.

Naïve Assumption:

- Features are mutually independent given the label!
- Consequence: $P(\mathbf{x} | y) = P(x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, \dots, x^{(d)} | y) = \prod P(x^{(i)} | y)$ $i=1$
- How many probabilities now? one for each feature/label. $2d$

Interpretation¹ :

Naïve Bayes Classifier:

• We can reformulate our hypothesis function, referred to as Naive Bayes (NB) Classifier, as

$$
h_{\text{NB}}(\mathbf{x}) = \underset{y \in \mathcal{Y}}{\text{maximize}} \quad P(y \mid \mathbf{x}) = \underset{y \in \mathcal{Y}}{\text{maximize}} \quad \prod_{i=1}^{d} P(x^{(i)} \mid y) P(y)
$$

 \bullet Maximizes the log (natural, ln) of the function instead.

$$
h_{\text{NB}}(\mathbf{x}) = \underset{y \in \mathcal{Y}}{\text{maximize}} \quad \sum_{i=1}^{d} \log \left(P(x^{(i)} \mid y) P(y) \right)
$$

$$
= \underset{y \in \mathcal{Y}}{\text{maximize}} \quad \sum_{i=1}^{d} \log P(x^{(i)} \mid y) + \log P(y)
$$

• How many probabilities? $2d+1$

Naïve Bayes Classifier - Training:

Assume each feature and label as a binary variable

- Hypothesis space: $2d+1$ different binomial distributions.
	- $P(x^{(i)} | y)$ and $P(y)$ for each $x^{(i)}$ and each $y = \{0, 1\}, i = 1, 2, ..., d$.
	- Each probability can be parameterized by a single variable θ .
- We treat learning of each of these as a separate MLE problem.

$$
P(x^{(i)} = j \mid y = k) = \frac{\text{count}(x^{(i)} = j \text{ and } y = k)}{\text{count}(y = k)}, \quad j, k \in \{0, 1\}
$$

$$
P(y = k) = \frac{\text{count}(y = k)}{\text{count}(y = 0) + \text{count}(y = 1)} = \frac{\text{count}(y = k)}{n}, \quad k \in \{0, 1\}
$$

- We compute these probabilities during training stage.
- As we saw earlier, these probability estimates maximizes the likelihood.

Naïve Bayes Classifier - Prediction:

Assume each feature and label as a binary variable

• For a new test-point \mathbf{x}_{new} , we assign the label as

$$
h_{\text{NB}}(\mathbf{x}_{\text{new}}) = \underset{y \in \mathcal{Y}}{\text{maximize}} \quad P(y \mid \mathbf{x}_{\text{new}}) = \underset{y \in \mathcal{Y}}{\text{maximize}} \quad \prod_{i=1}^{d} P(x_{\text{new}}^{(i)} \mid y) P(y)
$$

We have a problem here!

• We have a product of probabilities. If any of the estimated probability is zero, the product would be zero.

Solution: Additive Smoothing or Laplace Smoothing

$$
P(x^{(i)} = j \mid y = k) = \frac{\text{count}(x^{(i)} = j \text{ and } y = k) + \ell}{\text{count}(y = k) + \ell R}, \quad j, k \in \{0, 1\}
$$

$$
P(y = k) = \frac{\text{count}(y = k) + \ell}{n + \ell M}, \quad k \in \{0, 1\}
$$

- Here $\ell > 0$. If $\ell = 1$, we refer to it as add-1 smoothing.
- R is the number of values $x^{(i)}$ can take. For binary case, $R = 2$.
- M is the number of classes. For binary case $M = 2$.

Naïve Bayes Classifier - Summary:

- In Naïve Bayes, we compute the probabilities or parameters of the distribution defining probabilities and use these to carry out predictions.
- Naïve Bayes can handle missing values by ignoring the sample during probability computation, is robust to outliers and irrelevant features.
- Naïve Bayes algorithm is very easy to implement for applications involving textual information data (e.g., sentiment analysis, news article classification, spam filtering).
- Convergence is quicker relative to logistic regression (to be studied later) that discriminative in nature.
- It performs well even when the independence between features assumption does not hold.
- The resulting decision boundaries can be non-linear and/or piecewise.
- Disadvantage: It is not robust to redundant features. If the features have a strong relationship or correlation with each other, Naïve Bayes is not a good choice. Naïve Bayes has high bais and low variance and there are no regularization here to adjust the bias thing

NB Classifier – Text Classification

Text Classification Overview:

- Applications of text classification include
	- Sentiment analysis
	- Spam detection
	- Language Identification; to name a few.

Classification Problem:

Input: a document and a fixed set of classes (e.g., spam, non-spam)

Output: a predicted class for the document

Classification Methods:

- Hand-coded rules: Rules based on combinations of words or other features
	- e.g., spam: black-list-address OR ("dollars" AND "you have been selected")
	- Accuracy can be high if rules carefully refined by **expert**
	- But building and **maintaining** these rules is **expensive**

NB Classifier – Text Classification

Text Classification – Supervised Learning:

Input: a document and a fixed set of classes (e.g., spam, non-spam) **+ training data (n labeled documents)**

Output: a predicted class for the document

Bag of Words – Representation of a document for classification:

Assumption: Position doesn't matter

I love this movie! It's sweet. but with satirical humor. The dialogue is great and the adventure scenes are fun... It manages to be whimsical and romantic while laughing at the conventions of the fairy tale genre. I would recommend it to just about anyone. I've seen it several times, and I'm always happy to see it again whenever I have a friend who hasn't seen it yet!

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Ref: "Speech and Language Processing" by *Daniel Jurafsky & James H. Martin* Source: https://web.stanford.edu/~jurafsky/slp3/

NB Classifier – Text Classification

Text Classification – Terminology and Preprocessing :

- Corpus: A collection of documents; data.
- Vocabulary, denoted by \vee , is the union of all the word types in all classes (not just one class).

Preprocessing documents:

- Clean the corpus: (e.g., Hello, hello or hello! should be considered the same)
	- Remove numbers, punctuation and excessive white spaces
	- Use lowercase representation
- Stop words concept: very frequent words (**a** or **the**)
	- Sort vocabulary with respect to frequency, call the top 5 or 20 words the stopword list and remove from all of the documents or from the vocabulary.
- In naïve Bayes, it's more common to **not** remove stop words and use all the words.
- After pre-processing, create a **mega document** for each class by concatenating all the documents of the class.
- Use bag of words on mega document to obtain a frequency table for each class.

Example: Spam vs Non-Spam:

Issue 1:

'now' is not in the training data.

- unknown word or out of vocabulary word.

Solution: remove out of vocabulary word from the test document.

Issue 2: 'account' is only available in one class

Solution: Use add-1 smoothing. We will see this shortly.

- Vocabulary, $V = \{send, us, your, password, review, account\}$

Naïve Bayes (NB) Classification:

 \bullet NB Classifier:

$$
h_{\text{NB}}(\mathbf{x}) = \underset{y \in \mathcal{Y}}{\text{maximize}} \quad P(y \mid \mathbf{x}) = \underset{y \in \mathcal{Y}}{\text{maximize}} \quad \prod_{i=1}^{d} P(x^{(i)} \mid y) P(y)
$$

- x represents the test document for which we want to carry out prediction. Each feature represents a word in the document.
- \bullet d here represents the number of words in the test document.
- For $\mathbf{x} =$ "review us now", $d = 3$.
- For $\mathbf{x} =$ "review account", $d = 2$.

Naïve Bayes (NB) Classification – Example:

• For $\mathbf{x} =$ "review us now", $d = 3$.

We compute $P(\text{Span} | \mathbf{x})$ and $P(\text{Non - spam} | \mathbf{x})$

Naïve Bayes (NB) Classification – Example:

- For $\mathbf{x} =$ "review us now".
- Ignore 'now': unknown word, out of vocabulary
- We compute $P(x | Span) P(Spam)$ and $P(x | Non-span) P(Non spam)$

Document is likely a non-spam.

Naïve Bayes (NB) Classification – Example:

- For $\mathbf{x} =$ "review account".
- For 'account': non-spam count is zero. Consequently, $P(\text{account} \mid \text{Non spam}) = 0$.

Solution: Add 1 smoothing

 $P(\text{review} | \text{Spam}) = \frac{1+1}{13+6} = \frac{2}{19}$

$$
P(\text{Span}) = \frac{4}{6} \qquad P(\text{Non - spam}) = \frac{2}{6}
$$

$$
P(\text{account} \mid \text{Spam}) = \frac{1+1}{13+6} = \frac{2}{19}
$$

We have added numerator factor times the size of the vocabulary in the denominator.

$$
P(\text{review} \mid \text{Non - spam}) = \frac{2+1}{6+6} = \frac{3}{12} P(\text{account} \mid \text{Non - spam}) = \frac{0+1}{6+6} = \frac{1}{12}
$$

 $P(x | \text{Span}) P(\text{Span}) = 0.00738$

 $P(x | Non - spam) P(Non - spam) = 0.00694$

Document is likely a spam.

