

Classification: Naïve Bayes

Nathan Schneider

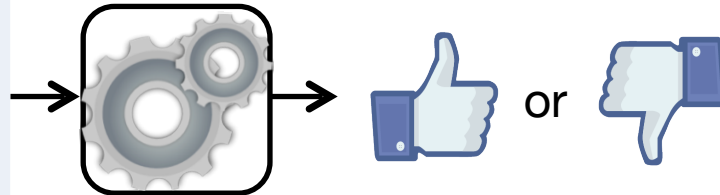
(slides adapted from Chris Dyer, Noah Smith, et al.)

ENLP | 29 January 2020

Sentiment Analysis

- Recall the task:

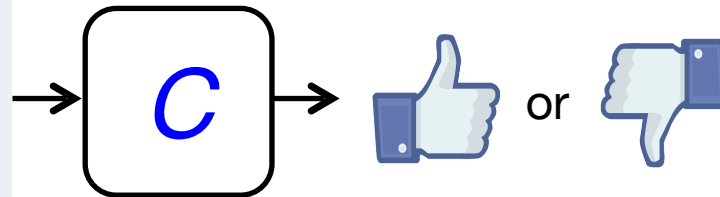
Filled with horrific dialogue, laughable characters, a laughable plot, and really no interesting stakes during this film, "Star Wars Episode I: The Phantom Menace" is not at all what I wanted from a film that is supposed to be the huge opening to the segue into the fantastic Original Trilogy. The positives include the score, the sound



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- This is a **classification** task: we have open-ended text as *input* and a fixed set of discrete classes as *output*.
- By convention, the input/observed information is denoted x , and the output/predicted information is y .

A Rule-based Classifier

```
good = {'yay', 'cool', ...}  
bad = {'ugh', ':(', ...}
```

```
score = 0
```

```
for w in x:
```

```
    if w in good:
```

```
        score += 1
```

```
    elif w in bad:
```

```
        score -= 1
```

```
return int(score > 0)
```

$x \rightarrow$

$\rightarrow y$

C

Supervised Classification

- We can probably do better with data
 - Our intuitions about word sentiment aren't perfect
- **Supervised** = generalizations are **learned** from **labeled** data
 - So, we need a **training** corpus of reviews with gold (correct) sentiment labels
 - And a learning algorithm
- This course: **inductive** learning algorithms—collect statistics from training corpus, but the resulting classifier does not rely on the training corpus itself

A ~~Rule-based~~ Classifier

Supervised

```
good = {...from training data...}
```

```
bad = {...from training data...}
```

```
score = 0
```

```
for w in x:
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        score += 1
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        score -= 1
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return int(score > 0)
```

$x \rightarrow$

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Notation

- Training examples: $\mathbf{X} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N)$

- Their categories: $\mathbf{Y} = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_N)$

- A **classifier** C seeks to map x_i to y_i : $x \rightarrow \boxed{C} \rightarrow y$

- A **learner** L infers C from (\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) :
 $\begin{array}{l} \mathbf{X} \rightarrow \\ \mathbf{Y} \rightarrow \end{array} \boxed{L} \rightarrow \boxed{C}$

Counting as Learning

```
from collections import Counter
scores = Counter()
for x,y in zip(X,Y):
    for w in x:
        if y==THUMBS_UP:
            scores[w] += 1
        elif y==THUMBS_DOWN:
            scores[w] -= 1
good, bad = set(), set()
for w,score in scores.items():
    if score>0: good.add(w)
    else: bad.add(w)
return good, bad
```

$X \rightarrow$

$Y \rightarrow$

C

L

Limitations

- Our classifier doesn't know that:
 - Some words are more strongly indicative of sentiment than others
 - The data may skew positive or negative (e.g., more or longer positive reviews than negative)
 - Infrequent words may occur only in the positive examples or only in the negative examples by accident
- Instead of raw counts, we can use a **probabilistic model**

Review Questions: Conditional Probability

1. If p is a probability mass function, which is true by the definition of conditional probability:

$$p(x \mid y, z) =$$

a. $p(x)/p(y,z)$

b. $p(y)p(z)/p(x,y,z)$

c. $p(x,y,z)/p(y,z)$

d. $p(x)p(x \mid y)p(x \mid z)$

Review Questions: Conditional Probability

2. Which is/are guaranteed to be true?

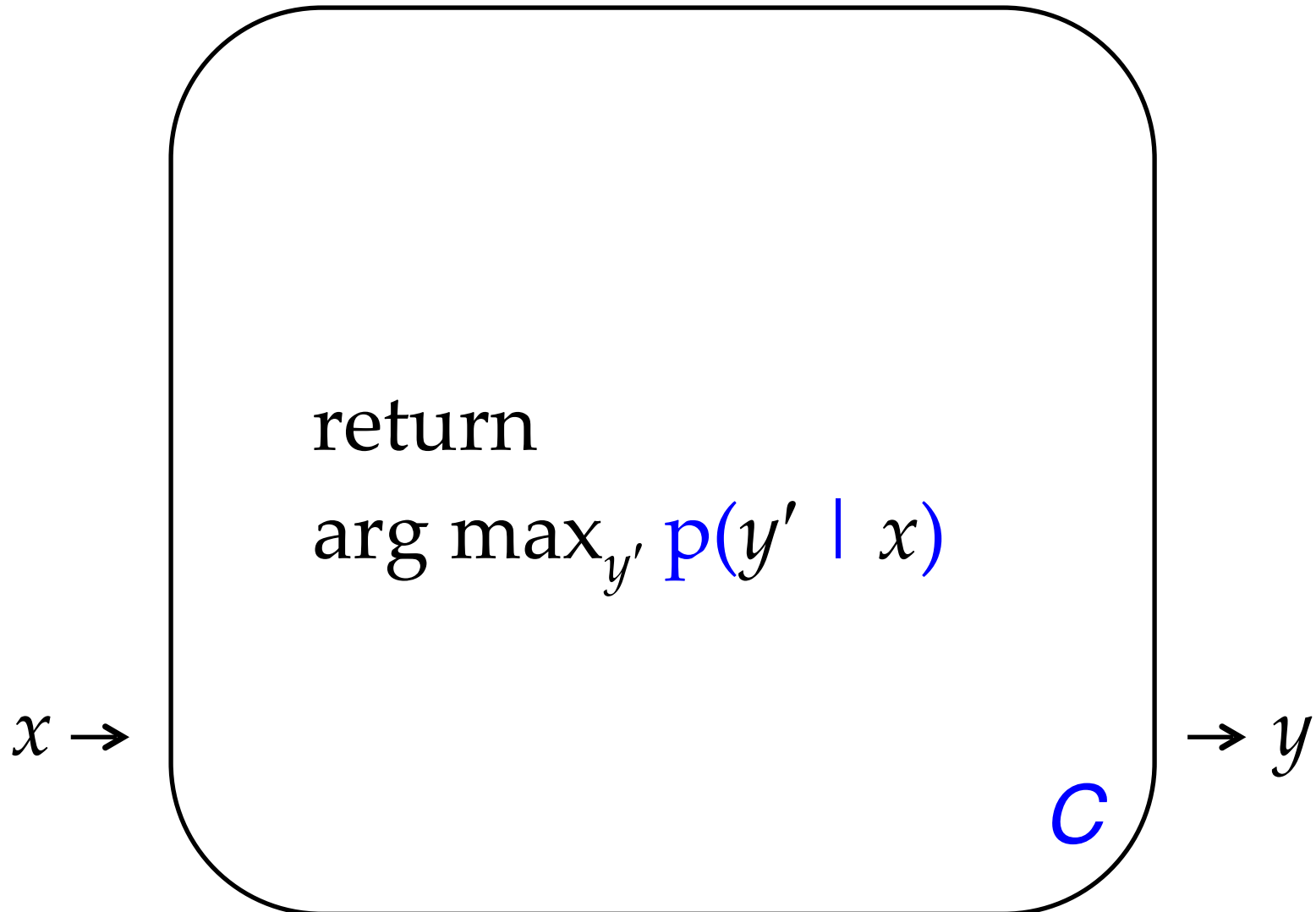
a. $\forall y \forall z, \sum_x p(x | y, z) = 1$

b. $\forall x, \sum_y \sum_z p(x | y, z) = 1$

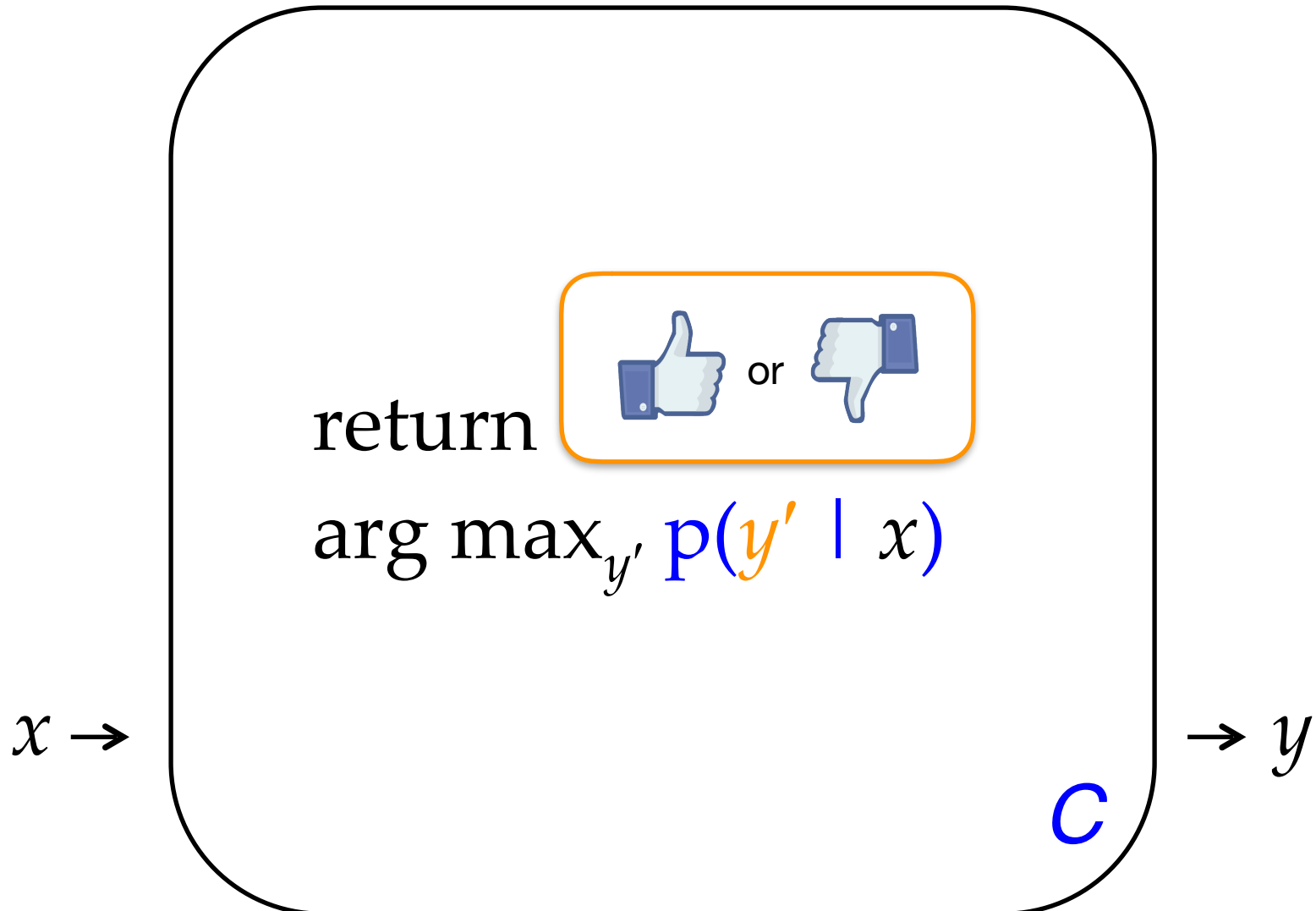
c. $\sum_x p(x) = 1$

d. $\forall y \forall z, \sum_x p(x)p(y|x)p(z|x,y) = 1$

Probabilistic Classifiers



Probabilistic Classifiers



Probabilistic Classifiers

return

$$\arg \max_{y'} p(y' | x)$$

Filled with horrific dialogue, laughable characters, a laughable plot, and really no interesting stakes during this film, "Star Wars Episode I: The Phantom Menace" is not at all what I wanted from a film that is supposed to be the huge opening to the segue into the fantastic Original Trilogy. The positives include the score, the sound

C

$x \rightarrow$

$\rightarrow y$

Probabilistic Classifiers

return

$$\arg \max_{y'} p(y' \mid x)$$

$$= p(y' \mid \text{Filled, with, horrific, ...})$$

$x \rightarrow$



How can we compute this?

We can't compute the usual MLE
unless this exact document
appeared in the training data!

C

$\rightarrow y$

A probabilistic model that generalizes

- Instead of estimating $p(y' \mid \text{Filled, with, horrific, ...})$ directly, we make two **modeling assumptions**:
 1. The **Bag of Words (BoW) assumption**: Assume the order of the words in the document is irrelevant to the task. I.e., stipulate that
$$p(y' \mid \text{Filled, with, horrific}) = p(y' \mid \text{Filled, horrific, with})$$



Photo: Jonathan Huang

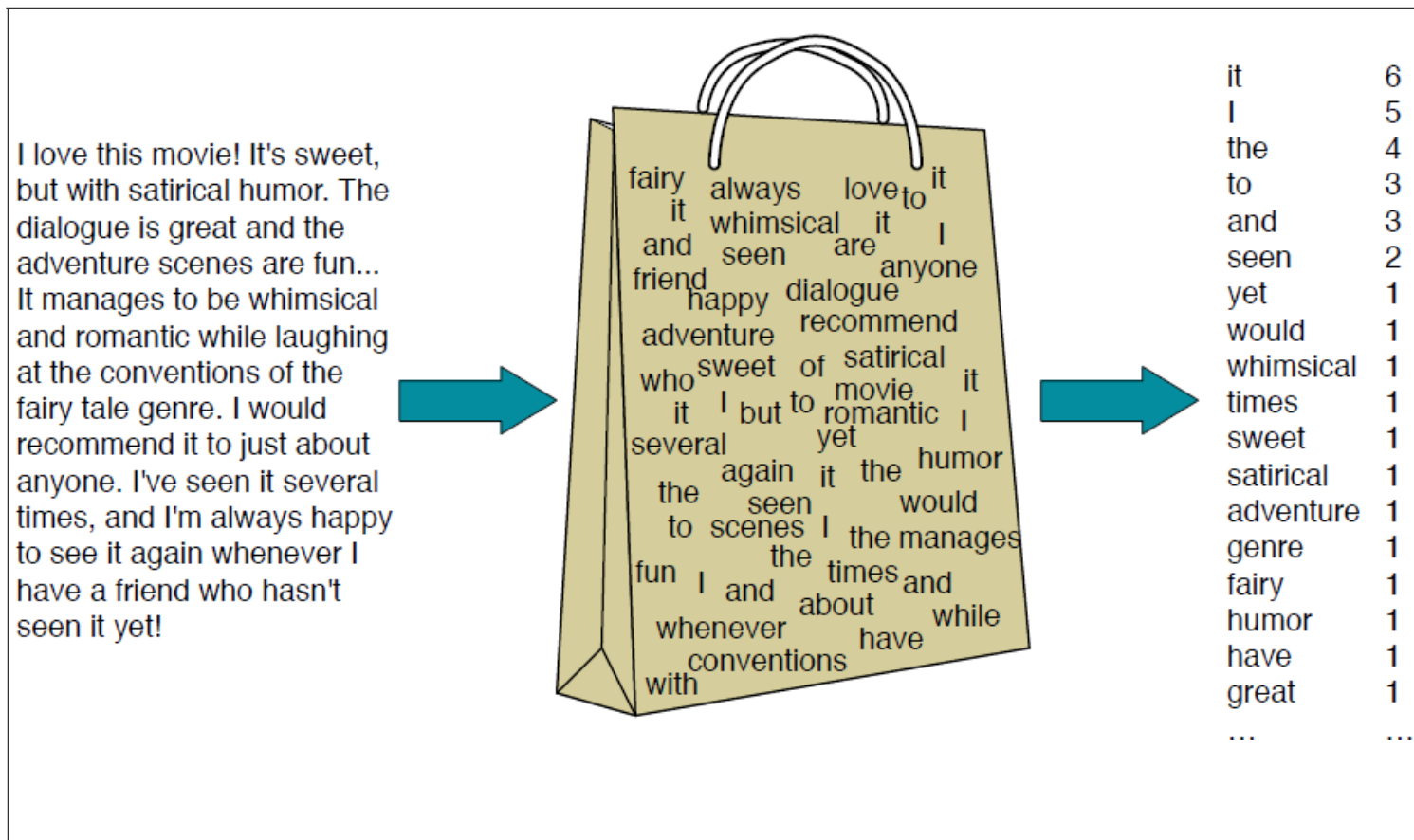


Figure 7.1 Intuition of the multinomial naive Bayes classifier applied to a movie review. The position of the words is ignored (the *bag of words* assumption) and we make use of the frequency of each word.

Figure from J&M 3rd ed. draft, sec 7.1

A probabilistic model that generalizes

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So called because a **bag** or **multiset** is a data structure that stores counts of elements, but not their order.

A probabilistic model that generalizes

- The BoW assumption isn't enough, though, unless documents with all the same words occurred in the training data. Hence:

2. The **naïve Bayes assumption**: Assume the words are **independent** conditioned on the class y'

$$p(\text{Filled, with, horrific} \mid y')$$

$$= p(\text{Filled} \mid y') \times p(\text{with} \mid y') \times p(\text{horrific} \mid y')$$

Hang on, we actually wanted:

$$p(y' \mid \text{Filled, with, horrific})$$

How to reverse the order?



Bayes' Rule



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

Prove it!



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

multiply both sides by p(A)

$$p(A) \times p(B | A) = p(B) \times p(A | B)$$

Chain Rule

$$p(A, B) = p(B, A)$$

...which is true by definition of joint probability

Bayes' Rule



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

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} p(B | A) & \propto & p(B) & \times & p(A | B) \\ \text{posterior} & & \text{prior} & & \text{likelihood} \end{array}$$

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$$= p(\text{Filled} \mid y') \times p(\text{with} \mid y') \times p(\text{horrific} \mid y')$$

$$p(y' \mid \text{Filled, with, horrific})$$

$$\propto p(y') \times p(\text{Filled, with, horrific} \mid y')$$

$$= p(y') \times p(\text{Filled} \mid y') \times p(\text{with} \mid y') \times p(\text{horrific} \mid y')$$

Is this a good model?

- What is wrong with these assumptions?

Is this a good model?

- George Box, statistician: “essentially, **all models are wrong, but some are useful**”)
- It turns out that naïve Bayes + BoW works pretty well for many text classification tasks, like spam detection.



Naïve Bayes Classifier

$w_j \leftarrow [\mathbf{words}(x)]_j$

return

$\arg \max_{y'} p(y') \times \prod_j p(w_j \mid y')$

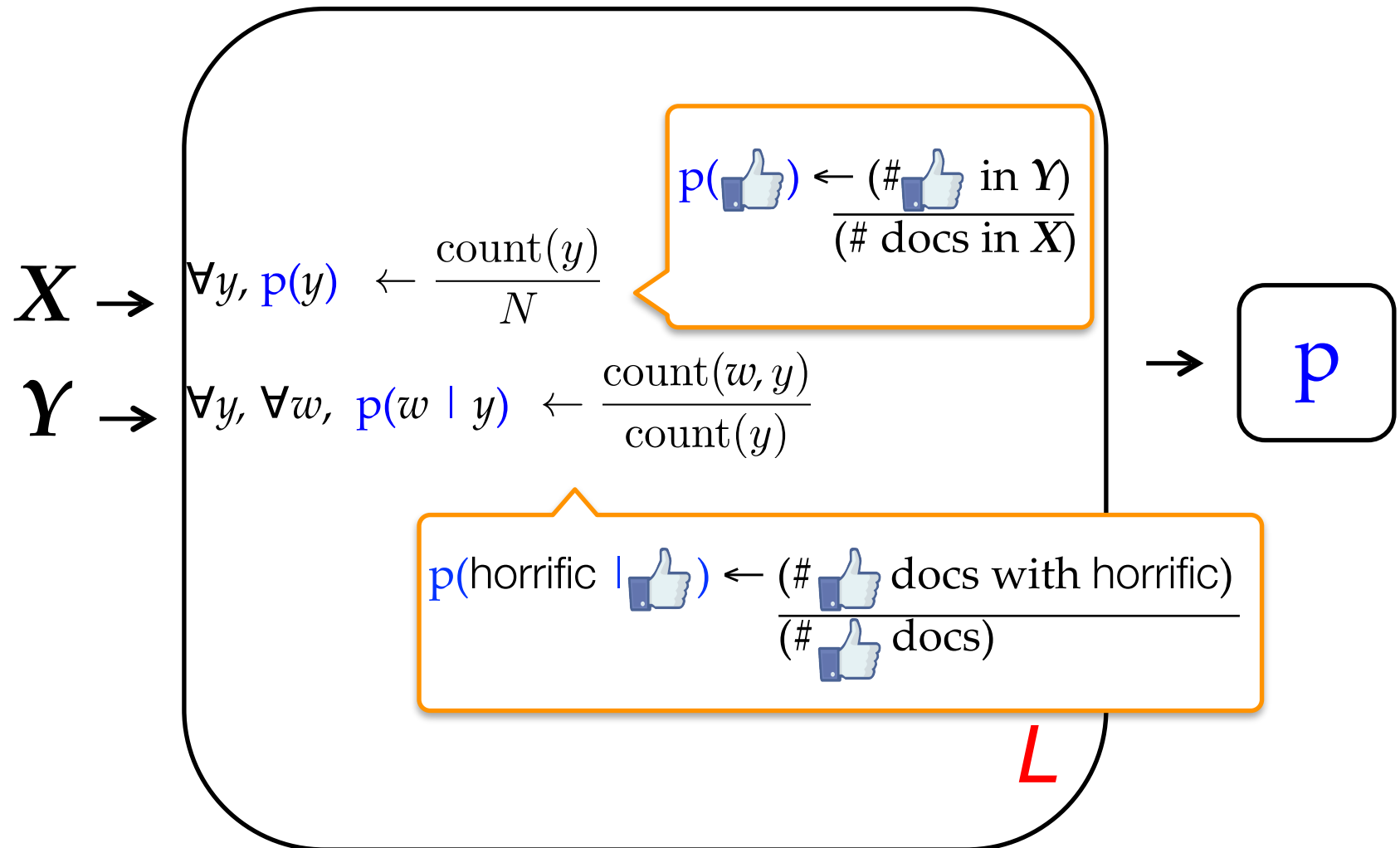
In other words: Loop over class labels,
choose the one that makes the document
most probable (prior \times likelihood)

$x \rightarrow$

$\rightarrow y$

C

Naïve Bayes Learner



Parameters

- Each probability (or other value) that is **learned** and used by the classifier is called a **parameter**
 - E.g., a single probability in a distribution
- Naïve Bayes has two kinds of distributions:
 - the class prior distribution, **$p(y)$**
 - the likelihood distribution, **$p(w | y)$**
- So how many parameters total, if there are K classes and V words in the training data?

Smoothing $p(w | y)$

$$p(\text{horrific} | \text{👍}) \leftarrow \frac{(\# \text{👍 docs with horrific})}{(\# \text{👍 docs})}$$

- What if we encounter the word distraught in a test document, but it has never been seen in training?
 - ▶ Can't estimate $p(\text{distraught} | \text{👍})$ or $p(\text{distraught} | \text{👎})$: numerator will be 0
 - ▶ Because the word probabilities are multiplied together for each document, the probability of the whole document will be 0



Smoothing $p(w | y)$

$$p(\text{horrific} | \text{👍}) \leftarrow \frac{(\# \text{👍 docs with horrific}) + 1}{(\# \text{👍 docs}) + V + 1}$$

$$p(\text{OOV} | \text{👍}) \leftarrow \frac{1}{(\# \text{👍 docs}) + V + 1}$$

V is the size of the vocabulary of the training corpus

- **Smoothing** techniques adjust probabilities to avoid **overfitting** to the training data
 - Above: **Laplace (add-1) smoothing**
 - OOV (out-of-vocabulary/unseen) words now have small probability, which decreases the model's confidence in the prediction without ignoring the other words
 - Probability of each seen word is reduced slightly to save probability mass for unseen words

Smoothing $p(w | y)$

$$p(\text{horrific} | \text{👍}) \leftarrow \frac{(\# \text{👍 docs with horrific}) + 1}{(\# \text{👍 docs}) + V + 1}$$

$$p(\text{OOV} | \text{👍}) \leftarrow \frac{1}{(\# \text{👍 docs}) + V + 1}$$

V is the size of the vocabulary of the training corpus

- **Laplace (add-1) smoothing**, above, uses a **pseudo-count** of 1, which is kind of arbitrary.
 - For some datasets, it's overkill—better to smooth less.
 - **Lidstone (add- α) smoothing: tune** the amount of smoothing on **development** data:

$$p(\text{horrific} | \text{👍}) \leftarrow \frac{(\# \text{👍 docs with horrific}) + \alpha}{(\# \text{👍 docs}) + \alpha(V + 1)}$$

$$p(\text{OOV} | \text{👍}) \leftarrow \frac{\alpha}{(\# \text{👍 docs}) + \alpha(V + 1)}$$

Naïve Bayes Classifier

$w_j \leftarrow [\mathbf{words}(x)]_j$

return

$\arg \max_{y'} p(y') \times \prod_j p(w_j | y')$

In other words: Loop over class labels,
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$x \rightarrow$



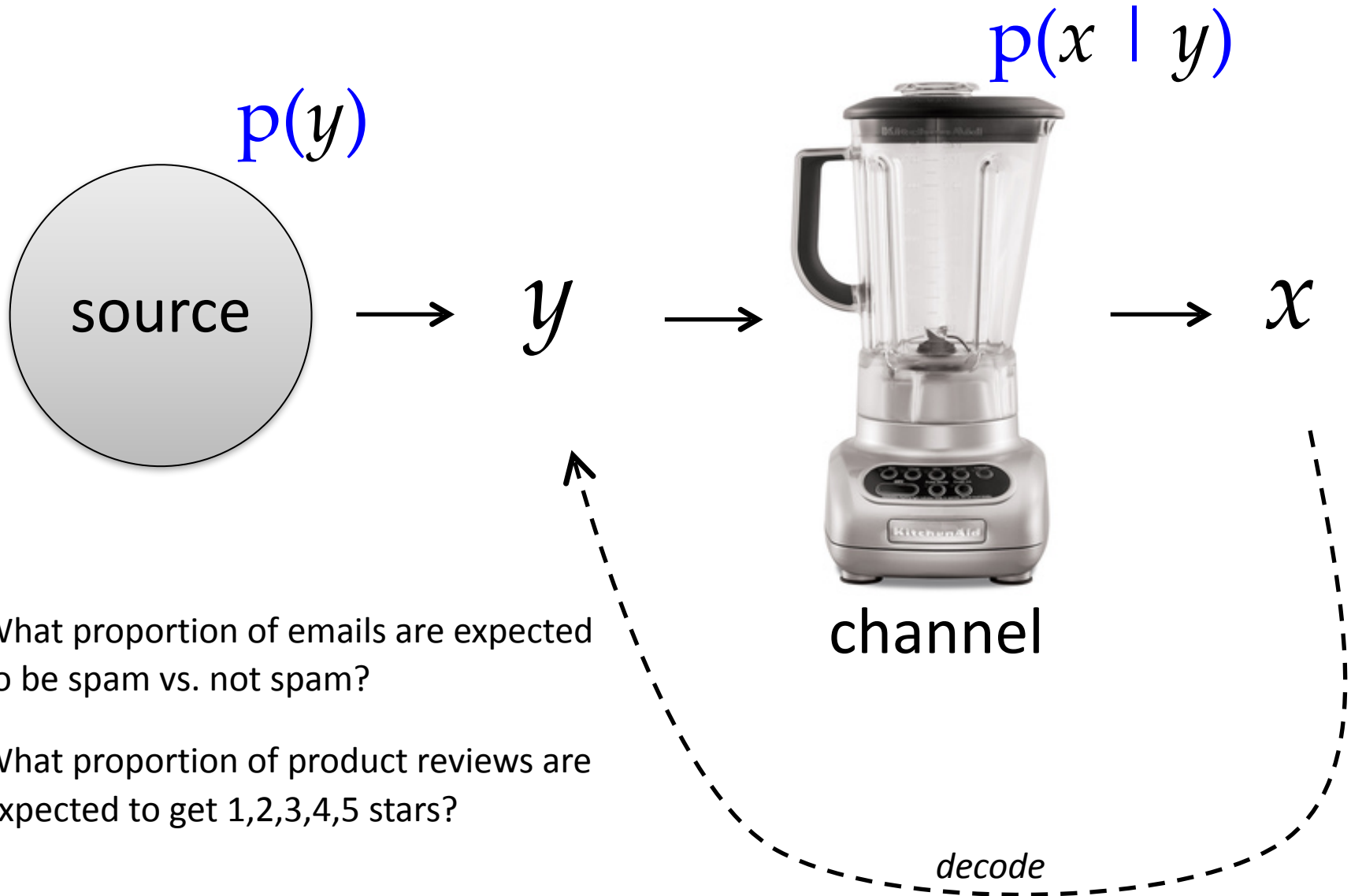
Can get
very small

$\rightarrow y$

Avoiding Underflow

- Multiplying 2 very small floating point numbers can yield a number that is too small for the computer to represent. This is called **underflow**.
- In implementing probabilistic models, we use **log probabilities** to get around this.
 - Instead of storing $p(\bullet)$, store $\log p(\bullet)$
 - $p(\bullet) \times p'(\bullet) \rightarrow \log p(\bullet) + \log p'(\bullet)$
 - $p(\bullet) + p'(\bullet) \rightarrow \text{numpy.logaddexp}(\log p(\bullet), \log p'(\bullet))$

Noisy Channel Model



What proportion of emails are expected to be spam vs. not spam?

What proportion of product reviews are expected to get 1,2,3,4,5 stars?

Noisy Channel Classifiers

return

$$\arg \max_y p(y) \times p(x | y)$$

$x \rightarrow$

C

$\rightarrow y$

Conclusions

- We have seen how labeled **training data** and **supervised learning** can produce a better-informed classifier
 - **Classifier** takes an *input* (such as a text document) and predicts an *output* (such as a class label)
 - **Learner** takes *training data* and produces (statistics necessary for) the classifier

Conclusions

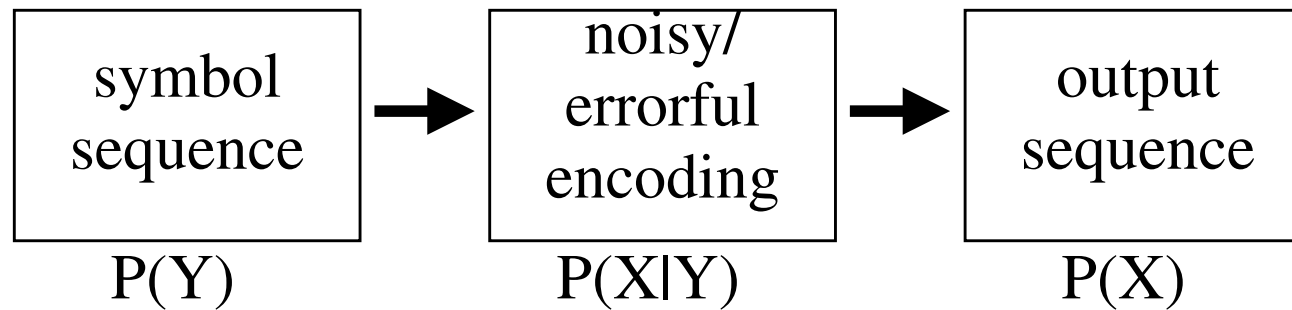
- Because most pieces of text are unique, it's not very practical to assume the one being classified has occurred in the training data
 - We need to make **modeling assumptions** that help the learner to **generalize** to unseen inputs
- The **naïve Bayes** model + **bag-of-words** assumption are a simple, fast probabilistic approach to text classification
 - Works well for many tasks, despite being a ~~dumb~~ naïve model of language: We know that
 - * *good, not as bad as expected \neq bad, not as good as expected*
 - * $p(\text{Star Wars} \mid \text{👍}) \neq p(\text{Star} \mid \text{👍}) \times p(\text{Wars} \mid \text{👍})$

Conclusions

- In practice, we need **smoothing** to avoid assuming that everything that might come up at test time is in the training data
- Implementation trick: use **log probabilities** to avoid underflow

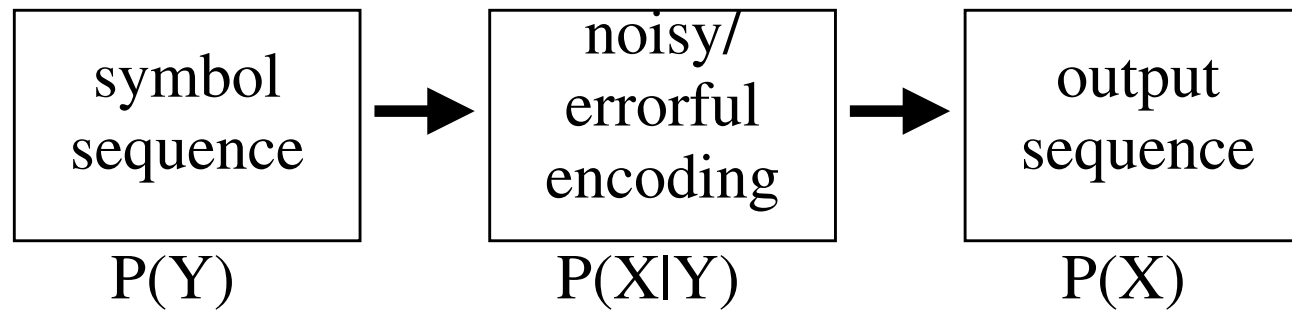
Noisy channel model

- We imagine that someone tries to communicate a sequence to us, but noise is introduced. We only see the output sequence.



Noisy channel model

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Application	Y	X
Speech recognition	spoken words	acoustic signal
Machine translation	words in L_1	words in L_2
Spelling correction	intended words	typed words

Example: spelling correction

- $P(Y)$: Distribution over the words the user intended to type. A language model!
- $P(X|Y)$: Distribution describing what user is **likely** to type, given what they **meant**. Could incorporate information about common spelling errors, key positions, etc. Call it a **noise model**.
- $P(X)$: Resulting distribution over what we actually see.
- Given some particular observation x (say, `effert`), we want to recover the most probable y that was intended.