

Lecture 12: Naïve Bayes Classifier, Evaluation Methods

Ling 1330/2330 Intro to Computational Linguistics
Na-Rae Han, 10/5/2023

Overview

- ▶ Text classification; Naïve Bayes classifier
 - ◆ Language and Computers: Ch.5 Classifying documents
 - ◆ NLTK book: [Ch.6 Learning to classify text](#)

- ▶ Evaluating the performance of a system
 - ◆ *Language and Computers*:
 - ◆ Ch.5.4 Measuring success, 5.4.1 Base rates
 - ◆ NLTK book: [Ch.6.3 Evaluation](#)
 - ◆ Cross-validation
 - ◆ Accuracy vs. precision vs. recall
 - ◆ F-measure

Given D, chance of Spam?

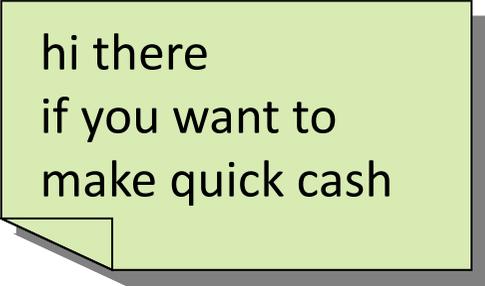
$$P(SPAM | D) = \frac{P(SPAM, D)}{P(D)} = \frac{P(SPAM, D)}{P(SPAM, D) + P(HAM, D)}$$

$P(SPAM | D)$

← The probability of *a given document D* being SPAM

= 1 - $P(HAM | D)$

← Can calculate from $P(SPAM, D)$ and $P(HAM, D)$



hi there
if you want to
make quick cash



30% chance SPAM?
90%?

A bit of background

▶ **$P(A)$** : the probability of A occurring

- ◆ $P(\text{SPAM})$: the probability of having a SPAM document.

▶ **$P(A | B)$** : **Conditional probability**

the probability of A occurring, given that B has occurred

- ◆ $P(f_1 | \text{SPAM})$: given a spam document, the probability of feature1 occurring.
- ◆ $P(\text{SPAM} | D)$: given a specific document, the probability of it being a SPAM.

▶ **$P(A, B)$** : **Joint probability**

the probability of A occurring *and* B occurring

- ◆ Same as $P(B, A)$.
- ◆ If A and B are independent events, same as $P(A) * P(B)$.
If not, same as $P(A | B) * P(B)$ and also $P(B | A) * P(A)$.
- ◆ $P(D, \text{SPAM})$: the probability of a specific document D occurring, and it being a SPAM.

A bit of background

▶ $P(A, B)$: Joint probability

the probability of A occurring *and* B occurring

- ◆ Same as $P(B, A)$.
- ◆ If A and B are independent events, same as $P(A)*P(B)$.
If not, same as $P(A|B)*P(B)$ and also $P(B|A)*P(A)$.
- ◆ $P(D, SPAM)$: the probability of a specific document D occurring, and it being a SPAM.

Throwing two dice.

A: die 1 comes up with 6.

B: die 2 comes up with an even number.

→ A and B are independent.

$$\begin{aligned}\rightarrow P(A, B) &= P(A) * P(B) \\ &= 1/6 * 1/2 = 1/12\end{aligned}$$

Throwing one die.

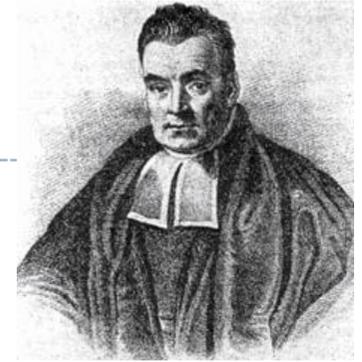
A: die comes up with 6.

B: die comes up with an even number.

→ A and B are NOT independent!

$$\begin{aligned}\rightarrow P(A, B) &= P(A|B) * P(B) \\ &= 1/3 * 1/2 = 1/6 \\ &= P(B|A) * P(A) \\ &= 1 * 1/6 = 1/6\end{aligned}$$

Bayes' Theorem



$$\textcircled{1} \quad P(B | A) = \frac{P(B, A)}{P(A)} = \frac{P(A | B) * P(B)}{P(A)}$$

- ▶ B: Pitt closing, A: snowing
 - ▶ $P(B | A)$: probability of Pitt closing, given snowy weather
 - ▶ $P(B, A)$: probability of Pitt closing and snowing
- ①**: the probability of Pitt closing given it's snowing is equal to the probability of Pitt closing and snowing, divided by the probability of snowing.

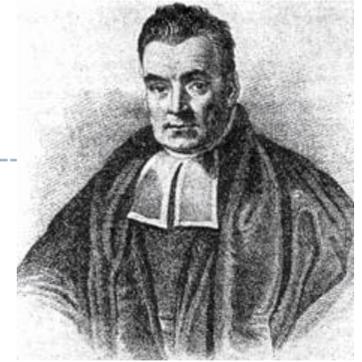
Snow vs. Pitt, Bayes theorem style



$$\textcircled{1} \quad P(B | A) = \frac{P(B, A)}{P(A)} = \frac{P(A | B) * P(B)}{P(A)}$$

- ▶ B: Pitt closing, A: snowing
 - ◆ Last year, there were 15 snowy days; Pitt closed 4 days, 3 of which were snowy days.
- ▶ $P(B | A)$: probability of Pitt closing, given snowy weather
 - = $P(B, A) / P(A)$
 - = $(3/365) / (15/365)$
 - = $3/15 = 0.2$
- ▶ $P(B, A)$: probability of Pitt closing and snowing
 - = $3/365$
- ①: the probability of Pitt closing given it's snowing is equal to the probability of Pitt closing and snowing, divided by the probability of snowing.

Snow vs. Pitt, Bayes theorem style



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

- ▶ B: Pitt closing, A: snowing
 - ▶ $P(B | A)$: probability of Pitt closing, given snowy weather
 - ▶ $P(B, A)$: probability of Pitt closing and snowing
- ②: the probability of Pitt closing AND it's snowing is equal to the probability of Pitt closing (=prior) multiplied by the probability of snowing given that Pitt is closed.
- ← Corollary of ①! You get this by swapping A and B and solving for $P(B, A)$

Bayes' Theorem & spam likelihood

$$P(SPAM | D) = \frac{P(SPAM, D)}{P(D)} = \frac{P(SPAM, D)}{P(SPAM, D) + P(HAM, D)}$$

$$P(SPAM, D)$$

$$= P(D|SPAM) * P(SPAM)$$

$$= P(SPAM) * P(D|SPAM)$$

$$= P(SPAM) * P(f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n|SPAM)$$

$$= P(SPAM) * P(f_1|SPAM) * P(f_2|SPAM) * \dots * P(f_n|SPAM) \textcircled{2}$$

A document has to be either SPAM or HAM!

- ▶ SPAM: document is spam, D: a specific document occurs
- ▶ $P(SPAM | D)$: probability of document being SPAM, given a particular document
- ▶ $P(SPAM, D)$: probability of D occurring and it being SPAM
- ▶ Which means: we can calculate $P(SPAM | D)$ from $P(SPAM, D)$ and $P(HAM, D)$, which are calculated as $\textcircled{2}$.

Probabilities of the entire document

H_1 "D is a SPAM" is closely related to $P(D, SPAM)$:

The probability of document D occurring *and* it being a spam

$$= P(SPAM) * P(D | SPAM)$$

$$= P(SPAM) * P(f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n | SPAM) \textcircled{1}$$

$$= P(SPAM) * P(f_1 | SPAM) * P(f_2 | SPAM) * \dots * P(f_n | SPAM) \textcircled{2}$$

- ◆ We have all the pieces to compute this.
- ◆ "Bag-of-words" assumption $\textcircled{1}$
- ◆ "Naïve" Bayes because $\textcircled{2}$ assumes **feature independence**.

If all we're going to do is rule between SPAM and HAM, we can simply compare $P(D, SPAM)$ and $P(D, HAM)$ and choose one with higher probability.

- ◆ But we may also be interested in answering:

"Given D, what are the *chances* of it being a SPAM? 70%? 5%?"

← This is $P(SPAM | D)$.

Naïve Bayes Assumption

- ▶ Given a label, a set of features f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n are generated with different probabilities
- ▶ The features are **independent** of each other; f_x occurring does not affect f_y occurring, etc.

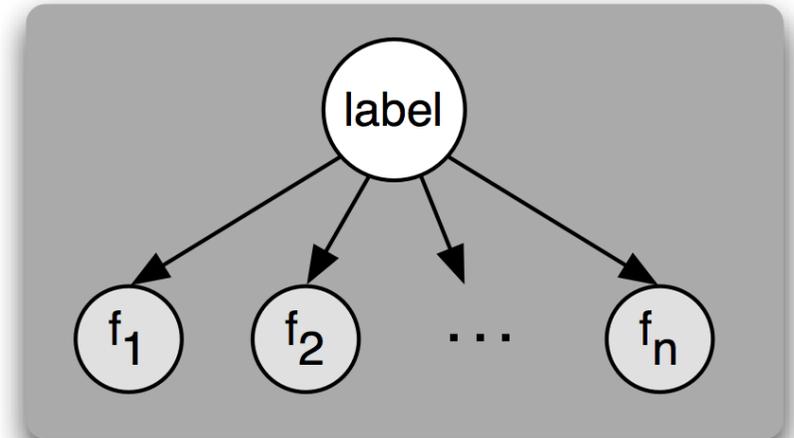
→ **Naïve Bayes Assumption**

- This **feature independence assumption** simplifies combining contributions of features; you just **multiply** their probabilities:

$$P(f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n | L) = P(f_1 | L) * P(f_2 | L) * \dots * P(f_n | L)$$

← "Naïve" because features are often inter-dependent.

← f_1 : 'contains-*Linguistics*:YES' and f_2 : 'contains-*syntax*:YES' are not independent.



Homework 4: Who Said It?



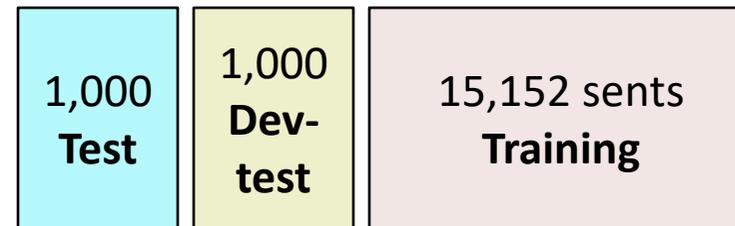
▶ Jane Austen or Herman Melville?

- ◆ *I never met with a disposition more truly amiable.*
- ◆ *But Queequeg, do you see, was a creature in the transition stage -- neither caterpillar nor butterfly.*
- ◆ *Oh, my sweet cardinals!*

▶ Task: build a Naïve Bayes classifier and explore it

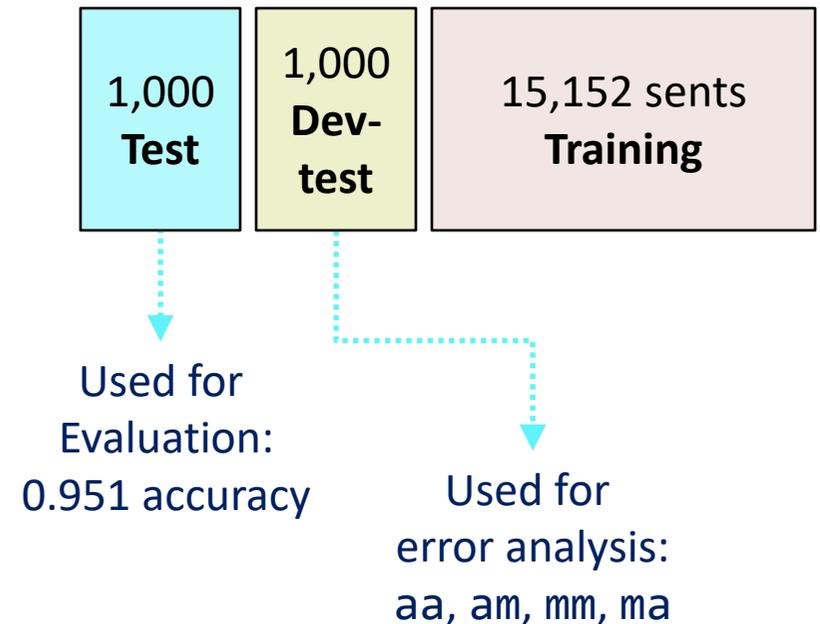
▶ Do three-way partition of data:

- ◆ test data
- ◆ development-test data
- ◆ training data



whosaid: a Naïve Bayes classifier

- ▶ How did the classifier do?
 - ◆ **0.951 accuracy** on the test data, using a fixed random data split.
- ▶ Probably outperformed your expectation.
- ▶ What's behind this high accuracy? How does the NB classifier work?
 - ➔ HW4 PART [B]
- ▶ How good is 0.951?



Common evaluation setups

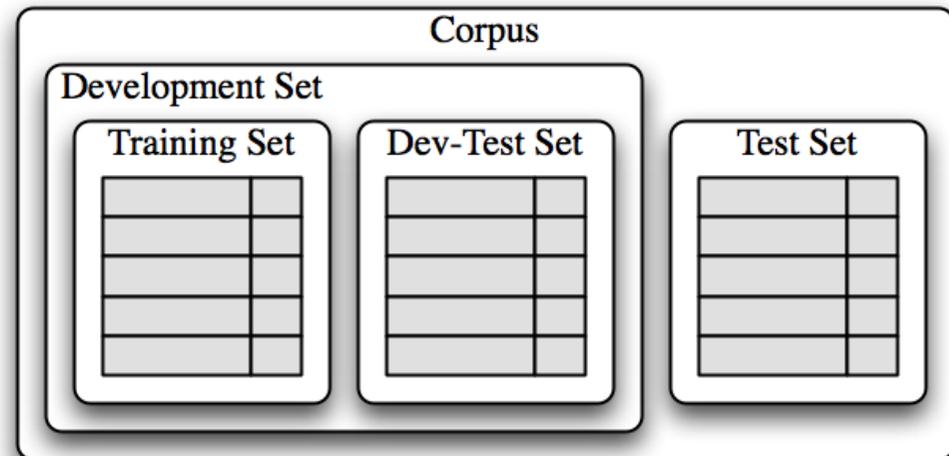
▶ **Training** vs. **testing** partitions

1. Training data ← classifier is trained on this section
2. Testing data ← classifier's performance is measured

▶ Training, testing, + **development-testing**

+ 3. Development testing data

← In feature engineering, researcher can error-analyze the data to improve performance

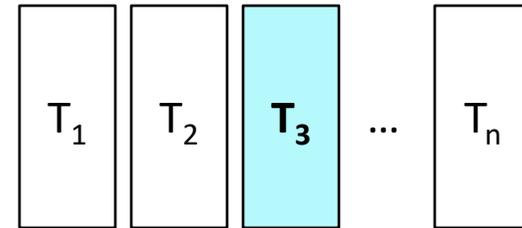


Cross validation

- ▶ But what if our training/testing split is somehow biased?

- ➔ We could randomize

- ➔ or use cross-validation.



- ▶ **n -fold cross validation method**

- ◆ Partition the data set into equally sized n sets
 - ◆ Conduct n rounds of training-testing, each using 1 partition as testing and the rest $n-1$ partitions for training
 - ◆ And then take an average of the n accuracy figures
 - ← More reliable accuracy score. Performance evaluation is less dependent on a particular training-testing split
 - ← We can see how widely performance varies across different training sets

Confusion matrices

- ▶ When classifying among 3+ labels, **confusion matrices** can be informative
- ▶ L1 classification of ESL essays:

	ARA	DEU	FRA	HIN	ITA	JPN	KOR	SPA	TEL	TUR	ZHO
ARA	57	0	3	9	1	8	2	9	6	10	2
DEU	6	79	5	2	7	4	2	5	0	1	3
FRA	2	7	60	3	8	0	3	5	1	1	3
HIN	5	1	1	46	3	1	2	7	19	6	4
ITA	5	4	10	2	67	2	3	14	0	4	3
JPN	2	1	4	0	5	72	20	0	0	2	6
KOR	1	0	0	0	1	2	51	6	1	8	6
SPA	6	4	8	12	1	3	2	45	11	6	1
TEL	10	1	0	17	3	2	3	1	53	2	1
TUR	5	2	6	7	1	6	5	5	7	53	8
ZHO	1	1	3	2	3	0	7	3	2	7	63
	ARA	DEU	FRA	HIN	ITA	JPN	KOR	SPA	TEL	TUR	ZHO

Accuracy as a measure

- ▶ **Accuracy:** of all labeling decisions that a classifier made, how many of them are *correct*?
 - ◆ POS tagger
 - ◆ Name gender identifier
 - ◆ whosaid: Austen/Melville author classifier
 - ◆ Document topic identifier
 - ◆ Movie review classifier: positive/neg. ("sentiment classifier")

Accuracy as a measure

- ▶ **Accuracy:** of all labeling decisions that a classifier made, how many of them are *correct*?
- ▶ Interpreting accuracy numbers
 - ◆ A movie review sentiment classifier tests 85% accurate. Is this good or bad?
 - ◆ What if it turns out 80% movie reviews are positive?
 - ◆ How about 60%?
 - ◆ A document topic identifier tests 60% accurate. Good or bad?
 - ◆ What if 55% of documents are on "Politics"?
 - ◆ What if there are as many as 20 different topics, and the largest category only accounts for 10% of the data?
- ← These questions cannot be answered without considering **base probabilities (priors)**.

Base probabilities

▶ **Base probabilities (priors)**

The probability of a randomly drawn sample to have a label x

- ◆ whosaid? POS tagger? Disease test?
- ◆ whosaid: 'melville' has a higher prior than 'austen'
- ◆ POS tagger: 'Noun' may have the highest prior than other tags
- ◆ Disease test: 'Negative' is typically much higher than 'Positive'

▶ **Base rate neglect**

- ◆ A cognitive bias humans have
- ◆ We tend to assume that base probabilities are equal

▶ **Base performance**

- ◆ The "absolute bottom line" for system performances
= the highest base probability

ex. POS tagger: if 20% of all words are 'Noun', then the worst-performing system can be constructed which blindly assigns 'Noun' to every word, whose accuracy is 20%.

When accuracy isn't a good measure

- ▶ A **medical test for a disease** is 96% accurate. Good or bad?
 - ◆ What if 95% of population is free of the disease?
- ▶ A **grammatical error detector** is 96% accurate. Good or bad?
 - ◆ Suppose 95% of all sentences are error-free.
 - ← Accuracy alone doesn't tell the whole story.
- ▶ We are interested in:
 - ◆ Of all "ungrammatical" flags the system raises, what % is correct?
 - ← This is the **precision** rate.
 - ◆ Of all actual ungrammatical sentences, what % does the system correctly capture as such?
 - ← This is the **recall** rate.

Outcome of a diagnostic test

▶ A grammatical error detector as a diagnostic test

- ◆ Positive: has grammatical error
- ◆ Negative: is error-free

		Real	
		Has grammatical error	Is error-free
Test	positive	True positives	False positives
	negative	False negatives	True negatives

◆ **Accuracy:**

$$(Tp + Tn) / (Tp + Tn + Fp + Fn)$$

← When the data is predominantly error-free (high base rate), this is not a meaningful measure of system performance.

Outcome of a diagnostic test

▶ A grammatical error detector as a diagnostic test

- ◆ Positive: has grammatical error
- ◆ Negative: is error-free

		Real	
		Has grammatical error	Is error-free
Test	positive	① True positives	False positives
	negative	False negatives	True negatives

◆ Precision:

Rate of "True positives" out of all positive rulings (①)

$$= T_p / (T_p + F_p)$$

Outcome of a diagnostic test

▶ A grammatical error detector as a diagnostic test

- ◆ Positive: has grammatical error
- ◆ Negative: is error-free

		Real	
		Has grammatical error	Is error-free
Test	positive	② True positives	False positives
	negative	False negatives	True negatives

◆ Recall:

Rate of "True positives" out of all actual positive cases (②)

$$= T_p / (T_p + F_n)$$

Precision vs. recall

- ▶ **Precision and recall** are in a trade-off relationship.
 - ◆ Highly precise grammatical error detector:
Ignores many lower-confidence cases → drop in recall
 - ◆ High recall (captures as many errors as possible):
many non-errors will also be flagged → drop in precision
- ▶ In developing a real-world application, picking the right trade-off point between the two is an important usability issue.
 - ◆ A **grammar checker** for general audience (MS-Word, etc)
 - ◆ Higher precision or higher recall?
 - ◆ Same, but for English learners.
 - ◆ Higher precision or higher recall?

F-measure

- ▶ **Precision** and **recall** are in a trade-off relationship.

← Both measures should be taken into consideration when evaluating performance

- ▶ **F-measure**

- ◆ Also called F-score, F_1 score
- ◆ An overall measure of a test's accuracy:
Combines *precision* (P) and *recall* (R) into a single measure
- ◆ Harmonic mean →
- ◆ Best value: 1,
worst value: 0
- ◆ = average if P=R,
< average if P and R different

$$F_1 = \frac{2PR}{P + R}$$

Wrapping up

- ▶ HW 4 Part A, B due on Tue
 - ◆ **Don't procrastinate!** Part B is more complex.

- ▶ Next class (Tue)
 - ◆ HW4 review
 - ◆ Midterm review

- ▶ Midterm exam on Thursday → NEXT SLIDE

Midterm exam: what to expect

- ▶ 10/12 (Thursday)
 - ◆ 75 minutes.
 - ◆ At LMC's PC Lab (**G17 CL**)
- ▶ Exam format:
 - ◆ Closed book. All pencil-and-paper.
 - ◆ Topical questions: "what is/discuss/analyze/find out/calculate..."
 - ◆ **Bring your calculator! →**
- ▶ A letter-sized **cheat sheet** allowed.
 - ◆ Front and back.
 - ◆ Hand-written only.

