

# Web Information Retrieval

Lecture 14  
Text classification

# Text Classification

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- Naïve Bayes Classification
- Vector space methods for Text Classification
  - K Nearest Neighbors
  - Decision boundaries
  - Linear Classifiers

# Recall a few probability basics

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- For events  $A$  and  $B$ :
- Bayes' Rule

$$P(A, B) = P(A \cap B) = P(A | B)P(B) = P(B | A)P(A)$$

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

**Posterior**                                   **Prior**

# Probabilistic Methods

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- Our focus this lecture
- Learning and classification methods based on probability theory.
- Bayes theorem plays a critical role in probabilistic learning and classification.
- Builds a *generative model* that approximates how data is produced
- Uses *prior* probability of each category given no information about an item.
- Categorization produces a *posterior* probability distribution over the possible categories given a description of an item.

# Bayes' Rule for text classification

- For a document  $d$  and a class  $c$
- $P(c)$  = Probability that we see a document of class c
- $P(d)$  = Probability that we see document d

$$P(c,d) = P(c | d)P(d) = P(d | c)P(c)$$

$$P(c | d) = \frac{P(d | c)P(c)}{P(d)}$$

# Naive Bayes Classifiers

Task: Classify a new instance  $d$  based on a tuple of attribute values  $d = \langle x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n \rangle$  into one of the classes  $c_j \in C$

$$c_{MAP} = \operatorname{argmax}_{c_j \in C} P(c_j | x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$$

$$= \operatorname{argmax}_{c_j \in C} \frac{P(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n | c_j)P(c_j)}{P(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)}$$

$$= \operatorname{argmax}_{c_j \in C} P(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n | c_j)P(c_j)$$

MAP is “maximum a posteriori” = most likely class

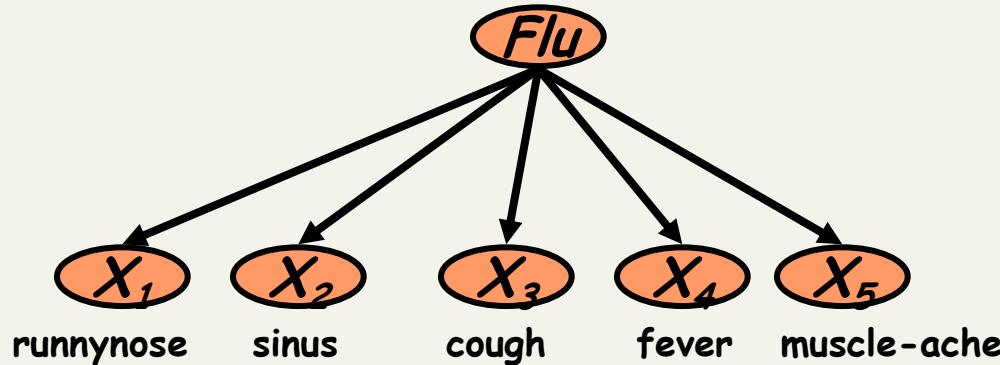
# Naive Bayes Classifier: Naive Bayes Assumption

- $P(c_j)$ 
  - Can be estimated from the frequency of classes in the training examples.
- $P(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n | c_j)$ 
  - $O(|X|^n \cdot |C|)$  parameters
  - Could only be estimated if a very, very large number of training examples was available.

## Naive Bayes Conditional Independence Assumption:

- Assume that the probability of observing the conjunction of attributes is equal to the product of the individual probabilities  $P(x_i | c_j)$ .

# The Naive Bayes Classifier

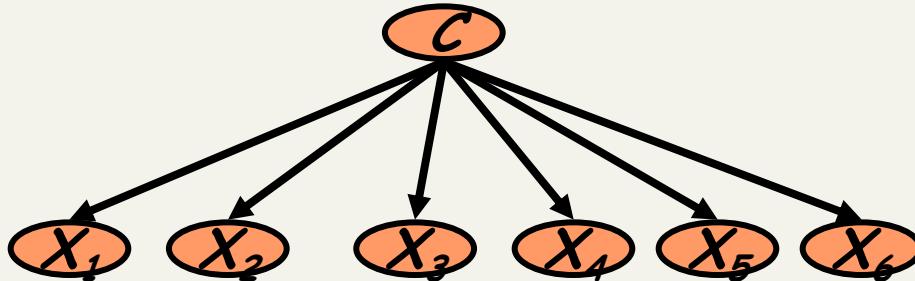


- **Conditional Independence Assumption:** features detect term presence and are **independent** of each other **given the class**:

$$P(X_1, \dots, X_5 | C) = P(X_1 | C) \bullet P(X_2 | C) \bullet \dots \bullet P(X_5 | C)$$

- This model is appropriate for binary variables
  - Multivariate Bernoulli model

# Learning the Model

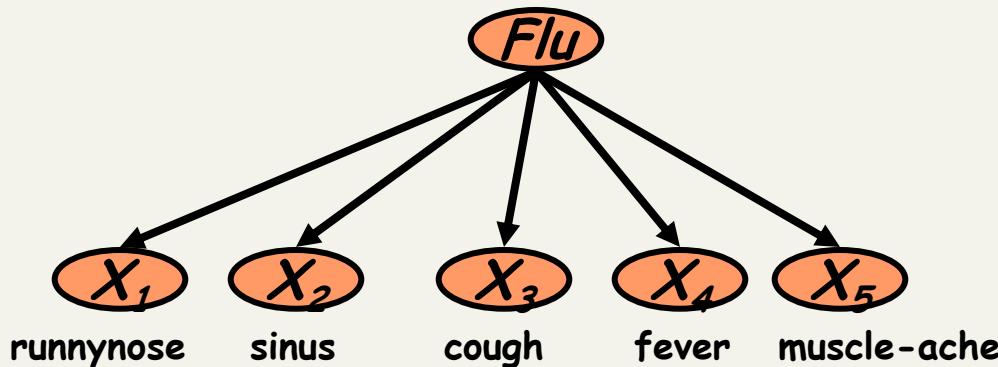


- First attempt: maximum likelihood estimates
  - simply use the frequencies in the data

$$\hat{P}(c_j) = \frac{N(C = c_j)}{N}$$

$$\hat{P}(x_i | c_j) = \frac{N(X_i = x_i, C = c_j)}{\sum_{w \in \text{Vocabulary}} N(X_i = w, C = c_j)} = \frac{N(X_i = x_i, C = c_j)}{N(C = c_j)}$$

# Problem with Maximum Likelihood



$$P(X_1, \dots, X_5 | C) = P(X_1 | C) \bullet P(X_2 | C) \bullet \dots \bullet P(X_5 | C)$$

- What if we have seen no training documents with the word **muscle-ache** and classified in the topic **Flu**?

$$\hat{P}(X_5 = t | C = Flu) = \frac{N(X_5 = t, C = Flu)}{N(C = Flu)} = 0$$

- Zero probabilities cannot be conditioned away, no matter the other evidence!

$$\ell = \arg \max_c \hat{P}(c) \prod_i \hat{P}(x_i | c)$$

# Smoothing

$$\hat{P}(x_i \mid c_j) = \frac{N(X_i = x_i, C = c_j) + \alpha}{\sum_{w \in \text{Vocabulary}} (N(X_i = w, C = c_j) + \alpha)} = \frac{N(X_i = x_i, C = c_j) + \alpha}{N(C = c_j) + \alpha \cdot |\text{Vocabulary}|}$$

- More advanced smoothing is possible

# Stochastic Language Models

- Model *probability* of generating strings (each word in turn) in a language (commonly all strings over alphabet  $\Sigma$ ). E.g., a unigram model

## Model M

0.2	the	the	man	likes	the	woman
0.1	a	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
0.01	man	0.2	0.01	0.02	0.2	0.01
0.01	woman	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
0.03	said	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
0.02	likes	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
...						

**multiply**

$P(s | M) = 0.00000008$

# Stochastic Language Models

- Model *probability* of generating any string

**Model M1**

0.2	the
0.01	class
0.0001	sayst
0.0001	pleaseth
0.0001	yon
0.0005	maiden
0.01	woman

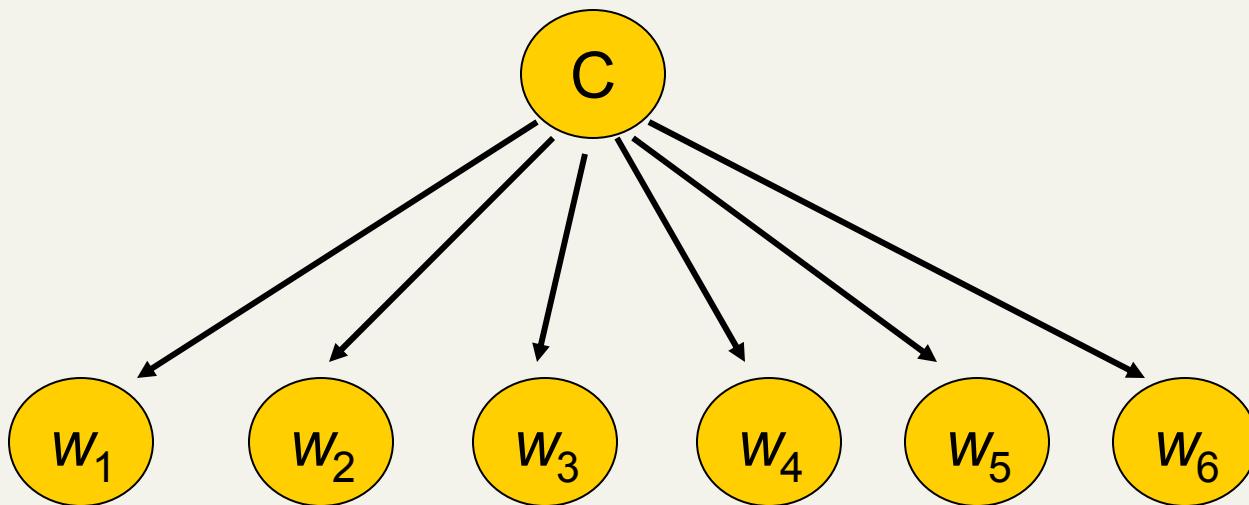
**Model M2**

0.2	the
0.0001	class
0.03	sayst
0.02	pleaseth
0.1	yon
0.01	maiden
0.0001	woman

the	class	pleaseth	yon	maiden
—	—	—	—	—
0.2	0.01	0.0001	0.0001	0.0005
0.2	0.0001	0.02	0.1	0.01

$$P(s|M2) > P(s|M1)$$

# Naive Bayes via a class conditional language model = multinomial NB



- Effectively, the probability of each class is done as a class-specific unigram language model

# Using Multinomial Naive Bayes Classifiers to Classify Text: Basic method

- Attributes are text positions, values are words.

$$\begin{aligned} c_{NB} &= \operatorname{argmax}_{c_j \in C} P(c_j) \prod_i P(x_i | c_j) \\ &= \operatorname{argmax}_{c_j \in C} P(c_j) P(x_1 = "our" | c_j) \cdots P(x_n = "text" | c_j) \end{aligned}$$

- Still too many possibilities
- Assume that classification is *independent* of the positions of the words
  - Use same parameters for each position
  - Result is bag of words model

# Naive Bayes: Learning

- From training corpus, extract *Vocabulary*
- Calculate required  $P(c_j)$  and  $P(x_k | c_j)$  terms
  - For each  $c_j$  in  $C$  do
    - $docs_j \leftarrow$  subset of documents for which the target class is  $c_j$
    - $P(c_j) \leftarrow \frac{|docs_j|}{|\text{total \# documents}|}$
  - $Text_j \leftarrow$  single document containing all  $docs_j$
  - for each word  $x_k$  in *Vocabulary*
    - $n_k \leftarrow$  number of occurrences of  $x_k$  in  $Text_j$
    - $P(x_k | c_j) \leftarrow \frac{n_k + \alpha}{n + \alpha |Vocabulary|}$

# Naive Bayes: Classifying

- positions  $\leftarrow$  all word positions in current document which contain tokens found in *Vocabulary*
- Return  $c_{NB}$ , where

$$c_{NB} = \operatorname{argmax}_{c_j \in C} P(c_j) \prod_{i \in positions} P(x_i | c_j)$$

# Naive Bayes: Time Complexity

- **Training Time:**  $O(|D|L_{ave} + |C||V|)$  where  $L_{ave}$  is the average length of a document in  $D$ .
  - Assumes all counts are pre-computed in  $O(|D|L_{ave})$  time during one pass through all of the data.
  - Generally just  $O(|D|L_{ave})$  since usually  $|C||V| < |D|L_{ave}$
- **Test Time:**  $O(|C| L_t)$  where  $L_t$  is the average length of a test document.
  - Very efficient overall, linearly proportional to the time needed to just read in all the data.



# Underflow Prevention: using logs

- Multiplying lots of probabilities, which are between 0 and 1 by definition, can result in floating-point underflow.
- Since  $\log(xy) = \log(x) + \log(y)$ , it is better to perform all computations by summing logs of probabilities rather than multiplying probabilities.
- Class with highest final un-normalized log probability score is still the most probable.

$$c_{NB} = \operatorname{argmax}_{c_j \in C} [\log P(c_j) + \sum_{i \in positions} \log P(x_i | c_j)]$$

- Note that model is now just max of sum of weights...

# Naive Bayes Classifier

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$$c_{NB} = \operatorname{argmax}_{c_j \in C} [\log P(c_j) + \sum_{i \in positions} \log P(x_i | c_j)]$$

- Simple interpretation: Each conditional parameter  $\log P(x_i | c_j)$  is a weight that indicates how good an indicator  $x_i$  is for  $c_j$ .
- The prior  $\log P(c_j)$  is a weight that indicates the relative frequency of  $c_j$ .
- The sum is then a measure of how much evidence there is for the document being in the class.
- We select the class with the most evidence for it

# Feature Selection: Why?

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- Text collections have a large number of features
  - 10,000 – 1,000,000 unique words ... and more
- May make using a particular classifier feasible
  - Some classifiers can't deal with 100,000 of features
- Reduces training time
  - Training time for some methods is quadratic or worse in the number of features
- Can improve generalization (performance)
  - Eliminates noise features
  - Avoids overfitting

# Feature selection: how?

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- Two ideas:
  - Hypothesis testing statistics:
    - Are we confident that the value of one categorical variable is associated with the value of another
    - Chi-square test ( $\chi^2$ )
  - Information theory:
    - How much information does the value of one categorical variable give you about the value of another
    - Mutual information
- They're similar, but  $\chi^2$  measures confidence in association, (based on available statistics), while MI measures extent of association (assuming perfect knowledge of probabilities)

# Violation of NB Assumptions

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- The independence assumptions do not really hold of documents written in natural language.
  - Conditional independence
  - Positional independence
- Examples?

# Naive Bayes is Not So Naive

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- Naive Bayes won 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> place in KDD-CUP 97 competition out of 16 systems
  - Goal: Financial services industry direct mail response prediction model: Predict if the recipient of mail will actually respond to the advertisement – 750,000 records.
- More robust to irrelevant features than many learning methods
  - Irrelevant Features cancel each other without affecting results
  - Decision Trees can suffer **heavily** from this.
- More robust to concept drift (changing class definition over time)
- Very good in domains with many equally important features
  - Decision Trees suffer from *fragmentation* in such cases – especially if little data
- A good dependable baseline for text classification (but not the best)!
- Optimal if the Independence Assumptions hold: **Bayes Optimal Classifier**
  - Never true for text, but possible in some domains
- Very Fast Learning and Testing (basically just count the data)
- Low Storage requirements

# Summary: Naïve Bayes classifiers

- Classify based on prior weight of class and conditional parameter for what each word says:

$$c_{NB} = \operatorname{argmax}_{c_j \in C} \left[ \log P(c_j) + \sum_{i \in positions} \log P(x_i | c_j) \right]$$

- Training is done by counting and dividing:

$$P(c_j) \leftarrow \frac{N_{c_j}}{N} \quad P(x_k | c_j) \leftarrow \frac{T_{c_j x_k} + \alpha}{\sum_{x_i \in V} [T_{c_j x_i} + \alpha]}$$

- Don't forget to smooth

# Recall: Vector Space Representation

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- Each document is a vector, one component for each term (= word).
- Normally normalize vectors to unit length.
- High-dimensional vector space:
  - Terms are axes
  - 10,000+ dimensions, or even 100,000+
  - Docs are vectors in this space
- How can we do classification in this space?

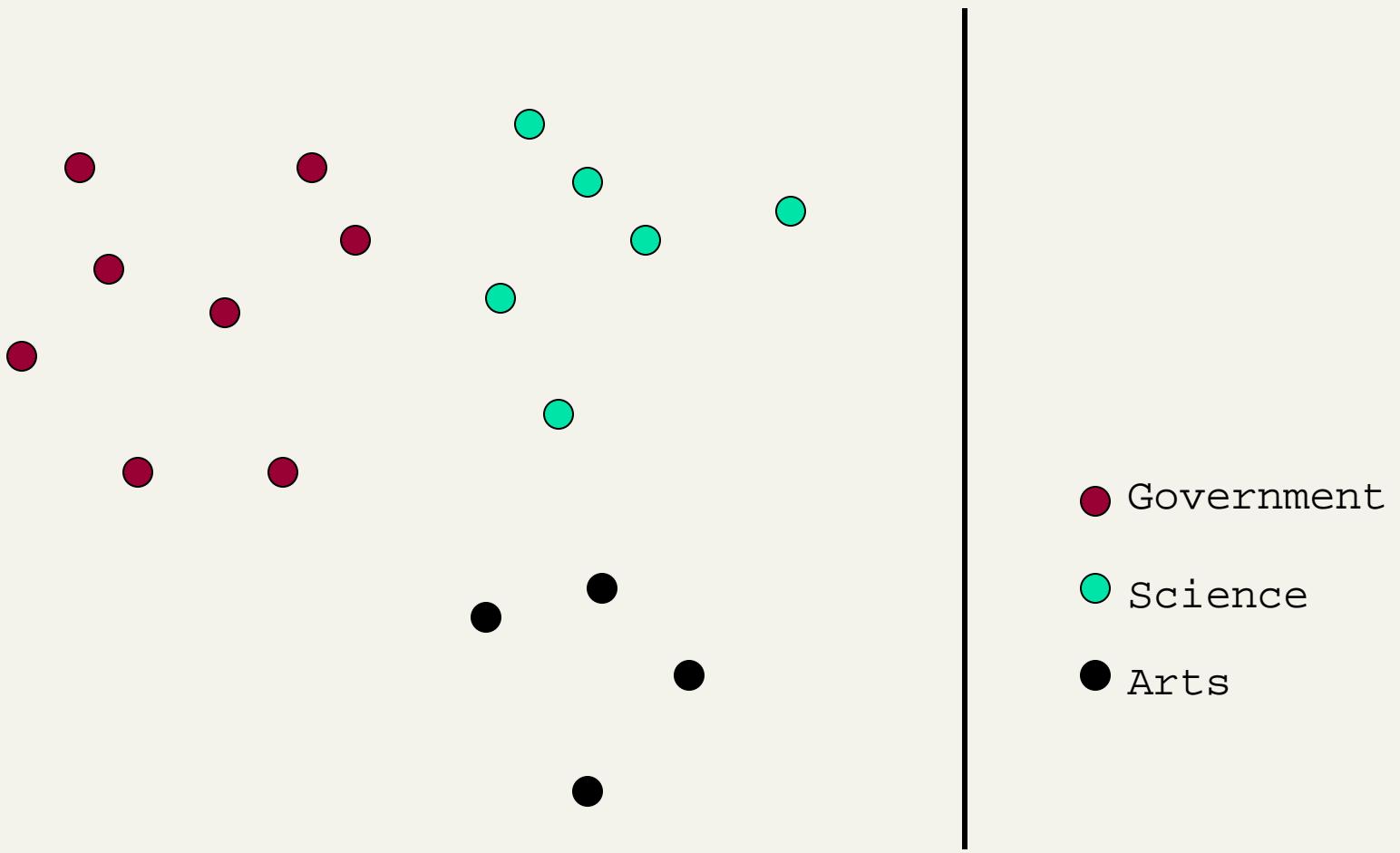
# Classification Using Vector Spaces

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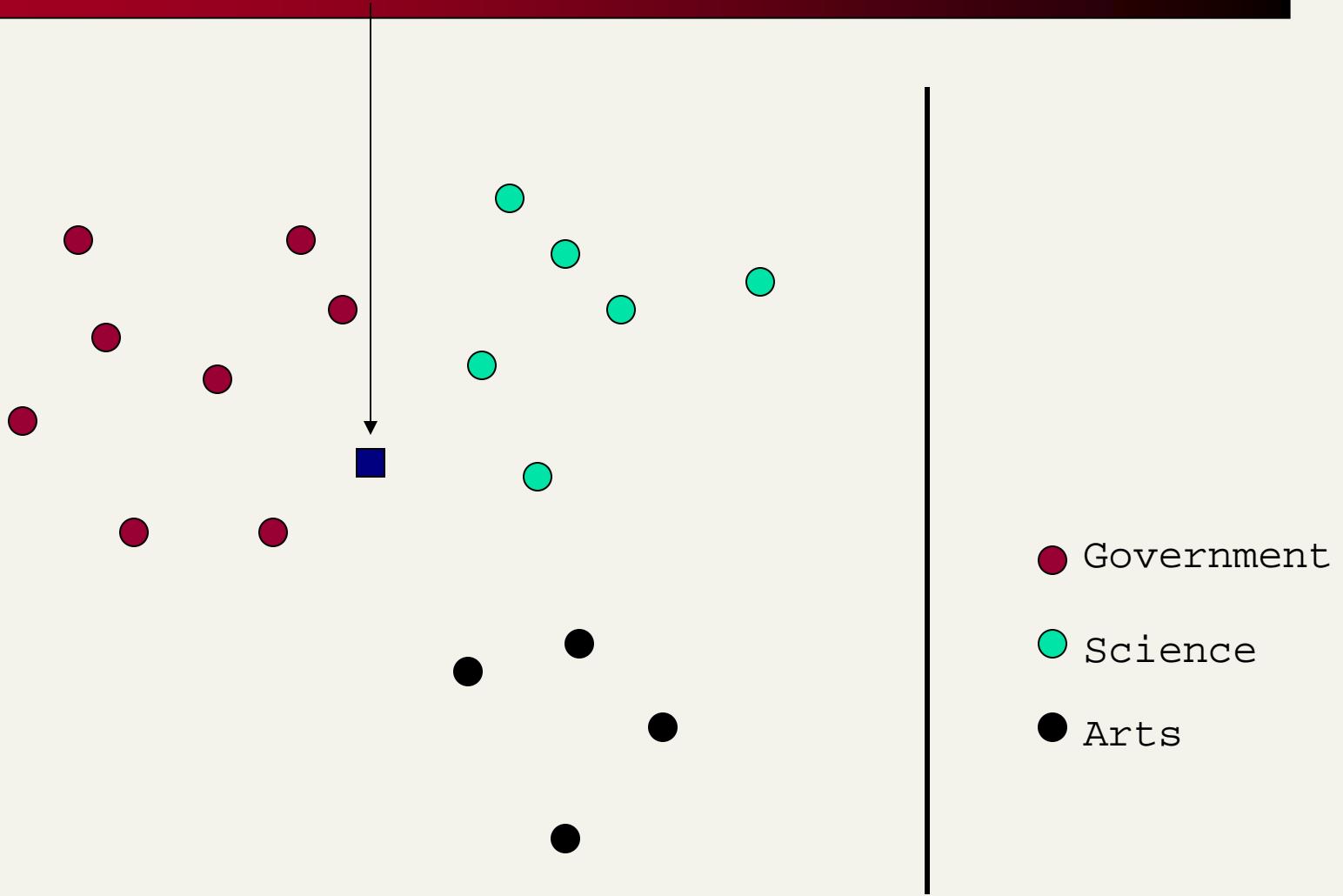
- As before, the training set is a set of documents, each labeled with its class (e.g., topic)
- In vector space classification, this set corresponds to a labeled set of points (or, equivalently, vectors) in the vector space
- **Premise 1:** Documents in the same class form a contiguous region of space
- **Premise 2:** Documents from different classes don't overlap (much)
- We define surfaces to delineate classes in the space

# Documents in a Vector Space

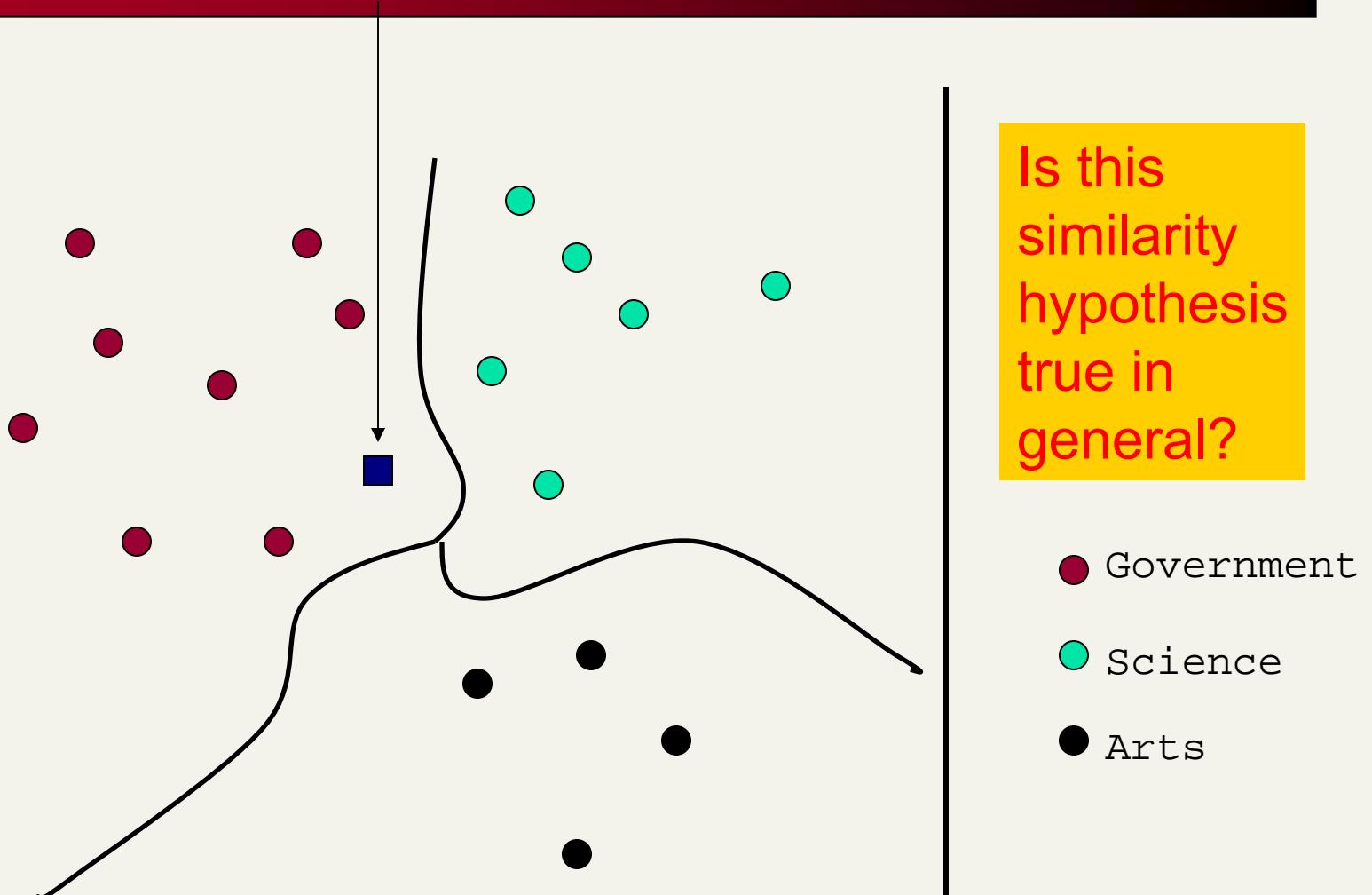
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# Test Document of what class?



# Test Document = Government



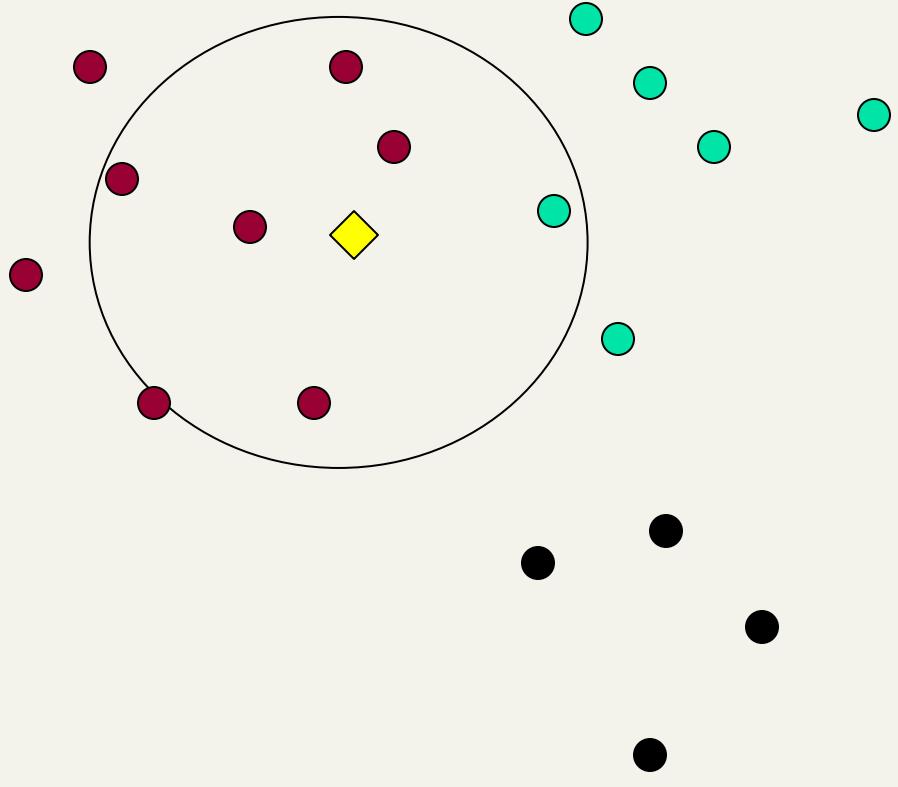
Our main topic today is how to find good separators

# k Nearest Neighbor Classification

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- kNN = k Nearest Neighbor
- To classify document  $d$  into class  $c$ :
- Define  $k$ -neighborhood  $N$  as  $k$  nearest neighbors of  $d$
- Count number of documents  $i$  in  $N$  that belong to  $c$
- Assign  $d$  to class  $c$  with most documents

# Example: k=6 (6NN)



$P(\text{science}|\diamondsuit)?$

- Government
- Science
- Arts

# Nearest-Neighbor Learning Algorithm

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- Learning is just storing the representations of the training examples in  $D$ .
- Testing instance  $x$  (*under 1NN*):
  - Compute similarity between  $x$  and all examples in  $D$ .
  - Assign  $x$  the category of the most similar example in  $D$ .
- Does not explicitly compute a generalization or category prototypes.
- Also called:
  - Case-based learning
  - Memory-based learning
  - Lazy learning
- Rationale of kNN: contiguity hypothesis

# kNN Is Close to Optimal

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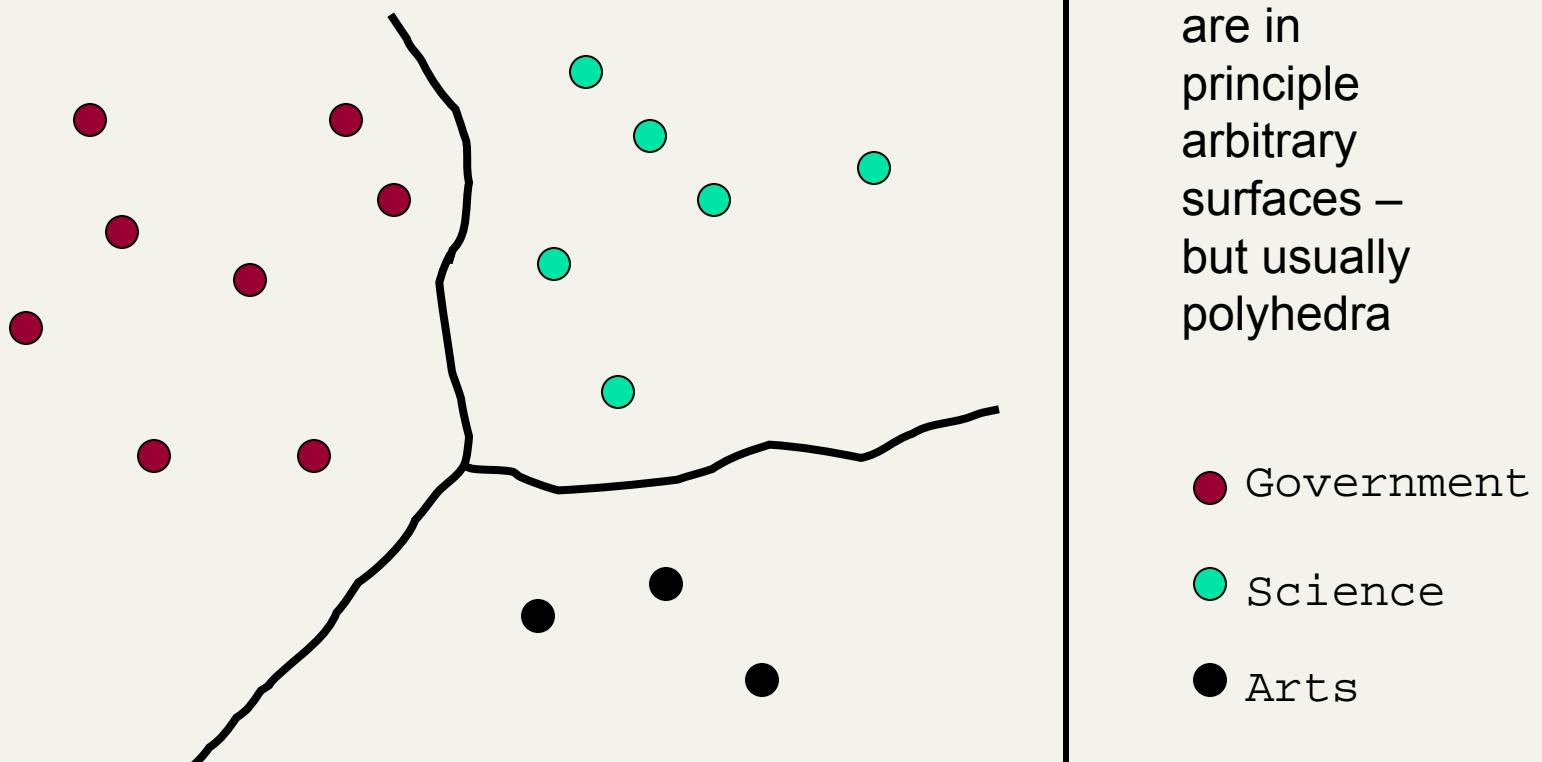
- Cover and Hart (1967)
- Asymptotically, the error rate of 1-nearest-neighbor classification is less than twice the Bayes rate [error rate of classifier knowing model that generated data]
- In particular, asymptotic error rate is 0 if Bayes rate is 0.
- Assume: query point coincides with a training point.
- Both query point and training point contribute error → 2 times Bayes rate

# $k$ Nearest Neighbor

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- Using only the closest example (1NN) to determine the class is subject to errors due to:
  - A single atypical example.
  - Noise (i.e., an error) in the category label of a single training example.
- More robust alternative is to find the  $k$  most-similar examples and return the majority category of these  $k$  examples.
- Value of  $k$  is typically odd to avoid ties; 3 and 5 are most common.

# kNN decision boundaries



kNN gives locally defined decision boundaries between classes – far away points do not influence each classification decision (unlike in Naïve Bayes, etc.)

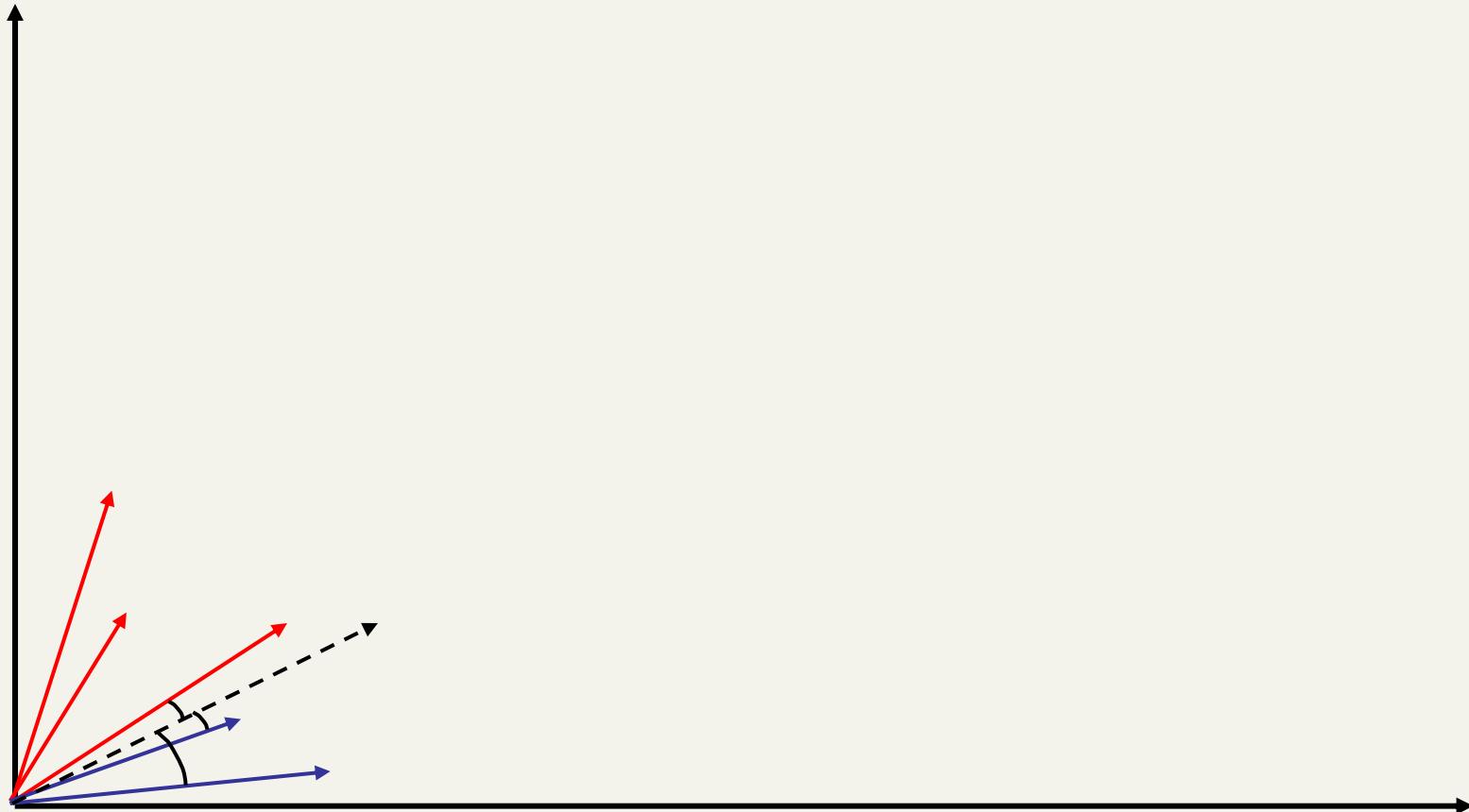
# Similarity Metrics

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- Nearest neighbor method depends on a similarity (or distance) metric.
- Simplest for continuous  $m$ -dimensional instance space is *Euclidean distance*.
- Simplest for  $m$ -dimensional binary instance space is *Hamming distance* (number of feature values that differ).
- For text, cosine similarity of tf.idf weighted vectors is typically most effective.

# Illustration of 3 Nearest Neighbor for Text Vector Space

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# Nearest Neighbor with Inverted Index

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- Naively finding nearest neighbors requires a linear search through  $|D|$  documents in collection
- But determining  $k$  nearest neighbors is the same as determining the  $k$  best retrievals using the test document as a query to a database of training documents.
- Use standard vector space inverted index methods to find the  $k$  nearest neighbors.

# kNN: Discussion

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- No feature selection necessary
- Scales well with large number of classes
  - Don't need to train  $n$  classifiers for  $n$  classes
- Scores can be hard to convert to probabilities
- No training necessary
- May be more expensive at test time

# Linear classifiers and binary and multiclass classification

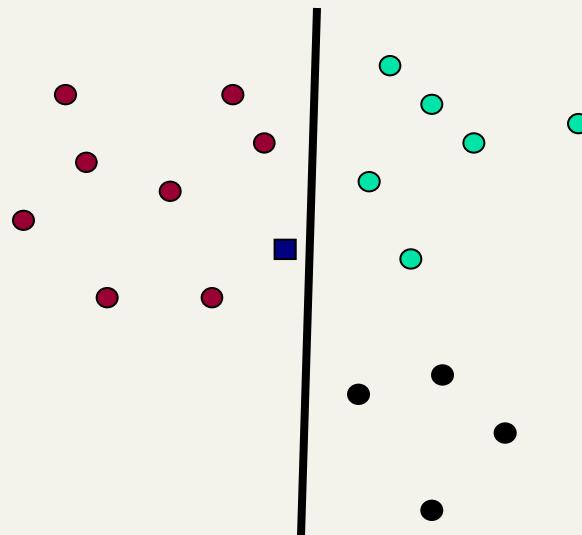
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- Consider 2 class problems
  - Deciding between two classes, perhaps, government and non-government
    - One-versus-rest classification
  - How do we define (and find) the separating surface?
  - How do we decide which region a test doc is in?

# Separation by Hyperplanes

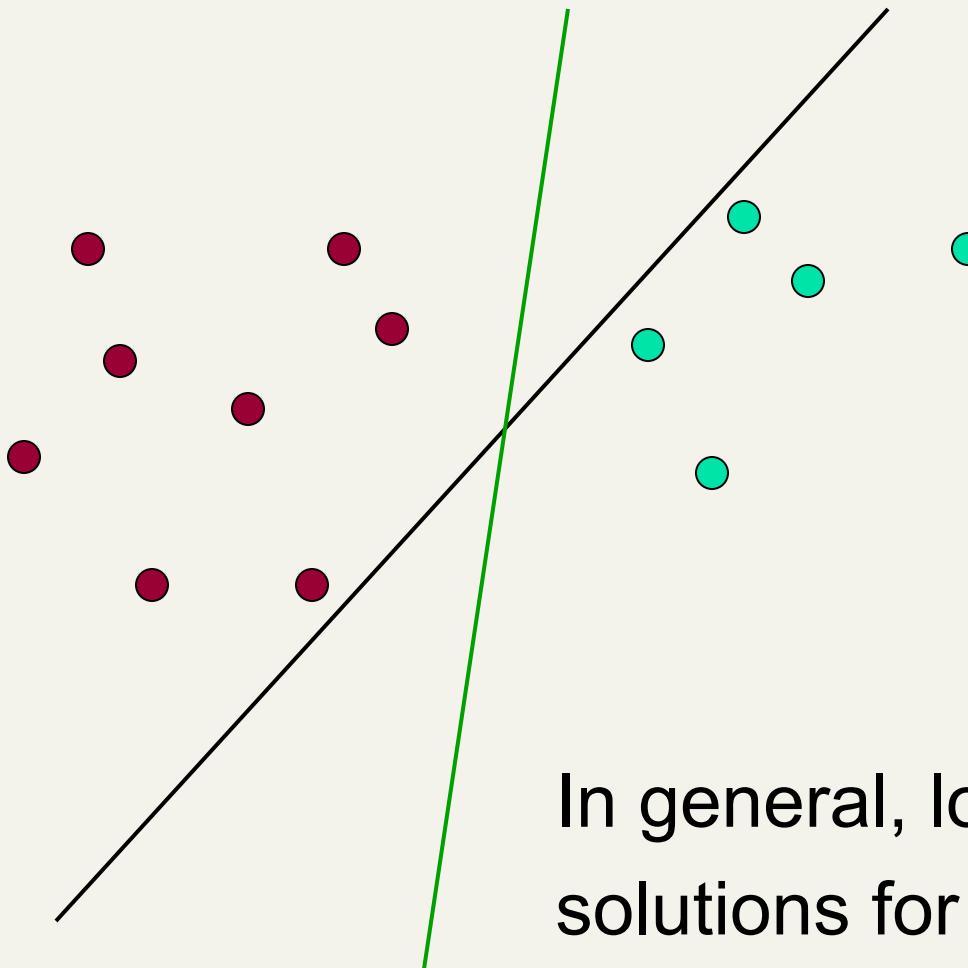
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- A strong high-bias assumption is *linear separability*:
  - in 2 dimensions, can separate classes by a line
  - in higher dimensions, need hyperplanes
- Can find separating hyperplane by *linear programming* (or can iteratively fit solution via perceptron):
  - separator can be expressed as  $ax + by = c$



# Which Hyperplane?

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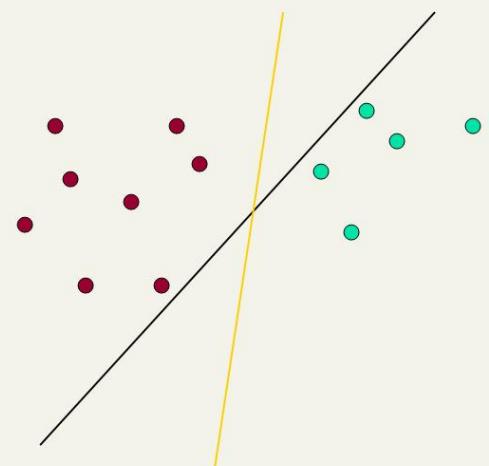


In general, lots of possible  
solutions for  $a, b, c$ .

# Which Hyperplane?

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- Lots of possible solutions for  $a,b,c$ .
- Some methods find a separating hyperplane, but not the optimal one [according to some criterion of expected goodness]
  - E.g., perceptron
- Most methods find an optimal separating hyperplane
- Which points should influence optimality?
  - All points
    - Linear regression
    - Naïve Bayes
  - Only “difficult points” close to decision boundary
    - Support vector machines



# Naive Bayes is a linear classifier

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- Two-class Naive Bayes. We compute:

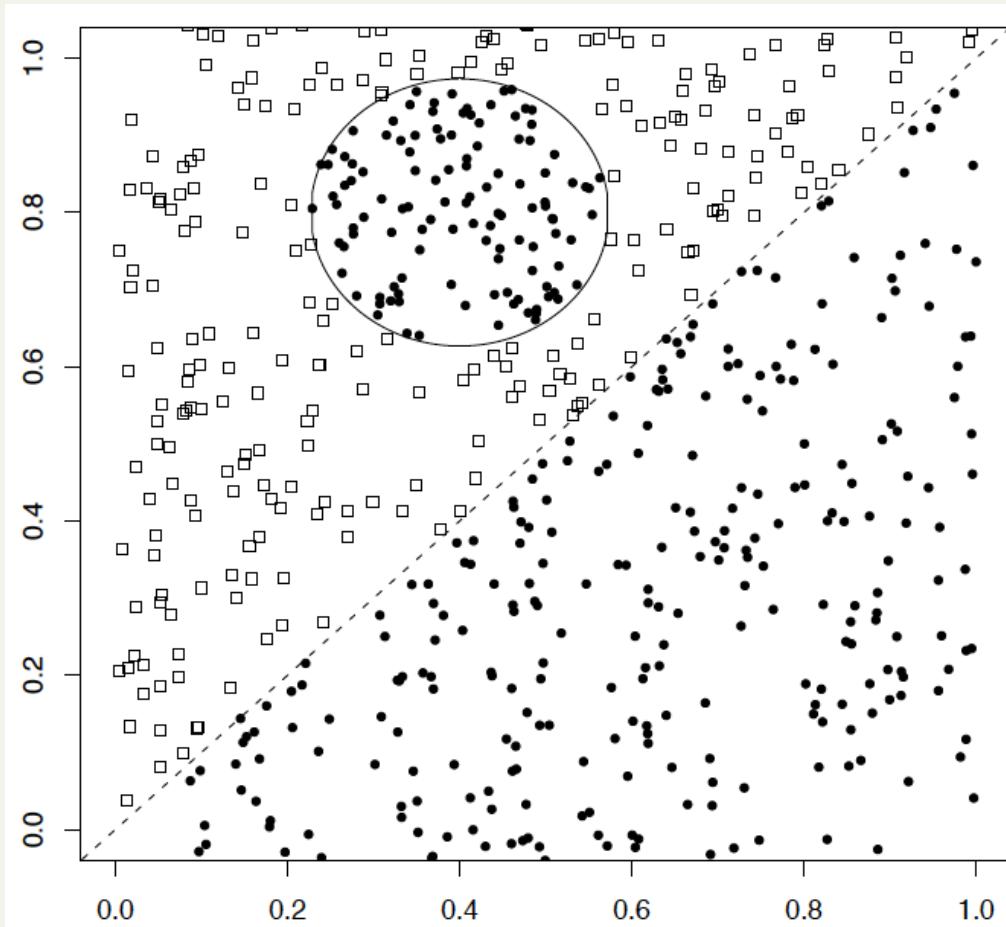
$$\log \frac{P(C|d)}{P(\bar{C}|d)} = \log \frac{P(C)}{P(\bar{C})} + \sum_{w \in d} \log \frac{P(w|C)}{P(w|\bar{C})}$$

- Decide class  $C$  if the odds is greater than 1, i.e., if the log odds is greater than 0.
- So decision boundary is hyperplane:

$$\alpha + \sum_{w \in V} \beta_w \times n_w = 0 \quad \text{where } \alpha = \log \frac{P(C)}{P(\bar{C})};$$

$$\beta_w = \log \frac{P(w|C)}{P(w|\bar{C})}; \quad n_w = \# \text{ of occurrences of } w \text{ in } d$$

# A nonlinear problem



- A linear classifier like Naïve Bayes does badly on this task
- kNN will do very well (assuming enough training data)

# Resources

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- IIR Chapters 13 – 13.2, 13.5.0
- IIR Chapters 14 – 14.1, 14.3, 14.4