# **Generative Learning**

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The classification algorithms we have seen so far are called **discriminative** algorithms

Learn to discriminate (i.e., distinguish/separate)
 between classes

**Generative** algorithms learn the characteristics of each class

- Then make a prediction of an instance based on which class it best matches
- Generative models can also be used to randomly generate instances of a class

A high-level way to think about the difference: Generative models use *absolute* descriptions of classes and discriminative models use *relative* descriptions

Example: classifying cats vs dogs

Generative perspective:

- Cats weigh 10 pounds on average
- Dogs weigh 50 pounds on average

Discriminative perspective:

Dogs weigh 40 pounds more than cats on average

The difference between the two is often defined probabilistically:

#### Generative models:

- Algorithms learn P(X I Y)
- Then convert to P(Y I X) to make prediction

#### Discriminative models:

- Algorithms learn P(Y I X)
- Probability can be directly used for prediction

While discriminative models are not often probabilistic (but can be, like logistic regression), generative models usually are.

#### Classify cat vs dog based on weight

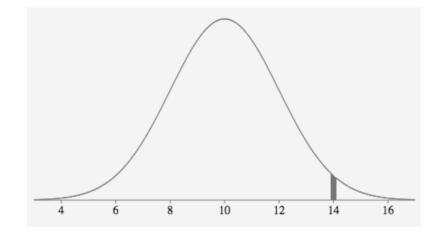
- Cats have a mean weight of 10 pounds (stddev 2)
- Dogs have a mean weight of 50 pounds (stddev 20)

# Could model the probability of the weight with a normal distribution

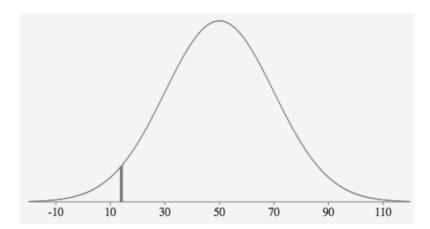
- Normal(10, 2) distribution for cats, Normal(50, 20) for dogs
- This is a distribution of probability density, but will refer to this as probability in this lecture

Classify an animal that weighs 14 pounds

P(weight=14 | animal=cat) = .027



P(weight=14 | animal=dog) = .004



Classify an animal that weighs 14 pounds

P(*weight*=14 | *animal*=cat) = .027

P(weight=14 | animal=dog) = .004 Choosing the Y that gives the highest P(X I Y) is reasonable... but not quite the right thing to do

What if dogs were 99
 times more common than
 cats in your dataset?
 That would affect the
 probability of being a cat
 versus a dog.

## Bayes' Theorem

We have P(X I Y), but we really want P(Y I X)

Bayes' theorem (or Bayes' rule):

$$P(B | A) = P(A | B) P(B)$$

$$P(A)$$

**Naïve Bayes** is a classification algorithm that classifies an instance based on P(Y I X), where P(Y I X) is calculated using Bayes' rule:

$$P(Y | X) = P(X | Y) P(Y)$$

$$P(X)$$

Why naïve? We'll come back to that.

**Naïve Bayes** is a classification algorithm that classifies an instance based on P(Y I X), where P(Y I X) is calculated using Bayes' rule:

$$P(Y | X) = P(X | Y) P(Y)$$

$$P(X)$$

- Called the **prior** probability of Y
- Usually just calculated as the percentage of training instances labeled as Y

**Naïve Bayes** is a classification algorithm that classifies an instance based on P(Y I X), where P(Y I X) is calculated using Bayes' rule:

$$\frac{P(Y \mid X) = P(X \mid Y) P(Y)}{P(X)}$$

- Called the **posterior** probability of Y
- The conditional probability of Y given an instance X

**Naïve Bayes** is a classification algorithm that classifies an instance based on P(Y I X), where P(Y I X) is calculated using Bayes' rule:

$$P(Y | X) = \frac{P(X | Y) P(Y)}{P(X)}$$

 This conditional probability is what needs to be *learned*

**Naïve Bayes** is a classification algorithm that classifies an instance based on P(Y I X), where P(Y I X) is calculated using Bayes' rule:

$$P(Y | X) = P(X | Y) P(Y)$$

$$P(X)$$

- What about P(X)?
- Probability of observing the data
- Doesn't actually matter!
  - P(X) is the same regardless of Y
  - Doesn't change which Y has highest probability

Classify an animal that weighs 14 pounds Also: dogs are 99 times more common than cats in the data

```
P(weight=14 \mid animal=cat) = .027
P(animal=cat \mid weight=14) = ?
```

Classify an animal that weighs 14 pounds

Also: dogs are 99 times more common than cats in the data

```
P(weight=14 \mid animal=cat) = .027

P(animal=cat \mid weight=14)
```

 $\approx P(weight=14 \mid animal=cat) P(animal=cat)$ 

= 0.027 \* 0.01 = 0.00027

Classify an animal that weighs 14 pounds

Also: dogs are 99 times more common than cats in the data

```
P(weight=14 \mid animal=dog) = .004
```

P(animal=dog | weight=14)

```
≈ P(weight=14 | animal=dog) P(animal=dog)
```

= 0.004 \* 0.99 = 0.00396

Classify an animal that weighs 14 pounds Also: dogs are 99 times more common than cats in the data

```
P(animal=dog | weight=14) > P(animal=cat | weight=14)
```

You should classify the animal as a dog.

#### Learning:

- Estimate P(X I Y) from the data
- Estimate P(Y) from the data

#### **Prediction:**

Choose Y that maximizes:

#### Learning:

- Estimate P(X I Y) from the data
  - ???
- Estimate P(Y) from the data
  - Usually just calculated as the percentage of training instances labeled as Y

#### Learning:

- Estimate P(X I Y) from the data
  - Requires some decisions (and some math)
- Estimate P(Y) from the data
  - Usually just calculated as the percentage of training instances labeled as Y

## Defining P(X I Y)

With continuous features, a normal distribution is a common way to define P(X I Y)

- But keep in mind that this is only an approximation: the true probability might be something different
- Other probability distributions exist that you can use instead (not discussed here)

With discrete features, the observed distribution (i.e., the proportion of instances with each value) is usually used as-is

## Defining P(X I Y)

Another complication...
Instances are usually vectors of many features

How do you define the probability of an entire feature vector?

The probability of multiple variables is called the **joint** probability

Example: if you roll two dice, what's the probability that they both land 5?



#### 36 possible outcomes:

1,1	2,1	3,1	4,1	5,1	6,1
1,2	2,2	3,2	4,2	5,2	6,2
1,3	2,3	3,3	4,3	5,3	6,3
1,4	2,4	3,4	4,4	5,4	6,4
1,5	2,5	3,5	4,5	5,5	6,5
1,6	2,6	3,6	4,6	5,6	6,6





#### 36 possible outcomes:

1,1	2,1	3,1	4,1	5,1	6,1
1,2	2,2	3,2	4,2	5,2	6,2
1,3	2,3	3,3	4,3	5,3	6,3
1,4	2,4	3,4	4,4	5,4	6,4
1,5	2,5	3,5	4,5	5,5	6,5
1,6	2,6	3,6	4,6	5,6	6,6



Probability of two 5s: 1/36

#### 36 possible outcomes:

1,1	2,1	3,1	4,1	5,1	6,1
1,2	2,2	3,2	4,2	5,2	6,2
1,3	2,3	3,3	4,3	5,3	6,3
1,4	2,4	3,4	4,4	5,4	6,4
1,5	2,5	3,5	4,5	5,5	6,5
1,6	2,6	3,6	4,6	5,6	6,6





#### 36 possible outcomes:

1,1	2,1	3,1	4,1	5,1	6,1
1,2	2,2	3,2	4,2	5,2	6,2
1,3	2,3	3,3	4,3	5,3	6,3
1,4	2,4	3,4	4,4	5,4	6,4
1,5	2,5	3,5	4,5	5,5	6,5
1,6	2,6	3,6	4,6	5,6	6,6



Probability the first is a 5 and the second is anything but 5:

5/36

A quicker way to calculate this:

The probability of two variables is the *product* of the probability of each individual variable

 Only true if the two variables are independent! (defined on next slide)

Probability of one die landing 5: 1/6

Joint probability of two dice landing 5 and 5: 1/6 \* 1/6 = 1/36

A quicker way to calculate this:

The probability of two variables is the *product* of the probability of each individual variable

 Only true if the two variables are independent! (defined on next slide)

Probability of one die landing anything but 5: 5/6

Joint probability of two dice landing 5 and not 5: 1/6 \* 5/6 = 5/36

### Independence

Multiple variables are **independent** if knowing the outcome of one does not change the probability of another

- If I tell you that the first die landed 5, it shouldn't change your belief about the outcome of the second (every side will still have 1/6 probability)
- Dice rolls are independent

## Conditional Independence

Naïve Bayes treats the feature probabilities as independent (conditioned on Y)

$$P(\langle X_1, X_2, ..., X_M \rangle | Y)$$
  
=  $P(X_1 | Y) * P(X_2 | Y) ... * P(X_M | Y)$ 

Features are usually not actually independent!

- Treating them as if they are is considered naïve
- But it's often a good enough approximation
- This makes the calculation much easier

## Conditional Independence

Important distinction: the features have **conditional independence**: the independence assumption only applies to the conditional probabilities P(X I Y)

#### Conditional independence:

- $P(X_1, X_2 | Y) = P(X_1 | Y) * P(X_2 | Y)$
- Not necessarily true that  $P(X_1, X_2) = P(X_1) * P(X_2)$

## Conditional Independence

Example: Suppose you are classifying the category of a news article using word features

If you observe the word "baseball", this would increase the likelihood that the word "homerun" will appear in the same article

These two features are clearly not independent

But if you already know the article is about baseball (Y=baseball), then observing the word "baseball" doesn't change the probability of observing other baseball-related words

## Defining P(X I Y)

Naïve Bayes is most often used with discrete features

With discrete features, the probability of a particular feature value is usually calculated as:

# of times the feature has that value total # of occurrences of the feature

Naïve Bayes is often used for document classification

 Given the document class, what is the probability of observing the words in the document?

```
Example: P(\text{``the''}) = 3/12
P(\text{``is''}) = 2/12
\text{``the water is cold''}
\text{``the pig went home''}
\text{``the home is cold''}
P(\text{``the''}) = 2/12
P(\text{``home''}) = 2/12
P(\text{``cold''}) = 1/12
P(\text{``water''}) = 1/12
```

```
P("the water is cold")
= P("the") P("water") P("is") P("cold")
```

```
Example: P(\text{``the''}) = 3/12
P(\text{``is''}) = 2/12
\text{``the water is cold''}
P(\text{``the pig went home''}) = 1/12
P(\text{``the home is cold''}) = 1/12
```

```
P("the water is very cold")
= P("the") P("water") P("is") P("very") P("cold")
```

```
P("the")
                                         = 3/12
Example:
                            P("is")
                                         = 2/12
3 documents:
                            P("home") = 2/12
"the water is cold"
                            P(\text{``cold''}) = 2/12
                            P("water") = 1/12
"the pig went home"
                            P("went") = 1/12
"the home is cold"
                            P("pig") = 1/12
                            P("very") = 0/12
 P("the water is very cold")
 = P("the") P("water") P("is") P("very") P("cold")
 = 0
```

Example:	P("the")	= 3/12
·	P("is")	= 2/12
3 documents:	P("home")	= 2/12
"the water is cold"	P("cold")	= 2/12
"the pig went home"	P("water")	= 1/12
"the home is cold"	P("went")	= 1/12
	P("pig")	= 1/12
	P("very")	= 0/12

One trick: pretend every value occurred one more time than it did

Example:	P("the")	= 4/12
•	P("is")	= 3/12
3 documents:	P("home")	= 3/12
"the water is cold"	P("cold")	= 3/12
"the pig went home"	P("water")	= 2/12
"the home is cold"	P("went")	= 2/12
	P("pig")	= 2/12
	P("verv")	= 1/12

One trick: pretend every value occurred one more time than it did

P("the") Example: = 4/20P("is") = 3/203 documents: P("home") = 3/20"the water is cold" P("cold") = 3/20P("water") = 2/20"the pig went home" P("went") = 2/20"the home is cold" P("pig") = 2/20P("very") = 1/20

 Need to adjust both numerator and denominator

## **Smoothing**

Adding "pseudocounts" to the observed counts when estimating P(X I Y) is called **smoothing** 

Smoothing makes the estimated probabilities less extreme

 It is one way to perform regularization in Naïve Bayes (reduce overfitting)

The conventional wisdom is that discriminative models generally perform better because they directly model what you care about, P(Y I X)

#### When to use generative models?

- Generative models have been shown to need less training data to reach peak performance
- Generative models are more conducive to unsupervised and semi-supervised learning
  - More on that point next week