CSE 573: Artificial Intelligence
Autumn 2010

Lecture 14: Bayesian Networks -- Sampling and Learning

11/30/2010

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Many slides over the course adapted from Dan Klein.

Announcements

- PS4 grades posted
- Syllabus revised
  - Machine learning focus
  - Exam solutions on lectures page
- We will do mini-project status reports during last class

Outline

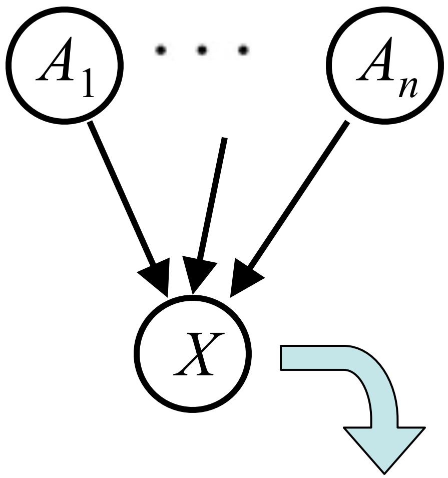
- Probabilistic models: approx. inference and learning
  - (Recap) Bayesian Networks (BNs)
  - Approximate Inference: Sampling
  - Naive Bayes models
  - Parameter Estimation
  - Smoothing

Recap: Bayes' Net Semantics

- Let's formalize the semantics of a Bayes' net
- A set of nodes, one per variable X
- A directed, acyclic graph
- A conditional distribution for each node
  - A collection of distributions over X, one for each combination of parents' values

    $$P(X|a_1 \ldots a_n)$$

  - CPT: conditional probability table

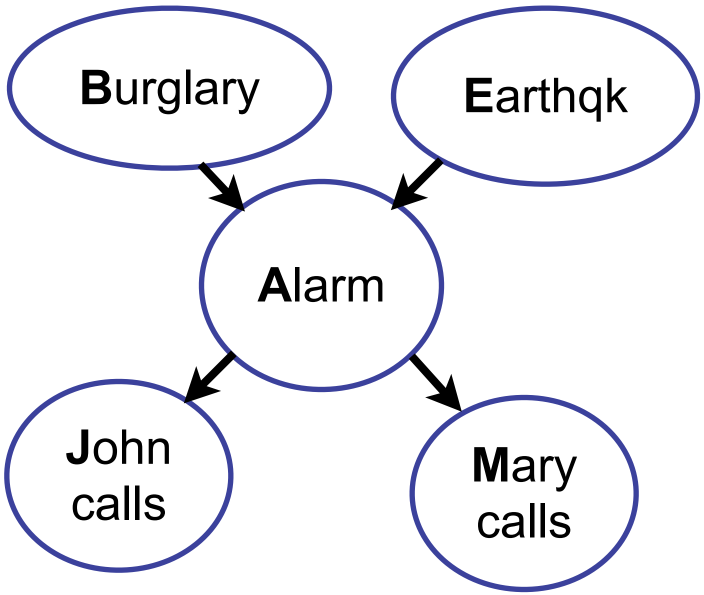


$$P(X|A_1 \ldots A_n)$$

A Bayes net = Topology (graph) + Local Conditional Probabilities

Example: Alarm Network

B	P(B)
+b	0.001
¬b	0.999



E	P(E)
+e	0.002
¬e	0.998

B	E	A	P(A|B,E)
+b	+e	+a	0.95
+b	+e	¬a	0.05
+b	¬e	+a	0.94
+b	¬e	¬a	0.06
¬b	+e	+a	0.29
¬b	+e	¬a	0.71
¬b	¬e	+a	0.001
¬b	¬e	¬a	0.999

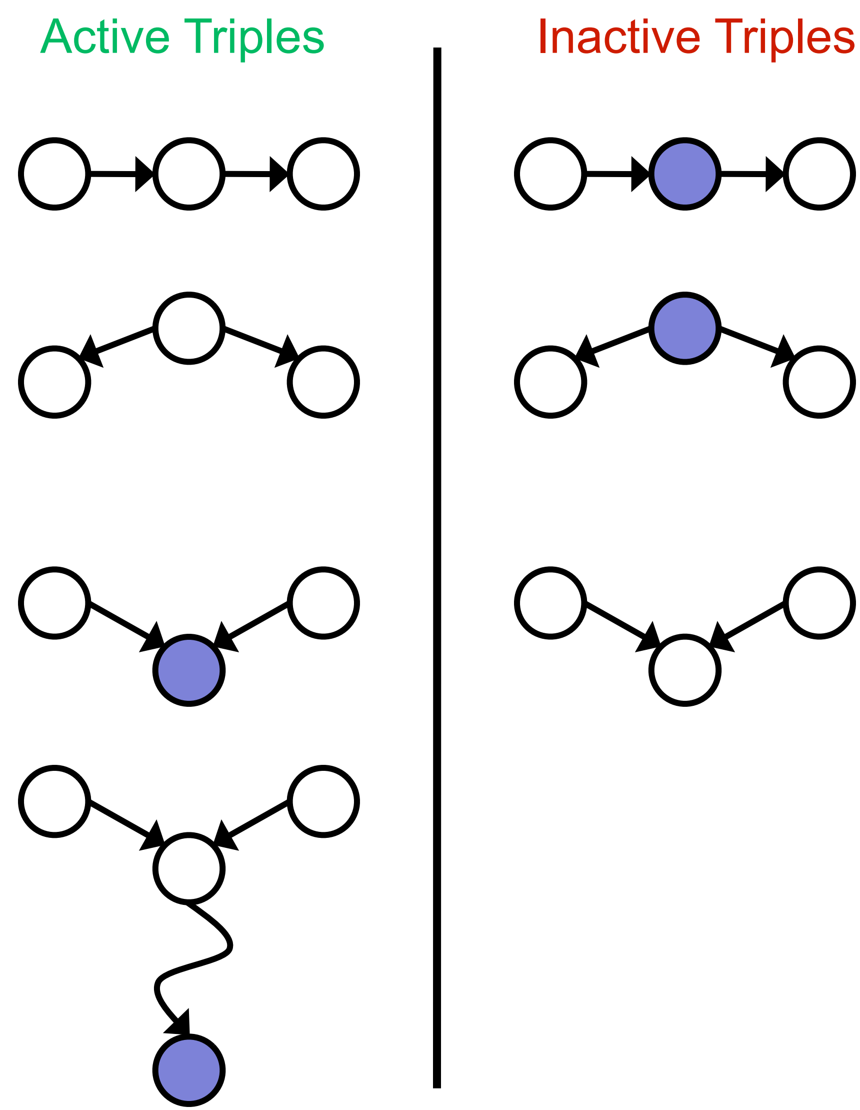
A	J	P(J|A)
+a	+j	0.9
+a	¬j	0.1
¬a	+j	0.05
¬a	¬j	0.95

A	M	P(M|A)
+a	+m	0.7
+a	¬m	0.3
¬a	+m	0.01
¬a	¬m	0.99

Recap: Reachability (D-Separation)

- Question: Are X and Y conditionally independent given evidence vars {Z}?
  - Yes, if X and Y "separated" by Z
  - Look for active paths from X to Y
  - No active paths = independence!
- A path is active if each triple is active:
  - Causal chain A → B → C where B is unobserved (either direction)
  - Common cause A ← B → C where B is unobserved
  - Common effect (aka v-structure)

    A → B ← C where B *or one of its descendents* is observed
- All it takes to block a path is a single inactive segment



Variable Elimination Outline

- Maintain a set of tables called factors
- Initial factors are local CPTs (one per node)

$P(R)$

+r	0.1
−r	0.9

$P(T|R)$

+r	+t	0.8
+r	−t	0.2
−r	+t	0.1
−r	−t	0.9

$P(L|T)$

+t	+l	0.3
+t	−l	0.7
−t	+l	0.1
−t	−l	0.9

- Any known values are selected
  - E.g. if we know $L = +\ell$, the initial factors are

$P(R)$

+r	0.1
−r	0.9

$P(T|R)$

+r	+t	0.8
+r	−t	0.2
−r	+t	0.1
−r	−t	0.9

$P(+\ell|T)$

+t	+l	0.3
−t	+l	0.1

- VE: Alternately join factors and eliminate variables

Recap: General Variable Elimination

- Query: $P(Q|E_1 = e_1, \ldots E_k = e_k)$
- Start with initial factors:
  - Local CPTs (but instantiated by evidence)
- While there are still hidden variables (not Q or evidence):
  - Pick a hidden variable H
  - Join all factors mentioning H
  - Eliminate (sum out) H
- Join all remaining factors and normalize

Exact Inference: Variable Elimination

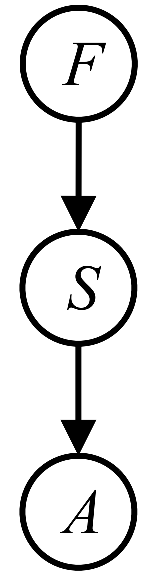
- Remaining Issues:
  - Complexity: exponential in tree width (size of the largest factor created)
  - Best elimination ordering? NP-hard problem

- What you need to know:
  - Should be able to run it on small examples, understand the factor creation / reduction flow
  - Better than enumeration: saves time by marginalizing variables as soon as possible rather than at the end

- We have seen a special case of VE already
  - HMM Forward Inference

Approximate Inference

- Simulation has a name: sampling
- Sampling is a hot topic in machine learning, and it's really simple
- Basic idea:
  - Draw N samples from a sampling distribution S
  - Compute an approximate posterior probability
  - Show this converges to the true probability P



- Why sample?
  - Learning: get samples from a distribution you don't know
  - Inference: getting a sample is faster than computing the right answer (e.g. with variable elimination)

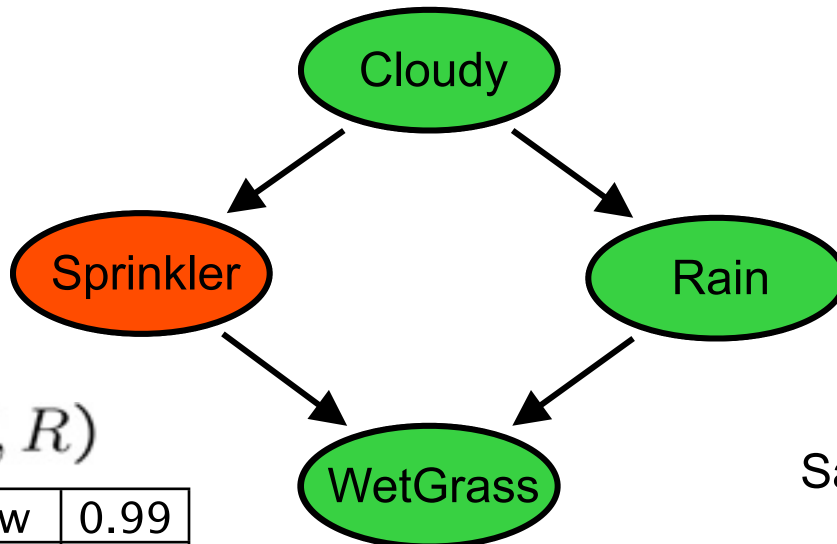
Prior Sampling

$P(C)$

+c	0.5
−c	0.5

$P(S|C)$

+c	+s	0.1
	−s	0.9
−c	+s	0.5
	−s	0.5



$P(R|C)$

+c	+r	0.8
	−r	0.2
−c	+r	0.2
	−r	0.8

$P(W|S,R)$

+s	+r	+w	0.99
		−w	0.01
	−r	+w	0.90
		−w	0.10
−s	+r	+w	0.90
		−w	0.10
	−r	+w	0.01
		−w	0.99

Samples:

+c, -s, +r, +w

-c, +s, -r, +w

…

Prior Sampling

- This process generates samples with probability:

$$S_{PS}(x_1 \ldots x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(x_i|\text{Parents}(X_i)) = P(x_1 \ldots x_n)$$

…i.e. the BN's joint probability

- Let the number of samples of an event be $N_{PS}(x_1 \ldots x_n)$
- Then

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{N\to\infty} \hat{P}(x_1, \ldots, x_n) &= \lim_{N\to\infty} N_{PS}(x_1, \ldots, x_n)/N \\ &= S_{PS}(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \\ &= P(x_1 \ldots x_n)\end{aligned}$$

- I.e., the sampling procedure is consistent

Example

- We'll get a bunch of samples from the BN:

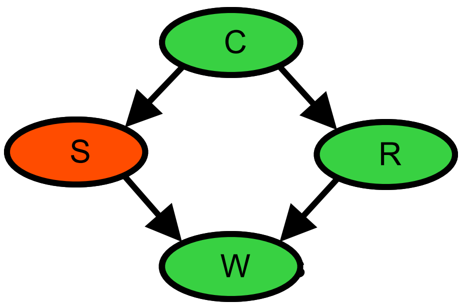
  +c, -s, +r, +w

  +c, +s, +r, +w

  -c, +s, +r, -w

  +c, -s, +r, +w

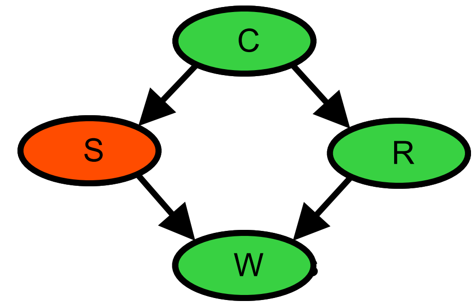
  -c, -s, -r, +w



- If we want to know P(W)
  - We have counts <+w:4, -w:1>
  - Normalize to get P(W) = <+w:0.8, -w:0.2>
  - This will get closer to the true distribution with more samples
  - Can estimate anything else, too
  - What about P(C| +w)? P(C| +r, +w)? P(C| -r, -w)?
  - Fast: can use fewer samples if less time (what's the drawback?)

Rejection Sampling

- Let's say we want P(C)
  - No point keeping all samples around
  - Just tally counts of C as we go

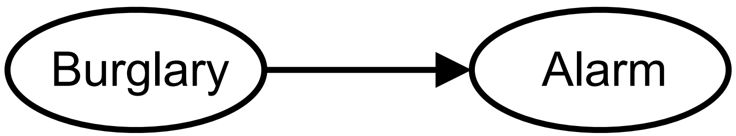


- Let's say we want P(C| +s)
  - Same thing: tally C outcomes, but ignore (reject) samples which don't have S=+s
  - This is called rejection sampling
  - It is also consistent for conditional probabilities (i.e., correct in the limit)

+c, -s, +r, +w
+c, +s, +r, +w
-c, +s, +r, -w
+c, -s, +r, +w
-c, -s, -r, +w

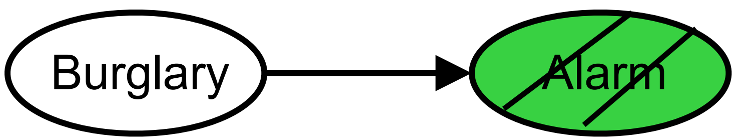
Likelihood Weighting

- Problem with rejection sampling:
  - If evidence is unlikely, you reject a lot of samples
  - You don't exploit your evidence as you sample
  - Consider P(B|+a)



-b, -a
-b, -a
-b, -a
-b, -a
+b, +a

- Idea: fix evidence variables and sample the rest



-b +a
-b, +a
-b, +a
-b, +a
+b, +a

- Problem: sample distribution not consistent!
- Solution: weight by probability of evidence given parents

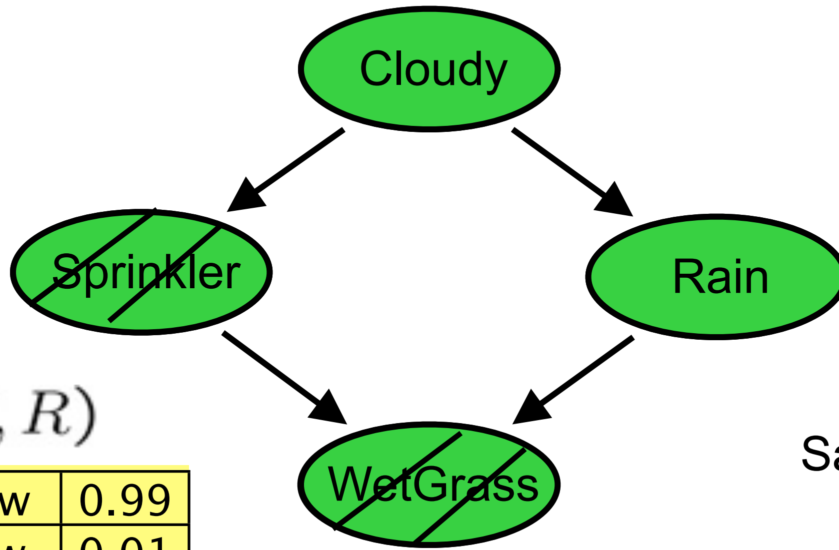
Likelihood Weighting

$P(C)$

+c	0.5
−c	0.5

$P(S|C)$

+c	+s	0.1
	−s	0.9
−c	+s	0.5
	−s	0.5



$P(R|C)$

+c	+r	0.8
	−r	0.2
−c	+r	0.2
	−r	0.8

$P(W|S,R)$

+s	+r	+w	0.99
		−w	0.01
	−r	+w	0.90
		−w	0.10
−s	+r	+w	0.90
		−w	0.10
	−r	+w	0.01
		−w	0.99

Samples:

+c, +s, +r, +w

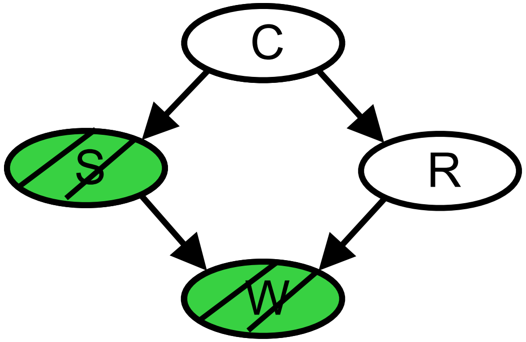
…

$$w = 1.0 \times 0.1 \times 0.99$$

Likelihood Weighting

- Sampling distribution if z sampled and e fixed evidence

$$S_{WS}(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{e}) = \prod_{i=1}^{l} P(z_i|\text{Parents}(Z_i))$$



- Now, samples have weights

$$w(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{e}) = \prod_{i=1}^{m} P(e_i|\text{Parents}(E_i))$$

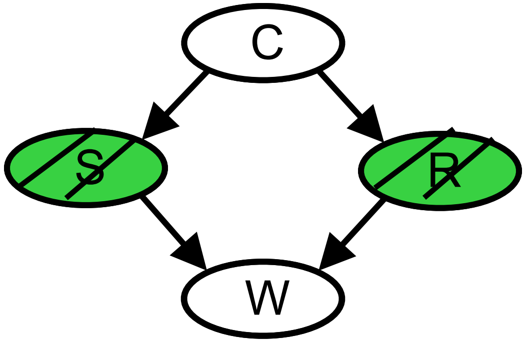
- Together, weighted sampling distribution is consistent

$$S_{\text{WS}}(z, e) \cdot w(z, e) = \prod_{i=1}^{l} P(z_i|\text{Parents}(z_i)) \prod_{i=1}^{m} P(e_i|\text{Parents}(e_i))$$

$$= P(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{e})$$

Likelihood Weighting

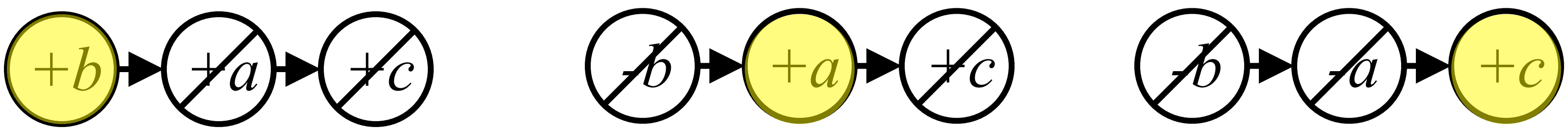
- Likelihood weighting is good
  - We have taken evidence into account as we generate the sample
  - E.g. here, W's value will get picked based on the evidence values of S, R
  - More of our samples will reflect the state of the world suggested by the evidence
- Likelihood weighting doesn't solve all our problems
  - Evidence influences the choice of downstream variables, but not upstream ones (C isn't more likely to get a value matching the evidence)
- We would like to consider evidence when we sample every variable



Markov Chain Monte Carlo*

- *Idea*: instead of sampling from scratch, create samples that are each like the last one.

- *Gibbs Sampling*: resample one variable at a time, conditioned on the rest, but keep evidence fixed.



- *Properties*: Now samples are not independent (in fact they're nearly identical), but sample averages are still consistent estimators!

- *What's the point*: both upstream and downstream variables condition on evidence.

Machine Learning

- Up until now: how to reason in a model and how to make optimal decisions

- Machine learning: how to acquire a model on the basis of data / experience
  - Learning parameters (e.g. probabilities)
  - Learning structure (e.g. BN graphs)
  - Learning hidden concepts (e.g. clustering)

Example: Spam Filter

- Input: email
- Output: spam/ham
- Setup:
  - Get a large collection of example emails, each labeled "spam" or "ham"
  - Note: someone has to hand label all this data!
  - Want to learn to predict labels of new, future emails
- Features: The attributes used to make the ham / spam decision
  - Words: FREE!
  - Text Patterns: $dd, CAPS
  - Non-text: SenderInContacts
  - …

> Dear Sir.
>
> First, I must solicit your confidence in this transaction, this is by virture of its nature as being utterly confidencial and top secret. …

> TO BE REMOVED FROM FUTURE MAILINGS, SIMPLY REPLY TO THIS MESSAGE AND PUT "REMOVE" IN THE SUBJECT.
>
> 99 MILLION EMAIL ADDRESSES
>   FOR ONLY $99

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Example: Digit Recognition

- Input: images / pixel grids
- Output: a digit 0-9
- Setup:
  - Get a large collection of example images, each labeled with a digit
  - Note: someone has to hand label all this data!
  - Want to learn to predict labels of new, future digit images

- Features: The attributes used to make the digit decision
  - Pixels: (6,8)=ON
  - Shape Patterns: NumComponents, AspectRatio, NumLoops
  - …

0

1

2

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??

Other Classification Tasks

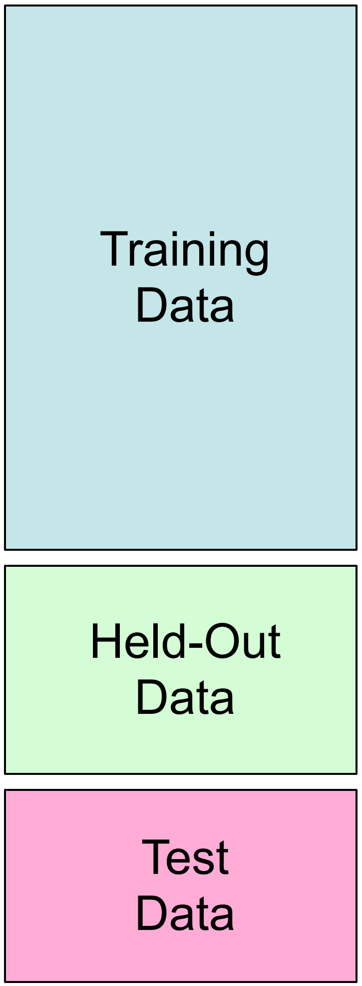
- In classification, we predict labels y (classes) for inputs x

- Examples:
  - Spam detection (input: document, classes: spam / ham)
  - OCR (input: images, classes: characters)
  - Medical diagnosis (input: symptoms, classes: diseases)
  - Automatic essay grader (input: document, classes: grades)
  - Fraud detection (input: account activity, classes: fraud / no fraud)
  - Customer service email routing
  - … many more

- Classification is an important commercial technology!

Important Concepts

- Data: labeled instances, e.g. emails marked spam/ham
  - Training set
  - Held out set
  - Test set
- Features: attribute-value pairs which characterize each x
- Experimentation cycle
  - Learn parameters (e.g. model probabilities) on training set
  - (Tune hyperparameters on held-out set)
  - Very important: never "peek" at the test set!
- Evaluation
  - Compute accuracy of test set
  - Accuracy: fraction of instances predicted correctly
- Overfitting and generalization
  - Want a classifier which does well on *test* data
  - Overfitting: fitting the training data very closely, but not generalizing well



Bayes Nets for Classification

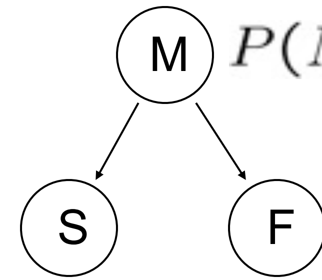
- One method of classification:
  - Use a probabilistic model!
  - Features are observed random variables F_i
  - Y is the query variable
  - Use probabilistic inference to compute most likely Y

$$y = \text{argmax}_y \ P(y|f_1 \dots f_n)$$

- You already know how to do this inference

Simple Classification

- Simple example: two binary features



$P(M)$

$P(S|M)$ $P(F|M)$

$P(m|s,f)$ ⟵ direct estimate

$$P(m|s,f) = \frac{P(s,f|m)P(m)}{P(s,f)}$$ ⟵ Bayes estimate (no assumptions)

$$P(m|s,f) = \frac{P(s|m)P(f|m)P(m)}{P(s,f)}$$ ⟵ Conditional independence

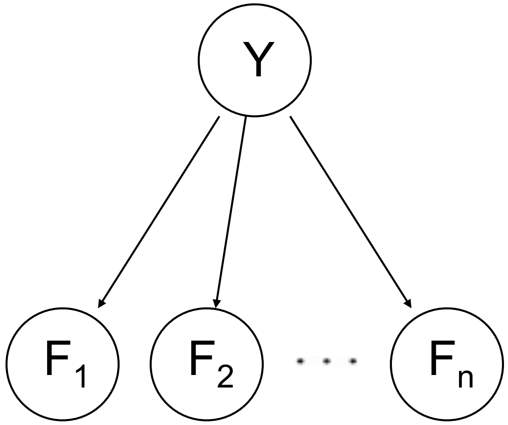
+

$$\begin{cases} P(+m,s,f) = P(s|+m)P(f|+m)P(+m) \\ P(-m,s,f) = P(s|-m)P(f|-m)P(-m) \end{cases}$$

General Naïve Bayes

- A general *naive Bayes* model:

$$P(\mathsf{Y}, \mathsf{F}_1 \ldots \mathsf{F}_n) = P(\mathsf{Y}) \prod_i P(\mathsf{F}_i | \mathsf{Y})$$



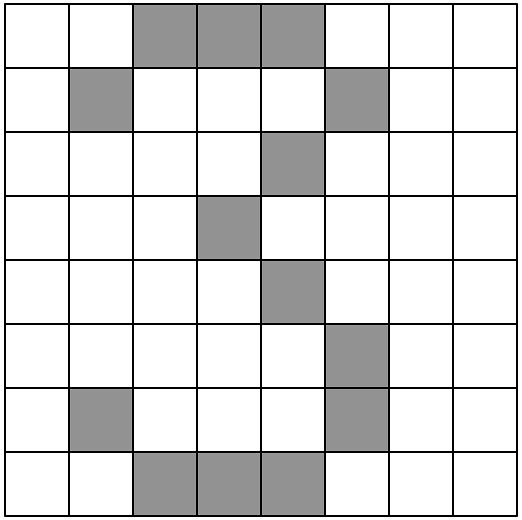
- We only specify how each feature depends on the class
- Total number of parameters is *linear* in *n*

General Naïve Bayes

- What do we need in order to use naïve Bayes?
  - Inference (you know this part)
    - Start with a bunch of conditionals, $P(Y)$ and the $P(F_i|Y)$ tables
    - Use standard inference to compute $P(Y|F_1 \ldots F_n)$
    - Nothing new here
  - Estimates of local conditional probability tables
    - $P(Y)$, the prior over labels
    - $P(F_i|Y)$ for each feature (evidence variable)
    - These probabilities are collectively called the *parameters* of the model and denoted by θ
    - Up until now, we assumed these appeared by magic, but…
    - …they typically come from training data: we'll look at this now

A Digit Recognizer

- Input: pixel grids



- Output: a digit 0-9

Naïve Bayes for Digits

- Simple version:
  - One feature F_{ij} for each grid position <i,j>
  - Possible feature values are on / off, based on whether intensity is more or less than 0.5 in underlying image
  - Each input maps to a feature vector, e.g.

$$\rightarrow \langle F_{0,0}=0 \;\; F_{0,1}=0 \;\; F_{0,2}=1 \;\; F_{0,3}=1 \;\; F_{0,4}=0 \;\; \ldots F_{15,15}=0 \rangle$$

  - Here: lots of features, each is binary valued
- Naïve Bayes model:

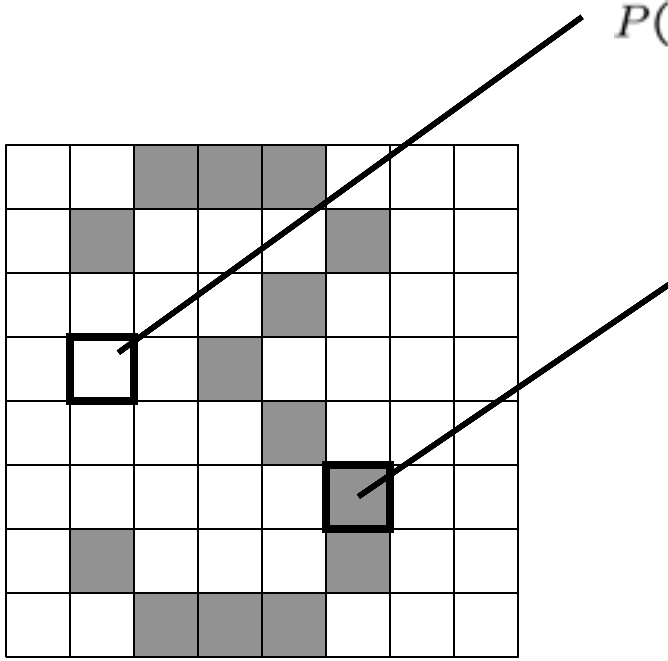
$$P(Y|F_{0,0} \ldots F_{15,15}) \propto P(Y) \prod_{i,j} P(F_{i,j}|Y)$$

- What do we need to learn?

Examples: CPTs

$P(Y)$

1	0.1
2	0.1
3	0.1
4	0.1
5	0.1
6	0.1
7	0.1
8	0.1
9	0.1
0	0.1



$P(F_{3,1} = on|Y)$

1	0.01
2	0.05
3	0.05
4	0.30
5	0.80
6	0.90
7	0.05
8	0.60
9	0.50
0	0.80

$P(F_{5,5} = on|Y)$

1	0.05
2	0.01
3	0.90
4	0.80
5	0.90
6	0.90
7	0.25
8	0.85
9	0.60
0	0.80

Parameter Estimation

- Estimating distribution of random variables like X or X | Y
- *Elicitation:* ask a human!
  - Usually need domain experts, and sophisticated ways of eliciting probabilities (e.g. betting games)
  - Trouble calibrating
- *Empirically:* use training data
  - For each outcome x, look at the *empirical rate* of that value:

$$P_{\mathrm{ML}}(x) = \frac{\mathrm{count}(x)}{\mathrm{total\ samples}}$$

$$P_{\mathrm{ML}}(\mathrm{r}) = 1/3$$

  - This is the estimate that maximizes the *likelihood of the data*

$$L(x, \theta) = \prod_i P_\theta(x_i)$$

A Spam Filter

- Naïve Bayes spam filter
- Data:
  - Collection of emails, labeled spam or ham
  - Note: someone has to hand label all this data!
  - Split into training, held-out, test sets
- Classifiers
  - Learn on the training set
  - (Tune it on a held-out set)
  - Test it on new emails

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Naïve Bayes for Text

- Bag-of-Words Naïve Bayes:
  - Predict unknown class label (spam vs. ham)
  - Assume evidence features (e.g. the words) are independent
  - Warning: subtly different assumptions than before!

- Generative model

Word at position i, not i^{th} word in the dictionary!

$$P(C, W_1 \ldots W_n) = P(C) \prod_i P(W_i|C)$$

- Tied distributions and bag-of-words
  - Usually, each variable gets its own conditional probability distribution P(F|Y)
  - In a bag-of-words model
    - Each position is identically distributed
    - All positions share the same conditional probs P(W|C)
    - Why make this assumption?

Example: Spam Filtering

- Model: $P(C, W_1 \ldots W_n) = P(C) \prod_i P(W_i|C)$
- What are the parameters?

$P(C)$

ham	0.66
spam	0.33

$P(W|\text{spam})$

the	0.0156
to	0.0153
and	0.0115
of	0.0095
you	0.0093
a	0.0086
with	0.0080
from	0.0075
...	

$P(W|\text{ham})$

the	0.0210
to	0.0133
of	0.0119
2002	0.0110
with	0.0108
from	0.0107
and	0.0105
a	0.0100
...	

- Where do these come from?

Spam Example

Word	P(w|spam)	P(w|ham)	Tot Spam	Tot Ham
(prior)	0.33333	0.66666	-1.1	-0.4

P(spam | w) = 98.9

Example: Overfitting

$P(\text{features}, C = 2)$

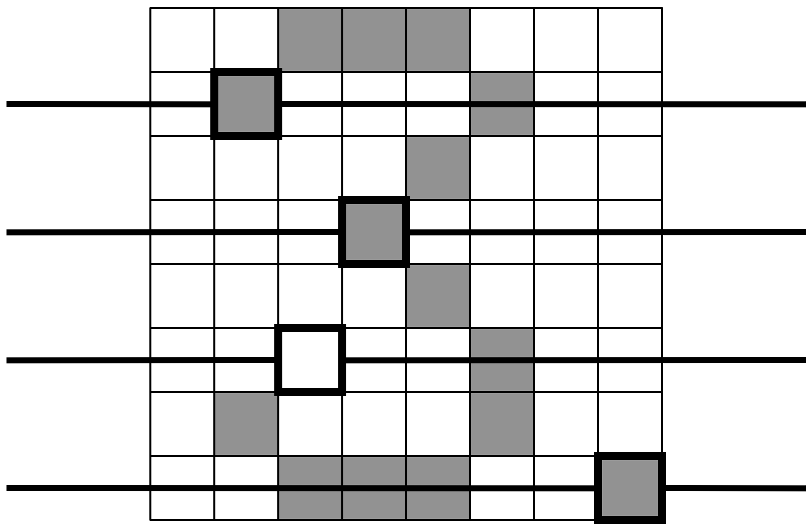
$P(C = 2) = 0.1$

$P(\text{on}|C = 2) = 0.8$

$P(\text{on}|C = 2) = 0.1$

$P(\text{off}|C = 2) = 0.1$

$P(\text{on}|C = 2) = 0.01$



$P(\text{features}, C = 3)$

$P(C = 3) = 0.1$

$P(\text{on}|C = 3) = 0.8$

$P(\text{on}|C = 3) = 0.9$

$P(\text{off}|C = 3) = 0.7$

$P(\text{on}|C = 3) = 0.0$

2 wins!!

Generalization and Overfitting

- Relative frequency parameters will overfit the training data!
  - Just because we never saw a 3 with pixel (15,15) on during training doesn't mean we won't see it at test time
  - Unlikely that every occurrence of "minute" is 100% spam
  - Unlikely that every occurrence of "seriously" is 100% ham
  - What about all the words that don't occur in the training set at all?
  - In general, we can't go around giving unseen events zero probability
- As an extreme case, imagine using the entire email as the only feature
  - Would get the training data perfect (if deterministic labeling)
  - Wouldn't *generalize* at all
  - Just making the bag-of-words assumption gives us some generalization, but isn't enough
- To generalize better: we need to smooth or regularize the estimates

Estimation: Smoothing

- Problems with maximum likelihood estimates:
  - If I flip a coin once, and it's heads, what's the estimate for P (heads)?
  - What if I flip 10 times with 8 heads?
  - What if I flip 10M times with 8M heads?

- Basic idea:
  - We have some prior expectation about parameters (here, the probability of heads)
  - Given little evidence, we should skew towards our prior
  - Given a lot of evidence, we should listen to the data

Estimation: Smoothing

- Relative frequencies are the maximum likelihood estimates

$$\theta_{ML} = \arg\max_\theta P(\mathbf{X}|\theta) = \arg\max_\theta \prod_i P_\theta(X_i)$$

$$P_{\text{ML}}(x) = \frac{\text{count}(x)}{\text{total samples}}$$

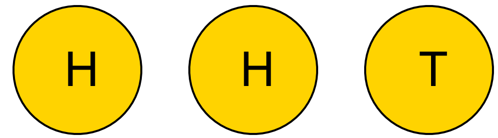
- In Bayesian statistics, we think of the parameters as just another random variable, with its own distribution

$$\theta_{MAP} = \arg\max_\theta P(\theta|\mathbf{X}) = \arg\max_\theta P(\mathbf{X}|\theta)P(\theta)/P(\mathbf{X}) = \arg\max_\theta P(\mathbf{X}|\theta)P(\theta)$$

????

Estimation: Laplace Smoothing

- Laplace's estimate:
  - Pretend you saw every outcome once more than you actually did



$$P_{LAP}(x) = \frac{c(x)+1}{\sum_x [c(x)+1]}$$

$$= \frac{c(x)+1}{N+|X|}$$

$$P_{ML}(X) =$$

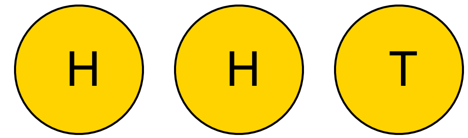
$$P_{LAP}(X) =$$

  - Can derive this as a MAP estimate with *Dirichlet priors* (Bayesian justfication)

Estimation: Laplace Smoothing

- Laplace's estimate (extended):
  - Pretend you saw every outcome k extra times

$$P_{LAP,k}(x) = \frac{c(x) + k}{N + k|X|}$$



$$P_{LAP,0}(X) =$$

$$P_{LAP,1}(X) =$$

$$P_{LAP,100}(X) =$$

  - What's Laplace with k = 0?
  - k is the strength of the prior

- Laplace for conditionals:
  - Smooth each condition independently:

$$P_{LAP,k}(x|y) = \frac{c(x,y) + k}{c(y) + k|X|}$$

Estimation: Linear Interpolation

- In practice, Laplace often performs poorly for P(X|Y):
  - When |X| is very large
  - When |Y| is very large

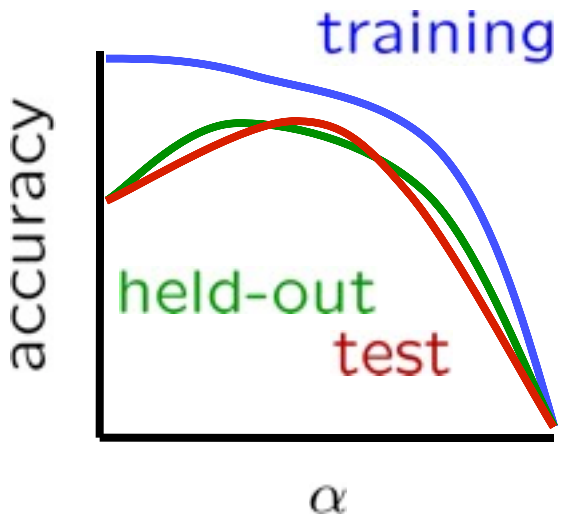
- Another option: linear interpolation
  - Also get P(X) from the data
  - Make sure the estimate of P(X|Y) isn't too different from P(X)

$$P_{LIN}(x|y) = \alpha \hat{P}(x|y) + (1.0 - \alpha)\hat{P}(x)$$

  - What if α is 0? 1?

Tuning on Held-Out Data

- Now we've got two kinds of unknowns
  - Parameters: the probabilities P(Y|X), P(Y)
  - Hyperparameters, like the amount of smoothing to do: k, α
- Where to learn?
  - Learn parameters from training data
  - Must tune hyperparameters on different data
    - Why?
  - For each value of the hyperparameters, train and test on the held-out data
  - Choose the best value and do a final test on the test data



Baselines

- First step: get a baseline
  - Baselines are very simple “straw man” procedures
  - Help determine how hard the task is
  - Help know what a “good” accuracy is

- Weak baseline: most frequent label classifier
  - Gives all test instances whatever label was most common in the training set
  - E.g. for spam filtering, might label everything as ham
  - Accuracy might be very high if the problem is skewed
  - E.g. calling everything “ham” gets 66%, so a classifier that gets 70% isn’t very good…

- For real research, usually use previous work as a (strong) baseline

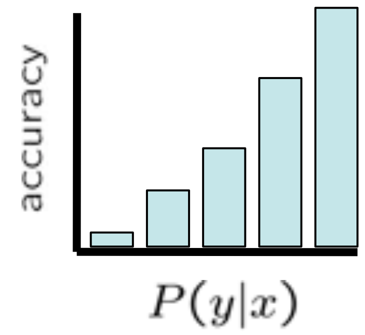
Confidences from a Classifier

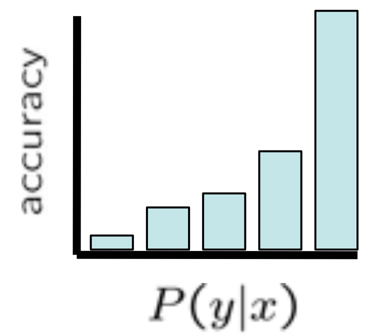
- The confidence of a probabilistic classifier:
  - Posterior over the top label

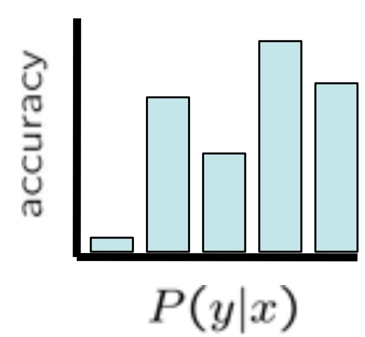
$$\text{confidence}(x) = \max_y P(y|x)$$

  - Represents how sure the classifier is of the classification
  - Any probabilistic model will have confidences
  - No guarantee confidence is correct

- Calibration
  - Weak calibration: higher confidences mean higher accuracy
  - Strong calibration: confidence predicts accuracy rate
  - What's the value of calibration?

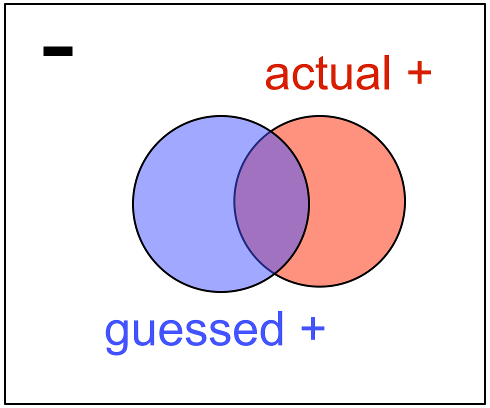






Precision vs. Recall

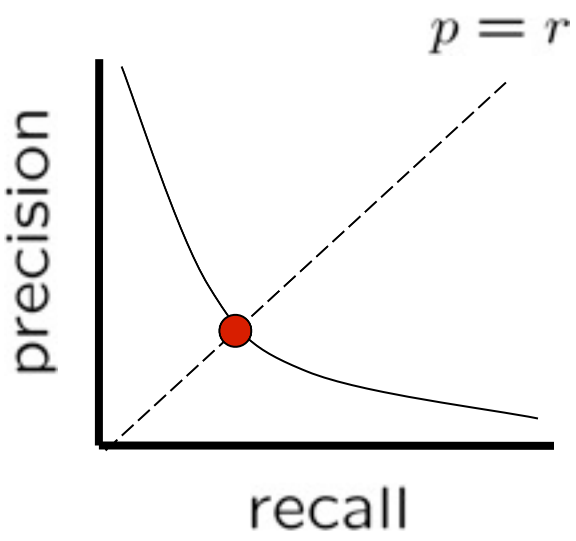
- Let's say we want to classify web pages as homepages or not
  - In a test set of 1K pages, there are 3 homepages
  - Our classifier says they are all non-homepages
  - 99.7 accuracy!
  - Need new measures for rare positive events



- Precision: fraction of guessed positives which were actually positive
- Recall: fraction of actual positives which were guessed as positive
- Say we detect 5 spam emails, of which 2 were actually spam, and we missed one
  - Precision: 2 correct / 5 guessed = 0.4
  - Recall: 2 correct / 3 true = 0.67
- Which is more important in customer support email automation?

Precision vs. Recall

- Precision/recall tradeoff
  - Often, you can trade off precision and recall
  - Only works well with weakly calibrated classifiers



- To summarize the tradeoff:
  - Break-even point: precision value when p = r
  - F-measure: harmonic mean of p and r:

$$F_1 = \frac{2}{1/p + 1/r}$$

Errors, and What to Do

- Examples of errors

```
Dear GlobalSCAPE Customer,

GlobalSCAPE has partnered with ScanSoft to offer you the
latest version of OmniPage Pro, for just $99.99* - the
regular list price is $499! The most common question we've
received about this offer is - Is this genuine? We would like
to assure you that this offer is authorized by ScanSoft, is
genuine and valid. You can get the . . .
```

```
. . . To receive your $30 Amazon.com promotional certificate,
click through to

  http://www.amazon.com/apparel

and see the prominent link for the $30 offer. All details are
there. We hope you enjoyed receiving this message. However,
if you'd rather not receive future e-mails announcing new
store launches, please click . . .
```

What to Do About Errors?

- Need more features– words aren't enough!
  - Have you emailed the sender before?
  - Have 1K other people just gotten the same email?
  - Is the sending information consistent?
  - Is the email in ALL CAPS?
  - Do inline URLs point where they say they point?
  - Does the email address you by (your) name?
- Can add these information sources as new variables in the NB model
- Next class we'll talk about classifiers which let you easily add arbitrary features more easily

Summary

- Bayes rule lets us do diagnostic queries with causal probabilities
- The naïve Bayes assumption takes all features to be independent given the class label
- We can build classifiers out of a naïve Bayes model using training data
- Smoothing estimates is important in real systems
- Classifier confidences are useful, when you can get them