Classification

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Some images and slides are used from: Rob Platt, CS188 UC Berkeley, AIMA

Supervised learning

Given: *Training set* $\{(x_i, y_i) \mid i = 1 \ldots N\}$, given a labeled set of input-output pairs $D = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_i$

Find: A good approximation to $f : X \rightarrow Y$ Function approximation

Examples: what are X and Y ?

Spam Detection – Map email to {Spam, Not Spam} Binary Classification

Digit recognition – Map pixels to {0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9} Multiclass Classification

Stock Prediction – Map new, historic prices, etc. to (the real numbers) Regression

Supervised learning

Goal: make predictions on novel inputs, meaning ones that we have not seen before (this is called *generalization*)

Formalize this problem as approximating a function: $f(x)=y$

The leaning problem is then to use *function approximation* to discover: $\hat{f}(x) = \hat{y}$

Spam example

Input: email

Output: spam/ham

Setup:

Get a large collection of example emails, each labele “spam” or “ham”

Note: someone has to hand label all this data!

Want to learn to predict labels of new, future emails

Features: 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

Ok, Iknow this is blatantly OT but I'm beginning to go insane. Had an old Dell Dimension XPS sitting in the corner and decided to put it to use, I know it was working pre being stuck in the corner, but when I plugged it in, hit the power nothing happened.

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


1


??

Some applications

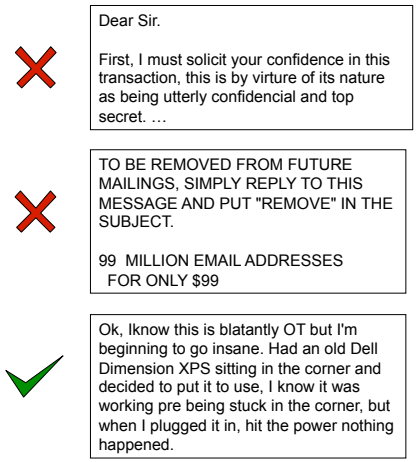
Document classification and email spam filtering

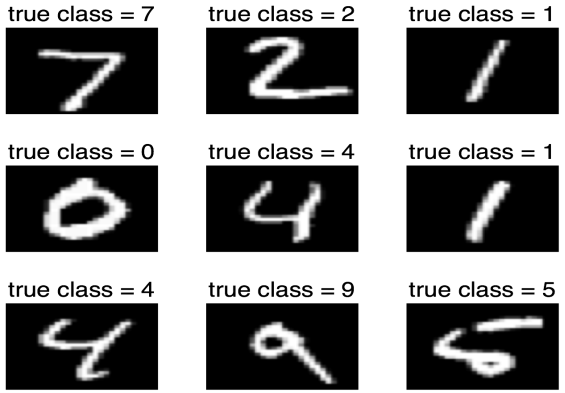
Image classification and handwriting recognition

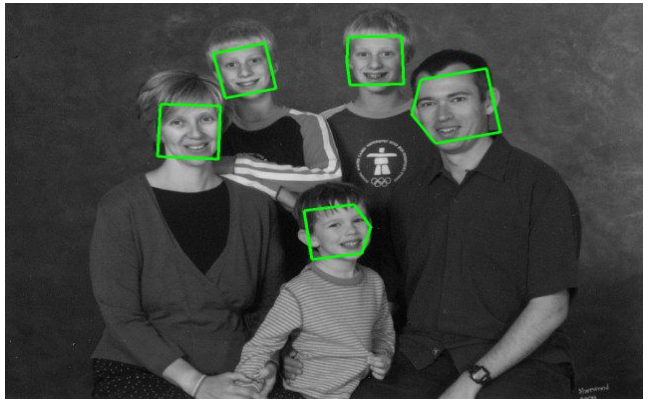
Face detection and recognition

Fraud detection

Medical diagnosis







Probabilistic Classification

Want a probability distribution over possible labels, given the input vector x and training set D by $P(y|x,D)$

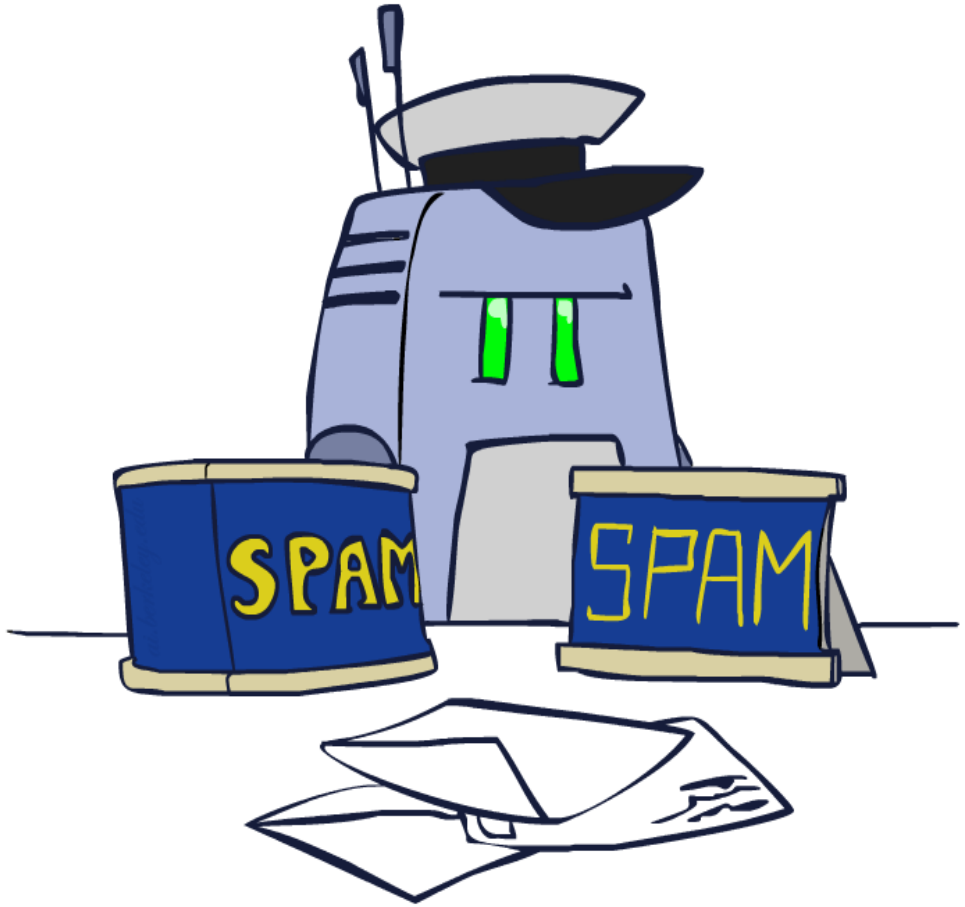
In general, this represents a vector of length C

Calculate a "best guess": $\hat{y} = \hat{f}(x) = \text{argmax}_{c=1}^{C} P(y = c \mid x, D)$

This corresponds to the most probable class label (the mode of the distribution)

Model-Based Classification

- Model-based approach
  - Build a model (e.g. Bayes' net) where both the label and features are random variables
  - Instantiate any observed features
  - Query for the distribution of the label conditioned on the features
- Challenges
  - What structure should the BN have?
  - How should we learn its parameters?

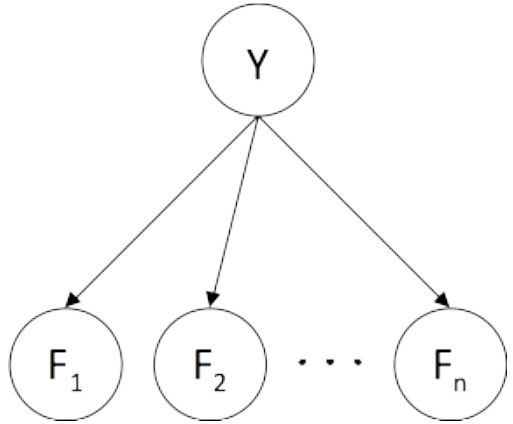


Naïve Bayes for Digits

- Naïve Bayes: Assume all features are independent effects of the label
- Simple digit recognition version:
  - One feature (variable) F_{ij} for each grid position <i,j>
  - 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?

Note: Discriminative vs Generative

Can calculate $P(y|x)$ directly, but we could also use Bayes rule to calculate $P(y|x)=\alpha P(x|y)P(y)$

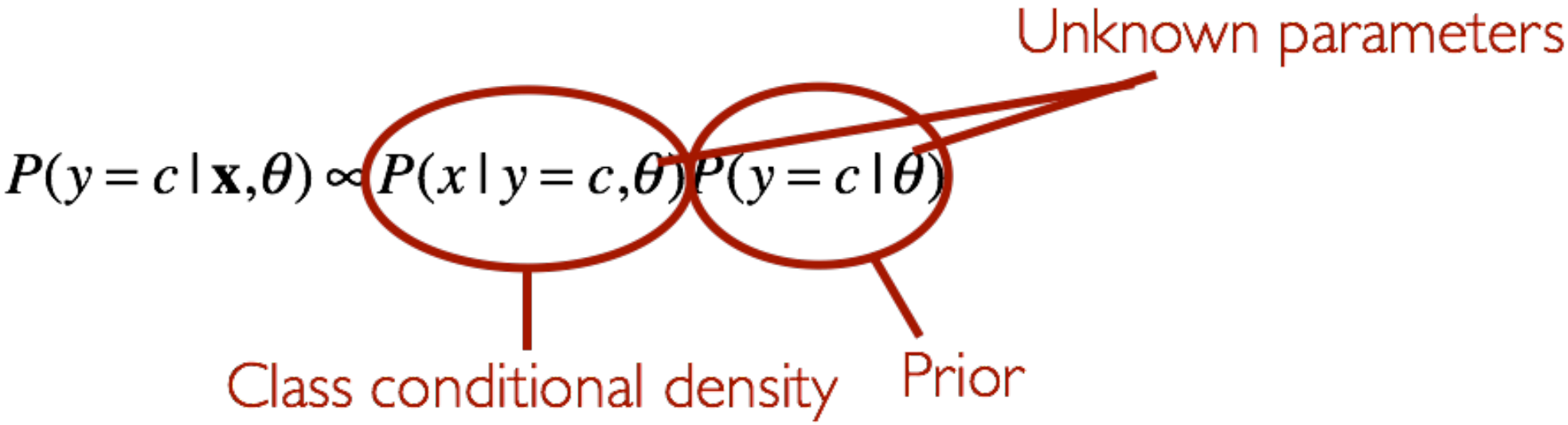
Calculating $P(y|x)$ directly is called *discriminative*

Calculating $P(x|y)P(y)$ is called *generative* (since it represents a way to generate the data)

Generative models

Use Bayes rule to switch classification into a generative problem

Determine the right parameters for your model

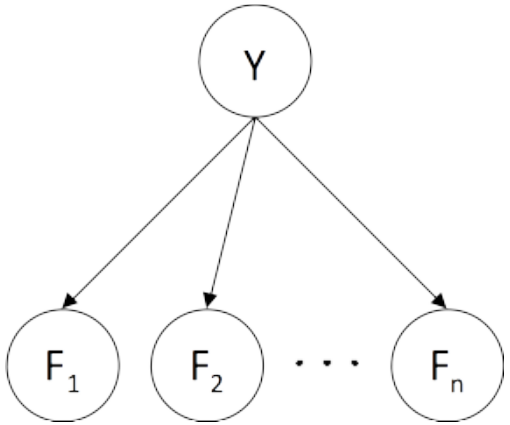


General Naïve Bayes

- A general Naive Bayes model:

|Y| parameters

$$\underbrace{P(\mathsf{Y}, \mathsf{F}_1 \ldots \mathsf{F}_n)}_{|\mathsf{Y}| \text{ x } |\mathsf{F}|^n \text{ values}} = \overbrace{P(\mathsf{Y})} \underbrace{\prod_i P(\mathsf{F}_i|\mathsf{Y})}_{\substack{n \text{ x } |\mathsf{F}| \text{ x } |\mathsf{Y}| \\ \text{parameters}}}$$



- We only have to specify how each feature depends on the class
- Total number of parameters is *linear* in n
- Model is very simplistic, but often works anyway

Inference for Naïve Bayes

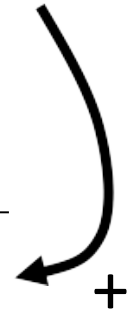
- Goal: compute posterior distribution over label variable Y
  - Step 1: get joint probability of label and evidence for each label

$$P(Y, f_1 \dots f_n) = \begin{bmatrix} P(y_1, f_1 \dots f_n) \\ P(y_2, f_1 \dots f_n) \\ \vdots \\ P(y_k, f_1 \dots f_n) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} P(y_1) \prod_i P(f_i|y_1) \\ P(y_2) \prod_i P(f_i|y_2) \\ \vdots \\ P(y_k) \prod_i P(f_i|y_k) \end{bmatrix}$$

  - Step 2: sum to get probability of evidence

$$P(f_1 \dots f_n)$$



  - Step 3: normalize by dividing Step 1 by Step 2

$$P(Y|f_1 \dots f_n)$$

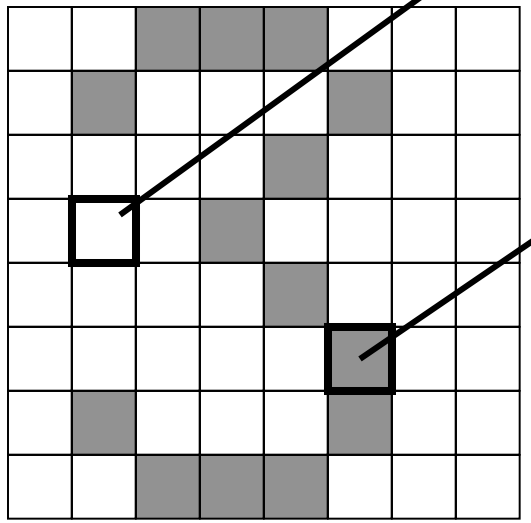
General Naïve Bayes

- What do we need in order to use Naïve Bayes?
  - Inference method (we just saw this part)
    - Start with a bunch of probabilities: 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 counts: we'll look at this soon

Example: Conditional Probabilities

$P(Y)$

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

Naïve Bayes for Text

- Bag-of-words Naïve Bayes:
  - Features: W_i is the word at positon i
  - As before: predict label conditioned on feature variables (spam vs. ham)
  - As before: assume features are conditionally independent given label
  - New: each W_i is identically distributed

- Generative model: $$P(Y, W_1 \dots W_n) = P(Y) \prod_i P(W_i|Y)$$

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

- "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|Y)
    - Why make this assumption?
  - Called "bag-of-words" because model is insensitive to word order or reordering

Example: Spam Filtering

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

$P(Y)$

```
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 tables come from?

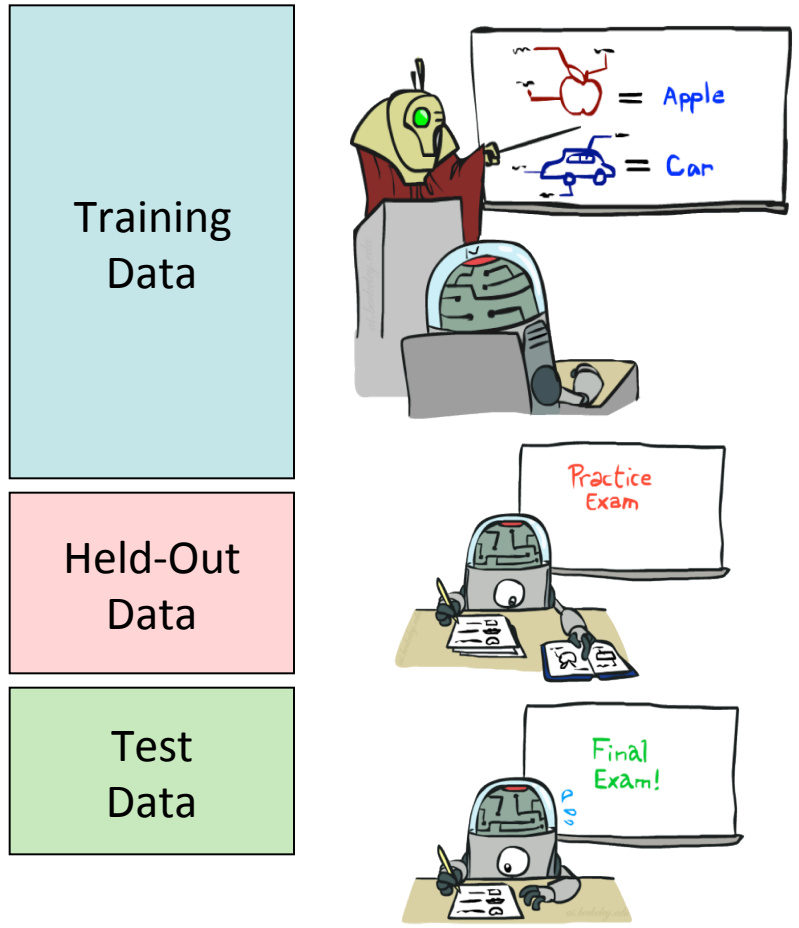
Spam Example

Word	P(w|spam)	P(w|ham)	Tot Spam	Tot Ham
(prior)	0.33333	0.66666	-1.1	-0.4
Gary	0.00002	0.00021	-11.8	-8.9
would	0.00069	0.00084	-19.1	-16.0
you	0.00881	0.00304	-23.8	-21.8
like	0.00086	0.00083	-30.9	-28.9
to	0.01517	0.01339	-35.1	-33.2
lose	0.00008	0.00002	-44.5	-44.0
weight	0.00016	0.00002	-53.3	-55.0
while	0.00027	0.00027	-61.5	-63.2
you	0.00881	0.00304	-66.2	-69.0
sleep	0.00006	0.00001	-76.0	-80.5

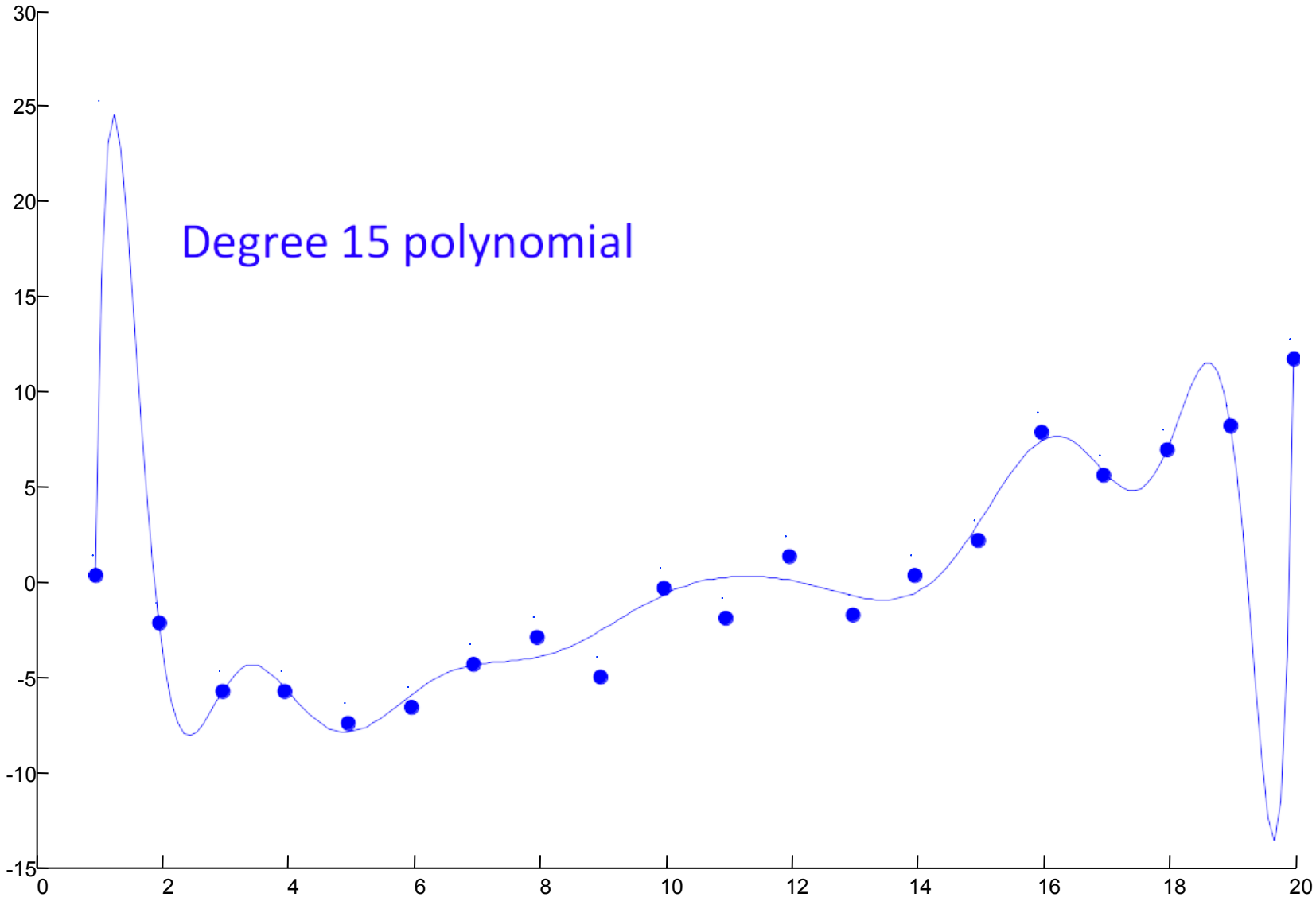
P(spam | w) = 98.9

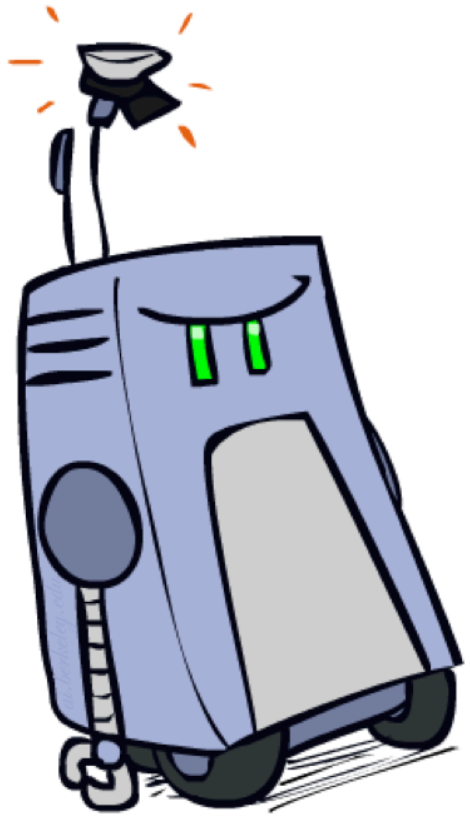
Important Concepts

- 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)
  - Compute accuracy of test set
  - Very important: never "peek" at the test set!
- Evaluation
  - 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



Overfitting





Example: Overfitting

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

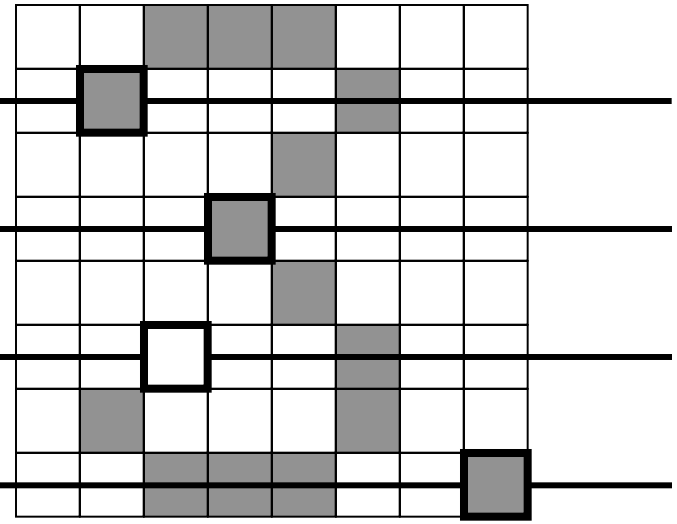
$P(C = 2) = 0.1$

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

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

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

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



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

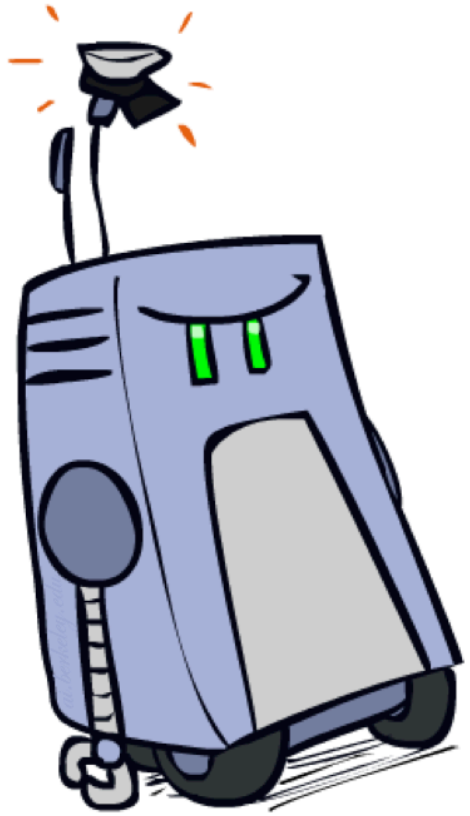
$P(C = 3) = 0.1$

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

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

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

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



2 wins!!

Example: Overfitting

- Posteriors determined by *relative* probabilities (odds ratios):

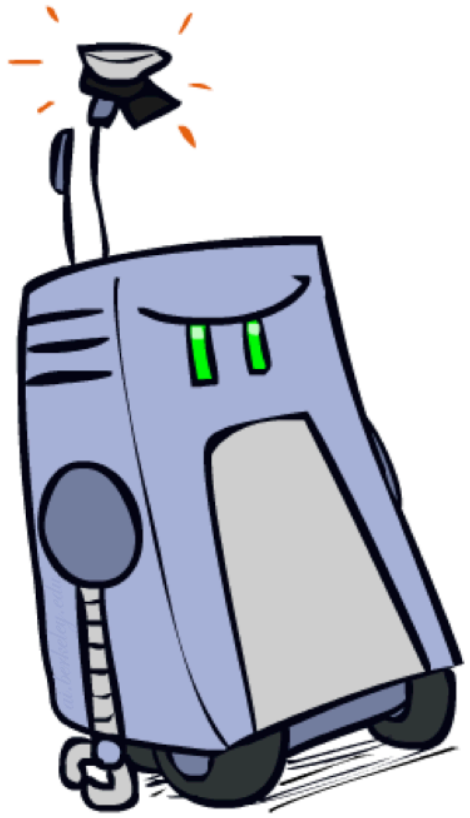
$$\frac{P(W|\text{ham})}{P(W|\text{spam})}$$

```
south-west : inf
nation     : inf
morally    : inf
nicely     : inf
extent     : inf
seriously  : inf
...
```

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

```
screens    : inf
minute     : inf
guaranteed : inf
$205.00    : inf
delivery   : inf
signature  : inf
...
```

What went wrong here?



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

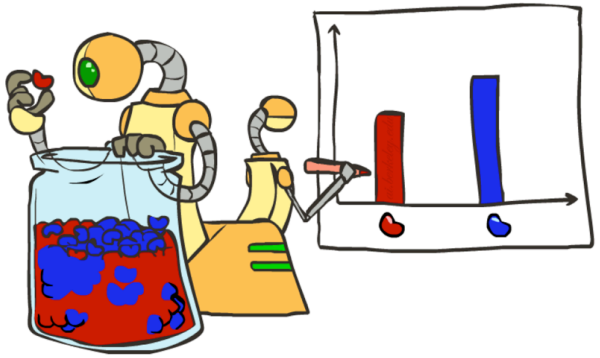
- To generalize better: we need to smooth or regularize the estimates

Parameter Estimation

- Estimating the distribution of a random variable
- *Elicitation:* ask a human (why is this hard?)
- *Empirically:* use training data (learning!)
  - E.g.: for each outcome x, look at the *empirical rate* of that value:

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

$$P_{\text{ML}}(\text{r}) = 2/3$$



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

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

Maximum Likelihood?

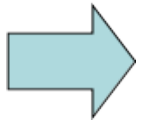
- Relative frequencies are the maximum likelihood estimates

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

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

- Another option is to consider the most likely parameter value given the data

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



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Maximum Likelihood Estimation

What should the parameter values be?

Calculate the *maximum-likelihood estimate (MLE)* (or really the log-likelihood)

$$\hat{\theta} \triangleq \text{argmax}_{\theta} \log P(D \mid \theta)$$

Assume the training examples are *independent and identically distributed (iid)*, can calculate the log-likelihood

$$l(\theta) \triangleq \log P(D \mid \theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log P(y_i \mid x_i, \theta)$$

We can either maximize log-likelihood or minimize *negative log likelihood (NLL)*

$$NLL(\theta) \triangleq -\sum_{i=1}^{N} \log P(y_i \mid x_i, \theta)$$

MLE vs. MAP

MAP: $\hat{y}^{MAP} = \text{argmax}_{c=1}^{C} P(y = c \mid D) = \text{argmax}_{c=1}^{C} P(D \mid y = c) P(y = c)$

(or in our case)

$$\hat{\theta}^{MAP} = \text{argmax}_{\theta} P(\theta \mid D) = \text{argmax}_{\theta} P(D \mid \theta) P(\theta)$$

Likelihood Prior

MLE:

$$\hat{\theta}^{MLE} = \text{argmax}_{\theta} P(D \mid \theta)$$

MLE and MAP (can) converge as the dataset grows

Unseen Events: Laplace Smoothing

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

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

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

$$P_{ML}(X) = \left\langle \frac{2}{3}, \frac{1}{3} \right\rangle$$

$$P_{LAP}(X) = \left\langle \frac{3}{5}, \frac{2}{5} \right\rangle$$

  - Can derive this estimate with *Dirichlet priors*

Unseen Events: Laplace Smoothing

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

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

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

- Laplace for conditionals:
  - Smooth each condition independently:

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

$$P_{LAP,0}(X) = \left\langle \frac{2}{3}, \frac{1}{3} \right\rangle$$

$$P_{LAP,1}(X) = \left\langle \frac{3}{5}, \frac{2}{5} \right\rangle$$

$$P_{LAP,100}(X) = \left\langle \frac{102}{203}, \frac{101}{203} \right\rangle$$

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 the empirical P(X) from the data
  - Make sure the estimate of P(X|Y) isn't too different from the empirical P(X)

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

  - What if α is 0? 1?

Real NB: Smoothing

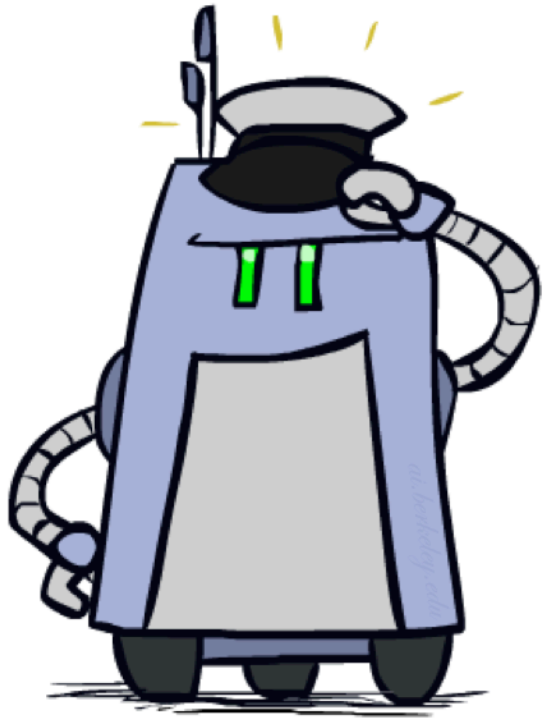
- For real classification problems, smoothing is critical
- New odds ratios:

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

```
helvetica : 11.4
seems     : 10.8
group     : 10.2
ago       :  8.4
areas     :  8.3
...
```

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

```
verdana : 28.8
Credit  : 28.4
ORDER   : 27.2
<FONT>  : 26.9
money   : 26.5
...
```

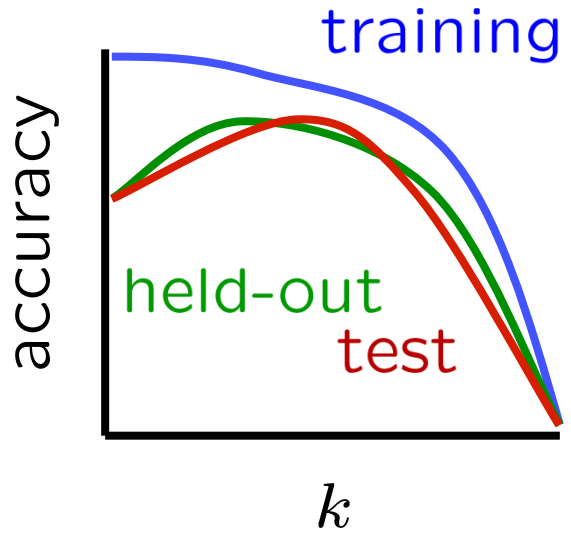


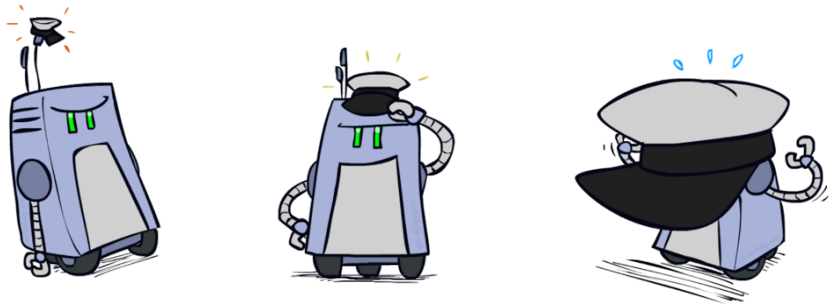
Do these make more sense?

Tuning on Held-Out Data

- Now we've got two kinds of unknowns
  - Parameters: the probabilities P(X|Y), P(Y)
  - Hyperparameters: e.g. the amount / type of smoothing to do, k, α

- What should we learn where?
  - Learn parameters from training data
  - 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





What to Do About Errors

- Problem: there's still spam in your inbox

- Need more features – words aren't enough!
  - Have you emailed the sender before?
  - Have 1M 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?

- Naïve Bayes models can incorporate a variety of features, but tend to do best in homogeneous cases (e.g. all features are word occurrences)

Baselines

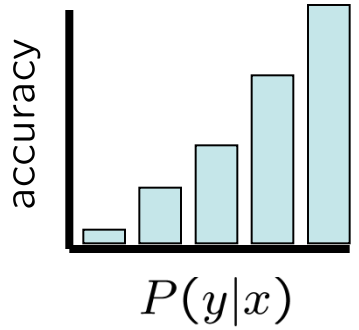
- First step: get a baseline
  - Baselines are very simple “straw man” procedures
  - Help determine how hard the task is
  - Help know what a “good” accuracy is
- Weak baseline: most frequent label classifier
  - Gives all test instances whatever label was most common in the training set
  - E.g. for 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

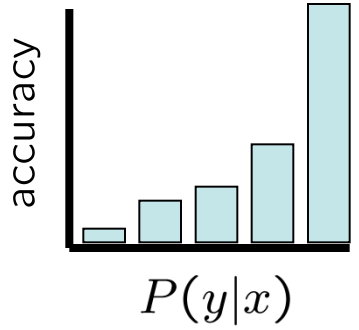
Confidences from a Classifier

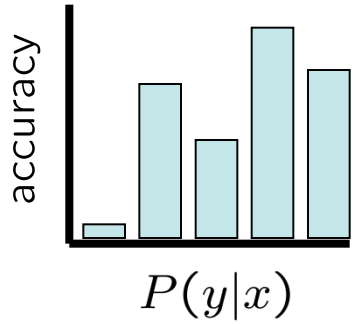
- The confidence of a probabilistic classifier:
  - Posterior over the top label

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

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







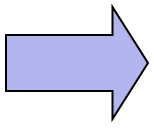
Summary

- 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

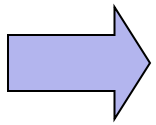
Feature Vectors

x $f(x)$ y

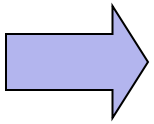
```
Hello,

Do you want free printr
cartriges?  Why pay more
when you can get them
ABSOLUTELY FREE!  Just
```



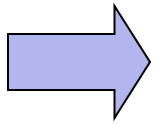
```
# free       : 2
YOUR_NAME    : 0
MISSPELLED   : 2
FROM_FRIEND  : 0
...
```



SPAM
or
+

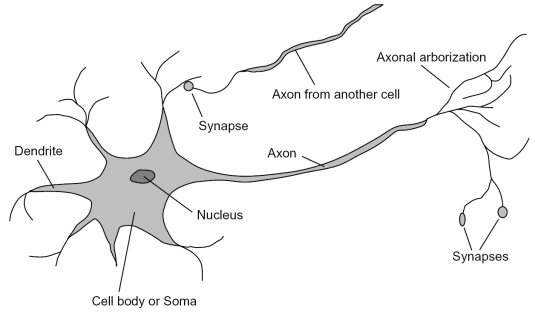


```
PIXEL-7,12   : 1
PIXEL-7,13   : 0
...
NUM_LOOPS    : 1
...
```



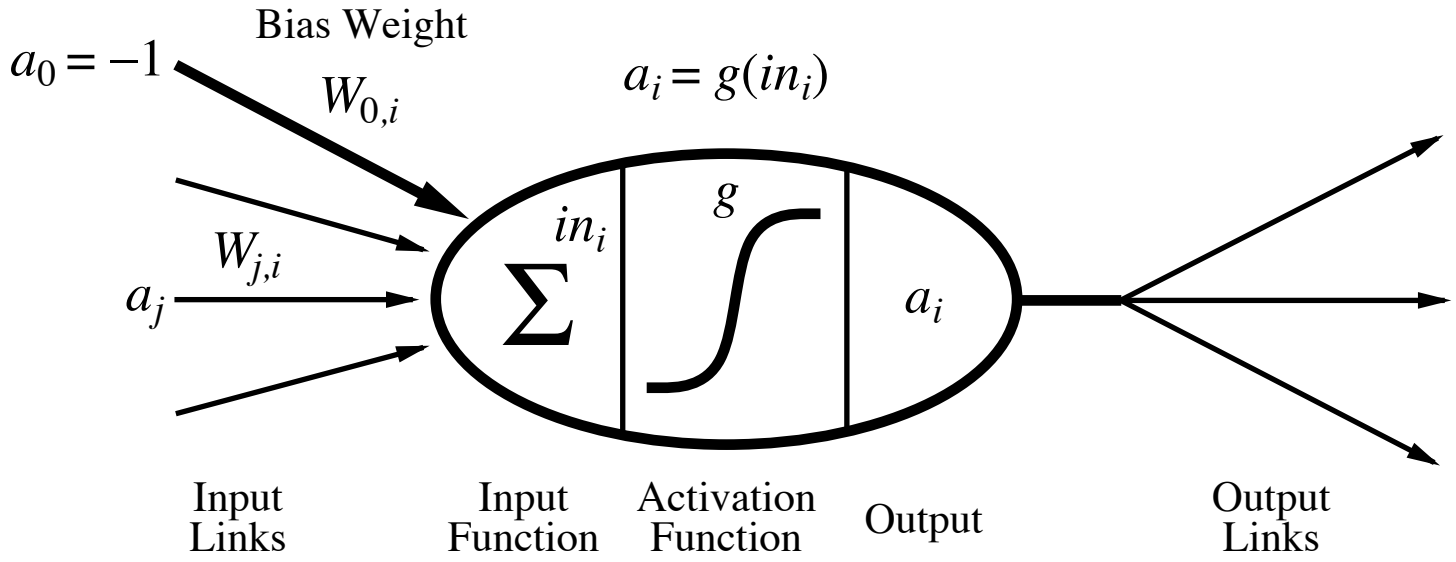
“2”

McCulloch–Pitts "unit"



Output is a "squashed" linear function of the inputs:

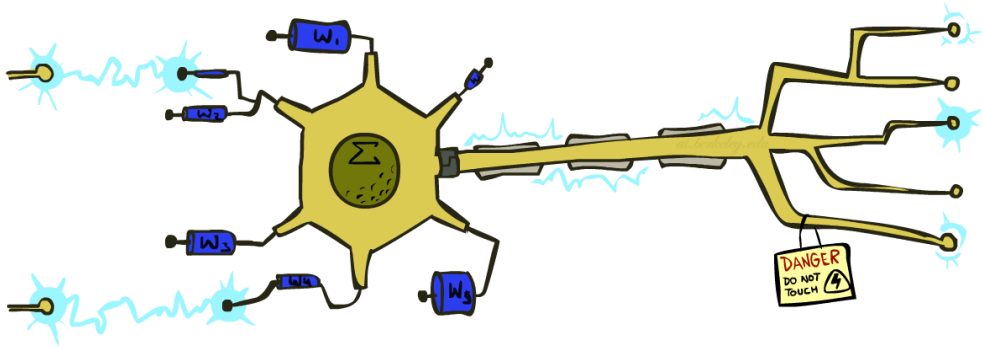
$$a_i \leftarrow g(in_i) = g\left(\sum_j W_{j,i} a_j\right)$$



A gross oversimplification of real neurons, helps to develop understanding of what networks of simple units can do

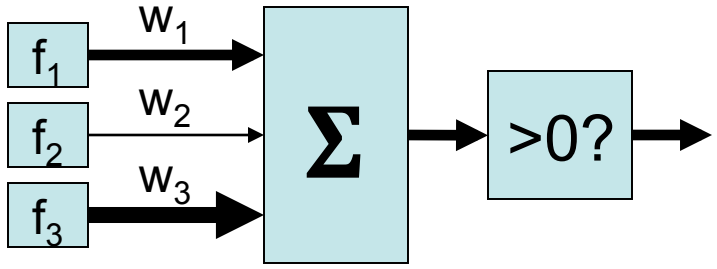
Linear Classifiers

- Inputs are feature values
- Each feature has a weight
- Sum is the activation



$$\text{activation}_w(x) = \sum_i w_i \cdot f_i(x) = w \cdot f(x)$$

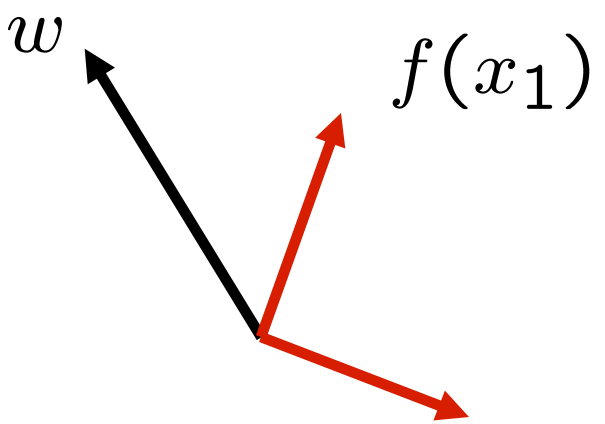
- If the activation is:
  - Positive, output +1
  - Negative, output -1



Weights

- Binary case: compare features to a weight vector
- Learning: figure out the weight vector from examples

```
# free       : 4
YOUR_NAME    :-1
MISSPELLED   : 1
FROM_FRIEND  :-3
...
```




```
# free       : 2
YOUR_NAME    : 0
MISSPELLED   : 2
FROM_FRIEND  : 0
...
```

```
# free       : 0
YOUR_NAME    : 1
MISSPELLED   : 1
FROM_FRIEND  : 1
...
```

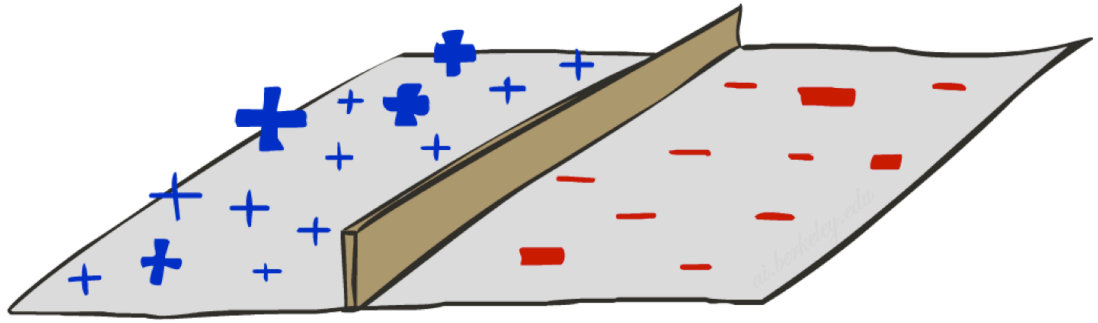
Dot product $w \cdot f$ positive means the positive class

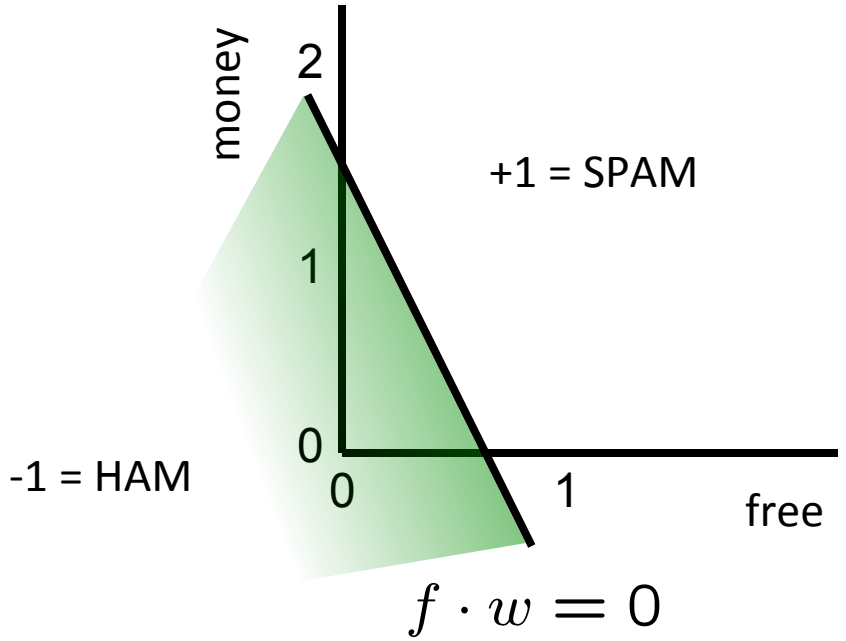
Binary Decision Rule

- In the space of feature vectors
  - Examples are points
  - Any weight vector is a hyperplane
  - Decision boundary:
    - One side corresponds to Y=+1
    - Other corresponds to Y=-1

$$w$$

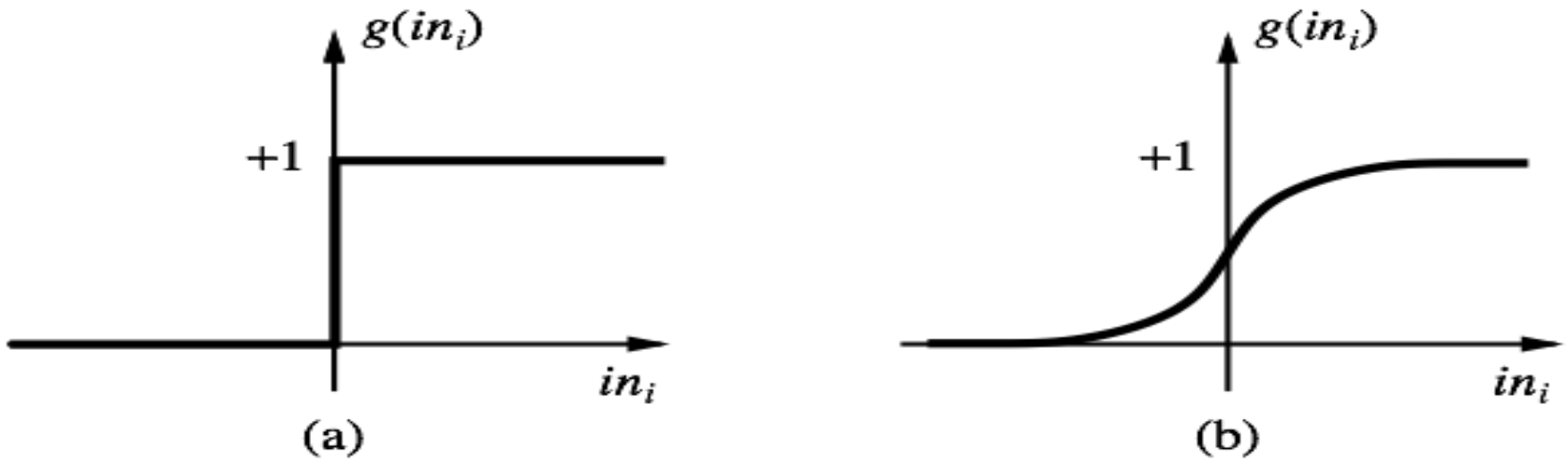
```
BIAS   : -3
free   :  4
money  :  2
...
```





$$f \cdot w = 0$$

Activation function

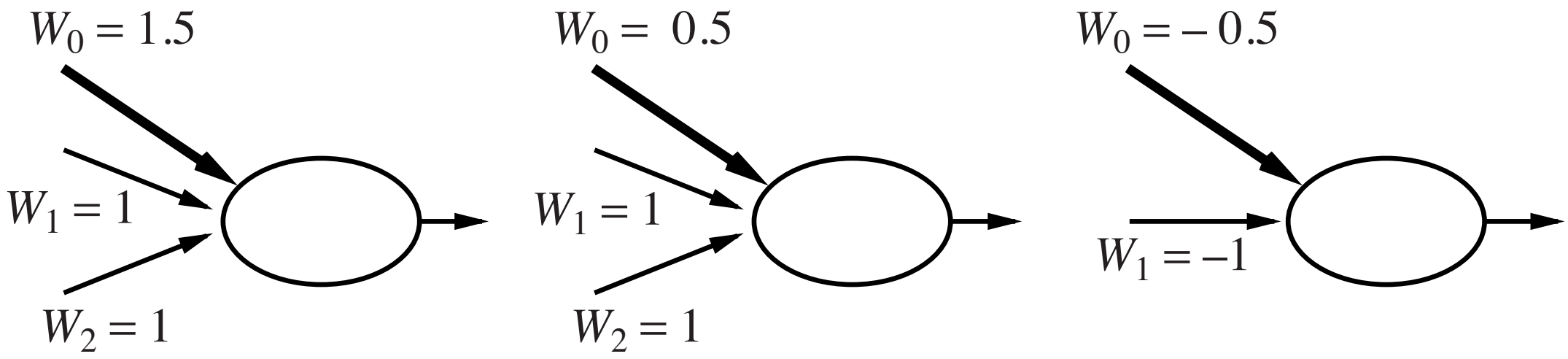


(a) is a step function or threshold function (a *perceptron)*

(b) is a sigmoid function $1/(1 + e^{-x})$ (a *sigmoid perceptron*)

Changing the bias weight w_0 moves the threshold location

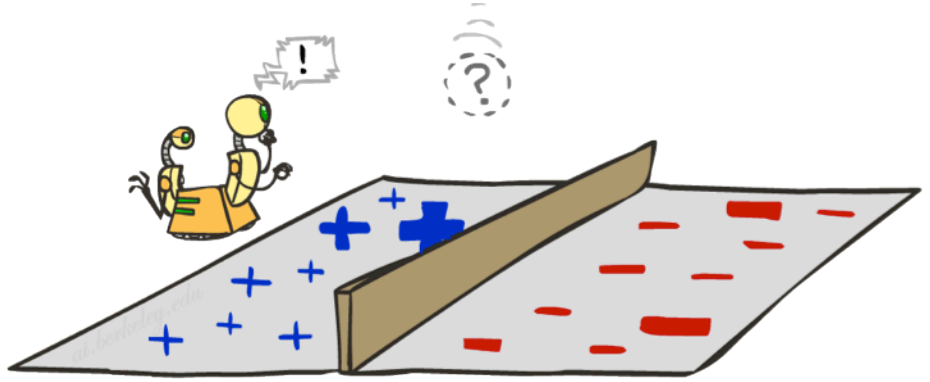
Implementing logical functions



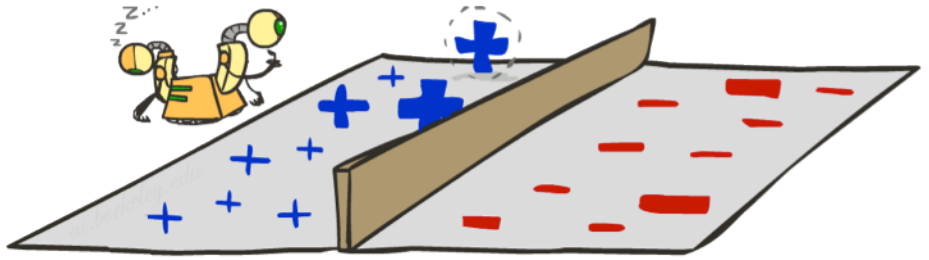
McCulloch and Pitts: every Boolean function can be implemented (sort of)

Learning: Binary Perceptron

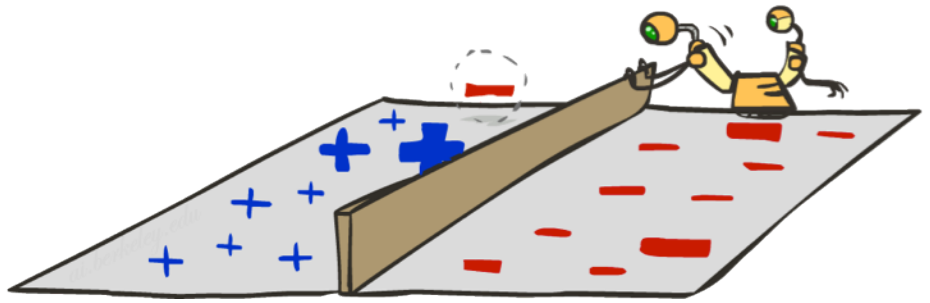
- Start with weights = 0
- For each training instance:
  - Classify with current weights



  - If correct (i.e., y=y*), no change!



  - If wrong: adjust the weight vector

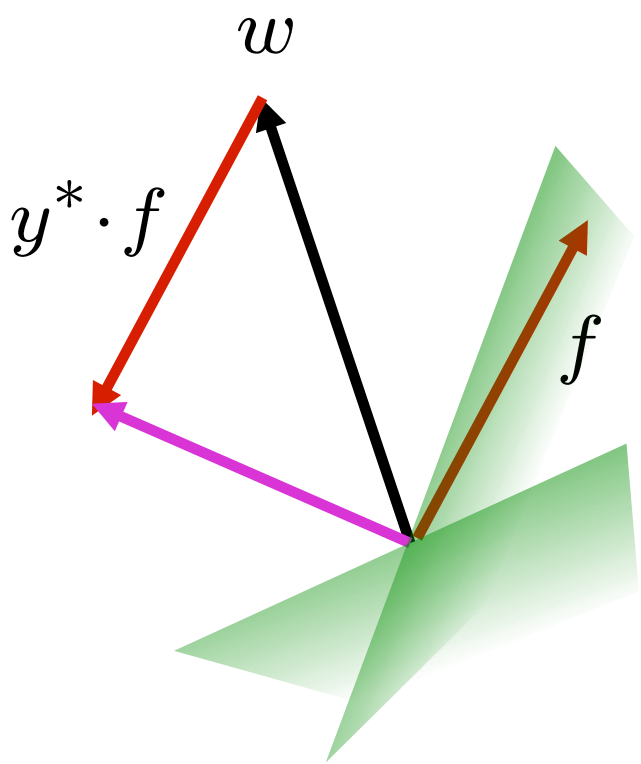


Learning: Binary Perceptron

- Start with weights = 0
- For each training instance:
  - Classify with current weights

$$y = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } w \cdot f(x) \geq 0 \\ -1 & \text{if } w \cdot f(x) < 0 \end{cases}$$

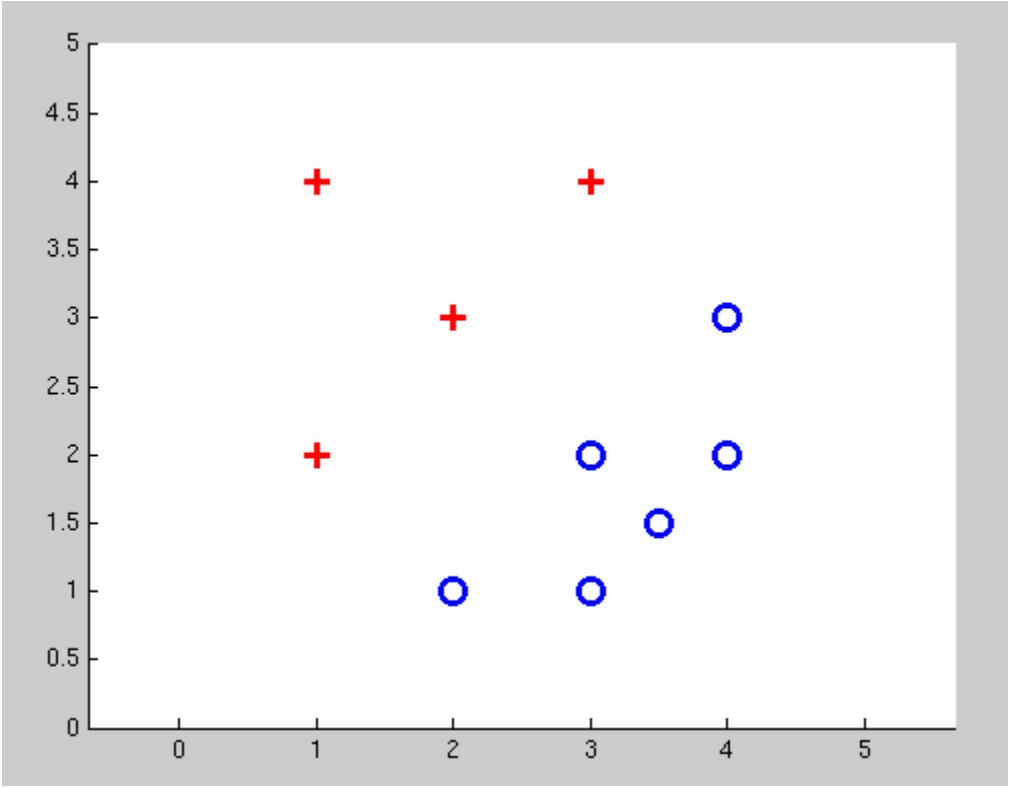
  - If correct (i.e., y=y*), no change!
  - If wrong: adjust the weight vector by adding or subtracting the feature vector. Subtract if y* is -1.



$$w = w + y^* \cdot f$$

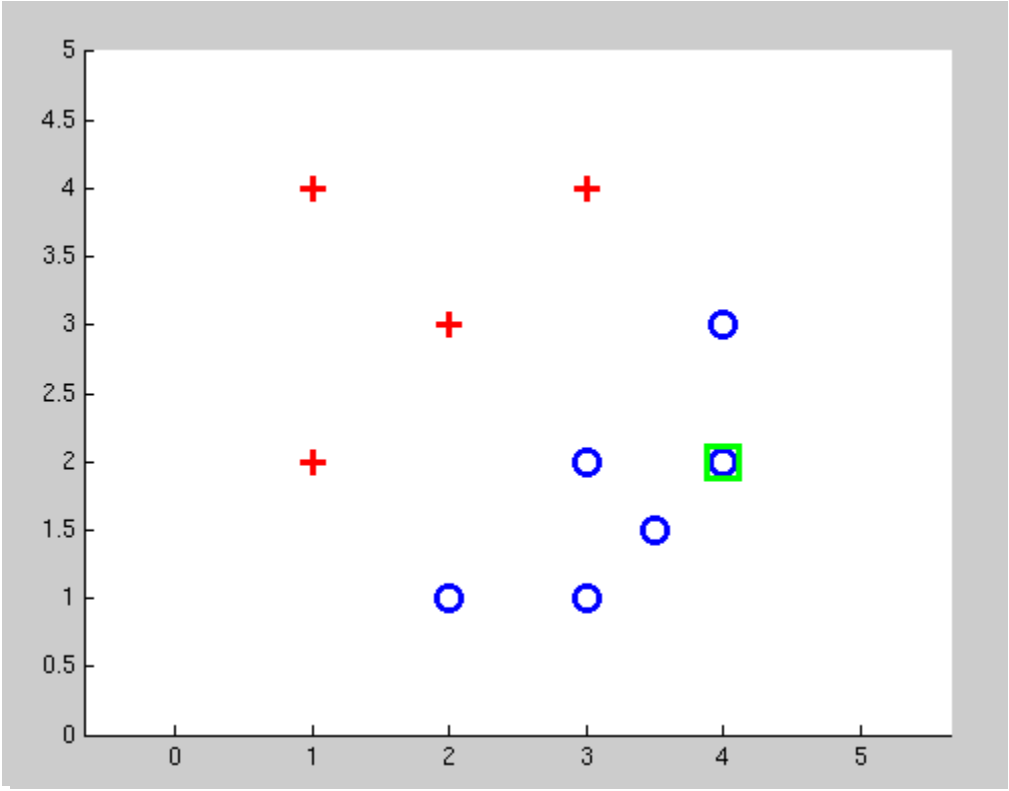
Examples: Perceptron

- Separable Case



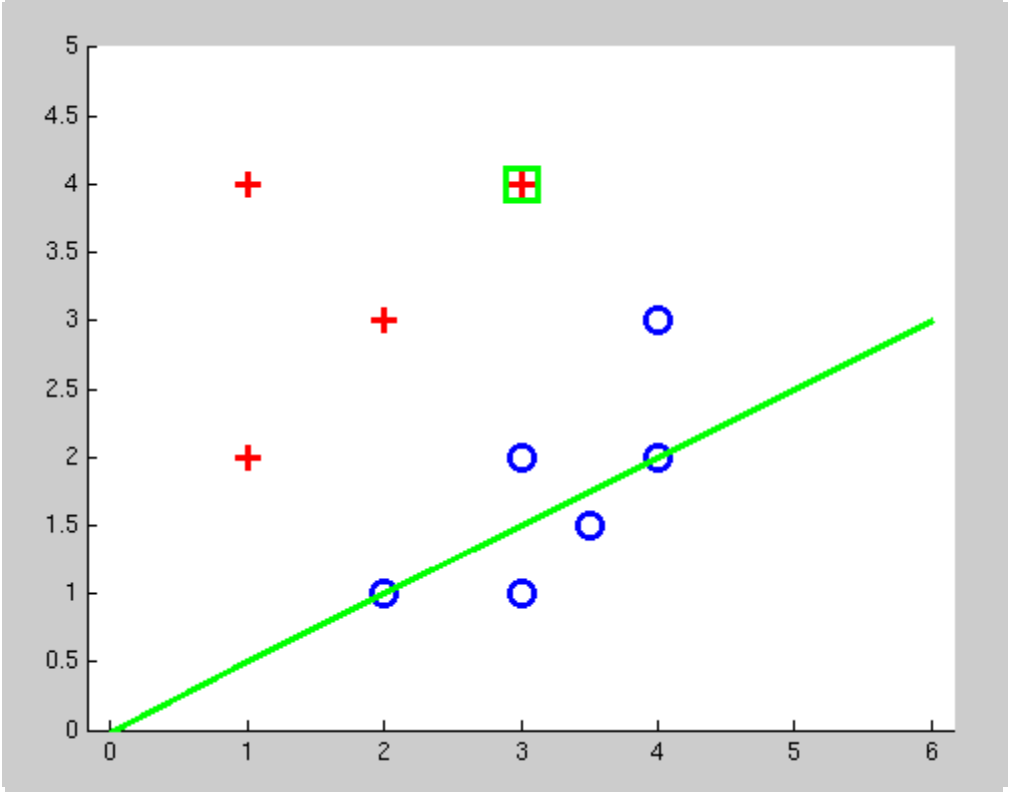
Examples: Perceptron

- Separable Case



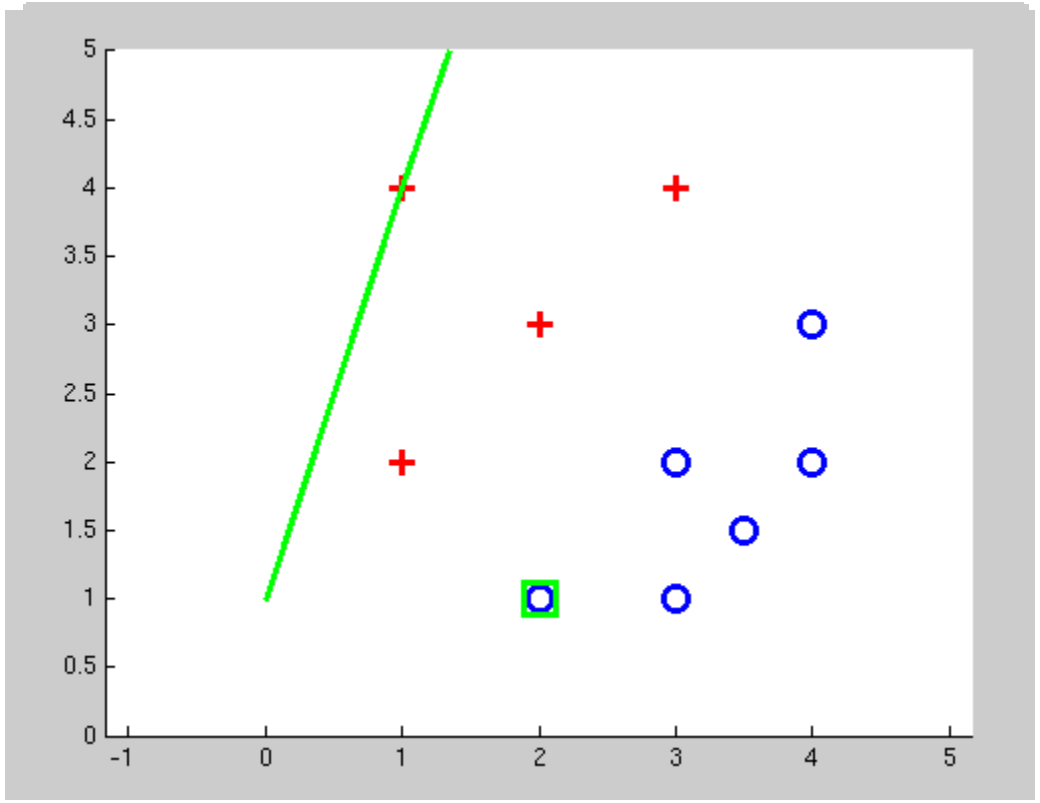
Examples: Perceptron

- Separable Case



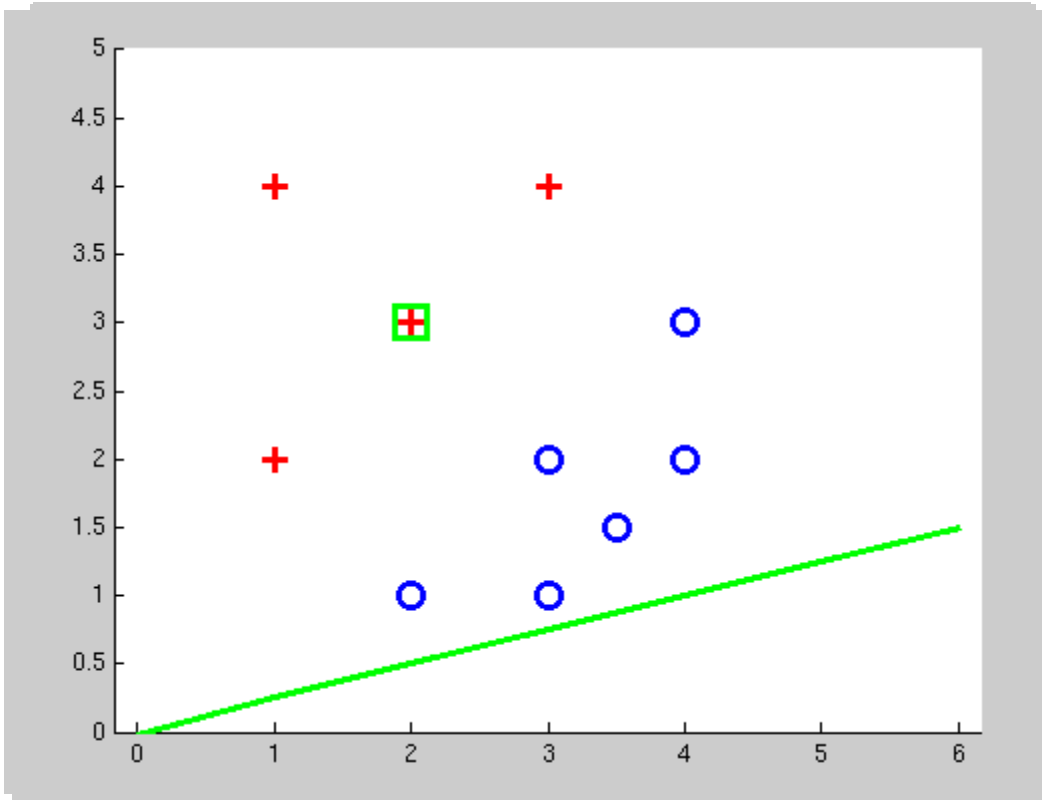
Examples: Perceptron

- Separable Case



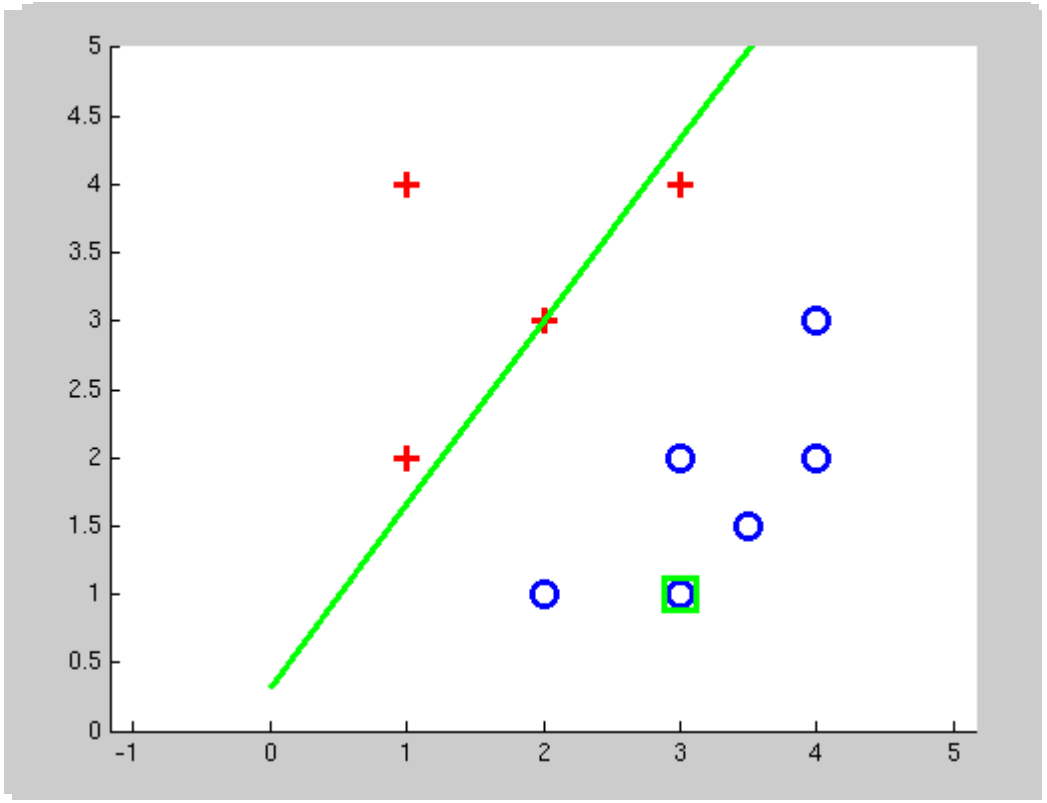
Examples: Perceptron

- Separable Case



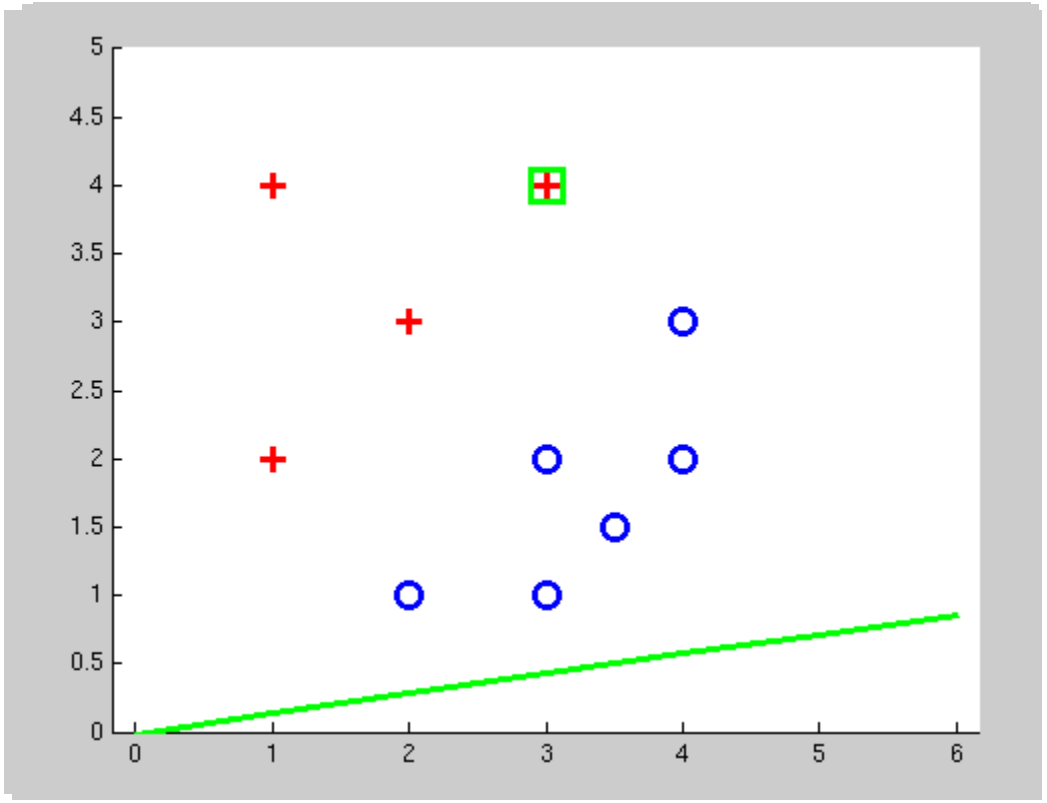
Examples: Perceptron

- Separable Case



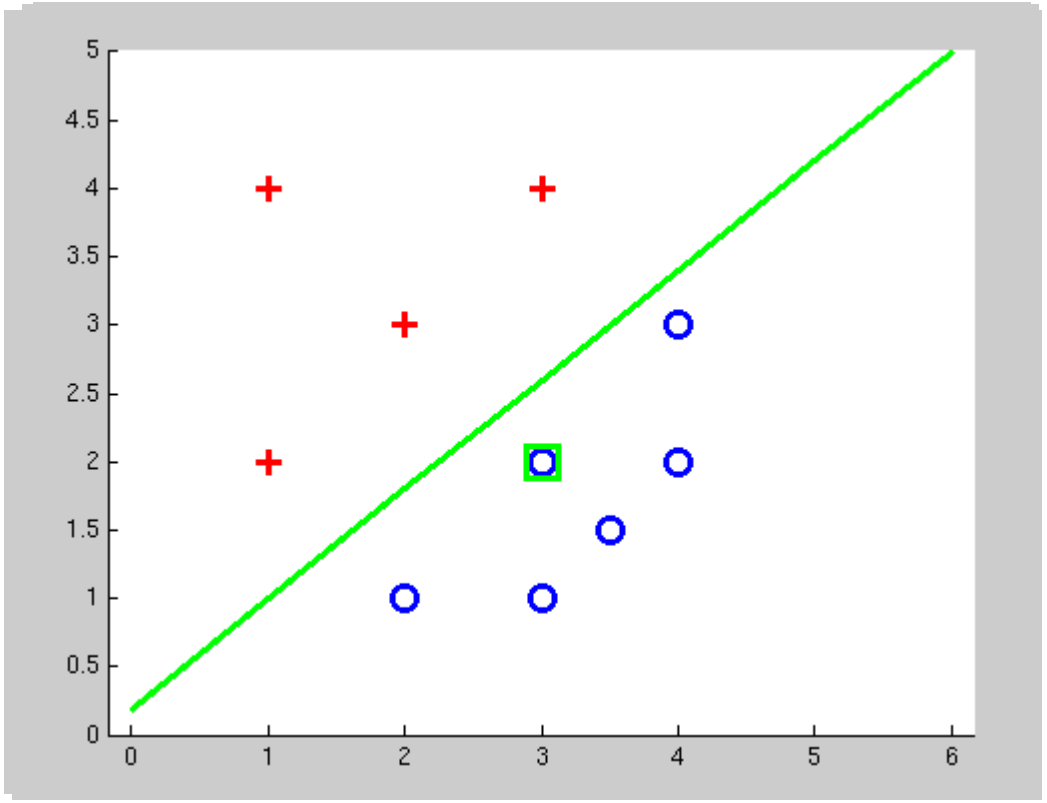
Examples: Perceptron

- Separable Case



Examples: Perceptron

- Separable Case



Multiclass Decision Rule

- If we have multiple classes:
  - A weight vector for each class:

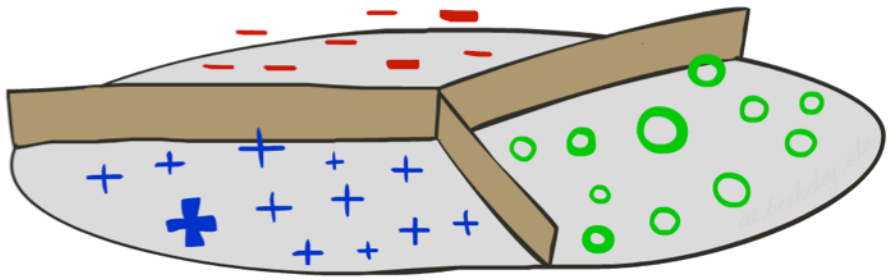
$$w_y$$

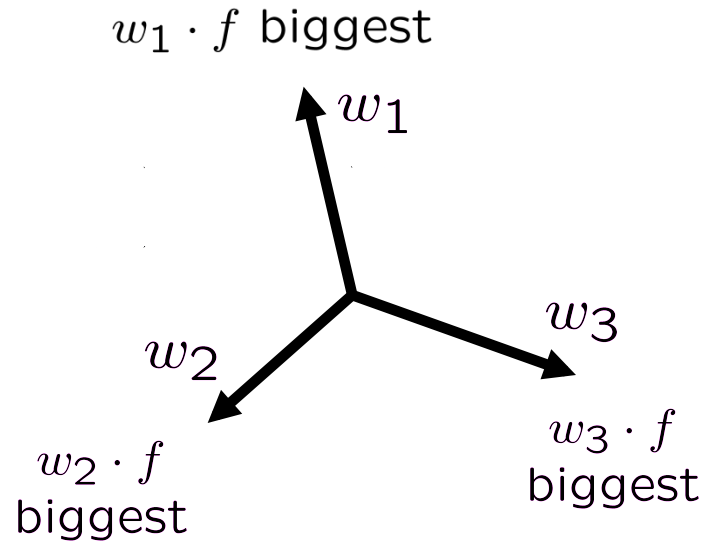
  - Score (activation) of a class y:

$$w_y \cdot f(x)$$

  - Prediction highest score wins

$$y = \arg\max_y \ w_y \cdot f(x)$$





Binary = multiclass where the negative class has weight zero

Learning: Multiclass Perceptron

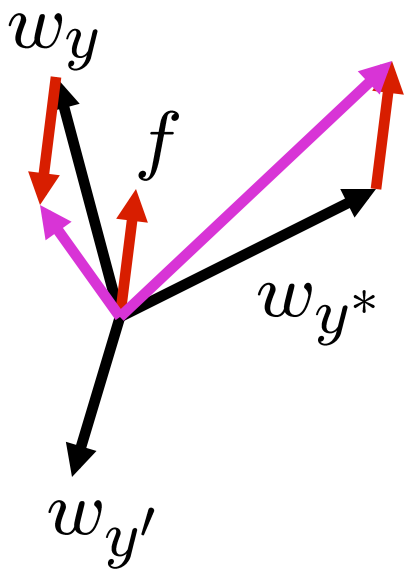
- Start with all weights = 0
- Pick up training examples one by one
- Predict with current weights

$$y = \arg\max_y \; w_y \cdot f(x)$$

- If correct, no change!
- If wrong: lower score of wrong answer, raise score of right answer

$$w_y = w_y - f(x)$$

$$w_{y^*} = w_{y^*} + f(x)$$



Example: Multiclass Perceptron

"win the vote"

"win the election"

"win the game"

w_{SPORTS}

```
BIAS  : 1
win   : 0
game  : 0
vote  : 0
the   : 0
...
```

$w_{POLITICS}$

```
BIAS  : 0
win   : 0
game  : 0
vote  : 0
the   : 0
...
```

w_{TECH}

```
BIAS  : 0
win   : 0
game  : 0
vote  : 0
the   : 0
...
```

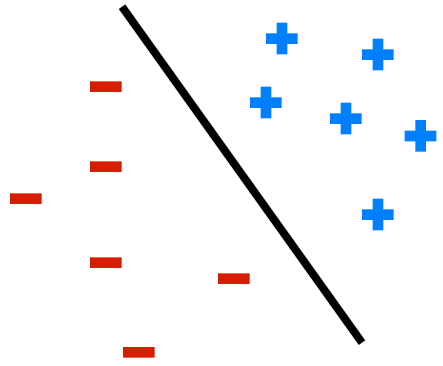
Properties of Perceptrons

- Separability: true if some parameters get the training set perfectly correct
- Convergence: if the training is separable, perceptron will eventually converge (binary case)
- Mistake Bound: the maximum number of mistakes (binary case) related to the *margin* or degree of separability

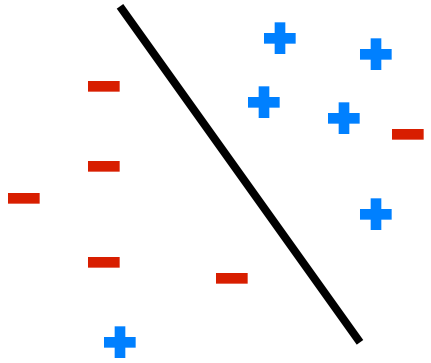
$$\text{mistakes} < \frac{k}{\delta^2}$$

k is the number of features
δ is the size of the margin

Separable



Non-Separable



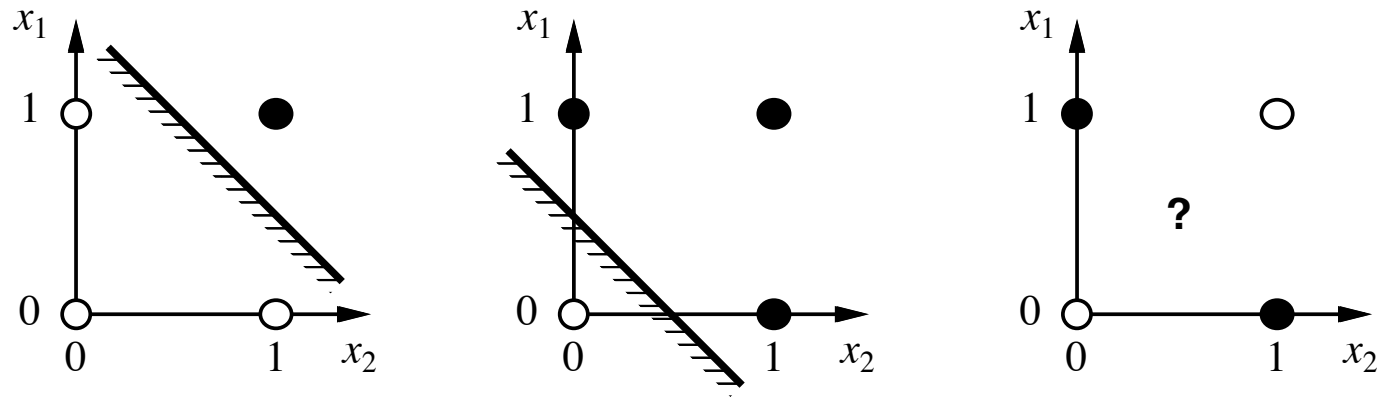
Expressiveness of Perceptron

Consider a perceptron with g = step function (Rosenblatt, 1957, 1960)

Can represent AND, OR, NOT, majority, etc., but not XOR

Represents a linear separator in input space:

$\sum_j W_j x_j > 0$ or $\mathbf{W} \cdot \mathbf{x} > 0$

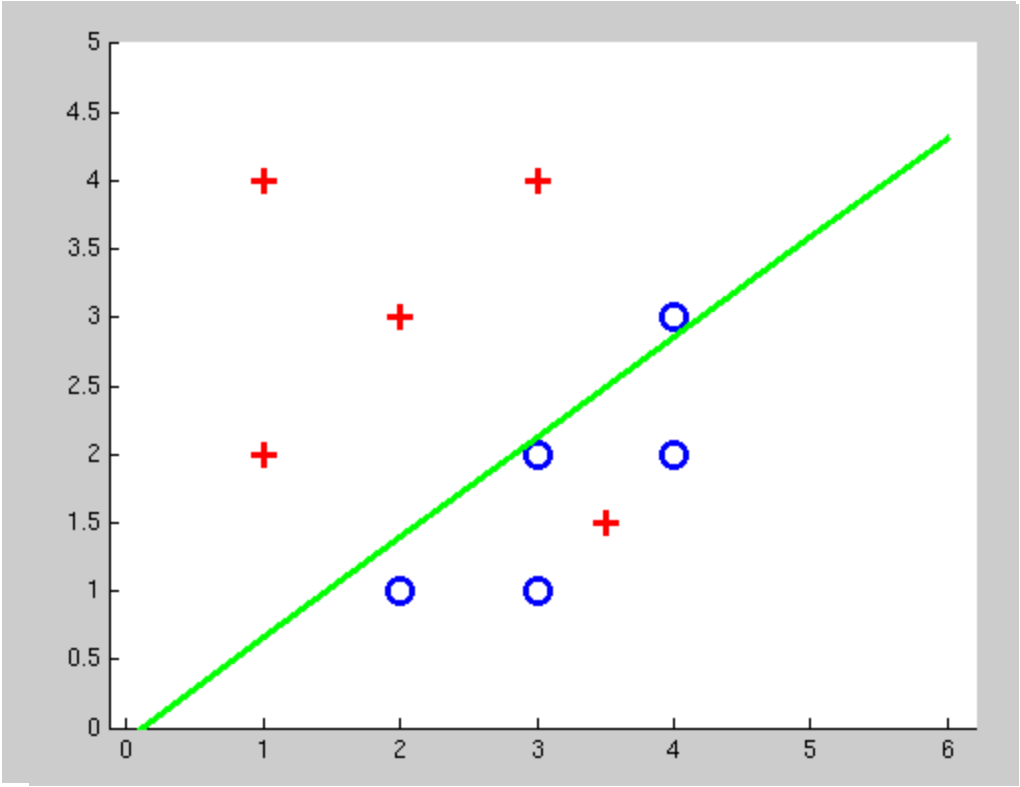


(a) x_1 **and** x_2 (b) x_1 **or** x_2 (c) x_1 **xor** x_2

Minsky & Papert (1969) pricked the neural network balloon

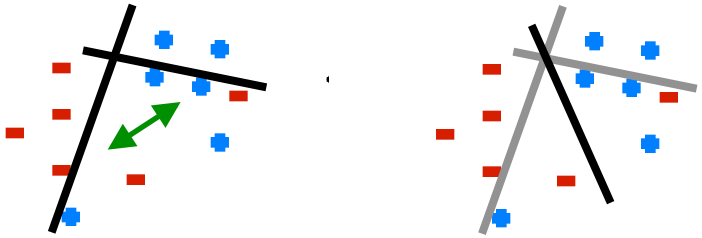
Examples: Perceptron

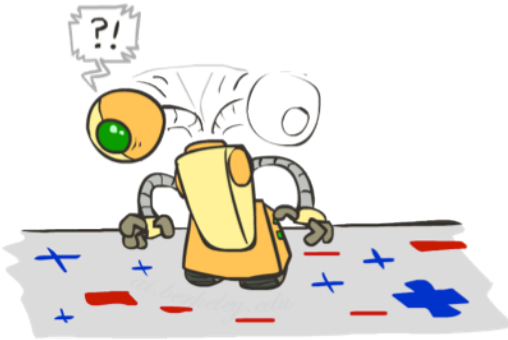
- Non-Separable Case



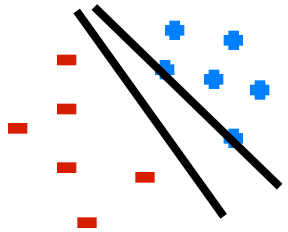
Problems with the Perceptron

- Noise: if the data isn't separable, weights might thrash
  - Averaging weight vectors over time can help (averaged perceptron)

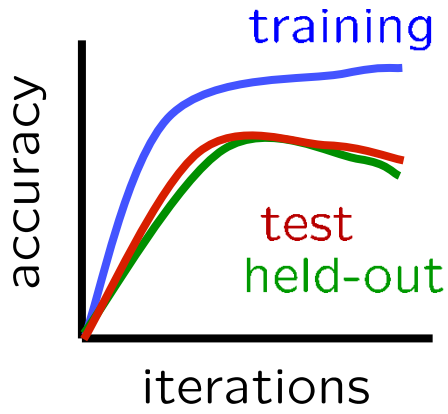


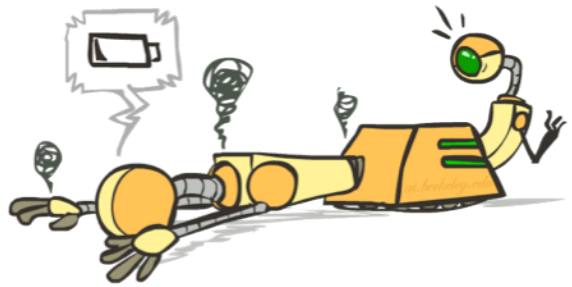


- Mediocre generalization: finds a "barely" separating solution



- Overtraining: test / held-out accuracy usually rises, then falls
  - Overtraining is a kind of overfitting





Fixing the Perceptron

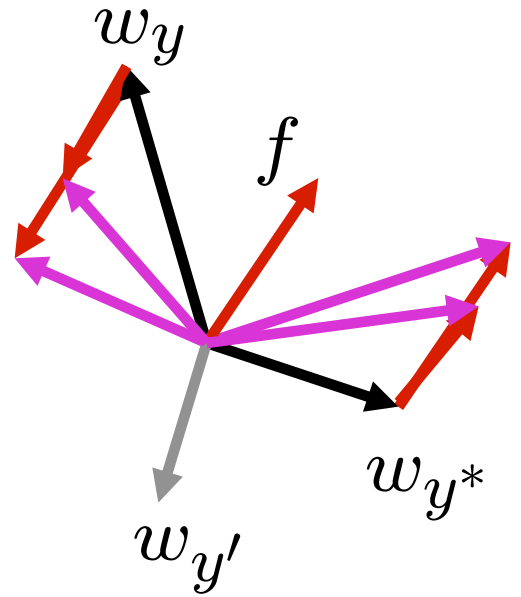
- Idea: adjust the weight update to mitigate these effects

- MIRA*: choose an update size that fixes the current mistake…
- … but, minimizes the change to w

$$\min_w \frac{1}{2} \sum_y ||w_y - w'_y||^2$$

$$w_{y^*} \cdot f(x) \geq w_y \cdot f(x) + 1$$

- The +1 helps to generalize



Guessed y instead of y^* on example x with features $f(x)$

$$w_y = w'_y - \tau f(x)$$
$$w_{y^*} = w'_{y^*} + \tau f(x)$$

* Margin Infused Relaxed Algorithm

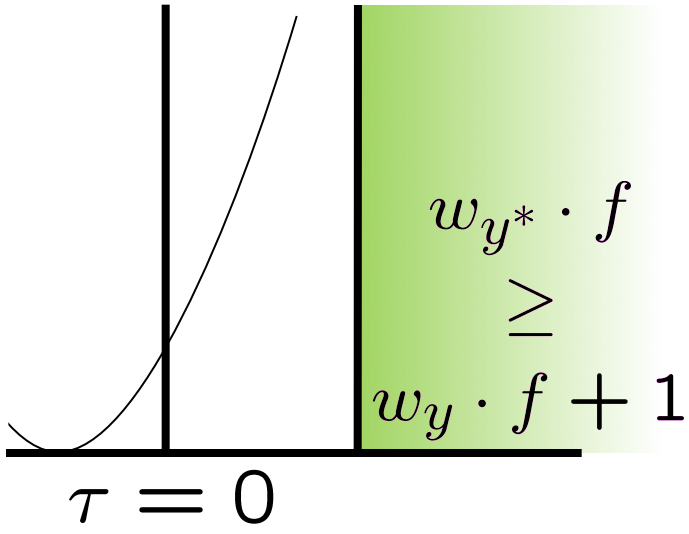
Minimum Correcting Update

$$\min_w \frac{1}{2}\sum_y ||w_y - w'_y||^2$$
$$w_{y^*} \cdot f \geq w_y \cdot f + 1$$

$$\min_\tau ||\tau f||^2$$
$$w_{y^*} \cdot f \geq w_y \cdot f + 1$$

$$(w'_{y^*} + \tau f) \cdot f = (w'_y - \tau f) \cdot f + 1$$
$$\tau = \frac{(w'_y - w'_{y^*}) \cdot f + 1}{2f \cdot f}$$

$$w_y = w'_y - \tau f(x)$$
$$w_{y^*} = w'_{y^*} + \tau f(x)$$

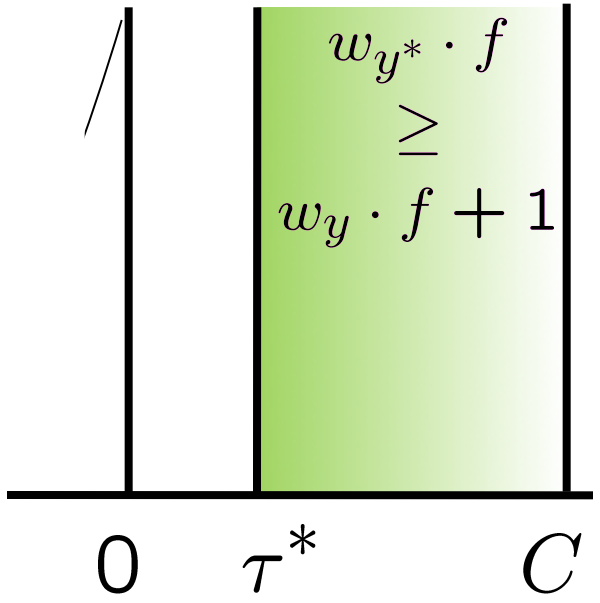


min not ? =0, or would not have made an error, so min will be where equality holds

Maximum Step Size

- In practice, it's also bad to make updates that are too large
  - Example may be labeled incorrectly
  - You may not have enough features
  - Solution: cap the maximum possible value of [?] with some constant C

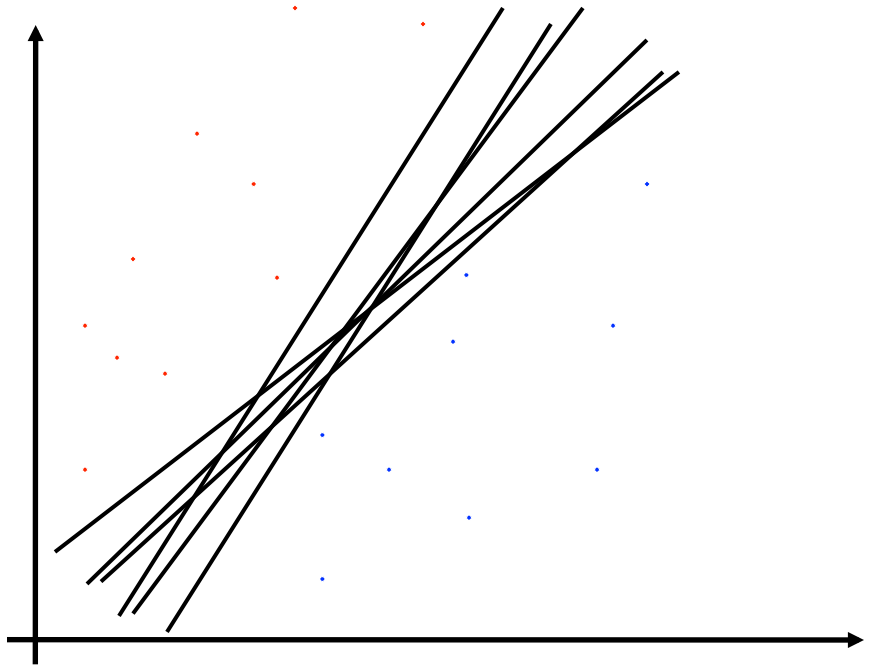
$$\tau^* = \min\left(\frac{(w'_y - w'_{y^*}) \cdot f + 1}{2f \cdot f}, C\right)$$



  - Corresponds to an optimization that assumes non-separable data
  - Usually converges faster than perceptron
  - Usually better, especially on noisy data

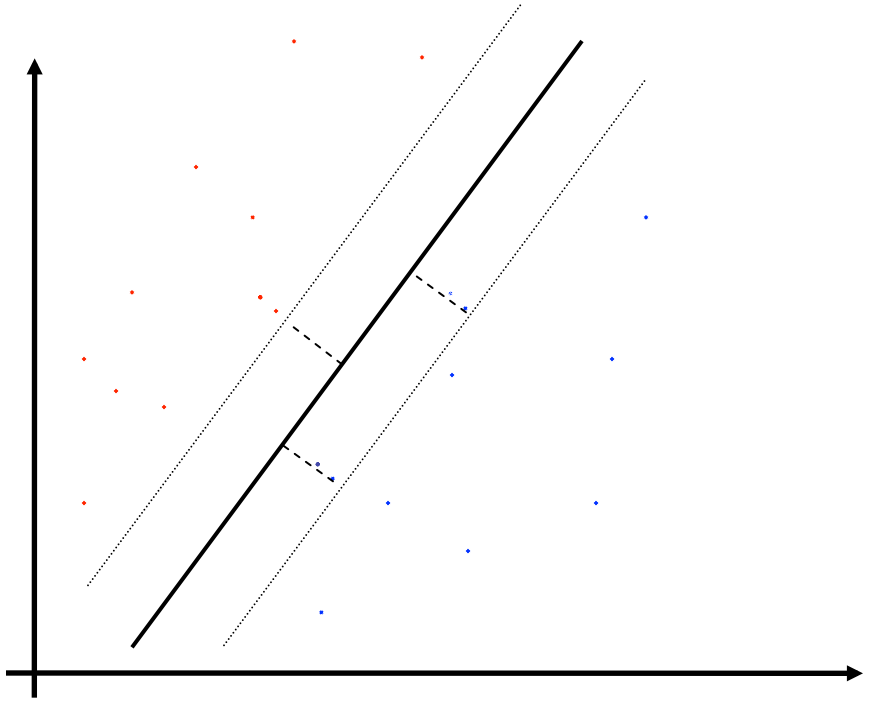
Linear Separators

- Which of these linear separators is optimal?



Support Vector Machines

- Maximizing the margin: good according to intuition, theory, practice
- Only support vectors matter; other training examples are ignorable
- Support vector machines (SVMs) find the separator with max margin
- Basically, SVMs are MIRA where you optimize over all examples at once



MIRA

$$\min_{w} \frac{1}{2}||w - w'||^2$$

$$w_{y^*} \cdot f(x_i) \geq w_y \cdot f(x_i) + 1$$

SVM

$$\min_{w} \frac{1}{2}||w||^2$$

$$\forall i, y \; w_{y^*} \cdot f(x_i) \geq w_y \cdot f(x_i) + 1$$

Classification: Comparison

- Naïve Bayes
  - Builds a model training data
  - Gives prediction probabilities
  - Strong assumptions about feature independence
  - One pass through data (counting)

- Perceptrons / MIRA:
  - Makes less assumptions about data
  - Mistake-driven learning
  - Multiple passes through data (prediction)
  - Often more accurate