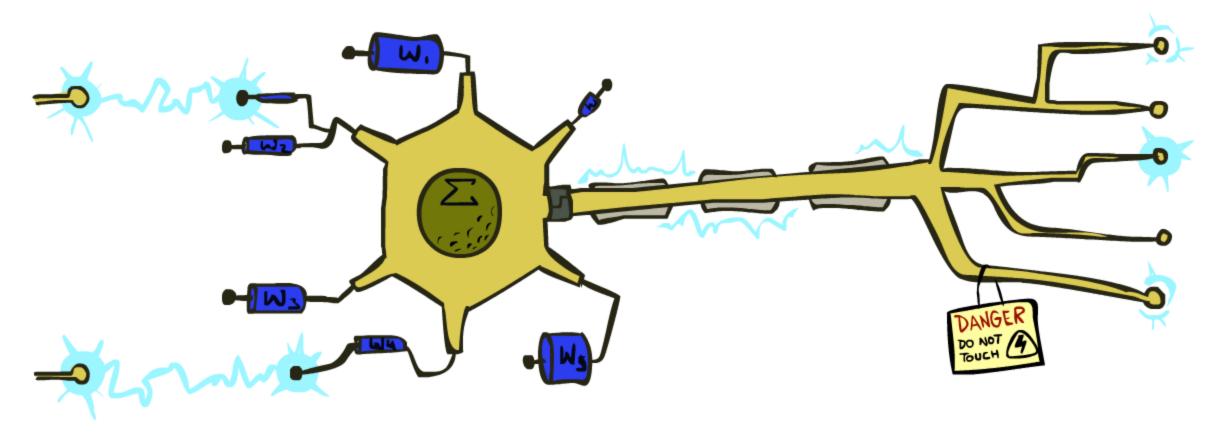
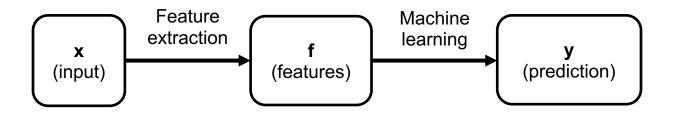
CS 188: Artificial Intelligence Naïve Bayes and Perceptrons



[These slides were created by Dan Klein, Pieter Abbeel, Anca Dragan, Sergey Levine. All CS188 materials are at http://ai.berkeley.edu.]

Last Time

- Classification: given inputs x, predict labels (classes) y
 - Convert input x into a collection of *features* f_1, \dots, f_n





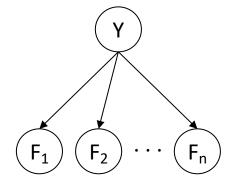
Last Time

- Naïve Bayes model: $P(Y, F_1, ..., F_n) = P(Y) \prod_i P(F_i|Y)$
 - Features and label are random variables
 - Input features F₁, ..., F_n are conditionally independent given label Y
 - Parameters θ : probability tables P(Y), $P(F_1|Y)$, ..., $P(F_n|Y)$
- Classification is inference in a Bayes Net:
 - Inference by enumeration
 - Given features f₁, ..., f_n probability over class labels is:

$$P(Y|f_1, \dots, f_n) \propto P(Y, f_1, \dots, f_n) = P(Y) \prod_i P(f_i|Y)$$

Enumerate over every label y:

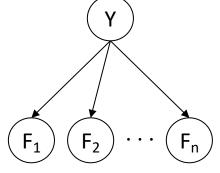
$$\begin{bmatrix} P(y_1) \prod_i P(f_i|y_1) \\ P(y_2) \prod_i P(f_i|y_2) \\ \vdots \\ P(y_k) \prod_i P(f_i|y_k) \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{Normalize}} \begin{bmatrix} P(y_1|f_1 \dots f_n) \\ P(y_2|f_1 \dots f_n) \\ \vdots \\ P(y_k|f_1 \dots f_n) \end{bmatrix}$$



Last Time

- *Naïve Bayes* model: $P(Y, F_1, ..., F_n) = P(Y) \prod_i P(F_i|Y)$
 - Features and label are random variables
 - Input features F_1, \ldots, F_n are conditionally independent given label Y
 - Parameters θ : probability tables P(Y), $P(F_1|Y)$, ..., $P(F_n|Y)$
- Learn parameters by counting:

•
$$P(\text{observing } x) = \frac{\# \text{ of times } x \text{ occured}}{\text{total } \# \text{ of events}}$$

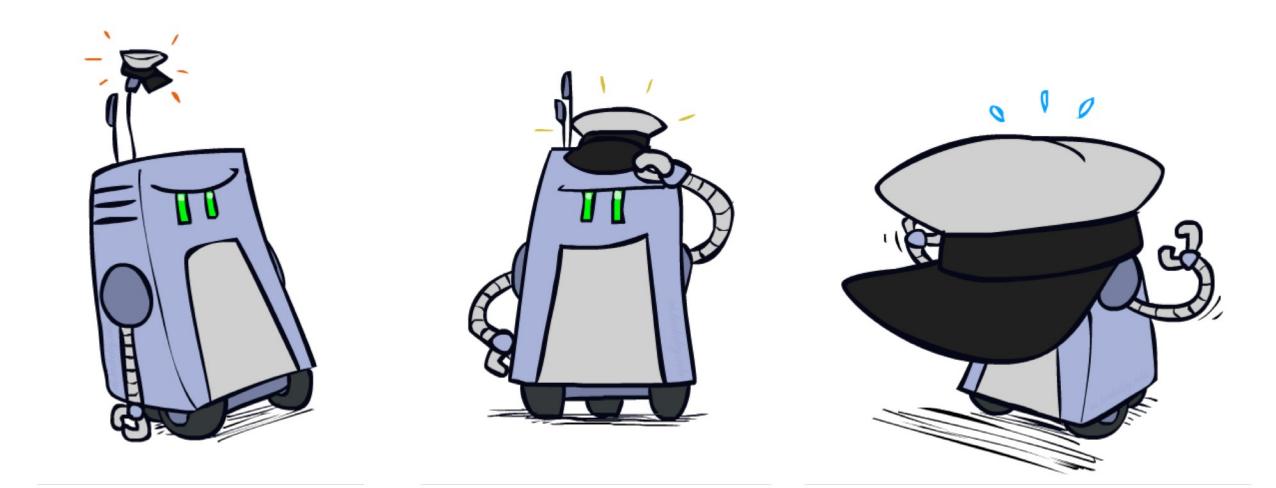


For example: **r b**
$$P(\text{red}) = \frac{2}{3}$$

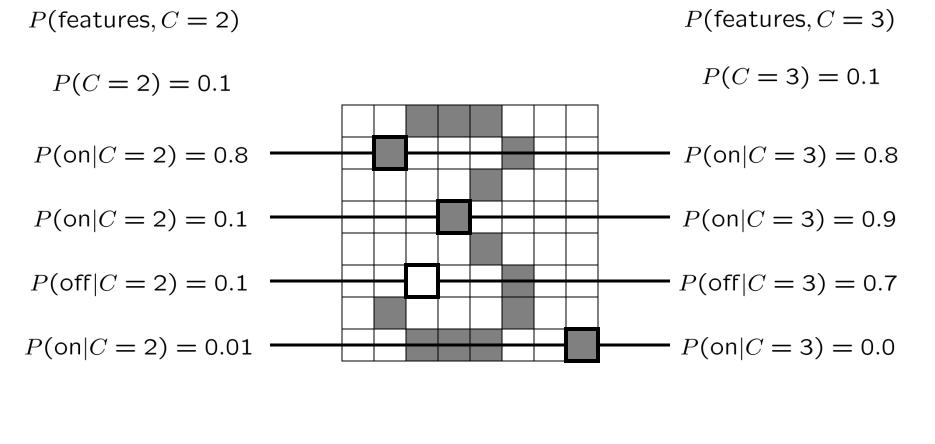
- Comes from *Maximum Likelihood* estimation: find θ that maximizes P(observations| θ)
 - = argmax $P(\text{observations}|\theta)$
 - Take derivative and set to 0
 - In practice, maximize log P instead because derivatives are easier
- In general for Naïve Bayes maximum likelihood estimates of probability tables are:

 $P(y) = \frac{\text{\# of occurrences of class } y}{\text{total \# of observations}}$ $P(f \mid y) = \frac{\text{\# of occurrences of feature } f \text{ and class } y}{\text{total \# of occurrences of class } y}$

Underfitting and Overfitting



Example: Overfitting



2 wins!!

Example: Overfitting

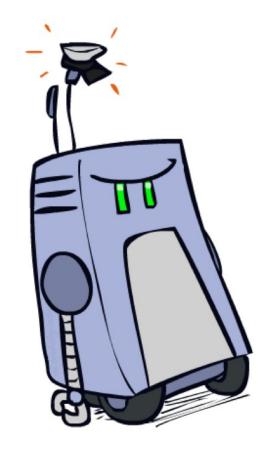
relative probabilities (odds ratios):

P(W	ham)
$\overline{P(W }$	spam)

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

P(W spam)
P(W ham)

screens	•	inf
minute	:	inf
guaranteed	:	inf
\$205.00	:	inf
delivery	:	inf
signature	:	inf
• • •		

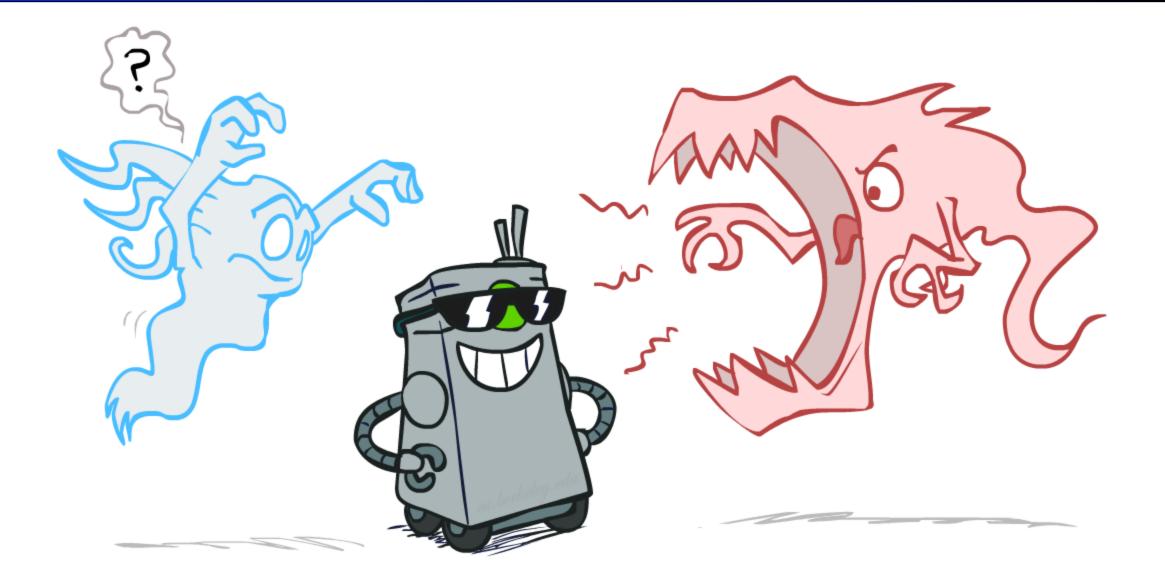


What went wrong here?

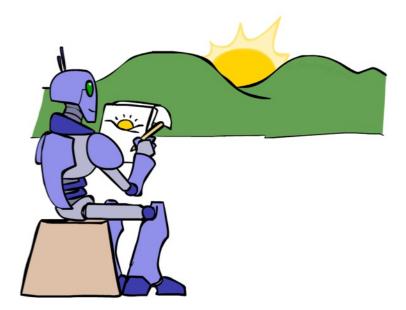
Generalization and Overfitting

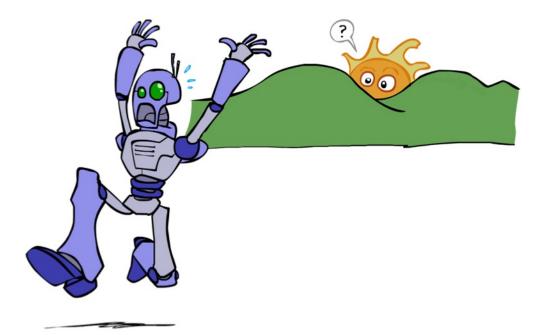
- Relative frequency parameters will overfit the training data!
 - Just because we never saw a 3 with pixel (15,15) on during training doesn't mean we won't see it at test time
 - Unlikely that every occurrence of "minute" is 100% spam
 - Unlikely that every occurrence of "seriously" is 100% ham
 - What 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

Smoothing



Unseen Events





Laplace Smoothing

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

$$P_{LAP}(x) = \frac{c(x) + 1}{\sum_{x} [c(x) + 1]}$$
$$= \frac{c(x) + 1}{N + |X|}$$

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

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

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

r r b

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

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

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

Real NB: Smoothing

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

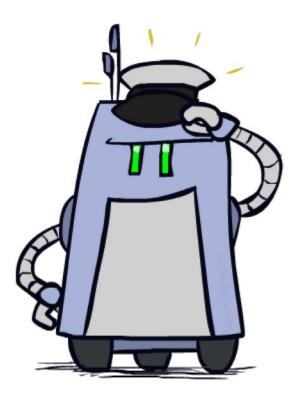
 $rac{P(W| extsf{spam})}{P(W| extsf{ham})}$

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

P(W|ham)

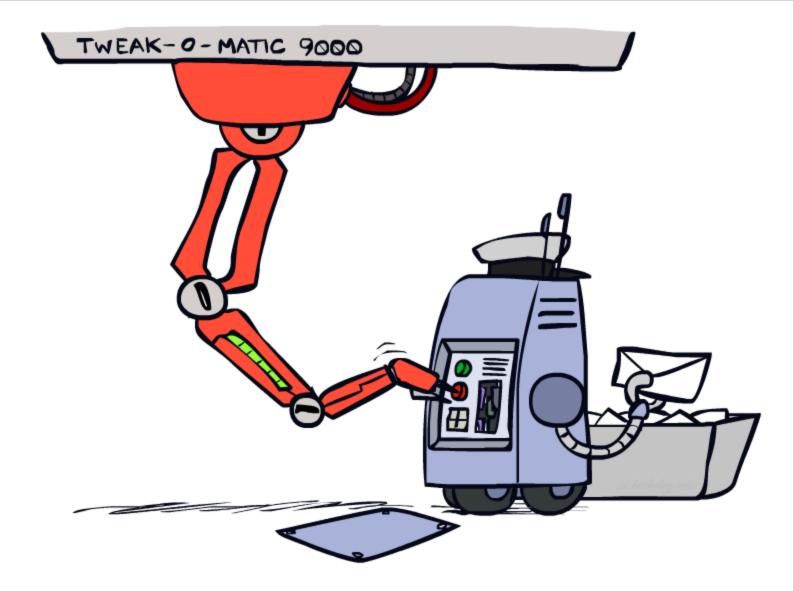
 $\overline{P(W|spam)}$

verdana	:	28.8
Credit	•	28.4
ORDER	•	27.2
	:	26.9
money	•	26.5
• • •		



Do these make more sense?

Tuning



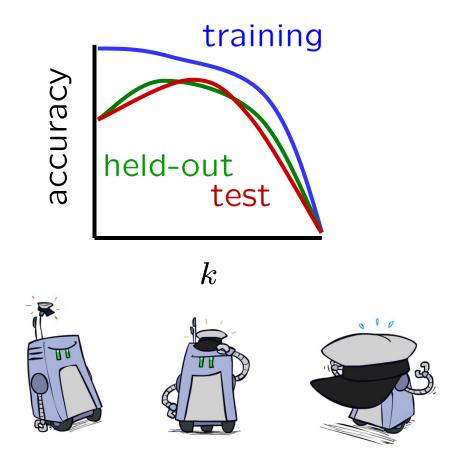
Tuning on Held-Out Data

Now we've got two kinds of unknowns

- Parameters: the probabilities P(X|Y), P(Y)
- Hyperparameters: e.g. the amount of smoothing k

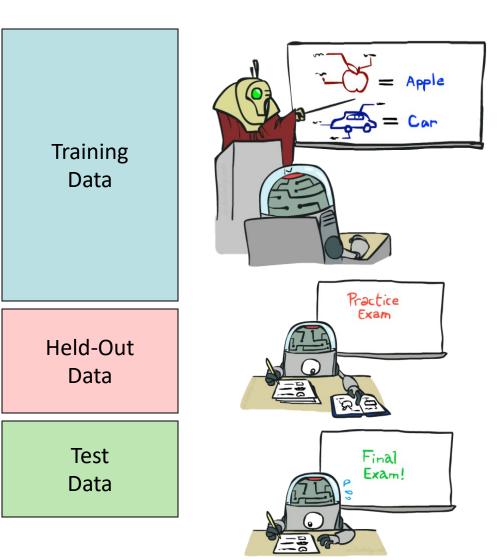
What should we learn where?

- 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



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 input
- Experimentation cycle
 - Learn parameters (e.g. model probabilities) on training set
 - (Tune hyperparameters on held-out set)
 - Compute accuracy on 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
 - <u>Overfitting</u>: fitting the training data very closely, but not generalizing well
 - Underfitting: fits the training set poorly

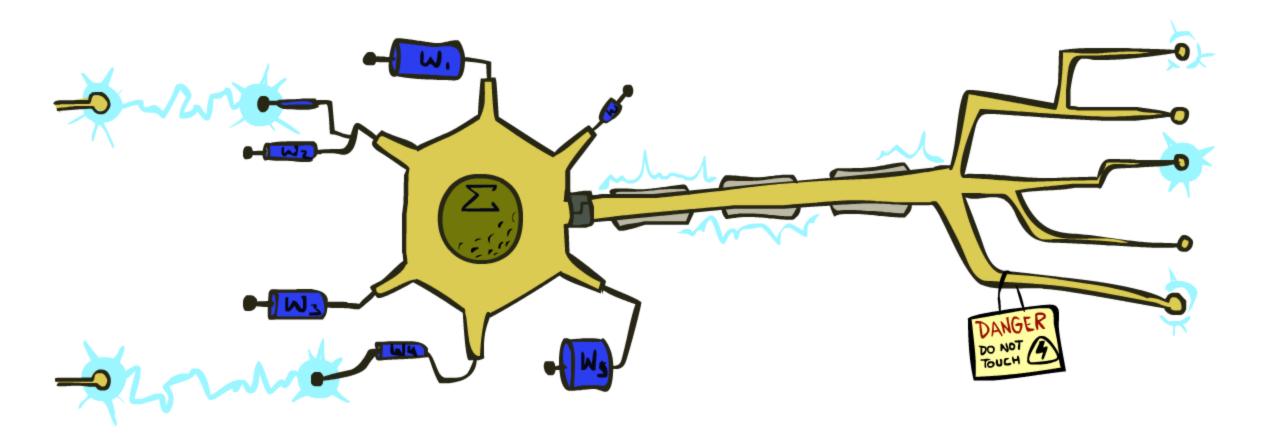


Practical Tip: Baselines

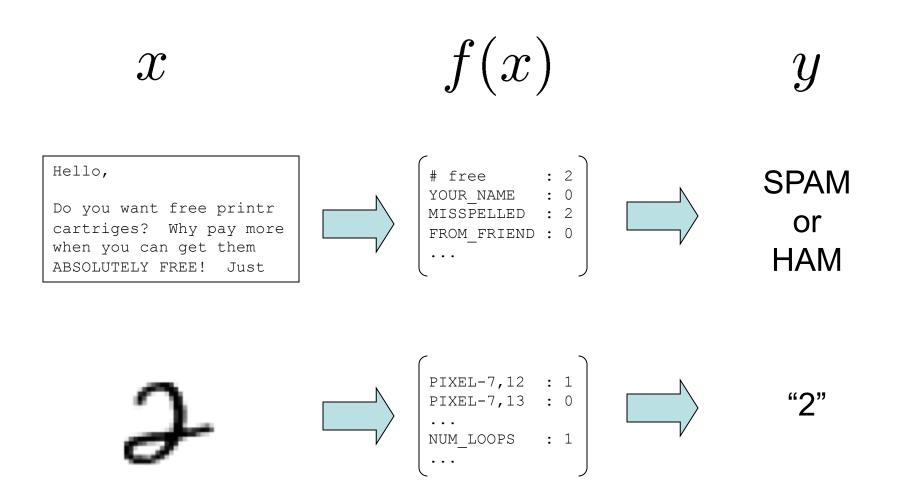
• First step: get a baseline

- 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

Perceptrons

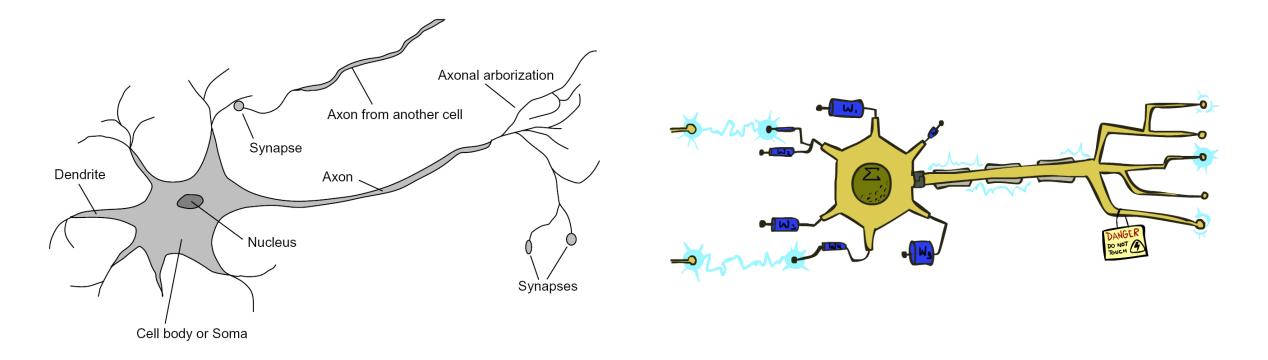


Feature Vectors



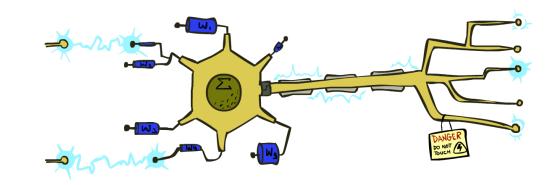
Some (Simplified) Biology

Very loose inspiration: human neurons



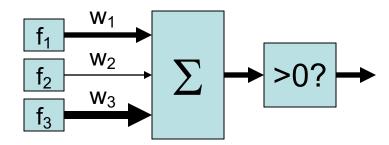
Linear Classifiers

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



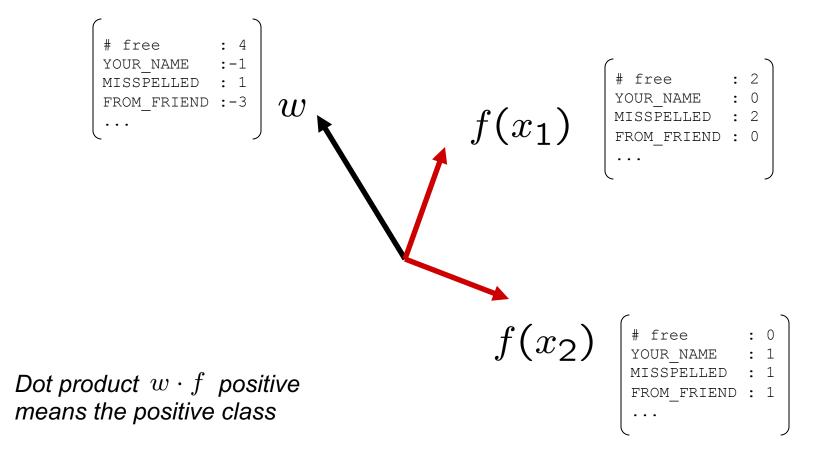
activation_w(x) =
$$\sum_{i} w_i \cdot f_i(x) = w \cdot f(x)$$

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

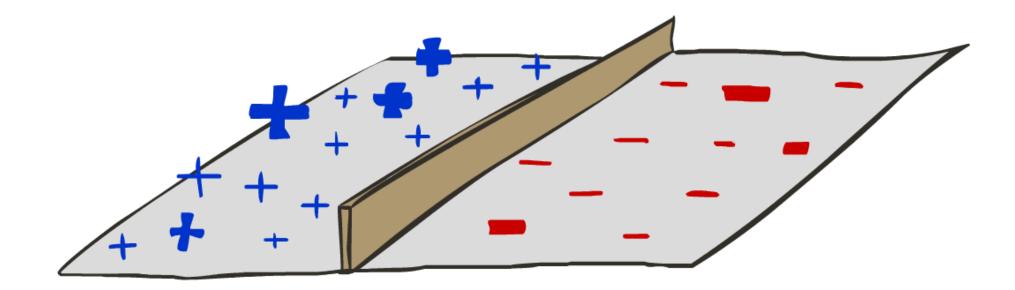


Weights

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



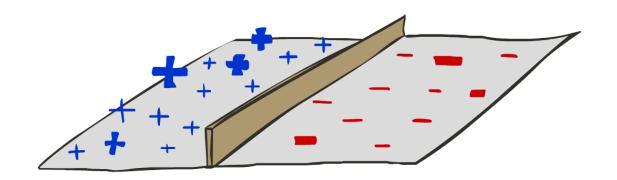
Decision Rules

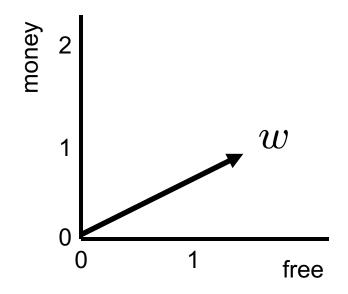


Binary Decision Rule

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

free	:	4
money	:	2

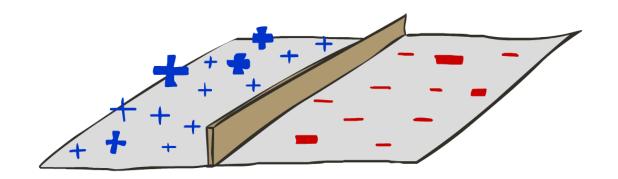


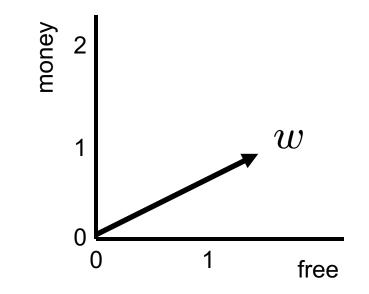


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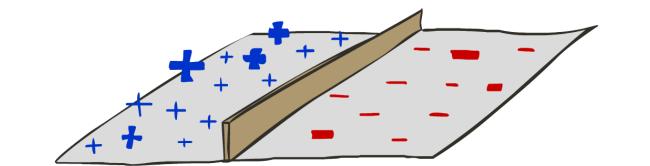
BIAS	:	-3
free	•	4
money	:	2
• • •		

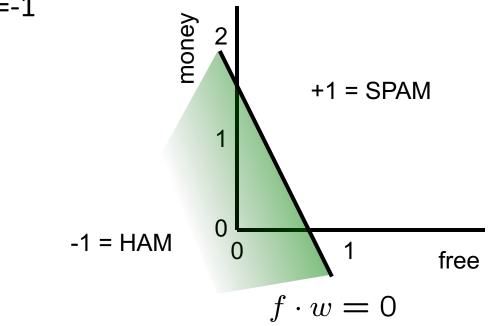




Binary Decision Rule

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BIAS	:	-3
free	:	4
money	:	2
•••		

Weight Updates

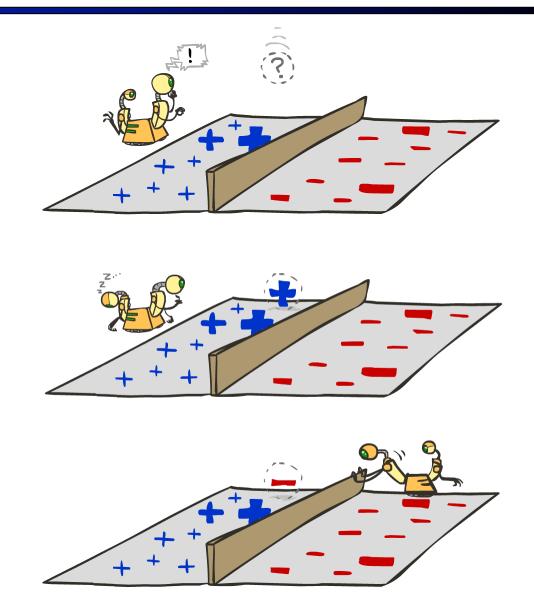


Learning: Binary Perceptron

- Start with weights w = 0
- For each training instance f(x), y*:
 - Classify with current weights

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

If wrong: adjust the weight vector



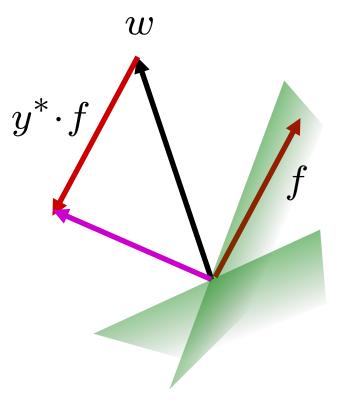
Learning: Binary Perceptron

- Start with weights w = 0
- For each training instance f(x), y*:
 - Classify with current weights

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

- 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.

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



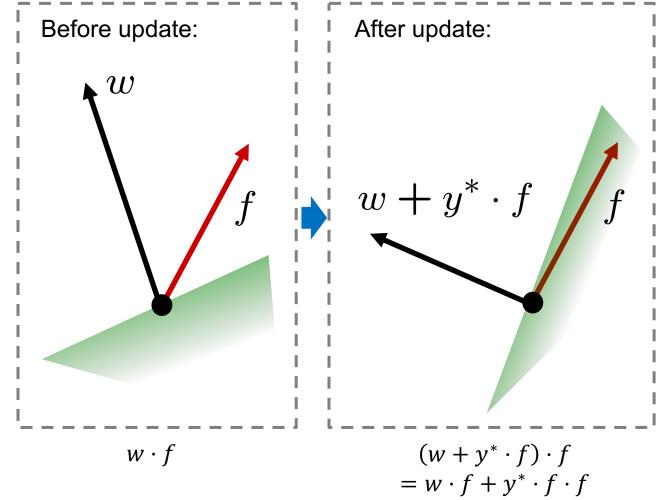
Learning: Binary Perceptron

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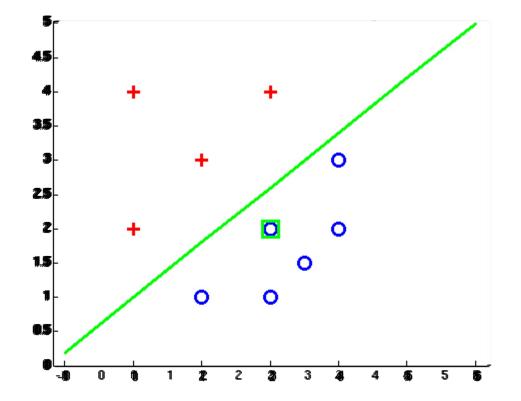
Example: Perceptron

Iteration 0:	х:	"win	the	vote"	f(x):	[1 1	0	1	1]	у *:	-1
Iteration 1:	х:	"win	the	election"	f(x):	[1 1	0	0	1]	У*:	-1
Iteration 2:	х:	"win	the	game"	f(x):	[1 1	1	0	1]	У*:	+1
Iteration 3:	х:	"win	the	game"	f(x):	[1 1	1	0	1]	у*:	+1

BIAS	1	0	0	1	
win	0	-1	-1	0	
game	0	0	0	1	
vote	0	-1	-1	-1	
the	0	-1	-1	0	
$w \cdot f(x)$:	1	-2	-2	2	

Example: Perceptron

Separable Case



Multiclass Decision Rule

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

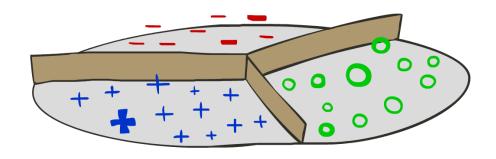
 w_y

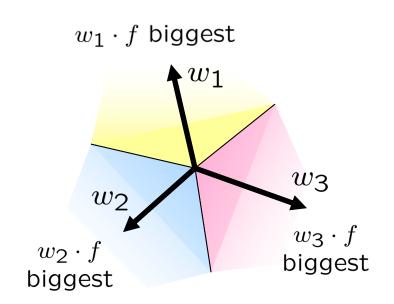
Score (activation) of a class y:

 $w_y \cdot f(x)$

Prediction highest score wins

$$y = \underset{y}{\operatorname{arg\,max}} w_y \cdot f(x)$$





Binary = multiclass where the negative class has weight zero

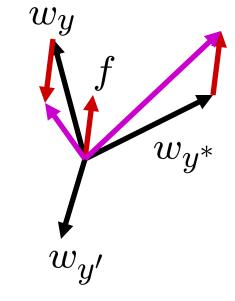
Learning: Multiclass Perceptron

- Start with all weights = 0
- Pick up training examples f(x), y* 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

 Iteration 0: x: "win the vote"
 f(x): [1 1 0 1 1]
 y*: politics

 Iteration 1: x: "win the election"
 f(x): [1 1 0 0 1]
 y*: politics

 Iteration 2: x: "win the game"
 f(x): [1 1 0 1]
 y*: sports

w_{SPORTS}

	BIAS	1	0	0	1
	win	0	-1	-1	0
	game	0	0	0	1
	vote	0	-1	-1	-1
	the	0	-1	-1	0
۱	$w \cdot f(x)$:	1	-2	-2	

$w_{POLITICS}$

BIAS () $\left(\right)$ 1 win 0 1 $\left(\right)$ $\left(\right)$ $\left(\right)$ \cap -1 qame 1 vote $\left(\right)$ 1 the 0 1 $\left(\right)$ $w \cdot f(x)$: 0 3 3

w_{TECH}

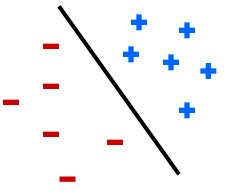
BIAS	0	0	0	0
win	0	0	0	0
game	0	0	0	0
vote	0	0	0	0
the	0	0	0	0

 $w \cdot f(x): 0 \quad 0 \quad 0$

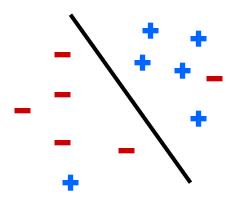
Properties of Perceptrons

- 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





Non-Separable

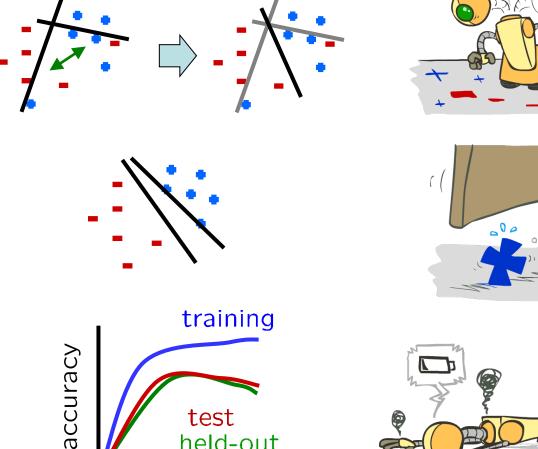


Problems with the Perceptron

- 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

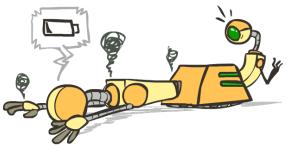
- Overtraining: test / held-out accuracy usually rises, then falls
 - Overtraining is a kind of overfitting



test

iterations

held-out



Next Lecture: Improving Perceptron & Optimization