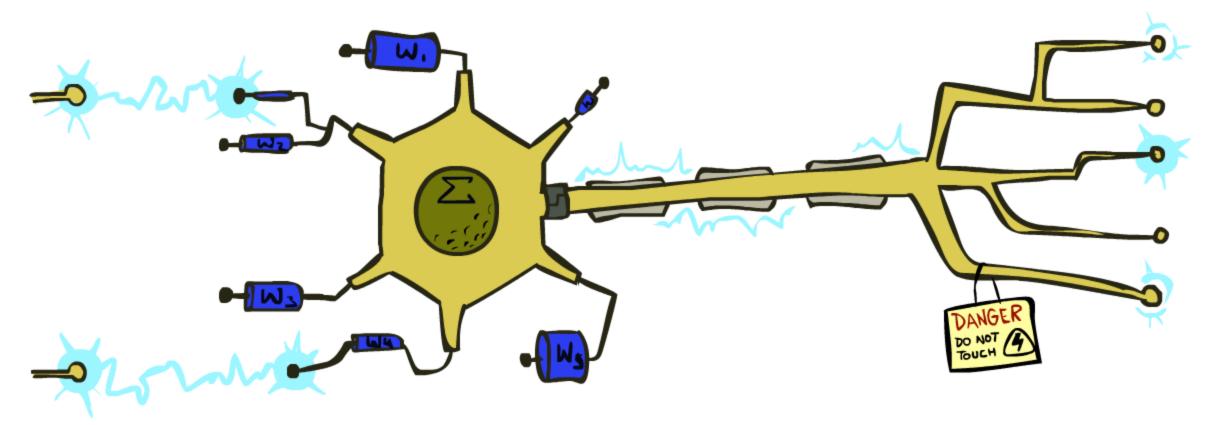
CS 188: Artificial Intelligence Naïve Bayes, Perceptrons



Instructors: Angela Liu and Yanlai Yang

University of California, Berkeley

(Slides adapted from Pieter Abbeel, Dan Klein, Anca Dragan, Stuart Russell and Dawn Song)

Last Time

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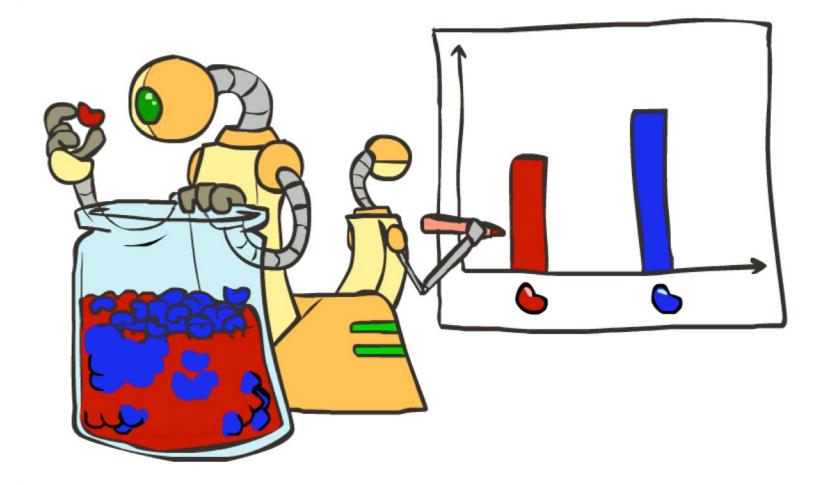
F₁

- Classification: given inputs x predict labels (classes) y
- Naïve Bayes

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



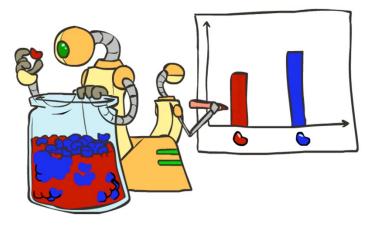
Parameter Estimation



- Estimating the distribution of a random variable
 - E.g.: for each outcome x, look at the *empirical rate* of that value:

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

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



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

$$L(x,\theta) = \prod_{i} P_{\theta}(x_{i}) = \theta \cdot \theta \cdot (1-\theta)$$

$$P_{\theta}(x = \text{red}) = \theta$$

$$P_{\theta}(x = \text{blue}) = 1-\theta$$

- **Data:** Observed set *D* of $\alpha_{\rm H}$ Heads and $\alpha_{\rm T}$ Tails
- Hypothesis space: Binomial distributions
- **Learning:** finding θ is an optimization problem
 - What's the objective function? $P(\mathcal{D} \mid \theta) = \theta^{\alpha_H} (1 - \theta)^{\alpha_T}$
- MLE: Choose θ to maximize probability of *D*

$$\widehat{\theta} = \arg \max_{\substack{\theta \\ \theta}} P(\mathcal{D} \mid \theta)$$
$$= \arg \max_{\substack{\theta \\ \theta}} \ln P(\mathcal{D} \mid \theta)$$

$$\hat{\theta} = \arg \max_{\theta} \ln P(\mathcal{D} \mid \theta)$$

$$= \arg \max_{\theta} \ln \theta^{\alpha_{H}} (1-\theta)^{\alpha_{T}}$$
• Set derivative to zero, and solve!
$$\frac{d}{d\theta} \ln P(\mathcal{D} \mid \theta) = \frac{d}{d\theta} [\ln \theta^{\alpha_{H}} (1-\theta)^{\alpha_{T}}]$$

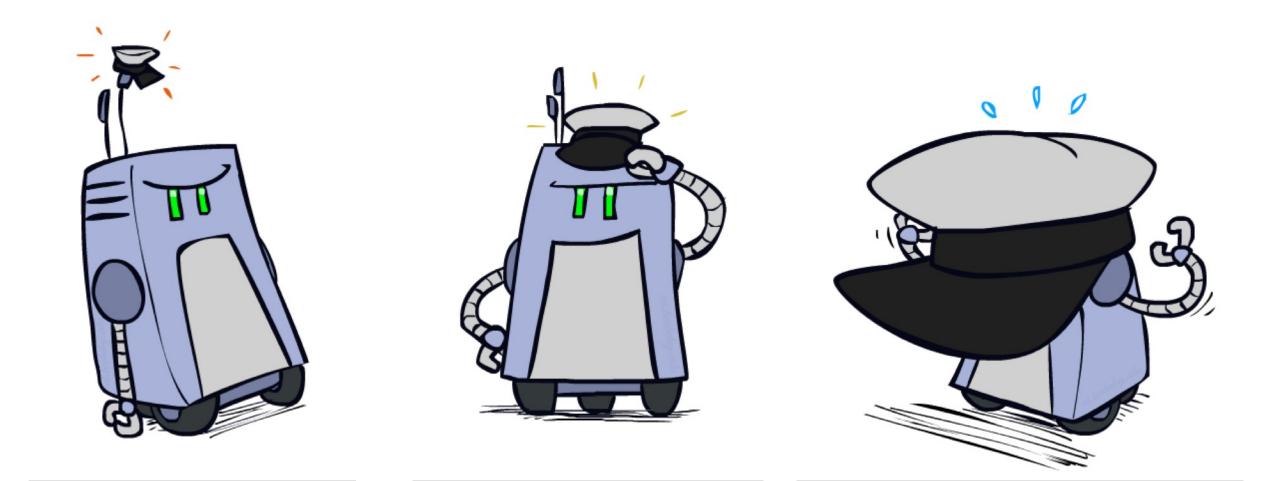
$$= \frac{d}{d\theta} [\alpha_{H} \ln \theta + \alpha_{T} \ln(1-\theta)]$$

$$= \alpha_{H} \frac{d}{d\theta} \ln \theta + \alpha_{T} \frac{d}{d\theta} \ln(1-\theta)$$

$$= \frac{\alpha_{H}}{\theta} - \frac{\alpha_{T}}{1-\theta} = 0 \qquad \hat{\theta}_{MLE} = \frac{\alpha_{H}}{\alpha_{H} + \alpha_{T}}$$

- How do we estimate the conditional probability tables?
 - Maximum Likelihood, which corresponds to counting
- Need to be careful though ... let's see what can go wrong..

Underfitting and Overfitting

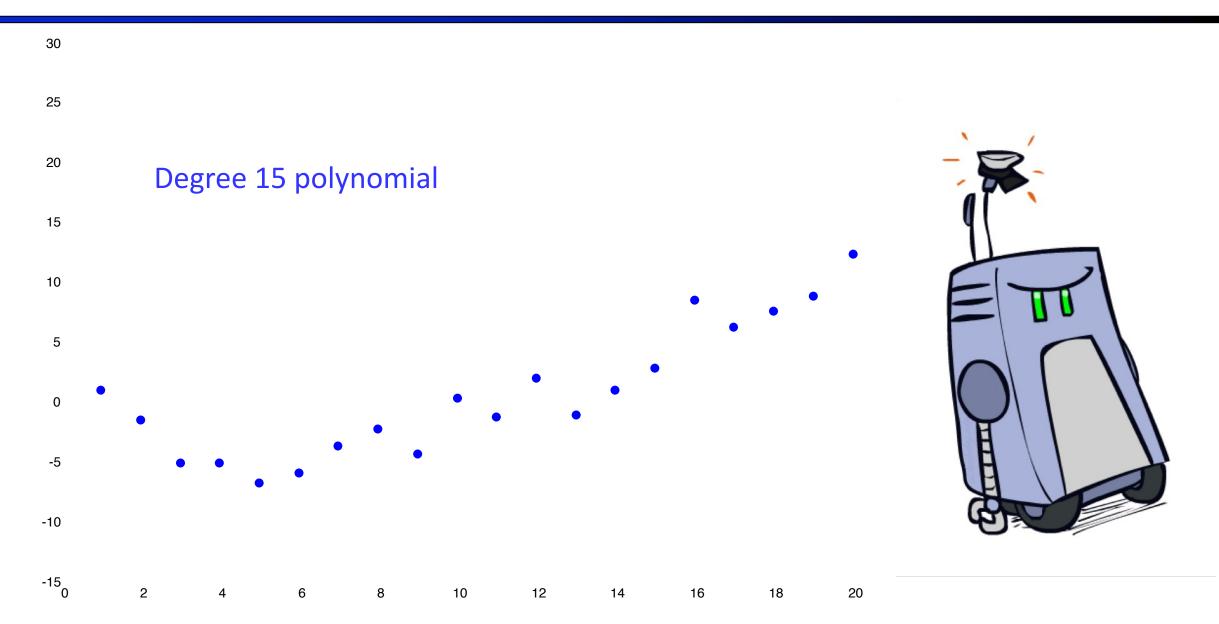


Example: Overfitting

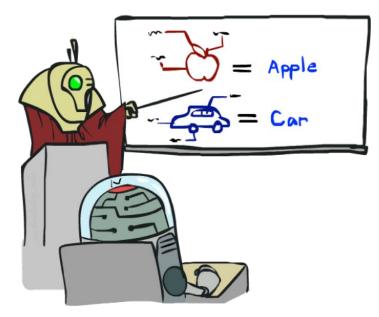
P(features, C = 2)P(features, C = 3)P(C = 3) = 0.1P(C = 2) = 0.1P(on|C=2) = 0.8- P(on|C = 3) = 0.8P(on|C=2) = 0.1- P(on|C = 3) = 0.9-P(off|C=3)=0.7P(off|C = 2) = 0.1P(on|C = 2) = 0.01 -- P(on|C = 3) = 0.0

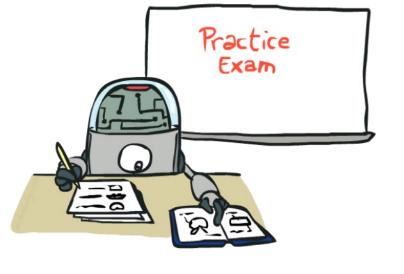
2 wins!!

Overfitting



Training and Testing

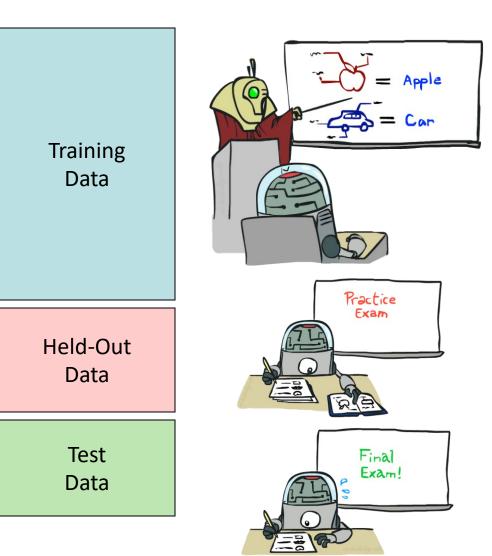






Important Concepts

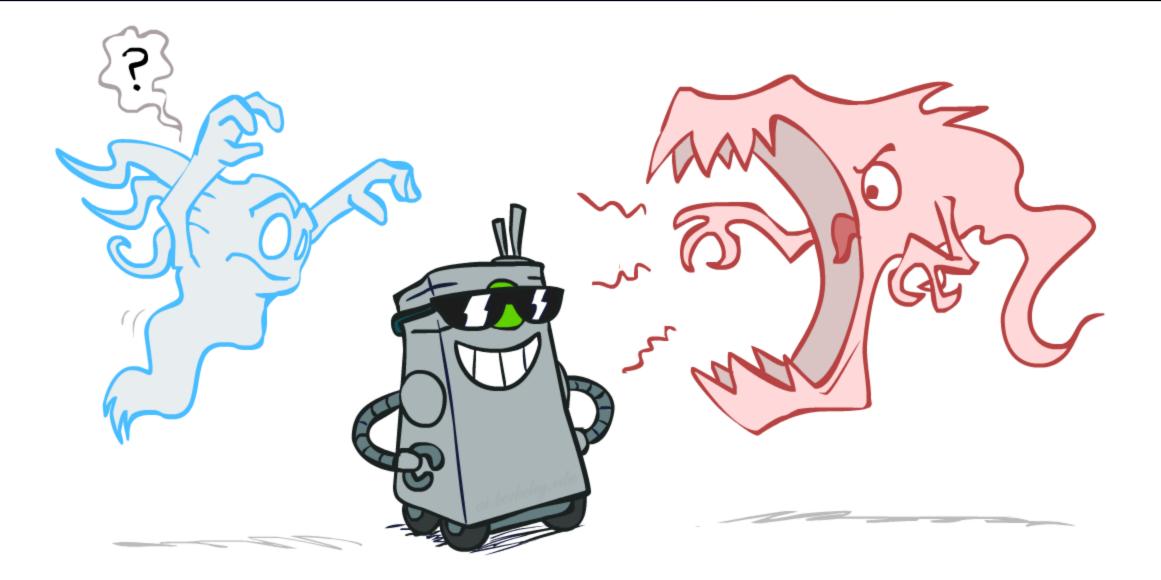
- Data: labeled instances, e.g. emails marked spam/ham
 - Training set
 - Held out set
 - Test set
- Features: attribute-value pairs which characterize each x
- Experimentation cycle
 - Learn parameters (e.g. model probabilities) on training set
 - (Tune hyperparameters on held-out set)
 - Compute accuracy 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
 - <u>Underfitting</u>: fits the training set poorly



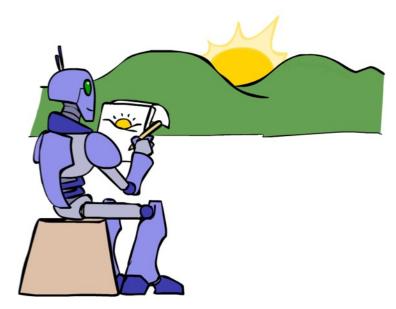
Generalization and Overfitting

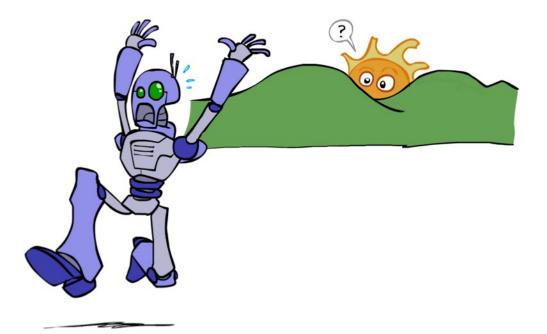
- Relative frequency parameters will **overfit** the training data!
 - Just because we never saw a 3 with pixel (15,15) on during training doesn't mean we won't see it at test time
 - Unlikely that every occurrence of "minute" is 100% spam
 - Unlikely that every occurrence of "seriously" is 100% ham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

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

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

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

 Can derive this estimate with Dirichlet priors (see cs281a)

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:

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

r r b

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

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

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

Formal Derivation

Relative frequencies are the maximum likelihood estimates

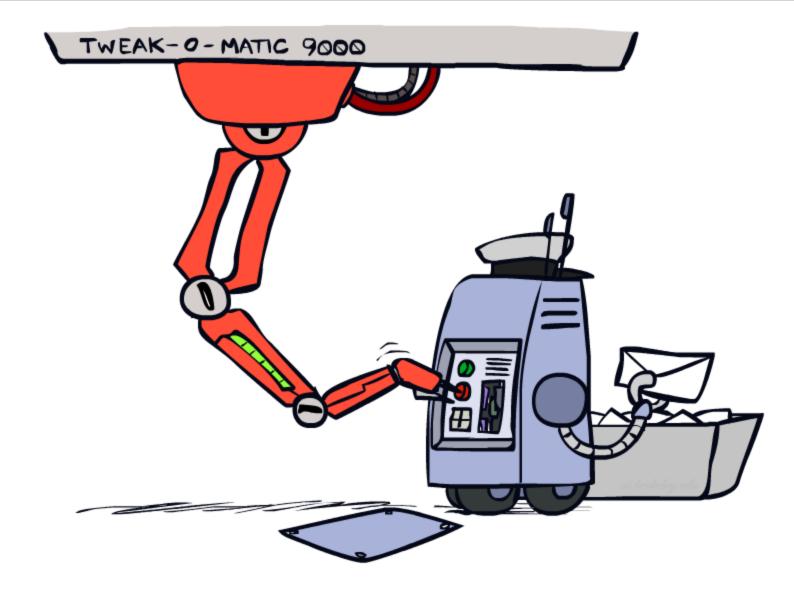
• Another option is to consider the most likely parameter value given the data

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

$$= \arg \max_{\theta} P(\mathbf{X} | \theta) P(\theta) / P(\mathbf{X}) \qquad \qquad \text{``right'' choice of P(theta)}$$

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

Tuning



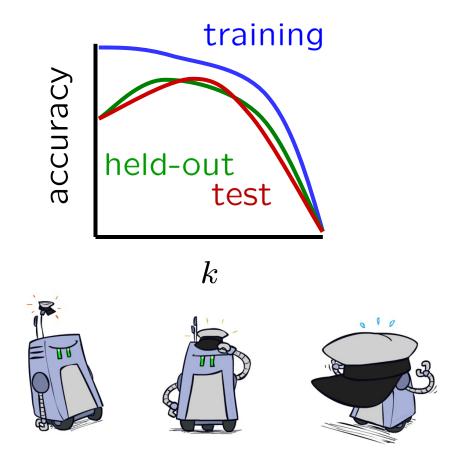
Tuning on Held-Out Data

Now we've got two kinds of unknowns

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



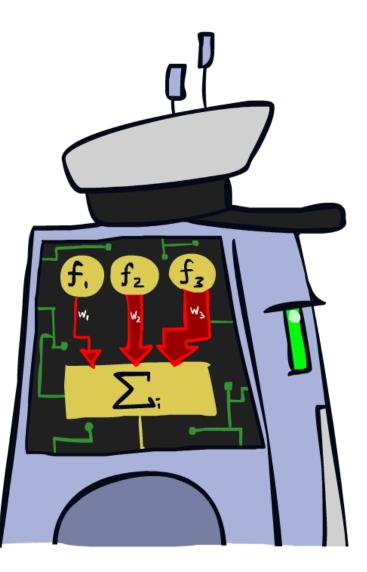
Practical Tip: Baselines

- 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

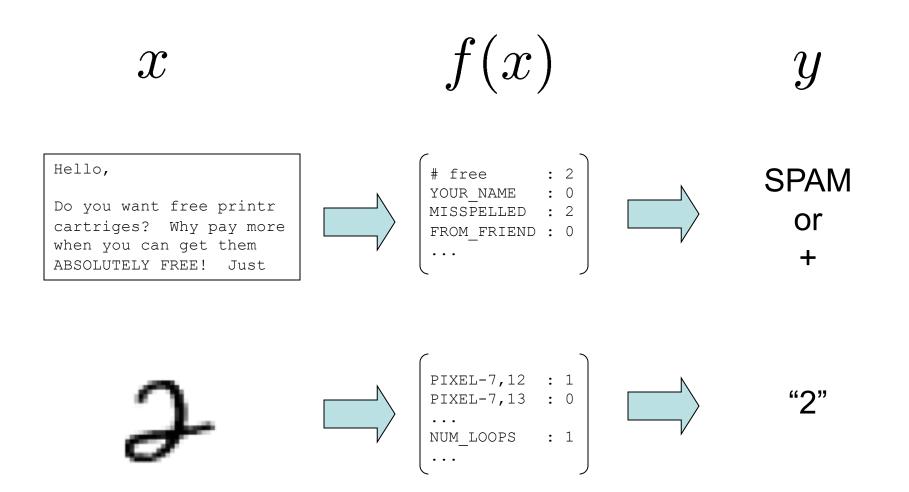
Summary

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

Linear Classifiers

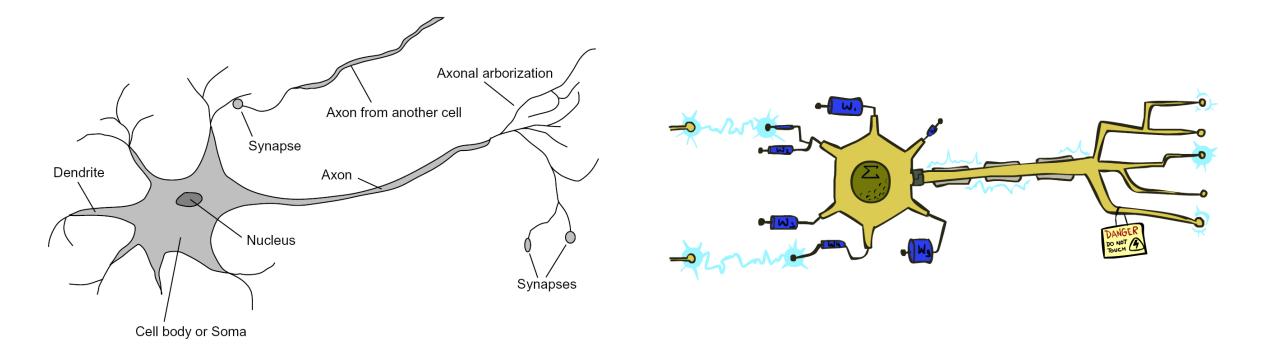


Feature Vectors



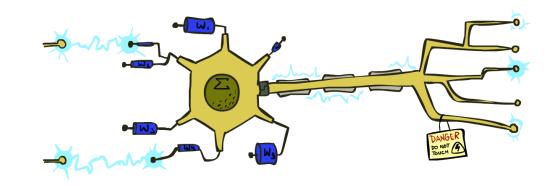
Some (Simplified) Biology

Very loose inspiration: human neurons



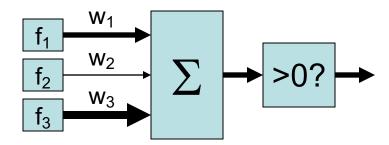
Linear Classifiers

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



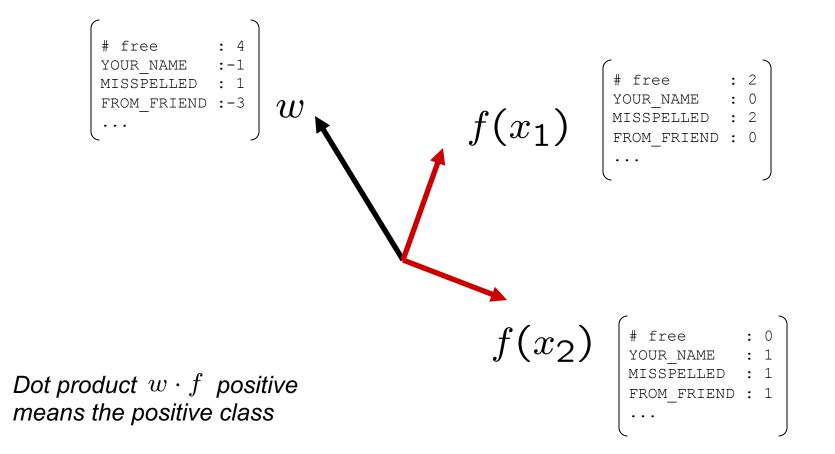
activation_w(x) =
$$\sum_{i} w_i \cdot f_i(x) = w \cdot f(x)$$

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

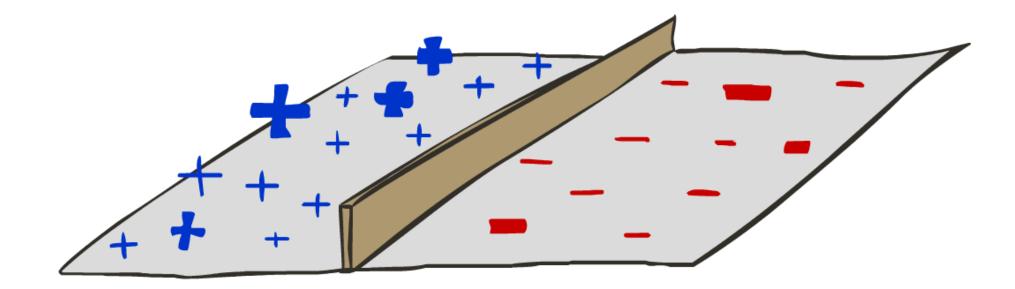


Weights

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



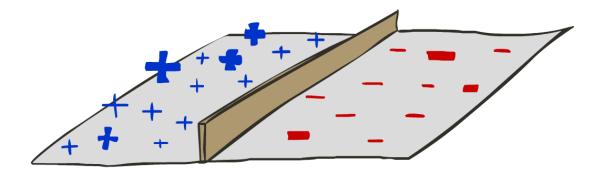
Decision Rules

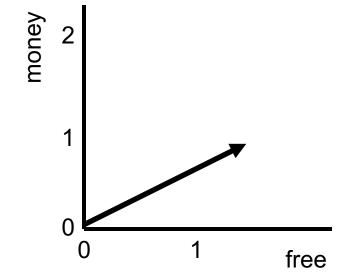


Binary Decision Rule

- 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

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money	
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BIAS

free

Binary Decision Rule

- In the space of feature vectors
 - Examples are points

w

BIAS

free

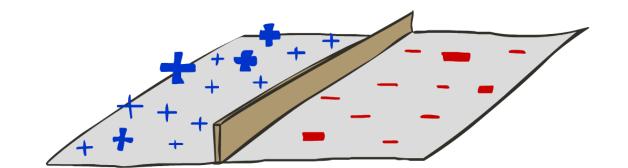
money :

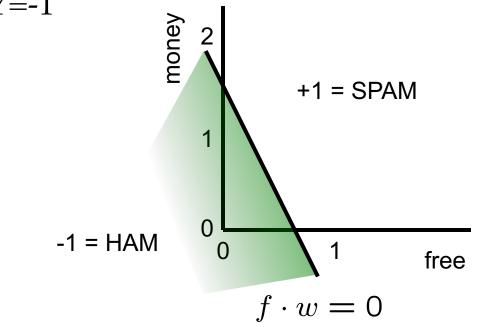
- Any weight vector is a hyperplane
- One side corresponds to Y=+1
- Other corresponds to Y=-1

-3

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Weight Updates

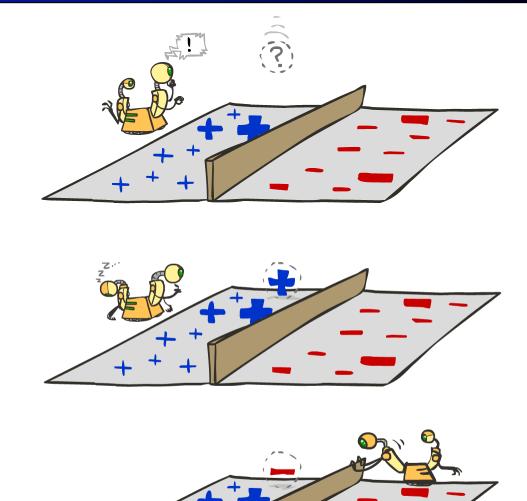


Learning: Binary Perceptron

- 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



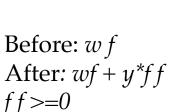
Learning: Binary Perceptron

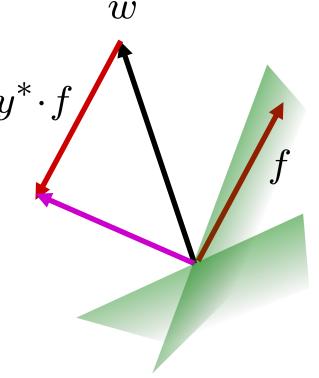
- Start with weights = 0
- For each training instance:
 - Classify with current weights

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

- 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.

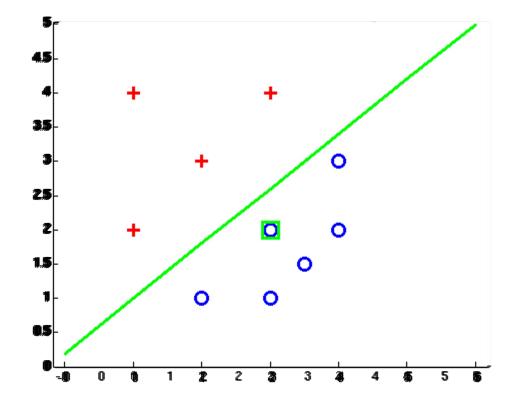
$$w = w + y^* \cdot f$$





Examples: Perceptron

Separable Case



Multiclass Decision Rule

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

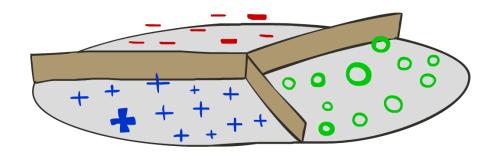
 w_y

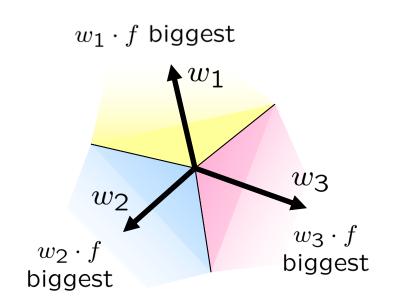
• Score (activation) of a class y:

 $w_y \cdot f(x)$

Prediction highest score wins

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





Binary = multiclass where the negative class has weight zero

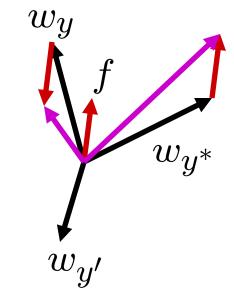
Learning: Multiclass Perceptron

- Start with all weights = 0
- Pick up training examples 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

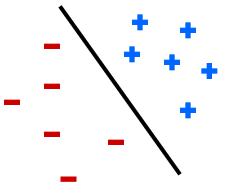
$$w_y = w_y - f(x)$$
$$w_{y^*} = w_{y^*} + f(x)$$



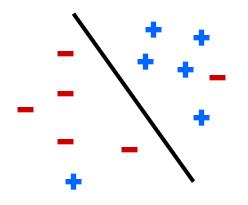
Properties of Perceptrons

- Separability: true if some parameters get the training set perfectly correct
- Convergence: if the training is separable, perceptron will eventually converge (binary case)

Separable



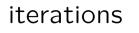
Non-Separable

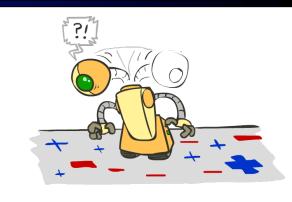


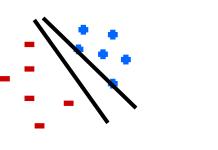
Problems with the Perceptron

- 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







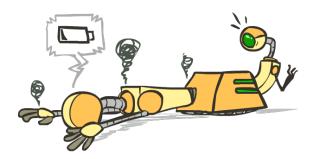


training

test

held-out





Example: Multiclass Perceptron

```
"win the vote" [1 1 0 1 1]
"win the election" [1 1 0 0 1]
"win the game" [1 1 1 0 1]
```

