Classification

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Supervised learning

Given: *Training set* {(x_i , y_i) | i = 1 ... 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: $\hat{f}(x) = \hat{y}$

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



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



BIAS	:	-3
free	:	4
money	:	2
• • •		





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

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



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













iterations

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

$$\min_{w} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{y} ||w_y - w'_y||^2$$
$$w_{y^*} \cdot f(x) \ge w_y \cdot f(x) + 1$$

- The +1 helps to generalize
- * Margin Infused Relaxed Algorithm



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

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

Minimum Correcting Update

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



min not T=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 τ 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

$$\min_{w} \frac{1}{2} ||w - w'||^2$$
$$w_{y^*} \cdot f(x_i) \ge w_y \cdot f(x_i) + 1$$

SVM

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

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

Kernels

What if the data is not linearly separable?

Consider features
$$F(x)$$
: $f_1 = x_1^2$ $f_2 = x_2^2$ $f_3 = \sqrt{2}x_1x_2$

If data is mapped to a sufficiently high-dimensional space, it is likely to become linearly separable



Kernels

Using kernels replaces x with F(x) (like typical feature expansion)

But for SVMs, this means replacing $x_j \cdot x_k$ with $F(x_j) \cdot F(x_k)$

Using *kernels functions* lets us not calculate $F(x_j)$ and replace the dot product with $K(x_j, x_k)$

In our example, $F(\mathbf{x}_j) \cdot F(\mathbf{x}_k) = K(\mathbf{x}_j, \mathbf{x}_k) = (\mathbf{x}_j \cdot \mathbf{x}_k)^2$

Note the dot product has the original dimensionality

The separator is linear in the high-dimensional space, but non-linear in the low-dimensional space

Classification: Comparison so far

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

Decision Trees

A *decision tree* represents a function that takes input as a vector of attributes and returns a single output value (which could be discrete or continuous)

General idea: make a decision by using a sequence of tests

Each internal node in the tree is a test on some input variables (e.g, features or attributes)

Each leaf is a return value

Decision tree example

Deciding to wait for a table at a restaurant (binary classification task)

Example	Attributes										
pro	Alt	Bar	Fri	Hun	Pat	Price	Rain	Res	Type	Est	WillWait
X_1	T	F	F	Т	Some	\$\$\$	F	Т	French	0–10	Т
X_2	T	F	F	Т	Full	\$	F	F	Thai	30–60	F
X_3	F	Т	F	F	Some	\$	F	F	Burger	0–10	Т
X_4	T	F	Т	Т	Full	\$	F	F	Thai	10–30	Т
X_5	T	F	Т	F	Full	\$\$\$	F	T	French	>60	F
X_6	F	Т	F	Т	Some	\$\$	T	T	Italian	0–10	Т
X_7	F	Т	F	F	None	\$	T	F	Burger	0–10	F
X_8	F	F	F	Т	Some	\$\$	T	T	Thai	0–10	Т
X_9	F	Т	Т	F	Full	\$	T	F	Burger	>60	F
X_{10}	T	Т	Т	Т	Full	\$\$\$	F	T	Italian	10–30	F
X_{11}	F	F	F	F	None	\$	F	F	Thai	0–10	F
X_{12}	T	T	Т	Т	Full	\$	F	F	Burger	30–60	Т

Decision tree example

One solution (Stuart Russell's) with Wait=T



Decision tree expressiveness

Decision trees can express any function of the input attributes

E.g., for Boolean functions, truth table row \rightarrow path to leaf (ands along path, ors over paths):



Trivially, there is a consistent decision tree for any training set w/ one path to leaf for each example (unless *f* nondeterministic in *x*) but it won't generalize well

Prefer to find more *compact* decision trees

How many distinct decision trees with *n* Boolean attributes?

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- = number of Boolean functions
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- = number of Boolean functions
- = number of distinct truth tables with 2^n rows = 2^{2^n}

E.g., with 6 Boolean attributes, there are 18,446,744,073,709,551,616 trees

More expressive hypothesis space

- increases chance that target function can be expressed (yay!)
- increases number of hypotheses consistent w/ training set (boo!)
 - \Rightarrow may get worse predictions

Can't solve this problem optimally!

Decision tree learning

Aim: find a small tree consistent with the training examples

Idea: (recursively) choose "most significant" attribute as root of (sub)tree

```
function DTL(examples, attributes, default) returns a decision tree
if examples is empty then return default
else if all examples have the same classification then return the classification
else if attributes is empty then return MODE(examples)
else
     best \leftarrow CHOOSE-ATTRIBUTE(attributes, examples)
     tree \leftarrow a new decision tree with root test best
     for each value v_i of best do
         examples_i \leftarrow \{ elements of examples with best = v_i \}
         subtree \leftarrow DTL(examples_i, attributes - best, MODE(examples))
         add a branch to tree with label v_i and subtree subtree
    return tree
```

Choosing an Attribute

Idea: a good attribute splits the examples into subsets that are (ideally) "all positive" or "all negative"



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Patrons? is a better choice—gives *information* about the classification

Information

Use information theory (in particular, *entropy* or *information gain*) to choose attributes

The more clueless I am about the answer initially, the more information is contained in the answer

Scale: 1 bit = answer to Boolean question with prior (0.5, 0.5)

Information in an answer when prior is $\langle P_1, \ldots, P_n \rangle$ is

$$H(\langle P_1, \dots, P_n \rangle) = -\sum_i P_i \log_2 P_i$$

Information

An attribute splits the examples E into subsets E_i , each of which (we hope) needs less information to complete the classification

Let E_i have p_i positive and n_i negative examples

 \Rightarrow H($\langle p_i/(p_i+n_i), n_i/(p_i+n_i) \rangle$) bits needed to classify a new example

 $\Rightarrow expected \text{ number of bits per example over all branches is} \\ \sum_{i} (p_i + n_i) / (p + n) H(\langle p_i / (p_i + n_i), n_i / (p_i + n_i) \rangle)$

For Patrons?, this is 0.459 bits, for Type this is (still) 1 bit

 \Rightarrow choose the attribute that minimizes the remaining information needed

Example

Decision tree learned from the 12 examples:



Substantially simpler than "true" tree—a more complex hypothesis isn't justified by small amount of data

Regression trees

Can split on continuous features

For regression, can generate a *regression tree* with functions of attributes at leaves

Regression trees

One method is to use *axis parallel splits* to partition the space based on each variable

Can represent function as
$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{E}[y \mid x] = \sum_{m=1}^{M} w_m \mathbb{I}(\mathbf{x} \in R_m) = \sum_{m=1}^{M} w_m \phi(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v}_m)$$

where R_m is the *mth* region w_m is the mean response for the region and v_m encodes the choice of variables and split



Generalization and overfitting

There may be many extraneous features (e.g., rolling a die when considering color, weather, size, etc.)

Decision tree algorithms can overfit in this case

Use *decision tree pruning* to reduce overfitting

Why not just stop early?

Idea: generate tree and then examine nodes from leaves to root and check with irrelevance (using information gain)

Decision tree pruning



Decision tree summary

Decision trees can be easy for humans to understand (unlike representations like neural nets)

Can mix continuous and discrete variables

Scale well to large datasets

Not as accurate as many other approaches

Tree structure can change drastically with small input changes (unstable or high variance)

Bias and Variance



Ideally, methods would have low bias and low variance, but this is difficult to attain

Bias

The bias of an estimator

$$\operatorname{bias}(\hat{\theta}(\cdot)) = \mathbb{E}_{P(D \mid \theta^*)} \left[\hat{\theta}(D) - \theta^* \right]$$

I.e., the difference between the expected and the true value

An *unbiased estimator* has a bias of 0

Bias-Variance Tradeoff

Can calculate the MSE of an estimate:

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{E}_{P(D|\theta^*)} \Big[\hat{\theta} - \theta^* \Big]^2 &= \mathbb{E} \Big[[(\hat{\theta} - \overline{\theta}) + (\overline{\theta} - \theta^*)]^2 \Big] \\ &= \mathbb{E} \Big[(\hat{\theta} - \overline{\theta})^2 \Big] + 2(\overline{\theta} - \theta^*) \mathbb{E} \Big[\hat{\theta} - \overline{\theta} \Big] + (\overline{\theta} - \theta^*)^2 \\ &= \mathbb{E} \Big[(\hat{\theta} - \overline{\theta})^2 \Big] + (\overline{\theta} - \theta^*)^2 \end{split}$$

So, MSE= variance + $bias^2$

For MSE, but often important to consider when choosing/designing methods!

Bias-Variance Tradeoff



Ridge regression: true function is solid green

- left=20 fits, right=average fit
- top=strong regularization, bottom=weak regularization

Ensemble learning

Ensemble learning considers a collection (or ensemble) of hypotheses and combine their predictions

Example: consider an ensemble of *K*=5 classifiers (hypotheses). If we use majority voting, at least 3 would have be incorrect to misclassify an example. If each is independent(?) and has an error of *p*, the probability that many are wrong becomes very small

Ensemble learning

Ensembles also expand the hypothesis space

Combine 3 linear threshold hypotheses and classify when all 3 are positive



Bagging

Train *M* different trees on different subsets of the data (chosen randomly with replacement)

Compute

For regression:
$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{m=1}^{M} \frac{1}{M} f_m(\mathbf{x})$$

For classification: voting

This is called *bagging* (bootstrap aggregating)

This reduces the variance and overfitting, but often results in many similar trees (many are highly correlated)

Random forests

Similar to bagging, but reduce the correlation between trees

Randomly chose a subset of variables and data

Again, use averaging or voting over trees

Relatively simple to implement, but can be slow to train

Often works very well and is widely used (e.g., Microsoft kinect)

Boosting

Use a weighted training set where each example has a weight, $w_j \ge 0$

Boosting is an ensemble learning method that uses a weighted training set

Starts with $w_j = 1$

Generates a hypothesis, *h*₁

Increase weights on misclassified examples, decrease on correct ones

Generate next hypothesis and continue for *K* steps

Use the *K* hypotheses to classify by weighted majority (based on how well they perform on the training set)

Boosting



Boosting methods can use *weak learning algorithms*, which perform only slightly better than random guessing

If the input learning algorithm is a weak learning algorithm, boosting can boost the accuracy of the original algorithm by using the ensemble

AdaBoost can classify the training data perfectly with a large enough *K*

AdaBoost

Can use decision stumps (decision trees with only a root node) as weak learners

For the restaurant example:

