### **Announcement**

- Programming Assignment 5
  - Due: May. 31, 11:59pm
- Homework 5
  - Due: May. 24, 11:59pm

### **Supervised Machine Learning**



AIMA Chapter 18, 20

### Machine Learning

- Up until now: how to use a model to make optimal decisions
  - Except reinforcement learning

Machine learning: how to acquire a model from data / experience

- Related courses
  - SI151 Optimization and Machine Learning
  - CS282 Machine Learning
  - CS280 Deep Learning

Supervised

# Types of Learning

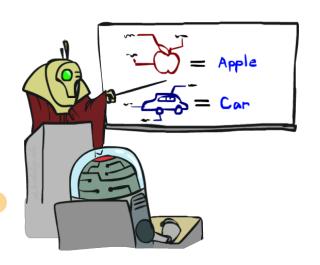
- Supervised learning
- Training data includes desired outputs
- Unsupervised learning
  - Training data does not include desired outputs
- Semi-supervised learning
  - Training data includes a few desired outputs
- Reinforcement learning
  - Rewards from sequence of actions

# Supervised learning

- To learn an unknown target function f
- Input: a *training set* of *labeled examples* (x<sub>i</sub>,y<sub>i</sub>) where  $y_i = f(x_i)$
- Output: hypothesis h that is "close" to f

$$h \rightarrow f$$

- Types of supervised learning
  - Classification = learning f with discrete output value
  - Regression = learning f with real-valued output value
  - Structured prediction = learning f with structured output



### Classification



### Example: Spam Filter

Input: an email

Output: spam/ham





Setup:

- Get a large collection of example emails, each labeled "spam" or "ham" (by hand)
- Want to learn to predict labels of new, future emails



■ 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.

### 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
  - 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
  - ...

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### Other Classification Tasks

#### Medical diagnosis

input: symptoms

output: disease

#### Automatic essay grading

input: document

output: grades

#### Fraud detection

input: account activity

output: fraud / no fraud

#### Email routing

input: customer complaint email

output: which department needs to ignore this email

#### Fruit and vegetable inspection

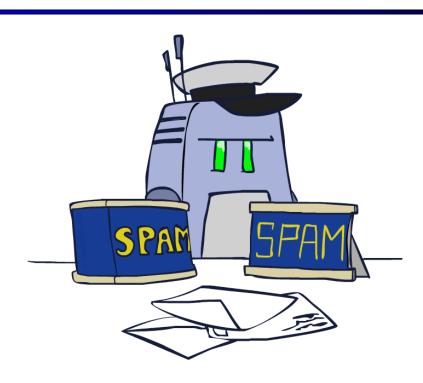
input: image (or gas analysis)

output: moldy or OK

... many more



## Naïve Bayes Classifier



### Model-Based Classification

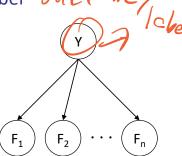
- Model-based approach
  - Build a model (e.g. Bayes' net) where both the label and features are random variables
  - Instantiate any observed features
  - Query for the distribution of the label conditioned on the features
- Challenges
  - What structure should the BN have?
  - How should we learn its 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  $\langle i,j \rangle$
  - Feature values are on / off, based on whether intensity is more or less than 0.5 in underlying image (1).
  - Each input maps to a feature vector, e.g.

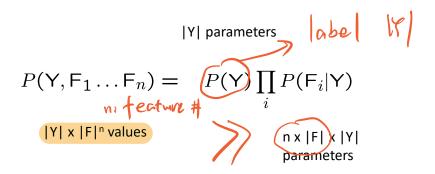
- Here: lots of features, each is binary valued
- Naïve Bayes model:  $P(Y|F_{0,0}\dots F_{15,15})\propto P(Y)\prod_{i}P(F_{i,j}|Y)$
- What do we need to learn?

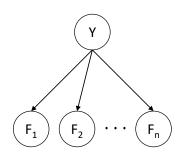




### General Naïve Bayes

A general Naive Bayes model:





- 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

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

Step 2: normalization

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

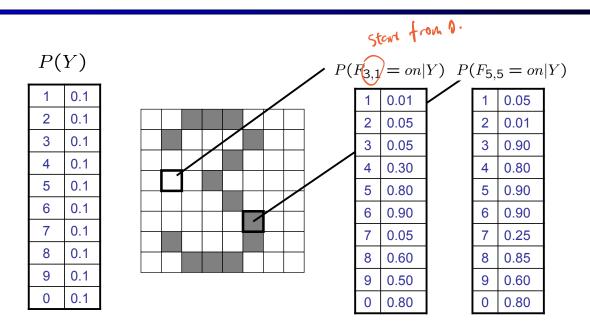
### General Naïve Bayes

- 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<sub>i</sub>|Y) tables
      - Use standard inference to compute  $P(Y|F_1...F_n)$
      - Nothing new here

Estimates of local conditional probability tables

- P(Y), the prior over labels
  - P(F<sub>i</sub>|Y) for each feature (evidence variable)
- These probabilities are collectively called the parameters of the model and denoted by heta
- 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**



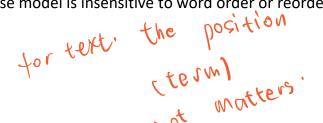
### Naïve Bayes for Text

- Bag-of-words Naïve Bayes:
  - Features: W<sub>i</sub> is the word at positon i

$$P(Y,W_1\ldots W_n)=P(Y)\prod_i P(W_i|Y)$$
 i, not i<sup>th</sup> word in the dictionary!

Word at position

- Usually, each variable gets its own conditional probability distribution P(F|Y)
- Here
  - Each position is identically distributed
  - All positions share the same conditional probabilities P(W|Y)
- Called "bag-of-words" because model is insensitive to word order or reordering



### **Example: Spam Filtering**

• Model:  $P(Y, W_1 \dots W_n) = P(Y) \prod_i P(W_i|Y)$ 

#### P(Y)

ham : 0.66 spam: 0.33

#### P(W|spam)

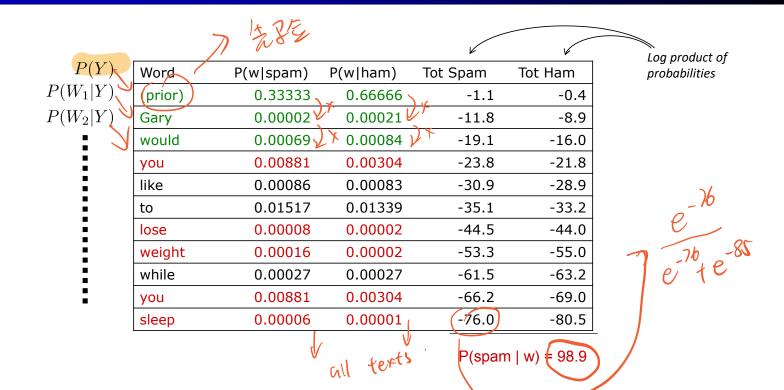
the: 0.0156
to: 0.0153
and: 0.0115
of: 0.0095
you: 0.0093
a: 0.0086
with: 0.0080
from: 0.0075

#### $P(W|\mathsf{ham})$

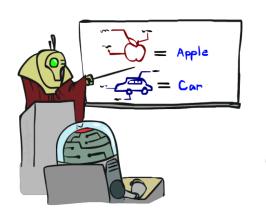
the: 0.0210
to: 0.0133
of: 0.0119
2002: 0.0110
with: 0.0108
from: 0.0107
and: 0.0105
a: 0.0100

log 11 = 5

### Spam Example



## **Training and Testing**







### **Important Concepts**

- Data: labeled instances, e.g. emails marked spam/ham
  - Training set
  - Held out set
  - Test set
- Experimentation cycle
  - Learn parameters (e.g. model probabilities) on training set
  - Tune hyperparameters on held-out set
  - Compute accuracy of test set (fraction of instances predicted correctly)
  - Very important: never "peek" at the test set!

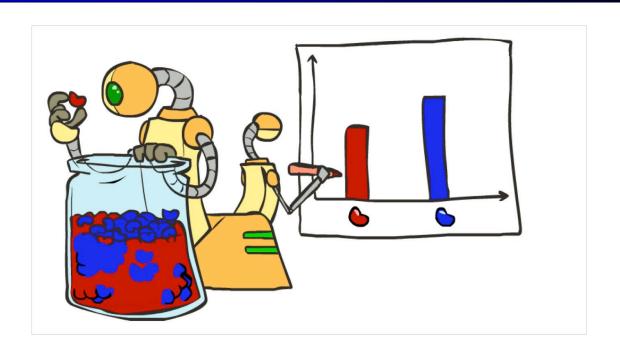


Held-Out Data

> Test Data



# make test set invisible. Training



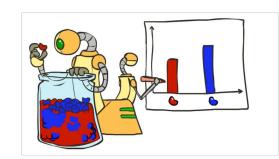
### **Parameter Estimation**

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

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



- We've seen 1000 words from spam emails, among which we see "money" for 50 times
- So we set P(money | spam) = 0.05
- This is the estimate that maximizes the likelihood of the data
  - Likelihood: conditional probability of the data given the parameters



### Maximum Likelihood Estimation

- Coin flipping: Not known j estimated
   P(Heads) = θ, P(Tails) = 1-θ
- Flips are i.i.d.
  - Independent events
  - Identically distributed according to unknown distribution
- Sequence *D* of  $\alpha_H$  Heads and  $\alpha_T$  Tails

$$P(\mathcal{D} \mid \theta) = \theta^{\alpha_H} (1 - \theta)^{\alpha_T}$$

### **Maximum Likelihood Estimation**

• MLE: Choose 
$$\theta$$
 to maximize probability of  $D$  
$$\widehat{\theta} = \arg\max_{\theta} \ln P(\mathcal{D} \mid \theta)$$
$$= \arg\max_{\theta} \ln \theta^{\alpha_H} (1-\theta)^{\alpha_T}$$

Set derivative to zero, and solve!

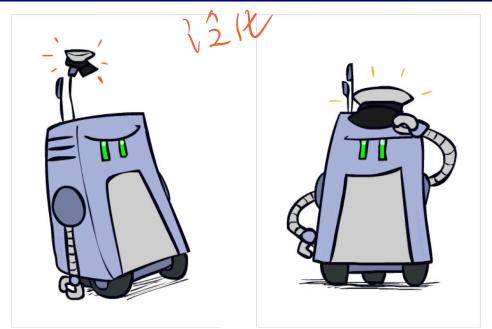
$$\frac{d}{d\theta} \ln P(\mathcal{D} \mid \theta) = \frac{d}{d\theta} \left[ \ln \theta^{\alpha_H} (1 - \theta)^{\alpha_T} \right]$$

$$= \frac{d}{d\theta} \left[ \alpha_H \ln \theta + \alpha_T \ln(1 - \theta) \right]$$

$$= \alpha_H \frac{d}{d\theta} \ln \theta + \alpha_T \frac{d}{d\theta} \ln(1 - \theta)$$

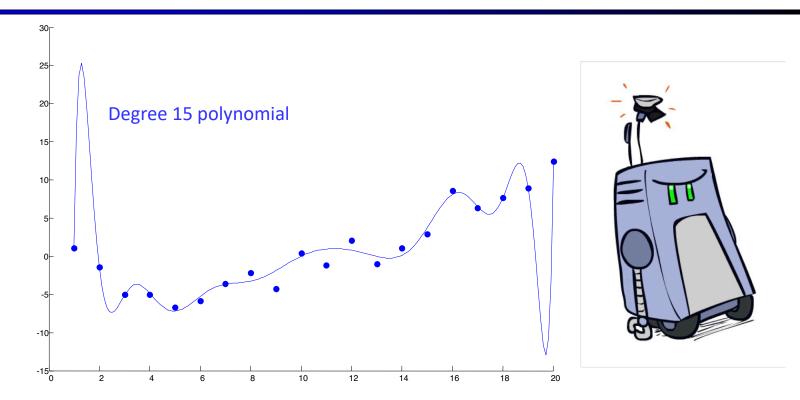
$$= \frac{\alpha_H}{\theta} - \frac{\alpha_T}{1 - \theta} = 0$$

$$\widehat{\theta}_{MLE} = \frac{\alpha_H}{\alpha_H + \alpha_T}$$

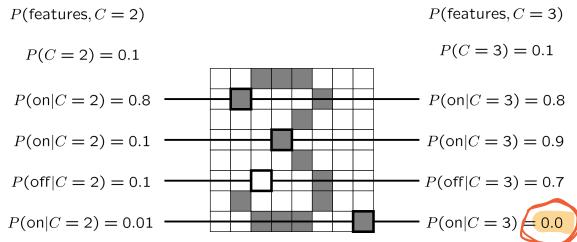




# Overfitting



### **Example: Overfitting**



2 wins!!



### **Example: Overfitting**

Posteriors determined by relative probabilities (odds ratios):

```
\frac{P(W|\mathsf{ham})}{P(W|\mathsf{spam})}
```

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

 $\frac{P(W|\text{spam})}{P(W|\text{ham})} \quad \text{when} \quad 0$ 

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

What went wrong here?

- Using empirical rate 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
  - Just because we never saw a word in spam emails during training doesn't mean we won't see it at test time
  - Therefore, we can't give unseen events zero probability
  - More generally, rates in the training data may not exactly match rates at test time

- Overfitting: learn to fit the training data very closely, but fit the test data poorly
  - Generalization: try to fit the test data as well
- Why does overfitting occur?
  - Training data is not representative of the true data distribution
    - Too few training samples
    - Training data is noisy
  - Too many attributes, some of them irrelevant to the classification task
  - The model is too expressive
    - Ex: the model is capable of memorizing all the spam emails in the training set

- Avoid overfitting
  - Acquire more training data (not always possible)
  - Remove irrelevant attributes (not always possible)
  - Limit the model expressiveness by regularization, early stopping, pruning, etc.

 In our previous example, we may smooth the empirical rate to improve generalization

### Laplace Smoothing

### (No zero)

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

$$P_{LAP}(x) = \frac{c(x)+1}{\sum_{x}[c(x)+1]} \qquad P_{ML}(X) = \frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)$$

$$= \frac{c(x)+1}{N+|X|} \quad \text{for all } \quad P_{LAP}(X) = \frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)$$

$$= \text{Can derive this estimate with } \quad \text{Out Come}$$

$$= \text{Can derive this estimate with } \quad \text{Out Come}$$

### **Laplace Smoothing**

#### Laplace's estimate (extended):

Pretend you saw every outcome k extra times

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

- k is the strength of the prior
- What's Laplace with k = 0?
- Laplace for conditionals:
  - Smooth each condition independently:

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



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

$$P_{LAP,1}(X) = \left(\frac{3}{6} / \frac{1}{5}\right)$$

$$P_{LAP,100}(X) = \left[\frac{|P|}{2R}, \frac{|O|}{2A}\right]$$

$$L[OSe ta (\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})]$$

### Linear Interpolation

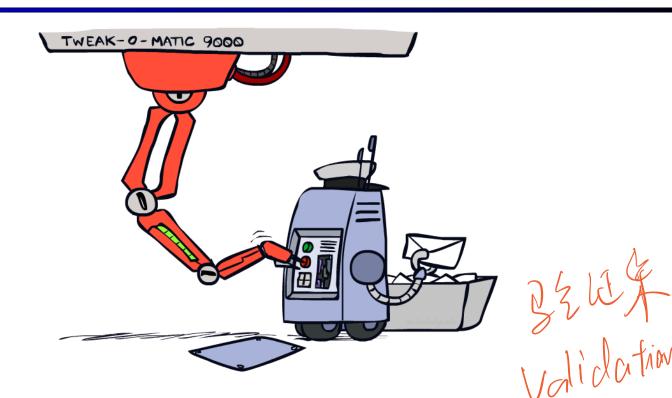
- In practice, Laplace often performs poorly for P(X|Y):
  - When |X| is very large
  - When |Y| is very large

When too manch tope Not enough dota.

- 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)

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

# 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,  $\alpha$
- What should we learn where?

1 4 4 4 6 8

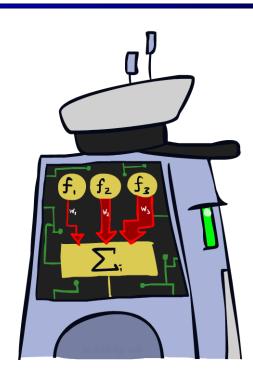
- Learn parameters from training data
- Tune hyperparameters on different data
   Why?
- For each value of the hyperparameter, train on the training data and test on the held-out data
- Choose the best hyperparameter value and do a final test on the test data

training held-out test

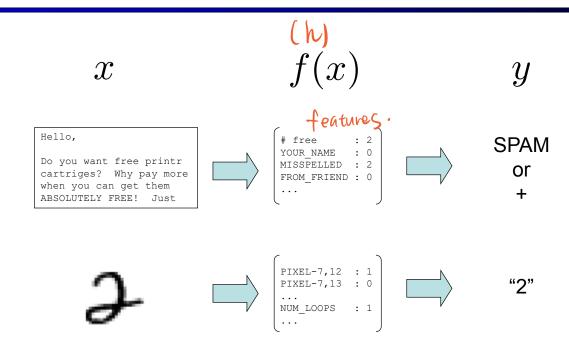
adjust

Para

# The Linear Classifiers

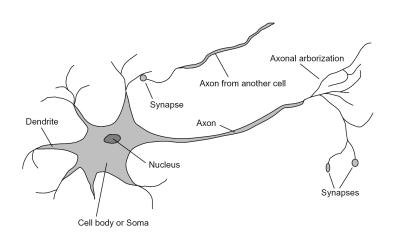


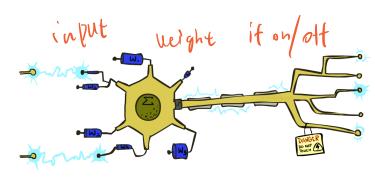
### **Feature Vectors**



### Some (Simplified) Biology

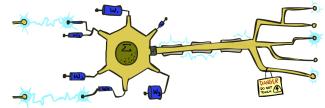
Very loose inspiration: human neurons





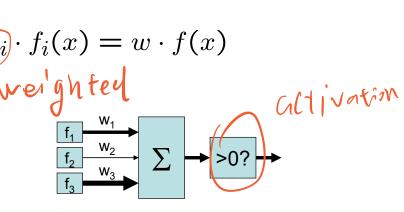
### **Linear Classifiers**

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



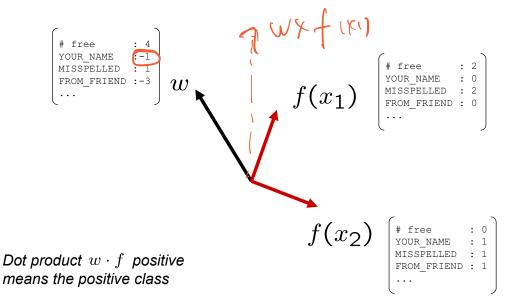
$$\operatorname{activation}_w(x) = \sum_i \underbrace{w_i} \cdot f_i(x) = w \cdot f(x)$$

- Binary case: 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

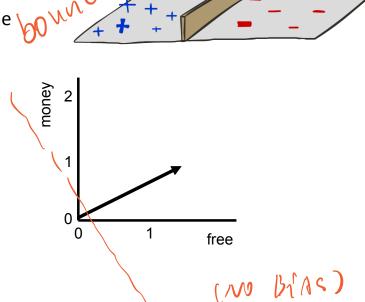


**Binary Decision Rule** 

- 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

 $\overline{w}$ 

BIAS : -3 free : 4 money : 2

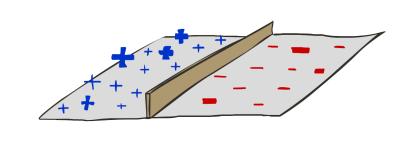


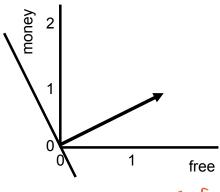
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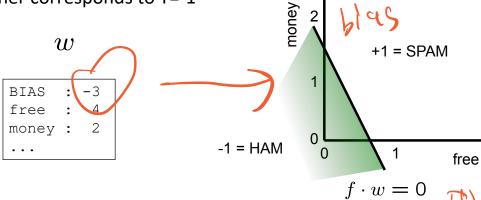


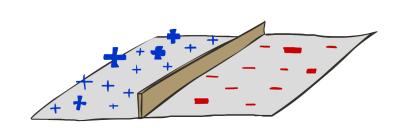




### **Binary Decision Rule**

- 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







## Learning: Binary Perceptron

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

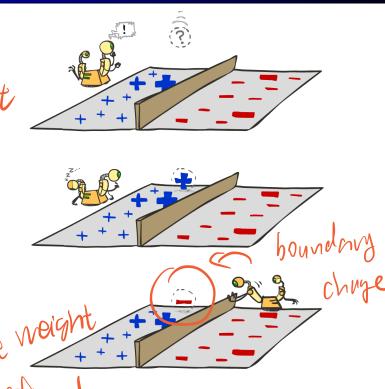
at weight

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

If wrong: adjust the weight vector

Compute from prosent

+ 1

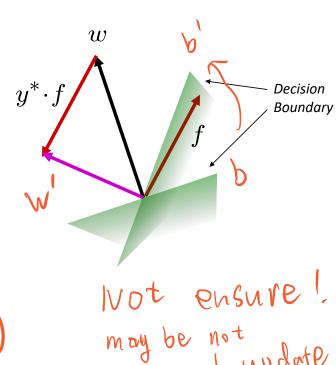


# Learning: Binary Perceptron

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

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

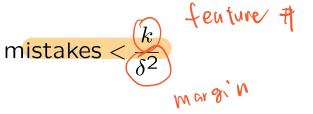
- If correct (i.e., y=y\*), no change!
- If wrong: adjust the weight vector by adding or subtracting the feature vector.

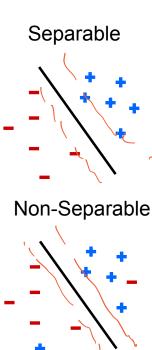


### **Properties of Perceptrons**

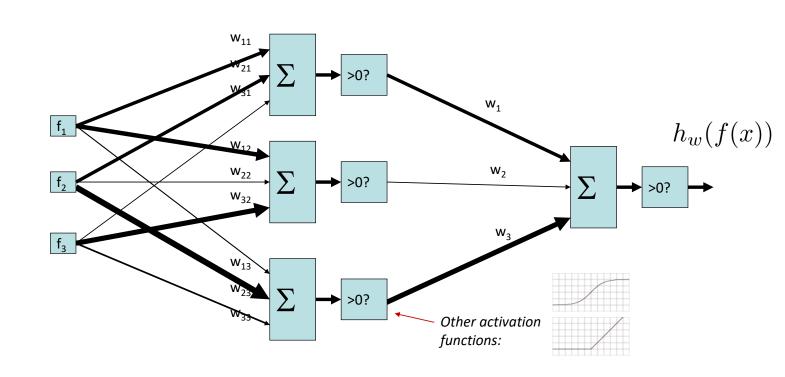
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- Separability: true if some parameters get the training set perfectly correct
- Convergence: if the training is separable, perceptron will eventually converge (binary case)
- Mistake Bound: the maximum number of mistakes (binary case) related to the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

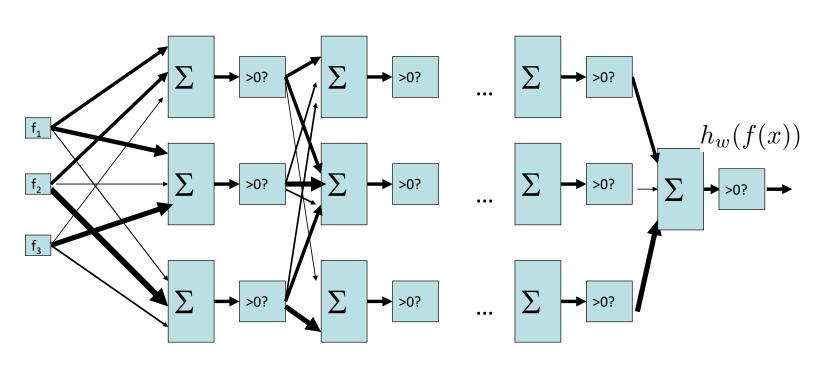




### Two-Layer Perceptron Network



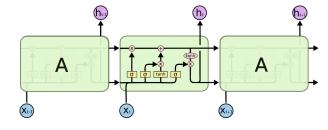
### Deep Neural Network



## 1-page Overview of Deep Learning

#### Deep Learning

- A large number of layers of neural networks
  - Ex. 1000 layers in ResNet
- More complicated connections between layers
  - Ex. LSTM



### 1-page Overview of Deep Learning

#### Deep Learning

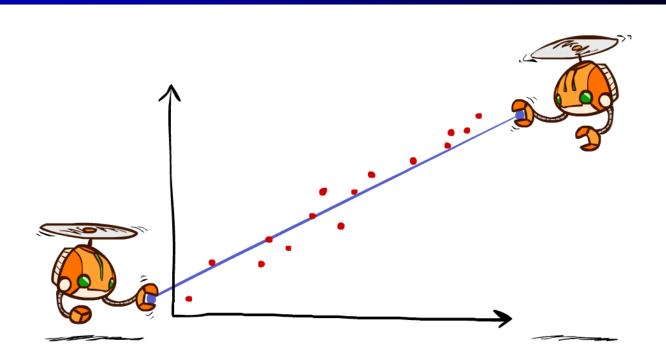
Take CS280 Deep Learning!

- A large number of layers of neural networks
  - Ex. 1000 layers in ResNet
- More complicated connections between layers
  - Ex. LSTM
- Lots of new techniques and tricks
  - ReLU, Dropout, Batch Normalization, Adam, ...
- Big data
  - ImageNet (2009): 14 million images
  - NMT (a 2019 paper): 25 billion sentence pairs
- GPU parallelization
- Performance: superior to human experts in some tasks

### More classification methods

- Naive Bayes
- Perceptron / Neural networks
- Decision trees / Random forest
- Support Vector Machines
- Nearest neighbors
- Model ensembles: bagging, boosting, etc.
- .....

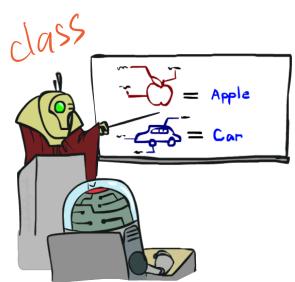
# Regression



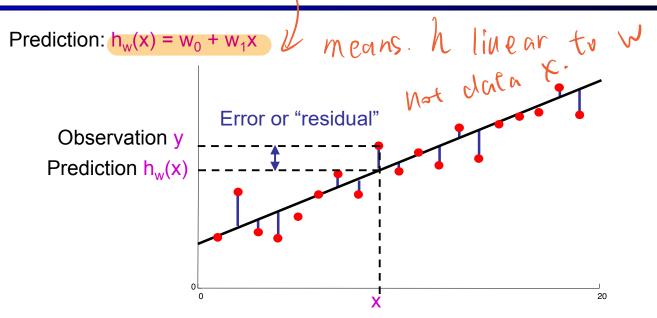
### Supervised learning

- To learn an unknown target function f
- Input: a training set of labeled examples (x<sub>j</sub>,y<sub>j</sub>) where y<sub>i</sub> = f(x<sub>i</sub>)
- Output: hypothesis h that is "close" to f
- Two types of supervised learning
  - Classification = learning f with discrete output value
  - Regression = learning f with real-valued output value





Linear Regression



Error on one instance:  $|y - h_w(x)|$ 

### Least squares: Minimizing squared error

L2 loss function: sum of squared errors over all examples

$$L(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{i} (y_i - h_w(\mathbf{x}_i))^2 = \sum_{i} (y_i - \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i)^2$$

- We want the weights w\* that minimize loss
- Analytical solution: at w\* the derivative of loss w.r.t. each weight is zero
  - X is the data matrix (all the data, one example per row); y is the vector of labels

• 
$$\mathbf{w}^* = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$$

when  $\mathbf{w}^* = \mathbf{w}^* = \mathbf{w}^$ 

### Least squares: Minimizing squared error

■ 
$$J(w) = ||Xw - y||_2^2$$

$$||X^TXw - X^Ty = 0$$

$$||X^TXw = X^Ty$$

$$||w| = ||X^TXw - X^Ty = 0$$

$$||x^TXw - X^Ty = 0$$

$$||x^Tx - x$$

### Regularized Regression

- Overfitting is also possible in regression
  - Extreme case: *n* features, *n* training examples
- Regularization can be used to alleviate overfitting
- LASSO (Least Absolute Shrinkage and Selection Øperator)

$$L(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{t} (y_t - \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_t)^2 + \lambda \sum_{k} |w_k|^2$$

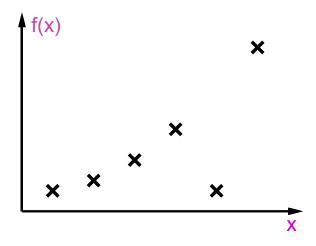
Ridge Regression

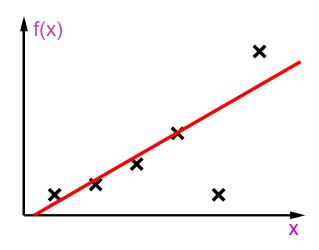
$$L(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{i} (y_i - \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i)^2 + \lambda \sum_{k} w_k^2$$

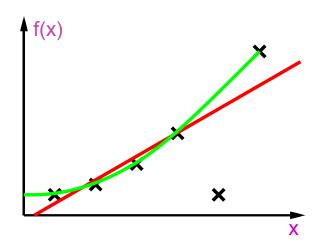
less import

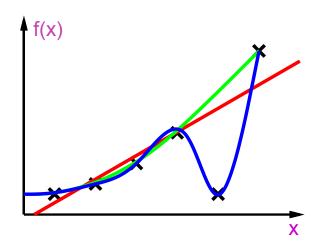
### Non-linear least squares

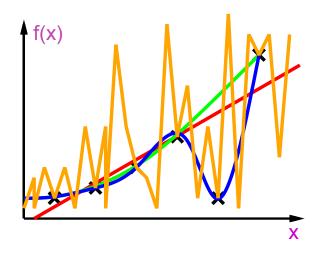
- No closed-form solution in general
- Numerical algorithms are typically used
  - Choose initial values for the parameters and then refine the parameters iteratively
  - Gradient descent
  - Gauss–Newton method
  - Limited-memory BFGS
  - Derivative-free methods
  - etc.











Fit vs. complexity: a tradeoff

"Ockham's razor": prefer the simplest hypothesis consistent with the data

### Summary

- Supervised learning:
  - Learning a function from labeled examples
- Classification: discrete-valued function
  - Naïve Bayes
  - Generalization and overfitting, smoothing
  - Perceptron
- Regression: real-valued function
  - Linear regression