Introduction to Machine Learning (IML)

LECTURE #2: CLASSIFICATION - PRELIMINARIES

236756 - 2024 WINTER - TECHNION

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Today:

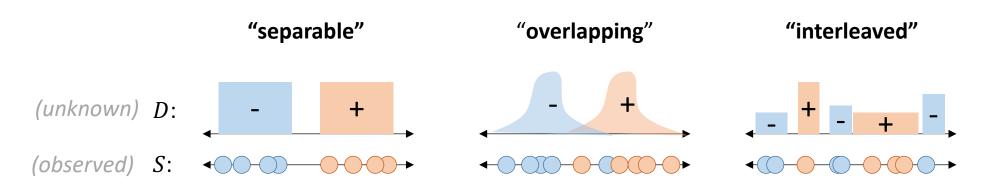
- Fundamentals of classification via simple example
- But don't confuse *simple* with *easy*
- Sets ground for the first $\sim 2/3$ of the entire course
- We'll revisit many of the issues we'll discuss today
- So make sure you understand these fundamentals <u>now</u>

Recall:

- Data generating process: $(x,y) \stackrel{iid}{\sim} D$, $y \in \{\pm 1\}$ (classification)
- Sample set: $S = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^m \sim D^m \text{ (data)}$
- Model class: $H = \{h : h : \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}\}$
- Expected error: $L_D(h) = \mathbb{P}_D[y \neq h(x)] = \mathbb{E}_D[\mathbb{1}\{y \neq h(x)\}]$
- Empirical error: $L_S(h) = \mathbb{P}_S[y \neq h(x)] = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \mathbb{1}\{y_i \neq h(x_i)\}$
- Goal: learn $h \in H$ with low $L_D(h)$
- Means: return $\hat{h} = \underset{h \in H}{\operatorname{argmin}} L_{\mathcal{S}}(h)$ (ERM)

Today:

- Learning on the real line, $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}$
- Consider three "types" of distributions of increasing difficulty:

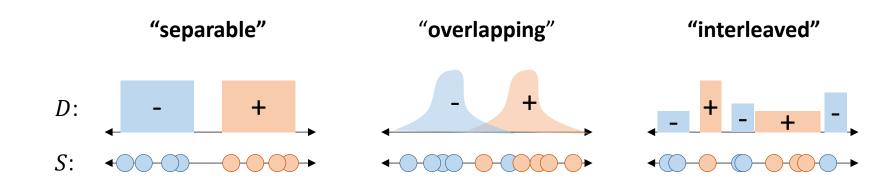


For each, we will discuss the three aspects of learning we care about:

Modeling, Optimization, Statistics

Today:

- As we progress, we will make less and less assumptions
- Holy grail: having <u>no</u> assumptions on D
- Our goal for today: develop intuition for distribution-independent learning algorithms
- **Head's up**: we will ask many questions (but will answer relatively few)



Case I: Separable Data

Separable data

• Definition (interim)*:

D (over \mathbb{R}) is separable if exists $\theta^* \in \mathbb{R}$ such that y = 1 iff $x > \theta^*$

Note this means labels are deterministic.

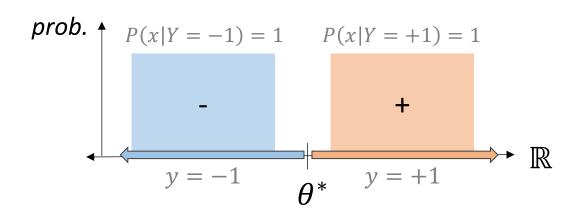
^{*} This definition is not precise, and is in fact class-dependent. This will later be refined.

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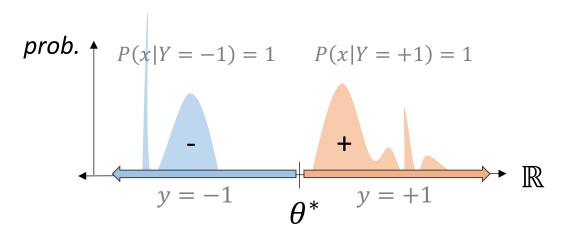
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Modeling

- Time to choose a model class!
- Think what are good criteria for choosing?
- Let's try threshold functions:

$$H_{\text{thresh}} = \{h_{\theta}(x) = \operatorname{sign}(x \ge \theta) : \theta \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

- Q: Why is this a good class?
- (Remember: we're assuming separability, but not any specific distribution)
- A: Because it's "just right" intuitively:
 - 1. For any separable D there is some $h \in H$ with $L_S(h) = 0$
 - 2. And, it's not too large no "redundant" h-s
- Note: $|H| = \infty$, suggesting that "large" is not the right measure (we'll return to this)

- Recall the ERM template
- To actually learn, need to implement for $H_{
 m thresh}$
- Plug $h_{\theta}(x) = \operatorname{sign}(x \ge \theta)$ into formulas

ERM: (Empirical Risk Minimization)

- Input:
 - Sample set $S = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^m$
 - Model class H (candidate classifiers)
- Objective:

classifier with lowest expected error $h^* = \underset{h \in H}{\operatorname{argmin}} \mathbb{E}_{(x,y) \sim D} [\mathbb{1}\{y \neq h(x)\}]$

Return:

classifier with lowest empirical error

$$\hat{h} = \underset{h \in H}{\operatorname{argmin}} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \mathbb{1}\{y_i \neq h(x_i)\}$$

- Recall the ERM template
- To actually learn, need to implement for $H_{
 m thresh}$
- Plug $h_{\theta}(x) = \text{sign}(x \ge \theta)$ into formulas
- We will call θ the **parameter**(s) of h_{θ}
- Optimizing over $h \equiv$ optimizing over θ
- This is an example of model class *structure*, which we will see is helpful (and necessary)
- Can we solve ERM now?

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Simple algorithm:

- 1. Sort x_i -s
- 1b. Validate separability
- 2. Find largest x_i with $y_i = -1$; call it x_{i^*}
- 3. Return $\hat{\theta} = x_{i^*}$
- Congrats! We just implemented our first ERM
- What do we need to prove?
- (Remember the algorithm is designed for threshold classifiers on separable data)

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Simple algorithm:

- 1. Sort x_i -s $O(m \log m)$
- 1b. Validate separability O(m)
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- 3. Return $\hat{\theta} = x_{i^*}$
- Congrats! We just implemented our first ERM
- What do we need to prove?
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- **1.** Runtime: $O(m \log m)$ great!
- Recall m = |S|
- But H is also "input", and $|H| = \infty$! How can this be?
- 2. Correctness: $L_S(h_{\widehat{\theta}}) = 0$
- Easy to show.
- Not only solution (what are others?)
- 3. Generalization: $L_D(h_{\widehat{\theta}}) = ?$
- How can we relate L_S and L_D ?
- Enter statistics.

- Algorithm returns $\widehat{ heta}$ with zero *empirical* error, $L_Sig(h_{\widehat{ heta}}ig)=0$
- But we actually care about its *expected* error, $L_D(h_{\widehat{ heta}})$
- **Q**: What does $L_D(h_{\widehat{\theta}})$ depend on? What can cause it to vary?
- A: m
- We expect L_D to go down with m but at what rate?
- Let's simulate!
- Empirically, we can see that $L_D \approx \frac{1}{m}$
- Can we run this simulation on real problems? (or where did we cheat?)
- This is where theory comes in: bound rate analytically

Statistics II

- Our algorithm takes in S and returns $\widehat{\theta}$
- But different $S \Rightarrow$ different $\widehat{\theta} \Rightarrow$ different $L_D(\widehat{h})!$ (even for fixed m)
- Output of ERM is a **random variable** (because it's a function of the random variable S)
- How much variance in performance should we expect?
- Let's simulate!
- **Q**: So how can we tell if our algorithm is "good"?
- A: Use probabilistic criteria (w.r.t. $S \sim D^m$)
- Corollary:

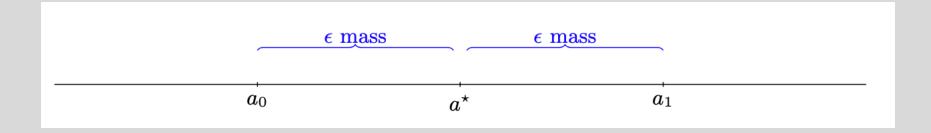
Performance on a single dataset has less meaning than we'd like to believe

Statistics III

Let's see this in action.

- Claim: $P_{S \sim D^m}(L_D(\hat{h}) > \epsilon) \le 2e^{-\epsilon m}$
- **Proof:** [on board; UML book Sec. 6.1, p67]
- Corollary: $\epsilon \ge \frac{1}{m} \log(\frac{2}{\delta})$

Statistics III



Let a* be a threshold such that the hypothesis $h^*(x)=sign(x \ge a^*)$ achieves $L_D(h^*)=0$. Let $a_0 < a^* < a_1$ be two points as in the figure. Formally, $P_{Dx}(x \in (a_0,a^*))=P_{Dx}(x \in (a^*,a_1))=\varepsilon$.

Given a set S, define $b_0 = \max\{x_i : y_i = -1\}$ and $b_1 = \min\{x_i : y_i = 1\}$ If b_S is a threshold for ERM hypothesis b_S , then $b_S \in (b_0, b_1)$

A sufficient condition for $L_D(h_S) \le \epsilon$ is: $b_0 \ge a_0$ and $b_1 \le a_1$. Or:

 $P_s \sim D^m (L_D(h_s) > \varepsilon) \le P_s \sim D^m (b_0 < a_0 \text{ or } b_1 > a_1) \le P_s \sim D^m (b_0 < a_0) + P_s \sim D^m (b_1 > a_1)$, where the last inequality is by union bound.

Now, $b_0 < a_0$ iff all samples in S are not in (a_0, a^*) , whose prob mass is ε , so:

 $P_S \sim D^m (b_0 < a_0) = P_S \sim D^m (\forall (x,y) \text{ in } S, x \notin (a_0, a^*)) = (1-\varepsilon)^m \le e^{-\varepsilon m}.$

In the same way, $P_S^{\sim}D^m$ $(b_1 > a_1) \le e^{-\epsilon m}$. Adding both, we get the desired bound.

Discussion

- **Recall**: our algorithm sets $\hat{\theta}$ to be the largest negative example
- **Observation**: just as good any point between *largest negative* and *smallest positive*
- Conclusion: there can be multiple possible ERM rules!

largest negative, smallest positive, mean, median, convex combination, random in interval, ...

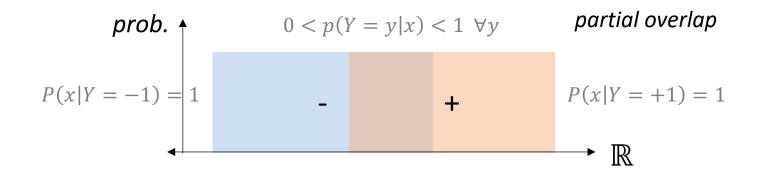
Ask yourself:

- Are some ERM rules better than others for <u>some</u> D?
- Are some ERM rules better than others for <u>all</u> D?
- Do your answers implicitly rely on additional assumptions?
- Are your claims statistical (observed), distributional (latent), or both?
- How would you validate your claims?
- Actually what does "better" even mean? Be precise!

Case II: Overlapping Classes

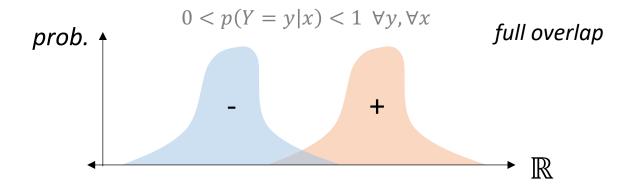
Overlapping classes

- Hand-wavy: continuous "middle" region where labels are uncertain
- Some example distributions:



Overlapping classes

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- Separable is special case (=no overlap)
- (Our new algorithm should be "backward-compatible")
- But in general, no θ^* -like object
- (Remember: we only observe samples with binary y)

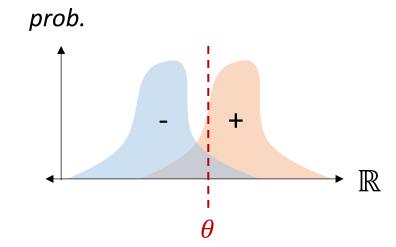
Modeling

- What would be a good model class now?
- How about... thresholds?
- Recall:

$$H_{\text{thresh}} = \{h_{\theta}(x) = \text{sign}(x \ge \theta) : \theta \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

- (Sneak-peak): will work out well
- But with one big difference:

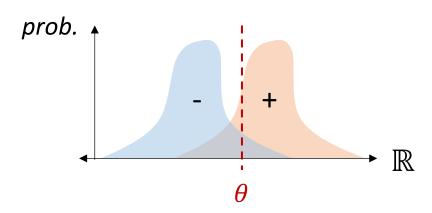
minimal error can be strictly positive



Recall our previous (separable) ERM algorithm:

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- A: no it breaks! (consider mixture of Gaussians)
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- Nonetheless, is there an underlying principal we can salvage?
- Recall: $\hat{\theta} = x_{i^*}$
- Claim: x_{i^*} was useful because it was an **informative summary** of the data
- Let's apply this principle to our current problem



• Let's try again:

Revised algorithm:

- 1. Sort x_i -s
- 2. For each x_i , compute empirical error "as if" x_i was the threshold
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- Runtime: $O(m \log m)$ (backward and forward counting passes)
- Correctness: $\hat{h} = h_{\widehat{\theta}} = \operatorname{argmin}_{h \in H} L_S(h)$ (easy to show)

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Revised algorithm:

- 1. Sort x_i -s
- 2. For each x_i , compute empirical error "as if" x_i was the threshold
- 3. Find example with lowest error; call it x_{i^*}
- 4. Return $\hat{\theta} = x_{i^*}$
- Runtime: $O(m \log m)$
- Correctness: $\hat{h} = h_{\widehat{\theta}} = \operatorname{argmin}_{h \in H} L_S(h)$

- **Congrats**! We just implemented a more general ERM algorithm.
- Note that the learned \hat{h} is a very simple function of the data.
- **Hand-wavy**: this in effect "removes" the runtime dependence on *H*.
- This principle appears in many learning algorithms.
- Challenge is often in finding (and appropriately combining) the "important" elements of the data.

- Observation: minimal empirical error can be strictly positive (e.g., when data is not separable)
- Imagine we ran our ERM and got an (empirical) error of $L_S(\hat{h}) = 0.1$.
- Q: Should we be happy?
- A: It's complicated.
- Our principle concern is **generalization**.
- But we can't compute it...

generalization:



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generalization:

$$L_D(\hat{h}) \geq L_S(\hat{h}) \geq 0$$

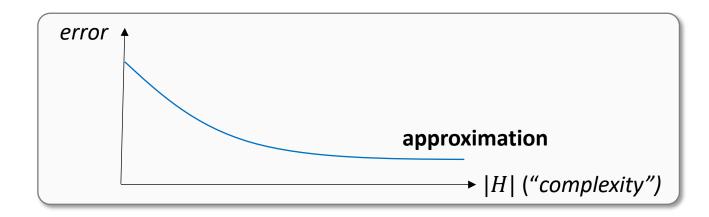
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- Q: Should we be happy?
- A: It's complicated.
- Our principle concern is **generalization**.
- But we can't compute it... nor a bound.
- Observations:
- 1. We can't just assume empirical error \approx expected error
- 2. "Good" is *relative* (to optimal classifier $h^* = \underset{h \in H}{\operatorname{argmin}} L_D(h)$)

• Trivial (but helpful!) error decomposition:

$$L_Dig(\hat{h}ig) = L_D(h^*) + L_Dig(\hat{h}ig) - L_D(h^*)$$
 generalization approximation estimation error

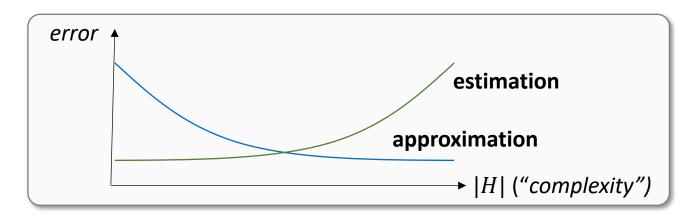
- Approximation = "how good H is for D" (independent of S)
- **Estimation** = "given H, how good is S for D" (empirical error as estimate of expected)
- **Conclusion**: model class H is useful if:
 - We believe it can approximate the data well [modeling; approximation]
 - We can associate empirical and expected errors [statistics; estimation]
 - We know we can compute ERM [optimization; estimation]
- Remember: The only thing we can compute (exactly) is $L_S(\widehat{h})!$ But where is it?

- **Intuition**: as we increase the "size" of H (keeping m fixed):
 - larger H -> less bias ("assumptions") -> lower approx. error -> better generalization



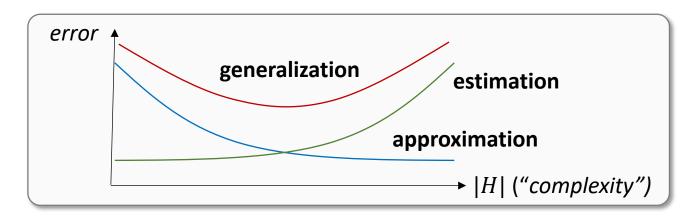
$$\begin{array}{ccccc} L_D\big(\hat{h}\big) &=& L_D\big(h^*\big) &+& L_D\big(\hat{h}\big) - L_D\big(h^*\big) \\ \text{generalization} & \text{approximation} & \text{estimation} \\ & \text{error} & \text{error} \end{array}$$

- **Intuition**: as we increase the "size" of H (keeping m fixed):
 - larger H -> less bias ("assumptions") -> lower approx. error -> better generalization
 - larger *H* -> worse estimation -> higher error -> worse generalization



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- Intuition: as we increase the "size" of H (keeping m fixed):
 - larger $H \rightarrow$ less bias ("assumptions") -> lower approx. error -> better generalization
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• This is called the **bias-complexity tradeoff**, we will later see why.

Discussion

- **Recall:** we assume data is *jointly* sampled $(x, y) \sim D_{XY}$
- Classification focuses on p(y|x) (where p(x,y) = p(x)p(y|x))
- But sometimes it helps to consider p(x|y), such as when we:
 - Have assumptions on data distribution
 - Directly model the distribution
- (Think of the distribution "types" we discussed today)
- Above quantities are related through *Bayes rule*:

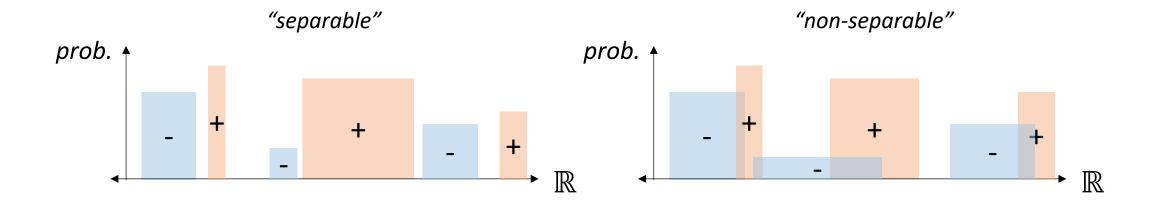
$$p(y|x) = p(x|y)p(y)/p(x)$$

• Learning p(x|y) is called **generative learning** – we will return to this later in the course.

Case III: Interleaved Classes

Interleaved classes

- **Hand-wavy**: more than one $D_{X|Y=y}$ for each class y
- Example distributions:



- **Note**: effectively, unbounded "chunks" + non-separable = no assumptions
- This is where we're aiming!

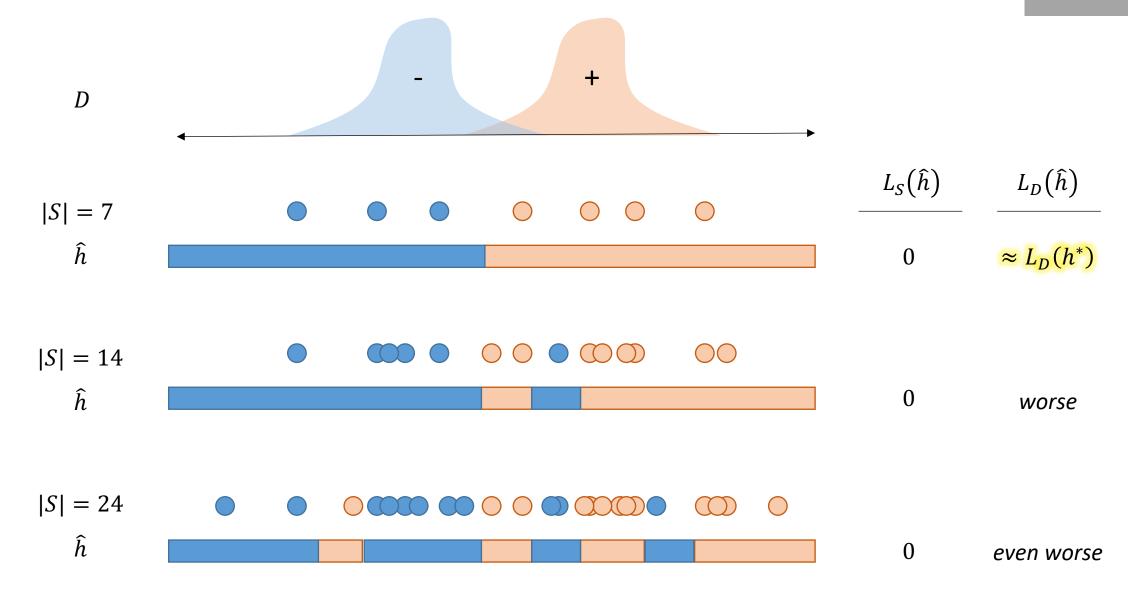
Modeling

$$L_D(\hat{h}) = L_D(h^*) + L_D(\hat{h}) - L_D(h^*)$$

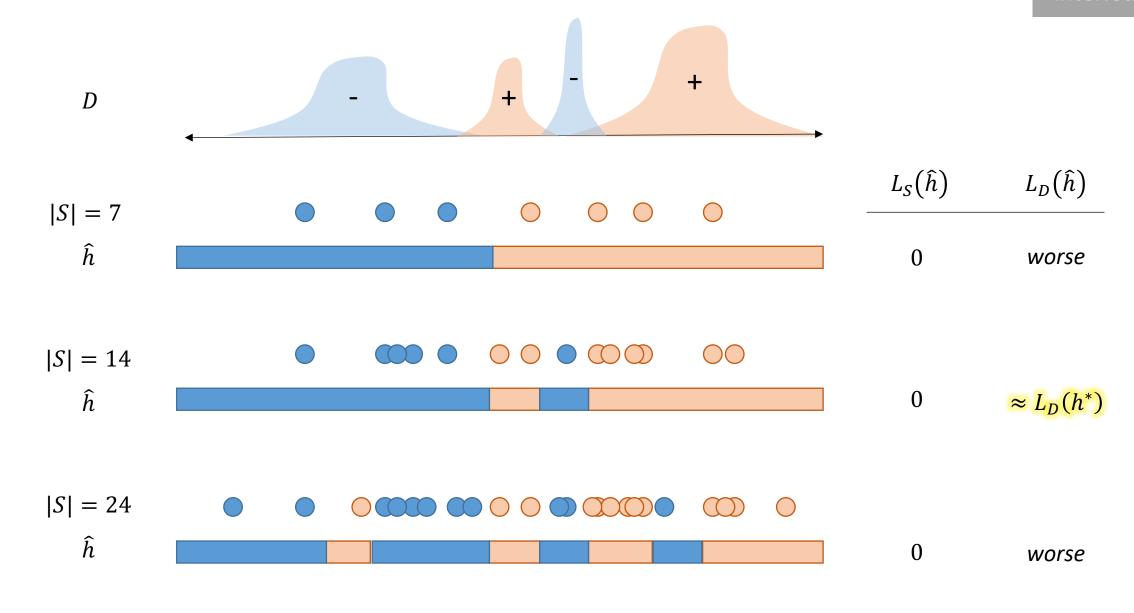
- Q: Are thresholds still a good choice?
- A: Yes! Because they are statistically well-behaved (low estimation error)
- A: No! Because may not be best alternative (high approximation error)
- Ideas for better class?
- Union of (half) intervals:

$$h_I(x) = \mathbb{1}\{x \in \bigcup_j (a_j, b_j)\}, \qquad I = \{(a_j, b_j)\}_{j=1}^d$$

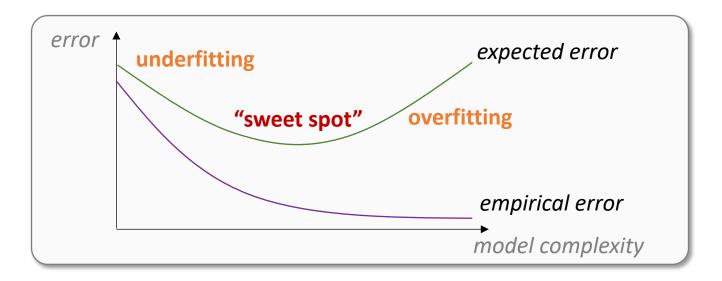
- On separable data: approximation error = 0 (easy to show)
- But...



- Conclusion: more data is... worse? What's going on here?
- Observation: with enough intervals (d) can always get zero empirical error!
- Models with larger d are more expressive
- We will think of expressivity as controlled by model class complexity
- For intervals, complexity = number of intervals
- Notice: as we added more data, we also increased model complexity
- Our example shows: increasing complexity can hurt expected error
- This is a fundamental concept in learning called overfitting
- (Insufficient complexity is called *underfitting*)



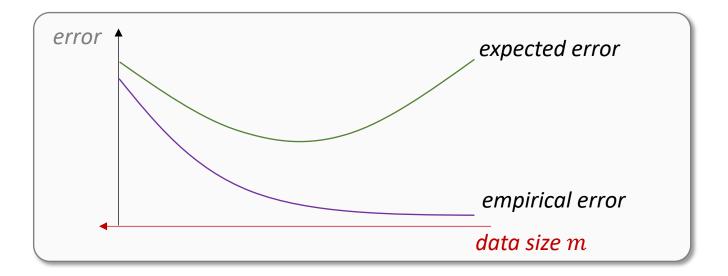
• Let's generalize this intuition. For fixed data size m:



- Recall that we would like to minimize *expected* error.
- Plot suggests that we should **control complexity**. But how? Think:
 - What can we compute?
 - What *can't* we compute?

- In our example, model complexity increased when *more examples* were observed.
- What role does data size m play in over/under-fitting?

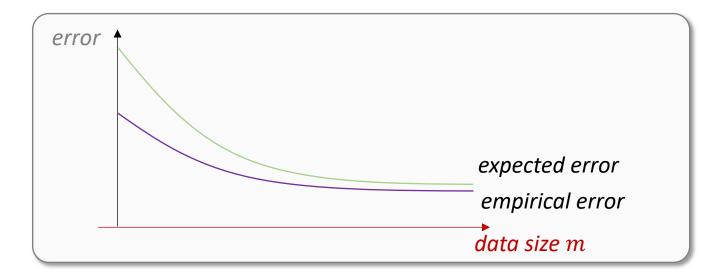
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- Data and complexity are **complementary** in their effect on performance.
- **Q**: What happens if we restrict model complexity?

- Assume we restrict model complexity (e.g., use at most d=5 intervals)
- How does additional data effect performance now?

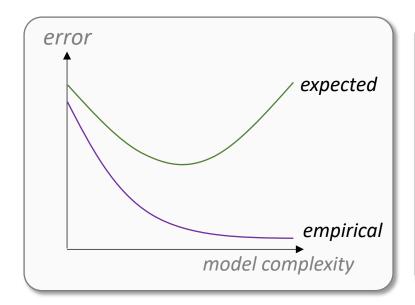
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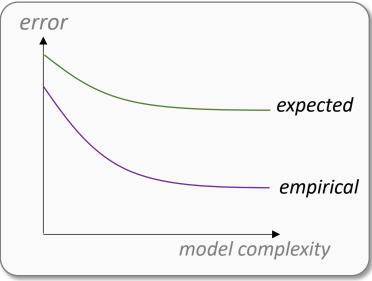


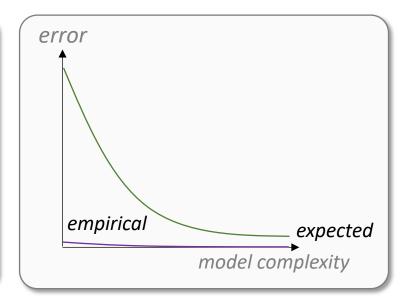
- **Q**: Will they always converge?
- A: Technically yes (as $m \to \infty$), but helpful only if this happens polynomially-fast.
- Important: <u>not</u> all model classes are *learnable* (≈polynomial convergence)

- This is all in **theory** (and on average!) what happens in **practice**?
- Typically, we have a finite data set (fixed m), and can choose the model class (complexity).
- Three possible scenarios:

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Remember: expect smooth behavior only when averaging – single datasets are noisy

Optimization

- Separable: easy (won't go into details)
- Non-separable: hard
- Intuition –ERM as discrete optimization: (fix d)
 - Our previous approaches constructed $\hat{\theta}$ from data points
 - Can think of d intervals as partition $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^m$ into d (consecutive) subsets
 - This means we now need to find best *subset*
 - This (plus a discrete objective) results in a hard combinatorial problem
- This is typical of many learning problems
- We will therefore mostly deal with approximate* learning algorithms
- Remember this when you reason about the performance of \hat{h}

Modeling, revisited

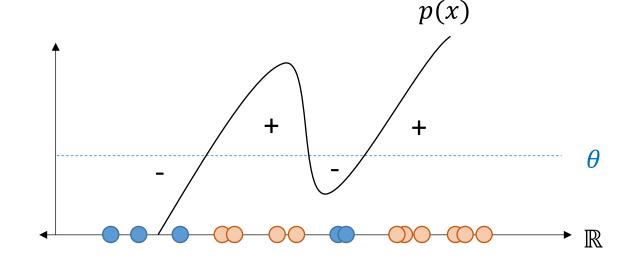
- **Recall**: ERM implementations are typically class-specific
- Models in the class need to have "structure" that can be utilized (think parameterization)
- Unions of intervals are not ideal in that sense
- Q: Can we perhaps tweak thresholds to "behave" like intervals?
- A: Yes using... polynomials! (?)

Modeling, revisited

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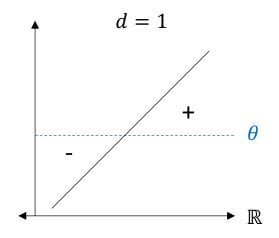
Thresh. polynomial classifier:

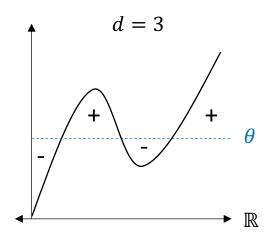
$$h_{p,\theta}(x) = \text{sign}(p(x) > \theta)$$

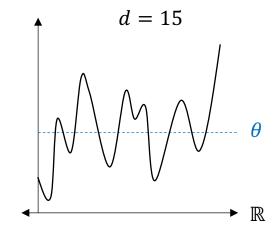


Modeling, revisited

- Parameterization: $p(x) = w_0 + w_1 x + w_2 x^2 + w_3 x^3 + \cdots + w_d x^d$
- Complexity: d = number of intervals <-> degree of polynomial



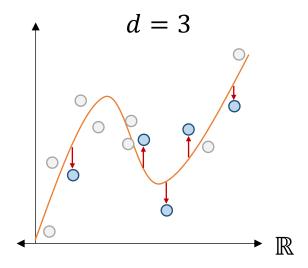




- Polynomial thresholds are great!
 - Generalize 1D thresholds intuitions and conclusions carry over
 - Algorithmically: can solve (tractable) continuous optimization problem
 - Statistically: easy to analyze (well-studied objects)

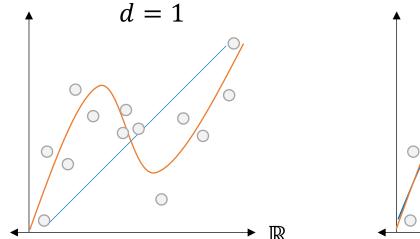
Statistics, revisited

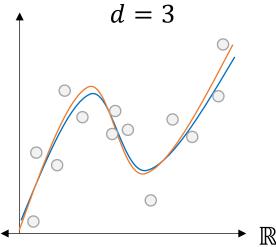
- Intuition: overfitting happens when overly-complex models fit noise
- Easy to visualize for polynomial regression ($\mathcal{Y} = \mathbb{R}$; e.g., least squares)

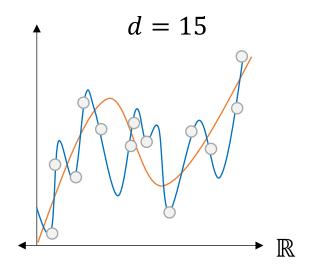


Statistics, revisited

- Intuition: overfitting happens when overly-complex models fit noise
- Easy to visualize for polynomial regression ($\mathcal{Y} = \mathbb{R}$; e.g., least squares)







• (For binary classification – imagine "bit-flip" noise)

Discussion

Recap

- ERM aims to minimize empirical error, but we care about expected error
- Our key quantity of interest is generalization
- Seems straightforward, but in practice many, many subtleties to consider:
 - > Approximation error and estimation error
 - Overfitting and underfitting
 - \triangleright The relation between H and m
 - > The computational hardness of learning
 - ➤ What we can compute and what we cannot
 - How to define "good"
 - > The randomness in... everything
- Beware of potential pitfalls!

Discussion

- Today we discussed several "types" of distributions
- In practice, we won't know our type
- Can make assumptions, but this should be done with care
- (Remember: we *always* make *some* assumptions)
- Alternative: learning algorithms that are distribution-free
- **Pro**: guaranteed to work well for any *D*
- Con: guarantees are always relative (e.g., vs. h^*)
- (In effect, choosing H + sufficing with relative measures = making an assumption)

Next: beyond 1D data

• Consider a degree-d polynomial over reals ($z \in \mathbb{R}$):

$$p(z) = w_0 + w_1 z + w_2 z^2 + w_3 z^3 + \dots + w_d z^d$$

• Now define a *vector representation* of powers of *z*:

$$\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, ..., x_d) = (z, z^2, ..., z^d)$$

• Notice that p(z) is linear in x:

$$p(z) = b + \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}, \qquad b = w_0, \mathbf{w} = (w_1, ..., w_d)$$

- Transformed problem: univariate inputs complex model class => multivariate inputs simple model class
- Next step: generalize to arbitrary high-dimensional vector inputs, $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$
- This is called *linear classification* a problem we will devote much of our time to.

Next week

- **Classification** three methods:
- 1. Similarity-based
- 2. Rule-based
- 3. Linear classifiers