

Bayesian Methods & Multiclass

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Announcement

- Schedule your project consultation soon.
- Use the provided template! (if your final report fails to use template then there will be marks off)
- Homework 3 is released and due Nov 14 11:59AM.

Recap

- Bayesian modeling adds a prior on the parameters.
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- Conjugate prior: Having the same form of distribution as the posterior.

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- Common options:
 - **posterior mean** $\hat{\theta} = \mathbb{E}[\theta \mid \mathcal{D}]$
 - **maximum a posteriori (MAP) estimate** $\hat{\theta} = \arg \max_{\theta} p(\theta \mid \mathcal{D})$
 - Note: this is the **mode** of the posterior distribution

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- Select a point estimate using **Bayesian decision theory**:
 - Choose a loss function.
 - Find action **minimizing expected risk w.r.t. posterior**

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- A **Bayes action** a^* is an action that minimizes posterior risk:

$$r(a^*) = \min_{a \in \mathcal{A}} r(a)$$

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Important Cases

- Squared Loss : $\ell(\hat{\theta}, \theta) = (\theta - \hat{\theta})^2 \Rightarrow$ posterior mean
- Zero-one Loss: $\ell(\theta, \hat{\theta}) = \mathbb{1}[\theta \neq \hat{\theta}] \Rightarrow$ posterior mode
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- mean: 3.875; mode: 5; median: 4

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- The **Bayes action** for **square loss** is the posterior mean.

Interim summary

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 - For decision making, we need a **loss function**.

Recap: Conditional Probability Models

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 - θ is a **parameter** in a [finite dimensional] **parameter space** Θ .
- This is the common starting point for either classical or Bayesian regression.

Classical treatment: Likelihood Function

- **Data:** $\mathcal{D} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$
- The probability density for our data \mathcal{D} is

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- For fixed \mathcal{D} , the function $\theta \mapsto p(\mathcal{D} \mid x, \theta)$ is the **likelihood function**:

$$L_{\mathcal{D}}(\theta) = p(\mathcal{D} \mid x, \theta),$$

where $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$.

- The **maximum likelihood estimator (MLE)** for θ in the family $\{p(y | x, \theta) | \theta \in \Theta\}$ is

$$\hat{\theta}_{\text{MLE}} = \arg \max_{\theta \in \Theta} L_{\mathcal{D}}(\theta).$$

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- The corresponding prediction function is

$$\hat{f}(x) = p(y | x, \hat{\theta}_{\text{MLE}}).$$

Bayesian Conditional Probability Models

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- A **prior distribution** $p(\theta)$ on $\theta \in \Theta$.

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- Each θ corresponds to a prediction function,
 - i.e. the conditional distribution function $p(y \mid x, \theta)$.

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- We can use **Bayesian decision theory** to derive point estimates.
- We may want to use
 - $\hat{\theta} = \mathbb{E}[\theta \mid \mathcal{D}, x]$ (the posterior mean estimate)
 - $\hat{\theta} = \text{median}[\theta \mid \mathcal{D}, x]$
 - $\hat{\theta} = \arg \max_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta \mid \mathcal{D}, x)$ (the MAP estimate)
- depending on our loss function.

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- and a prior distribution $p(\theta)$ on this set.
- Having set our Bayesian model, how do we predict a distribution on y for input x ?
- We don't need to make a discrete selection from the hypothesis space: we **maintain uncertainty**.

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- In the frequentist approach, we choose $\hat{\theta} \in \Theta$, and predict

$$p(y | x, \hat{\theta}(\mathcal{D})).$$

Comparison to Frequentist Approach

- In Bayesian statistics we have two distributions on Θ :
 - the prior distribution $p(\theta)$
 - the posterior distribution $p(\theta | \mathcal{D})$.
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- In the frequentist approach, we choose $\hat{\theta} \in \Theta$, and predict

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- In the Bayesian approach, we integrate out over Θ w.r.t. $p(\theta | \mathcal{D})$ and predict with

$$p(y | x, \mathcal{D}) = \int p(y | x; \theta) p(\theta | \mathcal{D}) d\theta$$

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- Each of these can be derived from $p(y \mid x, \mathcal{D})$.

Gaussian Regression Example

Example in 1-Dimension: Setup

- Input space $\mathcal{X} = [-1, 1]$ Output space $\mathcal{Y} = \mathbb{R}$
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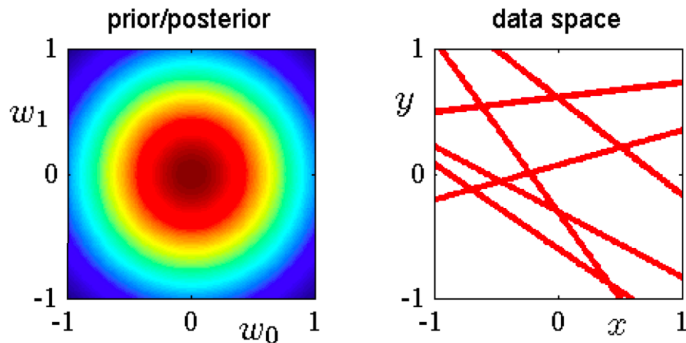
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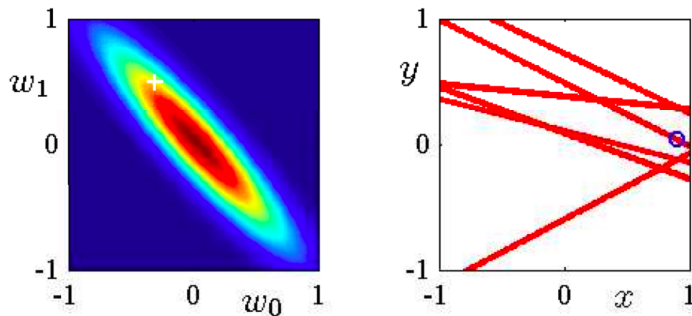
Example in 1-Dimension: Prior Situation

- **Prior distribution:** $w = (w_0, w_1) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \frac{1}{2}I)$ (Illustrated on left)



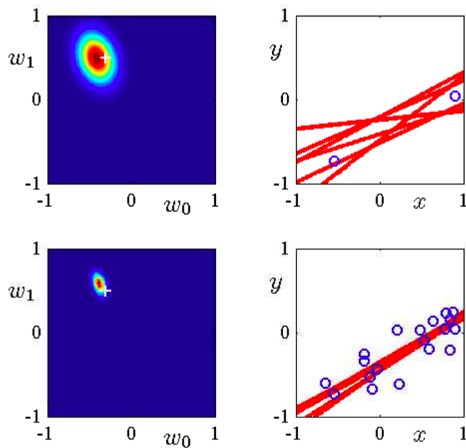
- On right, $y(x) = \mathbb{E}[y \mid x, w] = w_0 + w_1 x$, for randomly chosen $w \sim p(w) = \mathcal{N}(0, \frac{1}{2}I)$.

Example in 1-Dimension: 1 Observation



- On left: posterior distribution; white cross indicates true parameters
- On right:
 - blue circle indicates the training observation
 - red lines, $y(x) = \mathbb{E}[y | x, w] = w_0 + w_1 x$, for randomly chosen $w \sim p(w|\mathcal{D})$ (posterior)

Example in 1-Dimension: 2 and 20 Observations



Gaussian Regression: Closed form

Closed Form for Posterior

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- **Posterior Variance Σ_P gives us a natural uncertainty measure.**

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which is of course the ridge regression solution.

Connection the MAP to Ridge Regression

- The **Posterior density** on w for $\Sigma_0 = \frac{\sigma^2}{\lambda} I$:

$$p(w \mid \mathcal{D}) \propto \underbrace{\exp\left(-\frac{\lambda}{2\sigma^2} \|w\|^2\right)}_{\text{prior}} \underbrace{\prod_{i=1}^n \exp\left(-\frac{(y_i - w^T x_i)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)}_{\text{likelihood}}$$

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- Which is the ridge regression objective.

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- For Gaussian regression, predictive distribution has closed form.

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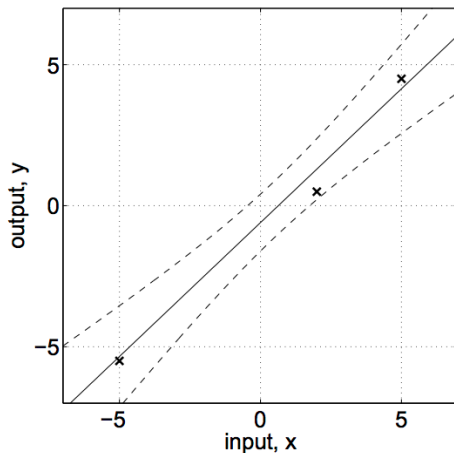
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Bayesian Regression Provides Uncertainty Estimates

- With predictive distributions, we can give mean prediction with error bands:



Multi-class Overview

- So far, most algorithms we've learned are designed for binary classification.
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- Many real-world problems have more than two classes.
 - Document classification (over 10 classes)
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- What are some potential issues when we have a large number of classes?
 - Computation cost
 - Class imbalance
 - Different cost of errors

Today's lecture

- How to *reduce* multiclass classification to binary classification?
 - We can think of binary classifier or linear regression as a black box. Naive ways:
 - E.g. multiple binary classifiers produce a binary code for each class (000, 001, 010)
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- How do we *generalize* binary classification algorithm to the multiclass setting?
 - We also need to think about the loss function.
- Example of very large output space: structured prediction.
 - Multi-class: Mutually exclusive class structure.
 - Text: Temporal relational structure.

Reduction to Binary Classification

Setting

- Input space: \mathcal{X}
- Output space: $\mathcal{Y} = \{1, \dots, k\}$

One-vs-All / One-vs-Rest

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Prediction

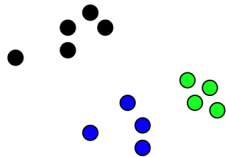
- Majority vote:

$$h(x) = \arg \max_{i \in \{1, \dots, k\}} h_i(x)$$

- Ties can be broken arbitrarily.

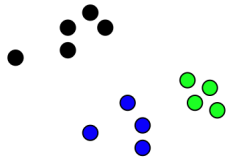
OvA: 3-class example (linear classifier)

Consider a dataset with three classes:

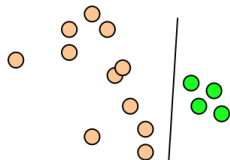
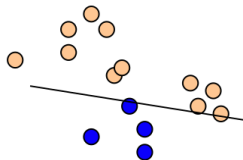
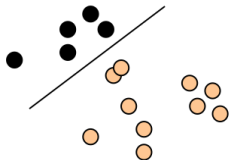


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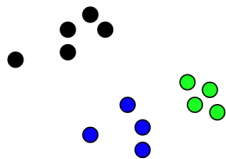


Train OvA classifiers:



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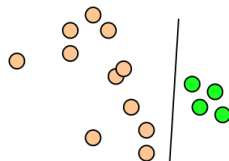
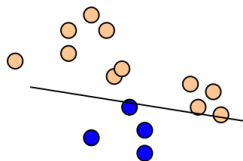
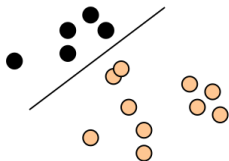
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Assumption: each class is linearly separable from the rest.

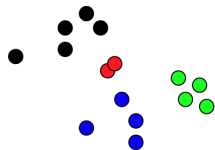
Ideal case: only target class has positive score.

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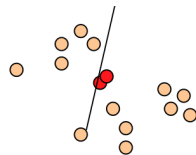
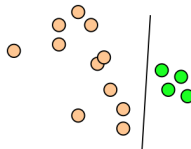
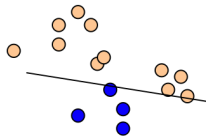
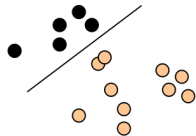


OvA: 4-class non linearly separable example

Consider a dataset with four classes:

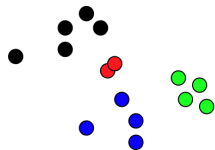


Train OvA classifiers:



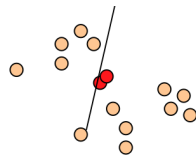
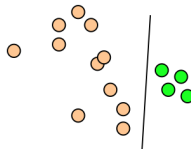
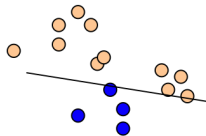
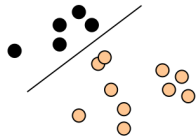
OvA: 4-class non linearly separable example

Consider a dataset with four classes:



Cannot separate **red** points from the rest.
Which classes might have low accuracy?

Train OvA classifiers:



All vs All / One vs One / All pairs

Setting

- Input space: \mathcal{X}
- Output space: $\mathcal{Y} = \{1, \dots, k\}$

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- Train $\binom{k}{2}$ binary classifiers, one for each pair: $h_{ij} : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ for $i \in [1, k]$ and $j \in [i+1, k]$.
- Classifier h_{ij} distinguishes class i (+1) from class j (-1).

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Prediction

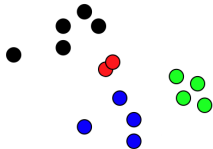
- Majority vote (each class gets $k-1$ votes)

$$h(x) = \arg \max_{i \in \{1, \dots, k\}} \sum_{j \neq i} \underbrace{h_{ij}(x) \mathbb{I}\{i < j\}}_{\text{class } i \text{ is } +1} - \underbrace{h_{ji}(x) \mathbb{I}\{j < i\}}_{\text{class } i \text{ is } -1}$$

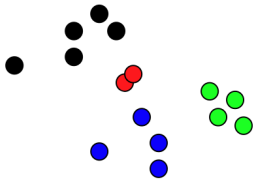
- Tournament
- Ties can be broken arbitrarily.

AvA: four-class example

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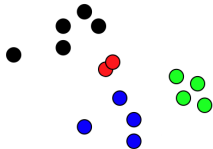


What's the decision region for the red class?



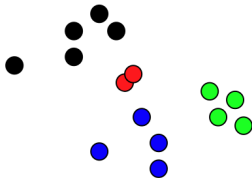
AvA: four-class example

Consider a dataset with four classes:



Assumption: each pair of classes are linearly separable.
More expressive than OvA.

What's the decision region for the red class?



OvA vs AvA

		OvA	AvA
computation	train	$O(k^2)$	$O(k^2)$
	test	$O(k)$	$O(k^2)$

OvA vs AvA

		OvA	AvA
computation	train	$O(kB_{\text{train}}(n))$	$O(k^2B_{\text{train}}(n/k))$
	test	$O(kB_{\text{test}})$	$O(k^2B_{\text{test}})$

challenges

OvA vs AvA

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computation	train	$O(kB_{\text{train}}(n))$	$O(k^2B_{\text{train}}(n/k))$
	test	$O(kB_{\text{test}})$	$O(k^2B_{\text{test}})$
challenges	train	class imbalance	small training set
	test	calibration / scale tie breaking	

Lack theoretical justification but simple to implement and works well in practice (when # classes is small).

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OvA encoding:

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OvA uses k bits to encode each label, what's the minimal number of bits you can use?

Error correcting output codes (ECOC)

Example: 8 classes, 6-bit code

class	h_1	h_2	h_3	h_4	h_5	h_6
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- +1: classes whose i -th bit is 1
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Code design Want good binary classifiers.

Error correcting output codes: summary

- Computationally more efficient than OvA (a special case of ECOC). Better for large k .
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- Why not use the minimal number of bits ($\log_2 k$)?
 - If the minimum Hamming distance between any pair of code word is d , then it can correct $\lfloor \frac{d-1}{2} \rfloor$ errors.
 - In plain words, if rows are far from each other, ECOC is robust to errors.
- Trade-off between code distance and binary classification performance.
- Nice theoretical results [Allwein et al., 2000] (also incorporates AvA).

Reduction-based approaches:

- Reducing multiclass classification to binary classification: OvA, AvA
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- Key is to design “natural” binary classification problems without large computation cost.

But,

- Unclear how to generalize to extremely large # of classes.
- ImageNet: >20k labels; Wikipedia: >1M categories.

Next, generalize previous algorithms to multiclass settings.

Multiclass Loss

Binary Logistic Regression

- Given an input x , we would like to output a classification between $(0,1)$.

$$f(x) = \textit{sigmoid}(z) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-z)} = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-w^\top x - b)}. \quad (1)$$

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- The other class is represented in $1 - f(x)$:

$$1 - f(x) = \frac{\exp(-w^\top x - b)}{1 + \exp(-w^\top x - b)} = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(w^\top x + b)} = \textit{sigmoid}(-z). \quad (2)$$

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- Another way to view: one class has $(+w, +b)$ and the other class has $(-w, -b)$.

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$$f_c(x) = \frac{\exp(w_c^\top x) + b_c}{\sum_c \exp(w_c^\top x + b_c)} \quad (3)$$

- Also called “softmax” in neural networks.

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- Loss function: $L = \sum_i -y_c^{(i)} \log f_c(x^{(i)})$
- Gradient: $\frac{\partial L}{\partial z} = f - y$. Recall: MSE loss.

Comparison to OvA

- **Base Hypothesis Space:** $\mathcal{H} = \{h : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}\}$ (score functions).
- **Multiclass Hypothesis Space** (for k classes):

$$\mathcal{F} = \left\{ x \mapsto \arg \max_i h_i(x) \mid h_1, \dots, h_k \in \mathcal{H} \right\}$$

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- OvA objective: $h_i(x) > 0$ for x with label i and $h_i(x) < 0$ for x with all other labels.

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- OvA objective: $h_i(x) > 0$ for x with label i and $h_i(x) < 0$ for x with all other labels.
- At test time, to predict (x, i) correctly we only need

$$h_i(x) > h_j(x) \quad \forall j \neq i. \quad (4)$$

Multiclass Perceptron

- Base linear predictors: $h_i(x) = w_i^T x$ ($w \in \mathbb{R}^d$).

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Initialize $w \leftarrow 0$;

for $iter = 1, 2, \dots, T$ **do**

for $(x, y) \in \mathcal{D}$ **do**

$\hat{y} = \arg \max_{y' \in \mathcal{Y}} w_{y'}^T x$;

if $\hat{y} \neq y$ **then** // We've made a mistake

$w_y \leftarrow w_y + x$; // Move the target-class scorer towards x

$w_{\hat{y}} \leftarrow w_{\hat{y}} - x$; // Move the wrong-class scorer away from x

end

end

end

Rewrite the scoring function

- Remember that we want to scale to very large # of classes and reuse algorithms and analysis for binary classification
 - \Rightarrow a **single weight vector** is desired
- How to rewrite the equation such that we have one w instead of k ?

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$$w_i^T x = w^T \psi(x, i) \quad (5)$$

$$h_i(x) = h(x, i) \quad (6)$$

- Encode labels in the feature space.
- Score for each label \rightarrow score for the “*compatibility*” of a label and an input.

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- What if we stack w_i 's together (e.g., $x \in \mathbb{R}^2, y = \{1, 2, 3\}$)

$$w = \left(\underbrace{-\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}, \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}}_{w_1}, \underbrace{0, 1}_{w_2}, \underbrace{\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}, \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}}_{w_3} \right)$$

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- And then do the following: $\Psi : \mathbb{R}^2 \times \{1, 2, 3\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^6$ defined by

$$\Psi(x, 1) := (x_1, x_2, 0, 0, 0, 0)$$

$$\Psi(x, 2) := (0, 0, x_1, x_2, 0, 0)$$

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- Then $\langle w, \Psi(x, y) \rangle = \langle w_y, x \rangle$, which is what we want.

Rewrite multiclass perceptron

Multiclass perceptron using the multivector construction.

Given a multiclass dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{(x, y)\}$;

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$w \leftarrow w + \psi(x, y)$; // Move the scorer towards $\psi(x, y)$

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Exercise: What is the base binary classification problem in multiclass perceptron?

Toy multiclass example: Part-of-speech classification

- $\mathcal{X} = \{\text{All possible words}\}$
- $\mathcal{Y} = \{\text{NOUN, VERB, ADJECTIVE, } \dots\}$.

Features

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- Features of $x \in \mathcal{X}$: [The word itself], ENDS_IN_ly, ENDS_IN_ness, ...

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How to construct the feature vector?

- Multivector construction: $w \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times k}$ —**doesn't scale**.
- Directly design features for each class.

$$\Psi(x, y) = (\psi_1(x, y), \psi_2(x, y), \psi_3(x, y), \dots, \psi_d(x, y)) \quad (7)$$

- Size can be bounded by d .

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- E.g., $\Psi(x = \text{run}, y = \text{NOUN}) = (0, 1, 0, 0, \dots)$
- After training, what's w_1, w_2, w_3, w_4 ?
- No need to include features unseen in training data.

Feature templates: implementation

- Flexible, e.g., neighboring words, suffix/prefix.
- “Read off” features from the training data.
- Often sparse—efficient in practice, e.g., NLP problems.
- Can use a hash function: template $\rightarrow \{1, 2, \dots, d\}$.

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- How to generalize the perceptron algorithm to multiclass setting.
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Next,

- How to generalize SVM to the multiclass setting.
- **Concept check:** Why might one prefer SVM / perceptron?

Margin for Multiclass

- Binary
- Margin for $(x^{(n)}, y^{(n)})$:

$$y^{(n)} w^T x^{(n)} \quad (8)$$

- Want margin to be large and positive ($w^T x^{(n)}$ has same sign as $y^{(n)}$)

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Multiclass • Class-specific margin for $(x^{(n)}, y^{(n)})$:

$$h(x^{(n)}, y^{(n)}) - h(x^{(n)}, y). \quad (9)$$

- Difference between scores of the correct class and each other class
- Want margin to be large and positive for all $y \neq y^{(n)}$.

Multiclass SVM: separable case

Binary

$$\min_w \quad \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 \quad (10)$$

$$\text{s.t.} \quad \underbrace{y^{(n)} w^T x^{(n)}}_{\text{margin}} \geq 1 \quad \forall (x^{(n)}, y^{(n)}) \in \mathcal{D} \quad (11)$$

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Multiclass As in the binary case, take 1 as our target margin.

$$m_{n,y}(w) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \underbrace{\langle w, \Psi(x^{(n)}, y^{(n)}) \rangle}_{\text{score of correct class}} - \underbrace{\langle w, \Psi(x^{(n)}, y) \rangle}_{\text{score of other class}} \quad (12)$$

$$\min_w \quad \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 \quad (13)$$

$$\text{s.t.} \quad m_{n,y}(w) \geq 1 \quad \forall (x^{(n)}, y^{(n)}) \in \mathcal{D}, y \neq y^{(n)} \quad (14)$$

Multiclass SVM: separable case

Binary

$$\min_w \quad \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 \quad (10)$$

$$\text{s.t.} \quad \underbrace{y^{(n)} w^T x^{(n)}}_{\text{margin}} \geq 1 \quad \forall (x^{(n)}, y^{(n)}) \in \mathcal{D} \quad (11)$$

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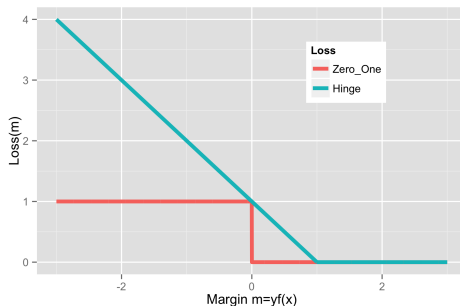
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Exercise: write the objective for the non-separable case

Recap: hinge loss for binary classification

- Hinge loss: a convex upperbound on the 0-1 loss

$$\ell_{\text{hinge}}(y, \hat{y}) = \max(0, 1 - yf(x)) \quad (15)$$



Generalized hinge loss

- What's the zero-one loss for multiclass classification?

(16)

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- Generalized hinge loss:

$$\ell_{\text{hinge}}(y, x, w) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \max_{y' \in \mathcal{Y}} (\Delta(y, y') - \langle w, (\Psi(x, y) - \Psi(x, y')) \rangle) \quad (20)$$

Multiclass SVM with Hinge Loss

- Recall the hinge loss formulation for binary SVM (without the bias term):

$$\min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^d} \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 + C \sum_{n=1}^N \max \left(0, 1 - \underbrace{y^{(n)} w^T x^{(n)}}_{\text{margin}} \right).$$

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- The multiclass objective:

$$\min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^d} \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 + C \sum_{n=1}^N \max_{y' \in \mathcal{Y}} \left(\Delta(y, y') - \underbrace{\langle w, (\Psi(x, y) - \Psi(x, y')) \rangle}_{\text{margin}} \right)$$

- $\Delta(y, y')$ as **target margin** for each class.
- If margin $m_{n, y'}(w)$ meets or exceeds its target $\Delta(y^{(n)}, y') \forall y' \in \mathcal{Y}$, then no loss on example n .

Recap: What Have We Got?

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 - Train k models: $h_1(x), \dots, h_k(x) : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.
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 - Gave simple example where this fails for linear classifiers
- Solution 2: Multiclass loss
 - Train one model: $h(x, y) : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.
 - Prediction involves solving $\arg \max_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} h(x, y)$.

Does it work better in practice?

- Paper by Rifkin & Klautau: “In Defense of One-Vs-All Classification” (2004)
 - Extensive experiments, carefully done
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 - (or at least, the advantages claimed by earlier papers for multiclass methods were not compelling)
- Compared
 - many multiclass frameworks (including the one we discuss)
 - one-vs-all for SVMs with RBF kernel
 - one-vs-all for square loss with RBF kernel (for classification!)
- All performed roughly the same

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- Generalizes to situations where k is very large and one-vs-all is intractable.
- Key idea is that we can generalize across outputs y by using features of y .

Introduction to Structured Prediction

Example: Part-of-speech (POS) Tagging

- Given a sentence, give a part of speech tag for each word:

x	$\underbrace{[\text{START}]}_{x_0}$	$\underbrace{\text{He}}_{x_1}$	$\underbrace{\text{eats}}_{x_2}$	$\underbrace{\text{apples}}_{x_3}$
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- $\mathcal{X} = \mathcal{V}^n, n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ [Word sequences of any length]
- $\mathcal{P} = \{\text{START, Pronoun, Verb, Noun, Adjective}\}$
- $\mathcal{Y} = \mathcal{P}^n, n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ [Part of speech sequence of any length]

Multiclass Hypothesis Space

- **Discrete** output space: $\mathcal{Y}(x)$
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- Multiclass hypothesis space

$$\mathcal{F} = \left\{ x \mapsto \arg \max_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} h(x, y) \mid h \in \mathcal{H} \right\}$$

- Final prediction function is an $f \in \mathcal{F}$.
- For each $f \in \mathcal{F}$ there is an underlying compatibility score function $h \in \mathcal{H}$.

Structured Prediction

- Part-of-speech tagging

x :	he	eats	apples
y :	pronoun	verb	noun

- Multiclass hypothesis space:

$$h(x, y) = w^T \Psi(x, y) \quad (21)$$

$$\mathcal{F} = \left\{ x \mapsto \arg \max_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} h(x, y) \mid h \in \mathcal{H} \right\} \quad (22)$$

- A special case of multiclass classification
- How to design the feature map Ψ ? What are the considerations?

Unary features

- A **unary feature** only depends on
 - the label at a **single position**, y_i , and x
- Example:

$$\phi_1(x, y_i) = \mathbb{1}[x_i = \text{runs}] \mathbb{1}[y_i = \text{Verb}]$$

$$\phi_2(x, y_i) = \mathbb{1}[x_i = \text{runs}] \mathbb{1}[y_i = \text{Noun}]$$

$$\phi_3(x, y_i) = \mathbb{1}[x_{i-1} = \text{He}] \mathbb{1}[x_i = \text{runs}] \mathbb{1}[y_i = \text{Verb}]$$

Markov features

- A **markov feature** only depends on
 - two **adjacent** labels, y_{i-1} and y_i , and x
- Example:

$$\theta_1(x, y_{i-1}, y_i) = \mathbb{1}[y_{i-1} = \text{Pronoun}] \mathbb{1}[y_i = \text{Verb}]$$

$$\theta_2(x, y_{i-1}, y_i) = \mathbb{1}[y_{i-1} = \text{Pronoun}] \mathbb{1}[y_i = \text{Noun}]$$

- Reminiscent of Markov models in the output space
- Possible to have higher-order features

Local Feature Vector and Compatibility Score

- At each position i in sequence, define the **local feature vector** (unary and markov):

$$\Psi_i(x, y_{i-1}, y_i) = (\phi_1(x, y_i), \phi_2(x, y_i), \dots, \theta_1(x, y_{i-1}, y_i), \theta_2(x, y_{i-1}, y_i), \dots)$$

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- And **local compatibility score** at position i : $\langle w, \Psi_i(x, y_{i-1}, y_i) \rangle$.

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- And **local compatibility score** at position i : $\langle w, \Psi_i(x, y_{i-1}, y_i) \rangle$.
- The compatibility score for (x, y) is the sum of local compatibility scores:

$$\sum_i \langle w, \Psi_i(x, y_{i-1}, y_i) \rangle = \left\langle w, \sum_i \Psi_i(x, y_{i-1}, y_i) \right\rangle = \langle w, \Psi(x, y) \rangle, \quad (23)$$

where we define the **sequence feature vector** by

$$\Psi(x, y) = \sum_i \Psi_i(x, y_{i-1}, y_i). \quad \text{decomposable}$$

Structured perceptron

Given a dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{(x, y)\}$;

Initialize $w \leftarrow 0$;

for $iter = 1, 2, \dots, T$ **do**

for $(x, y) \in \mathcal{D}$ **do**

$\hat{y} = \arg \max_{y' \in \mathcal{Y}(x)} w^T \psi(x, y')$;

if $\hat{y} \neq y$ **then** // We've made a mistake

$w \leftarrow w + \Psi(x, y)$; // Move the scorer towards $\psi(x, y)$

$w \leftarrow w - \Psi(x, \hat{y})$; // Move the scorer away from $\psi(x, \hat{y})$

end

end

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Identical to the multiclass perceptron algorithm except the $\arg \max$ is now over the structured output space $\mathcal{Y}(x)$.

Structured hinge loss

- Recall the generalized hinge loss

$$\ell_{\text{hinge}}(y, \hat{y}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \max_{y' \in \mathcal{Y}(x)} (\Delta(y, y') + \langle w, (\Psi(x, y') - \Psi(x, y)) \rangle) \quad (24)$$

- What is $\Delta(y, y')$ for two sequences?

Structured hinge loss

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- What is $\Delta(y, y')$ for two sequences?
- Hamming loss** is common:

$$\Delta(y, y') = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{i=1}^L \mathbb{1}[y_i \neq y'_i]$$

where L is the sequence length.

Exercise:

- Write down the objective of structured SVM using the structured hinge loss.
- Stochastic sub-gradient descent for structured SVM (similar to HW3 P3)
- Compare with the structured perceptron algorithm

The argmax problem for sequences

Problem To compute predictions, we need to find $\arg \max_{y \in \mathcal{Y}(x)} \langle w, \Psi(x, y) \rangle$, and $|\mathcal{Y}(x)|$ is exponentially large.

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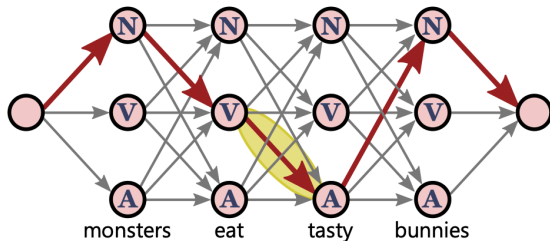
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Observation $\Psi(x, y)$ decomposes to $\sum_i \Psi_i(x, y)$.

Solution Dynamic programming (similar to the Viterbi algorithm)



What's the running time?

Conditional random field (CRF)

- Recall that we can write logistic regression in a general form:

$$p(y|x) = \frac{1}{Z(x)} \exp(w^\top \psi(x, y)).$$

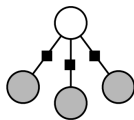
- Z is normalization constant: $Z(x) = \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \exp(w^\top \psi(x, y))$.

Conditional random field (CRF)

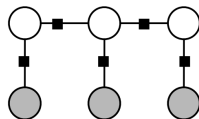
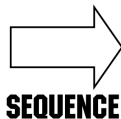
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- Z is normalization constant: $Z(x) = \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \exp(w^\top \psi(x, y))$.
- Example: linear chain $\{y_t\}$
- We can incorporate unary and Markov features: $p(y|x) = \frac{1}{Z(x)} \exp(\sum_t w^\top \psi(x, y_t, y_{t-1}))$



Logistic Regression



Linear-chain CRFs

Conditional random field (CRF)

- Compared to Structured SVM, CRF has a probabilistic interpretation.
- We can draw samples in the output space.

Conditional random field (CRF)

- Compared to Structured SVM, CRF has a probabilistic interpretation.
- We can draw samples in the output space.
- How do we learn w ? Maximum log likelihood, and regularization term: $\lambda \|w\|^2$
- Loss function:

$$\begin{aligned} l(w) &= -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \log p(y^{(i)} | x^{(i)}) + \frac{1}{2} \lambda \|w\|^2 \\ &= -\frac{1}{N} \sum_i \sum_t \sum_k w_k \psi_k(y_t^{(i)}, y_{t-1}^{(i)}) + \frac{1}{N} \sum_i \log Z(x^{(i)}) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_k \lambda w_k^2 \end{aligned}$$

Conditional random field (CRF)

- Loss function:

$$l(w) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_i \sum_t \sum_k w_k \psi_k(x^{(i)}, y_t^{(i)}, y_{t-1}^{(i)}) + \frac{1}{N} \sum_i \log Z(x^{(i)}) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_k \lambda w_k^2$$

- Gradient:

$$\frac{\partial l(w)}{\partial w_k} = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_i \sum_t \sum_k \psi_k(x^{(i)}, y_t^{(i)}, y_{t-1}^{(i)}) \quad (25)$$

$$+ \frac{1}{N} \sum_i \frac{\partial}{\partial w_k} \log \sum_{y' \in Y} \exp\left(\sum_t \sum_{k'} w_{k'} \psi_{k'}(x^{(i)}, y'_t, y'_{t-1})\right) + \sum_k \lambda w_k \quad (26)$$

Conditional random field (CRF)

- What is $\frac{1}{N} \sum_i \sum_t \sum_k \psi_k(x^{(i)}, y_t^{(i)}, y_{t-1}^{(i)})$?

Conditional random field (CRF)

- What is $\frac{1}{N} \sum_i \sum_t \sum_k \psi_k(x^{(i)}, y_t^{(i)}, y_{t-1}^{(i)})$?
- It is the expectation $\psi_k(x^{(i)}, y_t, y_{t-1})$ under the empirical distribution $\tilde{p}(x, y) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i \mathbb{1}[x = x^{(i)}] \mathbb{1}[y = y^{(i)}]$.

Conditional random field (CRF)

- What is $\frac{1}{N} \sum_i \frac{\partial}{\partial w_k} \log \sum_{y' \in Y} \exp(\sum_t \sum_{k'} w_{k'} \psi_{k'}(x^{(i)}, y'_t, y'_{t-1}))$?

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$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_i \frac{\partial}{\partial w_k} \log \sum_{y' \in Y} \exp(\sum_t \sum_{k'} w_{k'} \psi_{k'}(x^{(i)}, y'_t, y'_{t-1})) \quad (27)$$

$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_i \left[\sum_{y' \in Y} \exp(\sum_t \sum_{k'} w_{k'} \psi_{k'}(x^{(i)}, y'_t, y'_{t-1})) \right]^{-1} \quad (28)$$

$$\left[\sum_{y' \in Y} \exp(\sum_t \sum_{k'} w_{k'} \psi_{k'}(x^{(i)}, y'_t, y'_{t-1})) \sum_t \psi_k(x^{(i)}, y'_t, y'_{t-1}) \right] \quad (29)$$

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- It is the expectation of $\psi_k(x^{(i)}, y'_t, y'_{t-1})$ under the model distribution $p(y'_t, y'_{t-1} | x)$.

Conditional random field (CRF)

- To compute the gradient, we need to infer expectation under the model distribution $p(y|x)$.

Conditional random field (CRF)

- To compute the gradient, we need to infer expectation under the model distribution $p(y|x)$.
- Compare the learning algorithms: in structured SVM we need to compute the argmax, whereas in CRF we need to compute the model expectation.

Conditional random field (CRF)

- To compute the gradient, we need to infer expectation under the model distribution $p(y|x)$.
- Compare the learning algorithms: in structured SVM we need to compute the argmax, whereas in CRF we need to compute the model expectation.
- Both problems are NP-hard for general graphs.

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- In general graphs, we rely on approximate inference (e.g. loopy belief propagation).

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- Multi-label learning
An image may contain multiple class labels, e.g. a bus is likely to co-occur with a car.

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- Structured prediction: Structured SVM, CRF. Data containing structure. Extremely large output space. Text and image applications.