CSCI E-82
Advanced Machine Learning,
Data Mining & Artificial Intelligence
Lecture 8

Classification, Part 2

Peter V. Henstock Fall 2018

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What is Machine Learning?

Machine Learning

- Set of methods that enables solving problems that traditional programming cannot solve
- Can you write a program to recognize Chinese characters in images?
- Can you write a program to assist oncologists recognize tumors?
- Can you recommend songs to strangers?
- Can you assess credit card transactions?
- What enables you to recognize Picasso's or Mozart's style?

Machine Learning Alternative

- Don't code a set of instructions
- Allow machine learning methods to train for a given task on a large set of data
 - Very little coding
 - Lots of information
- If problem changes, give it new data
- Much cheaper approach

Traditional Computing

- Computers have traditionally been used as fast calculators
- Fast calculations have been used to execute series of instructions provided by developers



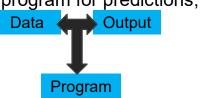
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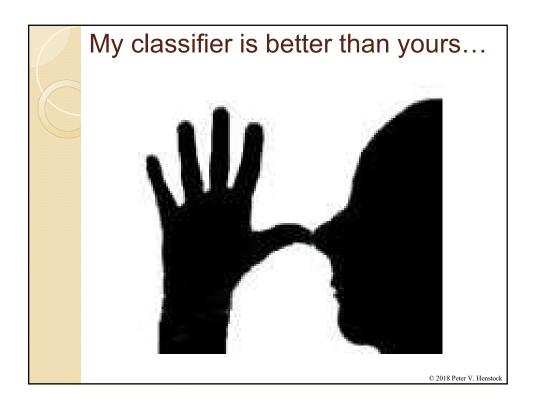
Machine Learning Paradigm Shift

Traditional



- Machine Learning
 - Instructions are not provided
 - Data provides the "instructions"
 - Infer instructions from the data
 - Can apply program for predictions, etc.

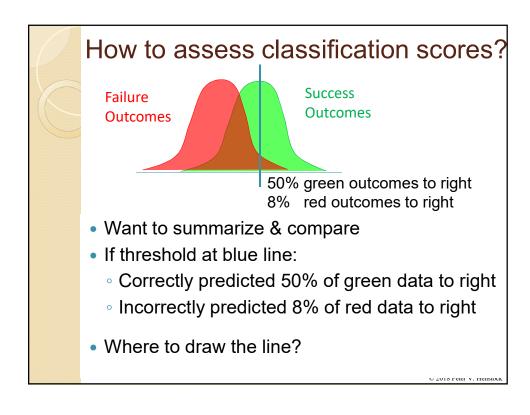


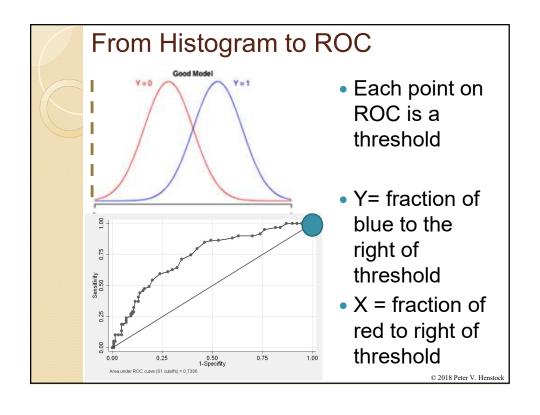


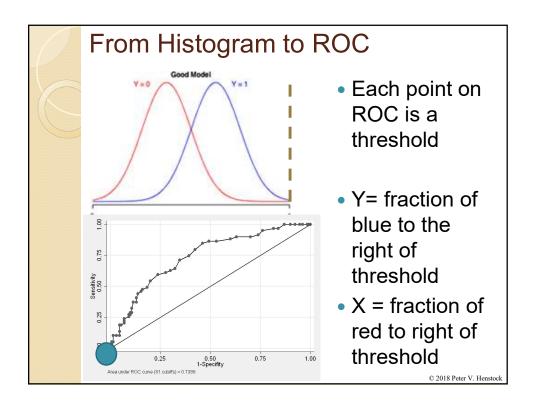
Limitations of Confusion Matrix

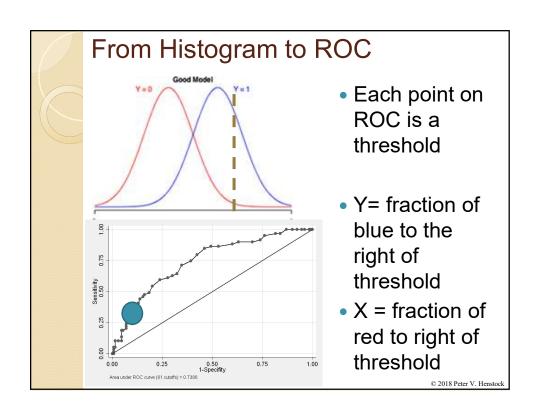
Confusion Matrix	Predicted True	Predicted False	
Actually True	TP	FN	P = TP + FN
Actually False	FP	TN	N = FP + TN
	P' = TP + FP	N'=FN + TN	

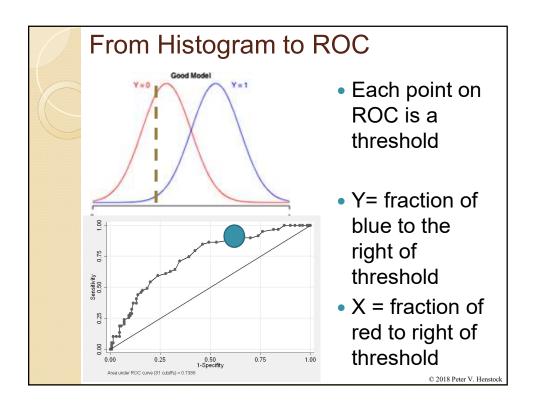
- One fundamental issue that we have with a confusion matrix by its nature
- What does it assume?

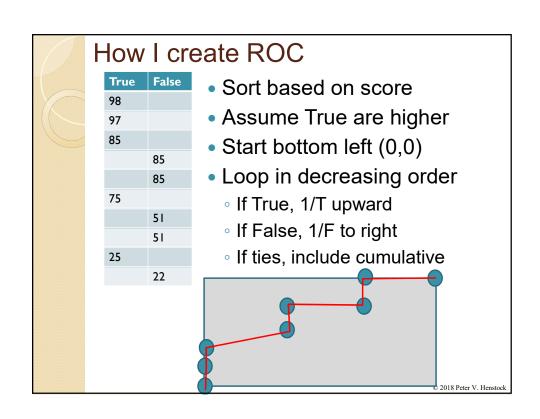




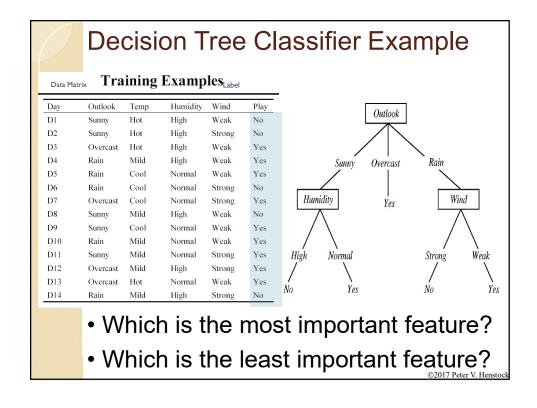


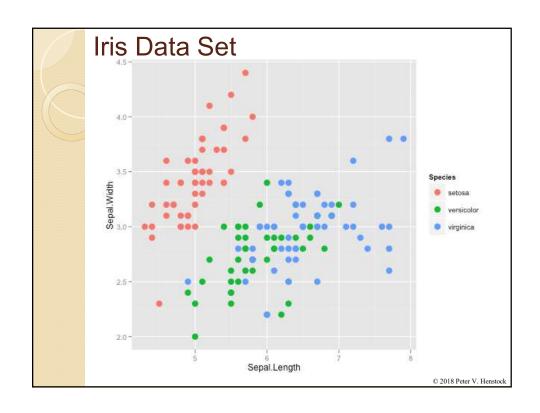


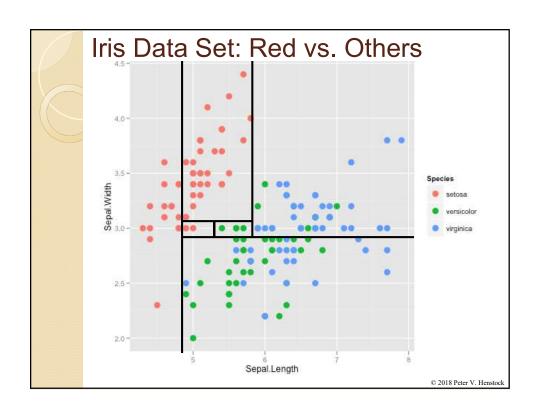


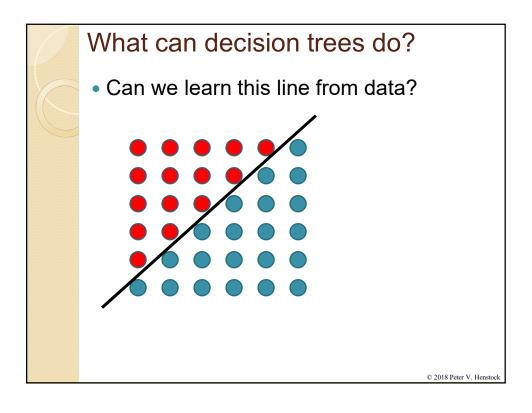


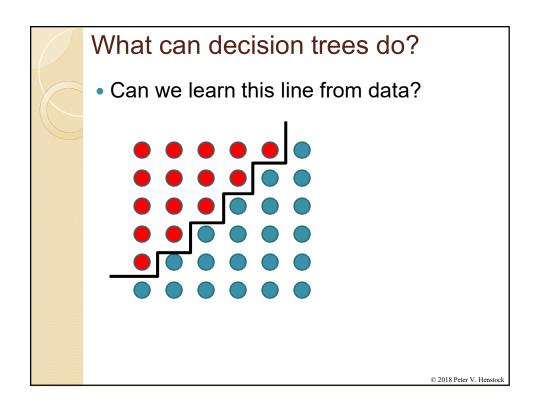
Decision Trees











Impurity Measures

- Error rate
- Entropy of distribution
 - $\cdot H = \sum_{pts} P_{class}(pts) log_2[P_{class}(pts)]$
 - Entropy is 0 when classes are pure
 - Entropy is 1 when equally split
- Gini Index
 - $Gini = \sum_{pts} P_{class}(pts) (1 P_{class}(pts))$

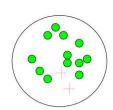
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Impurity Measure

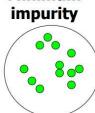
• (No, we are not talking about your college fraternity purity test)

Very impure group

Less impure



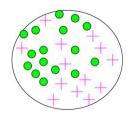
Minimum impurity



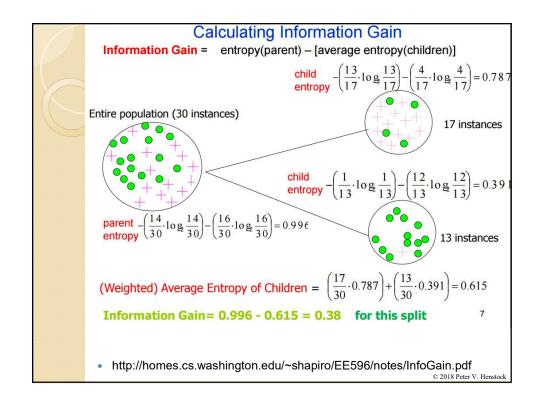
http://homes.cs.washington.edu/~shapiro/EE596/notes/InfoGain.pdf
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Entropy Measure

- Entropy = $\Sigma_i p_i \log_2(p_i)$
- Entropy = measure of chaos



- 16/30 green circles; 14/30 purple "+"
- Entropy = $-16/30 \log_2(16/30) 14/30\log_2(14/30)$
- Entropy = 0.99
- Superior way of measuring impurity



Pruning

Why prune decision trees?



http://www.hvdrangeashvdrangeas.com/pruning.html

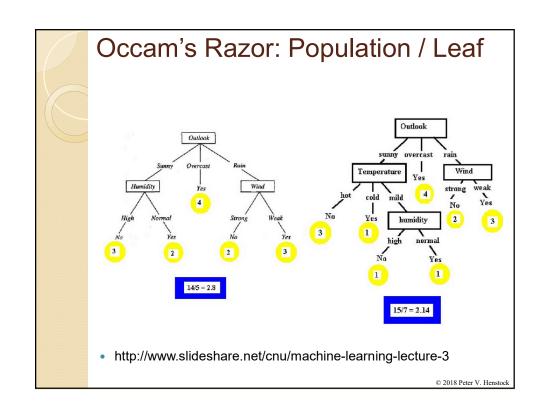
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Bias Variance Tradeoff

 In decision trees, where will overfitting manifest itself?

Where will overfitting happen?

- In a decision tree that is trained on your training data, where will overfitting manifest itself?
- 1) Errors from the training examples
 - Unavoidable error in labels or features
- 2) Sparsely populated nodes and leaves
 - Insufficient training data
 - More complex tree structures



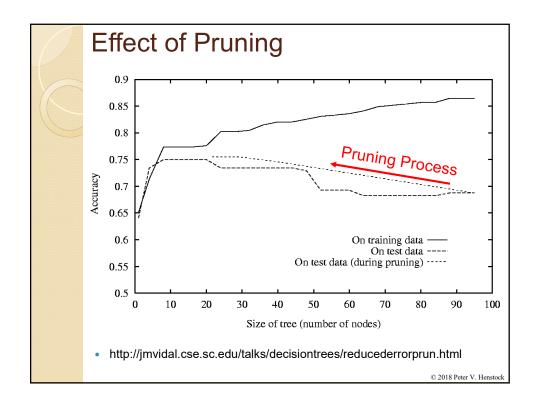
Pruning Decision Trees

- Replace a subtree near leaf with a leaf
- Goal is to lower the predicted error rate
- Remove parts of tree that don't contribute to classification of test data
- Can use new samples if available

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Pruning

- Prepruning stops the tree from growing
 - Reduces computation
 - Stop using a chi-squared test
 - Asking whether distribution before and after adding the node is the same
- Postpruning prunes a fully grown tree
 - More common approach
 - Requires more computation
 - Generally more reliable than prepruning
 - Approach used by C4.5



Good and Bad of Decision Trees

- Good
- Bad
- Ugly

Good and Bad of Decision Trees

- Good:
 - No assumptions about distributions of data
 - Fairly robust compared to statistical approaches
- Bad:
 - How many rules needed?
 - Hard limiter at each node
- Ugly:
 - 9 out of 10 dentists recommend flossing
 - Lupus is a collection of 17 or 24 symptoms
 - · No good way to represent this in decision tree

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Naïve Bayes

Bayes Rule Revisited

- P(Class) = prior
- P(Evidence | Class)
- P(Class | Evidence) = posterior
- P(Class | Evidence) = $\frac{P(Class,Evidence)}{P(Evidence)}$
- P(Class | Evidence) = $\frac{P(Evidence|Cla) \quad (Class)}{P(Evidence)}$

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Naïve Bayes Classifier

- Features: f₁...f_N
- Train up a system
- Chose the most probable class given the set of features
- MAP = maximum a posterior probability
- $Classi_{MAP} = argmax_{classi}P(classi|f_1..f_N)$
- = $\underset{\text{classi}}{\operatorname{argmax}_{\text{classi}}} \frac{P(f_1 \dots f_N | classi)P(classi)}{P(f_1 \dots f_N)}$
- Can ignore denominator since same for each of the classes

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Naïve Bayes Classifier

- Classi_{MAP} = argmax_{classi}P(classi|f₁..f_N)
 - Class = author (Shakespeare)
 - ∘ f₁...f_N = set of word frequencies
 - Impossible to compute as would have to identify all possible combinations of f₁..f_N in order to determine class
- P(classi) is easy
- P(f₁..f_N | classi) is impossible
 - Every combination of features for a class
 - All combinations of words to determine if it's written by Shakespeare
 - Can't generalize it—have to see all combosenstock

Naïve Bayes Assumption

- Features are conditionally independent given the class
- P(f₁...f_N | classi) = Π_j p(f_j | classi)
- Is this a good assumption?

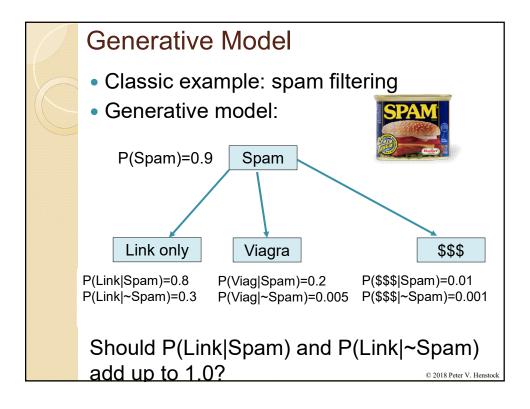
Naïve Bayes Assumption

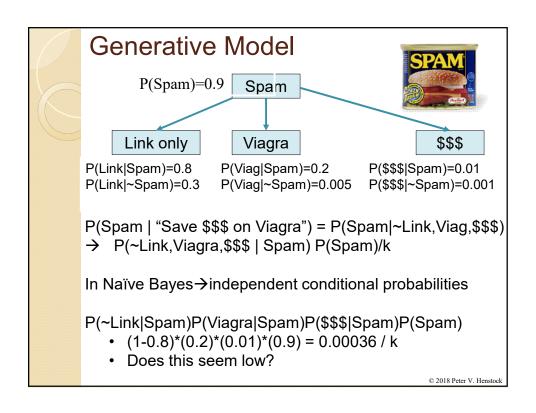
- Features are conditionally independent given the class
- P(f₁...f_N | classi) = Π_i p(f_i | classi)
- Naïve Bayes classifier:
 - \circ Classi = argmax_{classi} P(classi) Π_i p(feat_i| classi)
 - P(feat_j | classi) would be probability of "thou" occurring in Shakespeare author class

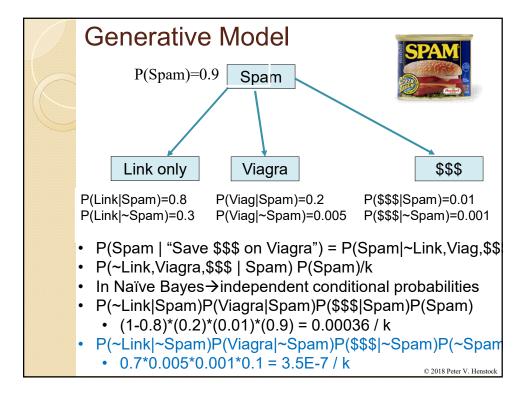
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Naïve Bayes Assumption

- Features are conditionally independent given the class
- P(f₁...f_N | classi) = Π_j p(f_j | classi)
- Naïve Bayes classifier:
 - \circ Classi = argmax_{classi} P(classi) Π_i p(feat_i| classi)
 - How should you actually program this?







Naïve Bayes

- P(Class | feature₁, ... feature_N)
- = $\prod_i P(feature_i|Class) * P(Class)/k$
- Simple solution for NP-hard problem but easy with Naïve Bayes
- MAP = maximum a posterior
- MAP(spam) = $\underset{Class}{\operatorname{argmax}} \prod_{i} P(feature_{i} | Class) P(Class)$
 - Essentially removed our norm constant k
 - Gives us a classifier

Naïve Bayes

- P(feature_i|Class) = $\frac{P(feature_i,Class)}{P(Class)}$
- What if you don't encounter
 P(feature_i| Class) in your data?

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Naïve Bayes

- P(feature_i|Class) = $\frac{P(feature_i,Class)}{P(Class)}$
- What if you don't encounter P(feature | Class) in your data?
- P(f_j | classi) = $\frac{|fj \cap classi|}{|classi|} \rightarrow \frac{|f_j \cap classi| + mp}{|classi| + m}$
- m = general weight given to prior
- p = prior estimate for P(f_i | classi)
- Similar idea to Yates correction in chi-sq

Range of values for Naïve Bayes

- Recall that Naïve Bayes is a product of many independent conditional probabilities
- What will the typical range of values be for the output?

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Range of values for Naïve Bayes

- Recall that Naïve Bayes is a product of many independent conditional probabilities
- What will the typical range of values be for the output?
- Removed all the correlations between values so getting repeated entries
- Result tends to be near 0.0 or 1.0
 - Overconfident in its prediction

Example for Tweet Analysis

- Examined tweets from two girls over a one month period
- Mary
 Alice

 OMG
 0.6
 0.3

 LOL
 0.5
 0.6

 BFF
 0.2
 0.3
- Cell = Fraction of tweets containing this term
- P(Mary)=P(Alice)=0.5
- Who sent a tweet "OMG what is he thinking? LOL"

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Example for Tweet Analysis

- P(Mary)=P(Alice)=0.5
- Who sent a tweet with LOL and OMG?

	Mary	Alice
OMG	0.6	0.3
LOL	0.5	0.6
BFF	0.2	0.3

- Naïve Bayes treats each term independently
- Essentially looking for posterior:
- $P(Class|Evidence) = \frac{P(Evidence|Class)P(Class)}{P(Evidence)}$
- P(Evidence) is usually constant → 1
- P(Evidence|Mary) = $0.5*0.6*0.8 \rightarrow 0.15$
- P(Evidence|Alice) = $0.6*0.3*0.7 \rightarrow 0.09$
- MAP Mary|Evidence = 0.15*P(Mary)=0.075
- MAP Alice|Evidence = 0.09*P(Alice) = 0.045

What about probabilities?

- MAP Mary|Evidence = 0.15*P(Mary)=0.075
- MAP Alice|Evidence = 0.09*P(Alice)= 0.045
- To compute the posterior probabilities:
 - Posteriors are normalized to 1.0 with space of two authors
- P(Mary | LOL,OMG,~BFF) = 0.075 / (0.075+0.045) = 0.625
- P(Alice | LOL,OMG,~BFF) = 0.045 / (0.075+0.045) = 0.375

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Banko & Brill 2001 ACL

Everyone cites this paper

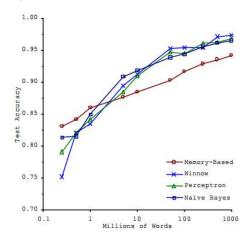


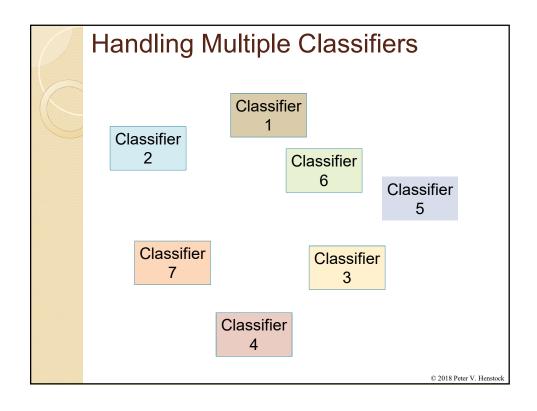
Figure 1. Learning Curves for Confusion Set Disambiguation

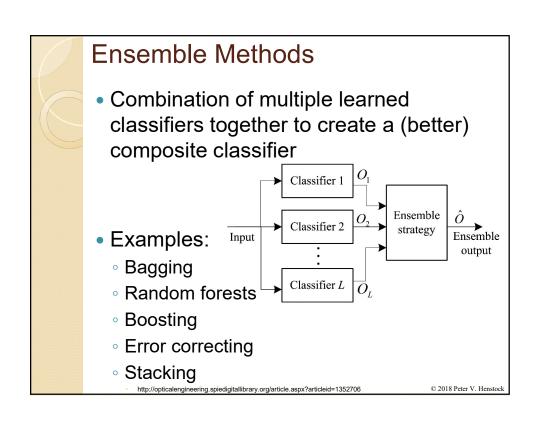
Ensemble Methods

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Decision Tree

- So far, feed all the data into one classifier in the form of a single tree
- What if you had multiple classifiers?
 - $\,{}^{_{\odot}}$ How could one come up with classifiers?
 - Or multiple decision trees?





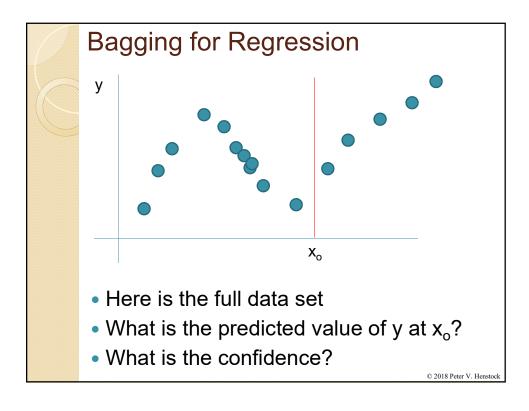
Bagging = Boostrap Aggregation

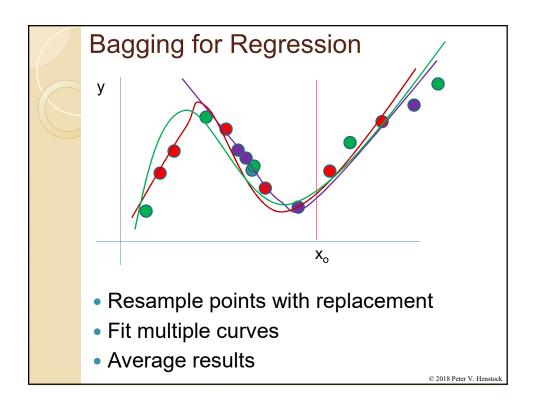
- Designed to increase accuracy
- You ask your friends what's their favorite stock picks and several recommend AAPL
- Bagging of classifiers is equivalent
- Sample the tuples k times with replacement
- Train on samples and test on the rest
- Vote on the test tuples

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Bootstrap Aggregation = Bagging

- Improves any classifier by aggregating multiple versions of a given classifier
- Resample by drawing k points at random from the original data set for training and make one prediction
- Draw samples randomly (uniform)
- Each sampling creates one prediction





Bagging for Regression

- If you were trying to estimate y, what two properties would you really like to have for that estimate?
- 1)
- 2)

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Bagging for Regression

- If you were trying to estimate y, what two properties would you really like to have for that estimate?
- 1) Unbiased:
 - Mean of estimate = mean of population
- 2) Low variance

Bagging Math

- Sample rows from pairs of X,Y randomly
 X=features Y=labels
- Each sample, estimate y_{est} at x_o point
- Let's assume each y_{est} is unbiased
- Compute the mean
 - \circ E(y_{est}) = f(x_o) by definition of unbiased
- Compute the variance
 - \circ E[(y_{est}-y_o)²] = E[y_{est}²-2y_{est}y_o + y_o²] = Var(y_{est})

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Bagging Math

- $y_{est}^{(i)}$ is estimate for "bag" i of k "bags"
- $\bullet Z = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k} y_{est}^{(i)}$
- Compute the mean
 - $E[Z] = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k} E[y_{est}^{(i)}] = f(x_o)$ unbiased
- Compute the variance
 - $E[(Z y_{est})^2] = Var(Z) = Var[\frac{1}{k}\sum_{i=1}^{k} y_{est}^{(i)}]$
 - $= \frac{1}{k^2} Var \left[\sum_{i=1}^k y_{est}^{(i)} \right] = \frac{1}{k^2} \sum_{i=1}^k Var [y_{est}^{(i)}] = \frac{1}{k} Var (y_{est})$
- This means
 - Bagging estimate is an unbiased estimate
 - Variance of estimate is reduced by taking more samples k

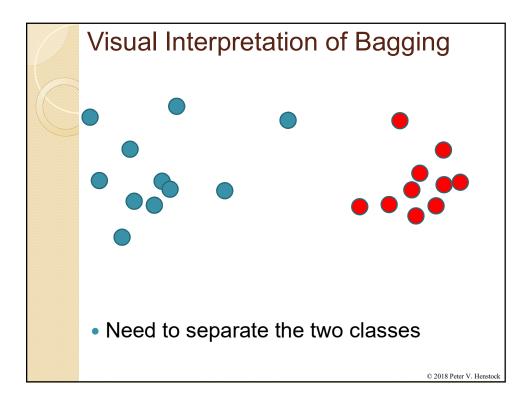
Bagging for Regression

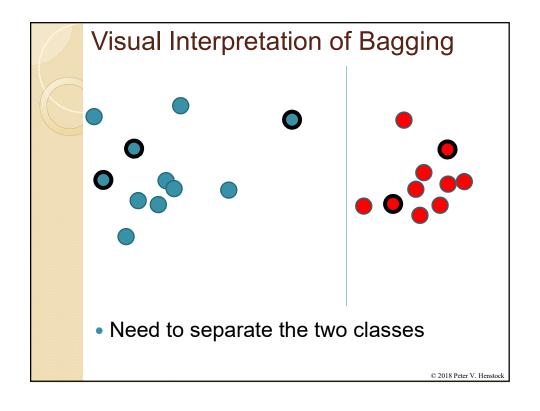
- Results of the math (not shown) give two interesting facts:
- 1) Mean value of estimate is unbiased
- 2) Variance is σ^2/k where k=#resamples
- This means we can come up with a good estimate for f(x) and the variance of that estimate decreases with the number of resampling steps→ small

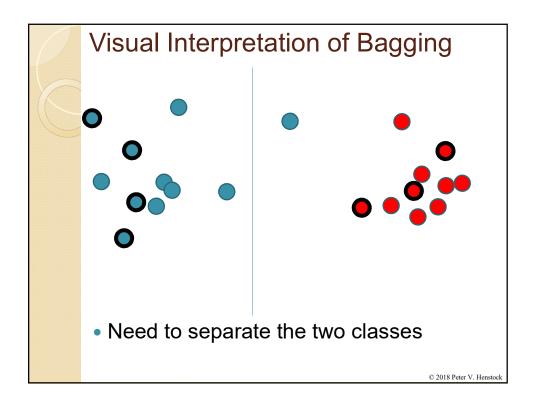
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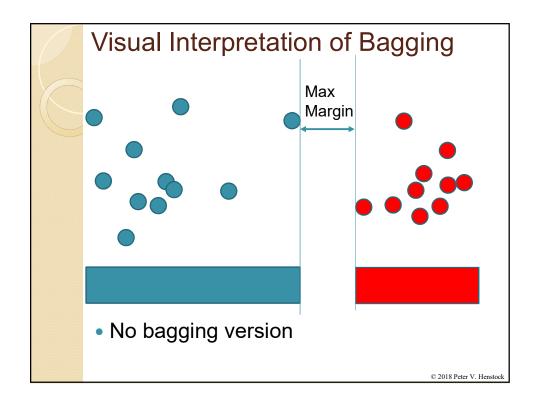
Bagging Compared

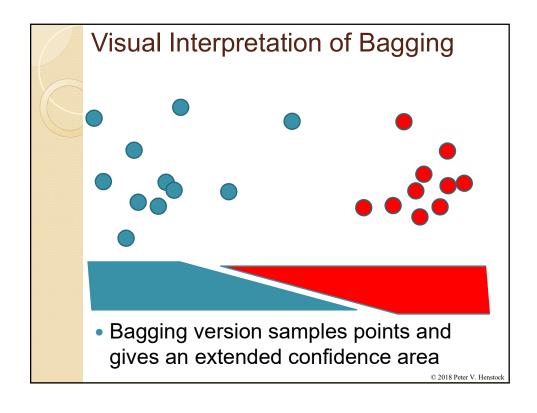
- Takes longer to produce the results
- Results are more accurate
- Results are more robust to outliers
- Can also be used to predict continuous values by taking averages of predictions

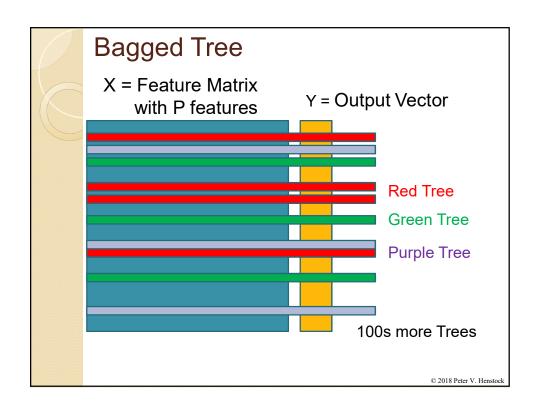


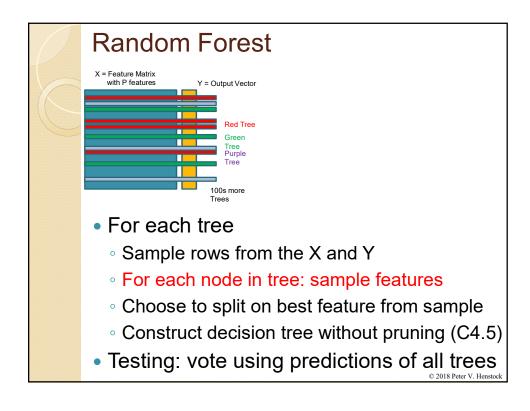


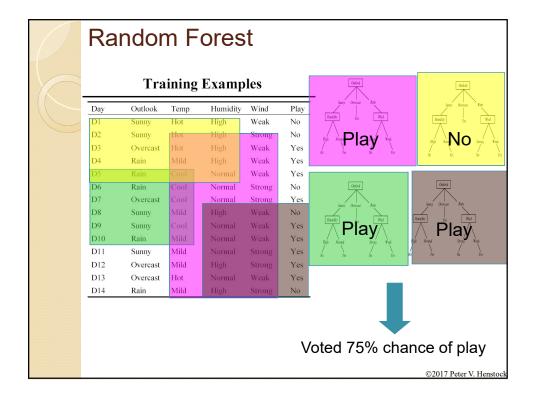


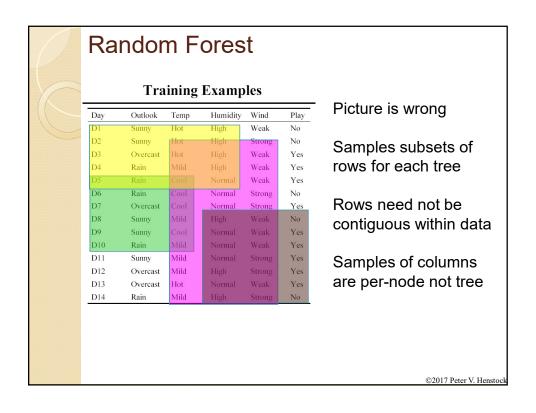


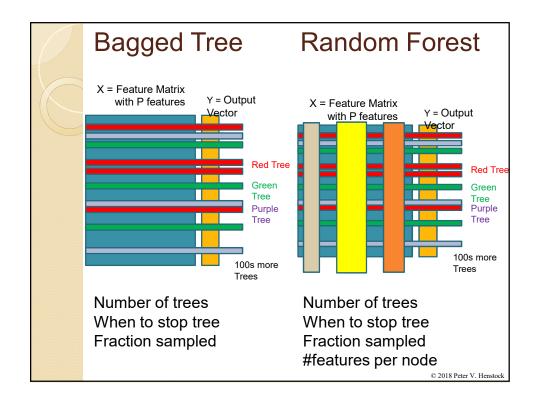






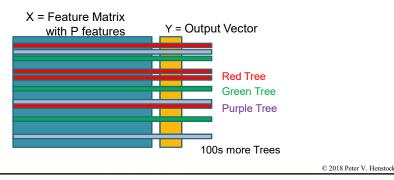






OOB = Out of Bag Scoring

- Cross-validation divides data into k sets
 - K-1 sets used for training, 1 set for testing
- OOB: test results using samples not selected in the bagging for training
 - Very accurate and "free"



Proximities

- Throw all data down each trained tree
- Compute the proximity of paired entries
 - Count how often the same rows end up in the same leaf
- Useful for
 - Replacing missing values
 - Inferring space of variables
 - Understanding class prototypes
 - · Measure of sensitivity analysis of features
 - Finding outliers

Random Forests

Good

Bad

Ugly

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Random Forests

- Good
 - Among the top classifier performance
 - Produces a variable importance
 - Works well for imbalanced data sets
 - Don't have to decide on features in advance
 - Parallelizable
- Bad
 - Difficult to improve upon them
- Ugly
 - Random in nature so hard to understand
 - Voting is somewhat simple

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Random Forest in the News

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"Self-Learning" → curing cancer

Self-learning Computer Algorithms Enable Two-day Cancer Diagnosis

- Wed, 10/07/2015 3:29pm
- 🛔 by Mette Haagen Marcussen, Technical University of Denmark
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Researchers have combined genetics with computer science and created a new diagnostic technology based on advanced self-learning computer algorithms that can identify the source of the disease with 85 percent certainty and, thus, target treatment.

In by far the majority of cancer cases, the doctor can quickly identify the source of the disease, for example cancer of the liver, lungs, etcetera. However, in about one in 20 cases, the doctor can confirm that the patient has cancer—but cannot find the source. These patients then face the prospect of a long wait with numerous diagnostic tests and attempts to locate the origin of the cancer before starting any treatment.

Machine Learning News & Reality

- "Self-learning Computer Algorithms **Enable Two-day Cancer Diagnosis**"
- http://www.scientificcomputing.com/news/2015/10/self-learning-computeralgorithms-enable-two-day-cancerdiagnosis?et cid=4878817&et rid=
- Now, researchers at * have combined genetics with computer science and created a new diagnostic technology based on advanced self-learning computer algorithms which — on the basis of a biopsy from a metastasis — can with 85 percent certainty identify the source of the disease and, thus, target treatment and, ultimately, improve the prognosis for the patient.
- TumorTracer by Marquardt et al. 2015
- http://www.biomedcentral.com/1755-8794/8/58

Actual paper: Methods

We used publicly available somatic mutation data from the COSMIC database to train random forest classifiers to distinguish among those tissues of origin for which sufficient data was available. We selected feature sets using cross-validation and then derived two final classifiers (with or without copy number profiles) using 80 % of the available tumors. We evaluated the accuracy using the remaining 20 %.

Results of Article

"The cross-validation accuracy was highest when all three types of information were used. On the left-out COSMIC data not used for training, we achieved a classification accuracy of 85 % across 6 primary sites (with copy numbers), and 69 % across 10 primary sites (...). Importantly, a derived confidence score could distinguish tumors that could be identified with 95 % accuracy (32 %/75 % of tumors w w/o copy numbers) from those that were less certain. Accuracy in the independent data sets was 46 %, 53 % and 89 % respectively, similar to the accuracy expected from the training data."

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Boosting

Error Correcting Codes

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How do you do multiple classes?

Handling Multiple Labels

- Multiple approaches to this problem
- Decision trees with multiple labels are available in python and R
- A common alternative is to use multiple decision trees:
 - A vs. (B and C)
 - B vs. (A and C)
 - C vs. (A and B)

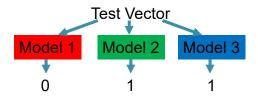
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Error-Correcting Output Coding

- Apply binary classifiers to multiclass using an ensemble instead
- Sample from the output classes A,B,C,D
 - ∘ Sample AC → class0 BD→ class1
 - ∘ Sample AD → class0 BC→ class1
 - Sample ABD →class0 C → class1
- Train up these classification models for the assigned 2-class problem

Error-Correcting Output Coding

- Sample AC → class0 BD→ class1
- Sample AD → class0 BC→ class1
- Sample ABD → class0 C → class1

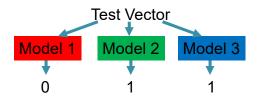


So, which class output should it be?

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Error-Correcting Output Coding

- Sample AC → class0 BD→ class1
- Sample AD → class0 BC→ class1
- Sample ABD → class0 C → class1



- Each class is essentially a binary vector from the class assigned in training
 - A: 000 B=110 C=011 D=100
 - Predict class closest to the test vector output.

Neural Networks

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Neurons • http://biology.stackexchange.com/questions/25967/nervesneurons-axons-and-dendrites-by-example neuron cell body nucleus axon of previous neuron neuron cell body nucleus dendrites of next neuron tips electrical synapse signal © 2018 Peter V. Henstock

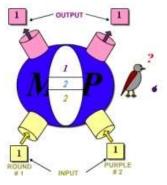
Synapse

- Charges travel along axon to synapse
- Charge causes vesicles of specific transmitter charges to cross synapse
- Receptors located on membrane
 - Bind to transmitted molecules
 - Conformation change of membrane
 - Specific ions are exchanged
- Synapses adapt
 - #vesicles and #receptors change

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McCulloch & Pitts 1943

- Concept of neuron being formal units within the brain
- Developed a mathematical model of neurons
- Built on Turing model



Rosenblatt 1957

- Developed perceptron in 1957
- "Principles of Neurodynamics: Perceptrons and the Theory of Brain Mechanisms" 1962
- First finite state machine
- First device that could learn



NEW NAVY DEVICE LEARNS BY DOING

Psychologist Shows Embryo of Computer Designed to Read and Grow Wiser

"The Nary revealed the embryo of an electronic computer today that it expects will be able to walk, talk, see, write reproduce itself and be conscious of its existence. The embryo—the Weather Bureau's \$2,000,000 "10%" computer—inarmad to differentiate fifty attempts in the Nary's demonstration for newmen.

demonstration for newmen.
The service said it would use
this principle to build the first
of its Perceptron thinking machines that will be able to read
and write. It is expected to be
cost of \$100,000.
Dr. Frank Rosenblatt, de
signer of the Perceptron, conducted the demonstration. Hisald the machine would be threst device to think as the bu
first device to think as the bu

ings, Perceptron will make mistakes at first, but will grow wiser as it gains experience, he

Dr. Rosenblatt, a research psychologist at the Cornell Aeronautical Laboratory, Buffalo, said Perceptrons might be fired to the planets as mechanical space explorers. Without Human Controls

mechanism "capable of receiving, recognizing and identifying its surroundings without any little and the surrounding without any The "bvain" is designed to remember images and information it has perceived itself. Ordinary computers remember only cards or magnetic tape.

Later Perceptrons will be able to recognize people and call out late speech in one language to speech or writing in another

their names and instantly translate speech in one language to speech or writing in another language, it was predicted. Mr. Rosenblatt said in principle it would be possible to build brains that could reproduce themselves on an assembly line and which would be conscious of their existence. 1958 New York Times...

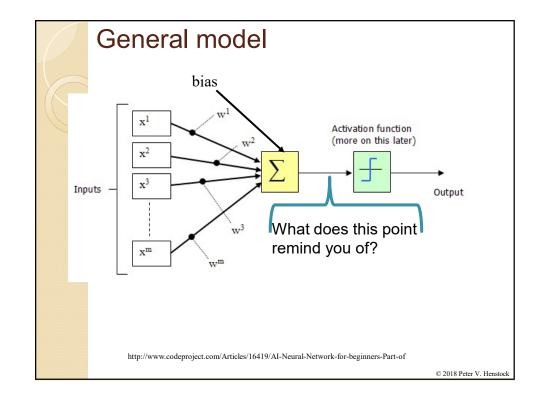
"704" was fed two cards, with squares marked on the side and the other with squarent the right side.

Learns by Doing
In the first fifty trials, the
machine made no distinction between them. It then started
registering a "Q" for the left
squares and "O" for the right
squares.

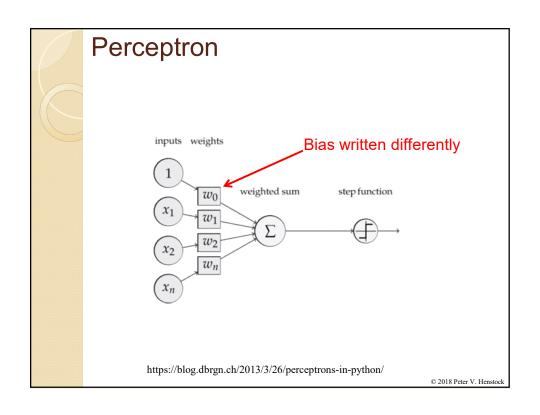
explain why the machine learned only in highly technical learned only in highly technical learned only in highly technical had undergone a "self-induced change in the wiring diagram." The first Perceptron will have about 1,000 electronic "association cells" receiving electrical implies from an eyelike scanning discussion of the control of the contro







Notion of bias Bias shifts the threshold to appropriate place given the other weights Each dot = sum of weighted inputs = input from one data row Class 1 Class 0



How to Use Perceptron?

- Present a set of features to inputs
- Get a weighted sum→step→output
- Binary classifier as shown below
- Need to learn the weights to make the right decision

inputs weights w weighted sum step function w_1 w_2 w_2 w_n w © 2018 Peter V. Henstock

Perceptron Learning

- wi ← wi + ∆wi
- Δ wi = α (t y)xi
 - t = target output (from training)
 - ∘ y = actual output
 - ∘ If target == output → do nothing
 - ∘ If target != output → adjust weight
 - Adjustment weight based on xi
 - Different formulations has xi in {-1,1}

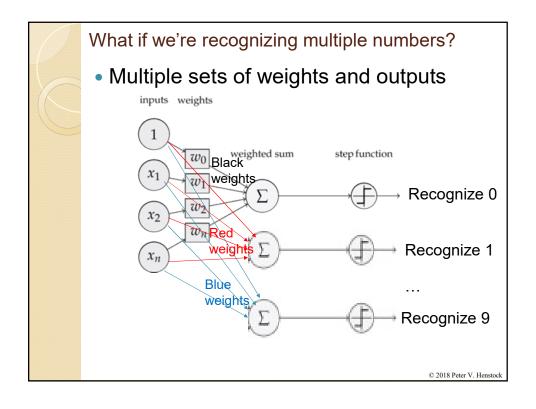
How to Use Perceptron?

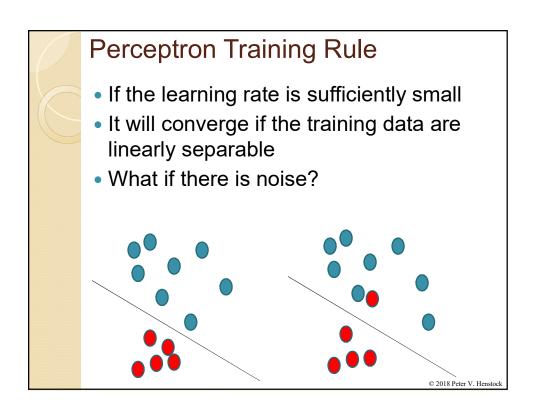
- · Loop over "epochs"
 - Loop over data inputs (training rows):
 - · Present features & output to perceptron
 - · If weights are incorrect, modify them
- Learns a decision boundary

inputs weights $\begin{array}{c|cccc}
\hline
1 & \hline
w_0 & \text{weighted sum} & \text{step function} \\
\hline
x_1 & \hline
w_1 & \hline
x_2 & \hline
w_2 & \hline
\end{array}$

MNIST Digits

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Perceptron Learning

- Present all training cases to the input
- If output unit is correct, do nothing
- If output is wrong:
 - If output = 0, weights = weights + input
 - ∘ If output = 1, weights = weights input
- Guaranteed to find set of weights that give the right answer...if such a set exists

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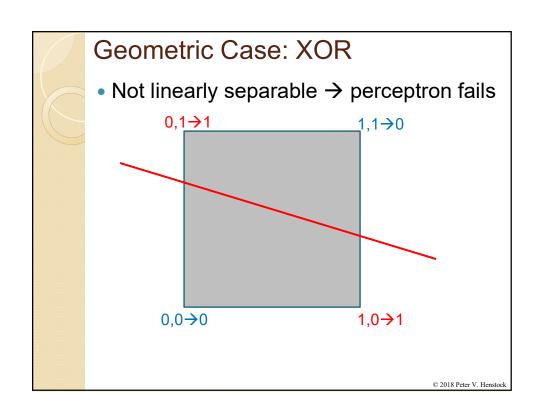
Perceptrons 1969

- Expanded Edition

 Perceptrons
- Minsky & Papert
 - Founded Al Lab @ MIT
 - Developed logo
 - Head-mounted display
 - Confocal microscopy
 - Randomly wired NN
 - Book started the "Al Winter"
 - Lasted 12-15 years

Minsky & Papert

- Proved that the translations with wraparound could not work with perceptrons
 - "Group Invariance Theorem"
- Showed that perceptrons could not solve the XOR case
- Conclusion is that you have to handcode feature detectors rather than have them magically learn



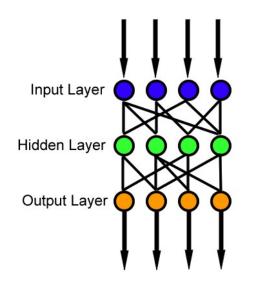
Al Winter

- Limited research
- No funding for neural networks
- Solutions had actually been published
- 1980s
 - Greater computational power
 - Overcame limitations of perceptron

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Alternative to Perceptron





Deep neural network has more than 1 hidden layer

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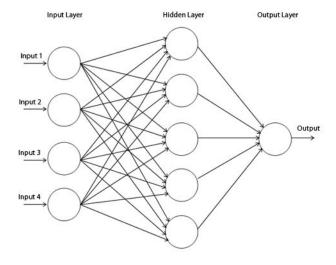
Steps to more advanced NN

- Need to have a nonlinear step function
- Need to have an extra layer(s) as single layer cannot recognize the variety of patterns

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- Need adaptive learning of weights at each level
 - Output weights are easy
 - Hidden layers are unguided but are essentially doing feature selection

Multilayer feed-forward (2-layer)



- Which layer doesn't count?
- Is it fully connected?

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Learning Linear Neuron

- Perceptron learning does not work for multiple layers
- Perceptrons have a property they learn and can be optimized in a convex space
 - Average of any two good sets of weights is also a good weight
 - Property fails for multiple layers
- Linear Neuron optimizes a cost function
 - Output values converge to the targets
 - Example is least-squares error

Linear Neuron

- $Y = \Sigma_i W_i X_i = W^T X$
- Goal is to generalize this to the multi-layer neuron
- Could just solve since this is essentially a linear regression where optimize w in a least-squares case to approximate Y
- Iterative approach will generalize by shifting weights gradually

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Learn by Modifying Weights

- Goal is to automate feature selection
- One approach: randomly tweak weights
 - Not efficient
 - Really inefficient near optimum
- Perturb all weights but hard to deconvolve the results
- Randomly modify activities of hidden units

Gradient Descent

- wi ← wi + ∆wi
- $\Delta w = \propto \nabla E(w)$ for vector w
- $\nabla E(w) = \left[\frac{\partial E}{\partial w_0}, \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_1}, \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_2}, \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_3}, \dots \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_n}\right]$

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Delta Rule or Least-Squares

- Error = ½ Σ_{training k} (t^k − y^k)²
 y^k is output; t^k is target
- How can we optimize the error?

•
$$\frac{\partial Err}{\partial w_j} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_i \frac{\partial y^i}{\partial w_j} \frac{\partial Error^i}{\partial y^i} = -\sum_k \mathbf{x}_j^k (\mathbf{t}^k - \mathbf{y}^k)$$

•
$$\Delta w_j = -\alpha \frac{\partial Error}{\partial w_j} = \alpha \Sigma_k x_j^k (t^k - y^k)$$

• How did we do that?

Compute Gradient Descent

- Optimize: $\frac{1}{2}\sum_{k=inputs}(t_k-y_k)^2$
- $\frac{\partial E}{\partial w_i}$ $\Rightarrow \frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=inputs} (t_k y_k)^2$
- = $\frac{1}{2}\sum_{k=inputs} \frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} (t_k y_k)^2$
- = $\frac{1}{2}\sum_{k=inputs} 2(t_k y_k) \frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} (t_k y_k)$
- But $y_k = weights * x_k$
- = $\sum_{k=inputs} (t_k y_k) \frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} (t_k \sum_{j=1}^P w_j x_{kj})$
- = $\sum_{k=inputs} (t_k y_k) (-x_{ki})$

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Gradient Descent Algorithm

- Initialize all the weights w
- Loop
 - Present each training instance to NN
 - Input x vector
 - Compute the output y
 - Compare y to the t from the training data
 - ${}_{^{\circ}}$ Compute all the Δw
 - $^{\circ}$ Update the new w weights by moving a distance $\alpha\Delta$ w downhill

α and the 3 bears



http://jessicabarrah.blogspot.com/2012/02/fairy-tales.html

- What happens if α is too small?
- What happens if α is too large?

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Perceptron vs. Gradient Descent

- Perceptron will work if:
 - Training examples are linearly separable
 - Learning rate is sufficiently small
 - ∘ wi ← wi + α (t y)xi
- Gradient Descent converges minimum squared error if
 - Learning rate is sufficiently small
 - Works even if training data not separable
 - ∘ wi ← wi + α (t y)xi
- So where is the difference?

What's Missing?

Perceptron

$$\circ w_i \leftarrow w_i + \alpha(t - y)x_i$$

Gradient Descent

$$\circ w_i \leftarrow w_i + \alpha(t - y)x_i$$

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What's Missing?

- Nonlinearity
- Why?
- The step function is not differentiable
- Therefore you cannot perform a gradient search

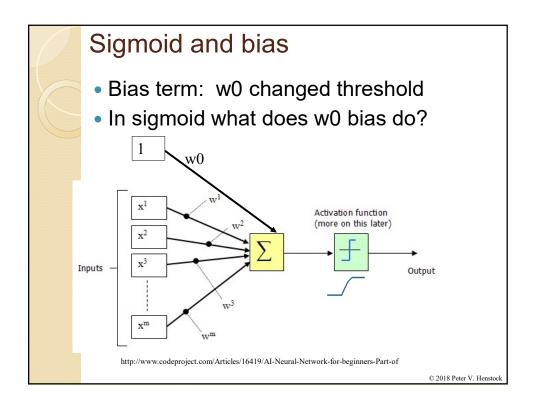
What's Missing?

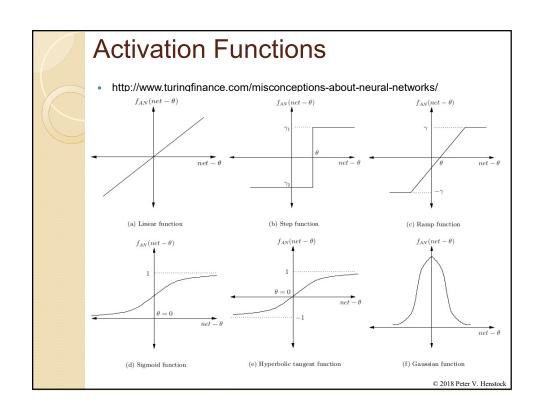
- Nonlinearity
- Why?
- The step function is not differentiable
- Therefore you cannot perform a gradient search
- So which nonlinearity?

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So which nonlinearity?

- Typically use a sigmoid
- $\bullet \ \sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}}$
- $\sigma'(x) = \sigma(x)(1 \sigma(x))$
 - Let you prove it if you are interested in the math
- Sigmoid is standard biological doseresponse or binding relationship
 - Believed neurons follow these



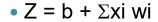


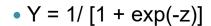
Activation Function

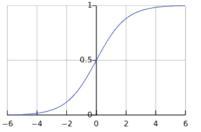
- Sum of inputs would normally only be capable of producing linear regression
- Activation function provides nonlinear regression since output = f(Σinputs)
- Multilayer feed-forward network can approximate pretty much any function given enough hidden units and corresponding training

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Sigmoidal Neuron





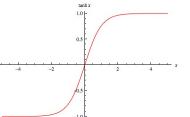


- Smooth derivatives -
- Also called "squashing function" since it maps [-∞, ∞] → [0 1]
- Wikipedia

Sigmoidal Neuron using tanh

- $Z = b + \Sigma xiwi$
- Y = tanh(Z)
- Smooth derivatives
- Negative values

http://mathworld.wolfram.com/Hyperbo



Logistic Neuron

• y = 1/[1 + exp(-z)] z = b +
$$\Sigma_i x_i w_i$$

• $\frac{dy}{dz} = \frac{-(-e^{-z})}{(1+e^{-z})^2} = \frac{1}{(1+e^{-z})} \frac{e^{-z}}{(1+e^{-z})} = y(1-y)$

• From before:

•
$$\frac{\partial Error}{\partial w_j} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_i \frac{\partial y^i}{\partial w_j} \frac{\partial Error^i}{\partial y^i} = -\sum_i x_j^i (t^i - y^i)$$

Parts with ∂yⁱchange

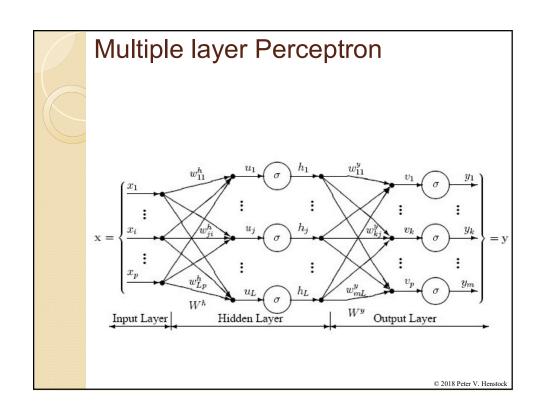
•
$$\frac{\partial y}{\partial w_i} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial w_i} \frac{dy}{dz} = x_j y (1 - y)$$

•
$$\frac{\partial Error}{\partial w_i} = \sum_i \frac{\partial y^i}{\partial w_i} \frac{\partial Error^i}{\partial y^i} = -\sum_i x_j y^i (1 - y^i) (t^i - y^i)$$

Now have dError/dw without hidden layer

Backpropagation

- Minsky & Papert stalled the field
- Knew that if you put perceptrons or neural networks together, then you could overcome the limitations
- Couldn't figure out how to train the merged networks
- ...until backpropagation emerged
 - Rumelhart, Hinton & Williams 1986 Nature 323, 533-536



Feedforward with Backpropagation

- Estimated 90% of non-academic models are based on this approach
- Multi-layer networks required in many applications

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Derivative Chain rule

- Reminder
- $\bullet \frac{dh}{dx} = \frac{dh}{dg} \frac{dg}{dx}$

3 Versions of Backprop

- All versions get us to the same place
- It's a somewhat tricky algorithm and I found that different versions were helpful
- My favorite is the single slide version
- Version 1
- Version 2 from Deep Learning
- Version 3 from Hinton's slide

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Backpropagation

- "Backward propagation of errors"
- Optimize: $\frac{1}{2}\sum_{k=inputs}(t_k-y_k)^2$

•
$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial w_i} \Rightarrow \frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=inputs} (t_k - y_k)^2$$

• =
$$\frac{1}{2}\sum_{k=inputs} \frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} (t_k - y_k)^2$$

• =
$$\frac{1}{2}\sum_{k=inputs} 2(t_k - y_k) \frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} (t_k - y_k)$$

• =
$$\sum_{k=inputs} (t_k - y_k)(-1) \frac{\partial y_k}{\partial w_i}$$

• =
$$\sum_{k=inputs} (t_k - y_k)(-1) \frac{\partial y_k}{\partial sum_k} \frac{\partial sum_k}{\partial w_i}$$

Backpropagation

- $\sum_{k=inputs} (t_k y_k)(-1) \frac{\partial y_k}{\partial sum_k} \frac{\partial sum_k}{\partial w_i}$
- But $\frac{\partial y_k}{\partial sum_k} = \frac{\partial f(sum_k)}{\partial sum_k} = y_k (1-y_k)$
- And $\frac{\partial sum_k}{\partial w_i} = \frac{\partial \sum_j w_j x_{k,j}}{\partial w_i} = x_{k,i}$
- $-\sum_{k=inputs}(t_k-y_k)y_k(1-y_k)x_{k,i}$
- This allows us to compute outputs from previous layer (i.e. top hidden layer)

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Computing input → hidden weights

•
$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial sum_j} \Rightarrow \sum_{k=out(j)} \frac{\partial E_k}{\partial sum_k} \frac{\partial sum_k}{\partial sum_j}$$

• Let dk =
$$\frac{-\partial E_k}{\partial sum_k}$$

•
$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial sum_j} \Rightarrow \sum_{k=out(j)} -dk \frac{\partial sum_k}{\partial sum_j}$$

• =
$$\sum_{k=out(j)} -dk \frac{\partial sum_k}{\partial y_j} \frac{\partial y_j}{\partial sum_j}$$

• =
$$\sum_{k=out(j)} -dk \ w_{kj} \frac{\partial y_j}{\partial su_j}$$

• w_{kj} is weight from j to k

• =
$$\sum_{k=out(j)} -dk \ w_{kj} y_j (1 - y_j)$$

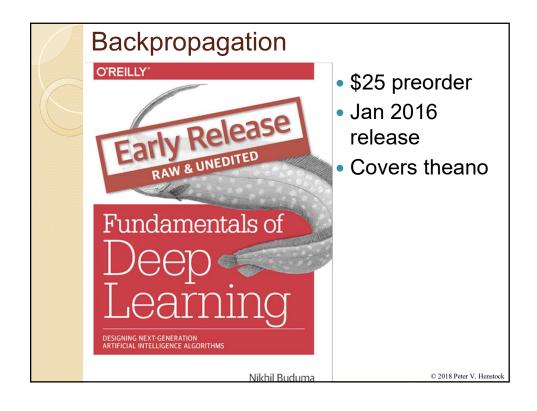
•
$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial sum_j} = \sum_{k=out(j)} -dk \ w_{kj} y_j (1-y_j)$$

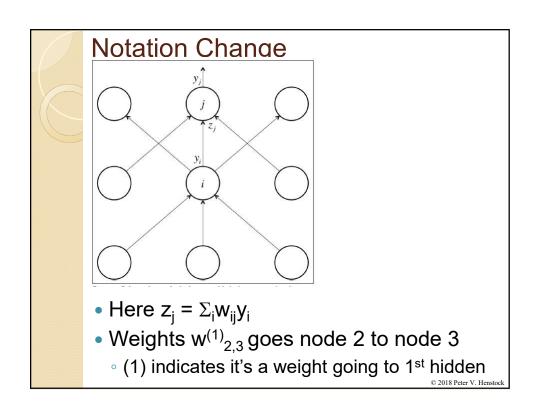
•
$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial sum_j} = \sum_{k=out(j)} -dk \ w_{kj} y_j (1 - y_j)$$

• $dj = -\frac{\partial E}{\partial sum_j} = y_j (1 - y_j) \sum_{k=out(j)} dk \ w_{kj}$

Backpropagation Algorithm

- We know what the inputs are doing
- We know what the outputs are doing
- We can do a gradient descent between the input and output easily for 1 layer
- We don't know what the hidden layers are doing
- Hidden layers will affect the errors
- If solve for one hidden layer, we can repeat for the other layers





Backpropagation Version 2

- Minimize Error E = $\frac{1}{2}\sum_{j=inputs}(t_j y_j)^2$
- $\frac{dE}{dy_j} \rightarrow -(t_j y_j)$ at output layer
- Going one step deeper
- Want to calculate error at layer below output at node i
- Need to relate outputs of layer i to sigmoids of all neurons in layer j

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Next layer

•
$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial y_i} = \sum_j \frac{\partial E}{\partial z_j} \frac{dz_j}{dy_i} = \sum_j w_{ij} \frac{\partial E}{\partial z_j}$$

•
$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial z_j} = \frac{\partial E}{\partial y_j} \frac{dy_j}{dz_i} = y_j (1 - y_j) \frac{\partial E}{\partial y_j}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dz} = \frac{-(-e^{-z})}{(1+e^{-z})^2} = \frac{1}{(1+e^{-z})} \frac{e^{-z}}{(1+e^{-z})} = y(1-y)$$

- Property of derivative of sigmoid (logit)
- Combine 1st and 2nd equations

•
$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial y_i} = \sum_j w_{ij} y_j (1 - y_j) \frac{\partial E}{\partial y_j}$$

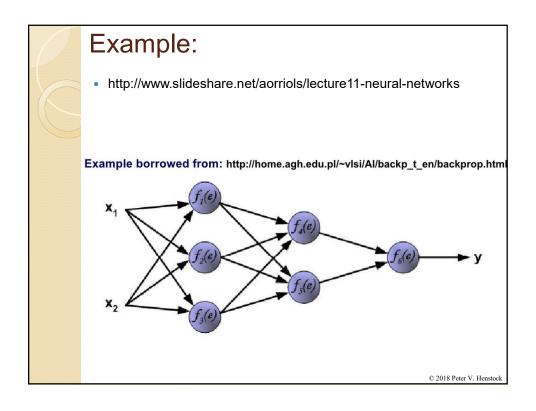
• Now expressed $\frac{\partial E}{\partial y_i}$ in terms of y_j

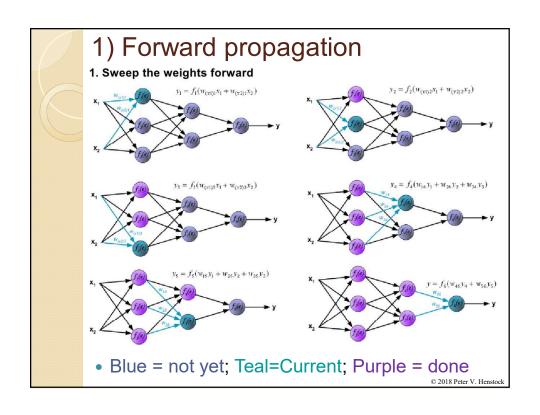
How do we learn the weights?

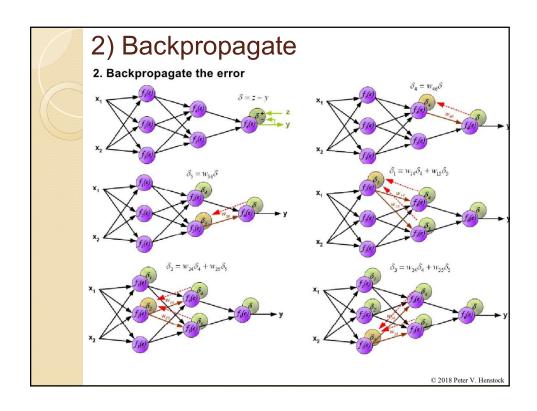
- $\frac{\partial E}{\partial w_{ij}} = \frac{\partial E}{\partial z_j} \frac{\partial z_j}{\partial w_{ij}} = [y_j (1 y_j) \frac{\partial E}{\partial y_j}] y_i$
 - Red is from previous slide
 - Black is just partial-derivative of the connection yi*wij → zj
- Need to update all weights in data set
- $\bullet \ \Delta w_{ij} = \ \alpha \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_{ij}}$
- $\Delta w_{ij} =$
- = $-\alpha \sum_{k=inputs} y_i^{(k)} y_j^{(k)} (1 y_j^{(k)}) \frac{\partial E^{(k)}}{\partial y_j^{(k)}}$

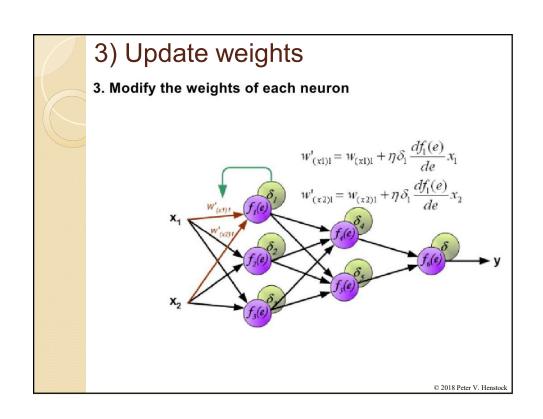
Summarize Backpropagation

- Optimizing LS Error of target & y's
- Forward step
 - Input training with fixed weights
 - Propagate through sigmoids of each layer to the target and compare to output y
- Backward step
 - Compute $\frac{\partial E}{\partial w_{ij}}$ using backward propagation of the errors in terms of $\frac{\partial E}{\partial y_i}$ as $f(y_j)$
 - Enables computation of new weights



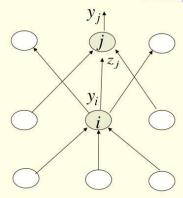






Backpropagation on one slide

Backpropagating dE/dy



$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial z_j} = \frac{dy_j}{dz_j} \frac{\partial E}{\partial y_j} = y_j (1 - y_j) \frac{\partial E}{\partial y_j}$$

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial y_i} = \sum_j \frac{dz_j}{dy_i} \frac{\partial E}{\partial z_j} = \sum_j w_{ij} \frac{\partial E}{\partial z_j}$$

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial w_{ij}} = \frac{\partial z_j}{\partial w_{ij}} \frac{\partial E}{\partial z_j} = y_i \frac{\partial E}{\partial z_j}$$

- Just the chain rule
- Hinton, Srivastava and Swersky slides

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Practical Advice for Classification

No Free Lunch Theorem

- Wolpert 1996
- No learning algorithm can be guaranteed to succeed on all tasks
- Main goal is to predict unseen examples correctly
- NFLT states that for all machine learning algorithms, average of all predictions on unseen 2-class examples = ½
- How can this be?

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No Free Lunch Theorem

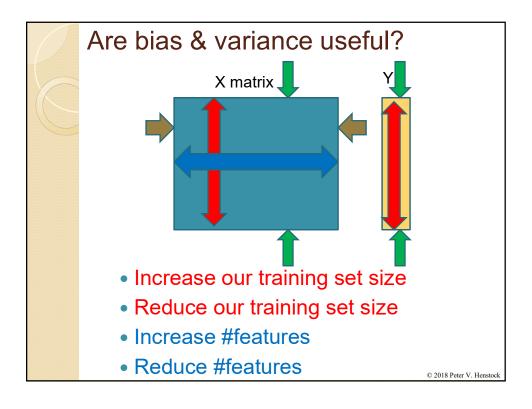
 Each time you train your data on a particular space, it is less trained on other feature spaces

No Free Lunch Theorem

- Consequence
- Can't run your favorite algorithm and expect it to work on all data sets
- Need to run multiple algorithms and compare using cross-validation

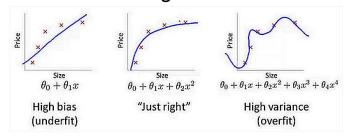
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Are bias & variance useful? P features Label vector Y N instances We can send this through any or all of our favorite algorithms What else can we do with this?



Over or Underfitting?

- What should we look at?
- Plot curves for regression



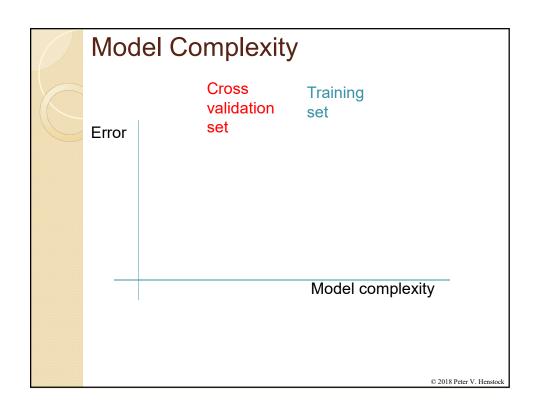
- What about high dimensional spaces for classification or clustering?
- How can we tell if we're over/underfitting?

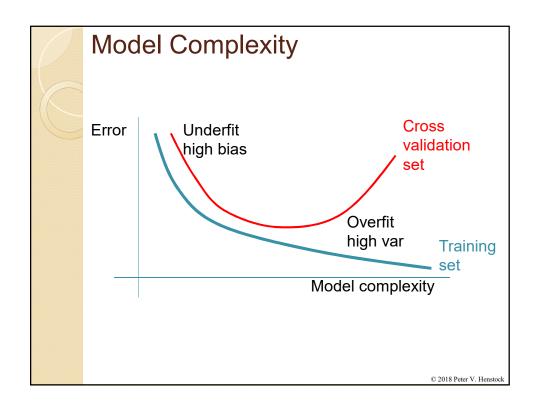
Cross-validation

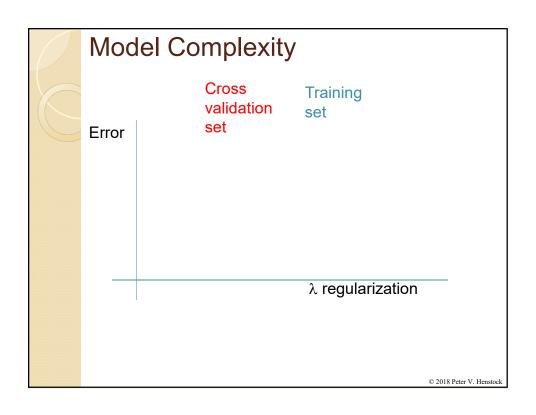
Typically have 3 data sets

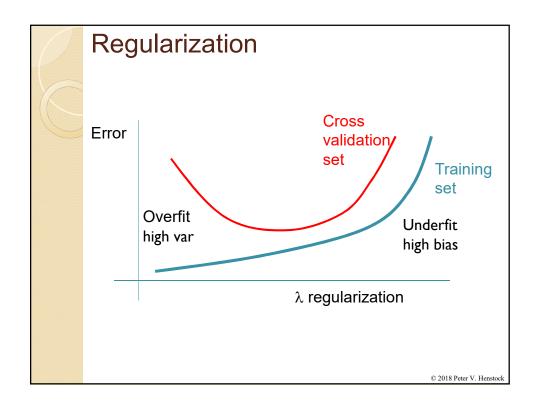
Training setCross-validation/test setBlind set20%

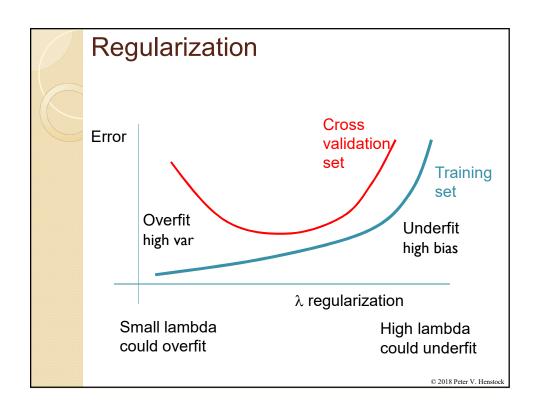
- Work your machine learning magic and optimize on your training set
- Evaluate your decisions on your crossvalidation/test set
- Final performance evaluation: blind set

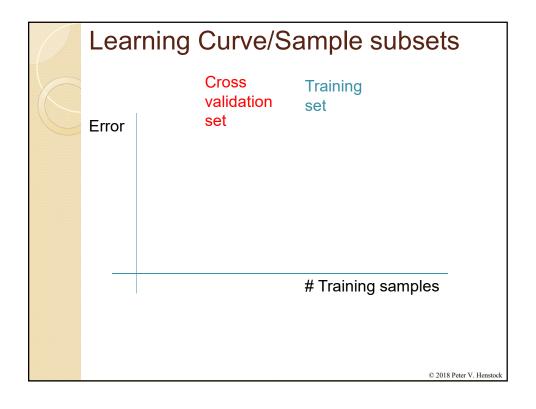


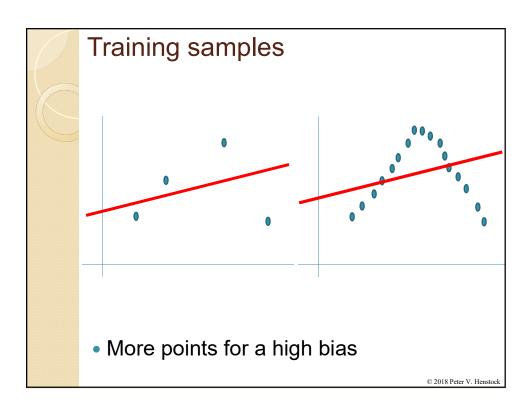


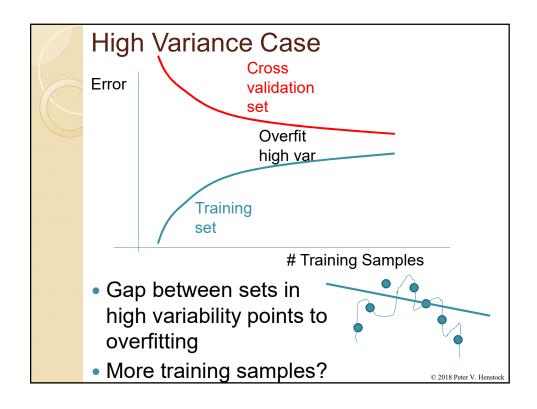


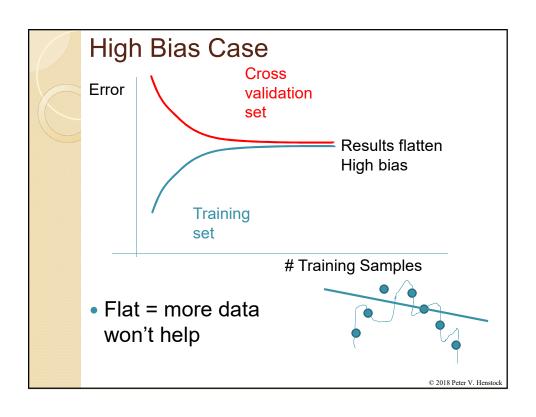












What choices to make

- High bias
 - Add complexity to model
 - Procure more features
 - Add polynomial terms or other variations
 - Decrease the λ regularization
 - Add hidden layers
- High variability
 - Add more data instances
 - Reduce feature space
 - \circ Increase the λ regularization
 - Reduce hidden layers

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Summary of Strategies

- Obtain more training examples
 - Helps for high variance
- Generate more features
 - Helps for high bias
- Select feature sets (reduce)
 - Helps for high variance
- Modify parameters (regularization)
 - ∘ Higher lambda → helps high variance
 - Lower lambda → helps high bias
- Use cross-validation and test-on training to figure out where you are in bias/variance