LING 473: Day 12

START THE RECORDING
Clustering
Classifiers
Project 5

Machine learning

- Automatically find patterns in the data
- Requirements
 - training data
 - a model
 - tunable parameters
 - objective function: a repeatable quantitative performance measurement procedure

Ockham's ("Occam's") razor

"It is futile to do with more things that which can be done with fewer." – William of Ockham (c. 1495)

Ockham's razor

• Of all hypotheses with "parameters" which explain the observations, we seek the simplest hypothesis.

What's the simplest way to explain the observations?

- In practice, this is not so easy
 - No feature set may model the data with complete accuracy
 - Simplicity/accuracy trade-off
 - Accuracy and complexity are sometimes in direct relation
 - We are often faced with trading reduced accuracy for increased simplicity.
- Machine learning is a tool for exploring this space

Machine Learning

- Supervised
 - methods that require labeled training data
- Unsupervised
 - methods that are trained on raw (unlabeled) training data
- Semi-supervised
 - bootstrap an unsupervised method with a small amount of labeled data
 - "co-training" between two machine learners

Machine Learning Tasks

- Clustering
 - Unsupervised
 - We don't know what the clusters are/will be
 - We don't know the optimal number of clusters
- Classification
 - Supervised
 - We know the classes we seek

Partitioning a corpus

- Training set
 - initial training
- Development set ("dev-test")
 - used for tuning (like a mini-test set)
- Test set ("held-out")
 - reserved for reporting results.
 - Model and parameters cannot be adjusted after touching this data

Train: build model

Test: evaluate unseens

Generative v. Discriminative: Two sides of the same coin

Discriminative models model a conditional probability between data and output. "Which label is most likely given this data?"

Generative models model a joint probability between the data and output. "Based on my knowledge of the real world, which label is most likely to generate this data?"

Discriminative Models

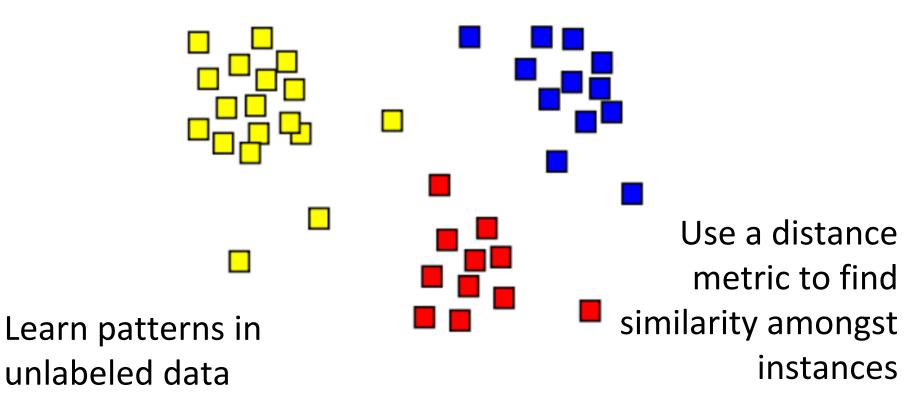
- Linear regression
- Maximum entropy classifiers
- Support Vector Machines (SVM)
- Random Forests
- Multilayer Perceptrons

Generative Models

- Examples:
 - Hidden Markov Model
 - Naïve Bayes
 - Topic Models
- Powerful models allow for data generation and incorporation of priors
- Generally harder to train than discriminative models, but that is quickly changing.

Clustering

Automated grouping



Types of clustering

- Hierarchical vs Non-hierarchical
- Clustering is a form of dimensionality reduction

Uses of clustering

- Exploratory data analysis
 - Find groups in an initial analysis
- Generalization
 - Find equivalence classes in the data

Classification

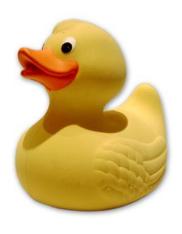
- Classification is automated labeling
- Example: Observe a bird. Its features are:

walks_like: a duck

swims_like: a duck

quacks_like: a duck

Classification result:



Types of classifiers

- Hidden Markov Model (HMM)
- Decision tree
- Support Vector Machine
- Perceptron
- Naïve Bayes
- k-Nearest Neighbor (kNN)
- Maximum Entropy "MaxEnt"
- Neural networks
- Conditional Random Fields (CRF)
- Many more...

Naïve Bayes Classification

- Intuitive Generative Model
- Simple to implement
- Works well even compared to much more sophisticated techniques
- Does not require large amounts of training data

Why "naïve?"

- It is given this name because of the underlying independence assumption:
 - Features are conditionally independent from one another
- This greatly simplifies calculating the model
 - But may weaken the accuracy

Independence assumption

Your friends have decided to go to a restaurant. It is in Fremont, cheap, an independent store, and open late. What's the likelihood that it is a burger place?



However, do some features influence the others? Does *Fremont* influence *independent store*?

Language Classification

• Given a set of words, which language did it come from?

Naïve Bayes language classifier

- Consider space of n languages L = {L₁, ..., L_n}
- Priors: Assume all languages are equally likely, and that probability text is in (some) language is 1.0
- Given data $X = \{x_1, ..., x_n\}$, we want to model $P(L_i, X)$.
- Using Chain Rule:

```
\begin{split} P(L_i, \textbf{X}) &= P(L_i, x_1, ..., x_n) \\ &= P(x_1 \mid x_2, ..., x_n, L_i) \ P(x_2, ..., x_n, L_i) \ ... \\ &= P(x_1 \mid x_2, ..., x_n, L_i) \ P(x_2 \mid x_3, ..., x_n, L_i) \ P(x_3, ..., x_n, L_i) \\ &= ... \\ &= P(x_1 \mid x_2, ..., x_n, L_i) \ P(x_2 \mid x_3, ..., x_n, L_i) \ ... \ P(x_{n-1} \mid x_n, L_i) \ P(x_n \mid L_i) \ P(L_i) \end{split}
```

Naïve assumption

All features are independent of all others
For this task, a "feature" is the occurrence of a word

With conditional independence on X,

$$P(L_i, X) = P(L_i) \prod_{j=1}^n P(x_j | L_i)$$

Last step

To find the **most** probable language:

$$\hat{L} = argmax_i p(L_i) \prod_{j=1}^n P(x_j | L_i)$$

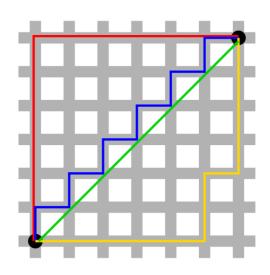
k-Nearest Neighbor Classification

- "Classification by peer pressure"
- Instance-based learning ("lazy learning")
 - No training
- Need a distance metric
- Test instance is given the same label as its closest neighbors
 - Voting schemes resolve conflict
- To test, need to calculate distance to all training instances
 - This can be slow at runtime

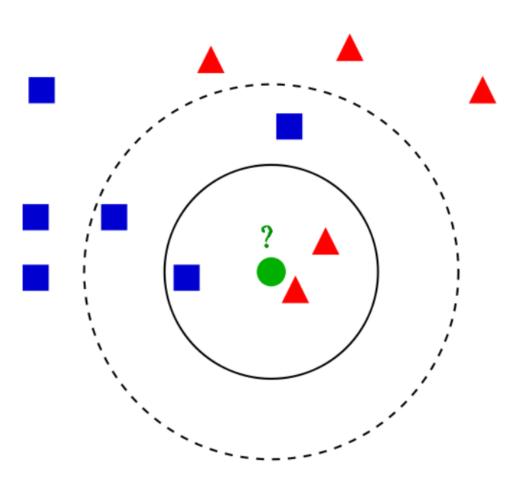
Distance Metrics

- Euclidian
- Cosine
- Hamming distance
- Taxicab distance
- others...

Distance metrics are also used in kNN classification



kNN Classification



http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:KnnClassification.svg

kNN Voting schemes

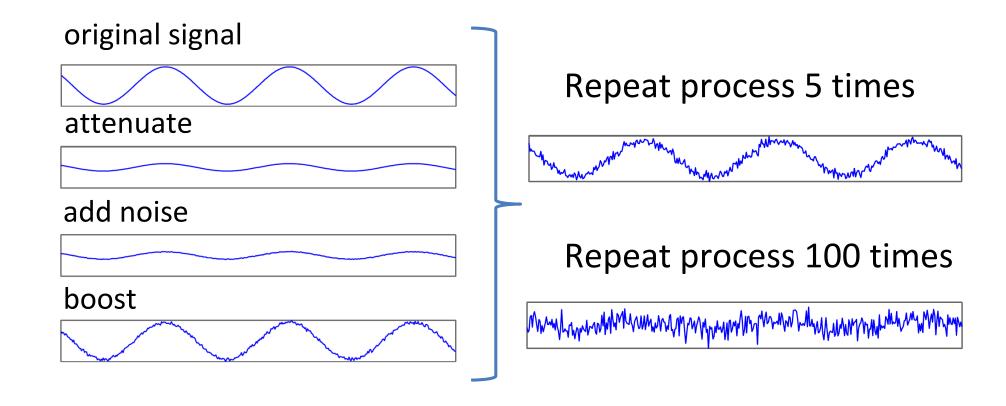
- Majority voting
 - Choose majority class amongst k closest neighbors
- Weighted voting
 - Weight each of the k neighbors' labels according to the distance to the training instance
 - In principle, this can be applied to an all-neighbors approach

Information Theory

Claude Shannon. 1948. A mathematical theory of communication.

"The fundamental problem of communication is that of reproducing at one point... a message selected at another point... Semantic aspects of communication are irrelevant to the engineering problem. The significant aspect is that the actual message is one selected from a set of possible messages."

Information theory



Information theory

- Digital communications involves the transfer of symbols
- drawn from a discrete alphabet
 - English letters
 - English words
 - Decimal digits
 - Binary digits
 - DNA sequences
 - Quantized analog signals

Encoding information

- Minimal "piece" of information is one bit
- A bit can take on two values: { 0, 1 }
- There are 2ⁿ ways to arrange n bits
- Therefore the number of bits required to encode n different sequences is: ceiling(log2(n))

Example

- Transmit information about a poker hand
 { straight flush, four of a kind, full house, flush, straight, three of a kind, two pair, pair, high card }
- There are 9 "messages"
- Baseline message length: ceiling(log2(9)) = 4
 bits

Binary code for poker hands

straight flush	0000
four of a kind	0001
full house	0010
flush	0100
straight	1000
three of a kind	0011
two pair	0101
pair	1001
high card	0111

Note: Some messages (e.g. 0110, 1010...) are unused; suggesting that there is waste in this encoding

Prefix encoding

Probabilities can be used to reduce the expected message length

straight flush	0.0000154	000011
four of a kind	0.000240	0000100
full house	0.00144	0000101
flush	0.00196	00000
straight	0.00393	0001
three of a kind	0.0211	010
two pair	0.0475	011
pair	0.422	001
high card	0.501	1

More likely messages are encoded with smaller bits

Information and probability

- The information encoded is the identity of the poker hand
- The length of the message ought to be related to its information content
- A message that the opponent only has a pair or high card seems less informative than a message that they have four of a kind
 - because it happens more often
- Transmitting rare messages is more informative than transmitting common ones

Entropy

 For the information content a message or a whole system, which is called its entropy, we sum over all possible messages or states

Entropy: H(X)

The measure of uncertainty in a system

Information Theory

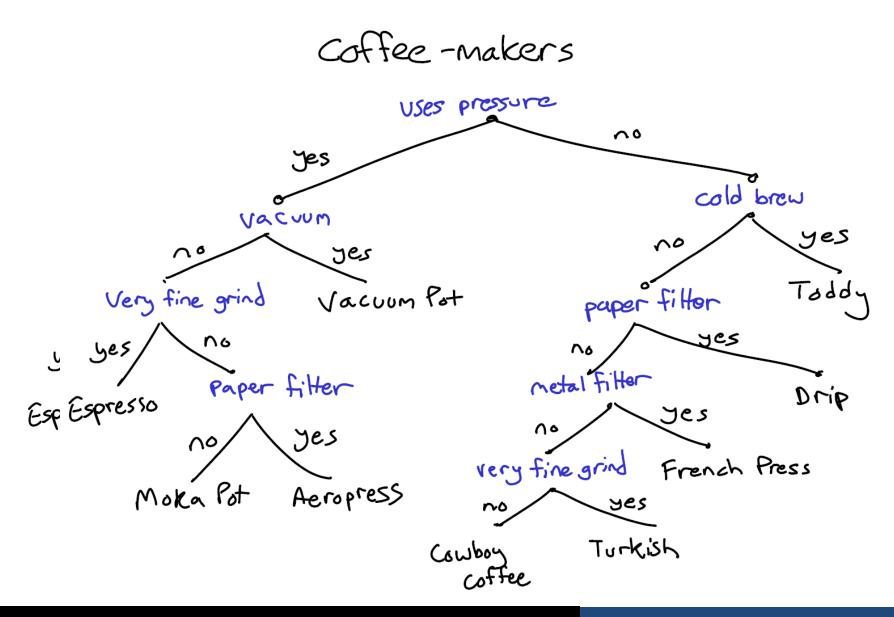
Joint Entropy: H(Y, X)

Conditional Entropy: H(Y | X)

- Mutual Information: H(X) H(Y | X)
 - the expected reduction in entropy due to knowing something

Decision Tree Classifier

- Build a tree where each node represents a test
 - Decision tree: leaf nodes assign labels
 - Regression tree: leaf nodes assign real values
- Decide quality measure for choosing branching features
- Building the tree is expensive, but testing is fast



Building the tree

- Choose feature that is most discriminative across the training set
 - Mutual information is commonly used
- Split the training data according to this feature
- Repeat for each subset of data
- Stop at some threshold

Lecture 12: Clustering

Next time

Dynamic Programming