

Linear Models: Naïve Bayes, Perceptron

CMSC 470

Marine Carpuat

Slides credit: Jacob Eisenstein

Linear Models for Multiclass Classification Feature



Naïve Bayes recap

- Define p(x, y) via a generative model
- Prediction: $\hat{y} = \arg \max_{y} p(\boldsymbol{x}_{i}, y)$

- Learning:

$$\theta = \arg \max_{\theta} p(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}; \boldsymbol{\theta})$$
$$p(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \prod_{i} p(\boldsymbol{x}_{i}, y_{i}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \prod_{i} p(\boldsymbol{x}_{i} | y_{i}) p(y_{i})$$
$$\phi_{y,j} = \frac{\sum_{i:Y_{i} = y} x_{ij}}{\sum_{i:Y_{i} = y} \sum_{j} x_{ij}}$$
$$\mu_{y} = \frac{\operatorname{count}(Y = y)}{N}$$

This gives the maximum likelihood estimator (MLE; same as relative frequency estimator)

Prediction with Naïve Bayes

 $:= \log P(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}; \phi, \mu)$ Score(x,y) Definition of conditional probability $= \log P(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}; \phi) P(\mathbf{y}; \mu)$ $= \log P(\mathbf{x}|y;\phi) + \log P(y;\mu)$ = log Multinomial($\mathbf{x}; \phi_v$) + log Cat($y; \mu$) Generative story assumptions $= \log \frac{\left(\sum_{n} x_{n}\right)!}{\prod_{n} x_{n}!} + \log \prod_{n} \phi_{y,n}^{x_{n}} + \log \mu_{y}$ $\propto \sum_{n} x_n \log \phi_{y,n} + \log \mu_y$ This is a linear model! $= \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}, y)$

where

$$\boldsymbol{\theta} = [\log \phi_1^\mathsf{T}, \log \mu_1, \log \phi_2^\mathsf{T}, \log \mu_2, \ldots]^\mathsf{T}$$
$$\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}, y) = [\mathbf{0}, \ldots, \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{x}^\mathsf{T}, 1, \mathbf{0}, \ldots, \mathbf{0}]^\mathsf{T}$$

• Naïve Bayes worked example on board

The perceptron

• A linear model for classification

• Prediction rule
$$\hat{y} = \arg \max_{y} \theta^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}, y)$$

- An algorithm to learn feature weights given labeled data
 - online algorithm
 - error-driven

Multiclass perceptron

Algorithm 3 Perceptron learning algorithm

1:	procedure PERCEPTRON($x^{(1:N)}, y^{(1:N)}$)
2:	$t \leftarrow 0$
3:	$oldsymbol{ heta}^{(0)} \leftarrow 0$
4:	repeat
5:	$t \leftarrow t + 1$
6:	Select an instance <i>i</i>
7:	$\hat{y} \leftarrow \operatorname{argmax}_y \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t-1)} \cdot \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x}^{(i)}, y)$
8:	if $\hat{y} eq y^{(i)}$ then
9:	$m{ heta}^{(t)} \gets m{ heta}^{(t-1)} + m{f}(m{x}^{(i)}, y^{(i)}) - m{f}(m{x}^{(i)}, \hat{y})$
10:	else
11:	$oldsymbol{ heta}^{(t)} \leftarrow oldsymbol{ heta}^{(t-1)}$
12:	until tired
13:	return $oldsymbol{ heta}^{(t)}$

Online vs batch learning algorithms

- In an online algorithm, parameter values are updated after every example
 - E.g., perceptron
- In a batch algorithm, parameter values are set after observing the entire training set
 - E.g., naïve Bayes

Multiclass perceptron: a simple algorithm with some theoretical guarantees

Definition 1 (Linear separability). The dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, y^{(i)})\}_{i=1}^N$ is linearly separable iff (if and only if) there exists some weight vector $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ and some margin ρ such that for every instance $(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, y^{(i)})$, the inner product of $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ and the feature function for the true label, $\boldsymbol{\theta} \cdot \boldsymbol{f}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, y^{(i)})$, is at least ρ greater than inner product of $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ and the feature function for every other possible label, $\boldsymbol{\theta} \cdot \boldsymbol{f}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, y^{(i)})$.

$$\exists \boldsymbol{\theta}, \rho > 0 : \forall (\boldsymbol{x}^{(i)}, y^{(i)}) \in \mathcal{D}, \quad \boldsymbol{\theta} \cdot \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x}^{(i)}, y^{(i)}) \ge \rho + \max_{y' \neq y^{(i)}} \boldsymbol{\theta} \cdot \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x}^{(i)}, y').$$
[2.35]

Theorem: If the data is linearly separable, then the perceptron algorithm will find a separator (Novikoff, 1962)

Practical considerations

- In which order should we select instances?
 - Shuffling before learning to randomize order helps
- How do we decide when to stop?
 - When the weight values don't change much
 - E.g., norm of the difference between previous and current weight vectors falls below some threshold
 - When the accuracy on held out data starts to decrease
 - Early stopping

ML fundamentals aside: overfitting/underfitting/generalization

Training error is not sufficient

- We care about **generalization** to new examples
- A classifier can classify training data perfectly, yet classify new examples incorrectly
 - Because training examples are only a sample of data distribution
 - a feature might correlate with class by coincidence
 - Because training examples could be noisy
 - e.g., accident in labeling

Overfitting

- Consider a model θ and its:
 - Error rate over training data $error_{train}(\theta)$
 - True error rate over all data $error_{true}(\theta)$
- We say h overfits the training data if $error_{train}(\theta) < error_{true}(\theta)$

Evaluating on test data

- Problem: we don't know $error_{true}(\theta)$!
- Solution:
 - we set aside a test set
 - some examples that will be used for evaluation
 - we don't look at them during training!
 - after learning a classifier θ , we calculate $error_{test}(\theta)$

Overfitting

- Another way of putting it
- A classifier θ is said to overfit the training data, if there is another hypothesis θ' , such that
 - θ has a smaller error than θ' on the training data
 - but θ has larger error on the test data than θ' .

Underfitting/Overfitting

- Underfitting
 - Learning algorithm had the opportunity to learn more from training data, but didn't
- Overfitting
 - Learning algorithm paid too much attention to idiosyncracies of the training data; the resulting classifier doesn't generalize

Back to the Perceptron

Averaged Perceptron improves generalization

Algorithm 4 Averaged perceptron learning algorithm

```
1: procedure AVG-PERCEPTRON(x^{(1:N)}, y^{(1:N)})
                t \leftarrow 0
  2:
                \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(0)} \leftarrow 0
  3:
  4:
                repeat
  5:
                t \leftarrow t+1
                        Select an instance i
  6:
                        \hat{y} \leftarrow \operatorname{argmax}_{y} \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t-1)} \cdot \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x}^{(i)}, y)
  7:
                        if \hat{y} \neq y^{(i)} then
  8:
                                 \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t-1)} + \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x}^{(i)}, y^{(i)}) - \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x}^{(i)}, \hat{y})
  9:
10:
                        else
                                 \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t-1)}
11:
                        m{m} \leftarrow m{m} + m{	heta}^{(t)}
12:
                until tired
13:
                \overline{oldsymbol{	heta}} \leftarrow \frac{1}{t} oldsymbol{m}
14:
                return \theta
15:
```

Properties of Linear Models we've seen so far

Naïve Bayes

- Batch learning
- Generative model p(x,y)
- Grounded in probability
- Assumes features are independent given class
- Learning = find parameters that maximize likelihood of training data

Perceptron

- Online learning
- Discriminative model score(y|x), Guaranteed to converge if data is linearly separable
- But might overfit the training set
- Error-driven learning

What you should know about linear models

- Their properties, strengths and weaknesses (see previous slides)
- How to make a prediction given a model
- How to train a model given a dataset