Lecture 5: Linear Models for Classification

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- Review of Last Week
 - Data Model and Learning Algorithm
 - Generalization Gap and Model Selection
 - Bias-Variance Decomposition

- 2 Logistic Regression
 - Classification
 - Logistic Regression

Reading materials & Reference

Reading materials:

- Chapter 3, Stanford CS 229 Lecture Notes, https://cs229.stanford.edu/notes2022fall/main_notes.pdf
- Lecture 4, Stanford CS 231n, http://cs231n.stanford.edu/schedule.html

Reference:

• EPFL, CS-433 Machine Learning, https://github.com/epfml/ML_course

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How do we trade-off the under-fitting and over-fitting?

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- f_S denotes the output.
- A denotes the learning algorithm.
- *S* denotes the input (dataset).

• True Error (the expected error over all samples chosen according to \mathcal{D}):

$$\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{D}}(f) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[\ell(y, f(\mathbf{x}))\right]. \tag{3}$$

We cannot estimate it due to the unknown \mathcal{D} .

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The reason that $L_S(f_S)$ might not be close $L_D(f_S)$ is of course over-fitting.

Problem: validating the model on the same data subset we trained it on!

• **Fix:** Split the data into a *training* set S_{train} and a *test* set S_{test} (a.k.a. *validation* set):

$$S = S_{\text{train}} \bigcup S_{\text{test}} \tag{6}$$

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$$L_{S_{\mathsf{test}}}(f_{S_{\mathsf{train}}}) = \frac{1}{|S_{\mathsf{test}}|} \sum_{(y_n, \mathbf{x}_n) \in S_{\mathsf{test}}} \ell\left(y_n, f_{S_{\mathsf{train}}}(\mathbf{x}_n)\right). \tag{7}$$

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- Issues: we have fewer data both for the learning and validation tasks (trade-off)

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Generalization gap: How far is the test from the true error?

• True Error:

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Test/Empirical Error:

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The variation of the $|L_{\mathcal{D}}(f) - L_{S_{\text{test}}}(f)|$ matters.

Given a model f and a test set $S_{test} \sim \mathcal{D}$ i.i.d. (not used to learn f) and a loss $\ell(\cdot, \cdot) \in [a, b]$:

$$\Pr\left[|L_{\mathcal{D}}(f) - L_{S_{test}}(f)| \ge \sqrt{\frac{(b-a)^2 \ln(2/\delta)}{2 |S_{test}|}}\right] \le \delta$$
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Given a predictor f and a dataset S, we can control the expected risk:

$$\Pr\left[\underbrace{L_{\mathcal{D}}(f)}_{\text{not computable}} \geq \underbrace{L_{S_{\text{test}}}(f)}_{\text{computable}} + \underbrace{\sqrt{\frac{(b-a)^2 \ln(2/\delta)}{2 |S_{\text{test}}|}}}_{\text{deviation}}\right] \leq \delta. \tag{13}$$

How far is each of the K test errors $L_{S_{test}}(f_k)$ from the true $L_{\mathcal{D}}(f_k)$?

Theorem 2

We can bound the maximum deviation for all K candidates, by

$$\Pr\left[\max_{k}|L_{\mathcal{D}}(f_{k})-L_{S_{test}}(f_{k})| \geq \sqrt{\frac{(b-a)^{2}\ln(2|K|/\delta)}{2|S_{test}|}}\right] \leq \delta$$
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- When testing *K* hyper-parameters, the error only goes up by $\sqrt{\ln(K)}$.
- ⇒ So we can test many different models without incurring a large penalty.

Issues: Splitting the data once into two parts (one for training and one for testing) is not the most efficient way to use the data!

K-fold cross-validation:

- $\mathbf{1}$ Randomly partition the data into K groups
- 2 Train K times. Each time leave out exactly one of the K groups for testing and use the remaining K-1 groups for training.
- 3 Average the K results

7			run 1
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 We have used all data for training, and all data for testing, and used each data point the same number of times.

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Benefits:

- We have used all data for training, and all data for testing, and used each data point the same number of times.
- Cross-validation returns an unbiased estimate of the generalization error and its variance.

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Bias-Variance Decomposition

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{E}_{S_{\text{train}} \in \mathcal{D}} \left[L(f_{S_{\text{train}}}) \right] &= \text{Var}_{\boldsymbol{\epsilon} \sim \mathcal{D}_{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}} [\boldsymbol{\epsilon}] & \text{(noise variance)} \\ &+ \left(f(\mathbf{x}_0) - \mathbb{E}_{S_{\text{train}}} \left[f_{S_{\text{train}'}}(\mathbf{x}_0) \right] \right)^2 & \text{(Bias)} \\ &+ \mathbb{E}_{S_{\text{train}} \sim \mathcal{D}} \left[\left(\mathbb{E}_{S_{\text{train}'}} \left[f_{S_{\text{train}'}}(\mathbf{x}_0) \right] - f_{S_{\text{train}}}(\mathbf{x}_0) \right)^2 \right] \,, \end{split} \tag{Variance}$$

which always lower-bounds the true error.

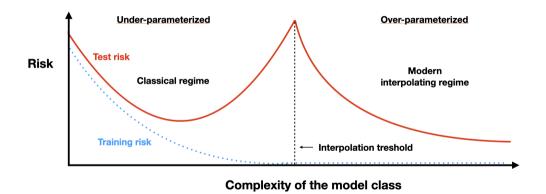
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⇒ To minimize the true error, we need to select a method that simultaneously achieves low bias and low variance.

Double descent curve in Deep Learning



Last lecture:

- Generalization Gap and Model Selection
- Bias-Variance Decomposition

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- Generalization Gap and Model Selection
- Bias-Variance Decomposition

This lecture:

- Logistic Regression
- Exponential Families and Generalized Linear Models

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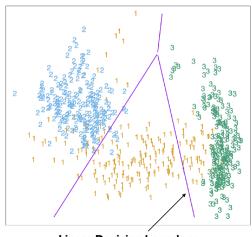
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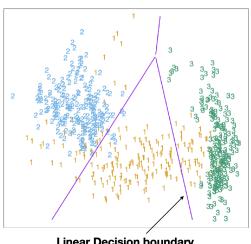
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How: relates input to a categorical variable

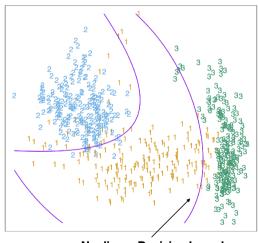
A classifier $f: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$



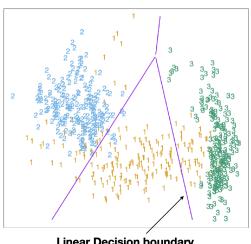
Linear Decision boundary



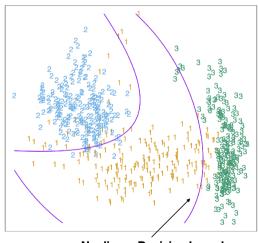
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Nonlinear Decision boundary



Linear Decision boundary



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Classification: a special case of regression?

Classification is a regression problem with discrete labels:

$$(\mathbf{x}, y) \in \mathcal{X} \times \{0, 1\} \subset \mathcal{X} \times \mathbb{R}$$
 (15)

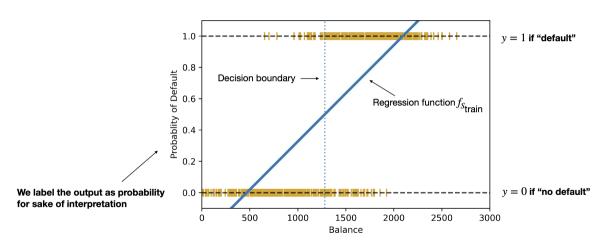
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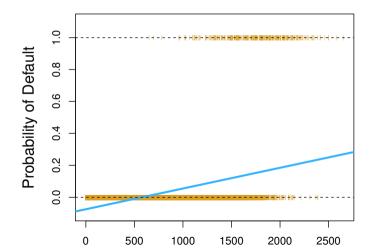
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Could we use previously seen regression methods to solve it?

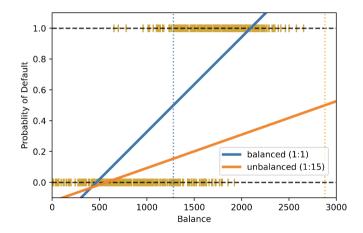
Is it a good idea to use some regression methods?



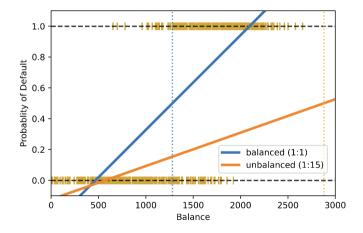
• The predicted values are not probabilities (not in [0, 1])



• Sensitivity to unbalanced data

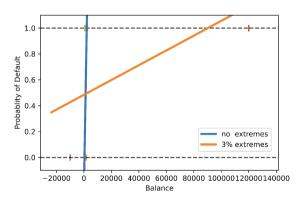


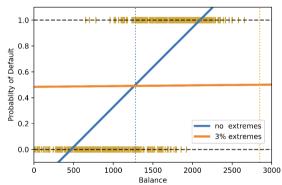
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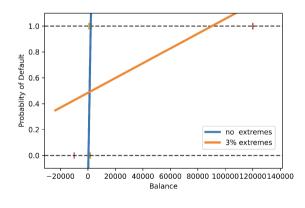
The position of the line depends crucially on how many points are in each class.

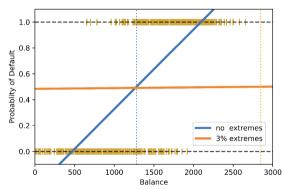
• Sensitivity to extreme values:





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The position of the line depends crucially on where the points lie.

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- We won't cover them in detail today

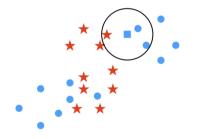
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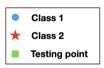
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Fundamental task of classification:

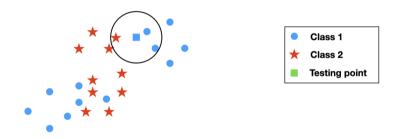
Divide the space into distinct decision regions

Assume that nearby points are likely to have similar labels





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A new point x is classified based on the **majority vote of its** k-nearest neighbors.

Pros:

Cons:

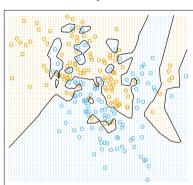


FIGURE 2.3. The same classification example in two dimensions as in Figure 2.1. The classes are coded as a binary variable (BLUE = 0, ORANGE = 1), and then predicted by 1-nearest-neighbor classification.

Pros:

No optimization or training

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FIGURE 2.3. The same classification example in two dimensions as in Figure 2.1. The classes are coded as a binary variable (BLUE = 0, ORANGE = 1), and then predicted by 1-nearest-neighbor classification.

Pros:

- No optimization or training
- **Easy** to implement

Cons:

FIGURE 2.3. The same classification example in two dimensions as in Figure 2.1. The classes are coded as a binary variable (BLUE = 0, ORANGE = 1), and then predicted by 1-nearest-neighbor classification.

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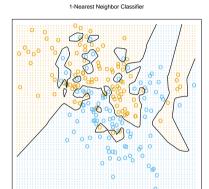


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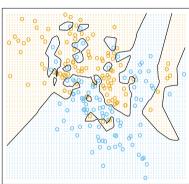


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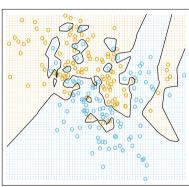


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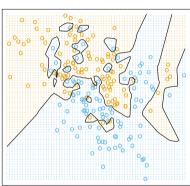


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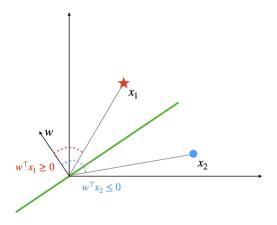
Linear Decision boundaries

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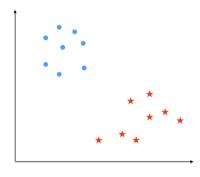
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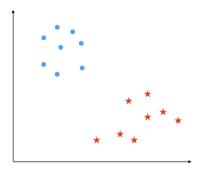


Separating hyperplane



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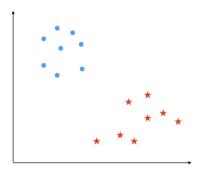
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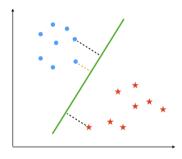


Assume the data are linearly separable, i.e., a separating hyperplane exists

Which separating hyperplane would you pick?

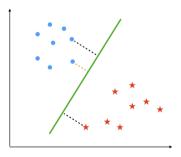
Margin

Key concept: The margin is the distance from the hyperplane to the closest point.



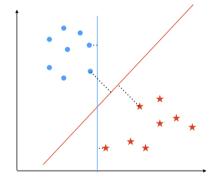
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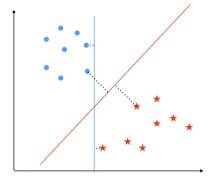


Take the one with the largest margin!

Choose the hyperplane which maximizes the margin

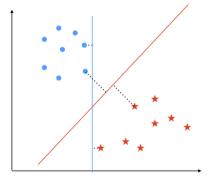


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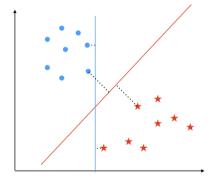
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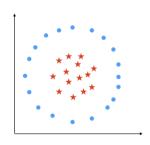


WHY? If we slightly change the training set, the number of misclassifications will stay low

⇒ It will lead us to support vector machine (SVM) and logistic regression!

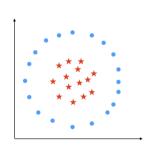
Classification

Nonlinear classifier



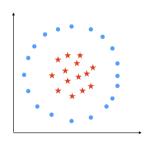
Nonlinear classifier

• Linear decision boundaries will not always work



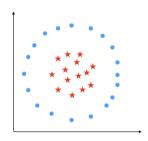
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Nonlinear classifier

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• Goal: minimize $L_{\mathcal{D}}(f)$

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But we can use the data to learn the distribution (by assuming the data distribution).

Proof of the Bayes classifier

Claim 1:
$$\forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}, f(\mathbf{x}^*) \in \arg\min_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \Pr(Y \neq y | X = \mathbf{x}) \implies f^* \in \arg\min_{f: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}} L_{\mathcal{D}}(f)$$

$$L_{\mathcal{D}}(f) = \mathbb{E}_{X,Y} \left[1_{Y \neq f(X)} \right] = \mathbb{E}_{X} \left[\mathbb{E}_{Y|X} \left[1_{Y \neq X} | X \right] \right]$$
$$= \mathbb{E}_{X} \left[\Pr(Y \neq f(X) | X) \right]$$

$$\geq \mathbb{E}_X \left[\min_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \Pr(Y \neq y | X) \right]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}_{X} \left[\Pr(Y \neq f^{\star}(X)|X) \right] = \mathbb{E}_{X,Y} \left[\mathbb{1}_{Y \neq f^{\star}(X)} \right] = L_{\mathcal{D}}(f^{\star})$$

$$] = L_{\mathcal{D}}(f^{\star}) \tag{21}$$

Claim 2:
$$f^*(\mathbf{x}) \in \arg\min_{\mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{Y}} \Pr(\mathbf{Y} \neq \mathbf{y} | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})$$

$$f^*(\mathbf{x}) \in \underset{y \in \mathcal{Y}}{\operatorname{arg \, max}} \Pr(Y = y | X = \mathbf{x}) = \underset{y \in \mathcal{Y}}{\operatorname{arg \, min}} \Pr(Y \neq y | X = \mathbf{x})$$

(18)

(19)

(20)

Two classes of classification algorithms

• Non-parametric:

Parametric:

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- Parametric: approximate true distribution $\mathcal D$ via training data
 - ⇒ Minimize the empirical risk on training data (ERM)

Recap

- Classification:
 - Mapping inputs to discrete outputs (categorical)
 - Not a special form of regression!
- Ways to perform classification:
 - Non-parametric: K-Nearest-Neighbors
 - **Parametric**: learning *X*-to-*Y* mapping via ERM
 - More complex decision boundaries? Non-linear classifiers

Table of Contents

- Review of Last Weel
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 - Generalization Gap and Model Selection
 - Bias-Variance Decomposition
- 2 Logistic Regression
 - Classification
 - Logistic Regression

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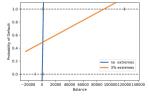
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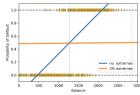
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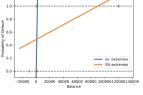


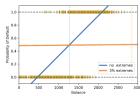


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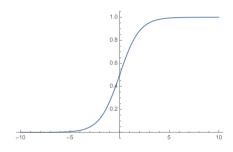
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Solution: Transforming the predictions that take values in $(-\infty, \infty)$ into [0, 1].

Consider first of all the case of two classes.

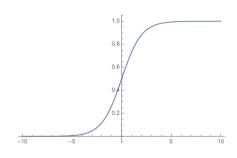


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The posterior probability for class C_1 :

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(23)

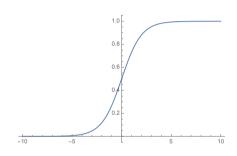
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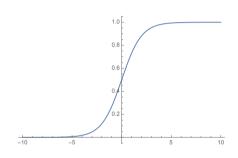
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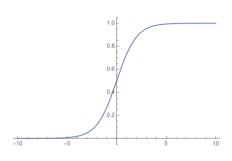
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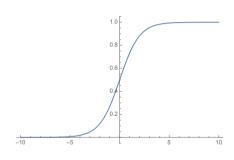
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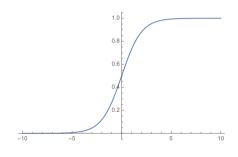
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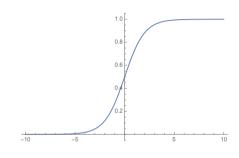
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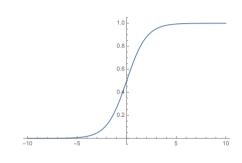
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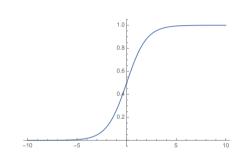
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(Exercise) For the case of K > 2 classes:



•
$$1 - \sigma(n) = \sigma(-n)$$

•
$$\sigma'(\eta) = \sigma(\eta) (1 - \sigma(\eta))$$

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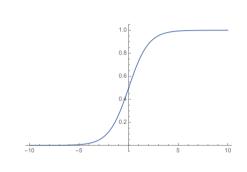
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where we have defined

$$\eta = \ln \frac{p(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{C}_1)p(\mathcal{C}_1)}{p(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{C}_2)p(\mathcal{C}_2)} \text{ and } \sigma(\eta) := \frac{e^{\eta}}{1 + e^{\eta}} \quad (25)$$

(Exercise) For the case of K > 2 classes:

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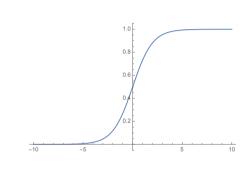
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Given a "new" feature vector x, we predict the (posterior) probability of the two class labels given x by means of

$$p(1|\mathbf{x}) := \Pr\left[Y = 1|\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}\right] \tag{27}$$

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Label prediction: quantize the probability

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 predict the class 1 (29)

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Interpretation:

- Very large $\mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{w} + w_0$ corresponds to $p(1|\mathbf{x})$ very close to 0 or 1 (high confidence).
- Small $|\mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{w} + w_0|$ corresponds to $p(1|\mathbf{x})$ very close to 0.5 (low confidence).

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- ⇒ Good news: the cost function L is convex.

(38)

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 - 4 $\eta \to \log(1 + e^{\eta})$ is convex (exercise)

• Proof of " $\eta \to \log(1 + e^{\eta})$ is convex"

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$$h'(\eta) = \frac{e^{\eta}}{1 + e^{\eta}} = \sigma(\eta) \tag{42}$$

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With the property of "composition of a convex and a linear functions is convex":

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$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} -y_n \mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \mathbf{w} + \log(1 + e^{\mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \mathbf{w}})$$
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It can be written under the matrix form:

$$\nabla^{2} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{N} \mathbf{X}^{\top} \mathbf{S} \mathbf{X}, \quad \text{where } \mathbf{S} = \operatorname{diag} \left[\sigma(\mathbf{x}_{n}^{\top} \mathbf{w}) \left(1 - \sigma(\mathbf{x}_{n}^{\top} \mathbf{w}) \right) \right] \succeq 0$$
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(44)