3 Jun 2019

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Classification Methods

- k-Nearest Neighbors
- Decision Trees
- Naïve Bayes
- Support Vector Machines
- Logistic Regression
- Neural Networks
- Ensemble Methods (Boosting, Random Forests)

Given x, want to predict an estimate \hat{y} of y, which minizes the discrepancy (L) between \hat{y} and y.

$$L(\hat{y};y) := |\hat{y} - y| \qquad \textit{Absolute error}$$

$$:= (\hat{y} - y)^2 \qquad \textit{Squared error}$$

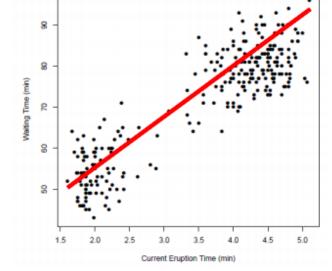
Regression Formulation

A linear predictor f, can be defined by the slope w and the intercept w_0 :

$$\hat{f}(\vec{x}) := \vec{w} \cdot \vec{x} + w_0$$

which minimizes the prediction loss.

$$\min_{w,w_0} \mathbb{E}_{\vec{x},y} \big[L(\hat{f}(\vec{x}), y) \big]$$



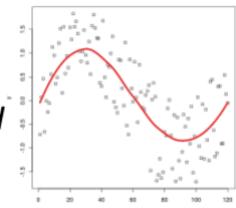
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If we assume a particular form of the regressor:

Parametric regression

Goal: to learn the parameters which yield the minimum error/loss

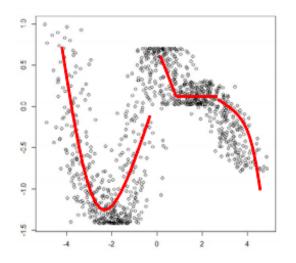


Parametric (vs) Non-parametric Regression

If no specific form of regressor is assumed:

Non-parametric regression

Goal: to learn the predictor directly from the input data that yields the minimum error/loss



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Want to find a linear predictor f, i.e., w (intercept w_0 absorbed via lifting):

$$\hat{f}(\vec{x}) := \vec{w} \cdot \vec{x}$$

which minimizes the prediction loss over the population.

$$\min_{\vec{w}} \mathbb{E}_{\vec{x},y} \big[L(\hat{f}(\vec{x}), y) \big]$$

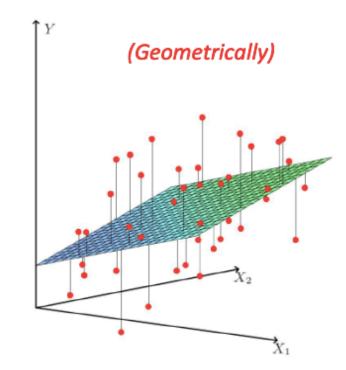
Linear Regression

We estimate the parameters by minimizing the corresponding loss on the training data:

$$\arg\min_{w} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[L(\vec{w} \cdot \vec{x}_i, y_i) \right]$$

$$= \arg\min_{w} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\vec{w} \cdot \vec{x}_i - y_i \right)^2$$

for squared error



Linear predictor with squared loss:

Linear Regression

$$\arg\min_{w} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\vec{w} \cdot \vec{x}_i - y_i \right)^2$$

$$= \arg\min_{w} \left\| \left(\begin{array}{c} \dots \mathbf{x}_{1} \dots \\ \dots \mathbf{x}_{i} \dots \\ \dots \mathbf{x}_{n} \dots \end{array} \right) \left[\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{w} \\ \mathbf{y} \\ \mathbf{y}_{n} \end{array} \right] \right\|^{2}$$

$$= \arg\min_{w} \left\| X\vec{w} - \vec{y} \right\|_{2}^{2}$$

Unconstrained problem!

Can take the gradient and examine the stationary points!

Why need not check the second order conditions?

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Best fitting w:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \vec{v}} \|X\vec{w} - \vec{y}\|$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \vec{w}} \|X\vec{w} - \vec{y}\|^2 = 2X^{\mathsf{T}} (X\vec{w} - \vec{y})$$

$$X^\mathsf{T} X \vec{w} = X^\mathsf{T} \vec{y}$$
 At a stationary point

$$\implies \vec{w}_{\text{ols}} = (X^{\mathsf{T}} X)^{\dagger} X^{\mathsf{T}} \vec{y}$$

Pseudo-inverse

Also called the Ordinary Least Squares (OLS)

The solution is unique and stable when X^TX is invertible

Linear Regression



Regularized Least-Squared Regression

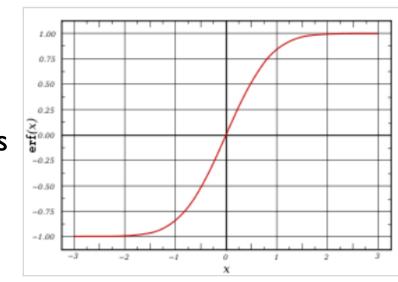
- Complex models (lots of parameters) often prone to overfitting.
- Overfitting can be reduced by imposing a constraint on the overall magnitude of the parameters.
- Two common types of regularization in linear regression:
 - L₂ regularization (a.k.a. ridge regression): Find w which minimizes:

$$\sum_{j=1}^{N} (y_j - \sum_{i=0}^{d} w_i \cdot x_i)^2 + \lambda \sum_{i=1}^{d} w_i^2$$

- λ is the regularization parameter: bigger λ imposes more constraint
- L₁ regularization (a.k.a. lasso): Find w which minimizes:

$$\sum_{j=1}^{N} (y_{j} - \sum_{i=0}^{d} w_{i} \cdot x_{i})^{2} + \lambda \sum_{i=1}^{d} |w_{i}|$$

- To predict an outcome variable that is categorical from one or more categorical or continuous predictor variables.
- Used because having a categorical outcome variable violates the assumption of linearity in normal regression.
- Let X be the data instance, and Y be the class label: Learn P(Y|X) directly
 - Let W = $(W_1, W_2, ..., W_n)$, X= $(X_1, X_2, ..., X_n)$, **W.X** is the dot product
 - Sigmoid function: $P(Y=1 | \mathbf{X}) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-\mathbf{w}\mathbf{x}}}$



Generative or Discriminative?

- Generative classifier, e.g., Naïve Bayes:
 - Assume some functional form for P(X|Y), P(Y)
 - Estimate parameters of P(X|Y), P(Y) directly from training data
 - Use Bayes rule to calculate P(Y|X=x)
 - This is 'generative' model
 - Indirect computation of P(Y|X) through Bayes rule
 - But, can generate a sample of the data
- Discriminative classifier, e.g., Logistic Regression:
 - Assume some functional form for P(Y|X)
 - Estimate parameters of P(Y|X) directly from training data
 - This is the 'discriminative' model
 - Directly learn P(Y|X)



- In logistic regression, we learn the conditional distribution P(y|x)
- Let $p_y(x;w)$ be our estimate of P(y|x), where w is a vector of adjustable parameters.
- Assume there are two classes, y = 0 and y = 1 and

$$p_1(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\mathbf{w}\mathbf{x}}}$$
 $p_0(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w}) = 1 - \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\mathbf{w}\mathbf{x}}}$

- This is equivalent to $\log \frac{p_1(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w})}{p_0(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w})} = \mathbf{w}\mathbf{x}$
- That is, the log odds of class I is a linear function of x
- Q: How to find **W**?



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- Conditional data likelihood Probability of observed Y values in the training data, conditioned on corresponding X values.
- We choose parameters w that satisfy

$$\mathbf{w} = \arg\max_{\mathbf{w}} \prod_{l} P(y^{l} \mid \mathbf{x}^{l}, \mathbf{w})$$

- where
 - $\mathbf{w} = \langle w_0, w_1, ..., w_n \rangle$ is the vector of parameters to be estimated,
 - y denotes the observed value of Y in the I th training example, and
 - \mathbf{x}^{l} denotes the observed value of \mathbf{X} in the l th training example

Equivalently, we can work with log of conditional likelihood:

$$\mathbf{w} = \underset{\mathbf{w}}{\operatorname{arg\,max}} \sum_{l} \ln P(y^{l} \mid \mathbf{x}^{l}, \mathbf{w})$$

Conditional data log likelihood, I(W), can be written as

$$l(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{l} y^{l} \ln P(y^{l} = 1 | \mathbf{x}^{l}, \mathbf{w}) + (1 - y^{l}) \ln P(y^{l} = 0 | \mathbf{x}^{l}, \mathbf{w})$$

 Note here that Y can take only values 0 or 1, so only one of the two terms in the expression will be non-zero for any given y¹

Logistic Regression: Training

We need to estimate:

$$\mathbf{w} = \arg\max_{\mathbf{w}} \sum_{l} \ln P(y^{l} \mid \mathbf{x}^{l}, \mathbf{w})$$

• Equivalently, we can minimize negative log likelihood

- This is convex so, unique global minimum
- No closed-form solution though. Iterative method required.

A function $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ is called convex iff for any two points x, x' and $\beta \in [0,1]$

$$f(\beta \vec{x} + (1 - \beta)\vec{x}') \le \beta f(\vec{x}) + (1 - \beta)f(\vec{x}')$$

Conve

$$\begin{array}{c}
\beta f(\vec{x}) + (1 - \beta)f(\vec{x}') \\
 & \forall I \\
f(\beta \vec{x} + (1 - \beta)\vec{x}')
\end{array}$$

$$\vec{x}$$

$$\vec{x}$$

$$\vec{x}'$$

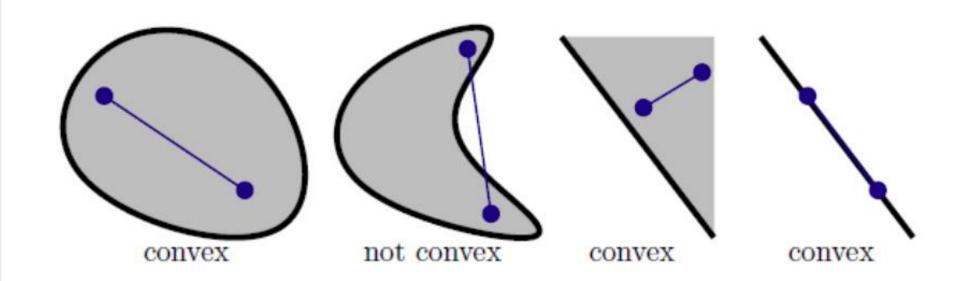


A set $S \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ is called convex iff for any two points $x, x' \in S$ and any $\beta \in [0,1]$

$$\beta \vec{x} + (1 - \beta) \vec{x}' \in S$$

Examples:

Conve





A constrained optimization

Convex Optimi zation

subject to:
$$g_i(\vec{x}) \leq 0$$
 for $1 \leq i \leq n$ (constraints)

is called a convex optimization problem If:

the objective function $f(\vec{x})$ is convex function, and the feasible set induced by the constraints g_i is a convex set

Why do we care?

We can find the optimal solution for convex problems efficiently!



Classification Methods

- Every local optima is a global optima in a convex optimization problem.
- Example convex problems:
 - Linear programs, quadratic programs,
 - Conic programs, semi-definite program.
- Several solvers exist to find the optima:
 - CVX, SeDuMi, C-SALSA, ...
- We can use a simple 'descent-type' algorithm for finding the minima!

Gradient Descent

Theorem (Gradient Descent):

Given a smooth function $f: \mathbf{R}^d \to \mathbf{R}$

Then, for any $\vec{x} \in \mathbf{R}^d$ and $\vec{x}' := \vec{x} - \eta \nabla_x f(\vec{x})$

For sufficiently small $\eta>0$, we have: $f(\vec{x}')\leq f(\vec{x})$

Can derive a simple algorithm (the projected Gradient Descent):

Initialize \vec{x}^0

for t = 1, 2, ... do

$$ec{x}'^t := ec{x}^{t-1} - \eta
abla_x f(ec{x}^{t-1})$$
 (step in the gradient direction)

$$ec{x}^t := \Pi_{g_i}(ec{x}^t)$$
 (project back onto the constraints)

terminate when no progress can be made, ie, $|f(\vec{x}^t) - f(\vec{x}^{t-1})| \le \epsilon$



Logistic Regression: Training

- Use gradient ascent (descent) for the maximization (min) problem
- The i th component of the vector gradient has the form

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} l(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_l x_i^l (y^l - \hat{P}(y^l = 1 | \mathbf{x}^l, \mathbf{w}))$$

Logistic Regression prediction

 Beginning with initial weights, we repeatedly update the weights in the direction of the gradient, changing the <u>i</u> th weight according to

$$w_i \leftarrow w_i + \eta \sum_l x_i^l (y^l - \hat{P}(y^l = 1 \mid \mathbf{x}^l, \mathbf{w}))$$

Regularization in Logistic Regression

- Overfitting can arise especially when data has very high dimensions and is sparse.
- One approach -> modified "penalized log likelihood function," which penalizes large values of **w**, as before.

$$\mathbf{w} = \arg\max_{\mathbf{w}} \sum_{l} \ln P(y^{l} | \mathbf{x}^{l}, \mathbf{w}) - \frac{\lambda}{2} ||\mathbf{w}||^{2}$$

Derivative then becomes:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} l(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_l x_i^l (y^l - \hat{P}(y^l = 1 | \mathbf{x}^l, \mathbf{w})) - \lambda w_i$$



- In general, NB and LR make different assumptions
 - NB: Features independent given class -> assumption on P(X|Y)
 - LR: Functional form of P(Y|X), no assumption on P(X|Y)
- LR is a linear classifier
 - decision rule is a hyperplane
- LR optimized by conditional likelihood
 - no closed-form solution
 - Concave (convex) -> global optimum with gradient ascent (descent)
- Extending logistic regression to multiple classes
 - Use softmax for each class k! $p(y = k|x) = \frac{\exp(\theta_k^\top x)}{\sum_{i=1}^K \exp(\theta_i^\top x)}$

Readings

- PRML Bishop, Chapter 4 (Sec 4.3)
- "Introduction to Machine Learning" by Ethem Alpaydin, Chapter 10