

# **Classification with discriminative models**

DSE 220

# So far..

- Introduction
- Nonparametric Methods
  - Decision Trees
  - kNN
- Parametric Methods
  - Generative Models
    - Naive Bayes
    - Binary Features, Multinomial Features
    - Gaussian Generative Model
    - Fisher Linear Discriminant Analysis
- Regression Analysis
- Evaluation Metrics
  - Accuracy, Recall, Precision, Sensitivity, Specificity,...
  - ROC Curves

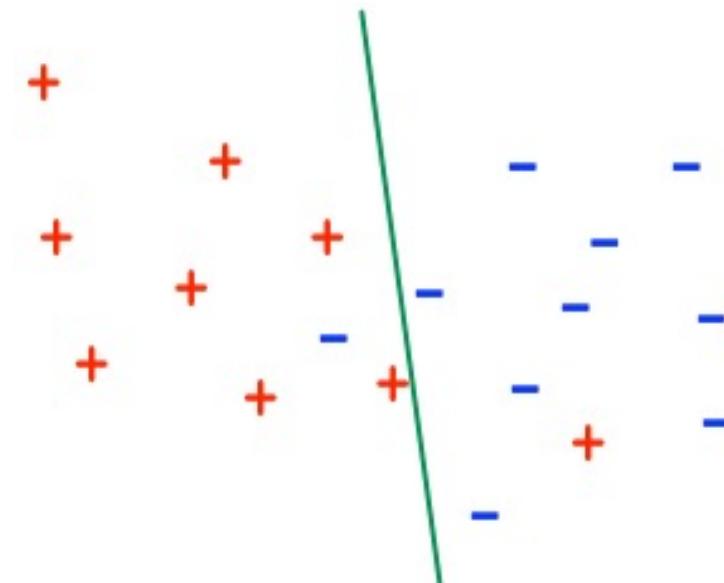
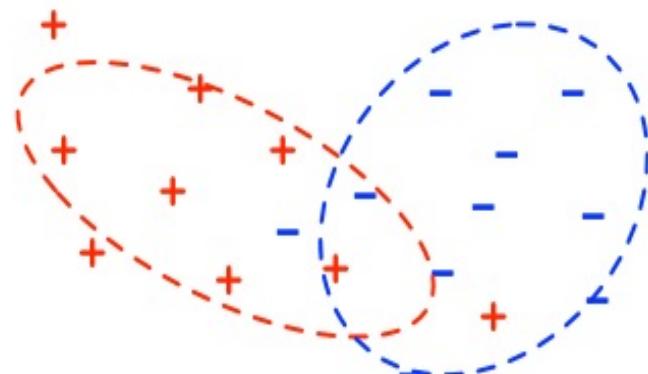
# Today

- Parametric Methods
  - Discriminative Methods
    - Logistic Regression
      - Gradient Descent
      - Newton-Raphson
    - ***Hands-On***
    - ***Self-practice***
    - Perceptron
    - SVMs
    - ***Hands-On***
    - ***Self-practice***
  - Kernels
    - ***Hands-On***
    - ***Self-practice***
  - Richer Output Spaces
    - ***Hands-On***
    - ***Self-practice***

# Classification with parametrized models

Classifiers with a fixed number of parameters can represent a limited set of functions. Learning a model is about picking a good approximation.

Typically the  $x$ 's are points in  $p$ -dimensional Euclidean space,  $\mathbf{R}^p$



Two ways to classify:

- **Generative**: model the individual classes
- **Discriminative**: mode the decision boundary between the classes

# Generative models: pros and cons

## Advantages:

- Multiclass is a breeze
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- Returns not just a classification but also a confidence  $\Pr(y|x)$

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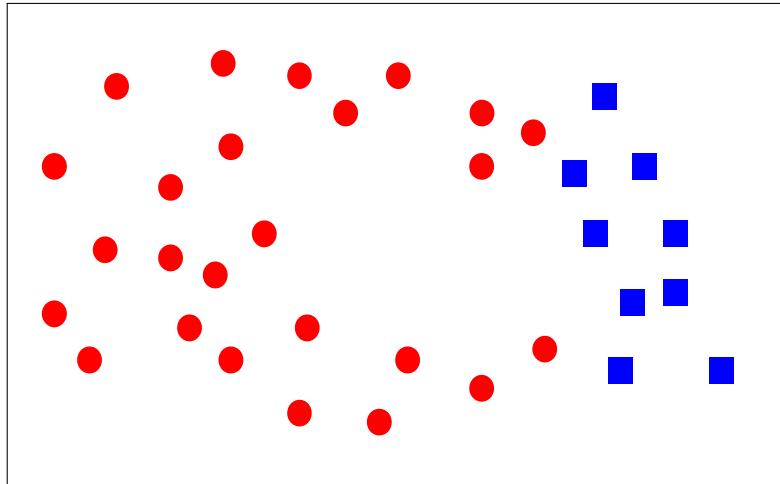
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If we only care about classification, shouldn't we focus on the decision boundary rather than trying to model other aspects of the distribution of  $x$  ?

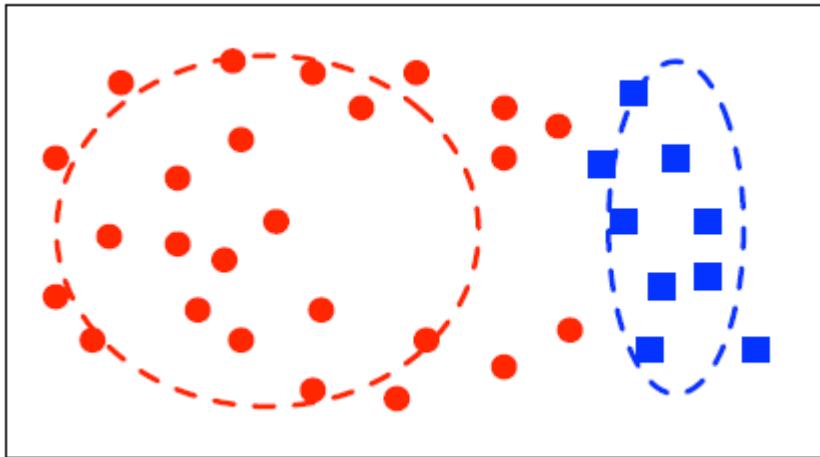
# Generative versus discriminative



The generative way:

- Fit:  $\pi_0, \pi_1, P_0, P_1$
- This determines a full joint distribution  $\Pr(x, y)$
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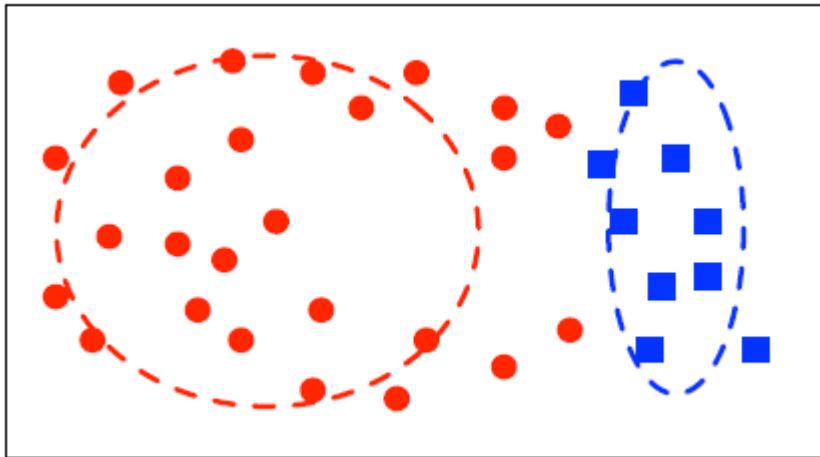
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The generative way: model  $\Pr(y|x)$  directly.

In our earlier terminology: forget about the  $\mu$  (Prob. Distribution), just learn the  $\eta$  (likelihood)

# Recall

- Binary Classification with Gaussian Generative Model

# Binary classification with Gaussian generative model

Estimate class probabilities  $\pi_1, \pi_2$  and fit a Gaussian to each class:

$$P_1 = N(\mu_1, \Sigma_1), P_2 = N(\mu_2, \Sigma_2)$$

E.g. If data points  $x^{(1)}, \dots, x^{(m)} \in \mathbb{R}^p$  are class 1:

$$\mu_1 = \frac{1}{m} (x^{(1)} + \dots + x^{(m)}) \quad \text{and} \quad \Sigma_1 = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (x^{(i)} - \mu_1)(x^{(i)} - \mu_1)^T$$

Given a new point  $x$ , predict class 1 iff:

$$\pi_1 P_1(x) > \pi_2 P_2(x) \Leftrightarrow x^T M x + 2w^T x \geq \theta,$$

where:

$$M = \frac{1}{2} (\Sigma_2^{-1} - \Sigma_1^{-1})$$

$$w = \Sigma_1^{-1} \mu_1 - \Sigma_2^{-1} \mu_2$$

and  $\theta$  is a constant depending on the various parameters.

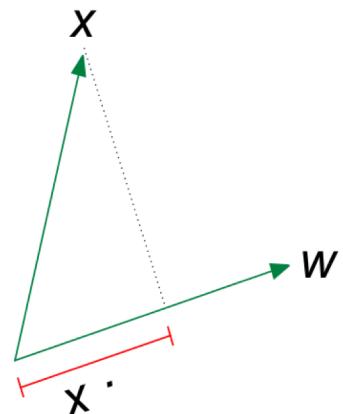
$\Sigma_1 = \Sigma_2$ : linear decision boundary. Otherwise, quadratic boundary.

# Linear decision boundary

When  $\Sigma_1 = \Sigma_2 = \Sigma$ : choose class 1 iff

$$x \cdot \underbrace{\Sigma^{-1}(\mu_1 - \mu_2)}_w \geq \theta.$$

Geometric picture: Suppose  $w$  is a unit vector (that is,  $\|w\| = 1$ ). Then  $x \cdot w$  is the **projection** of vector  $x$  onto direction  $w$ .



And we can always make  $w$  a unit vector by dividing both sides of the inequality by  $\|w\|$ .

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- Say  $\mathcal{Y} = \{-1, 1\}$ . Recall: for Gaussians with common covariance,

$$\ln \frac{\Pr(y = 1 | x)}{\Pr(y = -1 | x)} = \underbrace{w \cdot x + \theta}_{\text{linear}}$$

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$$\Pr(y = -1 | x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{w \cdot x}}$$

$$\Pr(y = 1 | x) = 1 - \frac{1}{1 + e^{w \cdot x}} = \frac{e^{w \cdot x}}{1 + e^{w \cdot x}} = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-w \cdot x}}$$

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- More concisely,

$$\Pr(y | x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-y(w \cdot x)}}$$

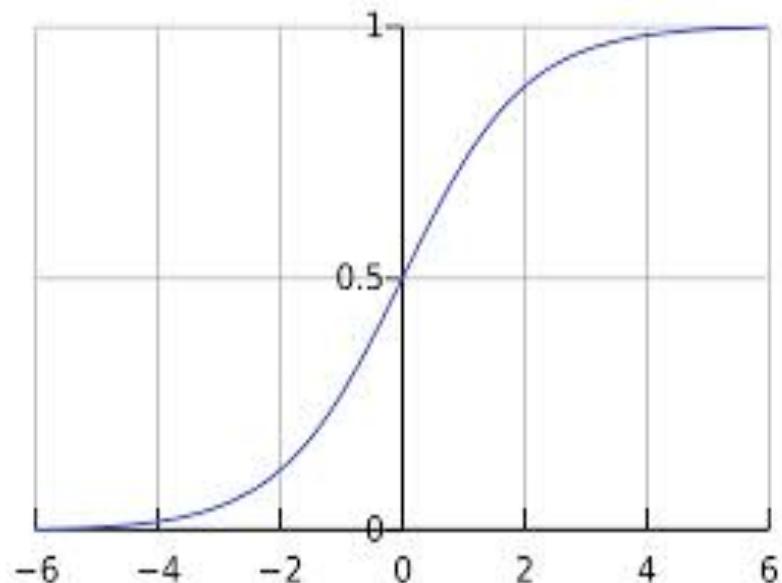
This is the **logistic regression model**, parametrized by  $w$ .

# The squashing function

Take  $X = \mathbb{R}^p$  and  $Y = \{-1, 1\}$ . The model specified by  $w \in \mathbb{R}^p$  is

$$\Pr_w(y | x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-y(w \cdot x)}} = g(y(w \cdot x)),$$

where  $g(z) = 1/(1 + e^{-z})$  is the *squashing function*.

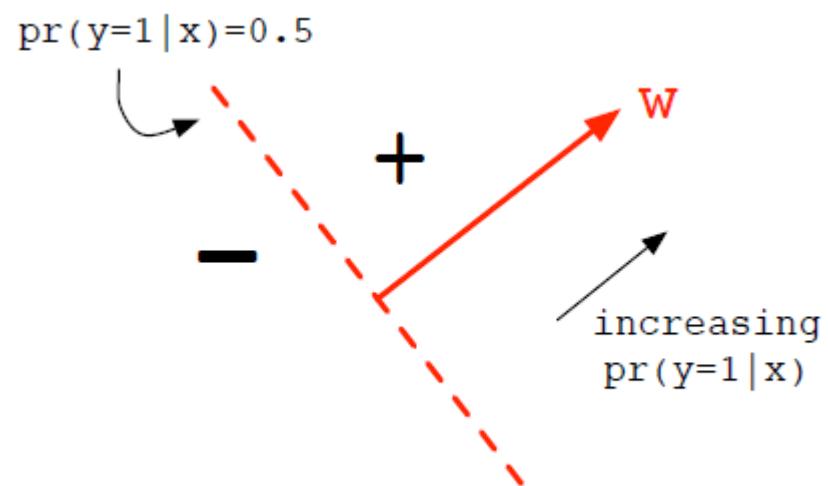
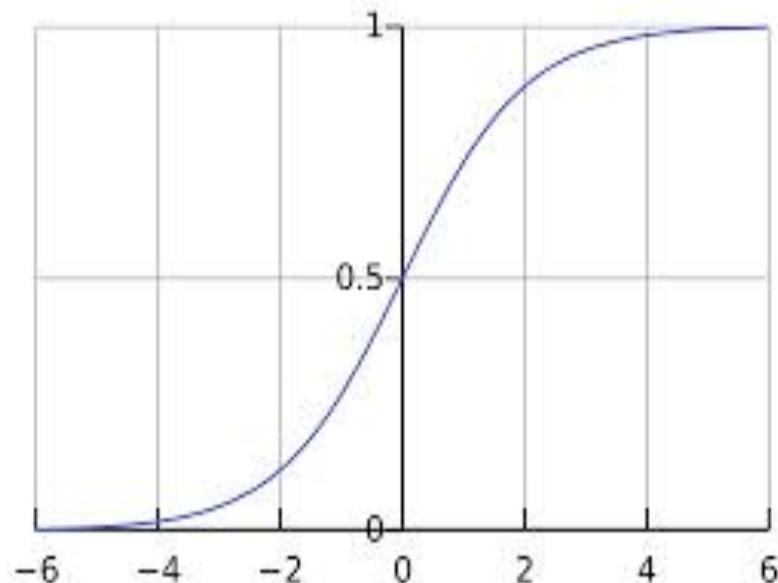


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# Fitting $w$

The maximum-likelihood principle: given a data set

$$(x^{(1)}, y^{(1)}), \dots, (x^{(n)}, y^{(n)}) \in \mathbb{R}^p \times \{-1, 1\},$$

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$$L(w) = - \sum_{i=1}^n \ln \Pr_w(y^{(i)} \mid x^{(i)})$$

$$= - \sum_{i=1}^n \ln \left( \frac{1}{1 + e^{-y^{(i)}(w \cdot x^{(i)})}} \right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \ln(1 + e^{-y^{(i)}(w \cdot x^{(i)})})$$

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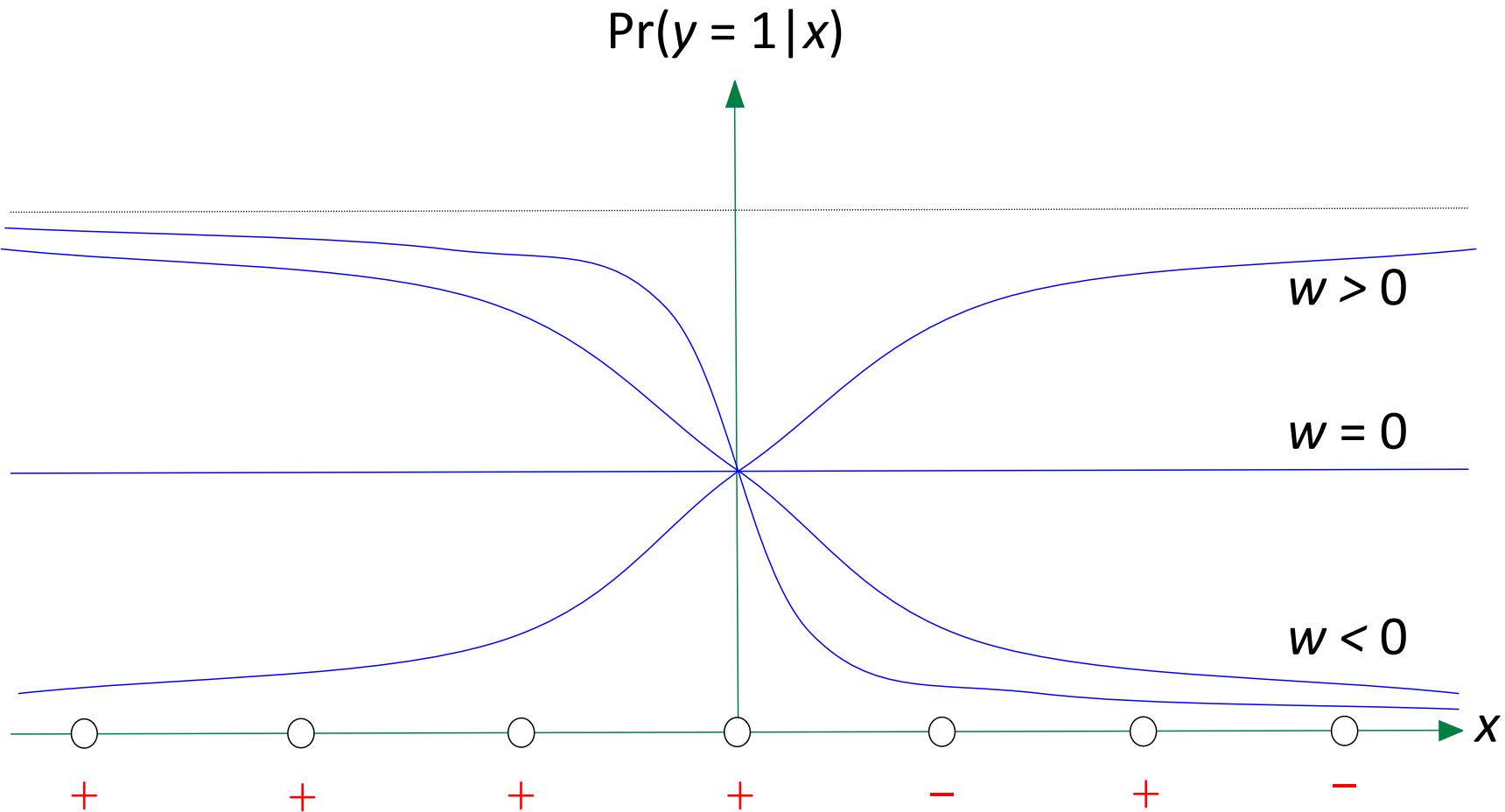
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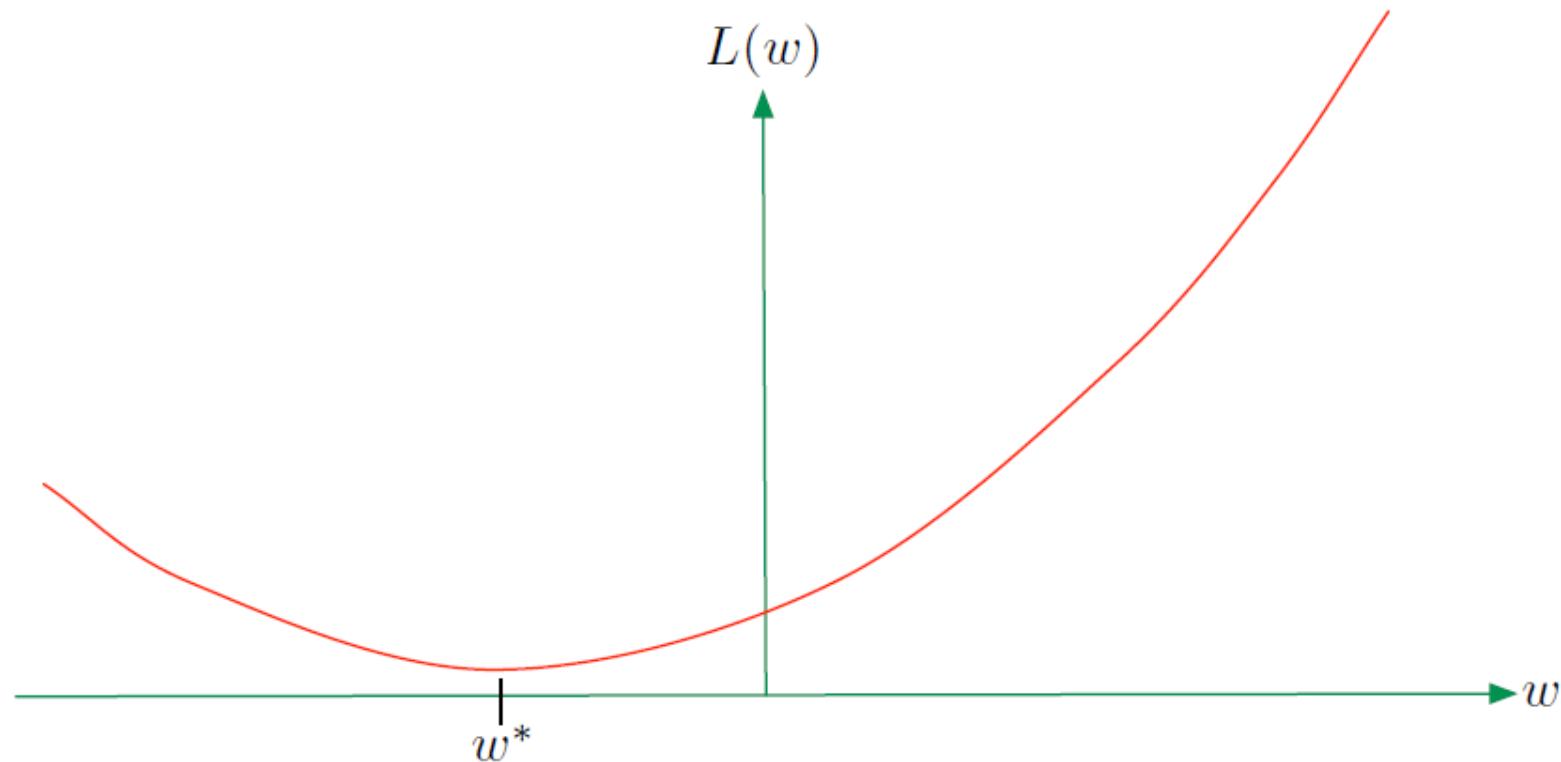
The good news:  $L(w)$  is **convex** in  $w$ .

# One dimensional example

$$\Pr_w(y | x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-yw}} , \quad w \in \mathbb{R}$$



# Example, cont'd



How to find the minimum of this convex function? A variety of options:

- Gradient descent
- Newton-Raphson

and many others.

# Gradient descent procedure for logistic regression

Given  $(x^{(1)}, y^{(1)}), \dots, (x^{(n)}, y^{(n)}) \in \mathbb{R}^p \times \{-1, 1\}$ , find

$$\arg \min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^p} L(w) = \sum_{i=1}^n \ln(1 + e^{-y^{(i)}(w \cdot x^{(i)})})$$

- Set  $w_0 = 0$
- For  $t = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ , until convergence:

$$w_{t+1} = w_t + \eta_t \sum_{i=1}^n y^{(i)} x^{(i)} \underbrace{\Pr_{w_t}(-y^{(i)} | x^{(i)})}_{\text{doubt}_t(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)})},$$

where  $\eta_t$  is a step size chosen by line search to minimize  $L(w_{t+1})$ .

# Newton-Raphson procedure for logistic regression

- Set  $w_0 = 0$
- For  $t = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ , until convergence:

$$w_{t+1} = w_t + \eta_t (X^T D_t X)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n y^{(i)} x^{(i)} \Pr_{w_t}(-y^{(i)} | x^{(i)}),$$

where

- $X$  is the  $n \times p$  data matrix with one point per row
- $D_t$  is an  $n \times n$  diagonal matrix with  $(i, i)$  entry

$$D_{t,ii} = \Pr_{w_t}(1|x^{(i)}) \Pr_{w_t}(-1|x^{(i)})$$

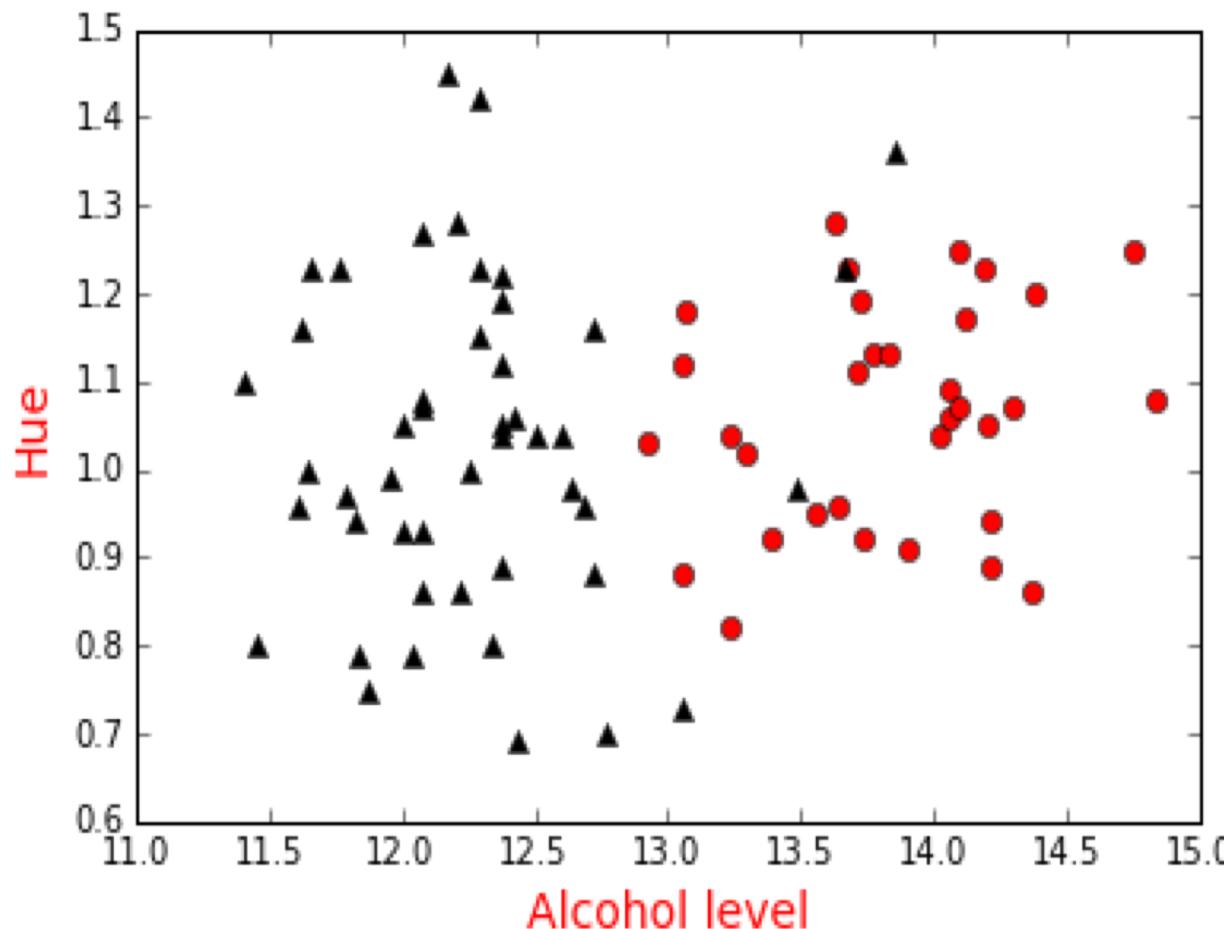
- $\eta_t$  is a step size that is either fixed to 1 ("iterative reweighted least squares") or chosen by line search to minimize  $L(w_{t+1})$ .

# Example: “wine” data set

Recall: data from three wineries from the same region of Italy.

- 13 attributes: hue, color intensity, flavanoids, ash content, ...
- 178 instances in all: split into 118 train, 60 test

Pick two classes and just two attributes (hue, alcohol content).

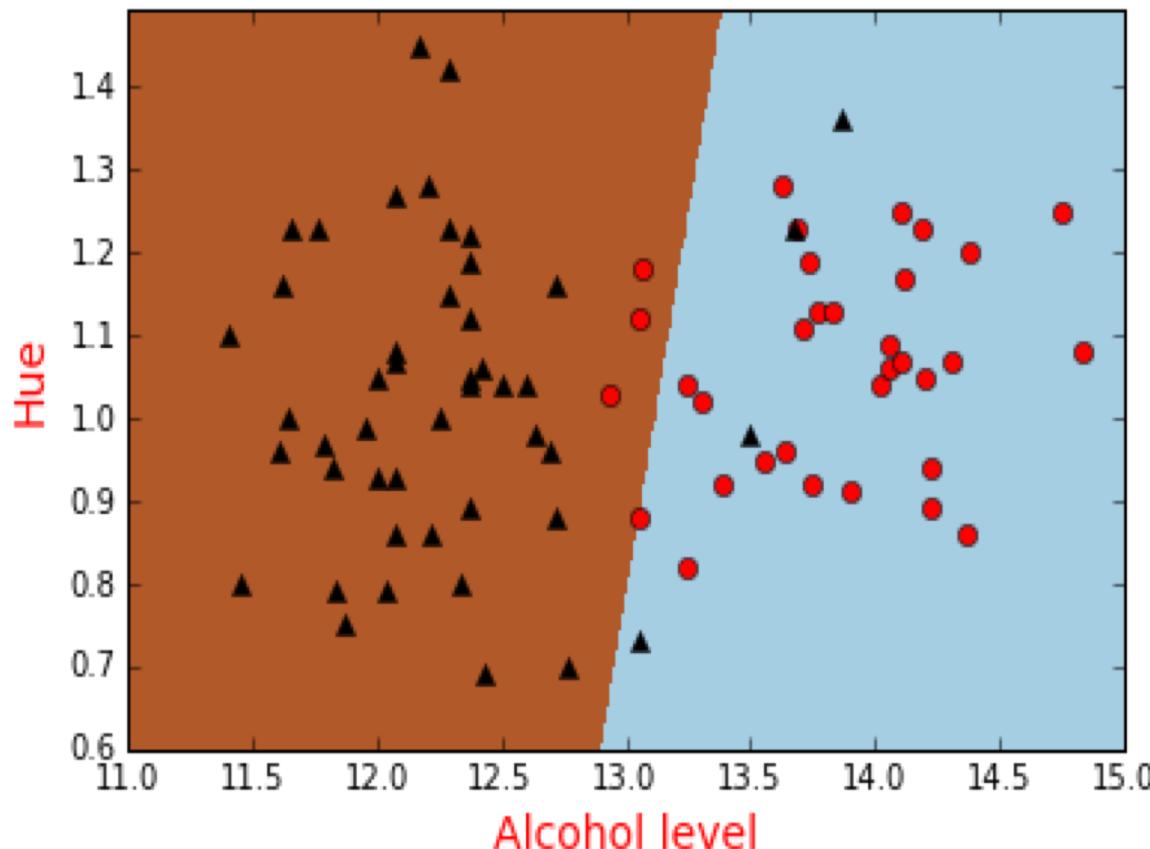


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Test error using logistic regression: 10%.

# A closer look at the logistic loss

For  $(x^{(1)}, y^{(1)}), \dots, (x^{(n)}, y^{(n)}) \in \mathbb{R}^p \times \{-1, +1\}$ ,

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**First derivative.** There are  $p$  partial derivatives  $\partial L / \partial w_j$ . Put into a vector:

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Good news:  $L(w)$  is **convex**, so local optimum implies global optimum.

# Quick quiz

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①  $F(w) = u \cdot w$ , where  $u \in \mathbf{R}^p$

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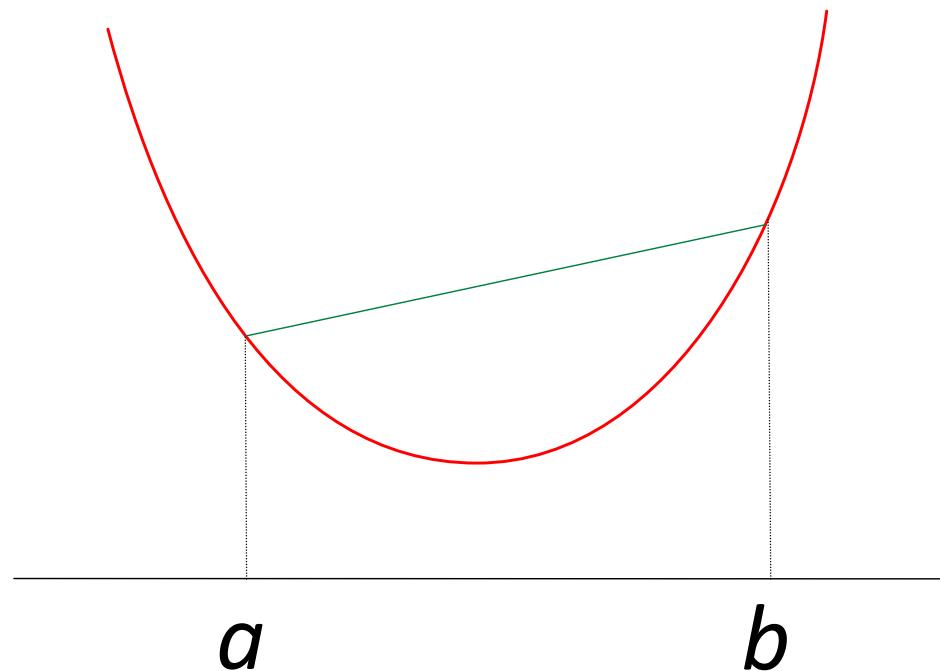
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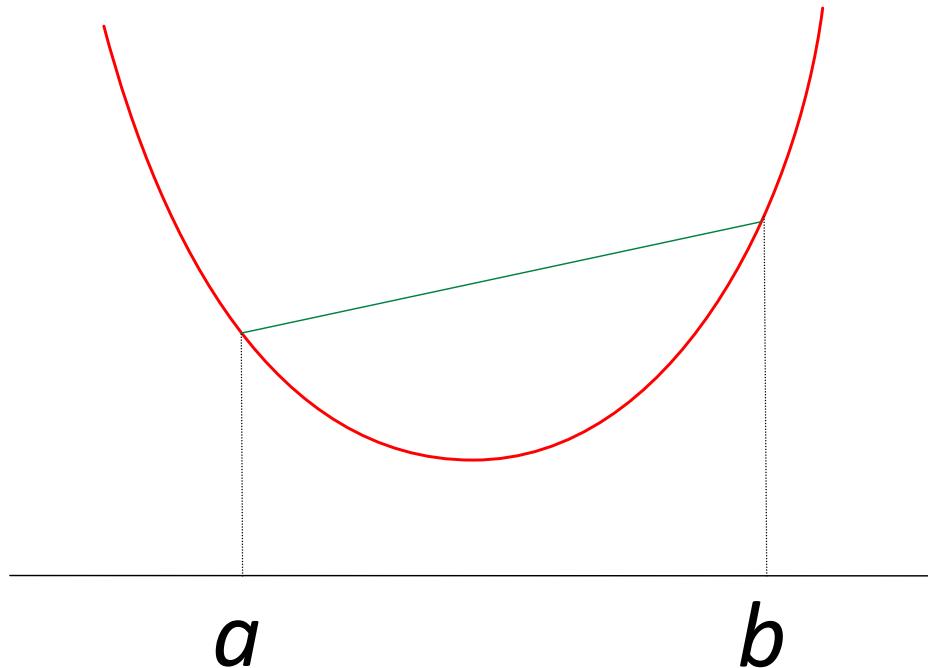
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- ①  $F(w) = u \cdot w$ , where  $u \in \mathbf{R}^p \rightarrow u$
- ②  $F(w) = w^T w \rightarrow 2w$

# Convexity



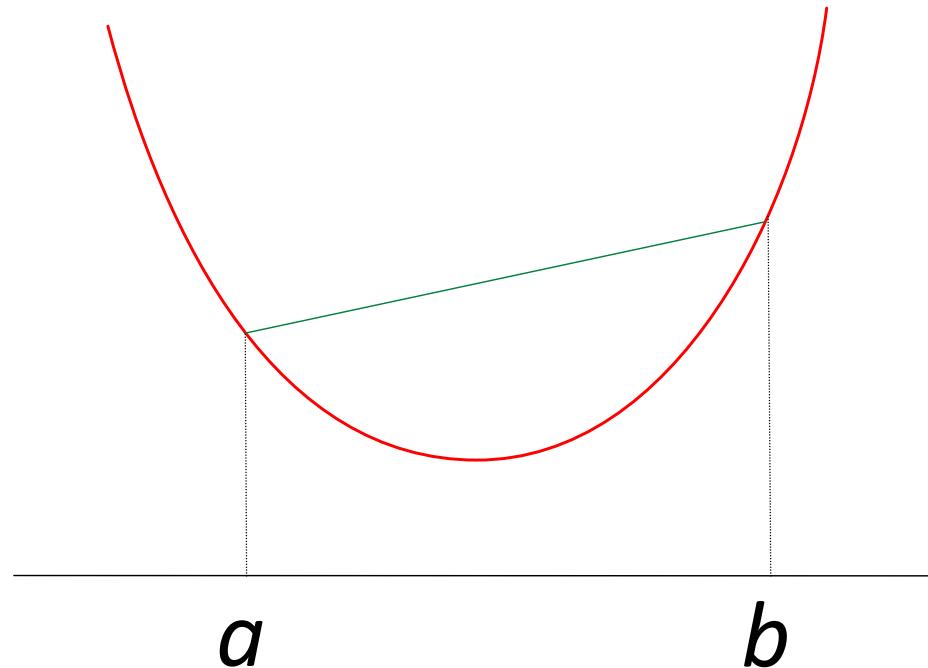
# Convexity



A function  $f : \mathbb{R}^p \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is **convex** if for all  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^p$  and  $0 < \theta < 1$ ,

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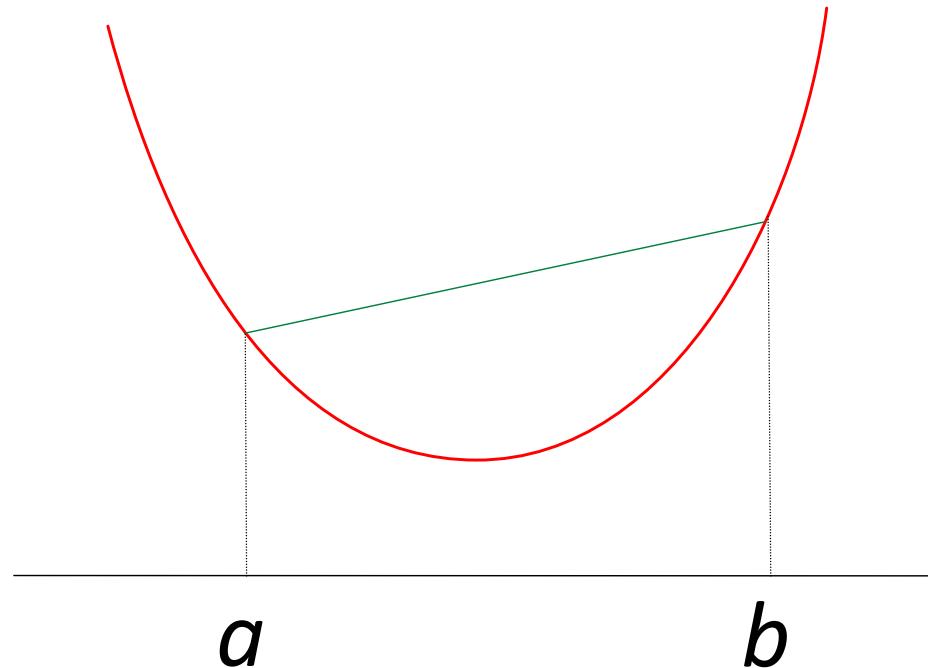


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$f$  is **concave** (resp., **strictly concave**) iff  $-f$  is convex (resp., strictly convex).

# Second-derivative test for convexity

A function  $f : \mathbb{R}^P \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  has  $p^2$  second partial derivatives  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial z_j \partial z_k}$  at any  $z \in \mathbb{R}^P$  (assuming these exist).

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**Useful fact.** Suppose that for  $f : \mathbb{R}^p \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , the second partial derivatives exist everywhere and are continuous functions of  $z$ . Then:

- ①  $H(z)$  is a symmetric matrix.
- ②  $f$  is convex if and only if  $H(z)$  is positive semidefinite for all  $z \in \mathbb{R}^p$ .

# Quick quiz

Is this function  $f : \mathbb{R}^P \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  convex?

$$f(z) = (u \cdot z)^2$$

(Here  $u$  is some fixed vector in  $\mathbb{R}^P$ .)

# Quick quiz

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Yes

Calculate Hessian. It will be of the form  $UU^T$

# Convexity of logistic regression loss function

Recall the loss function: for data  $(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)}) \in \mathbb{R}^p \times \{-1, +1\}$ ,

$$L(w) = \sum_{i=1}^n \ln(1 + e^{-y^{(i)}(w \cdot x^{(i)})}).$$

We already know the first derivative:

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Second derivative: the  $(j, k)$  entry of the Hessian  $H(w)$  is

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_k \partial w_j} &= - \sum_{i=1}^n y^{(i)} x_j^{(i)} (-1) \frac{e^{y^{(i)}(w \cdot x^{(i)})}}{(1 + e^{y^{(i)}(w \cdot x^{(i)})})^2} y^{(i)} x_k^{(i)} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n x_j^{(i)} x_k^{(i)} \frac{e^{y^{(i)}(w \cdot x^{(i)})}}{(1 + e^{y^{(i)}(w \cdot x^{(i)})})^2} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_j^{(i)} x_k^{(i)} \frac{1}{1 + e^{w \cdot x^{(i)}}} \frac{1}{1 + e^{-w \cdot x^{(i)}}} \end{aligned}$$

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This is  $u_j \cdot u_k$ , where vectors  $u_1, \dots, u_p \in \mathbb{R}^n$  are defined as follows:

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Therefore  $H(w) = UU^T$ , where  $U$  is the matrix with rows  $u_j \Rightarrow$  convex.

# Gradient descent

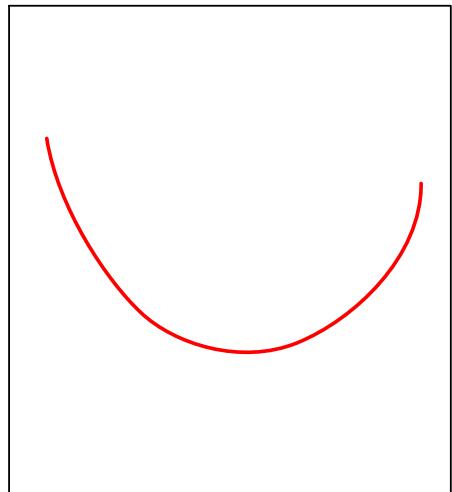
For minimizing a function  $L(w)$ :

- $w_0 = 0, t = 0$
- while  $\nabla L(w_t) \neq 0$ :
  - $w_{t+1} = w_t - \eta_t \nabla L(w_t)$
  - $t = t + 1$

Here  $\eta_t$  is the *step size* at time  $t$ .

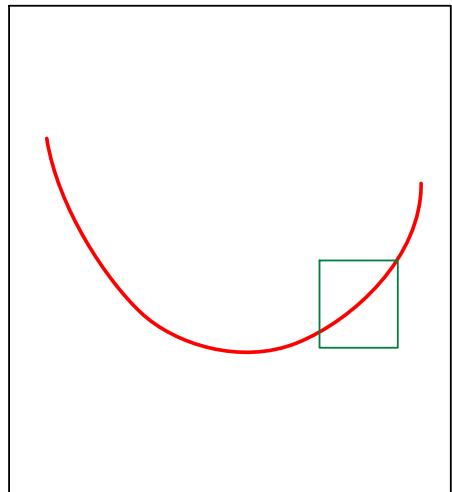
# Gradient descent: rationale

“Differentiable” means “locally linear”.



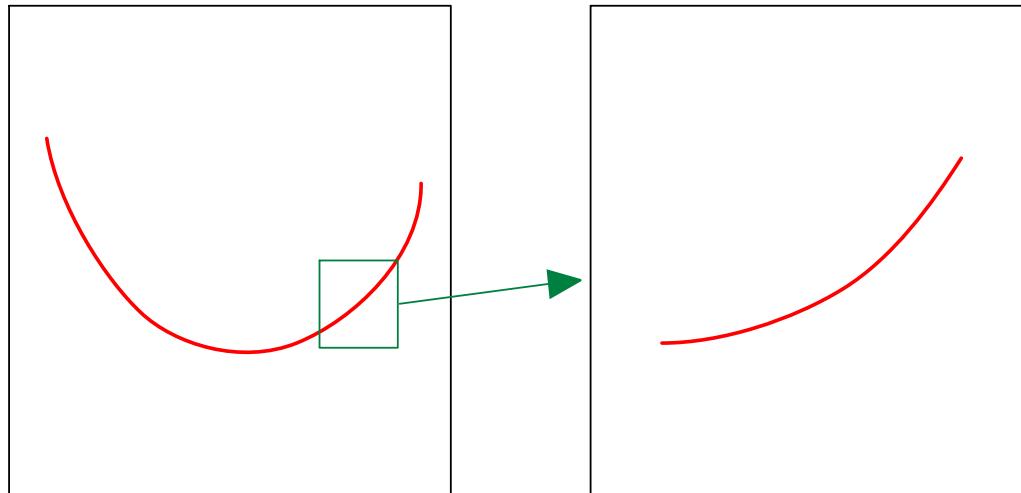
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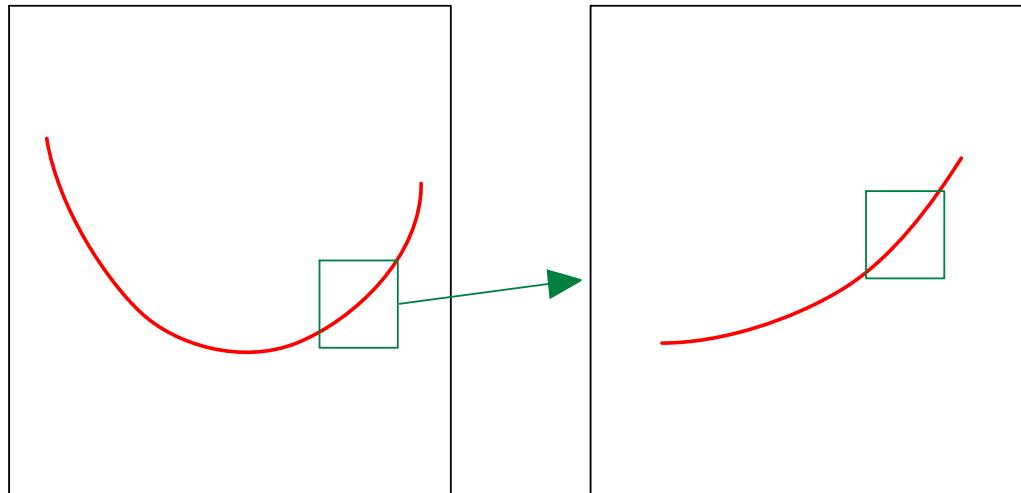
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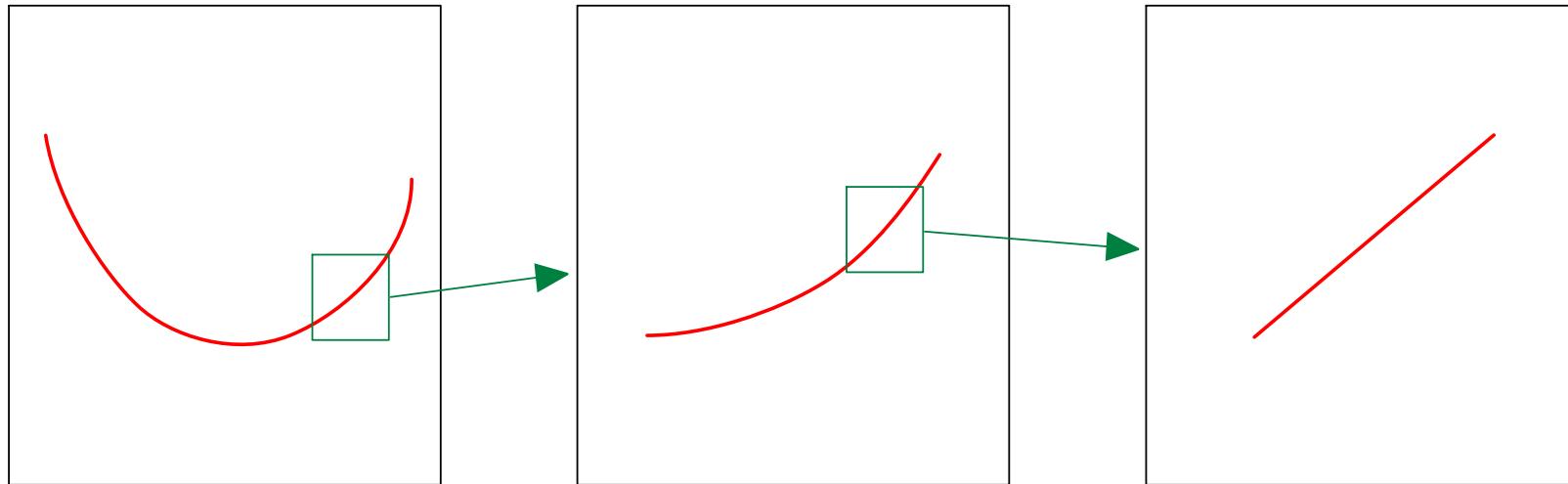
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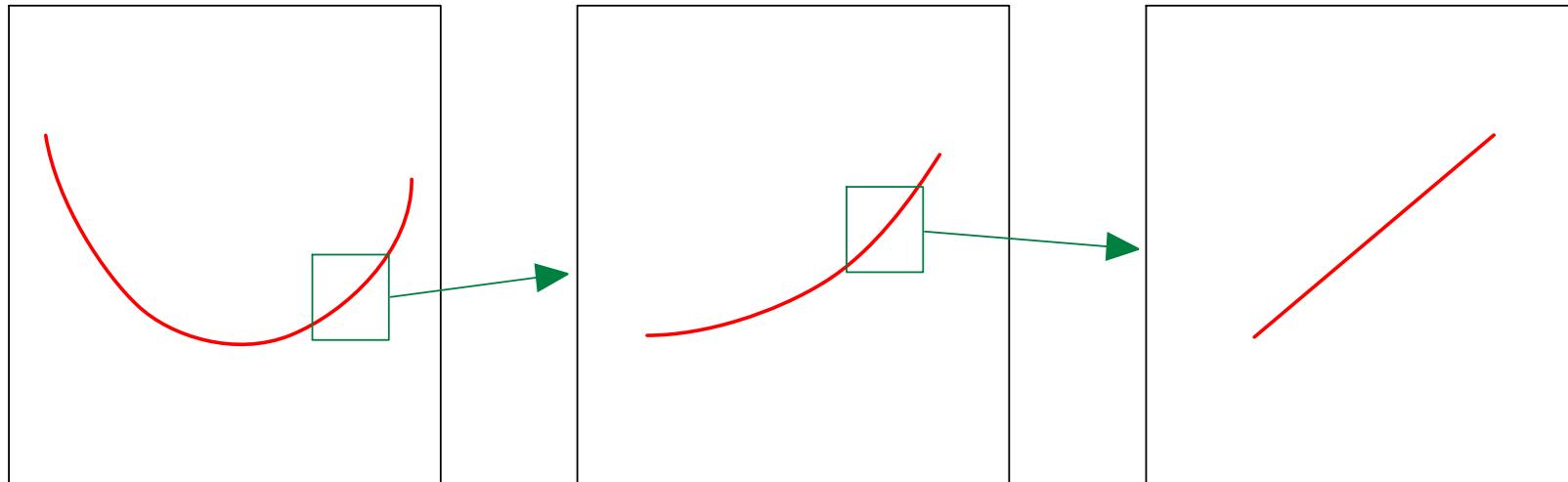
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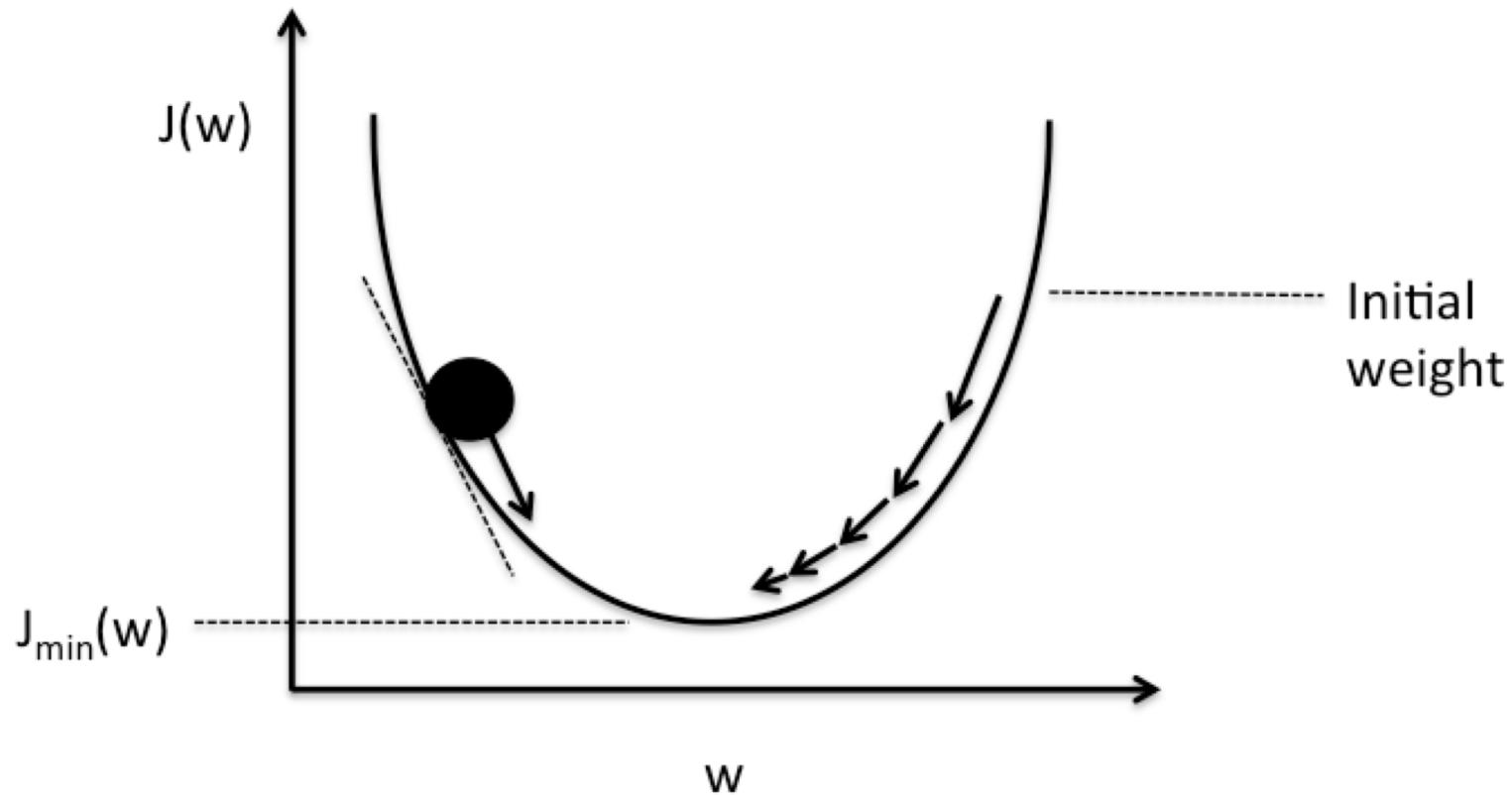
For *small* displacements  $u \in \mathbb{R}^p$ ,

$$L(w + u) \approx L(w) + u \cdot \nabla L(w).$$

Therefore, if  $u = -\eta \nabla L(w)$  is small,

$$L(w + u) \approx L(w) - \eta \|\nabla L(w)\|^2 < L(w).$$

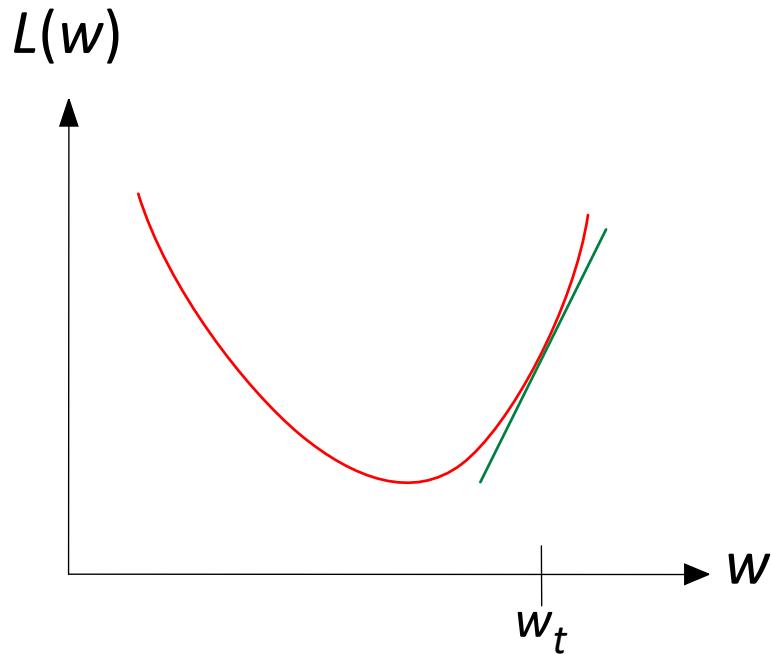
# Gradient descent: rationale



Schematic of gradient descent.

# The step size matters

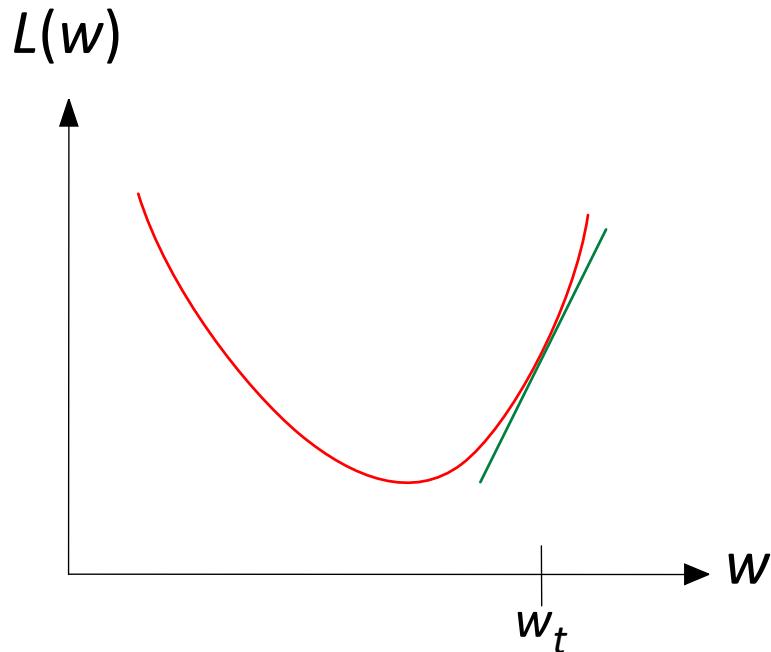
Gradient descent update:  $w_{t+1} = w_t - \eta_t \nabla L(w_t)$ .



- Step size  $\eta_t$  too small: not much progress
- Too large: overshoot the mark

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One option: pick  $\eta_t$  using a line search

$$\eta_t = \arg \min_{\alpha > 0} L(w_t - \alpha \nabla L(w_t)).$$

# Line Search

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This makes sure that  $\alpha$  has a value that can lead us to the minimum value of  $L(w_t)$ .

# Variant: stochastic gradient descent

Recall gradient descent update for logistic regression: at time  $t$

$$w_{t+1} = w_t + \eta_t \sum_{i=1}^n y^{(i)} x^{(i)} \underbrace{\Pr_{w_t}(-y^{(i)}|x^{(i)})}_{\text{doubt}_t(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)})}.$$

Each update involves the entire data set, which is inconvenient.

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**Stochastic gradient descent** makes updates based on just one point:

- Get next data point  $(x, y)$  (e.g., keep cycling through the data set)
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Convenient for very large data sets.

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Another option: make updates based on “mini-batches” of data points.

# Newton-Raphson

For minimizing a function  $L(w)$ :

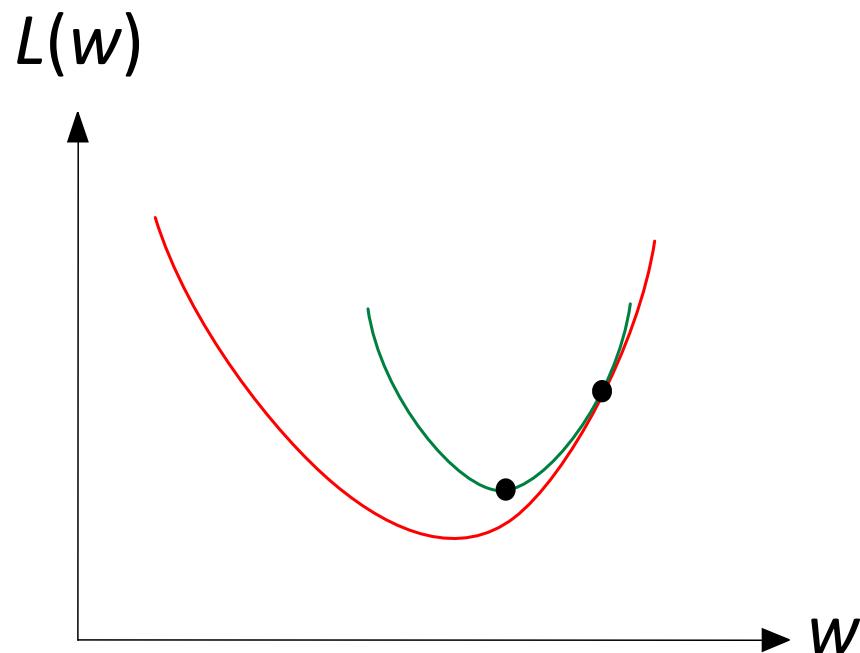
- $w_0 = 0, t = 0$
- while  $\nabla L(w_t) \neq 0$ :
  - $w_{t+1} = w_t - \eta_t H^{-1}(w_t) \nabla L(w_t)$
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$H^{-1}(w)$  is the inverse of the Hessian at  $w$

# Newton-Raphson: rationale

Second-order Taylor expansion: for small  $u$ ,

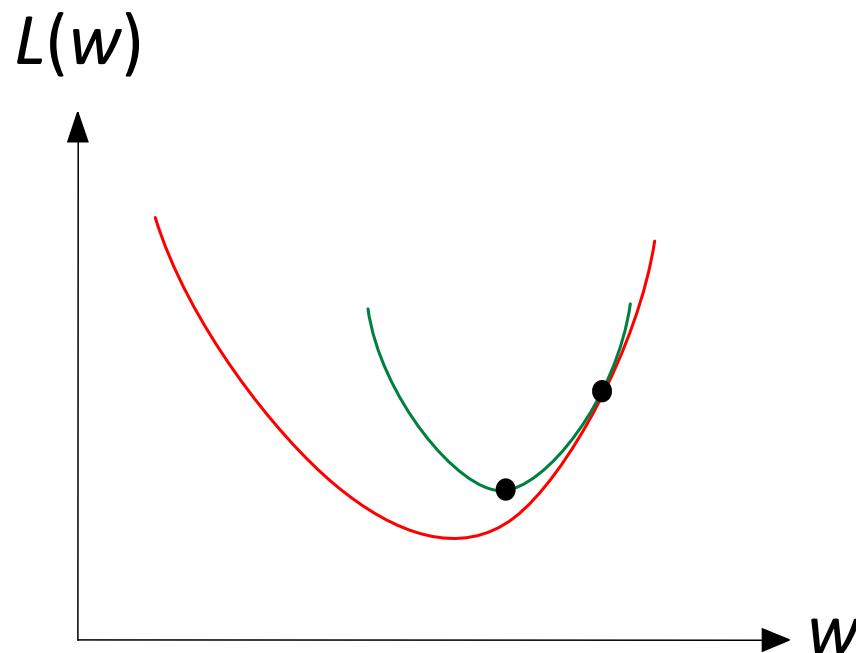
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To minimize this quadratic approximation, set derivative to zero:

$$\nabla L(w) + H(w)u = 0 \Rightarrow u = -H^{-1}(w)\nabla L(w).$$

# Variant: quasi-Newton methods

For optimizing a function over  $\mathbf{R}^p$ , the Newton update involves computing the  $p \times p$  Hessian at each time step:

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Speed things up by using an approximation  $B_t$  of  $H^{-1}(w_t)$ :

- Initialize it to the identity, say.
- Efficiently update  $B_t \rightarrow B_{t+1}$  using a second-order approximation based on  $w_{t+1}, w_t, \nabla L(w_t), \nabla L(w_{t+1})$ .

Example: the BFGS (Broyden-Fletcher-Goldfarb-Shanno) procedure.

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Even better: instead of maintaining a dense matrix  $B_t$ , use an  $O(p)$  – Sized approximation to it. Example: L-BFGS (“Limited memory BFGS”).

# Regularization: Selecting ‘Simple’ Model

1. A ‘simple’ model is one where weights has few non-zero parameters. (Only a few features are relevant.)
2. A ‘simple’ model is one where weights are almost uniform. (Only few features are significantly more relevant than others.)

# Regularization

$$L'(w) = L(w) + \alpha \|w\|_1 \rightarrow l1 \text{ regularization (lasso)}$$

$$L'(w) = L(w) + \alpha \|w\|_2^2 \rightarrow l2 \text{ regularization (ridge)}$$