10-701 Machine Learning Review

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1 Intro

1.1 What is Machine Learning?

Algorithms that improve their knowledge towards some task with data.

Goal: improve knowledge with more data.



1.2 Three Axes of ML

1.2.1 Data

- Fully observed
- Partially observed
 - Systematically
 - Missing data

1.2.2 Algorithms

- Model-based Methods¹
 - Probabilistic Model of the data
 - Parametric Models: fixed-size
 - Nonparametric Models: grow with the data
- Model-free Methods: No distribution model assumption

1.2.3 Knowledge/Tasks

- Prediction: estimate output given input.
 - Classification: discrete labels
 - Regression: continuous labels
- Description (unsupervised learning)

2 Parametric Models: from data to models

2.1 A model for coin flips

Bernoulli distribution:

$$\begin{cases}
P(X=1) = \theta \\
P(X=0) = 1 - \theta
\end{cases}$$
(1)

$$P(X) = \theta^X (1 - \theta)^{1 - X}$$

Flips are i.i.d. (independent, identically distributed) Choose θ that maximizes the probability of observed data:

Probability of Data =
$$\mathbb{P}(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n; \theta)$$

= $\prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i)$
= $\theta^{n_h} (1 - \theta)^{n_{-n_h}}$ (2)

2.2 Maximum Likelihood Estimator(MLE)

$$\hat{\theta} = \arg \max_{\theta} \mathbb{P}(X_1, \dots, X_n; \theta)
= \arg \max_{\theta} \{\theta^{n_h} (1 - \theta)^{n - n_h}\}
= \arg \max_{\theta} \{n_h \log \theta + (n - n_h) \log(1 - \theta)\}
= \frac{n_h}{2}$$
(3)

2.2.1 Consistency

- Estimator $\hat{\theta}$ converges (in probability) to the true value θ with more and more sample $n \to \infty$.
- For Bernoulli distribution, $\hat{\theta} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i \to \theta$ in probability as $n \to \infty$ by the **Law of Large Numbers**².

2.2.2 Unbiasedness

- Expectation $\mathbb{E}[\hat{\theta}]$ of the estimator $\hat{\theta}$ equals to the true value θ .
- For Bernoulli example:

$$\mathbb{E}(\hat{\theta}) = \mathbb{E}(\frac{n_1}{n})$$

$$= \mathbb{E}(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i}{n})$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{E}(X_i)$$

$$= \mathbb{E}(X_1)$$

$$= \theta$$
(4)

²It does not apply to distributions for whom Expected values do not exist. One example of such a distribution is the Cauchy distribution where the mean and the variance are undefined.

¹refer to generative model (hw2)

2.3 Gaussian Distribution MLE

Gaussian Distribution:

$$P(x|\mu,\sigma) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}}\exp(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}) = \mathcal{N}(\mu,\sigma^2)$$

• Affine transformation:

$$-X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$$

-Y = aX + b \sim \mathcal{N}(a\mu + b, a^2\sigma^2)

• Sum of Gaussians:

$$-X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_X, \sigma_X^2), Y \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_Y, \sigma_Y^2)$$
$$-Z = X + Y \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_X + \mu_Y, \sigma_X^2 + \sigma_Y^2)$$

MLE for Gaussian mean and variance:

- $\bullet \hat{\mu}_{MLE} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$
- $\hat{\sigma}_{MLE}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i \hat{\mu})^2$

2.3.1 The Biased Variance of a Gaussian

The unbiased variance estimator: $\hat{\sigma}_{unbiased}^2 = \frac{n}{n-1}\hat{\sigma}_{MLE}^2$ Proof:

$$\mathbb{E}(\sigma_{MLE}^{2}) = \mathbb{E}(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \hat{\mu})^{2})$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \mathbb{E}(\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}^{2} - n\hat{\mu}^{2})$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{E}(x_{i}^{2}) - \mathbb{E}(\hat{\mu}^{2})$$

$$= \mathbb{E}(x_{i}^{2}) - \mathbb{E}(\hat{\mu}^{2})$$

$$= (\sigma^{2}(x_{i}) + \mathbb{E}(x_{i})^{2}) - (\sigma^{2}(\hat{\mu}) + \mathbb{E}(\hat{\mu})^{2})$$

$$= \sigma^{2}(x_{i}) - \sigma^{2}(\hat{\mu})$$

$$= \sigma^{2}(x_{i}) - \sigma^{2}(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i})$$

$$= \sigma^{2}(x_{i}) - \frac{1}{n^{2}} \sigma^{2}(\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i})$$

$$= \sigma^{2}(x_{i}) - \frac{1}{n^{2}} n \sigma^{2}(x_{i})$$

$$= \frac{n-1}{n} \sigma^{2}(x_{i})$$
(5)

2.4 Convergence Rates of Estimator

2.4.1 Simple Bound (Hoeffding's Inequality)

$$P(|\hat{\theta} - \theta^*| \ge \epsilon) \le 2\exp(-2n\epsilon^2)$$

2.5 PAC* (Probably Approximate Correct) Learning

2.6 Computational Issues of MLE

When number of parameters, or number of samples n is large, computing the MLE is a large-scale optimization problem.

3 Parametric Models: Prior Information

3.1 Bayesian Learning

Given a prior knowledge to estimate the model. Bayesian Learning:

$$P(\theta|\mathcal{D}) = \frac{P(\mathcal{D}|\theta)P(\theta)}{P(\mathcal{D})}$$

or equivalently

$$P(\theta|\mathcal{D}) \propto P(\mathcal{D}|\theta)P(\theta)$$

- $P(\theta|\mathcal{D})$: posterior
- $P(\mathcal{D}|\theta)$: likelihood
- $P(\theta)$: prior

Likelihood measures the fitness between data and parameters, Prior is the knowledge how possible the parameters to be

3.2 Conjugate Priors

- Closed-form representation of posterior
- Prior $P(\theta)$ and Posterior $P(\theta|D)$ have the same algebraic form as a function of θ

For Binomial (Bernoulli), conjugate prior is Beta distribution:

- $P(D|\theta) = \theta^{\alpha_H} (1-\theta)^{\alpha_T}$
- $P(\theta) = \frac{\theta^{\beta_H 1} (1 \theta)^{\beta_T 1}}{B(\beta_H, \beta_T)} \sim Beta(\beta_H, \beta_T)$
- $P(\theta|D) \sim Beta(\beta_H + \alpha_H, \beta_T + \alpha_T)$
- Mode of Beta distribution $Beta(\alpha_H, \alpha_T)$: $\frac{\alpha_H 1}{\alpha_H + \alpha_T 2}$

3.3 Maximum A Posteriori Estimation (MAP)

Choose θ that maximizes a posterior probability:

$$\hat{\theta}_{MAP} = \arg \max_{\theta} P(\theta|D)
= \arg \max_{\theta} P(D|\theta)P(\theta)$$
(6)

3.4 Regularized MLE

Constrained MLE:

$$\max_{\theta} \log \mathbb{P}(D; \theta)$$

$$s.t.\mathcal{R}(\theta) < C$$

Regularized MLE:

$$\max_{\theta} \{ \log \mathbb{P}(D; \theta) + \lambda \mathcal{R}(\theta) \}$$

• l_2 regularization: (Ridge?)

$$\mathcal{R}(\theta) = ||\theta||_2^2 = \sum_{j=1}^p \theta_j^2$$

• l_1 regularization: (Lasso)

$$\mathcal{R}(\theta) = ||\theta||_1 = \sum_{j=1}^p |\theta_j|$$

4 Linear Regression

4.1 Bayes Optimal Rule

$$f^* = \arg\min_{f} \mathbb{E}[loss(Y, f(X))]$$

4.2 Linear Regression

$$\hat{f}_n^L = \arg\min_{f \in \mathcal{F}_L} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (f(X_i) - Y_i)^2$$
$$f(X) = X\beta$$
$$\hat{\beta} = \arg\min_{\beta} \frac{1}{n} (A\beta - Y)^T (A\beta - Y)$$

If $(A^T A)$ is invertible,

$$\hat{\beta} = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T Y$$

4.3 Regularized Least Squares

Guarantee solution uniqueness by adding a regular constraint.

Ridge Regression:

$$\hat{\beta}_{MAP} = \arg \min_{\beta} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - X_i \beta)^2 + \lambda ||\beta||_2^2
= \arg \min_{\beta} (A\beta - Y)^T (A\beta - Y) + \lambda ||\beta||_2^2
= (A^T A + \lambda I)^{-1} A^T Y$$
(7)

Lasso Regression:

$$\hat{\beta}_{MAP} = \arg\min_{\beta} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - X_i \beta)^2 + \lambda ||\beta||_1$$

More sparse solution.

5 Logistic Regression

Assumes the following functional form for P(Y|X)

$$P(Y = 0|X) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(w_0 + \sum_i w_i X_i)}$$

5.1 Linear Classifier

Decision boundary: $w_0 + \sum_i w_i X_i = 0$

5.2 Training Logistic Regression

$$\hat{w}_{MLE} = \arg\max_{w} \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(X_i, Y_i | w)$$

P(X) and P(X|Y) are unknown. Discriminative philosophy³

$$\hat{w}_{MCLE} = \arg\max_{w} \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(Y_i|X_i, w)$$

5.2.1 Conditional Log Likelihood

$$P(Y = 0|X, w) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp w_0 + \sum_i w_i X_i}$$

$$P(Y = 1|X, w) = \frac{\exp(w_0 + \sum_i w_i X_i)}{1 + \exp(w_0 + \sum_i w_i X_i)}$$

$$l(w) = \ln \prod_i P(y^i | x^i, w)$$

$$= \sum_i [y^i (w_0 + \sum_j^d w_j x_j^i) - \ln(1 + \exp(w_0 + \sum_j^d w_j x_j^i))]$$
(8)

- no-closed form solution
- l(w) is concave function of w

5.2.2 Gradient Ascent for LR

$$\frac{\partial l(w)}{\partial w_0} = \sum_{i} [y^i - P(Y^i = 1 | x^i, w)]$$

$$\frac{\partial l(w)}{\partial w_0} = \sum_{i} [y^i - P(Y^i = 1 | x^i, w)]$$

$$\frac{\partial l(w)}{\partial w_j} = \sum_i x_j^i [y^i - P(Y^i = 1 | x^i, w)]$$

6 Naive Bayes Classifier

6.1 Optimal Classification

Optimal predictor: $f^* = \arg\min_f P(f(X) \neq Y)$ Optimal classifier:

$$f^*(x) = \arg \max_{Y=y} P(Y=y|X=x)$$

= $\arg \max_{Y=y} P(X=x|Y=y)P(Y=y)$ (9)

- Class conditional density: P(X = x | Y = y)
- Class prior: P(Y = y)

Naive Bayes Classifier is a model based approach: to model these two terms.

6.2 Gaussian Bayes Classifier

- $P(Y = y) = p_y (K 1 \text{ if } K \text{ labels})$
- $P(X = x | Y = y \sim N(\mu_y, \Sigma_y) \ (\frac{Kd + Kd(d+1)}{2} = O(Kd^2)$ if d features)

Binary classification:

$$P(X = x | Y = y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^d |\Sigma_y|}} \exp(-\frac{(x - \mu_y)^T \Sigma_y^{-1} (x - \mu_y)}{2})$$
$$\frac{P(Y = 1 | X = x)}{P(Y = 0 | X = x)}$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{|\Sigma_0|}{|\Sigma_1|}} \exp(-\frac{(x-\mu_1)^T \Sigma_1^{-1} (x-\mu_1)}{2} - \frac{(x-\mu_0)^T \Sigma_0^{-1} (x-\mu_0)}{2})$$

$$\vdots \underline{\theta}$$

If $\Sigma_0 = \Sigma_1$, then quadratic part cancels out and equation is linear.

6.3 Naive Bayes Classifier

Naive assumption: Features are independent given class:

$$P(X_1, \dots, X_d | Y) = \prod_{i=1}^d P(X_i | Y)$$

$$f_{NB} = \arg\max_{y} P(x_1, \dots, x_d | y) P(y) = \arg\max_{y} \prod_{i=1}^{d} P(X_i | Y) P(y)$$

$$P(X_i = x_i | Y = y) \sim N(\mu_i, \sigma_i^2)$$
 (2Kd)
Issues with NB:

- Features are not conditionally independent.
- Insufficient data \rightarrow MLE to be 0. Typically use MAP estimates.

 $[\]overline{\ \ }^3$ Don't waste effort learning P(X), focus on P(Y|X), that's all that matters for classification.

6.4 Gaussian Naive Bayes vs. Logistic Regression

- Both learn a linear boundary.
- NB makes more restrictive assumptions and has higher asymptotic error.
- NB converges faster to its less accurate asymptotic error.

7 Decision Theory: From Model to Answers; Empirical Risk Minimization

Use decision theory to characterize the knowledge we seek (through appropriate performance measures)

7.1 Performance Measure

- loss(Y, f(X)): measure of closeness between true label Y and prediction f(X).
- Risk: $R(f) = E_{XY}[loss(Y, f(X))]$
- Bayes optimal rule:

$$f^*(P) = \arg\min_{f} \mathbb{E}_{(X,Y)\ P}[loss(Y,f(X))]$$

E.g.

- 0/1 loss: $1_{\{f(X)\neq Y\}} \to \text{probability of error}$: $P(f(X)\neq Y) \to f^*(P) = \mathbb{I}(P(Y=1|X)>1/2)$
- square loss: $(f(X)-Y)^2\to$ mean square error: $\mathbb{E}[(f(X)-Y)^2]\to f^*(P)=\mathbb{E}(Y|X)$

7.2 Empirical Risk Minimization

$$\hat{f}_n = \arg\min_{f} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} [loss(Y_i, f(X_i))]$$

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} [loss(Y_i, f(X_i))] \xrightarrow{Law \ of \ Large} \mathbb{E}_{XY}[loss(Y, f(X))]$$

- Computational tractability: $0/1 \text{ loss} \rightarrow \text{not convex}$.
- Statistical Considerations: consistent and rate of convergence.