

Yanjun Qi / UVA CS 4501-01-6501-07

# UVA CS 4501 - 001 / 6501 – 007

## Introduction to Machine Learning and Data Mining

### Lecture 17: Review / Bias-Variance Tradeoff

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### Where are we ? → Five major sections of this course

- Regression (supervised)
- Classification (supervised)
- Unsupervised models
- Learning theory
- Graphical models

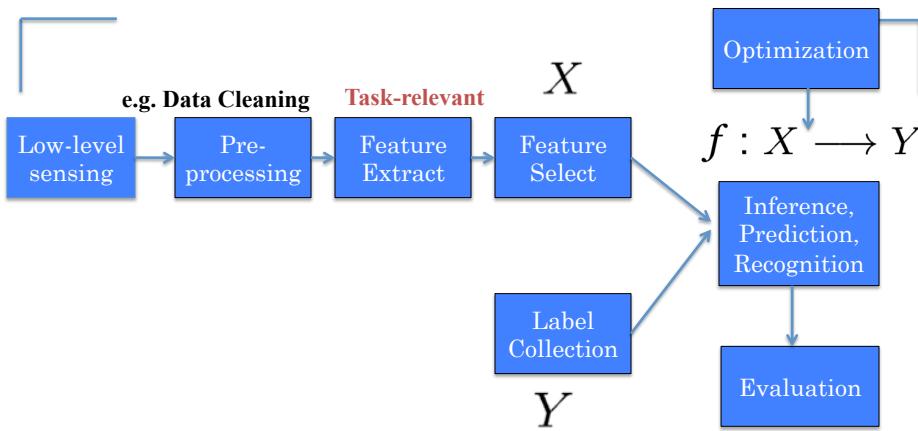
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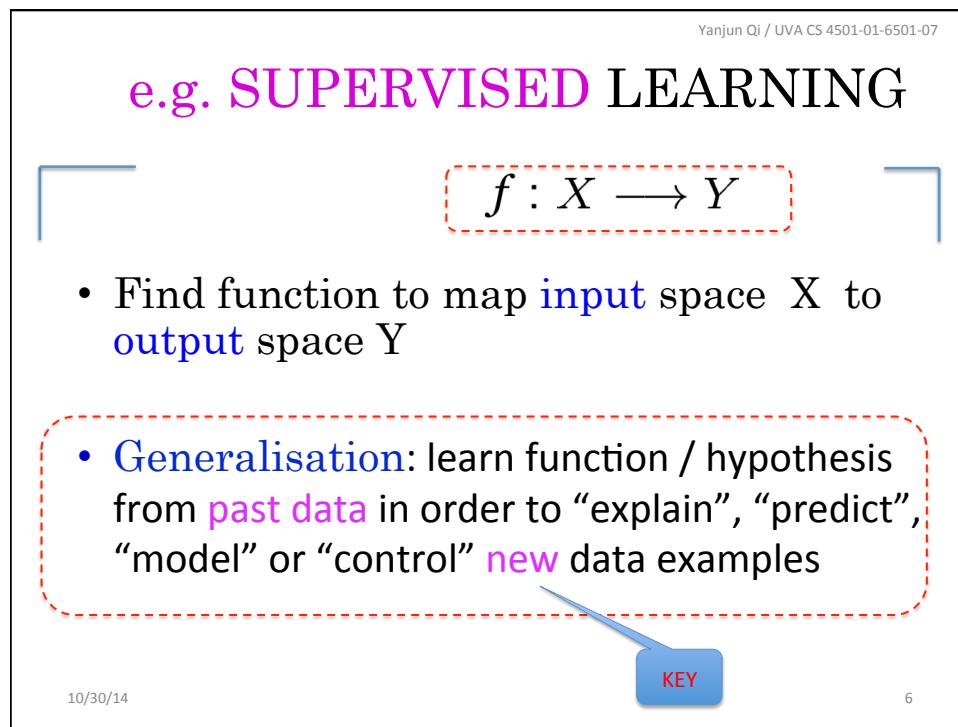
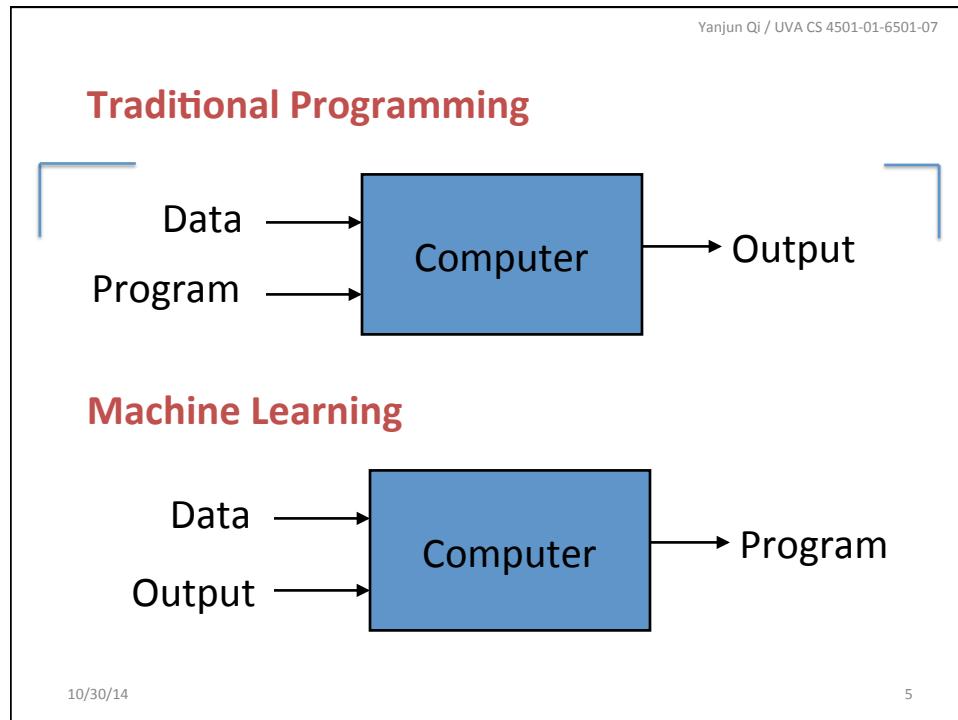
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# Today

- Review of basic pipeline
- Review of regression models
  - Linear regression (LR)
  - LR with non-linear basis functions
  - Locally weighted LR
  - LR with Regularizations
- Review of classification models
  - Support Vector Machine
  - Bayes Classifier
  - Logistic Regression
  - K-nearest Neighbor
- Model Selection

## A Typical Machine Learning Pipeline





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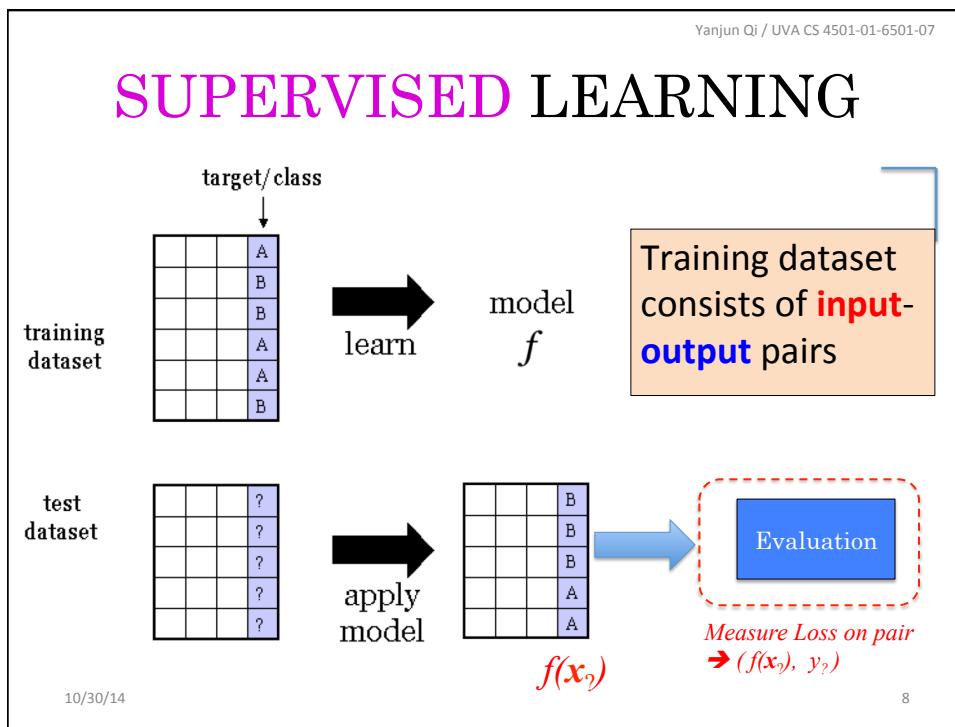
## A Dataset

$$f : [X] \longrightarrow [Y]$$

- **Data/points/instances/examples/samples/records:** [rows]
- **Features/attributes/dimensions/independent variables/covariates/predictors/regressors:** [columns, except the last]
- **Target/outcome/response/label/dependent variable:** special column to be predicted [last column]

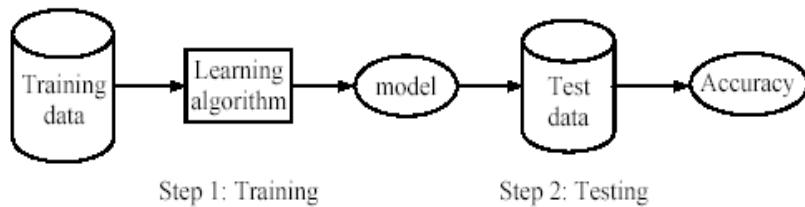
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## Evaluation Choice-I:

- ✓ **Training (Learning)**: Learn a model using the training data
- ✓ **Testing**: Test the model using **unseen test data** to assess the model accuracy



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$$Accuracy = \frac{\text{Number of correct classifications}}{\text{Total number of test cases}},$$

## Evaluation Choice-II:

### e.g. 10 fold Cross Validation

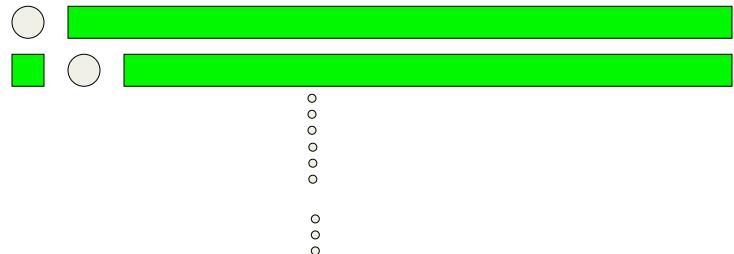
- Divide data into 10 equal pieces
- 9 pieces as training set, the rest 1 as test set
- Collect the scores from the diagonal

model	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7	P8	P9	P10
1	train	test								
2	train	test	train							
3	train	test	train	train						
4	train	train	train	train	train	train	test	train	train	train
5	train	train	train	train	train	test	train	train	train	train
6	train	train	train	train	test	train	train	train	train	train
7	train	train	train	test	train	train	train	train	train	train
8	train	train	test	train						
9	train	test	train							
10	test	train								

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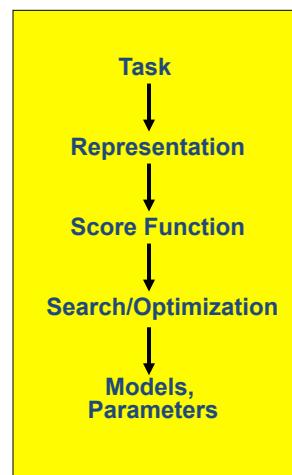
## e.g. Leave-one-out (n-fold cross validation)



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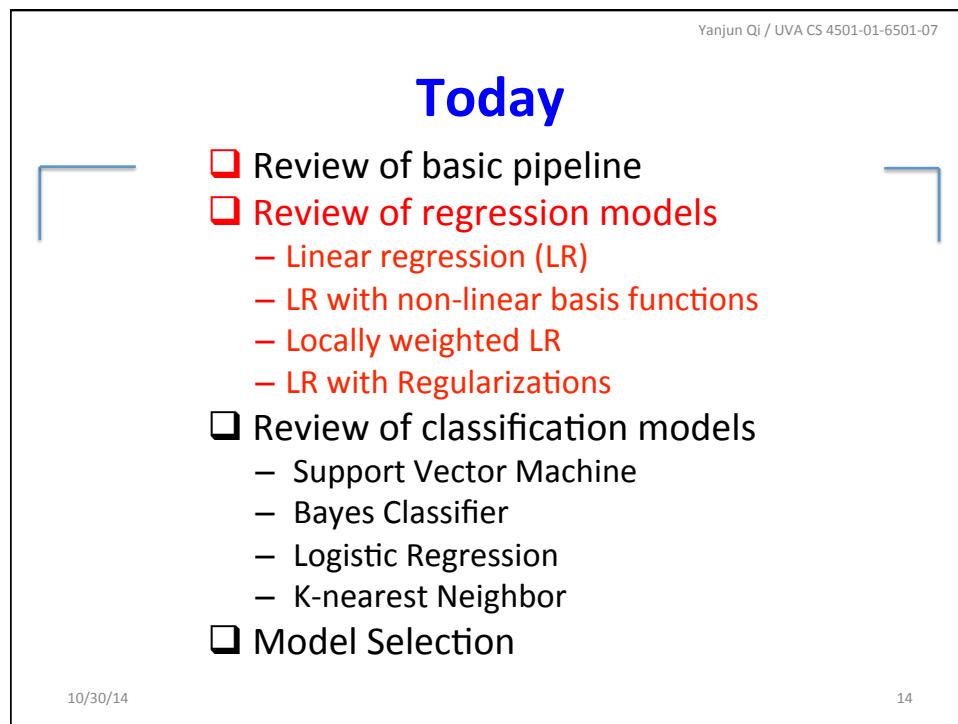
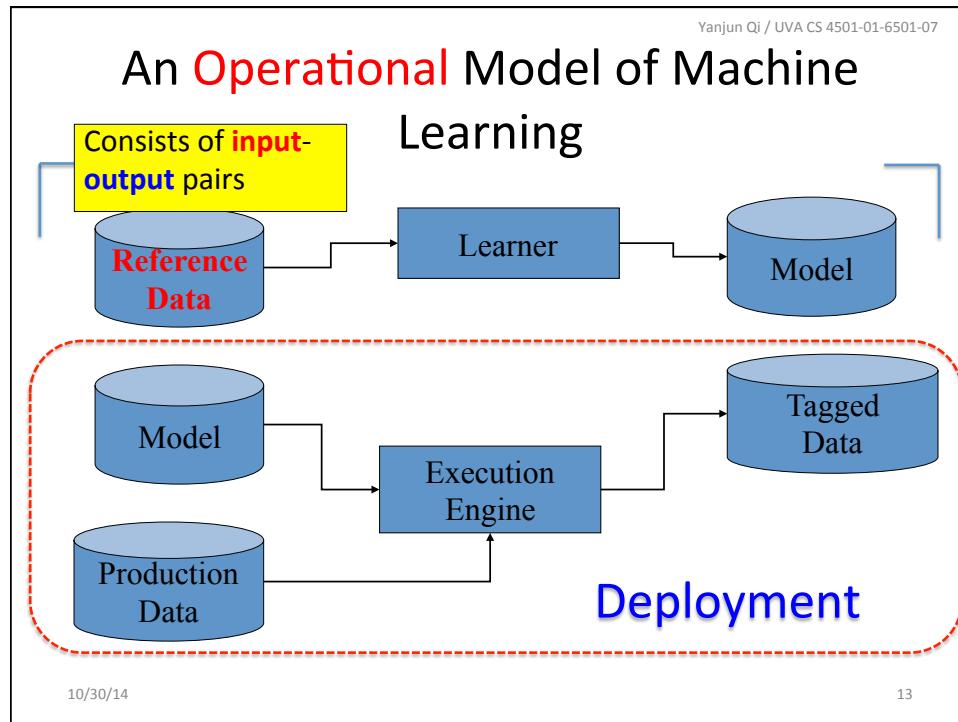
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## Machine Learning in a Nutshell

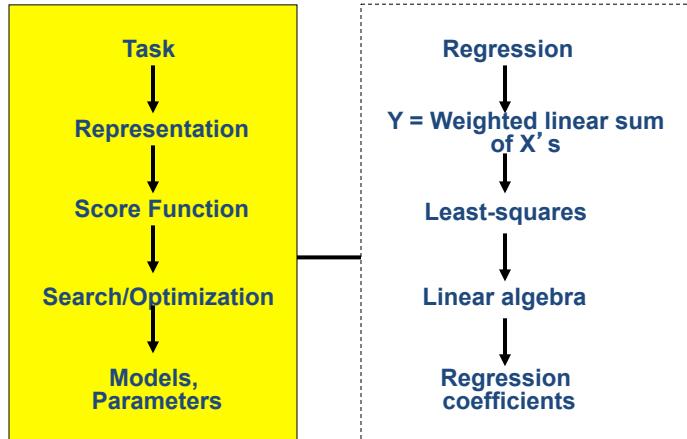


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### (1) Multivariate Linear Regression



$$\hat{y} = f(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x^1 + \theta_2 x^2$$

### (1) Linear Regression (LR)

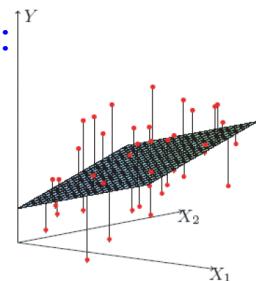
$$\boxed{f}: X \longrightarrow Y$$

→ e.g. Linear Regression Models

$$\hat{y} = f(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x^1 + \theta_2 x^2$$

→ To minimize the cost function:

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{y}_i(\bar{x}_i) - y_i)^2$$



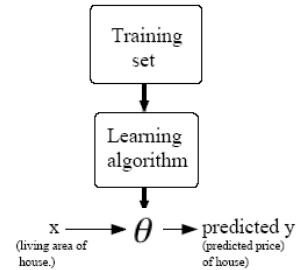
- We can represent the whole Training set:

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} \cdots & \mathbf{x}_1^T & \cdots \\ \cdots & \mathbf{x}_2^T & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \cdots & \mathbf{x}_n^T & \cdots \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1^0 & x_1^1 & \dots & x_1^{p-1} \\ x_2^0 & x_2^1 & \dots & x_2^{p-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ x_n^0 & x_n^1 & \dots & x_n^{p-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{Y} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}$$

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**Our goal:**



- Predicted output for each training sample:

$$\begin{bmatrix} f(\mathbf{x}_1^T) \\ f(\mathbf{x}_2^T) \\ \vdots \\ f(\mathbf{x}_n^T) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_1^T \theta \\ \mathbf{x}_2^T \theta \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{x}_n^T \theta \end{bmatrix} = X\theta$$

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## Method I: normal equations

- Write the cost function in matrix form:

$$\begin{aligned} J(\theta) &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{x}_i^T \theta - y_i)^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{X}\theta - \bar{\mathbf{y}})^T (\mathbf{X}\theta - \bar{\mathbf{y}}) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} (\theta^T \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}\theta - \theta^T \mathbf{X}^T \bar{\mathbf{y}} - \bar{\mathbf{y}}^T \mathbf{X}\theta + \bar{\mathbf{y}}^T \bar{\mathbf{y}}) \end{aligned}$$

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} \cdots & \mathbf{x}_1^T & \cdots \\ \cdots & \mathbf{x}_2^T & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \cdots & \mathbf{x}_n^T & \cdots \end{bmatrix} \quad \bar{\mathbf{y}} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}$$

To minimize  $J(\theta)$ , take derivative and set to zero:

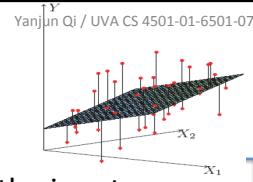
$$\Rightarrow \boxed{X^T X\theta = X^T \bar{\mathbf{y}}} \\ \text{The normal equations}$$

$$\theta^* = \boxed{(X^T X)^{-1} X^T \bar{\mathbf{y}}}$$

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## Probabilistic Interpretation of Linear Regression



- Let us assume that the target variable and the inputs are related by the equation:

$$y_i = \theta^T \mathbf{x}_i + \varepsilon_i$$

where  $\varepsilon$  is an error term of unmodeled effects or random noise

- Now assume that  $\varepsilon$  follows a Gaussian  $N(0, \sigma)$ , then we have:

$$p(y_i | x_i; \theta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left(-\frac{(y_i - \theta^T \mathbf{x}_i)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

- By independence (among samples) assumption:

$$L(\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(y_i | x_i; \theta) = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma}\right)^n \exp\left(-\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \theta^T \mathbf{x}_i)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

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## Probabilistic Interpretation of Linear Regression (cont.)

- Hence the log-likelihood is:

$$l(\theta) = n \log \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} - \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \theta^T \mathbf{x}_i)^2$$

- Do you recognize the last term?

Yes it is:

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{x}_i^T \theta - y_i)^2$$

- Thus under independence assumption, residual means square is equivalent to MLE of  $\theta$  !

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## Method II: LR with batch Steepest descent / Gradient descent

$$\theta_t = \theta_{t-1} - \alpha \nabla J(\theta_{t-1}) \quad \text{For the t-th epoch}$$

$$\nabla_{\theta} J = \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_1} J, \dots, \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_k} J \right]^T = - \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mathbf{x}_i^T \theta) \mathbf{x}_i$$

$$\theta^{t+1} = \theta^t + \alpha \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mathbf{x}_i^T \theta^t) \mathbf{x}_i$$

- This is as a **batch** gradient descent algorithm

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## Method III: LR with Stochastic GD →

- From the batch steepest descent rule:

$$\theta_j^{t+1} = \theta_j^t + \alpha \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{\mathbf{x}}_i^T \theta^t) x_i^j$$

- For a single training point, we have:

$$\rightarrow \theta^{t+1} = \theta^t + \alpha (y_i - \bar{\mathbf{x}}_i^T \theta^t) \bar{\mathbf{x}}_i$$

- This is known as the Least-Mean-Square update rule, or the Widrow-Hoff learning rule
- This is actually a "**stochastic**", "**coordinate**" descent algorithm
- This can be used as a **on-line** algorithm

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## Method IV: Newton's method for optimization

- The most basic **second-order** optimization algorithm
$$\theta_{k+1} = \theta_k - H_K^{-1} g_k$$
- Updating parameter with

$$\begin{aligned}\Rightarrow \theta^{t+1} &= \theta^t - H^{-1} \nabla f(\theta) \\ &= \theta^t - (X^T X)^{-1} [X^T \theta^t - X^T \bar{y}] \\ &= (X^T X)^{-1} X^T \bar{y}\end{aligned}$$

WHY ???  
Normal Eq?

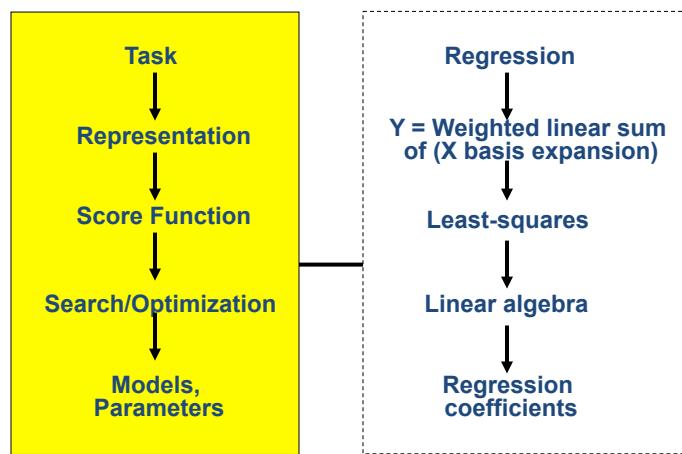
Newton's method  
for Linear Regression

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## (2) Multivariate Linear Regression with basis Expansion



$$\hat{y} = \theta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^m \theta_j \varphi_j(x) = \varphi(x)\theta$$

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## (2) LR with polynomial basis functions

- LR does not mean we can only deal with linear relationships

$$y = \theta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^m \theta_j \phi_j(x) = \varphi(x)\theta$$

where the  $\phi_j(x)$  are fixed basis functions (also define  $\phi_0(x) = 1$ )

- E.g.: polynomial regression:

$$\varphi(x) := [1, x, x^2, x^3]$$

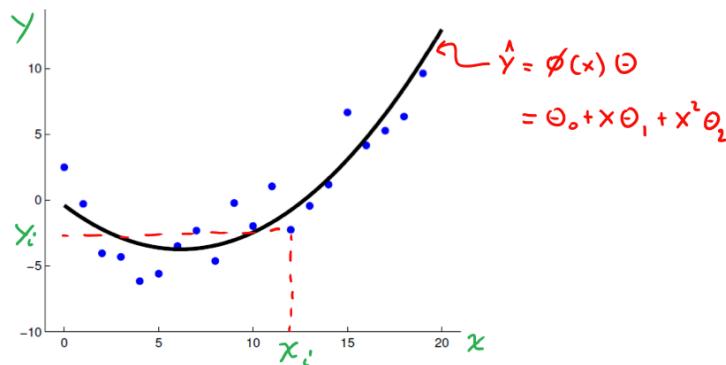
$$\theta^* = (\varphi^T \varphi)^{-1} \varphi^T \bar{y}$$

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## e.g. polynomial regression

For example,  $\phi(x) = [1, x, x^2]$



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## (2) LR with radial-basis functions

- LR does not mean we can only deal with linear relationships

$$\hat{y} = \theta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^m \theta_j \varphi_j(x) = \varphi(x)\theta$$

where the  $\varphi_j(x)$  are fixed basis functions (also define  $\varphi_0(x) = 1$ )

- E.g.: LR with RBF regression:

$$\varphi(x) := [1, K_{\lambda=1}(x, 1), K_{\lambda=1}(x, 2), K_{\lambda=1}(x, 4)]$$

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$$\theta^* = (\varphi^T \varphi)^{-1} \varphi^T \bar{y}$$

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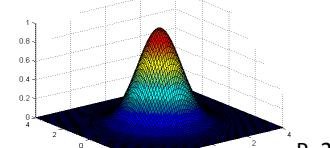
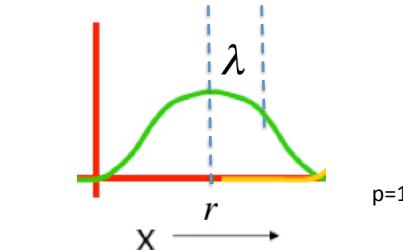
**RBF = radial-basis function: a function which depends only on the radial distance from a centre point**

**Gaussian RBF**  $\Rightarrow$   $K_\lambda(\underline{x}, r) = \exp\left(-\frac{(\underline{x} - r)^2}{2\lambda^2}\right)$

as distance from the centre  $r$  increases,  
the output of the RBF decreases

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## (2) Linear regression with RBF basis functions (predefined centres)

$$\varphi(x) := [1, K_{\lambda=1}(x, 1), K_{\lambda=1}(x, 2), K_{\lambda=1}(x, 4)]$$

$$\hat{y} = \theta_0 + e^{-\|x-1\|^2} \theta_1 + e^{-\|x-2\|^2} \theta_2 + e^{-\|x-4\|^2} \theta_3$$

The green curve is a weighted sum of the red curves.

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$$K_{\lambda=1}(x, 1) = e^{-\|x-1\|^2}$$

$$K_{\lambda=1}(x, 2) = e^{-\|x-2\|^2}$$

$$K_{\lambda=1}(x, 4) = e^{-\|x-4\|^2}$$

$$\varphi(x) := [1, e^{-\|x-1\|^2}, e^{-\|x-2\|^2}, e^{-\|x-4\|^2}]$$

$$\varphi(x) := [1, K_{\lambda=1}(x, 1), K_{\lambda=1}(x, 2), K_{\lambda=1}(x, 4)]$$

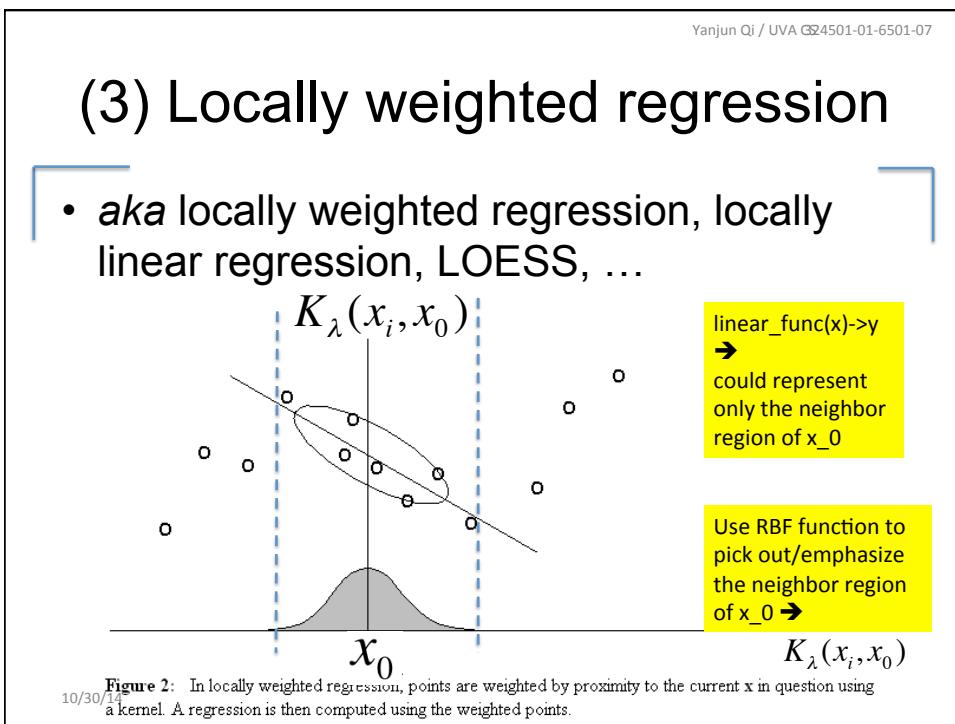
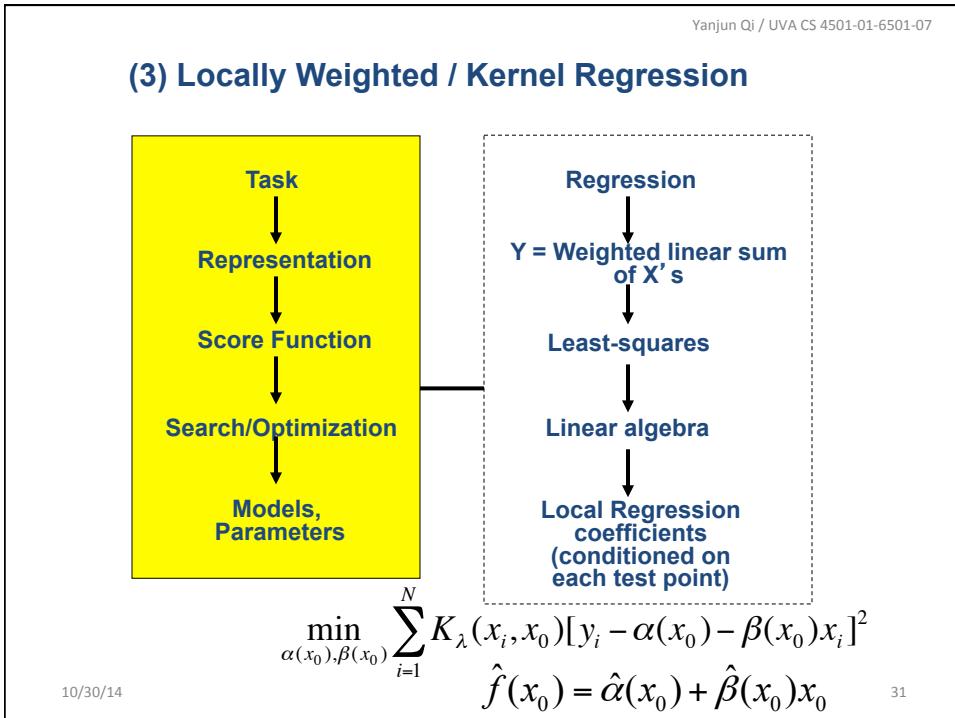
$$\hat{y} = \varphi(x)\theta$$

$$= \theta_0 + \theta_1 \exp(-(x-1)^2) + \theta_2 \exp(-(x-2)^2) + \theta_3 \exp(-(x-4)^2)$$

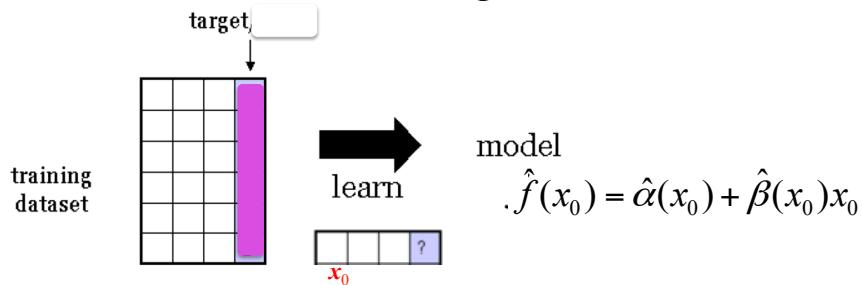
$$\theta^* = (\varphi^T \varphi)^{-1} \varphi^T \bar{y}$$

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## LEARNING of Locally weighted linear regression



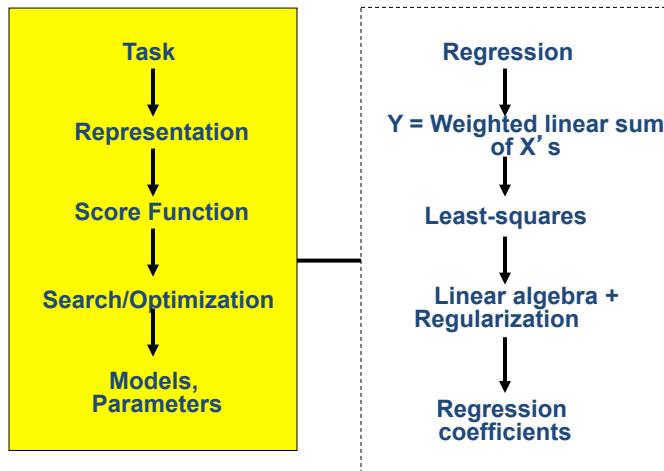
→ Separate weighted least squares at each target point  $x_0$

$$\min_{\alpha(x_0), \beta(x_0)} \sum_{i=1}^N K_\lambda(x_i, x_0) [y_i - \alpha(x_0) - \beta(x_0)x_i]^2$$

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### (4) Regularized multivariate linear regression



$$\min J(\beta) = \sum_{i=1}^n (Y - \hat{Y})^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j^2$$

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## (4) LR with Regularizations / Regularized multivariate linear regression

- Basic model

$$\hat{Y} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1 + \cdots + \hat{\beta}_p x_p$$

- LR estimation:

$$\min J(\beta) = \sum \left( Y - \hat{Y} \right)^2$$

- LASSO estimation:

$$\min J(\beta) = \sum_{i=1}^n \left( Y - \hat{Y} \right)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^p |\beta_j|$$

- Ridge regression estimation:

$$\min J(\beta) = \sum_{i=1}^n \left( Y - \hat{Y} \right)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j^2$$

Error on data      +      Regularization

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## (4) LR with Regularizations / Ridge Estimator

$$\hat{Y} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1 + \cdots + \hat{\beta}_p x_p$$

$$\beta^* = (X^T X + \lambda I)^{-1} X^T \bar{y}$$

- The ridge estimator is solution from

$$\hat{\beta}^{ridge} = \arg \min J(\beta) = \arg \min (y - X\beta)^T (y - X\beta) + \lambda \beta^T \beta$$

to minimize  $J(\beta)$ , take derivative and set to zero

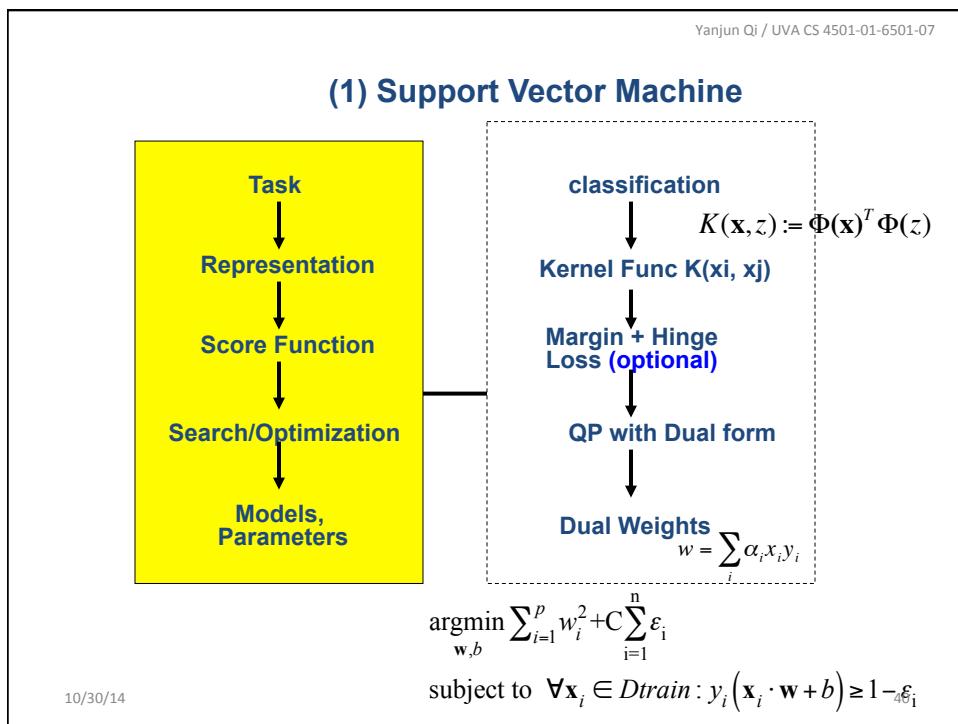
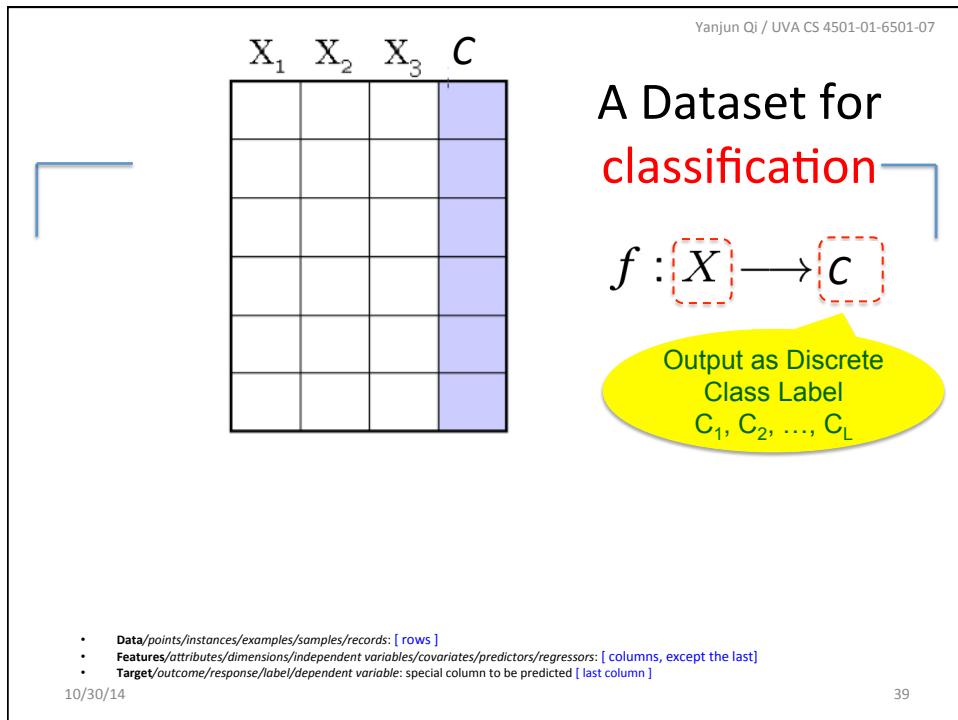
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  - Bayes Classifier
  - Logistic Regression
  - K-nearest Neighbor
- Model Selection / Bias Variance Tradeoff

## Where are we ? →

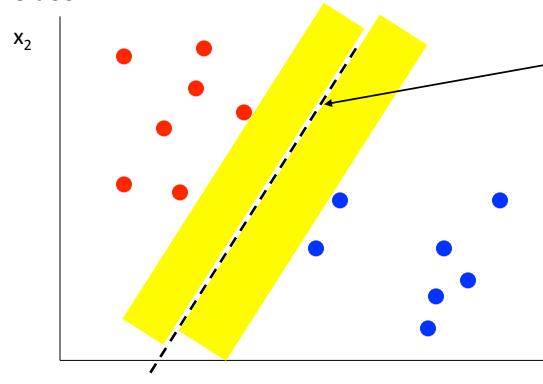
### Three major sections for classification

- We can divide the large variety of classification approaches into **roughly three major types**
- 1. Discriminative
    - directly estimate a decision rule/boundary
    - e.g., **logistic regression**, support vector machine, decisionTree
  - 2. Generative:
    - build a generative statistical model
    - e.g., **naïve bayes classifier**, Bayesian networks
  - 3. Instance based classifiers
    - Use observation directly (no models)
    - e.g. **K nearest neighbors**



## (1) SVM as Max margin classifiers

- Instead of fitting all points, focus on boundary points
- Learn a boundary that leads to the largest margin from points on both sides



Why?

- Intuitive, ‘makes sense’
- Some theoretical support
- Works well in practice

**A Dataset  
for binary  
classification**

$$f : [X] \longrightarrow [Y]$$

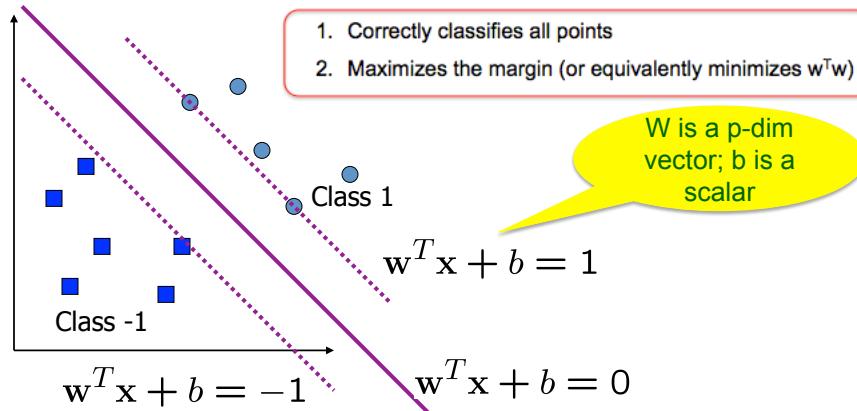
Output as Binary  
Class Label:  
1 or -1

$X_1$	$X_2$	$X_3$	$Y$

- **Data/points/instances/examples/samples/records:** [rows]
- **Features/attributes/dimensions/independent variables/covariates/predictors/regressors:** [columns, except the last]
- **Target/outcome/response/label/dependent variable:** special column to be predicted [last column]

## When linearly Separable Case

- The decision boundary should be as far away from the data of both classes as possible

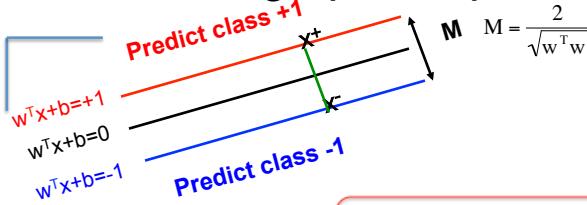


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## Optimization Step

i.e. learning optimal parameter for SVM



1. Correctly classifies all points

2. Maximizes the margin (or equivalently minimizes  $w^T w$ )

$$\text{Min } (w^T w)/2$$

subject to the following constraints:

For all  $x$  in class +1

$$w^T x + b \geq 1$$

For all  $x$  in class -1

$$w^T x + b \leq -1$$

A total of n constraints if we have n input samples

$$\underset{\mathbf{w}, b}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i=1}^p w_i^2$$

$$\text{subject to } \forall x_i \in D_{\text{train}} : y_i (x_i \cdot \mathbf{w} + b) \geq 1$$

SVM as a QP problem

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## Dual formulation

Two optimization problems: For the separable and non separable cases

$$\text{Min } (\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w})/2$$

For all  $x$  in class +1

$$\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b \geq 1$$

For all  $x$  in class -1

$$\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b \leq -1$$

$$\min_{\mathbf{w}} \frac{\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w}}{2} + C \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i$$

For all  $x_i$  in class +1

$$\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b \geq 1 - \epsilon_i$$

For all  $x_i$  in class -1

$$\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b \leq -1 + \epsilon_i$$

For all  $i$

$$\epsilon_i \geq 0$$

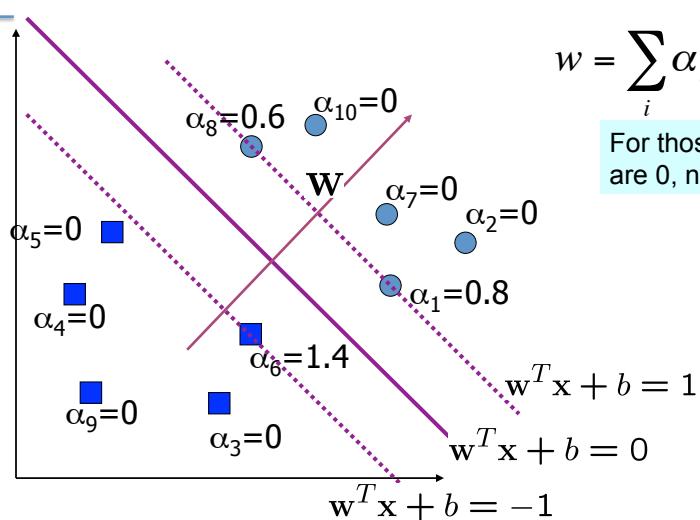
- Instead of solving these QPs directly we will solve a dual formulation of the SVM optimization problem

- The main reason for switching to this type of representation is that it would allow us to use a neat trick that will make our lives easier (and the run time faster)

## A Geometrical Interpretation

$$\mathbf{w} = \sum_i \alpha_i x_i y_i$$

For those  $\alpha_i$  that are 0, no influence



# The kernel trick

How many operations do we need for the dot product?

$$\Phi(x)^T \Phi(z) = \sum_i 2x_i z_i + \sum_i x_i^2 z_i^2 + \sum_i \sum_{j=i+1} 2x_i x_j z_i z_j + 1$$

m                  m                  m(m-1)/2                   $\approx m^2$

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) := \Phi(\mathbf{x})^T \Phi(\mathbf{z})$$

However, we can obtain dramatic savings by noting that

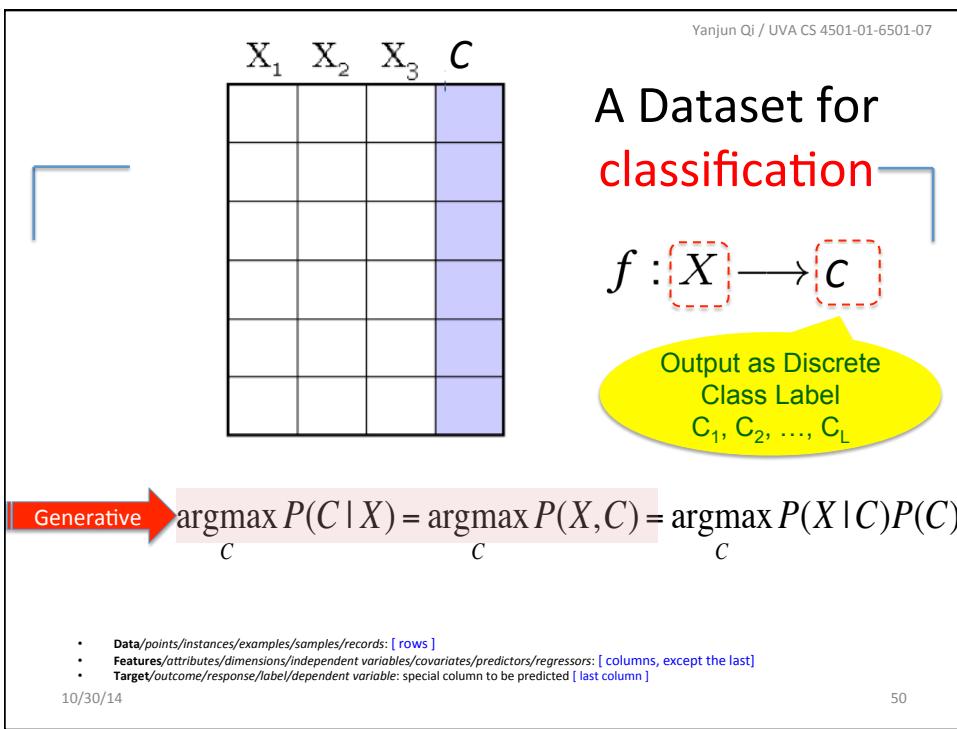
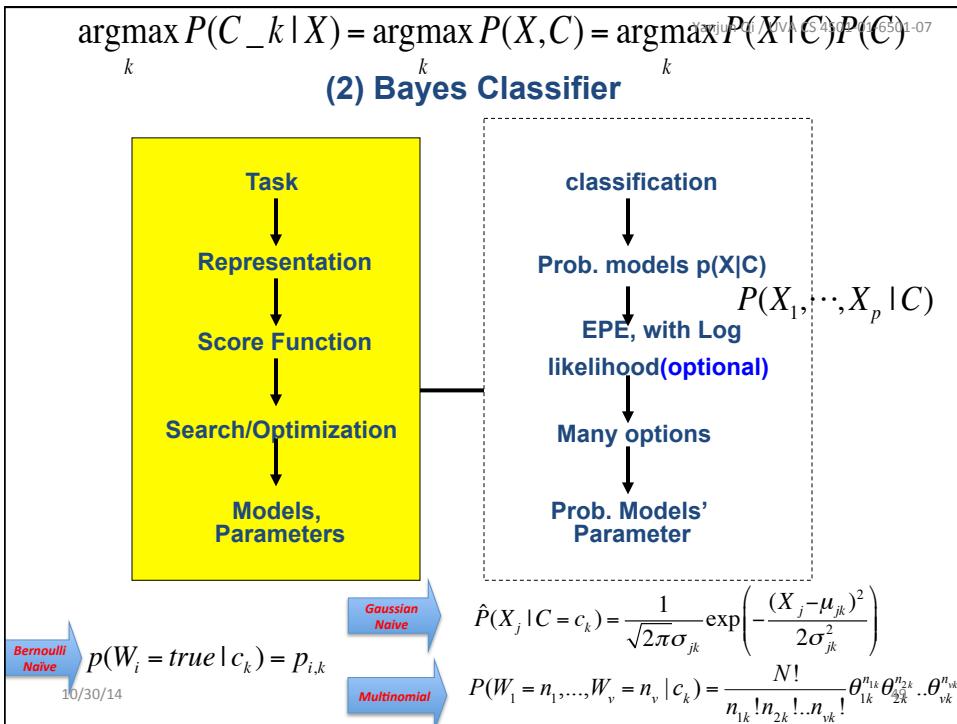
$$\begin{aligned} \Phi(x)^T \Phi(z) &= (x^T z + 1)^2 = (x \cdot z + 1)^2 \\ &= (\sum_i x_i z_i)^2 + \sum_i 2x_i z_i + 1 \\ &= \sum_i 2x_i z_i + \sum_i x_i^2 z_i^2 + \sum_i \sum_{j=i+1} 2x_i x_j z_i z_j + 1 \end{aligned}$$

We only need m operations!

So, if we define the **kernel function** as follows,  
there is no need to carry out  $\phi(\cdot)$  explicitly

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  - Locally weighted LR
  - LR with Regularizations
- Review of classification models
  - Support Vector Machine
  - Bayes Classifier
  - Logistic Regression
  - K-nearest Neighbor
- Model Selection



## (2) Bayes classifier

- Treat each attribute and class label as random variables.
- Given a sample  $\mathbf{x}$  with attributes ( $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_p$ ):
  - Goal is to predict class  $C$ .
  - Specifically, we want to find the value of  $C_i$  that maximizes  $p(C_i | x_1, x_2, \dots, x_p)$ .
- Bayes classification

$$P(C | \mathbf{X}) \propto P(\mathbf{X} | C)P(C) = P(X_1, \dots, X_p | C)P(C)$$

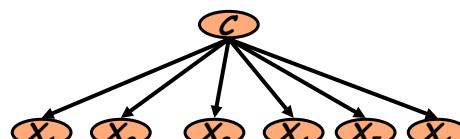
Difficulty: learning the joint probability  $P(X_1, \dots, X_p | C)$

## (2.1) Naïve Bayes Classifier

Difficulty: learning the joint probability  $P(X_1, \dots, X_p | C)$

- Naïve Bayes classification
  - Assumption that all input attributes are conditionally independent!

$$\begin{aligned} P(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_p | C) &= P(X_1 | X_2, \dots, X_p, C)P(X_2, \dots, X_p | C) \\ &= P(X_1 | C)P(X_2, \dots, X_p | C) \\ &= P(X_1 | C)P(X_2 | C) \cdots P(X_p | C) \end{aligned}$$



## (2.2) Multinomial Naïve Bayes as Stochastic Language Models

Model C1

0.2	the
0.01	boy
0.0001	said
0.0001	likes
0.0001	black
0.0005	dog
0.01	garden

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Model C2

0.2	the
0.0001	boy
0.03	said
0.02	likes
0.1	black
0.01	dog
0.0001	garden

the	boy	likes	black	dog
0.2	0.01	0.0001	0.0001	0.0005
0.2	0.0001	0.02	0.1	0.01

$$P(s|C2) P(C2) > P(s|C1) P(C1)$$

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## (2.3) Gaussian Naïve Bayes Classifier

- Continuous-valued Input Attributes

- Conditional probability modeled with the normal distribution

$$\hat{P}(X_j | C = c_i) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_{ji}} \exp\left(-\frac{(X_j - \mu_{ji})^2}{2\sigma_{ji}^2}\right)$$

$\mu_{ji}$  : mean (average) of attribute values  $X_j$  of examples for which  $C = c_i$

$\sigma_{ji}$  : standard deviation of attribute values  $X_j$  of examples for which  $C = c_i$

- Learning Phase:** for  $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_p)$ ,  $C = c_1, \dots, c_L$   
Output:  $p \times L$  normal distributions and  $P(C = c_i)$   $i = 1, \dots, L$

- Test Phase:** for  $\mathbf{X}' = (X'_1, \dots, X'_p)$

- Calculate conditional probabilities with all the normal distributions
- Apply the MAP rule to make a decision

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## Naïve Gaussian means ?

Not  
Naïve

$$P(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_p | C) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{D/2}} \frac{1}{|\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|^{1/2}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \right\}$$

Naïve

$$P(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_p | C = c_k) = P(X_1 | c_k)P(X_2 | c_k) \cdots P(X_p | c_k)$$

$$= \prod_j \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_{j,k}} \exp \left( -\frac{(X_j - \mu_{j,k})^2}{2\sigma_{j,k}^2} \right)$$

Diagonal Matrix

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$$\sum_{c_k} = \Lambda_{c_k}$$

Each class' covariance matrix is diagonal

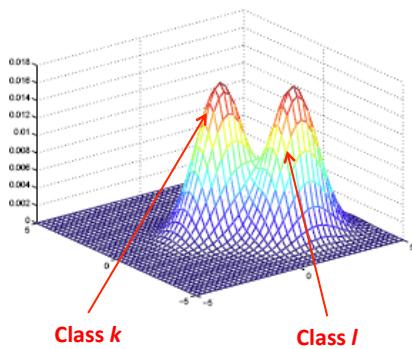
55

## (2.4) LDA (Linear Discriminant Analysis)

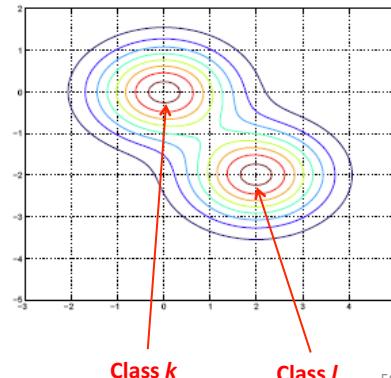
Linear Discriminant Analysis :  $\sum_k = \sum, \forall k$ 

Each class' covariance matrix is the same

The Gaussian Distribution are shifted versions of each other

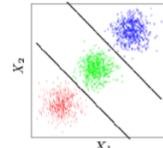


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## Optimal Classification

$$\operatorname{argmax}_k P(C_k | X) = \operatorname{argmax}_k P(X, C_k) = \operatorname{argmax}_k P(X | C_k)P(C_k)$$

$$= \operatorname{argmax}_k \left[ -\log((2\pi)^{n/2} |\Sigma|^{1/2}) - \frac{1}{2}(x - \mu_k)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x - \mu_k) + \log(\pi_k) \right]$$

$$= \operatorname{argmax}_k \boxed{-\frac{1}{2}(x - \mu_k)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x - \mu_k) + \log(\pi_k)}$$

- Note Linear Discriminant Function for LDA

$$-\frac{1}{2}(x - \mu_k)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x - \mu_k) = x^T \Sigma^{-1} \mu_k - \frac{1}{2} \mu_k^T \Sigma^{-1} \mu_k - \frac{1}{2} x^T \Sigma^{-1} x$$

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## Define Linear Discriminant Function

$$\delta(x) = -\frac{1}{2}(x - \mu_k)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x - \mu_k) + \log \pi_k$$

→ The Decision Boundary Between class  $k$  and  $l$ ,  $\{x : \delta_k(x) = \delta_l(x)\}$ , is a linear line/plane

$$\begin{aligned} \log \frac{P(C_k | X)}{P(C_l | X)} &= \log \frac{P(X | C_k)}{P(X | C_l)} + \log \frac{P(C_k)}{P(C_l)} \\ &= \log \frac{\pi_k}{\pi_l} - \frac{1}{2} (\mu_k + \mu_l)^T \Sigma^{-1} (\mu_k - \mu_l) \\ &\quad + x^T \Sigma^{-1} (\mu_k - \mu_l) \end{aligned} \quad (4.9)$$

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Equals to zero → Boundary points X : when  $P(c_k | X) = P(c_l | X)$ , the left linear equation ==0, a linear line / plane

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## (2.5) QDA (Quadratic Discriminant Analysis)

- ▶ Estimate the covariance matrix  $\Sigma_k$  separately for each class  $k$ ,  $k = 1, 2, \dots, K$ .

- ▶ *Quadratic discriminant function:*

$$\delta_k(x) = -\frac{1}{2} \log |\Sigma_k| - \frac{1}{2}(x - \mu_k)^T \Sigma_k^{-1} (x - \mu_k) + \log \pi_k .$$

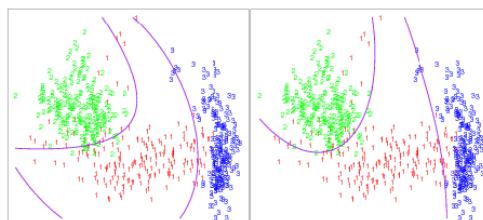
- ▶ Classification rule:

$$\hat{G}(x) = \arg \max_k \delta_k(x) .$$

- ▶ Decision boundaries are quadratic equations in  $x$ .
- ▶ QDA fits the data better than LDA, but has more parameters to estimate.

## (2.6) LDA on Expanded Basis

- ▶ Expand input space to include  $X_1 X_2$ ,  $X_1^2$ , and  $X_2^2$ .
- ▶ Input is five dimensional:  $X = (X_1, X_2, X_1 X_2, X_1^2, X_2^2)$ .



LDA with quadratic basis Versus QDA

Figure 4.6: Two methods for fitting quadratic boundaries. The left plot shows the quadratic decision boundaries for the data in Figure 4.1 (obtained using LDA in the five-dimensional space  $x_1, x_2, x_{12}, x_1^2, x_2^2$ ). The right plot shows the quadratic decision boundaries found by QDA. The differences are small, as is usually the case.

## (2.7) Regularized Discriminant Analysis

- ▶ A compromise between LDA and QDA.
- ▶ Shrink the separate covariances of QDA toward a common covariance as in LDA.
- ▶ Regularized covariance matrices:

$$\hat{\Sigma}_k(\alpha) = \alpha \hat{\Sigma}_k + (1 - \alpha) \hat{\Sigma} .$$

- ▶ The quadratic discriminant function  $\delta_k(x)$  is defined using the shrunken covariance matrices  $\hat{\Sigma}_k(\alpha)$ .
- ▶ The parameter  $\alpha$  controls the complexity of the model.

## Today

- Review of basic pipeline
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  - Bayes Classifier
  - **Logistic Regression**
  - **K-nearest Neighbor**
- Model Selection

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A Dataset for classification

$$f : [X] \longrightarrow [C]$$

Output as Discrete Class Label  
 $C_1, C_2, \dots, C_L$

Discriminative  $P(C | X) \quad C = c_1, \dots, c_L$

- Data/points/examples/samples/records: [rows]
- Features/attributes/dimensions/independent variables/covariates/predictors/regressors: [columns, except the last]
- Target/outcome/response/label/dependent variable: special column to be predicted [last column]

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### (3) Logistic Regression

Task

Representation

Score Function

Search/Optimization

Models, Parameters

classification

$\text{Log-odds}(Y) = \text{linear function of } X's$

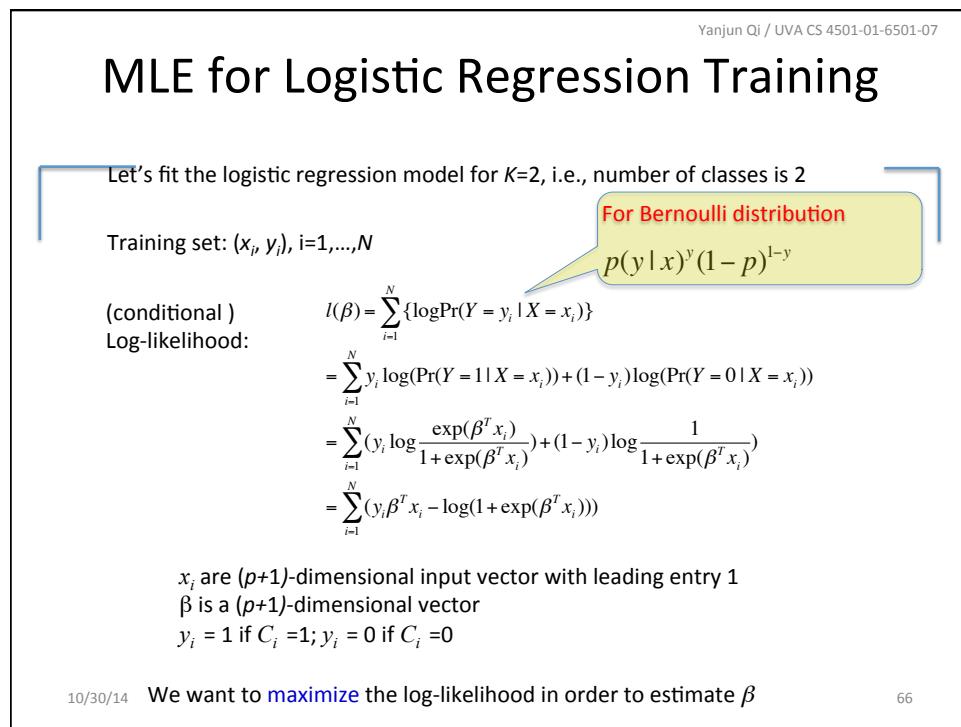
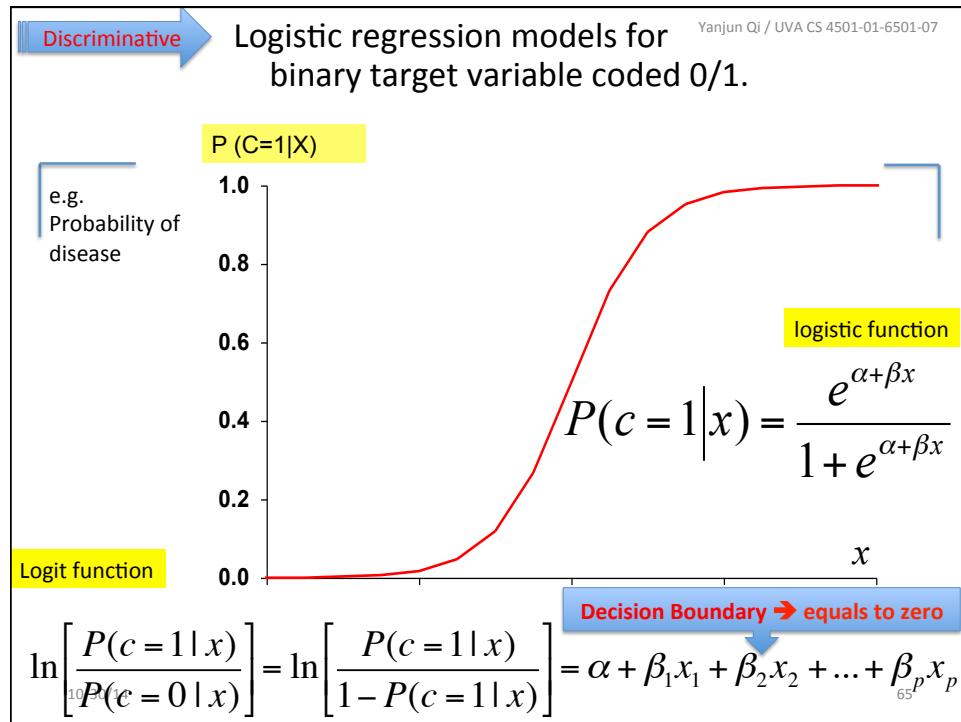
EPE, with conditional Log-likelihood

Iterative (Newton) method

Logistic weights

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$$P(c=1|x) = \frac{e^{\alpha+\beta x}}{1+e^{\alpha+\beta x}}$$



# Today

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## A Dataset for classification

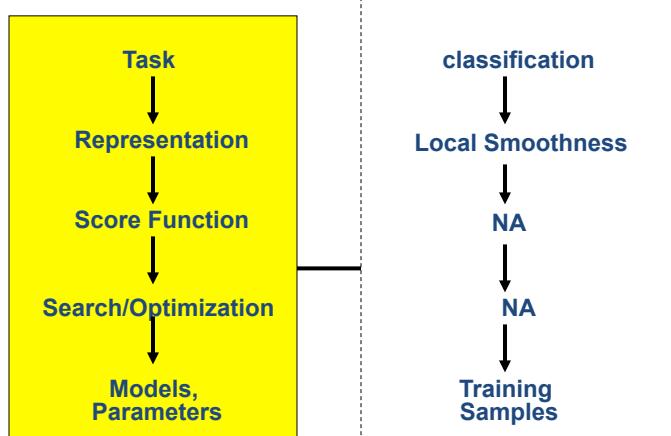
X <sub>1</sub>	X <sub>2</sub>	X <sub>3</sub>	C

$$f : [X] \longrightarrow [C]$$

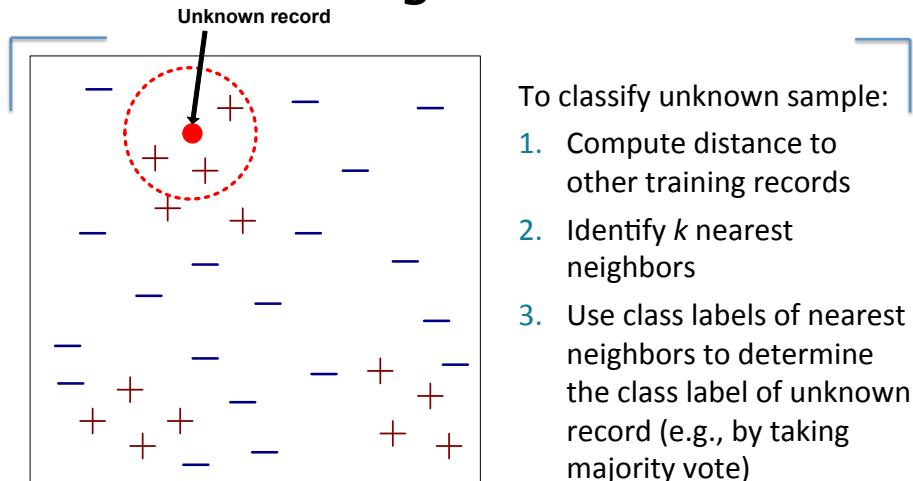
Output as Discrete Class Label  
 $C_1, C_2, \dots, C_L$

- Data/points/examples/samples/records: [rows]
- Features/attributes/dimensions/independent variables/covariates/predictors/regressors: [columns, except the last]
- Target/outcome/response/label/dependent variable: special column to be predicted [last column]

#### (4) K-Nearest Neighbor

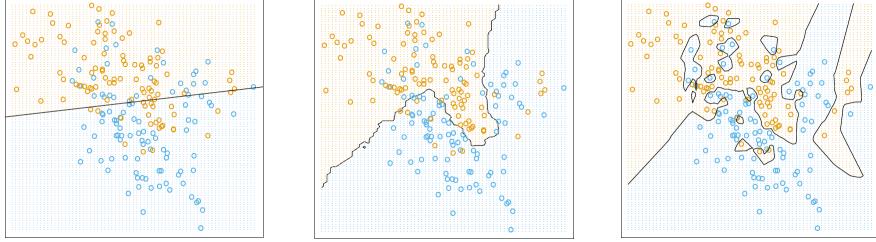


## Nearest neighbor classifiers



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### Decision boundaries in global vs. local models



linear regression
15-nearest neighbor
1-nearest neighbor

- global
- stable
- can be inaccurate

- local
- accurate
- unstable

What ultimately matters: **GENERALIZATION**

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## Nearest neighbor classification

- *k*-Nearest neighbor classifier is a **lazy** learner
  - Does not build model explicitly.
  - Unlike **eager** learners such as decision tree induction and rule-based systems.
  - Classifying unknown samples is relatively expensive.
- *k*-Nearest neighbor classifier is a **local** model, vs. **global** model of linear classifiers.

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## Vs. Locally weighted regression

- aka locally weighted regression, locally linear regression, LOESS, ...

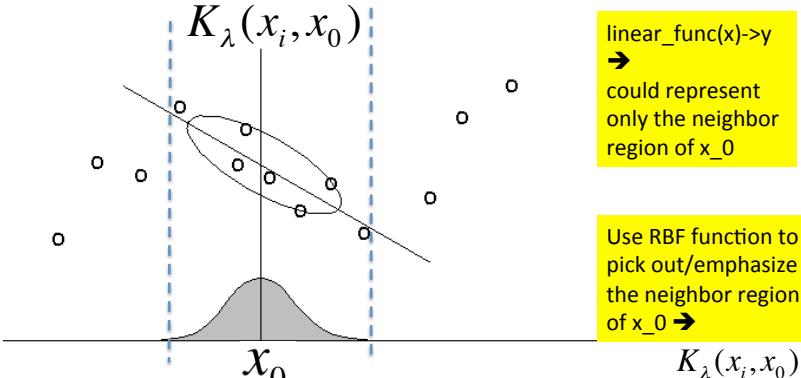


Figure 2: In locally weighted regression, points are weighted by proximity to the current  $x$  in question using a kernel. A regression is then computed using the weighted points.

## Vs. Locally weighted regression

- Separate weighted least squares **at each target point  $x_0$ :**



$$\min_{\alpha(x_0), \beta(x_0)} \sum_{i=1}^N K_\lambda(x_i, x_0) [y_i - \alpha(x_0) - \beta(x_0)x_i]^2$$

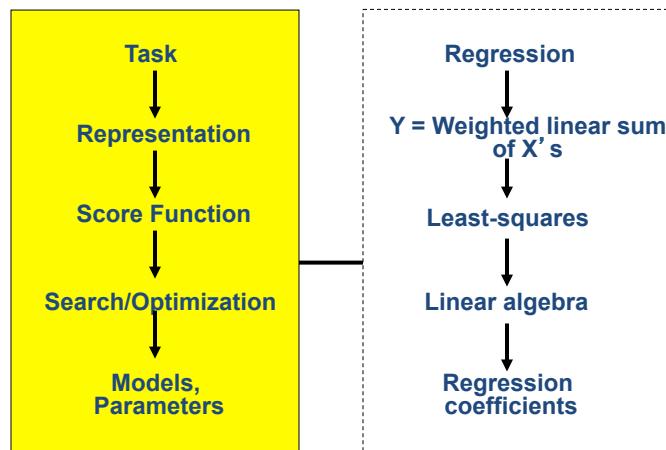
$$\hat{f}(x_0) = \hat{\alpha}(x_0) + \hat{\beta}(x_0)x_0$$

$$K_\tau(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_0) = \exp\left(-\frac{(\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_0)^2}{2\tau^2}\right)$$

# Today

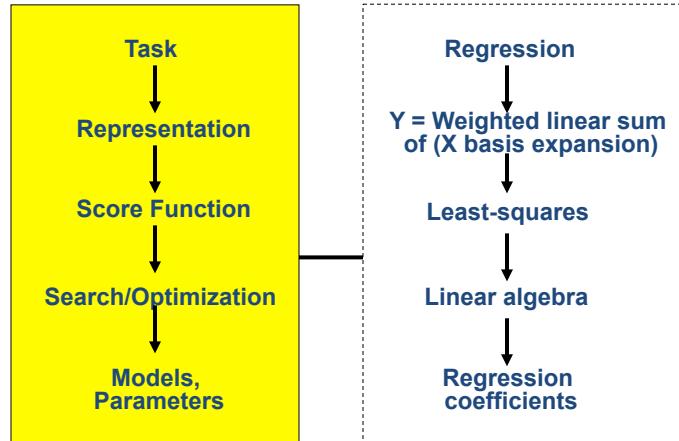
- Review of basic pipeline
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  - Bayes Classifier
  - Logistic Regression
  - K-nearest Neighbor
- Model Selection / Bias Variance Tradeoff

## (1) Multivariate Linear Regression



$$\hat{y} = f(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x^1 + \theta_2 x^2$$

## (2) Multivariate Linear Regression with basis Expansion

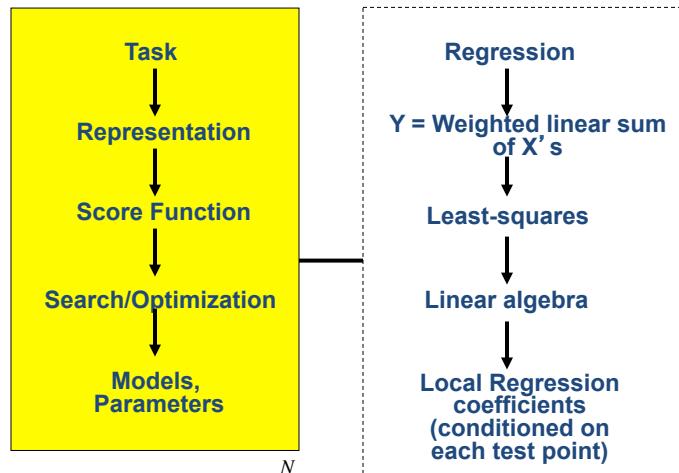


$$\hat{y} = \theta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^m \theta_j \varphi_j(x) = \varphi(x)\theta$$

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## (3) Locally Weighted / Kernel Regression



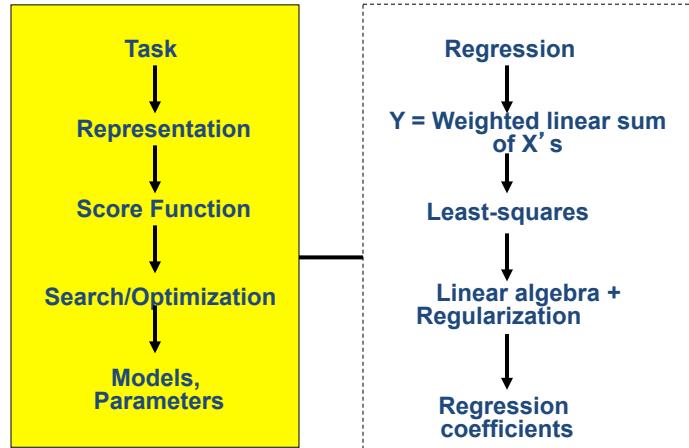
$$\min_{\alpha(x_0), \beta(x_0)} \sum_{i=1}^N K_\lambda(x_i, x_0) [y_i - \alpha(x_0) - \beta(x_0)x_i]^2$$

$$\hat{f}(x_0) = \hat{\alpha}(x_0) + \hat{\beta}(x_0)x_0$$

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#### (4) Regularized multivariate linear regression

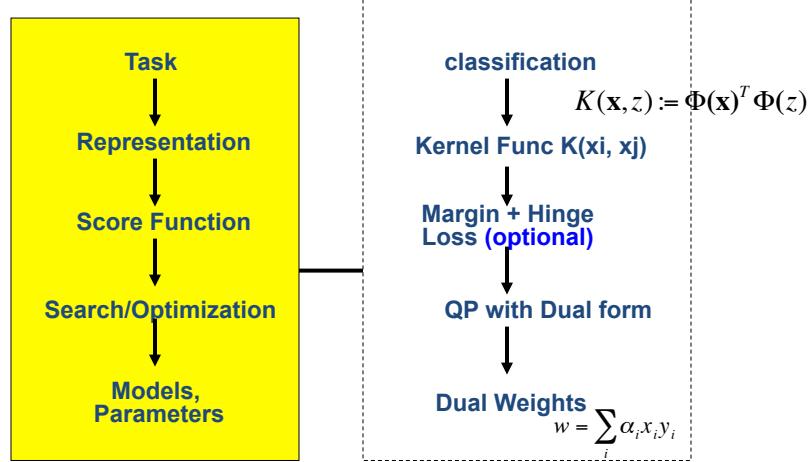


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$$\min J(\beta) = \sum_{i=1}^n (Y - \hat{Y})^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j^2$$

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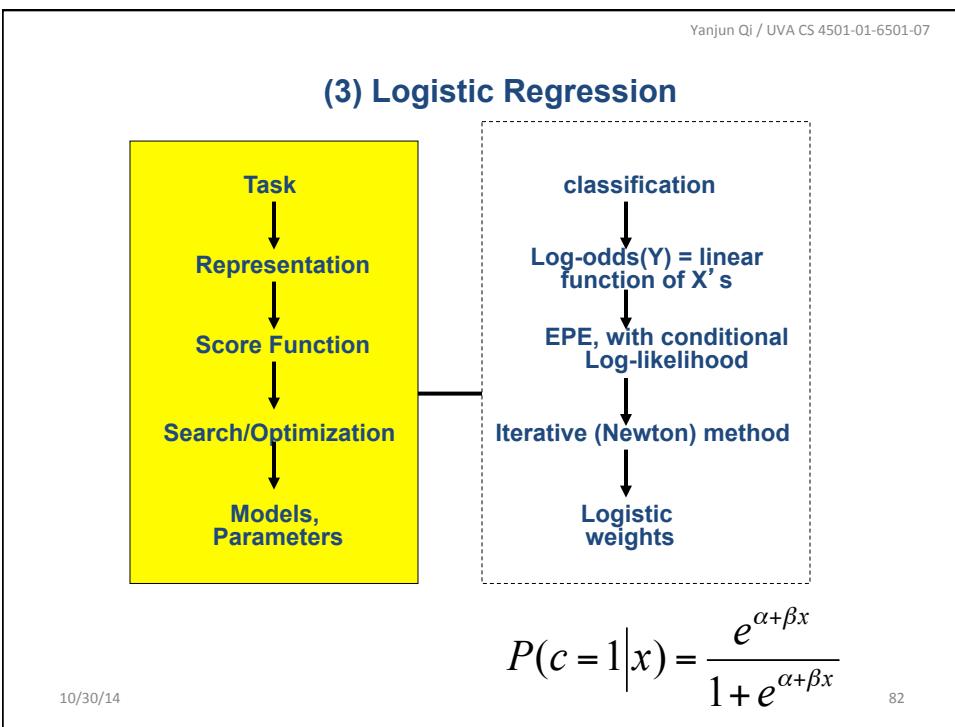
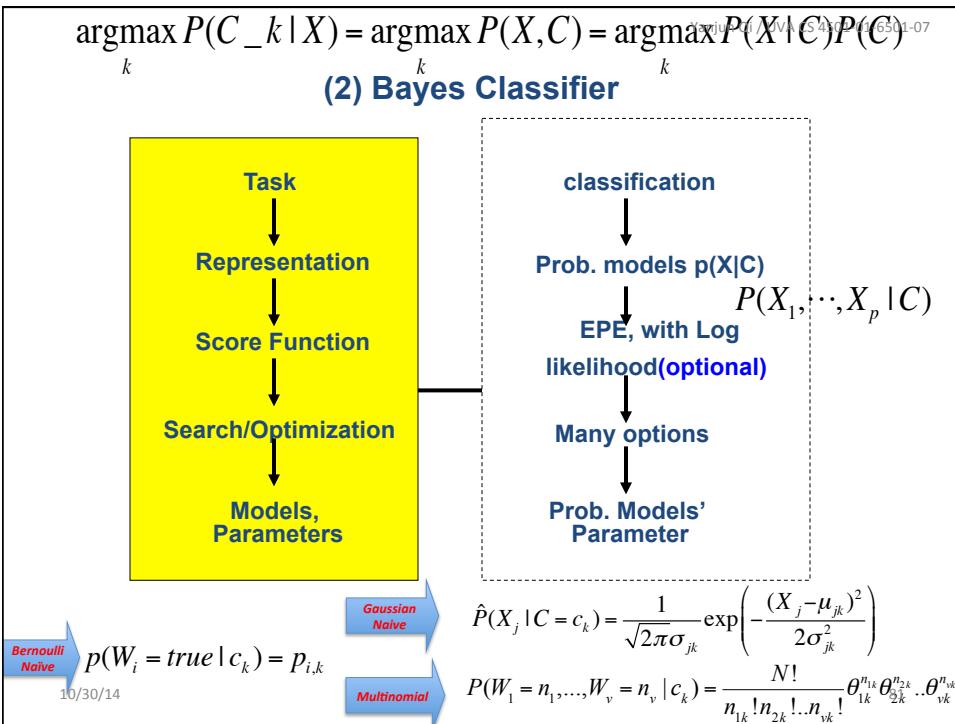
#### (1) Support Vector Machine

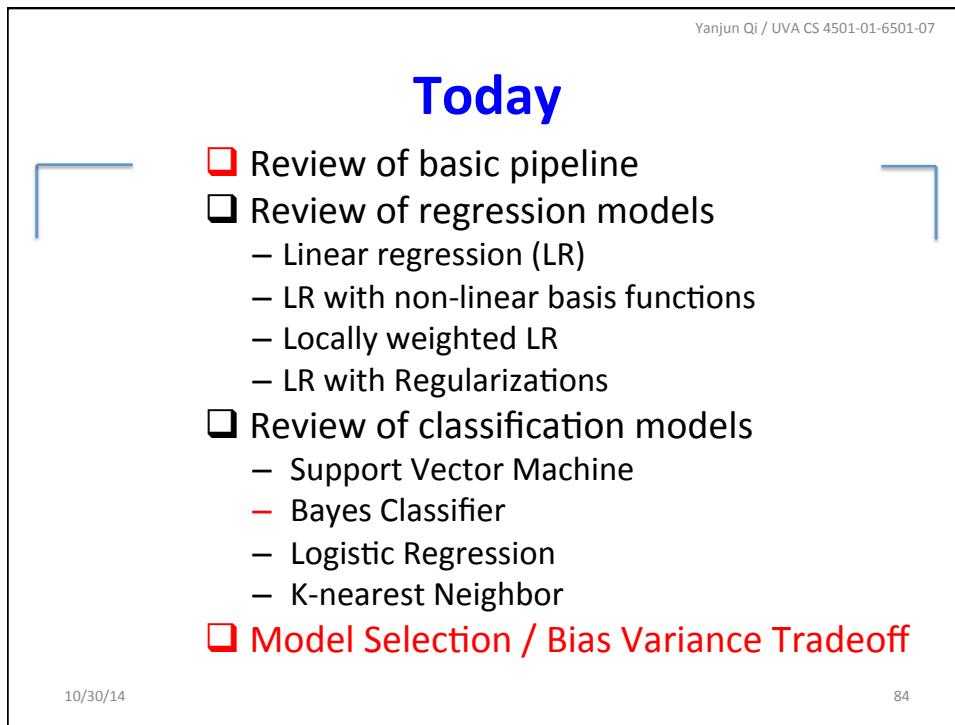
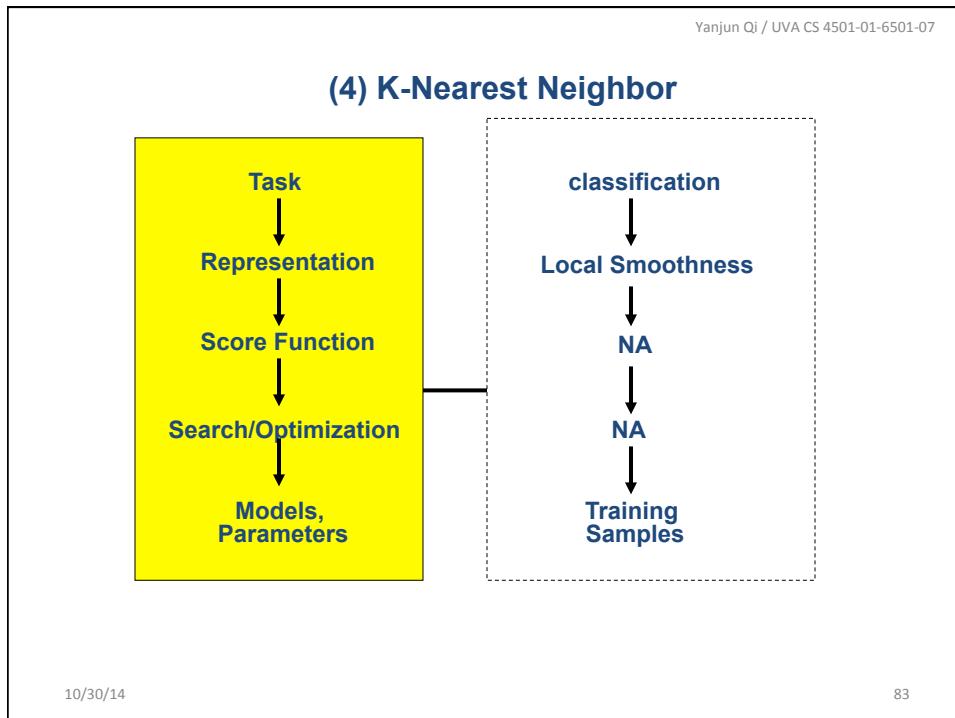


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$$\underset{\mathbf{w}, b}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i=1}^p w_i^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^n \varepsilon_i$$

$$\text{subject to } \forall \mathbf{x}_i \in D_{\text{train}} : y_i (\mathbf{x}_i \cdot \mathbf{w} + b) \geq 1 - \varepsilon_i$$





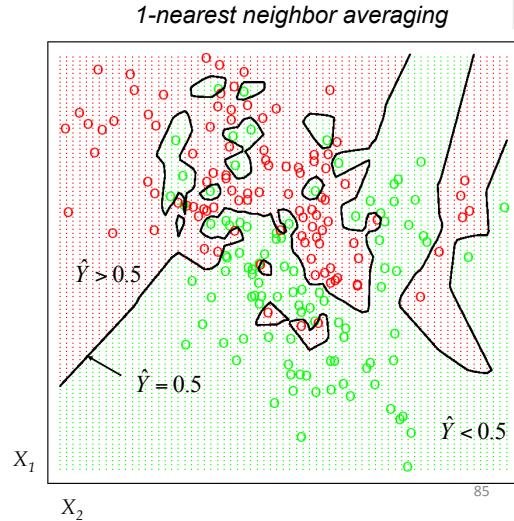
## e.g. Training Error from KNN, Lesson Learned

- When  $k = 1$ ,
- No misclassifications (on training): **Overtraining**

**• Minimizing training error is not always good (e.g., 1-NN)**

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## Statistical Decision Theory

- Random input vector:  $X$
- Random output variable:  $Y$
- Joint distribution:  $\Pr(X, Y)$
- Loss function  $L(Y, f(X))$

- Expected prediction error (EPE):

- $$\text{EPE}(f) = \mathbb{E}(L(Y, f(X))) = \int L(y, f(x)) \Pr(dx, dy)$$

$$\text{e.g.} = \int (y - f(x))^2 \Pr(dx, dy)$$

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e.g. Squared error loss (also called L2 loss )

Consider population distribution

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## Expected prediction error (EPE)

$$\text{EPE}(f) = \mathbb{E}(L(Y, f(X))) = \int L(y, f(x)) \Pr(dx, dy)$$

Consider  
sample  
population  
distribution

- For L2 loss: e.g.  $= \int (y - f(x))^2 \Pr(dx, dy)$

under L2 loss, best estimator for EPE (Theoretically) is :

e.g. KNN       Conditional mean  $f(x) = \mathbb{E}(Y | X = x)$   
 NN methods are the direct implementation (approximation)

- For 0-1 loss:  $L(k, \ell) = 1 - \delta_{kl}$

  $\hat{G}(X) = C_k$  if  $\Pr(C_k | X = x) = \max_{g \in \mathcal{C}} \Pr(g | X = x)$

Bayes Classifier

## Decomposition of EPE

$$Y = f(X) + \epsilon, \epsilon \sim (0, \sigma^2)$$

- When additive error model:

- Notations

- Output random variable:  $Y$
- Prediction function:  $f$
- Prediction estimator:  $\hat{f}$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{EPE}(x_0) &= E[(Y - \hat{f})^2 | X = x_0] \\ &= E[((Y - f) + (f - \hat{f}))^2 | X = x_0] \\ &= E[\underbrace{(Y - f)^2}_{\epsilon} | X = x_0] + \underbrace{E[(f - \hat{f})^2 | X = x_0]}_{MSE} \end{aligned}$$

$$= \sigma^2 + \text{Var}(\hat{f}) + \text{Bias}^2(\hat{f})$$

Irreducible / Bayes error

MSE component of  $\hat{f}$  in estimating  $f$

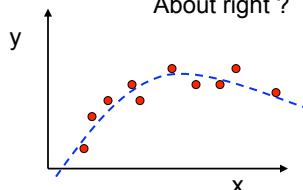
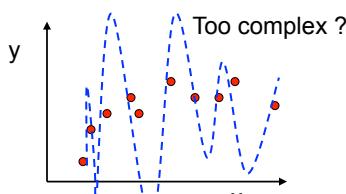
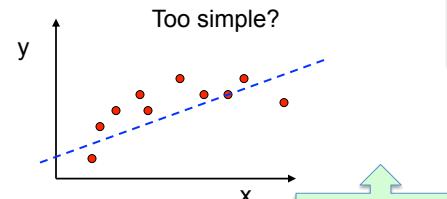
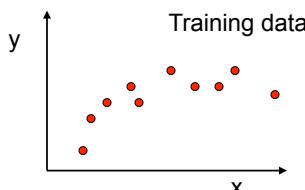
## BIAS AND VARIANCE TRADE-OFF

- $\theta$ : true value (normally unknown)
- $\hat{\theta}$ : estimator
- $\bar{\theta} := E[\hat{\theta}]$  (mean, i.e. expectation of the estimator)

- Bias  $E[(\bar{\theta} - \theta)^2]$ 
  - measures **accuracy** or **quality** of the estimator
  - low bias implies on average we will accurately estimate true parameter or func from training data
- Variance  $E[(\hat{\theta} - \bar{\theta})^2]$ 
  - Measures **precision** or **specificity** of the estimator
  - Low variance implies the estimator does not **change** much as **the training set varies**

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## Regression: Complexity versus Goodness of Fit



**Low Bias  
/ High Variance**

**Low Variance /  
High Bias**

What ultimately matters: **GENERALIZATION**

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## Classification, Decision boundaries in global vs. local models

**Low Variance /  
High Bias**

linear regression  
• global  
• stable  
• can be inaccurate

**15-nearest neighbor**

**Low Variance /  
High Bias**

**KNN**  
• local  
• accurate  
• unstable

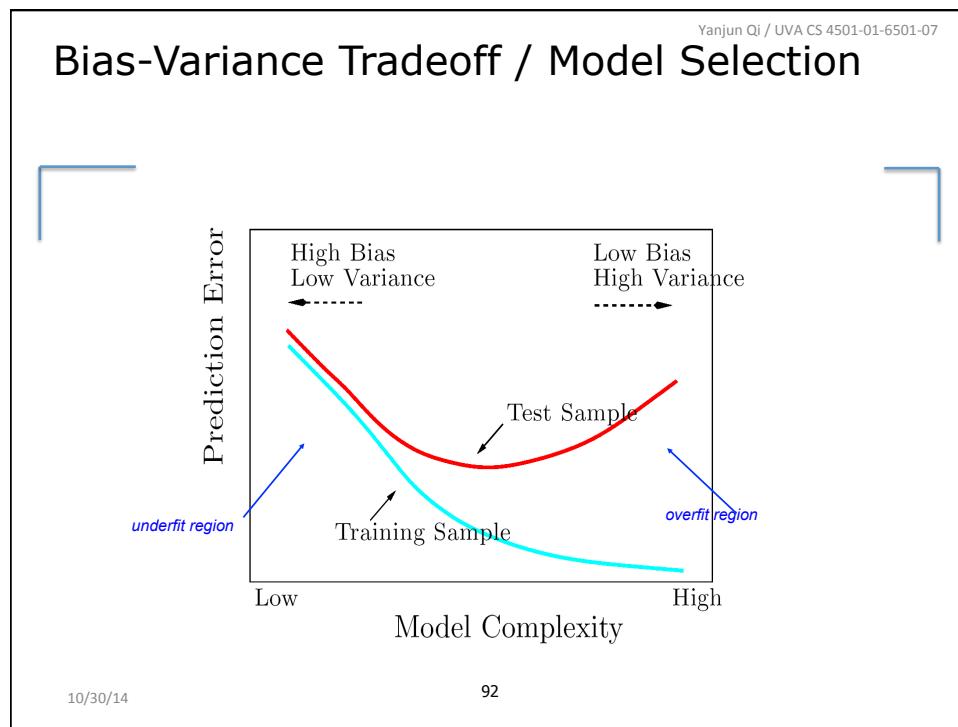
**1-nearest neighbor**

**Low Bias /  
High Variance**

What ultimately matters: **GENERALIZATION**

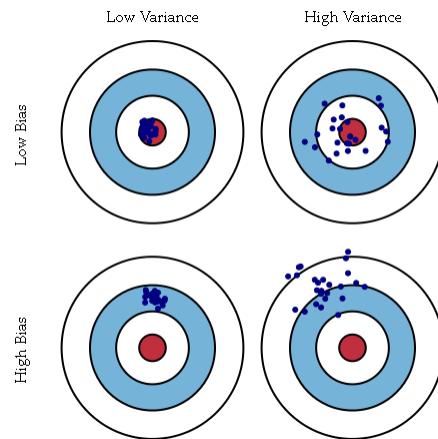
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## Model “bias” & Model “variance”

- Middle RED:
  - TRUE function
- Error due to bias:
  - How far off in general from the middle red
- Error due to variance:
  - How wildly the blue points spread



## References

- Prof. Tan, Steinbach, Kumar’s “Introduction to Data Mining” slide
- Prof. Andrew Moore’s slides
- Prof. Eric Xing’s slides
- Hastie, Trevor, et al. *The elements of statistical learning*. Vol. 2. No. 1. New York: Springer, 2009.

## Midterm

- Open Note / Open Book
- No laptop / No Cell phone / No internet access
- Easier than sample questions in HW4