

CPSC 340: Machine Learning and Data Mining

MLE and MAP

Fall 2017

Admin

- Assignment 3:
 - 1 late day to hand in tonight, 2 late days for Wednesday.
- Assignment 4:
 - Due Friday of next week.

Last Time: Multi-Class Linear Classifiers

- We discussed multi-class linear classification: y_i in $\{1, 2, \dots, k\}$.
- One vs. all with +1/-1 binary classifier:
 - Train weights w_c to predict +1 for class 'c', -1 otherwise.

$$W = \left[\begin{array}{c} w_1^\top \\ w_2^\top \\ \vdots \\ w_k^\top \end{array} \right] \}^k$$

d

- Predict by taking 'c' maximizing $w_c^\top x_i$.
- Multi-class SVMs and multi-class logistic regression:

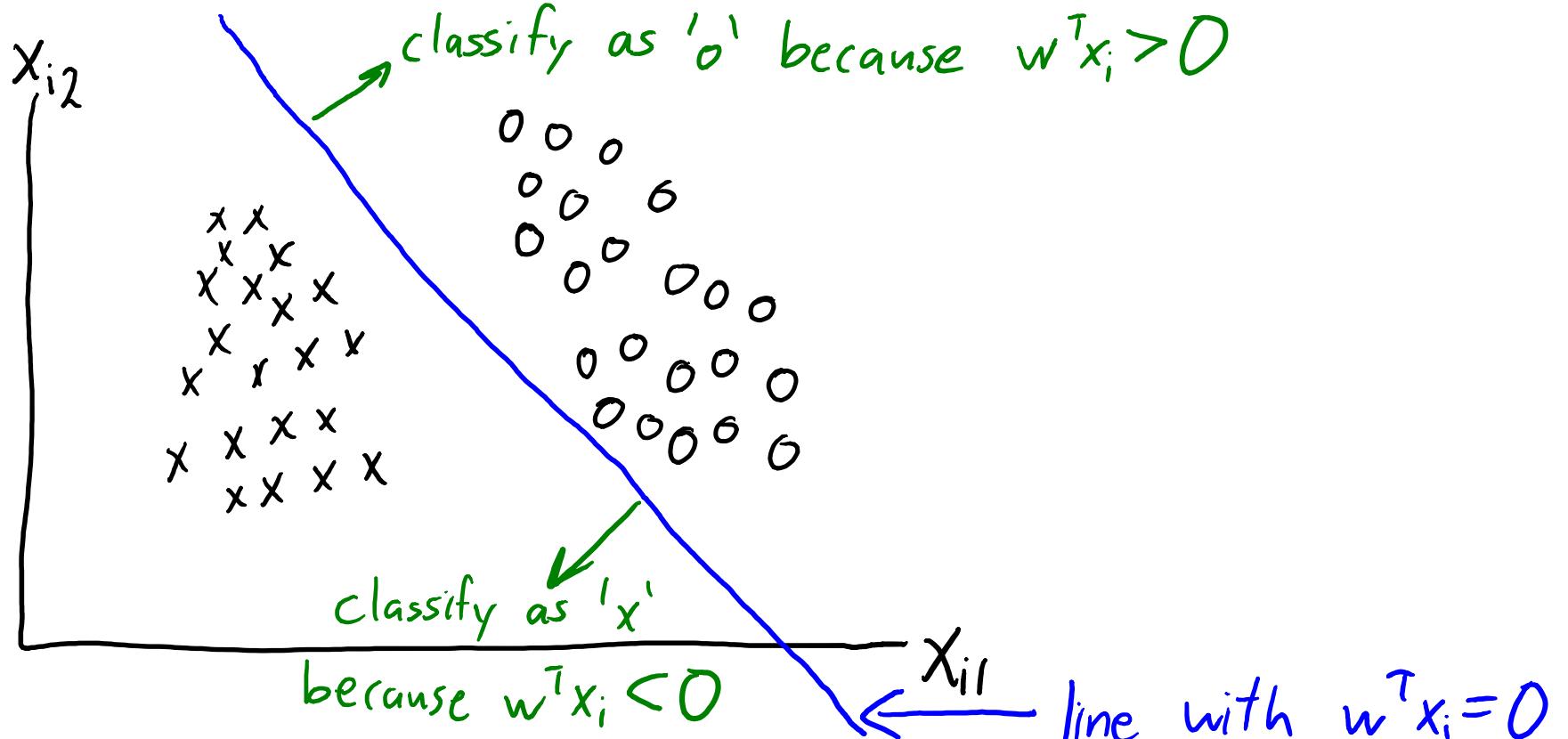
- Train the w_c jointly to encourage maximum $w_c^\top x_i$ to be $w_{y_i}^\top x_i$.

$$f(W) = \sum_{i=1}^n \left[-w_{y_i}^\top x_i + \log \left(\sum_{c=1}^k \exp(w_c^\top x_i) \right) \right] + \frac{1}{2} \|W\|_F^2$$

"Frobenius
norm"

Shape of Decision Boundaries

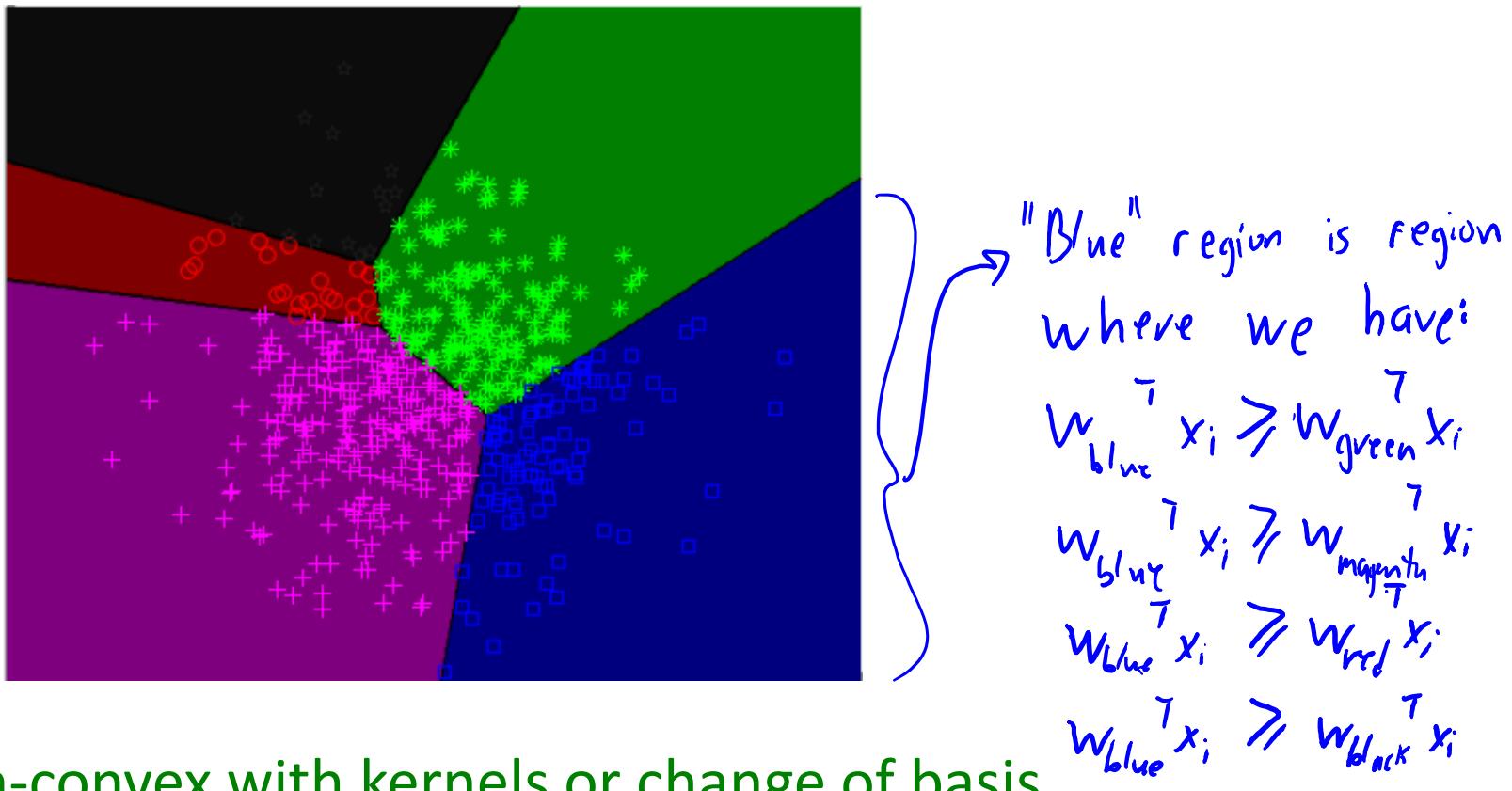
- Recall that a **binary linear classifier** splits space using a hyper-plane:



- Divides x_i space into 2 “half-spaces”.

Shape of Decision Boundaries

- Multi-class linear classifier is intersection of these “half-spaces”:
 - This divides the space into convex regions (like k-means):



(pause)

Previously: Identifying Important E-mails

- Recall problem of identifying ‘important’ e-mails:



- Global/local features in linear models give personalized prediction.
- We can do binary classification by taking sign of linear model:

$$y_i = \text{sign}(w^\top x_i)$$

- Convex loss functions (hinge loss, logistic loss) let us find an appropriate ‘w’.
- We can train on huge datasets like Gmail with stochastic gradient.
- But what if we want a probabilistic classifier?
 - Want a model of $p(y_i = \text{"important"} | x_i)$.

Generative vs. Discriminative Models

- Previously we saw **naïve Bayes**:

- Uses Bayes rule and **model** $p(x_i | y_i)$ to predict $p(y_i | x_i)$.

$$p(y_i | x_i) \propto p(x_i | y_i) p(y_i)$$

- This strategy is called a **generative model**.

- It “models how the features are generated”.
 - Often works well with lots of features but small ‘n’.

- Alternative is **discriminative models**:

- Directly **model** $p(y_i | x_i)$ to predict $p(y_i | x_i)$.

- No need to model x_i , so we can use complicated features.
 - Tends to work better with large ‘n’ or when naïve assumptions aren’t satisfied.

- Classic example is **logistic regression**.

“Parsimonious” Parameterization and Linear Models

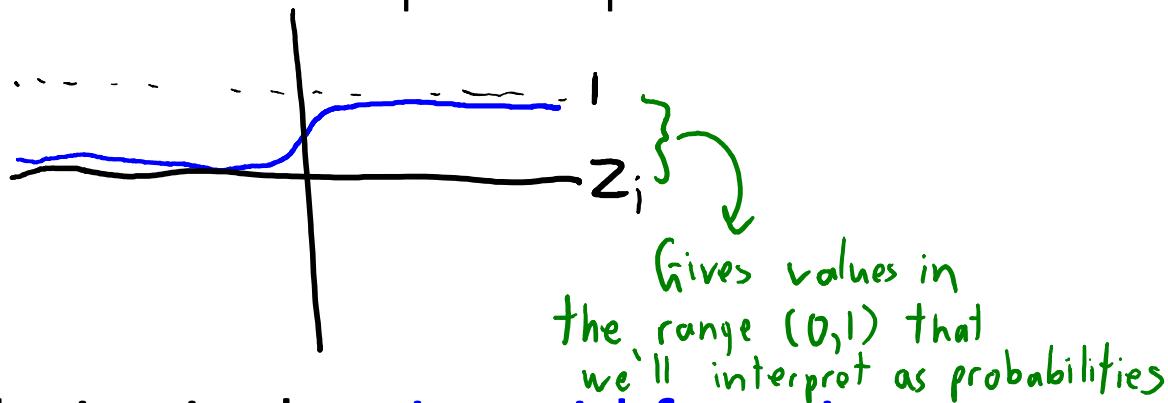
- Challenge: $p(y_i \mid x_i)$ might still be **really complicated**:
 - If x_i has ‘d’ binary features, need to **estimate $p(y_i \mid x_i)$ for 2^d input values.**
- Practical solution: assume $p(y_i \mid x_i)$ has “parsimonious” form.
 - For example, we **convert output of linear model to be a probability**.
 - Only need to estimate the parameters of a linear model.
- In binary **logistic regression**, we’ll do the following:
 1. The **linear prediction $w^T x_i$** gives us a number in $(-\infty, \infty)$.
 2. We’ll **map $w^T x_i$ to a number in $(0,1)$** , with a map acting like a probability.

How should we transform $w^T x_i$ into a probability?

- Let $z_i = w^T x_i$ in a **binary logistic regression** model:
 - If $\text{sign}(z_i) = +1$, we should have $p(y_i = +1 | z_i) > \frac{1}{2}$.
 - The linear model thinks $y_i = +1$ is more likely.
 - If $\text{sign}(z_i) = -1$, we should have $p(y_i = +1 | z_i) < \frac{1}{2}$.
 - The linear model thinks $y_i = -1$ is more likely, and $p(y_i = -1 | z_i) = 1 - p(y_i = +1 | z_i)$.
 - If $z_i = 0$, we should have $p(y_i = +1 | z_i) = \frac{1}{2}$.
 - Both classes are equally likely.
- And we might want **size of $w^T x_i$** to affect probabilities:
 - As z_i becomes really positive, we should have $p(y_i = +1 | z_i)$ converge to 1.
 - As z_i becomes really negative, we should have $p(y_i = +1 | z_i)$ converge to 0.

Sigmoid Function

- So we want a transformation of $z_i = w^T x_i$ that looks like this:



- The most common choice is the **sigmoid function**:

$$h(z_i) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-z_i)}$$

- Values of $h(z_i)$ match what we want:

$$h(-\infty) = 0 \quad h(-1) \approx 0.27 \quad h(0) = 0.5 \quad h(0.5) \approx 0.62 \quad h(+1) \approx 0.73 \quad h(+\infty) = 1$$

Sigmoid: Transforming $w^T x_i$ to a Probability

- We'll define $p(y_i = +1 | z_i) = h(z_i)$, where 'h' is the sigmoid function.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So } p(y_i = -1 | z_i) &= 1 - p(y_i = +1 | z_i) \\ &= 1 - h(z_i) \quad \text{can show from} \\ &= h(-z_i) \quad \text{definition of 'h'} \end{aligned}$$

- We can write both cases as $p(y_i | z_i) = h(y_i z_i)$, so we convert $z=w^T x_i$ into "probability of y_i " using:

$$\begin{aligned} p(y_i | w, x_i) &= h(y_i \underbrace{w^T x_i}_{z_i}) \\ &= \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-y_i w^T x_i)} \end{aligned}$$

- Given this probabilistic perspective, how should we find best 'w'?

Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

- Maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) for fitting probabilistic models.
 - We have a dataset D.
 - We want to pick parameters 'w'.
 - We define the likelihood as a probability mass/density function $p(D | w)$.
 - We choose the model \hat{w} that maximizes the likelihood:

$$\hat{w} \in \arg \max_w \{ p(D | w) \}$$

- Appealing “consistency” properties as n goes to infinity (take STAT 4XX).

Minimizing the Negative Log-Likelihood (NLL)

- To maximize likelihood,
usually we minimize the **negative “log-likelihood” (NLL)**:
 - “Log-likelihood” is short for “logarithm of the likelihood”.

$$\hat{w} \in \underset{w}{\operatorname{argmax}} \left\{ p(D|w) \right\} \equiv \underset{w}{\operatorname{argmin}} \left\{ -\log(p(D|w)) \right\}$$

↑
"equivalent"

- Why are these **equivalent**?
 - Logarithm is monotonic: if $\alpha > \beta$, then $\log(\alpha) > \log(\beta)$.
 - Changing sign flips max to min.
- See “Max and Argmax” notes on webpage if this seems strange.

Minimizing the Negative Log-Likelihood (NLL)

- We use logarithm because it turns multiplication into addition:

$$\log(\alpha \beta) = \log(\alpha) + \log(\beta)$$

- More generally: $\log\left(\prod_{i=1}^n a_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log(a_i)$

- If data is ' n ' IID samples then $p(D|w) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(D_i, w)$

likelihood of
example i

and our MLE is $\hat{w} \in \operatorname{argmax}_w \left\{ \prod_{i=1}^n p(D_i | w) \right\} \equiv \operatorname{argmin}_w \left\{ - \sum_{i=1}^n \log(p(D_i | w)) \right\}$

MLE for Naïve Bayes

- A long time ago, I mentioned that we used MLE in naïve Bayes.
- We estimated that $p(y_i = \text{"spam"})$ as $\text{count(spam)}/\text{count(e-mails)}$.
 - You derive this by minimizing the NLL under a “Bernoulli” likelihood.
 - Set derivative of NLL to 0, and solve for Bernoulli parameter.
- MLE of $p(x_{ij} | y_i = \text{"spam"})$ gives $\text{count(spam,x}_{ij}\text{)}/\text{count(spam)}$.
 - Also derived under a conditional “Bernoulli” likelihood.
- The derivation is tedious, but if you’re interested I put it [here](#).

MLE for Supervised Learning

- The MLE in **generative** models (like naïve Bayes) maximizes:

$$p(y, X | w)$$

- But **discriminative** models directly model $p(y | X, w)$.
 - We treat features X as fixed don't care about their distribution.
 - So the MLE maximizes the **conditional likelihood**:

$$p(y | X, w)$$

of the targets 'y' given the features 'X' and parameters 'w'.

MLE Interpretation of Logistic Regression

- For IID regression problems the conditional NLL can be written:

$$\underbrace{-\log(p(y|X, w))}_{NLL} = -\log(\underbrace{\prod_{i=1}^n p(y_i|x_i, w)}_{IID \text{ assumption}}) = -\sum_{i=1}^n \log(p(y_i|x_i, w))$$

log turns product into sum

- Logistic regression assumes sigmoid($w^T x_i$) conditional likelihood:

$$p(y_i|x_i, w) = h(y_i w^T x_i) \quad \text{where} \quad h(z_i) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-z_i)}$$

- Plugging in the sigmoid likelihood, the NLL is the logistic loss:

$$NLL(w) = -\sum_{i=1}^n \log\left(\frac{1}{1 + \exp(-y_i w^T x_i)}\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log(1 + \exp(-y_i w^T x_i))$$

(since $\log(1) = 0$)

MLE Interpretation of Logistic Regression

- We just derived the logistic loss from the perspective of MLE.
 - Instead of “smooth approximation of 0-1 loss”, we now have that logistic regression is doing MLE in a probabilistic model.
 - The training and prediction would be the same as before.
 - We still minimize the logistic loss in terms of ‘w’.
 - But MLE viewpoint gives us “probability that e-mail is important”:

$$p(y_i | x_i, w) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-y_i w^T x_i)}$$

Least Squares is Gaussian MLE

- It turns out that most objectives have an MLE interpretation:
 - For example, consider minimizing the squared error:

$$f(w) = \frac{1}{2} \|Xw - y\|^2$$

- This is MLE of a linear model under the assumption of IID Gaussian noise:

$$y_i = w^T x_i + \epsilon_i$$

where each ϵ_i is sampled independently from standard normal

- “Gaussian” is another name for the “normal” distribution.
- Remember that least squares solution is called the “normal equations”.

Least Squares is Gaussian MLE (Gory Details)

- Let's assume that $y_i = w^T x_i + \varepsilon_i$, with ε_i following standard normal:

$$p(\varepsilon_i) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{\varepsilon_i^2}{2}\right)$$

also known
as "Gaussian"
distribution

- This leads to a Gaussian likelihood for example 'i' of the form:

$$p(y_i | x_i, w) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{(w^T x_i - y_i)^2}{2}\right)$$

- Finding MLE is equivalent to minimizing NLL:

$$\begin{aligned} f(w) &= -\sum_{i=1}^n \log(p(y_i | w, x_i)) \\ &= -\sum_{i=1}^n \log\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{(w^T x_i - y_i)^2}{2}\right)\right) \\ &= -\sum_{i=1}^n \left[\log\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right) + \log\left(\exp\left(-\frac{(w^T x_i - y_i)^2}{2}\right)\right) \right] \end{aligned}$$

constant in 'w'

A

$$\begin{aligned} &\Rightarrow -\sum_{i=1}^n \left[(\text{constant}) - \frac{1}{2} (w^T x_i - y_i)^2 \right] \\ &= (\text{constant}) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n (w^T x_i - y_i)^2 \\ &= (\text{constant}) + \frac{1}{2} \|Xw - y\|^2 \end{aligned}$$

operations cancel

Loss Functions and Maximum Likelihood Estimation

- So least squares is MLE under Gaussian likelihood.

If $p(y_i | x_i, w) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{(w^T x_i - y_i)^2}{2}\right)$

then MLE of ' w ' is minimum of $f(w) = \frac{1}{2} \|Xw - y\|^2$

- With a Laplace likelihood you would get absolute error.

If $p(y_i | x_i, w) = \frac{1}{2} \exp(-|w^T x_i - y_i|)$

then MLE is minimum of $f(w) = \|Xw - y\|_1$

- With sigmoid likelihood we got the binary logistic loss.

- You can derive softmax loss from the softmax likelihood (bonus).

(pause)

Maximum Likelihood Estimation and Overfitting

- In our abstract setting with data D the MLE is:

$$\hat{w} \in \underset{w}{\operatorname{argmax}} \{ p(D|w) \}$$

- But conceptually MLE is a bit weird:
 - “Find the ‘w’ that makes ‘D’ have the highest probability given ‘w’.”
- And MLE often leads to overfitting:
 - Data could be very likely for some very unlikely ‘w’.
 - For example, a complex model that overfits by memorizing the data.
- What we really want:
 - “Find the ‘w’ that has the highest probability given the data D.”

Maximum a Posteriori (MAP) Estimation

- Maximum a posteriori (MAP) estimate maximizes the reverse probability:

$$\hat{w} \in \underset{w}{\operatorname{argmax}} \{ p(w|D) \}$$

- This is what we want: the probability of ‘w’ given our data.

- MLE and MAP are connected by Bayes rule:

$$p(w|D) = \frac{p(D|w)p(w)}{p(D)} \propto p(D|w)p(w)$$

posterior likelihood prior

- So MAP maximizes the likelihood $p(D|w)$ times the prior $p(w)$:

- Prior is our “belief” that ‘w’ is correct before seeing data.
- Prior can reflect that complex models are likely to overfit.

MAP Estimation and Regularization

- From Bayes rule, the MAP estimate with IID examples D_i is:

$$\hat{w} \in \operatorname{argmax}_w \{ p(w | D) \} \equiv \operatorname{argmax}_w \left\{ \prod_{i=1}^n [p(D_i | w)] p(w) \right\}$$

- By again taking the negative of the logarithm we get:

$$\hat{w} \in \operatorname{argmin}_w \left\{ - \sum_{i=1}^n \underbrace{[\log(p(D_i | w))]}_{\text{loss}} - \underbrace{\log(p(w))}_{\text{regularizer}} \right\}$$

- So we can view the negative log-prior as a regularizer:
 - Many regularizers are equivalent to negative log-priors.

L2-Regularization and MAP Estimation

- We obtain L2-regularization under an independent Gaussian assumption:

Assume each w_j comes from a Gaussian with variance $\frac{1}{\lambda}$

- This implies that:

$$p(w) = \prod_{j=1}^d p(w_j) \propto \prod_{j=1}^d \exp\left(-\frac{\lambda}{2} w_j^2\right) = \exp\left(-\frac{\lambda}{2} \sum_{j=1}^d w_j^2\right)$$

independence Gaussian assumption $e^\alpha e^\beta = e^{\alpha + \beta}$

- So we have that:

$$-\log(p(w)) = -\log\left(\exp\left(-\frac{\lambda}{2}\|w\|^2\right)\right) + (\text{constant}) = \frac{\lambda}{2}\|w\|^2 + (\text{constant})$$

- With this prior, the MAP estimate with IID training examples would be

$$\hat{w} \in \arg\min \left\{ -\log(p(y|x, w)) - \log(p(w)) \right\} \equiv \arg\min_w \left\{ - \sum_{i=1}^n [\log(p(y_i|x_i, w))] + \frac{\lambda}{2}\|w\|^2 \right\}$$

MAP Estimation and Regularization

- MAP estimation gives link between probabilities and loss functions.
 - Gaussian likelihood and Gaussian prior give L2-regularized least squares.

If $p(y_i | x_i, w) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{(w^T x_i - y_i)^2}{2}\right)$ $p(w_j) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{\lambda}{2} w_j^2\right)$

then MAP estimation is equivalent to minimizing $f(w) = \frac{1}{2} \|Xw - y\|^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \|w\|^2$

- Sigmoid likelihood and Gaussian prior give L2-regularized logistic regression:

If $p(y_i | x_i, w) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-y_i w^T x_i)}$ and $p(w_j) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{\lambda}{2} w_j^2\right)$

then MAP estimate is minimum of $f(w) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log(1 + \exp(-y_i w^T x_i)) + \frac{\lambda}{2} \|w\|^2$
As $n \rightarrow \infty$ effect of prior/regularizer goes to 0

Summarizing the past few slides

- Many of our **loss functions and regularizers have probabilistic interpretations.**
 - Laplace likelihood leads to absolute error.
 - Laplace prior leads to L1-regularization.
- The choice of **likelihood** corresponds to the choice of **loss**.
 - Our assumptions about how the y_i -values can come from the x_i and ‘w’.
- The choice of **prior** corresponds to the choice of **regularizer**.
 - Our assumptions about which ‘w’ values are plausible.

Regularizing Other Models

- We can view priors in other models as regularizers.
- Remember the problem with MLE for naïve Bayes:
 - The MLE of $p(\text{'lactase'} = 1 \mid \text{'spam'})$ is: $\text{count(spam,lactase)}/\text{count(spam)}$.
 - But this caused problems if $\text{count(spam,lactase)} = 0$.
- Our solution was Laplace smoothing:
 - Add “+1” to our estimates: $(\text{count(spam,lactase)}+1)/(\text{counts(spam)}+2)$.
 - This corresponds to a “Beta” prior so Laplace smoothing is a regularizer.

Why do we care about MLE and MAP?

- Unified way of thinking about many of our tricks?
 - Laplace smoothing and L2-regularization are doing the same thing.
- Remember our two ways to reduce complexity of a model:
 - Model averaging (ensemble methods).
 - Regularization (linear models).
- “Fully”-Bayesian methods combine both of these (CPSC 540).
 - Average over all models, weighted by posterior (including regularizer).
 - Can use extremely-complicated models without overfitting.
- Sometimes it's easier to define a likelihood than a loss function.

Losses for Other Discrete Labels

- MLE/MAP gives loss for classification with basic labels:
 - Least squares and absolute loss for regression.
 - Logistic regression for binary labels {"spam", "not spam"}.
 - Softmax regression for multi-class {"spam", "not spam", "important"}.
- But MLE/MAP lead to losses with other discrete labels:
 - Ordinal: {1 star, 2 stars, 3 stars, 4 stars, 5 stars}.
 - Counts: 602 'likes'.
 - Survival rate: 60% of patients were still alive after 3 years.
- Define likelihood of labels, and use NLL as the loss function.
- We can also use ratios of probabilities to define more losses (bonus):
 - Binary SVMs, multi-class SVMs, and “pairwise preferences” (ranking) models.

Summary

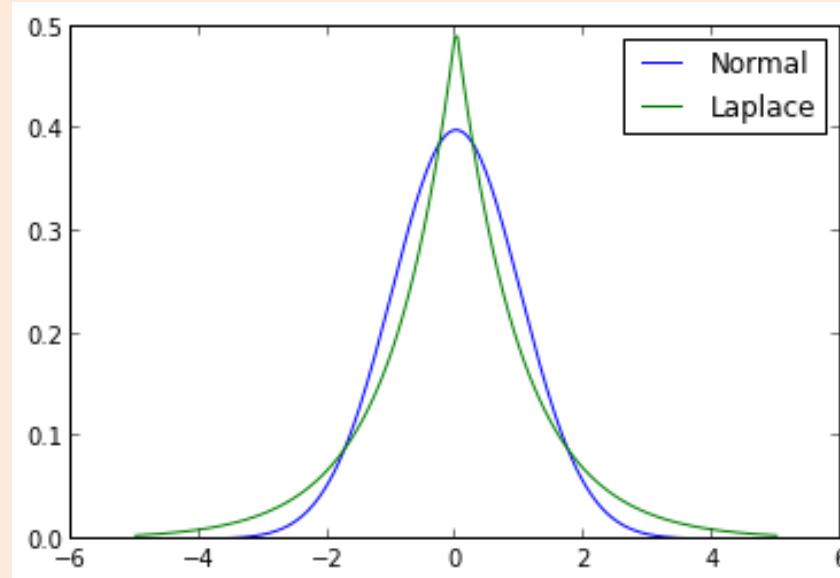
- **Discriminative probabilistic models** directly model $p(y_i \mid x_i)$.
 - Unlike naïve Bayes that models $p(x_i \mid y_i)$.
 - Usually, we use linear models and define “likelihood” of y_i given $w^T x_i$.
- **Maximum likelihood estimate** viewpoint of common models.
 - Objective functions are equivalent to maximizing $p(y \mid X, w)$.
- **MAP estimation** directly models $p(w \mid X, y)$.
 - Gives probabilistic interpretation to regularization.
- **Discrete losses for weird scenarios** are possible using MLE/MAP:
 - Ordinal logistic regression, Poisson regression.
- Next time:
 - What ‘parts’ are your personality made of?

Discussion: Least Squares and Gaussian Assumption

- Classic **justifications for the Gaussian assumption** underlying least squares:
 - Your **noise might really be Gaussian**. (It probably isn't, but maybe it's a good enough approximation.)
 - The **central limit theorem** (CLT) from probability theory. (If you add up enough IID random variables, the estimate of their mean converges to a Gaussian distribution.)
- I think the CLT justification is wrong as we've never assumed that the x_{ij} are IID across 'j' values. We only assumed that the examples x_i are IID across 'i' values, so the CLT implies that our estimate of 'w' would be a Gaussian distribution under different samplings of the data, but this says nothing about the distribution of y_i given $w^T x_i$.
- On the other hand, there are reasons ***not*** to use a Gaussian assumption, like it's sensitivity to outliers. This was (apparently) what lead Laplace to propose the Laplace distribution as a more robust model of the noise.
- The "student t" distribution from (published anonymously by Gosset while working at Guiness) is even more robust, but doesn't lead to a convex objective.

“Heavy” Tails vs. “Light” Tails

- We know that L1-norm is more robust than L2-norm.
 - What does this mean in terms of probabilities?



Here “tail” means
“mass of the
distribution away
from the mean.”

- Gaussian has “light tails”: assumes everything is close to mean.
- Laplace has “heavy tails”: assumes some data is far from mean.
- Student ‘t’ is even more heavy-tailed/robust, but NLL is non-convex.

Multi-Class Logistic Regression

- Last time we talked about **multi-class classification**:
 - We want $w_{y_i}^T x_i$ to be the most positive among ‘k’ real numbers $w_c^T x_i$.
- We have ‘k’ real numbers $z_c = w_c^T x_i$, want to map z_c to probabilities.
- Most common way to do this is with **softmax** function:

$$p(y=c | z_1, z_2, \dots, z_k) = \frac{\exp(z_y)}{\sum_{c=1}^k \exp(z_c)}$$

- Taking $\exp(z_c)$ makes it non-negative, denominator makes it sum to 1.
- So this gives a probability for each of the ‘k’ possible values of ‘c’.
- The NLL under this likelihood is the softmax loss.

Binary vs. Multi-Class Logistic

- How does multi-class logistic generalize the binary logistic model?
- We can re-parameterize softmax in terms of $(k-1)$ values of z_c :

$$p(y|z_1, z_2, \dots, z_{k-1}) = \frac{\exp(z_y)}{1 + \sum_{c=1}^{k-1} \exp(z_c)} \quad \text{if } y \neq k \quad \text{and} \quad p(y|z_1, z_2, \dots, z_{k-1}) = \frac{1}{1 + \sum_{c=1}^{k-1} \exp(z_c)} \quad \text{if } y = k$$

- This is due to the “sum to 1” property (one of the z_c values is redundant).
- So if $k=2$, we don’t need a z_2 and only need a single ‘ z ’.
- Further, when $k=2$ the probabilities can be written as:

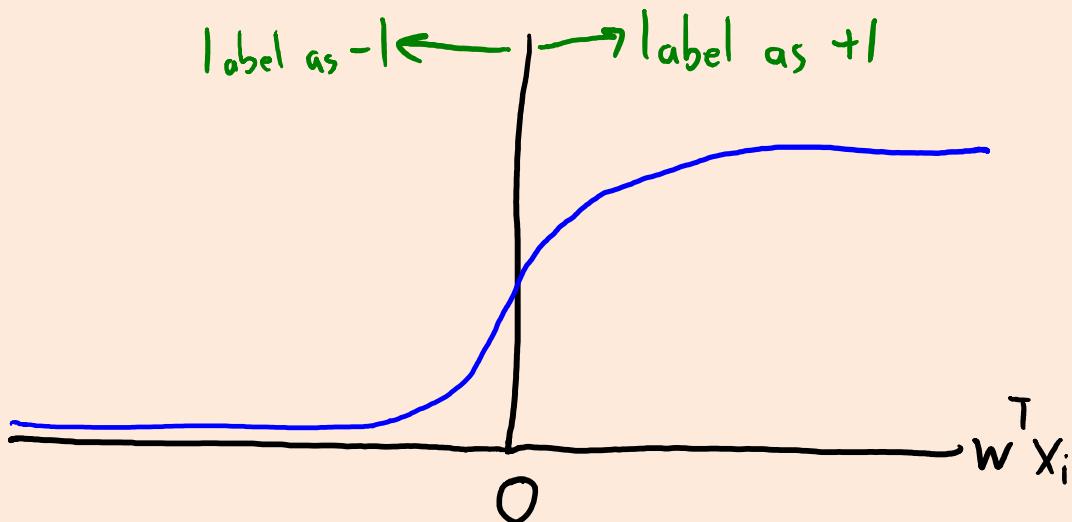
$$p(y=1|z) = \frac{\exp(z)}{1 + \exp(-z)} \quad p(y=2|z) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(z)}$$

- Renaming ‘2’ as ‘-1’, we get the **binary logistic regression** probabilities.

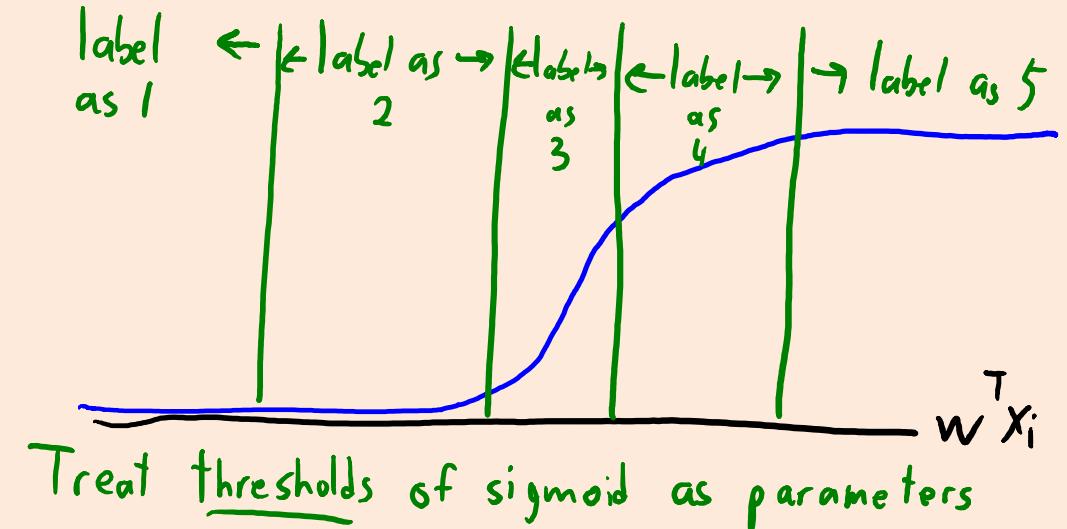
Ordinal Labels

- **Ordinal data:** categorical data where the **order matters**:
 - Rating hotels as {‘1 star’, ‘2 stars’, ‘3 stars’, ‘4 stars’, ‘5 stars’}.
 - Softmax would ignore order.
- Can use ‘ordinal logistic regression’.

Logistic regression



Ordinal logistic regression



Count Labels

- Count data: predict the number of times something happens.
 - For example, $y_i = "602"$ Facebook likes.
- Softmax requires finite number of possible labels.
- We probably don't want separate parameter for '654' and '655'.
- Poisson regression: use probability from Poisson count distribution.
 - Many variations exist.

Other Parsimonious Parameterizations

- Sigmoid isn't the only parsimonious $p(y_i \mid x_i, w)$:
 - Probit (uses CDF of normal distribution, very similar to logistic).
 - Noisy-Or (simpler to specify probabilities by hand).
 - Extreme-value loss (good with class imbalance).
 - Cauchit, Gosset, and many others exist...

Unbalanced Training Sets

- Consider the case of binary classification where your training set has 99% class -1 and only 1% class +1.
 - This is called an “unbalanced” training set
- Question: is this a problem?
- Answer: it depends!
 - If these proportions are representative of the test set proportions, and you care about both types of errors equally, then “no” it’s not a problem.
 - You can get 99% accuracy by just always predicting -1, so ML can really help with the 1%.
 - But it’s a problem if the test set is not like the training set (e.g. your data collection process was biased because it was easier to get -1’s)
 - It’s also a problem if you care more about one type of error, e.g. if mislabeling a +1 as a -1 is much more of a problem than the opposite
 - For example if +1 represents “tumor” and -1 is “no tumor”

Unbalanced Training Sets

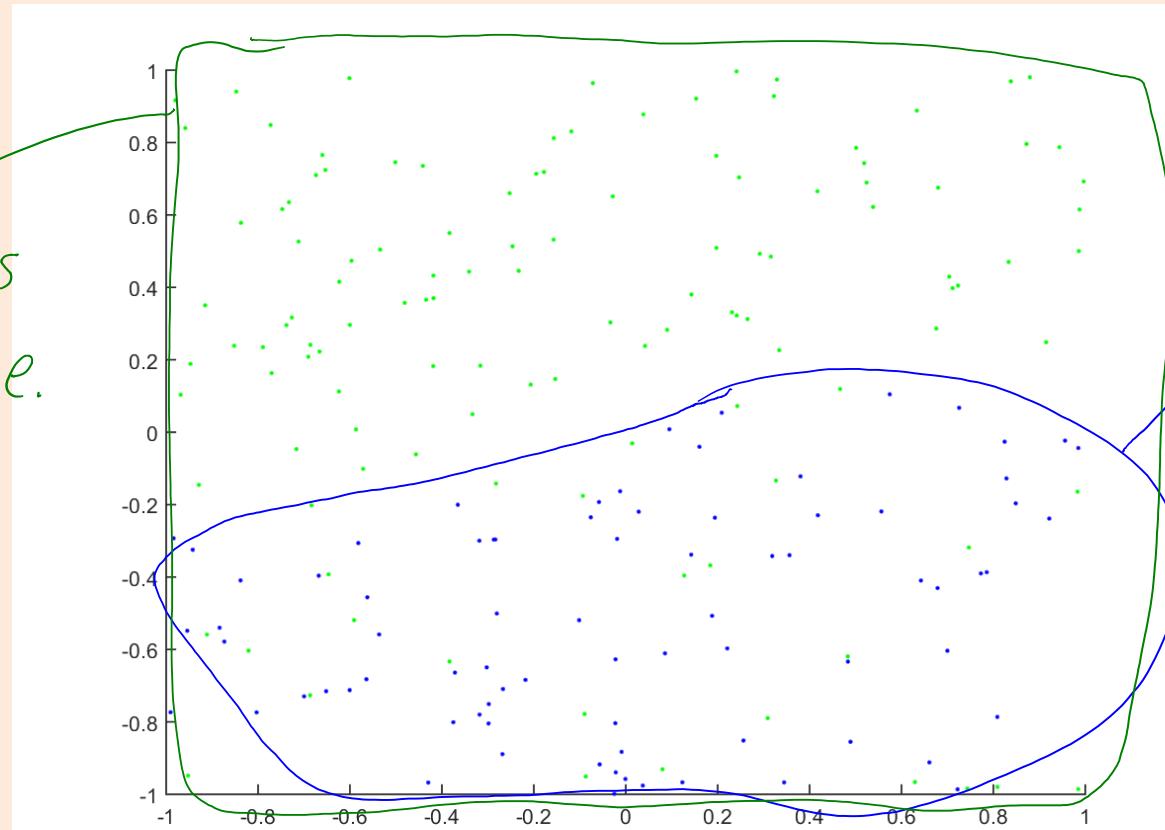
- This issue comes up a lot in practice!
- How to fix the problem of unbalanced training sets?
 - One way is to build a “weighted” model, like you did with weighted least squares in your assignment (put higher weight on the training examples with $y_i=+1$)
 - This is equivalent to replicating those examples in the training set.
 - You could also subsample the majority class to make things more balanced.
 - Another option is to change to an asymmetric loss function that penalizes one type of error more than the other.

Unbalanced Data and Extreme-Value Loss

- Consider binary case where:
 - One class overwhelms the other class ('unbalanced' data).
 - Really important to find the minority class (e.g., minority class is tumor).

"majority" class
is everywhere.

important "minority" class

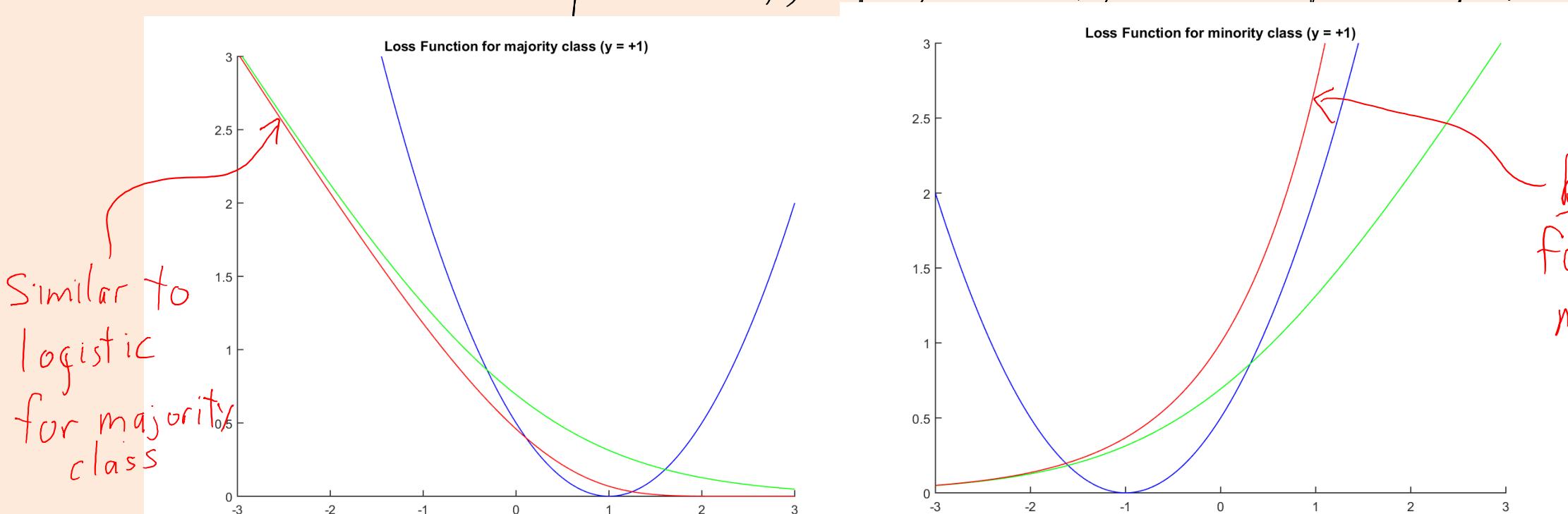


Unbalanced Data and Extreme-Value Loss

- Extreme-value distribution:

$$p(y_i = +1 | \hat{y}_i) = 1 - \exp(-\exp(\hat{y}_i)) \quad [+1 \text{ is majority class}] \quad \xrightarrow{\text{asymmetric}}$$

To make it a probability, $p(y_i = -1 | \hat{y}_i) = \exp(-\exp(\hat{y}_i))$

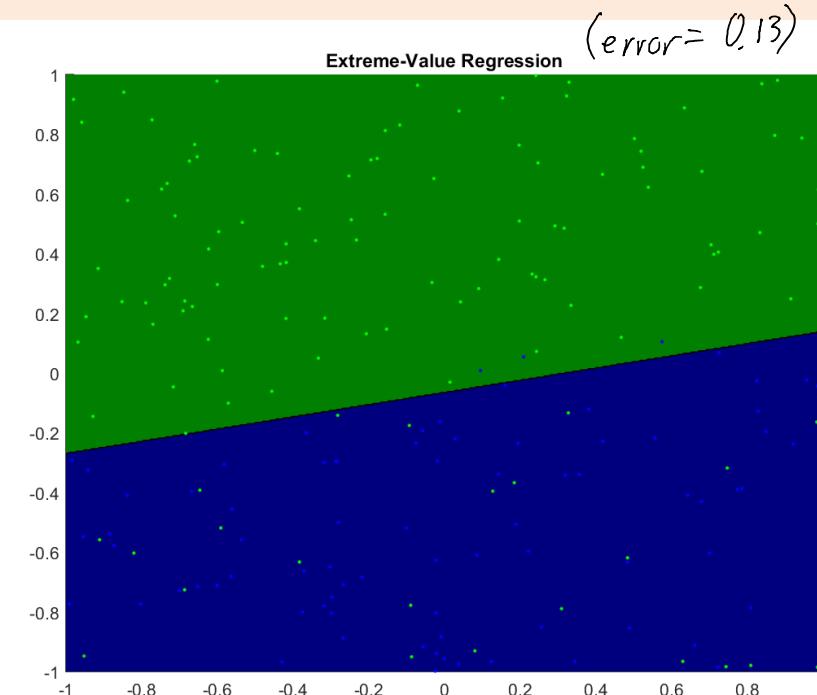
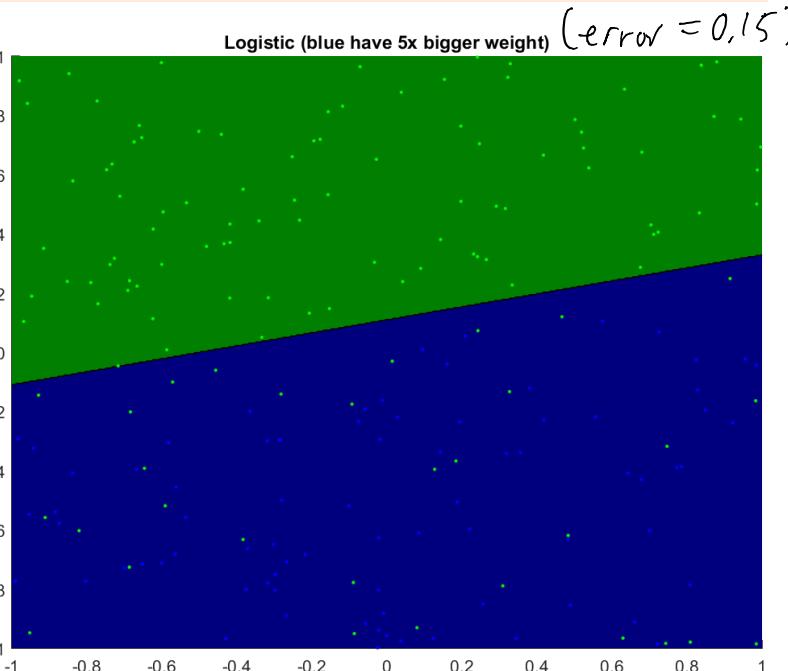
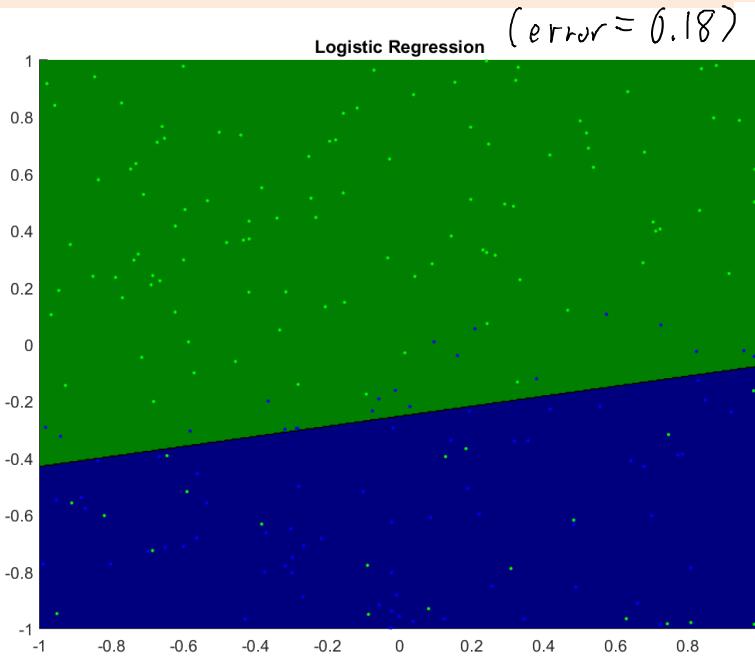


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Loss Functions from Probability Ratios

- We've seen that loss functions can come from probabilities:
 - Gaussian => squared loss, Laplace => absolute loss, sigmoid => logistic.
- Most other loss functions can be derived from probability ratios.
 - Example: sigmoid => hinge.

$$p(y_i | x_i, w) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-y_i w^T x_i)} = \frac{\exp(\frac{1}{2} y_i w^T x_i)}{\underbrace{\exp(\frac{1}{2} y_i w^T x_i) + \exp(-\frac{1}{2} y_i w^T x_i)}_{\text{Same normalizing constant}} \propto \exp(\frac{1}{2} y_i w^T x_i)}$$

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$$p(y_i | x_i, w) \propto \exp\left(\frac{1}{2} y_i w^T x_i\right)$$

To classify y_i correctly, it's sufficient to have $\frac{p(y_i | x_i, w)}{p(-y_i | x_i, w)} > \beta$ for some ' β ' > 1

Notice that normalizing constant doesn't matter:

$$\frac{\exp\left(\frac{1}{2} y_i w^T x_i\right)}{\exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} y_i w^T x_i\right)} > \beta$$

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$$p(y_i | x_i, w) \propto \exp\left(\frac{1}{2} y_i w^T x_i\right)$$

We need: $\frac{\exp(\frac{1}{2} y_i w^T x_i)}{\exp(-\frac{1}{2} y_i w^T x_i)} \geq \beta$

Take \log :

$$\log\left(\frac{\exp(\frac{1}{2} y_i w^T x_i)}{\exp(-\frac{1}{2} y_i w^T x_i)}\right) \geq \log(\beta) \iff \frac{1}{2} y_i w^T x_i + \frac{1}{2} y_i w^T x_i \geq \log(\beta)$$

$$y_i w^T x_i \geq 1 \quad (\text{if we choose } \log(\beta) = 1)$$

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$$p(y_i | x_i, w) \propto \exp\left(\frac{1}{2} y_i w^T x_i\right)$$

We need: $\frac{\exp(\frac{1}{2} y_i w^T x_i)}{\exp(-\frac{1}{2} y_i w^T x_i)} \geq \beta$

Or equivalently:

$$y_i w^T x_i \geq 1 \quad (\text{for } \beta = \exp(1))$$

Define a loss function by amount of constraint violation:

$$\max \{ 0, 1 - y_i w^T x_i \}$$

when $1 - y_i w^T x_i \leq 0$ when $1 - y_i w^T x_i \geq 0$

We get SVMs by looking at regularized average loss:
 $f(w) = \sum_{i=1}^n \max\{0, 1 - y_i w^T x_i\} + \frac{\gamma}{2} \|w\|^2$

Loss Functions from Probability Ratios

- General approach for defining losses using probability ratios:
 - Define constraint based on probability ratios.
 - Minimize violation of logarithm of constraint.
- Example: softmax => multi-class SVMs.

Assume: $p(y_i = c | x_i, w) \propto \exp(w_c^T x_i)$

Want: $\frac{p(y_i | x_i, w)}{p(y_i = c' | x_i, w)} \geq \beta$ for all c' and some $\beta > 1$

For $\beta = \exp(1)$ equivalent to

$$w_{y_i}^T x_i - w_{c'}^T x_i \geq 1 \quad \text{for all } c' \neq y_i$$

Option 1: penalize all violations:

$$\sum_{c'=1}^K \max\{0, 1 - w_{y_i}^T x_i + w_{c'}^T x_i\}$$

Option 2: penalize only max violation:

$$\max_{c' \neq c} \left\{ \max\{0, 1 - w_{y_i}^T x_i + w_{c'}^T x_i\} \right\}$$

Supervised Ranking with Pairwise Preferences

- Ranking with pairwise preferences:

- We aren't given any explicit y_i values.

- Instead we're given list of objects (i, j) where $y_i > y_j$.

Assume $p(y_i | X, w) \propto \exp(w^T x_i)$ is probability that object ' i ' has highest rank.

Want: $\frac{p(y_i | X, w)}{p(y_j | X, w)} \geq \beta$ for all preferences (i, j)

For $\beta = \exp(1)$ equivalent to

$$w^T x_i - w^T x_j \geq 1$$

for preferences (i, j)

→ We can use $f(w) = \sum_{(i, j) \in R} \max\{0, 1 - w^T x_i + w^T x_j\}$

This approach can also be used to define losses for total/partial orderings. (but this information is hard to get)