#### **CPSC 540: Machine Learning**

Robust Regression, Logistic Regression, MLE and MAP Winter 2016

# Admin

- Room: Search for new room is in progress.
  - Waiting for final numbers.
- Auditing/enrollment forms:
  - Drop-off/pickup your forms at the end of class.
  - For enrollment, I need your prerequisite forms.
- CPSC and EECE graduate students:
  - submit your prereq form in class by Thursday.
- Assignment 1:
  - Due Tuesday, start early!

### Last Time: Nonlinear Basis

• Change of basis allows nonlinear functions with linear regression:



# Last Time: Training vs. Testing

- In supervised learning we are given a training set X and y.
  - But what we care about is test error: are prediction accurate on new data?
- In order to say anything about new data, need assumptions:
   IID assumption: training and test data drawn from same distribution.
- Often, we have an explicit test set to approximate test error.

Data: I. Train: 2. Predict test set labels 3. Evaluate X, Y, X<sub>test</sub>, Ytost Model = fit(X, y)  $\hat{y} = \text{predict}(\text{model}, X_{test})$  error = diff( $\hat{y}$ , Ytest)

Golden rule: this test set cannot influence training in any way.
 Otherwise, not valid approximation of test error.

- Possible training procedures if you only have a training set: ullet
  - Randomly split training set into "train" and "validate" set. 1.
  - 2. Train model based on train set.
  - 3.
- We can trust this accuracy is reasonable.
  - Validation set gives unbiased approximation of test error.



- Possible training procedures if you only have a training set:
  - 1. Randomly split training set into "train" and "validate" set.
  - 2. Train 10 models based on train set (e.g., 10 different bases)
  - 3. Choose one with highest accuracy on validate set.
  - 4. Report validate set accuracy with this model.
- We should be a little skeptical of this accuracy:
  - We violated golden rule on validation set:
    - Approximation of test error was used to choose model.
  - But we probably not overfitting much: only 10 models considered.

- Possible training procedures if you only have a training set:
  - 1. Randomly split training set into "train" and "validate" set.
  - 2. Train 1 billion models based on train set.
  - 3. Choose one with highest accuracy on validate set.
  - 4. Report validate set accuracy with this model.
- We should be a very skeptical of this accuracy:
  - We badly violated golden rule on validation set:
    - High chance of overfitting to validation set.

- Possible training procedures if you only have a training set:
  - 1. Randomly split training set into "train", "validate", and "test" set.
  - 2. Train 1 billion models based on train set.
  - 3. Choose one with highest accuracy on validate set.
  - 4. Report test set accuracy with this model.



• We can trust this accuracy is reasonable.

- We might still overfit to validate set, but test set not used during training.

- Similar reasoning applies to cross-validation:
  - Selecting between 10 models using cross-validation on full data set:
    - Cross-validation error of best model will be a bit optimistic.
  - Selecting between 1B models using cross-validation on full data set:
    - Cross-validation error of best model could be meaningless.
  - Proper cross-validation procedure:
    - Randomly split data into "train/crossValidate" and "test" set.
    - Choose model with lowest cross-validation error on "train/crossValidate" set.
    - Report error on "test" set which did not influence final model.

# Fundamental Trade-Off and Regularization

- Bias-variance and other learning theory results to trade-off:
  - 1. How small you can make the training error.

VS.

- 2. How well training error approximates the test error.
- Simple models: high training error but don't overfit:
- Complex models: low training error but overfit.
- Regularization: reduces overfitting in complex models.
  - Common approach is L2-regularization:

$$\frac{1}{w \in \mathbb{R}^{d}} = \frac{1}{2} ||Xw - y||^{2} + \frac{1}{2} ||w||^{2}$$

- Increases training error, but typically decreases test error.
- Increasing number of training examples 'n' has a similar effect on trade-off.

### Parametric vs. Non-Parametric

- Polynomials are not the only possible bases:
  - Common to use exponentials, logarithms, trigonometric functions, etc.
  - The right basis will vastly improve performance.
  - But when you have a lot of features, the right basis may not be obvious.
- The above bases are parametric model:
  - The size of the model *does not depend* on the number of training examples 'n'.
  - As 'n' increases, you can estimate the model more accurately.
  - But at some point, more data doesn't help because model is too simple.
- Alternative is non-parametric models:
  - Size of the model grows with the number of training examples.
  - Model gets more complicated as you get more data.
  - You can model very complicated functions where you don't know the right basis.

### **Non-Parametric Basis: RBFs**

- Radial basis functions (RBFs):
  - Non-parametric bases that depend on distances to training points.
- Most common example is Gaussian or squared exponential:



Where did constant outringo?

#### - not needed: WTxi= (+w) (cxi) Non-Parametric Basis: RBFs function depends on all original features:

Notei each basis

 $||x - x_i||^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - x_i)^2$ 

- Radial basis functions (RBFs):
  - Non-parametric bases that depend on distances to training points.
- Most common example is Gaussian or squared exponential:



Gaussian RBFs are universal approximators (compact subets of R<sup>d</sup>)
 – Can approximate any continuous function to arbitrary precision.

#### Non-Parametric Basis: RBFs

• RBF basis for different values of σ:





# RBFs, Regularization, and Validation

• Very effective model:

– RBF basis with L2-regularization and cross-validation to choose  $\sigma$  and  $\lambda$ .



Expensive at test time: need distance to all training examples.

# RBFs, Regularization, and Validation

• RBF basis with L2-regularization for different values of  $\sigma$  and  $\lambda$ .



• At least one of these models is often a good fit.

# **Today: Alternatives to Squared Error**

- Squared error is computationally convenient choice:
  - Solution involves solving a linear system.

 $W = (X^{T}X + JI)^{-1}X^{T}y$ 

- But it's usually not the right choice:
  - Corresponds to assuming error are normally distributed (later in lecture).
  - Makes it sensitive to outliers or large errors.
  - Makes it inappropriate with restrictions on y (like binary or censored).
- Today:
  - Alternatives to squared error, and deriving other alternatives.
  - Computational implications of these alternatives.

- Consider fitting least squares with an outlier in the labels:
  - Observation that is unusually different from the others.

^	•	Egg	Milk	Fish	Wheat	Shellfish	Peanuts	 	lgE
Pay	)	0	0.7	0	0.3	0	0		700
Pay	2	0.3	0.7	0	0.6	0	0.01		740
Nay	3	0	0	0	0.8	0	0		50
Dav	Y	0.3	0.7	1.2	0	0.10	0.01		40000
Pay									

- Some sources of outliers:
  - Errors, contamination of data from different distribution, rare events.

• Consider fitting least squares with an outlier in the labels: X C "outlier": it's not like the others.

This is probably what we want.

• Consider fitting least squares with an outlier in the labels:

This is what least Squares will actually do! 

• Least squares is very sensitive to outliers.

• Squaring error shrinks small errors, and magnifies large errors:



• Outliers (large error) influence 'w' much more than other points.

• Squaring error shrinks small errors, and magnifies large errors: Absolute Errors: Square Errors:



Outliers (large error) influence 'w' much more than other points.
 – Good if outlier means 'plane crashes', bad if it means 'data entry error'.

### **Robust Regression**

- Robust regression objectives put less focus on far-away points.
- For example, just use absolute error:

$$\begin{array}{c} \alpha r q min \\ w \in \mathbb{R}^d \\ i = 1 \end{array} \begin{bmatrix} n & T \\ w & X_i \\ i = 1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} n & T \\ y_i \end{bmatrix}$$

- Now decreasing 'small' and 'large' errors is equally important.
- In matrix notation, we can write this as minimizing L1-norm:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Let 'residual'' vector} \\ \text{Irll}_{i} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |r_{i}| \\ \text{Irll}_{i} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |r_{i}| \\ \text{Irll}_{i} = w^{T} x_{i} - y_{i} \\ \text{So } r = X_{w} - y \end{aligned}$$

### Squared Error vs. Absolute Error

• Comparing squared error absolute error:





# Regression with the L1-Norm

• Unfortunately, minimizing the absolute error is harder:



- Generally, harder to minimize non-smooth than smooth functions.
- But we can formulate minimize absolute error as a linear program.

# **Converting into Constrained Problems**

- Key observation:
  - Absolute value is maximum of smooth functions:  $|w| = max \frac{2}{2}w_2 w^2$
- We can convert to minimizing smooth function with constraints:
  - 1. Replace maximum with new variable, constrained to upper-bound max.
  - 2. Replace individual constraint with constraint for each element of max.

# Minimizing Absolute Error as Linear Program

• We can apply the same steps to a sum of max functions:

$$\begin{array}{l} \operatorname{argmin}_{i=1} & \sum_{j=1}^{n} |w^{T}x_{i} - y_{j}| \iff \operatorname{argmin}_{i=1} & \max\{w^{T}x_{i} - y_{j}y_{i} - w^{T}x_{i}\} \\ & \ll \mathbb{R}^{d} & \sup_{j=1}^{n} |v^{T}x_{j}| = \sum_{j=1}^{n} |v^{T}x_{$$

- This is a linear program:
  - Minimizing a linear function subject to linear constraints.
  - We can efficiently solve 'medium-sized' linear programs: Matlab's 'linprog'.
  - There are other linear program formulations of this problems.

# (pause)

# Motivation: Identifying Important E-mails

- We have a big collection of e-mails:
  - Marked as 'important' if user took some action based on them.



- We want to write a program that identifies 'important' e-mails?
- Can we formulate as supervised learning?

# Supervised Learning Representation for E-mails

- For e-mail 'i', the target label y<sub>i</sub> is binary:
  - +1: "e-mail is important".
  - -1: "e-mail is not important".
  - Classification: supervised learning with discrete labels.
- What are the right features x<sub>i</sub> (basis) for e-mails?
  - Use bag of words:
    - "CPSC", "Expedia", "vicodin".
    - Binary "Expedia" feature is 1 if phrase "Expedia" is in the message, and 0 otherwise.
  - Could add phrases:
    - "you're a winner", "CPSC 540".
  - Could add regular expressions:
    - <recipient name>, <sender domain == "mail.com">

# Supervised Learning Representation for E-mails



- Can we make personalized predictions?
  - Some messages 'universally' important:
    - "This is your mother, something terrible happened, give me a call ASAP."
  - Some messages may be important to one user but not others.



# Predicting Importance of E-mail For New User

- Consider a new user:
  - Start out with no information about them.
  - Use global features to predict what is important to generic user.  $\hat{\chi_i} = sign(w_g x_g) = features/parameters shared across all users$
- With more data, update global features and user's local features:
  - Local features make prediction personalized.
- édiction personanzes.  $\hat{y}_i = sign(w_g x_g + w_h x_h) = features/parameters specific$ to user "u".• G-mails system: classification with logistic regression.

# **Classification Using Regression?**

- Usual approach to do binary classification with regression:
   Code y<sub>i</sub> as '+1' for one class and '-1' for the other class.
- Fit a linear regression model:

$$\begin{array}{l} f_{\lambda} = w_{1} x_{\lambda 1} + w_{\lambda} x_{\lambda 2} + \dots + w_{d} x_{\lambda d} \\ = w^{\top} x_{\lambda}, \\ f_{\lambda} \end{array}$$

• Classify by take the sign (i.e., closer '-1' or '+1'?):

$$\gamma_{i} = \operatorname{Sign}(w^{T} \chi_{i}).$$

#### **Classification using Regression**



# **Classification using Regression**

- Can use our tricks (e.g., RBF basis, regularization) for classification.
- But, usual error functions do weird things:



## **Classification Using Regression**

• What went wrong?











#### 0-1 Loss Function and Tractable Approximations

- The 0-1 loss function is the number of errors after taking the sign.
  - If a perfect classifier exists, you can find one as a linear program.
  - Otherwise, it's NP-hard to minimize 0-1 loss:
    - We do not expect that efficient algorithms exist.
- Tractable alternatives to 0-1 loss:
  - Hinge loss: upper-bound on 0-1 loss that can be written as linear program.
  - Logistic loss: differentiable function similar to hinge loss.

#### 0-1 Loss Function and Tractable Approximations



#### 0-1 Loss Function and Tractable Approximations



# Hinge Loss and Support Vector Machines

• Hinge loss is given by:

$$\min_{\substack{x \in \mathbb{R}^d}} \sum_{i=1}^n \max_{\substack{x \in \mathcal{O}_1}} \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{\substack{x \in \mathcal{O}_2}} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{\substack{x \in \mathcal{O}_2}} \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{\substack{x \in \mathcal{O}_2}} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{\substack{x \in \mathcal{O}_2}} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{\substack{x \in \mathcal{O}_2}} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{\substack{x \in \mathcal{O}_2}} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{\substack{x \in \mathcal{O}_2}} \sum_$$

- Can be written as a linear  $p^{\Lambda}$  ogram using our max trick.
- Solution will be a perfect classifier, if one exists.
- Support vector machine (SVM) is hinge loss with L2-regularization.

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{argmin} \quad \sum_{i=1}^{n} \max \{0, |-y_i w x_i\} + \frac{1}{2} ||w||^2 \\ \text{were} \end{array}$$

- Can be written as a quadratic program using our max trick
  - Quadratic objective with linear constraints.
- Solution will be perfect classifier, if one exists and  $\lambda$  is small enough.
- Maximizes margin: maximizes distance of data to decision boundary.

### Logistic Regression

• Logistic regression minimizes logistic loss:

$$\frac{\alpha \operatorname{rgmin}}{\operatorname{werk}^{d}} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \log(1 + \exp(-y_{j} w^{T} x_{j}))$$

- You can/should also add regularization:  $\begin{array}{l} \arg\min_{w \in R^d} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \log(1 + exp(-y_iw^Tx_j)) + \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 \\ \end{array}$
- These can't be written as linear/quadratic programs:
  - But they're differentiable: we'll discuss how to solve them next time.

# Logistic Regression and SVMs

- SVMs and logistic regression are used EVERYWHERE!
- Why?
  - Training and testing are both fast, even for "large-scale" problems.
  - It is easy to understand what the weights ' $w_i$ ' mean.
  - With high-dimensional features and regularization, often good test error.
  - Otherwise, often good test error with RBF basis and regularization.
  - For logistic regression, predictions have probabilistic interpretation.

If 
$$p(y_i = +||w_j x_i) = sign(w x_i)$$
 then minimizing logisfic loss corresponds to  
 $sign(z) = \frac{1}{1+exp(-z)}$  then minimizing logisfic loss corresponds to

# Maximum Likelihood Estimation

- Maximum likelihood estimate (MLE) in an abstract setting:
  - We have a dataset 'D'.
  - We want to pick a model 'h' from among set of models H.
  - We define the likelihood as a probability density p(D | h).
  - We choose the model 'h' that maximizes the likelihood:

$$h = \arg \max p(D | h)$$
  
he H

– If the data consists of 'n' IID samples ' $D_i$ ', then we equivalently have:

$$\hat{h} = \arg\max \prod_{i=1}^{n} p(D_i | h)$$
 Since independence implies  $p(D|h) = \pi p(D_i | h)$ 

- MLE has appealing properties as n ->  $\infty$  (take STAT 560/561)

# Negative Log-Likelihood

• In linear regression we predict y<sub>i</sub> conditioned on x<sub>i</sub>:

• MLE estimate of 'w' with IID data is:

argmax 
$$p(y|w, X) \iff argmax \prod_{i=1}^{n} p(y_i|w, X_i)$$
  
were  $p(y_i|w, X_i)$ 

• We can equivalently minimize negative log-likelihood (NLL):

#### **MLE Interpretation of Logistic Regression**

Assume 
$$p(y_i = +1 | w_j x_i) = \frac{1}{1 + exp(-w^T x_i)}$$
  
then we have  $p(y_i = -1 | w_j x_i) = 1 - p(y_i = +1 | w_j x_i)$   
 $= \frac{1}{1 + exp(w^T x_i)}$   
Compute MLE by minimizing negative  $lag - like lihool$ :  
 $argmin \stackrel{>}{=} -log(p(y_i | w_j x_i)) = argmin \stackrel{>}{=} -log(\frac{1}{1 + exp(-y_i w^T x_i)})$   
 $= argmin \stackrel{>}{=} log(1 + exp(-y_i w^T x_i))$   
 $= argmin \stackrel{>}{=} log(1 + exp(-y_i w^T x_i))$   
 $= log(2)$ 

**MLE Interpretation of Least Squares**  
Consider continuous yi with Gaussian likelihood: 
$$p(y_i | w_i x_i) = \frac{1}{0 \sqrt{2\pi}} exp(-\frac{(w^T x_i - y_i)^2}{2\sigma^2})$$
  
We also sometimes write this as  $y_i \sim \mathcal{N}(w^T x_i, \sigma^2)$   $\propto exp(-\frac{(w^T x_i - y_i)^2}{2\sigma^2})$   
equal up to constant not depending on  $y_i$   
MLE with Gaussian likelihood is least squares:  
 $\arg_{w \in \mathbb{R}^d} = \log(p(y_i | w_i x_i)) \iff 2 \arg_{w \in \mathbb{R}^d} \sum_{i=1}^n -\log(\frac{1}{0 \sqrt{2\pi}}) + \frac{(w^T x_i - y_i)^2}{2\sigma^2})$   
 $\ll exp(-\frac{(w^T x_i - y_i)^2}{2\sigma^2})$   
 $\ll exp(-\frac{(w^T x_i - y_i)^2}{2\sigma^2})$   
 $\ll exp(-\frac{(w^T x_i - y_i)^2}{2\sigma^2})$   
 $\iff argmin_{w \in \mathbb{R}^d} \sum_{i=1}^n -\log(\frac{1}{0 \sqrt{2\pi}}) + \frac{(w^T x_i - y_i)^2}{2\sigma^2})$   
 $\iff argmin_{w \in \mathbb{R}^d} \sum_{i=1}^n -\log(w^T x_i - y_i)^2 \iff argmin_{w \in \mathbb{R}^d} ||x|w - y||^2$ 

## Discussion: Probabilistic Interpretation

- Why is probabilistic interpretation important?
  - We can return a probabilistic prediction:

Instead of  $\hat{y}_i = 1$ , say that  $p(\hat{y}_i = 1 | w_i x_i) = 77\%$  $\underbrace{\text{Or}}_{p(\hat{y}_i} = 1 | w_i x_i) = 51\%$ 

- For complicated  $y_i$ , it may be easier to define probability than loss.
- We can talk about maximizing utility:

Predict / True	True 'spam'	True 'not spam'	Predict "not spam"		
Predict 'spam'	TP: 0	FP: 100			
Predict 'not spam'	FN: 10	TN: 0	even it yi = "spam"		
$E\left[C\left(\hat{y}_{r}=spam\right)\right]=$	$p(y_{i} = span   x_{i})C(x_{i}) = not span   x_{i})C(x_{i}) = not span   x_{i})C(x_{i})$	$(y_{i} = spam_{y_{i}} = spam_{y_{i}} = spam_{y_{i}} = spam_{y_{i}} = not spam_{y_{i}}$	if expected cost of "not spam" is lower.		

# Problem with Maximum Likelihood

• Maximum likelihood estimate:

- Data viewed as random variable, model comes from fixed family.
- A problem with MLE:
  - data could be very likely in some very unlikely model from family.
  - E.g., complex model overfits by memorizing the data.

# Maximum a Posteriori (MAP) Estimation

• Maximum a posteriori (MAP) estimate maximizes reverse:

- Model is a random variable, and we need to find most likely model.
- Using Bayes' rule, we have  $p(h|D) = p(D|h)p(h) \propto p(D|h)p(h)$ .

- Prior p(h) is 'belief' that 'h' is the correct model before seeing data:
  - Can take into account that complex models are likely to overfit.

#### **MAP Estimation and Regularization**

• MAP is equivalent to minimizing NLL plus negative log-prior.

### MAP Estimation and Regularization

• So MAP estimation looks like fitting regularized loss function:

$$\begin{array}{l} \operatorname{Argmax} p(w|y,X) & \quad \text{argmm} \quad \sum_{i=1}^{n} -\log\left(p(y_{i}|w_{x}x_{i})\right) - \log\left(p(w)\right) \\ & \quad \text{were} \end{array}$$

• L2-regularization corresponds to independent Gaussian prior:  $W_{j} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{O}, \mathcal{A}^{-1}) \iff \rho(w_{j} | \mathcal{A}) \ll exp(-\frac{\lambda}{2}w_{j}^{2})$   $p(w_{j} | \mathcal{A}) \ll \frac{\pi}{j=1} exp(-\frac{\lambda}{2}w_{j}^{2}) = exp(-\frac{\lambda}{2}\int_{j=1}^{\infty}w_{j}^{2}) = exp(-\frac{\lambda}{2}||w||^{2})$ So MAP estimate is:  $argmin_{j=1} \sim -log(\rho(y_{i}|w_{j}x_{i})) + \frac{\lambda}{2}||w||^{2}$ 

# Summary

- Radial basis functions: non-parametric universal basis.
- Robust regression models: more suitable when we have outliers.
- Converting non-smooth problems to constrained smooth problems.
- SVMs and logistic regression: more suitable losses for classification.
- MLE and MAP: probabilistic interpretation to losses/regularizers.
- Next time:
  - Why is 0-1 hard but logistic regression easy?
  - How do we solve "large-scale" problems?