# CSCI567 Machine Learning (Fall 2020)

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U of Southern California

Sep 10, 2020

## Administration

 $\bullet$  HW 1 is due on Tue, 9/15.

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- Last week to enroll.

### Outline

- Review of Last Lecture
- 2 Linear Classifier and Surrogate Losses
- Perceptron
- 4 Logistic regression

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## Regression

#### Predicting a continuous outcome variable using past observations

• temperature, amount of rainfall, house price, etc.

#### **Key difference from classification**

- continuous vs discrete
- measure *prediction errors* differently.
- lead to quite different learning algorithms.

**Linear Regression:** regression with linear models:  $f(w) = w^{T}x$ 

## Least square solution

$$\mathbf{w}^* = \underset{\mathbf{w}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \operatorname{RSS}(\mathbf{w})$$

$$= \underset{\mathbf{w}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}\|_2^2$$

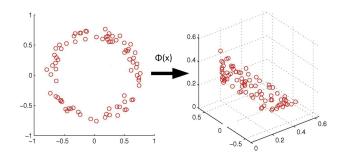
$$= (\mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{y}$$

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}_1^{\mathrm{T}} \\ \mathbf{x}_2^{\mathrm{T}} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{x}_N^{\mathrm{T}} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{y} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_N \end{pmatrix}$$

Two approaches to find the minimum:

- find stationary points by setting gradient = 0
- "complete the square"

# Regression with nonlinear basis



Model:  $f(\boldsymbol{x}) = \boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{x})$  where  $\boldsymbol{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{M}$ 

Similar least square solution:  $oldsymbol{w}^* = \left( oldsymbol{\Phi}^{\mathrm{T}} oldsymbol{\Phi} \right)^{-1} oldsymbol{\Phi}^{\mathrm{T}} oldsymbol{y}$ 

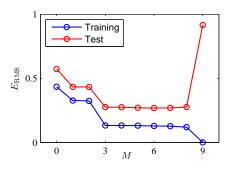
# **Underfitting and Overfitting**

 $M \leq 2$  is *underfitting* the data

- large training error
- large test error

 $M \geq 9$  is *overfitting* the data

- small training error
- large test error



How to prevent overfitting? more data + regularization

$$\boldsymbol{w}^* = \operatorname*{argmin}_{\boldsymbol{w}} \left( \mathrm{RSS}(\boldsymbol{w}) + \lambda \|\boldsymbol{w}\|_2^2 \right) = \left( \boldsymbol{\Phi}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\Phi} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I} \right)^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Phi}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{y}$$

# General idea to derive ML algorithms

Step 1. Pick a set of models  $\mathcal{F}$ 

- ullet e.g.  $\mathcal{F} = \{f(oldsymbol{x}) = oldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}} oldsymbol{x} \mid oldsymbol{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathsf{D}} \}$
- ullet e.g.  $\mathcal{F} = \{f(oldsymbol{x}) = oldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}} oldsymbol{\Phi}(oldsymbol{x}) \mid oldsymbol{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathsf{M}} \}$

Step 2. Define **error/loss** L(y', y)

Step 3. Find empirical risk minimizer (ERM):

$$f^* = \underset{f \in \mathcal{F}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{n=1}^{N} L(f(x_n), y_n)$$

or regularized empirical risk minimizer:

$$f^* = \underset{f \in \mathcal{F}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{n=1}^{N} L(f(x_n), y_n) + \lambda R(f)$$

ML becomes optimization

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### Classification

### Recall the setup:

- ullet input (feature vector):  $oldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathsf{D}}$
- output (label):  $y \in [C] = \{1, 2, \cdots, C\}$
- ullet goal: learn a mapping  $f:\mathbb{R}^{\mathsf{D}} o [\mathsf{C}]$

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- Number of classes: C=2
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#### We have discussed **nearest neighbor classifier**:

- require carrying the training set
- more like a heuristic

Let's follow the recipe:

**Step 1**. Pick a set of models  $\mathcal{F}$ .

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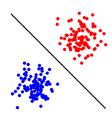
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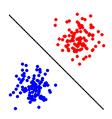
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*Sign* of  $w^{\mathrm{T}}x$  predicts the label:

$$\mathsf{sign}(\boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{x}) = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} +1 & \text{if } \boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{x} > 0 \\ -1 & \text{if } \boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{x} \leq 0 \end{array} \right.$$

(Sometimes use sgn for sign too.)



The set of (separating) hyperplanes:

$$\mathcal{F} = \{ f(\boldsymbol{x}) = \operatorname{sgn}(\boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{x}) \mid \boldsymbol{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathsf{D}} \}$$

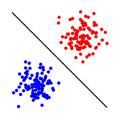
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Good choice for *linearly separable* data, i.e.,  $\exists w$  s.t.

$$\operatorname{sgn}(\boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{x_n}) = y_n$$

for all  $n \in [N]$ .



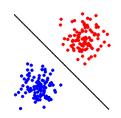
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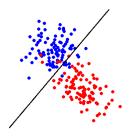
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$$\operatorname{sgn}(\boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{x}_{n}) = y_{n} \quad \text{ or } \quad y_{n}\boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{x}_{n} > 0$$

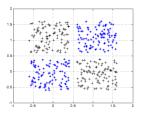
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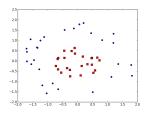


Still makes sense for "almost" linearly separable data

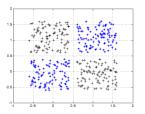


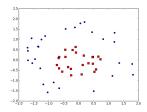
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Again can apply a **nonlinear mapping**  $\Phi$ :

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More discussions in the next two lectures.

## 0-1 Loss

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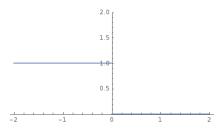
#### 0-1 Loss

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For classification, more convenient to look at the loss as a function of  $yw^Tx$ . That is, with

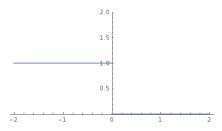
$$\ell_{0\text{-}1}(z) = \mathbb{I}[z \le 0]$$



the loss for hyperplane  $\boldsymbol{w}$  on example  $(\boldsymbol{x},y)$  is  $\ell_{0\text{--}1}(y\boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{x})$ 

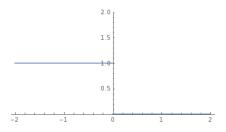
# Minimizing 0-1 loss is hard

However, 0-1 loss is not convex.



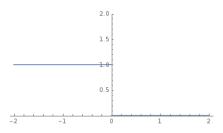
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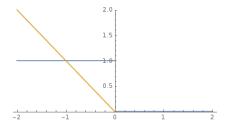


Even worse, minimizing 0-1 loss is NP-hard in general.

### Solution: find a convex surrogate loss

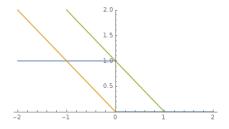


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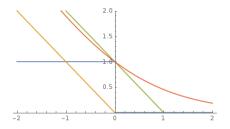
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- hinge loss  $\ell_{\text{hinge}}(z) = \max\{0, 1-z\}$  (used in SVM and many others)
- logistic loss  $\ell_{\text{logistic}}(z) = \log(1 + \exp(-z))$  (used in logistic regression; the base of  $\log$  doesn't matter)

# ML becomes convex optimization

#### Step 3. Find ERM:

$$\boldsymbol{w}^* = \operatorname*{argmin}_{\boldsymbol{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathsf{D}}} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \ell(y_n \boldsymbol{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{x}_n) = \operatorname*{argmin}_{\boldsymbol{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathsf{D}}} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \ell(y_n \boldsymbol{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{x}_n)$$

where  $\ell(\cdot)$  can be perceptron/hinge/logistic loss

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Note: minimizing perceptron loss does not really make sense (try w=0), but the algorithm derived from this perspective does.

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  - Applying (S)GD to perceptron loss
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## The Perceptron Algorithm

In one sentence: Stochastic Gradient Descent applied to perceptron loss

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i.e. find the minimizer of

$$F(\boldsymbol{w}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \ell_{\mathsf{perceptron}}(y_n \boldsymbol{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{x}_n)$$
$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \max\{0, -y_n \boldsymbol{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{x}_n\}$$

using SGD

## A detour of numerical optimization methods

We describe two simple yet extremely popular methods

- Gradient Descent (GD): simple and fundamental
- Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD): faster, effective for large-scale problems

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Gradient is sometimes referred to as *first-order* information of a function. Therefore, these methods are called *first-order methods*.

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Start from some  $w^{(0)}$ . For t = 0, 1, 2, ...

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where  $\eta>0$  is called step size or learning rate

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- ullet in theory  $\eta$  should be set in terms of some parameters of F
- in practice we just try several small values

Example: 
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• until  $F(w^{(t)})$  does not change much

Intuition: by first-order **Taylor approximation** 

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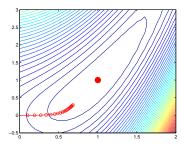
$$F(\mathbf{w}^{(t+1)}) \approx F(\mathbf{w}^{(t)}) - \eta \|\nabla F(\mathbf{w}^{(t)})\|_{2}^{2} \le F(\mathbf{w}^{(t)})$$

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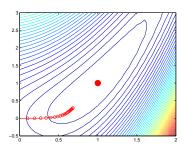
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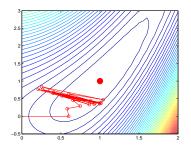
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but large  $\eta$  is unstable

# Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD)

GD: keep moving in the negative gradient direction

SGD: keep moving in some *noisy* negative gradient direction

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where  $\tilde{\nabla} F(\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)})$  is a random variable (called **stochastic gradient**) s.t.

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Key point: it could be much faster to obtain a stochastic gradient!

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Many for both GD and SGD on convex objectives.

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Even for *nonconvex objectives*, many recent works show effectiveness of GD/SGD.

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Slow: each update makes one pass of the entire training set!

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clearly unbiased (convince yourself).

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**Exercise**: try SGD to minimize RSS for linear regression.

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#### Note:

- ullet w is always a *linear combination* of the training examples
- ullet why  $\eta=1$ ? Does not really matter in terms of training error

## Why does it make sense?

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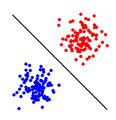
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Thus it is more likely to get it right after the update.

## Any theory?

### (HW 1) If training set is linearly separable

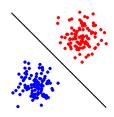
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There are also guarantees when the data are not linearly separable.

### Outline

- Review of Last Lecture
- 2 Linear Classifier and Surrogate Losses
- Perceptron
- 4 Logistic regression
  - A Probabilistic View
  - Optimization

## A simple view

In one sentence: find the minimizer of

$$F(\boldsymbol{w}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \ell_{\text{logistic}}(y_n \boldsymbol{w}^{\text{T}} \boldsymbol{x}_n)$$
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But why logistic loss? and why "regression"?

## Predicting probability

Instead of predicting a discrete label, can we *predict the probability of each label?* i.e. regress the probabilities

## Predicting probability

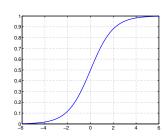
Instead of predicting a discrete label, can we *predict the probability of each label?* i.e. regress the probabilities

One way: sigmoid function + linear model

$$\mathbb{P}(y = +1 \mid \boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{w}) = \sigma(\boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x})$$

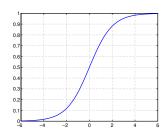
where  $\sigma$  is the sigmoid function:

$$\sigma(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$$



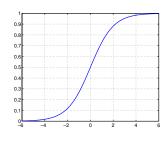
# Properties of sigmoid $\sigma(z) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-z}}$

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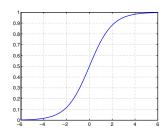
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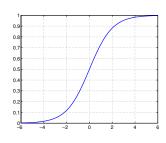
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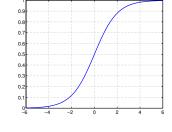
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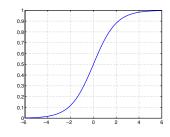


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What we observe are labels, not probabilities.

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Specifically, what is the probability of seeing label  $y_1, \dots, y_n$  given  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ , as a function of some w?

$$P(\boldsymbol{w}) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} \mathbb{P}(y_n \mid \boldsymbol{x_n}; \boldsymbol{w})$$

MLE: find  $w^*$  that maximizes the probability P(w)

$$\boldsymbol{w}^* = \operatorname*{argmax}_{\boldsymbol{w}} P(\boldsymbol{w}) = \operatorname*{argmax}_{\boldsymbol{w}} \prod_{n=1}^{N} \mathbb{P}(y_n \mid \boldsymbol{x_n}; \boldsymbol{w})$$

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$$= \underset{\mathbf{w}}{\operatorname{argmin}} F(\mathbf{w})$$

i.e. minimizing logistic loss is exactly doing MLE for the sigmoid model!

$$\boldsymbol{w} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{w} - \eta \tilde{\nabla} F(\boldsymbol{w})$$

$$m{w} \leftarrow m{w} - \eta \tilde{\nabla} F(m{w})$$
  
=  $m{w} - \eta \nabla_{m{w}} \ell_{ ext{logistic}}(y_n m{w}^{ ext{T}} m{x}_n)$   $(n \in [N] \text{ is drawn u.a.r.})$ 

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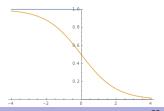
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This is a soft version of Perceptron!

$$\mathbb{P}(-y_n|oldsymbol{x}_n;oldsymbol{w})$$
 versus  $\mathbb{I}[y_n 
eq \mathsf{sgn}(oldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}}oldsymbol{x}_n)]$ 



### A second-order method: Newton method

Recall the intuition of GD: we look at first-order Taylor approximation

$$F(\boldsymbol{w}) \approx F(\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)}) + \nabla F(\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)})^{\mathrm{T}}(\boldsymbol{w} - \boldsymbol{w}^{(t)})$$

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where  $\boldsymbol{H}_t = \nabla^2 F(\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)}) \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathsf{D} \times \mathsf{D}}$  is the *Hessian* of F at  $\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)}$ , i.e.,

$$H_{t,ij} = \frac{\partial^2 F(\boldsymbol{w})}{\partial w_i \partial w_j} \Big|_{\boldsymbol{w} = \boldsymbol{w}^{(t)}}$$

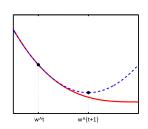
(think "second derivative" when D=1)

### Deriving Newton method

If we minimize the second-order approximation (via "complete the square")

$$F(\boldsymbol{w})$$

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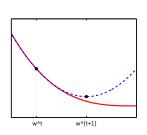
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$$= \frac{1}{2}\left(\boldsymbol{w} - \boldsymbol{w}^{(t)} + \boldsymbol{H}_{t}^{-1}\nabla F(\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)})\right)^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{H}_{t}\left(\boldsymbol{w} - \boldsymbol{w}^{(t)} + \boldsymbol{H}_{t}^{-1}\nabla F(\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)})\right) + \mathrm{cnt}$$

for convex F (so  $H_t$  is *positive semidefinite*) we obtain **Newton method**:

$$\boldsymbol{w}^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{w}^{(t)} - \boldsymbol{H}_t^{-1} \nabla F(\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)})$$



$$\begin{aligned} & \boldsymbol{w}^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{w}^{(t)} - \eta \nabla F(\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)}) \\ & \boldsymbol{w}^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{w}^{(t)} - \boldsymbol{H}_t^{-1} \nabla F(\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)}) \end{aligned} \tag{Newton}$$

Both are iterative optimization procedures,

$$\boldsymbol{w}^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{w}^{(t)} - \eta \nabla F(\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)})$$

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  - e.g. how many iterations needed when applied to a quadratic?
- requires second-order information and is slow each iteration (there are many ways to improve it though)

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#### Exercises:

• why is the Hessian of logistic loss positive semidefinite?

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#### Exercises:

- why is the Hessian of logistic loss positive semidefinite?
- can we apply Newton method to perceptron/hinge loss?

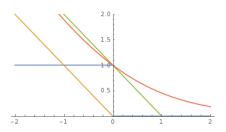
# Summary

Linear models for classification:

Step 1. Model is the set of separating hyperplanes

$$\mathcal{F} = \{ f(\boldsymbol{x}) = \operatorname{sgn}(\boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{x}) \mid \boldsymbol{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathsf{D}} \}$$

#### Step 2. Pick the surrogate loss



- perceptron loss  $\ell_{perceptron}(z) = \max\{0, -z\}$  (used in Perceptron)
- hinge loss  $\ell_{\mathsf{hinge}}(z) = \max\{0, 1-z\}$  (used in SVM and many others)
- $\bullet$  logistic loss  $\ell_{\rm logistic}(z) = \log(1 + \exp(-z))$  (used in logistic regression)

Step 3. Find empirical risk minimizer (ERM):

$$\boldsymbol{w}^* = \operatorname*{argmin}_{\boldsymbol{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathsf{D}}} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \ell(y_n \boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}_n)$$

using GD/SGD/Newton.