

CSCI567 Machine Learning (Spring 2021)

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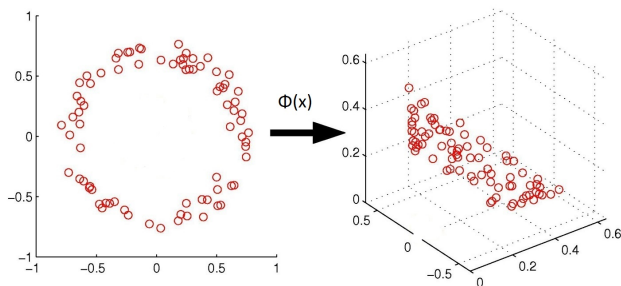
Outline

- 1 Review of Last Lecture
- 2 Linear Classifier and Surrogate Losses
- 3 Perceptron

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Regression with nonlinear basis



Model: $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^\top \phi(\mathbf{x})$ where $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^M$

Similar least square solution: $\mathbf{w}^* = (\Phi^\top \Phi)^{-1} \Phi^\top \mathbf{y}$

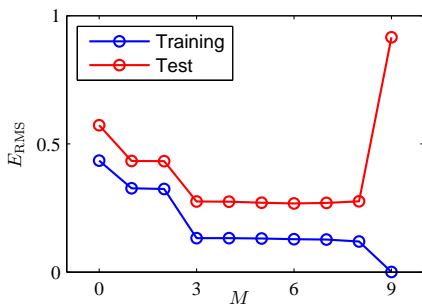
Underfitting and Overfitting

$M \leq 2$ 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

$$\mathbf{w}^* = \underset{\mathbf{w}}{\operatorname{argmin}} (\operatorname{RSS}(\mathbf{w}) + \lambda \|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2) = (\Phi^T \Phi + \lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1} \Phi^T \mathbf{y}$$

General idea to derive ML algorithms

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

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

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

Step 3. Find **empirical risk minimizer (ERM)**:

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

or **regularized empirical risk minimizer**:

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

ML becomes optimization

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Classification

Recall the setup:

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

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This lecture: **binary classification**

- Number of classes: $C = 2$
- Labels: $\{-1, +1\}$ (cat or dog, fraud or not, price up or down...)

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We have discussed **nearest neighbor classifier**:

- require carrying the training set
- more like a heuristic

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Let's follow the recipe:

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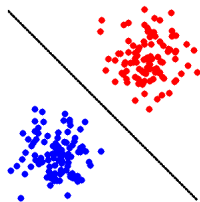
Again try linear models, but how to predict a label using $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}$?

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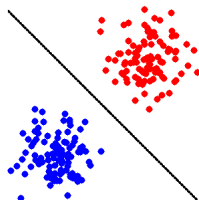
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Sign of $w^T x$ predicts the label:

$$\text{sign}(w^T x) = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } w^T x > 0 \\ -1 & \text{if } w^T x \leq 0 \end{cases}$$

(Sometimes use sgn for sign too.)



The models

The set of **(separating) hyperplanes**:

$$\mathcal{F} = \{f(\mathbf{x}) = \text{sgn}(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}) \mid \mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^D\}$$

The models

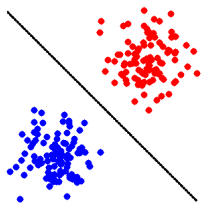
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Good choice for *linearly separable* data, i.e., $\exists \mathbf{w}$ s.t.

$$\text{sgn}(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_n) = y_n$$

for all $n \in [N]$.



The models

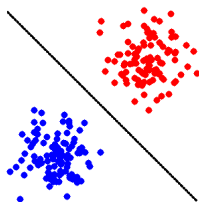
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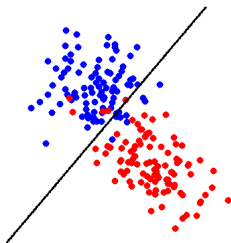
$$\text{sgn}(w^T x_n) = y_n \quad \text{or} \quad y_n w^T x_n > 0$$

for all $n \in [N]$.



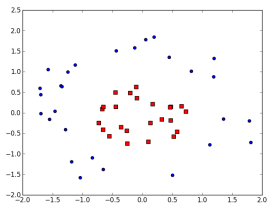
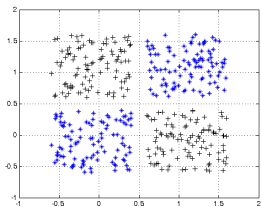
The models

Still makes sense for “almost” linearly separable data



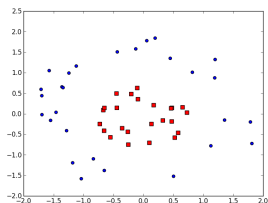
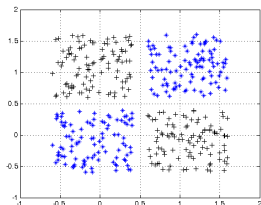
The models

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Again can apply a **nonlinear mapping** Φ :

$$\mathcal{F} = \{f(x) = \text{sgn}(w^T \Phi(x)) \mid w \in \mathbb{R}^M\}$$

More discussions in the next two lectures.

0-1 Loss

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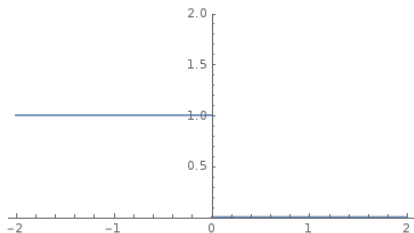
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For classification, more convenient to look at the loss **as a function of** $yw^T x$ (see ESL 4.5). That is, with

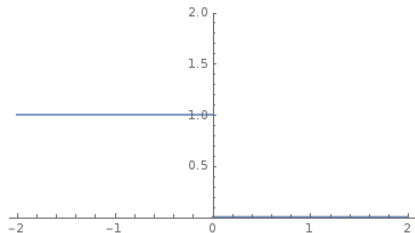
$$\ell_{0-1}(z) = \mathbb{I}[z \leq 0]$$



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

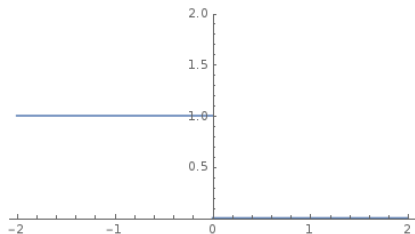
Minimizing 0-1 loss is hard

However, 0-1 loss is *not convex*.



Minimizing 0-1 loss is hard

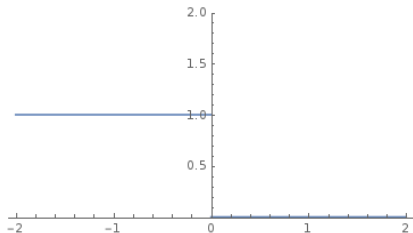
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Even worse, minimizing 0-1 loss is *NP-hard in general*.

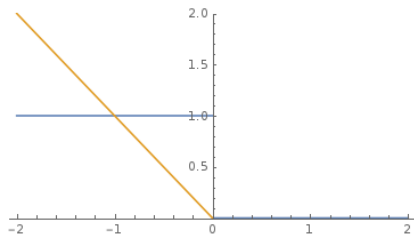
Surrogate Losses

Solution: find a **convex surrogate loss**



Surrogate Losses

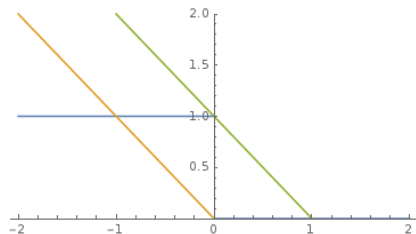
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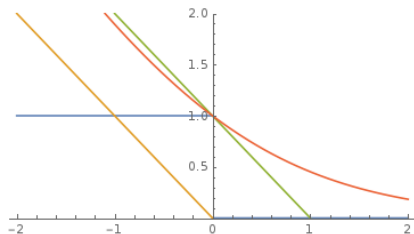
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- **hinge loss** $\ell_{\text{hinge}}(z) = \max\{0, 1 - z\}$ (used in SVM and many others)
- **logistic loss** $\ell_{\text{logistic}}(z) = \log(1 + \exp(-z))$ (used in logistic regression; the base of \log doesn't matter)

ML becomes convex optimization

Step 3. Find ERM:

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

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

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

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 - Numerical optimization
 - Applying (S)GD to perceptron loss

The Perceptron Algorithm

In one sentence: Stochastic Gradient Descent applied to perceptron loss

The Perceptron Algorithm

In one sentence: **Stochastic Gradient Descent applied to perceptron loss**

i.e. find the minimizer of

$$\begin{aligned} F(\mathbf{w}) &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \ell_{\text{perceptron}}(y_n \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_n) \\ &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \max\{0, -y_n \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_n\} \end{aligned}$$

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 Descent (GD)**: simple and fundamental
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Gradient is sometimes referred to as *first-order* information of a function. Therefore, these methods are called *first-order methods*.

Gradient Descent (GD)

Goal: minimize $F(\mathbf{w})$

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

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

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- in theory η should be set in terms of some parameters of F
- in practice we just try several small values

An example

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- until $F(\mathbf{w}^{(t)})$ **does not change much**

Why GD?

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

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

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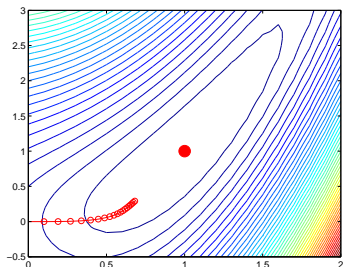
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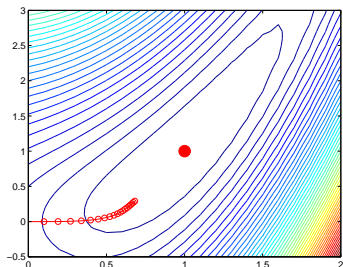
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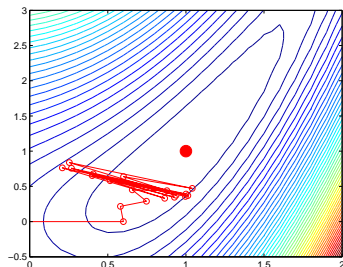
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but large η is unstable

Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD)

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where $\tilde{\nabla} F(\mathbf{w}^{(t)})$ 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!*

Convergence Guarantees

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.

Applying GD to perceptron loss

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(only misclassified examples contribute to the gradient)

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

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One common trick: pick one example $n \in [N]$ uniformly at random, let

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Exercise: try SGD to minimize RSS for linear regression.

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Note:

- \mathbf{w} is always a *linear combination* of the training examples

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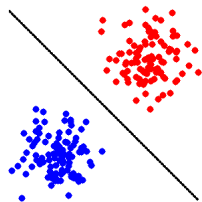
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Thus it is more likely to get it right after the update.

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(HW 1) If training set is linearly separable

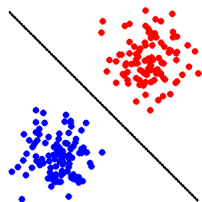
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There are also guarantees when the data are not linearly separable.