STA 314: Statistical Methods for Machine Learning I Lecture 5 - Linear Classification

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- We have used the word "bias" in two distinct ways that may be confusing. I apologize for this, it's the ML community's fault for using confusing jargon.
- We used the word "bias" to discuss one of the error terms in the MSE loss of a predictor

$$(y^{\star}(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbb{E}[\hat{y}^{\star} \,|\, \mathbf{x}])^{2} \tag{1}$$

 We also used the word "bias" to describe the parameter b in linear regression.

$$\mathbf{w}^{\top}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b} \tag{2}$$

 These mean different things and it should hopefully be clear from context. I will try to call b the bias parameter.

Intro ML(UofT) STA314-Lec5 2/43

)verview

- Classification: predicting a discrete-valued target
 - Binary classification: predicting a binary-valued target
 - ► Multiclass classification: predicting a discrete(> 2)-valued target
- Examples of binary classification
 - predict whether a patient has a disease, given the presence or absence of various symptoms
 - classify e-mails as spam or non-spam
 - predict whether a financial transaction is fraudulent

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Today's Agenda

Today's agenda:

- Binary classification.
 - Model, loss function
 - Limitations
- Logistic regression and convexity.
- Gradient descent for binary classification.

Binary linear classification

- ullet classification: given a D-dimensional input $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^D$ predict a discrete-valued target
- binary: predict a binary target $t \in \{0, 1\}$
 - ▶ Training examples with t = 1 are called positive examples, and training examples with t = 0 are called negative examples. Sorry.
 - ▶ $t \in \{0,1\}$ or $t \in \{-1,+1\}$ is for computational convenience.
- **linear:** model prediction *y* is a linear function of **x**, followed by a threshold *r*:

$$z = \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x} + b$$
$$y = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } z \ge r \\ 0 & \text{if } z < r \end{cases}$$

Some Simplifications

• Eliminating the threshold. Assume without loss of generality (WLOG) that the threshold r = 0:

$$\mathbf{w}^{\top}\mathbf{x} + b \ge r \iff \mathbf{w}^{\top}\mathbf{x} + \underbrace{b - r}_{\triangleq \mathbf{w}_0} \ge 0.$$

- Eliminating the bias parameter. Add a dummy feature x_0 which always takes the value 1. The weight $w_0 = b$ is equivalent to a bias parameter (same as linear regression).
- **Simplified model.** Receive input $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{D+1}$ with $x_0 = 1$:

$$z = \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x}$$
$$y = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } z \ge 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } z < 0 \end{cases}$$

Examples

- Let's consider some simple examples to examine the properties of our model
- Let's focus on minimizing the training set error, and forget about whether our model will generalize to a test set.

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NOT

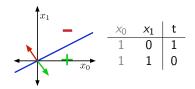
$$\begin{array}{c|cccc} x_0 & x_1 & t \\ \hline 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ \end{array}$$

- Suppose this is our training set, with the dummy feature x_0 included.
- Which conditions on w_0, w_1 guarantee perfect classification?
 - ▶ When $x_1 = 0$, need: $z = w_0 x_0 + w_1 x_1 \ge 0 \iff w_0 \ge 0$
 - ▶ When $x_1 = 1$, need: $z = w_0 x_0 + w_1 x_1 < 0 \iff w_0 + w_1 < 0$
- Example solution: $w_0 = 1, w_1 = -2$
- Is this the only solution?

AND

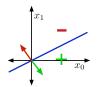
Example solution: $w_0 = -1.5$, $w_1 = 1$, $w_2 = 1$

Input Space, or Data Space for NOT example



- Training examples are points
- Weights (hypotheses) **w** can be represented by half-spaces $H_{+} = \{ \mathbf{x} : \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x} \ge 0 \}, H_{-} = \{ \mathbf{x} : \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x} < 0 \}$
 - ► The boundaries of these half-spaces pass through the origin (why?)
- The boundary is the decision boundary: $\{\mathbf{x} : \mathbf{w}^{\top}\mathbf{x} = 0\}$
 - ▶ In 2-D, it's a line, but in high dimensions it is a hyperplane
- If the training examples can be perfectly separated by a linear decision rule, we say data is linearly separable.

Weight Space





$$w_0 \ge 0$$

$$w_0 + w_1 < 0$$

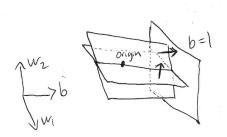
- Weights (hypotheses) w are points
- Each training example \mathbf{x} specifies a half-space \mathbf{w} must lie in to be correctly classified: $\mathbf{w}^{\top}\mathbf{x} \geq 0$ if t = 1.
- For NOT example:

$$x_0 = 1, x_1 = 0, t = 1 \implies (w_0, w_1) \in \{ \mathbf{w} : w_0 \ge 0 \}$$

$$x_0 = 1, x_1 = 1, t = 0 \implies (w_0, w_1) \in \{\mathbf{w} : w_0 + w_1 < 0\}$$

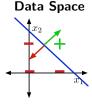
• The region satisfying all the constraints is the feasible region; if this region is nonempty, the problem is feasible, otw it is infeasible.

- The **AND** example requires three dimensions, including the dummy one.
- To visualize data space and weight space for a 3-D example, we can look at a 2-D slice:



• The visualizations are similar, except that the decision boundaries and the constraints need not pass through the origin.

Visualizations of the **AND** example



Weight Space



- Slice for $x_0 = 1$ and
- example sol: $w_0 = -1.5$, $w_1 = 1$, $w_2 = 1$
- decision boundary:

$$w_0x_0+w_1x_1+w_2x_2=0$$

$$\implies -1.5 + x_1 + x_2 = 0$$

- Slice for $w_0 = -1.5$ for the constraints

$$- w_0 < 0$$

$$- w_0 + w_2 < 0$$

$$- w_0 + w_1 < 0$$

-
$$w_0 + w_1 + w_2 \ge 0$$

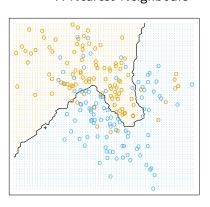
STA314-Lec5 13 / 43 Linear Classifiers vs. KNN

Linear Classifiers vs. KNN

Linear classifiers and KNN have very different decision boundaries:

Linear Classifier

K Nearest Neighbours



Linear Classifiers vs. KNN

- KNN models are typical higher variance, low bias.
- Linear classifiers are low variance, high bias.
- Computing the prediction of a KNN model is more computationally expensive than a linear at test time.
- Fitting linear classifiers is more computationally expensive than KNN at training time.

How bad is the bias of linear classifiers? Some datasets are not linearly separable, e.g. **XOR**



Visually obvious, but how to show this? Let's consider the structure of linear classifier predictions.

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Convex Sets



• A set S is convex if any line segment connecting points in S lies entirely within S. Mathematically,

$$\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \in \mathcal{S} \implies \lambda \mathbf{x}_1 + (1 - \lambda)\mathbf{x}_2 \in \mathcal{S} \text{ for } 0 \leq \lambda \leq 1.$$

• A simple inductive argument shows that for $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N \in \mathcal{S}$, weighted averages, or convex combinations, lie within the set:

$$\lambda_1 \mathbf{x}_1 + \cdots + \lambda_N \mathbf{x}_N \in \mathcal{S} \quad \text{for } \lambda_i > 0, \ \lambda_1 + \cdots + \lambda_N = 1.$$

Convex Sets



- For a linear classifier, the set of points that have the same prediction is a convex set. To see why consider $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \in \mathbb{R}^D$ with prediction y = 1:
- I.e., $\mathbf{w}^{\top}\mathbf{x}_1 \geq 0$, $\mathbf{w}^{\top}\mathbf{x}_2 \geq 0$. Then, for $0 \leq \lambda \leq 1$ consider the point $\lambda \mathbf{x}_1 + (1 \lambda)\mathbf{x}_2$. This point is also labelled y = 1:

$$\mathbf{w}^{\top}(\lambda \mathbf{x}_1 + (1 - \lambda)\mathbf{x}_2) = \lambda \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x}_1 + (1 - \lambda)\mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x}_2$$

$$\geq \lambda \cdot 0 + (1 - \lambda) \cdot 0$$

$$= 0$$

• Similar for two points with prediction y = 0.

Showing that XOR is not linearly separable (proof by contradiction)

- If two points have the same prediction, then all points on the line segment connecting them also have the same prediction.
- Suppose there were some feasible weights (hypothesis) that perfectly classify the XOR set.
- If this hypothesis predicts y = 1 for all positive examples, then points on the green line segment must have prediction y = 1.
- Similarly, the points on the red line segment must all have prediction y = 0.



• But hypothesis cannot predict both y=1 and y=0 for the intersection. Contradiction!

 Sometimes we can overcome this limitation using feature maps, just like for linear regression. E.g., for XOR:

$$\psi(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_1 x_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

x_1	<i>x</i> ₂	$\psi_1(\mathbf{x})$	$\psi_2(\mathbf{x})$	$\psi_{3}(x)$	t
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	1	0	1
1	0	1	0	0	1
1	1	1	1	1	0

• This is linearly separable. (Try it!)

Summary — Binary Linear Classifiers

• Summary: Targets $t \in \{0,1\}$, inputs $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{D+1}$ with $x_0 = 1$, and model is defined by weights \mathbf{w} and

$$z = \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x}$$
$$y = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } z \ge 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } z < 0 \end{cases}$$

Towards Logistic Regression

Loss Functions

- How can we find good values for w?
- If training set is linearly separable, we could solve for w using linear programming
 - We could also apply an iterative procedure known as the perceptron algorithm (but this is primarily of historical interest).
- If it's not linearly separable, the problem is harder
 - Data is almost never linearly separable in real life.
- Instead: define loss function then try to minimize the resulting cost function
 - Recall: cost is loss averaged (or summed) over the training set

Attempt 1: 0-1 loss

Seemingly obvious loss function: 0-1 loss

$$L_{0-1}(y,t) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } y = t \\ 1 & \text{if } y \neq t \end{cases}$$
$$= \mathbb{I}[y \neq t]$$

• The $\hat{\mathcal{R}}$ is the averaged loss over training examples; for 0-1 loss, this is the misclassification rate:

$$\hat{\mathcal{R}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{I}[y^{(i)} \neq t^{(i)}]$$

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Attempt 1: 0-1 loss

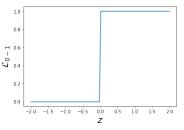
- Problem: how to optimize? In general, a hard problem (can be very hard computationally)
- This is due to the step function (0-1 loss) not being nice (continuous/smooth/convex etc)

Attempt 1: 0-1 loss

- Minimum of a function will be at its critical points.
- Let's try to find the critical point of 0-1 loss
- Chain rule:

$$\frac{\partial L_{0-1}}{\partial w_j} = \frac{\partial L_{0-1}}{\partial z} \frac{\partial z}{\partial w_j}$$

• But $\partial L_{0-1}/\partial z$ is zero everywhere it's defined!



▶ $\partial L_{0-1}/\partial w_j = 0$ means that changing the weights by a very small amount probably has no effect on the loss.

► Almost any point has 0 gradient!

Attempt 2: Linear Regression

- Sometimes we can replace the loss function we care about with one which is easier to optimize. This is known as relaxation with a smooth surrogate loss function.
- One problem with L_{0-1} : defined in terms of final prediction, which inherently involves a discontinuity
- Instead, define loss in terms of $\mathbf{w}^{\top}\mathbf{x}$ directly
 - Redo notation for convenience: $z = \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x}$

Attempt 2: Linear Regression

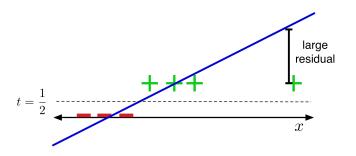
 We already know how to fit a linear regression model. Can we use this instead?

$$z = \mathbf{w}^{ op} \mathbf{x}$$
 $L_{ ext{SE}}(z,t) = rac{1}{2}(z-t)^2$

- Doesn't matter that the targets are actually binary. Treat them as continuous values.
- For this loss function, it makes sense to make final predictions by thresholding z at $\frac{1}{2}$ (why?)

Attempt 2: Linear Regression

The problem:



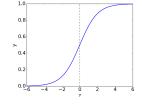
- The loss function hates when you make correct predictions with high confidence!
- If t = 1, it's more unhappy about z = 10 than z = 0.

Attempt 3: Logistic Activation Function

- There's obviously no reason to predict values outside [0, 1]. Let's squash *y* into this interval.
- The logistic function is a kind of sigmoid, or S-shaped function:

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





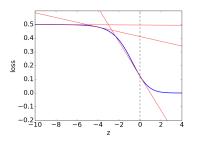
Now let's try this loss and set its gradient to 0:

$$z = \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x}$$

 $y = \sigma(z)$
 $L_{\text{SE}}(y, t) = \frac{1}{2}(y - t)^{2}$.

Attempt 3: Logistic Activation Function

The problem: (plot of L_{SE} as a function of z, assuming t = 1)



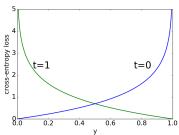
$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_j} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial z} \frac{\partial z}{\partial w_j}$$

- Let's consider a wrong prediction. For $z \ll 0$, we have $\sigma(z) \approx 0$.
- $\frac{\partial L}{\partial z} \approx 0$ (check!) $\Longrightarrow \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_j} \approx 0 \Longrightarrow$ derivative w.r.t. w_j is small $\Longrightarrow w_j$ is like a critical point
- But this is the wrong conclusion! Our prediction is really wrong, so ideally we should be far from a critical point.

- Because $y \in [0, 1]$, we can interpret it as the estimated probability that t = 1. If t = 0, then we want to heavily penalize $y \approx 1$.
- The pundits who were 99% confident Clinton would win were much more wrong than the ones who were only 90% confident.
- Cross-entropy loss (aka log loss) captures this intuition:

$$L_{CE}(y,t) = \begin{cases} -\log y & \text{if } t = 1 \\ -\log(1-y) & \text{if } t = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$= -t\log y - (1-t)\log(1-y) \frac{\log (1-y)}{\log (1-y)}$$



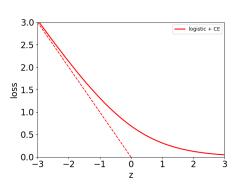
Logistic Regression

Logistic Regression:

$$z = \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x}$$
 $y = \sigma(z)$

$$= \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$$
 $L_{\text{CE}} = -t \log y - (1 - t) \log(1 - y)$

Plot is for target t = 1.



Logistic Regression — Numerical Instabilities

- If we implement logistic regression naively, we can end up with numerical instabilities.
- Consider: t = 1 but you're really confident that $z \ll 0$.
- If y is small enough, it may be numerically zero. This can cause very subtle and hard-to-find bugs.

$$y = \sigma(z)$$
 $\Rightarrow y \approx 0$
 $L_{\text{CE}} = -t \log y - (1 - t) \log(1 - y)$ $\Rightarrow \text{ computes } \log 0$

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Logistic Regression — Numerically Stable Version

 Instead, we combine the activation function and the loss into a single logistic-cross-entropy function.

$$L_{\text{LCE}}(z,t) = L_{\text{CE}}(\sigma(z),t) = t \log(1 + e^{-z}) + (1-t) \log(1 + e^{z})$$

Numerically stable computation:

$$E = t * np.logaddexp(0, -z) + (1-t) * np.logaddexp(0, z)$$

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Gradient Descent for Logistic Regression

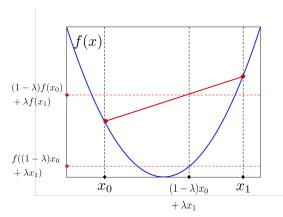
- How do we minimize the cost $\hat{\mathcal{R}}$ for logistic regression? No direct solution.
 - ▶ Taking derivatives of $\hat{\mathcal{R}}$ w.r.t. **w** and setting them to 0 doesn't have an explicit solution.
- Perhaps we should consider using gradient descent from last lecture?
 But will this work?
- Luckily it will, but we should be a bit careful to understand why it works.
- It works because the logistic loss is a convex function.

Convex Functions

• A function f is convex if for any x_0, x_1 in the domain of f,

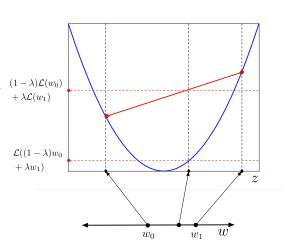
$$f((1-\lambda)\mathbf{x}_0 + \lambda\mathbf{x}_1) \le (1-\lambda)f(\mathbf{x}_0) + \lambda f(\mathbf{x}_1)$$

- Equivalently, the set of points lying above the graph of f is convex.
- Intuitively: the function is bowl-shaped.



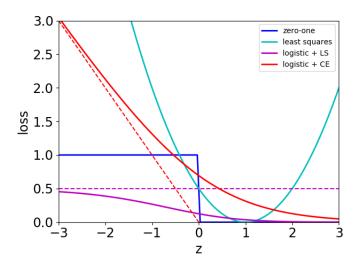
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- We just saw that the least-squares loss function $\frac{1}{2}(y-t)^2$ is convex as a function of y
- For a linear model, z = w^Tx + b is a linear function of w and b. If the loss function is convex as a function of z, then it is convex as a function of w and b.



Convex Functions, Logistic Regression

Which loss functions are convex? (these show for t = 1)



Convex Functions and gradient descent

- The key point here is that the logistic loss is convex.
- Convex functions have very nice properties.
 - All critical points are minima.
 - Gradient descent finds the optimal solution.
- So we can use gradient descent to find the minima of the logistic loss!
 - ▶ Recall: we initialize the weights to something reasonable and repeatedly adjust them in the direction of steepest descent.
 - ▶ A standard initialization is $\mathbf{w} = 0$. (why?)

Gradient of Logistic Loss

Back to logistic regression:

$$L_{\text{CE}}(y, t) = -t \log(y) - (1 - t) \log(1 - y)$$
$$y = 1/(1 + e^{-z}) \text{ and } z = \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x}$$

Therefore

$$\frac{\partial L_{\text{CE}}}{\partial w_j} = \frac{\partial L_{\text{CE}}}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{\partial y}{\partial z} \cdot \frac{\partial z}{\partial w_j} = \left(-\frac{t}{y} + \frac{1-t}{1-y}\right) \cdot y(1-y) \cdot x_j$$
$$= (y-t)x_j$$

(verify this)

Gradient descent (for each w_j) update to find the parameters of logistic regression:

$$w_{j} \leftarrow w_{j} - \alpha \frac{\partial \hat{\mathcal{R}}}{\partial w_{j}}$$

$$= w_{j} - \frac{\alpha}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (y^{(i)} - t^{(i)}) x_{j}^{(i)}$$

Gradient Descent for Logistic Regression

Comparison of gradient descent updates:

• Linear regression:

$$\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{w} - \frac{\alpha}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (y^{(i)} - t^{(i)}) \mathbf{x}^{(i)}$$

• Logistic regression:

$$\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{w} - \frac{\alpha}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (y^{(i)} - t^{(i)}) \mathbf{x}^{(i)}$$

- Not a coincidence! These are both examples of generalized linear models. But we won't go in further detail.
- Notice $\frac{1}{N}$ in front of sums due to averaged losses. This is why you need smaller learning rate when cost is summed losses ($\alpha' = \alpha/N$).