

Lecture 11 : Learning parametric models

- We have until now looked at two simple parametric models
 - linear regression
 - logistic regression
 - generalized linear models
- Parametric models assume a functional form described a fixed number of parameters
- Learning a parametric model implies tuning the parameters to fit the training dataset
- In the next two lectures, we will discuss basic principles for learning these models

- Key components of any parametric ML algorithm:

- The data $\{\underline{x}_i, y_i\}_{i=1}^N$
- A model with parameters $\underline{\Theta}$ [e.g. $\hat{y} = \underline{x}^\top \underline{\Theta}$]
- A loss function $L(y, \hat{y})$ to quantify goodness of model predictions during training
- An optimization algorithm to tune the model's parameters so as to minimize the loss

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Nonlinear Parametric Functions (Regression)

- A nonlinear regression model

$$y = \underbrace{f_{\underline{\theta}}(\underline{x})}_{\text{nonlinear function}} + \epsilon$$

sometimes also
written as $f(\underline{x}; \underline{\theta})$

- $f_{\underline{\theta}}(\underline{x})$ could be any nonlinear function, which depend on some model parameter $\underline{\theta}$ that control the shape of the function
- Different values of $\underline{\theta}$ result in different functions $f_{\underline{\theta}}(\cdot)$
- In mathematical terms, we say we have a **parametric family** of functions

$$\{ f_{\underline{\theta}}(\cdot) \text{ s.t. } \underline{\theta} \in \underline{\Theta} \}$$

space of all possible
parameter vectors

Nonlinear Parametric Functions (Regression)

A nonlinear regression model

$$y = f_{\underline{\theta}}(\underline{x}) + \epsilon$$

- If noise ϵ is taken to be Gaussian with zero mean and variance σ_e^2 we obtain a Gaussian like likelihood

$$p(y | \underline{x}; \underline{\theta}) = \mathcal{N}(f_{\underline{\theta}}(\underline{x}), \sigma_e^2)$$

- Note that in the linear case, $f_{\underline{\theta}}(\underline{x}) = \underline{x}^T \underline{\theta}$ and

$$p(y | \underline{x}; \underline{\theta}) = \mathcal{N}(\underline{x}^T \underline{\theta}, \sigma_e^2)$$

Nonlinear Parametric Functions (Classification)

- Recall linear classification i.e. logistic regression
 - Logit : $z = \underline{x}^T \underline{\theta}$
 - $p(y=1 | \underline{x})$: $h(z) = \frac{e^z}{1 + e^z} = \frac{e^{z^T \underline{\theta}}}{1 + e^{z^T \underline{\theta}}}$
- Nonlinear classification can be constructed by considering $z = f_{\underline{\theta}}(\underline{x})$ as a generalization of the logistic regression
- Similarly, we could also have a multi-class nonlinear classifier by generalizing multi-class logistic regression model (recall softmax)

- Key components of any parametric ML algorithm:

- The data $\{\underline{x}_i, y_i\}_{i=1}^N$
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- • A loss function $L(y, \hat{y})$ to quantify goodness of model predictions during training
- An optimization algorithm to tune the model's parameters so as to minimize the loss

Loss functions

- After choosing a certain parametric model class, the next step is to "learn" the model — find suitable values of parameters so that the model describes the true (but often unknown) input-output relationship as accurately as possible
- For parametric models, "learning" is typically framed as an optimization

$$\hat{\underline{\theta}} = \underset{\underline{\theta}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N L(y_i, f_{\underline{\theta}}(\underline{x}_i))$$

loss function
Cost function $J(\underline{\theta})$

}

Usually solved
using some
numerical optimization
method

- We seek to minimize a cost function which is the average of some user-defined loss function L evaluated on the training data

Loss function is a proxy of Generalization

- Natural Idea: Find the value of $\underline{\theta}$ that fits the training data well
- However, our ultimate goal is **not** to fit the training data very well but rather to find a model that can **generalize** to new data
 - In other words, we are actually interested in solving:

$$\hat{\underline{\theta}} = \underset{\underline{\theta}}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \quad E_{\text{new}}(\underline{\theta}) \quad \xrightarrow{\hspace{1cm}} \quad \mathbb{E}_* [E(y, \hat{y}(\underline{x}_*; \underline{\theta}))]$$

- Issue is $E_{\text{new}}(\underline{\theta})$ is unknown since $p(\underline{x}, y)$ is unknown
However, it is still important to keep in mind that

Training objective $\hat{\underline{\theta}} = \underset{\underline{\theta}}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \quad \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^n L(y_i, f_{\underline{\theta}}(\underline{x}_i))$

is only a proxy for the actual objective

→ Viewing the training objective as a proxy for generalization will help us in choosing how we approach the optimization problem!

- Optimization accuracy vs Statistical accuracy

It is not meaningful to optimize $J(\underline{\theta})$ with greater accuracy than the statistical error in the estimate.

↳ difficult to determine though

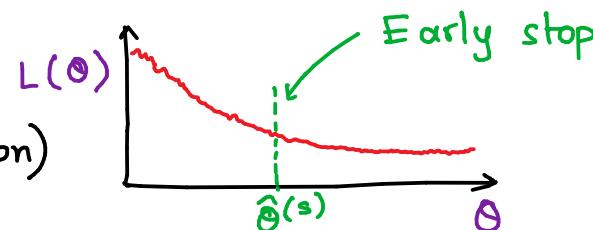
- Choice of loss function (loss function \neq error function)

One should choose a loss function with the aim of making the optimization problem easier to solve

$$\hat{\underline{\theta}} = \underset{\underline{\theta}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N L(y_i, f_{\underline{\theta}}(x_i))$$

(e.g. use convex loss functions)

- Early Stopping
(or implicit regularization)



$$\hat{\underline{\theta}}^{(0)} \rightarrow \hat{\underline{\theta}}^{(1)} \rightarrow \hat{\underline{\theta}}^{(2)} \dots \dots \hat{\underline{\theta}}^{(s)} \dots \rightarrow$$

- Explicit regularization by adding a parameter-penalty term in the cost function
(e.g. L_2 -regularization)

Different loss functions (for regression) \rightarrow give different solutions $\hat{\Theta}$

- Squared error loss: $L(y, \hat{y}) = (y - \hat{y})^2$ \leftarrow default choice for linear regression
 - Maximum likelihood perspective : Noise ϵ is Gaussian, $\epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma_\epsilon^2)$
- Absolute error loss: $L(y, \hat{y}) = |y - \hat{y}|$ \leftarrow robust to outliers since it grows more slowly for large errors
 - Maximum likelihood perspective : Noise ϵ is Laplace, $\epsilon \sim L(0, b_\epsilon)$
$$L(x|\mu, b) = \frac{1}{2b} \exp\left(-\frac{|x-\mu|}{b}\right)$$
- ϵ -insensitive loss
(extension of absolute error loss)

$$L(y, \hat{y}) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } |y - \hat{y}| < \epsilon \\ |y - \hat{y}| - \epsilon & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

\hookrightarrow chosen by user

- Huber loss (hybrid between squared error loss and absolute error loss)

$$L(y, \hat{y}) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} (y - \hat{y})^2 & \cdot |y - \hat{y}| < 1 \\ |y - \hat{y}| - \frac{1}{2} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Different loss functions (for regression)

Squared error loss

$$L(y, \hat{y}) = (y - \hat{y})^2$$

Absolute error loss

$$L(y, \hat{y}) = |y - \hat{y}|$$

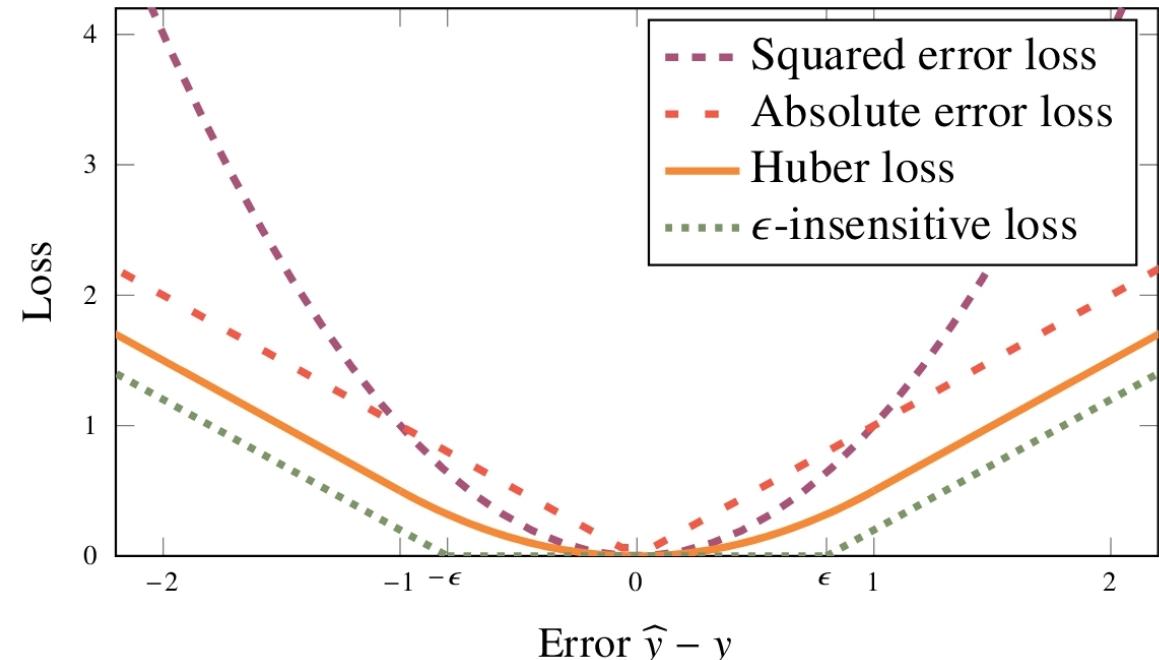
ϵ -insensitive loss

$$L(y, \hat{y}) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } |y - \hat{y}| < \epsilon \\ |y - \hat{y}| - \epsilon & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

ϵ -insensitive loss will turn out to be useful for support vector regression (SVR)

Huber loss

$$L(y, \hat{y}) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} (y - \hat{y})^2 & \text{if } |y - \hat{y}| < 1 \\ |y - \hat{y}| - \frac{1}{2} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



Different loss functions (for classification)

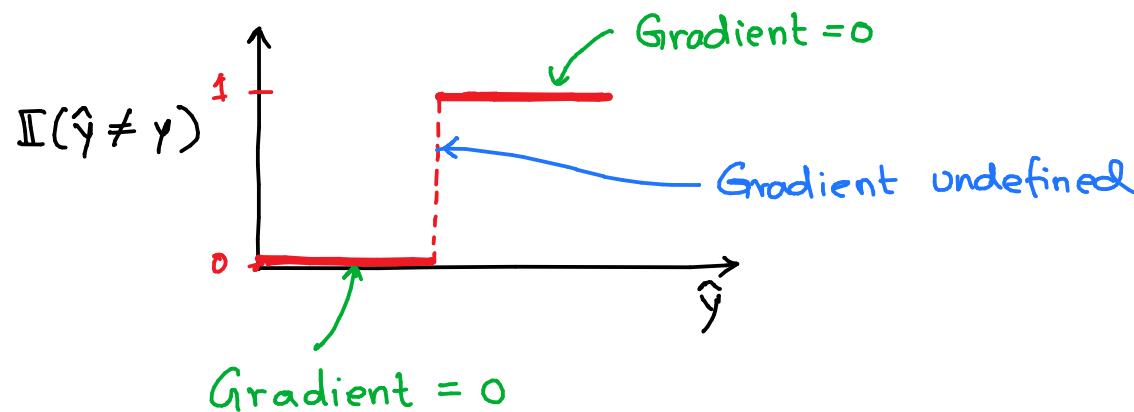
let's look at loss functions for binary classification first

- An intuitive loss function for is the **misclassification loss**

$$L(y, \hat{y}) = \mathbb{I}(\hat{y} \neq y) = \begin{cases} 0 & y = \hat{y} \\ 1 & y \neq \hat{y} \end{cases}$$

↑
indicator function

Although intuitive, this loss is rarely used in practice, because it is hard to optimize → has zero gradients



Different loss functions (for classification)

- Cross-entropy loss forms a natural choice for a binary classifier that predicts class probabilities $p(y=1|\underline{x})$ in terms of $g(\underline{x})$

$$L(y, \hat{y}) = \begin{cases} \ln g(\underline{x}) & \text{if } y = 1 \\ 1 - \ln g(\underline{x}) & \text{if } y = -1 \end{cases}$$

\hat{y}
 \uparrow
 $g(\underline{x})$

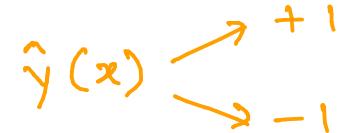
- Another useful class of loss functions can be defined using the concept of margins
 - Many classifiers can be constructed by **thresholding** some real-valued function $f(\underline{x}; \Theta)$ at 0. We can write the class prediction as

$$\hat{y}(\underline{x}) = \text{sign} \{ f(\underline{x}; \Theta) \} \quad (\text{for binary classes})$$
$$\{-1, 1\}$$

E.g. Logistic regression can be brought into this form by $f_{\Theta}(\underline{x}) = \underline{x}^T \underline{\Theta}$

Concept of margin for (binary) classifiers

- The decision boundary of any classifier of the form

$$\hat{y}(\underline{x}) = \text{sign}\{f(\underline{x}; \underline{\theta})\}$$


is given by the values of \underline{x} for which $f(\underline{x})=0$

- The margin of a classifier for a data point (\underline{x}, y) is $y \cdot f(\underline{x})$

$$f(\underline{x}) \rightarrow + \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \\ \end{array} \right\} \rightarrow y \cdot f(\underline{x}) \rightarrow \text{+ve margin}$$

$$f(\underline{x}) \rightarrow - \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \\ \end{array} \right\} \rightarrow y \cdot f(\underline{x}) \rightarrow \text{+ve margin}$$

- If classification is correct, margin is **positive**

- If y and $f(\underline{x})$ have different signs, margin is **negative**
(meaning incorrect classification)

- Data points with small margins are closer to decision boundary

Margin-based perspective of logistic loss

- In the lecture on logistic regression, we started out with a **class probability perspective**, modelling using $p(y=1|\underline{x}) = g(\underline{x})$, then arrived at cross-entropy loss, and later for $g(\underline{x})$ modelled using the logistic function, we obtained the logistic loss

$$L(y, \hat{y}) = \ln \left(1 + e^{-y \cdot (\underline{x}^T \underline{\theta})} \right)$$

- Without linking the probabilistic perspective, we could consider the logistic loss as a **generic margin-based loss**

$$L(y, f(\underline{x})) = \ln \left(1 + e^{-\underbrace{y \cdot f(\underline{x})}_{\text{margin of the classifier}}} \right)$$

Hence,

- we postulate a classifier according to $\hat{y}(\underline{x}) = \text{sign}\{f(\underline{x}; \underline{\theta})\}$, and
- then learn the parameters of $f(\underline{x}; \underline{\theta})$ by minimizing $L(y, f(\underline{x}))$

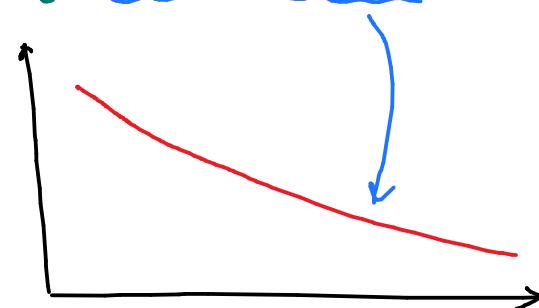
Other margin-based loss functions for classification

- Misclassification loss rewritten as margin-based loss

Misclassification loss as a Margin-based loss

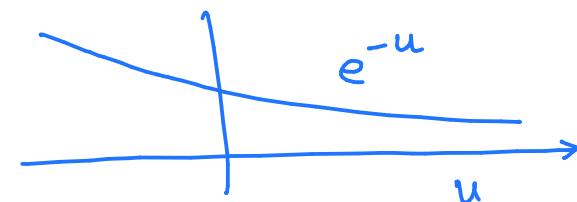
$$L(y, \hat{y}) = \mathbb{I}(\hat{y} \neq y) = \begin{cases} 0 & y = \hat{y} \\ 1 & y \neq \hat{y} \end{cases} \rightarrow L(y, f(x)) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } y \cdot f(x) < 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- In principle, any DECREASING function is a candidate loss function



- e.g. Exponential loss

$$L(y, f(x)) = \exp(-y \cdot f(x))$$



- Not very robust to outliers, due to the exponential growth for negative margins

- Hinge loss (will be used in support vector machine)

$$L(y, f(\underline{x})) = \begin{cases} 1 - y \cdot f(\underline{x}) & \text{for } y \cdot f(\underline{x}) \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- Squared hinge loss

$$L(y, f(\underline{x})) = \begin{cases} (1 - y \cdot f(\underline{x}))^2 & \text{for } y \cdot f(\underline{x}) \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- less robust to outliers

- Huberized squared hinge loss (robust to outliers)

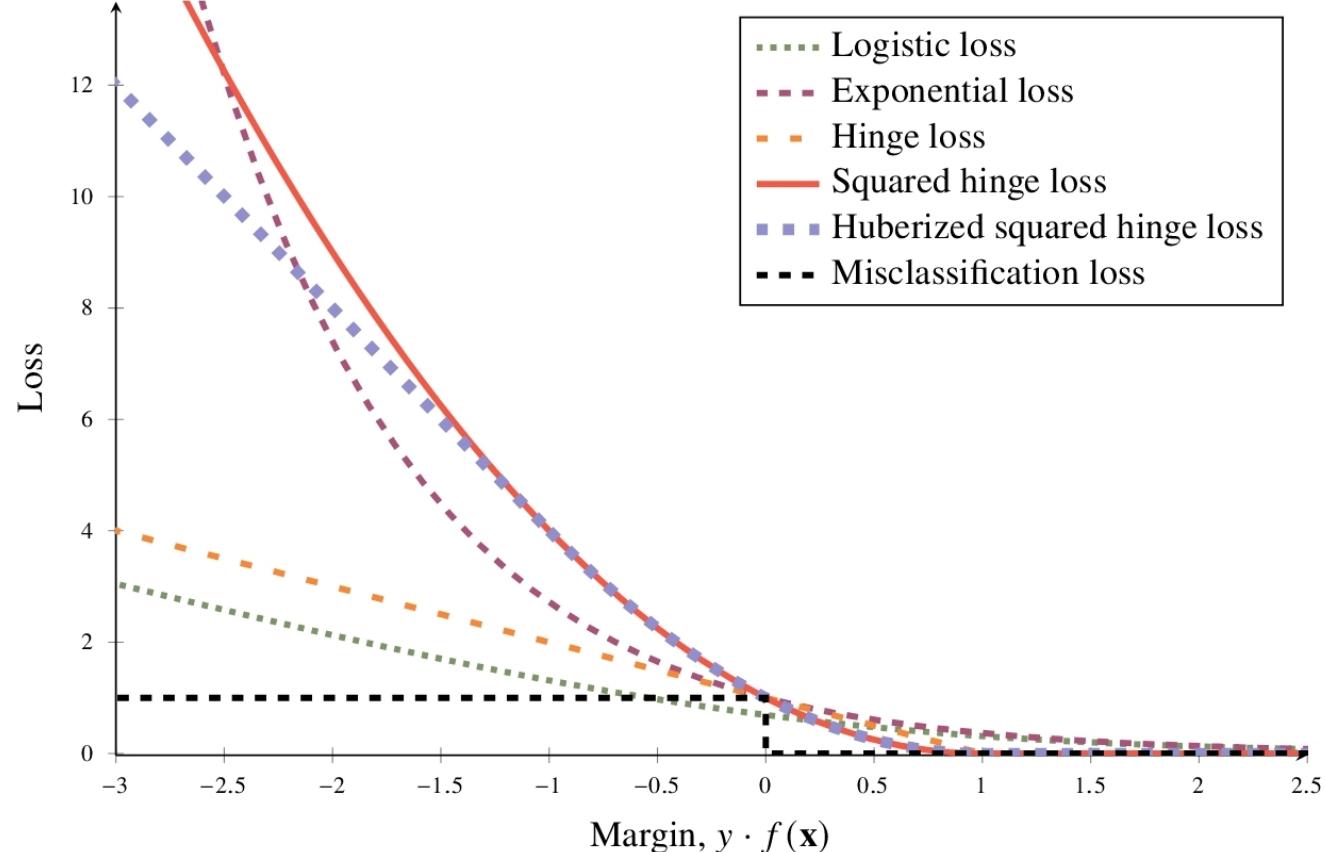
$$L(y, f(\underline{x})) = \begin{cases} -4y \cdot f(\underline{x}) & \text{for } y \cdot f(\underline{x}) \leq -1 \quad (\text{linear margin}) \\ (1 - y \cdot f(\underline{x}))^2 & \text{for } -1 \leq y \cdot f(\underline{x}) \leq 1 \quad (\text{squared hinge loss}) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Misclassification loss

$$L(y, f(\mathbf{x})) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } y \cdot f(\mathbf{x}) < 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Exponential loss

$$L(y, f(\mathbf{x})) = \exp(-y \cdot f(\mathbf{x}))$$



Hinge loss

$$L(y, f(\mathbf{x})) = \begin{cases} 1 - y \cdot f(\mathbf{x}) & \text{for } y \cdot f(\mathbf{x}) \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Squared hinge loss

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Huberized squared hinge loss

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Regularization

- The idea of regularization in a parametric model is to "keep the parameters $\hat{\Theta}$ small unless the data really convinces us otherwise"
- Two types of regularization
 - Explicit regularization, e.g. L₂-regularization
 - Implicit regularization, e.g. early stopping

Explicit regularization

L₂-regularization

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\Theta}} = \underset{\boldsymbol{\Theta}}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \frac{1}{N} \left\| \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}\boldsymbol{\Theta} \right\|_2^2 + \lambda \|\boldsymbol{\Theta}\|_2^2$$

L₁-regularization

(LASSO)

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\Theta}} = \underset{\boldsymbol{\Theta}}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \frac{1}{N} \left\| \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}\boldsymbol{\Theta} \right\|_2^2 + \lambda \|\boldsymbol{\Theta}\|_1$$

$$\|\boldsymbol{\Theta}\|_1 = |\Theta_0| + |\Theta_1| + \dots + |\Theta_p|$$

- Admits closed-form solution

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\Theta}} = (\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{x} + N\lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{y}$$

- Typically does not produce sparse solution

- No closed-form solution available

Have to do numerical optimization

- Produces **sparse** solutions, where only a few of the parameters are non-zero

In a sense, L₁-regularization can "switch-off" some inputs (by setting the corresponding parameter Θ_k to zero)

Implicit Regularization

- There are alternative ways to achieve regularization without explicitly modifying the cost function
- One such way is **Early Stopping**
 - ↳ aborting an iterative numerical optimization before it has reached the minimum of the cost function
- Set aside some hold-out validation data for computing $E_{\text{hold-out}}$ and use it to determine the stopping point

