Gaussian and Linear Discriminant Analysis; Multiclass Classification

Professor Ameet Talwalkar

Professor Ameet Talwalkar

CS260 Machine Learning Algorithms

January 30, 2017 1 / 40

Outline

1 Administration

- 2 Review of last lecture
- 3 Generative versus discriminative
- 4 Multiclass classification

A 🖓

Announcements

• Homework 2: due on Wednesday

3

< (T) > <

-

Outline

1 Administration

- 2 Review of last lecture Logistic regression
 - 3 Generative versus discriminative
 - 4 Multiclass classification

Logistic classification

Setup for two classes

- Input: $oldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^D$
- Output: $y \in \{0,1\}$
- Training data: $\mathcal{D} = \{(\boldsymbol{x}_n, y_n), n = 1, 2, \dots, N\}$
- Model of conditional distribution

$$p(y=1|\boldsymbol{x}; b, \boldsymbol{w}) = \sigma[g(\boldsymbol{x})]$$

where

$$g(\boldsymbol{x}) = b + \sum_{d} w_{d} x_{d} = b + \boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}$$

Why the sigmoid function?

What does it look like?

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

where

$$a = b + \boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}$$

Properties



Why the sigmoid function?

What does it look like?

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

where

$$a = b + \boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}$$



Properties

- Bounded between 0 and 1 \leftarrow thus, interpretable as probability
- Monotonically increasing thus, usable to derive classification rules
 - $\sigma(a) > 0.5$, positive (classify as '1')
 - $\sigma(a) < 0.5$, negative (classify as '0')
 - $\sigma(a) = 0.5$, undecidable
- Nice computational properties Derivative is in a simple form

Why the sigmoid function?

What does it look like?

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

where

$$a = b + \boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}$$



Properties

- Bounded between 0 and 1 \leftarrow thus, interpretable as probability
- Monotonically increasing thus, usable to derive classification rules
 - $\sigma(a) > 0.5$, positive (classify as '1')
 - $\sigma(a) < 0.5$, negative (classify as '0')
 - $\sigma(a) = 0.5$, undecidable
- Nice computational properties Derivative is in a simple form

Linear or nonlinear classifier?

Professor Ameet Talwalkar

January 30, 2017 6 / 40

 $\sigma(a)$ is nonlinear, however, the decision boundary is determined by

$$\sigma(a) = 0.5 \Rightarrow a = 0 \Rightarrow g(\boldsymbol{x}) = b + \boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x} = 0$$

which is a *linear* function in x

We often call b the offset term.

Likelihood function

Probability of a single training sample (x_n, y_n)

$$p(y_n | \boldsymbol{x}_n; b; \boldsymbol{w}) = \begin{cases} \sigma(b + \boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}_n) & \text{if } y_n = 1\\ 1 - \sigma(b + \boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}_n) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

3

< 🗇 🕨 🔸

Likelihood function

Probability of a single training sample (x_n, y_n)

$$p(y_n | \boldsymbol{x}_n; b; \boldsymbol{w}) = \begin{cases} \sigma(b + \boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}_n) & \text{if } y_n = 1\\ 1 - \sigma(b + \boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}_n) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Compact expression, exploring that y_n is either 1 or 0

$$p(y_n|\boldsymbol{x}_n; b; \boldsymbol{w}) = \sigma(b + \boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}_n)^{y_n} [1 - \sigma(b + \boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}_n)]^{1-y_n}$$

A 🕨 🔺

Maximum likelihood estimation

Cross-entropy error (negative log-likelihood)

$$\mathcal{E}(b, \boldsymbol{w}) = -\sum_{n} \{y_n \log \sigma(b + \boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}_n) + (1 - y_n) \log[1 - \sigma(b + \boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}_n)]\}$$

Numerical optimization

- Gradient descent: simple, scalable to large-scale problems
- Newton method: fast but not scalable

Numerical optimization

Gradient descent

- Choose a proper step size $\eta > 0$
- Iteratively update the parameters following the negative gradient to minimize the error function

$$\boldsymbol{w}^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{w}^{(t)} - \eta \sum_{n} \left\{ \sigma(\boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}_{n}) - y_{n} \right\} \boldsymbol{x}_{n}$$

Numerical optimization

Gradient descent

- Choose a proper step size $\eta > 0$
- Iteratively update the parameters following the negative gradient to minimize the error function

$$oldsymbol{w}^{(t+1)} \leftarrow oldsymbol{w}^{(t)} - \eta \sum_n \left\{ \sigma(oldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}} oldsymbol{x}_n) - y_n
ight\} oldsymbol{x}_n$$

Remarks

- Gradient is direction of steepest ascent.
- The step size needs to be chosen carefully to ensure convergence.
- The step size can be adaptive (i.e. varying from iteration to iteration).
- Variant called *stochastic* gradient descent (later this quarter).

Intuition for Newton's method

Approximate the true function with an easy-to-solve optimization problem



In particular, we can approximate the cross-entropy error function around $w^{(t)}$ by a quadratic function (its second order Taylor expansion), and then minimize this quadratic function

Update Rules

Gradient descent

$$\boldsymbol{w}^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{w}^{(t)} - \eta \sum_{n} \left\{ \sigma(\boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}_{n}) - y_{n} \right\} \boldsymbol{x}_{n}$$

Newton method

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

∃ ► < ∃ ►</p>

< (T) > <

э

Contrast gradient descent and Newton's method

Similar

• Both are iterative procedures.

Different

- Newton's method requires second-order derivatives (less scalable, but faster convergence)
- Newton's method does not have the magic η to be set

Outline

1 Administration

2 Review of last lecture

3 Generative versus discriminative

- Contrast Naive Bayes and logistic regression
- Gaussian and Linear Discriminant Analysis

4 Multiclass classification

Naive Bayes and logistic regression: two different modelling paradigms

Consider spam classification problem

- First Strategy:
 - Use training set to find a decision boundary in the feature space that separates spam and non-spam emails
 - Given a test point, predict its label based on which side of the boundary it is on.

Naive Bayes and logistic regression: two different modelling paradigms

Consider spam classification problem

- First Strategy:
 - Use training set to find a decision boundary in the feature space that separates spam and non-spam emails
 - Given a test point, predict its label based on which side of the boundary it is on.
- Second Strategy:
 - Look at spam emails and build a model of what they look like. Similarly, build a model of what non-spam emails look like.
 - To classify a new email, match it against both the spam and non-spam models to see which is the better fit.

Naive Bayes and logistic regression: two different modelling paradigms

Consider spam classification problem

- First Strategy:
 - Use training set to find a decision boundary in the feature space that separates spam and non-spam emails
 - Given a test point, predict its label based on which side of the boundary it is on.
- Second Strategy:
 - Look at spam emails and build a model of what they look like. Similarly, build a model of what non-spam emails look like.
 - To classify a new email, match it against both the spam and non-spam models to see which is the better fit.

First strategy is discriminative (e.g., logistic regression) Second strategy is generative (e.g., naive bayes)

Generative vs Discriminative

Discriminative

- Requires only specifying a model for the conditional distribution p(y|x), and thus, maximizes the *conditional* likelihood $\sum_{n} \log p(y_n | \boldsymbol{x}_n)$.
- Models that try to learn mappings directly from feature space to the labels are also discriminative, e.g., perceptron, SVMs (covered later)

Generative vs Discriminative

Discriminative

- Requires only specifying a model for the conditional distribution p(y|x), and thus, maximizes the *conditional* likelihood $\sum_{n} \log p(y_n | \boldsymbol{x}_n)$.
- Models that try to learn mappings directly from feature space to the labels are also discriminative, e.g., perceptron, SVMs (covered later)

Generative

- Aims to model the joint probability p(x, y) and thus maximize the *joint* likelihood $\sum_n \log p(x_n, y_n)$.
- \bullet The generative models we'll cover do so by modeling $p(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{y})$ and $p(\boldsymbol{y})$

Generative vs Discriminative

Discriminative

- Requires only specifying a model for the conditional distribution p(y|x), and thus, maximizes the *conditional* likelihood $\sum_{n} \log p(y_n | \boldsymbol{x}_n)$.
- Models that try to learn mappings directly from feature space to the labels are also discriminative, e.g., perceptron, SVMs (covered later)

Generative

- Aims to model the joint probability p(x, y) and thus maximize the *joint* likelihood $\sum_n \log p(x_n, y_n)$.
- ${\ensuremath{\, \circ }}$ The generative models we'll cover do so by modeling p(x|y) and p(y)
- Let's look at two more examples: Gaussian (or Quadratic) Discriminative Analysis and Linear Discriminative Analysis

Determining sex based on measurements



Generative approach

Model joint distribution of (x = (height, weight), y = sex)



Intuition: we will model how heights vary (according to a Gaussian) in each sub-population (male and female).

Model of the joint distribution (1D)

$$p(x,y) = p(y)p(x|y)$$

$$= \begin{cases} p_0 \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_0}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu_0)^2}{2\sigma_0^2}} & \text{if } y = 0\\ p_1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_1}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu_1)^2}{2\sigma_1^2}} & \text{if } y = 1 \end{cases}$$

 $p_0 + p_1 = 1$ are *prior* probabilities, and p(x|y) is a *class conditional distribution*



Model of the joint distribution (1D)

$$p(x,y) = p(y)p(x|y)$$

$$= \begin{cases} p_0 \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_0}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu_0)^2}{2\sigma_0^2}} & \text{if } y = 0\\ p_1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_1}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu_1)^2}{2\sigma_1^2}} & \text{if } y = 1 \end{cases}$$

280 ×× 260 240 220 200 180 160 140 120 100 80 L 65 70 75 80 height

red = female, blue=male

 $p_0 + p_1 = 1$ are *prior* probabilities, and p(x|y) is a *class conditional distribution*

What are the parameters to learn?

Log Likelihood of training data $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_n, y_n)\}_{n=1}^N$ with $y_n \in \{0, 1\}$

$$\log P(\mathcal{D}) = \sum_{n} \log p(x_n, y_n)$$
$$= \sum_{n:y_n=0} \log \left(p_0 \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_0}} e^{-\frac{(x_n - \mu_0)^2}{2\sigma_0^2}} \right)$$
$$+ \sum_{n:y_n=1} \log \left(p_1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_1}} e^{-\frac{(x_n - \mu_1)^2}{2\sigma_1^2}} \right)$$

3

< 🗇 🕨 <

Log Likelihood of training data $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_n, y_n)\}_{n=1}^N$ with $y_n \in \{0, 1\}$

$$\log P(\mathcal{D}) = \sum_{n} \log p(x_n, y_n)$$
$$= \sum_{n:y_n=0} \log \left(p_0 \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_0}} e^{-\frac{(x_n - \mu_0)^2}{2\sigma_0^2}} \right)$$
$$+ \sum_{n:y_n=1} \log \left(p_1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_1}} e^{-\frac{(x_n - \mu_1)^2}{2\sigma_1^2}} \right)$$

Max log likelihood $(p_0^*, p_1^*, \mu_0^*, \mu_1^*, \sigma_0^*, \sigma_1^*) = \arg \max \log P(\mathcal{D})$

- 4 週 ト - 4 三 ト - 4 三 ト

- 2

Log Likelihood of training data $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_n, y_n)\}_{n=1}^N$ with $y_n \in \{0, 1\}$

$$\log P(\mathcal{D}) = \sum_{n} \log p(x_n, y_n)$$
$$= \sum_{n:y_n=0} \log \left(p_0 \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_0}} e^{-\frac{(x_n - \mu_0)^2}{2\sigma_0^2}} \right)$$
$$+ \sum_{n:y_n=1} \log \left(p_1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_1}} e^{-\frac{(x_n - \mu_1)^2}{2\sigma_1^2}} \right)$$

Max log likelihood $(p_0^*, p_1^*, \mu_0^*, \mu_1^*, \sigma_0^*, \sigma_1^*) = \arg \max \log P(\mathcal{D})$ Max likelihood (D = 2) $(p_0^*, p_1^*, \mu_0^*, \mu_1^*, \Sigma_0^*, \Sigma_1^*) = \arg \max \log P(\mathcal{D})$

- 4 回 ト 4 三 ト - 三 - シックマ

Log Likelihood of training data $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_n, y_n)\}_{n=1}^N$ with $y_n \in \{0, 1\}$

$$\log P(\mathcal{D}) = \sum_{n} \log p(x_n, y_n)$$
$$= \sum_{n:y_n=0} \log \left(p_0 \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_0}} e^{-\frac{(x_n - \mu_0)^2}{2\sigma_0^2}} \right)$$
$$+ \sum_{n:y_n=1} \log \left(p_1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_1}} e^{-\frac{(x_n - \mu_1)^2}{2\sigma_1^2}} \right)$$

Max log likelihood $(p_0^*, p_1^*, \mu_0^*, \mu_1^*, \sigma_0^*, \sigma_1^*) = \arg \max \log P(\mathcal{D})$ Max likelihood (D = 2) $(p_0^*, p_1^*, \mu_0^*, \mu_1^*, \Sigma_0^*, \Sigma_1^*) = \arg \max \log P(\mathcal{D})$ • For Naive Bayes we assume Σ_i^* is diagonal

(4個) (4回) (4回) (5)

Decision boundary

As before, the Bayes optimal one under the assumed joint distribution depends on

$$p(y=1|x) \ge p(y=0|x)$$

which is equivalent to

$$p(x|y=1)p(y=1) \geq p(x|y=0)p(y=0)$$

A 🖓

Decision boundary

As before, the Bayes optimal one under the assumed joint distribution depends on

$$p(y=1|x) \ge p(y=0|x)$$

which is equivalent to

$$p(x|y=1)p(y=1) \ge p(x|y=0)p(y=0)$$

Namely,

$$-\frac{(x-\mu_1)^2}{2\sigma_1^2} - \log\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_1 + \log p_1 \ge -\frac{(x-\mu_0)^2}{2\sigma_0^2} - \log\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_0 + \log p_0$$

47 ▶

Decision boundary

As before, the Bayes optimal one under the assumed joint distribution depends on

$$p(y=1|x) \ge p(y=0|x)$$

which is equivalent to

$$p(x|y=1)p(y=1) \ge p(x|y=0)p(y=0)$$

Namely,

$$-\frac{(x-\mu_1)^2}{2\sigma_1^2} - \log\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_1 + \log p_1 \ge -\frac{(x-\mu_0)^2}{2\sigma_0^2} - \log\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_0 + \log p_0$$

$$\Rightarrow ax^2 + bx + c \ge 0 \qquad \leftarrow \text{the decision boundary not } \lim_{l \to \infty} |a| \le 1$$

47 ▶

Example of nonlinear decision boundary



Note: the boundary is characterized by a quadratic function, giving rise to the shape of a parabolic curve.

Professor Ameet Talwalkar

January 30, 2017 22 / 40

_ ► ∢
A special case: what if we assume the two Gaussians have the same variance?

$$-\frac{(x-\mu_1)^2}{2\sigma_1^2} - \log\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_1 + \log p_1 \ge -\frac{(x-\mu_0)^2}{2\sigma_0^2} - \log\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_0 + \log p_0$$

with $\sigma_0 = \sigma_1$

A special case: what if we assume the two Gaussians have the same variance?

$$-\frac{(x-\mu_1)^2}{2\sigma_1^2} - \log\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_1 + \log p_1 \ge -\frac{(x-\mu_0)^2}{2\sigma_0^2} - \log\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_0 + \log p_0$$

with $\sigma_0 = \sigma_1$ We get a linear decision boundary: $bx + c \ge 0$ A special case: what if we assume the two Gaussians have the same variance?

$$-\frac{(x-\mu_1)^2}{2\sigma_1^2} - \log\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_1 + \log p_1 \ge -\frac{(x-\mu_0)^2}{2\sigma_0^2} - \log\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_0 + \log p_0$$

with $\sigma_0 = \sigma_1$ We get a linear decision boundary: $bx + c \ge 0$ *Note*: equal variances across two different categories could be a very strong assumption.



For example, from the plot, it does seem that the *male* population has slightly bigger variance (i.e., bigger ellipse) than the *female* population. So the assumption might not be applicable.

Mini-summary

Gaussian discriminant analysis

• A generative approach, assuming the data modeled by

$$p(x,y) = p(y)p(x|y)$$

where p(x|y) is a Gaussian distribution.

Parameters (of Gaussian distributions) estimated by max likelihoodDecision boundary

Mini-summary

Gaussian discriminant analysis

• A generative approach, assuming the data modeled by

$$p(x, y) = p(y)p(x|y)$$

where p(x|y) is a Gaussian distribution.

- Parameters (of Gaussian distributions) estimated by max likelihood
- Decision boundary
 - ► In general, nonlinear functions of *x* (*quadratic discriminant analysis*)
 - Linear under various assumptions about Gaussian covariance matrices

Mini-summary

Gaussian discriminant analysis

• A generative approach, assuming the data modeled by

$$p(x,y) = p(y)p(x|y)$$

where p(x|y) is a Gaussian distribution.

- Parameters (of Gaussian distributions) estimated by max likelihood
- Decision boundary
 - ▶ In general, nonlinear functions of *x* (*quadratic discriminant analysis*)
 - Linear under various assumptions about Gaussian covariance matrices
 - * Single arbitrary matrix (linear discriminant analysis)
 - * Multiple diagonal matrices (Gaussian Naive Bayes (GNB))
 - * Single diagonal matrix (GNB in HW2 Problem 1)

周下 イモト イモト

So what is the discriminative counterpart?

Intuition

The decision boundary in Gaussian discriminant analysis is

$$ax^2 + bx + c = 0$$

Let us model the conditional distribution analogously

$$p(y|x) = \sigma[ax^{2} + bx + c] = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(ax^{2} + bx + c)}}$$

Or, even simpler, going after the decision boundary of linear discriminant analysis

$$p(y|x) = \sigma[bx + c]$$

Both look very similar to logistic regression — i.e. we focus on writing down the *conditional* probability, *not* the joint probability.

Does this change how we estimate the parameters?

First change: a smaller number of parameters to estimate

Models only parameterized by a, b and c. There are no prior probabilities (p_0, p_1) or Gaussian distribution parameters $(\mu_0, \mu_1, \sigma_0 \text{ and } \sigma_1)$.

Does this change how we estimate the parameters?

First change: a smaller number of parameters to estimate

Models only parameterized by a, b and c. There are no prior probabilities (p_0, p_1) or Gaussian distribution parameters $(\mu_0, \mu_1, \sigma_0 \text{ and } \sigma_1)$.

Second change: maximize the conditional likelihood p(y|x)

$$(a^*, b^*, c^*) = \arg\min -\sum_n \left\{ y_n \log \sigma (ax_n^2 + bx_n + c) \right\}$$
(1)

+
$$(1 - y_n) \log[1 - \sigma(ax_n^2 + bx_n + c)]$$
 (2)

No closed form solutions!

How easy for our Gaussian discriminant analysis?

Example

$$p_{1} = \frac{\# \text{ of training samples in class } 1}{\# \text{ of training samples}}$$
(3)

$$\mu_{1} = \frac{\sum_{n:y_{n}=1} x_{n}}{\# \text{ of training samples in class } 1}$$
(4)

$$\sigma_{1}^{2} = \frac{\sum_{n:y_{n}=1} (x_{n} - \mu_{1})^{2}}{\# \text{ of training samples in class } 1}$$
(5)

Note: see textbook for detailed derivation (including generalization to higher dimensions and multiple classes)

Generative versus discriminative: which one to use?

There is no fixed rule

- Selecting which type of method to use is dataset/task specific
- It depends on how well your modeling assumption fits the data

Generative versus discriminative: which one to use?

There is no fixed rule

- Selecting which type of method to use is dataset/task specific
- It depends on how well your modeling assumption fits the data
- For instance, as we show in HW2, when data follows a specific variant of the Gaussian Naive Bayes assumption, p(y|x) necessarily follows a logistic function. However, the converse is not true.
 - Gaussian Naive Bayes makes a stronger assumption than logistic regression
 - When data follows this assumption, Gaussian Naive Bayes will likely yield a model that better fits the data
 - But logistic regression is more robust and less sensitive to incorrect modelling assumption

Outline

1 Administration

- 2 Review of last lecture
- 3 Generative versus discriminative

4 Multiclass classification

- Use binary classifiers as building blocks
- Multinomial logistic regression

Setup

Predict multiple classes/outcomes: C_1, C_2, \ldots, C_K

- Weather prediction: sunny, cloudy, raining, etc
- Optical character recognition: 10 digits + 26 characters (lower and upper cases) + special characters, etc

Studied methods

- Nearest neighbor classifier
- Naive Bayes
- Gaussian discriminant analysis
- Logistic regression

The approach of "one versus the rest"

- $\bullet\,$ For each class $C_k,$ change the problem into binary classification
 - **(**) Relabel training data with label C_k , into POSITIVE (or '1')
 - Relabel all the rest data into NEGATIVE (or '0')

The approach of "one versus the rest"

- $\bullet\,$ For each class $C_k,$ change the problem into binary classification
 - **(**) Relabel training data with label C_k , into POSITIVE (or '1')
 - Relabel all the rest data into NEGATIVE (or '0')

This step is often called 1-of-K encoding. That is, only one is nonzero and everything else is zero.

Example: for class C_2 , data go through the following change

$$(\boldsymbol{x}_1, C_1) \to (\boldsymbol{x}_1, 0), (\boldsymbol{x}_2, C_3) \to (\boldsymbol{x}_2, 0), \dots, (\boldsymbol{x}_n, C_2) \to (\boldsymbol{x}_n, 1), \dots,$$

The approach of "one versus the rest"

- $\bullet\,$ For each class $C_k,$ change the problem into binary classification
 - **(**) Relabel training data with label C_k , into POSITIVE (or '1')
 - Relabel all the rest data into NEGATIVE (or '0')

This step is often called 1-of-K encoding. That is, only one is nonzero and everything else is zero.

Example: for class C_2 , data go through the following change

$$(\boldsymbol{x}_1, C_1) \to (\boldsymbol{x}_1, 0), (\boldsymbol{x}_2, C_3) \to (\boldsymbol{x}_2, 0), \dots, (\boldsymbol{x}_n, C_2) \to (\boldsymbol{x}_n, 1), \dots,$$

• Train K binary classifiers using logistic regression to differentiate the two classes

The approach of "one versus the rest"

- $\bullet\,$ For each class $C_k,$ change the problem into binary classification
 - **(**) Relabel training data with label C_k , into POSITIVE (or '1')
 - Relabel all the rest data into NEGATIVE (or '0')

This step is often called 1-of-K encoding. That is, only one is nonzero and everything else is zero.

Example: for class C_2 , data go through the following change

$$(\boldsymbol{x}_1, C_1) \to (\boldsymbol{x}_1, 0), (\boldsymbol{x}_2, C_3) \to (\boldsymbol{x}_2, 0), \dots, (\boldsymbol{x}_n, C_2) \to (\boldsymbol{x}_n, 1), \dots,$$

- $\bullet\,$ Train K binary classifiers using logistic regression to differentiate the two classes
- When predicting on $oldsymbol{x}$, combine the outputs of all binary classifiers
 - What if all the classifiers say NEGATIVE?
 - What if multiple classifiers say POSITIVE?

くほと くほと くほと

The approach of "one versus one"

- \bullet For each pair of classes C_k and $C_{k^\prime},$ change the problem into binary classification
 - **1** Relabel training data with label C_k , into POSITIVE (or '1')
 - 2 Relabel training data with label $C_{k'}$ into NEGATIVE (or '0')
 - 3 Disregard all other data

The approach of "one versus one"

- For each *pair* of classes C_k and $C_{k'}$, change the problem into binary classification
 - **1** Relabel training data with label C_k , into POSITIVE (or '1')
 - 2 Relabel training data with label $C_{k'}$ into NEGATIVE (or '0')
 - 3 *Disregard* all other data
 - Ex: for class C_1 and C_2 ,

 $(\boldsymbol{x}_1, C_1), (\boldsymbol{x}_2, C_3), (\boldsymbol{x}_3, C_2), \ldots \rightarrow (\boldsymbol{x}_1, 1), (\boldsymbol{x}_3, 0), \ldots$

The approach of "one versus one"

- \bullet For each pair of classes C_k and $C_{k^\prime},$ change the problem into binary classification
 - **1** Relabel training data with label C_k , into POSITIVE (or '1')
 - 2 Relabel training data with label $C_{k'}$ into NEGATIVE (or '0')
 - 3 *Disregard* all other data

Ex: for class
$$C_1$$
 and C_2 ,

$$(\boldsymbol{x}_1, C_1), (\boldsymbol{x}_2, C_3), (\boldsymbol{x}_3, C_2), \ldots \rightarrow (\boldsymbol{x}_1, 1), (\boldsymbol{x}_3, 0), \ldots$$

• Train K(K-1)/2 binary classifiers using logistic regression to differentiate the two classes

The approach of "one versus one"

- \bullet For each pair of classes C_k and $C_{k^\prime},$ change the problem into binary classification
 - **1** Relabel training data with label C_k , into POSITIVE (or '1')
 - 2 Relabel training data with label $C_{k'}$ into NEGATIVE (or '0')
 - 3 *Disregard* all other data

Ex: for class
$$C_1$$
 and C_2 ,

$$(\boldsymbol{x}_1, C_1), (\boldsymbol{x}_2, C_3), (\boldsymbol{x}_3, C_2), \ldots \rightarrow (\boldsymbol{x}_1, 1), (\boldsymbol{x}_3, 0), \ldots$$

- Train K(K-1)/2 binary classifiers using logistic regression to differentiate the two classes
- When predicting on x, combine the outputs of all binary classifiers There are K(K-1)/2 votes!

Pros of each approach

___ ▶

3

Pros of each approach

• one versus the rest: only needs to train K classifiers.

Pros of each approach

- one versus the rest: only needs to train K classifiers.
 - Makes a *big* difference if you have a lot of *classes* to go through.

Pros of each approach

- one versus the rest: only needs to train K classifiers.
 - Makes a *big* difference if you have a lot of *classes* to go through.
- one versus one: only needs to train a smaller subset of data (only those labeled with those two classes would be involved).

Pros of each approach

- one versus the rest: only needs to train K classifiers.
 - Makes a *big* difference if you have a lot of *classes* to go through.
- one versus one: only needs to train a smaller subset of data (only those labeled with those two classes would be involved).
 - Makes a *big* difference if you have a lot of *data* to go through.

Pros of each approach

- one versus the rest: only needs to train K classifiers.
 - Makes a *big* difference if you have a lot of *classes* to go through.
- one versus one: only needs to train a smaller subset of data (only those labeled with those two classes would be involved).
 - Makes a *big* difference if you have a lot of *data* to go through.

Bad about both of them

Combining classifiers' outputs seem to be a bit tricky.

Any other good methods?

Multinomial logistic regression

Intuition: from the decision rule of our naive Bayes classifier

$$y^* = \arg \max_k p(y = C_k | \boldsymbol{x}) = \arg \max_k \log p(\boldsymbol{x} | y = C_k) p(y = C_k)$$
$$= \arg \max_k \log \pi_k + \sum_i z_i \log \theta_{ki} = \arg \max_k \boldsymbol{w}_k^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}$$

A 🖓

Multinomial logistic regression

Intuition: from the decision rule of our naive Bayes classifier

$$y^* = \arg \max_k p(y = C_k | \boldsymbol{x}) = \arg \max_k \log p(\boldsymbol{x} | y = C_k) p(y = C_k)$$

= $\arg \max_k \log \pi_k + \sum_i z_i \log \theta_{ki} = \arg \max_k \boldsymbol{w}_k^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}$

Essentially, we are comparing

$$\boldsymbol{w}_1^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{w}_2^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}, \cdots, \boldsymbol{w}_{\mathsf{K}}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}$$

with one for each category.

First try

So, can we define the following conditional model?

$$p(y = C_k | \boldsymbol{x}) = \sigma[\boldsymbol{w}_k^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}]$$

3

< 🗇 🕨 🔸

First try

So, can we define the following conditional model?

$$p(y = C_k | \boldsymbol{x}) = \sigma[\boldsymbol{w}_k^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}]$$

This would *not* work because:

$$\sum_{k} p(y = C_k | \boldsymbol{x}) = \sum_{k} \sigma[\boldsymbol{w}_k^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}] \neq 1$$

as each summand can be any number (independently) between 0 and 1. *But we are close!*

First try

So, can we define the following conditional model?

$$p(y = C_k | \boldsymbol{x}) = \sigma[\boldsymbol{w}_k^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}]$$

This would *not* work because:

$$\sum_{k} p(y = C_k | \boldsymbol{x}) = \sum_{k} \sigma[\boldsymbol{w}_k^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}] \neq 1$$

as each summand can be any number (independently) between 0 and 1. *But we are close!*

We can learn the K linear models jointly to ensure this property holds!

Definition of multinomial logistic regression

Model

For each class C_k , we have a parameter vector \boldsymbol{w}_k and model the posterior probability as

$$p(C_k|\boldsymbol{x}) = \frac{e^{\boldsymbol{w}_k^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{x}}}{\sum_{k'} e^{\boldsymbol{w}_{k'}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{x}}} \quad \leftarrow \quad \text{This is called softmax function}$$

Definition of multinomial logistic regression

Model

For each class C_k , we have a parameter vector $oldsymbol{w}_k$ and model the posterior probability as

$$p(C_k | \boldsymbol{x}) = \frac{e^{\boldsymbol{w}_k^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}}}{\sum_{k'} e^{\boldsymbol{w}_{k'}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}}} \quad \leftarrow \quad \text{This is called softmax function}$$

Decision boundary: assign \boldsymbol{x} with the label that is the maximum of posterior

$$rg\max_k P(C_k|\boldsymbol{x}) \to rg\max_k \boldsymbol{w}_k^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}$$

How does the softmax function behave?

Suppose we have

$$w_1^{\mathrm{T}} x = 100, w_2^{\mathrm{T}} x = 50, w_3^{\mathrm{T}} x = -20$$

< 🗗 🕨

3
How does the softmax function behave?

Suppose we have

$$w_1^{\mathrm{T}} x = 100, w_2^{\mathrm{T}} x = 50, w_3^{\mathrm{T}} x = -20$$

We would pick the *winning* class label 1.

Softmax translates these scores into well-formed conditional probababilities

$$p(y=1|\boldsymbol{x}) = \frac{e^{100}}{e^{100} + e^{50} + e^{-20}} < 1$$

- preserves relative ordering of scores
- maps scores to values between 0 and 1 that also sum to 1

Sanity check

Multinomial model reduce to binary logistic regression when K = 2

$$p(C_1|\boldsymbol{x}) = \frac{e^{\boldsymbol{w}_1^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{x}}}{e^{\boldsymbol{w}_1^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{x}} + e^{\boldsymbol{w}_2^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{x}}} = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(\boldsymbol{w}_1 - \boldsymbol{w}_2)^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{x}}}$$
$$= \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{x}}}$$

Multinomial thus generalizes the (binary) logistic regression to deal with multiple classes.

(日) (周) (三) (三)

Parameter estimation

Discriminative approach: maximize conditional likelihood

$$\log P(\mathcal{D}) = \sum_{n} \log P(y_n | \boldsymbol{x}_n)$$

< 4 → <

3

Parameter estimation

Discriminative approach: maximize conditional likelihood

$$\log P(\mathcal{D}) = \sum_{n} \log P(y_n | \boldsymbol{x}_n)$$

We will change y_n to $y_n = [y_{n1} \ y_{n2} \ \cdots \ y_{nK}]^T$, a *K*-dimensional vector using 1-of-K encoding.

$$y_{nk} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } y_n = k \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Ex: if $y_n = 2$, then, $y_n = [0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ \cdots \ 0]^{\mathrm{T}}$.

Parameter estimation

Discriminative approach: maximize conditional likelihood

$$\log P(\mathcal{D}) = \sum_{n} \log P(y_n | \boldsymbol{x}_n)$$

We will change y_n to $y_n = [y_{n1} \ y_{n2} \ \cdots \ y_{nK}]^T$, a *K*-dimensional vector using 1-of-K encoding.

$$y_{nk} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } y_n = k \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Ex: if $y_n = 2$, then, $y_n = [0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ \cdots \ 0]^{\mathrm{T}}$.

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{n} \log P(y_n | \boldsymbol{x}_n) = \sum_{n} \log \prod_{k=1}^{K} P(C_k | \boldsymbol{x}_n)^{y_{nk}} = \sum_{n} \sum_{k} y_{nk} \log P(C_k | \boldsymbol{x}_n)$$

Cross-entropy error function

Definition: negative log likelihood

$$\mathcal{E}(\boldsymbol{w}_1, \boldsymbol{w}_2, \dots, \boldsymbol{w}_K) = -\sum_n \sum_k y_{nk} \log P(C_k | \boldsymbol{x}_n)$$

___ ▶

Cross-entropy error function

Definition: negative log likelihood

$$\mathcal{E}(oldsymbol{w}_1,oldsymbol{w}_2,\ldots,oldsymbol{w}_K) = -\sum_n \sum_k y_{nk} \log P(C_k|oldsymbol{x}_n)$$

Properties

- Convex, therefore unique global optimum
- Optimization requires numerical procedures, analogous to those used for binary logistic regression