Robust Covariate Shift Regression

Xiangli Chen Mathew Monfort Anqi Liu Brian D. Ziebart

Department of Computer Science
University of Illinois at Chicago
Chicago, IL 60607
{xchen40,mmontfo2,aliu33,bziebart}@uic.edu

Abstract

In many learning settings, the source data available to train a regression model differs from the target data it encounters when making predictions due to input distribution shift. Appropriately dealing with this situation remains an important challenge. Existing methods attempt to “reweight” the source data samples to better represent the target domain, but this introduces strong inductive biases that are highly extrapolative and can often err greatly in practice. We propose a robust approach for regression under covariate shift that embraces the uncertainty resulting from sample selection bias by producing regression models that are explicitly robust to it. We demonstrate the benefits of our approach on a number of regression tasks.

1 Introduction

Linear regression is prevalently employed across the data sciences to understand relationships between variables and to make predictions [18, 7, 27]. It is commonly assumed, in various ways, that the labeled source data available to train the linear regression model (pairs of input vectors and output scalars) is representative of the target data that it will use for making predictions (given only input vectors). However, in many datasets, this assumption is not valid; source data can often come from biased portions of the input space and measured relationships often violate the linearity assumption for the output variable made by the linear regression model. One form of this problem, where source data is biased and potentially non-representative, is known as covariate shift. It occurs when the (stochastic) mapping from inputs to output is shared by the source and target data (i.e., source/target data is distributed according to $f_{\text{src}}(x)f(y|x)$ and $f_{\text{trg}}(x)f(y|x)$), but the distribution of inputs can vary ($f_{\text{src}}(x) \neq f_{\text{trg}}(x)$).

Figure 1: Hahn1 dataset [21] representing the result of a National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) study of the thermal expansion of copper.

Existing methods for addressing covariate shift employ importance weighting in an attempt to reweight available source data so that it may serve as an unbiased estimate for functions of the target data [30]. Unfortunately, when the amount of covariate shift is substantial and the number of source samples is small, importance weighting often leads to very high variance estimates [13] and inaccurate regression models. We illustrate the fundamental problems faced in regression under covariate shift using the Hahn1 dataset shown in Figure 1 as a running example in this paper. Locally, the datapoints appear linear in many portions of this dataset. A biased sample of datapoints from strictly within those regions will often mislead existing importance weighting methods into incorrectly linearly extrapolating beyond the data.
Robust Covariate Shift Regression

Drawing on a recently developed method for robustly learning classifiers from data that has sample selection bias [26], we propose a novel robust approach for regression in the covariate shift setting. Our approach assumes that the stochastic mapping from inputs to the output variable is as similar as possible to a “zero-knowledge” reference distribution, except where statistics measured from source data indicate otherwise. We develop our robust bias-aware regression approach and illustrate its behavior on this dataset before evaluating it using additional higher-dimensional datasets.

2 Related Work

Domain adaptation tasks of learning from a source domain and predicting in a target domain have been an area of significant investigation [15, 4, 8, 19, 39, 13], but it is an inherently difficult task [5]. We focus on the special case of covariate shift [30, 38, 16, 17, 22, 32, 9, 37, 31, 36, 29], in which the conditional distribution of the predicted variable is shared in both source and target domains. In this section, we review the least squares linear regression formulation, existing covariate shift methods for regression, and robust minimax methods leveraged by our approach.

2.1 Least squares linear regression

Ordinary least squares (OLS) regression assumes a linear relationship between input variables \( x \) and output variable \( y, \hat{y}_{a,b}(x) = b^T x + a \), that is parameterized by weights \( a \) (scalar) and \( b \) (vector). A standard method for estimating these parameters is to minimize the sum of squared residuals between estimator \( \hat{y}_{a,b} \) and the actual output variable \( y \) for each example \( i \). This is equivalent to an expected squared loss over the empirical distribution \( \hat{f}(x) \hat{f}(y|x) \):

\[
\argmin_{a,b} \mathbb{E}_{\hat{f}(x) \hat{f}(y|x)} [(Y - \hat{y}_{a,b}(X))^2].
\]  

This optimization (1), is equivalent to maximizing the conditional log likelihood of sample data,

\[
\argmax_{a,b,\sigma} \mathbb{E}_{\hat{f}(x) \hat{f}(y|x)} [\log \hat{f}_{a,b,\sigma}(Y|X)],
\]  

with \( \hat{f}(y|x) \) normally distributed with mean \( \hat{y}_{a,b}(x) \) and variance \( \sigma^2 \) [7]. This corresponds to a zero-mean Gaussian residual error model with variance \( \sigma^2 \).

2.2 Importance weighted linear regression

Under covariate shift, the input of source data for estimating the linear regression model comes from a distribution \( f_{src}(x) \) that differs from the target data input distribution \( f_{trg}(x) \) on which it will be employed to make predictions. OLS under covariate shift (1) does not minimize the residual error (equivalently maximize the likelihood) of data drawn from the target distribution, \( f_{trg}(x)f(y|x) \), and it is not a consistent estimator. Importance weighted least squares (IWLS) [31] is often employed to reweight the source data by the importance ratio, \( f_{trg}(x)/f_{src}(x) \), to estimate the target distribution’s residual error, which is then minimized:

\[
\argmin_{a,b} \mathbb{E}_{f_{src}(x)f(y|x)} \left[ \frac{f_{trg}(X)}{f_{src}(X)} (Y - \hat{y}_{a,b}(X))^2 \right].
\]  

This provides consistent estimates that minimize the target residual error asymptotically:

\[
\lim_{n \to \infty} \min_{a,b} \mathbb{E}_{f_{src}(x)f(y|x)} \left[ \frac{f_{trg}(X)}{f_{src}(X)} (Y - \hat{y}_{a,b}(X))^2 \right] = \min_{a,b} \mathbb{E}_{f_{src}(x)f(y|x)} [(Y - \hat{y}_{a,b}(X))] .
\]

However, finite sample generalization bounds require the importance ratio’s first moment to be finite [12], \( \mathbb{E}_{f_{src}(x)}|f_{trg}(X)/f_{src}(X)| < \infty \). Unfortunately, many biased source distributions violate this requirement (e.g., when the target distribution has larger variance than the source distribution). Estimates that result from reweighting under those distributions typically have high variance, as a small number of source datapoints with large importance weights, \( f_{trg}(x)/f_{src}(x) \), determine the regression model’s parameters.

2.3 Adaptive importance weighted regression

In practice, the adaptive importance weighted least squares (AIWLS) method, which is a slightly stabilized variant of IWLS, is often preferable [31]. Following Eq. (2), the model maximizes the weighted likelihood:

\[
\argmax_{a,b,\sigma} \mathbb{E}_{f_{src}(x)f(y|x)} \left[ \left( \frac{f_{trg}(X)}{f_{src}(X)} \right)^\gamma \log \hat{f}_{a,b,\sigma}(Y|X) \right].
\]  

where \( \gamma \in (0,1) \) is the flattening parameter. It balances the estimator’s consistency and stability, with ordinary least squares (\( \gamma = 0 \)), and importance weighted least squares (\( \gamma = 1 \)) at its extremes.

2.4 Robust minimax learning

Minimax robust estimation [33, 20] prescribes the predictor that minimizes the worst-case prediction loss [2, 35]. When the logarithmic loss (log loss), \( \mathbb{E}_{f_{trg}(x)f(y|x)} [-\log \hat{f}(y|x)] \), is employed as the loss function, the minimax robust estimation approach reduces to the principle of maximum entropy [23].

\[
\max_{f(y|x)} H(Y|X) \triangleq \mathbb{E}_{f_{trg}(x)f(y|x)} [-\log f(Y|X)]
\]  

such that: \( \mathbb{E}_{f(x)f(y|x)}[\Phi(X,Y)] = \mathbb{E}_{f(x)f(y|x)}[\Phi(X,Y)] \).
This principle is a foundational method for deriving many familiar exponential family distributions (e.g., Gaussian, exponential, Laplacian, logistic regression, conditional random fields [24]) by incorporating constraints of various known statistics, \( \Phi(\cdot) \) [34]. The OLS model, \( \hat{y} = a + b^T x \), results from robustly minimizing the log-loss in the independent and identically distributed (IID) setting, subject to matching quadratic interaction features: \( \Phi(x, y) = \text{vector}([y x^T 1]^T [y x^T 1]) \).

A recently developed approach for learning under sample selection bias investigates learning probabilistic classifiers when the entropy measure of Eq. (6) is evaluated according to the target distribution, \( f_{\text{trg}}(x) \), and the constraints of the maximum entropy optimization are expectations over the source distribution [26]. We build on this approach by extending it to predict continuous-valued variables using a relative entropy (Kullback-Leibler divergence) formulation that avoids distribution degeneracies in this paper.

3 Robust Bias-Aware Regression

3.1 Minimax estimation formulation

A natural loss function to consider is the conditional logloss on the target distribution,

\[
\logloss_{f_{\text{trg}}}(f(y|x), \hat{f}(y|x)) \triangleq \mathbb{E}_{f_{\text{trg}}(x)f(y|x)}[-\log \hat{f}(Y|X)].
\]

This conditional logloss measures the amount of expected “surprise” (in bits) to see samples from \( f(y|x) \) when samples are assumed to come from \( \hat{f}(y|x) \) instead [14]. As described in §2.4, when the source and target distribution match (or their differences are ignored), the minimax robust estimation approach with this loss function subject to quadratic interaction feature constraints yields the ordinary least squares solution to regression. Thus, using this loss function as a starting point can be viewed as a natural generalization of standard linear regression methods.

We define the difference in conditional logloss between an estimator \( \hat{f}(y|x) \) and a baseline conditional distribution \( f_0(y|x) \) on the target data distribution \( f_{\text{trg}}(x)f(y|x) \) as the relative loss:

\[
\text{rel-loss}_{f_{\text{trg}}}(f(y|x), \hat{f}(y|x), f_0(y|x)) \triangleq \logloss_{f_{\text{trg}}}(f(y|x), \hat{f}(y|x)) - \logloss_{f_{\text{trg}}}(f(y|x), f_0(y|x))
\]

\[
= \mathbb{E}_{f_{\text{trg}}(x)f(y|x)} \left[-\log \frac{\hat{f}(Y|X)}{f_0(Y|X)} \right].
\]

It measures the relative “surprise” of data from \( f_{\text{trg}}(x) \) assumed to come from \( \hat{f}(y|x) \) instead of \( f_0(y|x) \).

We consider the setting in which the conditional distribution \( f(y|x) \) is known to satisfy certain statistical properties (denoted by set \( \Xi \)):

\[
\Xi \triangleq \{ f(y|x) \mid \mathbb{E}_{f_{\text{src}}(x)f(y|x)}[\Phi(X, Y)] = c \},
\]

where \( c = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n} \phi(x_i, y_i) \) is a vector of statistics measured from training data. We seek the regression model estimator \( \hat{f}(y|x) \) that is most robust to the “most surprising” distribution that can arise from covariate shift (formally expressed by Definition 1).

**Definition 1.** The robust bias-aware regression estimator, \( \hat{f}(y|x) \), is the saddle point solution of the following minimax optimization:

\[
\min_{f(y|x)} \max_{f_{\text{trg}}(x), \hat{f}(y|x), f_0(y|x)} \text{rel-loss}_{f_{\text{trg}}}(f(y|x), \hat{f}(y|x), f_0(y|x)).
\]

This minimax optimization can be interpreted as a two-player game in which the estimator first chooses \( \hat{f}(y|x) \) to minimize relative loss, and then the adversarial evaluation player chooses \( f(y|x) \) to maximize relative loss. Note that both conditional probabilities are also constrained to the conditional probability simplex, denoted \( \Delta \): \( \forall x \in X, \forall y \in Y, f(y|x) \geq 0; \forall x \in X, \int_Y f(y|x) \, dy = 1 \).

**Theorem 1.** The solution of the minimax relative logloss optimization (Def. 1) minimizes the target distribution conditional Kullback-Leibler divergence, \( D_{f_{\text{trg}}(x), \hat{f}(y|x), f_0(y|x)}(\hat{f}(Y|X)||f_0(Y|X)) \)

\[
= \mathbb{E}_{f_{\text{trg}}(x)f(y|x)} \left[ \log \frac{f_0(Y|X)}{\hat{f}(Y|X)} \right],
\]

subject to matching statistics, \( c \), on the source distribution:

\[
\min_{\hat{f}(y|x) \in \Delta} D_{f_{\text{trg}}(x), \hat{f}(y|x)}(\hat{f}(Y|X)||f_0(Y|X)) \quad \text{such that: } \mathbb{E}_{f_{\text{src}}(x)f(y|x)}[\Phi(X, Y)] = c.
\]

We note that the objective function of this optimization is convex and the constraints are each affine. Thus, standard tools from convex optimization can be employed to obtain the solution to the constrained optimization. We establish the parametric solution to the optimization problem in Theorem 2.

**Theorem 2.** The robust bias-aware regression for target distribution \( f_{\text{trg}}(x) \) estimated using constraints from the source distribution \( f_{\text{src}}(x) \) takes the form:

\[
\hat{f}_0(y|x) \propto f_0(y|x)e^{-\frac{f_{\text{src}}(x)}{f_{\text{trg}}(x)} \theta^T \Phi(x, y)},
\]

with parameters obtained via target distribution maximum conditional log likelihood estimation:

\[
\theta = \arg \max_{\theta} \mathbb{E}_{f_{\text{trg}}(x)f(y|x)} \left[ \log \hat{f}_0(Y|X) \right].
\]

The distribution’s certainty is moderated by the density ratio, \( f_{\text{src}}(x)/f_{\text{trg}}(x) \). Note that it is the inverse of
the importance weight, \( f_{\text{trg}}(x)/f_{\text{src}}(x) \) from Eq. (3). As the density ratio \( f_{\text{src}}(x)/f_{\text{trg}}(x) \) goes to zero, the estimator \( \hat{f}(y|x) \) converges to the baseline conditional probability \( f_0(y|x) \). As the ratio goes towards infinity, the estimator converges to a deterministic point estimate. The behavior of the robust approach is shown in Figure 2. Where source data is sparse, its uncertainty increases substantially to provide a more uncertain— and in this case, better—fit to the non-linearity of the underlying dataset. In contrast, least squares (LS) and importance-weighted least squares (IWLS) estimate their extrapolative uncertainty based only on the (reweighted) source data, yielding over-confident predictions for the target distribution.

3.2 Parameter Estimation

Optimizing Eq. (11) appears to be difficult because samples from \( f_{\text{trg}}(x)f(y|x) \) are unavailable to estimate the target distribution log likelihood. However, the form of \( f_0(y|x) \) prescribed by the robust bias-aware approach (Theorem 2), enables the gradient of the target likelihood function to be computed efficiently using the source distribution (Theorem 3).

**Theorem 3.** The gradient of the conditional log likelihood estimation takes the following form:

\[
\nabla_\theta \mathbb{E}_{f_{\text{trg}}(x)f(y|x)} \left[ \log \hat{f}_0(Y|X) \right] = \mathbb{E}_{f_{\text{src}}(x)f_0(y|x)} \left[ \Phi(X,Y) \right] - c. \quad (12)
\]

Unfortunately, computing the needed expectations can be difficult when arbitrary feature functions \( \Phi(\cdot, \cdot) \), are employed. By restricting consideration to quadratic feature functions and conjugate baseline conditional distributions \( f_0(y|x) \), a distribution \( \hat{f}(y|x) \) with tractable normalization and expectation computations is obtained (Corollary 1). As noted in §2.4, this set of quadratic features is also the basis for standard least squares linear regression under a robust logarithmic loss formulation. Thus, the representational power in terms of features is equivalent to OLS and IWLS variants (§2.2).

**Corollary 1.** If the base distribution is conditional Gaussian, \( f_0(y|x) = N(\mu_{o}, \sigma_{o}^2) \), and the feature function has a quadratic form, \( \Phi(x, y) = [y x^T]_1^T [y x^T]_1 \) (where \( \theta \) is the vectorized matrix \( M \)):

\[
\theta^T \text{vector}(\Phi(x, y)) = M \begin{bmatrix} y \\ x \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y \\ x \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}^T = \begin{bmatrix} y \\ x \end{bmatrix}^T M \begin{bmatrix} y \\ x \end{bmatrix}^T,
\]

then the robust bias-aware regression is also a conditional Gaussian distribution:

\[
\hat{f}_{M}(y|x) \sim N(\mu(x, M), \sigma^2(x, M)), \text{ where:}
\]

\[
M = \begin{bmatrix} M_{(y, y)} & M_{(y, x)} \\ M_{(x, x)} & M_{(1, 1)} \end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
\mu(x, M) = \left( \frac{2 f_{\text{src}}(x)}{f_{\text{trg}}(x)} M_{(y, y)} + \frac{1}{\sigma_{o}^2} \right)^{-1}
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix} -2 f_{\text{src}}(x) M_{(y, x)} \times 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}^T + \frac{1}{\sigma_{o}^2} \mu_{o}
\]

\[
(13)
\]

\[
\sigma^2(x, M) = \left( \frac{2 f_{\text{src}}(x)}{f_{\text{trg}}(x)} M_{(y, x)} + \frac{1}{\sigma_{o}^2 \mu_{o}} \right)^{-1}. \quad (14)
\]

Correspondingly, by Theorem 2, model parameters are selected by maximizing the target log likelihood:

\[
M = \arg\max_M \mathbb{E}_{f_{\text{trg}}(x)f_0(y|x)} \left[ \log \hat{f}_M(Y|X) \right], \quad (15)
\]

with gradient:

\[
\mathbb{E}_{f_{\text{src}}(x)f_M(y|x)} \left[ \Phi(X,Y) \right] - c. \quad (16)
\]
**Base Distribution** The base distribution plays an important role in our robust regression approach. A simple and straightforward way to set up the base distribution is to assume that it is a Gaussian distribution $N(\mu_0, \sigma_o^2)$ with mean and variance estimated from the range $[y_{\text{min}}, y_{\text{max}}]$ of $y$’s of the source dataset $D_{\text{src}}$:

$$
\mu_0 = \frac{y_{\text{min}} + y_{\text{max}}}{2}, \quad \sigma_o^2 = \left( \frac{y_{\text{max}} - \mu_0}{2} \right)^2.
$$

(17)

Hence all of the $y$’s of the source dataset are located within the 95% confidence of the base distribution.

**Optimization and Regularization** Due to the convexity [10] of the robust formulation (Theorem 1), convergence to a global optimum is guaranteed using standard gradient-based methods. We solve the optimization problem with the quadratic feature function defined in Corollary 1 by its dual form (Eq. (15)). Computing the gradient (Eq. (16)) requires taking the expectation over the source distribution, which is challenging. Instead, we use the empirical expectation over the source dataset, which approximates the real expectation in the constraints:

$$
E_{f_{\text{src}}(\mathbf{x})f_{\text{M}}(y|x)}[\Phi(X, Y)] \approx E_{f_{\text{src}}f_{\text{M}}(y|x)}[\Phi(x, Y)].
$$

Additionally, only estimates of source distribution statistics, $\hat{c} \triangleq E_{f_{\text{src}}(\mathbf{x})f_{\text{M}}(y|x)}[\Phi(X, Y)] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \hat{Y}(x_i, y_i)$, from sample data are used to constrain the estimated conditional probability distribution, $f(y|x)$, rather than exact source distribution statistics, $c = E_{f_{\text{src}}f_{\text{M}}(y|x)}[\Phi(X, Y)]$. This introduces finite sample error that should be accounted for in the parameter estimation. One way to accomplish this is by relaxing the source distribution constraints to incorporate some slack, $\epsilon$. Primal relaxed constraints correspond with regularization of the conditional log likelihood maximization in the dual [1]. Following Theorem 3, the gradient under $\ell_2$-regularization is:

$$
E_{f_{\text{src}}(\mathbf{x})f(y|x)}[\Phi(X, Y)] - \hat{c} - \lambda \mathbf{M}
= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} E_{f_{\text{M}}(y|x)}[\Phi(x_i, Y)] - \hat{c} - \lambda \mathbf{M},
$$

(18)

where $\lambda$ is the regularization weight.

Algorithm 1 shows the batch gradient descent method for robust bias-aware regression.

**3.3 Relation with other methods**

**Equivalence with Importance Weighting** Robust-bias aware regression (RBA) is a general framework that reduces to maximizing the relative target conditional entropy under certain constraints.

**Algorithm 1** Batch gradient descent method for robust bias-aware regression

**Input:** source dataset $\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^N$, source/target distributions $f_{\text{src}}(\mathbf{x})$, $f_{\text{trg}}(\mathbf{x})$, feature function $\Phi(x, y)$, statistics $\hat{c}$, learning rate $\gamma$, convergence threshold $\tau$ and regularization weight $\lambda$.

**Output:** Model parameters $\mathbf{M}$

**initialize** $\mathbf{M}$

**repeat**

for each source data example $i$

$$
\mu(x_i, M) \leftarrow \left( 2 \frac{f_{\text{src}}(x_i)}{f_{\text{trg}}(x_i)} M_{(y, y_i)} + \frac{1}{\sigma_2^2} \right)^{-1}
$$

$$
\left( -2 \frac{f_{\text{src}}(x_i)}{f_{\text{trg}}(x_i)} M_{(y, x_i)} \frac{x_i}{1} + \frac{1}{\sigma_2^2} \mu_o \right)
$$

$$
\sigma^2(x_i, M) \leftarrow \left( 2 \frac{f_{\text{src}}(x_i)}{f_{\text{trg}}(x_i)} M_{(y, y_i)} + \frac{1}{\sigma_2^2} \right)^{-1}
$$

end for

$$
\nabla L \leftarrow \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} E_{f_{\text{M}}(y|x)}[\Phi(x_i, Y)] - \hat{c} - \lambda \mathbf{M}
$$

$$
\mathbf{M} \leftarrow \mathbf{M} - \gamma \nabla L
$$

until $||\nabla L|| \leq \tau$

**return** $\mathbf{M}$

Due to a lack of target data, constraints are usually chosen to match feature expectations under the source distribution. However, it could be helpful to manipulate the constraints and incorporate feature matching under a different distribution based on some side information, corresponding to different assumptions. We assume the statistics provided by expert knowledge or computed under a generalized distribution are $c'$. When we incorporate the strong assumption that the feature expectation under the target distribution is equivalent to the expectation of reweighted features on source data, RBA is equivalent to IWLS (Theorem 4).

**Theorem 4.** When a target-distribution-based constraint, $E_{f_{\text{trg}}(\mathbf{x})} f(y|x) \Phi(X, Y) = c'$ is applied, and the feature function takes the quadratic form of Corollary 1, RBA regression is equivalent to IWLS regression.

This indicates that IWLS is a special case under the general robust bias-aware regression framework.

**Difference from Bayesian linear regression**

Figure 2(c) may appear similar to a Bayesian treatment of the regression problem (e.g., a Gaussian process). We establish a key difference between our approach and the comparable Bayesian technique, Bayesian linear regression model (BLR), here. By letting $\theta^T = [b^T \alpha]$ and $\hat{y}_t(x) = [x^T 1] \theta$, the linear regression model becomes:

$$
f(y|x) = \hat{y}_t(x) + \epsilon \text{ where } \epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2).
$$

(19)
If we treat $\sigma^2$ as a known constant, BLR [7] assumes a prior distribution for $\theta$. The multivariate Gaussian conjugate prior, $\theta \sim N(\mu, \Sigma)$, is commonly applied. Given source data $(x_i, y_i)_{i=1}^N$, the posterior distribution of $\theta$ is inferred by Bayes’ rule:

$$f(\theta | X, y) = N(A^{-1}\Sigma^{-1}\mu + \sigma^{-2}X^Ty, A^{-1}),$$

where $X$ is a $N \times (d + 1)$ design matrix with each row $[x_i^T, y_i]$, $y = [y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_N]^T$ and $A = \sigma^{-2}X^TX + \Sigma^{-1}$. The predictive distribution $f(y|x, X, y)$ for target datapoint $x_t$ is given by averaging the output of all possible linear models with respect to the posterior, yielding a conditional Gaussian distribution $N(\bar{x}_i), \Sigma(\bar{x}_i))$:

$$\mu(x_t) = [x_t^T]A^{-1}\Sigma^{-1}\mu + \sigma^{-2}X^Ty$$

$$\Sigma(x_t) = [x_t^T]A^{-1}\Sigma x_t + \Sigma$$

Thus, as the amount of source data increases, BLR converges to the OLS regression model [7], minimizing source distribution squared loss rather than target distribution squared loss. In contrast, RBA provides non-linear prediction means that robustly minimize target logloss with uncertainty in its distribution that is moderated by the density ratio.

**Difference from RBA via differential entropy (RBADE)** A straightforward extension of RBA for continuous-valued variables is to build RBA via conditional differential entropy $H(Y|X)$. Following the similar procedure built for RBA via KL-divergence in section 3, the resulting conditional Gaussian distribution of RBADE has the following form:

$$\mu(x, M) = -(M(y,y))^{-1}(M(y,x)) \begin{bmatrix} x \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\sigma^2(x, M) = \left( \frac{f_{src}(x)}{f_{trg}(x)} M(y,y) \right)^{-1}.$$  

We note that when the density ration $f_{src}(x)/f_{trg}(x)$ goes to zero, the predictor will give very large logloss due to predictions produced that have very large uncertainty (variance). In contrast, our proposed RBA via KL-divergence (RBAKL) converges to the base distribution $f_{o}(y|x)$. A base distribution provides an upper bound of logloss of RBAKL.

### 4 Experiments

#### 4.1 Datasets

We employ publicly available regression datasets from the UCI repository [3] to evaluate our approach. The number of examples and features, and a basic description of the output of each dataset are listed in Table 1. We refer to Appendix B for more detailed information on each dataset.

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#### 4.2 Constructing dataset with bias

We consider experimental settings with both synthetically created bias and naturally occurring bias. The amounts of source and target data, and the type of bias for each experiment are listed in Table 2.

**Synthetically biased data:** We first evaluate our approach on datasets with artificially created bias between the source and target distributions. This allows us to show the generalizability of the proposed method on a larger number of controlled experiments. Given a dataset $D = \{x_i, y_i\}_{i=1}^n$, we create biased source $D_{src}$ and target $D_{trg}$ datasets using the following sampling procedure:

1. Split $D$ randomly and evenly into two disjoint datasets $D_1$ and $D_2$.
2. Compute the sample mean $\tilde{x}$ and sample covariance $Q$ of $D_1$.
3. Construct a Gaussian distribution $N(\tilde{x}, Q)$ and sample a data $x_{seed}$ to construct another Gaussian distribution $N(x_{seed}, \alpha Q)$ with bias weight $\alpha \in [0, 1]$. We employ $\alpha = 0.3$ in our experiments.
4. Sample from $D_1$ in proportion to $N(x_{seed}, \alpha Q)$ to get the biased source dataset $D_{src}$.
5. Let $D_2$ be the target dataset $D_{trg}$.

Our sampling procedure is motivated by the purpose of learning from a biased source dataset and comparing prediction performance on an unbiased target dataset.
Naturally Biased Data: To highlight the benefits of our method in practice, we also conduct experiments under naturally occurring bias. The crime dataset is separated into pairs of source and target data where the source only contains data for a single state and the target contains data for all other states combined. We average the results of training with each state as the source and the other states as the target. The Parkinsons dataset is separated by different age ranges. The source data includes all samples of subjects whose age is below 59 while the target dataset holds samples with subjects ranging in age from 60 to 69. For the wine quality dataset, we train our model on white wine samples as the source dataset, and then use red wine samples as the target dataset. Finally, we evaluate our approach on a large, high-dimensional dataset: the IndoorLocation dataset. We use data collected from low floors as source data and data collected from high floors as target data.

4.3 Density Estimation

Multivariate Gaussian Kernel density estimation [7] is a popular density estimation method that converges to the true probability density of samples asymptotically. Unfortunately it suffers from the curse of dimensionality and is not reliable in high-dimensional problems. Importance weighted methods have been proposed where logistic regression is used to directly form the estimations [31]. By applying Bayes theorem, the importance ratio can be written as:

$$\frac{f_{\text{trg}}(x)}{f_{\text{src}}(x)} = \frac{n_{\text{src}}}{n_{\text{trg}}} \exp(\omega^T \begin{bmatrix} x \\ 1 \end{bmatrix})$$

where $\omega$ is selected to maximize the (regularized) likelihood of source and target datapoints, which need not be labeled. We refer the reader to previous work [28, 11, 6, 31] for a full description of the derivation for this approach.

4.4 Comparison Approaches

We compare our approach, robust-bias aware regression via KL-divergence (RBAKLD), with six other regression methods, which each produce (conditional) Gaussian estimates. We evaluate the empirical logloss of each model on target data $D_{\text{trg}}$:

$$-\frac{1}{n_{\text{trg}}} \sum_{i=1}^{n_{\text{trg}}} \log f(y_i | \mu(x_i), \sigma^2(x_i)).$$

The methods are:

- BS: Gaussian distribution $Y \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ is independent of input $x$ with mean and variance estimated from source data (17).

- Robust bias-aware regression using differential entropy (RBAPDE) yields the conditional Gaussian distribution $Y|X \sim N(\mu(x, M), \sigma^2(x, M))$ with mean and variance defined by Equation (22) and (23) respectively, and $M$ estimated via, e.g., gradient descent.

Bayesian linear regression (BLR) provides the conditional Gaussian distribution $Y|X \sim N(\mu(x), \Sigma(x))$ with mean and variance specified by Equation (20) and (21) respectively. In practice, it is challenging to get the prior information for a Bayesian approach. Here we assume the prior distribution of $\theta$ follows a Gaussian distribution $N(0, I)$ where $I$ is the identity matrix. The variance $\sigma^2$ of noise $\epsilon$ (Equation (19)) is the same as the optimal estimator of variance of LS.

LS, IWLS and BAIWLS share the common formulation of the conditional Gaussian distribution $Y|X \sim N(b^T x + a, \sigma^2)$. The linear parameters $(b, a)$ of LS are estimated by equation (2) that is to maximize the log-likelihood of source data which also gives the optimal estimator of $\sigma^2$ [7]. Being different from LS, the linear parameters $(b, a)$ and the variance $\sigma^2$ of adaptive importance weighted least squares (AIWLS) are estimated by maximizing adaptive reweighted log-likelihood from Eq. (5), which is equivalent to minimizing adaptive reweighted residual error (Equation (5)) when estimating $(b, a)$. The argument is very similar to the case of LS. The linear parameters $(b, a)$ and the variance $\sigma^2$ of IWLS are given by Equation (5) with $\gamma = 1$. For BAIWLS, we consider the minimum empirical logloss over target dataset $D_{\text{trg}}$ achieved by choosing the optimal flattening parameter $\gamma$ from $\gamma = \{0.1, 0.2, ..., 0.8, 0.9\}$.

4.5 Results

As shown in Figure 3, RBAKLD has the smallest average empirical log loss, and it provides better performance than the other methods on almost all experiment settings. The result varies as the amount of synthetic bias source data increases, which highlights the motivation of RBAKLD. When there is only a small amount of source data that is significantly biased from the target data, the performance of LS, IWLS and BAIWLS are much worse than RBAKLD of which the performance guided by baseline is still sound. When more of the source data is given, and the covariate shift still exists, RBAKLD makes significant improvement from the baseline and still performs better than nearly all other methods even if they have better performance than the baseline in some cases. When the amount of source data gets close to the target so that the degree of covariate shift is small, the performance of RBAKLD converges to the performance of the other linear regression methods.

As for BAIWLS, we apply a whole range of flattening parameter $\gamma (0.1, 0.2, ..., 0.8, 0.9)$ in each experiment and choose the one which gives the minimum empiri-
Robust Covariate Shift Regression

5 Conclusion and Future Work

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References


