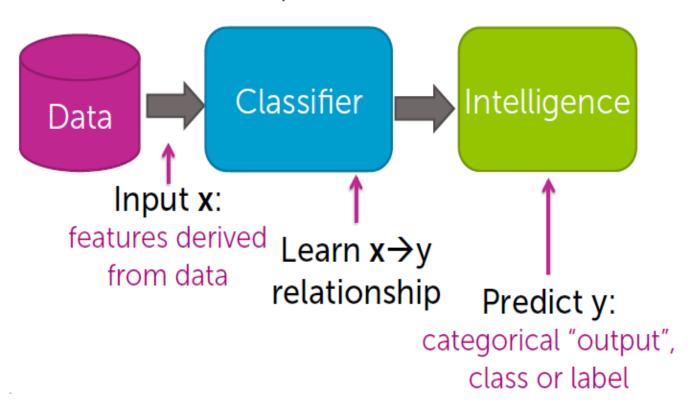
# INTRODUCTION TO DATA SCIENCE

This lecture is based on course by E. Fox and C. Guestrin, Univ of Washington

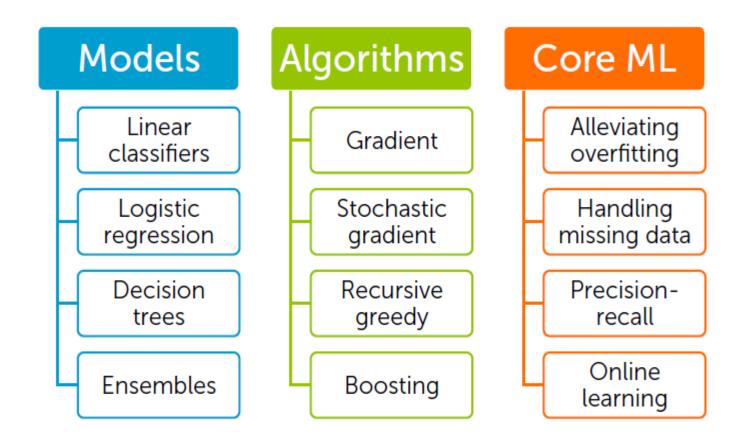
10/11, 17/11, 24/11/2020 WFAiS UJ, Informatyka Stosowana I stopień studiów

#### What is a classification?

#### From features to predictions



#### Overwiew of the content



## Linear classifier

#### An inteligent restaurant review system

## It's a big day & I want to book a table at a nice Japanese restaurant



#### Reviews



#### Positive reviews not positive about everything

#### Sample review:

Watching the chefs create incredible edible art made the experience very unique.

My wife tried their <u>ramen</u> and it was pretty forgettable.

All the <u>sushi</u> was delicious! Easily best <u>sushi</u> in Seattle.

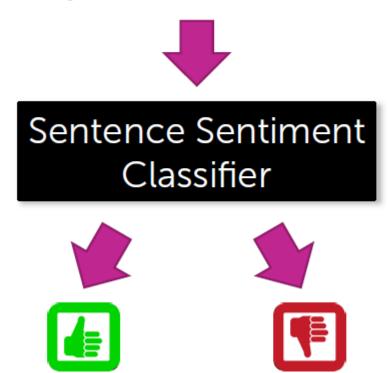




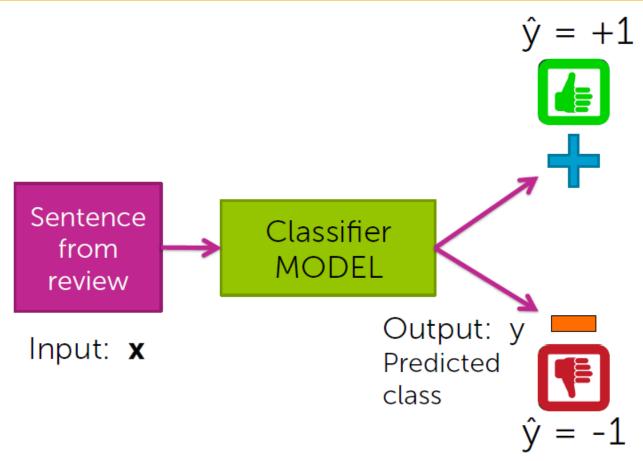


## Classifying sentiment of review

Easily best sushi in Seattle.



#### Classifier



Note: we'll start talking about 2 classes, and address multiclass later

## A (linear) classifier

Will use training data to learn a weight for each word

Word	Weight
good	1.0
great	1.5
awesome	2.7
bad	-1.0
terrible	-2.1
awful	-3.3
restaurant, the, we, where,	0.0

## Scoring a sentence

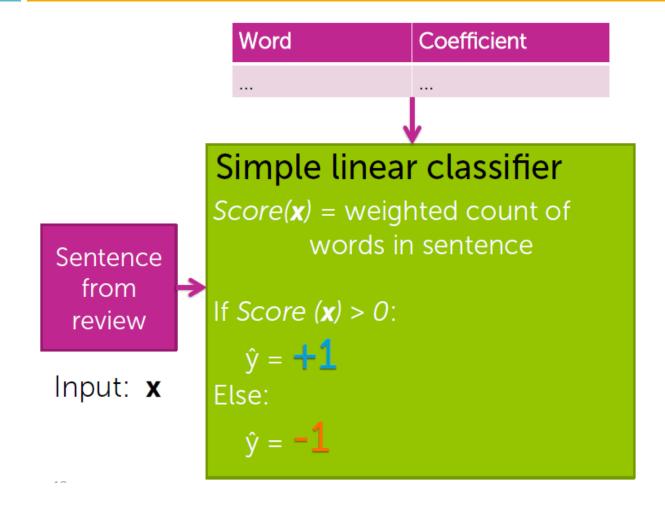
Word	Coefficient
good	1.0
great	1.2
awesome	1.7
bad	-1.0
terrible	-2.1
awful	-3.3
restaurant, the, we, where,	0.0

Input **x**<sub>i</sub>:
Sushi was <u>great</u>,
the food was <u>awesome</u>,
but the service was <u>terrible</u>.

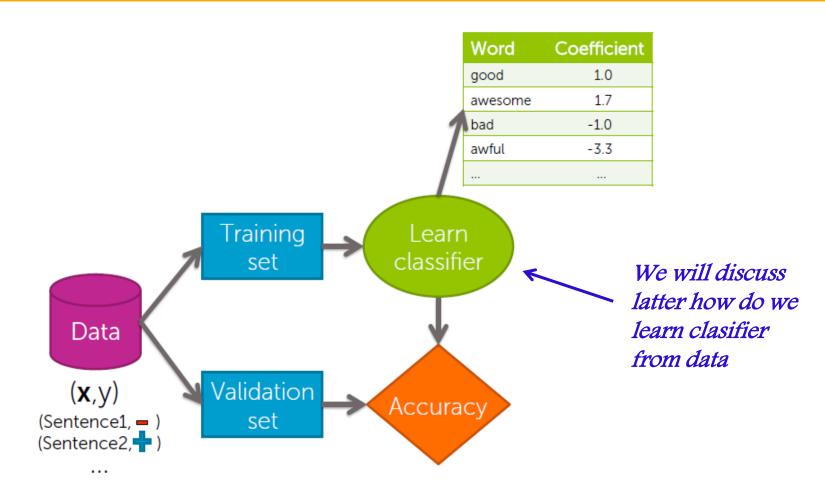
Score(xi) = 
$$1.2+1.7-2.1$$
  
=  $0.8 > 0$   
=>  $y = +1$   
positive review

Called a linear classifier, because output is weighted sum of input.

## Simple linear classifier

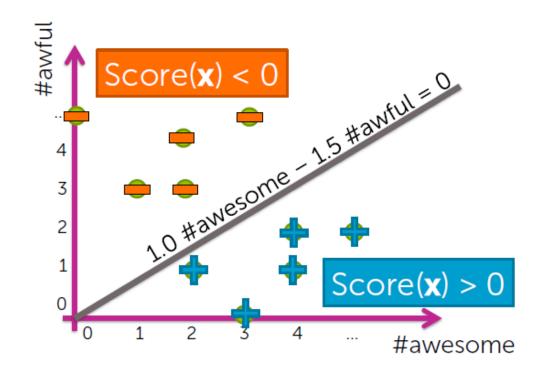


#### Training a classifier = Learning the coefficients



## Decision boundary example

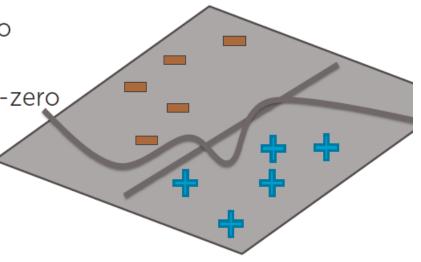
Word	Coefficient	
#awesome	1.0	Coordy) 10 Hayyosama 15 Hayyfu
#awful	-1.5	Score(x) = $1.0 \text{ #awesome} - 1.5 \text{ #awfu}$



## Decision boundary

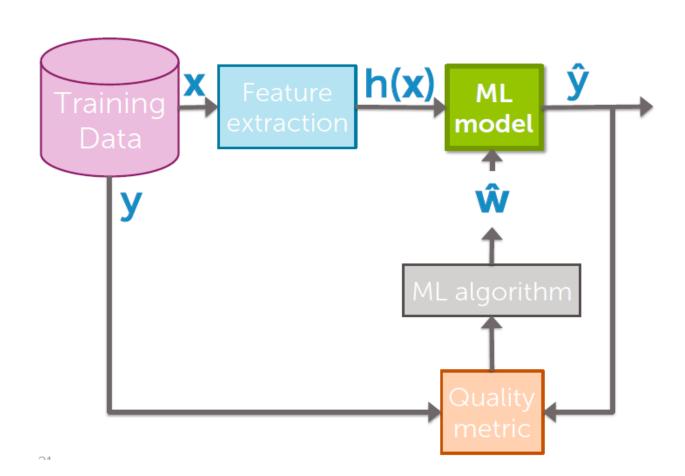
## Decision boundary separates positive & negative predictions

- For linear classifiers:
  - When 2 coefficients are non-zero
    - → line
  - When 3 coefficients are non-zero
    - plane
  - When many coefficients are non-zero
    - → hyperplane
- For more general classifiers
  - → more complicated shapes

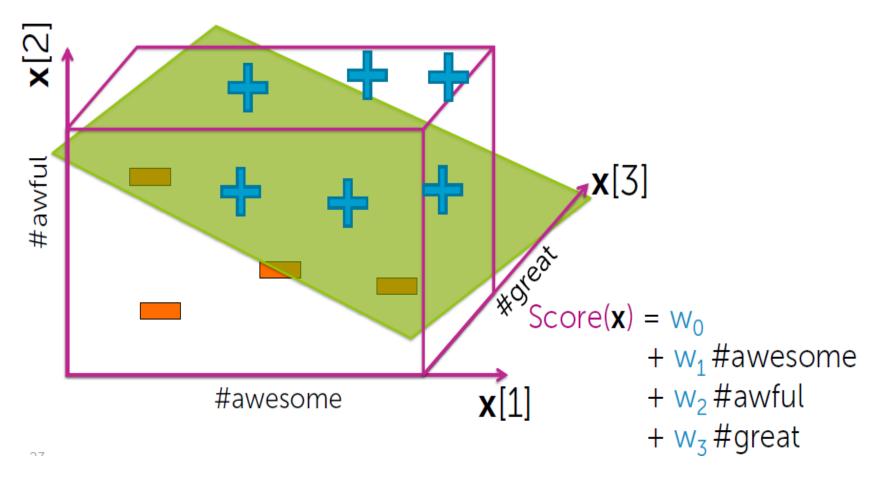


#### Flow chart:





#### Coefficients of classifier



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#### General notation

```
Output: y 4 {-1,+1}
Inputs: \mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{x}[1], \mathbf{x}[2], ..., \mathbf{x}[d])
Notational conventions:
    \mathbf{x}[j] = j^{th} input (scalar)
    h_i(\mathbf{x}) = j^{th} feature (scalar)
    \mathbf{x}_i = \text{input of i}^{\text{th}} \text{ data point } (vector)
    \mathbf{x}_{i}[j] = j^{th} input of i^{th} data point (scalar)
```

## Simple hyperplane

```
Model: \hat{y}_i = sign(Score(\mathbf{x}_i))
Score(\mathbf{x}_{i}) = w_{0} + w_{1} \mathbf{x}_{i}[1] + ... + w_{d} \mathbf{x}_{i}[d]
feature 1 = 1
feature 2 = x[1] ... e.g., #awesome
feature 3 = x[2] \dots e.g., #awful
feature d+1 = x[d] ... e.g., #ramen
```

## D-dimensional hyperplane

#### More generic features...

```
Model: \hat{\mathbf{y}}_i = \text{sign}(\text{Score}(\mathbf{x}_i))

Score(\mathbf{x}_i) = w_0 h_0(\mathbf{x}_i) + w_1 h_1(\mathbf{x}_i) + ... + w_D h_D(\mathbf{x}_i)
= \sum_{j=0}^{D} w_j h_j(\mathbf{x}_i) = \mathbf{w}^T h(\mathbf{x}_i)
```

```
feature 1 = h_0(\mathbf{x}) ... e.g., 1

feature 2 = h_1(\mathbf{x}) ... e.g., \mathbf{x}[1] = \text{\#awesome}

feature 3 = h_2(\mathbf{x}) ... e.g., \mathbf{x}[2] = \text{\#awful}

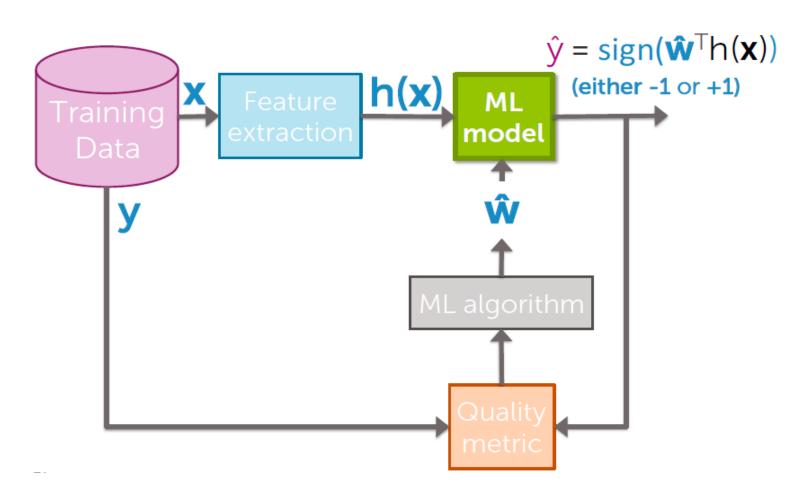
or, \log(\mathbf{x}[7]) \mathbf{x}[2] = \log(\text{\#bad}) x \text{\#awful}

or, \text{tf-idf("awful")}

...
feature D+1 = h_D(\mathbf{x}) ... some other function of \mathbf{x}[1],..., \mathbf{x}[d]
```

## Flow chart:



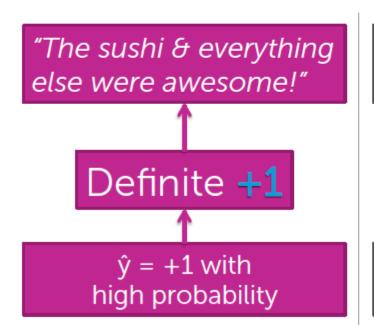


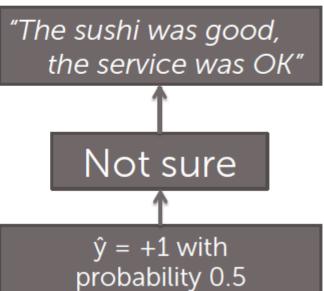
## Linear classifier

Class probability

## How confident is your prediction?

- Thus far, we've outputted a prediction +1 or -1
- But, how sure are you about the prediction?





## Basics of probabilities

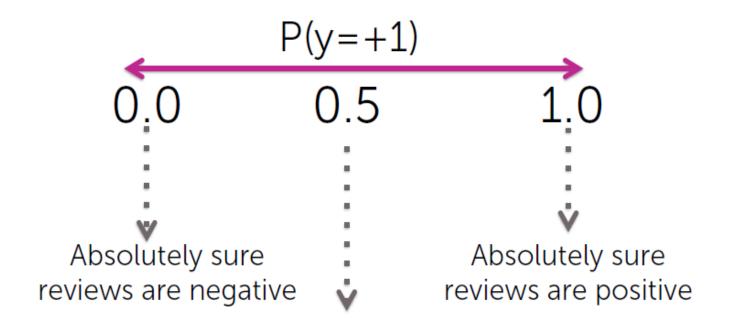
#### Probability a review is positive is 0.7



<b>x</b> = review text	y = sentiment
All the sushi was delicious! Easily best sushi in Seattle.	+1
The sushi & everything else were awesome!	+1
My wife tried their ramen, it was pretty forgettable.	-1
The sushi was good, the service was OK	+1

I expect 70% of rows to have y = +1(Exact number will vary for each specific dataset)

#### Interpreting probabilities as degrees of belief



Not sure if reviews are positive or negative

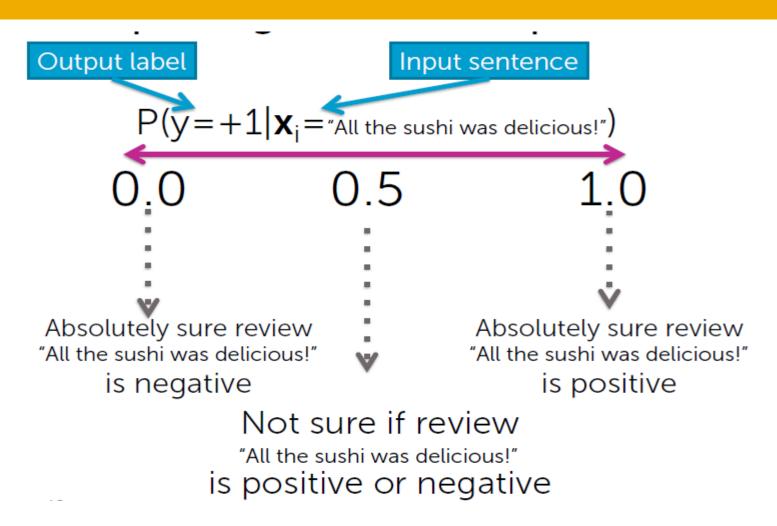
## Conditional probability

## Probability a review with 3 "awesome" and 1 "awful" is positive is 0.9

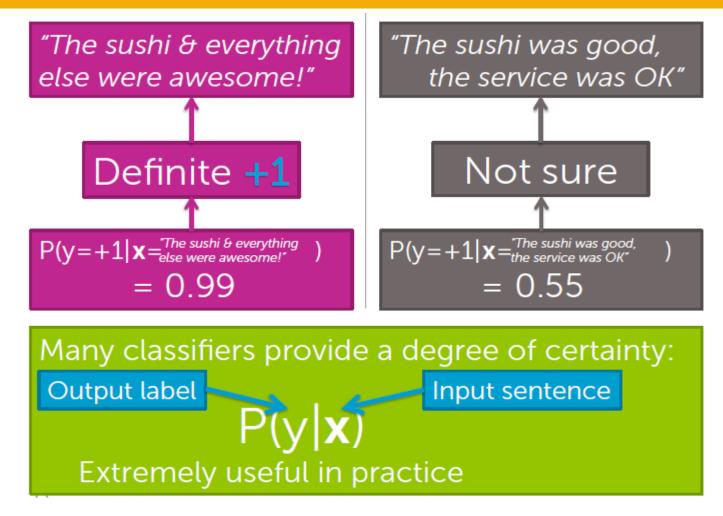
<b>x</b> = review text	y = sentiment
All the sushi was delicious! Easily best sushi in Seattle.	+1
Sushi was <b>awesome</b> & everything else was <b>awesome</b> ! The service was <b>awful</b> , but overall <b>awesome</b> place!	+1
My wife tried their ramen, it was pretty forgettable.	-1
The sushi was good, the service was OK	+1
awesome awesome awful awesome	+1
awesome awesome awful awesome	-1
1444	
awesome awesome awful awesome	+1

I expect 90% of rows with reviews containing 3 "awesome" & 1 "awful" to have y = +1 (Exact number will vary for each specific dataset)

#### Interpreting conditional probabilities



## How confident is your prediction?



#### Learn conditional probabilities from data

#### Training data: N observations ( $\mathbf{x}_i, y_i$ )

<b>x</b> [1] = #awesome	<b>x</b> [2] = #awful	y = sentiment
2	1	+1
0	2	-1
3	3	-1
4	1	+1

Optimize **quality metric** on training data

Find best model P by finding best

Useful for predicting ŷ

## Predicting class probabilities

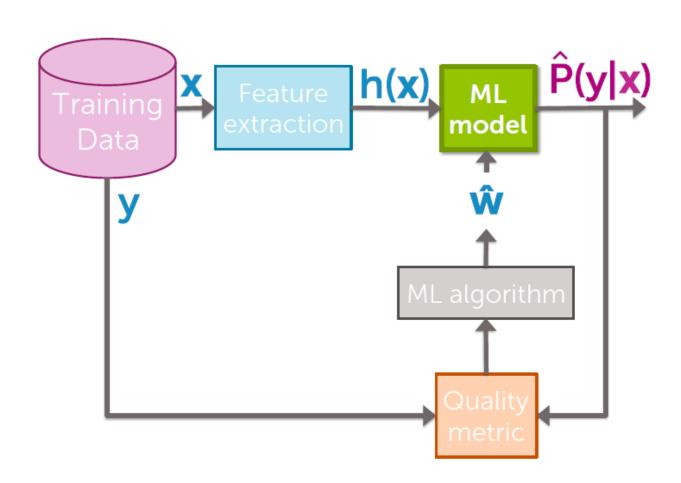
Predict most likely class  $\hat{P}(y|x) = \text{estimate of class}$ probabilities

If  $\hat{P}(y=+1|x) > 0.5$ :  $\hat{y} = +1$ Else:  $\hat{y} = -1$ 

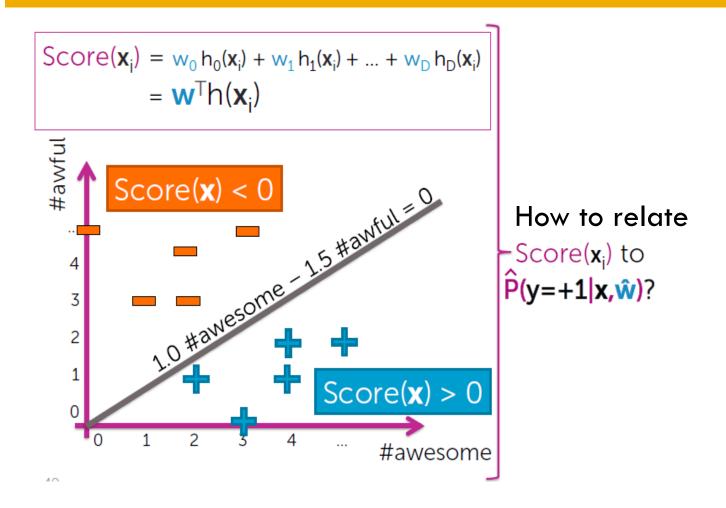
- Estimating  $\hat{\mathbf{P}}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})$  improves interpretability:
  - Predict  $\hat{y} = +1$  and tell me how sure you are

### Flow chart:

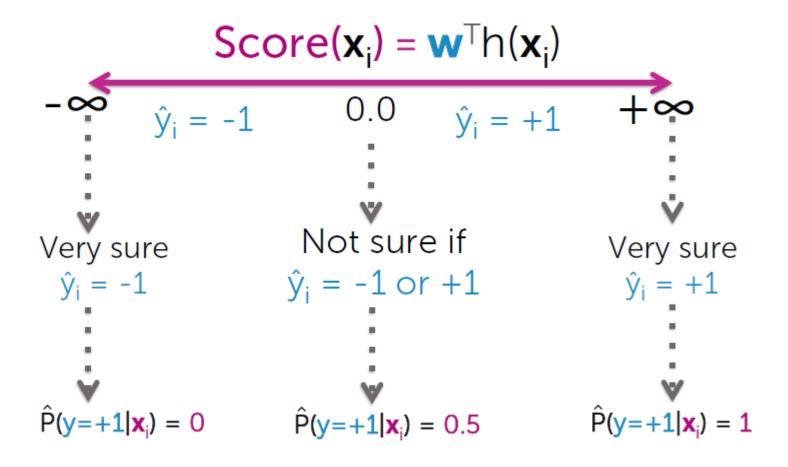




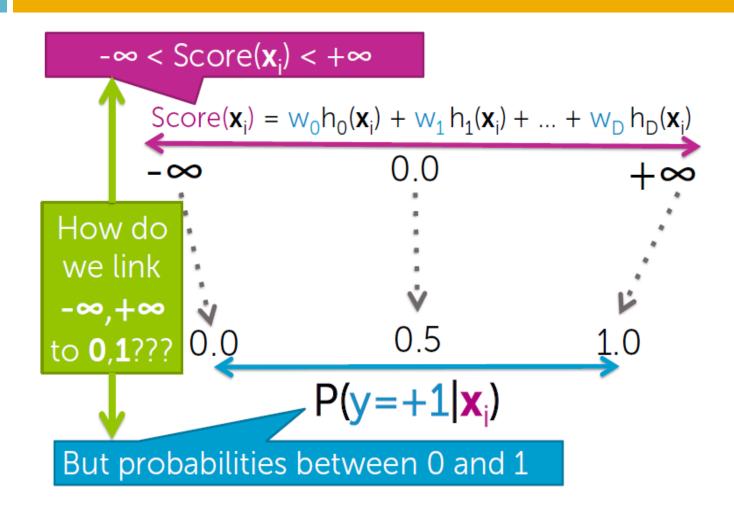
#### Thus far we focused on decision boundaries



## Interpreting Score(x<sub>i</sub>)

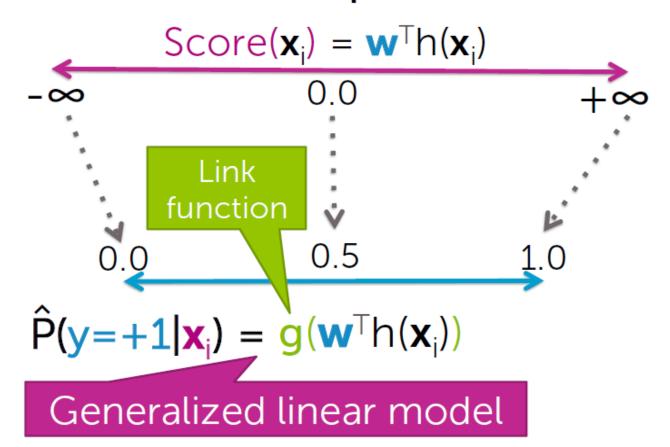


#### Why not just use regression to build classifier?



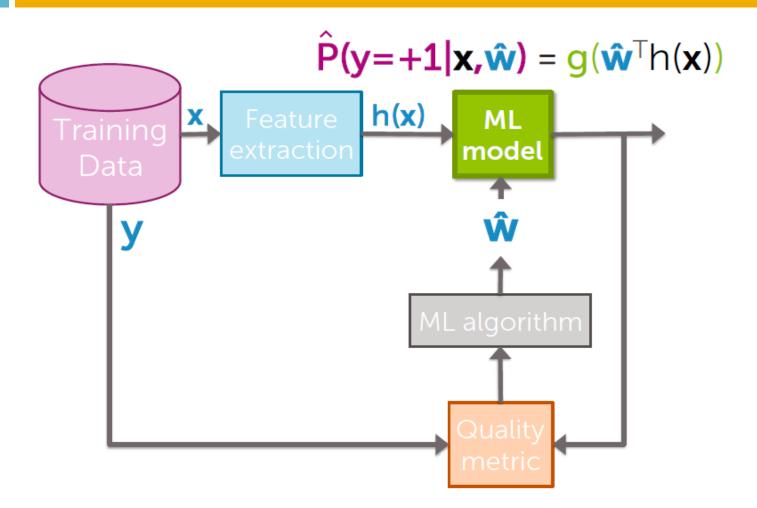
#### Link function

#### Link function: squeeze real line into [0,1]



## Flow chart:

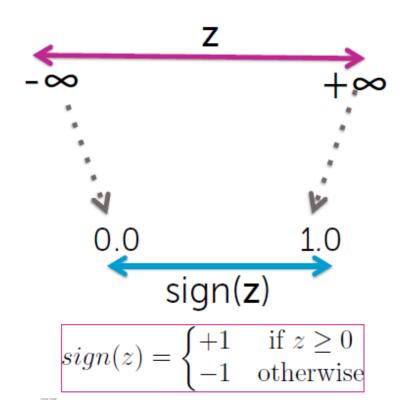


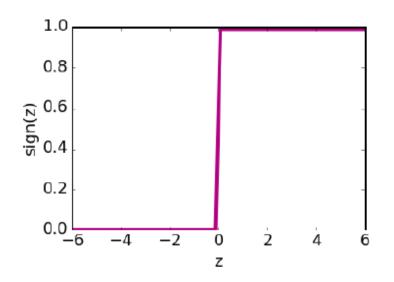


## Logistic regression classifier:

Ilinear score with logistic link function

# Simplest link function: sign(z)



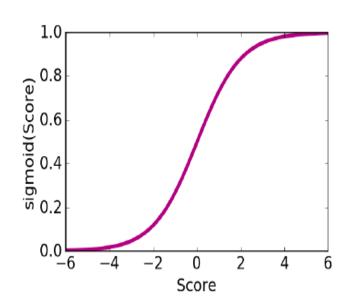


But, sign(z) only outputs -1 or +1, no probabilities in between

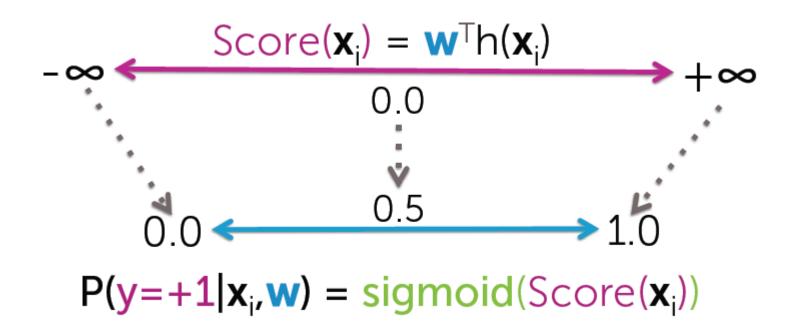
# Logistic function (sigmoid, logit)

$$sigmoid(Score) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-Score}}$$

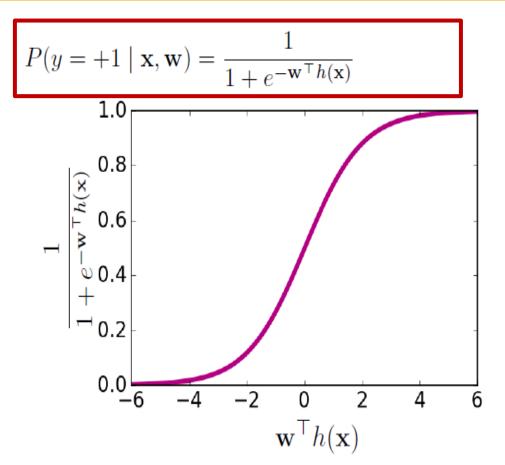
Score	-∞	-2	0.0	+2	+∞
sigmoid(Score)	0.0	0.12	0.5	0.88	1.0



## Logistic regression model



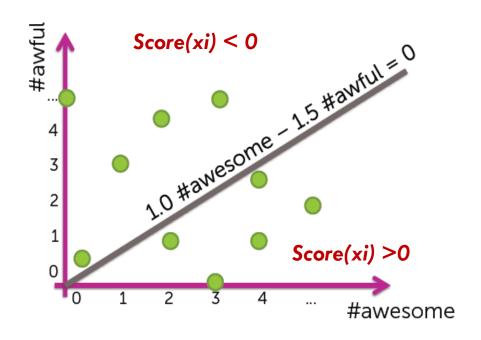
#### Understanding the logistic regression model

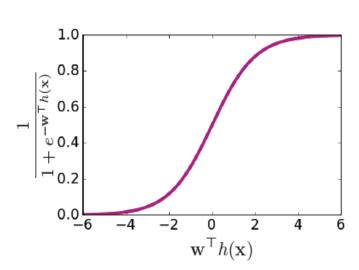


Score( <b>x</b> <sub>i</sub> )	P(y=+1 x <sub>i</sub> ,w)
0	0.5
-2	0.12
2	0.88
4	0.98

## Logistic regression

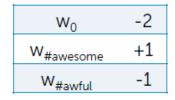
# Logistic regression → Linear decision boundary

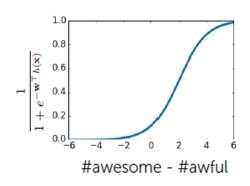




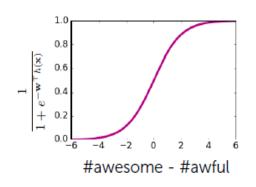
#### Effect of coefficients

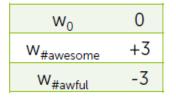
# Effect of coefficients on logistic regression model

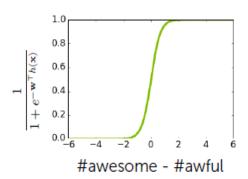




$W_0$	0
W <sub>#awesome</sub>	+1
W <sub>#awful</sub>	-1

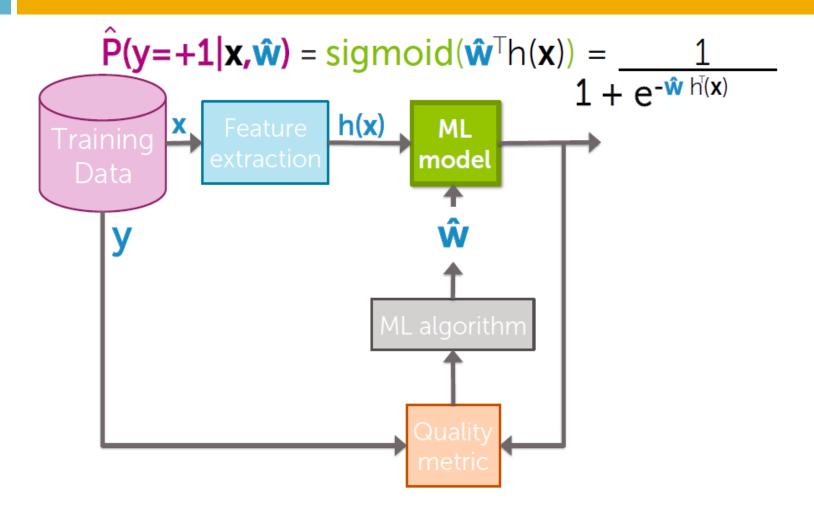






## Flow chart:



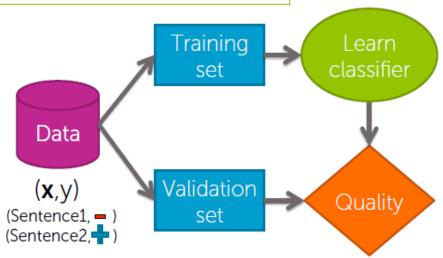


## Learning logistic regression model

#### Training a classifier = Learning the coefficients

Word	Coefficient	Value
	$\hat{\mathbf{w}}_{0}$	-2.0
good	$\hat{W}_1$	1.0
awesome	$\hat{\mathbf{W}}_2$	1.7
bad	$\hat{\mathbf{w}}_3$	-1.0
awful	$\hat{W}_4$	-3.3
	***	***

$$\hat{P}(y=+1|x,\hat{w}) = 1$$
  
1 +  $e^{-\hat{w}\hat{h}(x)}$ 



# Categorical inputs

- Numeric inputs:
  - + awesome, age, salary,...
  - Intuitive when multiplied by coefficient
    - e.g., 1.5 #awesome

Categorical inputs:

Gender (Male, Female,...)



Country of birth (Argentina, Brazil, USA,...)

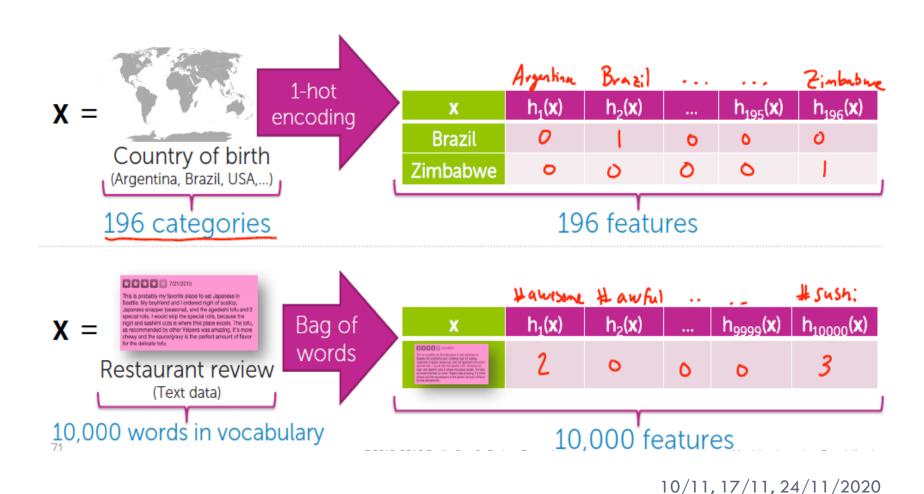
Numeric value, but should be interpreted as category (98195 not about 9x larger than 10005)



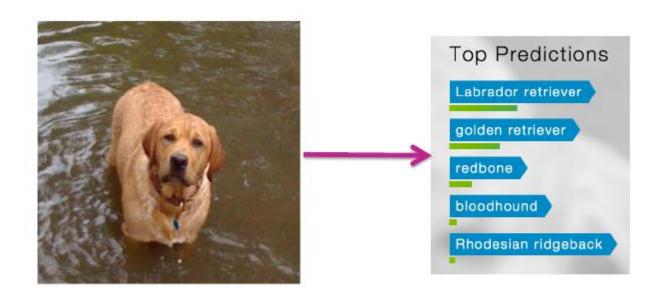
Zipcode (10005, 98195,...)

How do we multiply category by coefficient??? Must convert categorical inputs into numeric features

#### Encoding categories as numeric features



### Multiclass classification



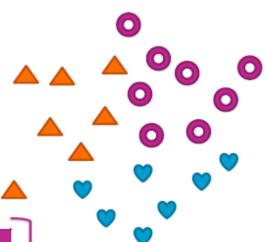
Input: **x** Image pixels

Output: y Object in image

## Multiclass classification

- C possible classes:
  - y can be 1, 2,..., C
- N datapoints:

Data point	<b>x</b> [1]	<b>x</b> [2]	у
<b>x</b> <sub>1</sub> ,y <sub>1</sub>	2	1	
<b>x</b> <sub>2</sub> ,y <sub>2</sub>	0	2	<b>&gt;</b>
<b>x</b> <sub>3</sub> ,y <sub>3</sub>	3	3	0
<b>x</b> <sub>4</sub> ,y <sub>4</sub>	4	1	0



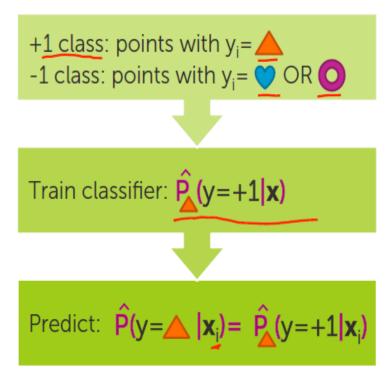
$$\hat{P}(y= | x)$$

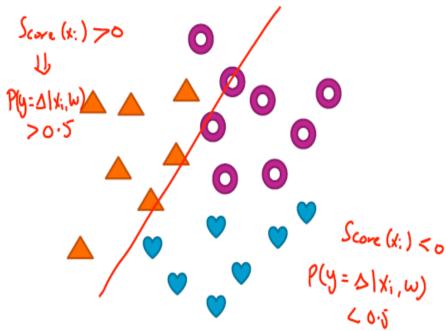
$$\hat{P}(y= | x)$$

$$\hat{P}(y= | x)$$

#### 1 versus all

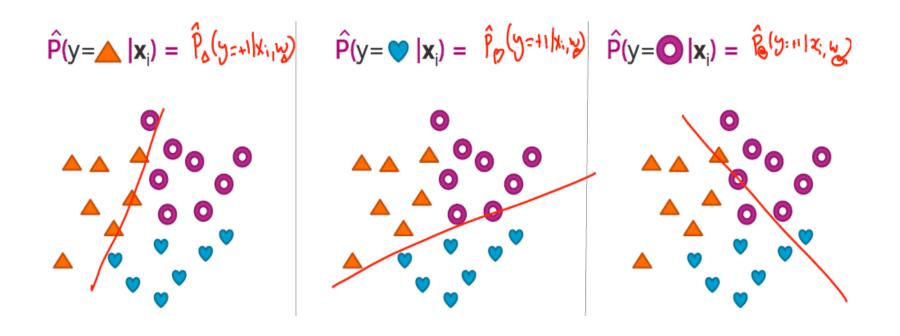
#### Estimate $\hat{P}(y=\triangle|x)$ using 2-class model





#### 1 versus all

# **1 versus all**: simple multiclass classification using *C* 2-class models



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#### Multiclass training

 $\hat{P}_c(y=+1|\mathbf{x})$  = estimate of 1 vs all model for each class

#### Predict most likely class

max\_prob = 0;  $\hat{y} = 0$ For c = 1,...,C: If  $\hat{P}_c(y=+1|\mathbf{x}_1)$ ax\_prob:

 $\hat{y} = c$ 

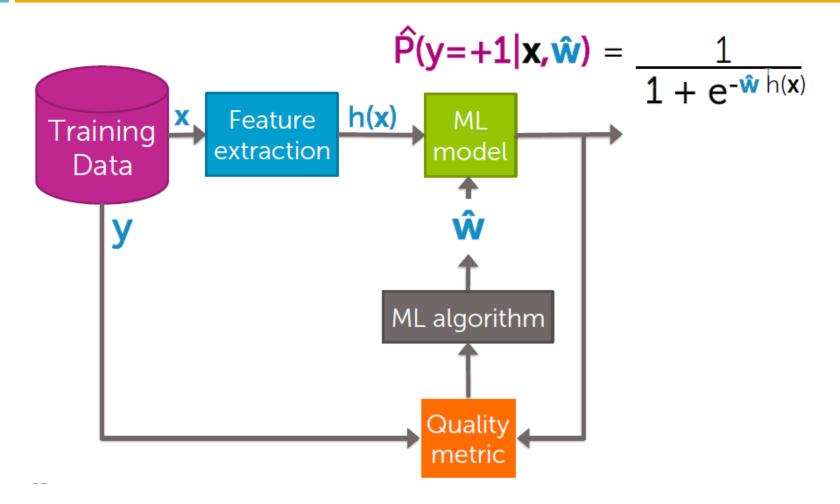
 $max\_prob = \hat{P}_c(y=+1|\mathbf{x}_i)$ 



Input: **x**i

00

## Summary: Logistic regression classifier



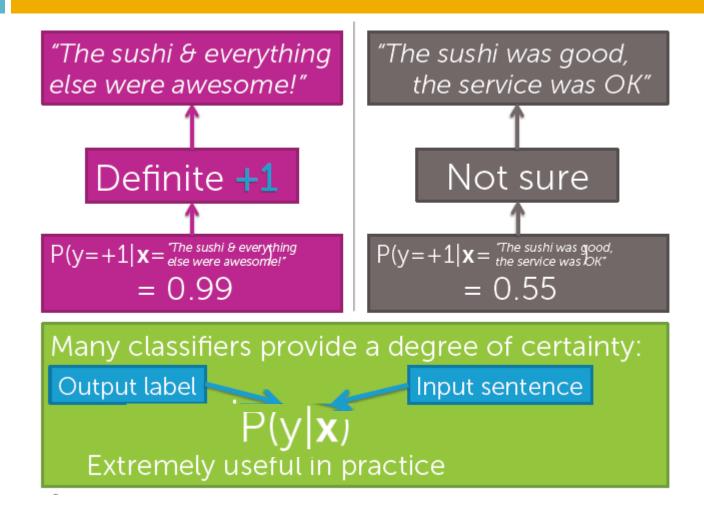
# What you can do now...

- Describe decision boundaries and linear classifiers
- Use class probability to express degree of confidence in prediction
- Define a logistic regression model
- Interpret logistic regression outputs as class probabilities
- Describe impact of coefficient values on logistic regression output
- Use 1-hot encoding to represent categorical inputs
- Perform multiclass classification using the 1-versus-all approach

# Linear classifier

Parameters learning

#### Learn a probabilistic classification model



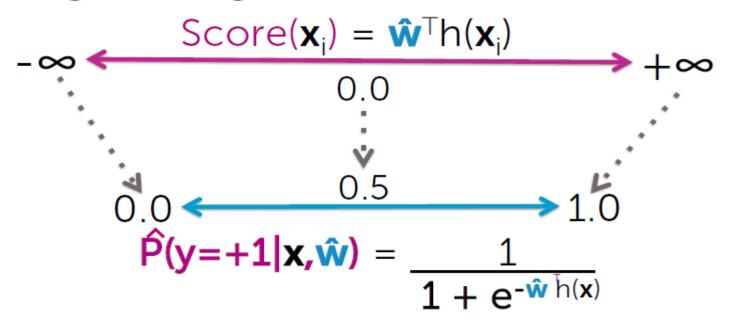
# A (linear) classifier

 Will use training data to learn a weight or coefficient for each word

Word	Coefficient	Value
	$\hat{w}_0$	-2.0
good	$\hat{w}_{1}$	1.0
great	$\hat{w}_2$	1.5
awesome	ŵ <sub>3</sub>	2.7
bad	$\hat{w}_4$	-1.0
terrible	$\hat{w}_{5}$	-2.1
awful	$\hat{w}_{6}$	-3.3
restaurant, the, we,	$\hat{W}_{7,} \hat{W}_{8,} \hat{W}_{9,}$	0.0

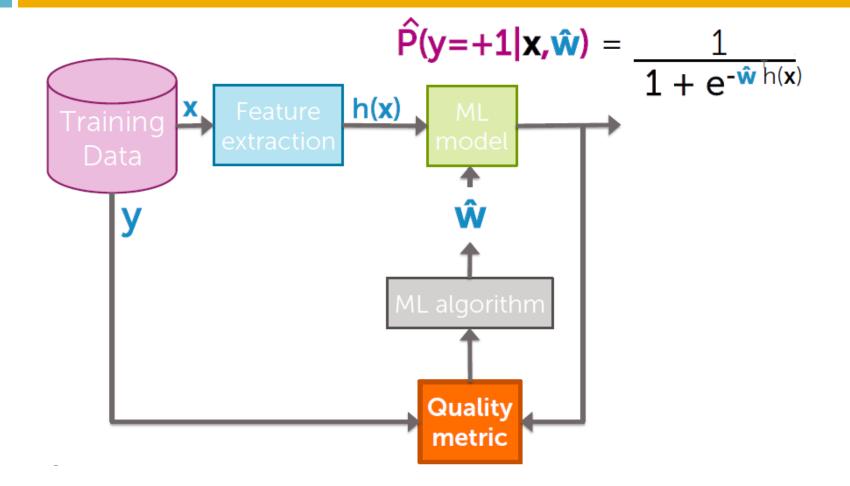
## Logistic regression

#### Logistic regression model









# Learning problem

#### Training data: N observations $(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)$

<b>x</b> [1] = #awesome	<b>x</b> [2] = #awful	y = sentiment
2	1	+1
0	2	-1
3	3	-1
4	1	+1
1	1	+1
2	4	-1
0	3	-1
0	1	-1
2	1	+1



## Finding best coefficients

<b>x</b> [1] = #awesome	<b>x</b> [2] = #awful	y = sentiment
0	2	-1
3	3	-1
2	4	-1
0	3	-1
0	1	-1

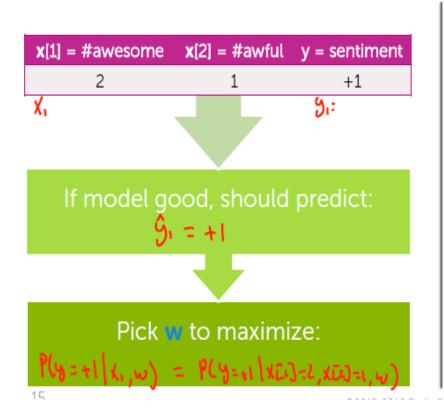
<b>x</b> [1] = #awesome	<b>x</b> [2] = #awful	y = sentiment
2	1	+1
4	1	+1
1	1	+1
2	1	+1

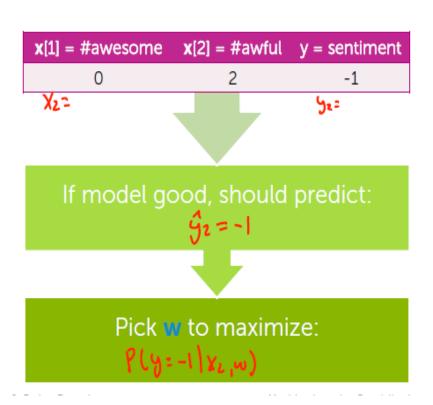
$$P(y=+1|x_i, w) = 0.0$$

$$P(y=+1|x_i,w) = 1.0$$

Pick w that makes

# Quality metric: probability of data





#### Maximizing likelihood (probability of data)

-		-		
Data point	<b>x</b> [1]	<b>x</b> [2]	у	Choose w to maximize
<b>x</b> <sub>1</sub> ,y <sub>1</sub>	2	1	+1	P(y=+1 X1, w) = P(y=+1 XD]=2,XD]=1, w)
<b>x</b> <sub>2</sub> ,y <sub>2</sub>	0	2	-1	P(g=-1   X2,W)
<b>x</b> <sub>3</sub> ,y <sub>3</sub>	3	3	-1	P(9=-1 x3,w)
<b>x</b> <sub>4</sub> ,y <sub>4</sub>	4	1	+1	P(9=+11×4,w)
<b>x</b> <sub>5</sub> ,y <sub>5</sub>	1	1	+1	
<b>x</b> <sub>6</sub> ,y <sub>6</sub>	2	4	-1	
<b>x</b> <sub>7</sub> ,y <sub>7</sub>	0	3	-1	
<b>x</b> <sub>8</sub> ,y <sub>8</sub>	0	1	-1	
<b>x</b> <sub>9</sub> ,y <sub>9</sub>	2	1	+1	

Must combine into single measure of quality?

Multiply Probability

## Maximum likelihood estimation (MLE)

#### Learn logistic regression model with MLE

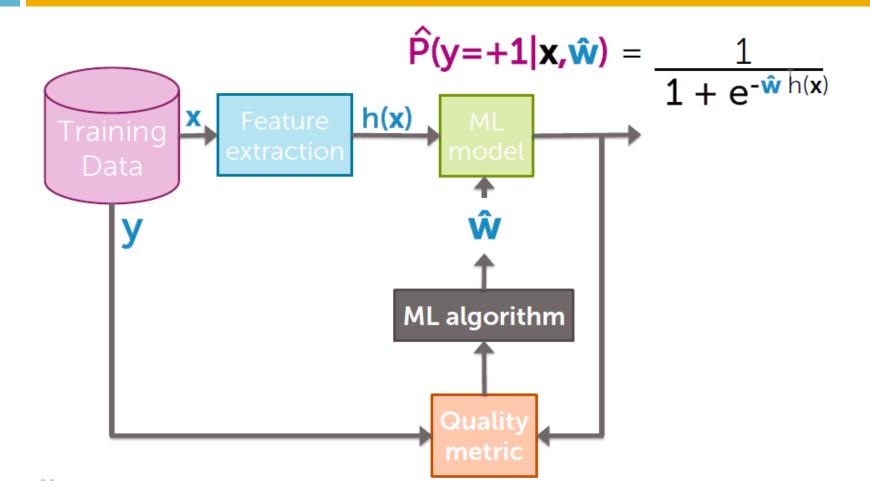
Data point	<b>x</b> [1]	<b>x</b> [2]	у	Choose w to maximize
<b>x</b> <sub>1</sub> ,y <sub>1</sub>	2	1	<b>9</b> :+1	$P(\underline{y=+1} x[1]=2, x[2]=1,w)$
<b>x</b> <sub>2</sub> ,y <sub>2</sub>	0	2	-1	P(y=-1 x[1]=0, x[2]=2,w)
<b>x</b> <sub>3</sub> ,y <sub>3</sub>	3	3	-1	P(y=-1 x[1]=3, x[2]=3,w)
$\mathbf{X}_{\Delta}, \mathbf{y}_{\Delta}$	4	1	+1	P(y=+1 x[1]=4, x[2]=1,w)

No w achieves perfect predictions (usually)

**Likelihood**  $\ell(\mathbf{w})$ : Measures quality of fit for model with coefficients  $\mathbf{w}$ 

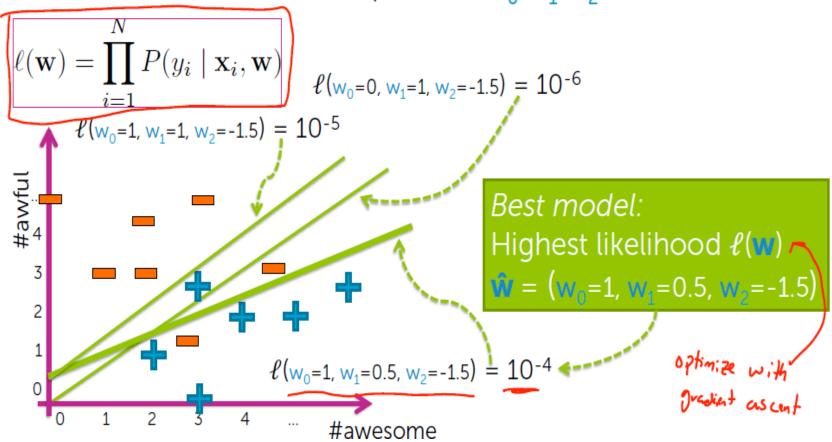
#### Flow chart:





## Find "best" classifier

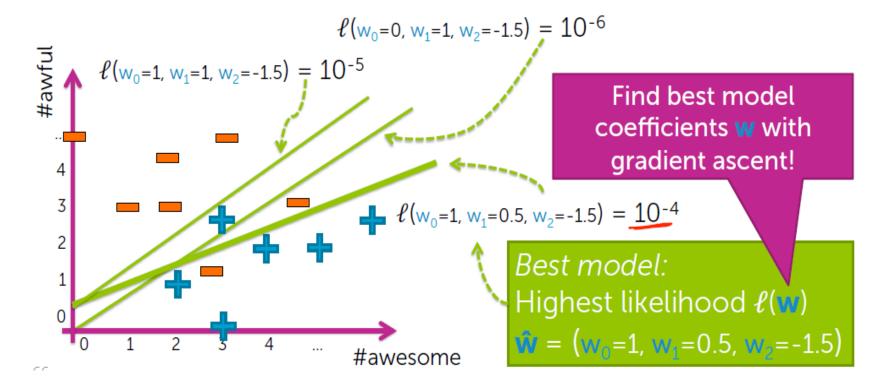
Maximize likelihood over all possible  $w_0, w_1, w_2$ 



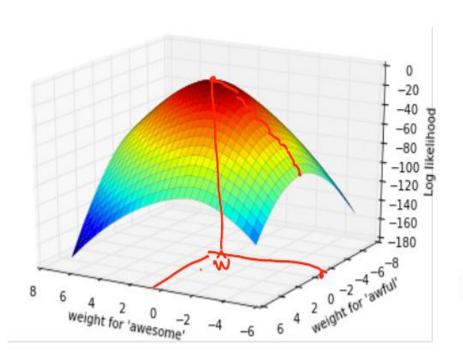
### Find best classifier

Maximize quality metric over all possible  $W_0, W_1, W_2$ 

Likelihood ℓ(w)



# Maximizing likelihood

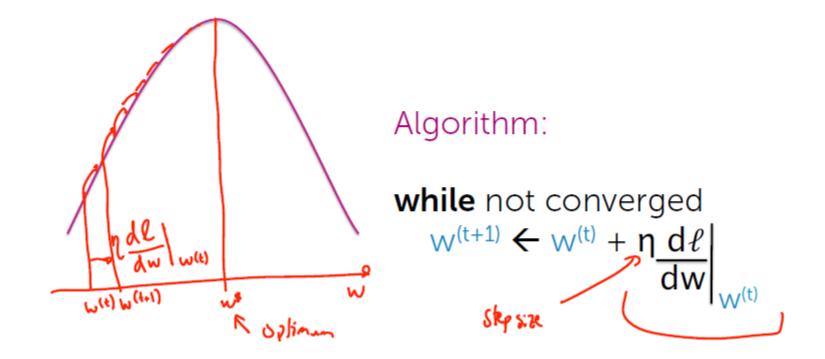


Maximize function over all possible  $w_0, w_1, w_2$   $\prod_{N} P(y_i \mid \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w})$   $w_0, w_1, w_2 = 1$   $\ell(w_0, w_1, w_2) \text{ is a function of 3 variables}$ 

No closed-form solution → use gradient ascent

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#### Finding the max via hill climbing



#### Convergence criteria

For convex functions, optimum occurs when

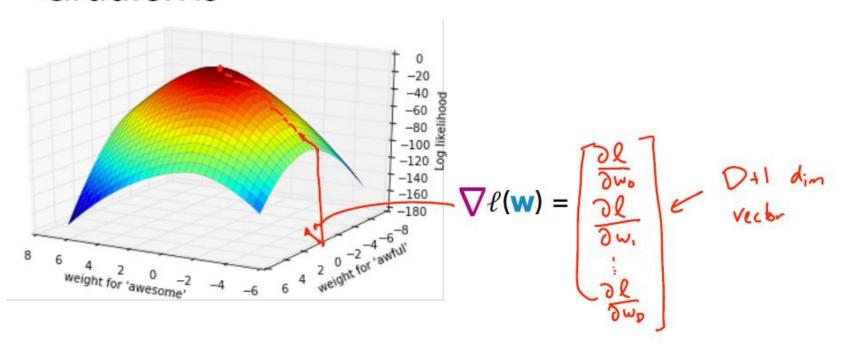
In practice, stop when



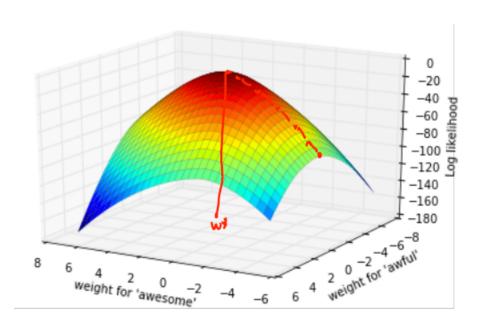
#### Algorithm:

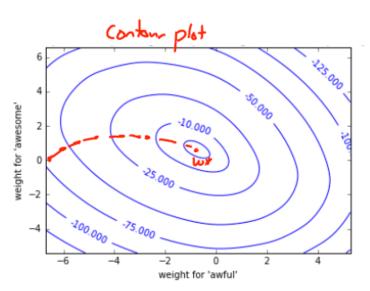
while not converged
$$w^{(t+1)} \leftarrow w^{(t)} + \eta \frac{d\ell}{dw} \bigg|_{w^{(t)}}$$

#### Moving to multiple dimensions: Gradients

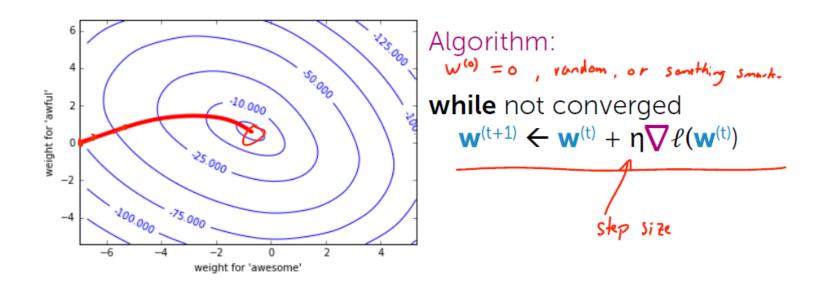


#### Contour plots





#### Gradient ascent



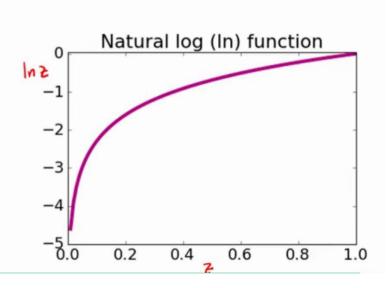
## The log trick, often used in ML...

- Products become sums:
- Doesn't chan'ge maximum!
  - If w maximizes f(w):

```
Then \hat{\mathbf{w}}_{ln} maximizes \ln(f(\mathbf{w})):

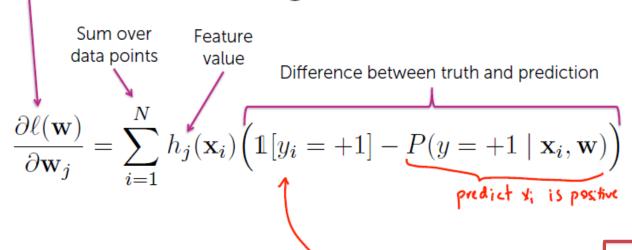
\hat{\mathbf{w}}_{ln} = \underset{\mathbf{w}}{\operatorname{arg max}} \ln(f(\mathbf{w})):

\hat{\mathbf{w}}_{ln} = \underset{\mathbf{w}}{\operatorname{arg max}} \ln(f(\mathbf{w}))
```



#### Derivative for logistic regression

#### Derivative of (log-)likelihood



See slides at the end of this lecture If you are interested how it is derived. Indicator function:

$$\mathbb{1}[y_i = +1] = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } y_i = +1 \\ 0 & \text{if } y_i = -1 \end{cases}$$

#### Derivative for logistic regression

#### Computing derivative

$$\frac{\partial \ell(\mathbf{w}^{(t)})}{\partial \mathbf{w}_j} = \sum_{i=1}^N h_j(\mathbf{x}_i) \Big( \mathbb{1}[y_i = +1] - P(y = +1 \mid \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w}^{(t)}) \Big)$$

w(e)

W <sub>0</sub> <sup>(t)</sup>	0
$w_{1}^{(t)}$	1
W <sub>2</sub>	-2

J'(R) = #	Olenkanur			
x[1]	<b>x</b> [2]	у	P(y=+1 x <sub>i</sub> ,w)	Contribution to derivative for w <sub>1</sub>
2	1	+1	0.5	2(1-0.5)=1
0	2	-1	0.02	0 (0-0.02) = 0
3	3	-1	0.05	3 (0 - 0.05)=-0.15
4	1	+1	0.88	4(1-0.88)=0.48

Total derivative:

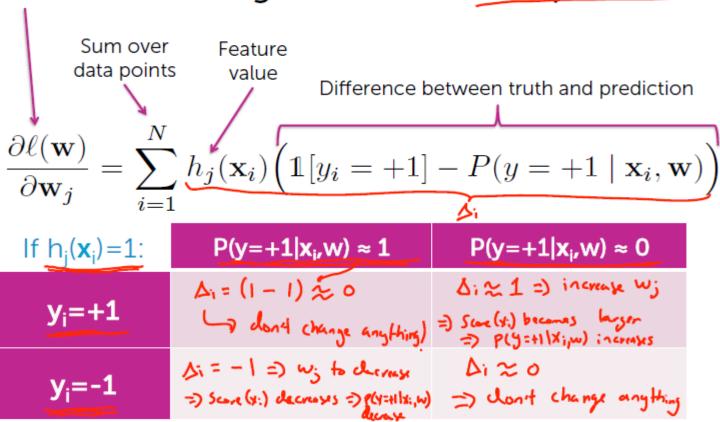
$$\frac{\partial l(\omega)}{\partial \omega_{1}} = | +0 - 0.15 + 0.48 = | .33$$

$$\frac{\partial w_{1}(\omega)}{\partial \omega_{1}} = | +0 - 0.15 + 0.48 = | .33$$

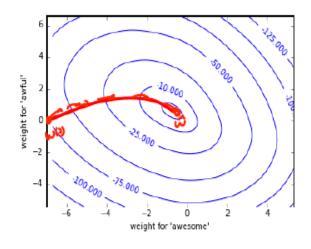
$$= | +0.1 + 0.20 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .133 = | .13$$

## Derivative for logistic regression

#### Derivative of (log-)likelihood: Interpretation



## Gradient ascent for logistic regression



```
init \mathbf{w}^{(1)} = 0 (or randomly, or smartly), t = 1

while ||\nabla \ell(\mathbf{w}^{(t)})|| > \varepsilon

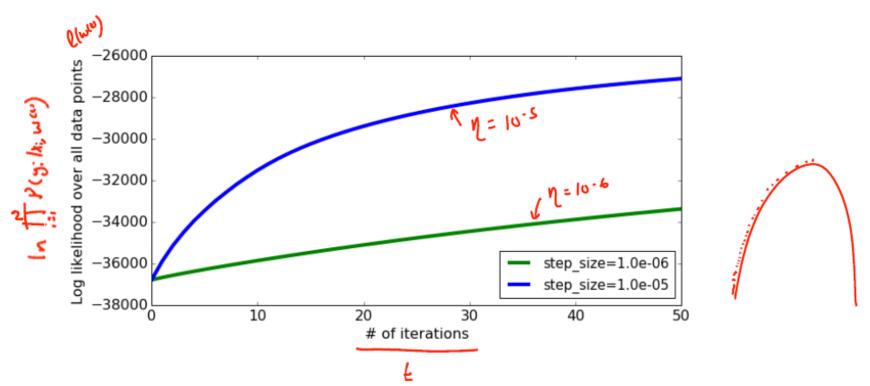
for j = 0,..., D

partial[j] = \sum_{i=1}^{N} h_j(\mathbf{x}_i) \left( \mathbb{1}[y_i = +1] - P(y = +1 \mid \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w}^{(t)}) \right)

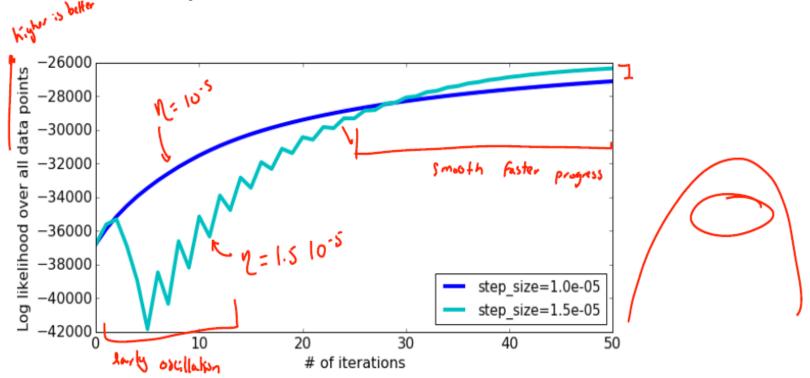
\mathbf{w}_j^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \mathbf{w}_j^{(t)} + \mathbf{\eta} \text{ partial}[j]

\mathbf{t} \leftarrow \mathbf{t} + 1
```

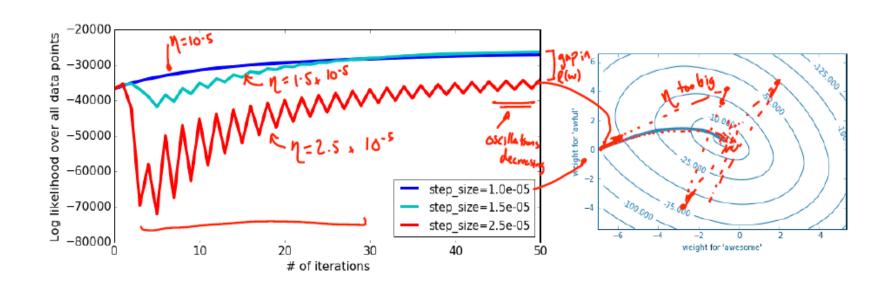
# If step size is too small, can take a long time to converge



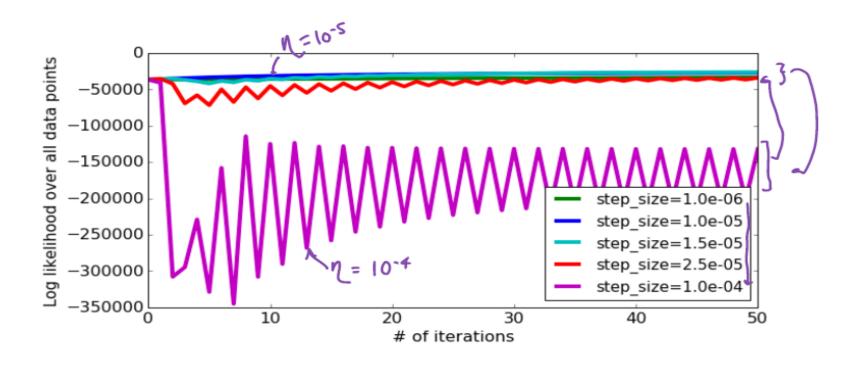
# Compare converge with different step sizes



#### Careful with step sizes that are too large



# Very large step sizes can even cause divergence or wild oscillations

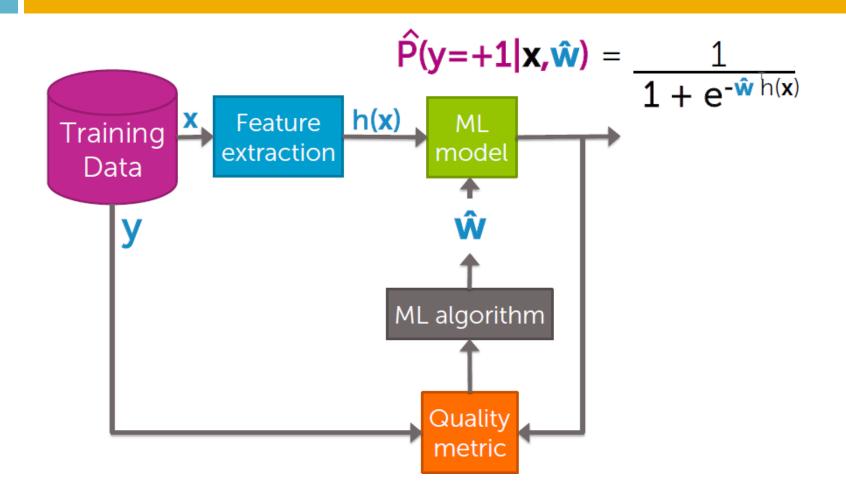


#### Simple rule of thumb for picking step size n

- Unfortunately, picking step size requires a lot of trial and error ⊗
- Try a several values, exponentially spaced
  - Goal: plot learning curves to
    - find one  $\eta$  that is too small (smooth but moving too slowly)
    - find one  $\eta$  that is too large (oscillation or divergence)
- Try values in between to find "best"  $\eta$ La exponentially space pick one that leads best training data likelihood
- Advanced tip: can also try step size that decreases with

iterations, e.g.,

#### Flow chart: final look at it



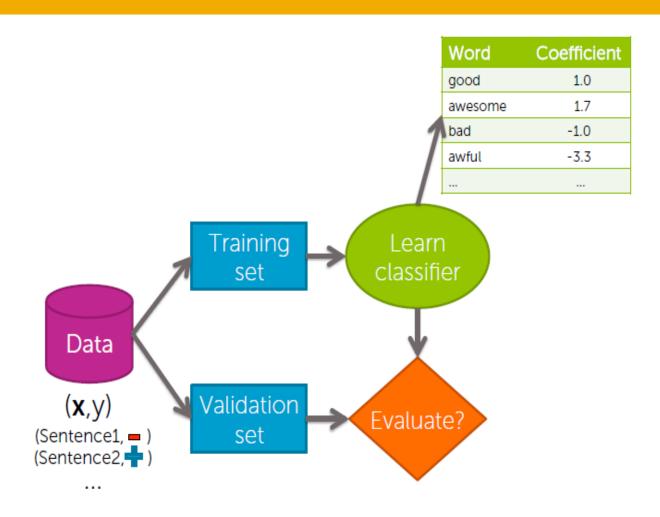
## What you can do now

- Measure quality of a classifier using the likelihood function
- Interpret the likelihood function as the probability of the observed data
- Learn a logistic regression model with gradient descent
- (Optional) Derive the gradient descent update rule for logistic regression

## Linear classifier

Overfitting & regularization

#### Training a classifier = Learning the coefficients



## Classification error & accuracy

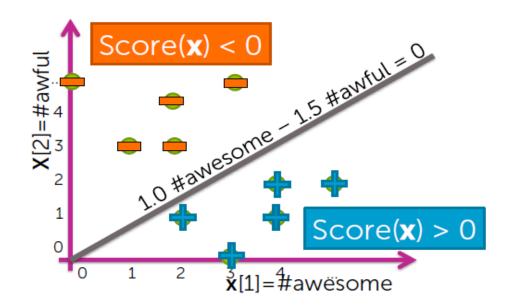
Error measures fraction of mistakes

- Best possible value is 0.0
- Often, measure accuracy
  - Fraction of correct predictions

Best possible value is 1.0

#### Decision boundary example

Word	Coefficient	
#awesome	1.0	Scarc(v) 10 Hayyasana 15 Hayyay
#awful	-1.5	Score(x) = $1.0 \text{ #awesome} - 1.5 \text{ #awful}$



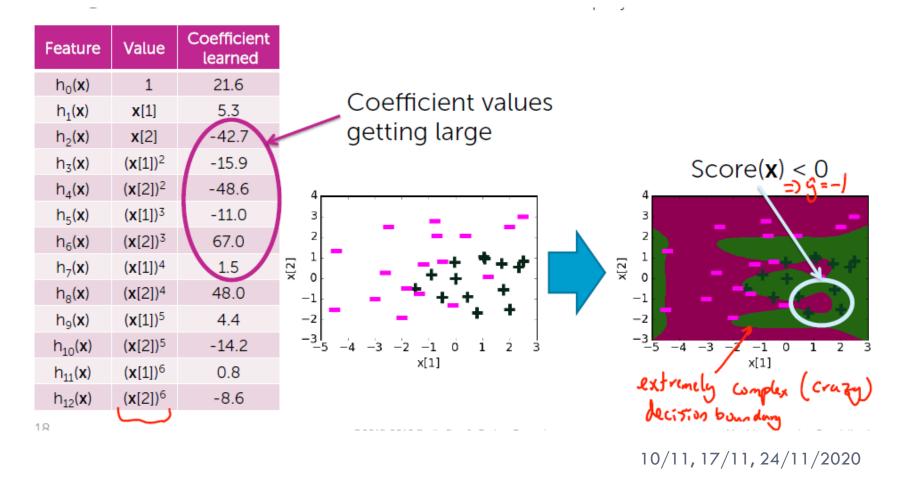
#### Learned decision boundary

	Feature	Value	Coefficient learned	
	$h_0(\mathbf{x})$	<b>₩</b> ₃ 1	0.23	
	h <sub>1</sub> (x)	₩ı x[1]	1.12	Swell) < 0
	h <sub>2</sub> ( <b>x</b> )	<b>₩</b> 1 <b>X</b> [2]	-1.07	0.23+1.12 XEI]-1.07 XE2]=0
4 3 2 1 2 X 0 -1 -2 -3	5 -4 -3 -2	-1 0 1 x[1]	+ + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + +	1 2 1 2 1 2 3 2 1 -1 -2 -3 -5 -4 -3 -2 -1 x[1]

#### Quadratic features (in 2d)

Feature
h <sub>0</sub> ( <b>x</b> )
h <sub>1</sub> ( <b>x</b> )
h <sub>2</sub> ( <b>x</b> )
$h_3(\mathbf{x})$
h <sub>4</sub> ( <b>x</b> )
-5 -4 -3 -

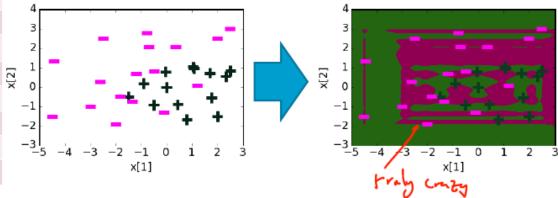
#### Degree 6 features (in 2d)

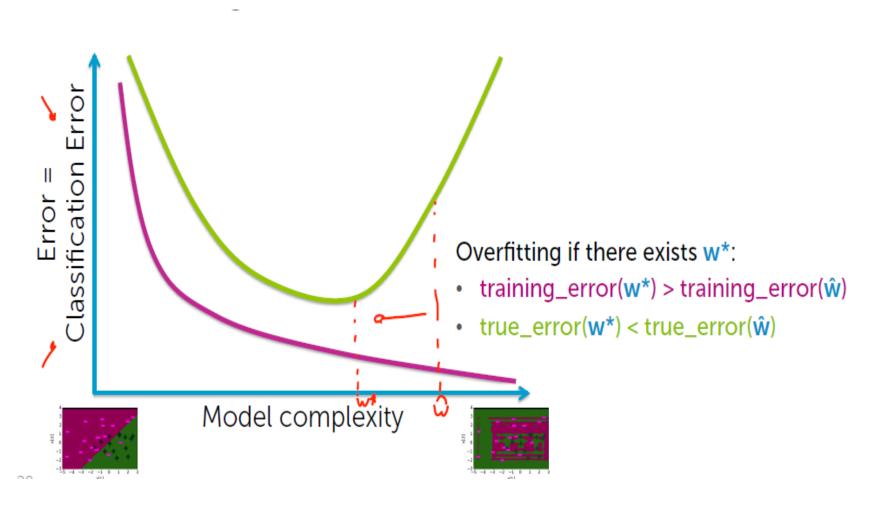


#### Degree 20 features (in 2d)

Feature	Value	Coefficient learned
$h_0(\mathbf{x})$	1	8.7
$h_1(\mathbf{x})$	<b>x</b> [1]	5.1
h <sub>2</sub> ( <b>x</b> )	<b>x</b> [2]	78.7
h <sub>11</sub> ( <b>x</b> )	( <b>x</b> [1]) <sup>6</sup>	-7.5
h <sub>12</sub> ( <b>x</b> )	( <b>x</b> [2]) <sup>6</sup>	3803
h <sub>13</sub> (x)	$(x[1])^7$	-21.1
h <sub>14</sub> ( <b>x</b> )	$(x[2])^7$	-2406
h <sub>37</sub> ( <b>x</b> )	$(x[1])^{19}$	-2*10 <sup>-6</sup>
h <sub>38</sub> ( <b>x</b> )	( <b>x</b> [2]) <sup>19</sup>	-0.15
h <sub>39</sub> ( <b>x</b> )	(x[1]) <sup>20</sup>	-2*10-8
h <sub>40</sub> ( <b>x</b> )	( <b>x</b> [2]) <sup>20</sup>	0.03
10		

Often, overfitting associated with very large estimated coefficients **û** 





## Overfitting in logistic regression

The subtle (negative) consequence of overfitting in logistic regression

Overfitting -> Large coefficient values

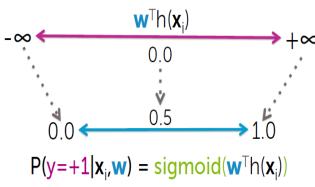


 $^{\mathsf{T}}$ h( $\mathbf{x}_i$ ) is very positive (or very negative)  $\rightarrow$  sigmoid( $^{\mathsf{T}}$ h( $\mathbf{x}_i$ )) goes to 1 (or to 0)



Model becomes extremely overconfident of predictions

Logistic regression model



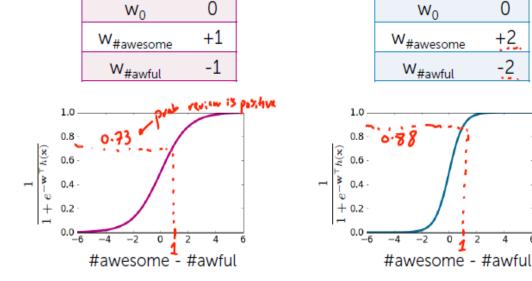
Remember about this probability interpretation

#### Effect of coefficients on logistic regression model

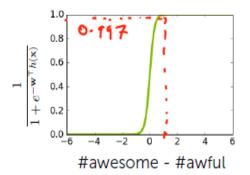
With increasing coefficients model becomes overconfident on predictions

+2

Input x: #awesome=2, #awful=1



W <sub>0</sub>	0
W <sub>#awesome</sub>	+6
W <sub>#awful</sub>	-6



## Learned probabilities

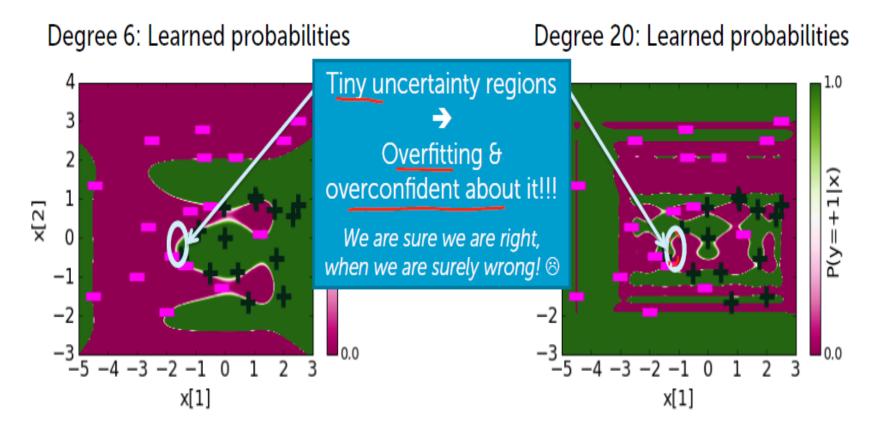
	Feature	Value	Coefficient learned		
	$h_0(\mathbf{x})$	1	0.23		
	$h_1(\mathbf{x})$	<b>x</b> [1]	1.12	$4 \frac{P_{nb} \hat{g} = +1}{2}$	.0
	$h_2(\mathbf{x})$	<b>x</b> [2]	-1.07	pro to	
P(y)	<i>y</i> = +1		$\frac{1}{1+e^{-\mathbf{W}^{\top}h}}$ So the second seco	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	
27			1	Machine Learning Specialization	1

#### Quadratic features: learned probabilities

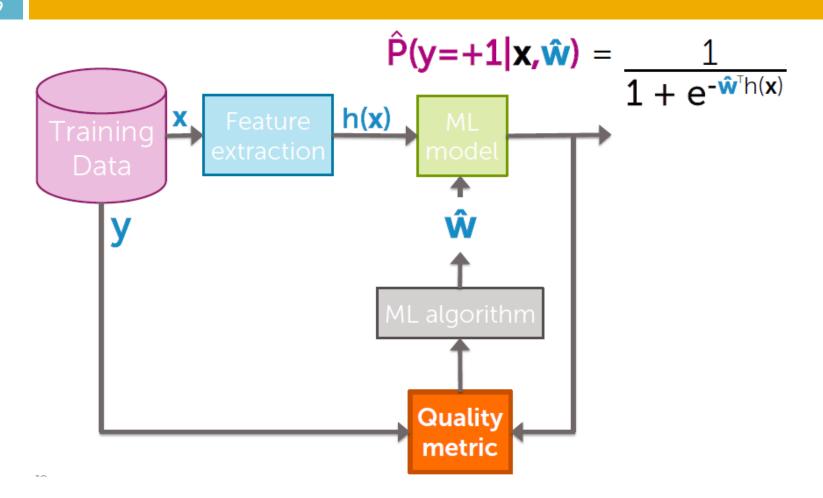
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		Feature	Value	Coefficient learned		
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		h <sub>0</sub> ( <b>x</b> )	1	1.68	7	
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		$h_1(\mathbf{x})$	<b>x</b> [1]	1.39	1 1 1 Cont. G=+1	
$h_4(\mathbf{x})$ $(\mathbf{x}[2])^2$ -0.96 2 $P(y = +1 \mid \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\mathbf{w}^{\top} h(\mathbf{x})}} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} & \mathbf{x} & \mathbf{x} \\ \mathbf{x} & \mathbf{x} \end{bmatrix}$		h <sub>2</sub> ( <b>x</b> )	<b>x</b> [2]	-0.58	better 4	<b>1</b>
$P(y = +1 \mid \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\mathbf{w}^{\top} h(\mathbf{x})}} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} & \mathbf{x} \\ \mathbf{x} & \mathbf{x} \\ \mathbf{x} & \mathbf{x} \end{bmatrix}$		$h_3(\mathbf{x})$	$(x[1])^2$	-0.17	At to 3	
Va us trinty  region  -2  narrower  -3		$h_4(\mathbf{x})$	$(x[2])^2$	-0.96	0, ata	
	I	P(y = +1)	$\mid \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) =$	1+e " "	hinty $-1$	
28 © 2015 2016 Emily Fox & Carlos Cuestrin X[1]					<del>-5 -4 -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3</del>	(

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#### Overfitting -- overconfident predictions



#### Quality metric → penelazing large coefficients



#### Desired total cost format

#### Want to balance:

- How well function fits data
- ii. Magnitude of coefficients

```
Total quality =

measure of fit - measure of magnitude
of coefficients

(data likelihood)
large # = good fit to
training data

want to balance

measure of magnitude
of coefficients

large # = overfit
```

### Maximum likelihood estimation (MLE)

- Measure of fit = Data likelihood
- Choose coefficients w that maximize likelihood:

$$\prod_{i=1}^{N} P(y_i \mid \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w})$$

 Typically, we use the log of likelihood function (simplifies math and has better convergence properties)

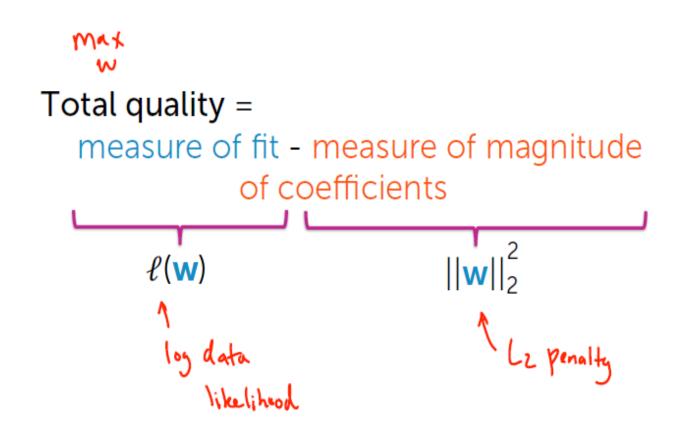
$$\ell(\mathbf{w}) = \ln \prod_{i=1}^{N} P(y_i \mid \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w})$$

# Measure of magnitude of logistic regression coefficients

What summary # is indicative of size of logistic regression coefficients?

- Sum of squares  $(L_2 \text{ norm})$   $\|\|u\|_{L^2}^2 = w_0^2 + w_1^2 + w_2^2 + \cdots + w_0^2$ - Sum of absolute value  $(L_1 \text{ norm})$   $\|\|w\|_{L^2} = \|w_0\| + \|w_1\| + \|w_2\| + \cdots + \|w_0\|$ Sparse solution

## Consider specific total cost



## Consider resulting objectives

```
\ell(\mathbf{w}) - \lambda ||\mathbf{w}||_2^2
tuning parameter = balance of fit and magnitude

If \lambda = 0:

It has been a shaded (unperalized) MLE solution

If \lambda = \infty:
       max l(w) - do ||w||2 -> only care about penalizing w, large coefficients ->
         If λ in between:

Balance Anh Kit
                                                      against the magnitude of the coefficients
```

## Consider resulting objectives

What if  $\hat{\mathbf{w}}$  selected to minimize

$$\ell(\mathbf{w}) - \lambda ||\mathbf{w}||_2^2$$
tuning parameter = balance of fit and magnitude

L<sub>2</sub> regularizedlogistic regression

#### Pick \(\lambda\) using:

- Validation set (for large datasets)
- Cross-validation (for smaller datasets)

#### Bias-variance tradeoff

#### Large $\lambda$ :

high bias, low variance

(e.g.,  $\hat{\mathbf{w}} = 0$  for  $\lambda = \infty$ )

In essence,  $\lambda$  controls model complexity

#### Small $\lambda$ :

low bias, high variance

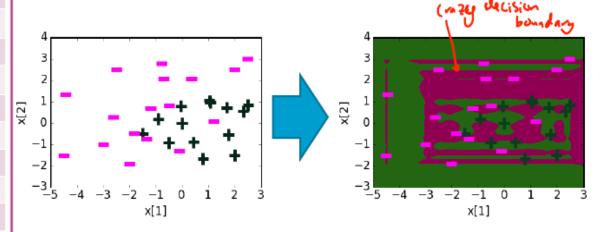
(e.g., maximum likelihood (MLE) fit of high-order polynomial for  $\lambda$ =0)

## Visualizing effect of regularisation

#### Degree 20 features, $\lambda = 0$

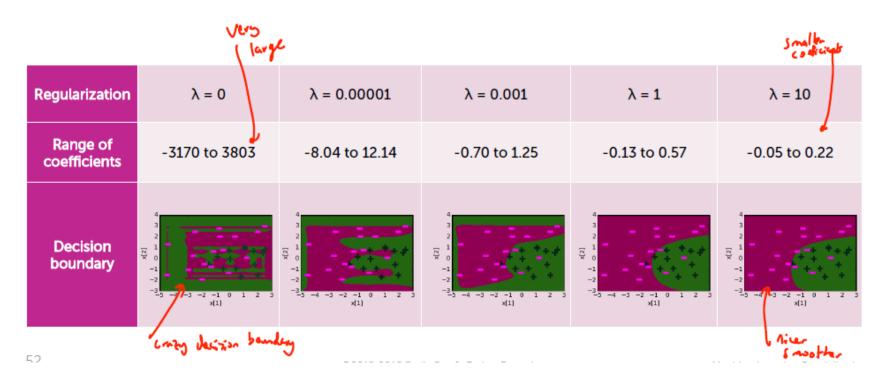
Feature	Value	Coefficient learned
$h_0(\mathbf{x})$	1	8.7
h <sub>1</sub> ( <b>x</b> )	<b>x</b> [1]	5.1
h <sub>2</sub> ( <b>x</b> )	<b>x</b> [2]	78.7
h <sub>11</sub> ( <b>x</b> )	( <b>x</b> [1]) <sup>6</sup>	-7.5
h <sub>12</sub> ( <b>x</b> )	( <b>x</b> [2]) <sup>6</sup>	3803
h <sub>13</sub> ( <b>x</b> )	$(x[1])^7$	21.1
h <sub>14</sub> ( <b>x</b> )	$(x[2])^7$	-2406
h <sub>37</sub> ( <b>x</b> )	(x[1]) <sup>19</sup>	-2*10 <sup>-6</sup>
h <sub>38</sub> ( <b>x</b> )	( <b>x</b> [2]) <sup>19</sup>	-0.15
h <sub>39</sub> ( <b>x</b> )	( <b>x</b> [1]) <sup>20</sup>	-2*10-8
h <sub>40</sub> ( <b>x</b> )	( <b>x</b> [2]) <sup>20</sup>	0.03

Coefficients range from -3170 to 3803



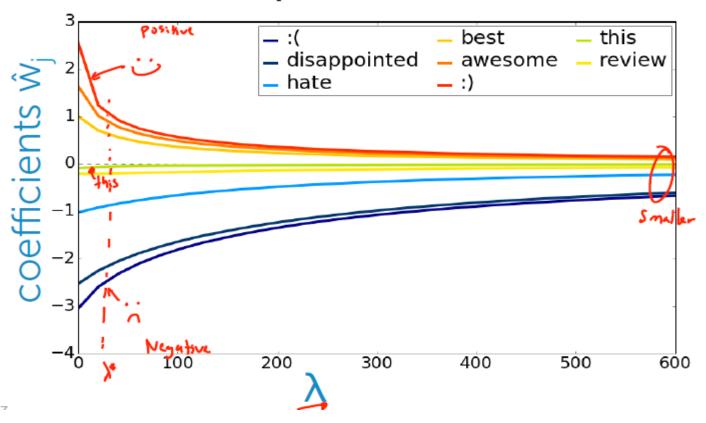
## Visualizing effect of regularisation

# Degree 20 features, effect of regularization penalty λ



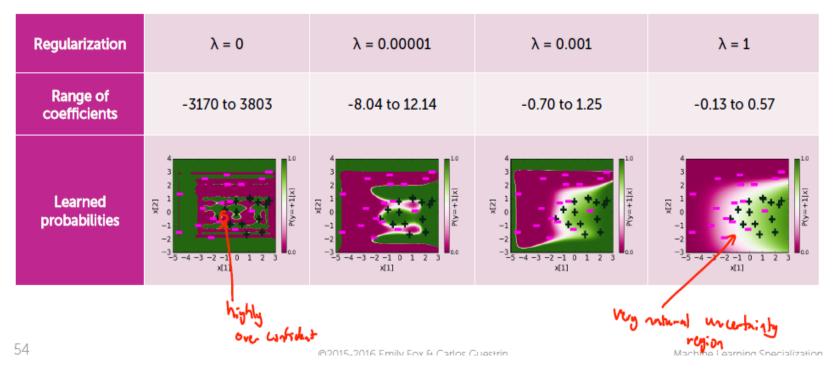
# Effect of regularisation

### Coefficient path



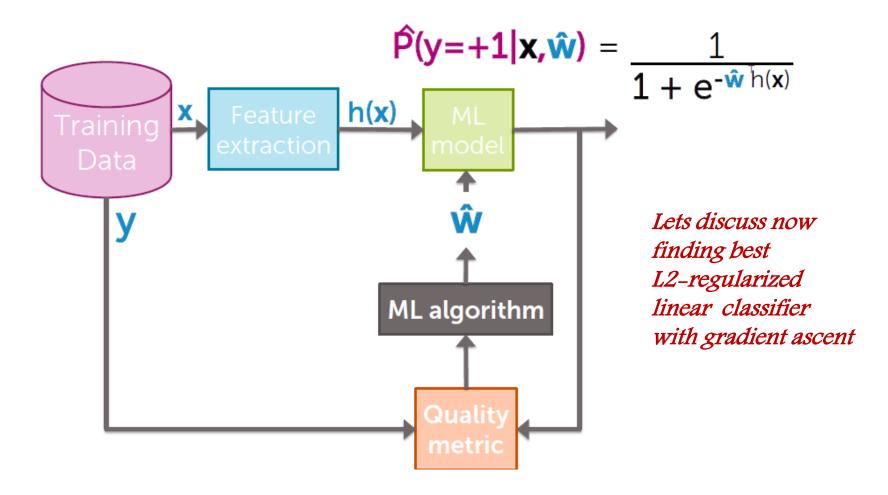
# Visualizing effect of regularisation

# Degree 20 features: regularization reduces "overconfidence"

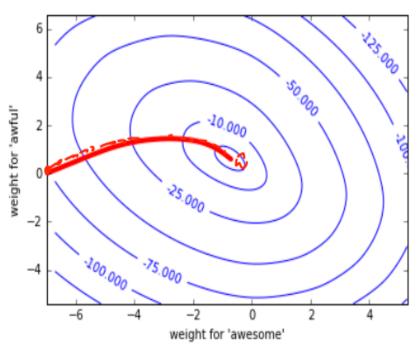


### Flow chart:





# Gradient ascent

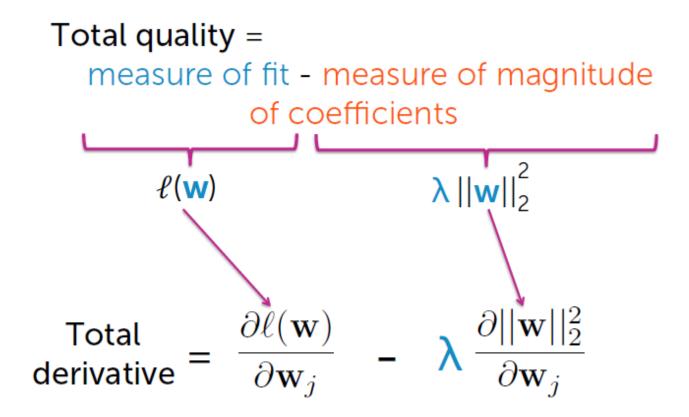


#### Algorithm:

while not converged

$$\mathbf{w}^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \mathbf{w}^{(t)} + \eta \nabla \ell(\mathbf{w}^{(t)})$$
  
read the gradient of regularized by likelihood

## Gradient of L2 regularized log-likelihood



# Gradient of L2 regularized log-likelihood

### Derivative of (log-)likelihood

Sum over data points value Difference between truth and prediction 
$$\frac{\partial \ell(\mathbf{w})}{\partial \mathbf{w}_j} = \sum_{i=1}^N h_j(\mathbf{x}_i) \bigg( \mathbbm{1}[y_i = +1] - P(y = +1 \mid \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w}) \bigg)$$

### Derivative of L<sub>2</sub> penalty

$$\frac{\partial ||\mathbf{w}||_2^2}{\partial \mathbf{w}_i} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{w}_i} \left[ \mathbf{w}_i^2 + \mathbf{w}_i^2 + \mathbf{w}_i^2 + \dots + \mathbf{w}_i^2 + \dots + \mathbf{w}_i^2 \right] = 2 \mathbf{w}_i$$

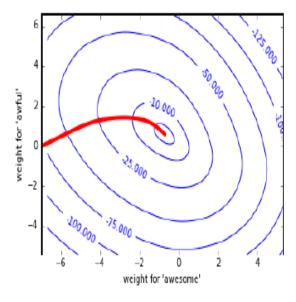
# Gradient of L2 regularized log-likelihood

# Understanding contribution of L<sub>2</sub> regularization

$$\frac{\partial \ell(\mathbf{w})}{\partial \mathbf{w}_j}$$
 —  $2\lambda \mathbf{w}_j$ 

	- 2 λ <b>w</b> <sub>j</sub>	Impact on <b>w</b> <sub>j</sub>
$\mathbf{w}_{j} > 0$	<0	decreases w; => w; becomes closer to 0
<b>w</b> <sub>j</sub> < 0	>0	increase wij =) wij becomes (loser to 0

# Gradient ascent with L2 regularization



init  $\mathbf{w}^{(1)} = 0$  (or randomly, or smartly), t=1

while not converged:

$$\begin{aligned} & \textbf{for } j = 0, ..., D \\ & \textbf{partial[} j j = \sum_{i=1}^{N} h_j(\mathbf{x}_i) \Big( \mathbb{1}[y_i = +1] - P(y = +1 \mid \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w}^{(t)}) \Big) \\ & \mathbf{w}_j^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \mathbf{w}_j^{(t)} + \mathbf{\eta} \ \, (\textbf{partial[} j j - 2\lambda \ \, \mathbf{w}_j^{(t)}) \\ & \textbf{t} \leftarrow \textbf{t} + 1 \end{aligned}$$

# Logistic regression with L1 regularization

# Recall sparsity (many $\hat{\mathbf{w}}_{j}=0$ ) gives efficiency and interpretability

#### Efficiency:

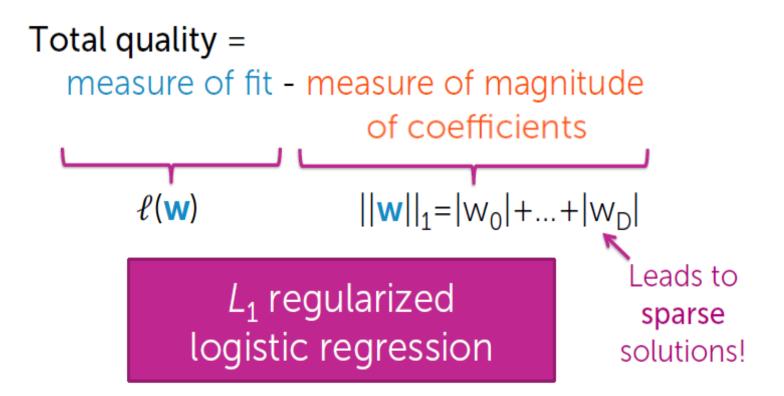
- If size(w) = 100B, each prediction is expensive
- If  $\hat{\mathbf{w}}$  sparse, computation only depends on # of non-zeros

many zeros 
$$\hat{y}_i = sign\left(\sum_{\hat{\mathbf{w}}_j \neq 0} \hat{\mathbf{w}}_j h_j(\mathbf{x}_i)\right)$$

#### Interpretability:

- Which features are relevant for prediction?

# Sparse logistic regression



# L1 regularised logistic regression

Just like L2 regularization, solution is governed by a continuous parameter  $\lambda$ 

```
tuning parameter = balance of fit and sparsity

9 No regularization \rightarrow shaded MLE solution

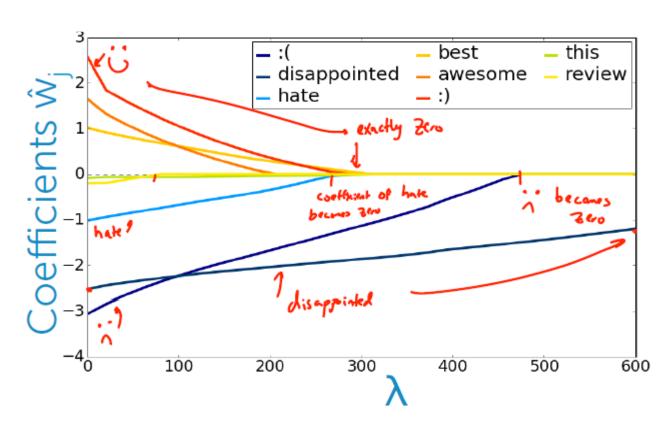
If \lambda = \infty:

all weight is an regularization \rightarrow \hat{\omega} = 0

If \lambda in between:

Sparse solutions: Some \hat{\omega}_i \neq 0, many offer \hat{\omega}_i = 0
```

# L1 regularised logistic regression



# What you can do now...

- Identify when overfitting is happening
- Relate large learned coefficients to overfitting
- Describe the impact of overfitting on decision boundaries and predicted probabilities of linear classifiers
- Motivate the form of L<sub>2</sub> regularized logistic regression quality metric
- Describe what happens to estimated coefficients as tuning parameter  $\lambda$  is varied
- Interpret coefficient path plot
- Estimate L<sub>2</sub> regularized logistic regression coefficients using gradient ascent
- Describe the use of L<sub>1</sub> regularization to obtain sparse logistic regression solutions

# Decision trees

# What makes a loan risky?



# Credit history explained

Did I pay previous loans on time?

Example: excellent, good, or fair

Credit History

\*\*\*\*

Income

\*\*\*\*

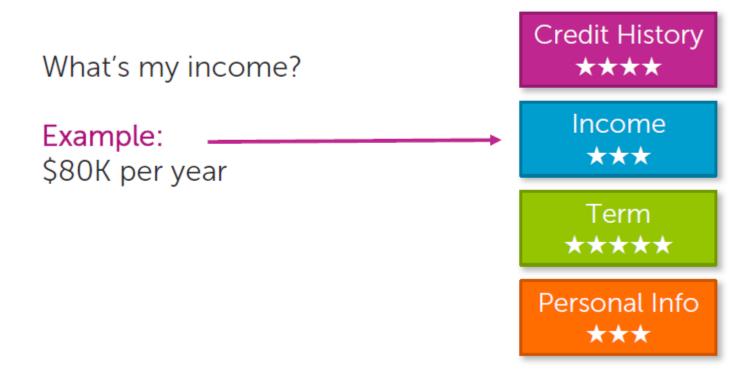
Term

\*\*\*\*

Personal Info

\*\*\*\*

### Income



### Loan terms

How soon do I need to pay the loan?

Example: 3 years,

5 years,...

Term

\*\*\*\*

Personal Info

\*\*\*\*

### Personal information

Age, reason for the loan, marital status,...

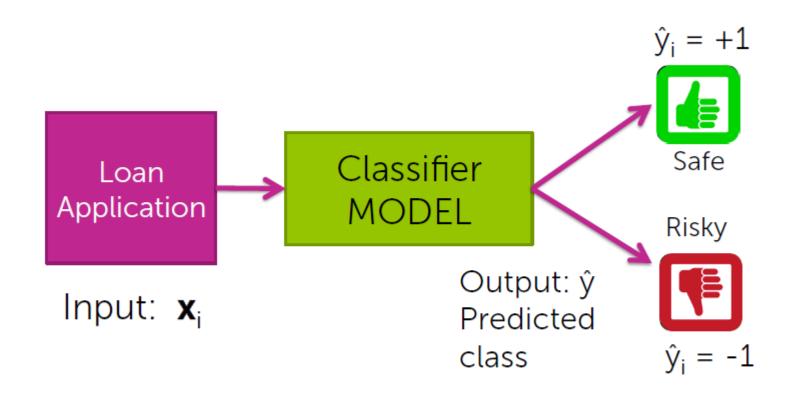
**Example:** Home loan for a married couple



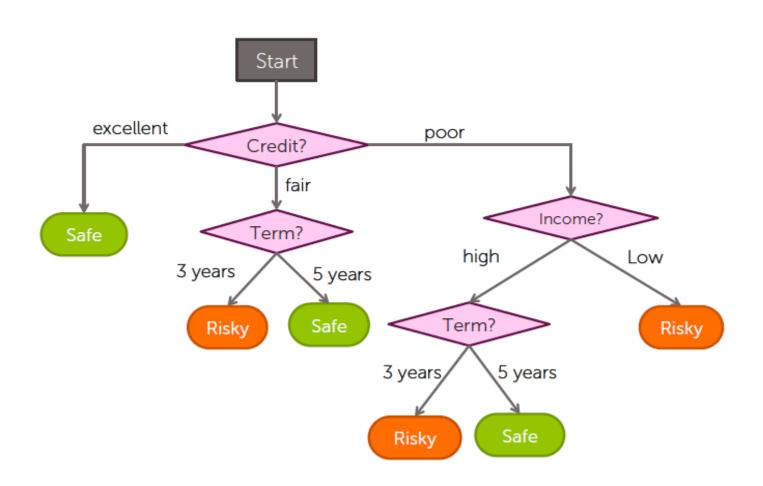
# Inteligent application



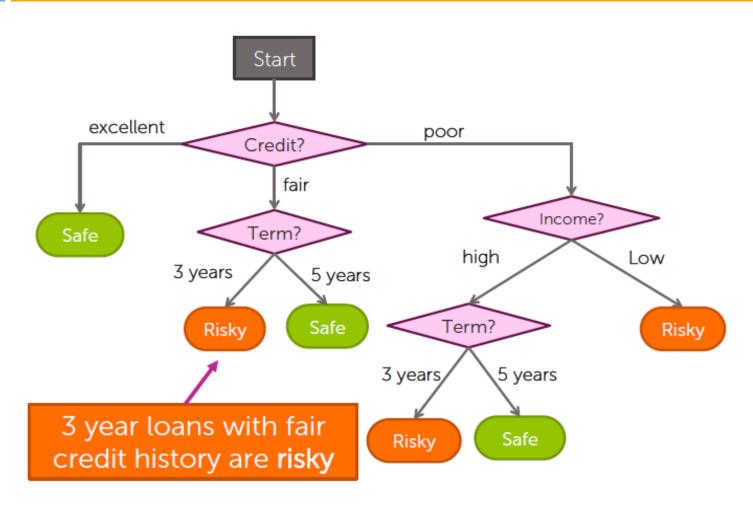
# Classifier: review type



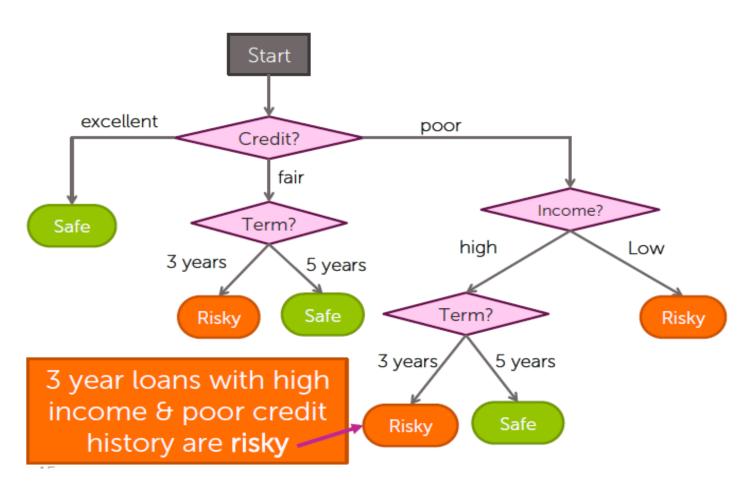
# Classifier: decision trees



# Scoring a loan application

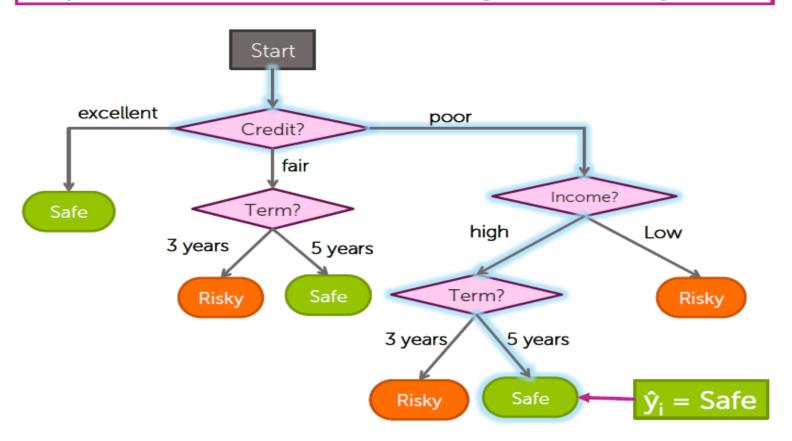


# Scoring a loan application

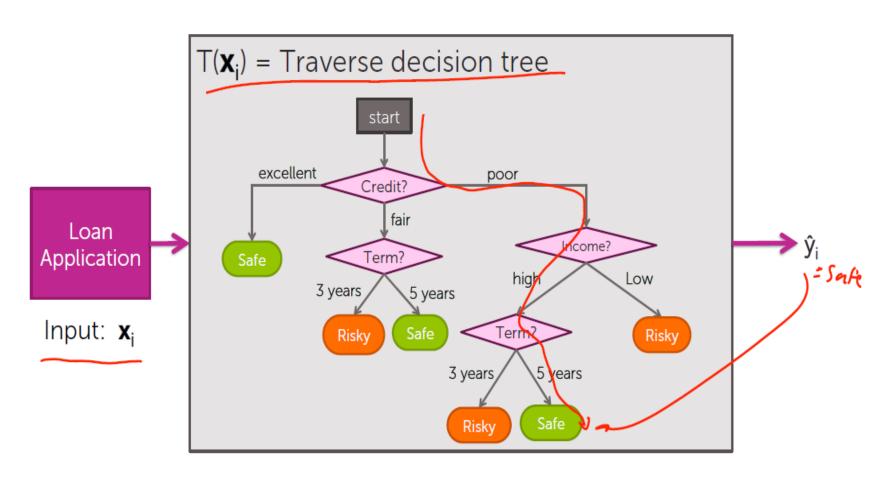


# Scoring a loan application

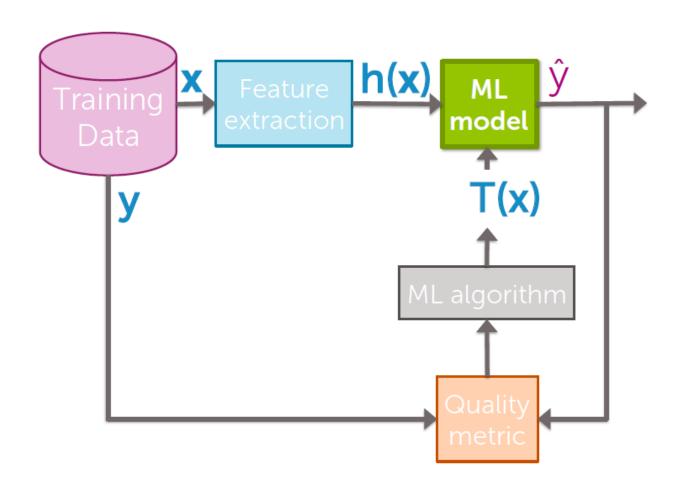
 $\mathbf{x}_i = (Credit = poor, Income = high, Term = 5 years)$ 



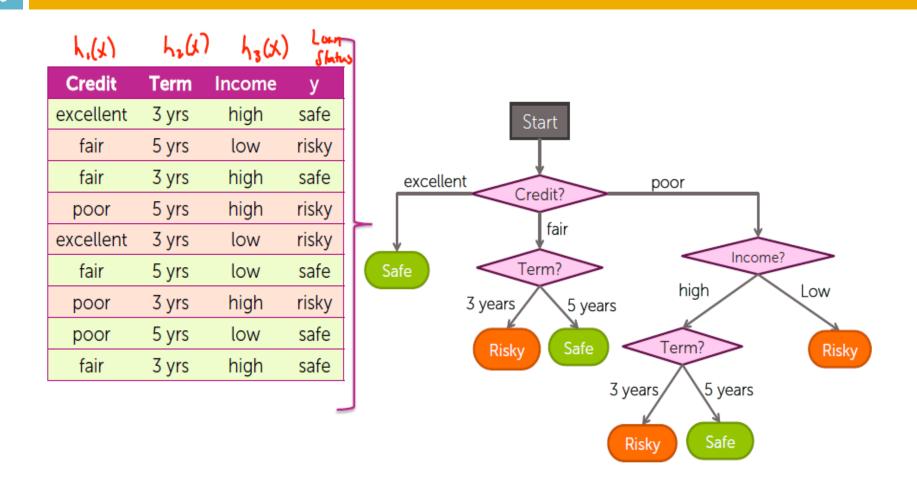
### Decision tree model



# Flow chart: ML model



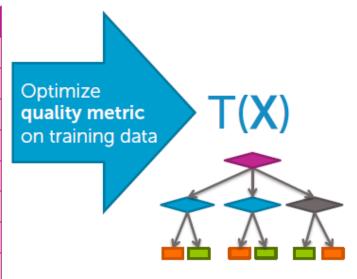
## Learn decision tree from data



### Learn decision tree from data

#### Training data: N observations $(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)$

Credit	Term	Income	у
excellent	3 yrs	high	safe
fair	5 yrs	low	risky
fair	3 yrs	high	safe
poor	5 yrs	high	risky
excellent	3 yrs	low	risky
fair	5 yrs	low	safe
poor	3 yrs	high	risky
poor	5 yrs	low	safe
fair	3 yrs	high	safe



# Quality metric: Classification error

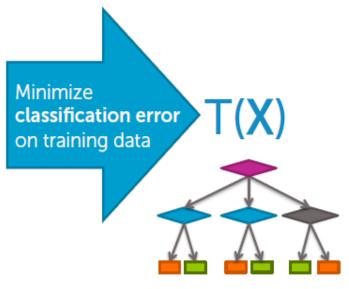
Error measures fraction of mistakes

```
Error = # incorrect predictions # examples
```

- Best possible value : 0.0
- Worst possible value: 1.0

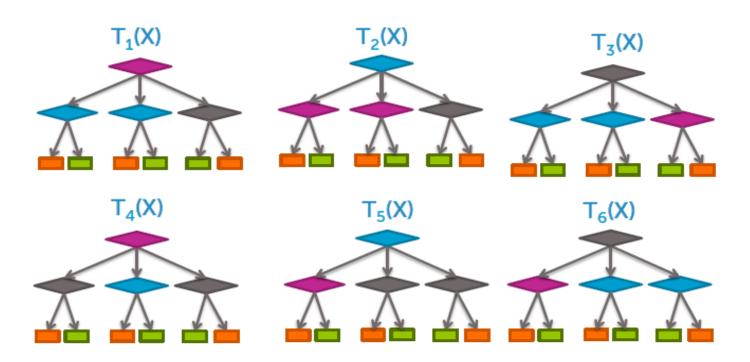
#### Find the tree with lowest classification error

Credit	Term	Income	у
excellent	3 yrs	high	safe
fair	5 yrs	low	risky
fair	3 yrs	high	safe
poor	5 yrs	high	risky
excellent	3 yrs	low	risky
fair	5 yrs	low	safe
poor	3 yrs	high	risky
poor	5 yrs	low	safe
fair	3 yrs	high	safe



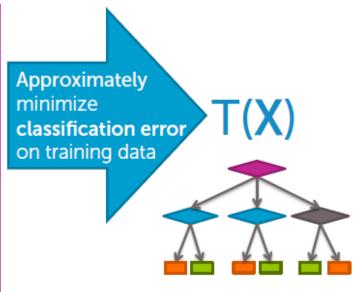
### How do we find the best tree?

Exponentially large number of possible trees makes decision tree learning hard! (NP-hard problem)



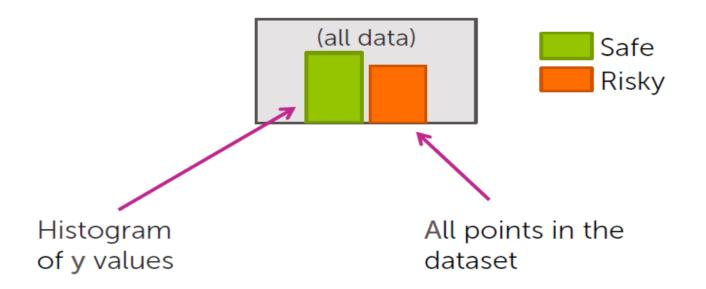
### Simple (greedy) algorithm finds good tree

Credit	Term	Income	у
excellent	3 yrs	high	safe
fair	5 yrs	low	risky
fair	3 yrs	high	safe
poor	5 yrs	high	risky
excellent	3 yrs	low	risky
fair	5 yrs	low	safe
poor	3 yrs	high	risky
poor	5 yrs	low	safe
fair	3 yrs	high	safe



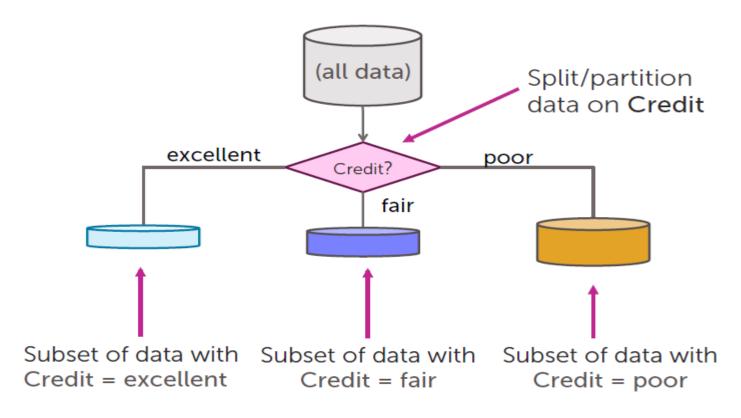
# Greedy algorithm

### Step 1: Start with an empty tree



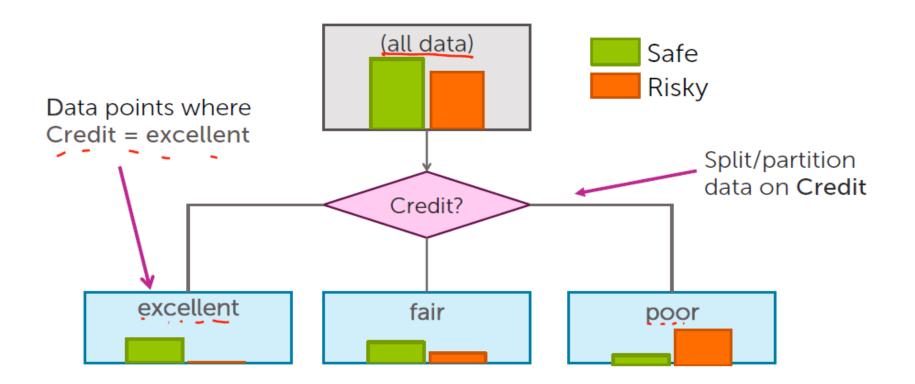
# Greedy algorithm

### Step 2: Split on a feature



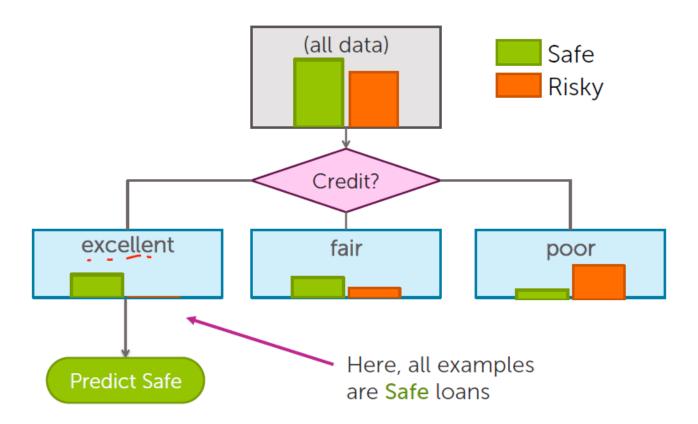
# Greedy algorithm

### Feature split explained



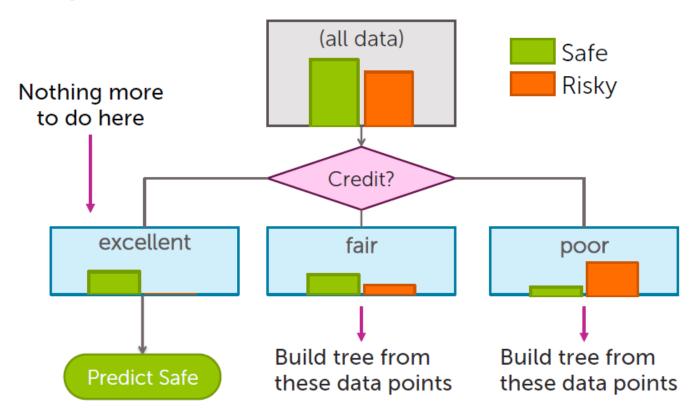
## Greedy algorithm

#### Step 3: Making predictions



## Greedy algorithm

#### Step 4: Recursion



# Greedy decision tree learning

Step 1: Start with an empty tree

Step 2: Select a feature to split data

For each split of the tree:

 Step 3: If nothing more to, make predictions

Step 4: Otherwise, go to Step 2 &
 continue (recurse) on this split

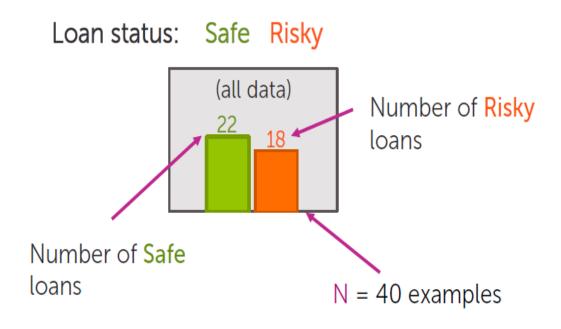
Problem 1: Feature split selection

Problem 2: Stopping condition

Recursion

## Feature split learning

#### Start with all the data

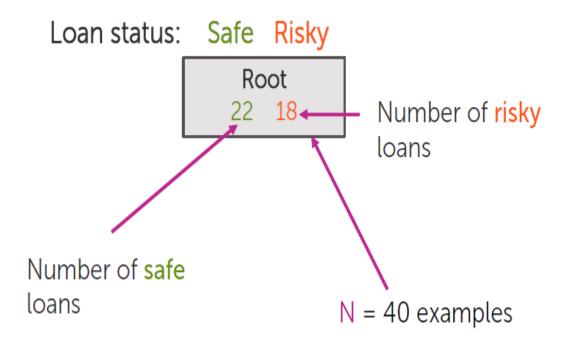


#### Assume N = 40, 3 features

Credit	Term	Income	у
excellent	3 yrs	high	safe
fair	5 yrs	low	risky
fair	3 yrs	high	safe
poor	5 yrs	high	risky
excellent	3 yrs	low	risky
fair	5 yrs	low	safe
poor	3 yrs	high	risky
poor	5 yrs	low	safe
fair	3 yrs	high	safe

## Feature split learning

#### Start with all the data

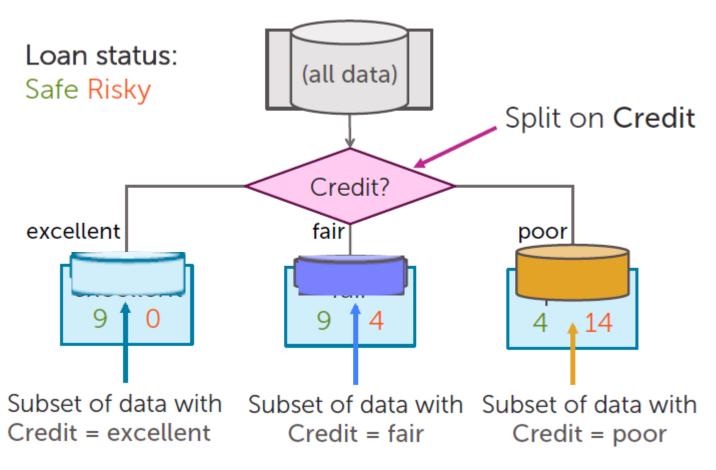


Assume N = 40, 3 features

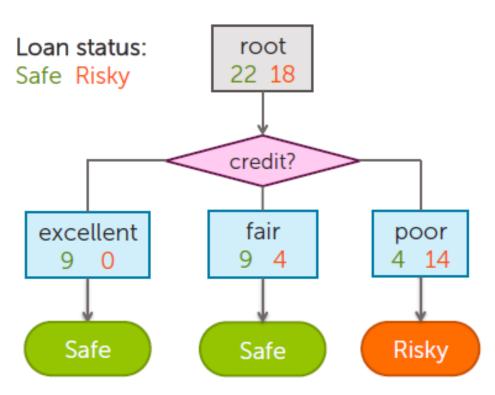
Credit	Term	Income	у
excellent	3 yrs	high	safe
fair	5 yrs	low	risky
fair	3 yrs	high	safe
poor	5 yrs	high	risky
excellent	3 yrs	low	risky
fair	5 yrs	low	safe
poor	3 yrs	high	risky
poor	5 yrs	low	safe
fair	3 yrs	high	safe

Compact notation

### Decision stump: single level tree

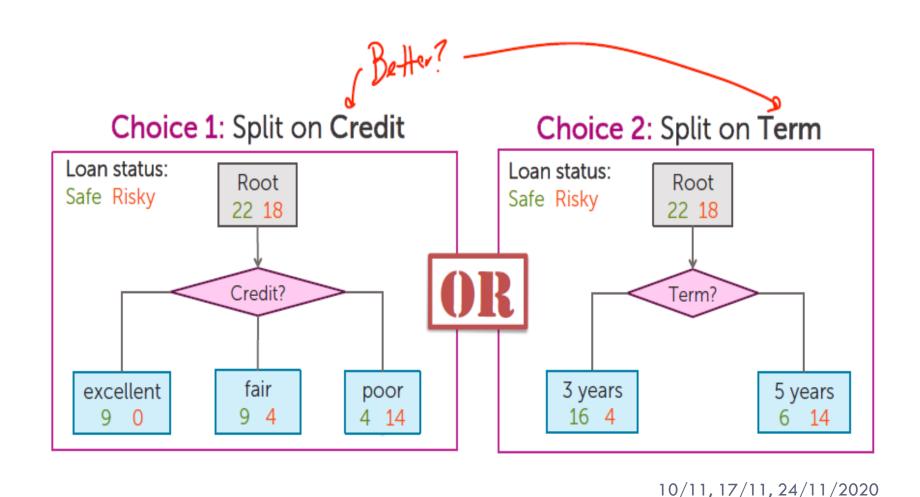


#### Making predictions with a decision stump

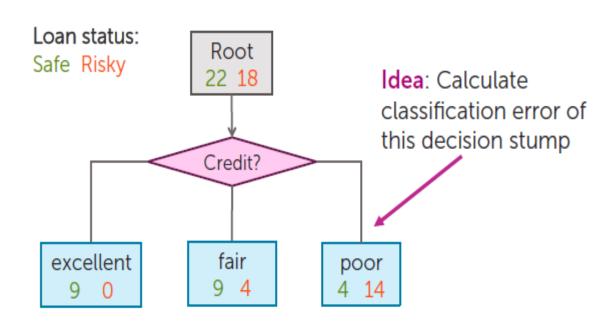


For each intermediate node, set  $\hat{y} = majority value$ 

#### How do we select the best feature to split on?



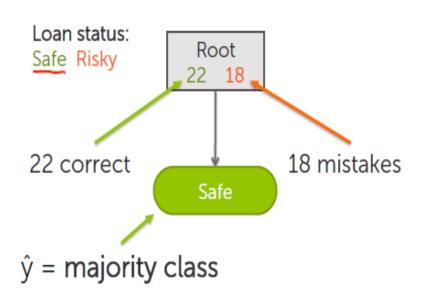
#### How do we measure effectiveness of a split?

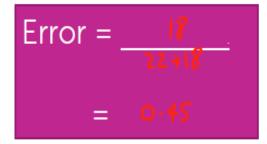


Error = # mistakes # data points

### Calculating classification error

- Step 1: ŷ = class of majority of data in node
- Step 2: Calculate classification error of predicting ŷ for this data

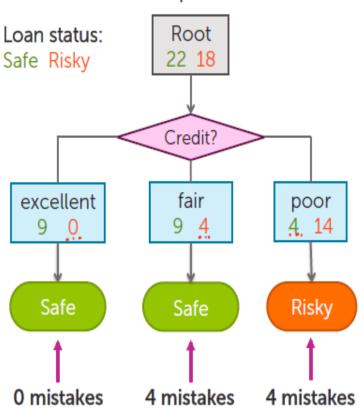




Tree	Classification error
(root)	0.45

#### Classification error

#### Choice 1: Split on Credit

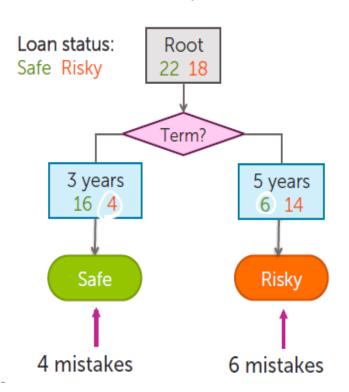


$$Error = \underbrace{\frac{4+4}{40}}_{= 0.26}$$

Tree	Classification error
(root)	0.45
Split on <b>credit</b>	0.2

### Classification error

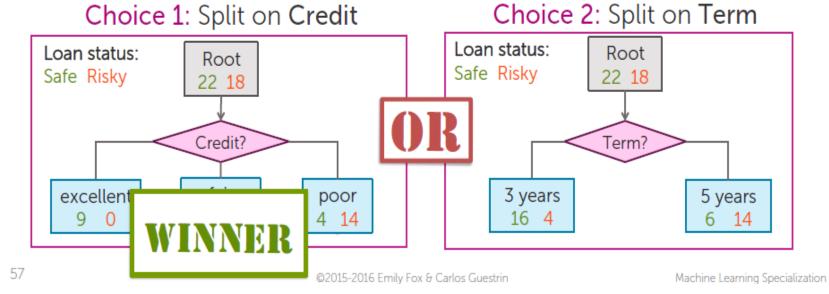
#### Choice 2: Split on Term



Tree	Classification error
(root)	0.45
Split on credit	0.2
Split on term	0.25

### Choice 1 vs Choise 2

Tree	Classification error	
(root)	0.45	
split on <b>credit</b>	0.2	-First
split on loan term	0.25	٥٢.



## Feauture split selection algorithm

- Given a subset of data M (a node in a tree)
- For each feature  $h_i(x)$ :
  - 1. Split data of M according to feature  $h_i(x)$
  - 2. Compute classification error split
- Chose feature h\*(x) with lowest classification error

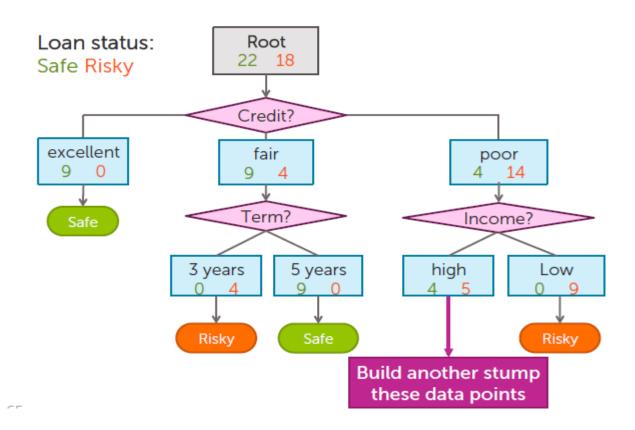
### Greedy decision tree learning algorithm

- Step 1: Start with an empty tree
- Step 2: Select a feature to split data
- For each split of the tree:
  - Step 3: If nothing more to, make predictions
  - Step 4: Otherwise, go to Step 2 & continue (recurse) on this split

Pick feature split leading to lowest classification error

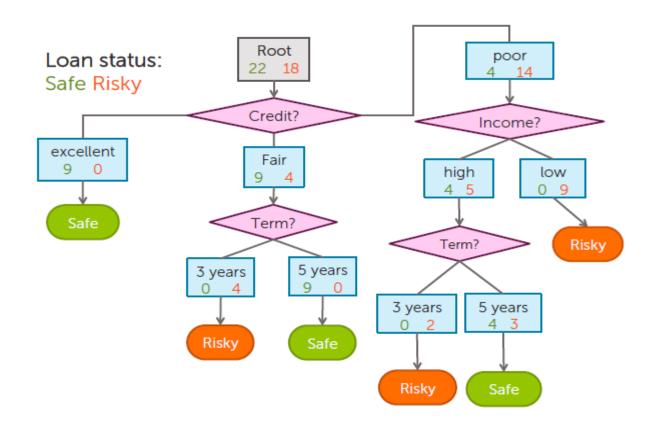
### Recursive stump learning

#### Second level



### Recursive stump learning

#### Final decision tree

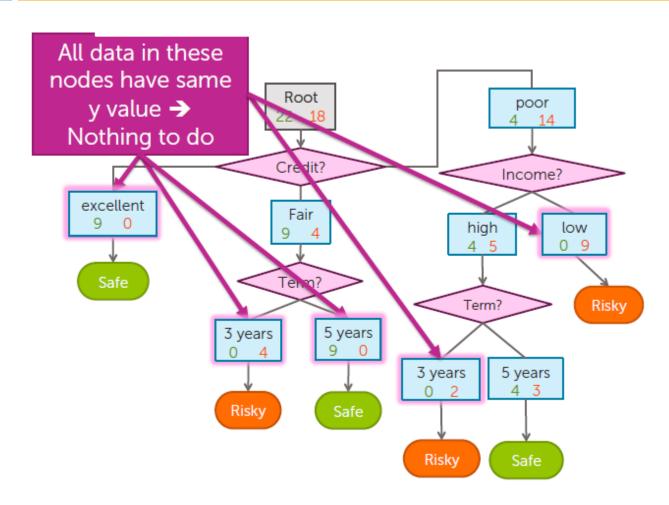


### Simple greedy decision tree learning

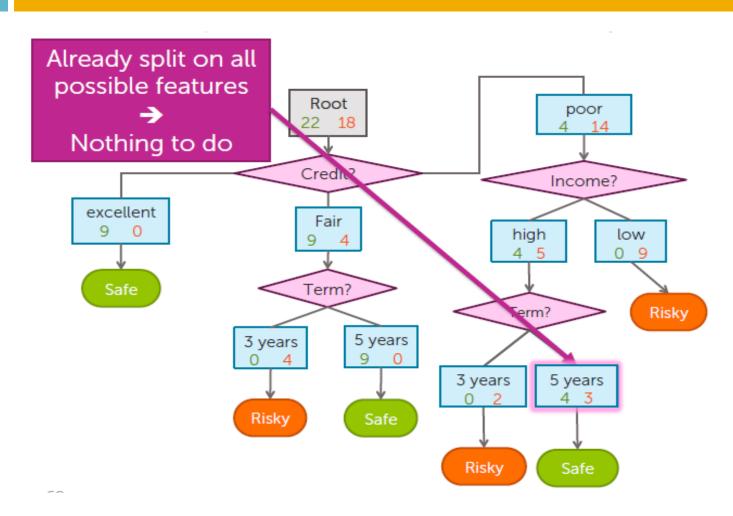
#### Recursive algorithm



### Stopping condition 1



## Stopping condition 2



## Greedy decision tree algorithm

- Step 1: Start with an empty tree
- Step 2: Select a feature to split data
- For each split of the tree:
  - Step 3: If nothing more to, make predictions
  - Step 4: Otherwise, go to Step 2 & continue (recurse) on this split

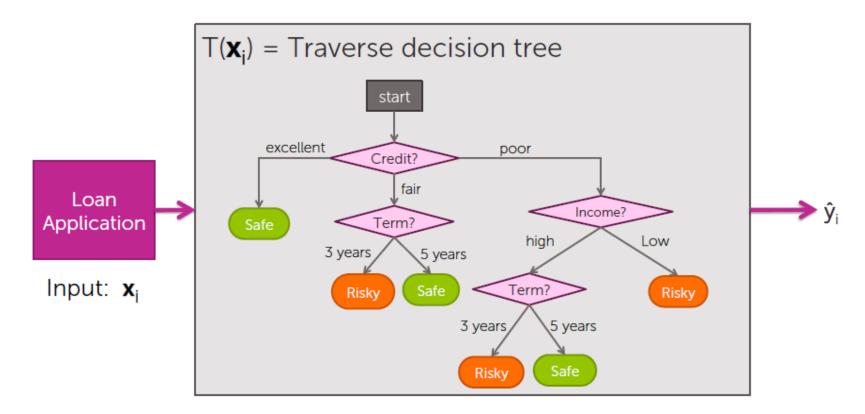
Pick feature split leading to lowest classification error

Stopping conditions 1 & 2

Recursion

#### Predictions with decision trees

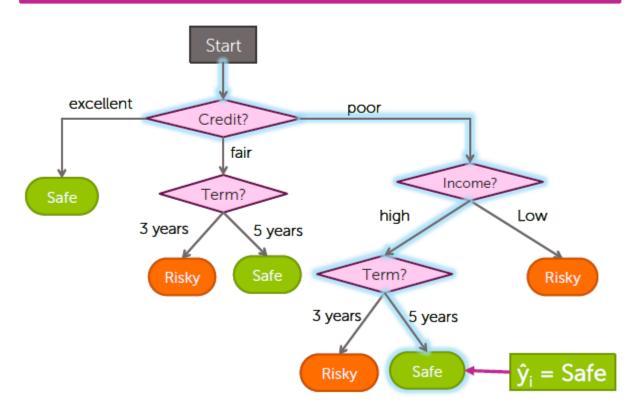
#### Decision tree model



### Predictions with decision trees

### Traversing a decision tree

 $\mathbf{x}_{i}$  = (Credit = poor, Income = high, Term = 5 years)

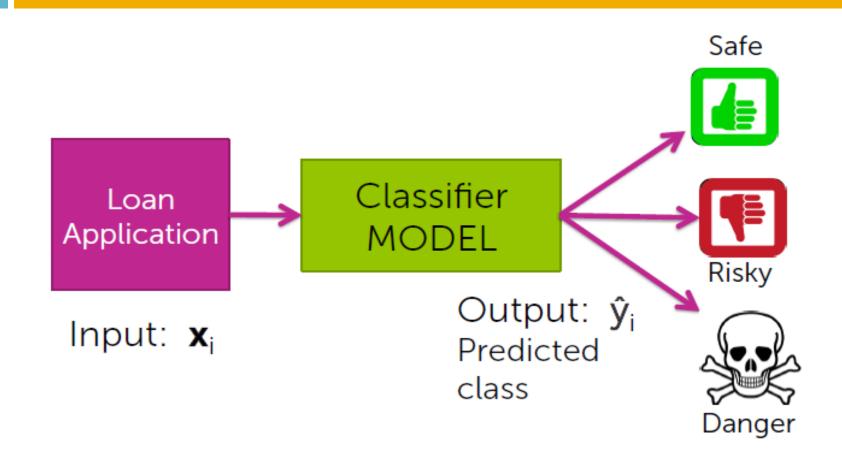


#### Predictions with decision tree

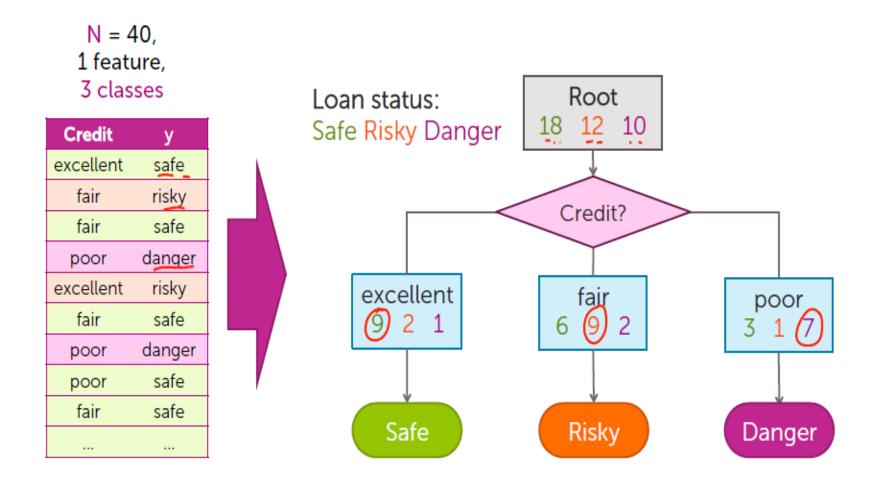
#### predict(tree\_node, input)

- If current tree\_node is a leaf:
  - return majority class of data points in leaf
- else:
  - next\_note = child node of tree\_node whose feature value agrees with input
  - return predict(next\_note, input)

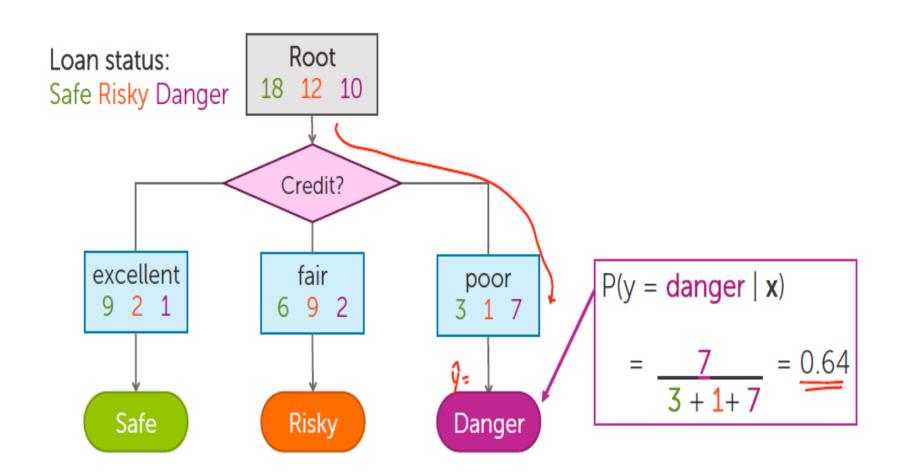
### Multiclass prediction



### Multiclass decision stump

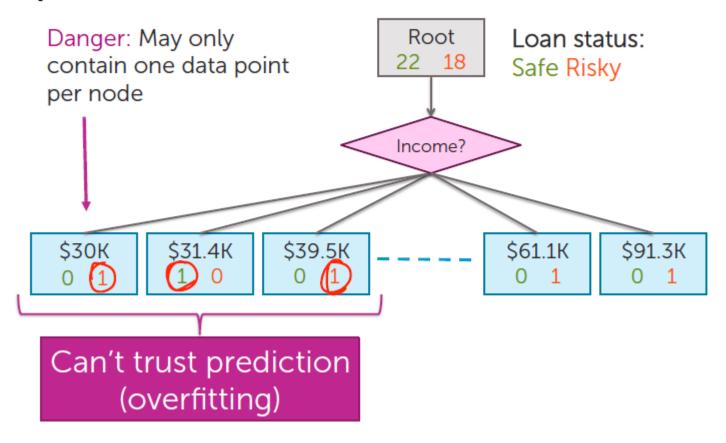


#### Predicting probabilities with decision trees



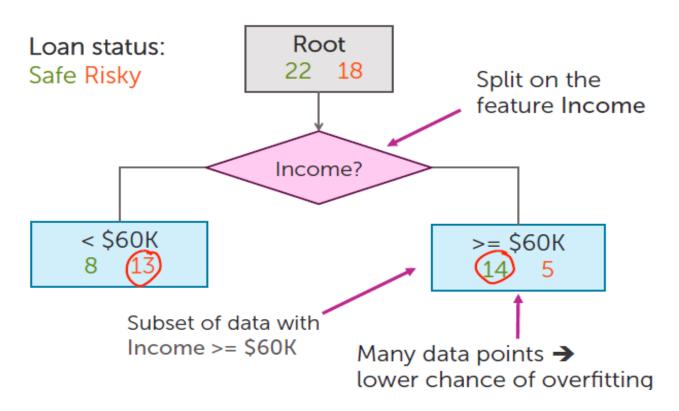
### How to use real values inputs

### Split on each numeric value?

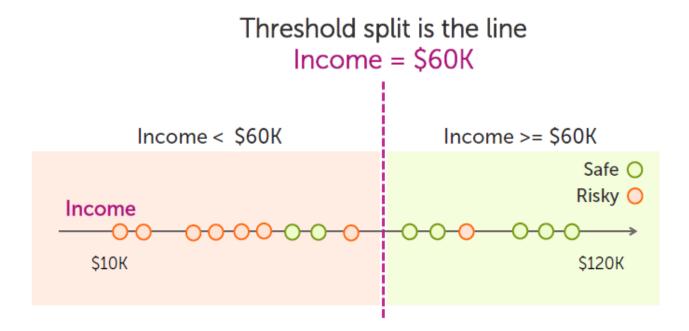


### How to use real values inputs

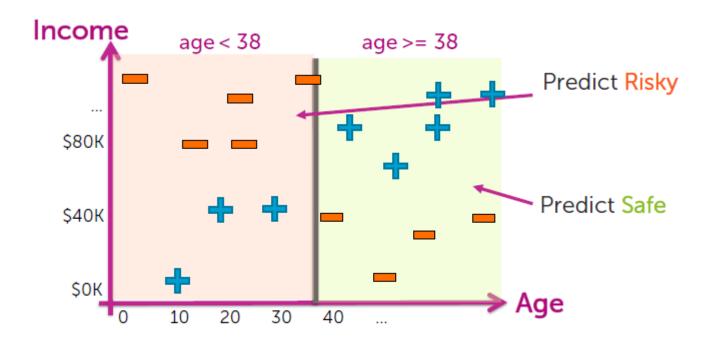
#### Alternative: Threshold split



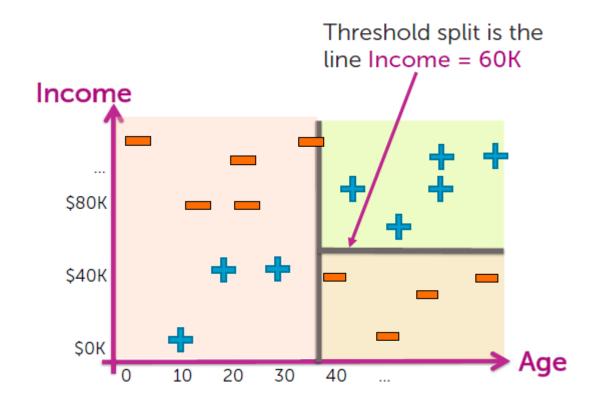
#### Threshold splits in 1-D



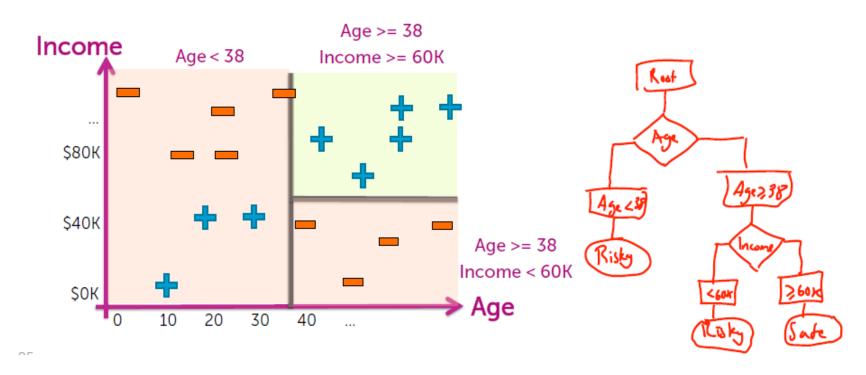
### Split on Age >= 38



#### Depth 2: Split on Income >= \$60K



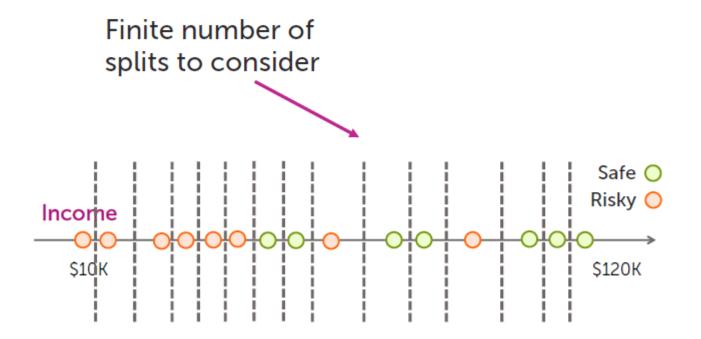
#### Each split partitions the 2-D space



10/11, 17/11, 24/11/2020

## Finding the best threshold split

#### Only need to consider mid-points



## Finding the best threshold split

### Threshold split selection algorithm

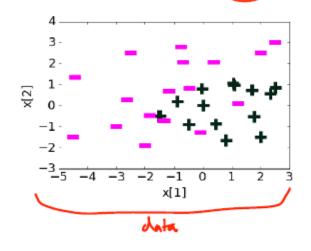
hion

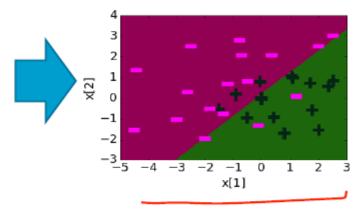
- Step 1: Sort the values of a feature  $h_j(\mathbf{x})$ : Let  $\{\mathbf{v_1}, \mathbf{v_2}, \mathbf{v_3}, ... \mathbf{v_N}\}$  denote sorted values
- Step 2:
  - For i = 1 ... N-1
    - Consider split  $t_{i} = (v_i + v_{i+1}) / 2$
    - Compute classification error for treshold split  $h_j(\mathbf{x}) >= \mathbf{t}_i$
  - Chose the t with the lowest classification error

### Decision trees vs logistic regression

#### Logistic regression

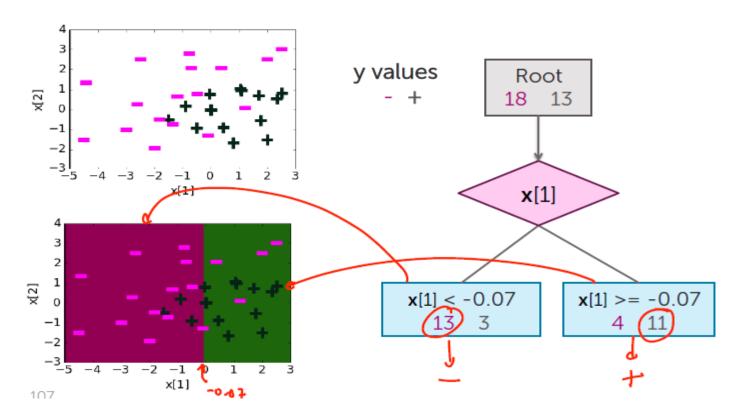
Feature	Value	Weight Learned
$h_0(x)$	1	0.22
$h_1(x)$	<b>x</b> [1]	1.12
h <sub>2</sub> ( <b>x</b> )	<b>x</b> [2]	-1.07





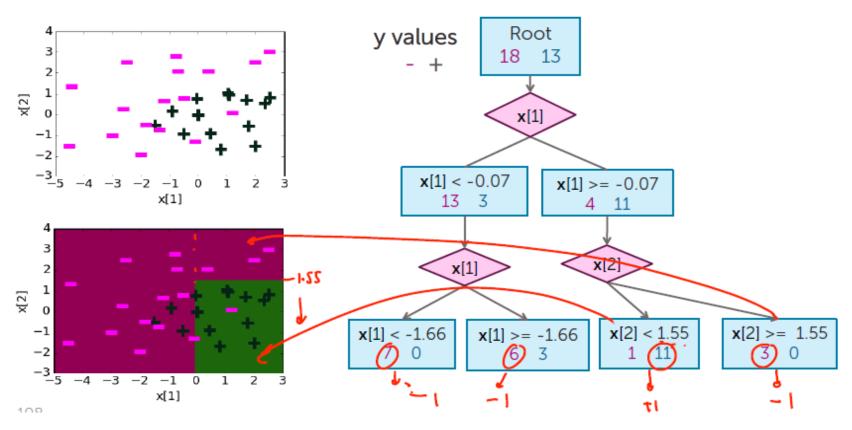
## Decision trees vs logistic regression

#### Depth 1: Split on x[1]



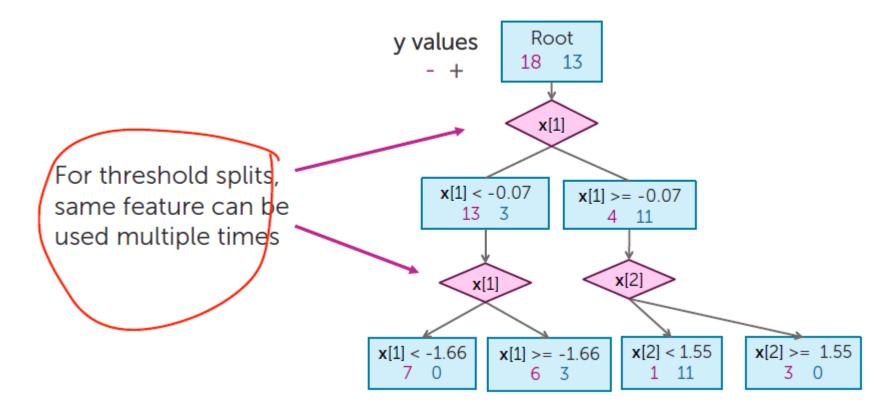
## Decision trees vs logistic regression

#### Depth 2



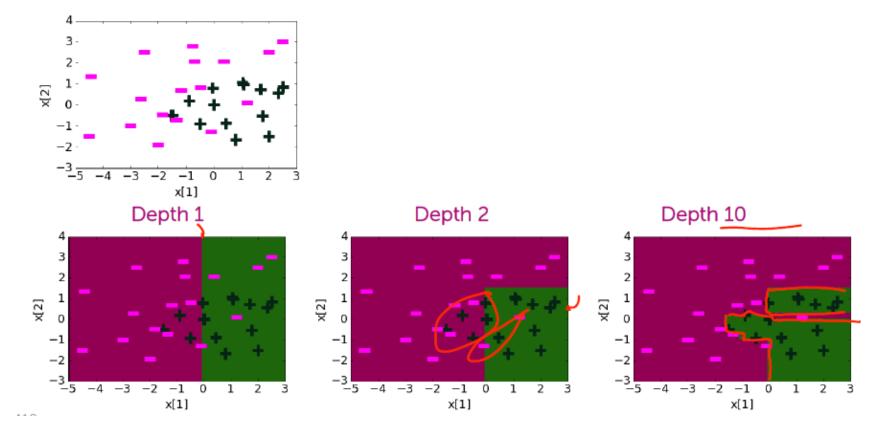
## Decision tree vs logistic regression

#### Threshold split caveat



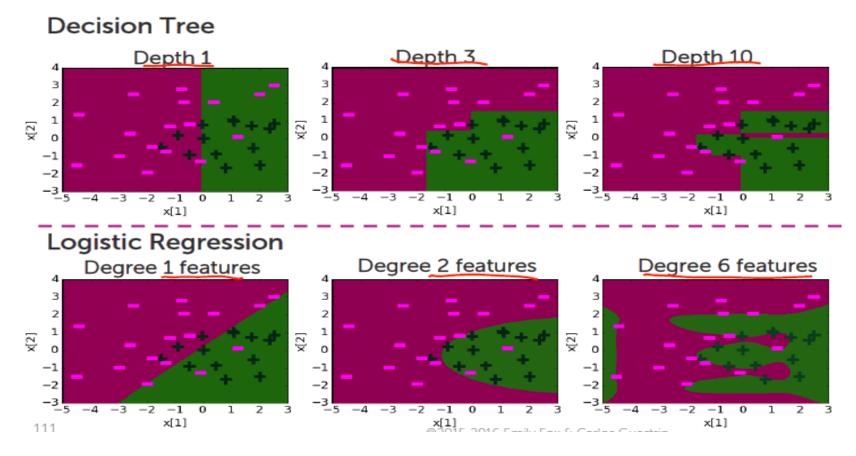
## Decision tree vs logistic regression

#### Decision boundaries



## Decision tree vs logistic regression

#### Comparing decision boundaries



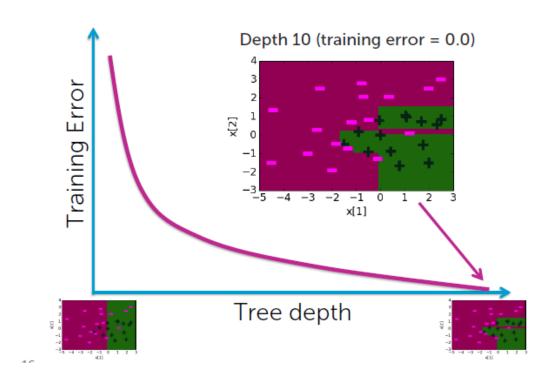
## What you can do now

- Define a decision tree classifier
- Interpret the output of a decision trees
- Learn a decision tree classifier using greedy algorithm
- Traverse a decision tree to make predictions
  - Majority class predictions
  - Probability predictions
  - Multiclass classification

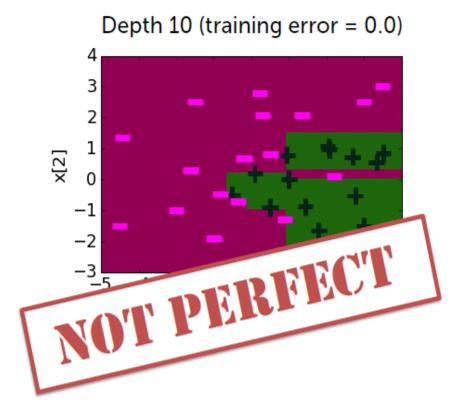
#### What happens when we increase depth?



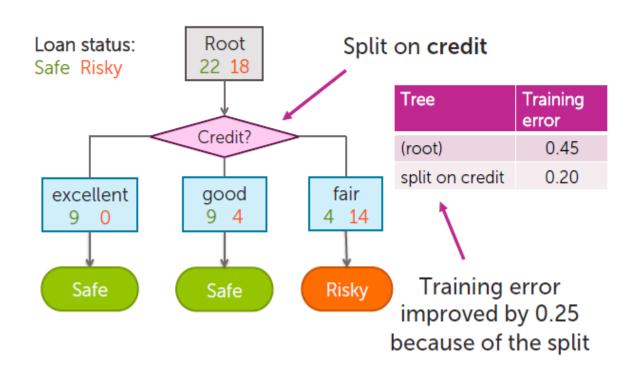
#### Deeper trees - lower training error



#### Training error = 0: Is this model perfect?



#### Why training error reduces with depth?

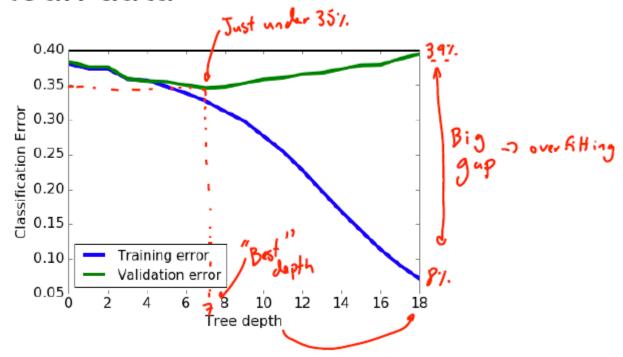


#### Feature split selection algorithm

- Given a subset of data M (a node in a tree)
- For each feature h<sub>i</sub>(x):
  - 1. Split data of M according to feature  $h_i(x)$
  - 2. Compute classification error split
- Chose feature h<sup>\*</sup>(x) with lowest classification error

By design, each split reduces training error

#### Decision trees overfitting on loan data



#### Principle of Occam's Razor



"Among competing hypotheses, the one with fewest assumptions should be selected", William of Occam, 13<sup>th</sup> Century

Symptoms:  $S_1$  and  $S_2$ 

SIMPLER

Diagnosis 1: 2 diseases

Two diseases  $D_1$  and  $D_2$  where  $D_1$  explains  $S_1$ ,  $D_2$  explains  $S_2$ 



Diagnosis 2: 1 disease

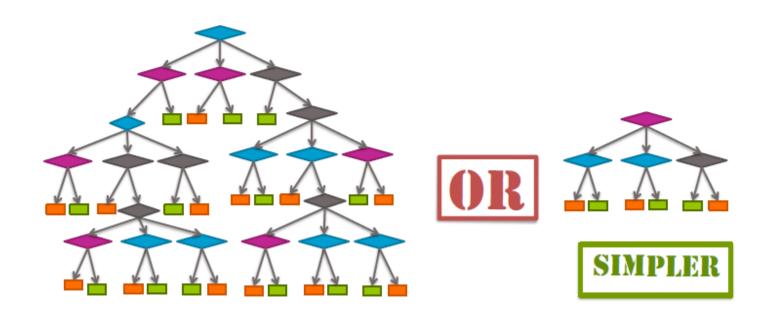
Disease  $D_3$  explains both symptoms  $S_1$  and  $S_2$ 

#### Occam's Razor for decision trees

When two trees have similar classification error on the validation set, pick the simpler one



#### Which tree is simpler?

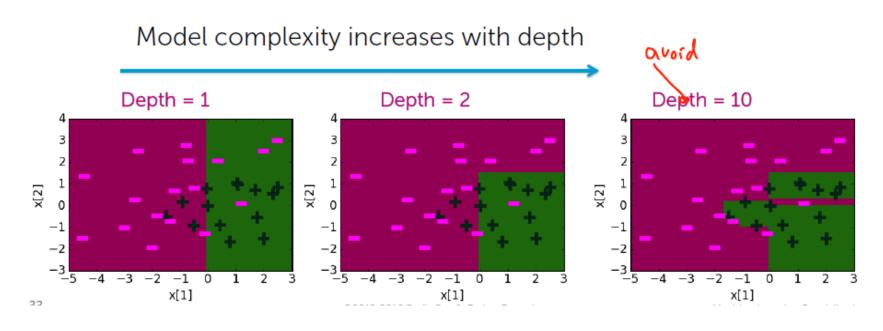


#### How do we pick simpler trees?

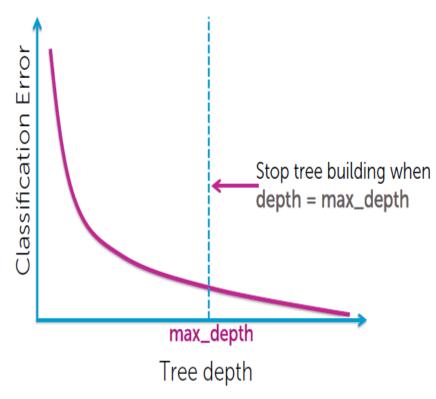
- Early Stopping: Stop learning algorithm before tree become too complex
- 2. Pruning: Simplify tree after learning algorithm terminates

#### Early stopping for learning decision trees

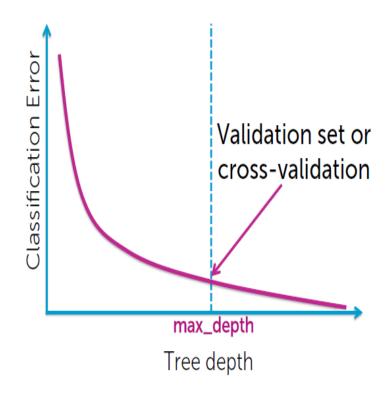
## Deeper trees -> Increasing complexity



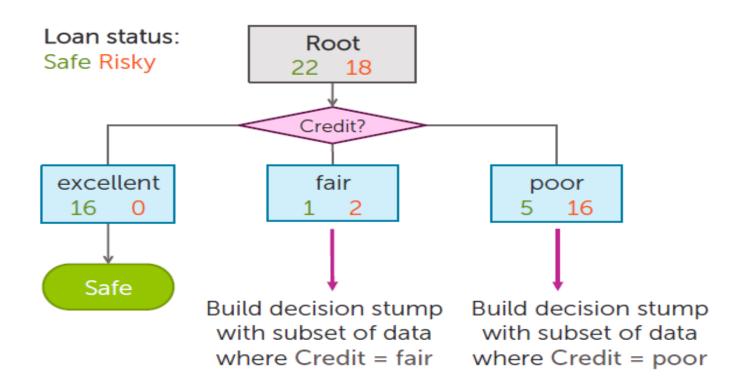
#### Limit depth of tree



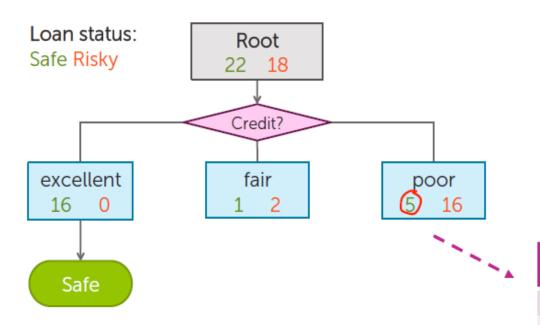
#### Picking value for max\_depth???



#### Decision tree recursion review



#### Split selection for credit=poor

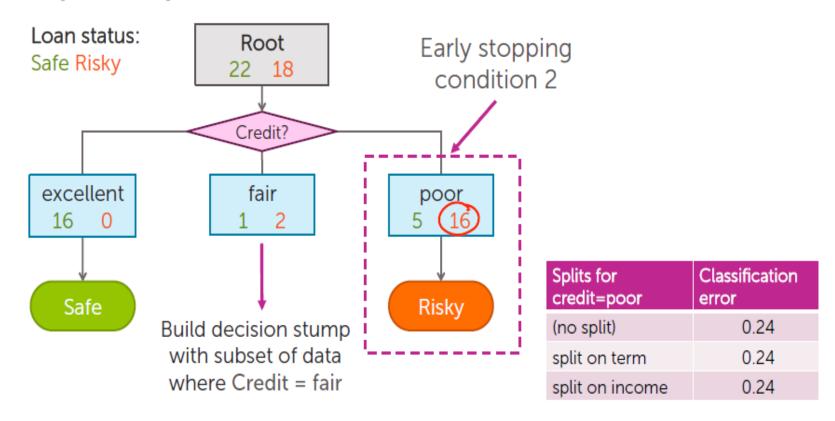


No split improves classification error

→ Stop!

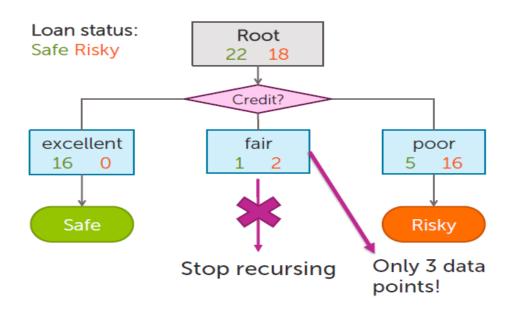
Splits for credit=poor	Classification error	
(no split)	0.24	
split on term	0.24	
split on income	0.24	

#### No split improves classification error



## Stop if number of data points contained in a node is too small

Can we trust nodes with very few points?



## Early stopping: Summary

- Limit tree depth: Stop splitting after a certain depth
- Classification error: Do not consider any split that does not cause a sufficient decrease in classification error
- Minimum node "size": Do not split an intermediate node which contains too few data points

## Greedy decision tree learning

- Step 1: Start with an empty\_tree
- Step 2: Select a feature to split data
- For each split of the tree:
  - Step 3: If nothing more to, make predictions 

     Majoring
  - Step 4: Otherwise, go to Step 2 & continue (recurse) on this split

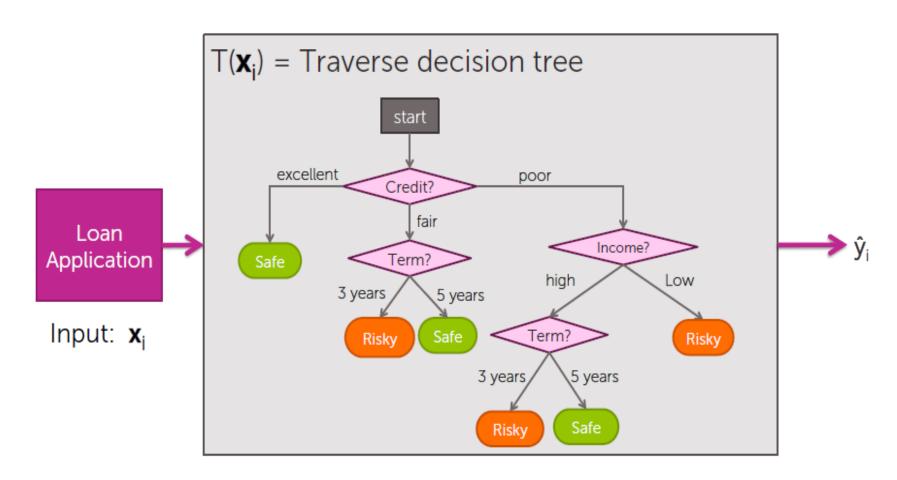
Stopping conditions 1 & 2 or

Early stopping conditions 1, 2 & 3

Recursion

# Strategies for handling missing data

#### Decision tree review



## Missing data

	Credit	Term	Income	у
	excellent	3 yrs	high	safe
	fair	?	low	risky
	fair	3 yrs	high	safe
	poor	5 yrs	high	risky
	excellent	3 yrs	low	risky
	fair	5 yrs	high	safe
	poor	?	high	risky
	poor	5 yrs	low	safe
	fair	?	high	safe

- Training data: Contains "unknown" values
- 2. Predictions: Input at prediction time contains "unknown" values

Loan application
may be
3 or 5 years

Q

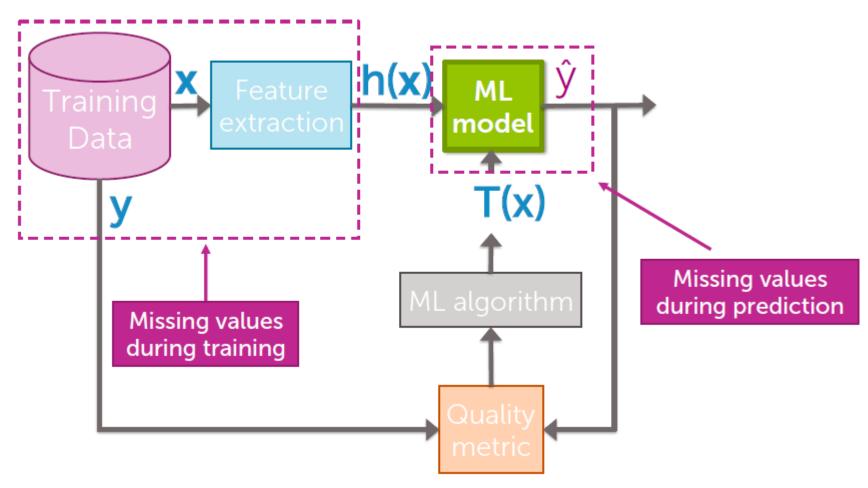
## Missing values during predictions

 $\mathbf{x}_i$  = (Credit = poor, Income = ?, Term = 5 years) Start What do we do??? excellent poor Credit? fair Income? Term? Safe high Low 3 years 5 years Safe Term? Risky Risky 3 years 5 years

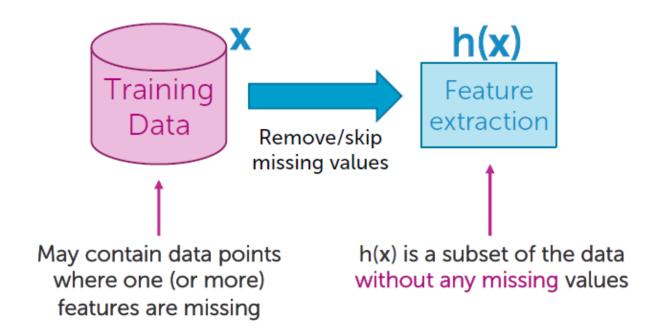
Risky

Safe

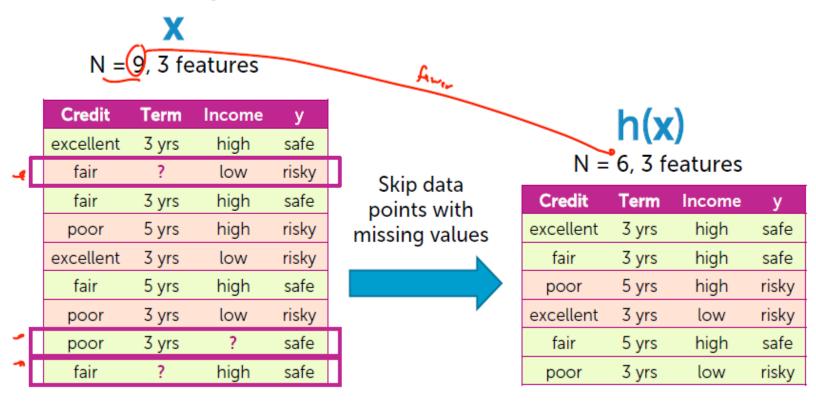
## Missing values



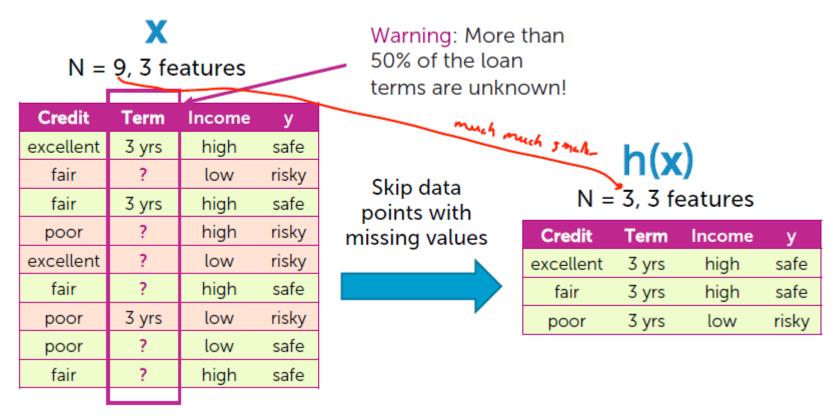
#### Idea 1: Purification by skipping/removing



# Idea 1: Skip data points with missing values

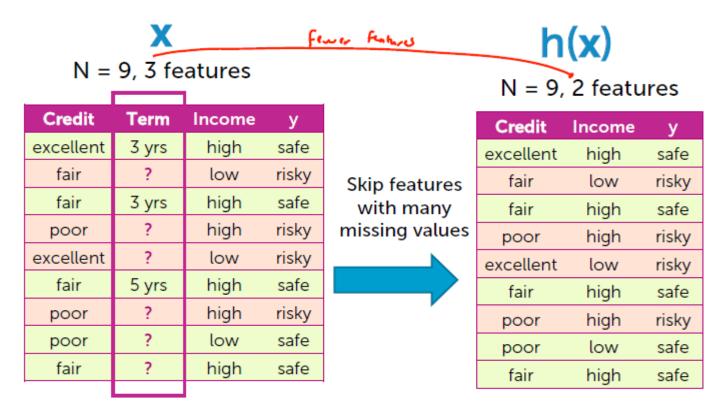


#### The challenge with Idea 1



## Missing data

#### Idea 2: Skip features with missing values



#### Missing value skipping: Ideas 1 & 2

Idea 1: Skip data points where any feature contains a missing value

 Make sure only a few data points are skipped

Idea 2: Skip an entire feature if it's missing for many data points

 Make sure only a few features are skipped

#### Missing value skipping: Pros and Cons

#### **Pros**

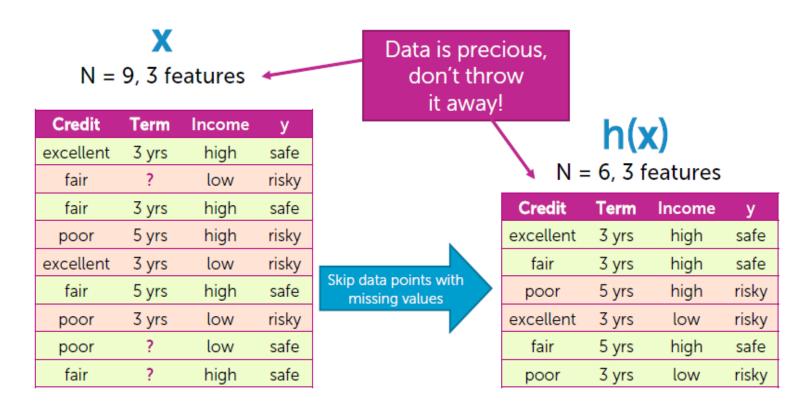
- Easy to understand and implement
- Can be applied to any model (decision trees, logistic regression, linear regression,...)

#### Cons

- Removing data points and features may remove important information from data
- Unclear when it's better to remove data points versus features
- Doesn't help if data is missing at prediction time

#### Data is precious

#### Main drawback of skipping strategy



## Data is precious

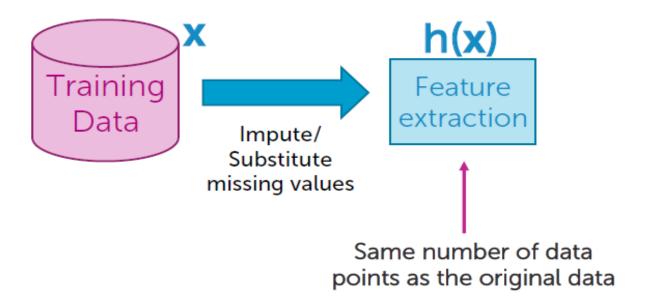
#### Can we keep all the data?

credit	term	income	у
excellent	3 yrs	high	safe
fair	?	low	risky
fair	3 yrs	high	safe
poor	5 yrs	high	risky
excellent	3 yrs	low	risky
fair	5 yrs	high	safe
poor	3 yrs	high	risky
poor	?	low	safe
fair	?	high	safe

Use other data points in **x** to "guess" the "?"

## Handling mising data

#### Idea 2: Purification by imputing



## Handling mising data

#### Idea 2: Imputation/Substitution

N = 9, 3 features

Credit	Term	Income	у
excellent	3 yrs	high	safe
fair	?	low	risky
fair	3 yrs	high	safe
poor	5 yrs	high	risky
excellent	3 yrs	low	risky
fair	5 yrs	high	safe
poor	3 yrs	high	risky
poor	<b>(3)</b>	low	safe
fair	7	high	safe

Fill in each missing value with a calculated guess N = 9, 3 features

Credit	Term	Income	у
excellent	3 yrs	high	safe
fair	3 yrs	low	risky
fair	3 yrs	high	safe
poor	5 yrs	high	risky
excellent	3 yrs	low	risky
fair	5 yrs	high	safe
poor	3 yrs	high	risky
poor	3 yrs	low	safe
fair	3 yrs	high	safe
		Manalaina La	

## Example

Example: Replace? with most common value

# 3 year loans: 4 Best guess # 5 year loans: 2

Credit	Term	Income	у
excellent	3 yrs	high	safe
fair	?	low	risky
fair	3 yrs	high	safe
poor	5 yrs	high	risky
excellent	3 yrs	low	risky
fair	5 yrs	high	safe
poor	3 yrs	high	risky
poor	?	low	safe
fair	?	high safe	

Purification by imputing

Credit	Term	Income	у
excellent	3 yrs	high	safe
fair	3 yrs	low	risky
fair	3 yrs	high	safe
poor	5 yrs	high	risky
excellent	3 yrs	low	risky
fair	5 yrs	high	safe
poor	3 yrs	high	risky
poor	3 yrs	low	safe
fair	3 yrs	high	safe

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Machine Learning Specialization

## Handling missing data

# Common (simple) rules for purification by imputation

Term	Income	У
3 yrs	high	safe
?	low	risky
3 yrs	high	safe
5 yrs	high	risky
3 yrs	low	risky
5 yrs	high	safe
3 yrs	high	risky
?	low	safe
?	high	safe
	3 yrs ? 3 yrs 5 yrs 5 yrs 5 yrs 7	3 yrs high ? low 3 yrs high 5 yrs high 3 yrs low 5 yrs high 3 yrs high 3 yrs high ? low

Impute each feature with missing values:

- Categorical features use mode: Most popular value (mode) of non-missing x<sub>i</sub>
- Numerical features use average or median: Average or median value of non-missing x<sub>i</sub>

Many advanced methods exist, e.g., expectation-maximization (EM) algorithm

## Handling missing data

#### Missing value imputation: Pros and Cons

#### **Pros**

- Easy to understand and implement
- Can be applied to any model (decision trees, logistic regression, linear regression,...)
- Can be used at prediction time: use same imputation rules

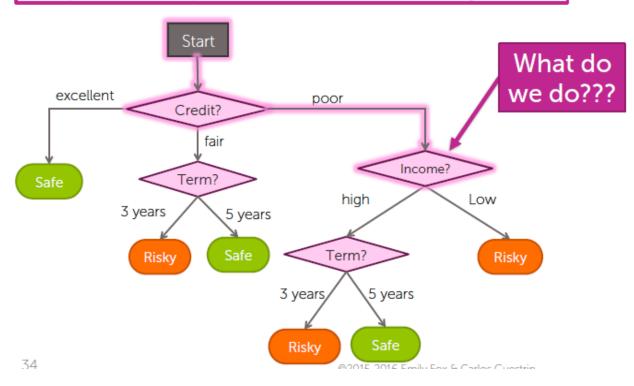
#### Cons

May result in systematic errors

Example: Feature "age" missing in all banks in Washington by state law

#### Missing values during prediction: revisited

 $\mathbf{x}_i$  = (Credit = poor, Income = ?, Term = 5 years)



Machina Lagraina Coocia

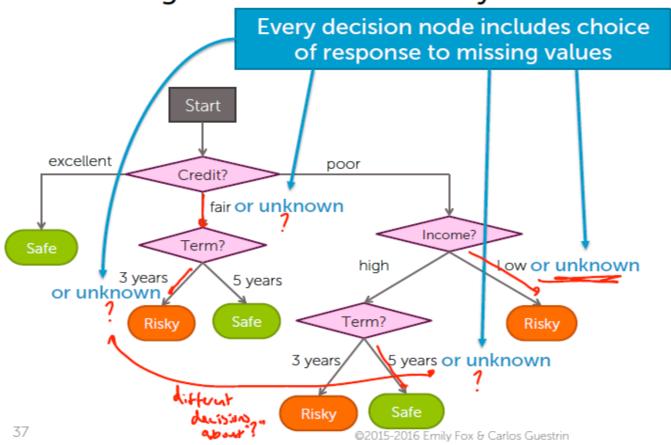
35

## Strategy 3: addapt algorithm

#### Add missing values to the tree definition

 $\mathbf{x}_i = (Credit = poor, Income = ?, Term = 5 years)$ Associate missing Start values with a branch excellent poor Credit? fair Income? Term? Low or unknown high 3 years 5 years Term? Risky Risky 3 years 5 years Risky

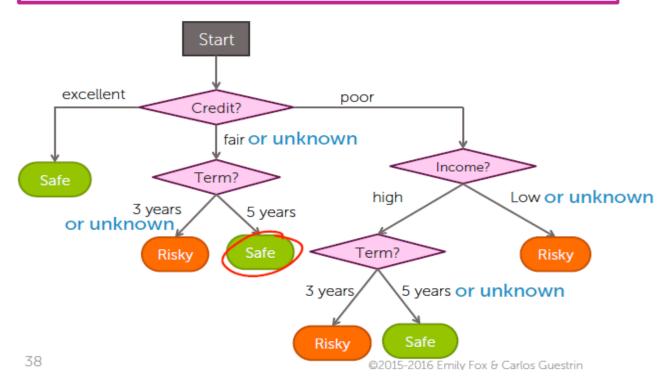
#### Add missing value choice to every decision node



Machine Lea

#### Prediction with missing values becomes simple

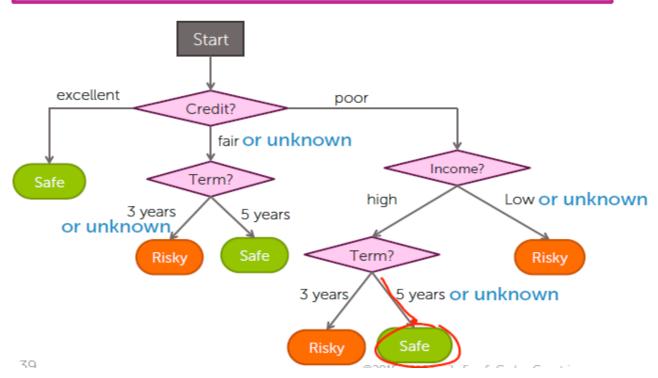
$$\mathbf{x}_i$$
 = (Credit = ?, Income = high, Term = 5 years)



Machine

#### Prediction with missing values becomes simple

 $\mathbf{x}_{i}$  = (Credit = poor, Income = high, Term = ?)



# Explicitly handling missing data by learning algorithm: Pros and Cons

#### Pros

- Addresses training and prediction time
- More accurate predictions

#### Cons

- Requires modification of learning algorithm
  - Very simple for decision trees

#### Greedy decision tree learning

- Step 1: Start with an empty tree
- Step 2: Select a feature to split data
- For each split of the tree:
  - Step 3: If nothing more to, make predictions
  - Step 4: Otherwise, go to Step 2 & continue (recurse) on this split

Pick feature split leading to lowest classification error

Must select feature & branch for missing values!

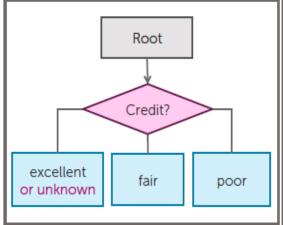
#### Should missing go left, right, or middle?

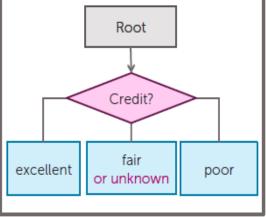
Choose branch that leads to lowest classification error!

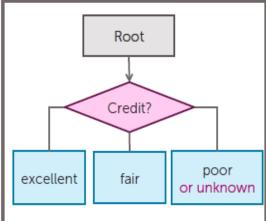
Choice 1: Missing values go with Credit=excellent

Choice 2: Missing values go with Credit=fair

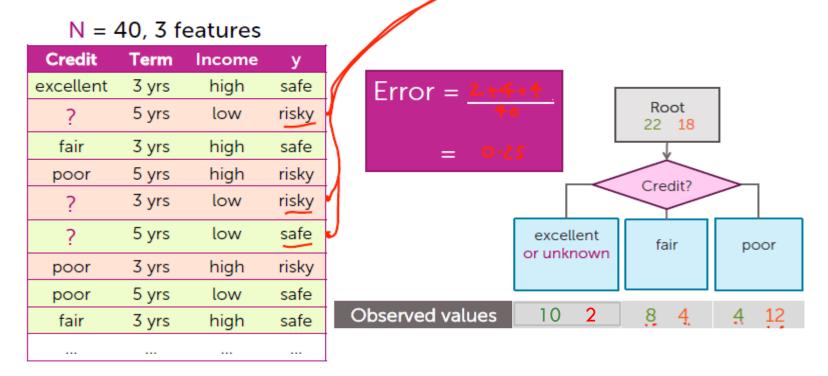
Choice 3: Missing values go with Credit=poor



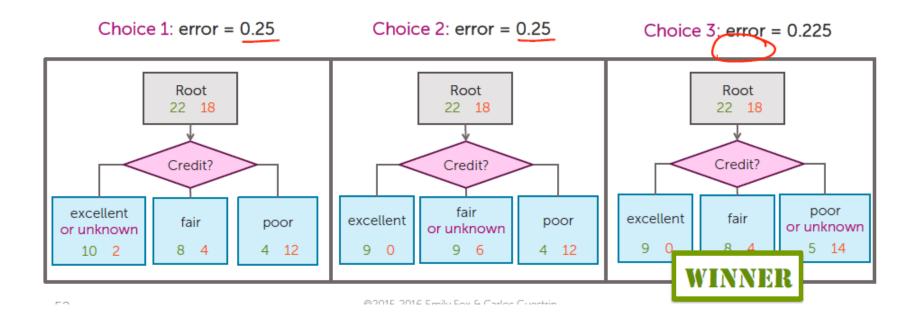




Computing classification error of decision stump with missing data



#### Use classification error to decide



- Given a subset of data M (a node in a tree)
- For each feature h<sub>i</sub>(x):
  - 1. Split data points of M where  $h_i(x)$  is not "unknown" according to feature  $h_i(x)$
  - Consider assigning data points with "unknown" value for h<sub>i</sub>(x) to each branch
    - A. Compute classification error split & branch assignment of "unknown" values
- Chose feature h\*(x) & branch assignment of "unknown" with lowest classification error

## What can you do now

#### Describe common ways to handling missing data:

- 1. Skip all rows with any missing values
- Skip features with many missing values
- 3. Impute missing values using other data points

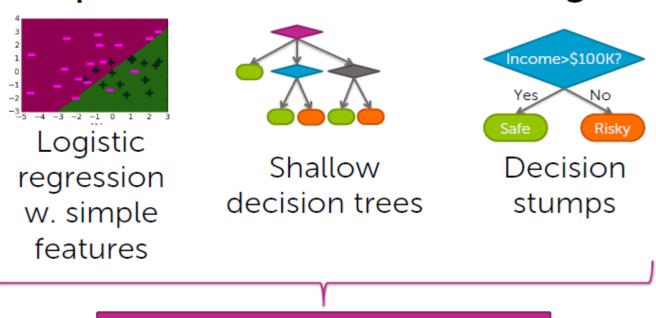
Modify learning algorithm (decision trees) to handle missing data:

- Missing values get added to one branch of split
- Use classification error to determine where missing values go

# Ensemble classifiers and boosting

## Simple classifiers

#### Simple (weak) classifiers are good!

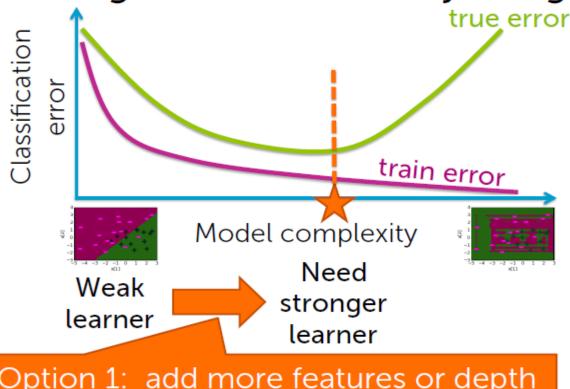


Low variance. Learning is fast!

But high bias...

## Simple classifiers

#### Finding a classifier that's just right



Option 1: add more features or depth

Option 2: ?????

## Can they be combined?

#### **Boosting question**

"Can a set of weak learners be combined to create a stronger learner?" *Kearns and Valiant (1988)* 



Yes! Schapire (1990)

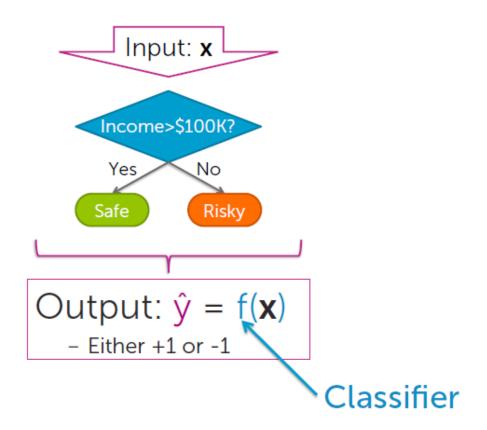


**Boosting** 



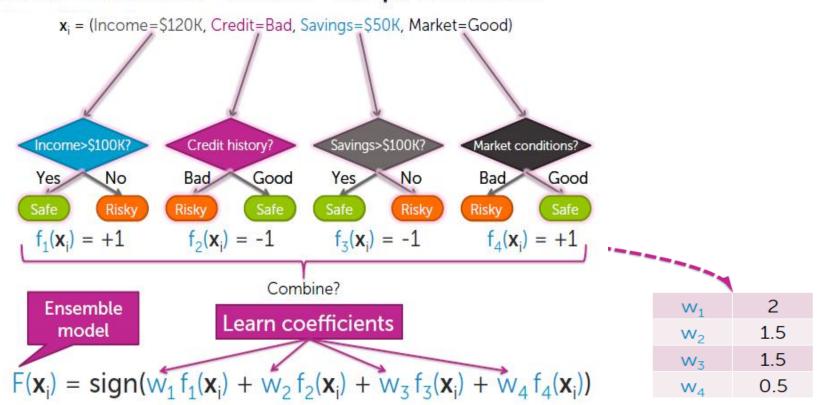
Amazing impact: • simple approach • widely used in industry • wins most Kaggle competitions

## A single classifier



#### Ensemble methods

#### Each classifier "votes" on prediction



#### Ensemble classifier

- Goal:
  - Predict output y
    - Either +1 or -1
  - From input x
- Learn ensemble model:
  - Classifiers:  $f_1(\mathbf{x}), f_2(\mathbf{x}), ..., f_T(\mathbf{x})$
  - Coefficients:  $\hat{w}_1, \hat{w}_2, ..., \hat{w}_T$
- Prediction:

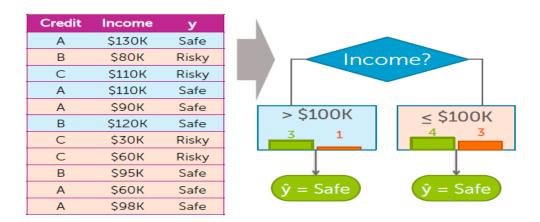
$$\hat{y} = sign\left(\sum_{t=1}^{T} \hat{\mathbf{w}}_t f_t(\mathbf{x})\right)$$

## Boosting

#### Training a classifier

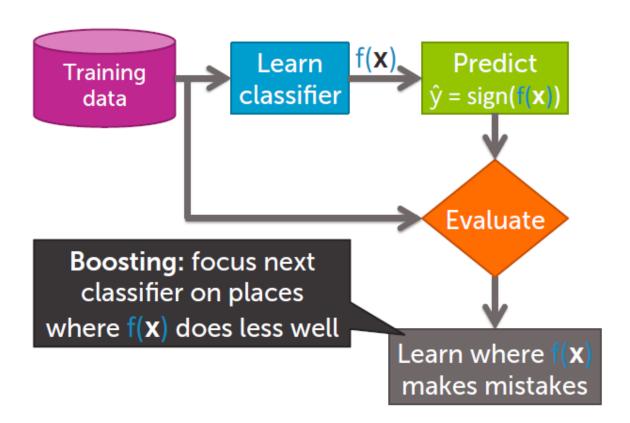


#### Learning decision stump



#### Boosting

#### Boosting = Focus learning on "hard" points



## Weighted data

#### Learning on weighted data:

More weight on "hard" or more important points

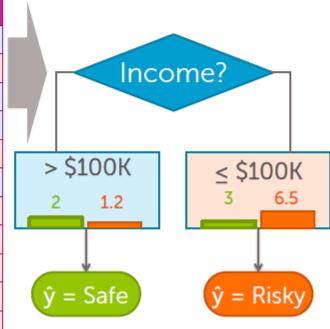
- Weighted dataset:
  - Each  $\mathbf{x}_i$ ,  $\mathbf{y}_i$  weighted by  $\alpha_i$ 
    - More important point = higher weight  $\alpha_i$
- Learning:
  - Data point j counts as  $\alpha_i$  data points
    - E.g.,  $\alpha_i = 2 \rightarrow$  count point twice

## Weighted data

#### Learning a decision stump on weighted data

Increase weight **\alpha** of harder/misclassified points

Credit	Income	у	Weight α
Α	\$130K	Safe	0.5
В	\$80K	Risky	1.5
С	\$110K	Risky	1.2
Α	\$110K	Safe	0.8
Α	\$90K	Safe	0.6
В	\$120K	Safe	0.7
С	\$30K	Risky	3
С	\$60K	Risky	2
В	\$95K	Safe	0.8
Α	\$60K	Safe	0.7
Α	\$98K	Safe	0.9



Use sum over weights of the data points

## Weighted data

#### Learning from weighted data in general

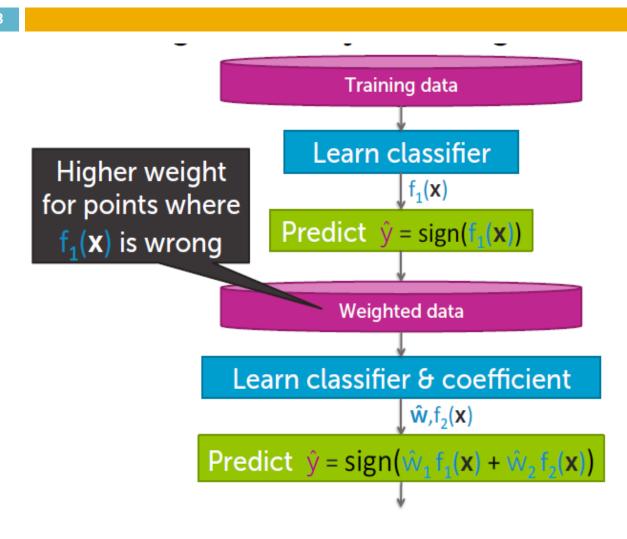
- · Usually, learning from weighted data
  - Data point i counts as  $\alpha_i$  data points
- E.g., gradient ascent for logistic regression:

Sum over data points

$$\mathbf{w}_{j}^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \mathbf{w}_{j}^{(t)} + \eta \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{E}(\mathbf{x}_{i}) \Big( \mathbb{1}[y_{i} = +1] - P(y = +1 \mid \mathbf{x}_{i}, \mathbf{w}^{(t)}) \Big)$$

Weigh each point by  $\alpha_{\rm i}$ 

#### Boosting = greedy learning ensembles from data



## AdaBoost: learning ensemble

[Freund & Schapire 1999]

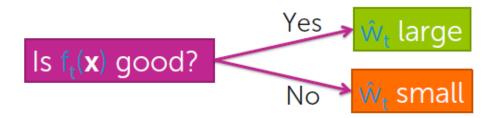
- Start same weight for all points:  $\alpha_i = 1/N$
- For t = 1,...,T
  - Learn  $f_t(\mathbf{x})$  with data weights  $\alpha_i$
  - Compute coefficient ŵ,
  - Recompute weights  $\alpha_i$

- Problem 1: How much do I trust fo?
Problem 2: Weigh mistakes more?

Final model predicts by:

$$\hat{y} = sign\left(\sum_{t=1}^{T} \hat{\mathbf{w}}_t f_t(\mathbf{x})\right)$$

#### AdaBoost: Computing coefficients w<sub>t</sub>



- $f_t(\mathbf{x})$  is good  $\rightarrow f_t$  has low training error
- Measuring error in weighted data?
  - Just weighted # of misclassified points

## Weighted classification error

Total weight of mistakes:

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \alpha_i \ \mathcal{I}(\hat{y}_i \pm \hat{y}_i)$$

Total weight of all points:

$$=\sum_{i=1}^{n}\alpha_{i}$$

Weighted error measures fraction of weight of mistakes:

- Best possible value is 0.0 - worstyle > Randon chusiker = 0.5

#### AdaBoost formula

## AdaBoost: Formula for computing coefficient $\hat{w}_t$ of classifier $f_t(x)$

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}}_t = \frac{1}{2} \ln \left( \frac{1 - weighted\_error(f_t)}{weighted\_error(f_t)} \right)$$

$$\frac{\mathbf{w}_t}{\mathbf{w}_t} = \frac{1}{2} \ln \left( \frac{1 - weighted\_error(f_t)}{\mathbf{w}_t} \right)$$

$$\frac{\mathbf{w}_t}{\mathbf{w}_t} = \frac{1}{2} \ln \left( \frac{1 - weighted\_error(f_t)}{\mathbf{w}_t} \right)$$

$$\frac{\mathbf{v}_t}{\mathbf{w}_t} = \frac{1}{2} \ln \left( \frac{1 - weighted\_error(f_t)}{\mathbf{w}_t} \right)$$

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$$\frac{\mathbf{v}_t}{\mathbf{v}_t} = \frac{1}{2} \ln \left( \frac{1 - weighted\_error(f_t)}{\mathbf{v}_t}$$

### AdaBoost: learning ensemble

- Start same weight for all points:  $\alpha_i = 1/N$
- For t = 1,...,T
  - Learn  $f_t(\mathbf{x})$  with data weights  $\alpha_i$

<del>4</del>8

– Compute coefficient  $\hat{w}_t$ 

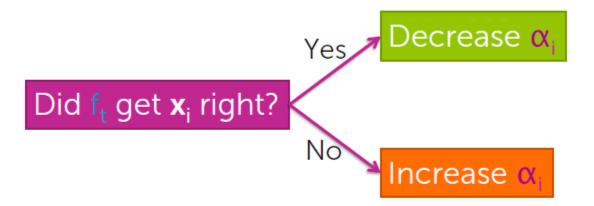
- Recompute weights  $\alpha_i$
- Final model predicts by:

$$\hat{y} = sign\left(\sum_{t=1}^{T} \hat{\mathbf{w}}_t f_t(\mathbf{x})\right)$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}}_t = \frac{1}{2} \ln \left( \frac{1 - weighted\_error(f_t)}{weighted\_error(f_t)} \right)$$

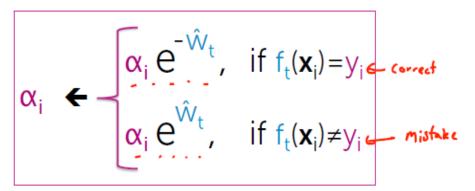
### AdaBoost: updating weights $\alpha_i$

Updating weights  $\alpha_i$  based on where classifier  $f_t(x)$  makes mistakes



### AdaBoost: updating weights $\alpha_i$

# AdaBoost: Formula for updating weights $\alpha_i$



	$f_t(\mathbf{x}_i) = y_i$ ?	$\hat{W}_{t}$	Multiply $\alpha_i$ by	Implication
Did f <sub>t</sub> get x <sub>i</sub> right?	Cornet	2-3	L = 0.1	Decrese importance of Xi,y;
	Correct	0	e° =1	keep importance the same
	Mistake	2.3	$e^{2.3} = 9.18$	Increasing importance of xi, y:
	Mis take	0	- <b>D</b>	Keep importere the same

### AdaBoost: learning ensemble

- Start same weight for all points:  $\alpha_i = 1/N$
- For t = 1,...,T
  - Learn  $f_t(\mathbf{x})$  with data weights  $\alpha_i$
  - Compute coefficient  $\hat{w}_t$
  - Recompute weights  $\alpha_i$
- Final model predicts by:

$$\hat{y} = sign\left(\sum_{t=1}^{T} \hat{\mathbf{w}}_t f_t(\mathbf{x})\right)$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}}_t = \frac{1}{2} \ln \left( \frac{1 - weighted\_error(f_t)}{weighted\_error(f_t)} \right)$$

$$\alpha_i \leftarrow \begin{cases} \alpha_i e^{-\hat{W}_t}, & \text{if } f_t(\mathbf{x}_i) = y_i \\ \alpha_i e^{\hat{W}_t}, & \text{if } f_t(\mathbf{x}_i) \neq y_i \end{cases}$$

### AdaBoost: normlizing weights $\alpha_i$

If **x**<sub>i</sub> often mistake, If  $\mathbf{x}_i$  often correct, weight  $\alpha_i$  gets very weight  $\alpha_i$  gets very large small Can cause numerical instability after many iterations Normalize weights to add up to 1 after every iteration

Χi

### AdaBoost: learning ensemble

• Start same weight for all points:  $\alpha_i = 1/N$ 

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}}_t = \frac{1}{2} \ln \left( \frac{1 - weighted\_error(f_t)}{weighted\_error(f_t)} \right)$$

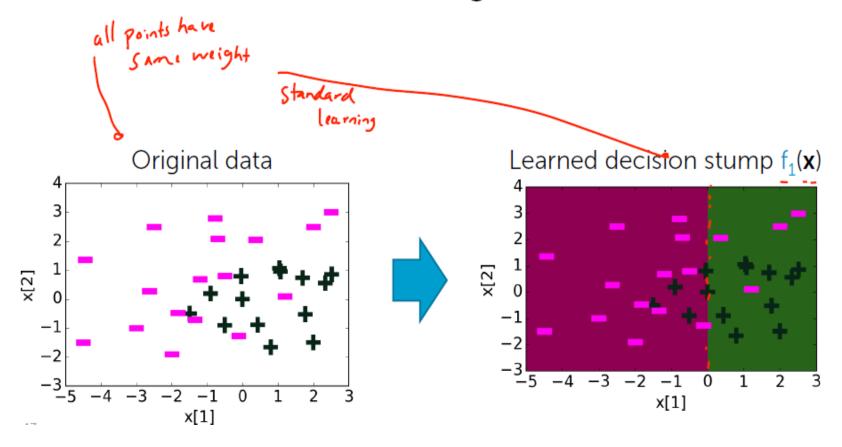
- For t = 1,...,T
  - Learn  $f_{t}(\mathbf{x})$  with data weights  $\alpha_{i}$
  - Compute coefficient ŵ<sub>t</sub>
  - Recompute weights  $\alpha_i$
  - Normalize weights  $\alpha_i$
- Final model predicts by:

$$\hat{y} = sign\left(\sum_{t=1}^{T} \hat{\mathbf{w}}_t f_t(\mathbf{x})\right)$$

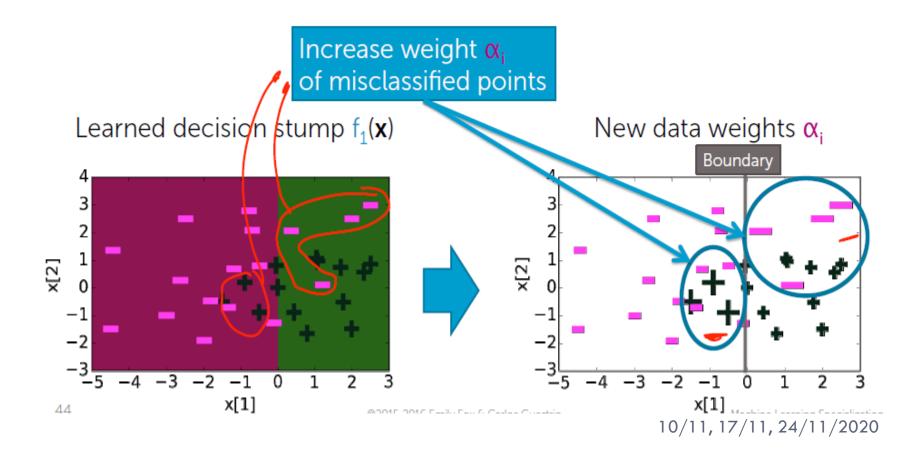
$$\alpha_{i} \leftarrow \begin{cases} \alpha_{i} e^{-\hat{W}_{t}}, & \text{if } f_{t}(\mathbf{x}_{i}) = y_{i} \\ \alpha_{i} e^{\hat{W}_{t}}, & \text{if } f_{t}(\mathbf{x}_{i}) \neq y_{i} \end{cases}$$

$$\alpha_i \leftarrow \frac{\alpha_i}{\sum_{j=1}^N \alpha_j}$$

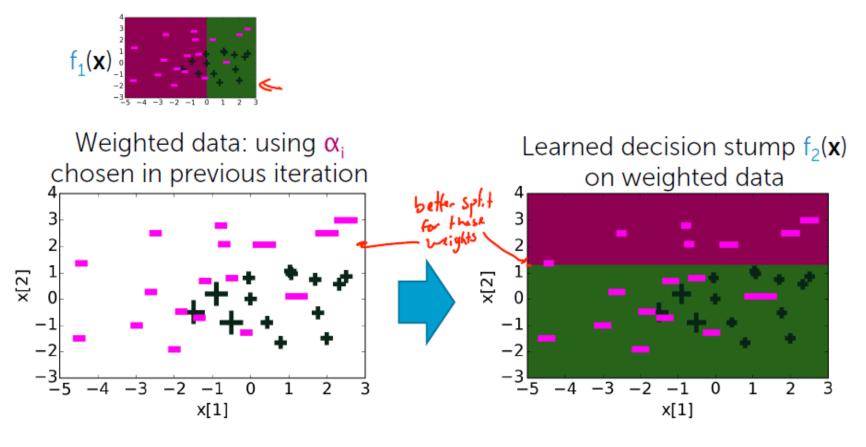
#### t=1: Just learn a classifier on original data



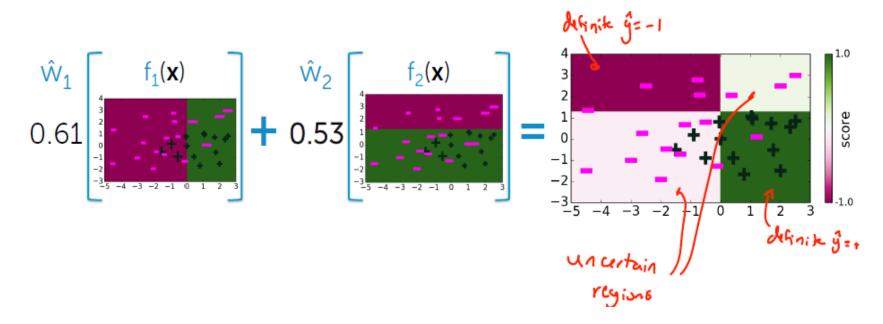
### Updating weights $\alpha_i$



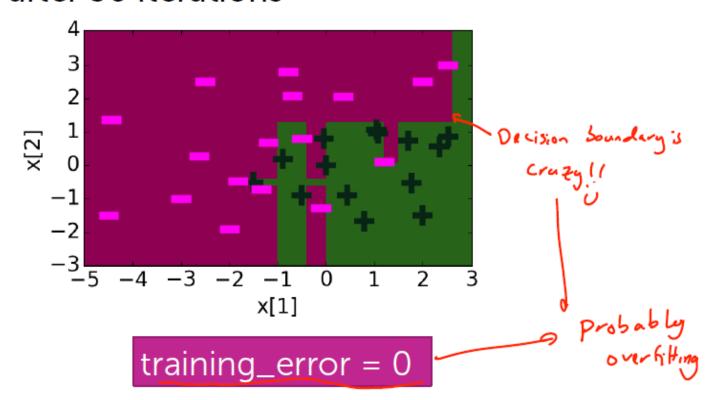
#### t=2: Learn classifier on weighted data



## Ensemble becomes weighted sum of learned classifiers



## Decision boundary of ensemble classifier after 30 iterations



### AdaBoost: learning ensemple

- Start same weight for all points:  $\alpha_i = 1/N$
- $\hat{\mathbf{w}}_t = \frac{1}{2} \ln \left( \frac{1 weighted\_error(f_t)}{weighted\_error(f_t)} \right)$

- For t = 1,...,T
  - Learn  $f_{t}(\mathbf{x})$  with data weights  $\alpha_{i}$
  - Compute coefficient ŵ<sub>t</sub>
  - Recompute weights  $\alpha_i$
  - Normalize weights α<sub>i</sub>
- Final model predicts by:

$$\hat{y} = sign\left(\sum_{t=1}^{T} \hat{\mathbf{w}}_t f_t(\mathbf{x})\right)$$

$$\alpha_{i} \leftarrow \begin{cases} \alpha_{i} e^{-\hat{W}_{t}}, & \text{if } f_{t}(\mathbf{x}_{i}) = y_{i} \\ \alpha_{i} e^{\hat{W}_{t}}, & \text{if } f_{t}(\mathbf{x}_{i}) \neq y_{i} \end{cases}$$

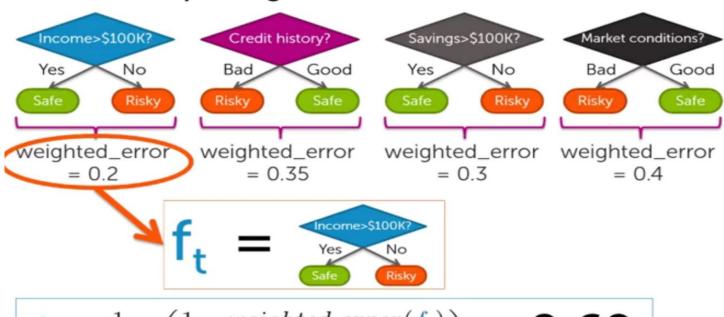
$$\alpha_i \leftarrow \frac{\alpha_i}{\sum_{j=1}^N \alpha_j}$$

- Start same weight for all points:  $\alpha_i = 1/N$
- For t = 1,...,T
  - Learn  $f_t(\mathbf{x})$ : pick decision stump with lowest weighted training error according to  $\alpha_i$
  - Compute coefficient ŵ,
  - Recompute weights α<sub>i</sub>
  - Normalize weights  $\alpha_i$
- Final model predicts by:

$$\hat{y} = sign\left(\sum_{t=1}^{T} \hat{\mathbf{w}}_t f_t(\mathbf{x})\right)$$

### Finding best next decision stump $f_t(x)$

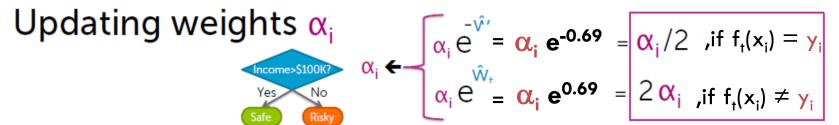
#### Consider splitting on each feature:



$$\hat{\mathbf{W}}_{t} = \frac{1}{2} \ln \left( \frac{1 - weighted\_error(f_{t})}{weighted\_error(f_{t})} \right) = 0.69$$

- Start same weight for all points:  $\alpha_i = 1/N$
- For t = 1,...,T
  - Learn  $f_t(\mathbf{x})$ : pick decision stump with lowest weighted training error according to  $\alpha_i$
  - Compute coefficient ŵ<sub>t</sub>
  - Recompute weights  $\alpha_i$
  - Normalize weights <mark>α</mark>i
- Final model predicts by:

$$\hat{y} = sign\left(\sum_{t=1}^{T} \hat{\mathbf{w}}_t f_t(\mathbf{x})\right)$$



Credit	Income	у	ŷ	Previous weight α	New weight α
A	\$130K	Safe	Safe	0.5	0.5/2 = 0.25
В	\$80K	Risky	Risky	1.5	0.75
С	\$110K	Risky	Safe	1.5	2 * 1.5 = 3
Α	\$110K	Safe	Safe	2	1
Α	\$90K	Safe	Risky	1	2
В	\$120K	Safe	Safe	2.5	1.25
С	\$30K	Risky	Risky	3	1.5
С	\$60K	Risky	Risky	2	1
В	\$95K	Safe	Risky	0.5	1
Α	\$60K	Safe	Risky	1	2
Α	\$98K	Safe	Risky	0.5	1

#### Boosting question revisited

"Can a set of weak learners be combined to create a stronger learner?" *Kearns and Valiant (1988)* 

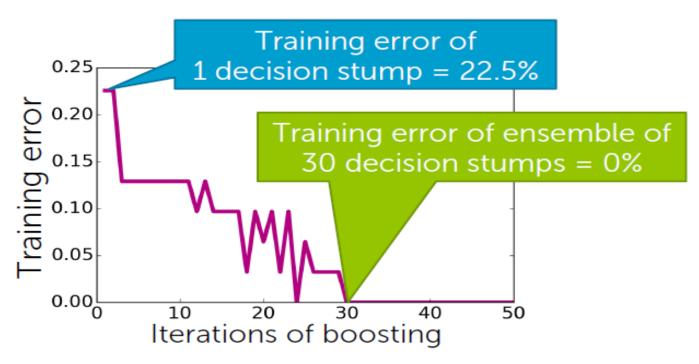


Yes! Schapire (1990)



Boosting

# After some iterations, training error of boosting goes to zero!!!



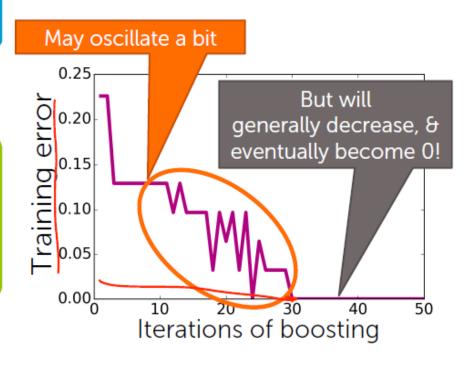
Boosted decision stumps on toy dataset

#### AdaBoost Theorem

Under some technical conditions...



Training error of boosted classifier → 0 as T→∞

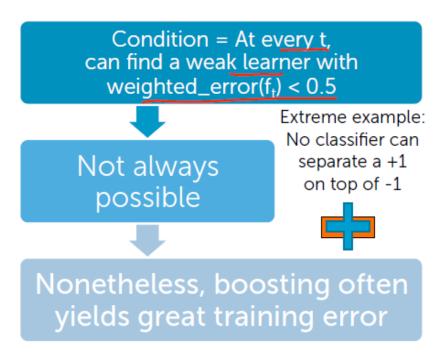


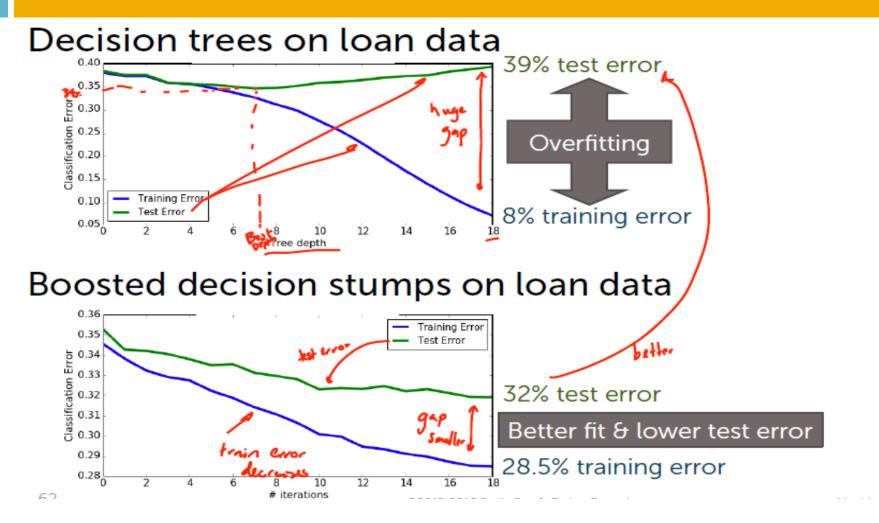
#### Condition of AdaBoost Theorem

Under some technical conditions...

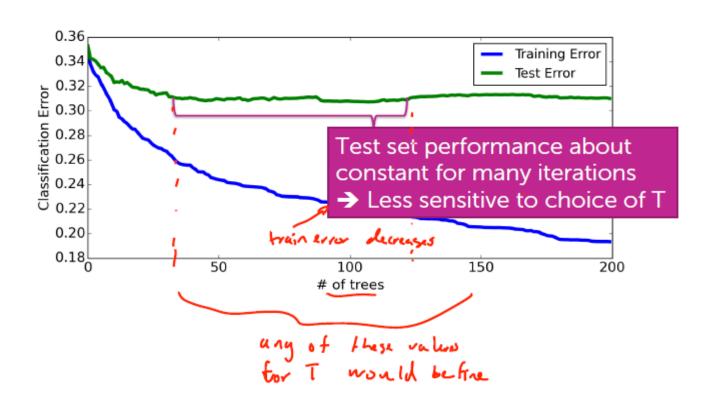


Training error of boosted classifier → 0 as T→∞

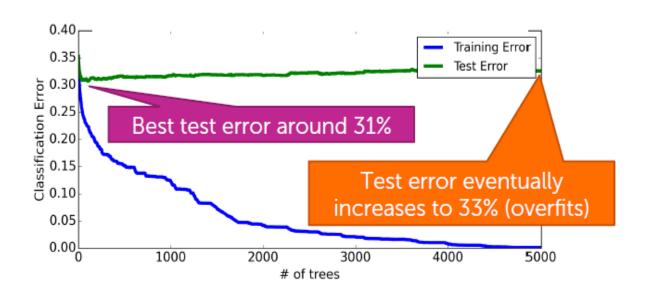




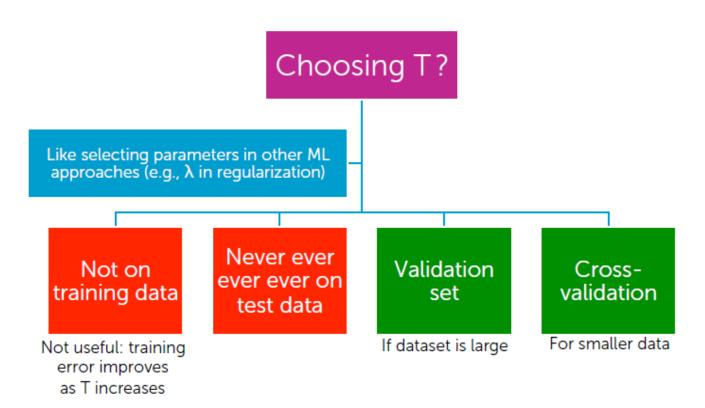
#### Boosting tends to be robust to overfitting



# But boosting will eventually overfit, so must choose max number of components T



#### How do we decide when to stop boosting?



### Boosting: summary

#### Variants of boosting and related algorithms

There are hundreds of variants of boosting, most important:

Gradient boosting

 Like AdaBoost, but useful beyond basic classification

Many other approaches to learn ensembles, most important:

Random forests

- Bagging: Pick random subsets of the data
  - Learn a tree in each subset
  - Average predictions
- Simpler than boosting & easier to parallelize
- Typically higher error than boosting for same number of trees (# iterations T)

### Boosting: summary

## Impact of boosting (spoiler alert... HUGE IMPACT)

Amongst most useful ML methods ever created

Extremely useful in computer vision

Standard approach for face detection, for example

Used by **most winners** of ML competitions (Kaggle, KDD Cup,...)

 Malware classification, credit fraud detection, ads click through rate estimation, sales forecasting, ranking webpages for search, Higgs boson detection,...

Most deployed ML systems use model ensembles

 Coefficients chosen manually, with boosting, with bagging, or others

### What you can do now

- Identify notion ensemble classifiers
- Formalize ensembles as the weighted combination of simpler classifiers
- Outline the boosting framework sequentially learn classifiers on weighted data
- Describe the AdaBoost algorithm
  - Learn each classifier on weighted data
  - Compute coefficient of classifier
  - Recompute data weights
  - Normalize weights
- Implement AdaBoost to create an ensemble of decision stumps
- Discuss convergence properties of AdaBoost & how to pick the maximum number of iterations T

### Details

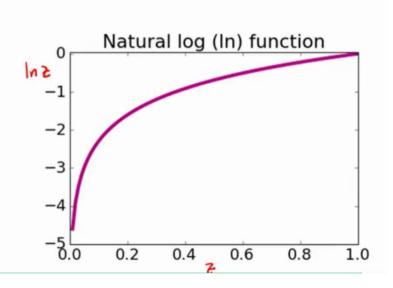
Derivative of likelihood for logistic regression

### The log trick, often used in ML...

- Products become sums:
   In a b = Ina + Inb
   Doesn't change maximum!
  - If w maximizes f(w):

```
\hat{\omega} = \underset{w}{\operatorname{arg max}} f(w)
the w that makes f(w) largest

Then \hat{\mathbf{w}}_{ln} maximizes \ln(f(\mathbf{w})):
\hat{\omega}_{ln} = \underset{w}{\operatorname{arg max}} \ln(f(w))
\hat{\omega} = \hat{\omega}_{ln}
```



### Log-likelihood function

• Goal: choose coefficients w maximizing likelihood:

$$\ell(\mathbf{w}) = \prod_{i=1}^{N} P(y_i \mid \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w})$$

Math simplified by using log-likelihood – taking (natural) log:

$$\ell\ell(\mathbf{w}) = \ln \prod_{i=1}^{N} P(y_i \mid \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w})$$

### Log-likelihood function

# Using log to turn products into sums $\lim_{h \to \infty} \frac{1}{h} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \ln f_i$

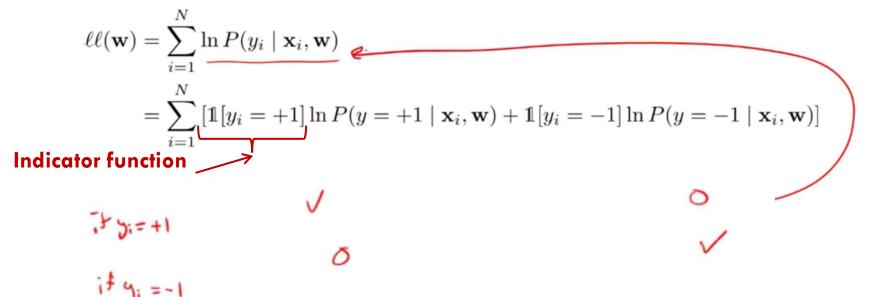
The log of the product of likelihoods becomes the sum of the logs:

$$\ell\ell(\mathbf{w}) = \ln \prod_{i=1}^{N} P(y_i \mid \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w})$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \ln P(y_i \mid \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w})$$

### Rewritting log-likelihood

· For simpler math, we'll rewrite likelihood with indicators:



#### Logistic regression model: P(y=-1|x,w)

Probability model predicts y=+1:

$$P(y=+1|x,w) = 1$$
  
  $1 + e^{-w h(x)}$ 

Probability model predicts y=-1:

$$P(y=-1|X,\omega) = 1 - P(y=+1|X,\omega) = 1 - \frac{1}{1+e^{-\omega\tau h(x)}}$$

$$= 1 + e^{-\omega\tau h(x)} - 1 = e^{-\omega\tau h(x)}$$

$$= 1 + e^{-\omega\tau h(x)}$$

#### Plugging in logistic function for 1 data point

$$P(y = +1 \mid \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\mathbf{w}^{T}h(\mathbf{x})}} \qquad P(y = -1 \mid \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) = \frac{e^{-\mathbf{w}^{T}h(\mathbf{x})}}{1 + e^{-\mathbf{w}^{T}h(\mathbf{x})}}$$

$$\frac{\ell\ell(\mathbf{w}) = \mathbb{I}[y_i = +1] \ln P(y = +1 \mid \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w}) + \mathbb{I}[y_i = -1] \ln P(y = -1 \mid \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w})}{1 + e^{-\mathbf{w}^{T}h(\mathbf{x}_i)}} + \left(1 - \mathbb{I}[y_i = +1]\right) \ln \frac{e^{-\mathbf{w}^{T}h(\mathbf{x}_i)}}{1 + e^{-\mathbf{w}^{T}h(\mathbf{x}_i)}} + \left(1 - \mathbb{I}[y_i = +1]\right) \ln \frac{e^{-\mathbf{w}^{T}h(\mathbf{x}_i)}}{1 + e^{-\mathbf{w}^{T}h(\mathbf{x}_i)}} + \ln \left(1 + e^{-\mathbf{w}^{T}h(\mathbf{x}_i)}\right)$$

$$= -\left(1 - \mathbb{I}[y_i = +1]\right) \ln h(\mathbf{x}_i) - \ln \left(1 + e^{-\mathbf{w}^{T}h(\mathbf{x}_i)}\right)$$

$$= -\left(1 - \mathbb{I}[y_i = +1]\right) \ln h(\mathbf{x}_i) - \ln \left(1 + e^{-\mathbf{w}^{T}h(\mathbf{x}_i)}\right)$$

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$$= -\left(1 - \mathbb{I}[y_i = +1]\right) \ln h(\mathbf{x}_i) - \ln \left(1 + e^{-\mathbf{w}^{T}h(\mathbf{x}_i)}\right)$$

$$= -\ln \left(1 + e^{-\mathbf{w}^{T}h(\mathbf{x}_i)}\right)$$

$$\ln e^{\alpha} = \alpha$$

$$\ln (y_i = -1) = 1 - D(y_i = +1)$$

$$\ln \frac{1 + e^{-\omega \tau h(x_i)}}{1 + e^{-\omega \tau h(x_i)}} = -\ln(1 + e^{-\omega \tau h(x_i)})$$

$$\ln e^{-\omega \tau h(x_i)} - \ln(1 + e^{-\omega \tau h(x_i)})$$

$$\ln e^{-\omega \tau h(x_i)} - \ln(1 + e^{-\omega \tau h(x_i)})$$

#### Gradient for 1 data point

$$\ell\ell(\mathbf{w}) = -(1 - \mathbb{1}[y_i = +1])\mathbf{w}^{\top}h(\mathbf{x}_i) - \ln\left(1 + e^{-\mathbf{w}^{\top}h(\mathbf{x}_i)}\right)$$

$$\frac{\partial U}{\partial w_{j}} = -\left(1 - 1[y_{i} = +1]\right) \frac{\partial}{\partial w_{j}} w^{T} h(x_{i}) - \frac{\partial}{\partial w_{j}} \ln\left(1 + e^{-w^{T} h(x_{i})}\right)$$

$$= -\left(1 - 1[y_{i} = +1]\right) h_{j}(x_{i}) + h_{j}(x_{i}) P(y_{i} = -1 | x_{i}, w_{i})$$

$$=h_{3}(x_{i})\left[1|[y_{i}=+i]-P(y_{i}=+i]x_{i},w)\right]$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial u_{j}} w^{\dagger} h(x:) = h_{j}(x_{i})$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial u_{j}} \ln \left(1 + e^{-\omega^{\dagger} h(x_{i})}\right)$$

$$= -h_{j}(x_{i}) \frac{e^{-\omega^{\dagger} h(x_{i})}}{1 + e^{-\omega^{\dagger} h(x_{i})}}$$

$$P(y=-1|x_{i},\omega)$$

#### Finally, gradient for all data points

· Gradient for one data point:

$$h_j(\mathbf{x}_i)\Big(\mathbb{1}[y_i = +1] - P(y = +1 \mid \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w})\Big)$$

Adding over data points:

$$\frac{\partial \ell \ell}{\partial \omega_{j}} = \frac{N}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} h_{j}(x_{i}) \left( 1 \left[ L_{g:=+1} \right] - P(y=+1|x_{i},\omega) \right)}$$