INTRODUCTION TO DATA SCIENCE

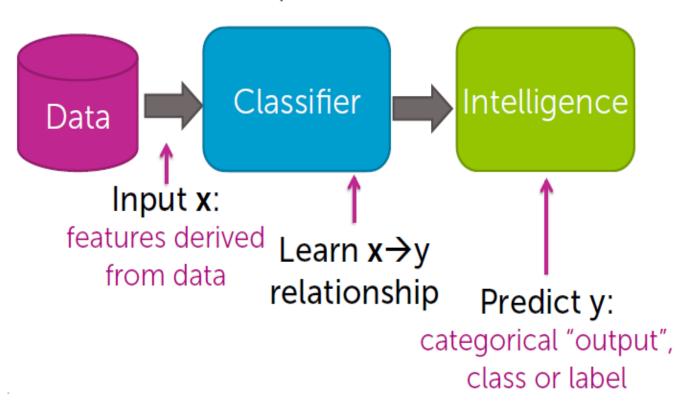
This lecture is based on course by E. Fox and C. Guestrin, Univ of Washington

29/10, 5/11 2019

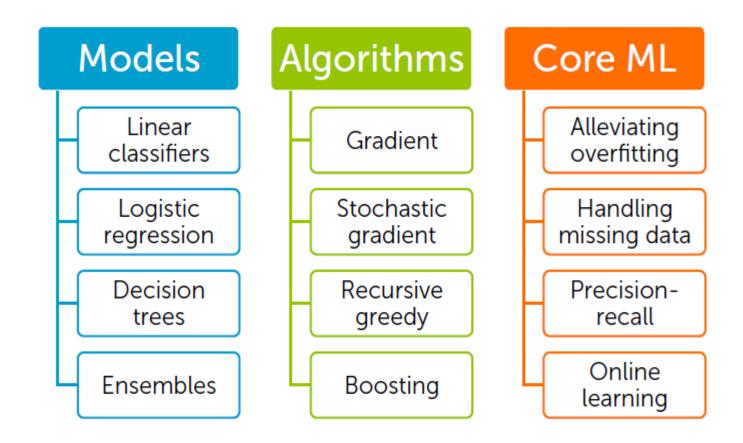
WFAiS UJ, Informatyka Stosowana I stopień studiów

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 <u>experience</u> 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.

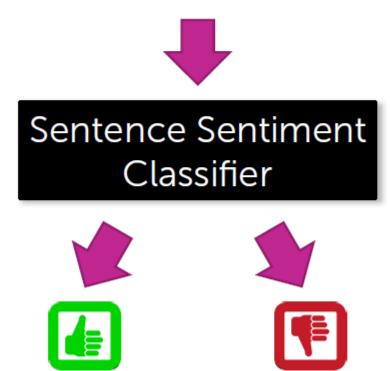




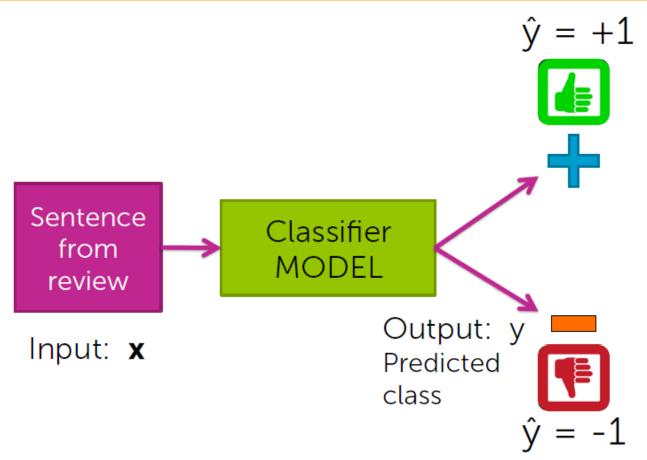


Classifying sentiment of review

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

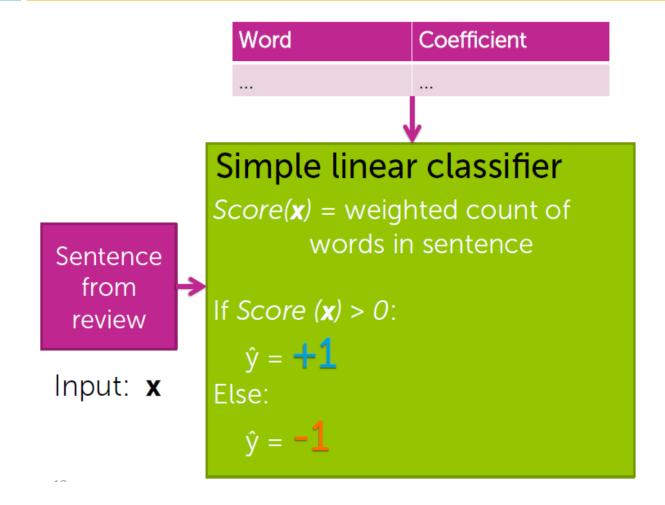
Input **x**_i:
Sushi was <u>great</u>,
the food was <u>awesome</u>,
but the service was <u>terrible</u>.

Score(xi) =
$$1.2+1.7-2.1$$

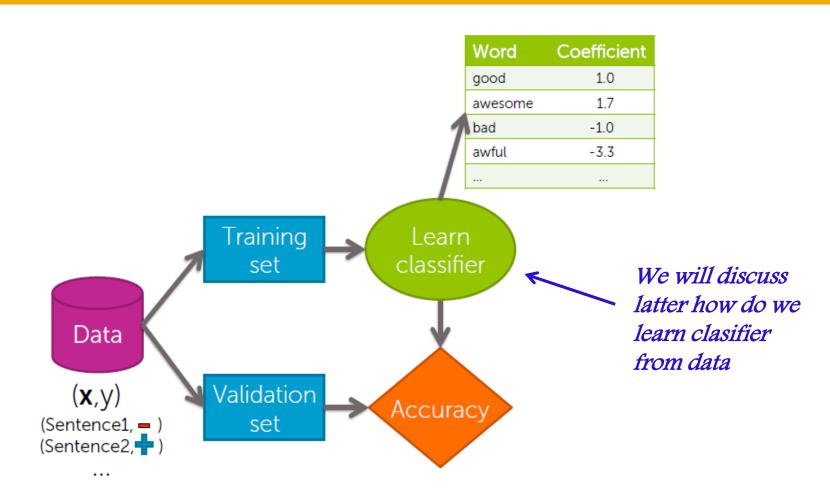
= $0.8 > 0$
=> $y = +1$
positive review

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

Simple linear classifier

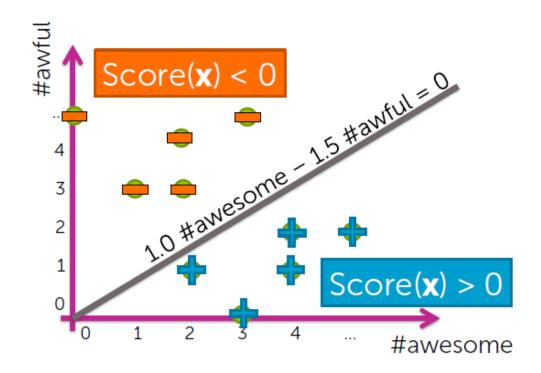


Training a classifier = Learning the coefficients



Decision boundary example

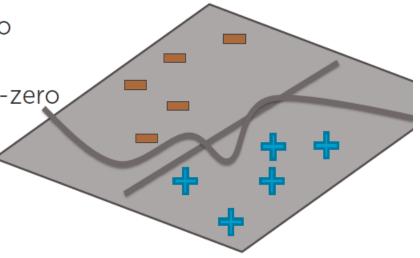
Word	Coefficient	
#awesome	1.0	Coordy) 10 Hayyosama 15 Hayyfu
#awful	-1.5	Score(x) = $1.0 \text{ #awesome} - 1.5 \text{ #awfu}$



Decision boundary

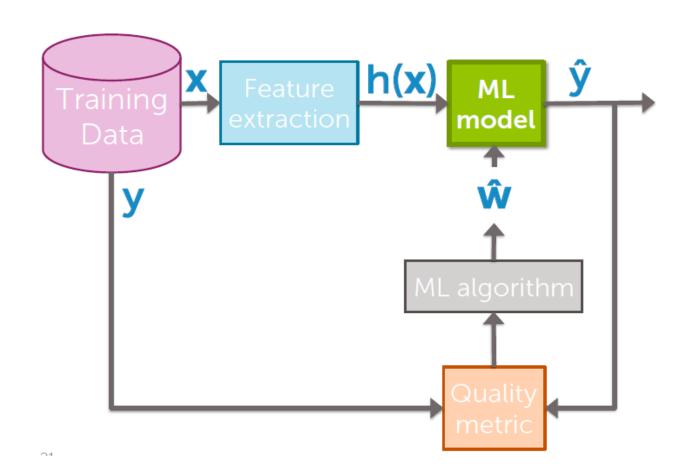
Decision boundary separates positive & negative predictions

- 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

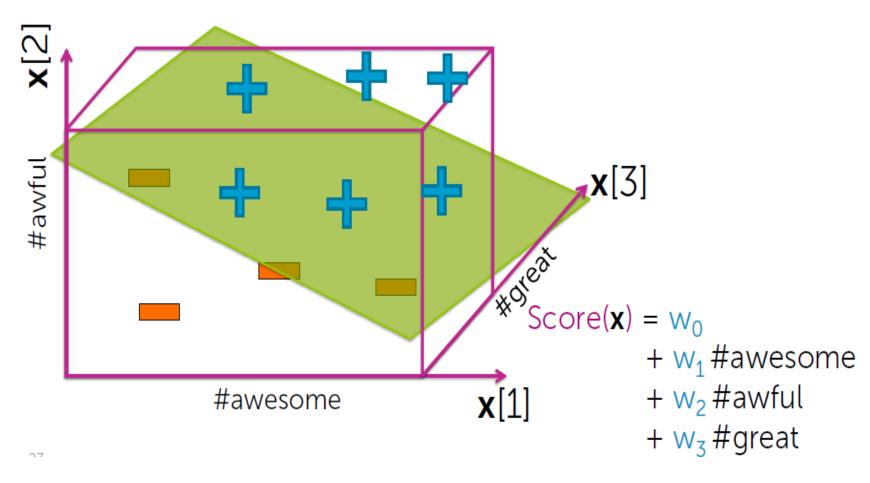


Flow chart:





Coefficients of classifier



General notation

```
Output: y 4 {-1,+1}
Inputs: \mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{x}[1], \mathbf{x}[2], ..., \mathbf{x}[d])
Notational conventions:
    \mathbf{x}[i] = i^{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) = \mathbf{w}_0 \mathbf{h}_0(\mathbf{x}_i) + \mathbf{w}_1 \mathbf{h}_1(\mathbf{x}_i) + ... + \mathbf{w}_D \mathbf{h}_D(\mathbf{x}_i)

= \sum_{j=0}^{D} \mathbf{w}_j \mathbf{h}_j(\mathbf{x}_i) = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{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}

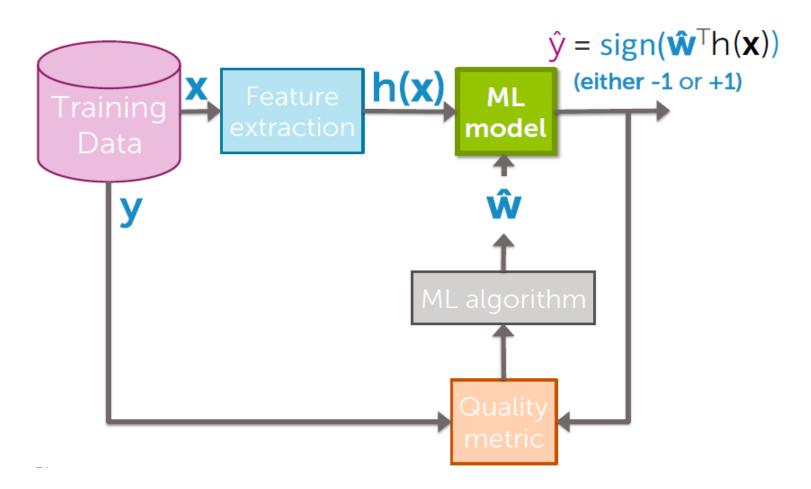
or, \log(\mathbf{x}[7]) \mathbf{x}[2] = \log(\text{\#bad}) x \text{\#awful}

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

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

Flow chart:



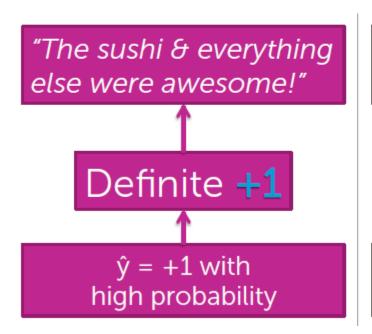


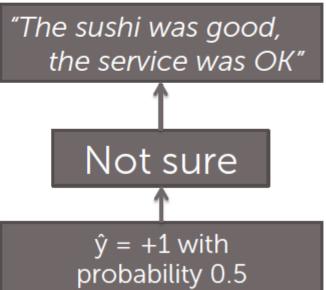
Linear classifier

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

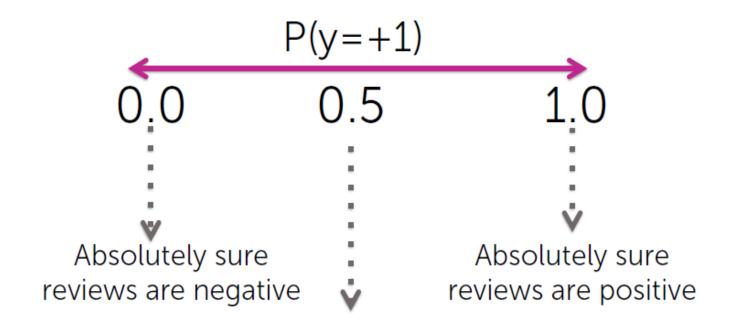
Probability a review is positive is 0.7



x = 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

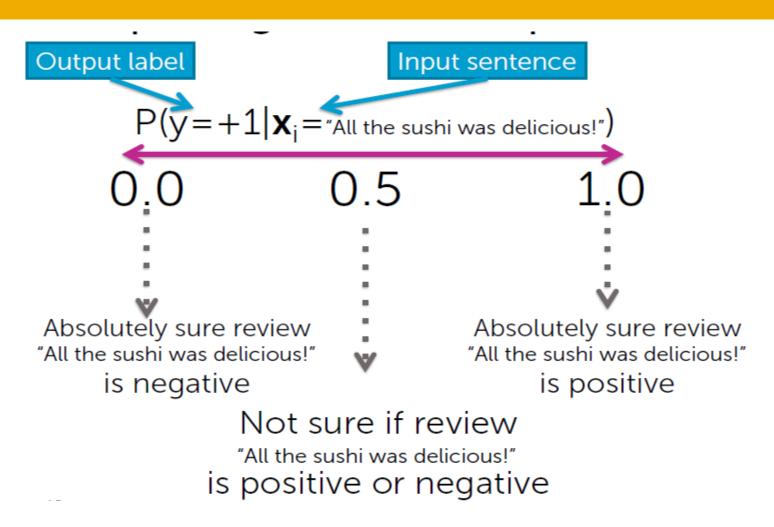
Conditional probability

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

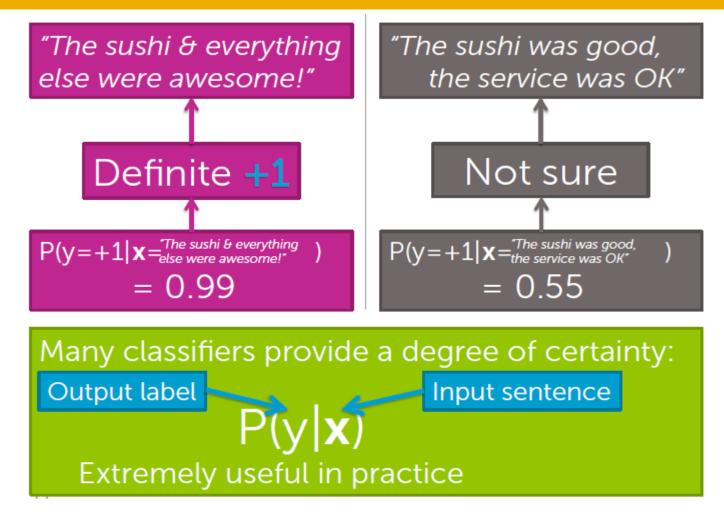
x = review text	y = sentiment
All the sushi was delicious! Easily best sushi in Seattle.	+1
Sushi was awesome & everything else was awesome ! The service was awful , but overall awesome place!	+1
My wife tried their ramen, it was pretty forgettable.	-1
The sushi was good, the service was OK	+1
awesome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

x [1] = #awesome	x [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

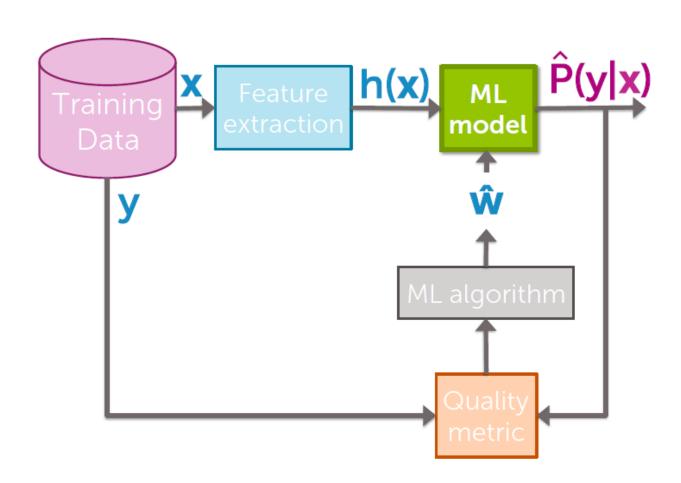
Predicting class probabilities

Predict most likely class $\hat{P}(y|x) = \text{estimate of class probabilities}$ Input: \hat{x} Predict most likely class probabilities $\hat{P}(y|x) = \text{estimate of class probabilities}$ If $\hat{P}(y=+1|x) > 0.5$: $\hat{y} = +1$ Else: $\hat{y} = -1$

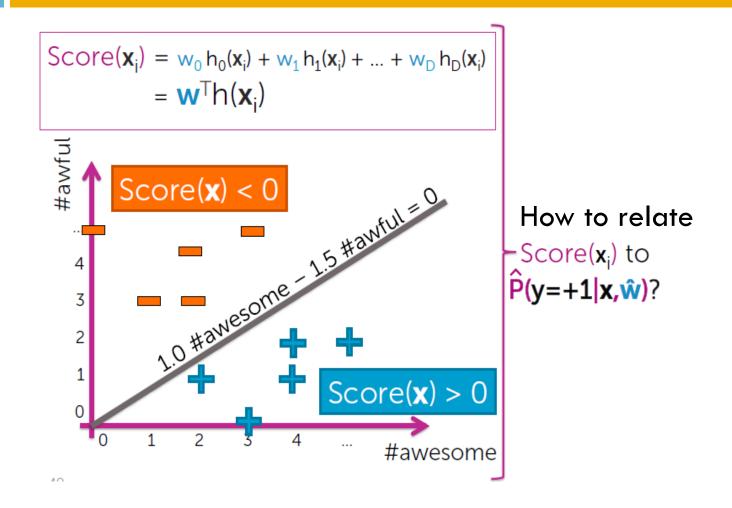
- Estimating $\hat{\mathbf{P}}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})$ improves interpretability:
 - Predict $\hat{y} = +1$ and tell me how sure you are

Flow chart:

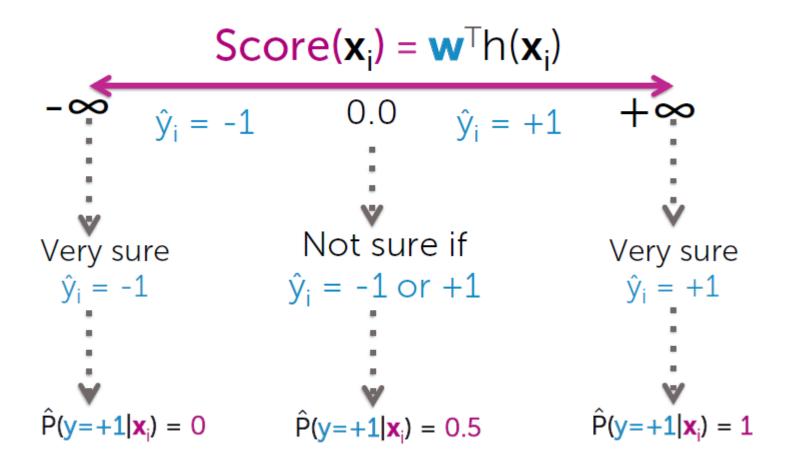




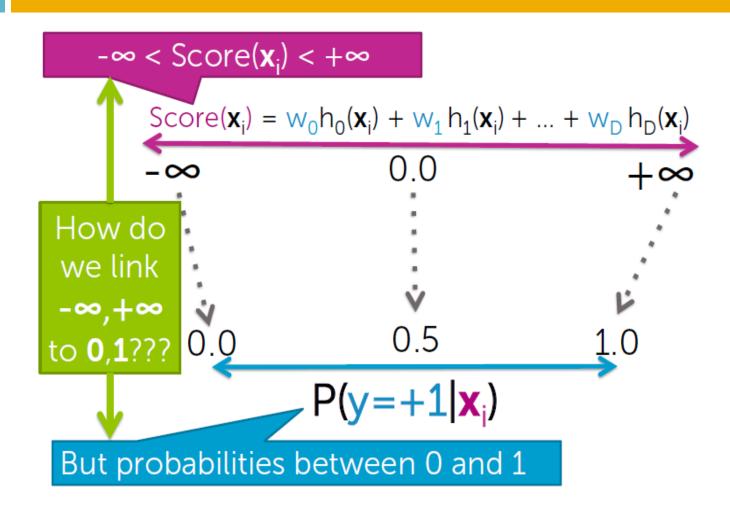
Thus far we focused on decision boundaries



Interpreting Score(x_i)

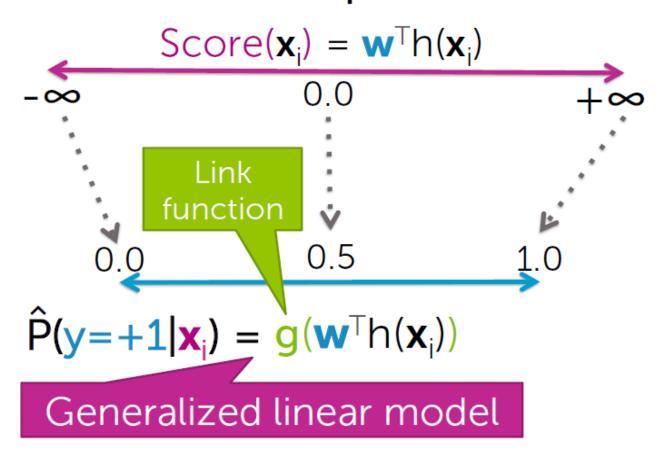


Why not just use regression to build classifier?



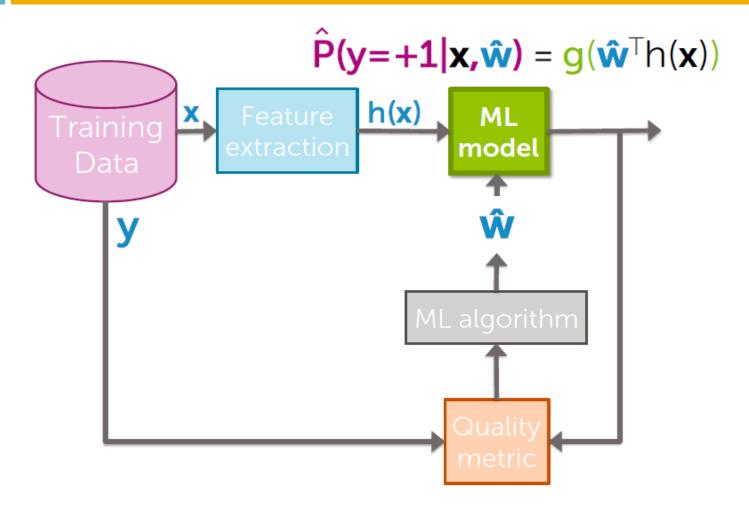
Link function

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



Flow chart:

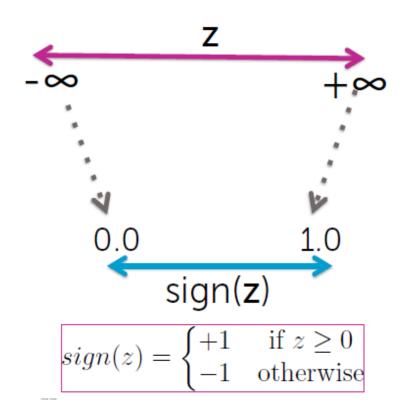


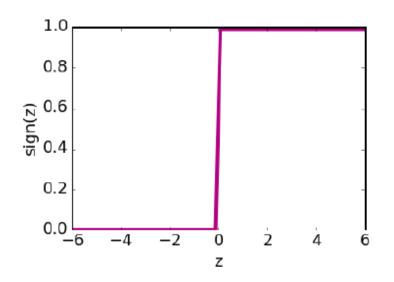


Logistic regression classifier:

Inear score with logistic link function

Simplest link function: sign(z)



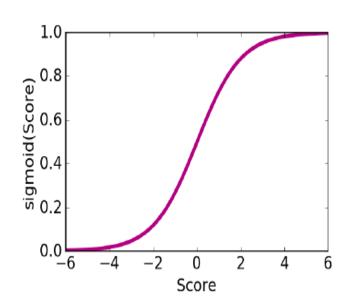


But, sign(z) only outputs -1 or +1, no probabilities in between

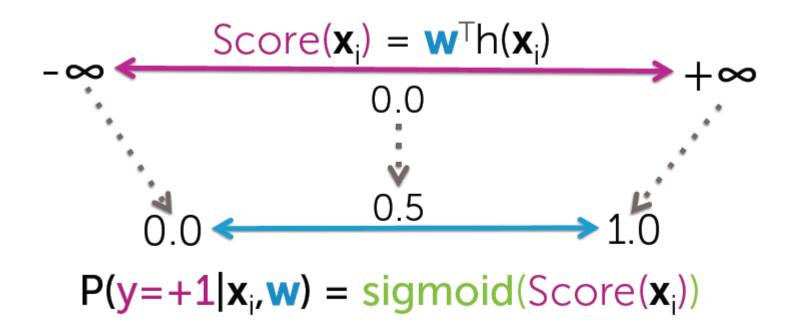
Logistic function (sigmoid, logit)

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

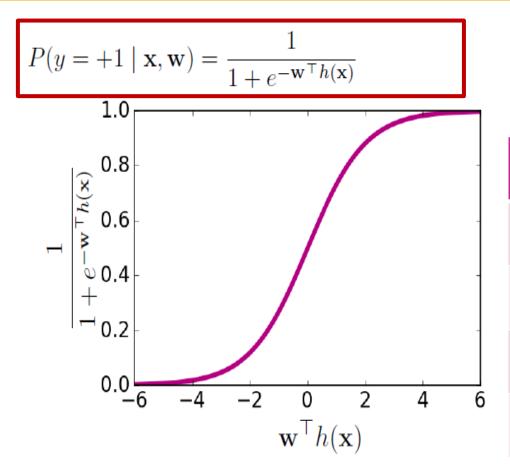
Score	-∞	-2	0.0	+2	+∞
sigmoid(Score)	0.0	0.12	0.5	0.88	1.0



Logistic regression model



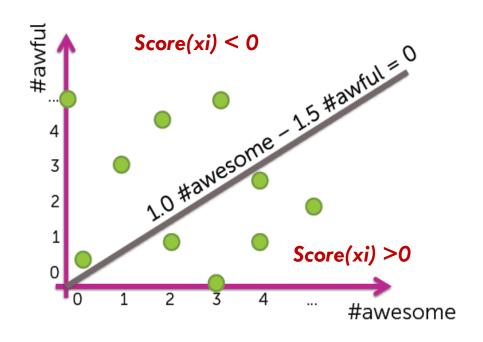
Understanding the logistic regression model

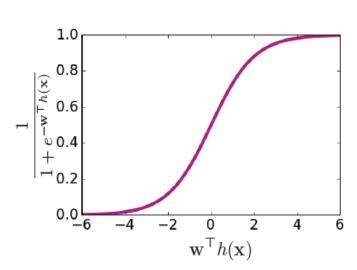


Score(x _i)	$P(y=+1 \mathbf{x}_i,\mathbf{w})$
0	0.5
-2	0.12
2	0.88
4	0.98

Logistic regression

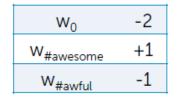
Logistic regression → Linear decision boundary

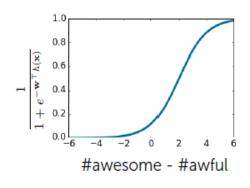


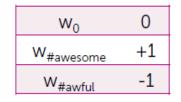


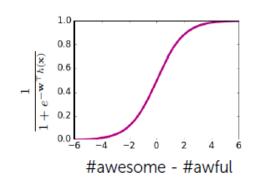
Effect of coefficients

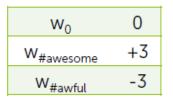
Effect of coefficients on logistic regression model

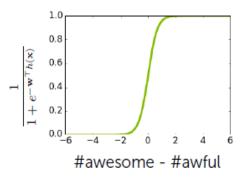






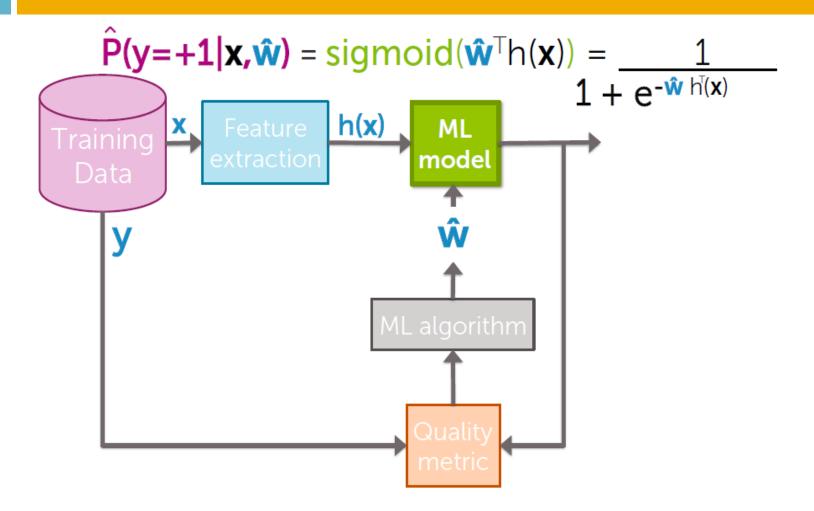






Flow chart:





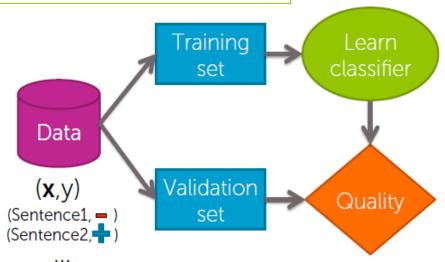
Learning logistic regression model

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{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:





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

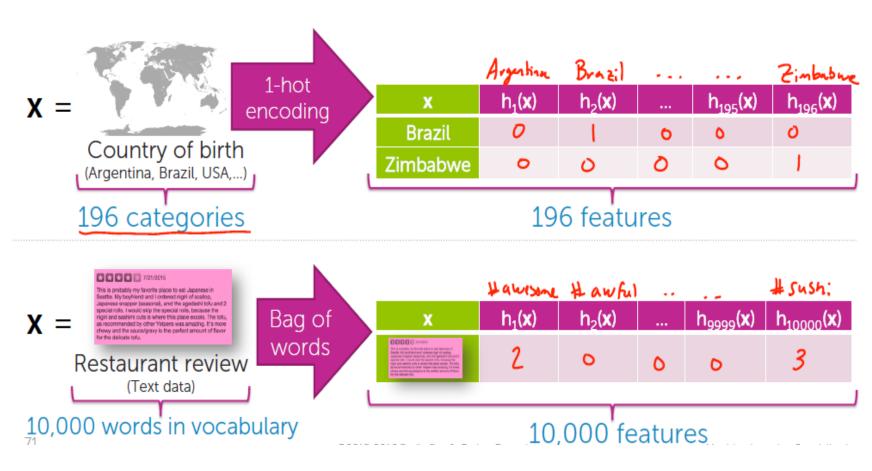
Numeric value, but should be interpreted as category (98195 not about 9x larger than 10005)



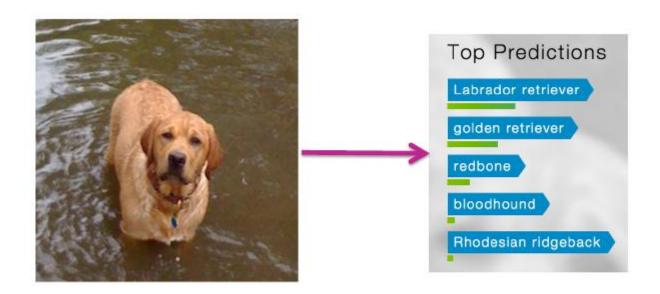
Zipcode (10005, 98195,...)

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	x [1]	x [2]	у
x ₁ ,y ₁	2	1	
x ₂ ,y ₂	0	2	•
x ₃ ,y ₃	3	3	0
x ₄ ,y ₄	4	1	0

		0		
A	A	0	0	0
		0	_	
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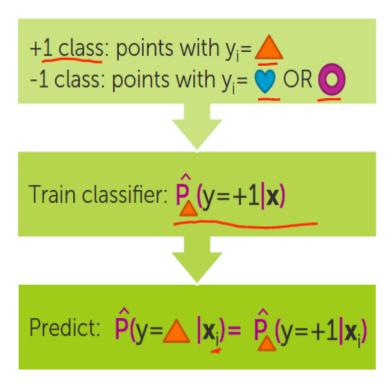
Learn:

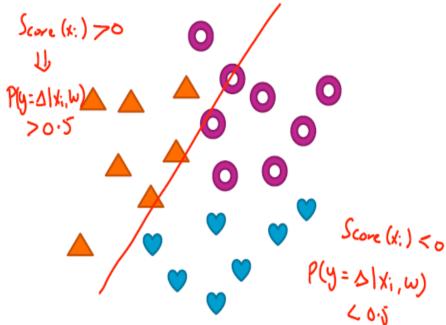
$$\hat{P}(y = \triangle | x)$$

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

1 versus all

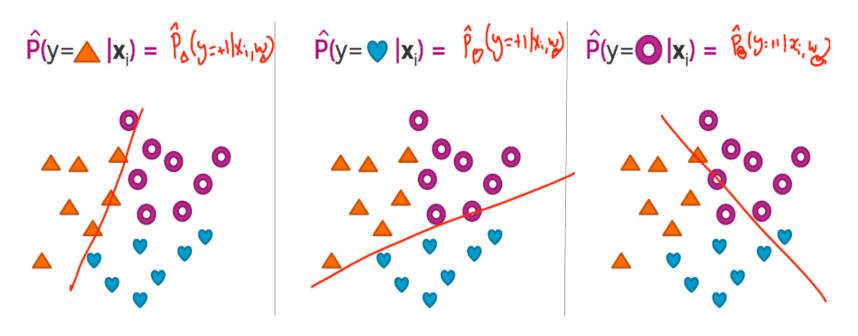
Estimate $\hat{P}(y=\triangle|x)$ using 2-class model





1 versus all

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



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 $\hat{P}_c(y=+1|\mathbf{x}_i)$ ax_prob: $\hat{y} = c$

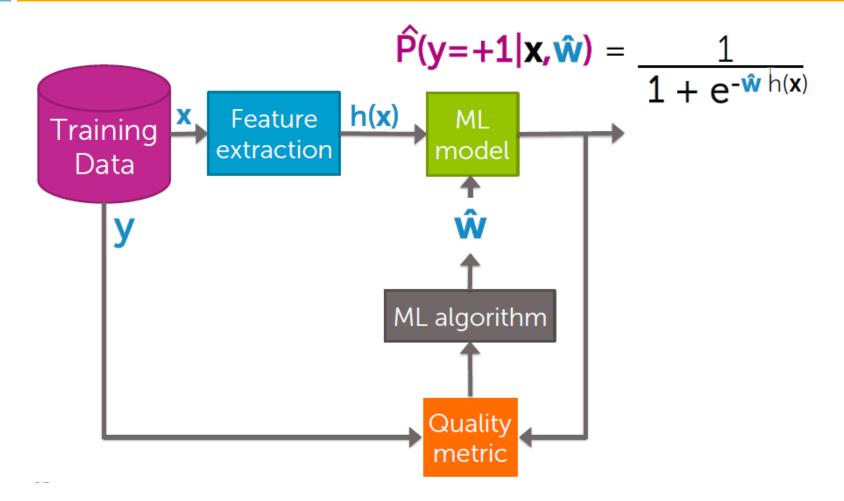
y = c $max_prob = \hat{P}_c(y=+1|\mathbf{x}_i)$



Input: **x**i

00

Summary: Logistic regression classifier



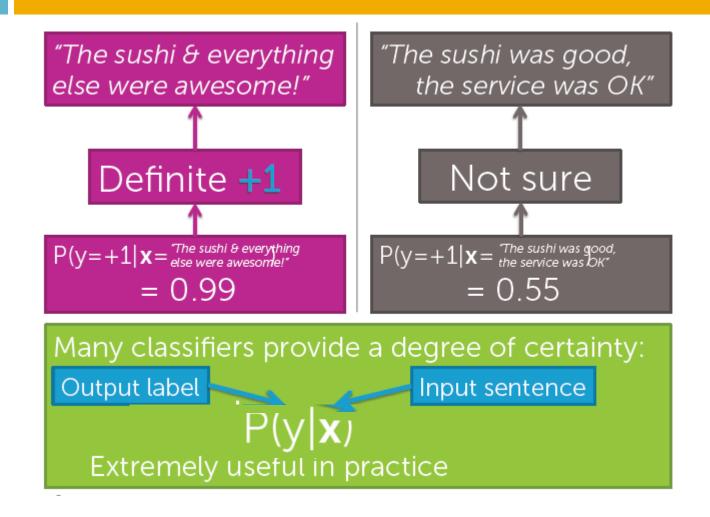
What you can do now...

- 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



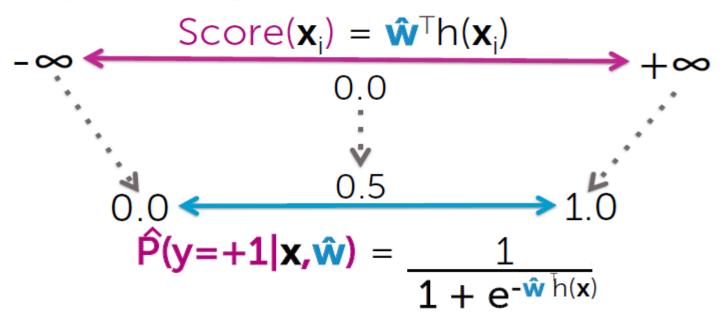
A (linear) classifier

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

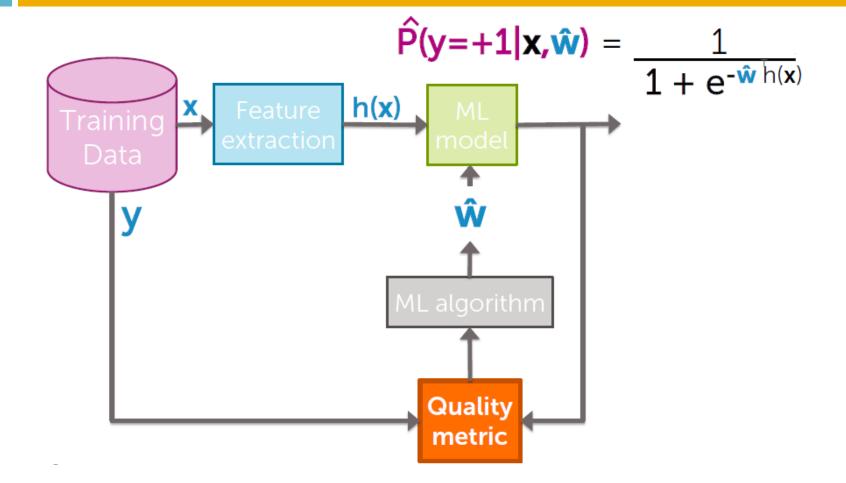
Word	Coefficient	Value
	\hat{w}_0	-2.0
good	\hat{w}_{1}	1.0
great	\hat{w}_2	1.5
awesome	ŵ ₃	2.7
bad	\hat{w}_4	-1.0
terrible	\hat{w}_{5}	-2.1
awful	ŵ ₆	-3.3
restaurant, the, we,	$\hat{w}_{7,} \hat{w}_{8,} \hat{w}_{9,}$	0.0

Logistic regression

Logistic regression model







Learning problem

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

		1 - 1
x [1] = #awesome	x [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

$\mathbf{x}[2] = \#awful$	y = sentiment
2	-1
3	-1
4	-1
3	-1
1	-1
	2 3 4 3 1

x [1] = #awesome	x [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: likelihood function

Negative data points

Positive data points

$$P(y=+1|x_{yy})=0.0$$

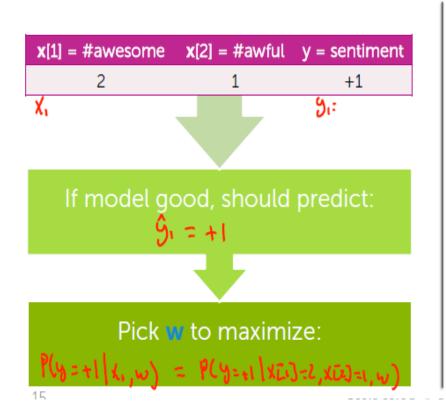
$$P(y=+1|x_i,w) = 1.0$$

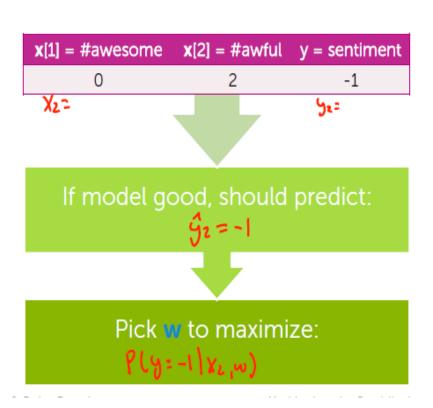
No $\hat{\mathbf{w}}$ achieves perfect predictions (usually)

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

10

Quality metric: probability of data





Maximizing likelihood (probability of data)

Data point	x [1]	x [2]	у	Choose w to maximize
x ₁ ,y ₁	2	1	+1	P(y=+1/x,, w) = P(y=+1/xDJ=2,xDJ=1, w)
x ₂ ,y ₂	0	2	-1	P(g=-1 X2,W)
x ₃ ,y ₃	3	3	-1	P(g=-1 x3,w)
x ₄ ,y ₄	4	1	+1	P(9=+11 x4, w)
x ₅ ,y ₅	1	1	+1	
x ₆ ,y ₆	2	4	-1	
x ₇ ,y ₇	0	3	-1	
x ₈ ,y ₈	0	1	-1	
x ₉ ,y ₉	2	1	+1	

Must combine into single measure of quality ?

Multiply Probability
(y=+11x1, w) P(y=-11x2, w)...

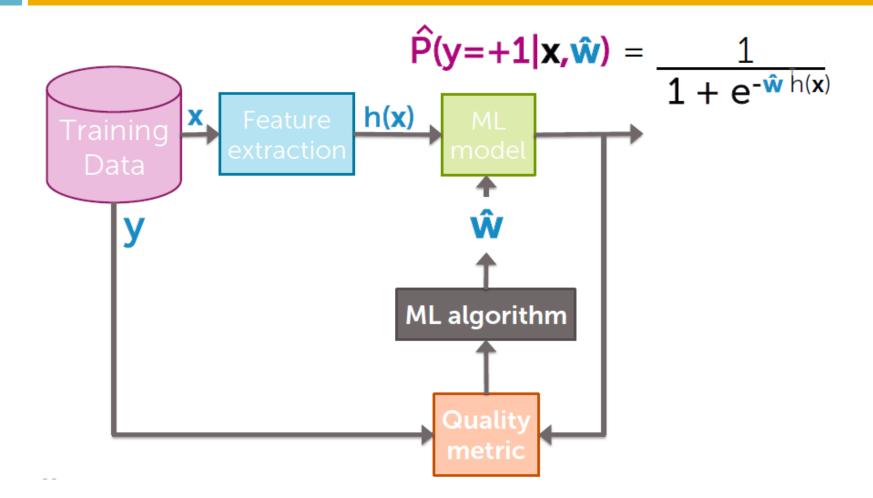
Maximum likelihood estimation (MLE)

Learn logistic regression model with MLE

Data point	x [1]	x [2]	у	Choose w to maximize
x ₁ ,y ₁	2	1	9 :+1	$P(\underline{y=+1} \mathbf{x}[1]=2, \mathbf{x}[2]=1, \mathbf{w})$
x ₂ ,y ₂	0	2	-1	P(y=-1 x[1]=0, x[2]=2,w)
x ₃ ,y ₃	3	3	-1	P(y=-1 x[1]=3, x[2]=3,w)
x ₄ ,y ₄	4	1	+1	P(y=+1 x[1]=4, x[2]=1,w)

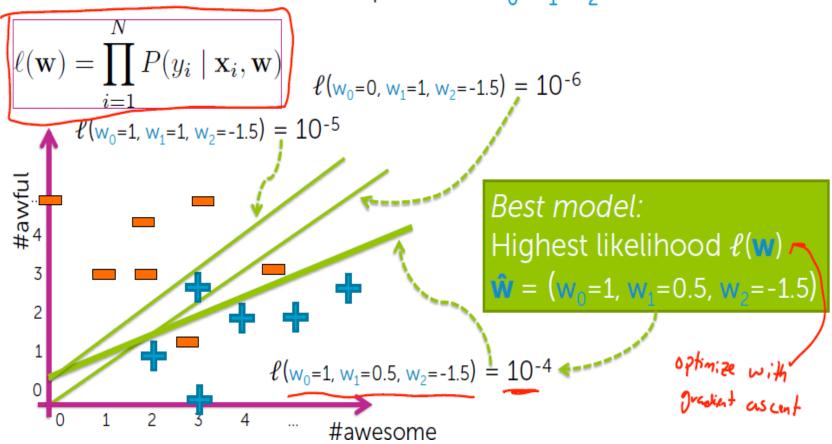
Flow chart:





Find "best" classifier

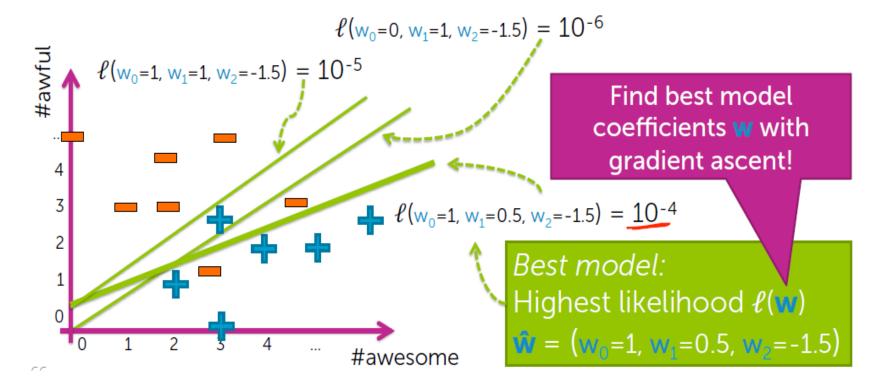
Maximize likelihood over all possible w_0, w_1, w_2



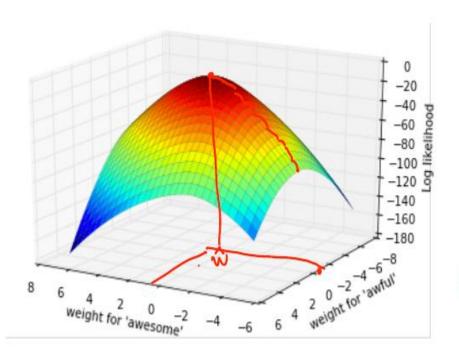
Find best classifier

Maximize quality metric over all possible W_0, W_1, W_2

Likelihood ℓ(w)



Maximizing likelihood

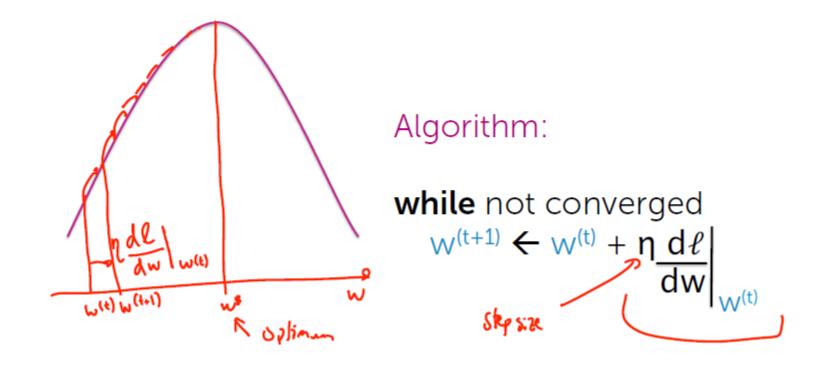


Maximize function over all possible w_0, w_1, w_2 $\prod_{N} P(y_i \mid \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w})$ $w_0, w_1, w_2 = 1$ $\ell(w_0, w_1, w_2) \text{ is a function of 3 variables}$

No closed-form solution → use gradient ascent

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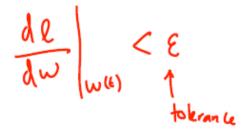
Finding the max via hill climbing



Convergence criteria

For convex functions, optimum occurs when

In practice, stop when

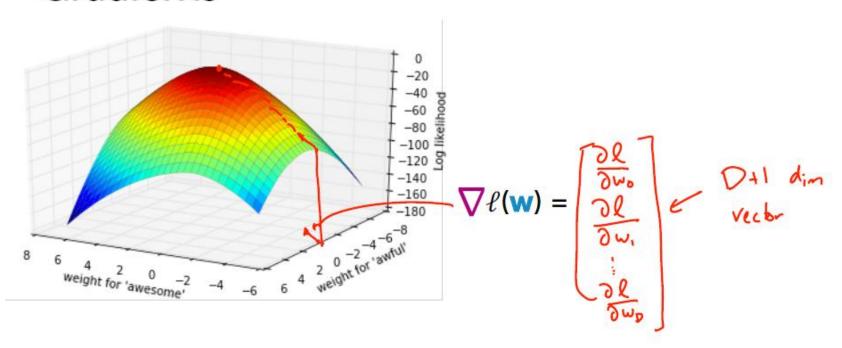




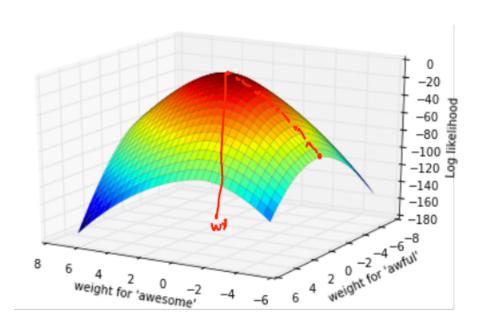
Algorithm:

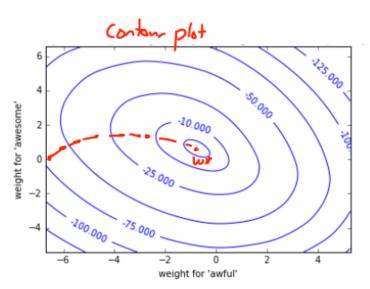
while not converged
$$w^{(t+1)} \leftarrow w^{(t)} + \eta \frac{d\ell}{dw} \bigg|_{w^{(t)}}$$

Moving to multiple dimensions: Gradients



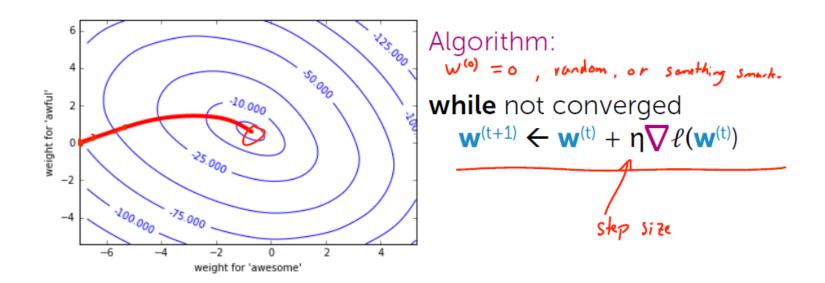
Contour plots





Gradient ascent

Gradient ascent



Details

Derivative of likelihood for logistic regression

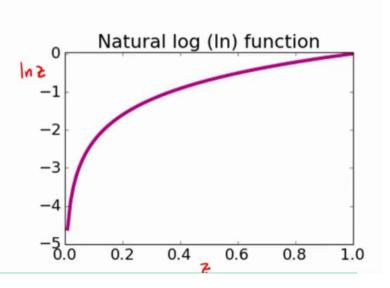
The log trick, often used in ML...

- 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}))
```



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:

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

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:

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

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{N} [\mathbb{1}[y_i = +1] \ln P(y = +1 \mid \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w}) + \mathbb{1}[y_i = -1] \ln P(y = -1 \mid \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w})]$$
Indicator function

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

Probability model predicts y=+1:

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

Probability model predicts y=-1:

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

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

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

Plugging in logistic function for 1 data point

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

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

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

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

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

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

$$I[y_{i=-}] = 1 - 10[y_{i=+1}]$$

$$\ln \frac{1 + e^{-\omega \tau_{h}(x_{i})}}{1 + e^{-\omega \tau_{h}(x_{i})}} = -\ln(1 + e^{-\omega \tau_{h}(x_{i})})$$

$$\ln e^{-\omega \tau_{h}(x_{i})} - \ln(1 + e^{-\omega \tau_{h}(x_{i})})$$

$$\ln e^{-\omega \tau_{h}(x_{i})}$$

$$\ln e^{-\omega \tau_{h}(x_{i})}$$

Gradient for 1 data point

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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:

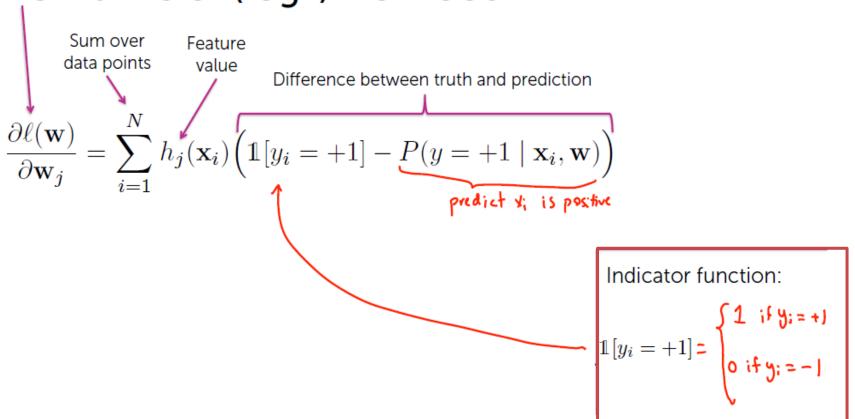
$$\frac{\partial \ell \ell}{\partial \omega_{j}} = \frac{N}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} h_{j}(x_{i}) \left(1 \left[L_{g:=+1} \right] - P(y=+1|x_{i},\omega) \right)}$$

Linear classifier (continue)

Parameters learning

Derivative for logistic regression

Derivative of (log-)likelihood



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 ₀ ^(t)	0
$w_{1}^{(t)}$	1
W ₂	-2

ጉ (ሄ) = 14	Ortone			
x[1]	x [2]	у	P(y=+1 x _i ,w)	Contribution to derivative for w ₁
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:

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

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

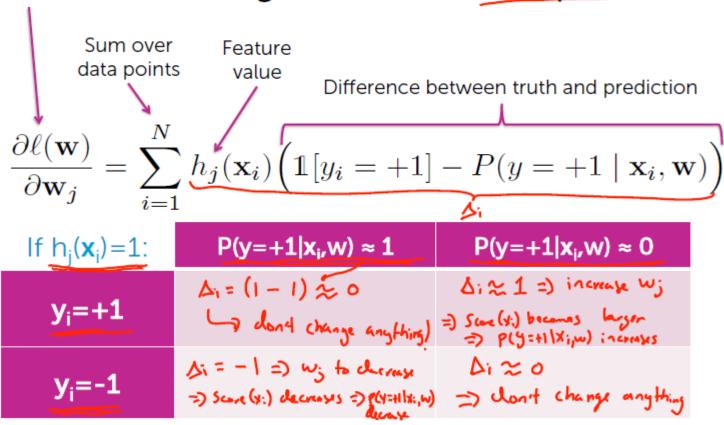
$$= |+0-0.15+0.48 = |.33|$$

$$= |+0-0.15+0.48 = |.33|$$

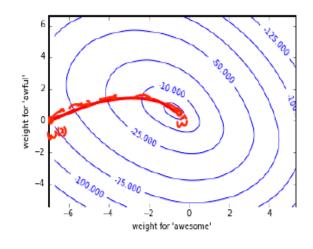
$$= |+0-0.15+0.48 = |.33|$$

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

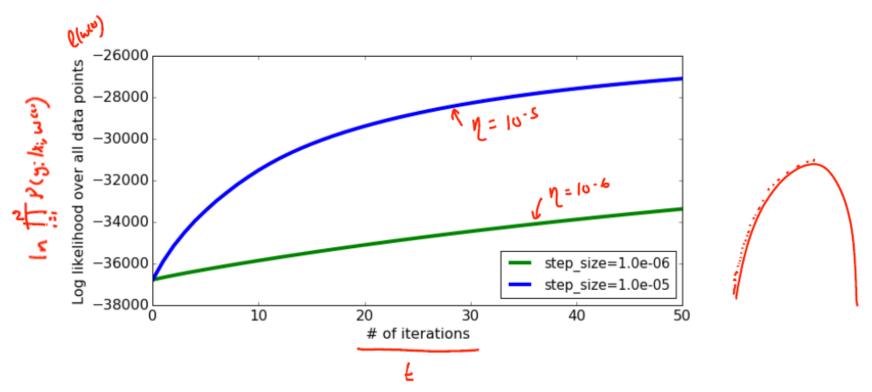
for j = 0,..., D

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)

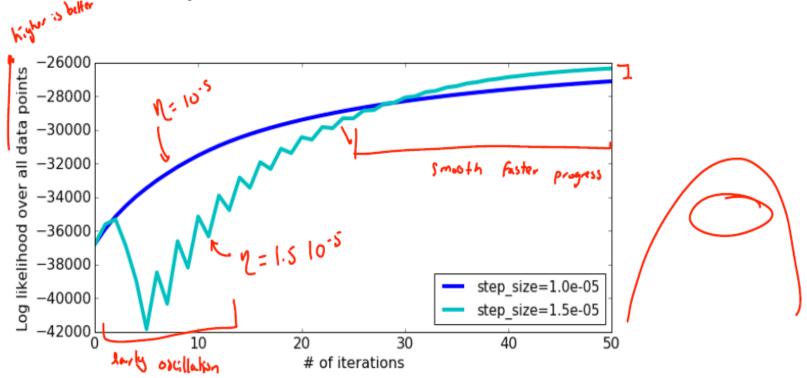
\mathbf{w}_j^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \mathbf{w}_j^{(t)} + \mathbf{\eta} \text{ partial}[j]

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

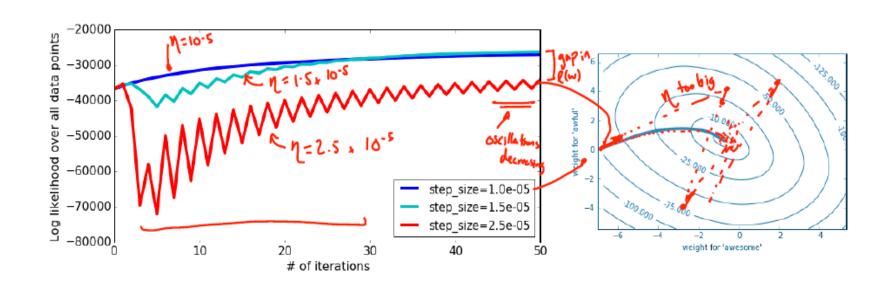
If step size is too small, can take a long time to converge



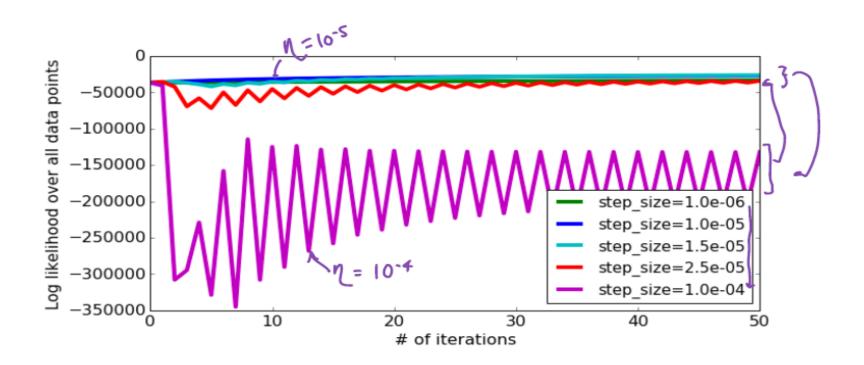
Compare converge with different step sizes



Careful with step sizes that are too large



Very large step sizes can even cause divergence or wild oscillations

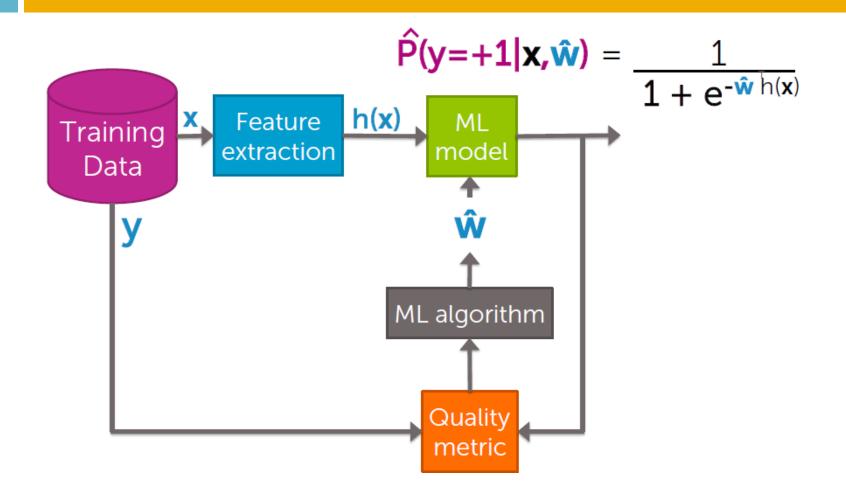


Simple rule of thumb for picking step size n

- Unfortunately, picking step size requires a lot of trial and error ⊗
- Try a several values, exponentially spaced
 - Goal: plot learning curves to
 - find one η that is too small (smooth but moving too slowly)
 - find one η that is too large (oscillation or divergence)
- Try values in between to find "best" η 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



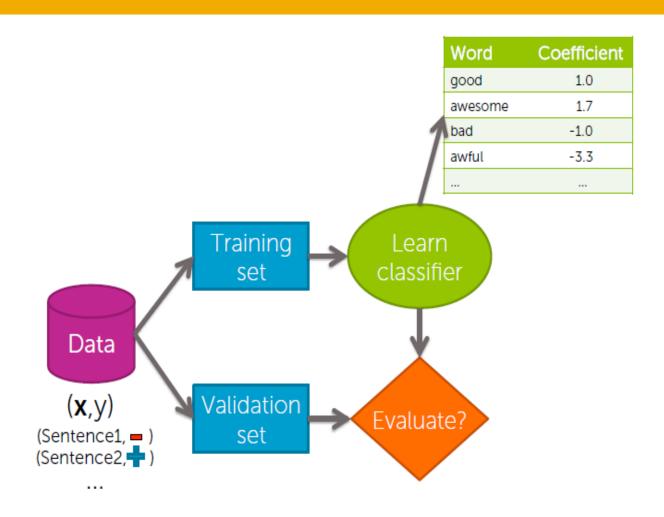
What you can do now

- 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

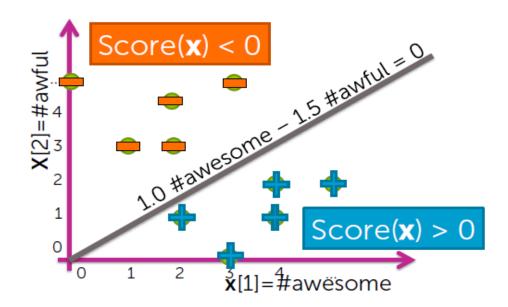
Error measures fraction of mistakes

- 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) = $1.0 \text{ #awesome} - 1.5 \text{ #awful}$



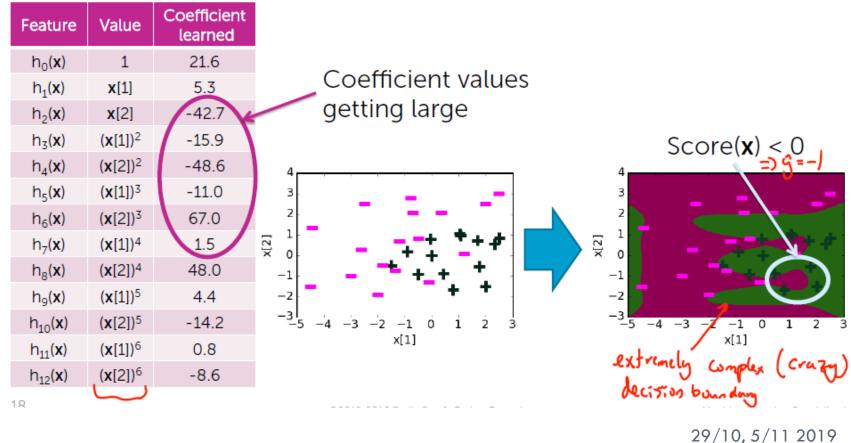
Learned decision boundary

	Feature	Value	Coefficient learned	
	h ₀ (x)	V ₂ 1	0.23	. > 0
	h ₁ (x)	₩ , x [1]	1.12	Swelle
	h ₂ (x)	₩ 1 X [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)	* + # + # + # 1	1 2 1 2 1 -1 -2 -3 -5 -4 -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 x[1]

Quadratic features (in 2d)

Feature	Value	Coefficient learned
h ₀ (x)	1	1.68
$h_1(\mathbf{x})$	x [1]	1.39
h ₂ (x)	x [2]	- 0.59
$h_3(\mathbf{x})$	$(x[1])^2$	-0.17
h ₄ (x)	$(x[2])^2$	-0.96
5 -4 -3 -	2 -1 0 x[1]	++++ + + 1 2 3

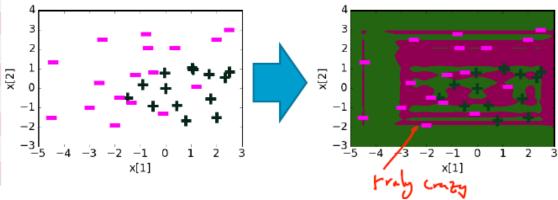
Degree 6 features (in 2d)

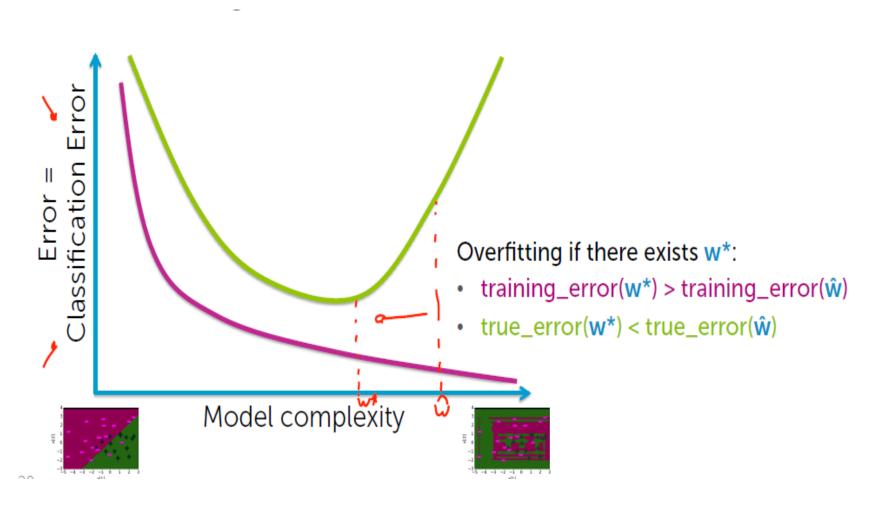


Degree 20 features (in 2d)

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

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





Overfitting in logistic regression

The subtle (negative) consequence of overfitting in logistic regression

Overfitting -> Large coefficient values

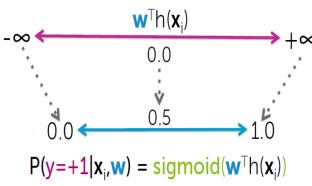


 $^{\text{W}^{\text{T}}}$ h(\mathbf{x}_i) is very positive (or very negative) \rightarrow sigmoid($^{\text{W}^{\text{T}}}$ h(\mathbf{x}_i)) goes to 1 (or to 0)



Model becomes extremely overconfident of predictions

Logistic regression model

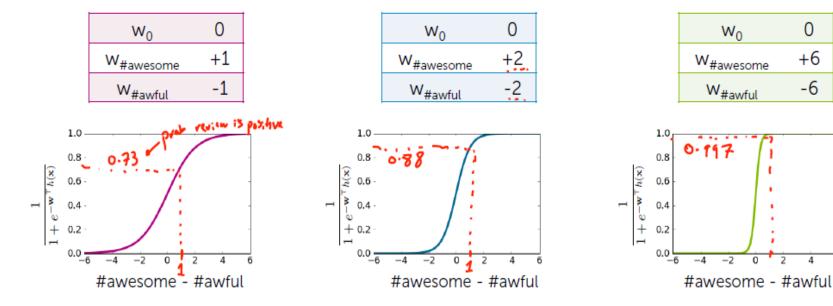


Remember about this probability interpretation

Effect of coefficients on logistic regression model

With increasing coefficients model becomes overconfident on predictions

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



Learned probabilities

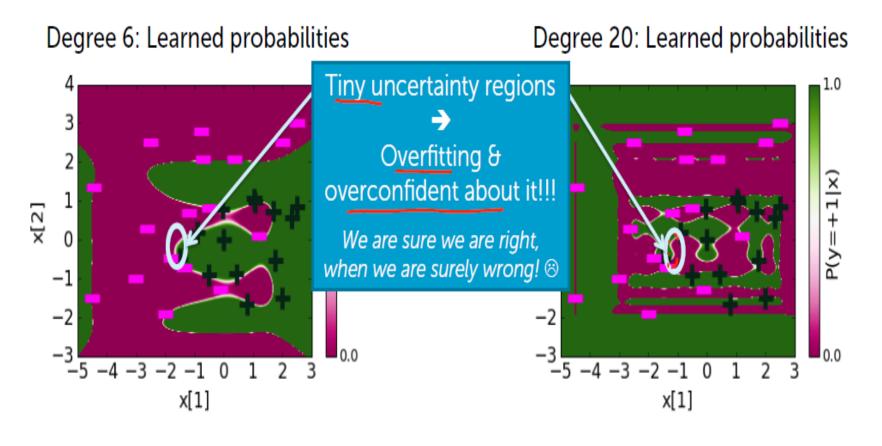
	Feature	Value	Coefficient learned		
	$h_0(\mathbf{x})$	1	0.23		
	$h_1(\mathbf{x})$	x [1]	1.12	4 Prob 9=+1	1.0
	$h_2(\mathbf{x})$	x [2]	-1.07	pnb 20 3	
P(y)	y = +1	Make	$\frac{1}{1+e^{-\mathbf{w}^{\top}}}$ So note region undertainly	$\begin{array}{c c} \hline & 2 \\ \hline & 1 \\ \hline & 2 \\ \hline & 1 \\ \hline & 2 \\ \hline & 0 \\ \hline & 0 \\ \hline & 0 \\ \hline & -1 \\ \hline & -2 \\ \hline & 0 \\ \hline$	P(y=+1 x)
				-3 -5 -4 -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3	0.0
27				@2015_2016 Emily Foy & Carlos Guastrin X[1] Machina Laarning Spacia	1 1 alization

Quadratic features: learned probabilities

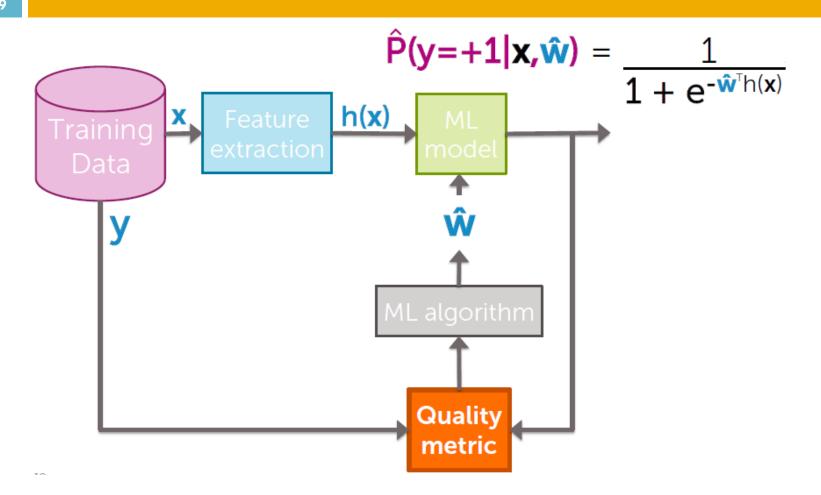
	Feature	Value	Coefficient learned		
	$h_0(\mathbf{x})$	1	1.68	1	
	h ₁ (x)	x [1]	1.39	better 1 prob. 9=+1	
	h ₂ (x)	x [2]	-0.58	better 4 prob. $g=+1$ fit to 3	1.0
	$h_3(\mathbf{x})$	(x [1]) ²	-0.17	K+ to 3	
	$h_4(\mathbf{x})$	$(x[2])^2$	-0.96	data	
Ι	P(y = +1)	$(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{v}$	$\frac{1}{1 + e^{-\mathbf{w}^{\top}h}}$ Nowhere		° P(y=+1 x)
2	8			Machine Learning Species 2016 Emily Eov & Carlos Cuestrin X[1]	inlization

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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)

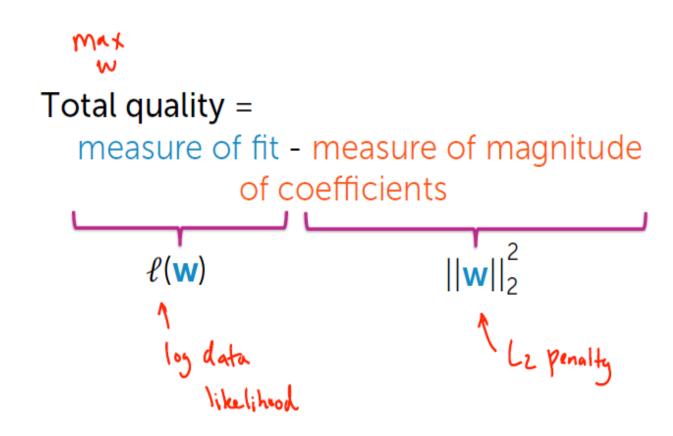
$$\ell(\mathbf{w}) = \ln \prod_{i=1}^{N} P(y_i \mid \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w})$$

Measure of magnitude of logistic regression coefficients

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

- Sum of squares (L_2 norm) $||u||_2^2 = w_0^2 + w_1^2 + w_2^2 + \cdots + w_0^2$ - Sum of absolute value (L_1 norm) $||w||_1 = |w_0| + |w_1| + |w_0|$ Spark solution

Consider specific total cost



Consider resulting objectives

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

```
|||||||_{2}
tuning parameter = balance of fit and magnitude

If \lambda = 0:

Shadard (unpenalized) MLE solution

If \lambda = \infty:

A max \ell(w) - \omega ||w||_{2}^{2} —) only care about proalizing w, large coefficients \Rightarrow w = 0
         If λ in between:

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

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Consider resulting objectives

What if w selected to minimize

$$\ell(\mathbf{w}) - \lambda ||\mathbf{w}||_2^2$$

tuning parameter = balance of fit and magnitude

L₂ regularizedlogistic regression

Pick \(\lambda\) using:

- Validation set (for large datasets)
- Cross-validation (for smaller datasets)
 (see regression course)

Bias-variance tradeoff

Large λ :

high bias, low variance

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

In essence, λ controls model complexity

Small λ :

low bias, high variance

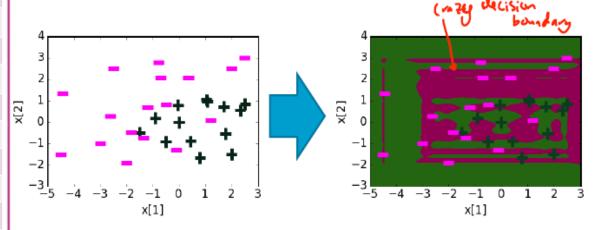
(e.g., maximum likelihood (MLE) fit of high-order polynomial for λ =0)

Visualizing effect of regularisation

Degree 20 features, $\lambda = 0$

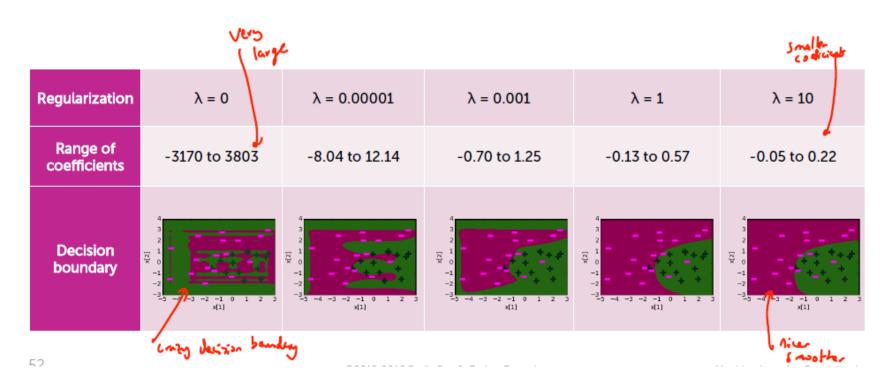
Feature	Value	Coefficient learned
$h_0(\mathbf{x})$	1	8.7
$h_1(\mathbf{x})$	x [1]	5.1
h ₂ (x)	x [2]	78.7
h ₁₁ (x)	(x [1]) ⁶	-7.5
h ₁₂ (x)	(x [2]) ⁶	3803
h ₁₃ (x)	$(x[1])^7$	21.1
h ₁₄ (x)	$(x[2])^7$	-2406
h ₃₇ (x)	(x [1]) ¹⁹	-2*10 ⁻⁶
h ₃₈ (x)	(x [2]) ¹⁹	-0.15
h ₃₉ (x)	$(x[1])^{20}$	-2*10-8
h ₄₀ (x)	$(x[2])^{20}$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

Coefficients range from -3170 to 3803



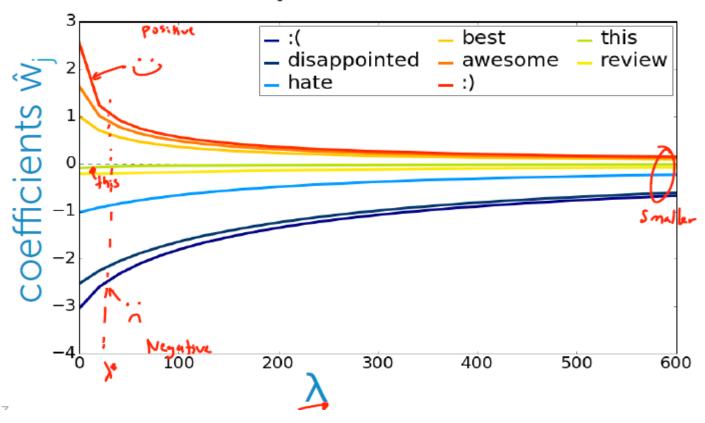
Visualizing effect of regularisation

Degree 20 features, effect of regularization penalty λ



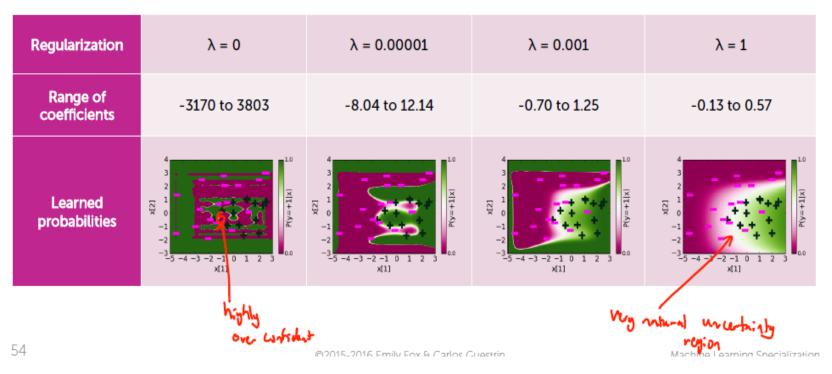
Effect of regularisation

Coefficient path



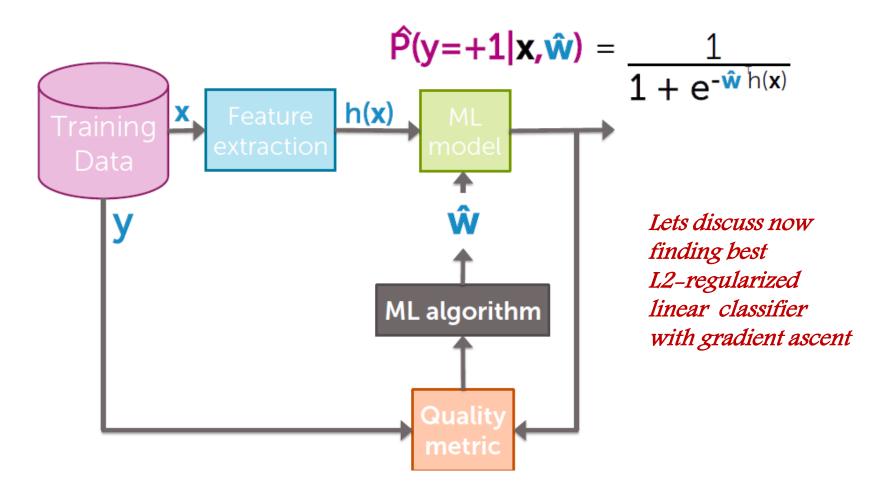
Visualizing effect of regularisation

Degree 20 features: regularization reduces "overconfidence"

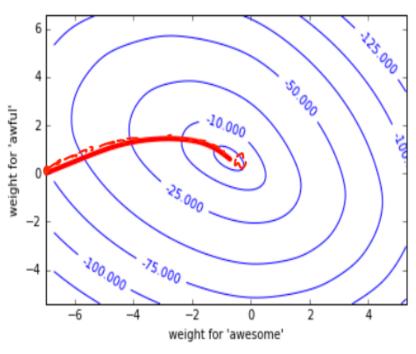


Flow chart:





Gradient ascent



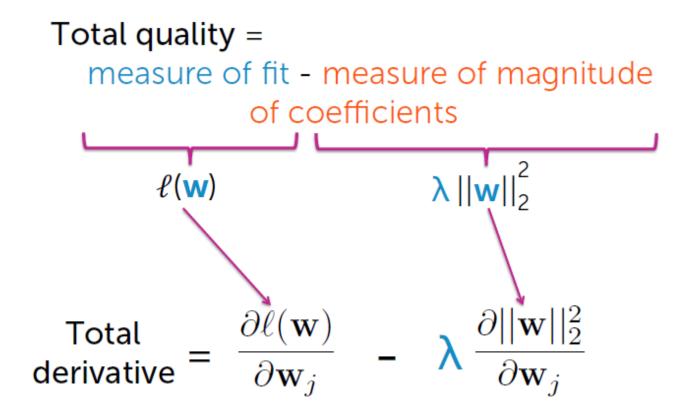
Algorithm:

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 L₂ penalty

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

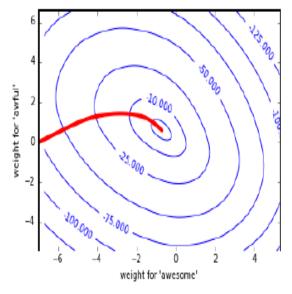
Gradient of L2 regularized log-likelihood

Understanding contribution of L₂ regularization

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

	- 2 λ w _j	Impact on w _j
$\mathbf{w}_{j} > 0$	<0	decreases w; => w; becomes closer to 0
w _j < 0	70	increase wij =) wij becomes closer 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:

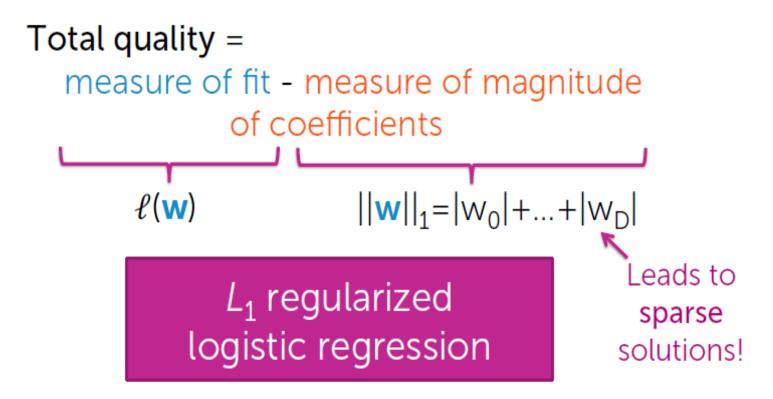
- If size(w) = 100B, each prediction is expensive
- If w sparse, computation only depends on # of non-zeros

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 λ

```
\ell(\mathbf{w}) - \lambda \|\mathbf{w}\|_1
tuning parameter =
balance of fit and sparsity

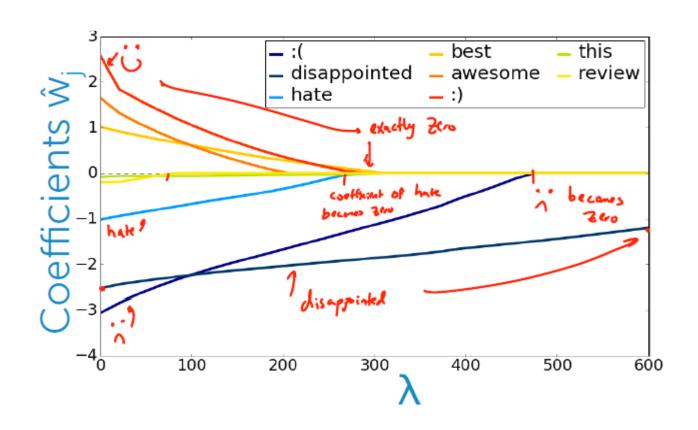
No regularization => Shadad MLE solution

If \lambda = \infty:

all weight is an regularization => \hat{w} = 0

If \lambda in between:
\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \sum_{j
```

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 L₂ regularized logistic regression quality metric
- Describe what happens to estimated coefficients as tuning parameter λ is varied
- Interpret coefficient path plot
- Estimate L₂ regularized logistic regression coefficients using gradient ascent
- Describe the use of L₁ 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

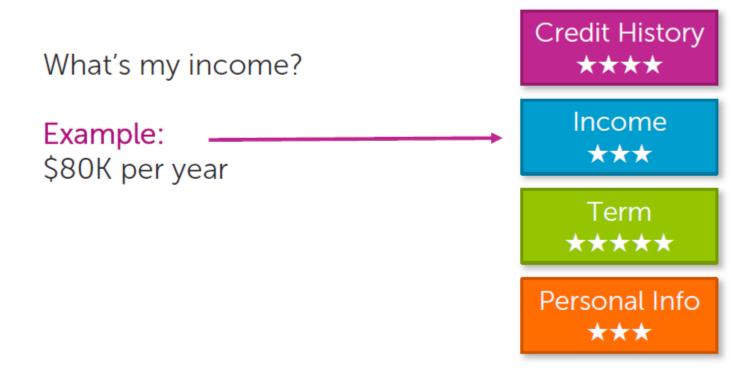
Credit History

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,...

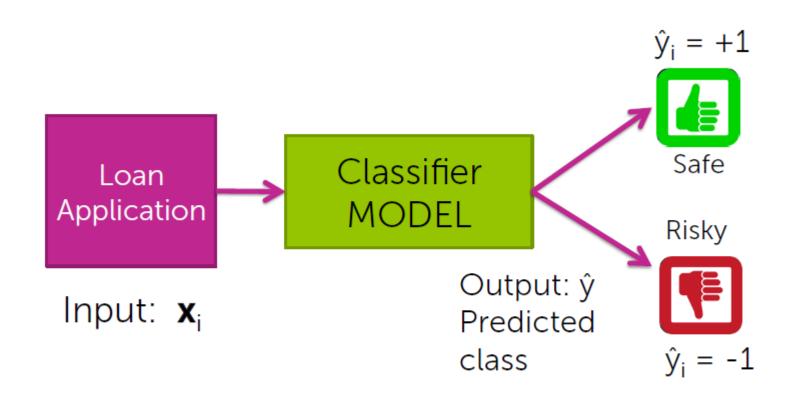
Example: Home loan for a married couple



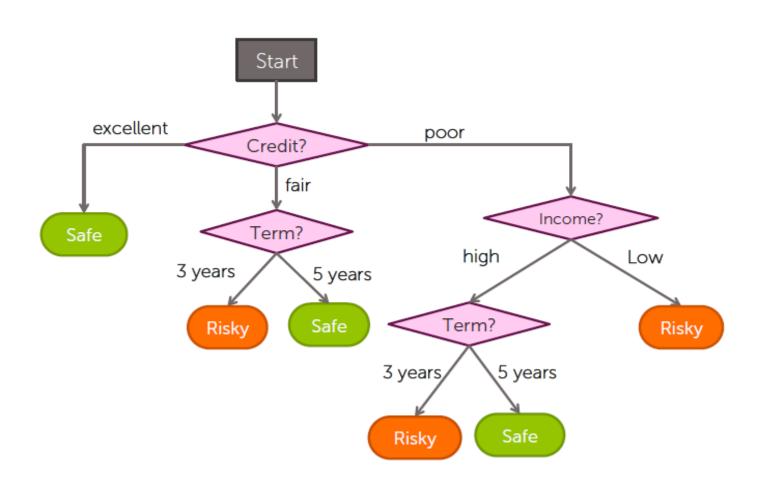
Inteligent application



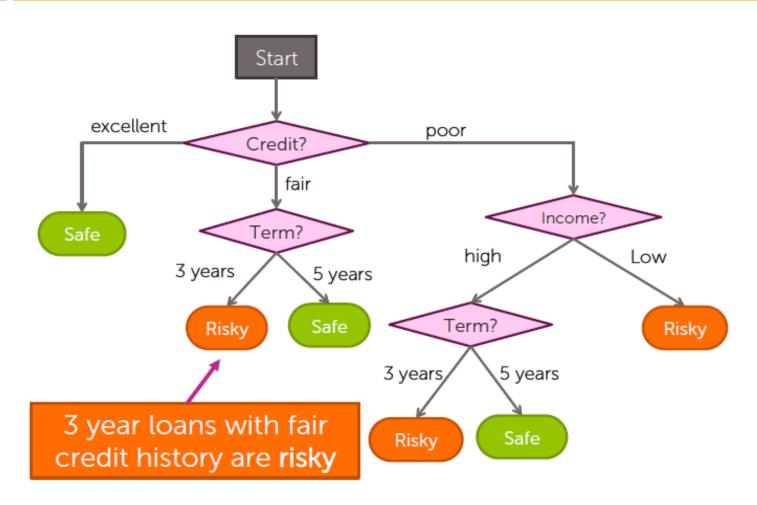
Classifier: review type



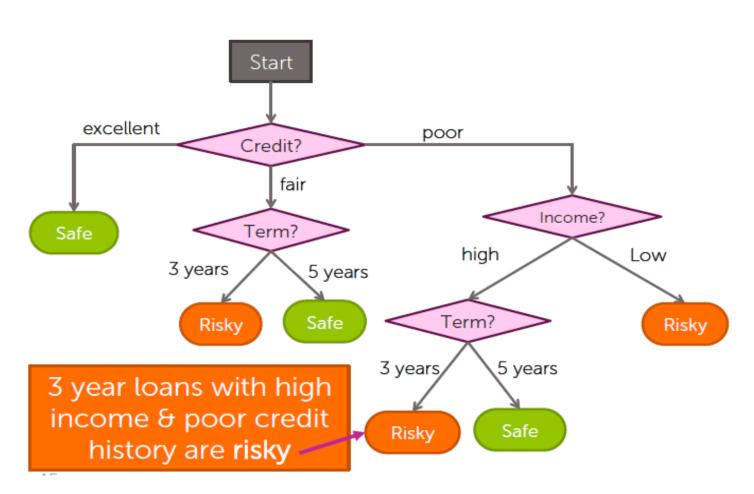
Classifier: decision trees



Scoring a loan application

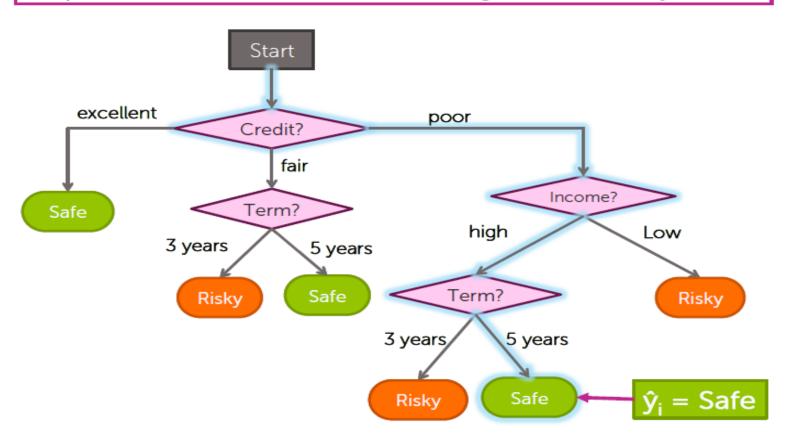


Scoring a loan application

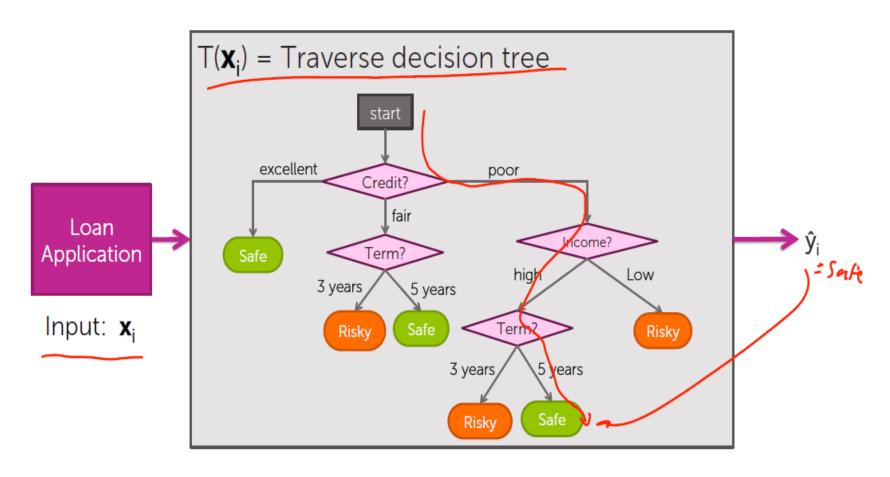


Scoring a loan application

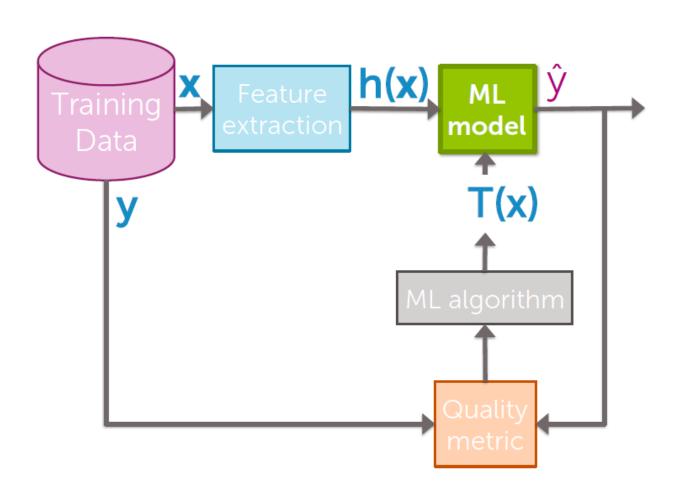
 $\mathbf{x}_i = (Credit = poor, Income = high, Term = 5 years)$



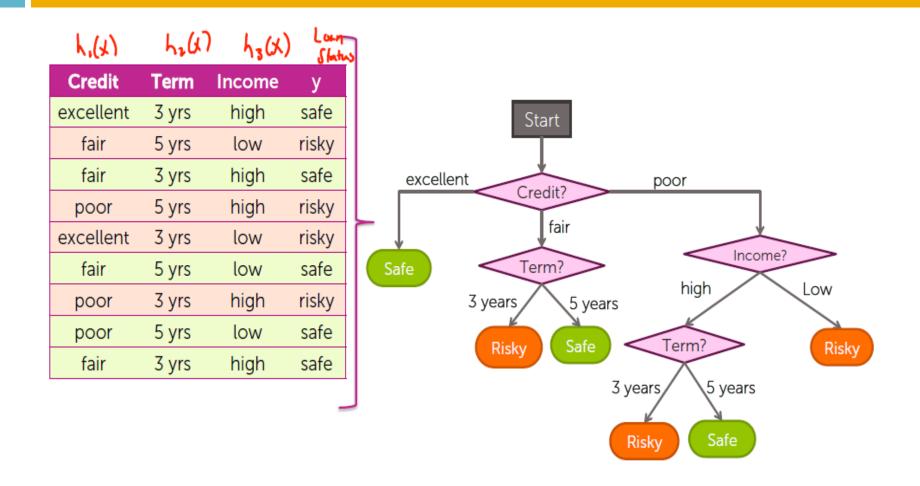
Decision tree model



Flow chart: ML model



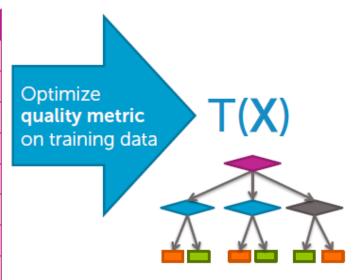
Learn decision tree from data



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

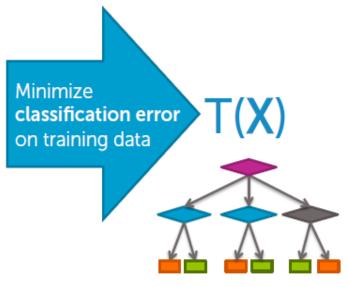
Error measures fraction of mistakes

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

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

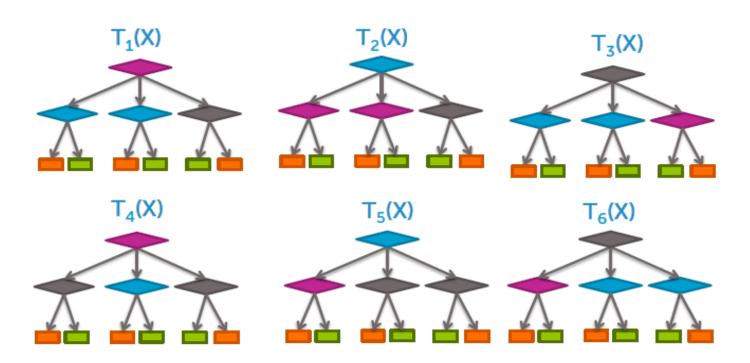
Find the tree with lowest classification error

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



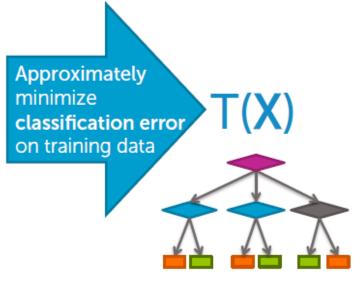
How do we find the best tree?

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

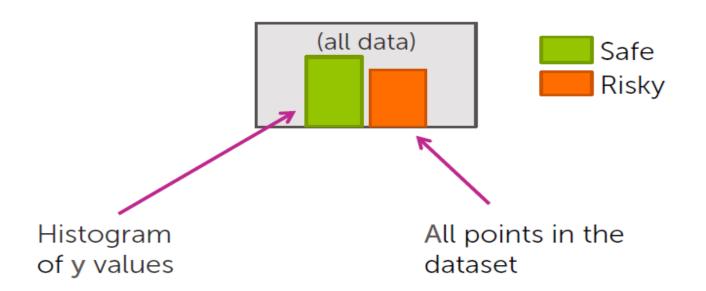


Simple (greedy) algorithm finds good tree

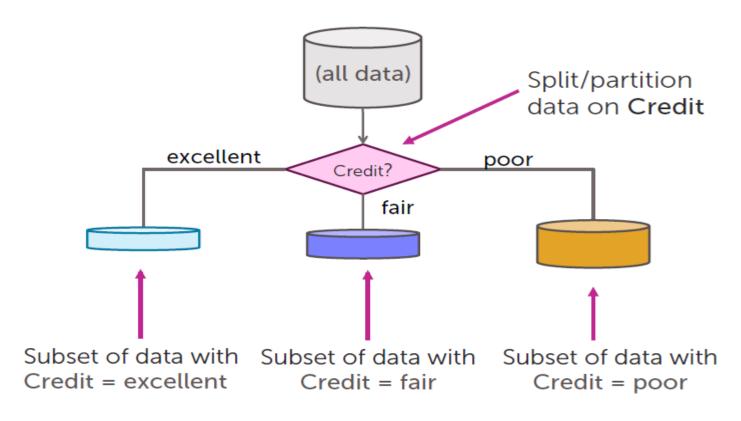
Credit	Term	Income	у
excellent	3 yrs	high	safe
fair	5 yrs	low	risky
fair	3 yrs	high	safe
poor	5 yrs	high	risky
excellent	3 yrs	low	risky
fair	5 yrs	low	safe
poor	3 yrs	high	risky
poor	5 yrs	low	safe
fair	3 yrs	high	safe



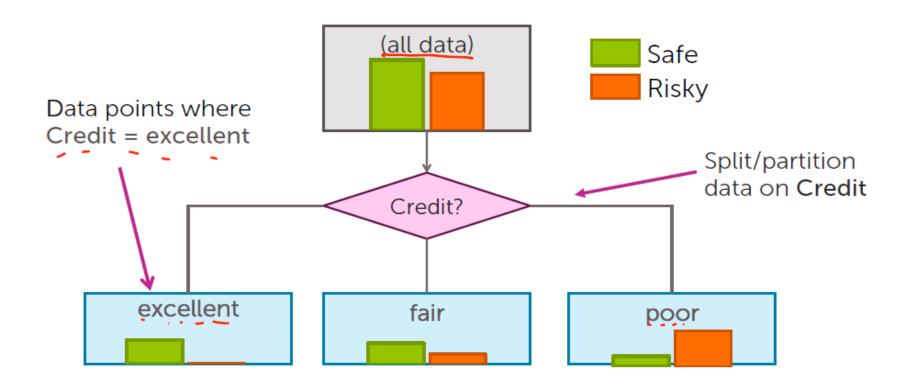
Step 1: Start with an empty tree



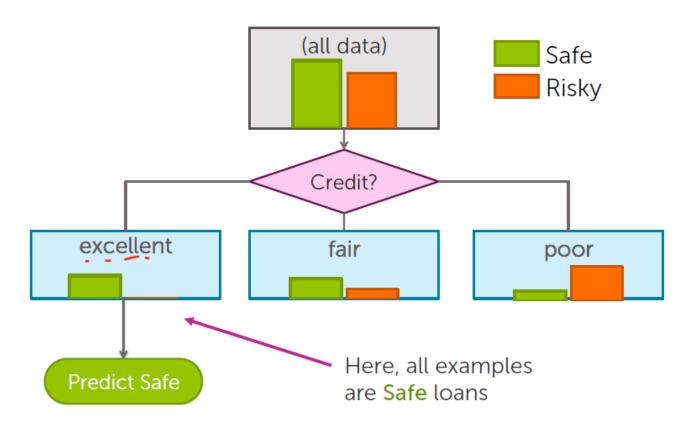
Step 2: Split on a feature



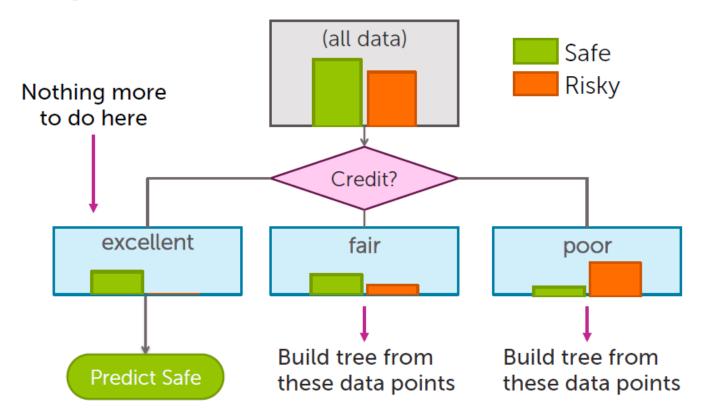
Feature split explained



Step 3: Making predictions



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

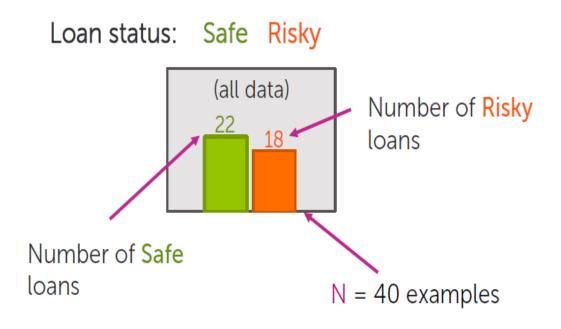
Problem 1: Feature split selection

Problem 2: Stopping condition

Recursion

Feature split learning

Start with all the data

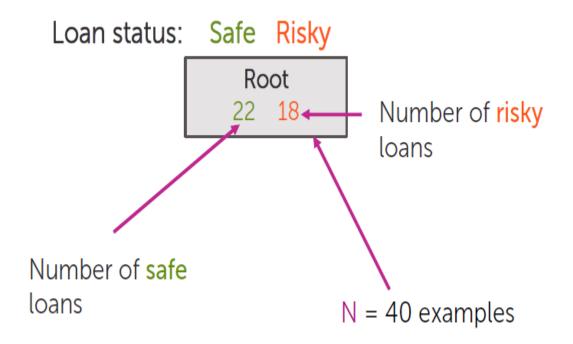


Assume N = 40, 3 features

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

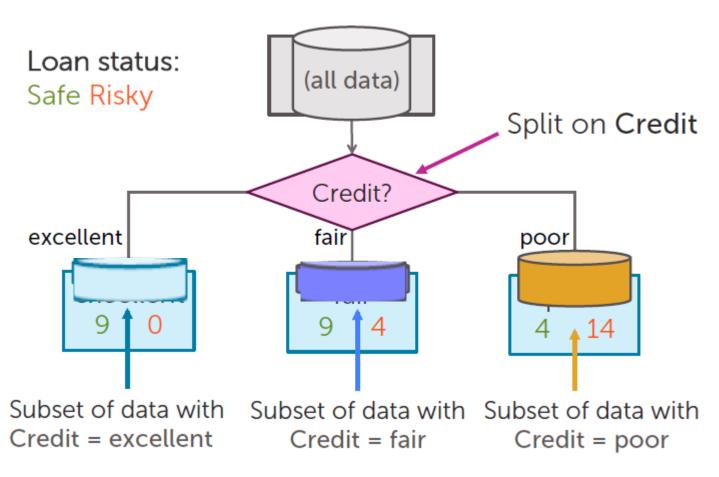


Assume N = 40, 3 features

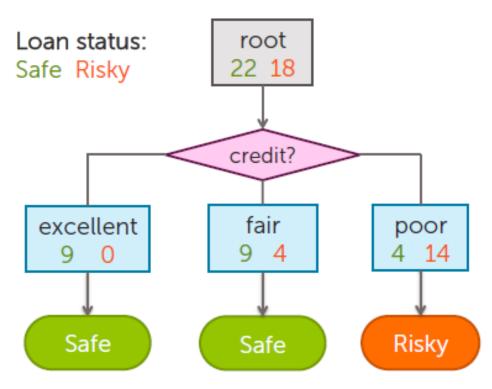
Credit	Term	Income	у
excellent	3 yrs	high	safe
fair	5 yrs	low	risky
fair	3 yrs	high	safe
poor	5 yrs	high	risky
excellent	3 yrs	low	risky
fair	5 yrs	low	safe
poor	3 yrs	high	risky
poor	5 yrs	low	safe
fair	3 yrs	high	safe

Compact notation

Decision stump: single level tree

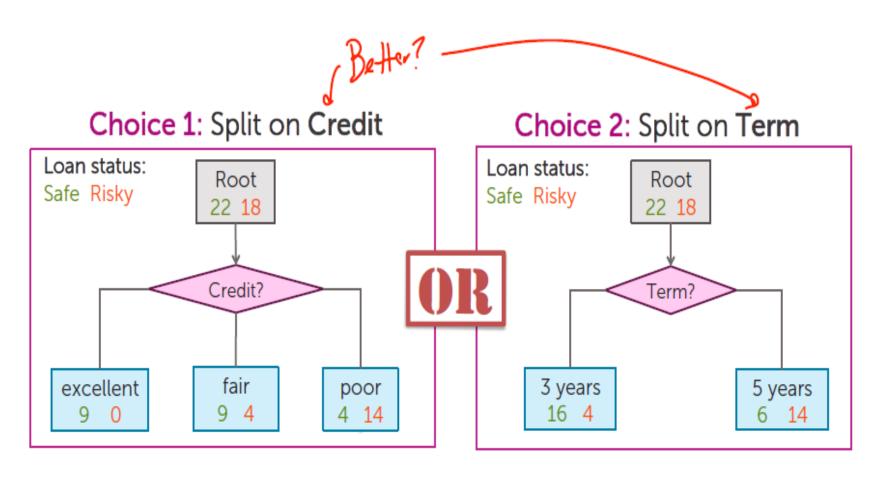


Making predictions with a decision stump

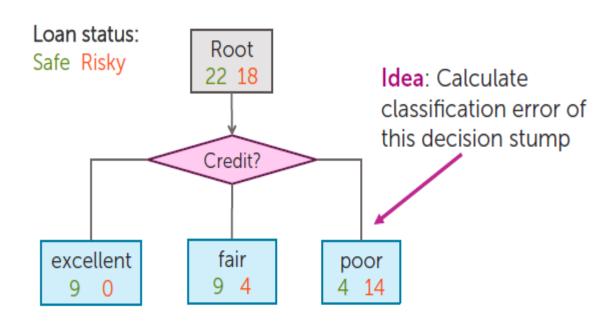


For each intermediate node, set $\hat{y} = majority value$

How do we select the best feauture to split on?



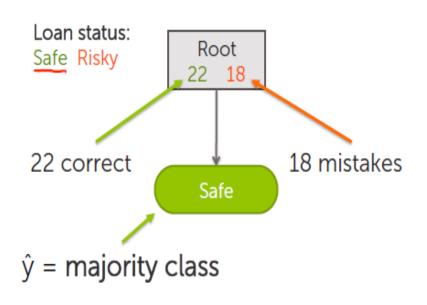
How do we measure effectiveness of a split?

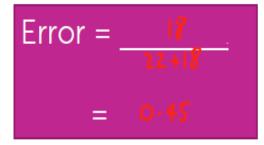


Error = # mistakes # data points

Calculating classification error

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

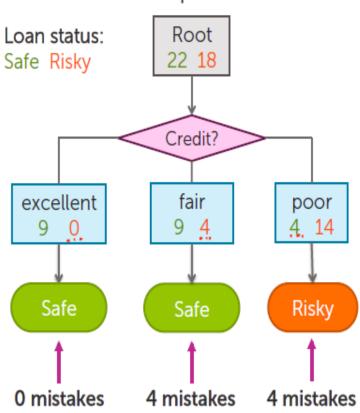




Tree	Classification error
(root)	0.45

Classification error

Choice 1: Split on Credit

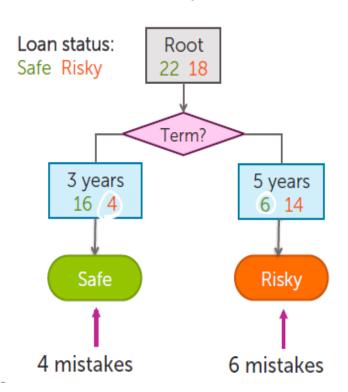


$$Error = \underbrace{\frac{4+4}{40}}_{= 0.25}$$

Tree	Classification error
(root)	0.45
Split on credit	0.2

Classification error

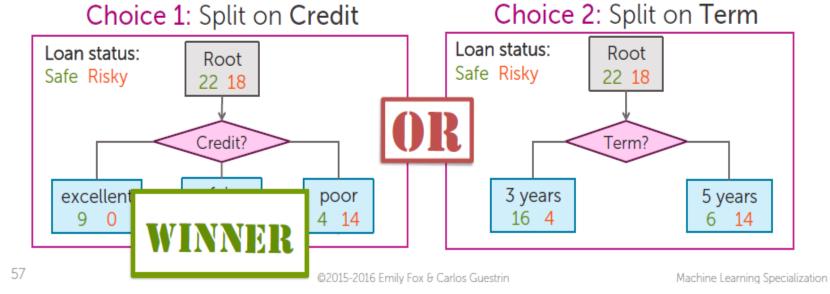
Choice 2: Split on Term



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 credit	0.2	-First Split
split on loan term	0.25	85



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

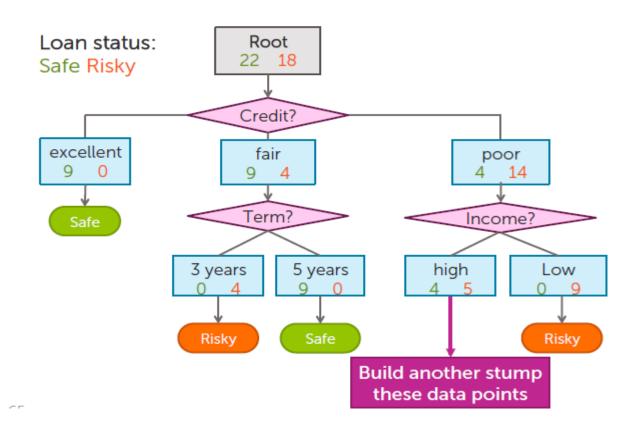
Greedy decision tree learning algorithm

- 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

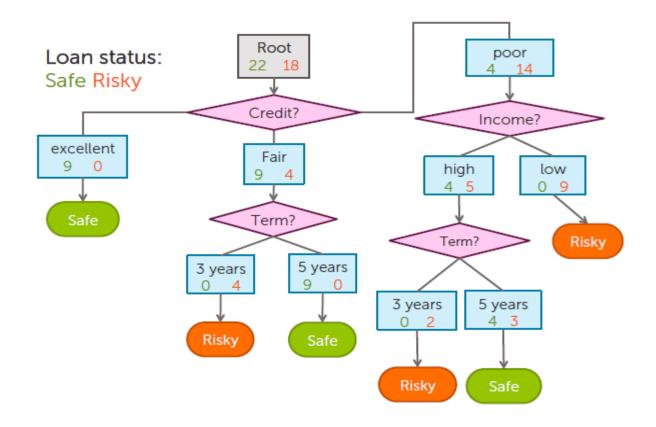
Recursive stump learning

Second level



Recursive stump learning

Final decision tree

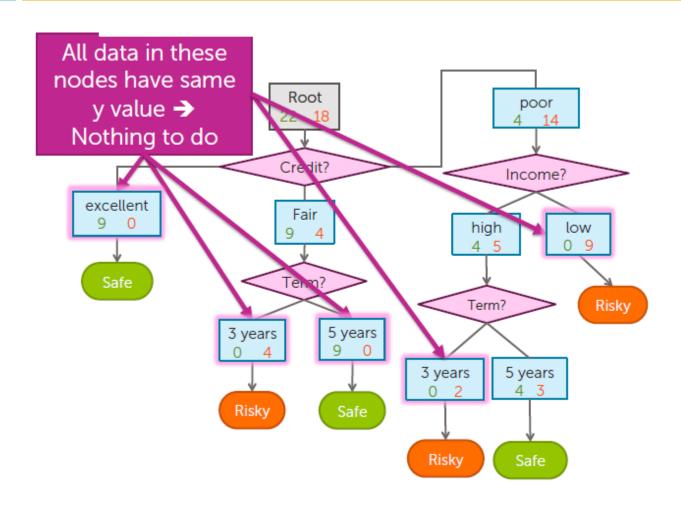


Simple greedy decision tree learning

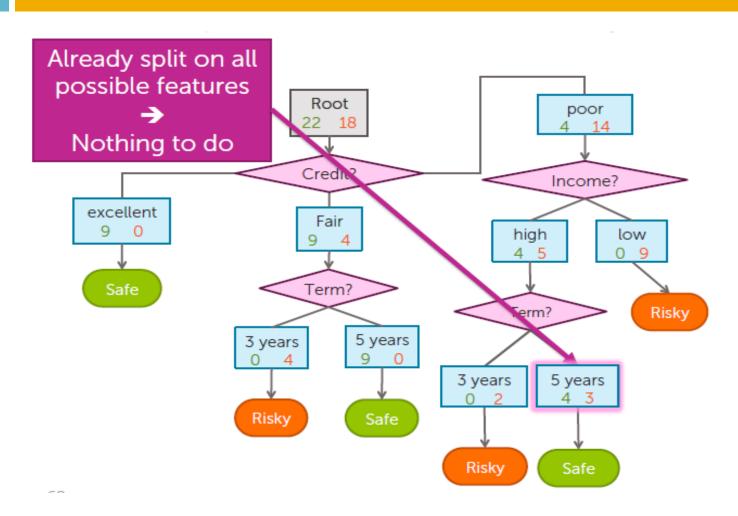
Recursive algorithm



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

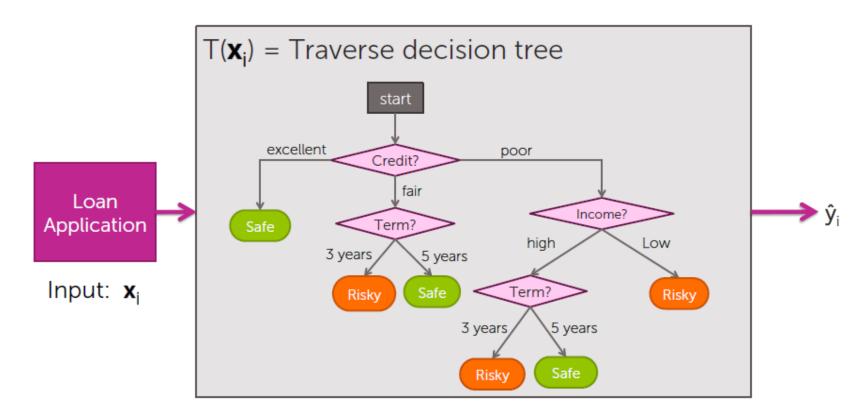
Pick feature split leading to lowest classification error

Stopping conditions 1 & 2

Recursion

Predictions with decision trees

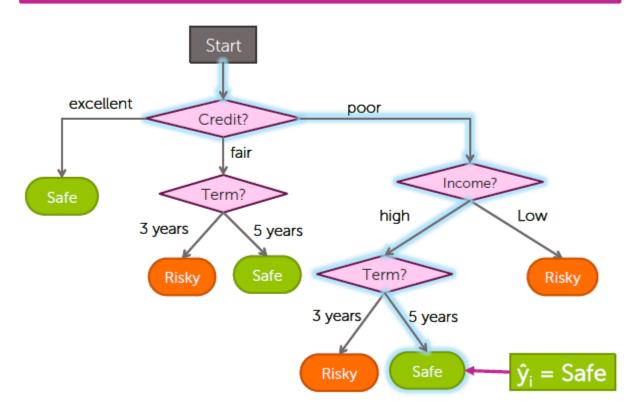
Decision tree model



Predictions with decision trees

Traversing a decision tree

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

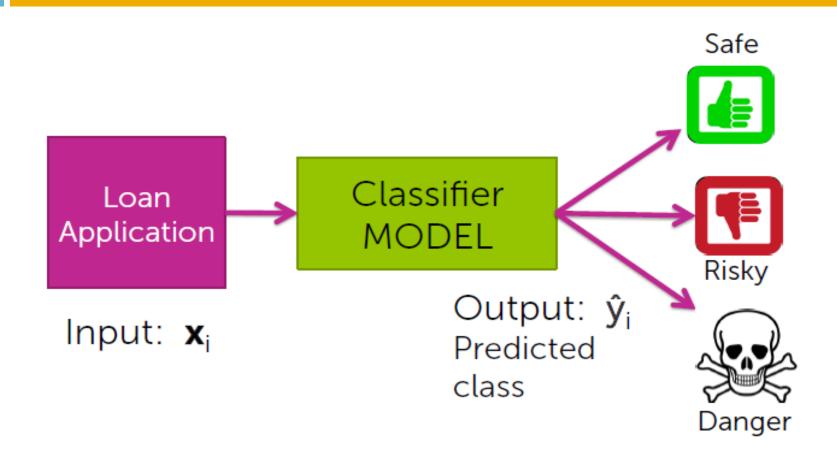


Predictions with decision tree

predict(tree_node, input)

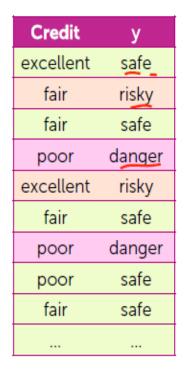
- If current tree_node is a leaf:
 - return majority class of data points in leaf
- else:
 - next_note = child node of tree_node whose feature value agrees with input
 - return predict(next_note, input)

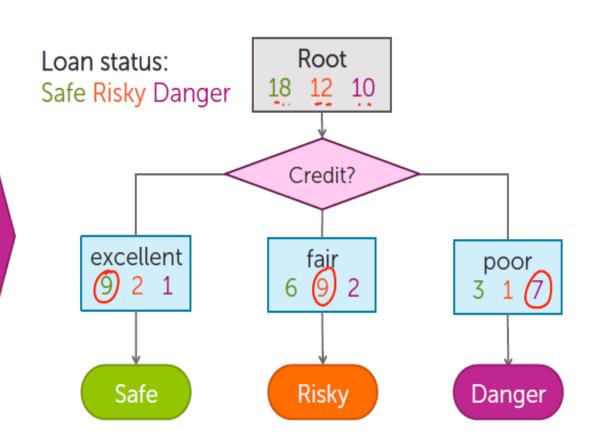
Multiclass prediction



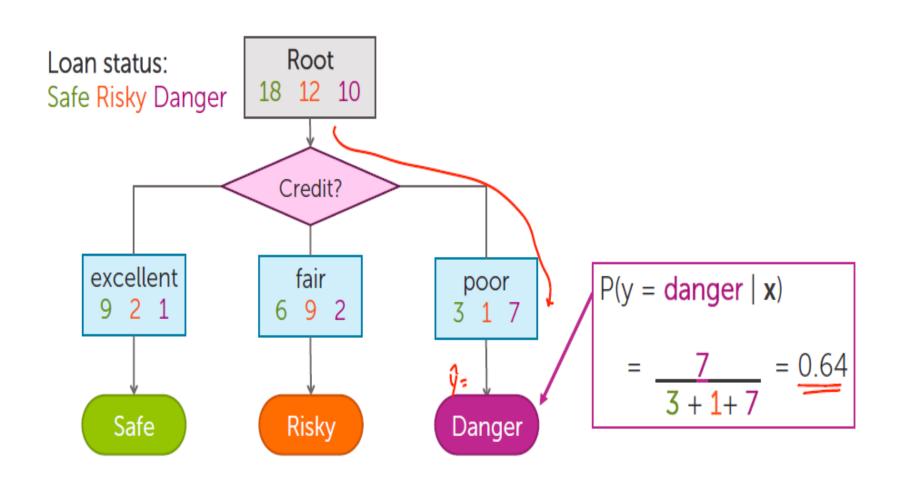
Multiclass decision stump





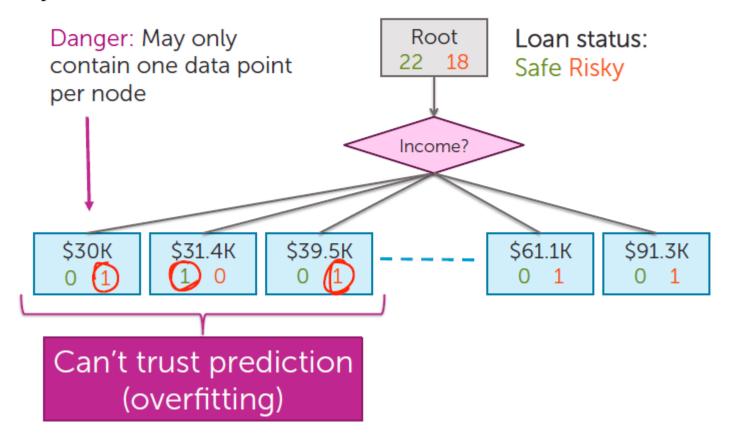


Predicting probabilities with decision trees



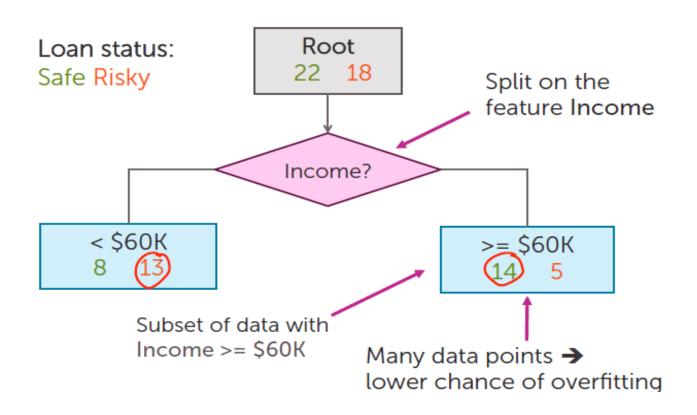
How to use real values inputs

Split on each numeric value?

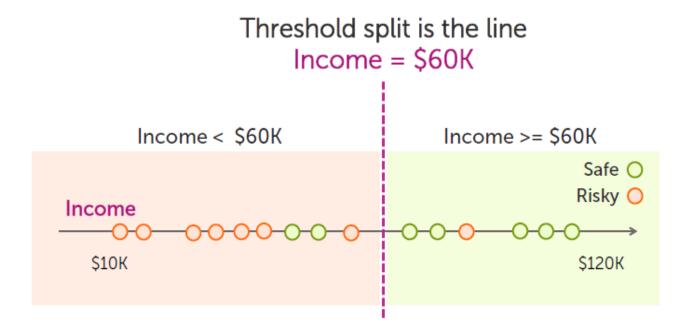


How to use real values inputs

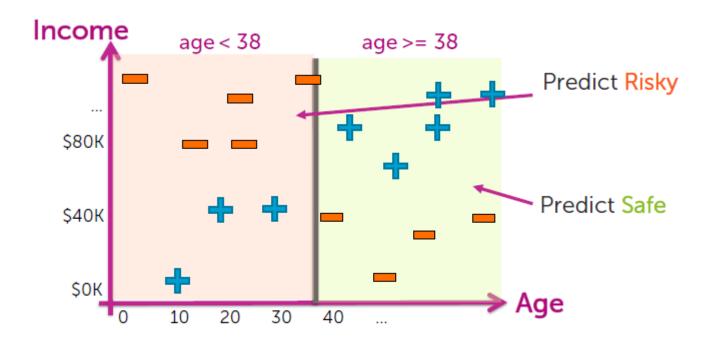
Alternative: Threshold split



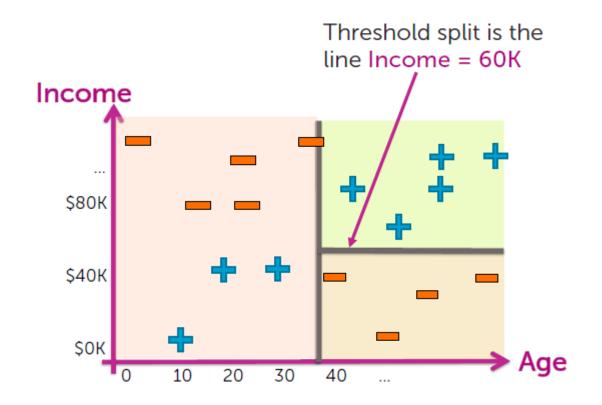
Threshold splits in 1-D



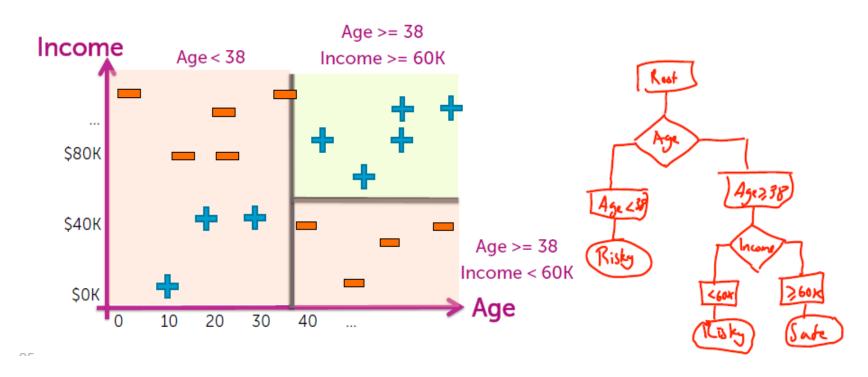
Split on Age >= 38



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



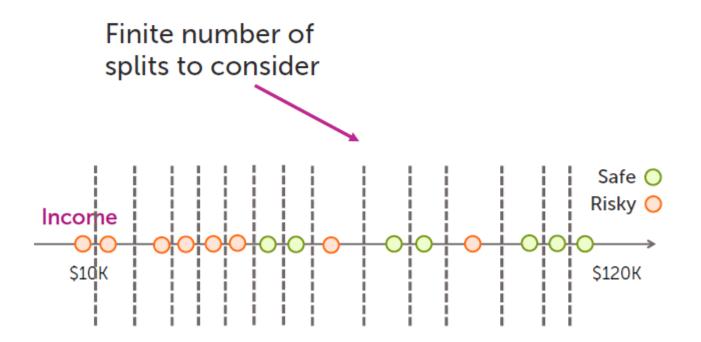
Each split partitions the 2-D space



29/10, 5/11 2019

Finding the best threshold split

Only need to consider mid-points



Finding the best threshold split

Threshold split selection algorithm

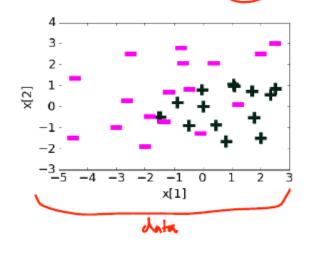
/ brione

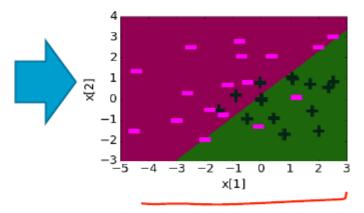
- Step 1: Sort the values of a feature $h_j(\mathbf{x})$: Let $\{\mathbf{v_1}, \mathbf{v_2}, \mathbf{v_3}, ... \mathbf{v_N}\}$ denote sorted values
- Step 2:
 - For i = 1 ... N-1
 - Consider split $t_{i} = (v_i + v_{i+1}) / 2$
 - Compute classification error for treshold split $h_j(\mathbf{x}) >= \mathbf{t}_i$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

Decision trees vs logistic regression

Logistic regression

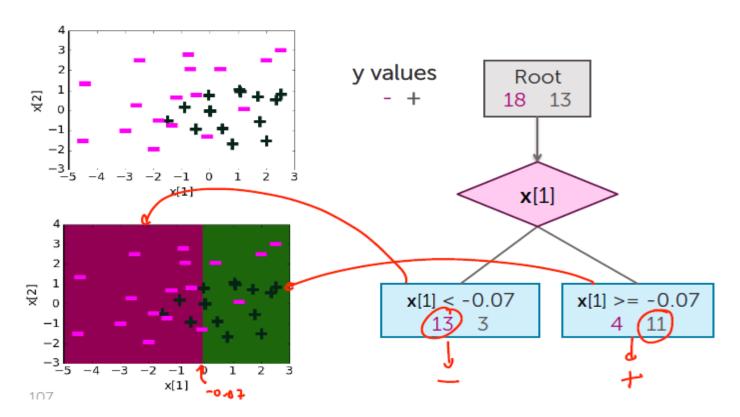
Feature	Value	Weight Learned
$h_0(x)$	1	0.22
$h_1(x)$	x[1]	1.12
$h_2(\mathbf{x})$	x [2]	-1.07





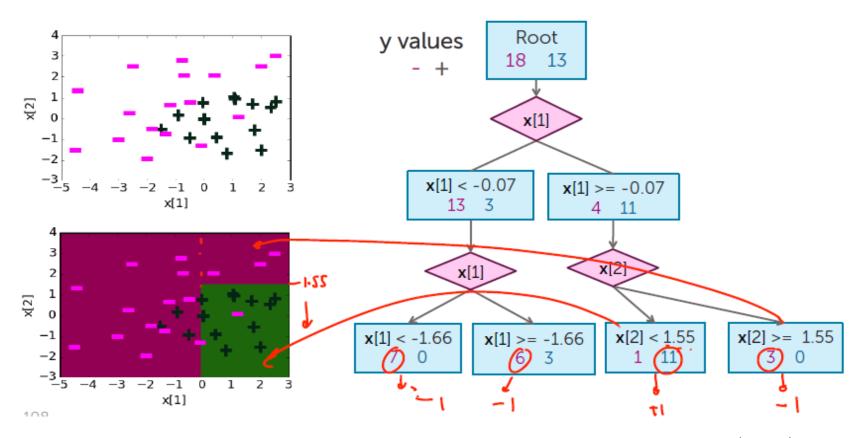
Decision trees vs logistic regression

Depth 1: Split on x[1]



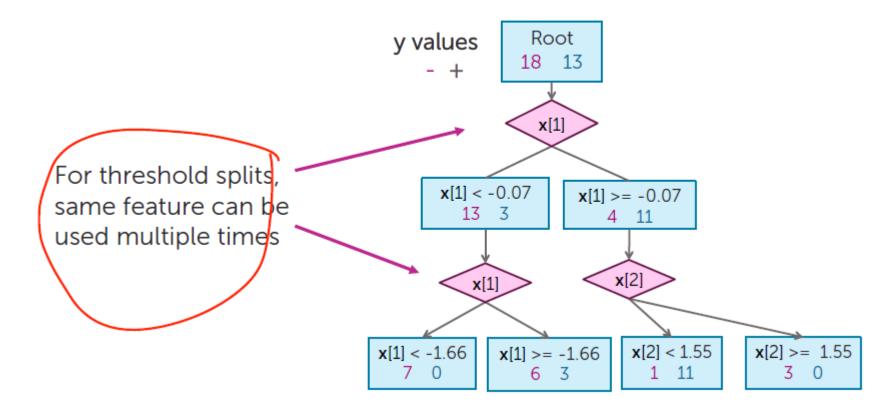
Decision trees vs logistic regression

Depth 2



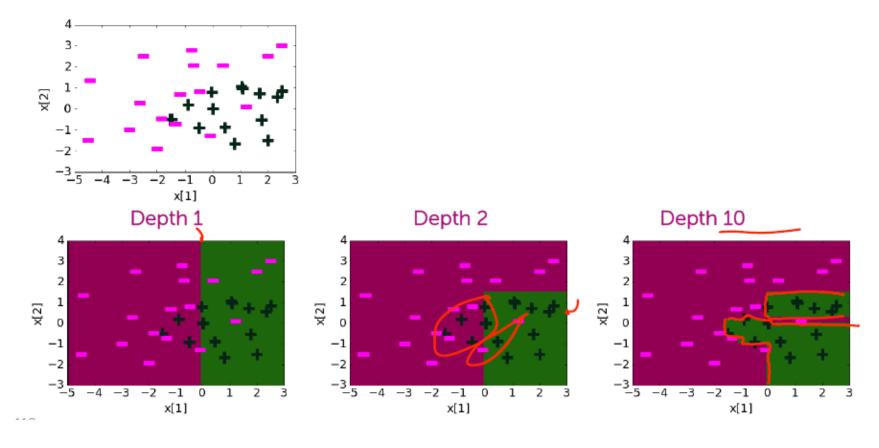
Decision tree vs logistic regression

Threshold split caveat



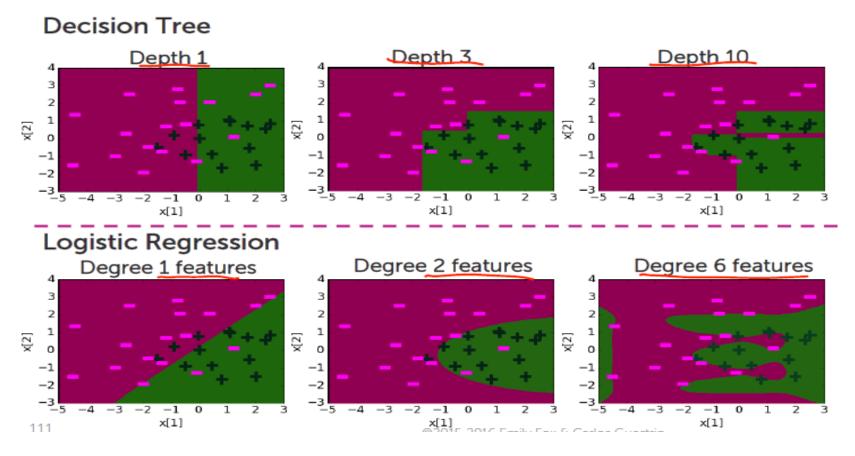
Decision tree vs logistic regression

Decision boundaries



Decision tree vs logistic regression

Comparing decision boundaries



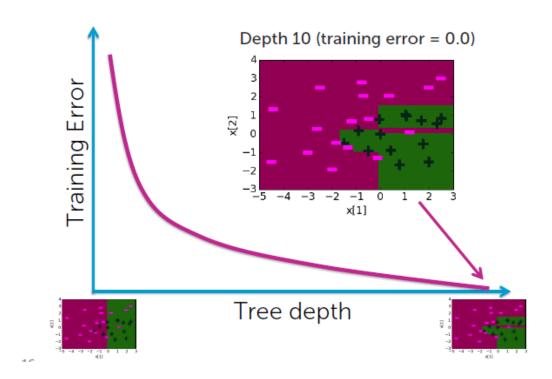
What you can do now

- 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

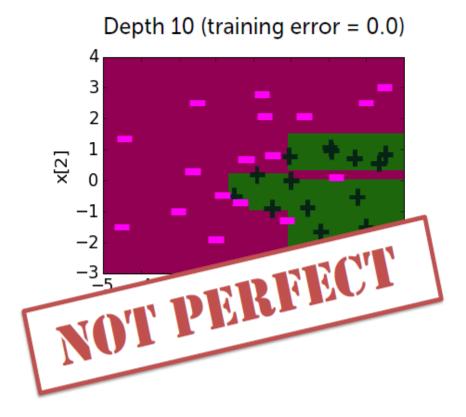
What happens when we increase depth?



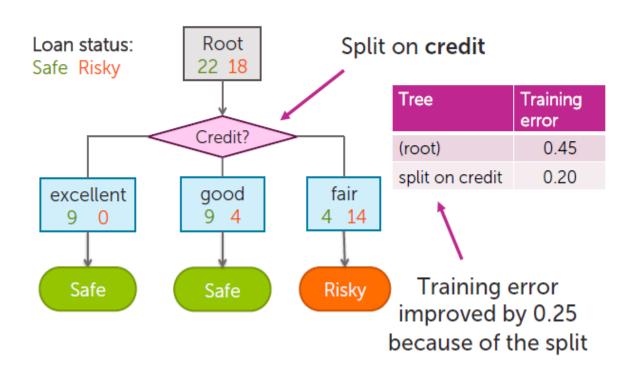
Deeper trees - lower training error



Training error = 0: Is this model perfect?



Why training error reduces with depth?

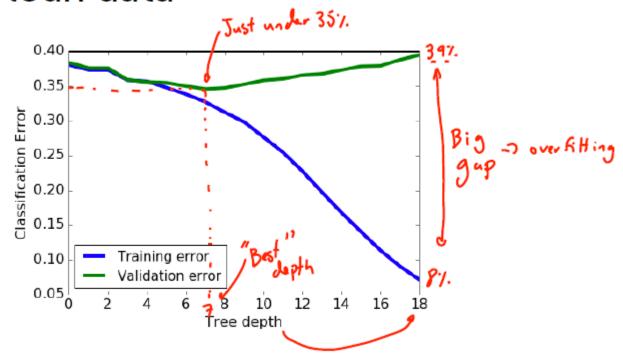


Feature split selection algorithm

- Given a subset of data M (a node in a tree)
- For each feature h_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

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, 13th 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

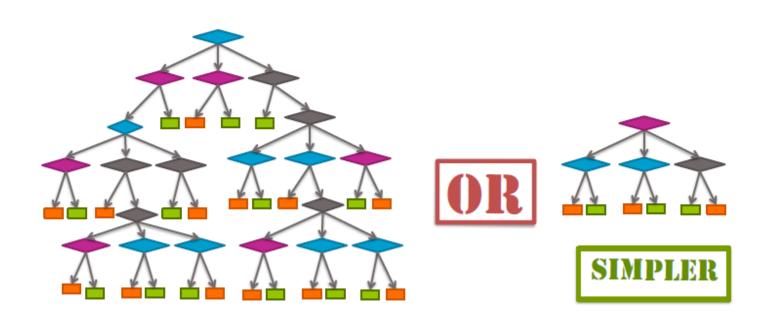
Disease D_3 explains both symptoms S_1 and S_2

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?

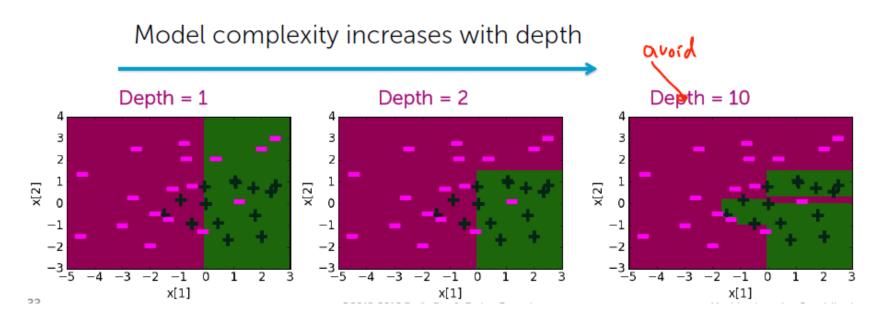


How do we pick simpler trees?

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

Early stopping for learning decision trees

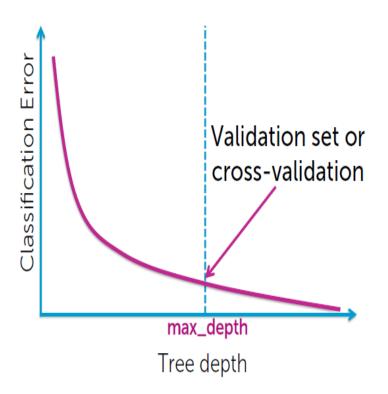
Deeper trees -> Increasing complexity



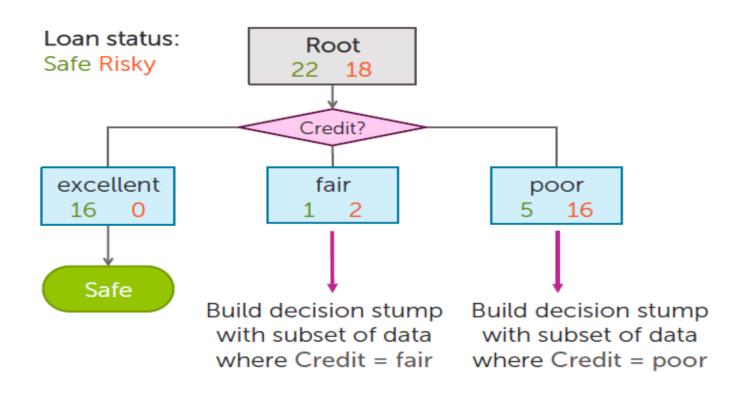
Limit depth of tree

Classification Error Stop tree building when depth = max_depth max_depth Tree depth

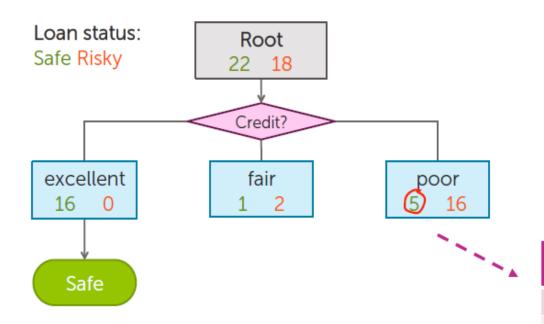
Picking value for max_depth???



Decision tree recursion review



Split selection for credit=poor

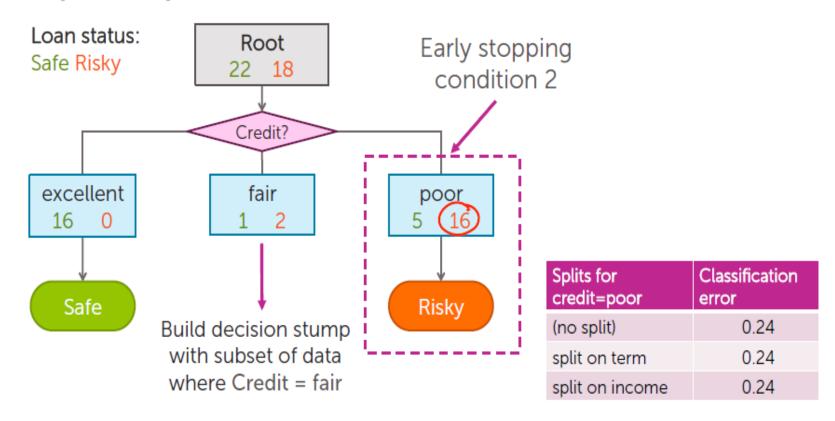


No split improves classification error

→ Stop!

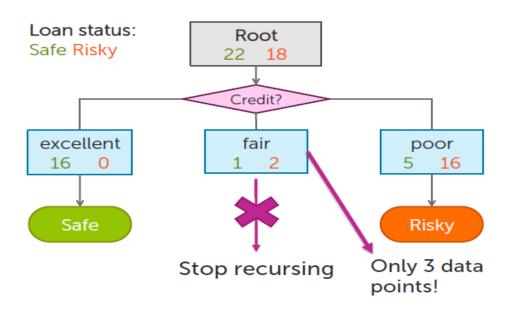
Splits for credit=poor	Classification error
(no split)	0.24
split on term	0.24
split on income	0.24

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

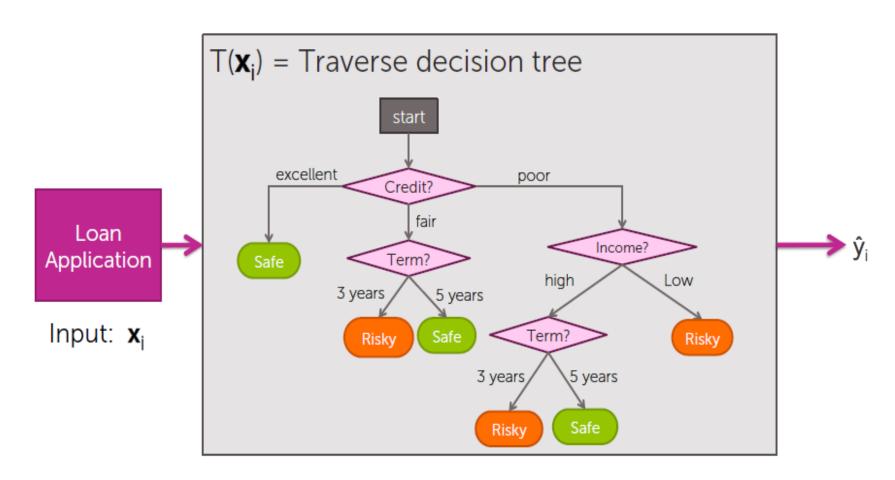
 Majoring
 - Step 4: Otherwise, go to Step 2 & continue (recurse) on this split

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

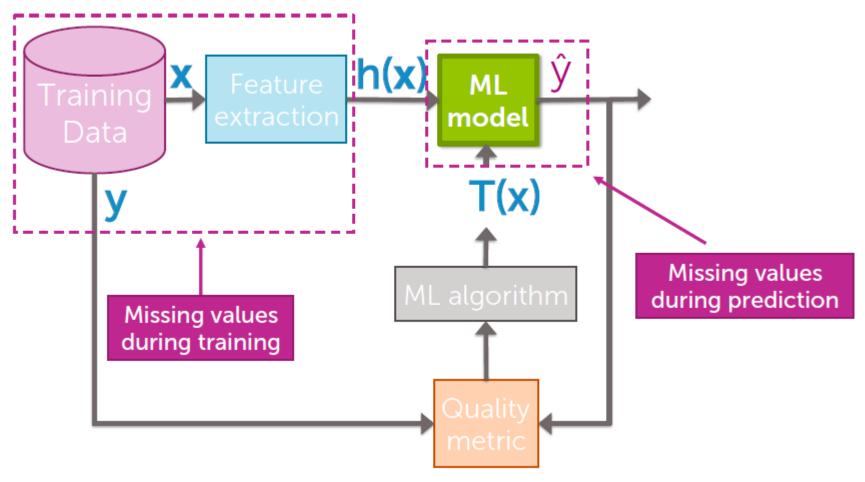
- Training data: Contains "unknown" values
- 2. Predictions: Input at prediction time contains "unknown" values

Loan application
may be
3 or 5 years

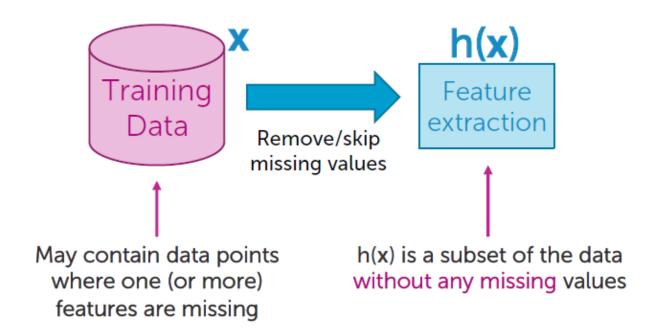
Missing values during predictions

 \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 Q

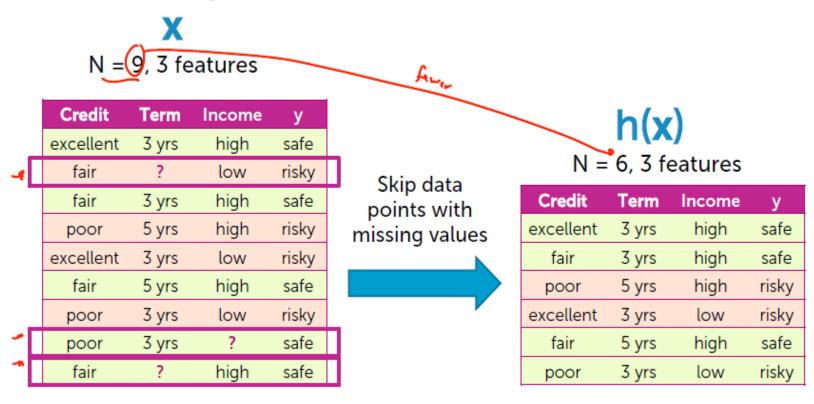
Missing values



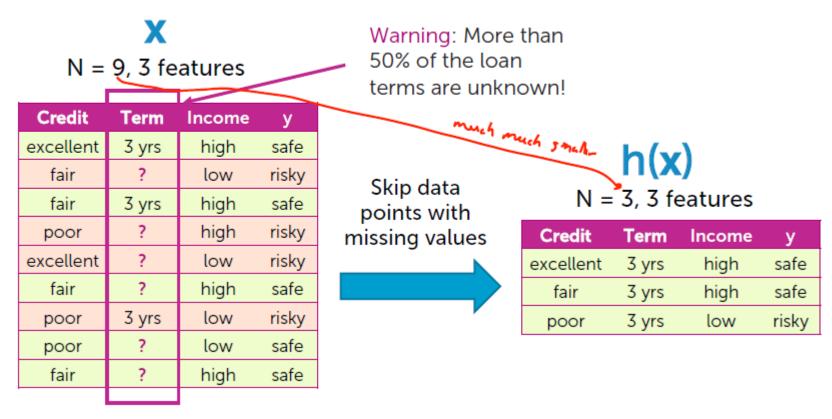
Idea 1: Purification by skipping/removing



Idea 1: Skip data points with missing values

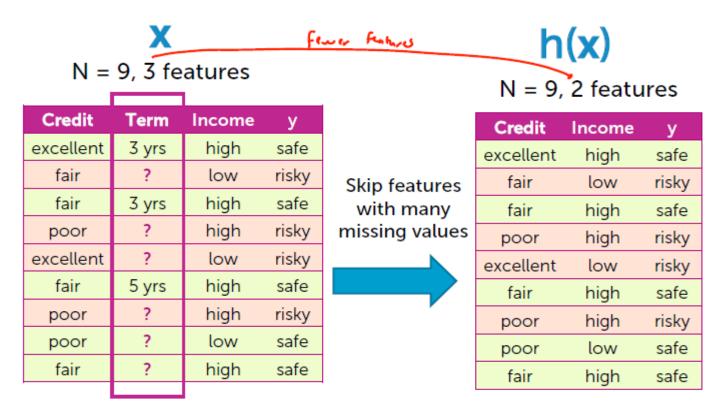


The challenge with Idea 1



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

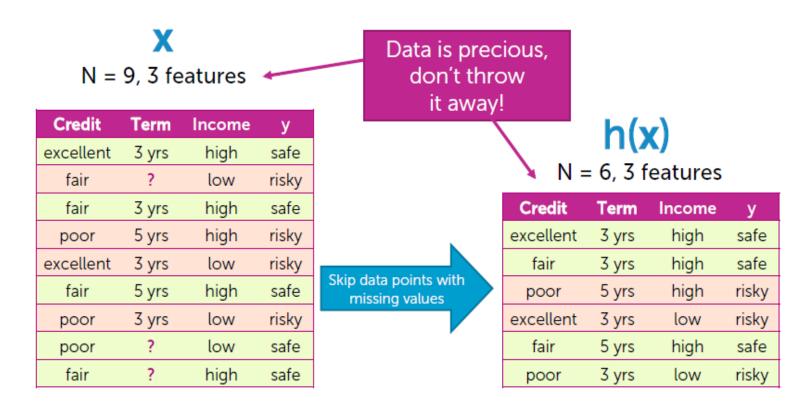
- Easy to understand and implement
- Can be applied to any model (decision trees, logistic regression, linear regression,...)

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



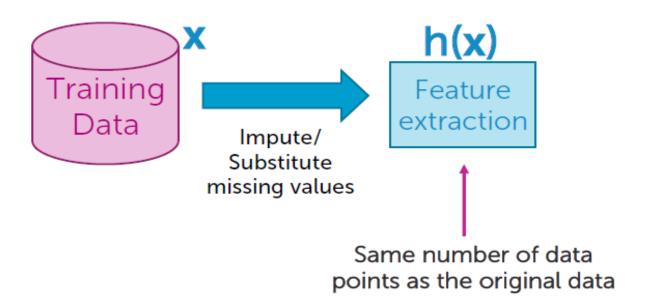
Data is precious

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

29/10, 5/11 2019

Idea 2: Purification by imputing



Idea 2: Imputation/Substitution

N = 9, 3 features

Credit	Term	Income	у
excellent	3 yrs	high	safe
fair	7	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)	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	i c

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

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 yrs 7	3 yrs high ? low 3 yrs high 5 yrs high 3 yrs low 5 yrs high 3 yrs high 7 yrs high 9 low

Impute each feature with missing values:

- Categorical features use mode: Most popular value (mode) of non-missing x_i
- 2. Numerical features use average or median: Average or median value of non-missing x_i

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

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

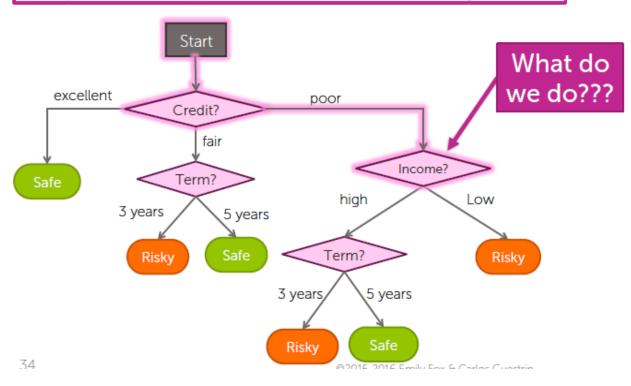
Cons

May result in systematic errors

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

Missing values during prediction: revisited

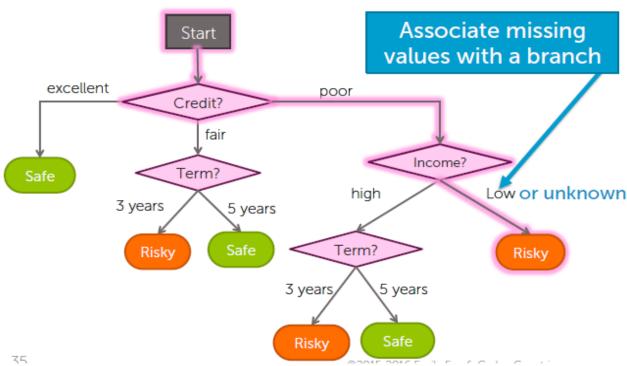
 \mathbf{x}_i = (Credit = poor, Income = ?, Term = 5 years)



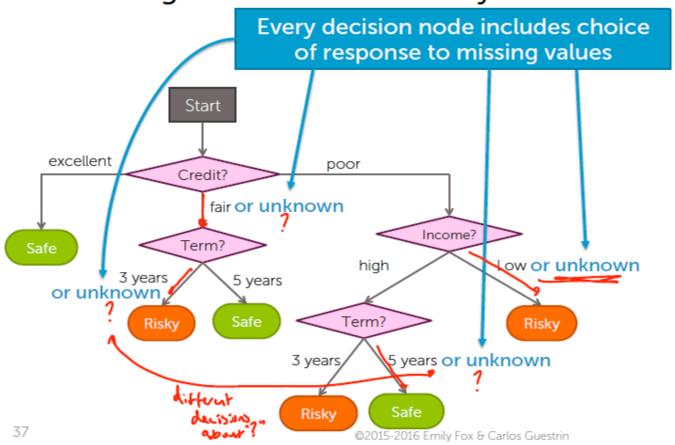
Machine Learning Coopie

Add missing values to the tree definition

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



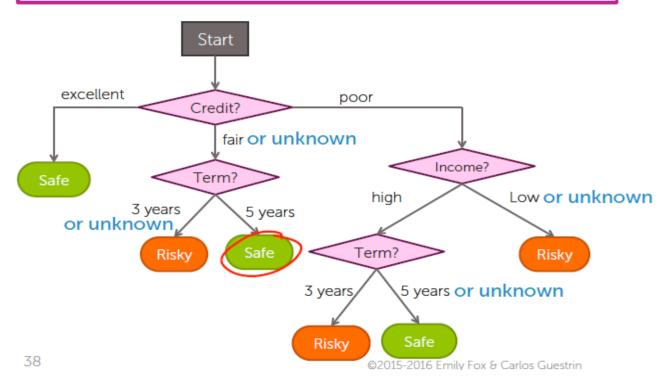
Add missing value choice to every decision node



Machine Lea

Prediction with missing values becomes simple

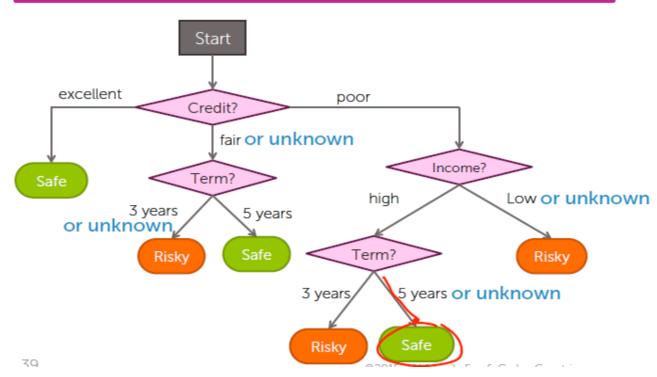
$$\mathbf{x}_i$$
 = (Credit = ?, Income = high, Term = 5 years)



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!

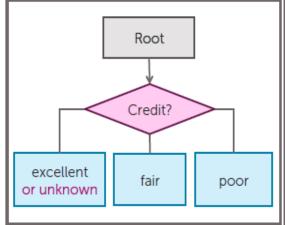
Should missing go left, right, or middle?

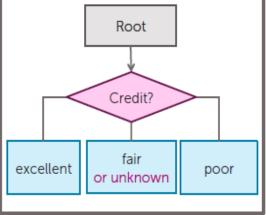
Choose branch that leads to lowest classification error!

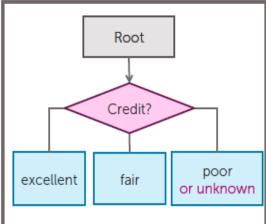
Choice 1: Missing values go with Credit=excellent

Choice 2: Missing values go with Credit=fair

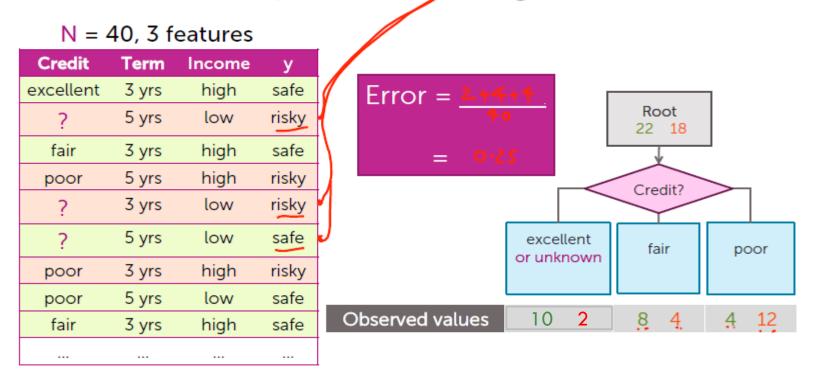
Choice 3: Missing values go with Credit=poor



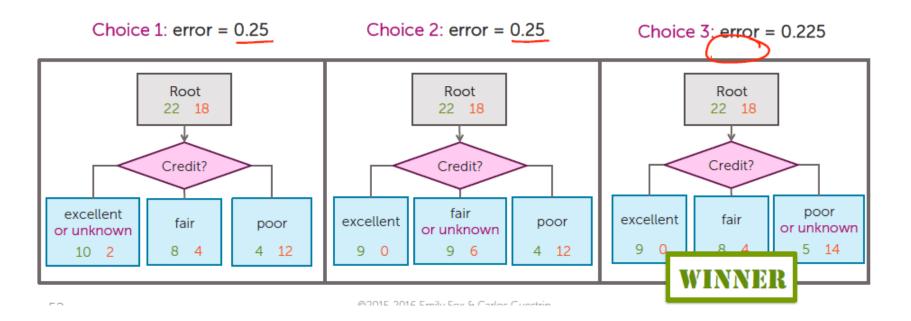




Computing classification error of decision stump with missing data



Use classification error to decide



- Given a subset of data M (a node in a tree)
- For each feature h_i(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_i(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

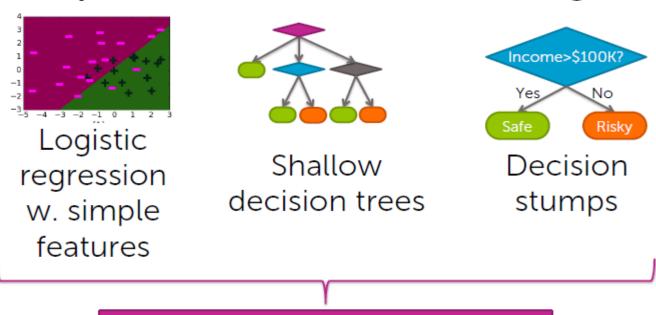
Modify learning algorithm (decision trees) to handle missing data:

- 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!

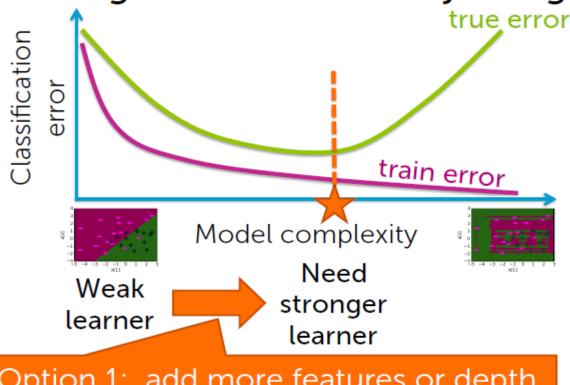


Low variance. Learning is fast!

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)

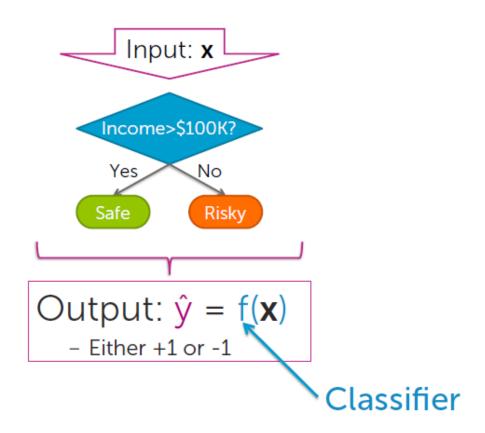


Boosting



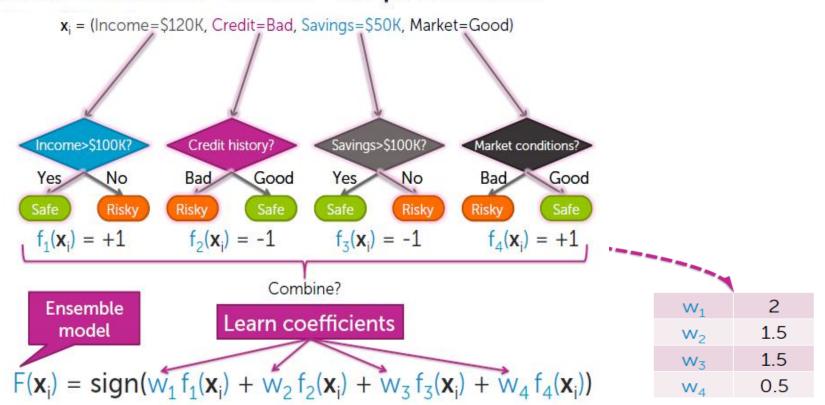
Amazing impact: • simple approach • widely used in industry • wins most Kaggle competitions

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:

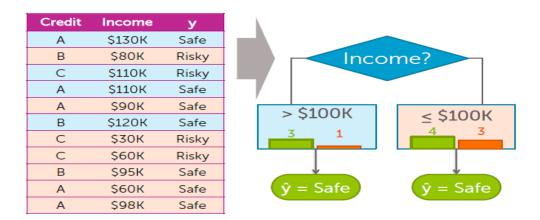
$$\hat{y} = sign\left(\sum_{t=1}^{T} \hat{\mathbf{w}}_t f_t(\mathbf{x})\right)$$

Boosting

Training a classifier

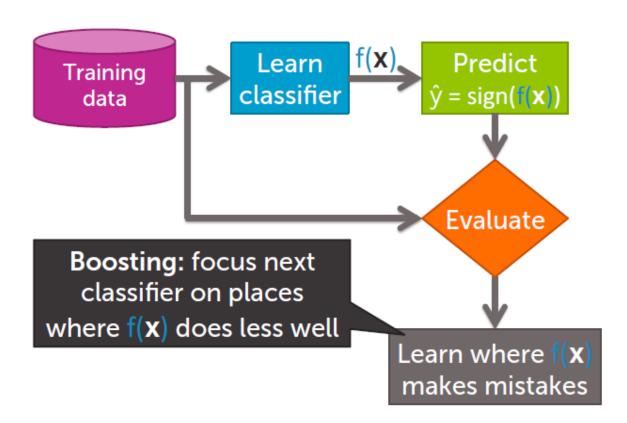


Learning decision stump



Boosting

Boosting = Focus learning on "hard" points



Weighted data

Learning on weighted data:

More weight on "hard" or more important points

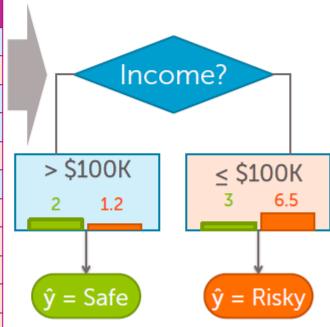
- Weighted dataset:
 - Each \mathbf{x}_i , \mathbf{y}_i weighted by α_i
 - More important point = higher weight α_i
- Learning:
 - Data point j counts as α_i data points
 - E.g., $\alpha_i = 2 \rightarrow$ count point twice

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

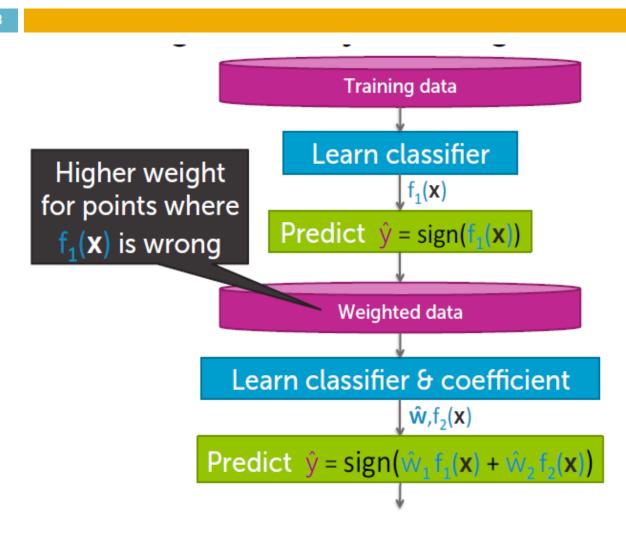
- · Usually, learning from weighted data
 - Data point i counts as α_i data points
- E.g., gradient ascent for logistic regression:

Sum over data points

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

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

Boosting = greedy learning ensembles from data



AdaBoost: learning ensemble

[Freund & Schapire 1999]

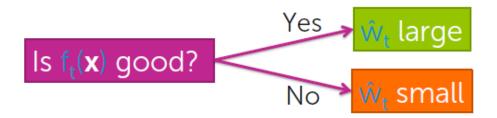
- Start same weight for all points: $\alpha_i = 1/N$
- For t = 1,...,T
 - Learn $f_t(\mathbf{x})$ with data weights α_i
 - Compute coefficient ŵ,
 - Recompute weights α_i

- 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_t



- $f_t(\mathbf{x})$ 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:

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

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 $f_t(x)$

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

$$\frac{1 - weighted_error(f_t)}{weighted_error(f_t)}$$

$$\frac{1 - weighted_error(f_t)}{w$$

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 α_i
- 48

– Compute coefficient \hat{w}_t

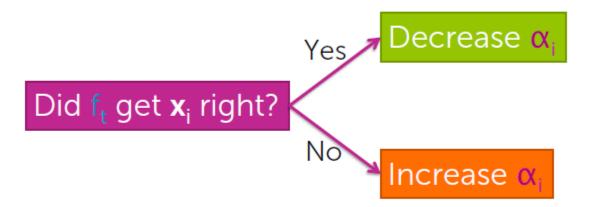
- Recompute weights α_i
- Final model predicts by:

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

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

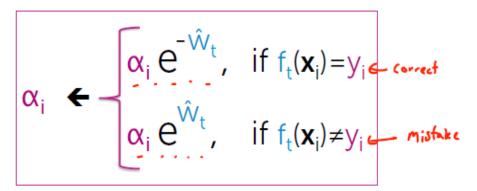
AdaBoost: updating weights α_i

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



AdaBoost: updating weights α_i

AdaBoost: Formula for updating weights α_i



	$f_t(\mathbf{x}_i) = y_i$?	\hat{W}_{t}	Multiply α_i by	Implication
Yes	Cornet	2-3	L = 0.1	Decrese importance of Xi,y;
	Correct	0	e° =1	keep importance the same
Did f _t get x _i right?	Mistake	2.3	$e^{2.3} = 9.18$	Increasing importance of xi, y:
No	Mis take	0	- D	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 α_i
 - Compute coefficient \hat{w}_t
 - Recompute weights α_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 α_i

If \mathbf{x}_i often mistake, weight α_i gets very large

If \mathbf{x}_i often correct, weight α_i gets very small

Can cause numerical instability after many iterations

Normalize weights to add up to 1 after every iteration

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

Χį

AdaBoost: learning ensemble

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

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

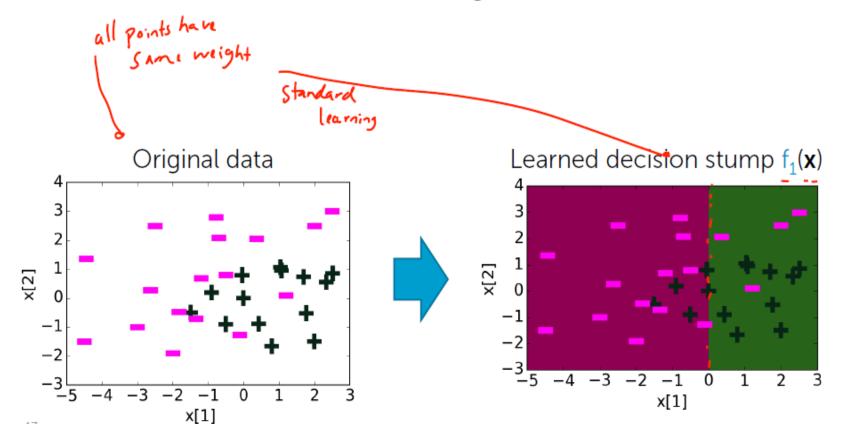
- For t = 1,...,T
 - Learn $f_{+}(\mathbf{x})$ with data weights α_{i}
 - Compute coefficient \hat{w}_t
 - Recompute weights α_i
 - Normalize weights α_i
- Final model predicts by:

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

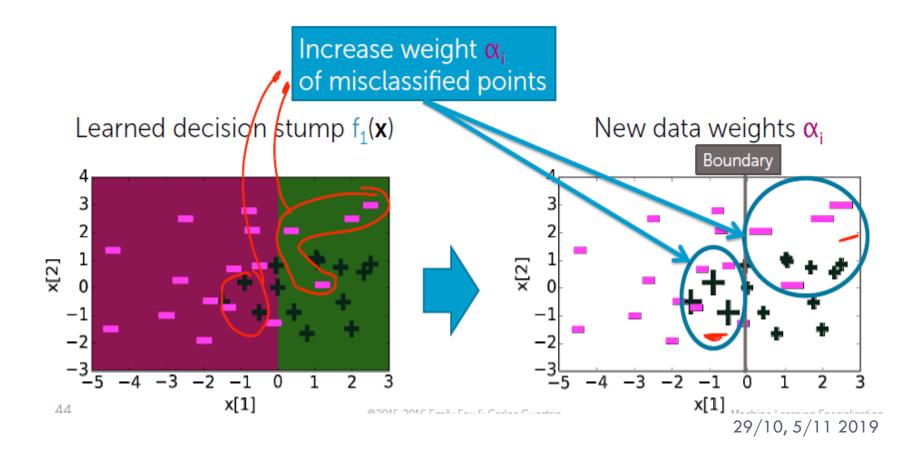
$$\alpha_{i} \leftarrow \begin{cases} \alpha_{i} e^{-\hat{W}_{t}}, & \text{if } f_{t}(\mathbf{x}_{i}) = y_{i} \\ \alpha_{i} e^{\hat{W}_{t}}, & \text{if } f_{t}(\mathbf{x}_{i}) \neq y_{i} \end{cases}$$

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

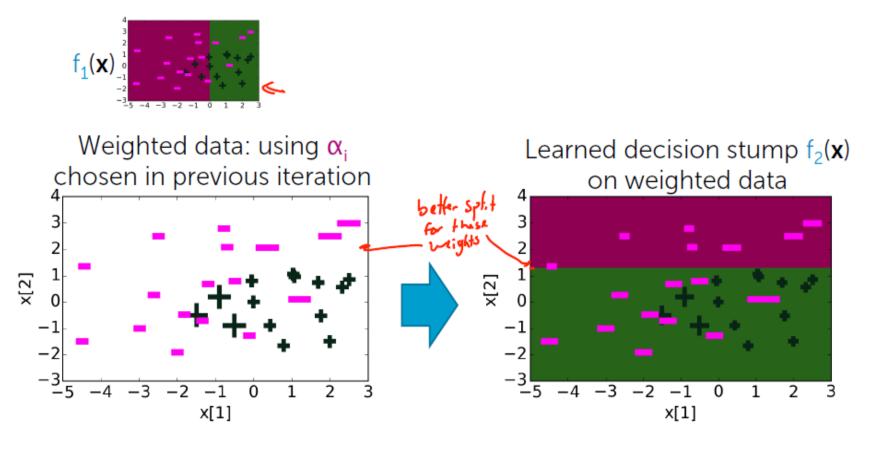
t=1: Just learn a classifier on original data



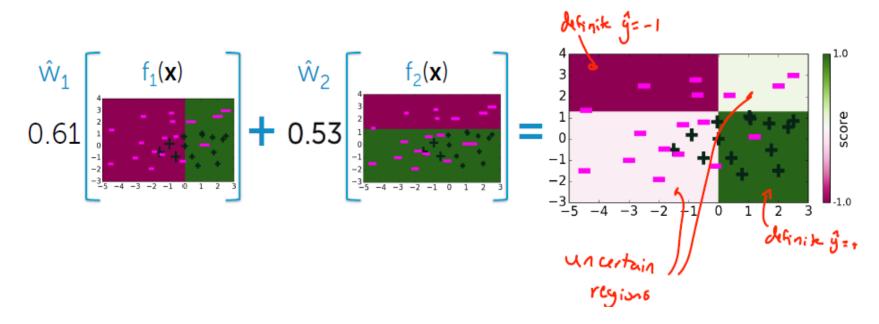
Updating weights α_i



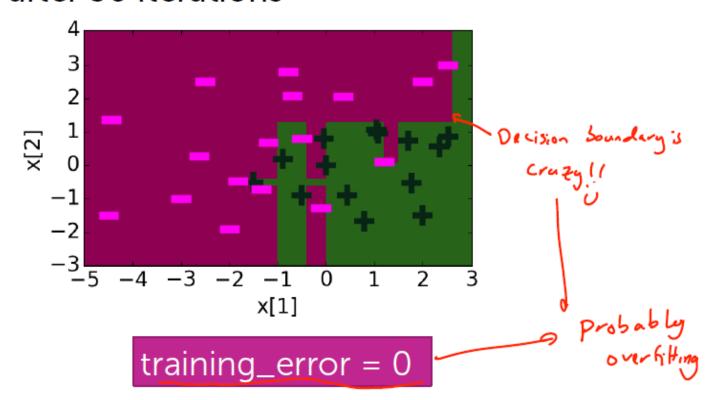
t=2: Learn classifier on weighted data



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 α_{i}
 - Compute coefficient ŵ_t
 - Recompute weights α_i
 - Normalize weights α_i
- Final model predicts by:

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

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

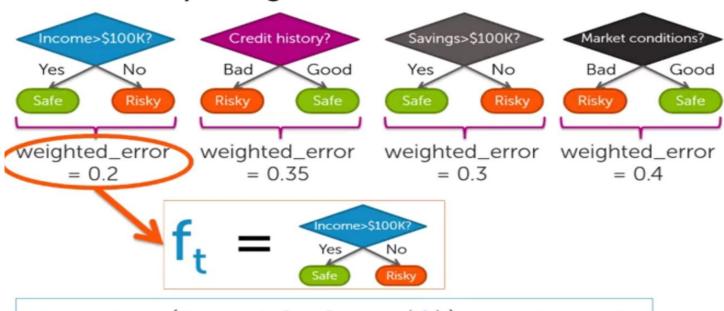
$$\alpha_i \leftarrow \frac{\alpha_i}{\sum_{j=1}^N \alpha_j}$$

- 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 α_i
 - Compute coefficient ŵ_t
 - Recompute weights α_i
 - Normalize weights α_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 $f_t(x)$

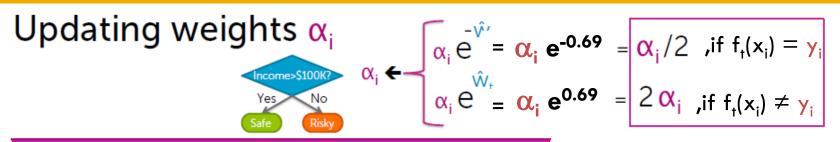
Consider splitting on each feature:



$$\hat{w}_t = \frac{1}{2} \ln \left(\frac{1 - weighted_error(f_t)}{weighted_error(f_t)} \right) = 0.69$$

- 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 α_i
 - Compute coefficient ŵ_t
 - Recompute weights α_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
Α	\$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
C	\$30K	Risky	Risky	3	1.5
C	\$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)*

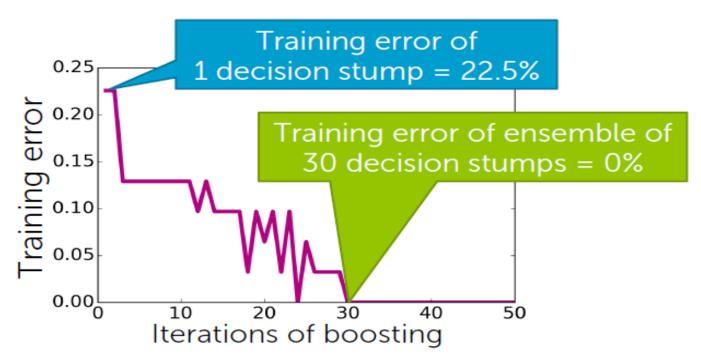


Yes! Schapire (1990)



Boosting

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



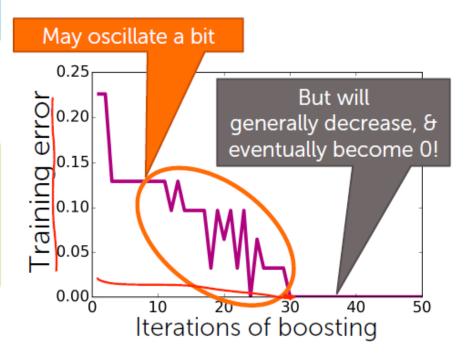
Boosted decision stumps on toy dataset

AdaBoost Theorem

Under some technical conditions...



Training error of boosted classifier → 0 as T→∞



Condition of AdaBoost Theorem

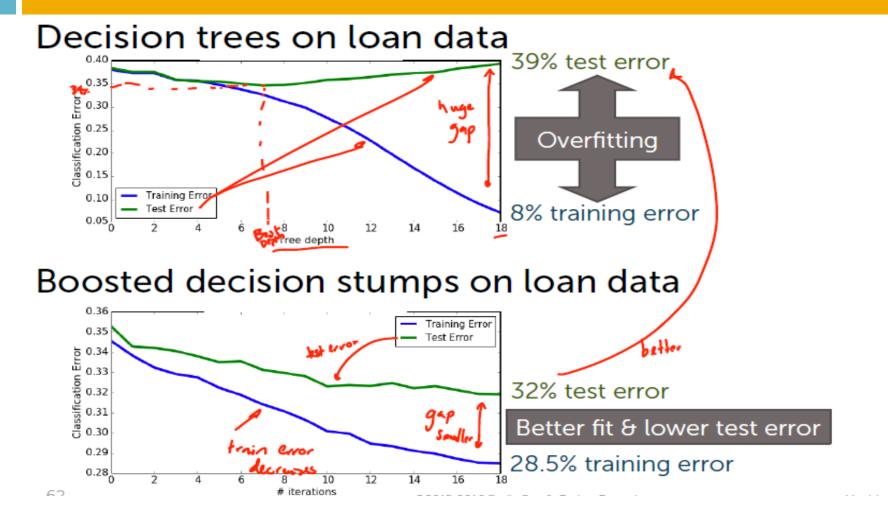
Under some technical conditions...



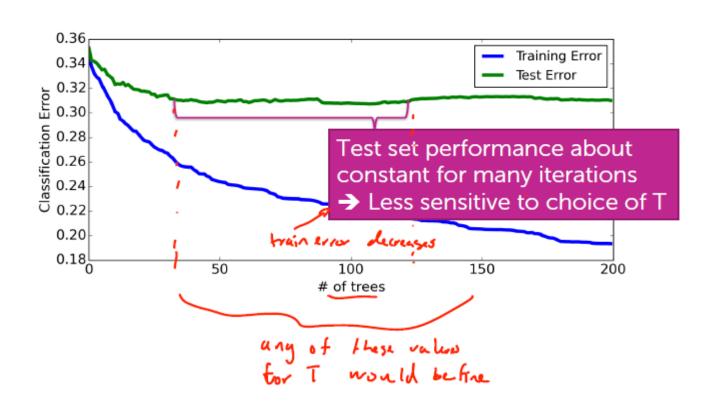
Training error of boosted classifier → 0 as T→∞

Condition = At every t,
can find a weak learner with
weighted_error(f_t) < 0.5

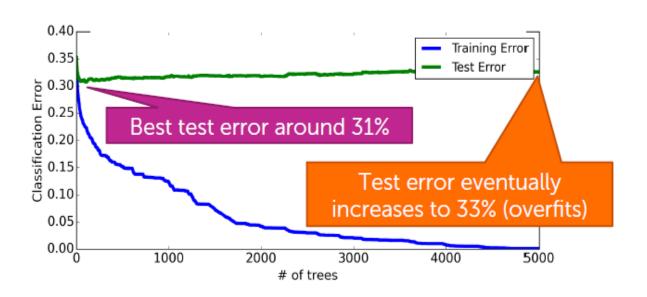
Extreme example:
No classifier can
separate a +1
on top of -1
on top of -1
yields great training error



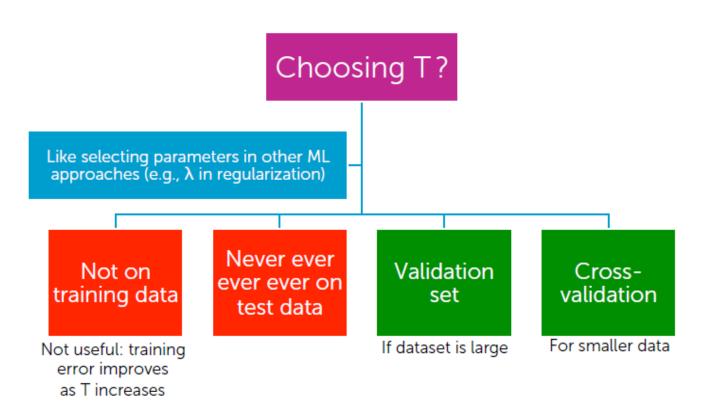
Boosting tends to be robust to overfitting



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