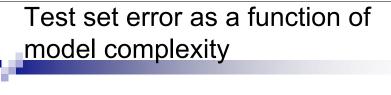


OK... now we'll learn to pick those darned parameters... Selecting features (or basis functions) Linear regression Naïve Bayes Logistic regression Selecting parameter value Prior strength Naïve Bayes, linear and logistic regression Regularization strength Naïve Bayes, linear and logistic regression Decision trees MaxpChance, depth, number of leaves Boosting Number of rounds More generally, these are called **Model Selection** Problems Today: Describe basic idea □ Introduce very important concept for tuning learning approaches: Cross-Validation ©2005-2007 Carlos Guestrin







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Simple greedy model selection algorithm

- Pick a dictionary of features
 - □ e.g., polynomials for linear regression
- Greedy heuristic:
 - □ Start from empty (or simple) set of features $F_0 = \emptyset$
 - □ Run learning algorithm for current set of features F_t
 - Obtain h_t
 - ☐ Select next best feature X_i
 - e.g., X_j that results in lowest training error learner when learning with $F_t \cup \{X_j\}$
 - $\Box F_{t+1} \leftarrow F_t \cup \{X_i\}$
 - □ Recurse

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Greedy model selection

- М
 - Applicable in many settings:
 - □ Linear regression: Selecting basis functions
 - □ Naïve Bayes: Selecting (independent) features P(X_i|Y)
 - □ Logistic regression: Selecting features (basis functions)
 - □ Decision trees: Selecting leaves to expand
- Only a heuristic!
 - □ But, sometimes you can prove something cool about it
 - e.g., [Krause & Guestrin '05]: Near-optimal in some settings that include Naïve Bayes
- There are many more elaborate methods out there

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Simple greedy model selection algorithm

- Greedy heuristic:
 - □ ..
 - □ Select next best feature X_i
 - e.g., X_j that results in lowest training error learner when learning with F_t ∪ {X_i}
 - $\Box F_{i+1} \leftarrow F_i \cup \{X_i\}$ $\Box Recurse$
 - When do you stop???
 - When training error is low enough?

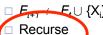
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Simple greedy model selection algorithm



Select next best feature X_i

• e.g., X_j that results in lowest training error learner when learning with $F_t \cup \{X_i\}$



When do you stop???

- When training error is low enough?
- When test set error is low enough?

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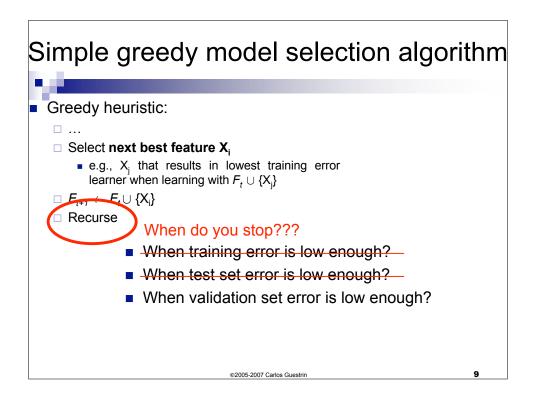
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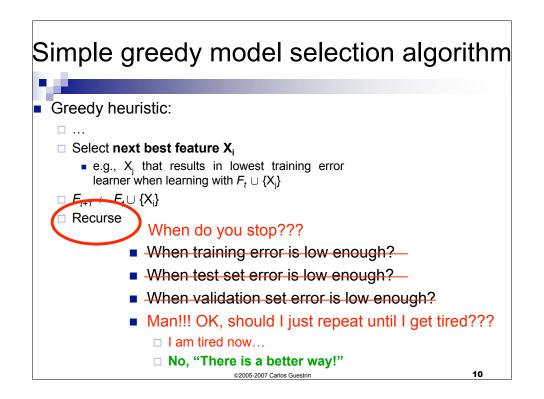
Validation set



- Thus far: Given a dataset, **randomly** split it into two parts:
 - $\quad \ \Box \ \, \text{Training data} \{ \boldsymbol{x}_1, \ldots, \ \boldsymbol{x}_{\text{Ntrain}} \}$
 - □ Test data $\{\mathbf{x}_1, ..., \mathbf{x}_{\text{Ntest}}\}$
- But Test data must always remain independent!
 - $\hfill \square$ Never ever ever learn on test data, including for model selection
- Given a dataset, randomly split it into three parts:
 - □ Training data $\{\mathbf{x}_1, ..., \mathbf{x}_{Ntrain}\}$
 - \square Validation data $\{\mathbf{x}_1, ..., \mathbf{x}_{Nvalid}\}$
 - □ Test data $\{\mathbf{x}_1, ..., \mathbf{x}_{Ntest}\}$
- Use validation data for tuning learning algorithm, e.g., model selection
 - □ Save test data for very final evaluation

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(LOO) Leave-one-out cross validation



- Consider a validation set with 1 example:
 - □ D training data
 - □ D\i training data with *i* th data point moved to validation set
- Learn classifier h_{D\i} with D\i dataset
- Estimate true error as:
 - \Box 0 if $h_{D\setminus i}$ classifies *i* th data point correctly
 - \Box 1 if $h_{D_{ij}}$ is wrong about *i* th data point
 - Seems really bad estimator, but wait!
- LOO cross validation: Average over all data points i:
 - \Box For each data point you leave out, learn a new classifier h_{Di}
 - Estimate error as:

$$error_{LOO} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \mathbb{1} \left(h_{\mathcal{D} \setminus i}(\mathbf{x}^i) \neq y^i \right)$$

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LOO cross validation is (almost) unbiased estimate of true error!



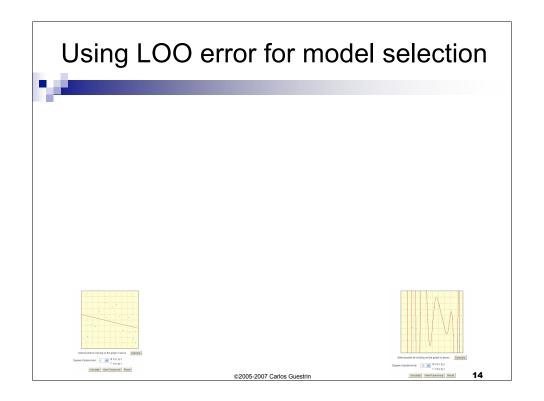
- When computing **LOOCV** error, we only use *m-1* data points
 - □ So it's not estimate of true error of learning with *m* data points!
 - ☐ Usually pessimistic, though learning with less data typically gives worse answer
- LOO is almost unbiased!
 - \Box Let $error_{true,m-1}$ be true error of learner when you only get m-1 data points
 - □ In homework, you'll prove that LOO is unbiased estimate of error_{true.m-1}:

$$E_{\mathcal{D}}[error_{LOO}] = error_{true.m-1}$$

- Great news!
 - □ Use LOO error for model selection!!!

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Simple greedy model selection algorithm Greedy heuristic: Select next best feature X_i e.g., X_j that results in lowest training error learner when learning with F_t ∪ {X_j} F(x) ← E ∪ {X_i} Recurse When do you stop??? When training error is low enough? When test set error is low enough? When validation set error is low enough? STOP WHEN error_{LOO} IS LOW!!!



Computational cost of LOO



- Suppose you have 100,000 data points
- You implemented a great version of your learning algorithm
 - Learns in only 1 second
- Computing LOO will take about 1 day!!!
 - ☐ If you have to do for each choice of basis functions, it will take fooooooreeeve'!!!
- Solution 1: Preferred, but not usually possible
 - ☐ Find a cool trick to compute LOO (e.g., see homework)

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Solution 2 to complexity of computing LOO:

(More typical) Use k-fold cross validation



- Randomly divide training data into k equal parts
 - \square $D_1,...,D_k$
- For each i
 - □ Learn classifier $h_{D \setminus D_i}$ using data point not in D_i

• k-fold cross validation error is average over data splits:

$$error_{k-fold} = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k} error_{\mathcal{D}_i}$$

- k-fold cross validation properties:
 - Much faster to compute than LOO
 - □ More (pessimistically) biased using much less data, only m(k-1)/k
 - □ Usually, k = 10 ②

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Regularization - Revisited



- Model selection 1: Greedy
 - □ Pick subset of features that have yield low LOO error
- Model selection 2: Regularization
 - ☐ Include all possible features!
 - □ Penalize "complicated" hypothesis

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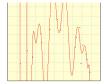
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Regularization in linear regression



Overfitting usually leads to very large parameter choices, e.g.:

 $-1.1 + 4,700,910.7 X - 8,585,638.4 X^2 + ...$



■ Regularized least-squares (a.k.a. ridge regression), for $\lambda \ge 0$:

$$\mathbf{w}^* = \arg\min_{\mathbf{w}} \sum_{j} \left(t(\mathbf{x}_j) - \sum_{i} w_i h_i(\mathbf{x}_j) \right)^2 + \lambda \sum_{i=1}^k w_i^2$$

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Other regularization examples

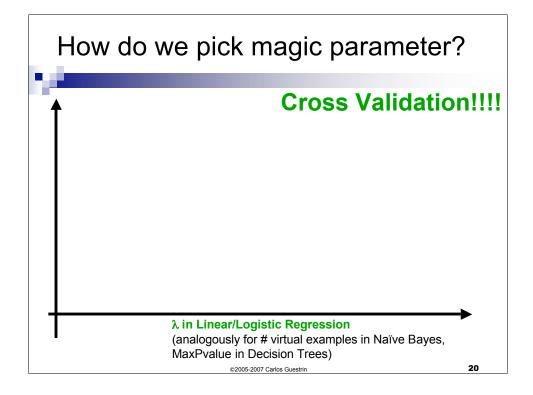


☐ Maximize data likelihood minus penalty for large parameters

$$\arg\max_{\mathbf{w}} \sum_{j} \ln P(y^{j}|\mathbf{x}^{j},\mathbf{w}) - \lambda \sum_{i} w_{i}^{2}$$

- □ Biases towards small parameter values
- Naïve Bayes regularization
 - □ **Prior** over likelihood of features
 - □ Biases away from zero probability outcomes
- Decision tree regularization
 - ☐ Many possibilities, e.g., Chi-Square test and MaxPvalue parameter
 - □ Biases towards smaller trees

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Regularization and Bayesian learning



$$p(\mathbf{w} \mid Y, \mathbf{X}) \propto P(Y \mid \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}) p(\mathbf{w})$$

- We already saw that regularization for logistic regression corresponds to MAP for zero mean, Gaussian prior for w
- Similar interpretation for other learning approaches:
 - □ Linear regression: Also zero mean, Gaussian prior for w
 - □ **Naïve Bayes**: Directly defined as prior over parameters
 - □ **Decision trees**: Trickier to define... but we'll get back to this

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Occam's Razor



- - William of Ockham (1285-1349) Principle of Parsimony:
 - □ "One should not increase, beyond what is necessary, the number of entities required to explain anything."
 - Regularization penalizes for "complex explanations"
 - Alternatively (but pretty much the same), use Minimum Description Length (MDL) Principle:
 - □ minimize *length*(misclassifications) + *length*(hypothesis)
 - length(misclassifications) e.g., #wrong training examples
 - length(hypothesis) e.g., size of decision tree

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Minimum Description Length Principle



MDL prefers small hypothesis that fit data well:

$$h_{MDL} = \arg\min_{h} L_{C_1}(\mathcal{D} \mid h) + L_{C_2}(h)$$

- \Box L_{C1}(D|h) description length of data under code C₁ given h
 - Only need to describe points that *h* doesn't explain (classify correctly)
- \Box L_{C2}(h) description length of hypothesis h
- Decision tree example
 - \Box L_{C1}(D|h) #bits required to describe data given h
 - If all points correctly classified, L_{C1}(D|h) = 0
 - \Box L_{C2}(h) #bits necessary to encode tree
 - ☐ Trade off quality of classification with tree size

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Bayesian interpretation of MDL Principle



■ MAP estimate $h_{MAP} = \underset{h}{\operatorname{argmax}} [P(\mathcal{D} \mid h)P(h)]$ $= \underset{h}{\operatorname{argmax}} [\log_2 P(\mathcal{D} \mid h) + \log_2 P(h)]$ $= \underset{h}{\operatorname{argmin}} [-\log_2 P(\mathcal{D} \mid h) - \log_2 P(h)]$

- Information theory fact:
 - \square Smallest code for event of probability *p* requires $-\log_2 p$ bits
- MDL interpretation of MAP:
 - \Box -log₂ P(D|h) length of D under hypothesis h
 - \Box -log₂ P(h) length of hypothesis h (there is hidden parameter here)
 - ☐ MAP prefers simpler hypothesis:
 - minimize length(misclassifications) + length(hypothesis)
- In general, Bayesian approach usually looks for simpler hypothesis – Acts as a regularizer

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What you need to know about Model Selection, Regularization and Cross Validation



- Cross validation
 - ☐ (Mostly) Unbiased estimate of true error
 - □ LOOCV is great, but hard to compute
 - □ *k*-fold much more practical
 - □ Use for selecting parameter values!
- Model selection
 - □ Search for a model with low cross validation error
- Regularization
 - □ Penalizes for complex models
 - □ Select parameter with cross validation
 - □ Really a Bayesian approach
- Minimum description length
 - □ Information theoretic interpretation of regularization
 - □ Relationship to MAP

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Logistic regression



■ P(Y|X) represented by:
$$P(Y=1 \mid x,W) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(w_0 + \sum_i w_i x_i)}}$$
 = $g(w_0 + \sum_i w_i x_i)$ = Learning rule – MLE:

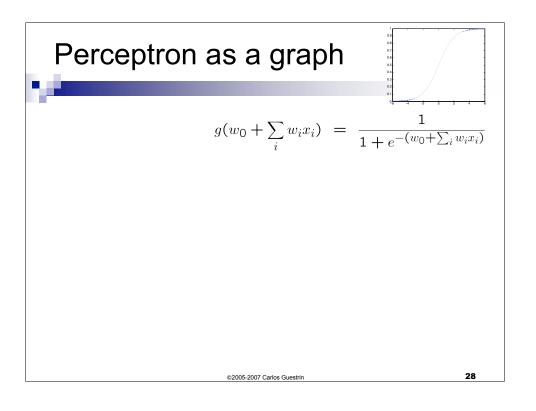
$$\frac{\partial \ell(W)}{\partial w_i} = \sum_j x_i^j [y^j - P(Y^j = 1 \mid x^j, W)]$$
$$= \sum_j x_i^j [y^j - g(w_0 + \sum_i w_i x_i^j)]$$

$$w_i \leftarrow w_i + \eta \sum_j x_i^j \delta^j$$

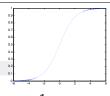
$$\delta^j = y^j - g(w_0 + \sum_i w_i x_i^j)$$
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Sigmoid
$$g(w_0 + \sum_i w_i x_i) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(w_0 + \sum_i w_i x_i)}}$$

$$w_0 = 2, w_1 = 1 \qquad w_0 = 0, w_1 = 1 \qquad w_0 = 0, w_1 = 0.5$$



Linear perceptron classification region



$$g(w_0 + \sum_i w_i x_i) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(w_0 + \sum_i w_i x_i)}}$$

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Optimizing the perceptron



Trained to minimize sum-squared error

$$\ell(W) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j} [y^{j} - g(w_{0} + \sum_{i} w_{i} x_{i}^{j})]^{2}$$

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Derivative of sigmoid



$$\frac{\partial \ell(W)}{\partial w_i} = -\sum_{j} [y^j - g(w_0 + \sum_{i} w_i x_i^j)] \ x_i^j \ g'(w_0 + \sum_{i} w_i x_i^j)$$
$$g(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}}$$

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The perceptron learning rule



$$w_i \leftarrow w_i + \eta \sum_j x_i^j \delta^j$$

$$\delta^j = [y^j - g(w_0 + \sum_i w_i x_i^j)] g^j (1 - g^j)$$

$$g^j = g(w_0 + \sum_i w_i x_i^j)$$

Compare to MLE:

$$w_i \leftarrow w_i + \eta \sum_j x_i^j \delta^j$$
 $\delta^j = [y^j - g(w_0 + \sum_i w_i x_i^j)]$

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Percepton, linear classification, Boolean functions

- ١,
- Can learn $x_1 \lor x_2$
- Can learn $x_1 \wedge x_2$
- Can learn any conjunction or disjunction

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Percepton, linear classification, Boolean functions

- Can learn majority
- Can perceptrons do everything?

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Going beyond linear classification



Solving the XOR problem

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Hidden layer



- Perceptron: $out(\mathbf{x}) = g(w_0 + \sum_i w_i x_i)$
- 1-hidden layer: $out(\mathbf{x}) = g\left(w_0 + \sum_k w_k g(w_0^k + \sum_i w_i^k x_i)\right)$

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