

# Introducción al aprendizaje automático

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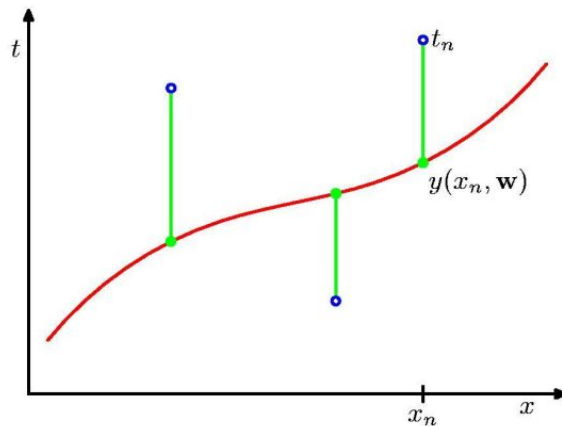
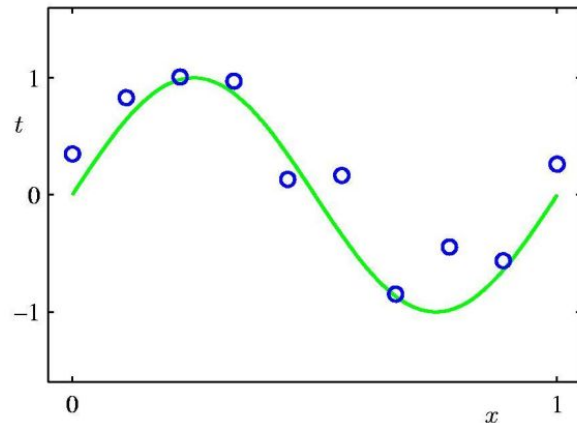
#3. Funciones de costo y optimización. Árboles de decisión

# Regresión polinomial

- En verde se ilustra la función "verdadera" (inaccesible)
- Las muestras son uniformes en  $x$  y poseen ruido en  $y$
- Utilizaremos una **función de costo** (error cuadrático) que mida el error en la predicción de  $y$  mediante  $y(x, \mathbf{w})$

$$E(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^N \{y(x_n, \mathbf{w}) - t_n\}^2$$

$$y(x, \mathbf{w}) = w_0 + w_1x + w_2x^2 + \dots + w_Mx^M = \sum_{j=0}^M w_jx^j$$



# Regresión polinomial

- Función de predicción:  $y(x; w) = \sum_{j=0}^M w_j x^j = w^T \tilde{x}$ ,  $\tilde{x} = (1, x, \dots, x^M)^T$
- Función de costo:  $L(w) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=0}^N [y_n - y(x; w)]^2$

$$\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_N \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^N, \quad \mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{x}_1^T \\ \vdots \\ \tilde{x}_N^T \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times (M+1)}, \quad \mathbf{w} = \begin{bmatrix} w_0 \\ \vdots \\ w_M \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{(M+1)}$$

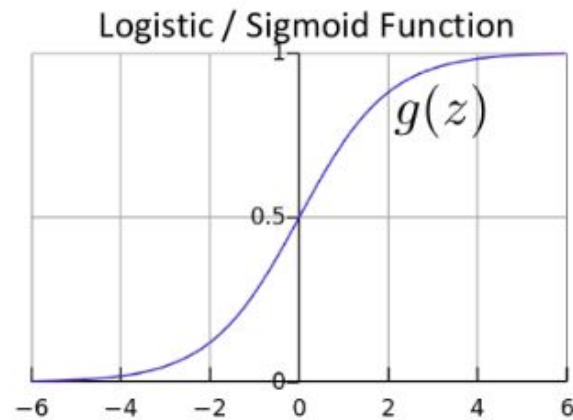
$$L(w) = (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w})^T (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}) \Rightarrow \mathbf{w}^* = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$$

$$L(w) = (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w})^T (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}) + \lambda \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w} \Rightarrow \mathbf{w}^* = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$$

# Regresión logística

- Datos  $\{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_N, y_N)\}$ , con  $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $y_i \in \{0, 1\}$
- Modelo:  $p(y=1|x)=h_w(x)$

$$h_w(x) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-w^T x)}$$




- Función de costo

$$L(w) = - \sum_{i=1}^N y_i \log(h_w(x_i)) + (1 - y_i) \log(1 - h_w(x_i))$$

- $h_w(x)$  no lineal  $\rightarrow$  no admite solución en forma cerrada

# Optimización y aprendizaje

- Un problema típico en ML se puede escribir como:

$$L(w) = \sum_{i=1}^N \ell(y_i, f_w(x_i)) + \lambda R(w)$$


costo de predicción del par  $(x_i, y_i)$

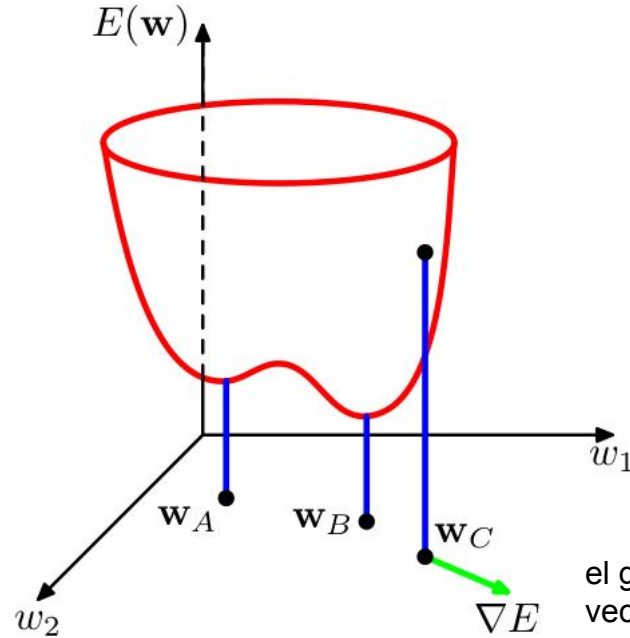
regularización

- "Aprender" significa resolver:

$$w^* = \arg \max_w L(w)$$

.. aún cuando no existan soluciones en forma cerrada.

# Optimización



el gradiente de  $E(\mathbf{w})$  evaluado en  $\mathbf{w}_C$  es un vector que apunta en la dirección de máximo crecimiento de la función si me paro en  $\mathbf{w}_C$ .

- ¿La solución es única?
- Empleando algoritmos iterativos, ¿la solución depende del punto de inicio?

# Funciones y conjuntos convexos

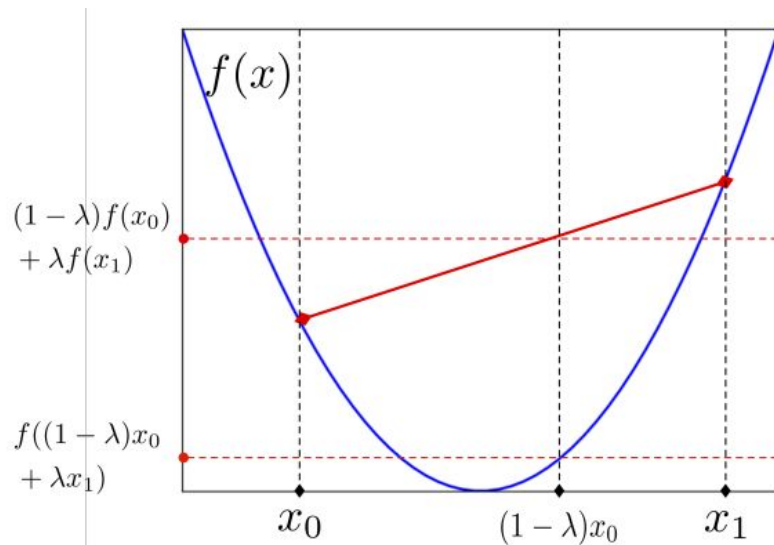
- Una **función**  $f$  es **convexa** si para cualquier  $x_0, x_1$  en el dominio de  $f$ ,

$$f((1 - \lambda)x_0 + \lambda x_1) \leq (1 - \lambda)f(x_0) + \lambda f(x_1), \quad 0 \leq \lambda \leq 1$$

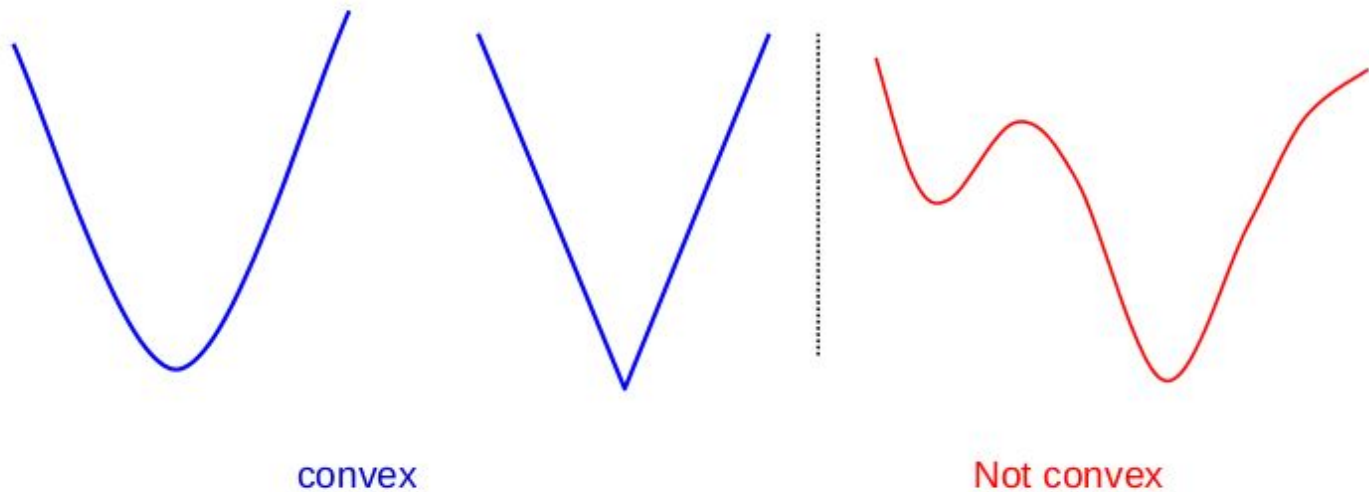
- Un **conjunto**  $S$  es **convexo** si para cualquier  $x_0, x_1$  en  $S$ ,

$$(1 - \lambda)x_0 + \lambda x_1 \in S$$

- Intuitivamente la función tiene forma de "cuenco"



## Convex function examples



A non-negative sum of convex functions is convex





SVM

$$\min_{\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d} C \sum_i^N \max(0, 1 - y_i f(\mathbf{x}_i)) + \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 \quad \text{convex}$$

## **Why we care about convexity**

- All critical points are minima
- Gradient descent finds the optimal solution (more on this in a later lecture)

# Descent Methods

- The typical strategy for optimization problems of this sort is a descent method:

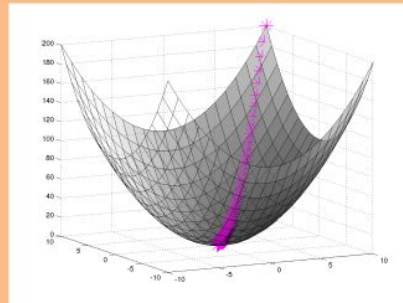
$$\mathbf{w}^{(\tau+1)} = \mathbf{w}^{(\tau)} + \Delta \mathbf{w}^{(\tau)}$$

- These come in many flavours
  - Gradient descent  $\nabla E(\mathbf{w}^{(\tau)})$
  - Stochastic gradient descent  $\nabla E_n(\mathbf{w}^{(\tau)})$
  - Newton-Raphson (second order)  $\nabla^2$

# Descenso de gradiente

## Algorithm 1 Gradient Descent

```
1: procedure GD( $\mathcal{D}$ ,  $\theta^{(0)}$ )  
2:    $\theta \leftarrow \theta^{(0)}$   
3:   while not converged do  
4:      $\theta \leftarrow \theta + \lambda \nabla_{\theta} J(\theta)$   
5:   return  $\theta$ 
```



In order to apply GD to Logistic Regression all we need is the **gradient** of the objective function (i.e. vector of partial derivatives).

$$\nabla_{\theta} J(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{d}{d\theta_1} J(\theta) \\ \frac{d}{d\theta_2} J(\theta) \\ \vdots \\ \frac{d}{d\theta_N} J(\theta) \end{bmatrix}$$

## Gradiente en regresión logística

$$\log P(Y = y|X = \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) = \begin{cases} \log p & \text{if } y = 1 \\ \log(1 - p) & \text{if } y = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$p \equiv \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{w}}} = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-\sum_j x^j w^j)}$$

We're going to dive into this thing here:  $d/dw(p)$

$$(\log \hat{f})' = \frac{1}{f} f'$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial w^j} \log P(Y = y|X = \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{p} \frac{\partial}{\partial w^j} p & \text{if } y = 1 \\ \frac{1}{1-p} \left( -\frac{\partial}{\partial w^j} p \right) & \text{if } y = 0 \end{cases}$$

# Gradiente en regresión logística

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial}{\partial w^j} p &= \frac{\partial}{\partial w^j} (1 + \exp(-\sum_j x^j w^j))^{-1} & (f^n)' &= n f^{n-1} \cdot f' \\ & & (e^f)' &= e^f f' \\ &= (-1)(1 + \exp(-\sum_j x^j w^j))^{-2} \frac{\partial}{\partial w^j} \exp(-\sum_j x^j w^j) \\ &= (-1)(1 + \exp(-\sum_j x^j w^j))^{-2} \exp(-\sum_j x^j w^j) (-x^j) \\ &= \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-\sum_j x^j w^j)} \frac{\exp(-\sum_j x^j w^j)}{1 + \exp(-\sum_j x^j w^j)} x^j \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial w^j} p &= p(1 - p)x^j\end{aligned}$$

p 1-p

## Gradiente en regresión logística

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial w^j} \log P(Y = y | X = \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) = \begin{cases} \cancel{\frac{1}{p}} p(1-p)x^j = (1-p)x^j & \text{if } y = 1 \\ \cancel{\frac{1}{1-p}} (-1)p(1-p)x^j = -px^j & \text{if } y = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial w^j} \log P(Y = y | X = \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) = (y - p)x^j$$

- Regla de actualización en regresión logística:

$$\mathbf{w}^{(t+1)} = \mathbf{w}^{(t)} + \lambda(y - p)\mathbf{x}$$

## Details: Picking learning rate

- Use grid-search in log-space over small values on a tuning set:
  - e.g., 0.01, 0.001, ...
- Sometimes, decrease after each pass:
  - e.g factor of  $1/(1 + dt)$ ,  $t=\text{epoch}$
  - sometimes  $1/t^2$
- Fancier techniques I won't talk about:
  - Adaptive gradient: scale gradient differently for each dimension (Adagrad, ADAM, ...)



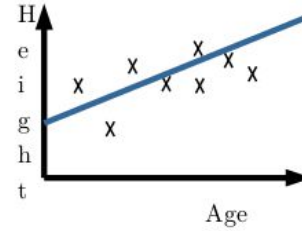
# The Machine Learners Job

- (1) Get the labeled data:  $(x^1, y^1), \dots, (x^n, y^n)$
- (2) Choose a parametrization for hypothesis:  $h_w(x)$
- (3) Choose a loss function:  $\ell(h_w(x), y) \geq 0$
- (4) Solve the *training problem*:
$$\min_{w \in \mathbf{R}^d} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(h_w(x^i), y^i) + \lambda R(w)$$
- (5) Test and cross-validate. If fail, go back a few steps

# Parametrizing the Hypothesis

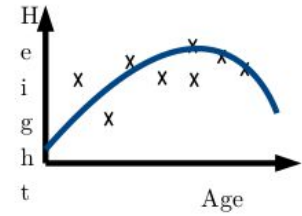
Linear:

$$h_w(x) = \sum_{i=0}^d w_i x_i$$

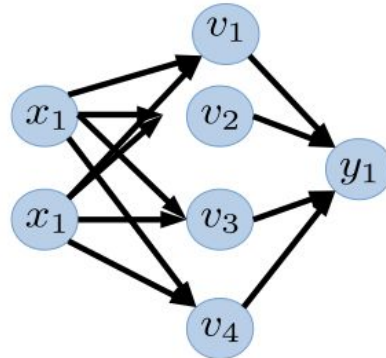


Polynomial:

$$h_w(x) = \sum_{i,j=0}^d w_{ij} x_i x_j$$



Neural Net:



exe :

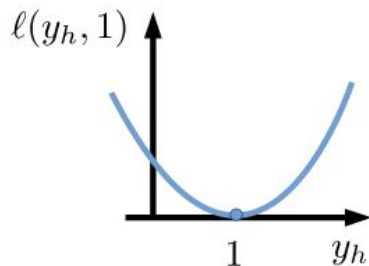
$$v_1 = \text{sign}(w_{11}x_1 + w_{12}x_2)$$

$$v_4 = 1 / (1 + \exp(w_{41}x_1 + w_{42}x_2))$$

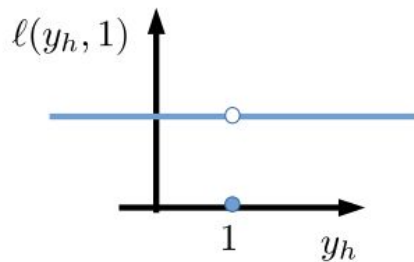
# Choosing the Loss Function

Let  $y_h := h_w(x)$

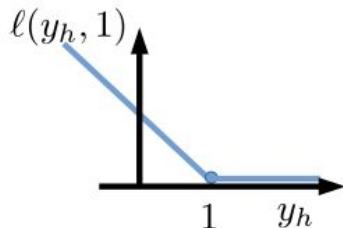
Quadratic Loss  $\ell(y_h, y) = (y_h - y)^2$



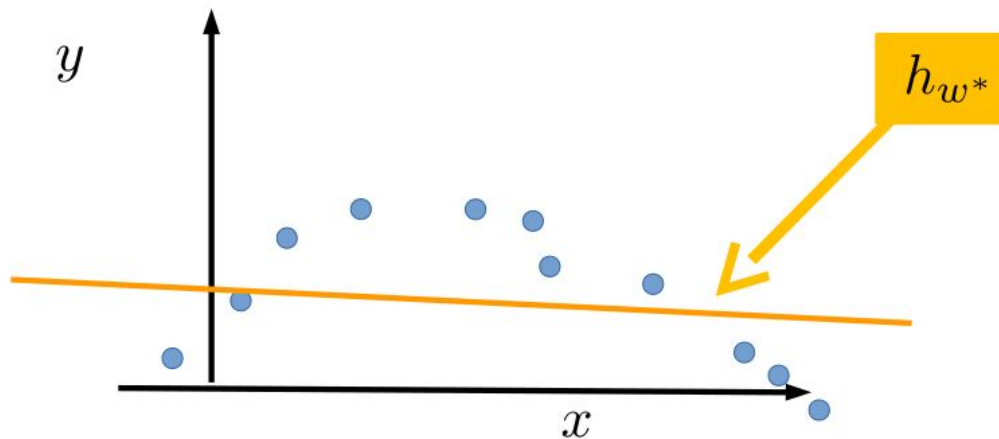
Binary Loss  $\ell(y_h, y) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } y_h = y \\ 1 & \text{if } y_h \neq y \end{cases}$



Hinge Loss  $\ell(y_h, y) = \max\{0, 1 - y_h y\}$



# Overfitting and Model Complexity

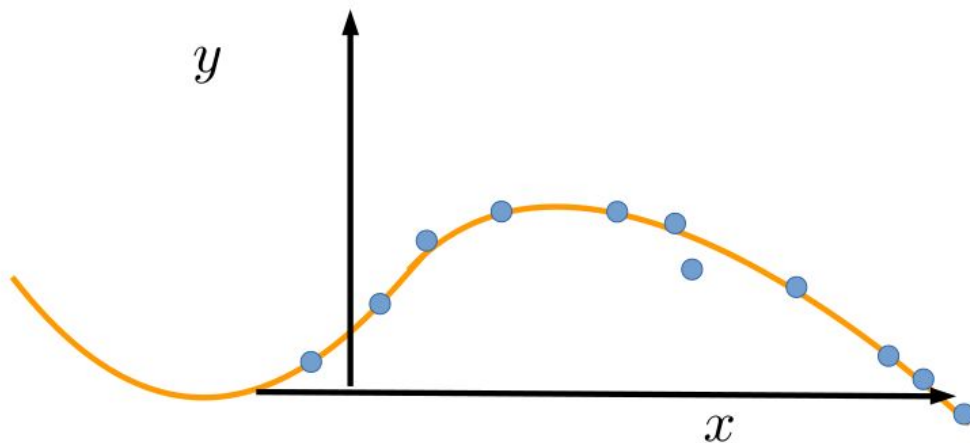


Fitting 1<sup>st</sup> order polynomial

$$h_w = \langle w, x \rangle$$

$$w^* = \arg \min_{w \in \mathbf{R}^d} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (h_w(x^i) - y^i)^2$$

# Overfitting and Model Complexity

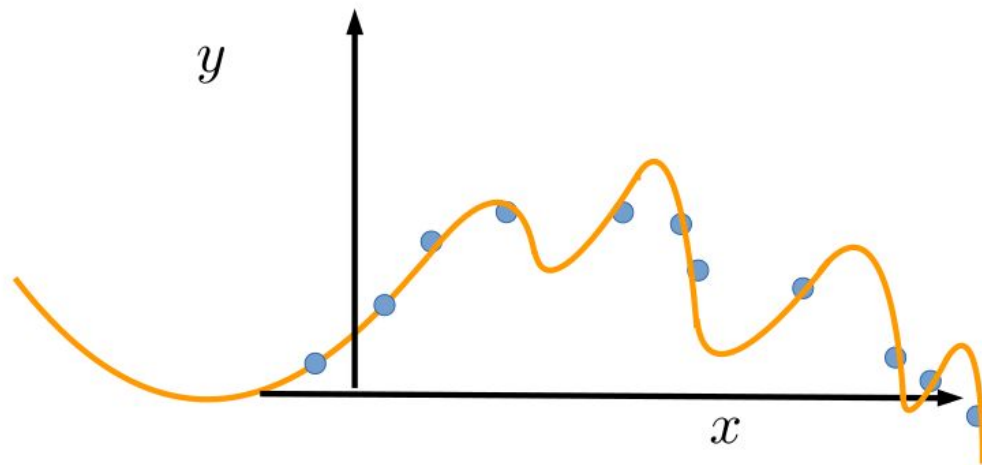


Fitting 3<sup>rd</sup> order polynomial

$$h_w = \sum_{i=0}^3 w_i x^i$$

$$w^* = \arg \min_{w \in \mathbf{R}^d} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (h_w(x^i) - y^i)^2$$

# Overfitting and Model Complexity



Fitting 9<sup>th</sup> order polynomial

$$h_w = \sum_{i=0}^9 w_i x^i$$

$$w^* = \arg \min_{w \in \mathbf{R}^d} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (h_w(x^i) - y^i)^2$$

# Regularization

## Regularizer Functions

$$\begin{aligned} R : \mathbf{R}^d &\rightarrow \mathbf{R}_+ \\ w &\rightarrow R(w) \end{aligned}$$

Controls tradeoff  
between fit and  
complexity

## General Training Problem

$$\min_{w \in \mathbf{R}^d} \underbrace{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(h_w(x^i), y^i)}_{\text{Goodness of fit, fidelity term ...etc}} + \underbrace{\lambda R(w)}_{\text{Penlizes complexity}}$$

Goodness of fit,  
fidelity term ...etc

Penlizes  
complexity

# Exe: Ridge Regression

**Linear hypothesis**

$$h_w(x) = \langle w, x \rangle$$



**L2 regularizer**

$$R(w) = ||w||_2^2$$

**L2 loss**

$$\ell(y_h, y) = (y_h - y)^2$$



**Ridge Regression**

$$\min_{w \in \mathbf{R}^d} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y^i - \langle w, x^i \rangle)^2 + \lambda ||w||_2^2$$



# Exe: Logistic Regression

**Linear hypothesis**

$$h_w(x) = \langle w, x \rangle$$



**L2 regularizer**

$$R(w) = ||w||_2^2$$

**Logistic loss**

$$\ell(y_h, y) = \ln(1 + e^{-yy_h})$$



**Logistic Regression**

$$\min_{w \in \mathbf{R}^d} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \ln(1 + e^{-y^i \langle w, x^i \rangle}) + \lambda ||w||_2^2$$

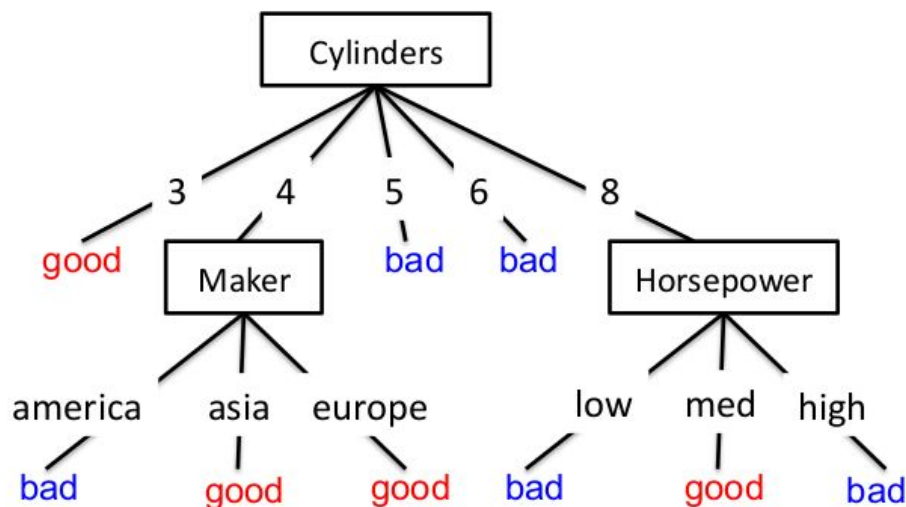
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- (5) Test and cross-validate. If fail, go back a few steps

# Árboles de decisión

## Hypotheses: decision trees $f : X \rightarrow Y$

- Each internal node tests an attribute  $x_i$
- One branch for each possible attribute value  $x_i=v$
- Each leaf assigns a class  $y$
- To classify input  $x$ : traverse the tree from root to leaf, output the labeled  $y$

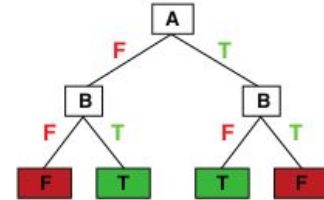


Human interpretable!

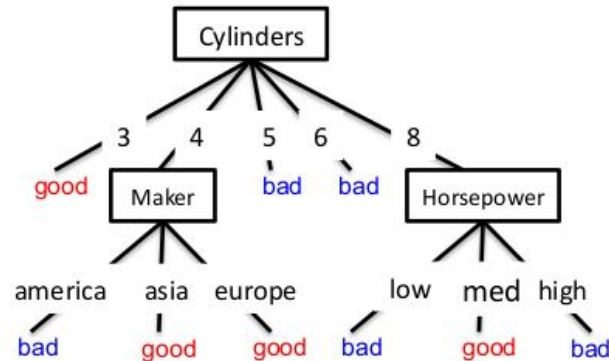
# What functions can be represented?

- Decision trees can represent any function of the input attributes!
- For Boolean functions, path to leaf gives truth table row
- Could require exponentially many nodes

A	B	A xor B
F	F	F
F	T	T
T	F	T
T	T	F



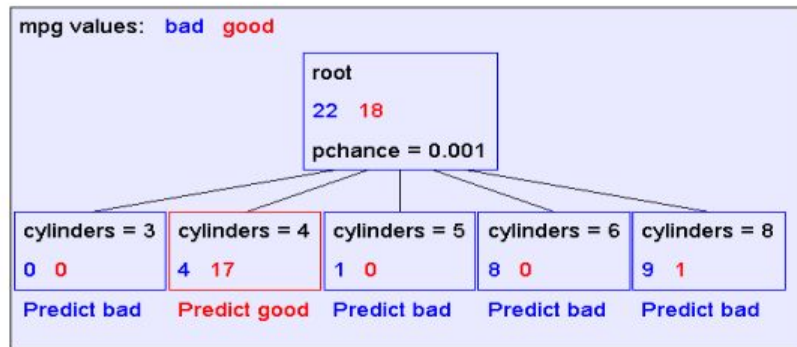
(Figure from Stuart Russell)



## Learning *simplest* decision tree is NP-hard

- Learning the simplest (smallest) decision tree is an NP-complete problem [Hyafil & Rivest '76]
- Resort to a greedy heuristic:
  - Start from empty decision tree
  - Split on **next best attribute (feature)**
  - Recurse

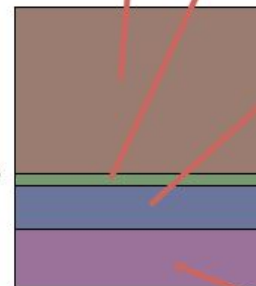
# Key idea: Greedily learn trees using recursion



Take the  
Original  
Dataset..



And partition it  
according  
to the value of  
the attribute we  
split on



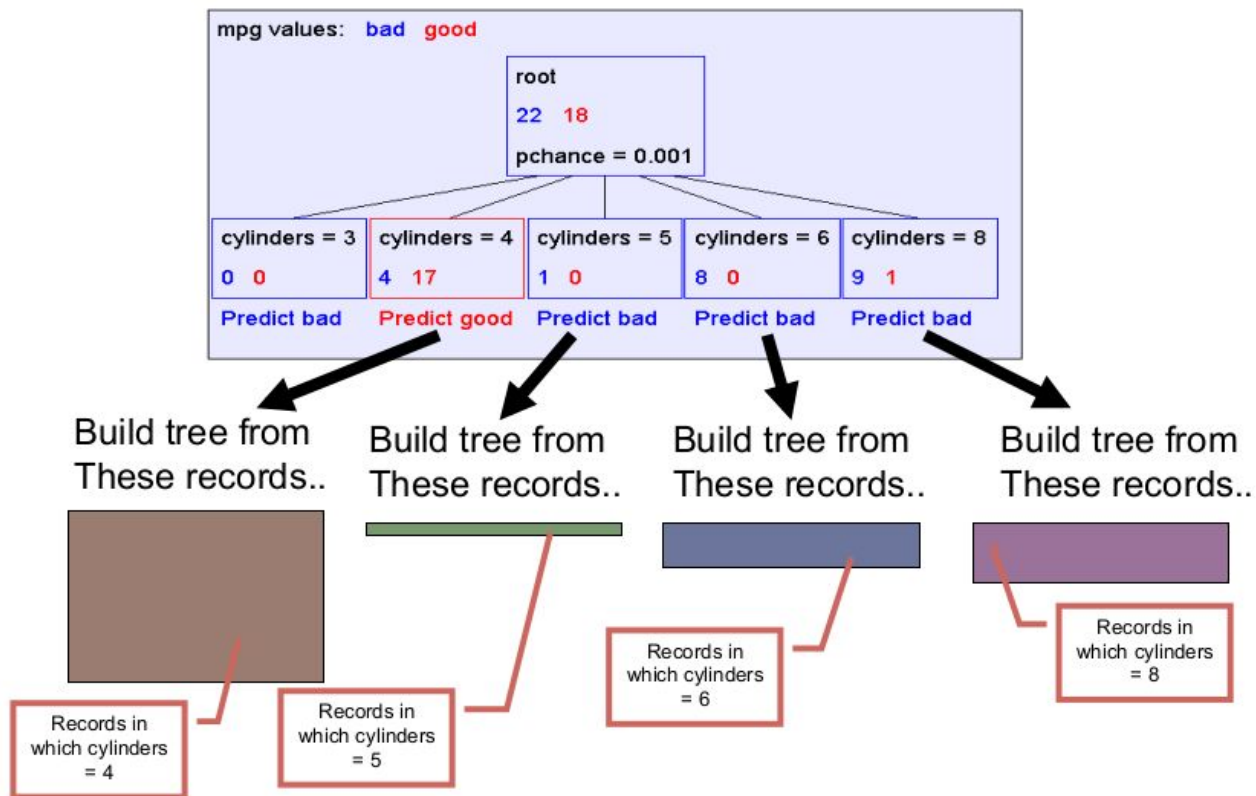
Records  
in which  
cylinders  
= 4

Records  
in which  
cylinders  
= 5

Records  
in which  
cylinders  
= 6

Records  
in which  
cylinders  
= 8

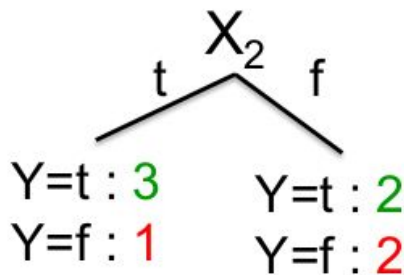
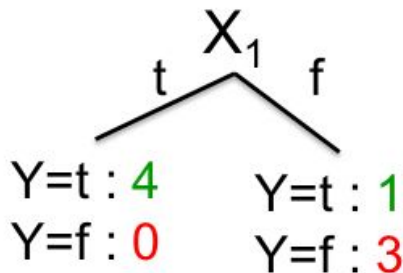
# Recursive Step





## Splitting: choosing a good attribute

Would we prefer to split on  $X_1$  or  $X_2$ ?



$X_1$	$X_2$	Y
T	T	T
T	F	T
T	T	T
T	F	T
F	T	T
F	F	F
F	T	F
F	F	F

**Idea:** use counts at leaves to define probability distributions, so we can measure uncertainty!

## Measuring uncertainty

- Good split if we are more certain about classification after split
  - Deterministic good (all true or all false)
  - Uniform distribution bad
  - What about distributions in between?

$P(Y=A) = 1/2$	$P(Y=B) = 1/4$	$P(Y=C) = 1/8$	$P(Y=D) = 1/8$
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$P(Y=A) = 1/4$	$P(Y=B) = 1/4$	$P(Y=C) = 1/4$	$P(Y=D) = 1/4$
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# Entropy

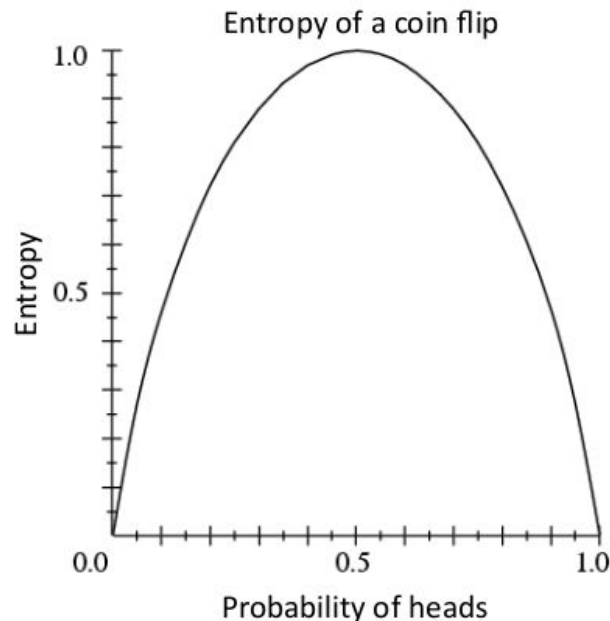
Entropy  $H(Y)$  of a random variable  $Y$

$$H(Y) = - \sum_{i=1}^k P(Y = y_i) \log_2 P(Y = y_i)$$

***More uncertainty, more entropy!***

*Information Theory interpretation:*

$H(Y)$  is the expected number of bits needed to encode a randomly drawn value of  $Y$  (under most efficient code)



## High, Low Entropy

- “High Entropy”
  - Y is from a uniform like distribution
  - Flat histogram
  - Values sampled from it are less predictable
- “Low Entropy”
  - Y is from a varied (peaks and valleys) distribution
  - Histogram has many lows and highs
  - Values sampled from it are more predictable

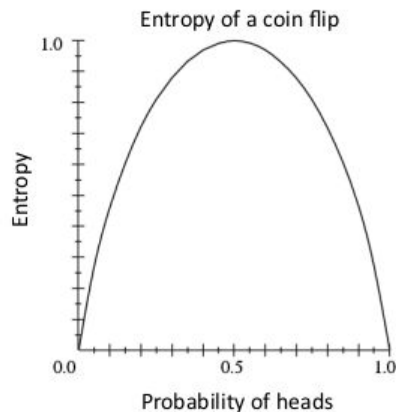
# Entropy Example

$$H(Y) = - \sum_{i=1}^k P(Y = y_i) \log_2 P(Y = y_i)$$

$$P(Y=\text{t}) = 5/6$$

$$P(Y=\text{f}) = 1/6$$

$$\begin{aligned} H(Y) &= - 5/6 \log_2 5/6 - 1/6 \log_2 1/6 \\ &= 0.65 \end{aligned}$$



$X_1$	$X_2$	Y
T	T	T
T	F	T
T	T	T
T	F	T
F	T	T
F	F	F

# Conditional Entropy

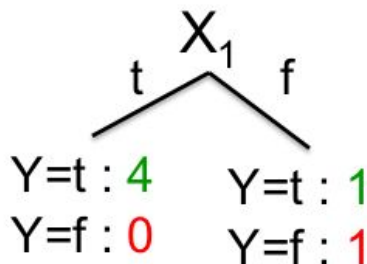
Conditional Entropy  $H(Y|X)$  of a random variable  $Y$  conditioned on a random variable  $X$

$$H(Y|X) = - \sum_{j=1}^v P(X = x_j) \sum_{i=1}^k P(Y = y_i | X = x_j) \log_2 P(Y = y_i | X = x_j)$$

Example:

$$P(X_1 = \text{t}) = 4/6$$

$$P(X_1 = \text{f}) = 2/6$$



$$\begin{aligned} H(Y|X_1) &= - 4/6 (1 \log_2 1 + 0 \log_2 0) \\ &\quad - 2/6 (1/2 \log_2 1/2 + 1/2 \log_2 1/2) \\ &= 2/6 \end{aligned}$$

$X_1$	$X_2$	Y
T	T	T
T	F	T
T	T	T
T	F	T
F	T	T
F	F	F

# Information gain

- Decrease in entropy (uncertainty) after splitting

$$IG(X) = H(Y) - H(Y | X)$$

In our running example:

$$\begin{aligned} IG(X_1) &= H(Y) - H(Y|X_1) \\ &= 0.65 - 0.33 \end{aligned}$$

$IG(X_1) > 0 \rightarrow$  we prefer the split!

$X_1$	$X_2$	Y
T	T	T
T	F	T
T	T	T
T	F	T
F	T	T
F	F	F

# Learning decision trees

- Start from empty decision tree
- Split on **next best attribute (feature)**
  - Use, for example, information gain to select attribute:
$$\arg \max_i IG(X_i) = \arg \max_i H(Y) - H(Y | X_i)$$
- Recurse



## Decision trees will overfit

- Standard decision trees have no learning bias
  - Training set error is always zero!
    - (If there is no label noise)
  - Lots of variance
  - Must introduce some bias towards simpler trees
- Many strategies for picking simpler trees
  - Fixed depth
  - Minimum number of samples per leaf
- Random forests

## Real-Valued inputs

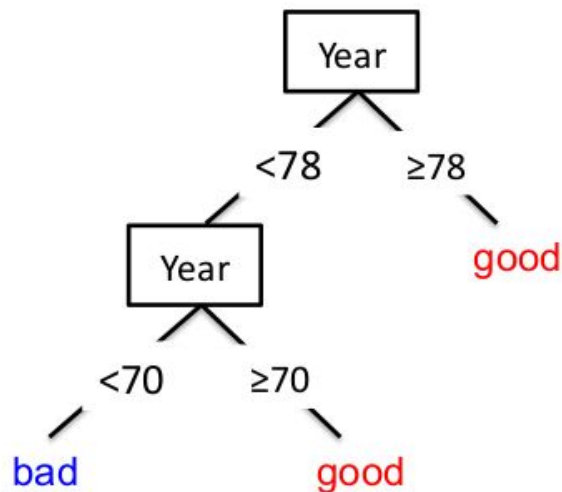
What should we do if some of the inputs are real-valued?

Infinite  
number of  
possible split  
values!!!

mpg	cylinders	displacemen	horsepower	weight	acceleration	modelyear	maker
good	4	97	75	2265	18.2	77	asia
bad	6	199	90	2648	15	70	america
bad	4	121	110	2600	12.8	77	europa
bad	8	350	175	4100	13	73	america
bad	6	198	95	3102	16.5	74	america
bad	4	108	94	2379	16.5	73	asia
bad	4	113	95	2228	14	71	asia
bad	8	302	139	3570	12.8	78	america
:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
good	4	120	79	2625	18.6	82	america
bad	8	455	225	4425	10	70	america
good	4	107	86	2464	15.5	76	europa
bad	5	131	103	2830	15.9	78	europa

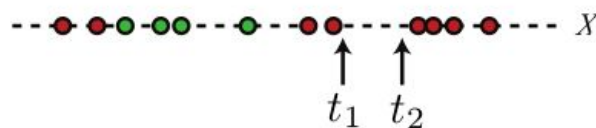
## Threshold splits

- **Binary tree:** split on attribute  $X$  at value  $t$ 
  - One branch:  $X < t$
  - Other branch:  $X \geq t$
- **Requires small change**
  - Allow repeated splits on same variable **along a path**

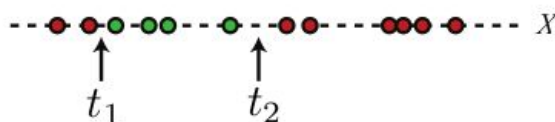


# The set of possible thresholds

- Binary tree, split on attribute  $X$ 
  - One branch:  $X < t$
  - Other branch:  $X \geq t$
- Search through possible values of  $t$ 
  - Seems hard!!!
- But only a finite number of  $t$ 's are important:



- Sort data according to  $X$  into  $\{x_1, \dots, x_m\}$
- Consider split points of the form  $x_i + (x_{i+1} - x_i)/2$
- Moreover, only splits between examples of different classes matter!



(Figures from Stuart Russell)

## Picking the best threshold

- Suppose  $X$  is real valued with threshold  $t$
- Want **IG(Y | X:t)**, the information gain for  $Y$  when testing if  $X$  is greater than or less than  $t$
- Define:
  - $H(Y|X:t) = p(X < t) H(Y|X < t) + p(X \geq t) H(Y|X \geq t)$
  - $IG(Y|X:t) = H(Y) - H(Y|X:t)$
  - $IG^*(Y|X) = \max_t IG(Y|X:t)$
- Use:  $IG^*(Y|X)$  for continuous variables

## What you need to know about decision trees

- Decision trees are one of the most popular ML tools
  - Easy to understand, implement, and use
  - Computationally cheap (to solve heuristically)
- Information gain to select attributes (ID3, C4.5,...)
- Presented for classification, can be used for regression and density estimation too
- Decision trees will overfit!!!
  - Must use tricks to find “simple trees”, e.g.,
    - Fixed depth/Early stopping
    - Pruning
  - Or, use ensembles of different trees (random forests)