Machine Learning for Finance (FIN 570) Hyperparameter Tuning: Bias-Variance Tradeoff, Cross-Validation, and Evaluation Metric

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Regularization L-1 vs L-2

Give a penalty for complexity or overfitting. The cost function to minimize:

$$J(\boldsymbol{w}) = J_0(\boldsymbol{w}) + \frac{\lambda}{\lambda} R(\boldsymbol{w}) \quad (= C J_0(\boldsymbol{w}) + R(\boldsymbol{w})),$$

where $J_0(w)$ is the un-regularized cost function, e.g., log-likelihood (logistic), RSS (linear) or slack variable sum (SVM).

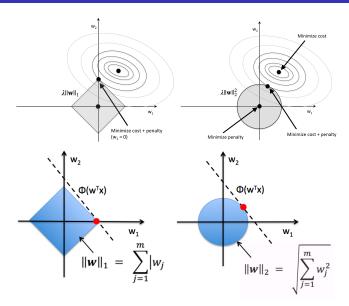
L-2 Regularization

- $R(w) = ||w||_2^2 = \sum_j w_j^2$
- N-sphere boundary (e.g., circle or sphere). Easy to locate the minimum.

L-1 Regularization

- $R(w) = ||w||_1 = \sum_{i} |w_i|_1$
- 'Diamond' boundary: leads to sparse vector (many zero components)
- Effectively works as feature selection

Regularization L-1 vs L-2



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Measuring quality of ML method

Given a ML method, we want to minimize the mean squared error (MSE) on **test** data set (expected test MSE).

$$\begin{split} E\Big(y-\hat{f}(x)\Big)^2 &= \mathrm{Bias}(\hat{f}(x))^2 + \mathrm{Var}(\hat{f}(x)) + \mathrm{Var}(\varepsilon) \\ &\quad \text{where}, \quad y = f(x) + \varepsilon \quad \text{(true pattern)} \end{split}$$

- By a given ML method, we mean that model (LR, SVM, etc) and hyper-parameter (C, γ , reduced dimension k for PCA/LDA, etc) are fixed. However fitted model parameters (i.e., \hat{f}) can change over training set.
- The expectation is made over repeatedly selecting different training vs test dataset. Therefore, the expectation is over \hat{f} as well as x.
- We need to minimize ${\sf Bias}(\hat{f}(x))^2$ and ${\sf Var}(\hat{f}(x))$ together while ${\sf Var}(\varepsilon)$ is fundamentally irreducible.

Bias and Variance

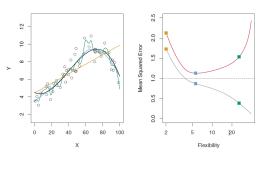
Bias

- Error from \hat{f} not correctly representing the true f (e.g. linear regression on non-linear data).
- A model has **high bias** when \hat{f} overly simply f (under-fitting), i.e., the used parameters are too few.

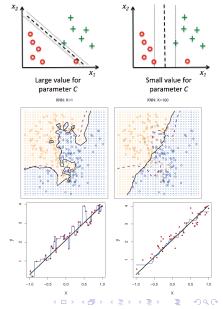
Variance

- ullet Error from variability or sensitivity (vs consistency) of the trained model \hat{f} against the selection of training dataset.
- A model has **high variance** when the model is too flexible (overfitting), i.e., there are too many parameters, e.g. KNN with K=1, high-order polynomial regression, SVM/LR with large C (small λ), decision tree with many leaves, etc.

Bias and Variance (examples)

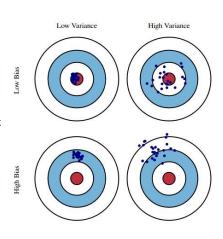


- Grey line: Bias vs the number of parameters
- Red line: MSE measured with the true *f* (black line).



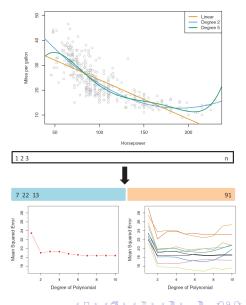
Bias-Variance Tradeoff

- It is hard to reduce both bias and variance.
- As the model flexibility increase, bias decreases but variance increases. It is important to find a right trade-off.
- Bias-variance tradeoff is one of the most important theme in ML (and other fields!).
- In real problems, the true pattern f is unknown and the dataset size is limited. How can we efficiently measure the expected test MSE?



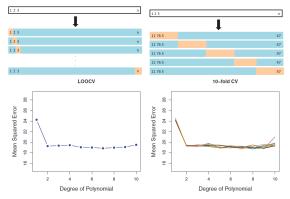
Cross-Validation(CV): Validation Set (Hold-out set)

- Divide observations into a training set and a validation (hold-out) set.
- Fit model on the training set and measure error on the validation set.
- Error rate is highly variable (sensitive to division) and over-estimated than the true test error rate as the model is trained on fewer observations.
- Training set is further divided into training and validation sets.
 Validation set is used for model selection and hyper-parameter funning.



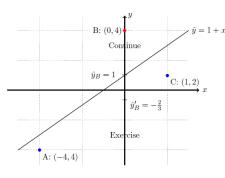
Cross-Validation: Leave-One-Out (LOOCV) and k-Fold CV

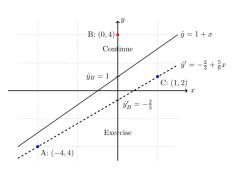
- LOOCV: train model with one sample left out and measure the error on the sample. Error is close to the true test rate but computation is heavy (train *n* times).
- k-fold CV: divide the samples into k (typically 5 or 10) folds. Train model on k-1 training folds and measure error on the remaining test fold.



LOOCV in linear regression (1/3)

- LOOCV can be computed analytically in linear regression.
- An example with 3 data points:





LOOCV in linear regression (2/3)

The multivariate regression $Y \sim X\beta$:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{y}} = \boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} = \boldsymbol{H}\boldsymbol{y}, \quad \text{where} \quad \boldsymbol{\beta} = (\boldsymbol{X}^T\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}^T\boldsymbol{y}, \ \boldsymbol{H} = \boldsymbol{X}(\boldsymbol{X}^T\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}^T$$

$$\boldsymbol{y} = \begin{bmatrix} \vdots \\ y_j \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}, \quad \boldsymbol{X} = \begin{bmatrix} \vdots \\ -\boldsymbol{x}_j - \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} (\boldsymbol{M} \times \boldsymbol{N}), \quad \boldsymbol{x}_j : j\text{-th row vector of } \boldsymbol{X} \\ (\boldsymbol{M} \ll \boldsymbol{N}), \quad y_j : j\text{-th value of } \boldsymbol{y}$$

Let X_{-j} and y_{-j} be X and y with j-th row removed, respectively. To compute the regression coefficients β_{-j} from X_{-j} and y_{-j} , we use

$$\boldsymbol{X}_{-j}^T \boldsymbol{X}_{-j} = \boldsymbol{X}^T \boldsymbol{X} - \boldsymbol{x}_j^T \boldsymbol{x}_j, \quad \boldsymbol{X}_{-j}^T \boldsymbol{y}_{-j} = \boldsymbol{X}^T \boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{x}_j^T \boldsymbol{y}_j,$$

and the Sherman-Morrison formula, (intuition: $\frac{1}{X-\varepsilon} \approx \frac{1}{X} + \frac{\varepsilon}{X^2}$)

$$(\boldsymbol{X}_{-j}^T\boldsymbol{X}_{-j})^{-1} = (\boldsymbol{X}^T\boldsymbol{X})^{-1} + \frac{(\boldsymbol{X}^T\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}\boldsymbol{x}_j^T\boldsymbol{x}_j(\boldsymbol{X}^T\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}}{1 - h_j},$$

where $m{h}$ be the diagonal vector of the hat matrix $m{H}$:

$$m{h} = \mathsf{diag}\left(m{X}(m{X}^Tm{X})^{-1}m{X}^T
ight) \quad \mathsf{or} \quad h_j = m{x}_j(m{X}^Tm{X})^{-1}m{x}_j^T$$

LOOCV in linear regression (3/3)

ullet The regression coefficients $\hat{eta}_{\text{-}j}$ (the j-th sample removed) is

$$\begin{split} \hat{\pmb{\beta}}_{\text{-}j} &= (\pmb{X}_{\text{-}j}^T \pmb{X}_{\text{-}j})^{-1} \pmb{X}_{\text{-}j}^T \pmb{y}_{\text{-}j} \\ &= \left((\pmb{X}^T \pmb{X})^{-1} + \frac{(\pmb{X}^T \pmb{X})^{-1} \pmb{x}_j^T \pmb{x}_j (\pmb{X}^T \pmb{X})^{-1}}{1 - h_j} \right) (\pmb{X}^T \pmb{y} - \pmb{x}_j^T y_j) \\ &= \hat{\pmb{\beta}} - (\pmb{X}^T \pmb{X})^{-1} \pmb{x}_j^T \frac{e_j}{1 - h_j} \quad \text{for the prediction error } \pmb{e} = \pmb{y} - \hat{\pmb{y}}. \end{split}$$

ullet Moreover, the corrected estimation values \hat{y}' and the new prediction errors e' for all points are obtained in one go as

$$\hat{y}' = \hat{y} - rac{h \cdot e}{1 - h}$$
 or $e' = rac{e}{1 - h}$,

where \cdot and the fraction are the element-wise operations.

- Given that $0 < h_j < 1$, the correction is always in the direction of reducing over-fitting or increasing the prediction error.
- ullet Little extra computation: h is a byproduct of the regression.

 $m{h} = \mathsf{row} \; \mathsf{sum}(m{X} \cdot m{X} (m{X}^T m{X})^{-1}) \Leftarrow m{eta} = (m{X}^T m{X})^{-1} m{X}^T m{y}$

Evaluation Metrics

Confusion Matrix

Credit card		Predicted		
Default		P^*	N^*	Total
Actual	P	40	40	80
	N	10	910	920
	Total	50	950	1000

Predicted class					
	P^*	N^*			
P Actual class	True positives (TP)	False negatives (FN)			
	False positives (FP)	True negatives (TN)			

$$\bullet \ \ \text{Accuracy (ACC)} = \frac{\text{TP} + \text{TN}}{\text{ALL}} = \frac{40 + 910}{1000} = 95\%$$

• Error (ERR) =
$$1 - ACC = \frac{FP + FN}{ALL} = \frac{10 + 40}{1000} = 5\%$$

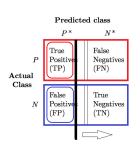
• However, accuracy/error may be misleading!

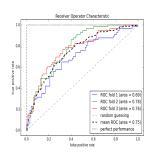
Evaluation Metrics

		Predicted		
		P^*	N^*	
Actual	P	TP (40)	FN (40)	
	N	TP (40) FP (10)	TN (910)	

- Precision (PRE) = $\frac{\text{TP}}{P^*} = \frac{\text{TP}}{\text{TP} + \text{FP}} = \frac{40}{50} = 80\%$ Case: Spam mail filter (minimize FP)
- $\begin{array}{l} \bullet \text{ Recall (REC)} = \frac{\mathsf{TP}}{P} = \frac{\mathsf{TP}}{\mathsf{TP} + \mathsf{FN}} = \frac{40}{80} = 50\% \\ \mathsf{Case: Credit approval, Cancer diagnosis (minimize FN)} \end{array}$
- F1-Score (F1) = $\frac{2 \text{ PRE} \times \text{REC}}{\text{PRE} + \text{REC}} = 61.5\%$ $\left(\frac{2}{\text{F1}} = \frac{1}{\text{PRE}} + \frac{1}{\text{REC}}\right)$ The harmonic average of PRE and REC to ensure $0 \le \text{F1} \le 1$ A widely used accuracy for binary classification with imbalanced sample.

Receiver Operator Characteristic (ROC) Curve





- \bullet True Positive Rate (TPR=REC) = TP/P=50%
- False Positive Rate (FPR) = FP/N = 10/920 = 1.1%
- ROC Curve: graph of (FPR, TPR) for varying classification threshold of the binary classification.
- Area Under Curve (AUC) give an overall accuracy of a classifier, summarizing over all possible threshold
- The diagonal line is from random-guessing: ROC AUC = 0.5
 A model with lower AUC than 0.5 is worthless.
- A perfect classifier (Γ -shaped lines): ROC AUC = 1.