

MACHINE LEARNING

MODEL SELECTION II

AGENDA

01 Cross validation

Hold out cross validation, k-fold cross validation

02 Feature Selection

Wrapper feature selection, filter feature selection

03 Bayesian statistics and Regularization

MAP estimates, Bias and variance Decomposition

04 Practical advices

Online Learning





MODEL SELECTION II CROSS VALIDATION

Model selection as posed in previous lectures, **consists** in **finding** the **best model** from a **set** of **models** $\mathcal{M} = \{M_1, ..., M_d\}$.

A simple approach is hold out cross validation using a training set S:

- 1. Randomly split S into S_{train} (70% of the data) and S_{CV} (30% of data). Here, S_{CV} is called the hold-out cross validation set.
- 2. Train each model M_i on S_{train} only, to get some hypothesis h_i .
- 3. Select and output the hypothesis h_i that had the smallest error $\hat{\varepsilon}_{S_{CV}}(h_i)$ on the hold out cross validation set.

(Recall, $\hat{\epsilon}_{S_{CV}}(h_i)$ denotes the **empirical error** of h on the **set** of **examples** in S_{CV} .)

MODEL SELECTION II CROSS VALIDATION



The disadvantage of using hold out cross validation is that it "wastes" about 30% of the data.

Thus, we could **use k-fold cross validation**:

- 1. Randomly split S into k disjoint subsets S1, ..., Sk of m/k training examples each.
- 2. For each model M_i , we evaluate it as follows:

For
$$j = 1, \ldots, k$$

- a) Train the model M_i on $S_1 \cup \cdots \cup S_{j-1} \cup S_{j+1} \cup \cdots \cup S_k$ (except S_j) to get some hypothesis h_{ij} .
- b) Test the hypothesis h_{ij} on S_j , to get $\hat{\varepsilon}_{Sj}(h_{ij})$.
- The **estimated generalization error** of model M_i is then calculated as the **average** of the $\hat{\varepsilon}_{Si}(h_{ij})$'s (averaged over j).
- 3. Pick the model M_i with the **lowest estimated generalization error** and **retrain** that **model** on the **entire training set** S. The resulting hypothesis is then output as our final answer.

MODEL SELECTION II CROSS VALIDATION

The **typical** of **choice** for k in k-fold cross validation will be k = 10. **Even though,** there would be times when we will need to **train** each **model** k = m **times**, a method called **leave-one-out cross validation**.

Thus, this **method** may become **very computationally expensive**.

iteration 1/N:	
iteration 2/N:	
iteration 3/N:	
	:
iteration N/N:	



Suppose that we have a **supervised learning problem** where the **number** of **features** *n* is **very large**, but we **suspect** that there is only a **small number** of **features** that are "**relevant**".

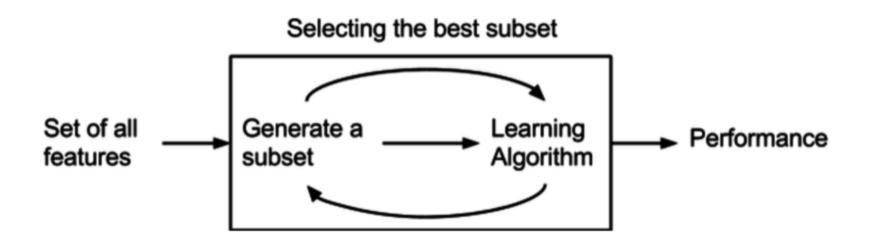
Thus, the **VC dimension** of the **hypothesis class** would still be **O(n)**, and thus **overfitting** would be a **potential problem unless** the **training set** is **large**.

Given n features, there are 2^n possible feature subsets(since each of the n features can either be included or excluded from the subset).

Therefore, feature selection can be posed as a model selection problem over 2^n possible models. Because there are too many possible models, heuristic approaches are designed to tackle the problem.

WRAPPER FEATURE SELECTION:

A class of feature selection algorithms that "wraps" around your learning algorithm, and repeatedly makes calls to the learning algorithm to evaluate how well it does using different feature subsets.





WRAPPER FEATURE SELECTION: Forward search

- 1. Initialize $F = \emptyset$.
- 2. Repeat {
 - a) For i = 1, ..., n if i = F, let $F_i = F \cup \{i\}$, and use some version of cross validation to evaluate features F_i . (I.e., train your learning algorithm using only the features in F_i , and estimate its generalization error.)
 - b) Set F to be the **best feature subset** found on **step (a)**.

3. Select and output the best feature subset that was evaluated during the entire search procedure.

You **end** when you have **added all features** to *F* or by **specifying** some **threshold k**.

WRAPPER FEATURE SELECTION:

Backward search

Starts off with $F = \{1, ..., n\}$ as the set of all features, and repeatedly deletes features one at a time until $F = \emptyset$.

The problem with wrapper methods reside in its computational cost. It so that running a complete forward search algorithm would take $O(n^2)$ calls.

Even though, wrapper models tend to work better than other feature selection methods.



FILTER FEATURE SELECTION:

Give a heuristic, but they are computationally cheaper than wrapper methods.

The objective resides in computing a simple score S(j) that measures how informative each feature x_i is about the class labels y.

Finally, we choose the k features with largest scores S(j).

Set of all Features Selecting the Best Subset Algorithm Performance

FILTER FEATURE SELECTION:

For example, we could **compute** the **correlation** between x_j and y. Thus, you will **choose** the **features** that are the **most strongly correlated** with **class labels**.

It is more common to choose S(j) (particularly for discrete-valued features) as the mutual information $MI(x_j, y)$ between x_j and y.

$$MI(x_j, y) = \sum_{x_j \in \{0,1\}} \sum_{y \in \{0,1\}} p(x_j, y) \frac{p(x_j, y)}{p(x_j)p(y)}$$

Probabilities, $p(x_j, y)$, $p(x_j)$ and p(y) can all be estimated according to their empirical distributions on their training set.

FILTER FEATURE SELECTION:

The mutual information score can also be represented as the Kullback-Leibler (KL) divergence:

$$MI(x_j, y) = KL(p(x_j, y)||p(x_j)p(y))$$

This gives a measure of how different the two probability distributions are.

If both, $p(x_j)p(y)$ and $p(x_j)p(y)$, are independent we have that $p(x_j, y) = p(x_j)p(y)$. Thus, the **KL divergence** will be **zero**.

In other words, if x_j and y are independent, then x_j is very "non-informative" about y, and thus score S(j) should be small.



FILTER FEATURE SELECTION:

Once you have filtered all k features based on score S(j). You select k using cross validation by iterating over each combination of best features...

Other scores S(j) that are used:

- Pearson's Correlation.
- LDA.
- ANOVA.
- Chi-Square.



At the beginning of the past course we talked about **parameter fitting** using **Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)**:

$$w_{MLE} = \underset{w}{\operatorname{argmax}} \prod_{i=1}^{m} p(y^{(i)}/x^{(i)}; w)$$

FREQUENTIST: w is NOT random, but an unknown constant-valued parameter.

BAYESIAN: w IS random and an unknown parameter.

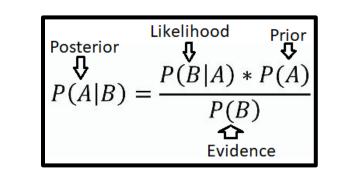


In the **Bayesian approach**, we will **specify** a **prior distribution** p(w) (may be a normal distribution $N(0, \tau^2 I)$) that captures our "**prior beliefs**" about the **parameters without** any **data**.

Thus, given a training set $S = \{(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)})\}_{i=1}^m$ when we are asked to make a prediction on a new value of x, we can then compute the posterior distribution on the parameters.

$$p(w/S) = \frac{p(S/w)p(w)}{p(S)}$$

$$p(w/S) = \frac{\left(\prod_{i=1}^{m} p(y^{(i)}/x^{(i)}, w)\right)p(w)}{\int_{w} \left(\prod_{i=1}^{m} p(y^{(i)}/x^{(i)}, w) p(w)\right)dw}$$



EXAMPLE:

For Bayesian logistic regression you will have: $p(y^{(i)}/x^{(i)}; w) = h_w(x^{(i)})^{y^{(i)}} (1 - h_w(x^{(i)}))^{1-y^{(i)}}$

By knowing the posterior distribution p(w/S) of the parameters w, we can compute the posterior distribution p(y/x, S) of our class labels y after seeing the data:

$$p(y/x,S) = \int_{W} (p(y/x,W)p(W/S)) dW$$

Therefore, the **expected value** of y/x will be:

$$E[y/x,S] = \int_{y} y p(y/x,S) = dy$$



The **problem** with **Bayesian approach** is that it is **very difficult** to **compute** the **posterior distribution** because it requires **taking high dimensional integrals** over w.

Thus, we will instead **approximate** the **posterior distribution** for w. To do so, we are going to **replace** the **posterior distribution** of w with a **single point estimate**.

The MAP (Maximum a Posteriori) estimate for w is given by:

$$p(w/S) = \frac{p(S/w)p(w)}{p(S)} = \frac{\left(\prod_{i=1}^{m} p(y^{(i)}/x^{(i)}, w)\right)p(w)}{\int_{w} \left(\prod_{i=1}^{m} p(y^{(i)}/x^{(i)}, w) p(w)\right)dw}$$

$$\stackrel{\text{estimate}}{\rightleftharpoons}$$

$$\widehat{w}_{MAP} = \underset{w}{\operatorname{argmax}} \prod_{i=1}^{m} p(y^{(i)}/x^{(i)}, w) p(w)$$



To make a **new prediction** with the **MAP estimate**, we will have:

$$h_{\widehat{w}_{MAP}}(\widehat{w}_{MAP}^TX)$$

The difference between MAP and MLE is that we maximize considering the prior p(w).

$$\widehat{w}_{MAP} = \underset{w}{\operatorname{argmax}} \prod_{i=1}^{m} p(y^{(i)}/x^{(i)}, w) p(w)$$

$$w_{MLE} = \underset{w}{\operatorname{argmax}} \prod_{i=1}^{m} p(y^{(i)}/x^{(i)}; w)$$



WHY BAYESIAN REGRESSION PREVENTS OVERFITTING?

If we choose a prior p(w) to be a normal distribution $N(0, \tau^2 I)$ we are "believing" that most of the weights are centered around zero.

Thus, you are saying that **many features** may **not** be **considered** → **REDUCE complexity.**

In conclusion, Bayesian regression may be a very effective algorithm when $n \gg m$.



BIAS AND VARIANCE DECOMPOSITION

Given a training set $S = \{(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)})\}_{i=1}^m$ we make the assumption that $y = f(x) + \epsilon$, where $E[\epsilon] = 0$ and $V[\epsilon] = \tau^2$ (not necessarily Gaussian). We define the true f as

$$f(x') = E[y/x = x']$$

We want to **construct** a **hypothesis** \hat{f}_m given a **fixed size** training set S that mimics f well on all future **unseen examples**. In other words, \hat{f}_m needs to have **good generalization error**.

We will only consider the case where the **generalization error** is the **EXPECTED SQUARED ERROR LOSS** on an **unseen example**.



BIAS AND VARIANCE DECOMPOSITION

Suppose that the **estimated function** \hat{f}_m is **obtained** with some **training process** over S. We can see that the **estimated function** \hat{f}_m is **random**, where the **randomness comes** from the **errors** $\epsilon^{(i)}$'s **embedded** in the **training** set **examples**.

Consider a **new unseen** example **pair** (y_*, x_*) and the **corresponding generalization error**, where the **expectation** is **over** the **randomness** in ϵ embedded in the **test example**, and in \hat{f}_m .

$$MSE(\hat{f}_m) = E\left[\left(y_* - \hat{f}_m(x_*)\right)^2\right]$$

$$MSE(\hat{f}_m) = E\left[\left(\epsilon + f(x_*) - \hat{f}_m(x_*)\right)^2\right]$$

BIAS AND VARIANCE DECOMPOSITION



$$MSE(\hat{f}_m) = E\left[\left(\epsilon + f(x_*) - \hat{f}_m(x_*)\right)^2\right]$$

$$MSE(\hat{f}_m) = E\left[\epsilon^2 + \left(f(x_*) - \hat{f}_m(x_*)\right)^2 + 2\epsilon\left(f(x_*) - \hat{f}_m(x_*)\right)\right]$$
Property of linearity $E(A + B) = E(A) + E(B)$

$$MSE(\hat{f}_m) = E[\epsilon^2] + E[(f(x_*) - \hat{f}_m(x_*))^2] + E[2\epsilon(f(x_*) - \hat{f}_m(x_*))]$$
Because the errors ϵ are i. i. d. $E(AB) = E(A)E(B)$

$$MSE(\hat{f}_{m}) = E[\epsilon^{2}] + E\left[\left(f(x_{*}) - \hat{f}_{m}(x_{*})\right)^{2}\right] + E[\epsilon]E\left[2\left(f(x_{*}) - \hat{f}_{m}(x_{*})\right)\right]$$

$$\downarrow \text{Assumption } E(\epsilon) = 0$$

$$MSE(\hat{f}_{m}) = E[\epsilon^{2}] + E\left[\left(f(x_{*}) - \hat{f}_{m}(x_{*})\right)^{2}\right]$$

BIAS AND VARIANCE DECOMPOSITION



We can now **develop** the **equation**:

$$MSE(\hat{f}_m) = E[\epsilon^2] + E\left[\left(f(x_*) - \hat{f}_m(x_*)\right)^2\right]$$

$$\downarrow \text{Property } E(A^2) = V(A) + E(A)^2$$

$$MSE(\hat{f}_m) = E[\epsilon^2] + V[f(x_*) - \hat{f}_m(x_*)] + E[f(x_*) - \hat{f}_m(x_*)]^2$$

$$\downarrow \text{Property } \tau^2 = V(\varepsilon) = E[(\varepsilon - E[\varepsilon])^2] = E[(\varepsilon - 0)^2] = E[(\varepsilon)^2]$$

$$MSE(\hat{f}_m) = \tau^2 + V[f(x_*) - \hat{f}_m(x_*)] + E[f(x_*) - \hat{f}_m(x_*)]^2$$

$$\downarrow \text{Property } V[a - X] = V[X]$$

$$MSE(\hat{f}_m) = \tau^2 + V[\hat{f}_m(x_*)] + E[f(x_*) - \hat{f}_m(x_*)]^2$$

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BIAS²

IRREDUCIBLE

ERROR

N de B te th

NOTE: a clean decomposition into Bias and Variance terms exists only for the squared error loss.



ONLINE LEARNING:

All **training algorithms** that we have **seen so far** are called **batch learning algorithms**, in which we **train** and **validate** over **fixed sets** of data.

In **online learning** we have **new data available** through time, so the **algorithm will learn repeatedly** from these **new sources** of data.

Therefore, **given** a **training algorithm**:

- 1. Initialize parameters of the algorithm
- 2. After receiving each i^{th} training example, **update parameters** using any optimization strategy (**stochastic gradient descent**) **using only** that **single example**.

The main problem with this approach is CATASTROPHIC INTERFERENCE

DEBUGGING LEARNING ALGORITHMS:

You have trained an algorithm, but the **performance** was **poor**. Some common **approaches** to **solve** this **include**:

- Try getting more training examples.
- Try a **smaller** set of **features**.
- Try a larger set of features.
- Try changing the features.
- Run gradient descent for more iterations.
- Try Newton' method.
- Use different regularization techniques.
- Try a different algorithm.

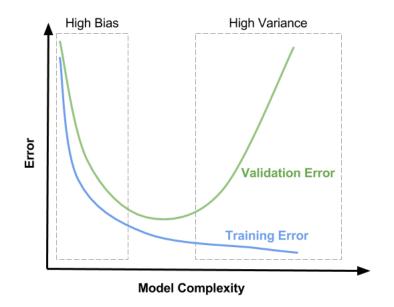
The **problem** with this is that it is **very time-consuming** and **may not** even **work**. You **need** to **analyze deeply** the **problem** to **know** what **approach** you **need** to **take**.



DEBUGGING LEARNING ALGORITHMS:

You will need to check if the problem is related with high bias (underfitting) or high variance (overfitting).

- High variance: training error will be much lower than test error.
- High bias: training error will also be high.



DEBUGGING LEARNING ALGORITHMS:

Typical **learning curve** for **high variance**:

- Test error still decreases as m increases. Thus a larger training set will help.
- Training error increases as m increases
- High variance: there is a large gap between the training and test errors.



DEBUGGING LEARNING ALGORITHMS:

Typical **learning curve** for **high bias**:

- Test error flattens very early on (getting more training data is not the solution).
- Training error is unacceptably high as m increases
- High bias: there is a small gap between the training and test errors.





DEBUGGING LEARNING ALGORITHMS:

We need to deal with **two** other **problems**:

- Optimization algorithm (gradient descent).
- **Objective function**(cost function *J*).

Suppose we try two algorithms: SVM and logistic regression. We will define the parameters obtained by both algorithms as w_{SVM} and w_{LR} respectively.

Therefore you will have **two measures** for **both algorithms**:

- J(w): cost function of LR or SVM.
- F1(w): F1 score of LR or SVM (target metric).

DEBUGGING LEARNING ALGORITHMS:

You have **two cases** supposing that the **optimization objective** was specified as a **maximization** problem (**NOT minimization**). :

Case 1:

- $F1(w_{SVM}) > F1(w_{LR})$
- $J(w_{SVM}) > J(w_{LR})$
- w_{LR} failed to maximize J, thus the problem is in the optimization algorithm (GD).
- Solution: more iterations of GD or change to Newton's method.

Case 2:

- $F1(w_{SVM}) > F1(w_{LR})$
- $J(w_{SVM}) \leq J(w_{LR})$
- w_{LR} succeded to maximize J, thus the problem is in the objective function (J).
- **Solution**: try different λ , change the algorithm to SVM.



DEBUGGING LEARNING ALGORITHMS:

Even though, there will be times when you need to come up with your own diagnostics.

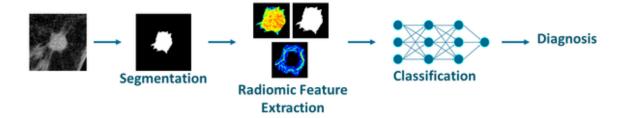
Also, even if an algorithm is working well, you might run diagnostics to make sure you understand what is going on.

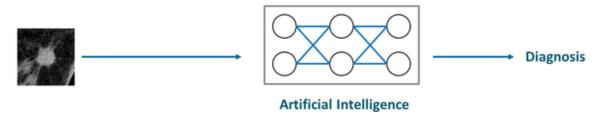
- If you **spend** a **lot** of **time** in the **problem**, it is very **valuable** to **get** an **intuitive sense** of **what works** and **what doesn't work** in your problem.
- Justify why the algorithm is working.

ERROR ANALYSIS:

Many applications combine different components into a "pipeline".

Explain difference between current and perfect performance.

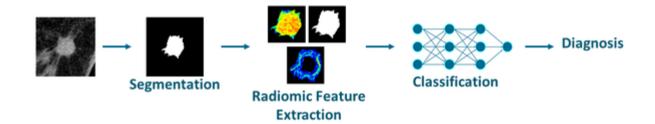


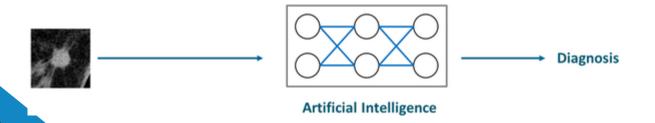


How many error is attributable to each of the components?

ERROR ANALYSIS:

Plug in the **ground-truth** for each **component** and **see** how **accuracy** (F1 score) **changes**.



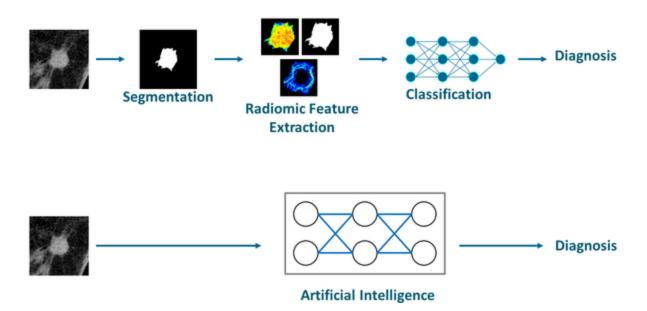


COMPONENT	ACCURACY
Overall system	85 %
Segmentation	93.1%
Radiomic Feature Extraction	95%
Algorithm	100 %

FOCUS ON SEGMENTATION

ABLATIVE ANALYSIS:

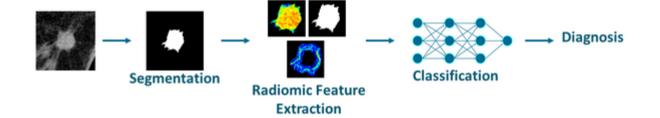
Explain difference between baseline (poorer) and current performance.

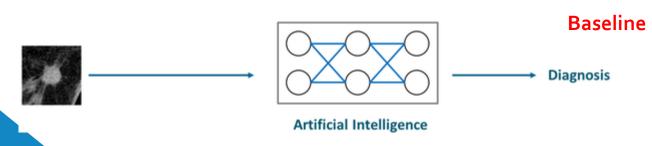


How much did each of these components really help?

ABLATIVE ANALYSIS:

Remove components from your system one at a time. See how it breaks.





COMPONENT	ACCURACY
Overall system	85 %
Segmentation	84 %
Radiomic Feature Extraction	80%

RADIOMIC FEATURE EXTRACTION CONTRIBUTED THE MOST

GETTING STARTED:

Approach 1: careful design

- Spend long time designing right features, collecting data and designing the algorithm.
- Benefit: more scalable algorithms, contribute to research, new algorithms.

Approach 2: build and fix.

- Build something quick and dirty.
- Run error analysis and diagnostics, then fix it.
- Benefit: application will may work more quickly. Faster time to market.

GETTING STARTED:

- The first thing you need to do is PLOT the data, UNDERSTAND it! What is wrong with it?
- You don't want to start with building very complex pipelines. Start simple!
- If you want to do research, you will need to do very deep analysis. Just don't go too deep expecting that it will link naturally to an application!
- Spend a LOT of time in diagnostics!