

10-301/10-601 Introduction to Machine Learning

Machine Learning Department School of Computer Science Carnegie Mellon University

Regularization + Neural Networks

Matt Gormley Lecture 11 Feb. 22, 2023

Reminders

- Homework 4: Logistic Regression
 - Out: Fri, Feb 17
 - Due: Sun, Feb. 26 at 11:59pm
- Lecture on Friday

REGULARIZATION

Overfitting

Definition: The problem of **overfitting** is when the model captures the noise in the training data instead of the underlying structure

Overfitting can occur in all the models we've seen so far:

- Decision Trees (e.g. when tree is too deep)
- KNN (e.g. when k is small)
- Perceptron (e.g. when sample isn't representative)
- Linear Regression (e.g. with nonlinear features)
- Logistic Regression (e.g. with many rare features)

Motivation: Regularization

- Occam's Razor: prefer the simplest hypothesis
- What does it mean for a hypothesis (or model) to be simple?
 - 1. small number of features (model selection)
 - small number of "important" features (shrinkage)

Regularization

- **Given** objective function: $J(\theta)$
- **Goal** is to find: $\hat{\theta} = \underset{\theta}{\operatorname{argmin}} J(\theta) + \lambda r(\theta)$
- Key idea: Define regularizer r(θ) s.t. we tradeoff between fitting the data and keeping the model simple
- Choose form of r(θ):

– Example: q-norm (usually p-norm): $\|\boldsymbol{\theta}\|_q =$

$$= \left(\sum_{m=1}^{M} |\theta_m|^q\right)^{\frac{1}{q}}$$

\overline{q}	$r(oldsymbol{ heta})$	yields parame- ters that are	name	optimization notes
0	$ \boldsymbol{\theta} _0 = \sum \mathbb{1}(\theta_m \neq 0)$	zero values	Lo reg.	no good computa- tional solutions
$rac{1}{2}$	$egin{aligned} oldsymbol{ heta} _1 &= \sum heta_m \ (oldsymbol{ heta} _2)^2 &= \sum heta_m^2 \end{aligned}$	zero values small values	L1 reg. L2 reg.	subdifferentiable differentiable

Regularization Examples

Add an L2 regularizer to Linear Regression (aka. Ridge Regression)

$$J_{\mathsf{R}\mathsf{R}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{\theta}||_2^2$$
$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{2} (\boldsymbol{\theta}^T \mathbf{x}^{(i)} - y^{(i)})^2 + \lambda \sum_{m=1}^M \theta_m^2$$

Add an L1 regularizer to Linear Regression (aka. LASSO)

$$J_{\text{LASSO}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{\theta}||_{1}$$
$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{1}{2} (\boldsymbol{\theta}^{T} \mathbf{x}^{(i)} - y^{(i)})^{2} + \lambda \sum_{m=1}^{M} |\boldsymbol{\theta}_{m}|$$

Regularization Examples

Add an L2 regularizer to Logistic Regression

$$J'(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{\theta}||_2^2$$
$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N -\log p(y^{(i)} \mid \mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) + \lambda \sum_{m=1}^M \theta_m^2$$

Add an L1 regularizer to Logistic Regression

$$J'(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{\theta}||_1$$
$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N -\log p(y^{(i)} \mid \mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) + \lambda \sum_{m=1}^M |\boldsymbol{\theta}_m|$$

Regularization

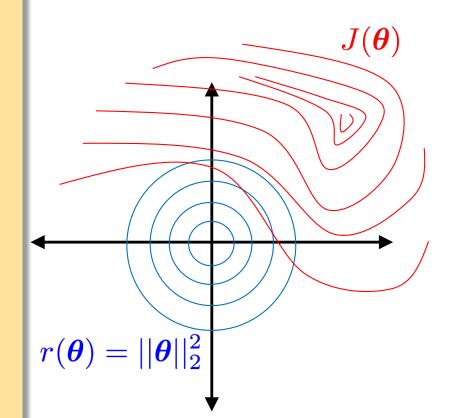
Question:

Suppose we are minimizing $J'(\theta)$ where

 $J'(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + \lambda r(\boldsymbol{\theta})$

As λ increases, the minimum of J'(θ) will...

- A. ... move towards the midpoint between $J(\theta)$ and $r(\theta)$
- B. ... move towards the minimum of $J(\theta)$
- C. ... move towards the minimum of $r(\theta)$
- D. ... move towards a theta vector of positive infinities
- E. ... move towards a theta vector of negative infinities
- F. ... stay the same



Regularization

Don't Regularize the Bias (Intercept) Parameter!

- In our models so far, the bias / intercept parameter is usually denoted by θ_0 -- that is, the parameter for which we fixed $x_0 = 1$
- Regularizers always avoid penalizing this bias / intercept parameter
- Why? Because otherwise the learning algorithms wouldn't be invariant to a shift in the y-values

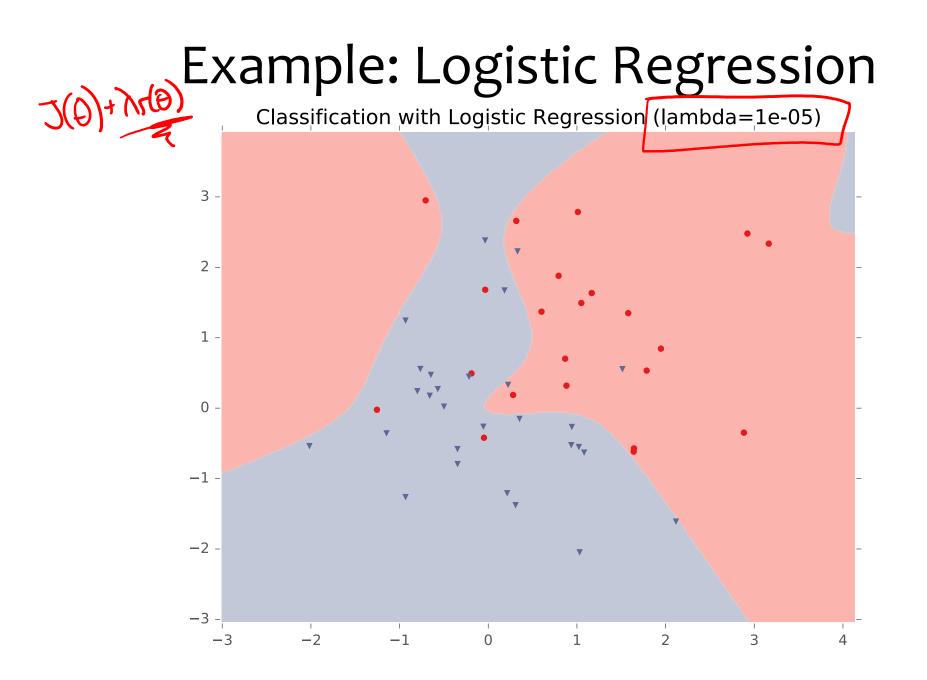
Standardizing Data

- It's common to *standardize* each feature by subtracting its mean and dividing by its standard deviation
- For regularization, this helps all the features be penalized in the same units (e.g. convert both centimeters and kilometers to z-scores)

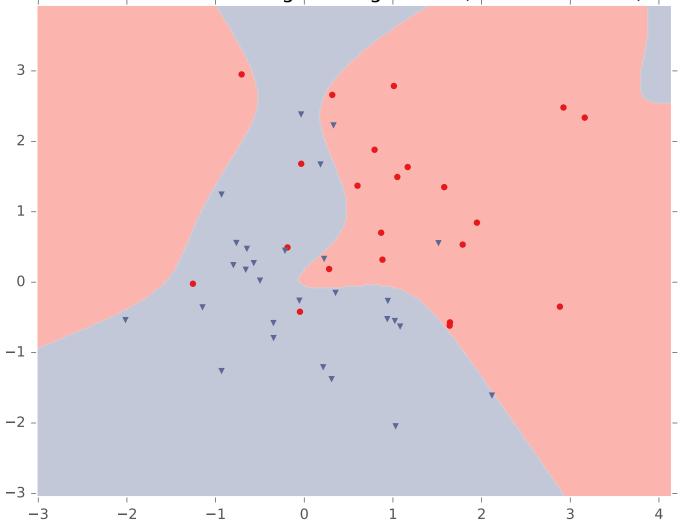
REGULARIZATION EXAMPLE: LOGISTIC REGRESSION



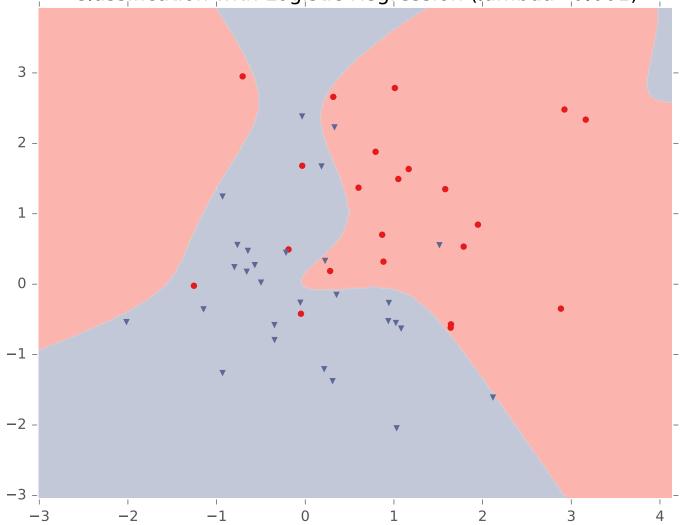
- For this example, we construct **nonlinear features** (i.e. feature engineering)
- Specifically, we add polynomials up to order 9 of the two original features x₁ and x₂
- Thus our classifier is linear in the high-dimensional feature space, but the decision boundary is nonlinear when visualized in low-dimensions (i.e. the original two dimensions)



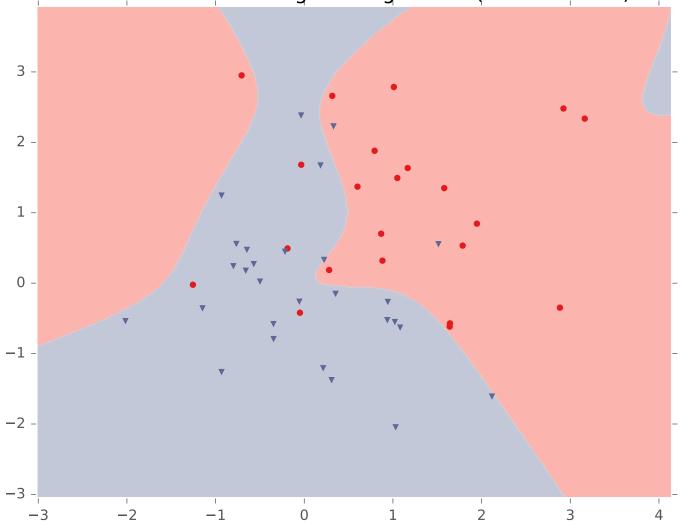
Classification with Logistic Regression (lambda=0.0001)



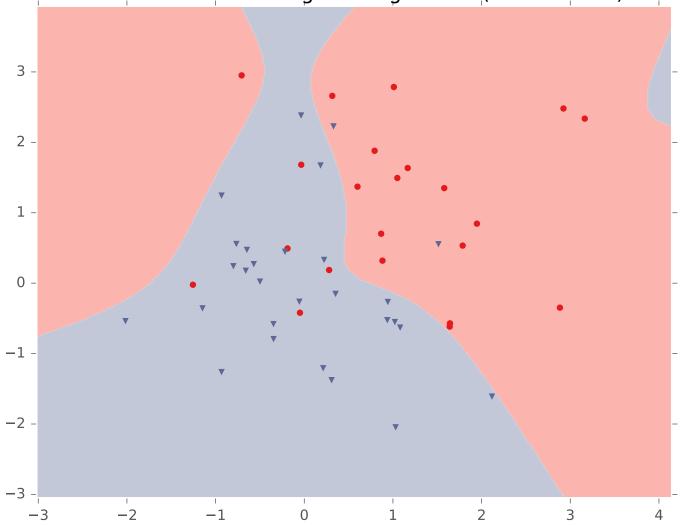
Classification with Logistic Regression (lambda=0.001)



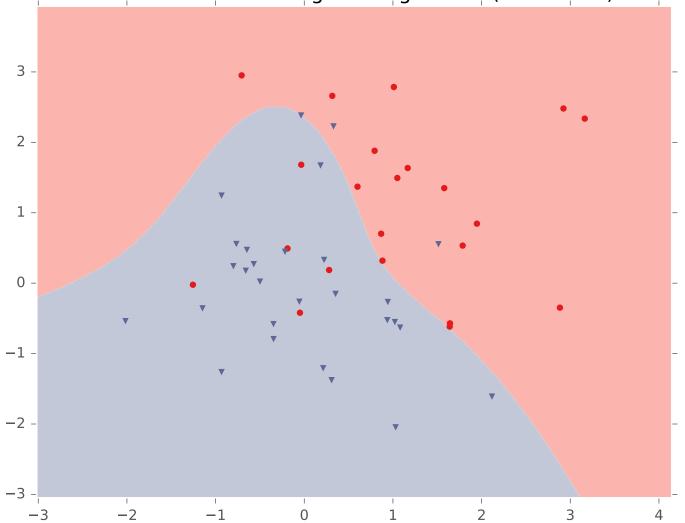
Classification with Logistic Regression (lambda=0.01)



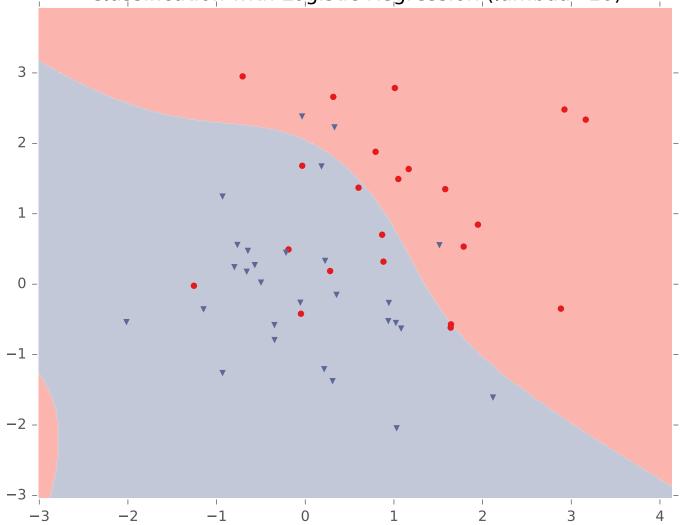
Classification with Logistic Regression (lambda=0.1)



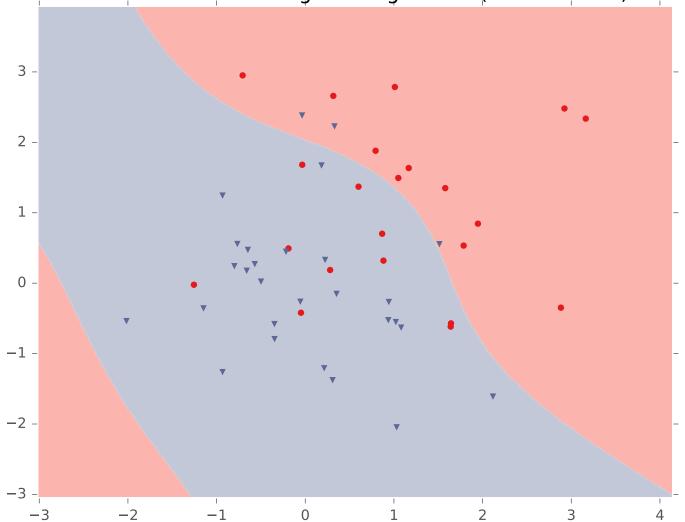
Classification with Logistic Regression (lambda=1)



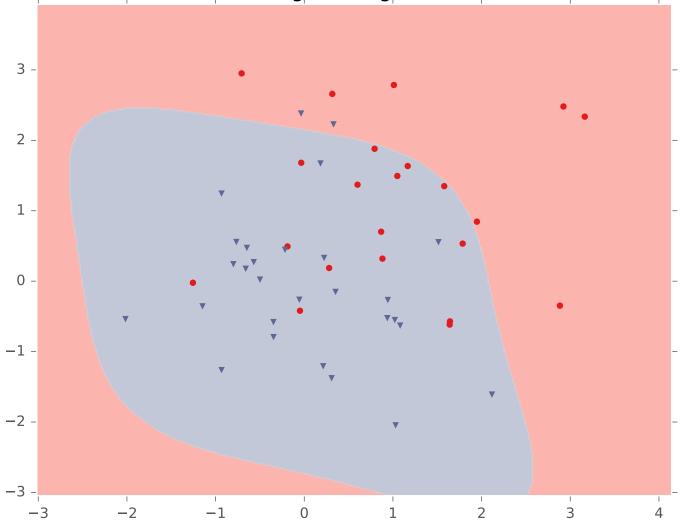
Classification with Logistic Regression (lambda=10)



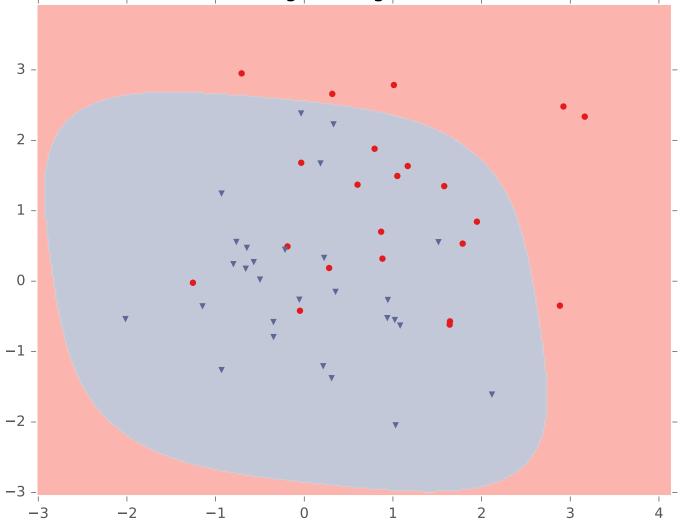
Classification with Logistic Regression (lambda=100)



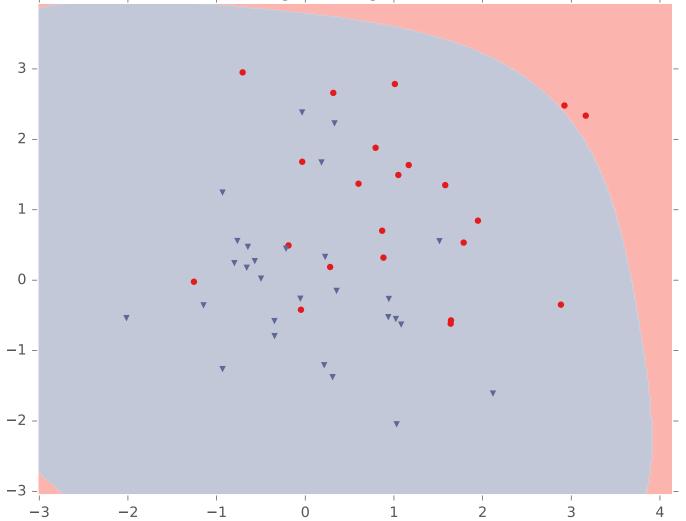
Classification with Logistic Regression (lambda=1000)



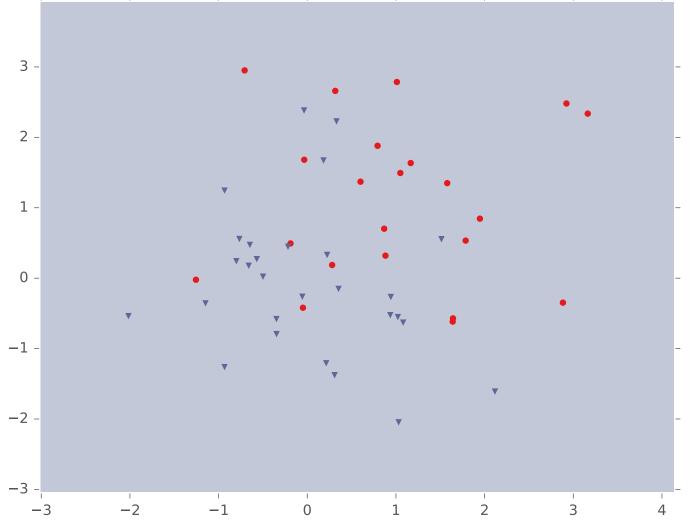
Classification with Logistic Regression (lambda=10000)



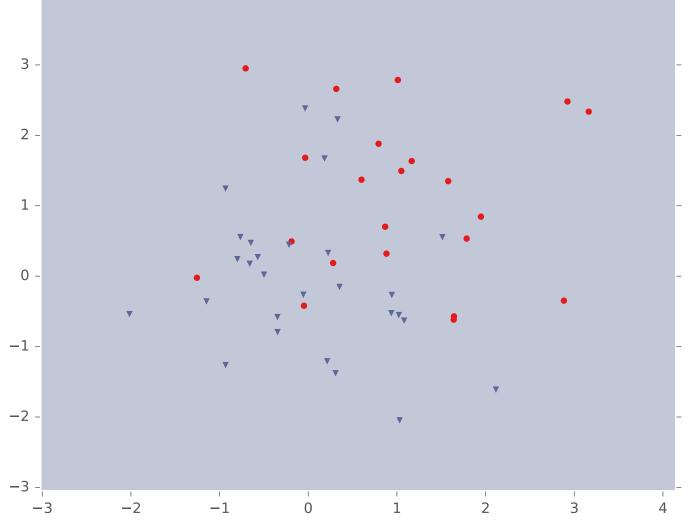
Classification with Logistic Regression (lambda=100000)

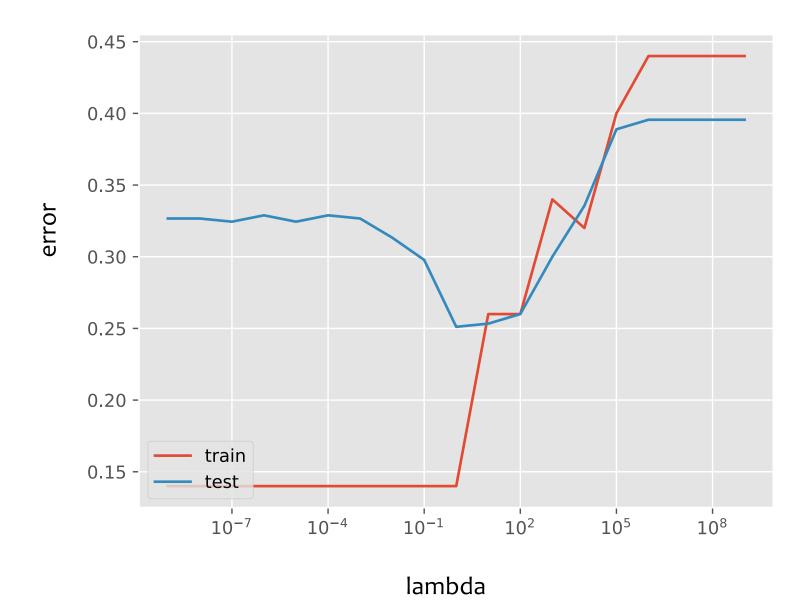


Classification with Logistic Regression (lambda=1e+06)



Classification with Logistic Regression (lambda=1e+07)





OPTIMIZATION FOR L1 REGULARIZATION

Optimization for L1 Regularization

Can we apply SGD to the LASSO learning problem? argmin $J_{\text{LASSO}}(\theta)$

$$J_{\text{LASSO}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{\theta}||_{1}$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (\boldsymbol{\theta}^{T} \mathbf{x}^{(i)} - y^{(i)})^{2} + \lambda \sum_{k=1}^{K} |\boldsymbol{\theta}_{k}|$$

Optimization for L1 Regularization

• Consider the absolute value function:

$$r(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \lambda \sum_{k=1}^{K} |\theta_k|$$

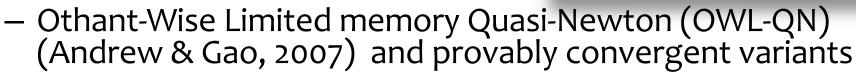
• The L1 penalty is subdifferentiable (i.e. not differentiable at 0)

Def: A vector $g \in \mathbb{R}^M$ is called a **subgradient** of a function $f(\mathbf{x}) : \mathbb{R}^M \to \mathbb{R}$ at the point \mathbf{x} if, for all $\mathbf{x}' \in \mathbb{R}^M$, we have:

 $f(\mathbf{x}') \ge f(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{g}^T(\mathbf{x}' - \mathbf{x})$

Optimization for L1 Regularization

- The L1 penalty is subdifferentiable (i.e. not differentiable at 0)
- An array of optimization algorithms exist to handle this issue:
 Basically the same as GD
 - Subgradient descent
 - Stochastic subgradient descent
 - Coordinate Descent



- Block coordinate Descent (Tseng & Yun, 2009)
- Sparse Reconstruction by Separable Approximation (SpaRSA) (Wright et al., 2009)
- Fast Iterative Shrinkage Thresholding Algorithm (FISTA) (Beck & Teboulle, 2009)

and SGD, but you use

one of the subgradients

when necessary

Regularization as MAP

- L1 and L2 regularization can be interpreted as maximum a-posteriori (MAP) estimation of the parameters
- To be discussed later in the course...

Takeaways

- Nonlinear basis functions allow linear models (e.g. Linear Regression, Logistic Regression) to capture nonlinear aspects of the original input
- Nonlinear features are require no changes to the model (i.e. just preprocessing)
- 3. Regularization helps to avoid overfitting
- **4. Regularization** and **MAP estimation** are equivalent for appropriately chosen priors

Feature Engineering / Regularization You should be able to ... Q1: What greating do you have?

- Engineer appropriate features for a new task
- Use feature selection techniques to identify and remove irrelevant features
- Identify when a model is overfitting
- Add a regularizer to an existing objective in order to combat overfitting
- Explain why we should **not** regularize the bias term
- Convert linearly inseparable dataset to a linearly ulletseparable dataset in higher dimensions
- Describe feature engineering in common application areas

NEURAL NETWORKS

Background

A Recipe for Machine Learning

- 1. Given training data: $\{oldsymbol{x}_i,oldsymbol{y}_i\}_{i=1}^N$
- 2. Choose each of these:
 - Decision function
 - $\hat{\boldsymbol{y}} = f_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{x}_i)$
 - Loss function
 - $\ell(\hat{oldsymbol{y}},oldsymbol{y}_i)\in\mathbb{R}$



Examples: Linear regression, Logistic regression, Neural Network

Examples: Mean-squared error, Cross Entropy

Background

- Machine Learning 1. Given training data: $\{x_i, y_i\}_{i=1}^N$
- 2. Choose each of these:
 - Decision function
 - $\hat{\boldsymbol{y}} = f_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{x}_i)$
 - Loss function

 $\ell(\hat{oldsymbol{y}},oldsymbol{y}_i)\in\mathbb{R}$

- 3. Define goal: $\boldsymbol{\theta}^* = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \sum \ell(f_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{x}_i), \boldsymbol{y}_i)$
- 4. Train with SGD: (take small steps opposite the gradient)

A Recipe for

 $\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t+1)} = \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)} - \eta_t \nabla \ell(f_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{x}_i), \boldsymbol{y}_i)$

Background

A Recipe for Gradients

1. Given training dat $\{oldsymbol{x}_i,oldsymbol{y}_i\}_{i=1}^N$

2. Choose each of t

Decision function

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{y}} = f_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{x}_i)$$

Loss function

 $\ell(\hat{oldsymbol{y}},oldsymbol{y}_i)\in\mathbb{R}$

Backpropagation can compute this gradient!

And it's a special case of a more
 general algorithm called reverse mode automatic differentiation that
 can compute the gradient of any
 differentiable function efficiently!

opposite the gradient)

 $(t) - \eta_t
abla \ell(f_{oldsymbol{ heta}}(oldsymbol{x}_i),oldsymbol{y}_i))$

A Recipe for

Goals for Today's Lecture

- Explore a new class of decision functions (Neural Networks)
 - 2. Consider variants of this recipe for training

2. choose each of these:

Decision function

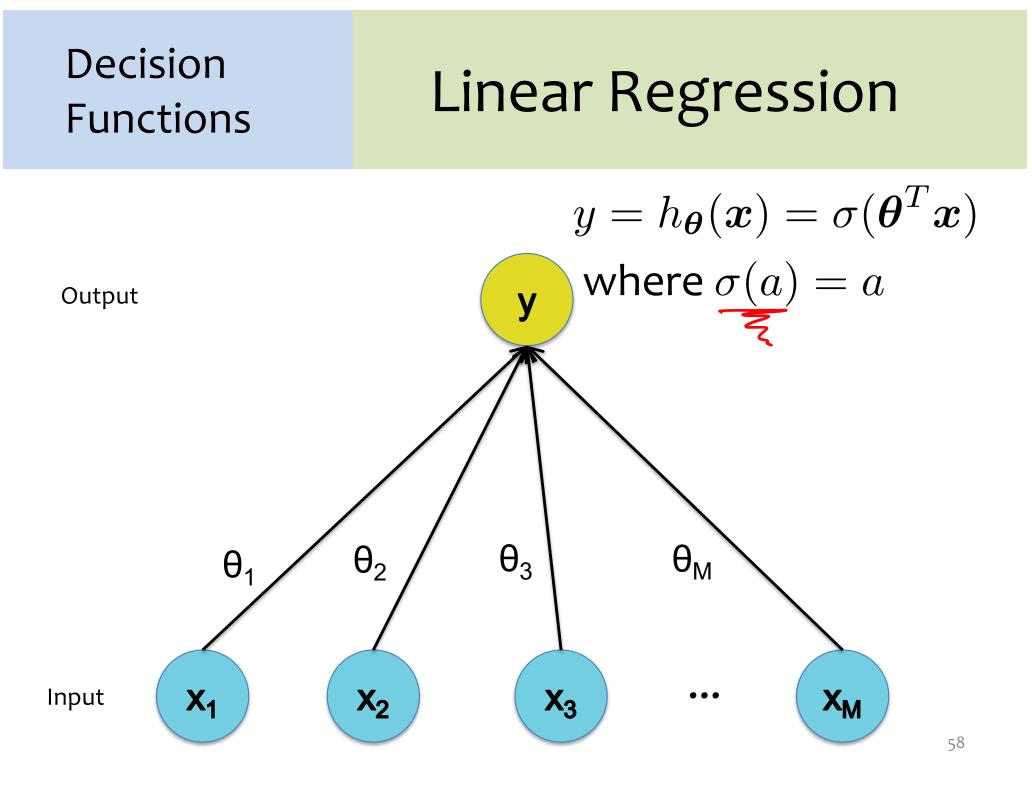
$$\hat{\boldsymbol{y}} = f_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{x}_i)$$

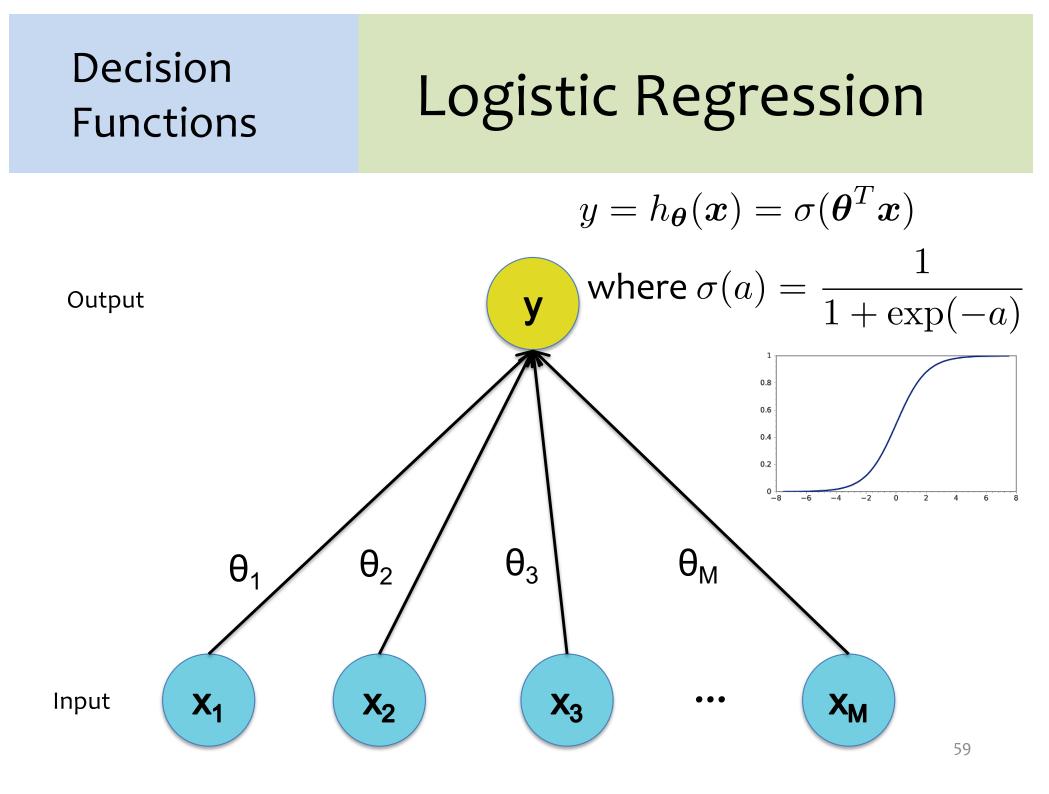
Loss function

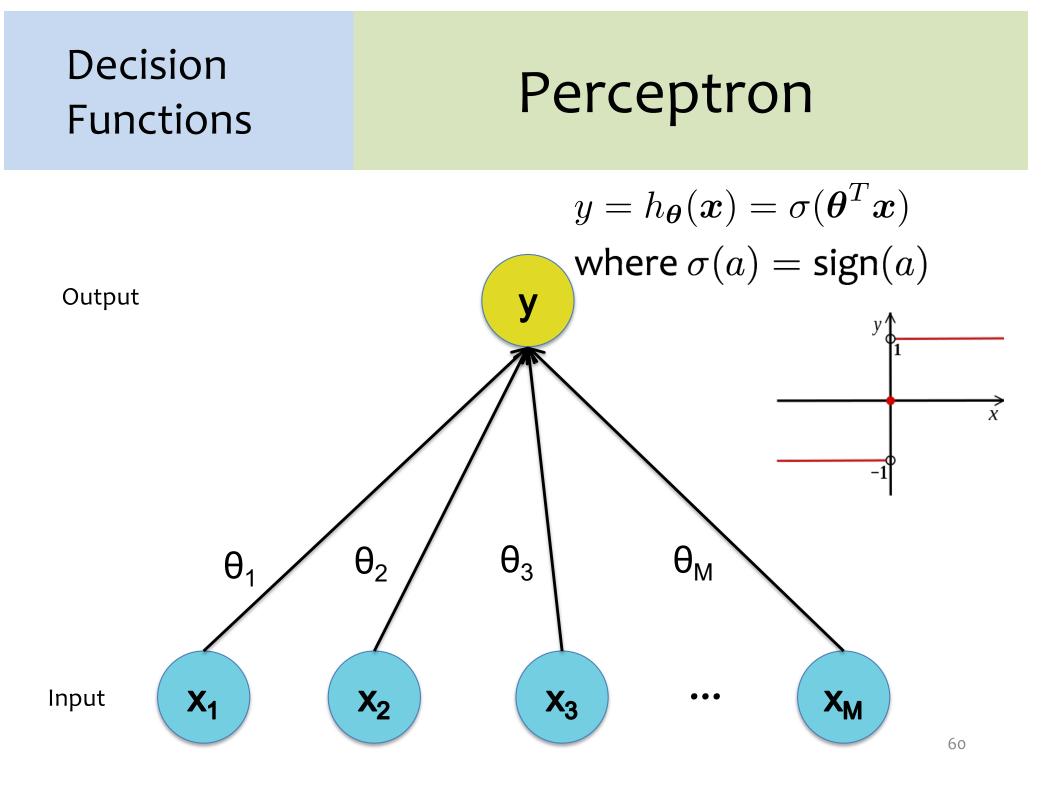
 $\ell(\hat{oldsymbol{y}},oldsymbol{y}_i)\in\mathbb{R}$

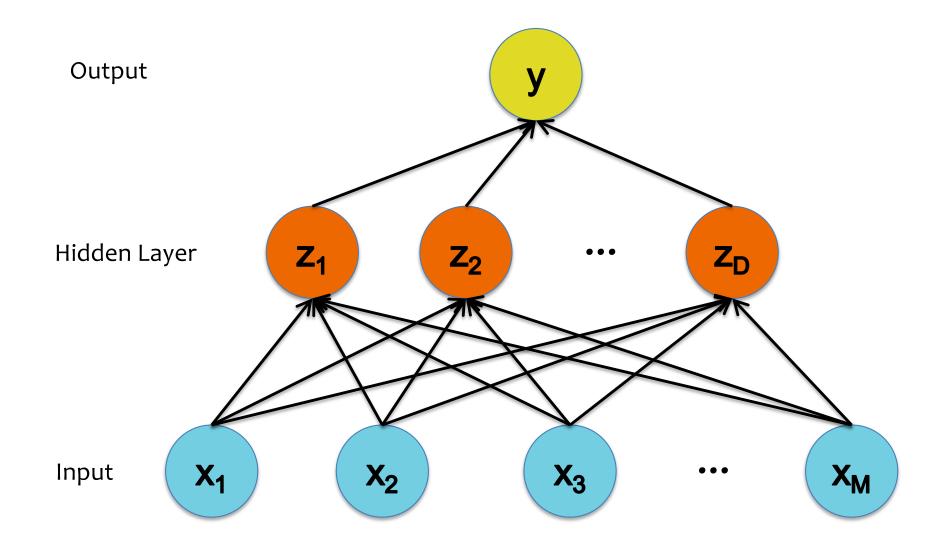
Train with SGD:
 Ike small steps
 opposite the gradient)

$$oldsymbol{ heta}^{(t+1)} = oldsymbol{ heta}^{(t)} - \eta_t
abla \ell(f_{oldsymbol{ heta}}(oldsymbol{x}_i),oldsymbol{y}_i)$$



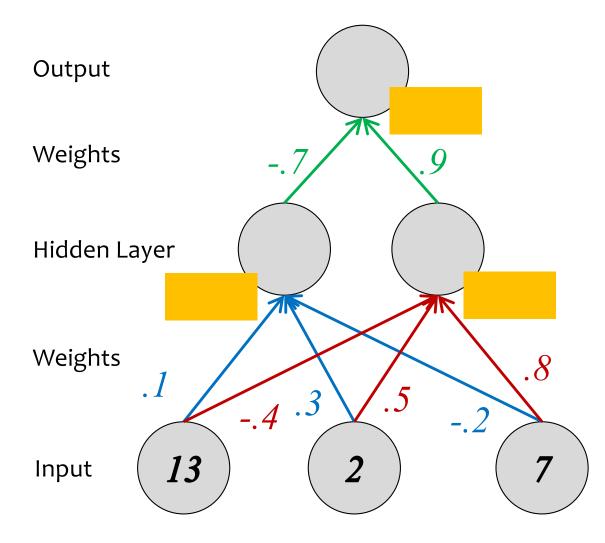






COMPONENTS OF A NEURAL NETWORK

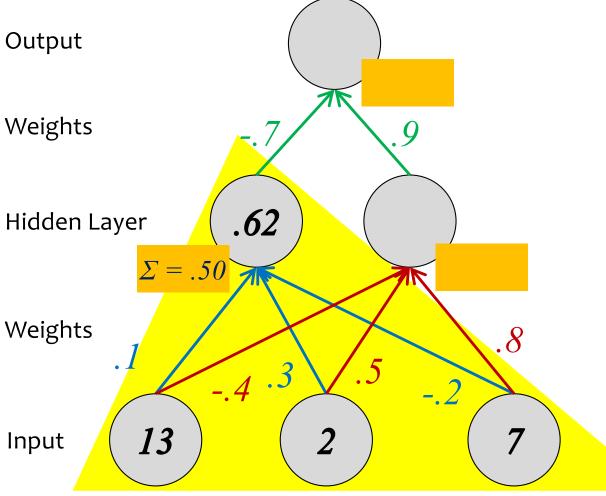
Neural Network



Suppose we already learned the weights of the neural network.

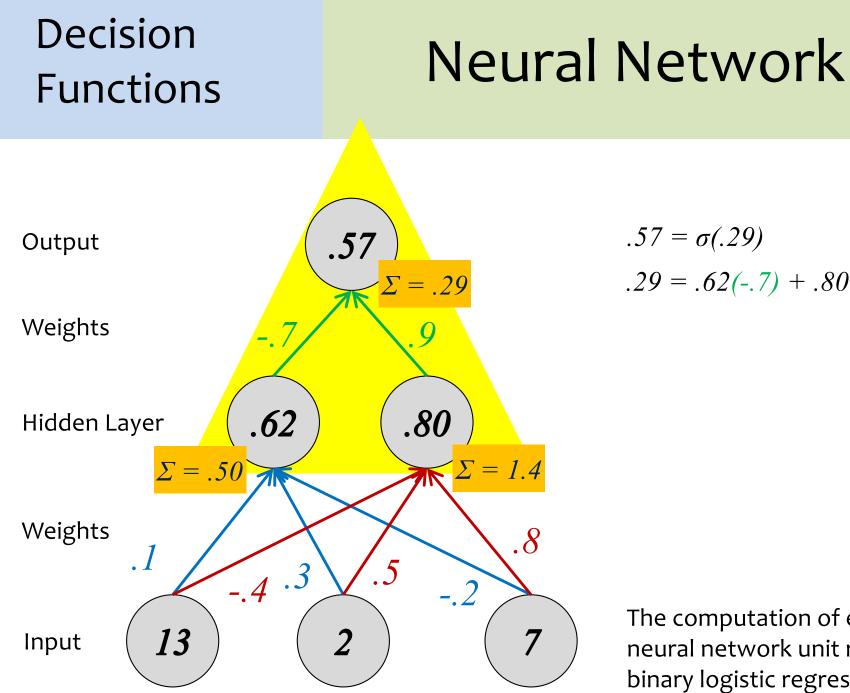
To make a new prediction, we take in some new features (aka. the input layer) and perform the feed-forward computation.

Neural Network



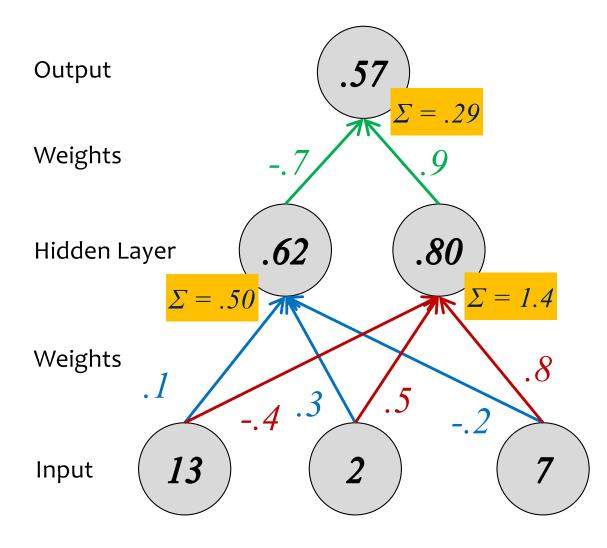
 $.62 = \sigma(.50)$.50 = 13(.1) + 2(.3) + 7(-.2)

Decision Neural Network **Functions** Output Weights Q $.80 = \sigma(1.4)$ 1.4 = 13(-.4) + 2(.5) + 7(.8).62 .80 Hidden Layer $\Sigma = 1.4$ =.50 Weights .8 .1 .5 -.4 .3 -.2 The computation of each *13* 2 Input neural network unit resembles binary logistic regression.



.29 = .62(-.7) + .80(.9)

Neural Network

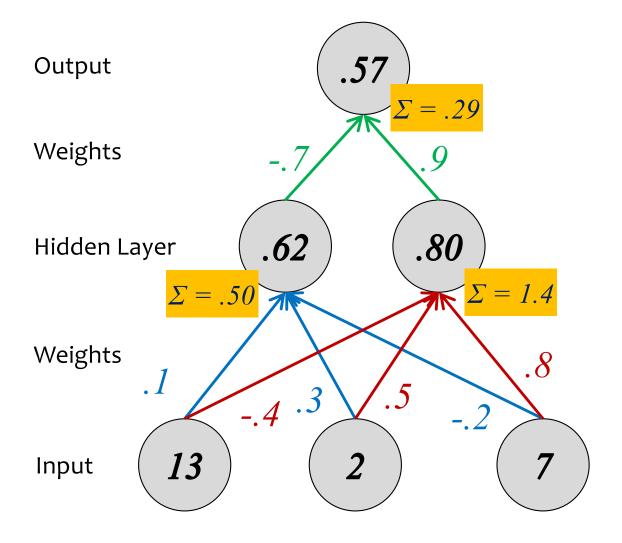


 $.57 = \sigma(.29)$.29 = .62(-.7) + .80(.9)

 $.80 = \sigma(1.4)$ 1.4 = 13(-.4) + 2(.5) + 7(.8)

 $.62 = \sigma(.50)$.50 = 13(.1) + 2(.3) + 7(-.2)

Neural Network



Except we only have the target value for y at training time! We have to learn to create "useful" values of z₁ and z₂ in

the hidden layer.



From Biological to Artificial

The motivation for Artificial Neural Networks comes from biology...

Biological "Model"

- Neuron: an excitable cell
- **Synapse:** connection between neurons
- A neuron sends an electrochemical pulse along its synapses when a sufficient voltage change occurs
- **Biological Neural Network:** collection of neurons along some pathway through the brain

Biological "Computation"

- Neuron switching time : ~ 0.001 sec
- Number of neurons: $\sim 10^{10}$
- Connections per neuron: ~ 10⁴⁻⁵
- Scene recognition time: ~ 0.1 sec

Artificial Model

• Neuron: node in a directed acyclic graph (DAG)

Synapses

Dendrites

mpulse

Axon

- Weight: multiplier on each edge
- Activation Function: nonlinear thresholding function, which allows a neuron to "fire" when the input value is sufficiently high
- Artificial Neural Network: collection of neurons into a DAG, which define some differentiable function

Artificial Computation

- Many neuron-like threshold switching units
- Many weighted interconnections among units
- Highly parallel, distributed processes

Nodes

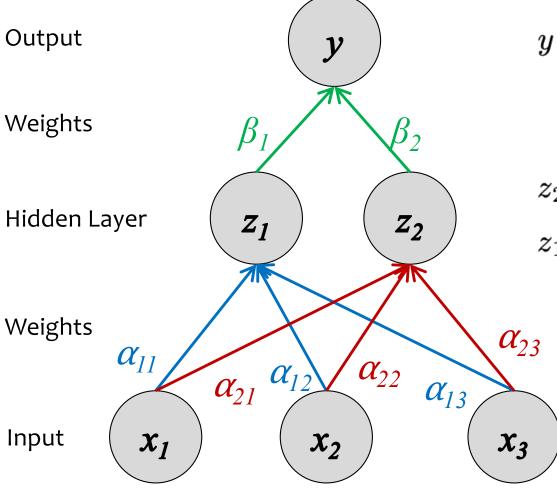
Synapses (weights)

DEFINING A 1-HIDDEN LAYER NEURAL NETWORK

Neural Networks

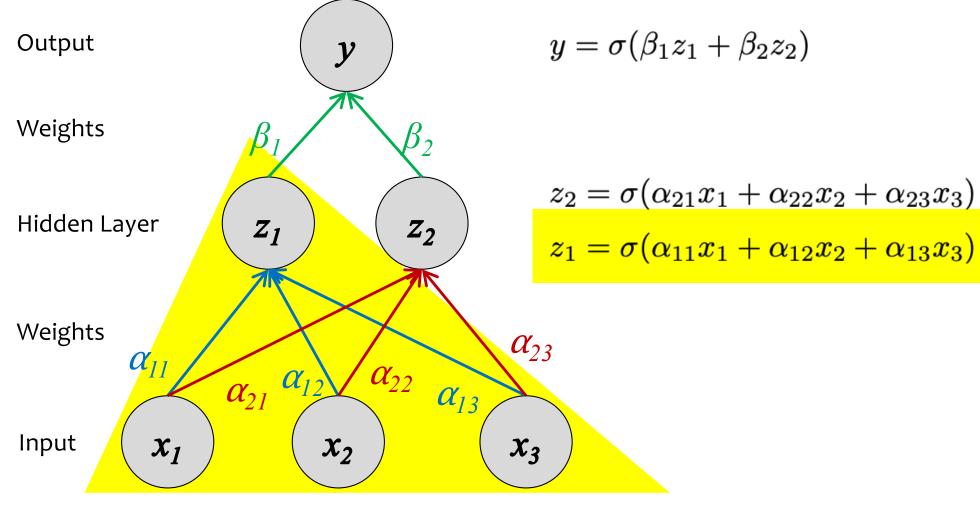
Chalkboard

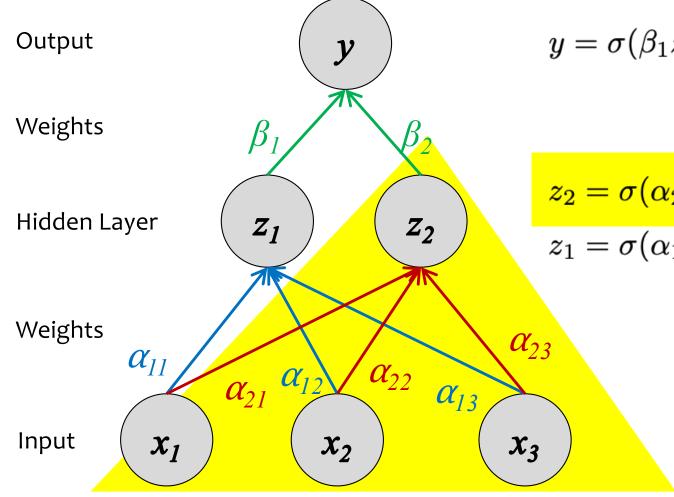
– Example: Neural Network w/1 Hidden Layer



$$y = \sigma(\beta_1 z_1 + \beta_2 z_2)$$

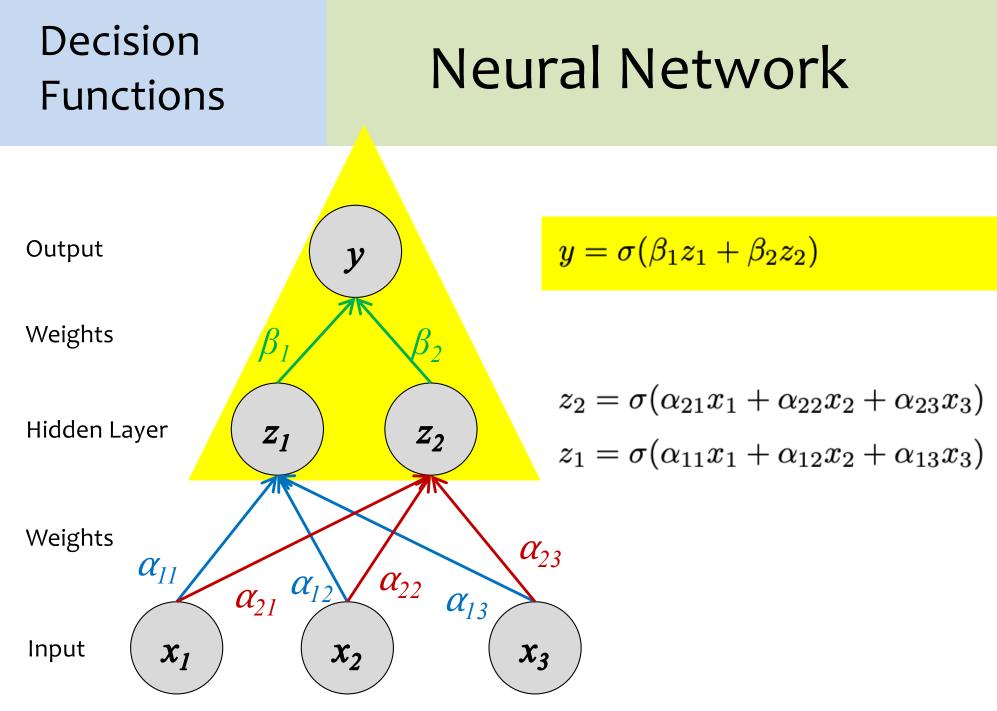
$$egin{aligned} &z_2 = \sigma(lpha_{21}x_1 + lpha_{22}x_2 + lpha_{23}x_3) \ &z_1 = \sigma(lpha_{11}x_1 + lpha_{12}x_2 + lpha_{13}x_3) \end{aligned}$$

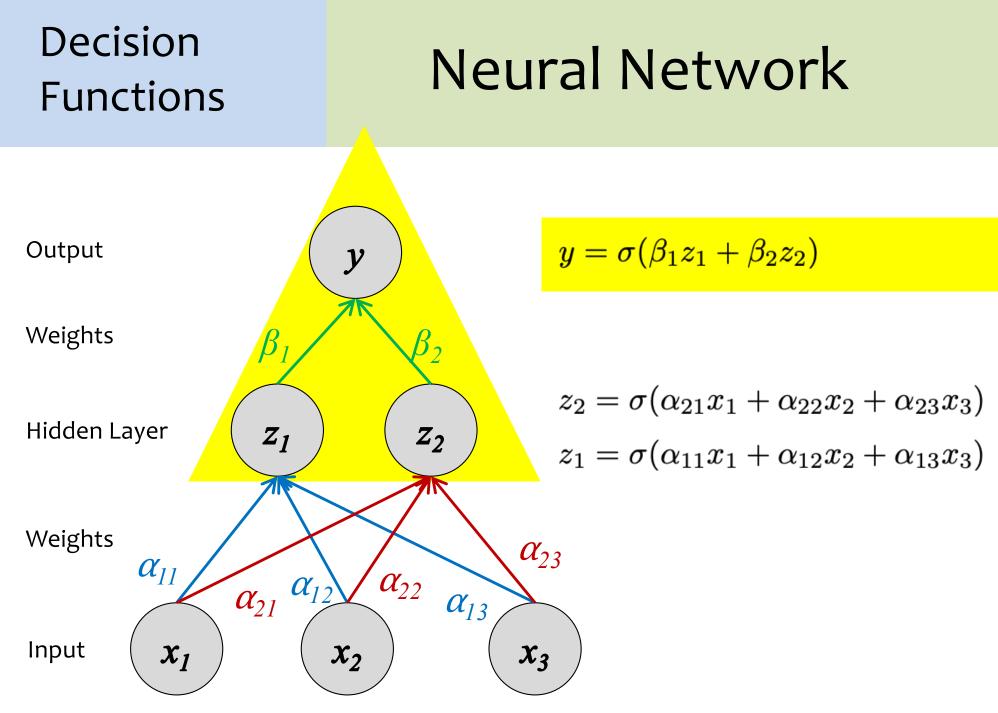




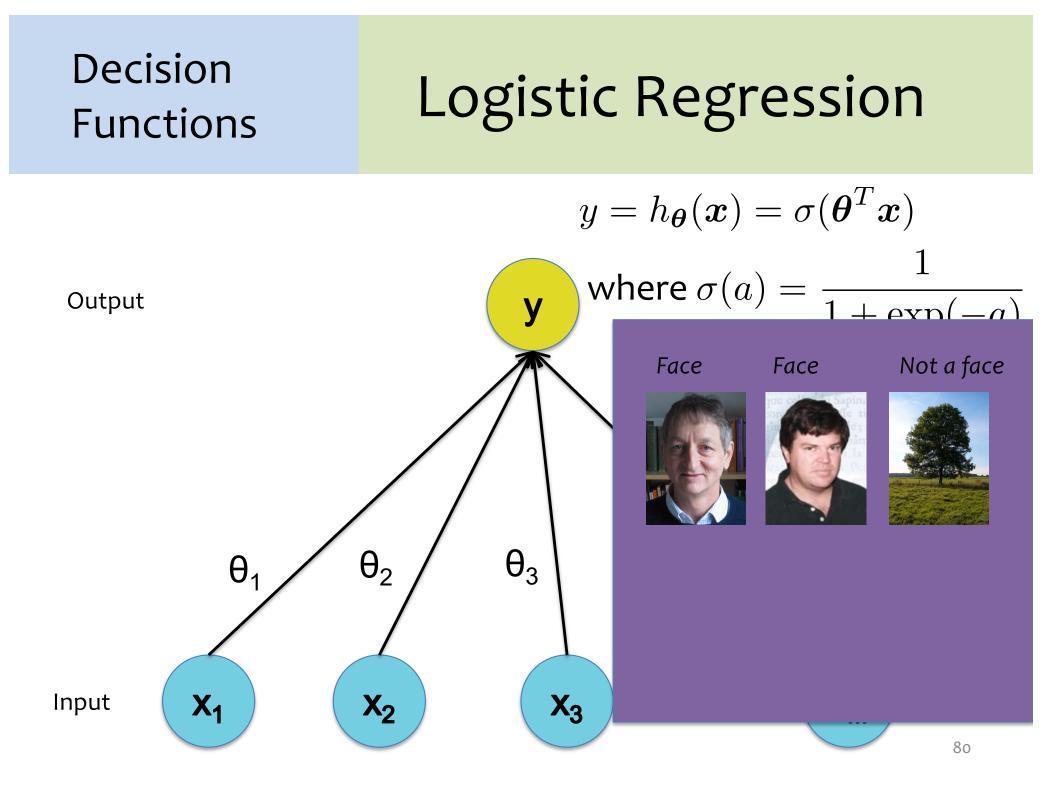
$$y = \sigma(\beta_1 z_1 + \beta_2 z_2)$$

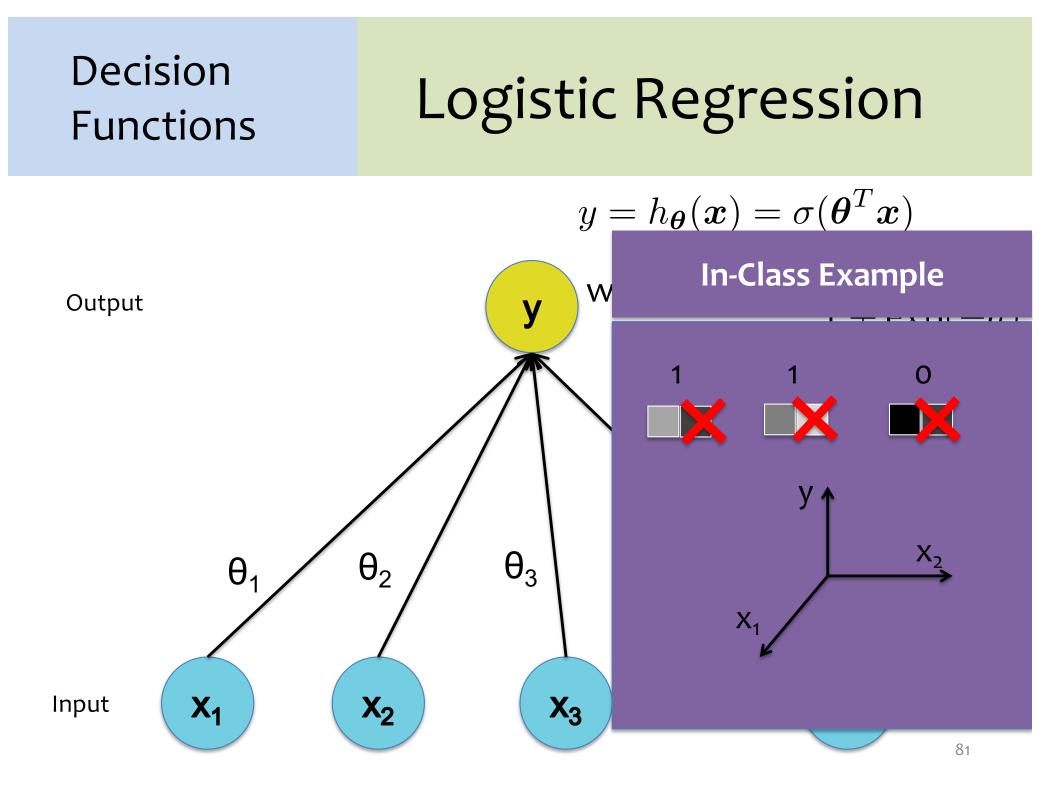
$$egin{split} z_2 &= \sigma(lpha_{21}x_1 + lpha_{22}x_2 + lpha_{23}x_3) \ z_1 &= \sigma(lpha_{11}x_1 + lpha_{12}x_2 + lpha_{13}x_3) \end{split}$$



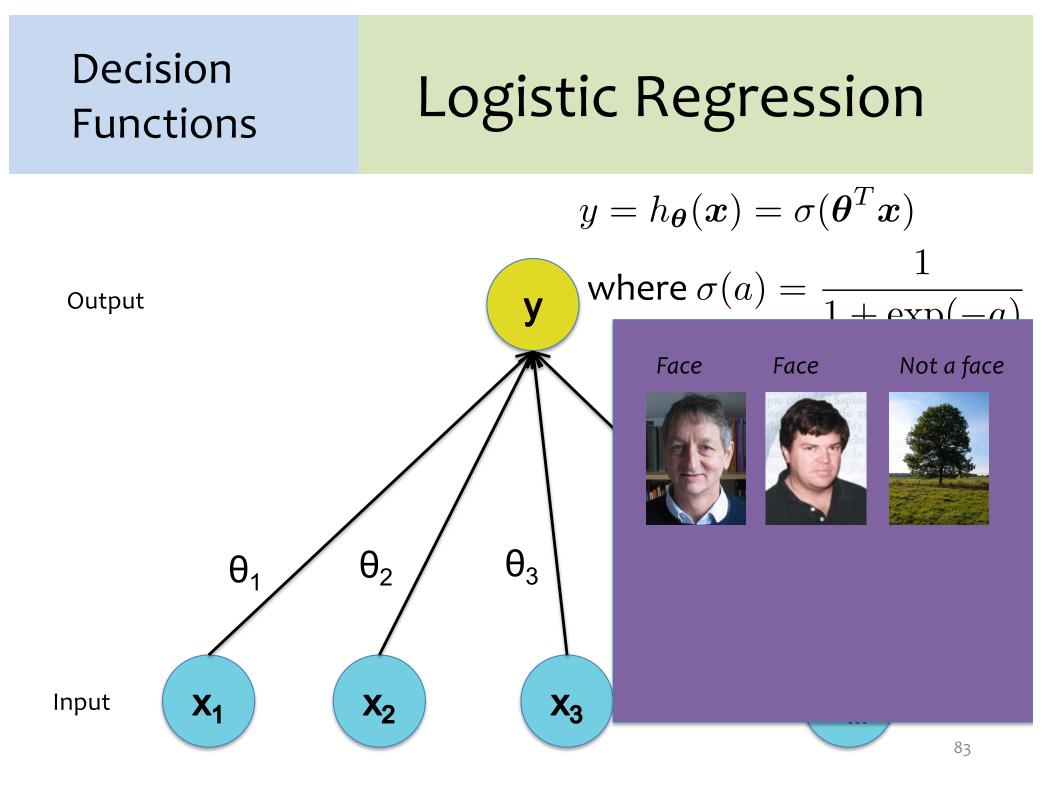


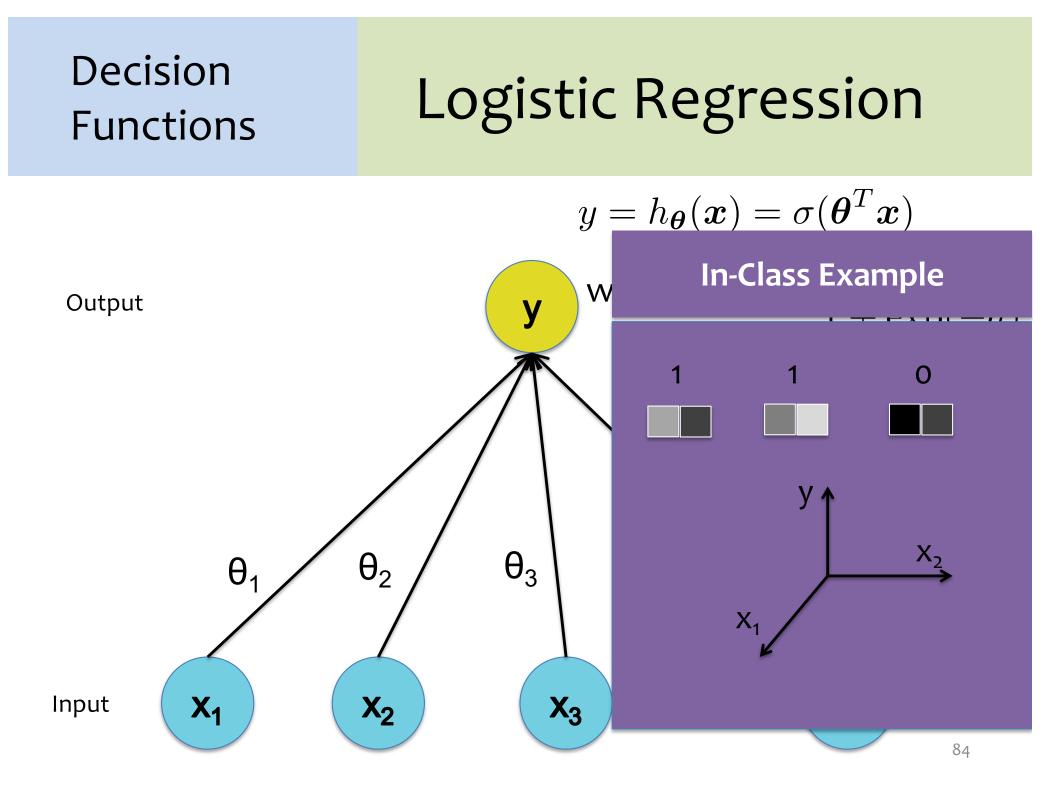
NONLINEAR DECISION BOUNDARIES AND NEURAL NETWORKS





- Chalkboard
 - 1D Example from linear regression to logistic regression
 - 1D Example from logistic regression to a neural network





Neural Network Parameters

Z₂

Question:

Suppose you are training a one-hidden layer neural network with sigmoid activations for binary classification.

True or False: There is a unique set of parameters that maximize the likelihood of the dataset above.

X₁ **Answer:** NNs have nonconvex Objective Functions,

 $\alpha'_1 = \alpha_2 \quad \alpha'_2 = \alpha_1$ $\beta'_1 = \beta_2 \quad \beta'_2 = \beta_1$

ARCHITECTURES

Neural Network Architectures

Even for a basic Neural Network, there are many design decisions to make:

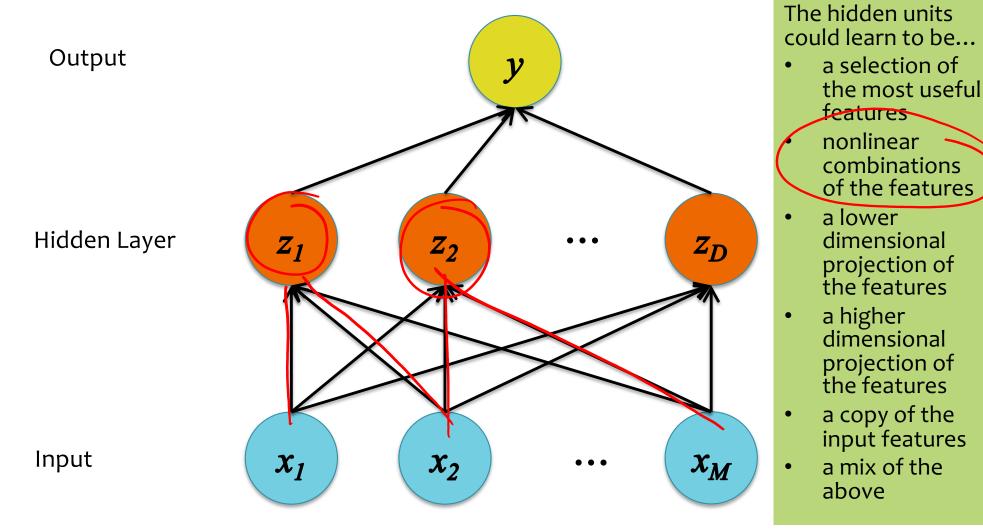
- 1. # of hidden layers (depth)
- 2. # of units per hidden layer (width)
- 3. Type of activation function (nonlinearity)
- 4. Form of objective function
- 5. How to initialize the parameters

BUILDING WIDER NETWORKS



Building a Neural Net

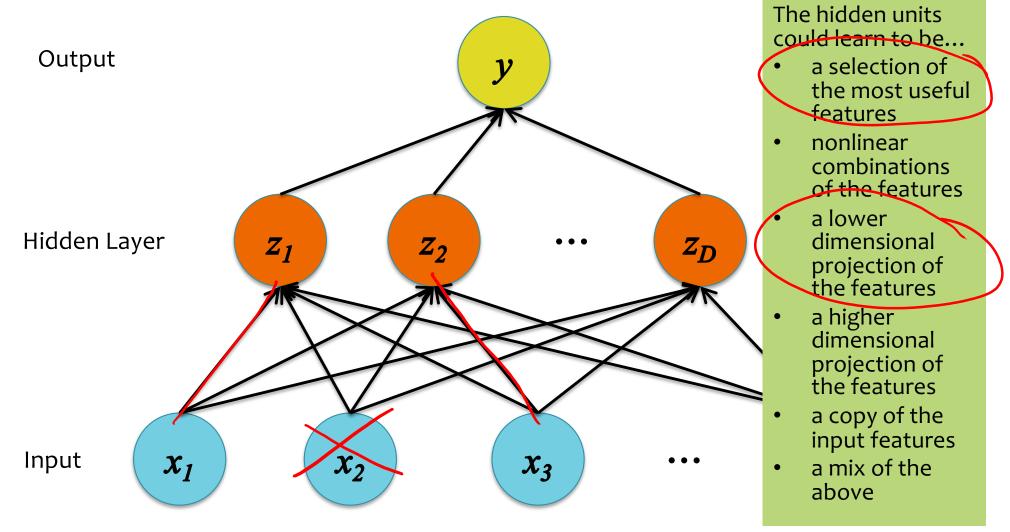
Q: How many hidden units, D, should we use?





Building a Neural Net

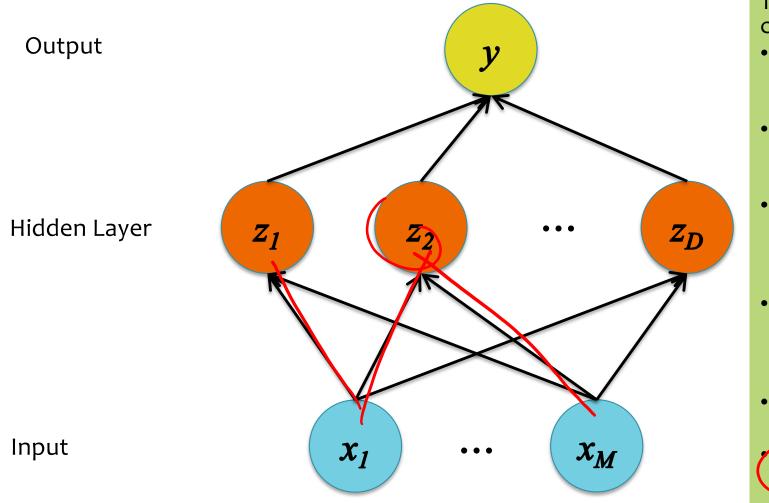
Q: How many hidden units, D, should we use?





Building a Neural Net

Q: How many hidden units, D, should we use?



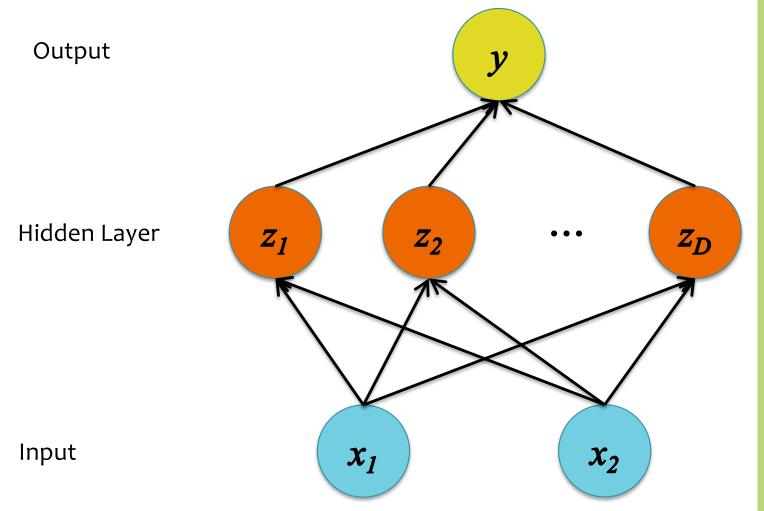
The hidden units could learn to be...

- a selection of the most useful features
- nonlinear combinations of the features
- a lower dimensional projection of the features
- a higher dimensional projection of the features
- a copy of the input features

a mix of the above

$D \ge M$ Building a Neural Net

In the following examples, we have two input features, M=2, and we vary the number of hidden units, D.

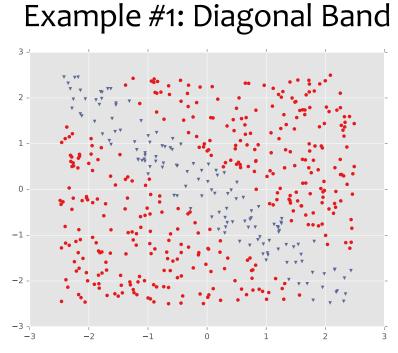


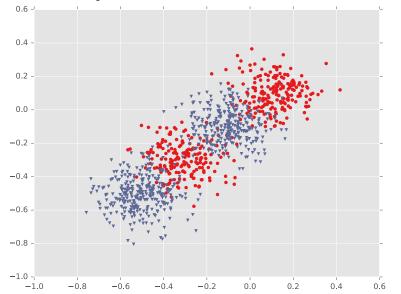
The hidden units could learn to be...

- a selection of the most useful features
- nonlinear combinations of the features
- a lower dimensional projection of the features
- a higher dimensional projection of the features
- a copy of the input features
- a mix of the above

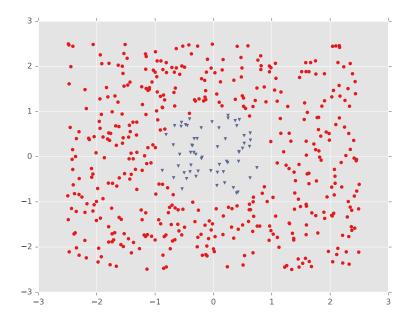
Examples 1 and 2

DECISION BOUNDARY EXAMPLES

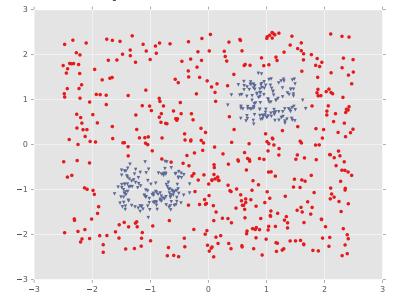


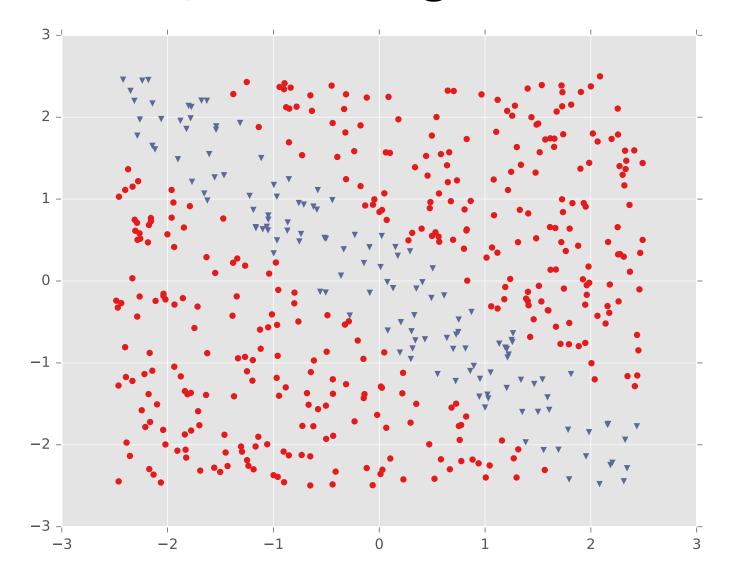


Example #2: One Pocket

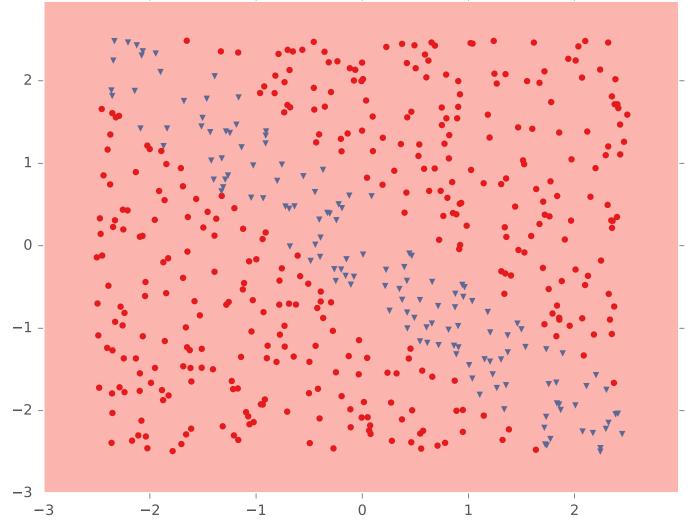


Example #4: Two Pockets

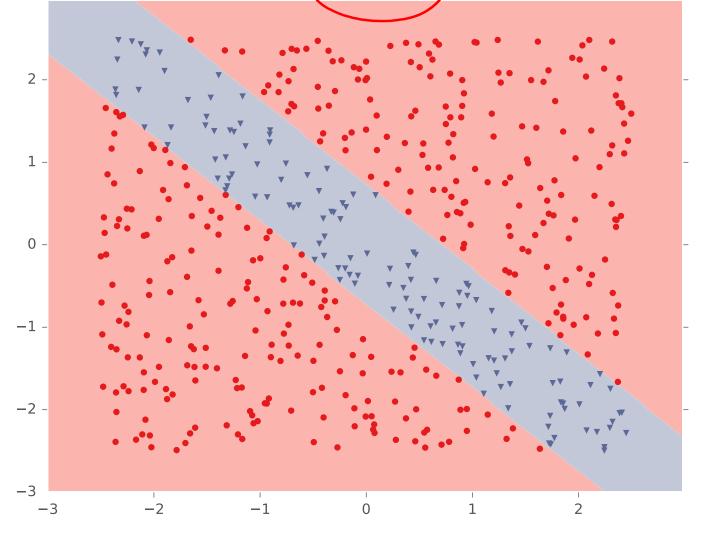




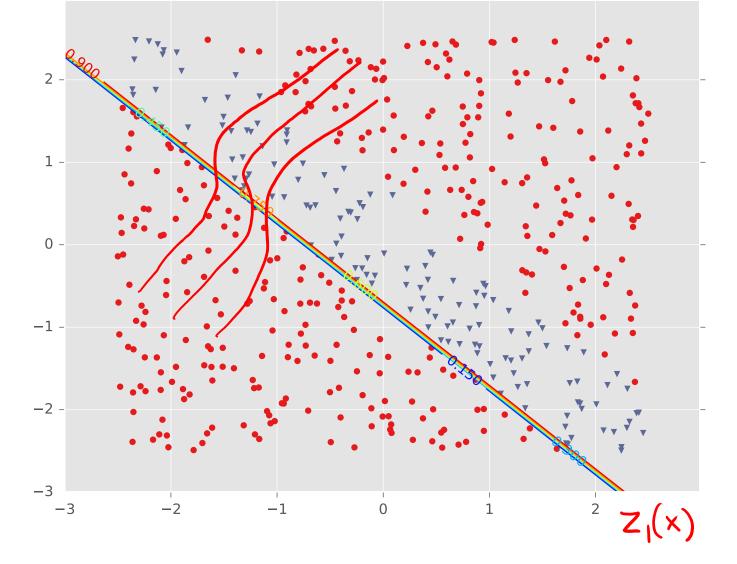
Logistic Regression

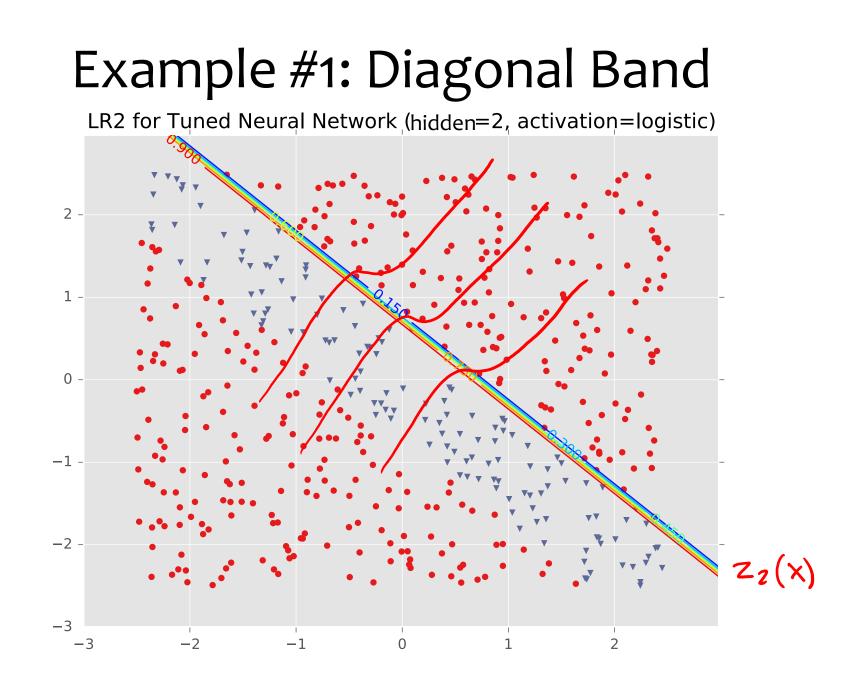


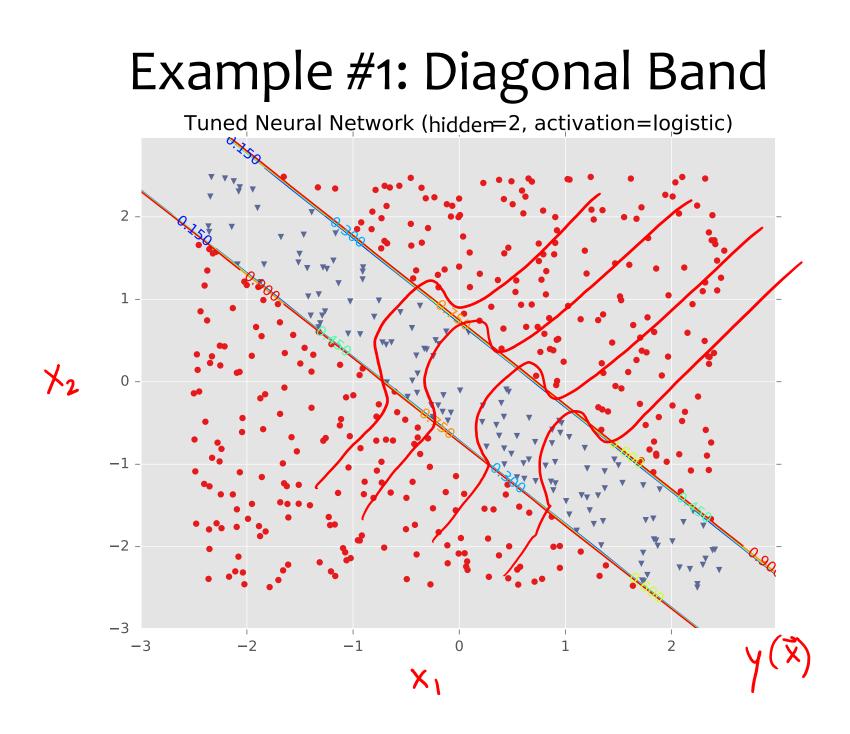
Tuned Neural Network (hidden=2, activation=logistic)



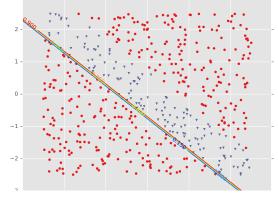
LR1 for Tuned Neural Network (hidden=2, activation=logistic)



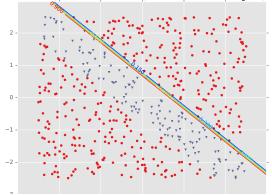




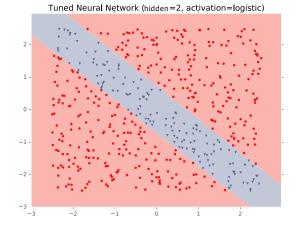
LR1 for Tuned Neural Network (hidden=2, activation=logistic)

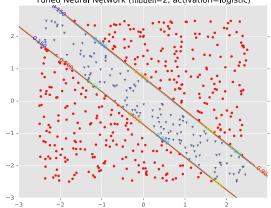


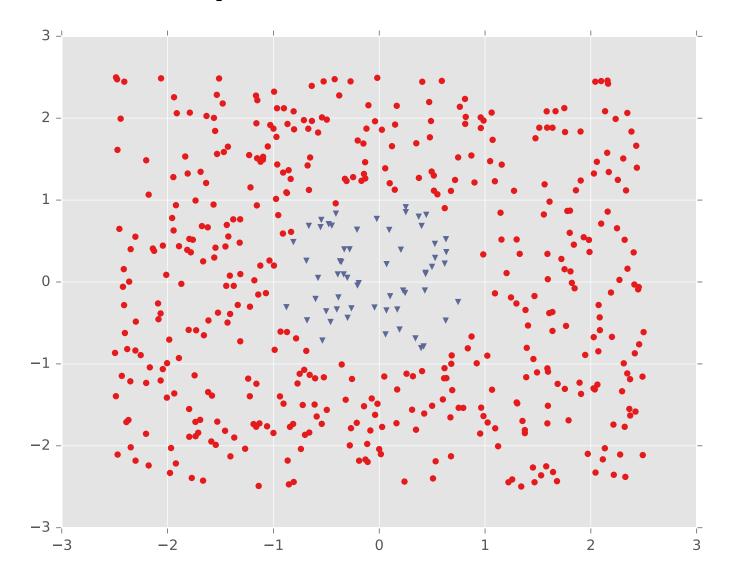
LR2 for Tuned Neural Network (hidden=2, activation=logistic)



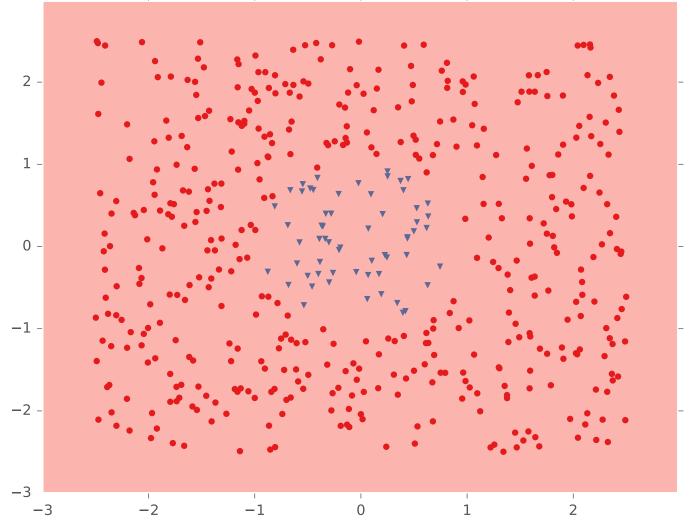
Tuned Neural Network (hidden=2, activation=logistic)



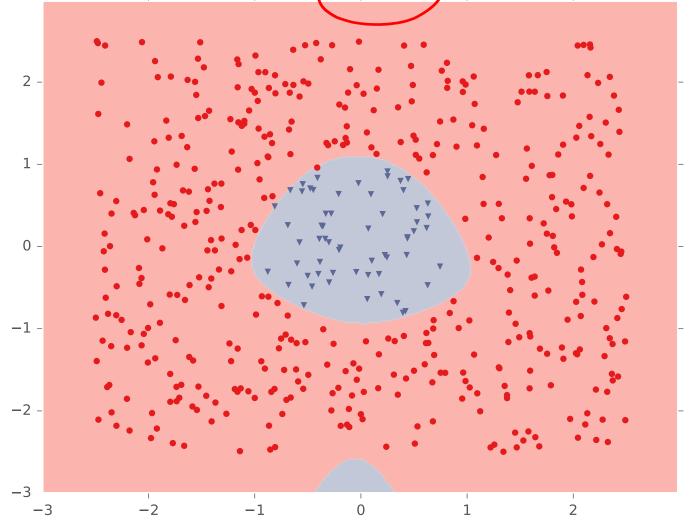




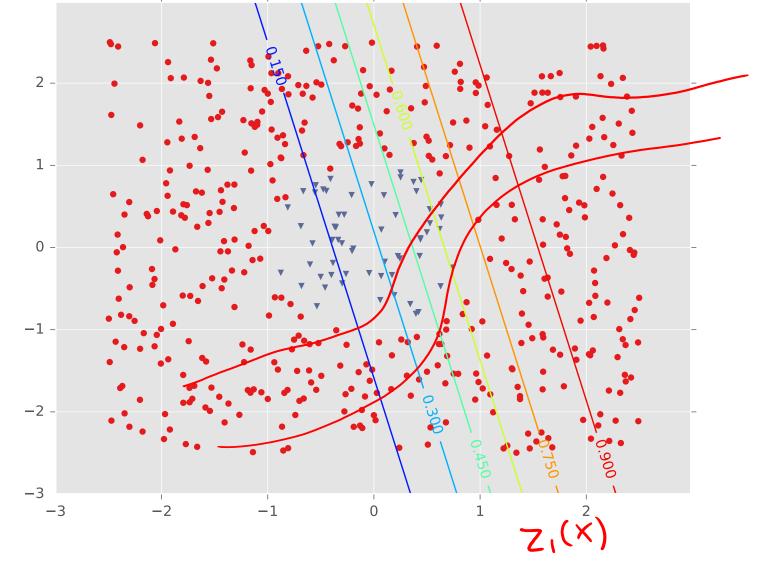
Logistic Regression



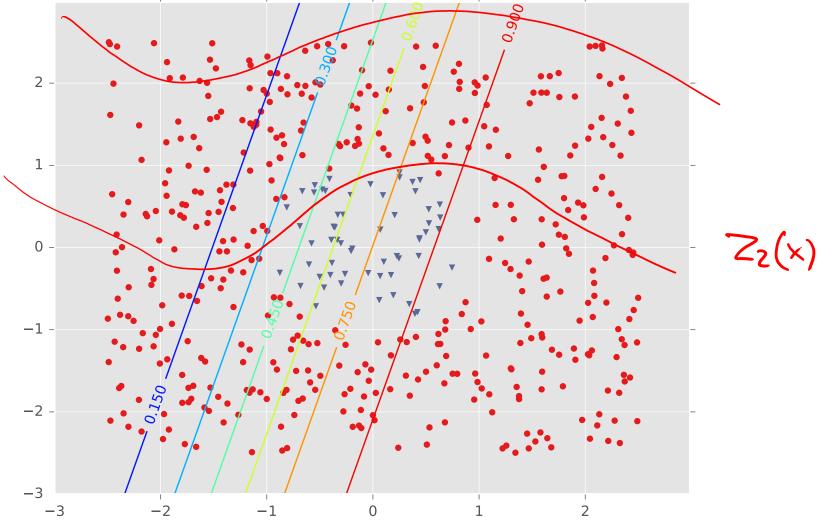
Tuned Neural Network (hidden=3, activation=logistic)



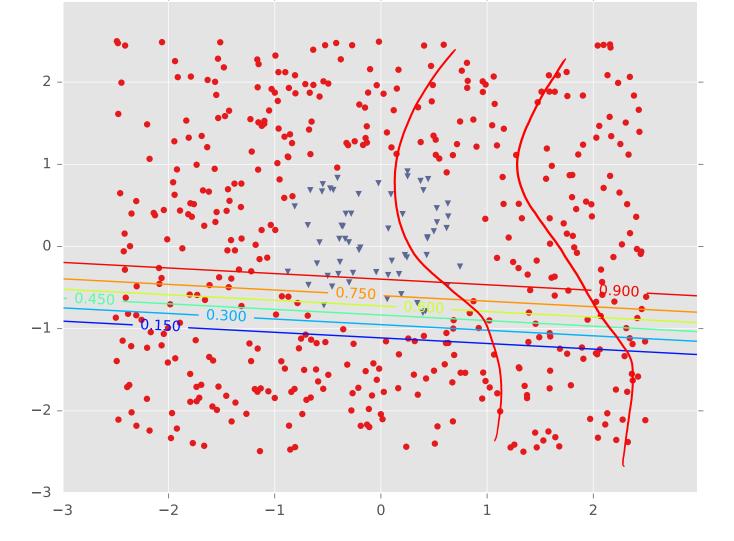
LR1 for Tuned Neural Network (hidden=3, activation=logistic)



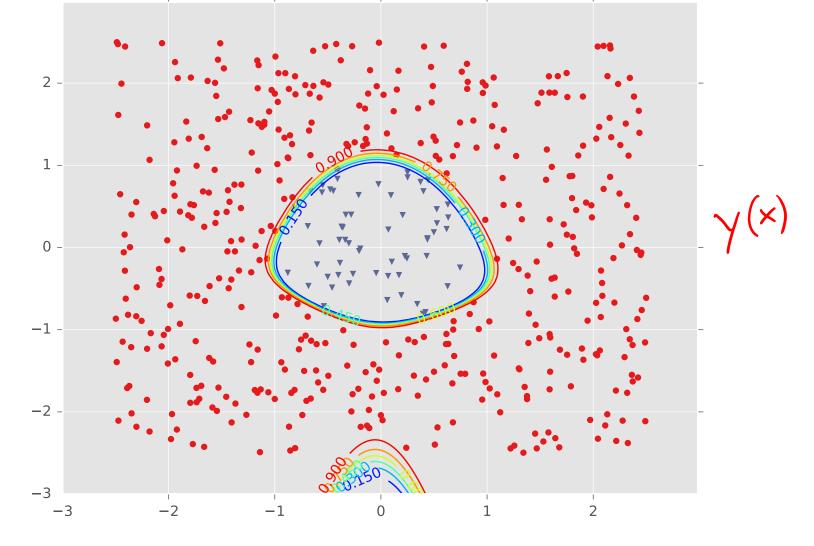
LR2 for Tuned Neural Network (hidden=3, activation=logistic)

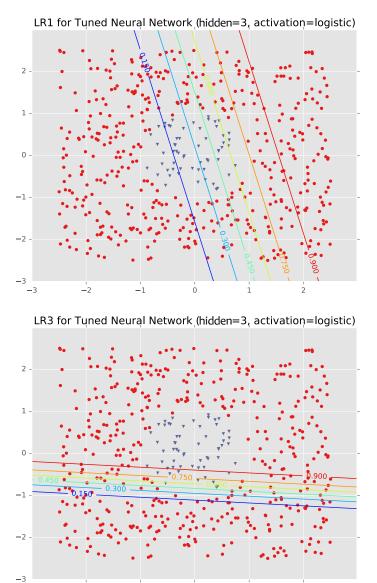


LR3 for Tuned Neural Network (hidden=3, activation=logistic)



Tuned Neural Network (hidden=3, activation=logistic)



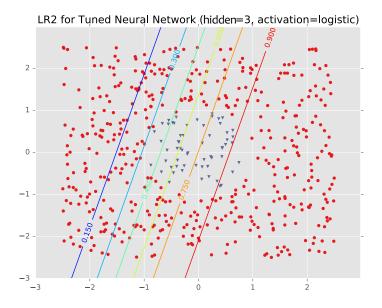


-1

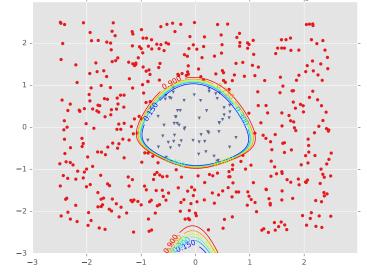
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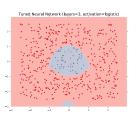
2

-3



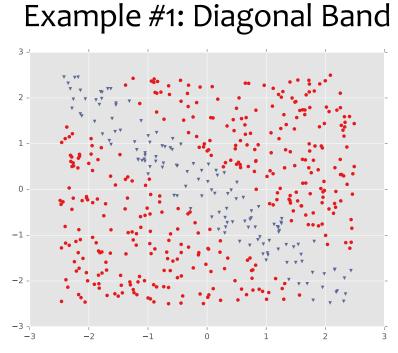
Tuned Neural Network (hidden=3, activation=logistic)

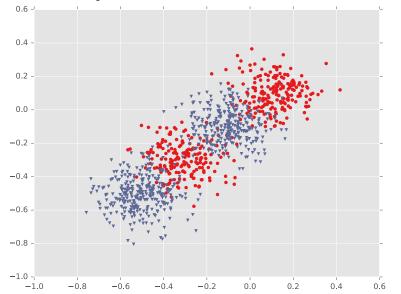




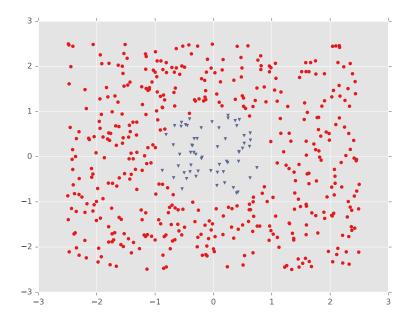
Examples 3 and 4

DECISION BOUNDARY EXAMPLES

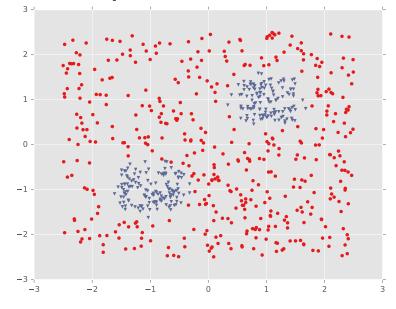


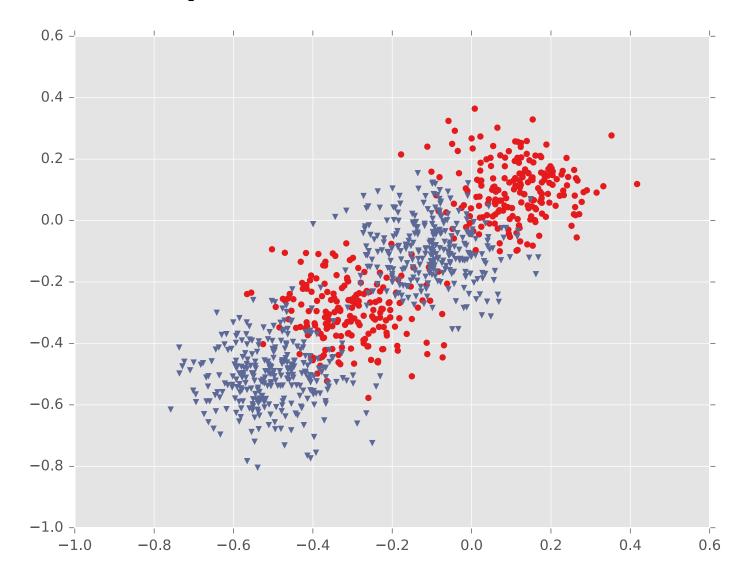


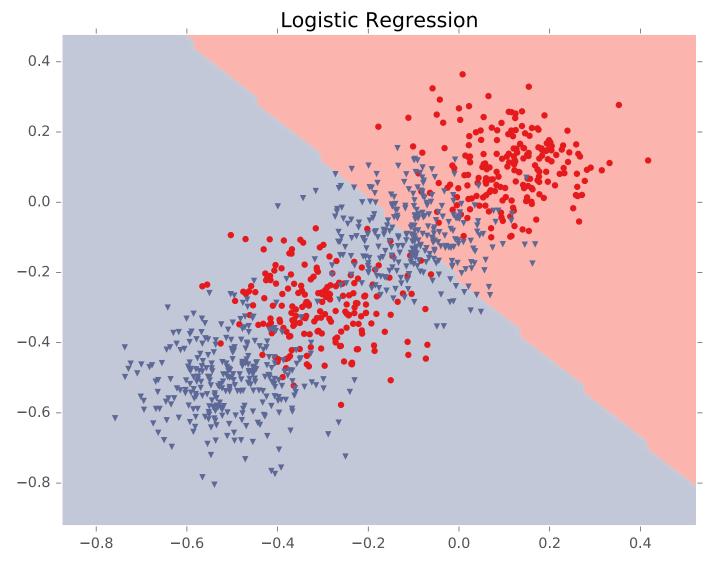
Example #2: One Pocket



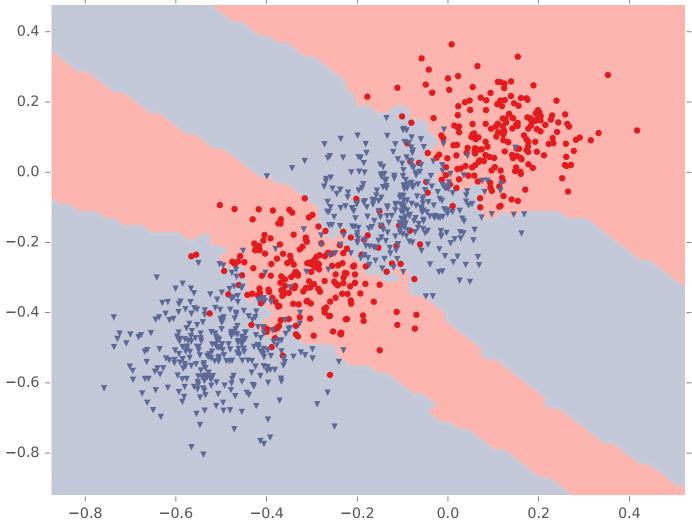
Example #4: Two Pockets

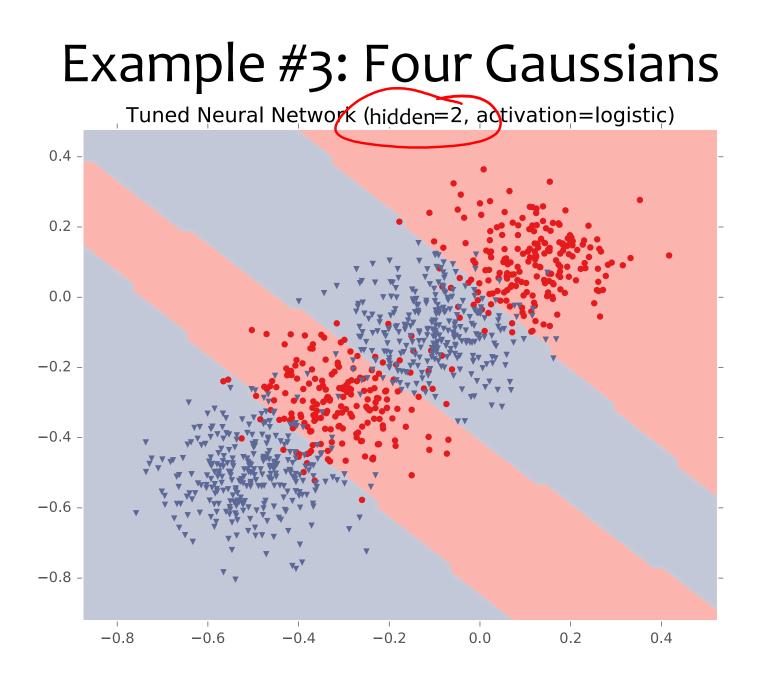


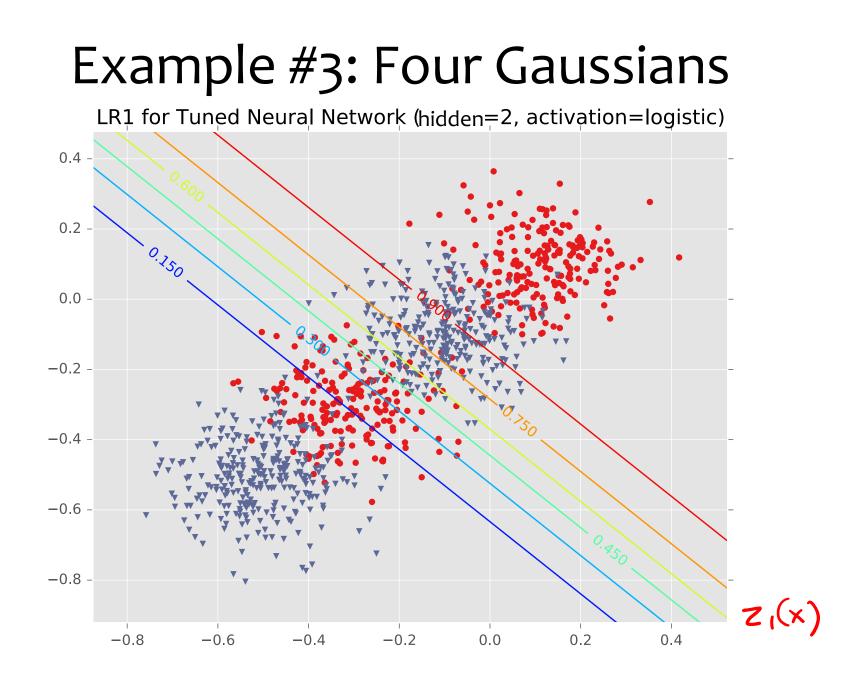


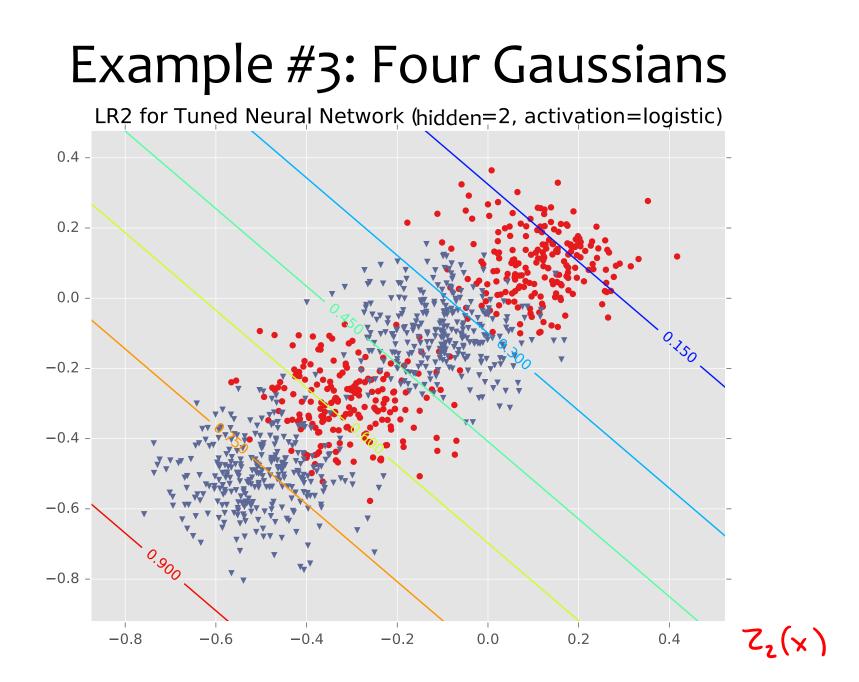


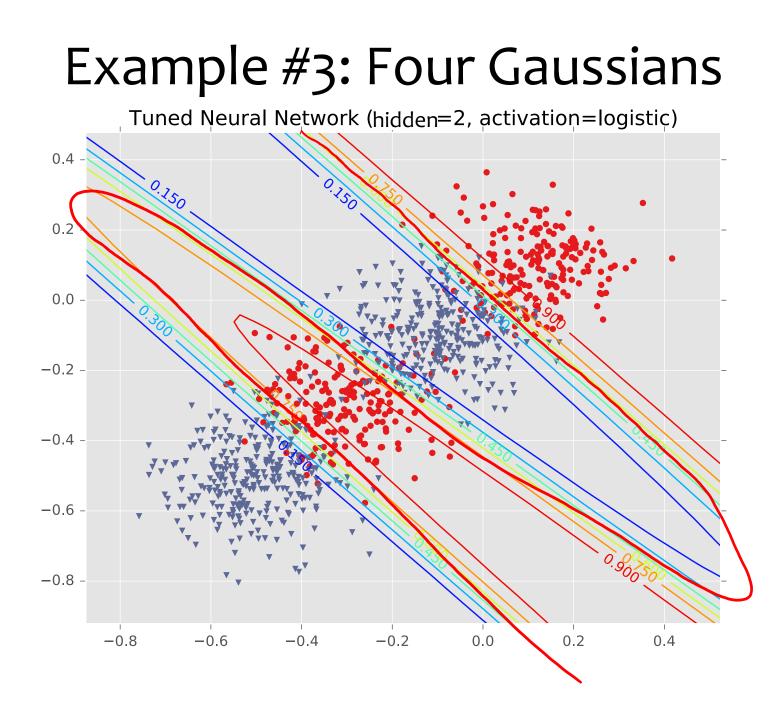
K-NN (k=5, metric=euclidean)

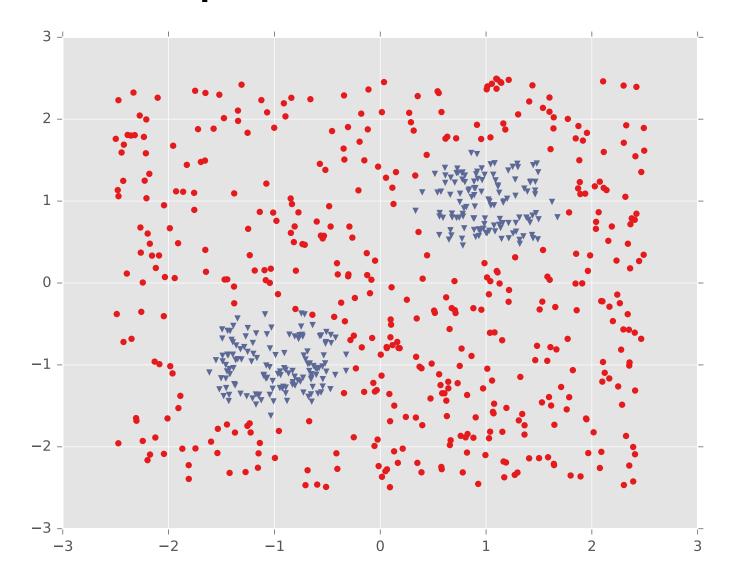




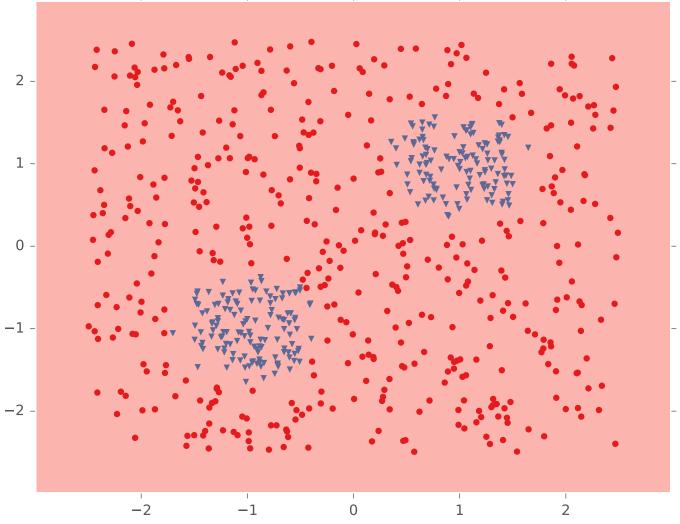




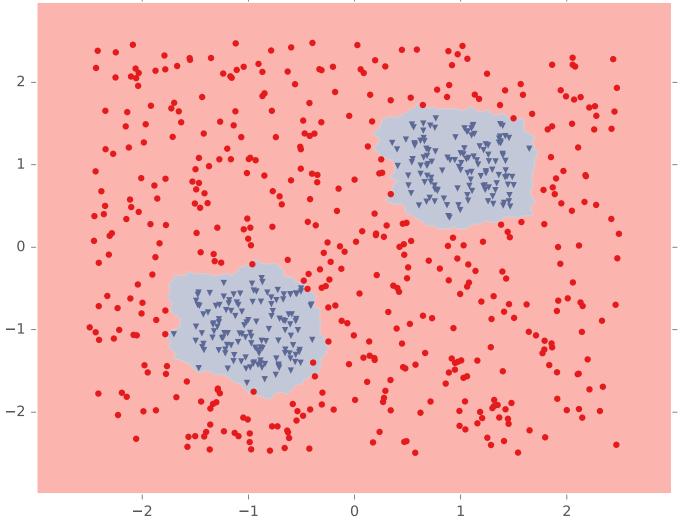




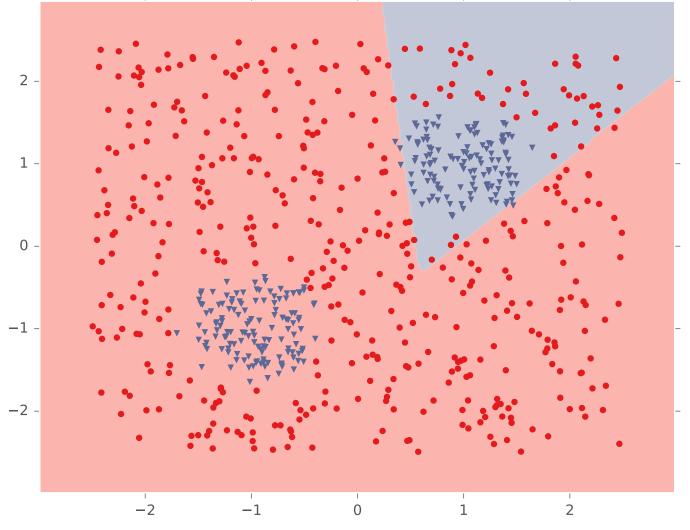
Logistic Regression



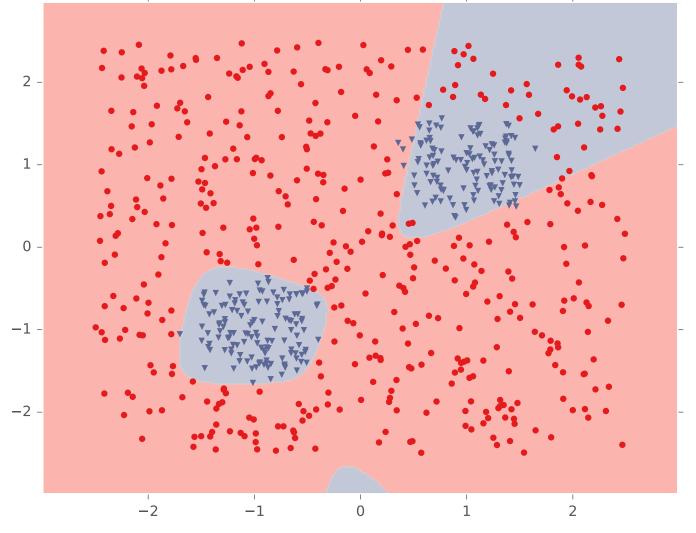
K-NN (k=5, metric=euclidean)



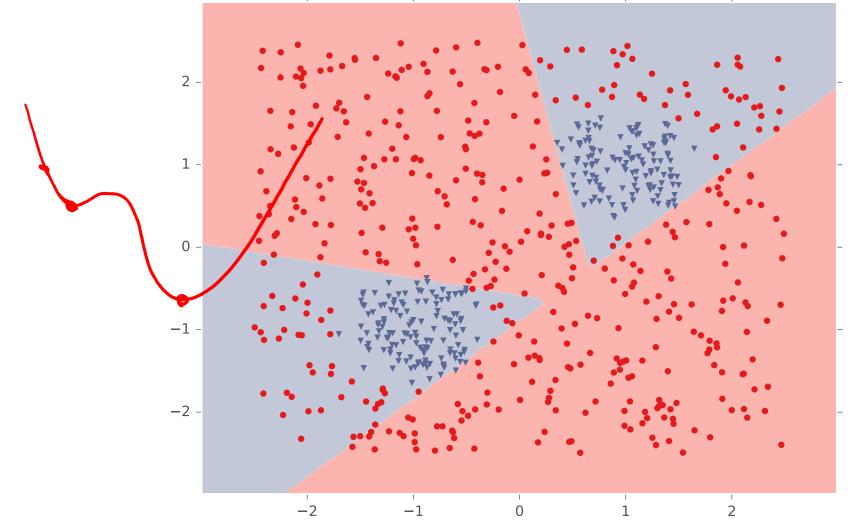
Tuned Neural Network (hidden=2, activation=logistic)



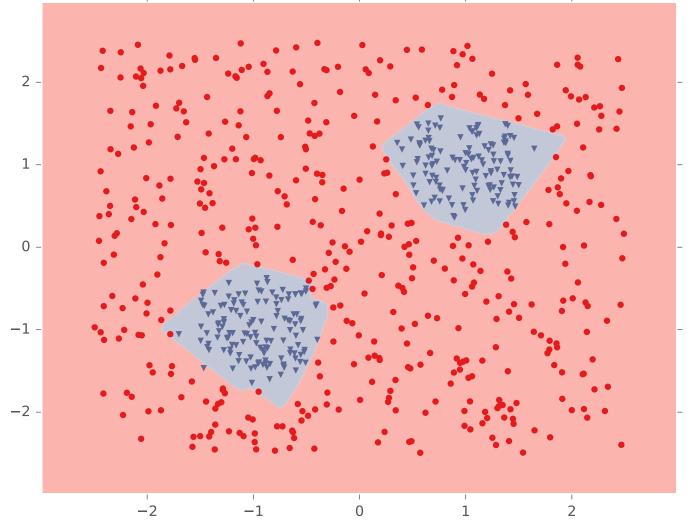
Tuned Neural Network (hidden=3, activation=logistic)



Tuned Neural Network (hidden=4, activation=logistic)



Tuned Neural Network (hidden=10, activation=logistic)



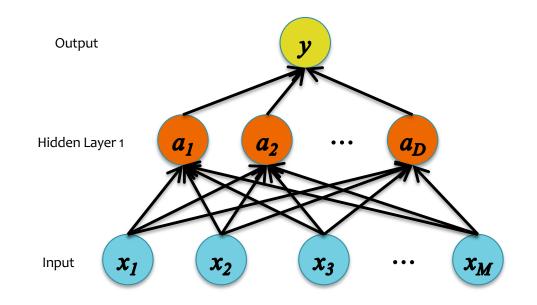
BUILDING DEEPER NETWORKS

Neural Networks

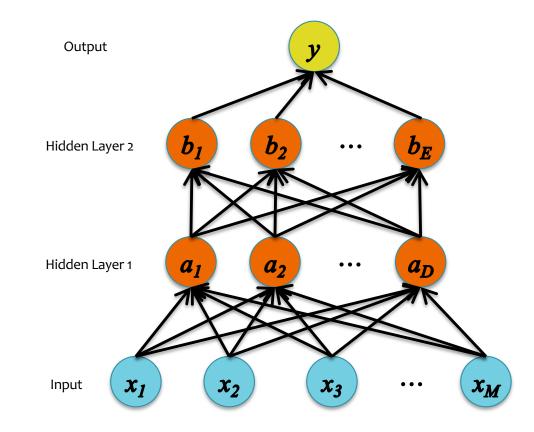
Whiteboard

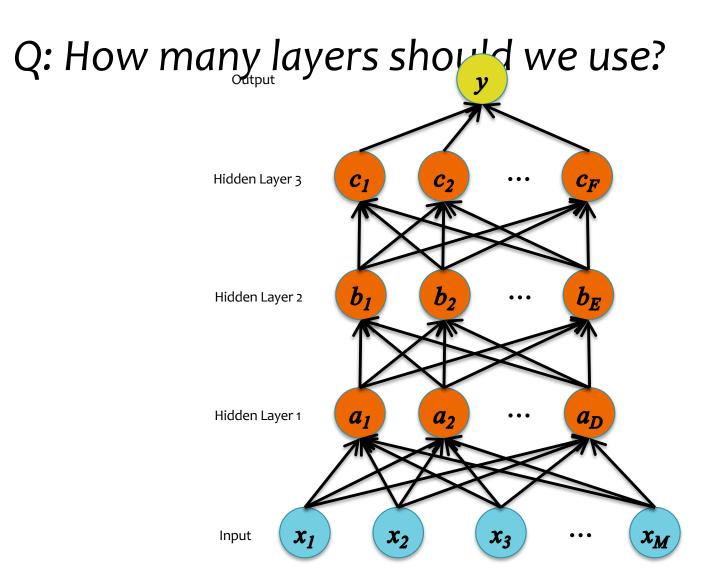
- Example: Neural Network w/2 Hidden Layers
- Example: Feed Forward Neural Network (matrix form)

Q: How many layers should we use?



Q: How many layers should we use?





Q: How many layers should we use?

• Theoretical answer:

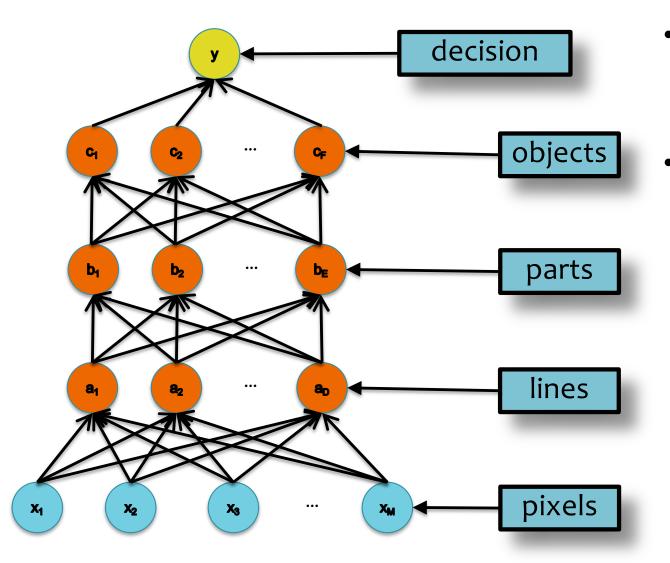
- A neural network with 1 hidden layer is a universal function approximator
- Cybenko (1989): For any continuous function g(x), there exists a 1-hidden-layer neural net h_θ(x)
 s.t. | h_θ(x) g(x) | < ε for all x, assuming sigmoid activation functions

Empirical answer:

- Before 2006: "Deep networks (e.g. 3 or more hidden layers) are too hard to train"
- After 2006: "Deep networks are easier to train than shallow networks (e.g. 2 or fewer layers) for many problems"

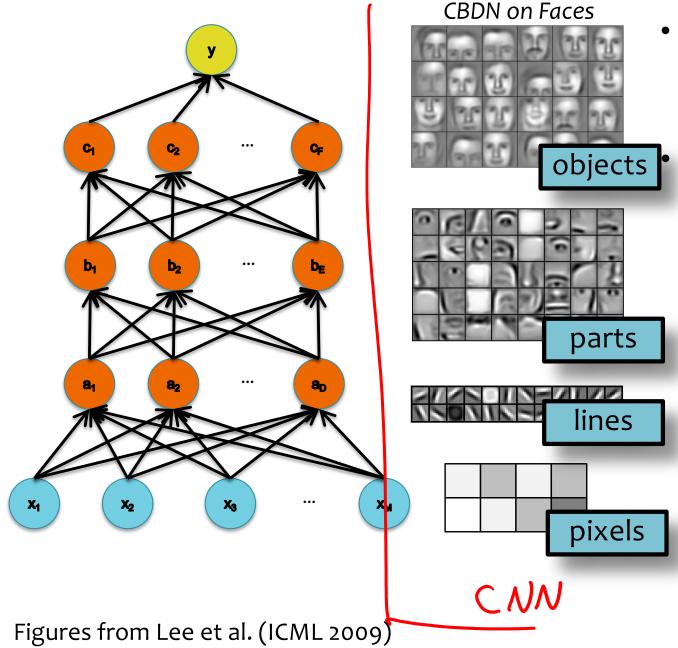
Big caveat: You need to know and use the right tricks.

Feature Learning



- Traditional feature engineering: build up levels of abstraction by hand
- Deep networks (e.g. convolution networks): learn the increasingly higher levels of abstraction from data
 - each layer is a learned feature representation
 - sophistication increases in higher layers

Feature Learning

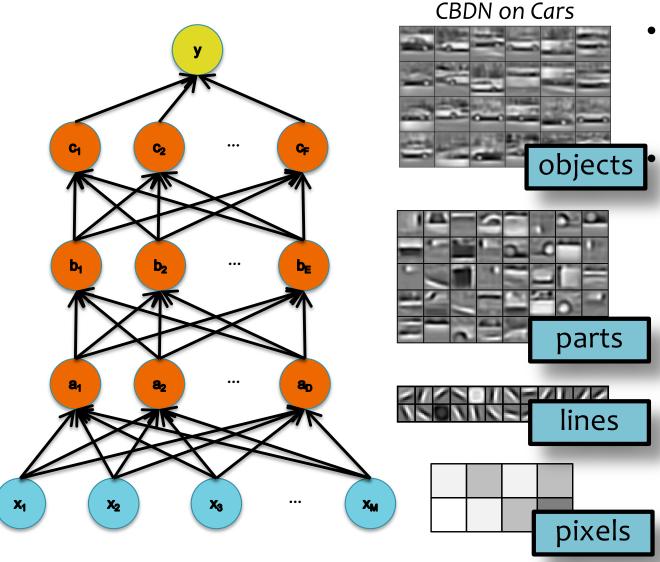


Traditional feature engineering: build up levels of abstraction by hand

Deep networks (e.g. convolution networks): learn the increasingly higher levels of abstraction from data

- each layer is a learned feature representation
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Feature Learning



Traditional feature engineering: build up levels of abstraction by hand

Deep networks (e.g. convolution networks): learn the increasingly higher levels of abstraction from data

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Figures from Lee et al. (ICML 2009)