

Judging Test error

- Training error of a classifier f

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{1}_{f(X_i) \neq Y_i}$$

Training Data
 $\{X_i, Y_i\}_{i=1}^n$

- What about test error?

Can't compute it.

- How can we know classifier is not overfitting?

Hold-out or Cross-validation

Hold-out method

Can judge test error by using an independent sample of data.

Hold - out procedure:

n data points available $D \equiv \{X_i, Y_i\}_{i=1}^n$

- 1) Split into two sets (randomly and preserving label proportion):
Training dataset Validation/Hold-out dataset

$$D_T = \underbrace{\{X_i, Y_i\}_{i=1}^m} \quad D_V = \underbrace{\{X_i, Y_i\}_{i=m+1}^n}$$

often $m = n/2$

- 2) Train classifier on D_T . Report error on validation dataset D_V .
Overfitting if validation error is much larger than training error

Hold-out method

Drawbacks:

- May not have enough data to afford setting one subset aside for getting a sense of generalization abilities
- Validation error may be misleading (bad estimate of test error) if we get an “unfortunate” split

Limitations of hold-out can be overcome by a family of sub-sampling methods at the expense of more computation.

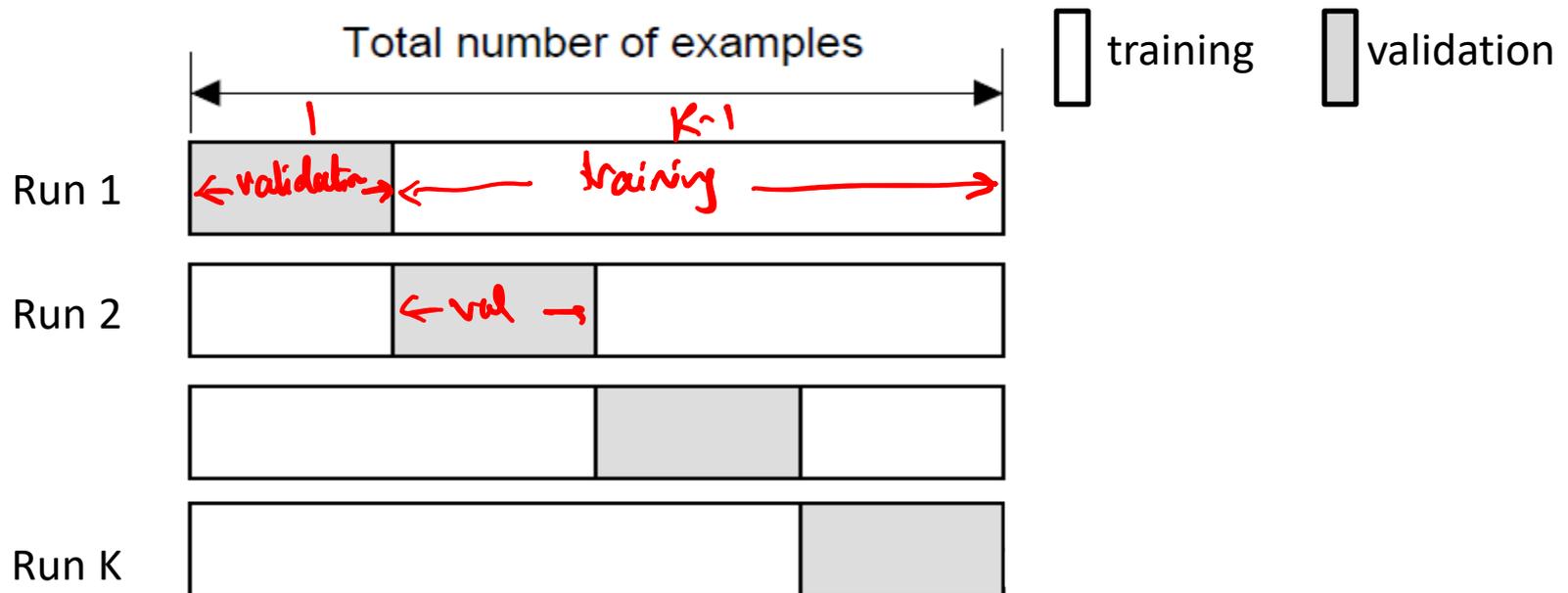
Cross-validation

K-fold cross-validation

Create K-fold partition of the dataset.

Do K runs: train using K-1 partitions and calculate validation error on remaining partition (rotating validation partition on each run).

Report average validation error

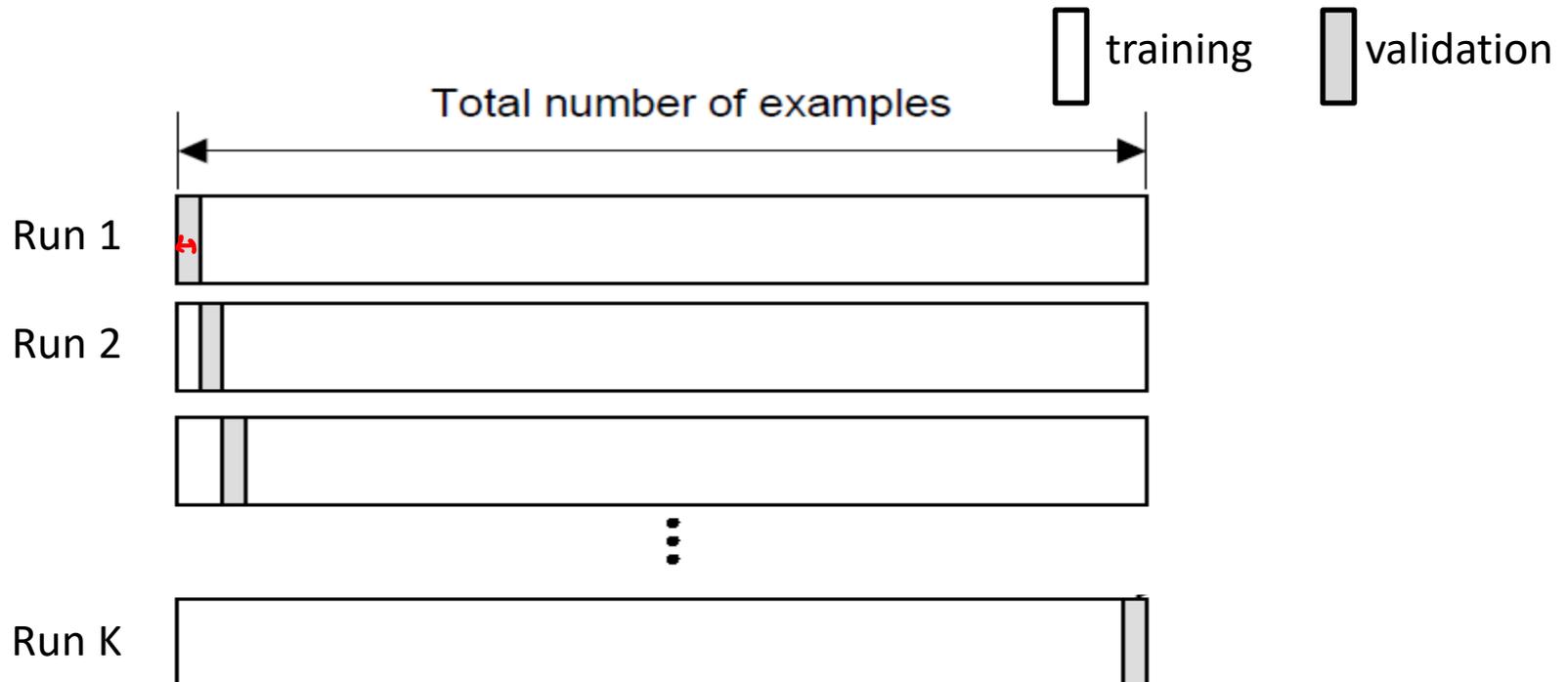


Cross-validation

Leave-one-out (LOO) cross-validation

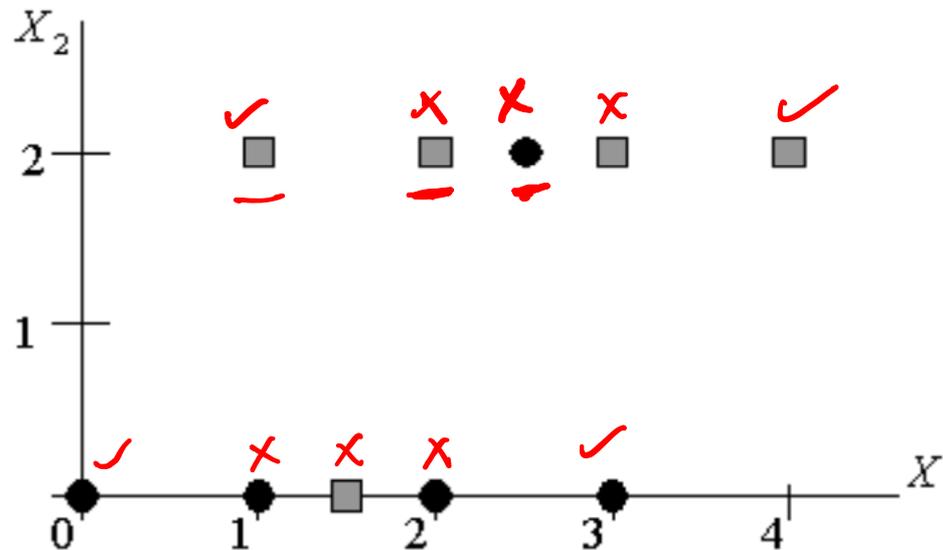
Special case of K-fold with $K=n$ partitions

Equivalently, train on $n-1$ samples and validate on only one sample per run for n runs



Cross-validation

What is the leave-one-out cross-validation error of the given classifiers on the following dataset?



- Poll 1: Depth 1 Decision tree using best feature
- Poll 2: 1-NN classifier

Cross-validation

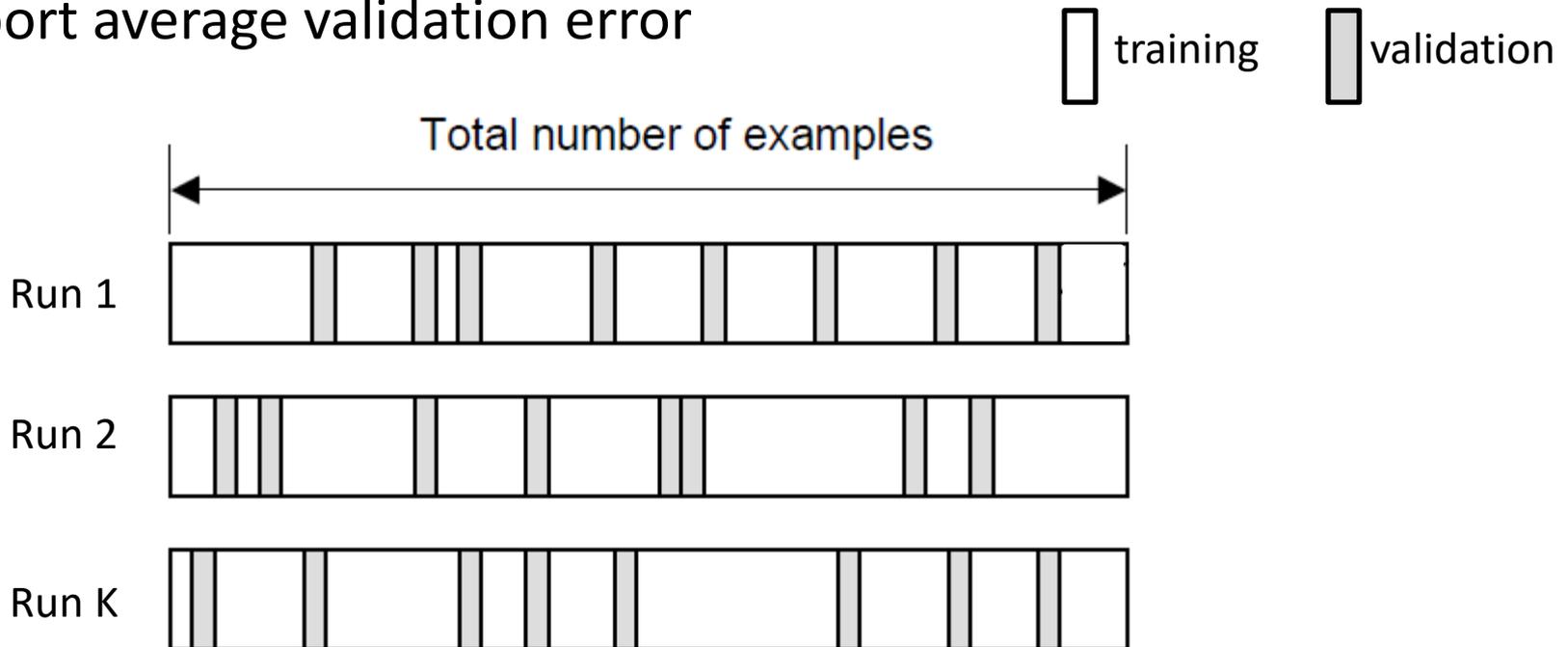
Random subsampling

Randomly subsample a fixed fraction αn ($0 < \alpha < 1$) of the dataset for validation.

Compute validation error with remaining data as training data.

Repeat K times

Report average validation error



Practical Issues in Cross-validation

How to decide the values for K and α ?

- Large K
 - + Validation error can approximate test error well ✓
 - Observed validation error will be unstable (few validation pts) ✓
 - The computational time will be very large as well (several runs)
- Small K
 - + The #runs and, therefore, computation time are reduced
 - + Observed validation error will be stable (many validation pts) ✓
 - Validation error cannot approximate test error well ✓

Common choice: $K = 10$, $\alpha = 0.1$ 😊

Model selection using Hold-out/Cross-validation

- Train models of different complexities and evaluate their validation error using hold-out or cross-validation
- Pick model with smallest validation error (averaged over different runs for cross-validation)
- When using hold-out or cross-validation for model selection, test error should be reported using independent data

What you should know

- Estimating test error using
 - hold-out
 - cross-validation
- Bias-variance tradeoff
- Model selection using
 - hold-out
 - cross-validation

Linear Regression

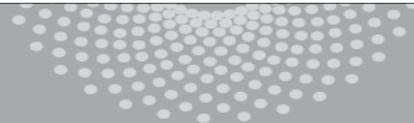
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Machine Learning 10-701

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MACHINE LEARNING DEPARTMENT



Carnegie Mellon.
School of Computer Science

Supervised Learning Tasks

Classification

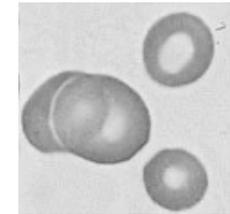


X = Document



Sports
Science
News

Y = Topic



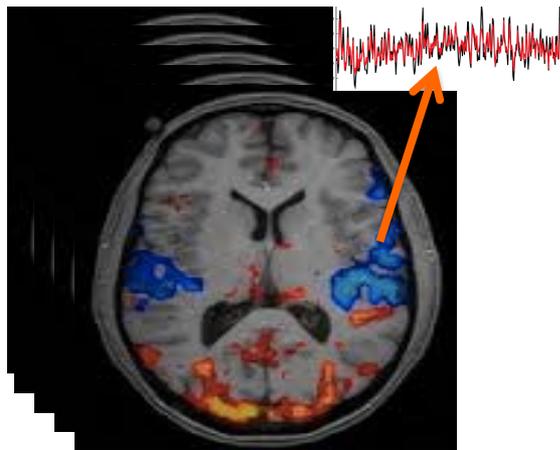
X = Cell Image



Anemic cell
Healthy cell

Y = Diagnosis

Regression



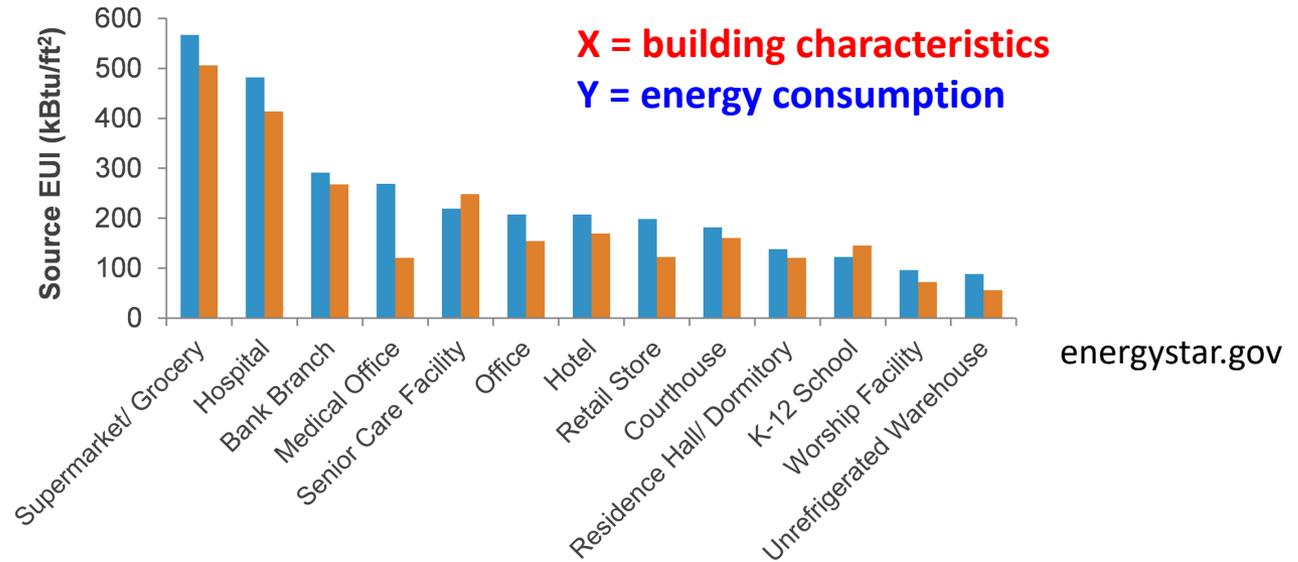
X = Brain Scan



Y = Age of a subject

Regression Tasks

Estimating Energy Usage



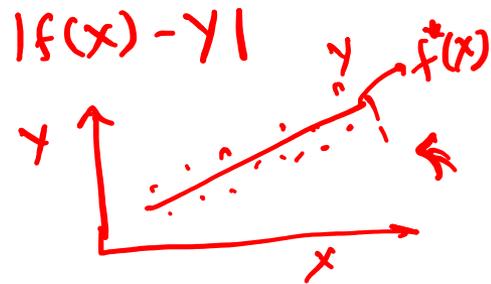
Estimating Contamination



Mean Squared Error (MSE)

Minimization

$$= E[Y|X]$$



Optimal predictor:

$$f^* = \arg \min_f \mathbb{E}[(f(X) - Y)^2]$$

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{E[(f(x) - Y)^2]} &= E\left[\underbrace{(f(x) - E[Y|X])}_a + \underbrace{(E[Y|X] - Y)}_b\right]^2 \quad (a+b)^2 \\ &= E\left[(f(x) - E[Y|X])^2 + \underbrace{(E[Y|X] - Y)^2}_c + 2(f(x) - E[Y|X]) \cdot \underbrace{(E[Y|X] - Y)}_c\right] \end{aligned}$$

$$c \quad E_{X,Y} [(f(x) - E[Y|X]) (E[Y|X] - Y)]$$

$$= E_X [E_{Y|X} [(f(x) - E[Y|X]) (E[Y|X] - Y)]] = 0$$

$$f^* = \arg \min_f E[(f(x) - E[Y|X])^2] = \underline{E[Y|X]}$$

Mean Squared Error (MSE) Minimization

Optimal predictor: $f^* = \arg \min_f \mathbb{E}[(f(X) - Y)^2] = \mathbb{E}[Y|X]$

Empirical Minimizer:

$$\hat{f}_n = \arg \min_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (f(X_i) - Y_i)^2 \right)$$

Empirical mean



Law of Large Numbers:

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n [\text{loss}(Y_i, f(X_i))] \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E}_{XY} [\text{loss}(Y, f(X))]$$

Restrict class of predictors

Optimal predictor: $f^* = \arg \min_f \mathbb{E}[(f(X) - Y)^2]$

Empirical Minimizer: $\hat{f}_n = \arg \min_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (f(X_i) - Y_i)^2$

Class of predictors

➤ Why?

- \mathcal{F} - Class of Linear functions
- Class of Polynomial functions
- Class of nonlinear functions

Linear Regression

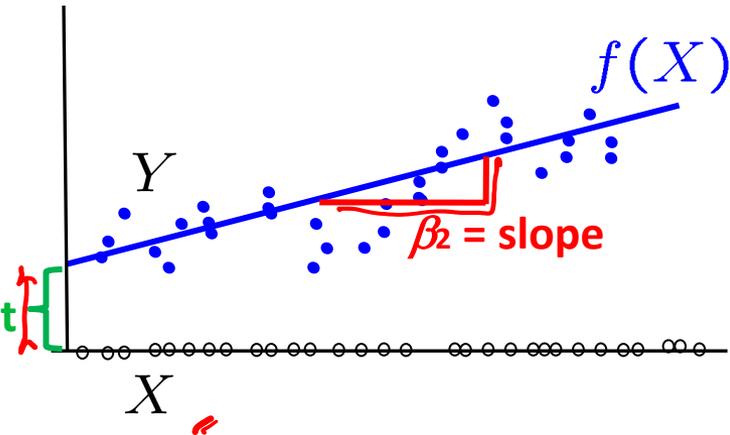
$$\hat{f}_n^L = \arg \min_{f \in \mathcal{F}_L} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (f(X_i) - Y_i)^2 \quad \text{Least Squares Estimator}$$

\mathcal{F}_L - Class of Linear functions

Uni-variate case:

$$f(X) = \beta_1 + \beta_2 X$$

β_1 - intercept



Multi-variate case:

$$f(X) = f(X^{(1)}, \dots, X^{(p)}) = \beta_1 X^{(1)} + \beta_2 X^{(2)} + \dots + \beta_p X^{(p)}$$

p features

$$= \underline{X} \beta \quad \text{where} \quad X = \underline{[X^{(1)} \dots X^{(p)}]}, \quad \beta = \underline{[\beta_1 \dots \beta_p]}^T$$

Linear Regression (Matrix-vector form)

$$\hat{f}_n^L = \arg \min_{\underline{f \in \mathcal{F}_L}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \underline{(f(X_i) - Y_i)^2} \quad f(X_i) = \underline{X_i \beta}$$



$$\hat{\beta} = \arg \min_{\beta} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \underline{(X_i \beta - Y_i)^2}$$

$$\underline{\hat{f}_n^L(X)} = \underline{X \hat{\beta}}$$

$$= \arg \min_{\beta} \frac{1}{n} \underline{(A\beta - Y)^T (A\beta - Y)}$$

$$\underline{A\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} X_1 \beta \\ X_2 \beta \\ \vdots \\ X_n \beta \end{bmatrix}_{n \times 1}$$

training
data
matrix

$$\underline{A} = \begin{bmatrix} X_1 \\ \vdots \\ X_n \end{bmatrix}_{n \times p} = \begin{bmatrix} X_1^{(1)} & \dots & X_1^{(p)} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ X_n^{(1)} & \dots & X_n^{(p)} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta \end{bmatrix}_{p \times 1} \quad \underline{Y} = \begin{bmatrix} Y_1 \\ \vdots \\ Y_n \end{bmatrix}_{n \times 1}$$

$$\begin{matrix} A & \beta \\ n \times p & p \times 1 \end{matrix}$$

Linear Regression

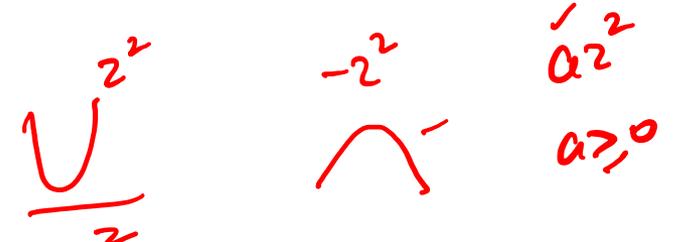
$$\hat{\beta} = \arg \min_{\beta} \frac{1}{n} (\mathbf{A}\beta - \mathbf{Y})^T (\mathbf{A}\beta - \mathbf{Y}) = \arg \min_{\beta} J(\beta)$$

$$J(\beta) = (\mathbf{A}\beta - \mathbf{Y})^T (\mathbf{A}\beta - \mathbf{Y})$$

A = training data matrix

$$= (\beta^T \mathbf{A}^T - \mathbf{Y}^T) (\mathbf{A}\beta - \mathbf{Y})$$

$$= \beta^T \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} \beta \dots$$



► Poll

Is the objective convex in β ?

- A) Convex, quadratic in β
- B) Non-convex, \mathbf{A} may not be positive semi definite -
- C) Depends on conditioning (ratio of max:min eigenvalues) of $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}$
- D) Convex, $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}$ is positive semi definite

$$\frac{\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{v}}{\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{v}} = \frac{\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{M} \mathbf{v}}{\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{v}}$$

= ||Av||²

Linear Regression

① $\frac{\partial z^T \beta}{\partial \beta} = z$ ② $\frac{\partial \beta^T M \beta}{\partial \beta} = \frac{(M+M^T)\beta}{2}$
 if $M=M^T$

$$\hat{\beta} = \arg \min_{\beta} \frac{1}{n} (\mathbf{A}\beta - \mathbf{Y})^T (\mathbf{A}\beta - \mathbf{Y}) = \arg \min_{\beta} J(\beta)$$

$$J(\beta) = (\mathbf{A}\beta - \mathbf{Y})^T (\mathbf{A}\beta - \mathbf{Y}) = \beta^T \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} \beta - \underbrace{\mathbf{Y}^T \mathbf{A} \beta}_{z^T} - \underbrace{\beta^T \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{Y}}_{= \mathbf{Y}^T \mathbf{A} \beta} + \mathbf{Y}^T \mathbf{Y}$$

$$\frac{\partial J(\beta)}{\partial \beta} = 2(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}) \beta - 2\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{Y} \Big|_{\hat{\beta}} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial J(\beta)}{\partial \beta} \Big|_{\hat{\beta}} = 0$$

$$(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}) \hat{\beta} = \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{Y}$$

Linear regression solution satisfies

Normal Equations

$$Y = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} x_1^{(1)} & \dots & x_1^{(p)} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ x_n^{(1)} & \dots & x_n^{(p)} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}) \hat{\beta} = \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{Y}$$

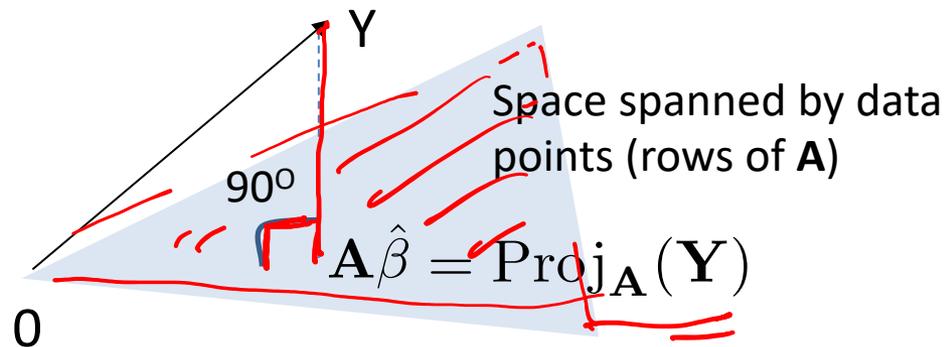
$p \times p$ $p \times 1$ $p \times 1$

If $(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A})$ is invertible,

$$\hat{\beta} = (\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A})^{-1} \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{Y} \quad \hat{f}_n^L(X) = X \hat{\beta}$$

$$\hat{f}_n^L(\mathbf{A}) = \mathbf{A} \hat{\beta} = \mathbf{A} (\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A})^{-1} \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{Y} = \text{Proj}_{\mathbf{A}}(\mathbf{Y})$$

Predicted labels for training points $\mathbf{A} \hat{\beta} = \text{Proj}_{\mathbf{A}}(\mathbf{Y})$



Linear regression solution satisfies Normal Equations

$$\underbrace{(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A})}_{p \times p} \hat{\beta}_{p \times 1} = \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{Y}_{p \times 1}$$

If $(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A})$ is invertible,

$$\hat{\beta} = \underbrace{(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A})^{-1} \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{Y}} \quad \checkmark \quad \hat{f}_n^L(X) = X \hat{\beta}$$

Later: When is $(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A})$ invertible ?

Now: What if $(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A})$ is invertible but expensive (p very large)?

Gradient Descent

Even when $(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A})$ is invertible, might be computationally expensive if \mathbf{A} is huge.

$$\hat{\beta} = \arg \min_{\beta} \frac{1}{n} (\mathbf{A}\beta - \mathbf{Y})^T (\mathbf{A}\beta - \mathbf{Y}) = \arg \min_{\beta} J(\beta)$$

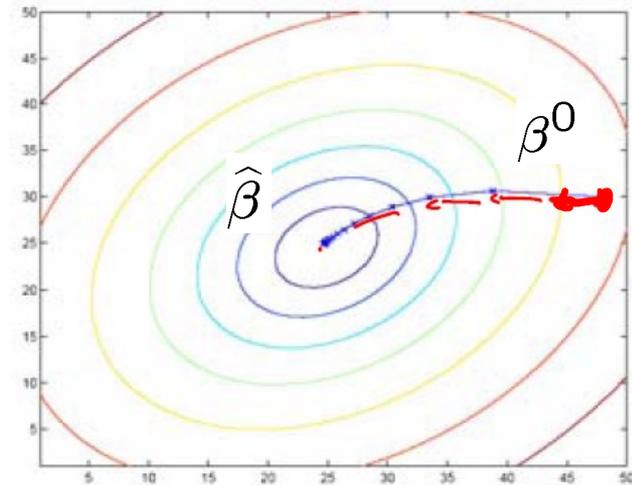
Since $J(\beta)$ is convex, move along negative of gradient

Initialize: β^0

Update: $\beta^{t+1} = \beta^t - \underbrace{\alpha}_{\text{step size}} \underbrace{\frac{\partial J(\beta)}{\partial \beta}}_{\text{predicted labels}} \Big|_t$

$$= \beta^t - \alpha \mathbf{A}^T (\mathbf{A}\beta^t - \mathbf{Y})$$

0 if $\hat{\beta} = \beta^t$



Stop: when some criterion met e.g. fixed # iterations, or $\left. \frac{\partial J(\beta)}{\partial \beta} \right|_{\beta^t} < \epsilon$.

Least Square solution satisfies Normal Equations

$$\left. \frac{\partial J(\beta)}{\partial \beta} \right|_{\hat{\beta}} = 0 \quad \text{gives} \quad \underbrace{(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A})}_{p \times p} \underbrace{\hat{\beta}}_{p \times 1} = \underbrace{\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{Y}}_{p \times 1}$$

If $(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A})$ is invertible,

1) If dimension p not too large, analytical solution:

$$\hat{\beta} = (\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A})^{-1} \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{Y} \quad \hat{f}_n^L(X) = X \hat{\beta}$$

2) If dimension p is large, computing inverse is expensive $O(p^3)$

Gradient descent since objective is convex ($\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} \succeq 0$)

$$\begin{aligned} \beta^{t+1} &= \beta^t - \frac{\alpha}{2} \left. \frac{\partial J(\beta)}{\partial \beta} \right|_t \\ &= \beta^t - \alpha \mathbf{A}^T (\mathbf{A} \beta^t - \mathbf{Y}) \end{aligned}$$