Lecture 3: Challenges in Machine Learning DD2421

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Autumn, 2018



How should we select/determine the right model *f* from data?

Basic idea for classification:

Given training data

$$\mathcal{D} = \{(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_N, y_N)\}$$

of inputs $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and their labels y_i .

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Compute the misclassification rate on D

$$err(f, D) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \operatorname{Ind} (f(\mathbf{x}_i) \neq y_i)$$

Note: Ind (x) = 1 if x = TRUE otherwise Ind (x) = 0



- Overfitting
- Cross-Validation
- The Curse of Dimensionality
- The Bias-Variance Trade-off
 - Concept of prediction errors
 - Decomposition of the MSE
 - Bias and variance

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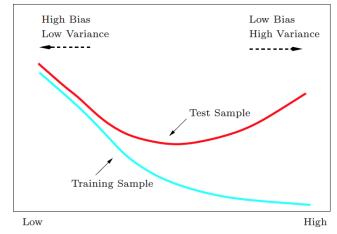
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Overfitting

When the learned models are overly specialized for the training samples.





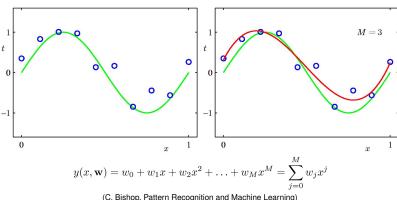


Model Complexity

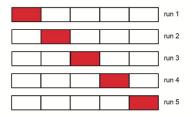
(T. Hastie et al, The Elements of Statistical Learning)



Example: Polynomial Curve Fitting (regression to sinusoidal)



K-fold cross validation (schematic for K = 5)



(K. Murphy, Machine Learning - A probabilistic perspective)

- *Training* set *T*: to fit the models
- Validation set V: to estimate prediction error for model selection (i.e. to determine hyperparameters)



If we are in a data-rich situation:

 \rightarrow partition the data into three sets, *Training* set, *Validation* set, and *Test* set for assessment of the generalization error of the final chosen model.

Overfitting Cross-Validation The Curse of Dimensionality The Bias-Variance Trade-off

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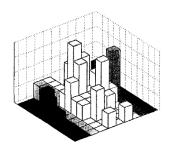
Curse of Dimensionality

Imagine: inputs represented by 30 features but some of them are less relevant to target function. Will you use all of them?

- Easy problems in low-dimensions are harder in high-dimensions
 - training more complex model with limited sample data
- In high-dimensions everything is far from everthing else
 issues in Nearest Neighbours
- Any method that attempts to produce locally varying functions in small isotropic neighbourhoods will run into problems in high dimensions.

Example 1: Normal random numbers in 1-d and 2-d (both plots for 100 inputs)

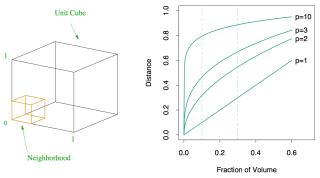




Too few data to represent the probability density function in 2-d.



Example 2: A subcubical neighbourhood for uniform data in a unit cube.



(T. Hastie et al, The Elements of Statistical Learning)

Graph: The side-length of the subcube needed to capture a fraction of the volume of the data (for different demensions p).

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Techniques for dimensionality reduction / feature selection exist.

Concept of prediction errors Decomposition of the MSE Bias and variance

The Bias-Variance Trade-off

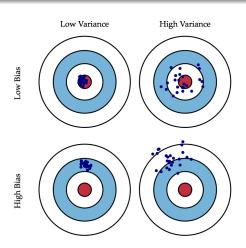
Concepts of prediction errors

Let us imagine we could repeat the modeling for many times – each time by gathering new set of training samples, \mathcal{D} .

The resulting models will have a range of predictions due to randomness in the underlying data set.

- Error due to Bias: the difference between the average (expected) prediction of our model and the correct value.
- Error due to Variance: the variability of a model prediction for a given data point between different realizations of the model.

Graphical illustration of bias and variance



(figure source: http://scott.fortmann-roe.com/docs/BiasVariance.html)

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The mean square error (MSE) for estimating $f(\mathbf{x})$

$$E_{\mathcal{D}}[(\hat{f}_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x}) - f(\mathbf{x}))^{2}] = E_{\mathcal{D}}[(\hat{f}_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x}) - E[\hat{f}_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x})])^{2}] + (E[\hat{f}_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x})] - f(\mathbf{x}))^{2}$$

$$= \text{Variance} + (\text{Bias})^{2}$$

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To complete, we compute: $E_{\mathbf{x}}[E_{\mathcal{D}}[(\hat{t}_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x}) - f(\mathbf{x}))_{=}^{2}]]$

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$$\begin{aligned} (\hat{f}_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x}) - f(\mathbf{x}))^2 &= (\hat{f}_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x}) - E[\hat{f}_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x})] + E[\hat{f}_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x})] - f(\mathbf{x}))^2 \\ &= (\hat{f}_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x}) - E[\hat{f}_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x})])^2 + (E[\hat{f}_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x})] - f(\mathbf{x}))^2 \\ &+ 2(\hat{f}_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x}) - E[\hat{f}_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x})])(E[\hat{f}_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x})] - f(\mathbf{x})) \end{aligned}$$

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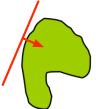
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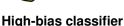
Taking $E_{\mathcal{D}}[\ \dots\]$ for both sides, the cross term disappears (!) while the second term stays the same.

Characterization of a classifier: Bias

Bias of a classifier is the discrepancy between its averaged estimated and true function

$$E[\hat{f}_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x})] - f(\mathbf{x})$$







Low-bias classifier

Low model complexity (small # of d.o.f.) \implies High-bias High model complexity (large # of d.o.f.) \implies Low-bias

Characterization of a classifier: Variance

Variance of a classifier is the expected divergence of the estimated prediction function from its average value:

$$E_{\mathcal{D}}[(\hat{f}_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x}) - E[\hat{f}_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x})])^2]$$

This measures how dependent the classifier is on the random sampling made in the training set.

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Low model complexity (small # of d.o.f.) \implies Low-variance High model complexity (large # of d.o.f.) \implies High-variance

High variance classifiers produce differing decision boundaries which are highly dependent on the training data.

Also called "flexible".

Examples:

decision trees

The depth of the tree determines the variance. How?

2. k Nearest-Neighbour

k determines the variance. How?



Our intuition may tell:

- The presence of bias indicates something basically wrong with the model and algorithm...
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Not really!

Bias and variance are equally important as we are always dealing with a single realization of the data set.



Take home message: Match the model complexity to the data resources, not to the target complexity