

Universidad Politecnica de Yucatan

Machine Learning

Solution to most common problems

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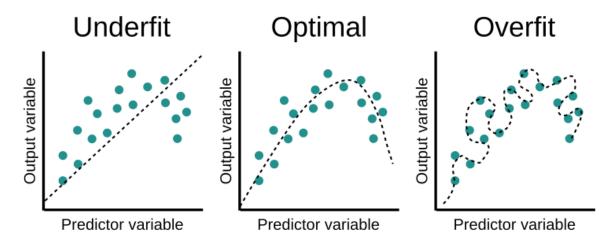
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Overfitting and underfitting

Are two common issues that can occur when building machine learning models, particularly in supervised learning tasks. These issues are related to how well a model generalizes from the training data to unseen, new data.

- 1. Overfitting: Overfitting occurs when a machine learning model learns the training data too well, to the point where it captures noise and random fluctuations in the data rather than the underlying patterns and relationships. In other words, the model becomes too complex and flexible, fitting the training data so closely that it loses its ability to make accurate predictions on new, unseen data. Signs of overfitting often include a model that performs extremely well on the training data but poorly on validation or test data. This happens because the model has essentially memorized the training data, rather than learning the general patterns that would allow it to make good predictions in different situations. To combat overfitting, techniques like regularization, cross-validation, and reducing model complexity (e.g., using simpler algorithms or feature selection) are commonly used.
- 2. Underfitting: Underfitting, on the other hand, occurs when a machine learning model is too simple or lacks the capacity to capture the underlying patterns in the training data. An underfit model performs poorly on both the training data and new data because it fails to learn the relevant relationships in the data. It typically results from using a model that is too simplistic or not training the model for long enough. Signs of underfitting include consistently low accuracy or high error rates on both training and test data. To address underfitting, you may need to increase the model's complexity (e.g., using a more powerful algorithm or increasing the number of model parameters) or improve the quality of the training data.





Outliers

Are data points that significantly deviate from most of the data in a dataset. They are observations that are rare or unusual in comparison to the rest of the data. Outliers can be found in various types of data and can have a significant impact on statistical analyses and machine learning models. Here are some characteristics that help define and distinguish outliers:

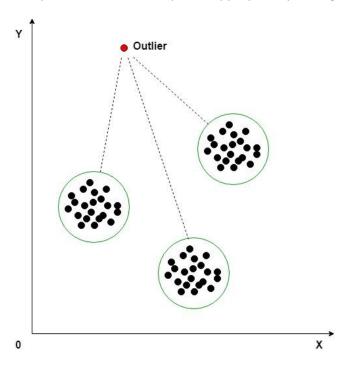
Outliers, in data analysis, are values that deviate significantly from most data points. They can be extremely high or low compared to the central tendency of the dataset, like the mean or median. These unusual observations may result from errors, data entry mistakes, or rare events, and they have the potential to distort summary statistics, such as the mean and standard deviation.

In graphical representations of data, outliers stand out as data points visibly distant from the main cluster, often appearing as individual points or separate clusters. Identifying outliers can be context-dependent, relying on domain knowledge to determine their significance.

Outliers are not merely statistical anomalies; they can profoundly affect machine learning models, influencing model parameters, and hindering generalization to new data. Thus, addressing outliers is crucial in data preprocessing for machine learning.

Various methods exist for outlier detection, including statistical approaches like the Z-score and the Interquartile Range (IQR) method, as well as visualization techniques such as scatterplots. Machine learning models can also be employed for outlier detection.

When dealing with outliers, treatment options vary depending on the specific situation and cause. Options include removing outliers, transforming the data, or treating outliers separately in the analysis to ensure their impact is appropriately managed.





The most common solutions for overfitting, underfitting and presence of outliers in datasets.

1. Overfitting:

- **Cross-Validation:** Use techniques like k-fold cross-validation to assess how well your model generalizes to new data. Cross-validation helps detect overfitting and provides a more reliable estimate of model performance.
- Regularization: Apply regularization techniques like L1 (Lasso) or L2 (Ridge) regularization to
 penalize overly complex models. This encourages the model to use fewer features or reduce
 the magnitude of feature coefficients.
- **Feature Selection:** Choose a subset of the most important features and exclude irrelevant or noisy ones. Feature selection helps reduce model complexity and the risk of overfitting.
- **Early Stopping:** Monitor the model's performance on a validation set during training and stop training when performance starts to degrade. This prevents the model from fitting noise in the training data.
- Ensemble Methods: Use ensemble techniques like Random Forests or Gradient Boosting, which combine multiple weak models to create a strong, generalized model. Ensembles often reduce overfitting.
- **Increase Data:** Gather more training data if possible. More data can help the model generalize better and reduce the risk of overfitting.

2. Underfitting:

- **Feature Engineering:** Add more relevant features to the dataset that capture important patterns in the data.
- Increase Model Complexity: Use more complex models with higher capacity, such as deep neural networks or more advanced machine learning algorithms, to better capture complex relationships in the data.
- **Fine-Tuning Hyperparameters:** Adjust hyperparameters like learning rates, regularization strengths, or model architecture to find a better fit for the data.
- **Collect More Data:** If your dataset is small, gathering more data can help the model learn more about the underlying patterns in the data and reduce underfitting.

3. Presence of Outliers:

• **Outlier Detection:** Use statistical methods like the Z-score, the IQR (Interquartile Range) method, or machine learning algorithms to detect and identify outliers in your dataset.



- Handling Outliers: Once identified, you can choose from several strategies to handle outliers:
 - Remove Outliers: Simply remove the identified outliers from the dataset if they are due to errors or are irrelevant.
 - Transform Data: Apply data transformations such as log transformations to reduce the impact of outliers.
 - Winsorization: Replace outliers with values at a certain percentile (e.g., 95th percentile) to reduce their influence.
 - Robust Models: Use machine learning models that are less sensitive to outliers, such as robust regression or ensemble models.
- **Contextual Analysis:** Consider the context and domain knowledge when deciding how to handle outliers. Some outliers may be valid and important data points in specific situations.

The dimensionality problem

Referred to as the "curse of dimensionality," is a challenge in various fields, including statistics, machine learning, and data analysis. It arises when working with high-dimensional datasets, where the number of features or variables (dimensions) is significantly larger than the number of data points. This problem introduces a range of issues and complexities:

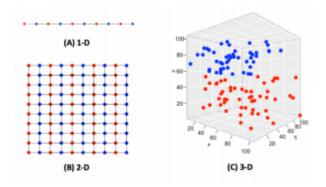
- Increased Computational Complexity: As the number of dimensions increases, the
 computational resources required for processing and analyzing the data grow exponentially.
 This can lead to impractical computational demands, especially when performing tasks like
 optimization, clustering, or similarity calculations.
- 2. **Sparsity of Data:** In high-dimensional spaces, data points become increasingly sparse, meaning that most of the space is empty or lacks data points. This sparsity can make it difficult to find meaningful patterns or relationships in the data.
- 3. **Overfitting:** High-dimensional datasets are more prone to overfitting. Models can become overly complex, fitting noise or random variations in the data rather than capturing meaningful patterns. This can result in poor generalization to new, unseen data.
- 4. **Data Visualization Challenges:** Visualizing data in high-dimensional spaces becomes challenging. While we can easily visualize data in two or three dimensions, it's difficult to represent and interpret data in spaces with many dimensions.
- Increased Data Requirements: To build accurate models in high-dimensional spaces, you
 often need significantly more data points to ensure that the model can generalize effectively.
 Collecting such large datasets can be expensive and time-consuming.
- 6. **Curse of Distance Metrics:** Many distance-based algorithms (e.g., k-means clustering, nearest neighbors) are adversely affected by the curse of dimensionality. As the number of



dimensions increases, the notion of distance between data points becomes less meaningful, making these algorithms less effective.

To address the dimensionality problem, several strategies can be employed:

- **Feature Selection:** Identify and retain only the most relevant features while discarding irrelevant or redundant ones. Feature selection can help reduce dimensionality while preserving essential information.
- **Feature Extraction:** Use techniques like Principal Component Analysis (PCA) or Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA) to transform high-dimensional data into a lower-dimensional representation while retaining as much variance or discriminative information as possible.
- **Regularization:** Apply regularization techniques when training machine learning models to prevent overfitting in high-dimensional spaces.
- **Domain Knowledge:** Leverage domain knowledge to guide feature selection, engineering, or model building, helping you focus on the most important dimensions.
- **Dimensionality Reduction Algorithms:** Explore dimensionality reduction techniques such as t-SNE (t-distributed Stochastic Neighbor Embedding) for data visualization or autoencoders for nonlinear dimensionality reduction.
- **Collect More Data:** If possible, collect additional data to balance the ratio of data points to dimensions, which can mitigate the curse of dimensionality.





Dimensionality reduction

Is a data preprocessing technique used to reduce the number of features or variables (dimensions) in a dataset while preserving as much relevant information as possible. This process is particularly valuable when dealing with high-dimensional data, where the number of features is large and may lead to issues like the curse of dimensionality, increased computational complexity, and overfitting. Dimensionality reduction can make data more manageable and suitable for various data analysis and machine learning tasks. Here's an overview of the dimensionality reduction process:

1. Data Preparation:

- Start with a dataset that contains a high number of features (dimensions).
- Ensure that the data is properly cleaned, missing values are handled, and outliers are addressed as necessary.

2. Feature Scaling:

 Perform feature scaling, such as mean normalization or standardization, to bring all features to a common scale. This step is important for many dimensionality reduction techniques.

3. Choose a Dimensionality Reduction Technique:

- There are two main categories of dimensionality reduction techniques: linear and nonlinear.
- **Linear Techniques:** These methods aim to find linear combinations of the original features to create a lower-dimensional representation. Common linear techniques include:
 - Principal Component Analysis (PCA): A widely used technique that finds
 orthogonal linear combinations (principal components) of features that
 capture the most variance in the data.
 - Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA): Used in supervised settings to find linear combinations that maximize class separability.
- Nonlinear Techniques: These methods capture nonlinear relationships among features and data points. Examples include:
 - t-distributed Stochastic Neighbor Embedding (t-SNE): A popular technique for visualizing high-dimensional data by preserving pairwise similarities between data points in lower dimensions.
 - **Isomap:** Creates a low-dimensional representation by preserving geodesic distances between data points in a nonlinear manifold.



• **Autoencoders:** A type of neural network used for nonlinear dimensionality reduction. They learn a compact representation of the data.

4. Parameter Tuning:

 For some dimensionality reduction techniques, you may need to tune hyperparameters, such as the number of principal components to retain in PCA or the perplexity in t-SNE.

5. Apply Dimensionality Reduction:

 Use the chosen technique to transform the original high-dimensional data into a lower-dimensional representation. This involves creating a new dataset with fewer dimensions.

6. Evaluate the Reduced Dimensionality Data:

- Assess the quality of the reduced-dimensional data for your specific task. You may want to consider:
 - How well the reduced data preserves the variance or information from the original data.
 - Whether it improves the performance of downstream tasks, such as classification or clustering.
 - The interpretability and insights gained from the reduced data.

7. Use the Reduced Data:

• Apply the reduced-dimensional data in subsequent data analysis or machine learning tasks, such as visualization, clustering, classification, or regression.

8. Interpret Results:

 Analyze and interpret the results of your analysis based on the reduced-dimensional data. This may involve visualizing the data or understanding how the reduced dimensions relate to the original features.

9. Monitoring and Iteration:

 Keep in mind that dimensionality reduction is a preprocessing step, and its impact on downstream

tasks may vary. You may need to iterate on the process, fine-tuning parameters or trying different techniques to achieve the best results for your specific problem.



The bias-variance trade-off

Is a fundamental concept in machine learning and statistical modeling that deals with finding the right balance between two sources of error, bias, and variance, when building predictive models. It represents a key consideration in model selection and training to achieve the best possible model performance.

Here's an explanation of the bias-variance trade-off:

1. Bias:

- Bias refers to the error introduced by approximating a real-world problem, which
 may be complex, by a simplified model. A high-bias model is one that makes strong
 assumptions about the underlying data distribution and is too simplistic. Such
 models may underfit the data, meaning they cannot capture the underlying patterns
 and relationships in the data.
- High-bias models tend to have low flexibility, are too rigid, and may not perform well
 on either the training data or new, unseen data. They tend to oversimplify the
 problem.

2. Variance:

- Variance refers to the error introduced by the model's sensitivity to fluctuations or noise in the training data. A high-variance model is overly complex and captures not only the underlying patterns but also the noise in the data.
- High-variance models have a lot of flexibility, are highly sensitive to the training data, and can fit the training data very well, often achieving low training errors. However, they tend to generalize poorly to new, unseen data because they are essentially memorizing the training data and not learning the true underlying patterns.

3. Trade-Off:

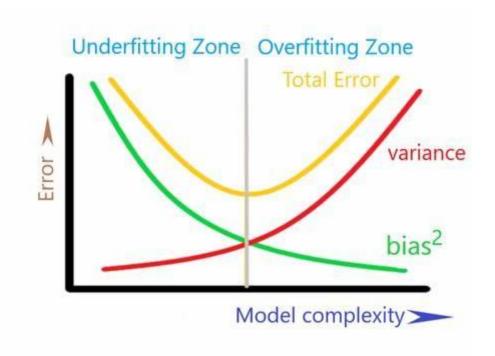
- The bias-variance trade-off describes the relationship between model complexity (flexibility) and model performance (accuracy or error).
- In general, as you increase model complexity, bias decreases, and variance increases. Conversely, as you decrease model complexity, bias increases, and variance decreases.
- The goal is to find the right level of complexity that balances these two sources of error to achieve the best overall model performance.

4. Optimal Model:

• The optimal model in the bias-variance trade-off is one that minimizes the total error on unseen data. This is often referred to as the "Goldilocks zone" because it's neither too simple (high bias) nor too complex (high variance).



 Achieving this balance typically involves techniques such as cross-validation, regularization, and hyperparameter tuning to select the appropriate model complexity.



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