

CSE 4553

Machine Learning

Lecture 4: Basic Practices in ML

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Feature Engineering

- The problem of transforming raw data into a dataset is called feature engineering.
- Logs of user interaction with a computer system may contain the following features:
 - Price of the subscription
 - Frequency of connection per day, per week, and per year
 - Average session duration in seconds
 - Average response time and so on.
- Informative features: Help learning algorithm to build a model that predicts well labels of the data used for training.
- A model has a low bias when it predicts well the training data.

Feature Engineering...

- One-Hot Encoding
 - Used for categorical features when order of the feature is not important
 - E.g. $red = [1, 0, 0]$,
 $yellow = [0, 1, 0]$,
 $green = [0, 0, 1]$



Color
Red
Red
Yellow
Green
Yellow

Red	Yellow	Green
1	0	0
1	0	0
0	1	0
0	0	1
0	1	0

Human-Readable

Pet
Cat
Dog
Turtle
Fish
Cat

Machine-Readable

Cat	Dog	Turtle	Fish
1	0	0	0
0	1	0	0
0	0	1	0
0	0	0	1
1	0	0	0

Feature Engineering...

- Binning
 - Used to convert numerical feature in to categorical feature.
 - Binning (also called bucketing) is the process of converting a continuous feature into multiple binary features called bins or buckets, typically based on value range
 - Three common approach of binning: Equal width binning, Equal frequency binning, and a K-means approach
 - For example, instead of representing age as a single real-valued feature, the analyst could chop ranges of age into discrete bins: all ages between 0 and 5 years-old could be put into one bin, 6 to 10 years-old could be in the second bin, 11 to 15 years-old could be in the third bin, and so on.

Sorted Data of price (in dollars):
4, 8, 15, 21, 21, 24, 25, 28, 34

Distribute the sorted data into bins

Bin 1: 4, 8, 15

Bin 2: 21, 21, 24

Bin 3: 25, 28, 34

Smoothing By Means

Bin 1: 9, 9, 9

Bin 2: 22, 22, 22

Bin 3: 29, 29, 29

Smoothing by Bin Boundaries

Bin 1: 4, 4, 15

Bin 2: 21, 21, 24

Bin 3: 25, 25, 34

Binning Methods for Smoothing Data

Feature Engineering...

- Normalization

- Normalization is the process of converting an actual range of values which a numerical feature can take, into a standard range of values, typically in the interval $[-1, 1]$ or $[0, 1]$.

$$x_{\text{norm}} = \frac{x - \min(x)}{\max(x) - \min(x)}$$

#	Emp	Age	Salary		Age	Normalized Age	Salary	Normalized Salary
1	Emp1	44	73000	Normalization →	44	0.80952381	73000	0.838709677
2	Emp2	27	47000		27	0	47000	0
3	Emp3	30	53000		30	0.142857143	53000	0.193548387
4	Emp4	38	62000		38	0.523809524	62000	0.483870968
5	Emp5	40	57000		40	0.619047619	57000	0.322580645
6	Emp6	35	53000		35	0.380952381	53000	0.193548387
7	Emp7	48	78000		48	1	78000	1
					Range 0-1		Range 0-1	

How to calculate Normalized value?
X = 35, min = 27, max = 48 for column Age.
 $X_{\text{norm}}(\text{for } 35) = \frac{35-27}{48-27} = 0.3809$

More generally, the normalization formula looks like this:

$$\bar{x}^{(j)} = \frac{x^{(j)} - \min^{(j)}}{\max^{(j)} - \min^{(j)}},$$

where $\min^{(j)}$ and $\max^{(j)}$ are, respectively, the minimum and the maximum value of the feature j in the dataset.

Feature Engineering...

- Standardization

- Standardization (or z-score normalization) is the procedure during which the feature values are rescaled so that they have the properties of a standard normal distribution with $\mu = 0$ and $\sigma = 1$, where μ is the mean (the average value of the feature, averaged over all examples in the dataset) and σ is the standard deviation from the mean.
- Standard scores (or z-scores) of features are calculated as follows:

$$\hat{x}^{(j)} = \frac{x^{(j)} - \mu^{(j)}}{\sigma^{(j)}}.$$

Feature Engineering...

- Dealing with missing features:

The typical approaches of dealing with missing values for a feature include:

- Removing the examples with missing features from the dataset. This can be done if your dataset is big enough so you can sacrifice some training examples.
- Using a learning algorithm that can deal with missing feature values (depends on the library and a specific implementation of the algorithm).
- Using a data imputation technique.

Feature Engineering...

- Data Imputation Techniques
- One technique consists in replacing the missing value of a feature by an average value of this feature in the dataset:

$$\hat{x}^{(j)} = \frac{1}{N} x^{(j)}.$$

- Another technique is to replace the missing value by the same value outside the normal range of values. For example, if the normal range is $[0, 1]$, then you can set the missing value equal to 2 or -1 .

Learning Algorithm Selection

- Explainability
 - ML Models need to be explainable to the non-technical audience.
 - Neural Network/DNN VS KNN, linear regression/logistic regression
- In-memory vs out-of-memory
 - Can the dataset be loaded fully into the RAM or incremental learning procedure should be applied.
- Number of features and examples
- Categorical vs numerical features
- Nonlinearity of the data
- Training speed
- Prediction speed

Training set, validation set, test set

Training set	Validation set	Testing set
<ul style="list-style-type: none">- Model is trained- Usually 80% of the dataset	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- Model is assessed- Usually 20% of the dataset- Also called hold-out or development set	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- Model gives predictions- Unseen data

Once the model has been chosen, it is trained on the entire dataset and tested on the unseen test set. These are represented in the figure below:

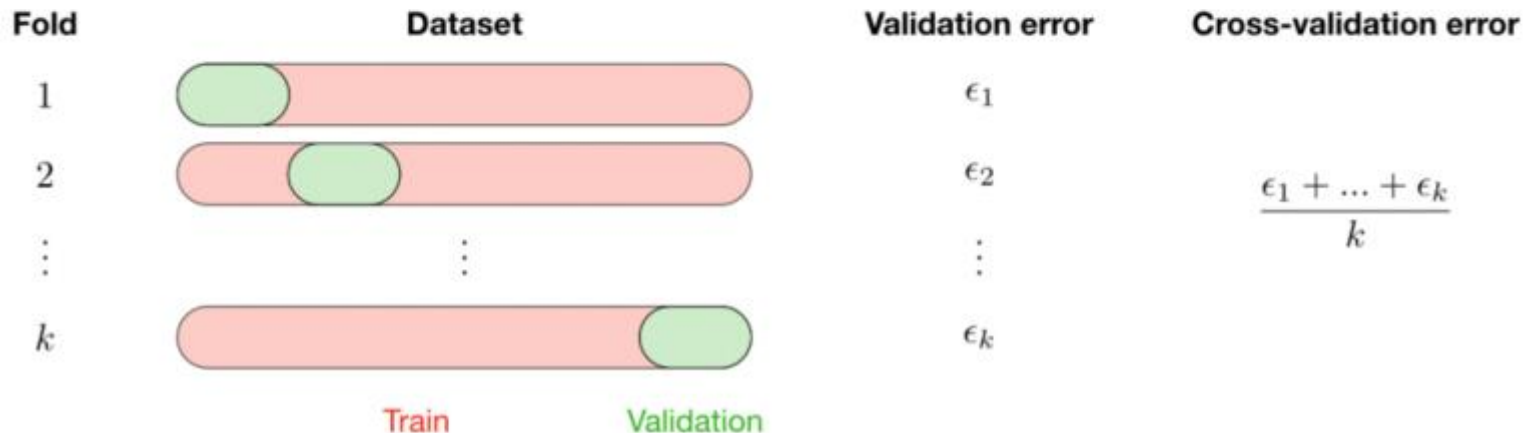


Cross-validation

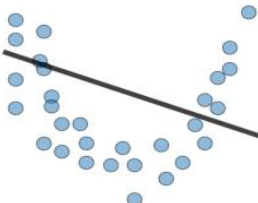
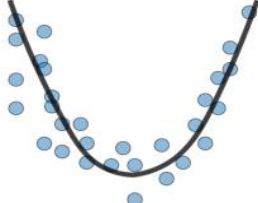
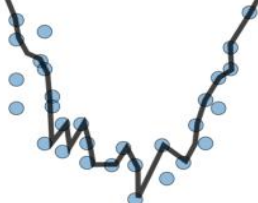
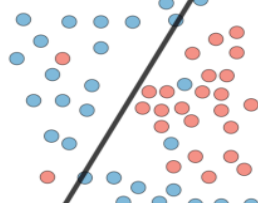
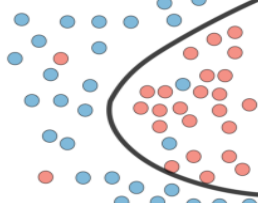
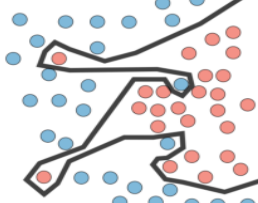
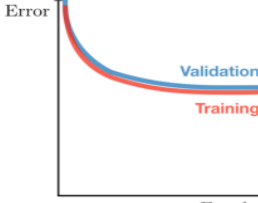
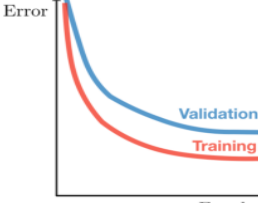
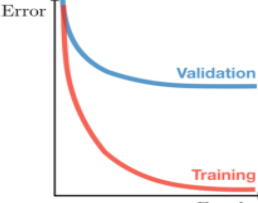
□ **Cross-validation** – Cross-validation, also noted CV, is a method that is used to select a model that does not rely too much on the initial training set. The different types are summed up in the table below:

<i>k</i> -fold	Leave- <i>p</i> -out
<ul style="list-style-type: none">- Training on $k - 1$ folds and assessment on the remaining one- Generally $k = 5$ or 10	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- Training on $n - p$ observations and assessment on the p remaining ones- Case $p = 1$ is called leave-one-out

The most commonly used method is called *k*-fold cross-validation and splits the training data into *k* folds to validate the model on one fold while training the model on the $k - 1$ other folds, all of this *k* times. The error is then averaged over the *k* folds and is named cross-validation error.



Overfitting vs underfitting

	Underfitting	Just right	Overfitting
Symptoms	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - High training error - Training error close to test error - High bias 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Training error slightly lower than test error 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Low training error - Training error much lower than test error - High variance
Regression			
Classification			
Deep learning			
Remedies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Complexify model - Add more features - Train longer 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Regularize - Get more data

Model Performance Assessment

- Confusion Matrix

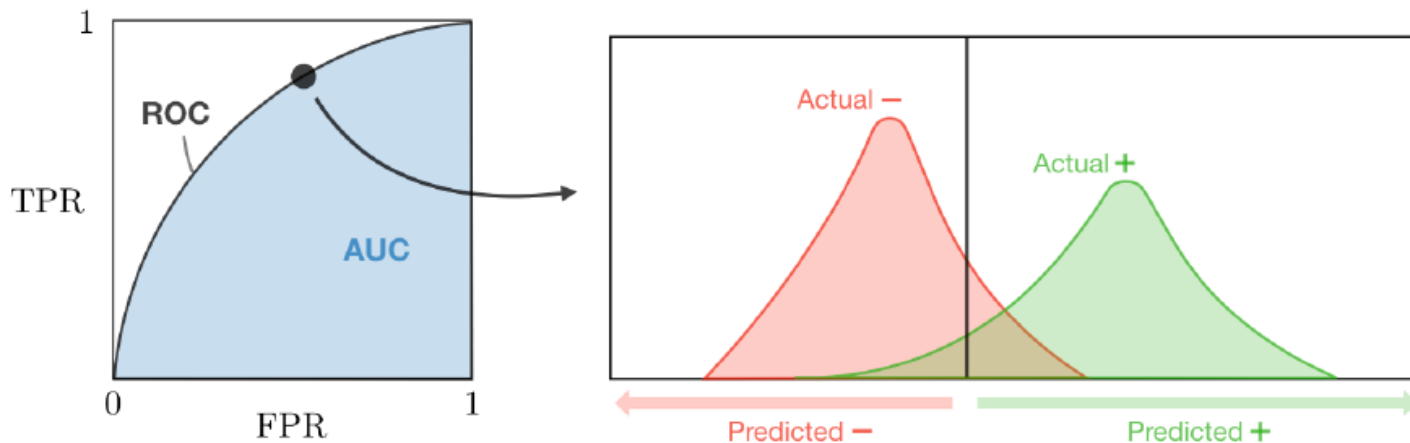
Metric	Formula	Interpretation
Accuracy	$\frac{TP + TN}{TP + TN + FP + FN}$	Overall performance of model
Precision	$\frac{TP}{TP + FP}$	How accurate the positive predictions are
Recall Sensitivity	$\frac{TP}{TP + FN}$	Coverage of actual positive sample
Specificity	$\frac{TN}{TN + FP}$	Coverage of actual negative sample
F1 score	$\frac{2TP}{2TP + FP + FN}$	Hybrid metric useful for unbalanced classes

		Predicted class	
		+	-
Actual class	+	TP True Positives	FN False Negatives Type II error
	-	FP False Positives Type I error	TN True Negatives

ROC, AUC

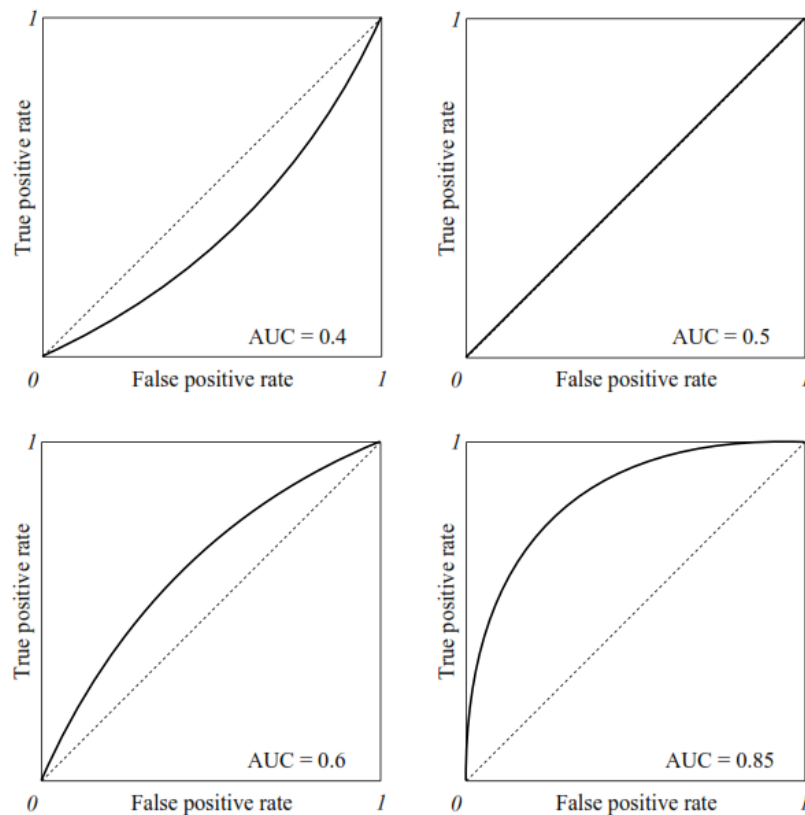
- ROC: The receiver operating curve, also noted ROC, is the plot of TPR versus FPR by varying the threshold.
- AUC: The area under the receiving operating curve, also noted AUC or AUROC

Metric	Formula	Equivalent
True Positive Rate TPR	$\frac{TP}{TP + FN}$	Recall, sensitivity
False Positive Rate FPR	$\frac{FP}{TN + FP}$	1-specificity



ROC, AUC

- ROC: The receiver operating curve, also noted ROC, is the plot of TPR versus FPR by varying the threshold.
- AUC: The area under the receiving operating curve, also noted AUC or AUROC



Hyperparameter Tuning

- Hyperparameters are defined as the parameters that are explicitly defined by the user to control the learning process.
- These are external to the model, and their values cannot be changed during the training process.
- Few examples:
 - The k in kNN or K-Nearest Neighbour algorithm
 - Learning rate for training a neural network
 - Train-test split ratio
 - Batch Size
 - Number of Epochs
 - Branches in Decision Tree
 - Number of clusters in Clustering Algorithm