

Data preprocessing, model complexity.

Victor Kitov

v.v.kitov@yandex.ru

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Hyperparameters selection

- Using CV we can select hyperparameters of the model¹
- Each model has hyperparameter, corresponding to model complexity.
- Model complexity - ability to reproduce training set.
- Examples:
 - regression: # of features d , e.g. $x, x^2, \dots x^d$
 - K-NN: number of neighbors K

¹can we use CV loss in this case as estimation for future losses?

Underfitted and overfitted models²

Too simple (underfitted) model

Model that oversimplifies true relationship $\mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$.

Too complex (overfitted) model

Model that is too tuned on particular peculiarities (noise) of the training set instead of the true relationship $\mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$.

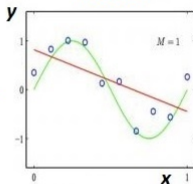
²In fact most models overfit, meaning that empirical risk < expected risk. Underfitted models just have lower difference than overfitted ones.

Examples of overfitted / underfitted models

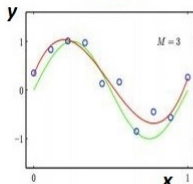
- true relationship
- estimated relationship with polynimes of order M
- objects of the training sample

regression:

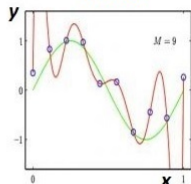
**too simple
model**



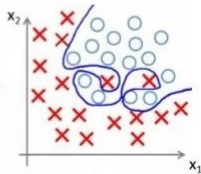
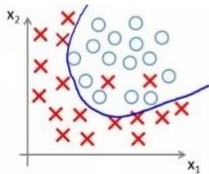
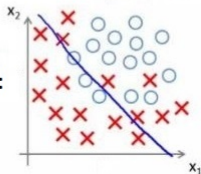
**relevant
model**



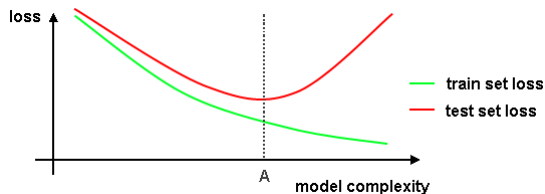
**too complex
model**



classification:



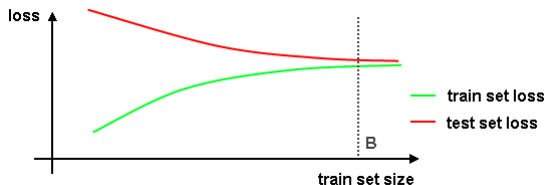
Loss vs. model complexity



Comments:

- expected loss on test set is always higher than on train set.
- left to A: model too simple, underfitting, high bias
- right to A: model too complex, overfitting, high variance

Loss vs. train set size



Comments:

- expected loss on test set is always higher than on train set.
- right to B there is no need to further increase training set size
 - useful to limit training set size when model fitting is time consuming

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1 Model complexity

2 Data preprocessing

- Missing data
- Data reduction
- Normalization of features
- Feature type transformations

What we need to do

- Data preprocessing:
 - deal with missing data
 - clean incorrect data
 - data subsampling
 - data scaling
 - data type transformation

2 Data preprocessing

- Missing data
- Data reduction
- Normalization of features
- Feature type transformations

Missing data

What we can do with missing features:

- **remove all objects, having at least one missing feature**
 - easiest way, but lose information
- **fill missing features using most likely value**
 - mean, median for numeric features
 - averaged neighbours for continuous time-series
 - mode for categorical feature
- **predict missing features using known features**
 - regression task for numeric features
 - classification task for categorical feature
- **use models, which ignore missing features**
 - such as decision trees

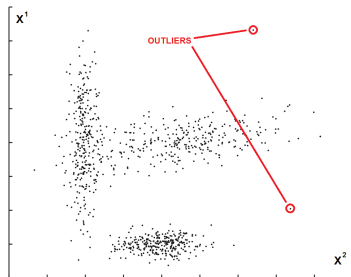
Comments on imputation

- imputing missing features with estimates induces imputation bias
 - to get rid of this bias: for feature d add binary feature, indicating whether this feature was known or was imputed.
- imputation implies that feature absence and feature value are independent
 - may not be the case
 - in surveys people prefer not to tell their salary when it is big.
 - if they are dependent additional expert info should be used for feature reconstruction

Incorrect data

We can detect incorrect data using:

- inconsistency detection
 - e.g. surname of the same person is spelled differently in different records
- domain knowledge
 - e.g. human height cannot be 4 meters
- statistical methods: remove outliers



Outlier removal, having extreme values

- 1D outlier removal:

³which of these measures are robust to outliers and why?

⁴which of these measures are robust to outliers and why?

Outlier removal, having extreme values

- 1D outlier removal:
 - outliers are outside $[center - \alpha scatter, center + \alpha scatter]$, $\alpha > 0$
 - center³: mean, median
 - scatter⁴: standard deviation, 95% quantile - 5% quantile, $\text{median}\{|x - \text{median}\{x\}|\}$
- Outliers can be not errors, but interesting regimes:
 - medical data: rare disease
 - network data: hacker attack
 - card transaction data: fraud
 - manual inspection of outliers needed

³which of these measures are robust to outliers and why?

⁴which of these measures are robust to outliers and why?

2 Data preprocessing

- Missing data
- Data reduction
- Normalization of features
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Objects reduction

If N is too large, then

- additional memory/disk/CPU data transfer requirements
- slow-down of optimization in ML methods

Objects reduction:

- **Purely random subsampling**
 - usually without replacement
- **Random with stratification**
 - stratification by output
 - preserve classes distribution
 - stratification by feature value
 - preserve object types distribution

Objects reduction

Objects reduction:

- **Random non-uniform sampling** (less common)
 - sample harder objects more (mistakes)
 - regression: based on $|f_{\theta}(x) - y|$
 - classification: based on margin (few etalons, then lowest margin objects)
 - sample rare classes/objects more (underrepresented data)
 - sample new objects more (in dynamic context)

Margin

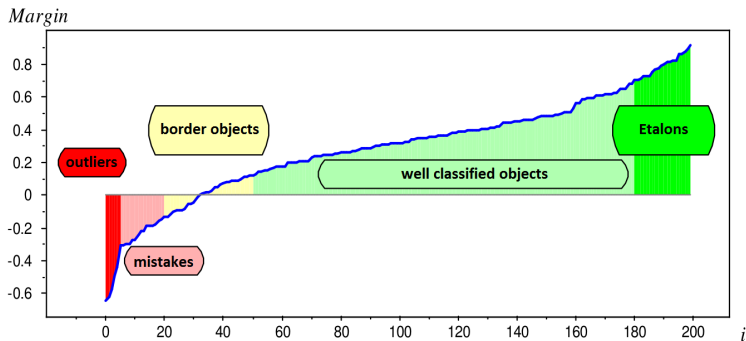
- Consider
 - $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_N, y_N)$ - training set
 - $Y = \{1, 2, \dots, C\}$ - set of all possible classes.
- Define margin:

$$M(x_i, y_i) = g_{y_i}(x_i) - \max_{c \in Y \setminus \{y_i\}} g_c(x_i)$$

- Margin shows the preference of the algorithm to assign x_i to the correct class y_i compared to other classes.
 - being continuous margin is more informative than $\mathbb{I}[\hat{y}(x_i) = y_i]$
- Margin is negative \iff object x_i was incorrectly classified.

Categorization of objects based on margin

Estimate margin for each object in the training set and order objects by margin:



Good classifier should:

- minimize the number of negative margin region
- classify correctly with high margin

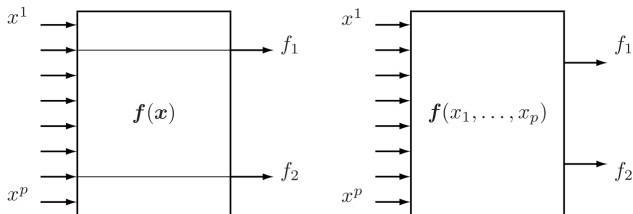
Margin for binary classification

Consider

- $y \in \{+1, -1\}$
 - $g(\mathbf{x}) = g_{+1}(\mathbf{x}) - g_{-1}(\mathbf{x})$ - score of positive class versus negative.
 - $\hat{y}(\mathbf{x}) = \text{sign } g(\mathbf{x})$
- $$M(\mathbf{x}, y) = g_y(\mathbf{x}) - g_{-y}(\mathbf{x}) = y (g_{+1}(\mathbf{x}) - g_{-1}(\mathbf{x})) = yg(\mathbf{x})$$

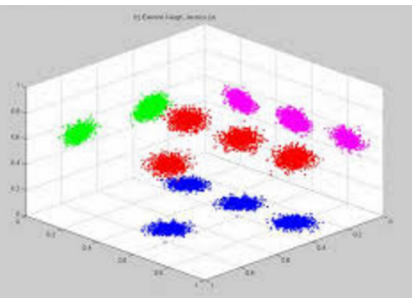
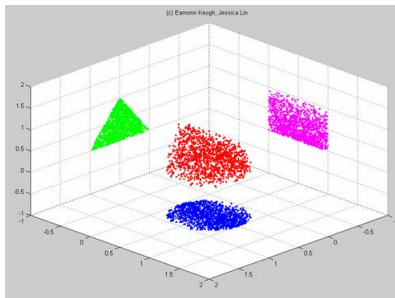
Feature reduction

- Feature selection vs. feature extraction:



- Feature selection:
 - unsupervised (e.g. $\text{variance} < \text{threshold}$)
 - filter (e.g. by correlation with output)
 - wrapper (e.g. compare performance with/without feature)
 - embedded inside ML model

Brute-force feature selection may lead to information loss



2 Data preprocessing

- Missing data
- Data reduction
- **Normalization of features**
- Feature type transformations

Normalization of features

- Feature scaling may affect ML model, e.g. K-NN.
- If different features should have equal impact - make their scatter common.
- If some features should be more important - give them higher scatter.
- Typical normalizations:

Name	Transformation	Properties of resulting feature
Autoscaling	$x'_j = \frac{x_j - \mu_j}{\sigma_j}$	zero mean and unit variance.
Range scaling	$x'_j = \frac{x_j - L_j}{U_j - L_j}$	belongs to $[0, 1]$ interval.

where μ_j , σ_j , L_j , U_j are mean value, standard deviation, minimum and maximum value of the j -th feature.

Discussion

- For non-negative features range scaling does not affect feature sparsity: $0 \rightarrow 0$.
- Autoscaling is more robust to outliers than range scaling⁵

⁵Propose a scaling that is fully robust to outliers.

Normalization of features

- Non-linear transformations incorporating features with rare large values:
 - $x'_i = \log(x_i)$
 - $x'_i = x_i^p, 0 \leq p < 1$
- For $F_i(\alpha) = P(x^i \leq \alpha)$ transformation $\tilde{x}^i \rightarrow F_i(x^i)$ will give feature uniformly distributed on $[0, 1]^6$.
- Sometimes scaling is performed not per feature, but per object $x \rightarrow x / \|x\|$
 - e.g.: x - counts of words within document \rightarrow frequencies of words within document
documents of different length become comparable!

⁶Prove that

2 Data preprocessing

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Possible features types

- **Numeric**
 - salary
 - flat size
- **Categorical**
 - occupation (programmer, manager, engineer, etc.)
 - sex (male, female)
 - city (Moscow, Kaluga, etc.)
- **Binary** (may be considered both numeric and categorical)
 - sex
 - marital status

Numeric->categorical

- **Numeric->categorical** (discretization):

- Split feature domain into intervals

$$[b_1, b_2], [b_2, b_3], \dots [b_K, b_{K+1}]$$

- $f \rightarrow \tilde{f} \in \mathbb{R}^K$

$$\tilde{f} = (\mathbb{I}[f \in [b_1, b_2]], \mathbb{I}[f \in [b_2, b_3]], \dots \mathbb{I}[f \in [b_K, b_{K+1}]])^T$$

- Loose some information.
- Such representation may be better for the model (e.g. linear regression).
- Intervals selection:
 - equiwidth (equal length of each interval)
 - equidepth (equal density of points in each interval)
 - sort feature values in increasing order and set new border every $\frac{N}{K}$ objects.

Categorical->numeric

- **One hot encoding** - encode categorical feature

$f \in \{c_1, c_2, \dots, c_K\}$ with $\tilde{f} \in \mathbb{R}^K$

$$\tilde{f} = (\mathbb{I}[f = c_1], \mathbb{I}[f = c_2], \dots, \mathbb{I}[f = c_K])^T$$

Original data:		One-hot encoding format:					
id	Color	id	White	Red	Black	Purple	Gold
1	White	1	1	0	0	0	0
2	Red	2	0	1	0	0	0
3	Black	3	0	0	1	0	0
4	Purple	4	0	0	0	1	0
5	Gold	5	0	0	0	0	1

Categorical->numeric

Probabilistic encoding - replace discrete feature f with aggregated another feature g .

- Continuous g :
 - replace f with $average(g|f)$
- Discrete $g \in \{1, 2, \dots, C\}$:
 - replace f with C binary features
 $p(g = 1|f), p(g = 2|f), \dots, p(g = C|f)$

g may be taken as output y .

- intuitive method but overfits
 - e.g. consider f =client id, unique for each object.
- to prevent overfitting calculate aggregation statistics on **separate training set.**

Summary

- Each model has complexity parameter - tune it!
- Data preprocessing is important and includes the following steps:
 - deal with missing data
 - clean incorrect data
 - data subsampling
 - data scaling
 - data type transformation
 - one-hot and aggregation encodings are most important.