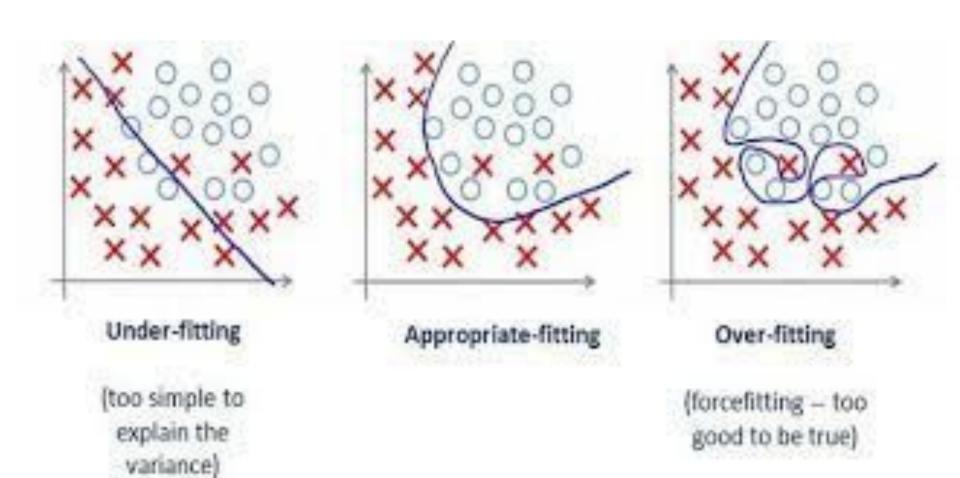
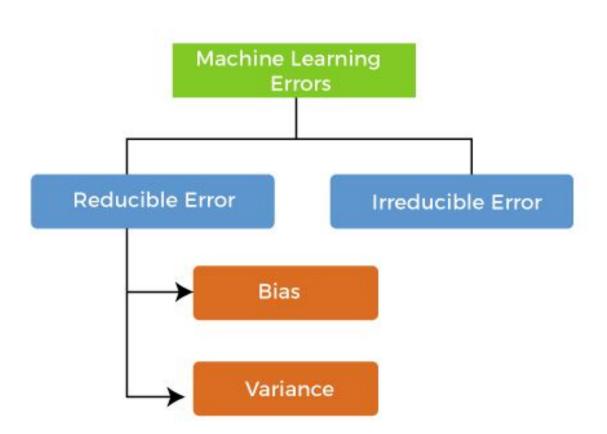
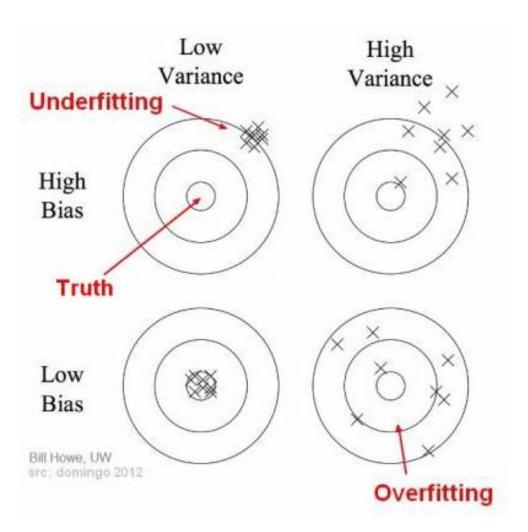
Bias vs Variance







Ways to reduce High Bias:

High bias mainly occurs due to a much simple model. Below are some ways to reduce the high bias:

- Increase the input features as the model is underfitted.
- Use more complex models, such as including some polynomial features.

A model that exhibits small variance and high bias will underfit the target, while a model with high variance and little bias will overfit the target.

- Bias: Bias is a prediction error that is introduced in the model due to oversimplifying the machine learning algorithms. Or it is the difference between the predicted values and the actual values.
- Variance: If the machine learning model performs well with the training dataset,
 but does not perform well with the test dataset, then variance occurs.

Bias

Let's assume we have trained the model and are trying to predict values with input 'x_train'. The predicted values are y_predicted. Bias is the error rate of y_predicted and y_train.

In simple terms, think of bias as the error rate of the training data.

When the error rate is high, we call it High Bias and when the error rate is low, we call it Low Bias

Variance

Let's assume we have trained the model and this time we are trying to predict values with input 'x_test'. Again, the predicted values are y_predicted. Variance is the error rate of the y_predicted and y_test

In simple terms, think of variance as the error rate of the testing data.

When the error rate is high, we call it High Variance and when the error rate is low, we call it Low Variance

Underfitting

When the model has a high error rate in the training data, we can say the model is underfitting. This usually occurs when the number of training samples is too low. Since our model performs badly on the training data, it consequently performs badly on the testing data as well.

A high error rate in training data implies a High Bias, therefore

In simple terms, High Bias implies underfitting

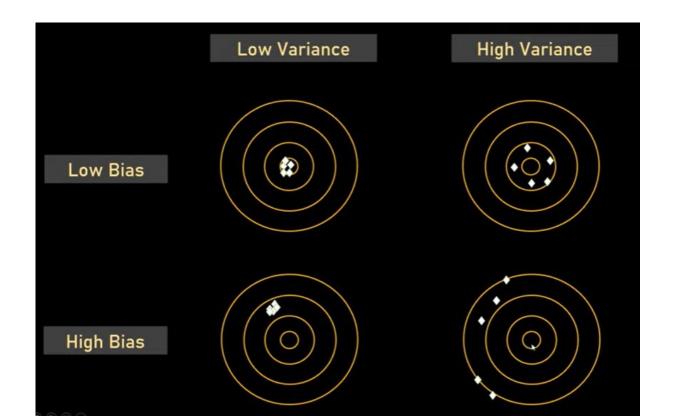
OverFitting

When the model has a low error rate in training data but a high error rate in testing data, we can say the model is overfitting. This usually occurs when the number of training samples is too high or the hyperparameters have been tuned to produce a low error rate on the training data.

A low error rate in training data implies Low Bias whereas a high error rate in testing data implies a High Variance, therefore

In simple terms, Low Bias and Hight Variance implies overfitting

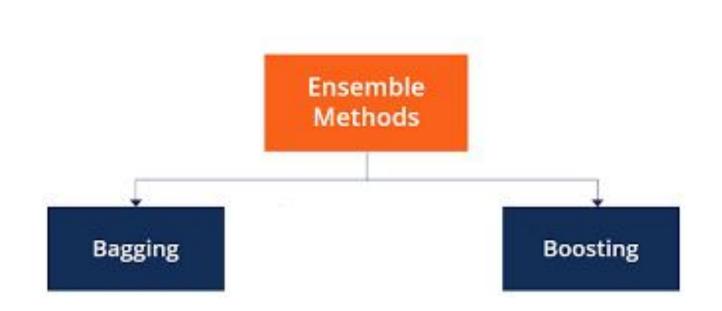
Bulls-eye diagram



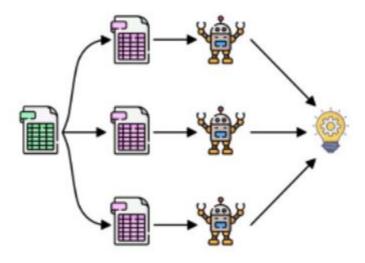
Bagging

Boosting

Random Forest

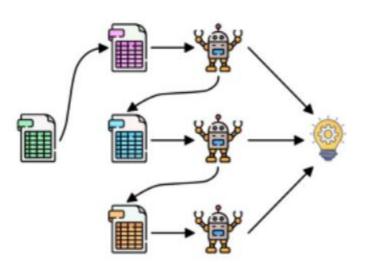


Bagging

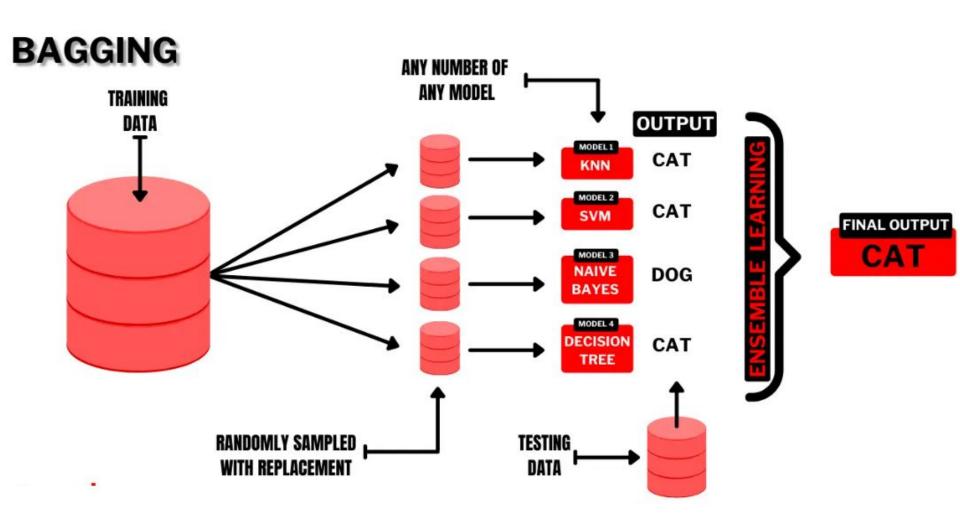


Parallel

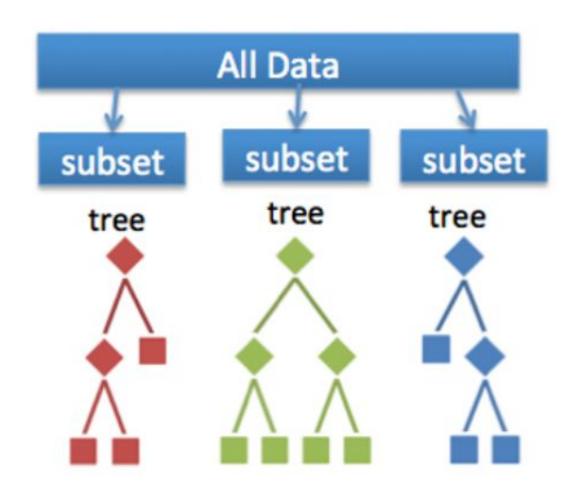
Boosting



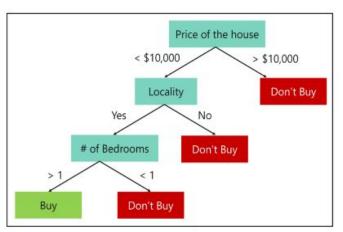
Sequential

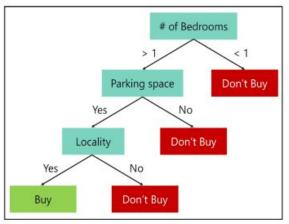


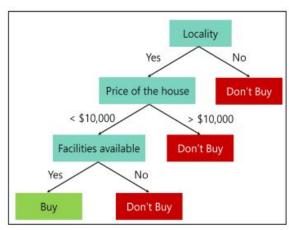
Random Forest - A Bagging technique



Random Forest - A Bagging technique

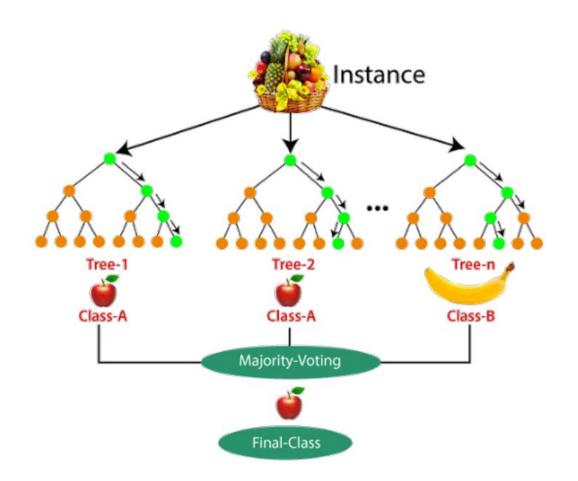






Random Forest With 3 Decision Trees

Random Forest - A Bagging technique



Difference Between Decision Tree and Random Forest

Random forest is a collection of decision trees; still, there are a lot of differences in their behavior.

Decision trees	Random Forest
1. Decision trees normally suffer from the problem of overfitting if it's allowed to grow without any control.	1. Random forests are created from subsets of data, and the final output is based on average or majority ranking; hence the problem of overfitting is taken care of.
2. A single decision tree is faster in computation.	2. It is comparatively slower.

1. Bagging – It creates a different training subset from sample training data with replacement & the final output is based on majority voting. For example, Random Forest.
2. Boosting – It combines weak learners into strong learners by creating sequential models such that the final model has the highest accuracy. For example, ADA BOOST, XG BOOST.

Hyperparameters to Increase the Predictive Power of RF

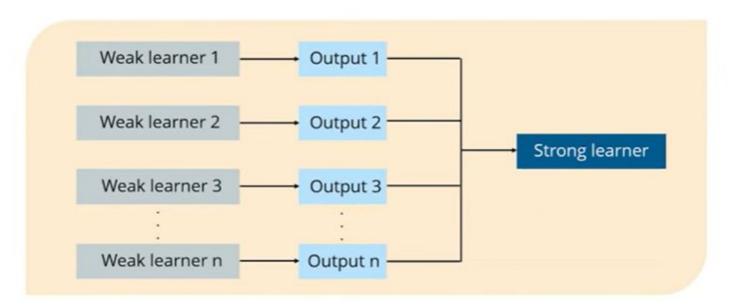
- n_estimators: Number of trees the algorithm builds before averaging the predictions.
- max_features: Maximum number of features random forest considers splitting a node.
- mini_sample_leaf: Determines the minimum number of leaves required to split an internal node.
- criterion: How to split the node in each tree? (Entropy/Gini impurity/Log Loss)
- max leaf nodes: Maximum leaf nodes in each tree

Bagging

- Bagging, also known as Bootstrap Aggregation, is the ensemble technique used by random forest.
- Each model is generated from the samples (Bootstrap Samples) provided by the Original Data with replacement known as *row sampling*. This step of row sampling with replacement is called *bootstrap*.
- Each model is trained independently, which generates results.
- The final output is based on majority voting after combining the results of all models.
- This step which involves combining all the results and generating output based on majority voting, is known as aggregation.

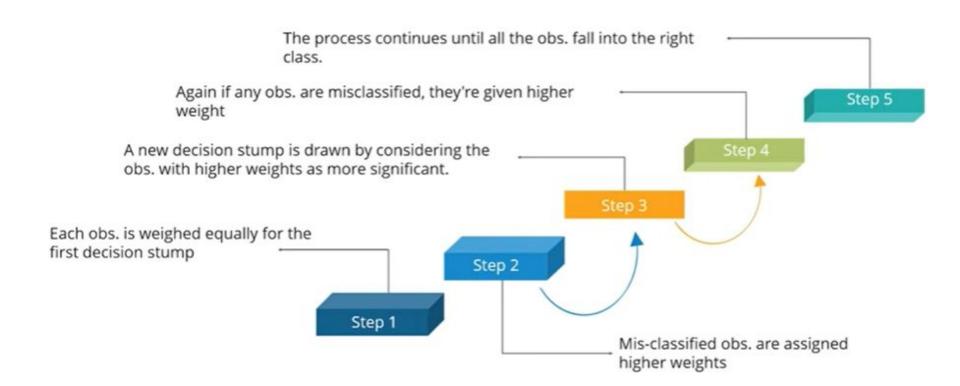
WHAT IS BOOSTING?

Boosting is a process that uses a set of Machine Learning algorithms to combine weak learner to form strong learners in order to increase the accuracy of the model.



TYPES OF BOOSTING

ADAPTIVE BOOSTING



Step 1 – The Image shown below is the actual representation of our dataset. Since the target column is binary, it is a classification problem. First of all, these data points will be assigned some weights. Initially, all the weights will be equal.

Row No.	Gender	Age	Income	Illness	Sample Weights
1	Male	41	40000	Yes	1/5
2	Male	54	30000	No	1/5
3	Female	42	25000	No	1/5
4	Female	40	60000	Yes	1/5
5	Male	46	50000	Yes	1/5

Let's say Gender has the lowest gini index, so it will be our first stump.

Influence for this classifier in classifying the data points using this formula:

Performance of the stump =
$$\frac{1}{2}\log_e(\frac{1-Total\ Error}{Total\ Error})$$

The total error is nothing but the summation of all the sample weights of misclassified data points.

Here in our dataset, let's assume there is 1 wrong output, so our total error will be 1/5, and the alpha

Performance of the stump =
$$\frac{1}{2}\log_e(\frac{1-Total\ Error}{Total\ Error})$$

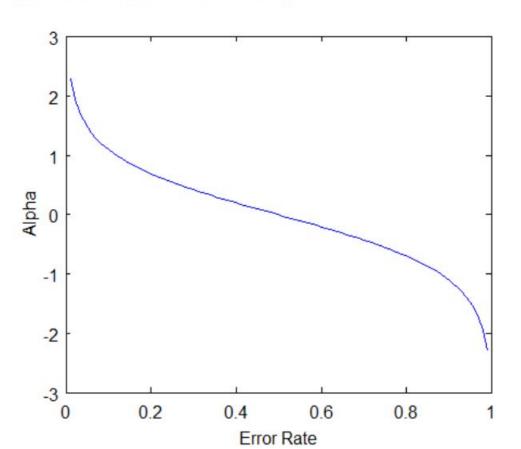
$$\alpha = \frac{1}{2} \log_e \left(\frac{1 - \frac{1}{5}}{\frac{1}{5}} \right)$$

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{2} \log_e \left(\frac{0.8}{0.2} \right)$$

(performance of the stump) will be:

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{2}\log_e(4) = \frac{1}{2}*(1.38)=0.69$$

0 Indicates perfect stump, and 1 indicates horrible stump.



New sample weight = 0.2 * 0.502 = 0.1004

New sample weight = old weight * $e^{\pm Amount\ of\ say\ (\alpha)}$ New weights for correctly classified samples are:

New sample weight =
$$\frac{1}{5}$$
 * exp(-0.69)

New sample weight = $\frac{1}{5}$ * exp(0.69)

$$New \ sample \ weight = 0.2 * 1.994 = 0.3988$$

Row No.	Gender	Age	Income	Illness	Sample Weights	New Sample Weights
1	Male	41	40000	Yes	1/5	0.1004
2	Male	54	30000	No	1/5	0.1004
3	Female	42	25000	No	1/5	0.1004
4	Female	40	60000	Yes	1/5	0.3988
5	Male	46	50000	Yes	1/5	0.1004

Row No.	Gender	Age	Income	Illness	Sample Weights	New Sample Weights
1	Male	41	40000	Yes	1/5	0.1004/0.8004 =0.1254
2	Male	54	30000	No	1/5	0.1004/0.8004 =0.1254
3	Female	42	25000	No	1/5	0.1004/0.8004 =0.1254
4	Female	40	60000	Yes	1/5	0.3988/0.8004 =0.4982
5	Male	46	50000	Yes	1/5	0.1004/0.8004 =0.1254

This comes out to be our new dataset, and we see the data point, which was wrongly classified, has been selected 3 times because it has a higher weight.

Row No.	Gender	Age	Income	Illness
1	Female	40	60000	Yes
2	Male	54	30000	No
3	Female	42	25000	No
4	Female	40	60000	Yes
5	Female	40	60000	Yes

Now this act as our new dataset, and we need to repeat all the above steps i.e.

- Assign equal weights to all the data points.
- Find the stump that does the *best job classifying* the new collection of samples by finding their Gini Index and selecting the one with the lowest Gini index.
- Calculate "Total error" to update the previous sample weights.
- Normalize the new sample weights.

Iterate through these steps until and unless a low training error is achieved.

Suppose, with respect to our dataset, we have constructed 3 decision trees (DT1, DT2, DT3) in a *sequential manner*. If we send our test data now, it will pass through all the decision trees, and finally, we will see which class has the majority, and based on that, we will do predictions for our test dataset.

GRADIENT BOOSTING

Gradient Boosting

...let's see how the most common

Gradient Boost configuration would
use this Training Data to Predict
Weight.

Height (m)	Favorite Color	Gender	Weight (kg)
1.6	Blue	Male	88
1.6	Green	Female	76
1.5	Blue	Female	56
1.8	Red	Male	73
1.5	Green	Male	77
1.4	Blue	Female	57

Average Weight 71.2

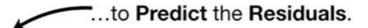
Height (m)	Favorite Color	Gender	Weight (kg)	Residual
1.6	Blue	Male	88	16.8
1.6	Green	Female	76	4.8
1.5	Blue	Female	56	-15.2
1.8	Red	Male	73	1.8
1.5	Green	Male	77	5.8
1.4	Blue	Female	57	-14.2

Now we will build a **Tree**, using **Height**, **Favorite Color** and **Gender**...



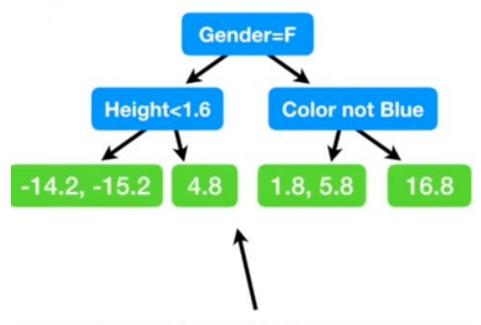


Height (m)	Favorite Color	Gender	Weight (kg)	Residual
1.6	Blue	Male	88	16.8
1.6	Green	Female	76	4.8
1.5	Blue	Female	56	-15.2
1.8	Red	Male	73	1.8
1.5	Green	Male	77	5.8
1.4	Blue	Female	57	-14.2



Left Tree = Yes Right Tree = No

Gradient Boosting

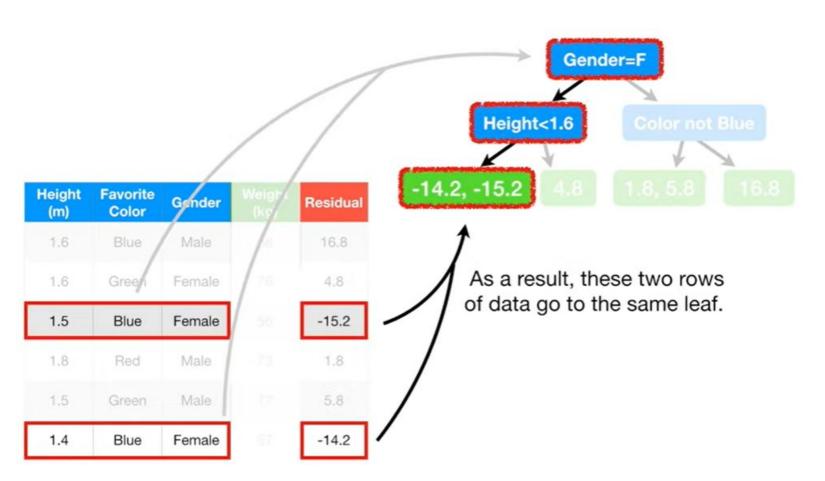


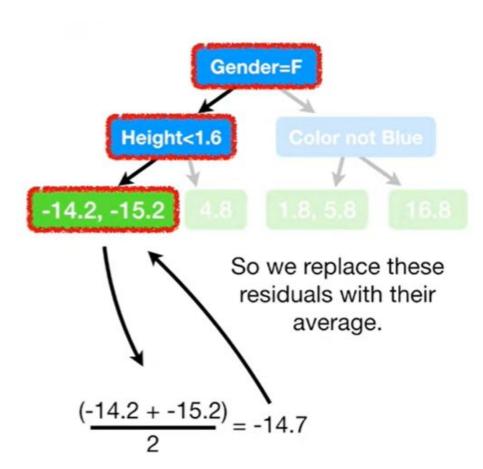
So, setting aside the reason why we are building a tree to **Predict** the **Residuals** for the time being, here's the tree!

Remember, in this example we are only allowing up to four leaves...

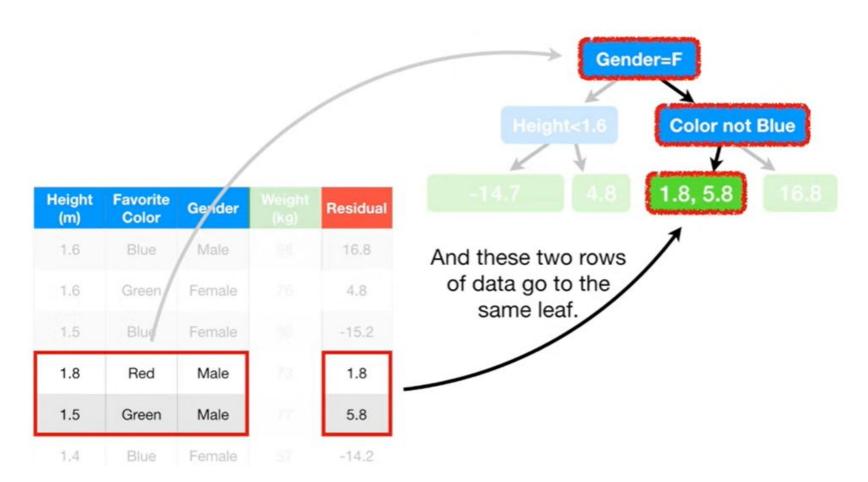
...but when using a larger dataset, it is common to allow anywhere from 8 to 32.

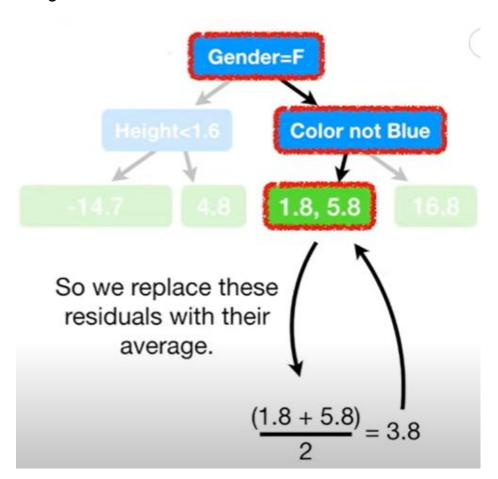
Left Tree = Yes Right Tree = No

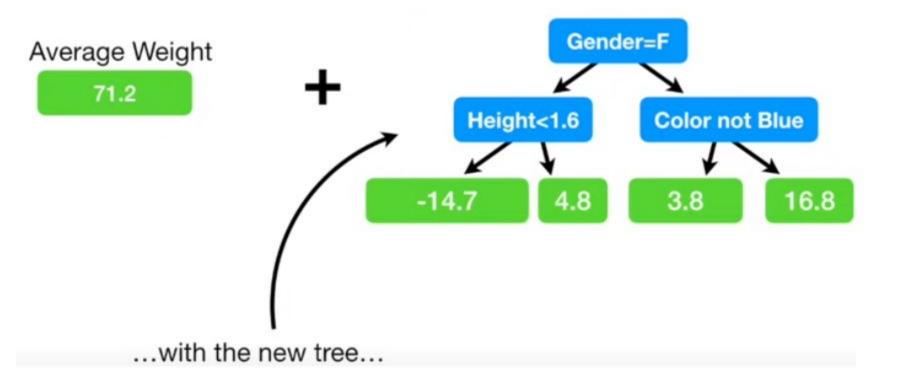


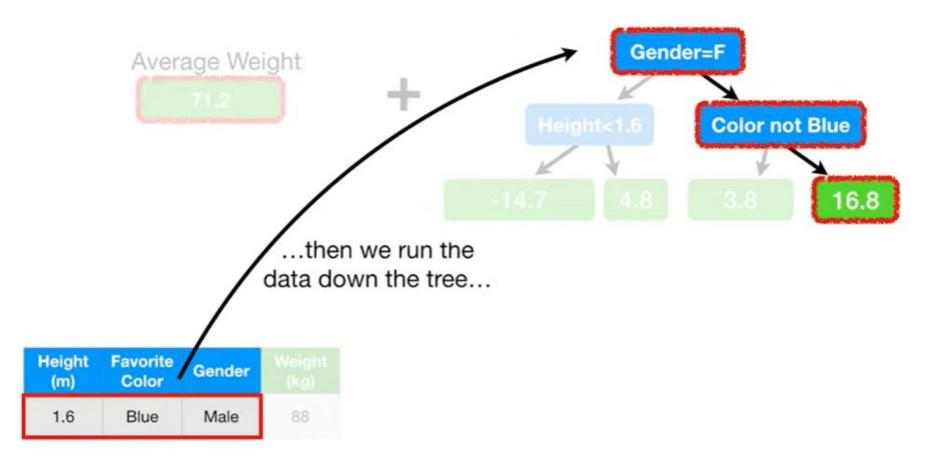


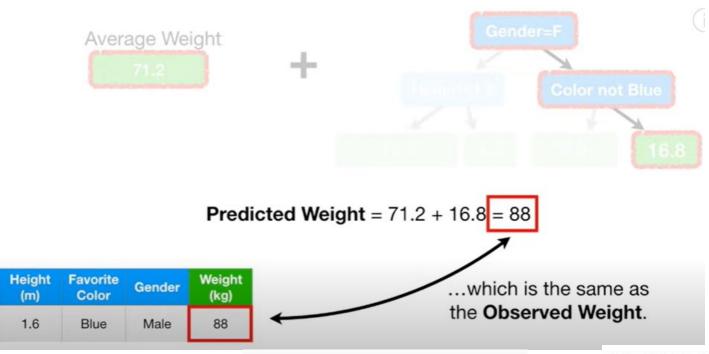
Left Tree = Yes Right Tree = No



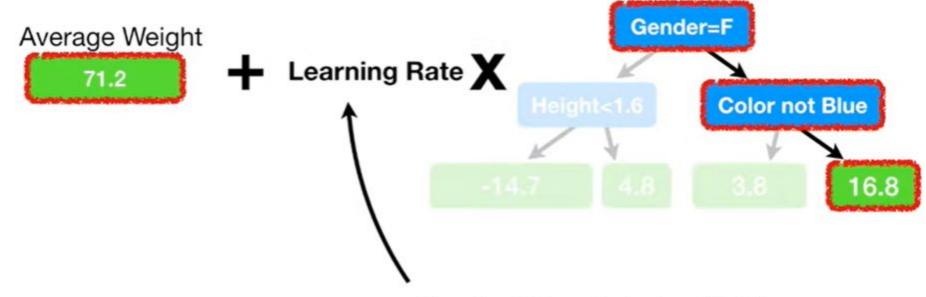








No. The model fits the Training Data too well. In other words, we have low **Bias**, but probably very high **Variance**.



	Favorite Color		
1.6	Blue	Male	88

Gradient Boost deals with this problem by using a Learning Rate to scale the contribution from the new tree.

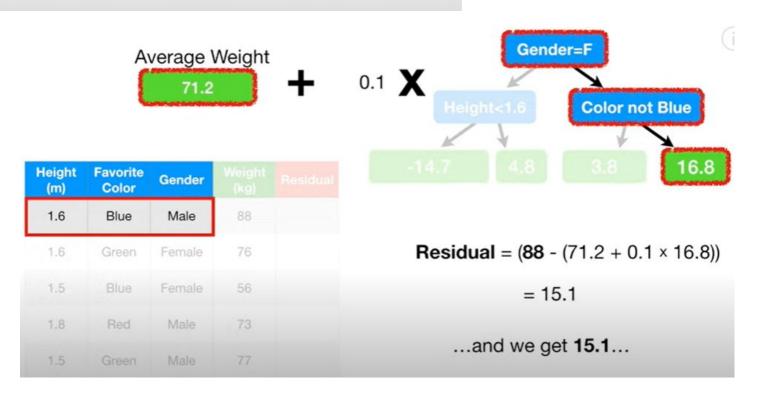


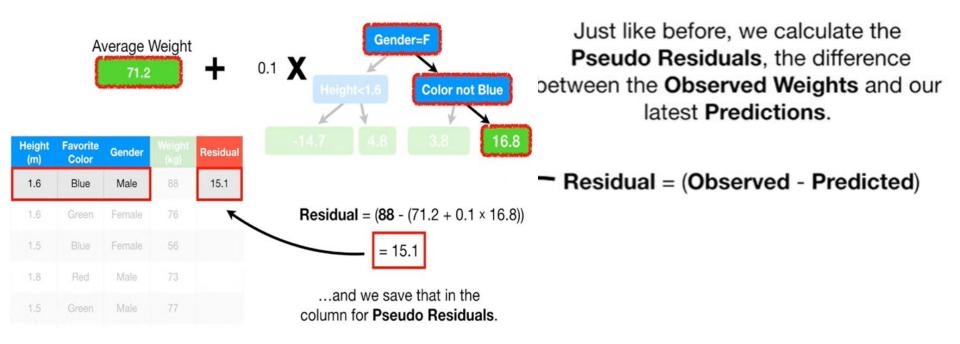
			Weight (kg)
.6	Blue	Male	88

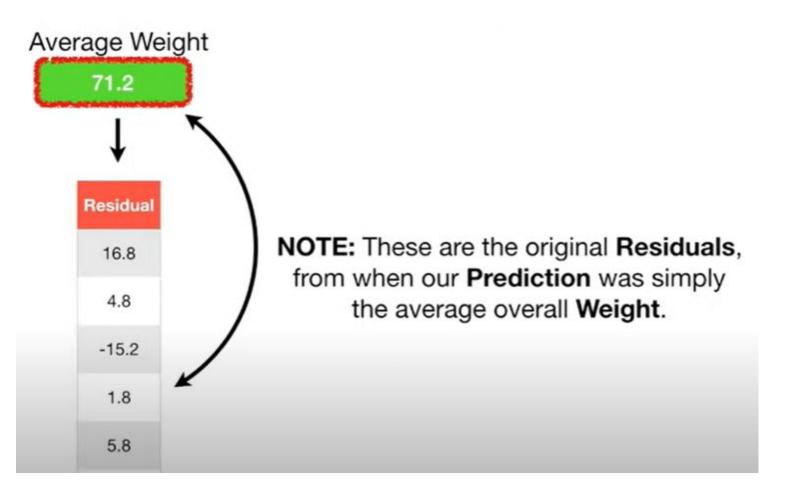
empirical evidence shows that taking lots of small steps in the right direction results in better **Predictions** with a **Testing Dataset**, i.e. lower **Variance**. With the **Learning Rate** set to **0.1**, the new **Prediction** isn't as good as as it was before...

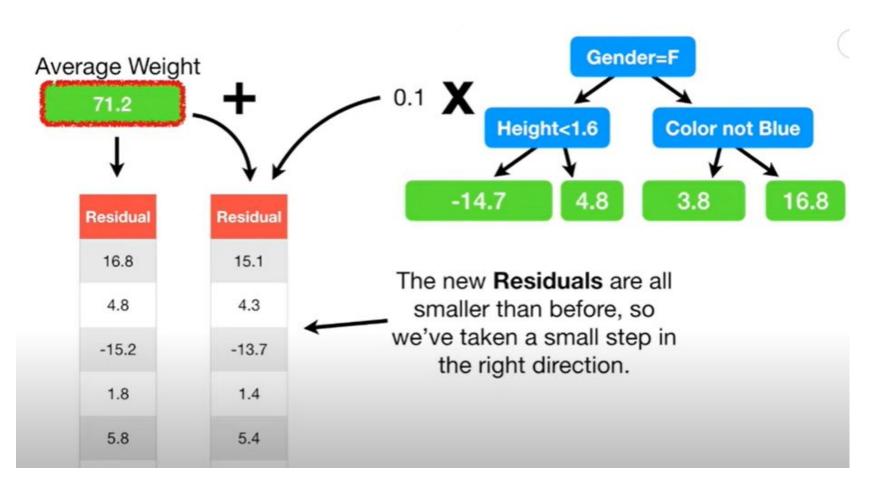
...but it's a little bit better than the **Prediction** made with just the original leaf, which predicted that all samples would weigh **71.2**.

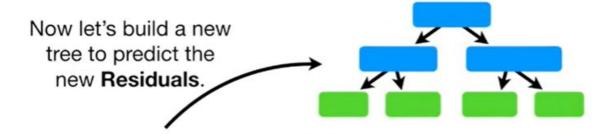
So let's build another tree so we can take another small step in the right direction.



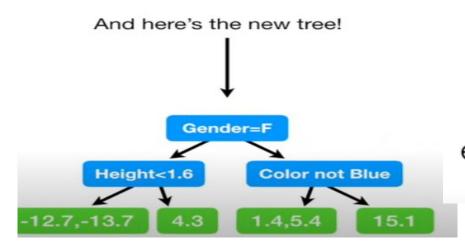




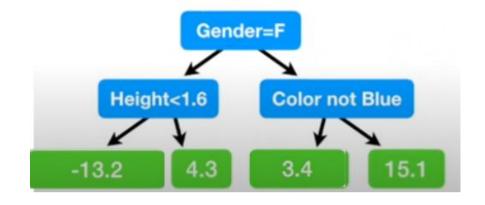


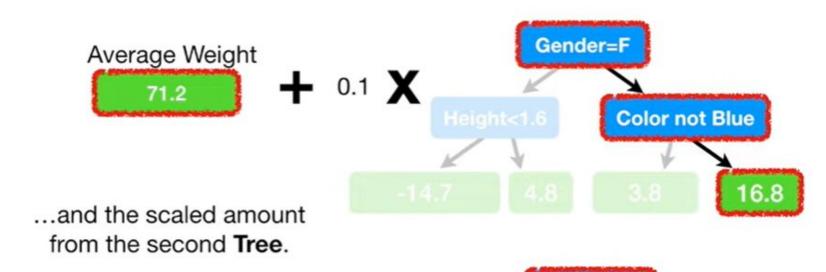


Height (m)	Favorite Color	Gender	Weight (kg)	Residual
1.6	Blue	Male	88	15.1
1.6	Green	Female	76	4.3
1.5	Blue	Female	56	-13.7
1.8	Red	Male	73	1.4
1.5	Green	Male	77	5.4
1.4	Blue	Female	57	-12.7



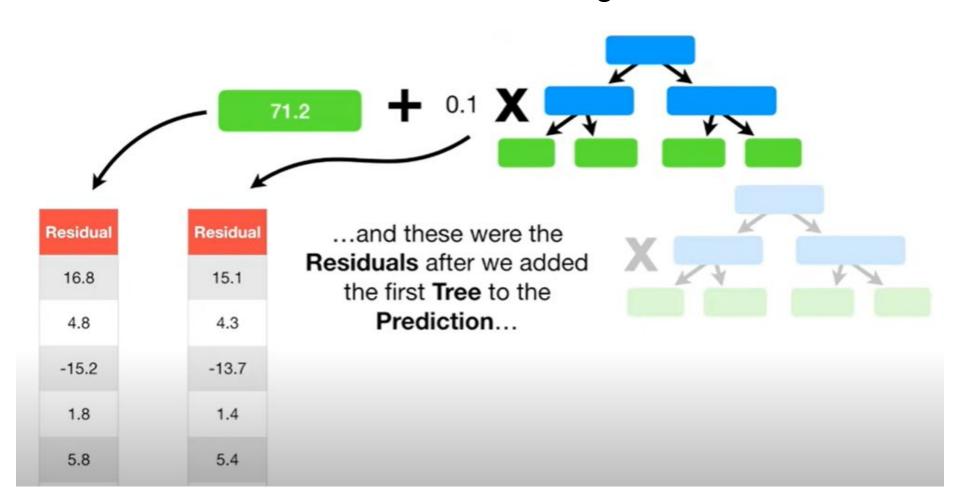
Just like before, since multiple samples ended up in these leaves, we just replace the **Residuals** with their averages.

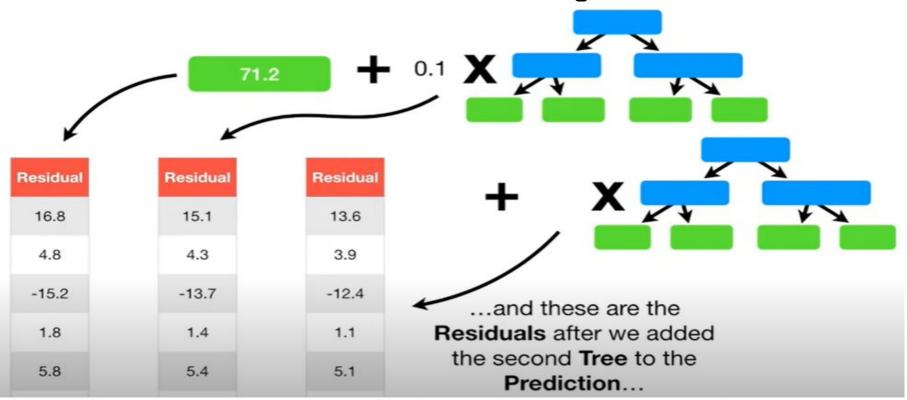




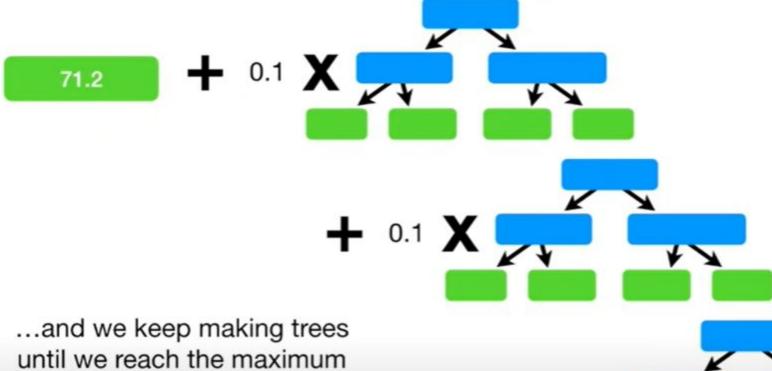


Which is another small step closer to the **Observed Weight**.

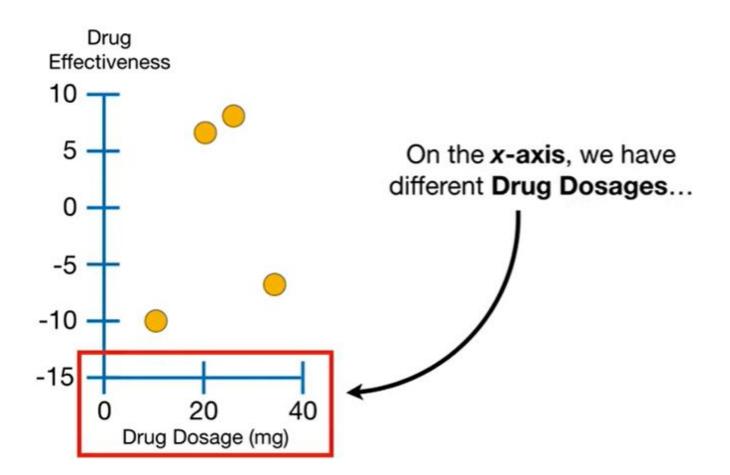


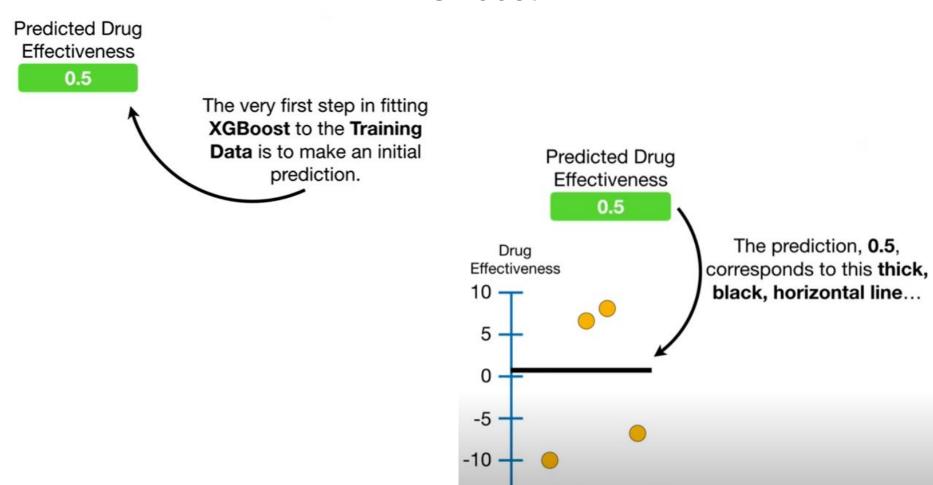


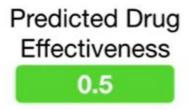
Each time we add a tree to the **Prediction**, the **Residuals** get smaller.

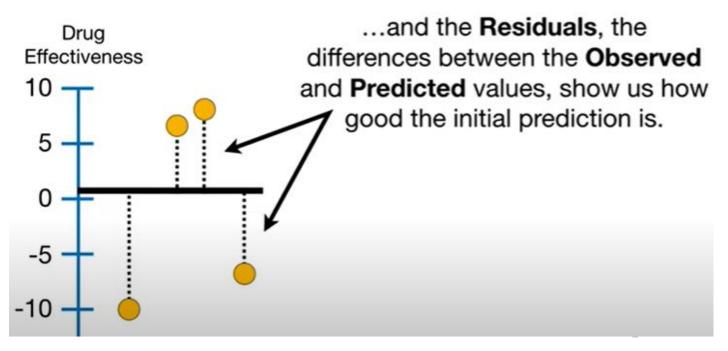


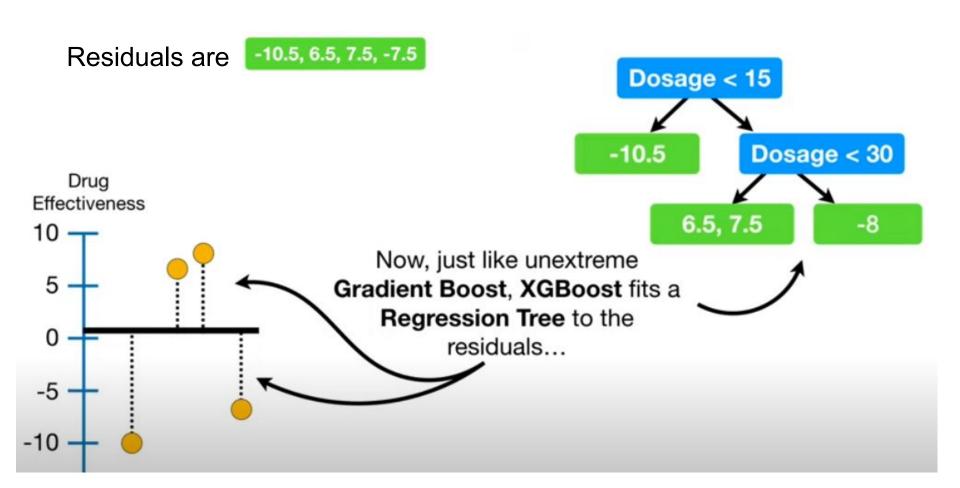
until we reach the maximum specified, or adding additional trees does not significantly reduce the size of the **Residuals**.











-10.5, 6.5, 7.5, -7.5

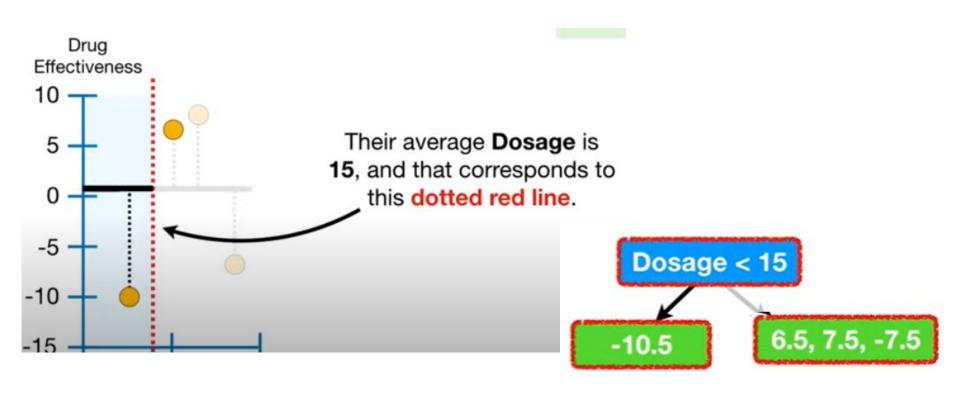
Now we calculate a Quality Score, or Similarity Score, for the Residuals.

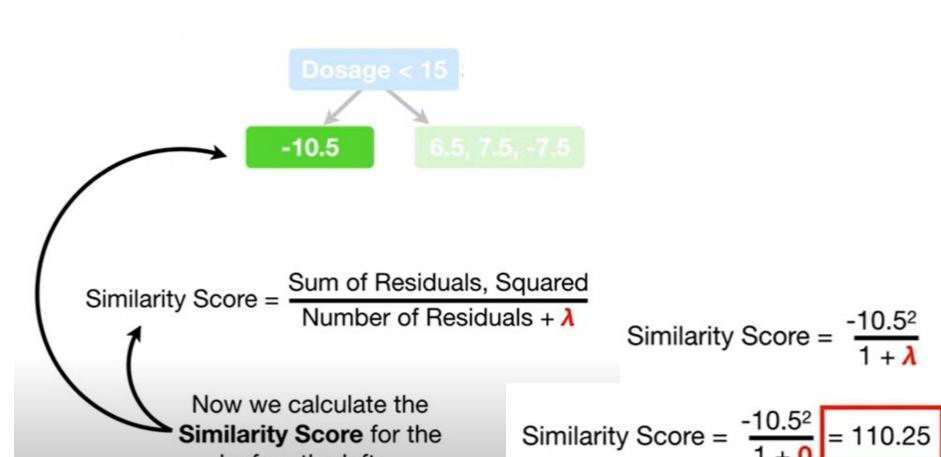
Similarity Score =
$$\frac{\text{Sum of Residuals, Squared}}{\text{Number of Residuals + 0}}$$
For now, let $\lambda = 0$.

Similarity Score =
$$\frac{(-10.5 + 6.5 + 7.5 + -7.5)^2}{\text{Number of Residuals} + 0}$$

...and since there are 4 / Residuals in the leaf, we put a 4 in the denominator.

Consider first two observations with lowest dosages.



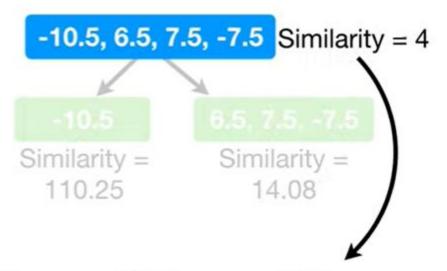


leaf on the left...



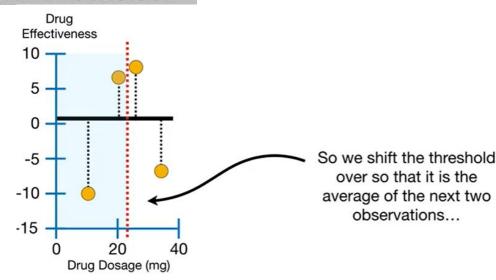
Similarity Score =
$$\frac{6.5^2}{3+0}$$
 = 14.08
Thus, the **Similarity Score** for the

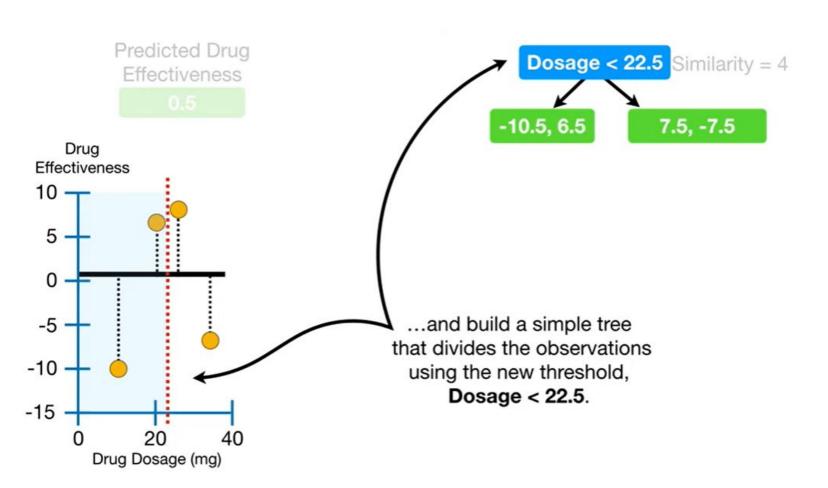
Thus, the **Similarity Score** for the **Residuals** in the leaf on the right = **14.08**.



Gain =
$$110.25 + 14.08 - 4 = 120.33$$

Now that we have calculated the Gain for the threshold Dosage < 15, we can compare it to the Gain calculated for other thresholds.





Gain =
$$8 + 0 - 4 = 4$$

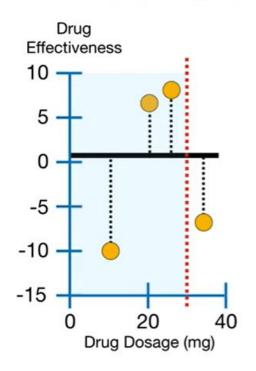
Since the **Gain** for **Dosage** < 22.5 (**Gain** = 4) is less than the **Gain** for **Dosage** < 15 (**Gain** = 120.33), **Dosage** < 15 is better at splitting the **Residuals** into clusters of similar values.

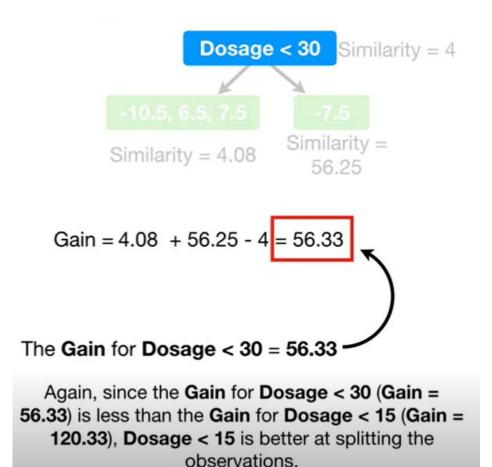


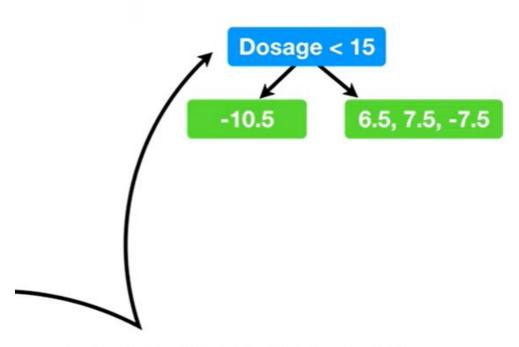
Similarity = 8 Similarity = 0

The Gain for Dosage < 22.5 is 4.

Predicted Drug Effectiveness 0.5

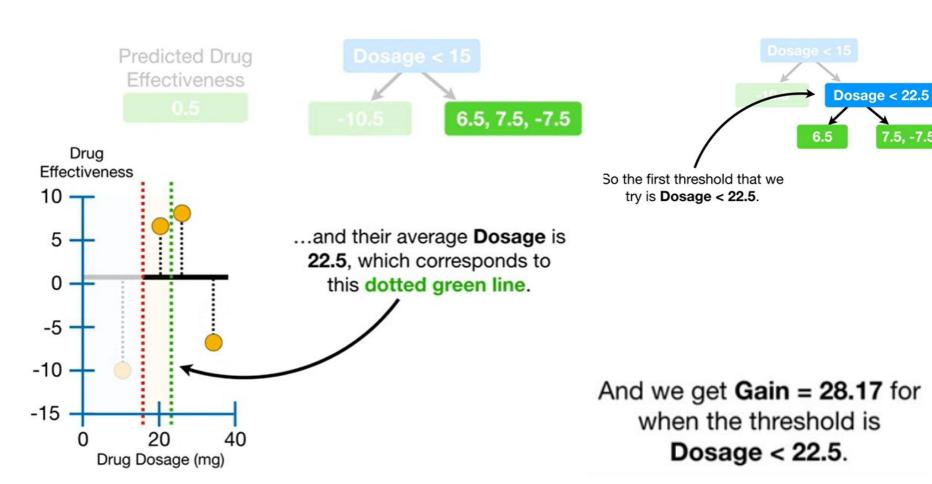


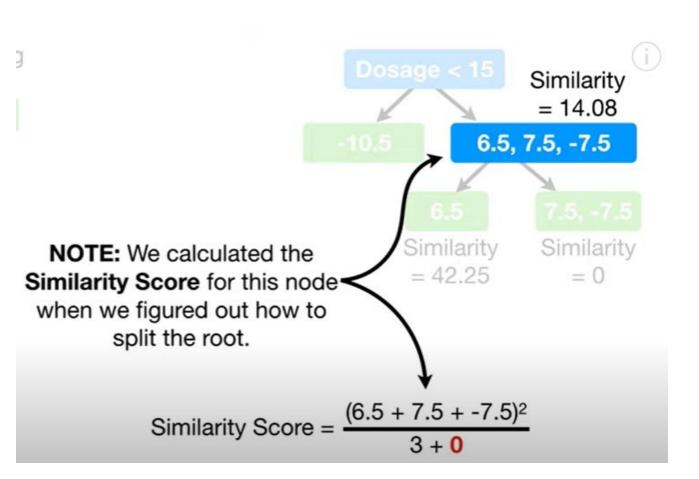


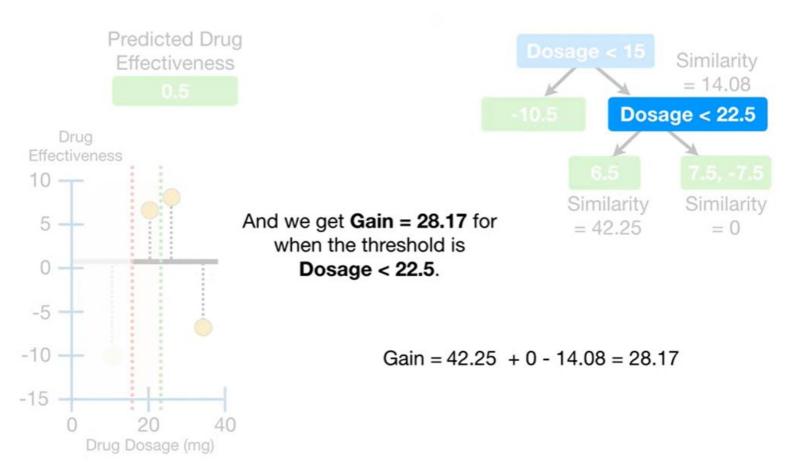


...and we will use the threshold that gave us the largest **Gain**, **Dosage < 15**, for the first branch in the tree.

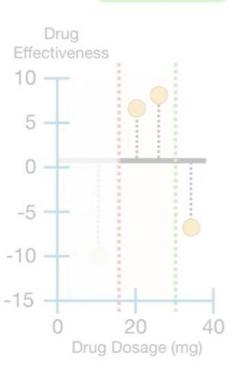
7.5, -7.5



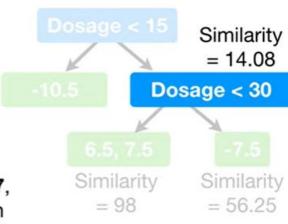




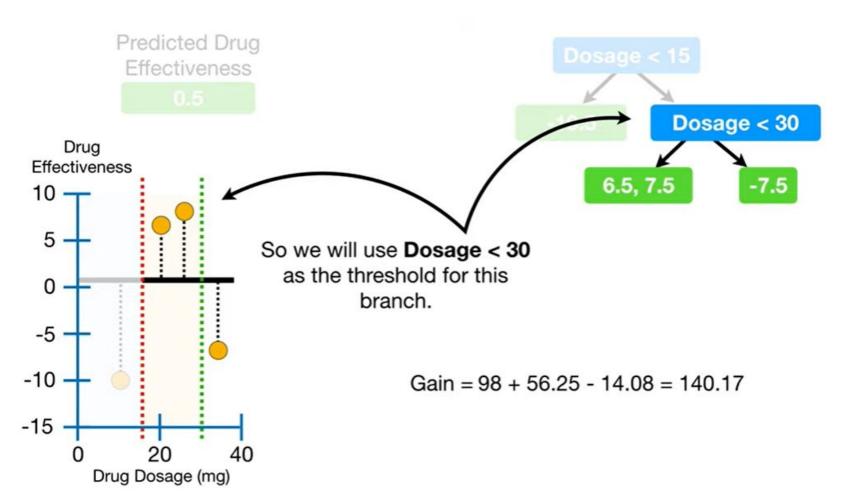


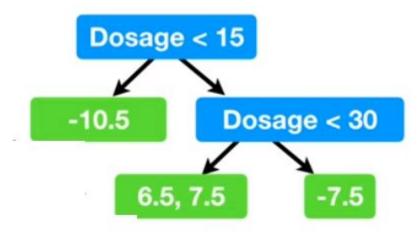


And we get Gain = 140.17, which is much larger than 28.17, when the threshold was Dosage < 22.5.

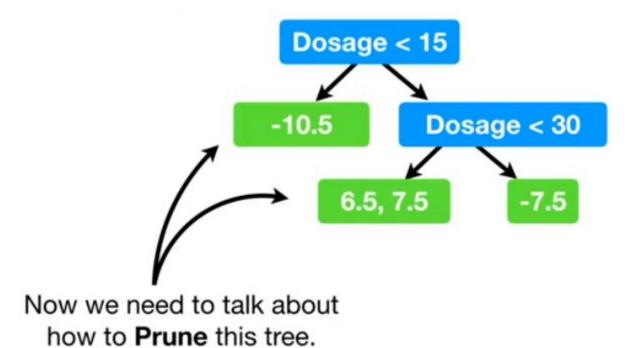


Gain =
$$98 + 56.25 - 14.08 = 140.17$$





This tree can be further splitted if required



We **Prune** an **XGBoost Tree** based on its **Gain** values.

We start by picking a number, for example, 130.

XGBoost calls this number **y** (gamma).

XGBoost

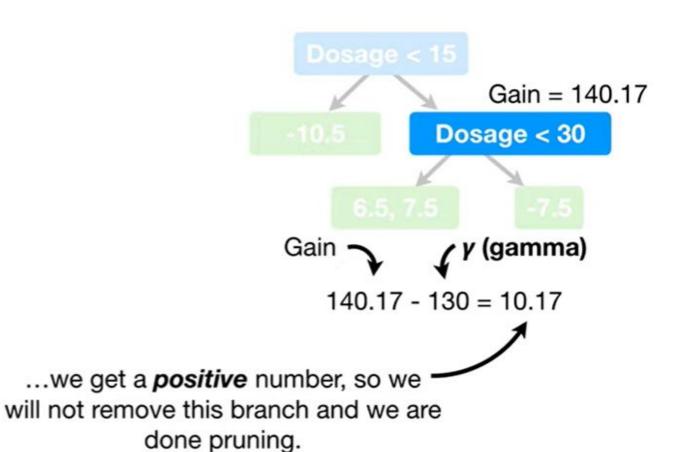
We then calculate the difference between the **Gain** associated with the lowest branch in the tree...

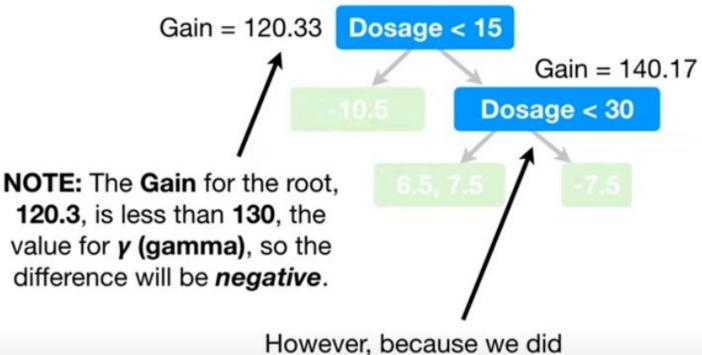
Gain - **y** =

If the difference between the **Gain** and **y** (gamma) is negative we will remove the branch...

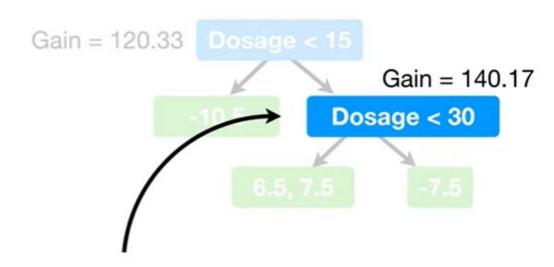
Gain - y =

...and if the difference between the Gain and γ (gamma) is positive we will not remove the branch.





not remove the first branch, we will not remove the root.



In contrast, if we set $\gamma = 150$, then we would remove this branch because...

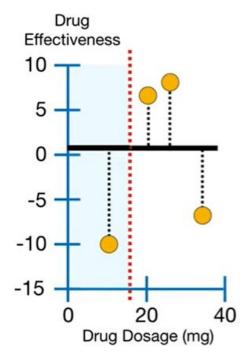
140.17 - 150 = a negative number.

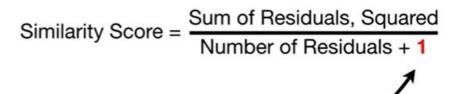
y (gamma)

Gain

Predicted Drug Effectiveness

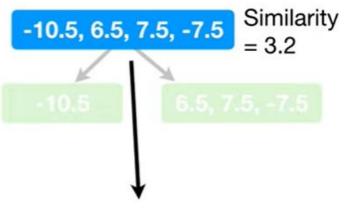






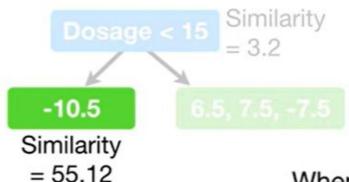
...only this time, when we calculate **Similarity Scores**, we will set λ (lambda) = 1.

Remember λ (lambda) is a Regularization Parameter, which means that it is intended to reduce the prediction's sensitivity to individual observations.



Similarity Score =
$$\frac{(-10.5 + 6.5 + 7.5 + -7.5)^2}{4 + 1} = 3.2$$

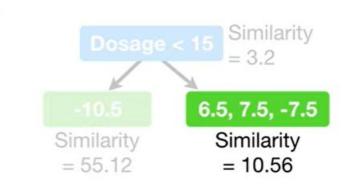
...3.2, which is 8/10s of what we got when $\lambda = 0$.



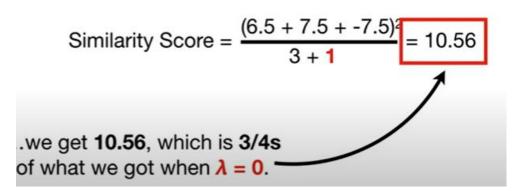
Similarity Score =
$$\frac{-10.5^2}{1+1}$$
 = 55.12

..we get **55.12**, which is half of what we got when $\lambda = 0$.

When we calculate the **Similarity**Score for the leaf on the left...



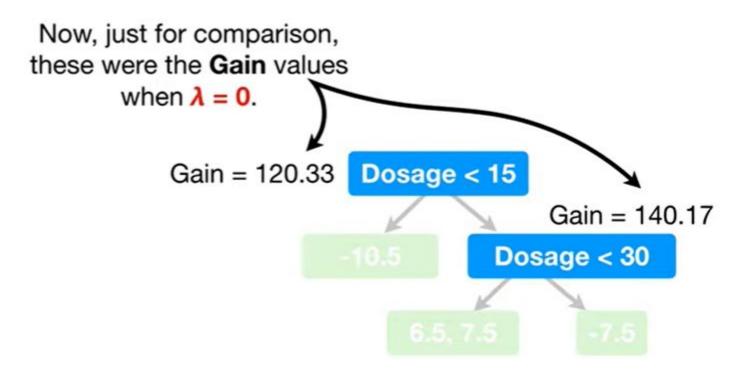
And when we calculate the Similarity Score for the leaf on the right...



So, one thing we see is that when λ > 0, the Similarity Scores are smaller...

...and the amount of decrease is inversely proportional to the number of **Residuals** in the node. In other words, the leaf on the left had only 1 Residual, and it had the largest decrease in Similarity Score, 50%.

In contrast, the root had all 4
Residuals and the smallest
decrease, 20%.



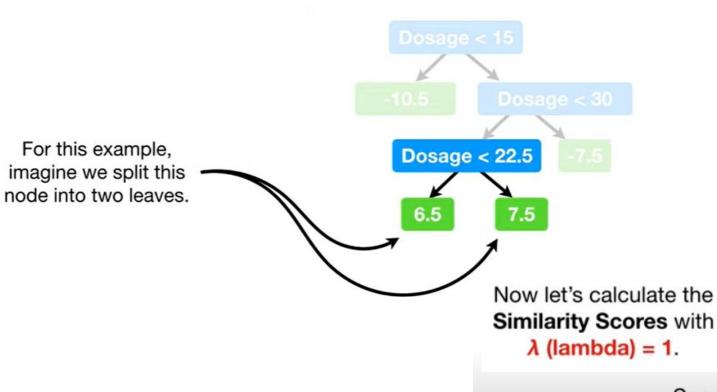
When we first talked about pruning trees, we set γ (gamma) = 130...

...and because, for the lowest branch in the first tree,
 Gain - γ = a positive number, we did not prune at all.

Now, with λ (lambda) = 1, the values for Gain are both < 130...

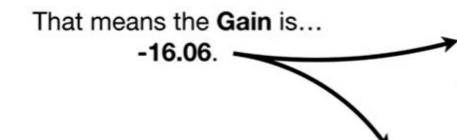
> ...so we would prune the whole tree away.

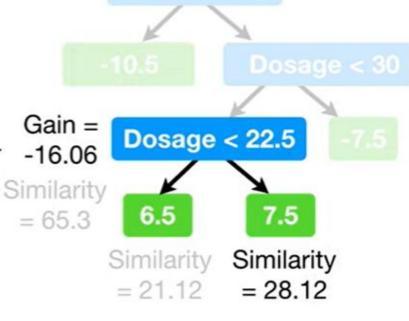
So when $\lambda > 0$, it is easier to prune leaves because the values for **Gain** are smaller.

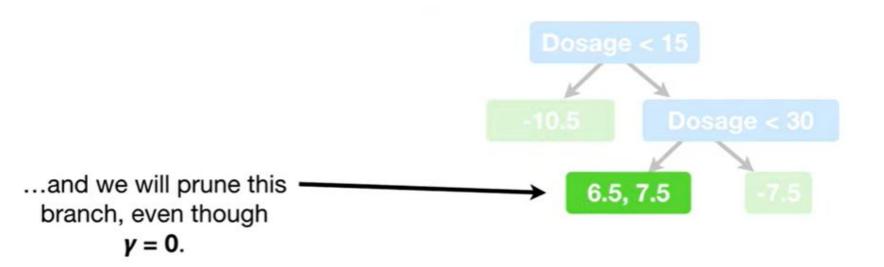


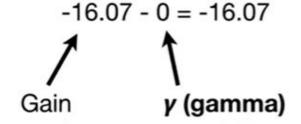
Similarity Score = Sum of Residuals, Squared
Number of Residuals + 1

Similarity Score =
$$\frac{7.5^2}{1+1}$$
 = 28.12









On the other hand, by setting λ (lambda) = 1, λ did what it was supposed to do; it prevented over fitting the **Training Data**.

In other words, setting $\gamma = 0$ does not turn off pruning.

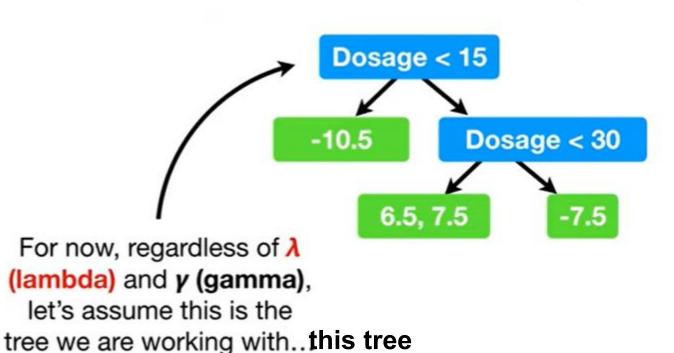
On the other hand, by setting λ (lambda) = 1, λ did what it was supposed to do; it prevented over fitting the **Training Data**.

Gradient Boosting

In other words, when $\lambda > 0$, then it will reduce the amount that this individual observation adds to the overall prediction.

Thus, λ (lambda), the Regularization Parameter, will reduce the prediction's sensitivity to this individual observation.

Gradient Boosting

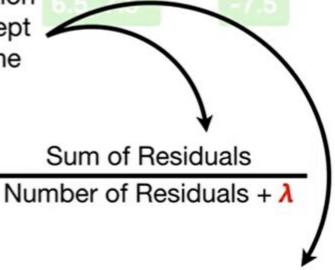


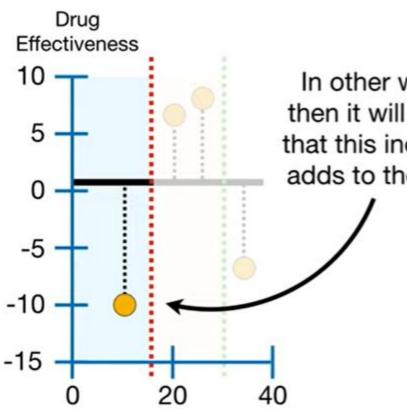
...and determine the **Output Values** for the leaves.

Gradient Boosting

NOTE: The Output Value equation is like the Similarity Score except we do not square the sum of the residuals.

Output Value =





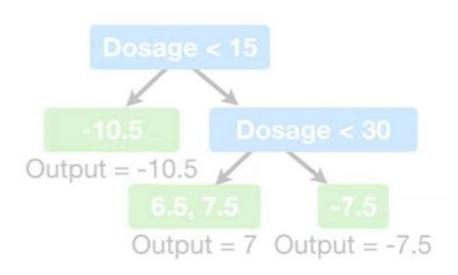
Drug Dosage (mg)

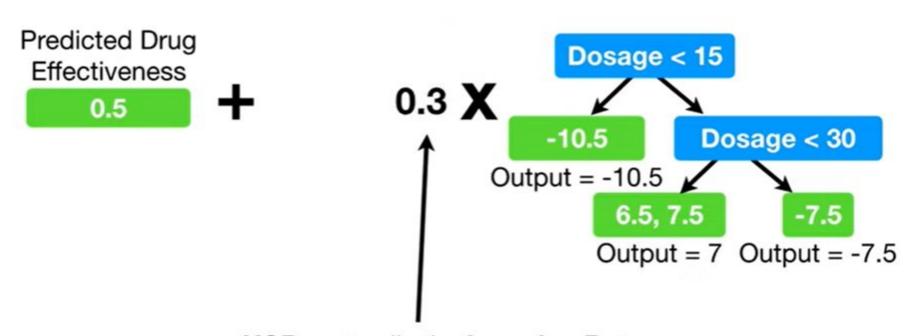
In other words, when $\lambda > 0$, then it will reduce the amount that this individual observation adds to the overall prediction.

Prall prediction.

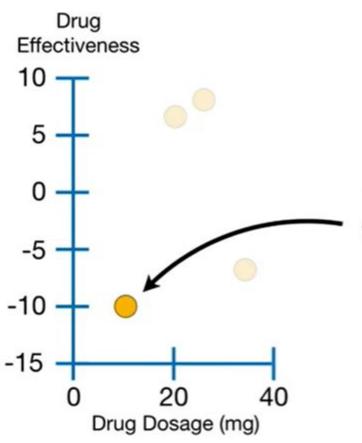
Output Value =
$$\frac{-10.5}{1+1}$$
 = -5.5

Output values of leaf nodes with $\lambda = 0$





XGBoost calls the Learning Rate, ε (eta), and the default value is 0.3, so that's what we'll use.



Thus, the new **Predicted** value for this observation, with **Dosage = 10**...

Differences Between Bagging and Boosting -

S.NO	BAGGING	BOOSTING
1.	Simplest way of combining predictions that	A way of combining predictions that
	belong to the same type.	belong to the different types.
2.	Aim to decrease variance, not bias.	Aim to decrease bias, not variance.
3.	Each model receives equal weight.	Models are weighted according to their
		performance.
4.	Each model is built independently.	New models are influenced
		by performance of previously built models.
5.	Different training data subsets are randomly drawn	Every new subset contains the elements
	with replacement from the entire training dataset.	that were misclassified by previous models.
6.	Bagging tries to solve over-fitting problem.	Boosting tries to reduce bias.
7.	If the classifier is unstable (high variance), then apply	If the classifier is stable and simple (high
	bagging.	bias) the apply boosting.
8.	Random forest.	Gradient boosting.