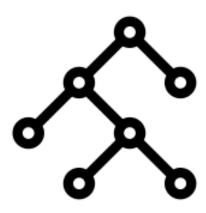
Basics of Machine Learning

Dmitry Ryabokon, github.com/dryabokon





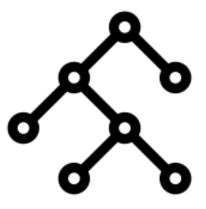
Lesson 11 Non-parametrical ML methods



Supervised Learning

Summary

- Decision tree
- KNN
- Bias vs Variance tradeoff



```
F1 F2 F3 Target
A A A B 0
B B A 1
A B B 1
```

$$H(0,0,1,1) = \frac{1}{2} \log(\frac{1}{2}) + \frac{1}{2} \log(\frac{1}{2}) = 1$$

```
F1 F2 F3 Target Attempt split on F1
A A A B 0 0
B B A 1 1
A B B 0
```

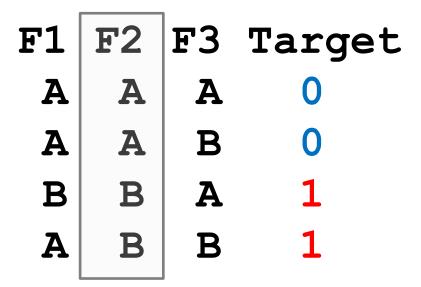
Information Gain = H(0011) - 3/4 H(001) - 1/4 H(1) = 0.91

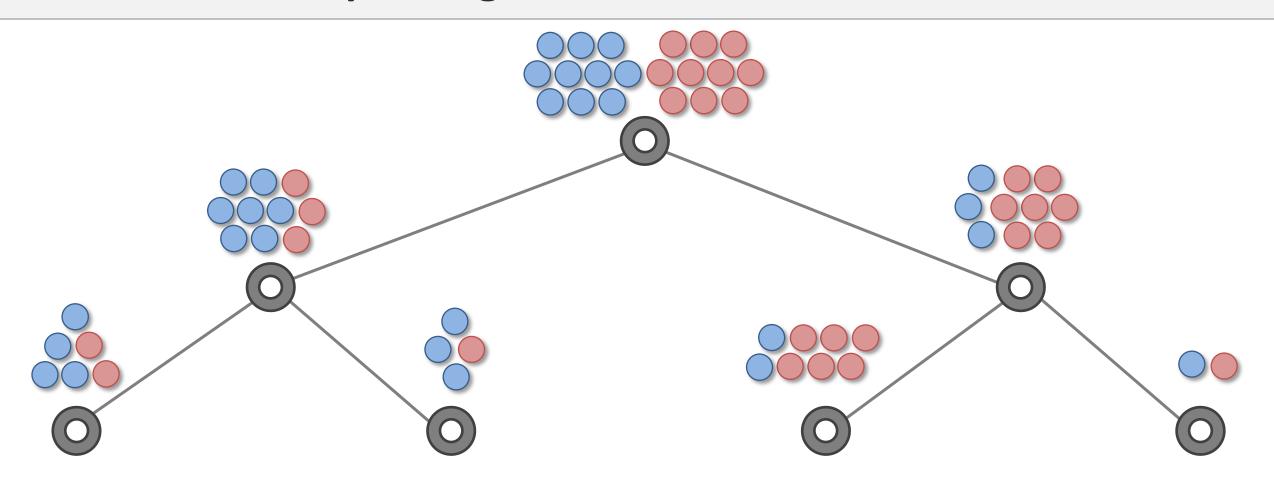
```
F1 F2 F3 Target Attempt split on F2
A A A B 0 0
B B A 1 1
A B B 1 1
```

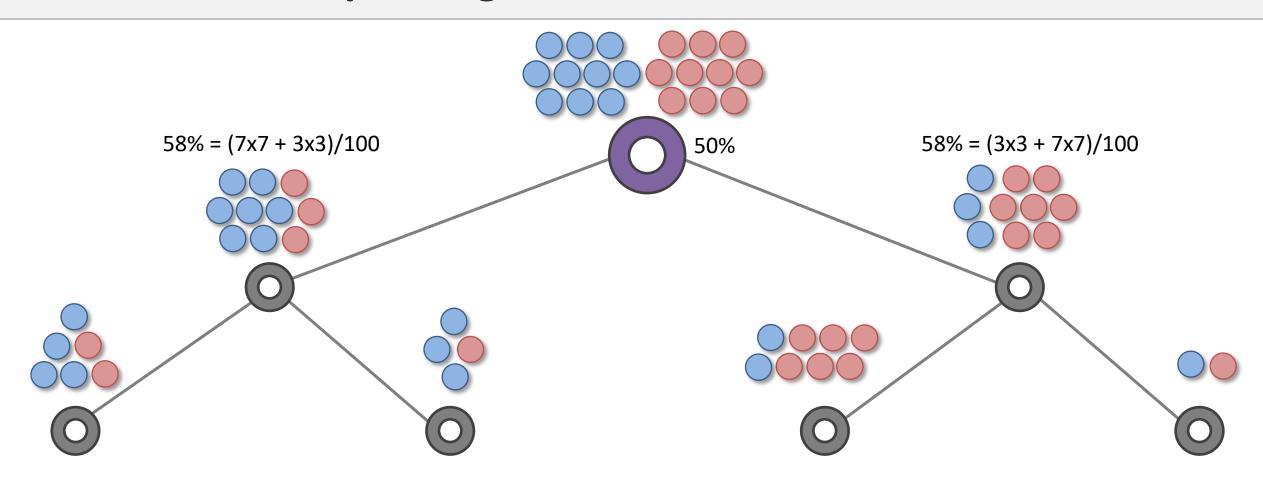
Information Gain = H(0011) - 1/2 H(00) - 1/2 H(11) = 1

```
F1 F2 F3 Target Attempt split on F3
A A A 0 0
A A B 0 0
B B A 1 1
A B B 1 1
```

Information Gain = H(0011) - 1/2 H(01) - 1/2 H(01) = 0

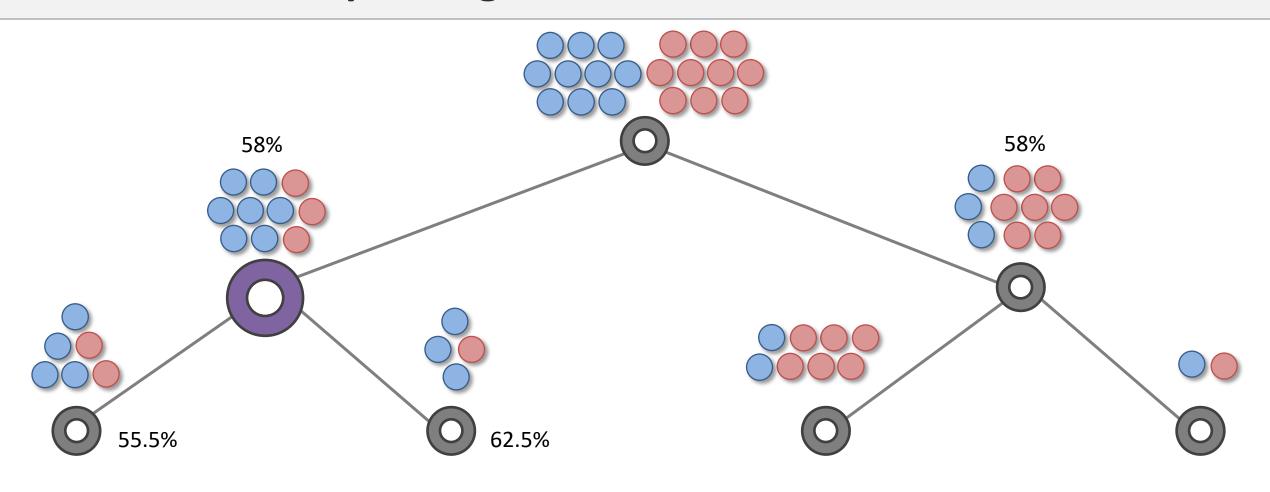






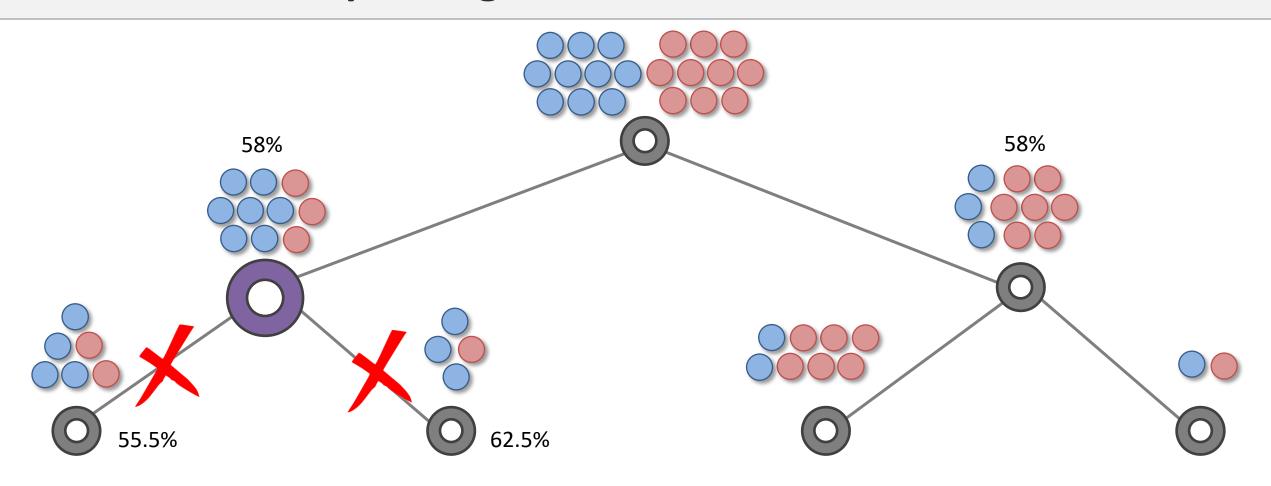
 $50\% \times 58\% + 50\% \times 58\% = 58\%$

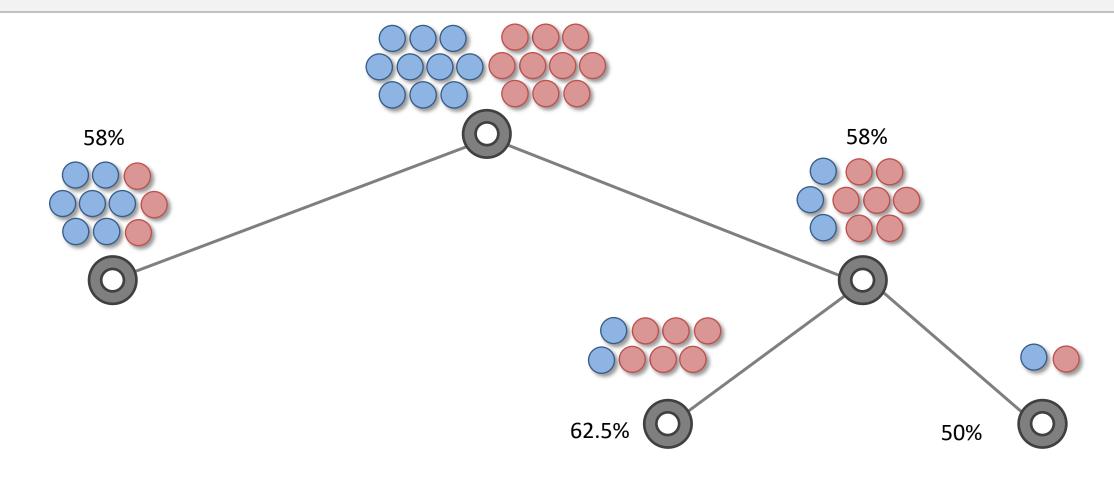
58% > 50% OK



 $50\% \times 58\% + 50\% (60\% \times 55.5\% + 40\% \times 62.5\%) = 50\% \times 58\% + 50\% \times 58.3 = 58.16\%$

58.16% > 58% this is small improvement

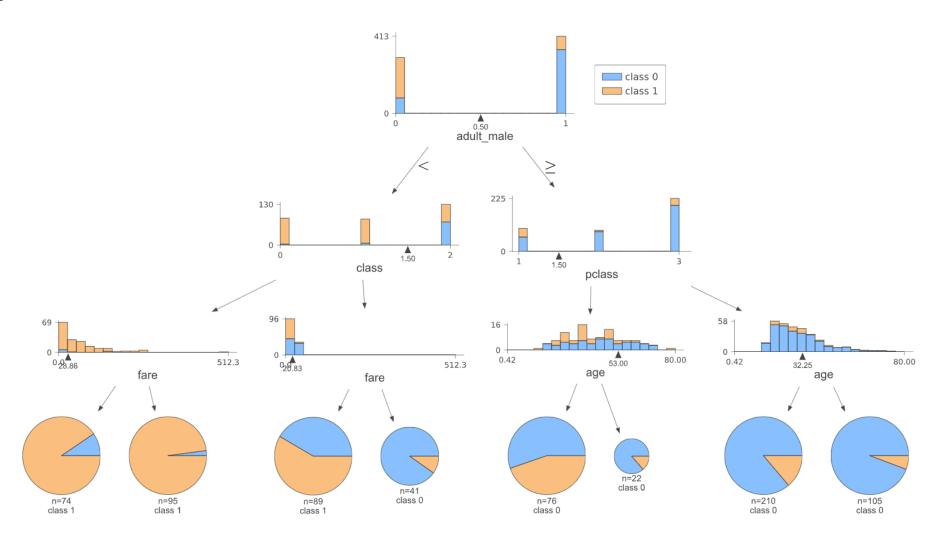




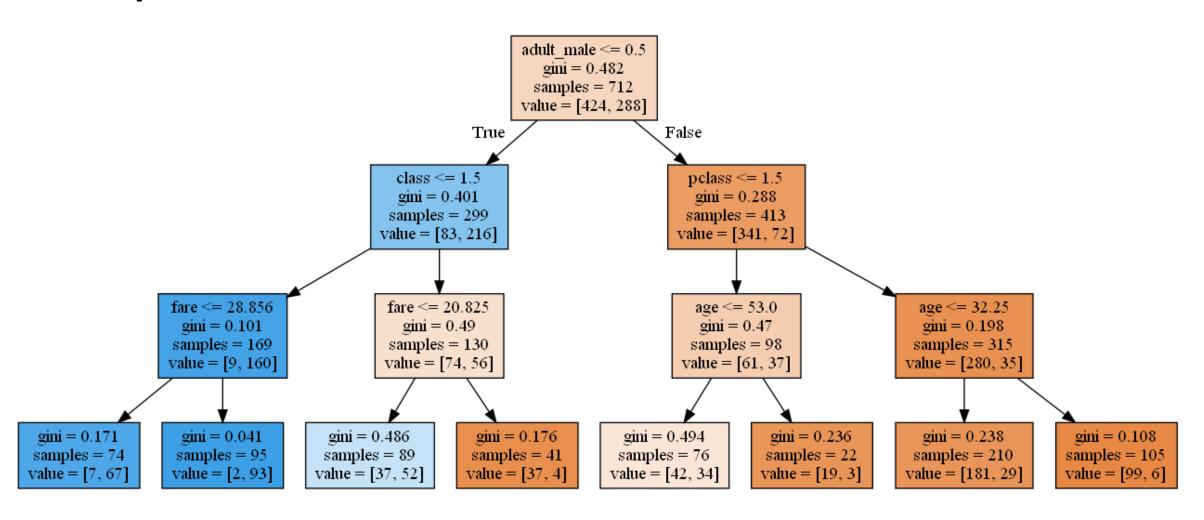
 $50\% \times 58\% + 50\% (80\% \times 62.5\% + 20\% \times 50\%) = 50\% \times 58\% + 50\% \times 60\% = 59\%$

59% > 58% *OK*

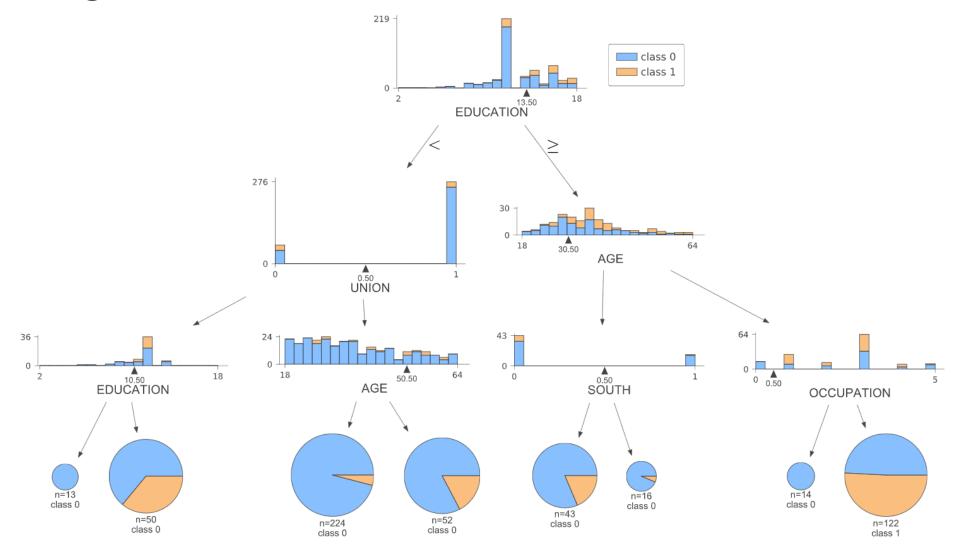
Example: Titanic



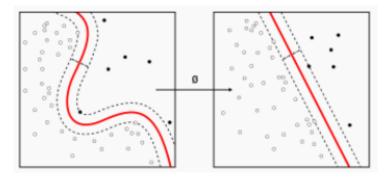
Example: Titanic



Example: wages

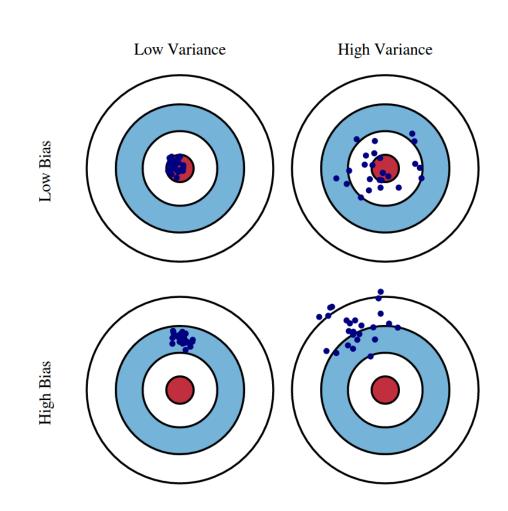


Bias vs Variance tradeoff

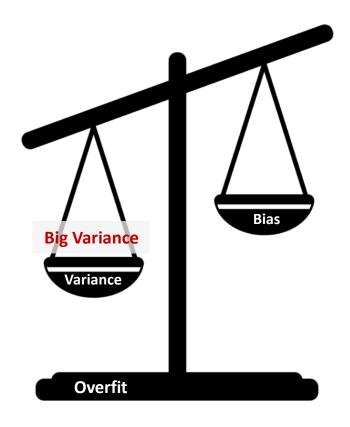


Definitions

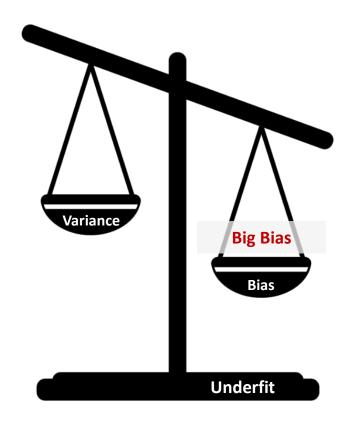
- Bias is an error from wrong assumptions in the learning algorithm
- High bias can cause underfit: the algorithm can miss relations between features and target
- The variance is an error from sensitivity to small fluctuations in the training set.
- High variance can cause overfit: the algorithm can model the random noise in the training data, rather than the intended outputs



Definitions



Definitions



Decomposition

- Lets imagine there are N possible training datasets $\{D_1, D_2, \dots, D_N\}$
- ullet For a given dataset one gets an estimators $g^{(D)}(x)$
- ullet Lets denote the expected estimator by $\mathbf{E}_D\left[g^{(D)}(x)
 ight]\equiv ar{g}(x)$
- ullet If N is large we can approximate it by an average over all datasets (law of large numbers)

$$ar{g}(x)pproxrac{1}{N}\sum\limits_{i=1}^{N}g^{(D_i)}(x)$$

• The variance of an estimator tells us how far particular predictions are from the mean valu

$$var = \mathbf{E}_D \left[\left(g^{(D)}(x) - ar{g}(x)
ight)^2
ight]$$

- Thus, if the training does not depend on the choice of a dataset the variance is low
- The bias of an estimator tells us how far the mean value is from the true value

$$bias = ar{g}(x) - f(x)$$

ullet Lets consider MSE for a particlar point x , $y=f(x)+\epsilon$, so

$$mse = \mathbf{E}_D\left[\left(g^{(D)}(x) - y
ight)^2
ight] = \mathbf{E}_D\left[\left(g^{(D)}(x)
ight)^2
ight] - 2\cdot\mathbf{E}_D\left[g^{(D)}(x)\cdot y
ight] + \mathbf{E}_D\left[y^2
ight]$$

- Here, we used the linearity of the expected value operator. Lets use another common property: $\mathbf{E}\left[X^2\right] = \mathbf{E}\left[(X \mathbf{E}\left[X\right])^2\right] + \mathbf{E}[X]^2$
- So the first term can be rewritten in the form

$$\mathbf{E}_D\left[\left(g^{(D)}(x)\right)^2\right] = \mathbf{E}_D\left[\left(g^{(D)}(x) - \mathbf{E}_D\left[g^{(D)}(x)\right]\right)^2\right] + \mathbf{E}_D\left[g^{(D)}(x)\right]^2 = \mathbf{E}_D\left[\left(g^{(D)}(x) - \bar{g}(x)\right)^2 + (\bar{g}(x))^2\right] + (\bar{g}(x))^2$$

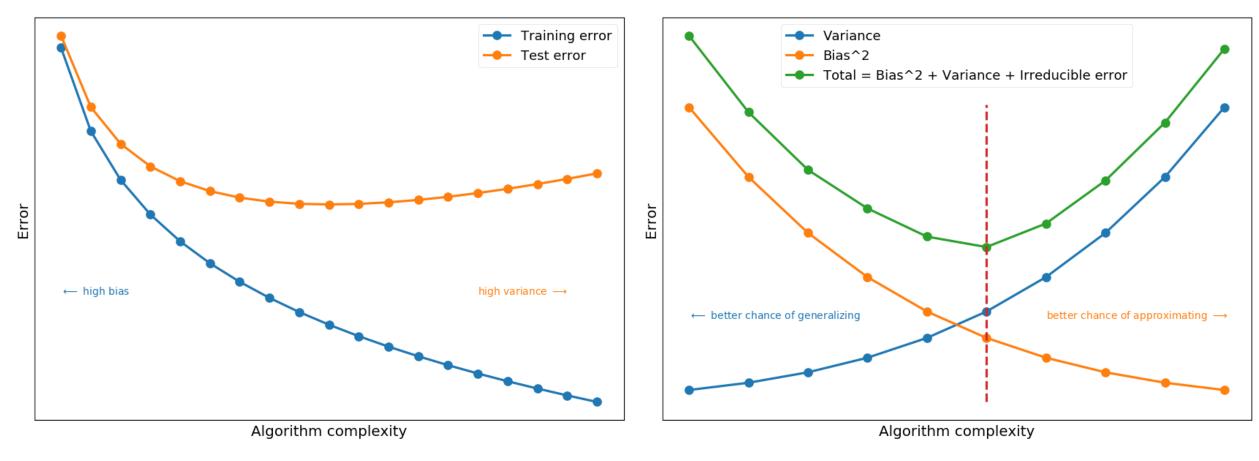
· And the last term

$$\mathbf{E}_{D}\left[y^{2}
ight] = \mathbf{E}_{D}\left[\left(y - \mathbf{E}_{D}\left[y
ight]
ight)^{2}
ight] + \mathbf{E}_{D}[y]^{2} = \mathbf{E}_{D}\left[\left(y - f(x)
ight)^{2}
ight] + \left(f(x)
ight)^{2}$$

- Here, we used the fact that $\mathbf{E}_D\left[y
 ight]=f(x)$ (noise would average out when averaging over *infinite* number of datasets)
- For the middle term we use the fact that for independent X and Y: $\mathbf{E}[XY] = \mathbf{E}[X] \cdot \mathbf{E}[Y]$, so $\mathbf{E}_D[g^{(D)}(x) \cdot y] = \bar{g}(x) \cdot f(x)$
- · Taking all together we get

$$mse = \underbrace{\mathbf{E}_D\left[\left(g^{(D)}(x) - ar{g}(x)
ight)^2
ight]}_{variance} + \underbrace{\left(ar{g}(x) - f(x)
ight)^2}_{bias^2} + \underbrace{\mathbf{E}_D\left[\left(y - f(x)
ight)^2
ight]}_{noise}$$

Model complexity



https://tomaszgolan.github.io/introduction to machine learning/markdown/introduction to machine learning 02 dt/introduction to machine learning 02 dt/

How to avoid overfit (high variance)

- Keep the model simpler, reduce model complexity
- Do cross-validation (e.g. k-folds)
- Use regularization techniques (e.g. LASSO, Ridge)
- Use top n features from variable importance chart
- Use bagging

How to avoid underfit (high bias)

- Make model more complex
- Add features
- Use boosting

Regularization: when # of variables > # of observation

- In such high dimensional data sets, we can't use classical regression techniques, since their assumptions tend to fail.
 When p > n, we can no longer calculate a unique least square coefficient estimate, the variances become infinite, so OLS (Ordinary Least Squares) cannot be used at all.
- To combat this situation, we can use penalized regression methods like lasso, LARS, ridge which can shrink the coefficients to reduce variance. Precisely, ridge regression works best in situations where the least square estimates have higher variance.

Regularization: ridge (L2) and lasso (L1)

Regularization becomes necessary when the model begins to ovefit / underfit. This technique introduces a cost term for bringing in more features with the objective function. Hence, it tries to push the coefficients for many variables to zero and hence reduce cost term. This helps to reduce model complexity so that the model can become better at predicting (generalizing).

The **key difference** between these techniques is that Lasso shrinks the less important feature's coefficient to zero thus, removing some feature altogether. So, this works well for **feature selection** in case we have a huge number of features. Traditional methods like cross-validation, stepwise regression to handle overfitting and perform feature selection work well with a small set of features but these techniques are a great alternative when we are dealing with a large set of features.

In presence of many variables with small / medium sized effect, use ridge regression. Conceptually, we can say, lasso regression (L1) does both variable selection and parameter shrinkage, whereas Ridge regression only does parameter shrinkage and end up including all the coefficients in the model. In presence of correlated variables, ridge regression might be the preferred choice. Also, ridge regression works best in situations where the least square estimates have higher variance.

Supervised Learning

References

https://mljar.com/blog/visualize-decision-tree/

