Simple ML Algorithms and General Principles ¹

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¹Partially based on Hastie, et al. (2009) ESL, and James, et al. (2013) ISLR

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- Goal: find subgroups of a sample observations
 - Not based on any single variable (e.g. gender, race)
 - Based on all given variables

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- Goal: find subgroups of a sample observations
 - Not based on any single variable (e.g. gender, race)
 - Based on all given variables
- The number of subgroup is subjective
- Approaches:
 - K-means clustering
 - Hierarchical clustering
 - Model-based clustering

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An example – Iris data



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An example – Iris data



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Run the following R code, and see what it does.

```
iris1 <- scale(iris[,-c(2,4,5)])
n <- nrow(iris1)
index <- sample(2, n, replace = T)
iris.sub1 <- iris1[index==1,]
iris.sub2 <- iris1[index==2,]
mean.sub1 <- apply(iris.sub1, 2, mean)
mean.sub2 <- apply(iris.sub2, 2, mean)
plot(iris1, col=index+1, pch=16)
points(x=mean.sub1[1], y=mean.sub1[2], col=2, pch=8)
points(x=mean.sub2[1], y=mean.sub2[2], col=3, pch=8)</pre>
```

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This is a random grouping (first step)



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Run the following R code, and see what it does.

```
Eudist <- function(x, y) sqrt(sum((x-y)^2))</pre>
d1<-sapply(1:n,function(i) Eudist(mean.sub1,iris1[i,]))
d2<-sapply(1:n,function(i) Eudist(mean.sub2,iris1[i,]))
index.new <- apply(cbind(d1, d2), 1, which.min)</pre>
iris.sub1 <- iris1[index.new==1,]</pre>
iris.sub2 <- iris1[index.new==2,]</pre>
mean.sub1 <- apply(iris.sub1, 2, mean)</pre>
mean.sub2 <- apply(iris.sub2, 2, mean)</pre>
plot(iris1, col=index.new+1, pch=16)
points(x=mean.sub1[1], y=mean.sub1[2], col=2, pch=8)
points(x=mean.sub2[1], y=mean.sub2[2], col=3, pch=8)
```

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Data points are regrouped (second step)



How does this happen?

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```
d1<-sapply(1:n,function(i) Eudist(mean.sub1,iris1[i,]))
d2<-sapply(1:n,function(i) Eudist(mean.sub2,iris1[i,]))
index.new <- apply(cbind(d1, d2), 1, which.min)
iris.sub1 <- iris1[index.new==1,]
iris.sub2 <- iris1[index.new==2,]
mean.sub1 <- apply(iris.sub1, 2, mean)
mean.sub2 <- apply(iris.sub2, 2, mean)
plot(iris1, col=index.new+1, pch=16)
points(x=mean.sub1[1], y=mean.sub1[2], col=2, pch=8)
points(x=mean.sub2[1], y=mean.sub2[2], col=3, pch=8)</pre>
```

Note that the code does not change at all. Why?

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Data points are regrouped again



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We can keep repeating this step, until...



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Members in each cluster do not change, which means the algorithm converges. How can we translate it into some numeric scores?

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The algorithm attempts to

- Minimize variance within clusters
- Maximize variance between clusters
- How about total variance?

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Computing SSE(X) for entire sample (all observations) gives total sum squared error (SST).

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the difference between total SS and sum of within SS.

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the difference between total SS and sum of within SS.

Exercise:

Revisit the algorithm we just performed. Compute the above three measures at the end of each step. How are they changing over iterations?

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Here is a very good animation to illustrate k-means clustering algorithm. [link]

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Simple ML Algorithms

- **1** Randomly find k data points (observations) as the initial centers
- 2 For each data point, find the closest center and label it (e.g., using different colors). Now you have k clusters
- **3** Re-calculate the centers of current clusters
- 4 Repeat step 2 and 3 until the centers do not change

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Labeled data

- The goal is to predict or explain certain outcome
- Type of problem:
 - Regression: outcome is continuous
 - Classification: outcome is categorical
- Popular ML algorithms:
 - Least square, nearest neighbor, CART, gradient boosting, neural network, deep learning

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Supervised Learning – Least Squares

Linear regression model

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \ldots + \beta_p X_p + \epsilon$$

The estimated model is

$$\hat{Y} = \hat{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^T \mathbf{x}$$

Solve $\hat{\beta}$ using least square

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \boldsymbol{\beta}^T \mathbf{x}_i)^2$$

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Model:

$$\hat{Y} = \hat{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{\mathbf{x}_i \in N_k(\mathbf{x})} y_i$$

where $N_k(\mathbf{x})$ is the neighborhood of \mathbf{x} defined by the k closest points \mathbf{x}_i .

- k determines the flexibility of the model (should larger k or smaller k results in more flexible model?)
- How to define the neighbor? (How to find closest points to x_i?)
 Similarity measures

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15-Nearest Neighbor Classifier





FIGURE 2.2. The same classification example in two dimensions as in Figure 2.1. The classes are coded as a binary variable (BLUE = 0, ORANCE = 1) and FIGURE 2.3. The same classification example in two dimensions as in Figthen fit by 15-nearest-neighbor averaging as in (2.8). The predicted class is hence chosen by majority vote amongst the 15-nearest neighbors.

ure 2.1. The classes are coded as a binary variable (BLUE = 0, ORANGE = 1), and then predicted by 1-nearest-neighbor classification.

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How do we know if the estimated model $\hat{f}(x)$ is **useful**?

- We never know the true f(x)
- Split sample to training and testing sets
- Train the model (learning algorithm) based on training sample by minimizing *training error*
- Apply the estimated model on the testing sample to calculate the *prediction (testing) error*
- We care more about testing error rather than training error

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One of the most common metrics is the mean squared error

• Denote training set $Tr = \{x_i, y_i\}_1^N$, and testing set $Te = \{x_i, y_i\}_1^M$

$$MSE_{Tr} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i \in Tr} (y_i - \hat{f}(x_i))^2$$
$$MSE_{Te} = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i \in Te} (y_i - \hat{f}(x_i))^2$$

- Training error, MSE_{Tr}, may be biased due to overfitting
- In this course, we denote MSE as training error, and MSPE as testing error

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- Response variable is qualitative
- Train a classifier $\hat{C}(x)$ that can label any new input data x
- It usually involves certain decision rule
- Prediction (testing) error: Misclassification rate (MR)

$$MR_{Te} = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i \in Te} \mathbb{I}[y_i \neq \hat{C}(x_i)]$$

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Instead of doing training vs. testing once, we do it K times

Folder 1	Folder 2	Folder 3	Folder 4	Folder 5
Test	Train	Train	Train	Train
Train	Test	Train	Train	Train
Train	Train	Test	Train	Train
Train	Train	Train	Test	Train
Train	Train	Train	Train	Test

- Use 2,3,4,5 as training and 1 as testing
- Use 1,3,4,5 as training and 2 as testing
- Keep doing this loop...
- Average 5 testing errors, that is CV score

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Leave-one-out Cross-validation

- By the name, it requires to repeat training-testing procedure n times
- However, for least square linear model, there is a short cut that makes LOOCV the same that of a single model fit

$$CV_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{y_i - \hat{y}_i}{1 - h_i} \right)^2$$

where h_i is the diagonal element of "hat" matrix.

- In general, the estimates from LOOCV are highly correlated hence their average can have high variance
- In practice, K = 5 or 10 is recommended
- Exercise: write your own code to perform 10-fold CV for knn (try different k) model on the "iris" dataset.

- This is a very important tradeoff that governs the choice of statistical learning methods.
- **Bias**: how far the estimated model $\hat{f}(x)$ is to the true model f(x).
 - Unbiased estimate is defined as: $\mathbb{E}\hat{f}(x) = f(x)$
 - Usually, we calculate the squared bias: $(\mathbb{E}\hat{f}(x) f(x))^2$
- Variance: the variation of estimated model $\hat{f}(x)$ based on different training set.

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- Suppose the data arise from a model $Y = f(x) + \epsilon$, with $\mathbb{E}(\epsilon) = 0$ and $Var(\epsilon) = \sigma^2$.
- Suppose $\hat{f}(x)$ is trained based on some training data, and let (x_0, y_0) be a test observation from the same population.
- The *expected prediction error* can be decomposed to:

$$\mathbb{E}[y_0 - \hat{f}(x_0)]^2 = \sigma^2 + Bias^2(\hat{f}(x_0)) + Var(\hat{f}(x_0))$$

(Challenge yourself: Show it.)

• Typically as the **flexibility** of \hat{f} increases, its variance increases, and its bias decreases.

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