

Machine Learning

12 – Feature Scaling, Distance Metrics, Penalty Norms

October 25, 2022

Data: Instances and Features

For a large number of Machine Learning problems, we assume the existence of a **data matrix** with n rows and d number of columns.

The data matrix can be written as $X \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$, where the rows represent n **data instances** or **samples**, and the columns represent **features**.

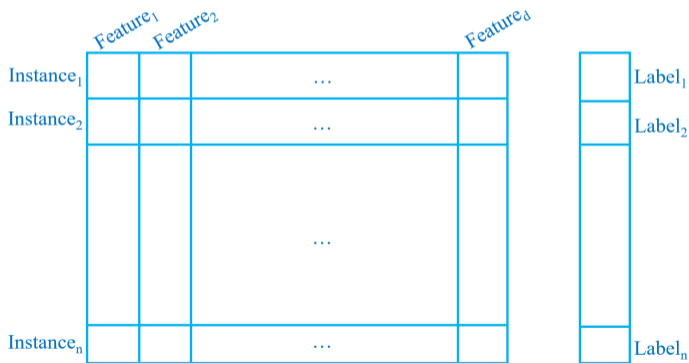
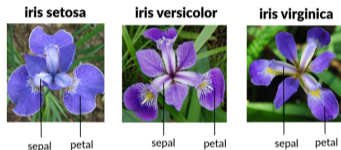


Figure: Data Matrix $X \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$, with an accompanying label vector

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E.g.: the **Iris data set** -



| | Petal Length | Petal Width | Sepal Length | Sepal Width | |
|----------------------------|--------------|-------------|--------------|-------------|-----------------------------|
| Iris Instance ₁ | 5.1 | 3.5 | 1.4 | 0.2 | 0 Iris Species ₁ |
| Iris Instance ₂ | 4.9 | 3.0 | 1.4 | 0.2 | 0 Iris Species ₂ |
| Iris Instance ₃ | 4.7 | 3.2 | 1.3 | 0.2 | 0 Iris Species ₃ |
| | ... | | | | ... |

Data: Instances and Features

- ▶ Data Instances:
 - ▶ Having more data is generally better.
 - ▶ Training ML models for problems where the data is limited is a challenge.
- ▶ Features:
 - ▶ Collecting more features may seem beneficial, since more information is gathered about a problem. However, more features may lead to lower ML model accuracies.
 - ▶ Can some features be easily discarded?

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 - ▶ Constant Features (and features with very low variance)
 - ▶ Linearly dependent features
 - ▶ Q1. How can we handle features with **differing range of values**?
 - ▶ Q2. Can ML methods learn **which features are useful**?

Different ranges of feature values

Let $X \in \mathbb{R}^2$ have two features, x_1 and x_2 . Let $x_1 \in [0, 1]$, and $x_2 \in [0, 1000]$.

The squared Euclidean distance between any two data instances is given by:

$$\|\mathbf{x}^{(i)} - \mathbf{x}^{(j)}\|_2^2 = (x_1^{(i)} - x_1^{(j)})^2 + (x_2^{(i)} - x_2^{(j)})^2$$

The second term in the R.H.S. will dominate the overall measure of distance.

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In general, features with higher ranges of values will dominate a distance measure, features with lower ranges in values will be ignored.

Different ranges of feature values

How can features be re-scaled to have similar ranges of values?

Method 1: **Min-Max Standardization**

1. For each feature x_i , find the minimum and maximum values (x_i^{\min} and x_i^{\max})
2. Update every feature component:

$$x_i := \frac{x_i - x_i^{\min}}{x_i^{\max} - x_i^{\min}}$$

By min-max standardization, each feature is rescaled to the range of $[0, 1]$.

Different ranges of feature values

Min-Max Standardization:

Update every feature component:

$$x_i := \frac{x_i - x_i^{\min}}{x_i^{\max} - x_i^{\min}}$$

| | |
|-----|------|
| 0.1 | 1000 |
| 1.1 | 3000 |
| 0.6 | 2000 |

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| | |
|-----|-----|
| 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 |
| 0.5 | 0.5 |

Different ranges of feature values

How can features be re-scaled to have similar ranges of values?

Method 2: **Mean-Standard-Deviation Normalization**

1. For each feature x_i , find the mean and the standard deviation (μ_i and σ_i)
2. Update every feature component:

$$x_i := \frac{x_i - \mu_i}{\sigma_i}$$

After mean-standard-deviation normalization, each feature is transformed to follow a univariate standard normal distribution.

Different ranges of feature values

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| | |
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| | |
|-------|-------|
| -1.22 | -1.22 |
| 1.22 | 1.22 |
| 0 | 0 |

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Which approach is better?

Measures of Dissimilarity: Metric

A metric $d : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a function that satisfies the following for all $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \in X$,

1. Non-negativity: $d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \geq 0$, with $d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = 0$ iff $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$
2. Symmetry: $d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = d(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x})$.
3. Triangle Inequality: $d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) \geq d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) + d(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z})$.

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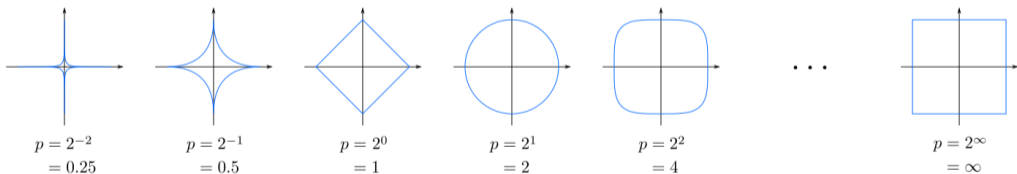
Some examples of metrics:

- ▶ Euclidean distance: $\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|_2 = \{\sum_{i=1}^d (x_i - y_i)^2\}^{1/2}$
- ▶ Hamming distance: $\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^d |x_i - y_i|$
- ▶ Minkowski p -norm: $\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|_p = \{\sum_{i=1}^d |x_i - y_i|^p\}^{1/p}$

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Some examples of general measures of similarity / dissimilarity (not metrics):

- ▶ Cosine similarity: $S(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \frac{\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y}}{\|\mathbf{x}\| \|\mathbf{y}\|}$
- ▶ KL-divergence: $KL(P||Q) = - \sum_{\mathbf{x}} P(\mathbf{x}) \ln \frac{Q(\mathbf{x})}{P(\mathbf{x})}$
- ▶ Hellinger distance: $H^2(P, Q) = \frac{1}{2} \int_X (\sqrt{p(\mathbf{x})} - \sqrt{q(\mathbf{x})})^2 \lambda(d\mathbf{x})$

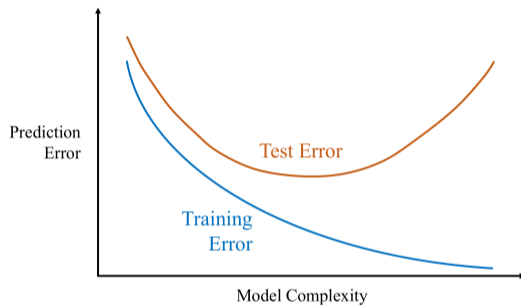
Uses of Measures of Similarities / Dissimilarities

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- ▶ Differentiate between different data instances
- ▶ Use a metric induced norm as a penalty function

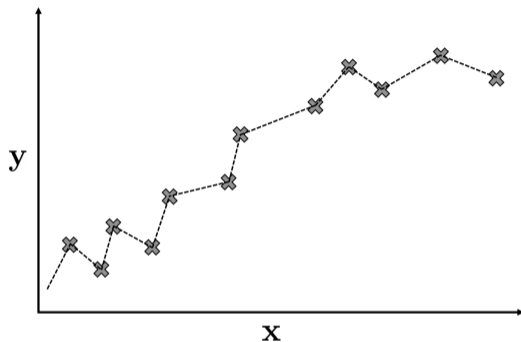
Model Complexity - Accuracy tradeoff



As the model complexity increases, it tends to overfit the data.

Objective - To train a high complexity model, but decrease its tendency to overfit.

Observation - High weights for an overfit model



If we look at the weights:

$$w = [2594.67, -18843.27, 73281.03, -165354.85, 217150.0475519, \dots]$$

The presence of large magnitude weights are indicative of an overfit model.

Penalties in Regression

Ridge Regression: Uses an ℓ_2 -norm to not let the model parameters attain large magnitudes.

$$\min_{\mathbf{w}} \sum_{i=1}^n (y^{(i)} - \sum_{j=1}^d w_j x_j^{(i)} - w_0)^2 + \lambda \|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2$$

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Lasso Regression: Uses an ℓ_1 -norm to drop weights that are close to zero.

$$\min_{\mathbf{w}} \sum_{i=1}^n (y^{(i)} - \sum_{j=1}^d w_j x_j^{(i)} - w_0)^2 + \lambda \|\mathbf{w}\|_1$$

Elastic Net: Penalizes both the ℓ_2 and ℓ_1 norms.

$$\min_{\mathbf{w}} \sum_{i=1}^n (y^{(i)} - \sum_{j=1}^d w_j x_j^{(i)} - w_0)^2 + \lambda_1 \|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2 + \lambda_2 \|\mathbf{w}\|_1$$