

Classical Data Analysis



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Today's Objective

- Review concepts from previous sessions
- Regression analysis (Polynomial, Ridge, Lasso, Elastic Net)
 - Theory
 - Regularized linear regression with Python



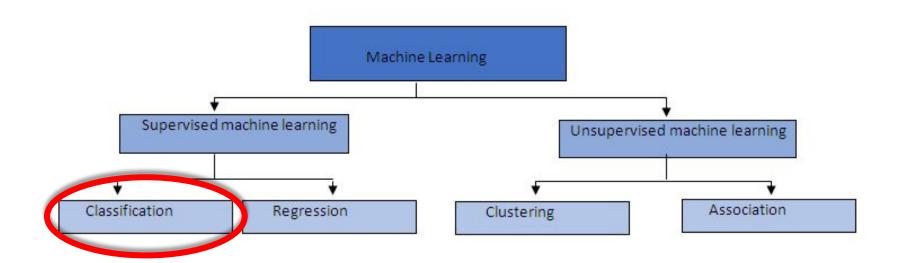
Contents

- Introduction to data analysis
- Linear Regression
- Logistic Regression
- Regression analysis (Polynomial, Ridge, Lasso, etc.)
- Neural Networks
- Support Vector Machines (SVM)
- Decision Trees
- Ensemble Methods
- Other Classifier (KNN, Naïve Bayes)
- K-Means
- PCA
- Hierarchical Clustering
- Recommender Systems

Previous Session: Logistic Regression



Supervised learning: Classification



The Logistic Regression algorithm solve **classification** problems. Don't get confused by the name "Regression"!



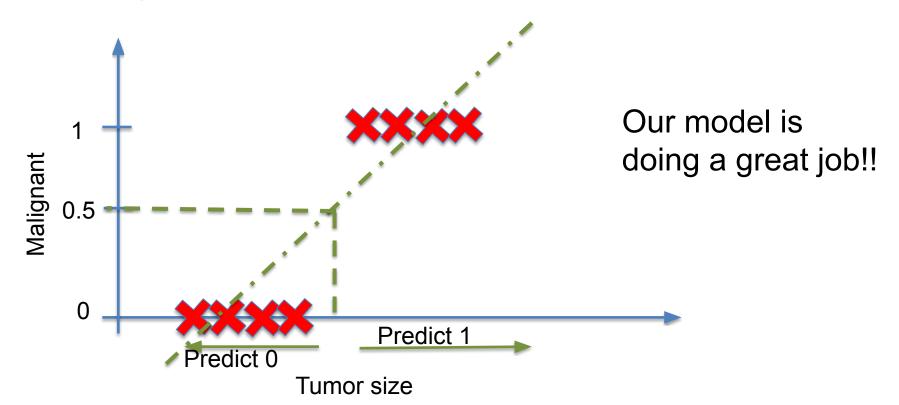
- The main goal of logistic regression is to perform binary classification
- Examples of applications:
 - In medical research, in the field of predictive food microbiology, to describe bacterial growth/no growth interface, in the 0–1 format.
 - Predict the risk of developing a given disease based on observed characteristics of the patient.
 - In credit risk modeling in identifying potential loan defaulters.

All the above problems are **binary** classification problems. Possible results:

- y = 1
- y = 0
- Feature Engineering plays an important role in regards to the performance of Logistic

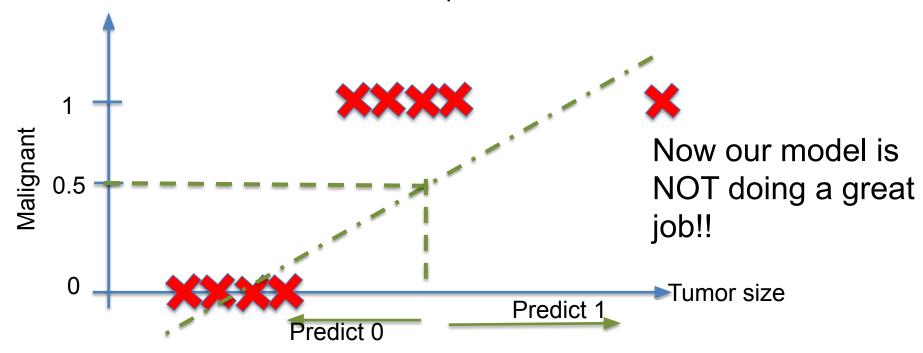


- How to develop a classification algorithm?
 - Let's try applying a linear regression model to classify a tumor as malignant or not!



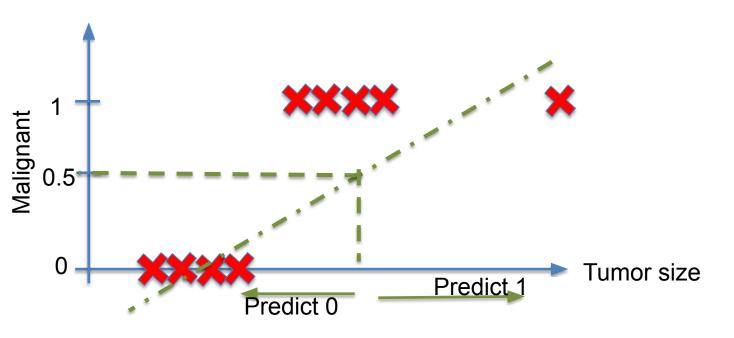


- How to develop a classification algorithm?
 - Let's try applying a linear regression model to classify a tumor as malignant or not!
 - Let'a add an additional example



Many positive examples are now classified as negative.





- Many positive examples are now classified as negative.
- It also doesn't make sense for $h_{\theta}(x)$ to take values larger than 1 or smaller than 0 when we know that $y \in \{0, 1\}$.



Linear regression hypothesis function:

$$h_{\theta}(x) = \theta^T x = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x_1 + \dots + \theta_n x_n$$

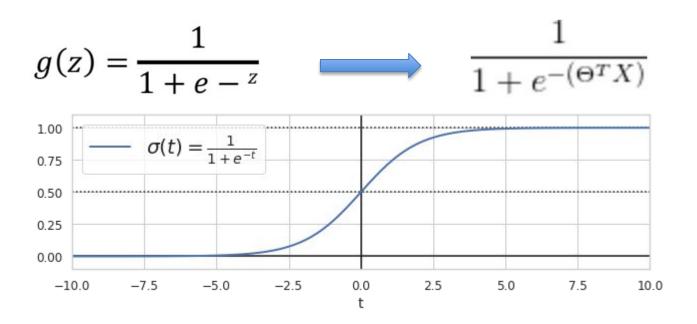
In Logistic regression we want the output of the hypothesis function to be between 0 and 1. We apply the **sigmoid function (aka logistic function)** to the output of the linear regression, obtaining the hypothesis function for the logistic regression:

$$h_{\theta}(x) = g(\theta^{T}x) = g(\theta_{0} + \theta_{1}x_{1} + \dots + \theta_{n}x_{n})$$

Logistic Regression is **just like a linear regression model**, it computes a weighted sum of the input features (plus a bias), but instead of outputting the linear result directly, it outputs the logistic of that result



Sigmoid function:

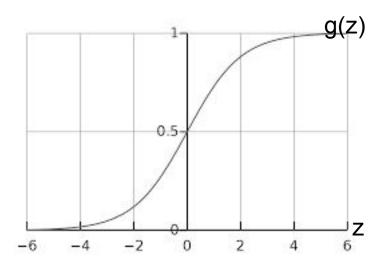


The logistic is a sigmoid function that outputs a number between 0 and 1



Logistic Regression hypothesis function:

$$g(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$$



When our hypothesis $h_{\theta}(x)$ outputs a number, we treat that value as the estimated probability that y=1 on input x

Notice that g(z) tends towards 1 as $z \to \infty$, and g(z) tends towards 0 as $z \to -\infty$. Moreover, g(z), and hence also h(x), is always bounded between 0 and 1.



Logistic Regression aka Logit Regression

- It is commonly used to estimate the probability that an instance belongs to a particular class
 - What is the probability that an email is spam?
 - What is the probability that I will pass this class?
- If the estimated probability is above 50%, the model is predicting that the instance belongs to that class (positive class, labelled 1)
- If the estimated probability is below 50%, the model predicts that the instance belongs to the other class (negative class, labelled 0)

Making predictions is easy...

$$\hat{y} = egin{cases} 0
ightarrow \hat{p} < 0.5 \ 1
ightarrow \hat{p} \geq 0.5 \end{cases}$$



Cost function

- Alright, we know now that Logistic Regression estimates probabilities and makes predictions out of it but...
 - How is it trained?
- The objective of the training is to set the parameter vector hθ() so that...
 - Estimates high probabilities for positive instances (y=1)
 - Estimates low probabilities for negative instances (y=0)

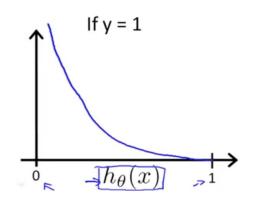
$$Cost(h_{\theta}(x), y) = \begin{cases} -\log(h_{\theta}(x)) & \text{if } y = 1\\ -\log(1 - h_{\theta}(x)) & \text{if } y = 0 \end{cases}$$

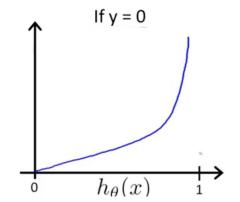


Cost function

$$Cost(h_{\theta}(x), y) = \begin{cases} -\log(h_{\theta}(x)) & \text{if } y = 1\\ -\log(1 - h_{\theta}(x)) & \text{if } y = 0 \end{cases}$$

- In this example for a single instance (x), -log(hθ(x)), grows very large when hθ(x) approaches 0
 - So the cost will be very large if the model predicts a probability close to 0 for a positive instance
- -log(1- hθ(x)), grows very large when hθ(x) approaches 1
 - So the cost will be very large if the model predicts a probability close to 1 for a negative instance



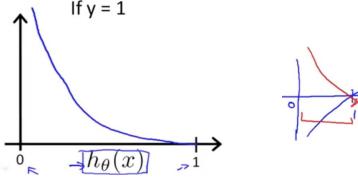


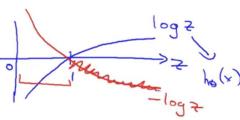


Cost function

Given the logistic regression model, how do we fit the θ parameters?

$$Cost(h_{\theta}(x), y) = \begin{cases} -\log(h_{\theta}(x)) & \text{if } y = 1\\ -\log(1 - h_{\theta}(x)) & \text{if } y = 0 \end{cases}$$





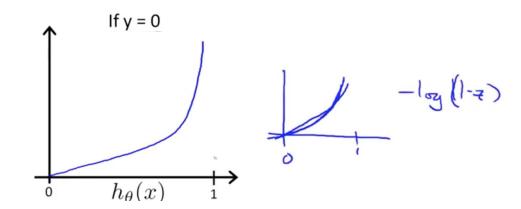
- if the hypothesis predicts that y = 1 and y = 1 cost = 0.
- if the hypothesis predicts that y = 0 and y = 1 cost -> inf.



Cost function

Given the logistic regression model, how do we fit the θ parameters?

$$Cost(h_{\theta}(x), y) = \begin{cases} -\log(h_{\theta}(x)) & \text{if } y = 1\\ -\log(1 - h_{\theta}(x)) & \text{if } y = 0 \end{cases}$$



- if the hypothesis predicts that y = 0 and y = 0 cost = 0.
- if the hypothesis predicts that y = 1 and y = 0 cost -> inf.



Cost function

Given the logistic regression model, how do we fit the θ parameters?

$$Cost(h_{\theta}(x), y) = \begin{cases} -\log(h_{\theta}(x)) & \text{if } y = 1\\ -\log(1 - h_{\theta}(x)) & \text{if } y = 0 \end{cases}$$

This cost function can be written as follow

$$-\frac{1}{m} \left[\sum_{i=1}^{m} y^{(i)} \log h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) + (1 - y^{(i)}) \log (1 - h_{\theta}(x^{(i)})) \right]$$

- This cost function can be derived from statistics using the principle of maximum likelihood estimation
- We can apply the gradient descent algorithm to find the parameter that minimize the cost function.



Guaranteed success! (almost)

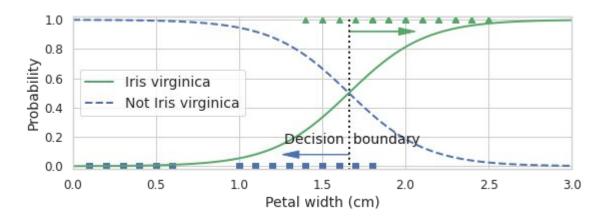
$$-\frac{1}{m} \left[\sum_{i=1}^{m} y^{(i)} \log h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) + (1 - y^{(i)}) \log (1 - h_{\theta}(x^{(i)})) \right]$$

- The cost function for the logistic regression is convex, so that Gradient Descent or any other optimization algorithm, will guarantee to find the global minimum
 - That is... if the learning rate is not too large and one has enough time to wait
 - This can be controlled with the tolerance criteria and the number of iterations defined in Sklearn



A note on Decision Boundaries

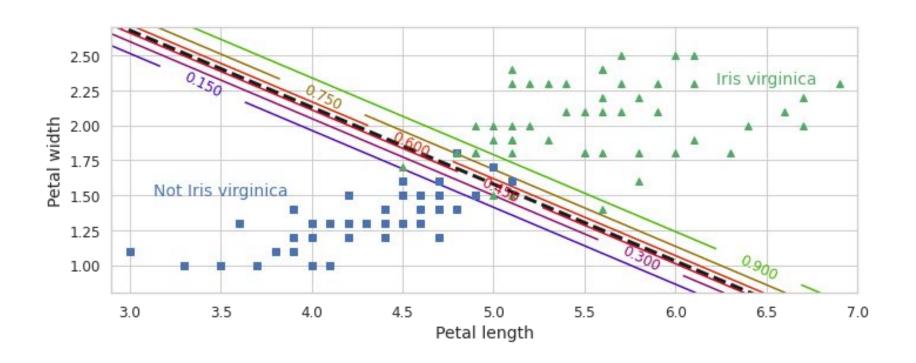
- Decision boundaries in LogReg are usually set when negative and positive class probabilities cross at y=0.5
- If you want to get probabilistic results rather than classes you can use sklearns predict_proba() instead of predict()
- That can be used for further refinement of the decision boundary (in case that one wants to classify something as positive if it goes below 0.5)





A note on Decision Boundaries

 predict_proba() returns the probabilities of the class to be the class that represents in its vector space





A note on Decision Boundaries

```
>> np.set_printoptions(suppress= True,
formatter={ 'float_kind':'{:0.9f}'.format})
>> y_proba = log_reg.predict_proba(X_new)

[0.999999998, 0.000000002]
```

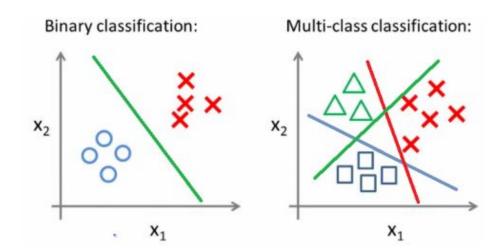
Probabilities in results always sum up to 1



Multi-class Classification

One vs. all classification

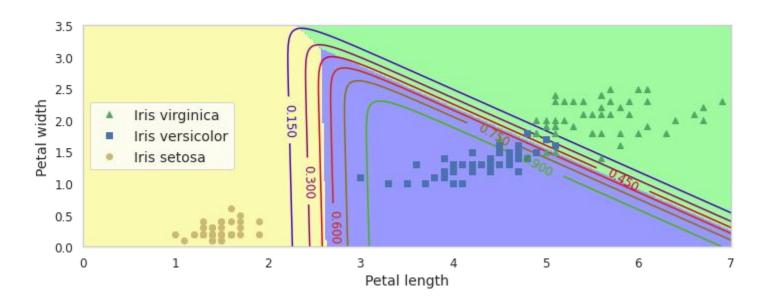
- classification problem with N distinct classes
- Train N distinct binary classifiers, each designed for recognizing a particular class





Multi-class Classification

We can use multi class classification in Sklearn LogReg by passing the multiclass parameter





Dealing with overfit and underfit

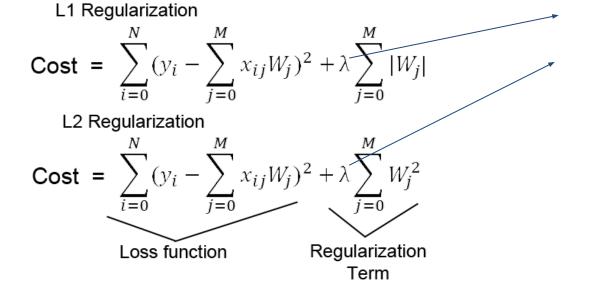
A model generalization error can be expressed as:

- BIAS: this part of the generalization error is due to wrong assumptions, such as assuming that the data is linear when it is actually quadratic. High-bias model is highly likely to underfit the training data
- VARIANCE: this error is due to having a model that is too sensitive to small variations in training data. A model with a lot of degrees of freedom, will have high variance and it will overfit our training data



How do we regularize those errors?

- Lasso, L1 penalty
 - L1 penalizes sum of absolute value of weights.
- Ridge, L2 penalty (added by default by Sklearn)
 - L2 regularization penalizes sum of square weights.

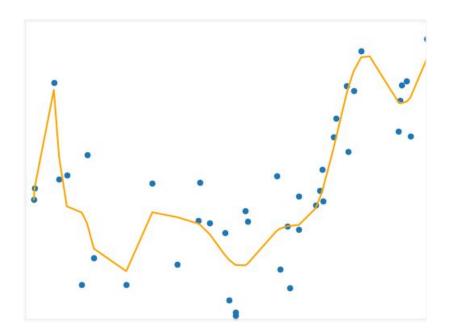


In Sklearn, this value is represented by C, and it is the inverse of lambda. So, the higher the value of C, the less the model will be regularized



Limitation of linear Regression

 Linear regression requires the relation between the dependent variable and the independent variable to be linear.

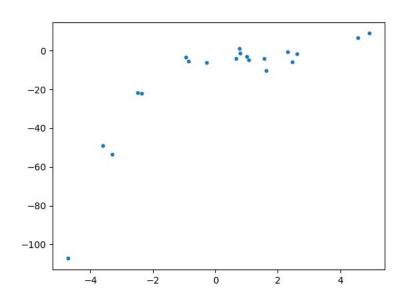


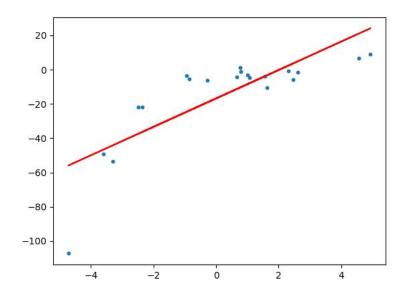
Can linear models be used to fit non-linear data?



Why Polynomial Regression?

Linear regression model



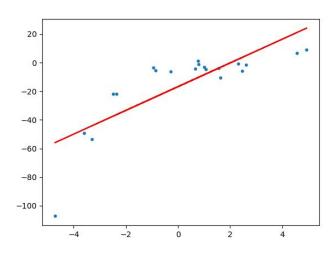


The model is unable to capture the patterns in the data. This is an example of **under-fitting**.



Why Polynomial Regression?

Linear regression model



How to overcome under-fitting?



Increase the complexity of the model. We need to add more features to the data

$$Y = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x$$



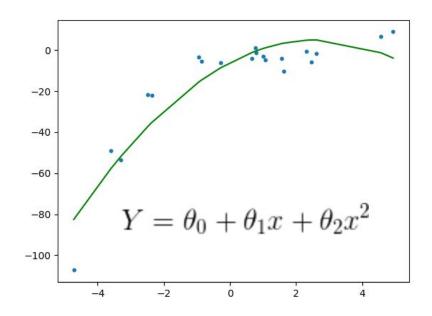
$$Y = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x$$
 \longrightarrow $Y = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x + \theta_2 x^2$

This is still considered to be a linear model as the coefficients/weights associated with the features are still linear. x² is only a new feature.



Why Polynomial Regression?

Linear regression model 2nd degree polynomial

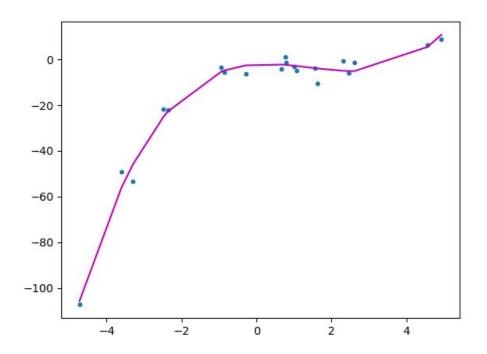


It is clear from the plot that the quadratic curve (2nd degree polynomial) is able to fit the data better than the linear line.



Why Polynomial Regression?

Linear regression model polynomial of degree 3

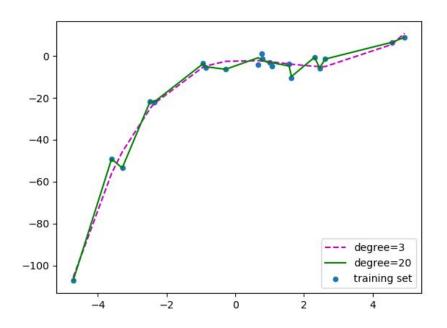


It passes through more data points than the quadratic and the linear plots.



Why Polynomial Regression?

Linear regression model polynomial of degree 20

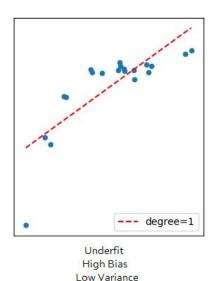


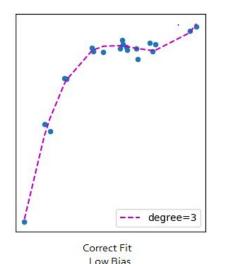
It passes through more data points but here we have a problem: **Overfitting**, i.e., the model is also capturing the noise in the data and even if it works well on the training set it will fail to generalize (the performance in the test set will be poor).



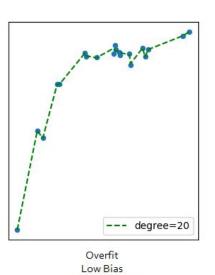
Bias vs Variance trade-off

- Bias: error due to the model's simplistic assumptions in fitting the data. A high bias means that the model is unable to capture the patterns in the data and this results in underfitting.
- Variance: error due to the complex model trying to fit the data. High variance results in over-fitting the data. Variance refers to how much the model is dependent on the training data.





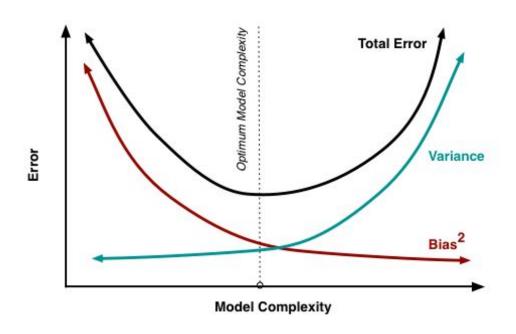
Low Variance



High Variance



Bias vs Variance trade-off



Bias is related with a model failing to fit the training set and variance is related with a model failing to fit the testing set.

Regularization: Ridge, Lasse and Elastic Net

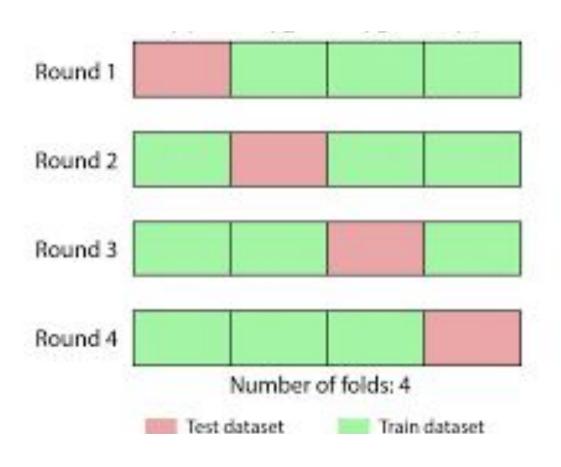


How to address overfitting

- In classical linear regression if the model feels like one particular feature is particularly important, the model may place a large weight to the feature. This might lead to overfitting in small datasets.
- Potential solutions:
 - Reduce Number of feature (Manually or Model selection algorithm)
 - Regularization
 - Collect More data
 - Cross Validation
 - Ensembling (Combine prediction from multiple separate models)



Cross Validation





How to address overfitting

- In classical linear regression if the model feels like one particular feature is particularly important, the model may place a large weight to the feature. This might lead to overfitting in small datasets.
- Regularization techniques consist of modifying the cost function, adding a penalty term, to restrict the values of our coefficients.
- Regularization techniques:
 - Lasso, also called L1-Norm
 - Ridge, also called L2-Norm
 - Elastic Net: is a combination of Lasso and Ridge



LASSO

 Adds an additional term to the cost function, adding the sum of the coefficient values (the L-1 norm) multiplied by a constant lambda.

$$\min_{eta \in \mathbb{R}^p} \left\{ rac{1}{N} \|y - Xeta\|_2^2 + \lambda \|eta\|_1
ight\}.$$

- Lambda set the coefficients of the bad predictors mentioned above 0 (feature selection).
- If lambda=0, we effectively have no regularization.
- Large lambda leads coefficients to 0.



RIDGE

 Sums the squares of coefficient values (the L-2 norm) and multiplies it by some constant lambda.

$$\hat{eta}^{ridge} = \mathop{argmin}_{eta \in \mathbb{R}} \lVert y - XB
Vert_2^2 + \lambda \lVert B
Vert_2^2$$

- will decrease the values of coefficients, but is unable to force a coefficient to exactly 0 (No feature selection).
- If lambda=0, we effectively have no regularization
- It will also select groups of colinear features (grouping effect)

Analysis of both Lasso and Ridge regression has shown that neither technique is consistently better than the other; try both methods to determine which to use!



Elastic Net

Includes both L-1 and L-2 norm regularization terms.

$$\hat{eta} \equiv \operatorname*{argmin}_{eta} (\|y - Xeta\|^2 + \lambda_2 \|eta\|^2 + \lambda_1 \|eta\|_1).$$

• It seems to have the predictive power better than Lasso, while still performing feature selection. We therefore get the best of both worlds, performing feature selection of Lasso with the feature-group selection of Ridge.



- So what do we use?
 - Ridge is faster to converge, Lasso tends to bounce around during Gradient Descent
 - It is always preferable to have at least a little bit of regularization, so try to avoid regression without regularization
 - Ridge is good default to start with, and to check convergence potential (whether we train or not)
 - If you suspect that only few features are useful (and you don't know which ones) you should go for Lasso or ElasticNet because they tend to reduce the useless feature's weights down to zero



Resources

- Tan, Pang-Ning. Introduction to data mining. Pearson Education India, 2006.
- Friedman, Jerome, Trevor Hastie, and Robert Tibshirani. The elements of statistical learning. Vol. 1. New York: Springer series in statistics, 2001.



