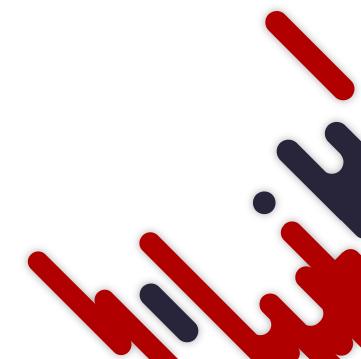
# **Applied Predictive Analysis 1.0**

**13 November 2021** 







# Type of Data



## Numerical

- Discrete, e.g., population
- Continuous, e.g., speed
- Interval, e.g., temperature, time
- Ratio, e.g., age, distance

## Categorical

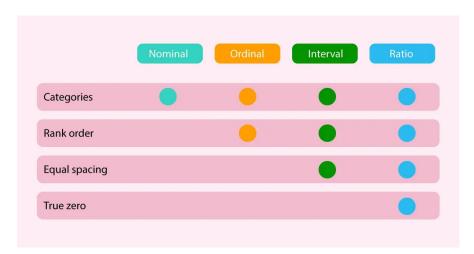
- Nominal, e.g., nationality, gender
- Ordinal, e.g., socioeconomic status, grading system

## Multimedia

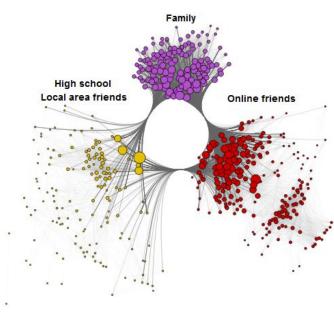
- Text
- Image
- Audio
- Video

## Others

- Geospatial, e.g., Vector, Raster
- Biological, e.g., DNA sequence



- Data representation
  - Cross-sectional
  - Temporal
  - Graph / network



# **Probability Theory**



Applicable for any problems involving uncertainty,

- a. model uncertainty
- b. data uncertainty, i.e., sampling

Example: a fair die

Sample space  $\Omega = \{1,2,3,4,5,6\}$ 

lacktriangle Pr(A), the **probability** that the event A is true

$$0 \le \Pr(A) \le 1$$

$$A = \{1,3,5\}$$
  $Pr(A) = \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6} = \frac{1}{2}$ 

$$B = \{5,6\}$$
  $Pr(B) = \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6} = \frac{1}{3}$ 

$$\bar{B} = \{1,2,3,4\}$$
  $\Pr(\bar{B}) = \Pr(\Omega) - \Pr(B) = 1 - \frac{1}{3} = \frac{2}{3}$ 

 $lacktriangleq \Pr(A,B)$ , the **joint probability** of events A and B both happening

$$A \cap B = \{5\},$$
  $Pr(A \cap B) = Pr(A, B) = \frac{1}{6}$ 

Pr(A, B) = Pr(A)Pr(B), if A and B are independent events

ullet Pr(A|B), the **conditional probability** of event happening given that event has occurred

Bayes rule: 
$$Pr(A|B) = \frac{Pr(A,B)}{Pr(B)} = \frac{Pr(A)Pr(B|A)}{Pr(B)}$$

Pr(A), Prior; Pr(B|A), Likelihood; Pr(B), Evidence

Example: two fair dice

Sample space  $\Omega = 6 \times 6 = 36$  possible outcomes

What is the probability that the dice add up to 8, Pr(A), given that the first die gives a value that is  $\leq 4$ , Pr(B)?

$$A = \{(2,6), (3,5), (4,4), (5,3), (6,2)\}$$

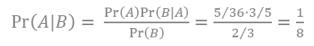
$$Pr(A) = \frac{5}{36}$$

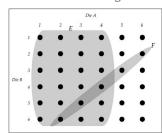
$$B = \{1,2,3,4\}$$

$$\Pr(B) = \frac{4}{6} = \frac{2}{3}$$

$$B|A = \{(2,6), (3,5), (4,4)\}$$

$$\Pr(A \cap B) = \frac{3}{5}$$





## Random Variables



A random variable, X, represents some unknown quantity of interest, e.g., way a die will land when someone rolls it.

The set of possible values is known as the **sample space**,  $\Omega = \{1,2,3,4,5,6\}$ .

The set of outcomes from a given  $\Omega$  is called an **event**, seeing an odd number,  $X = \{1,3,5\}$ 

A random variable has a probability distribution

## Discrete random variables (counting)

 $X \in \Omega$ , a finite or countably infinite sample space.

 $p(x) = \Pr(X = x)$ , Probability Mass Function (PMF), where  $0 \le p(x) \le 1$  and  $\sum_{x \in \Omega} p(x) = 1$ 

Cumulative Distribution Function (CDF), the sum of the probabilities of achieving that value and each successive lower values.

## Continuous random variables (measuring)

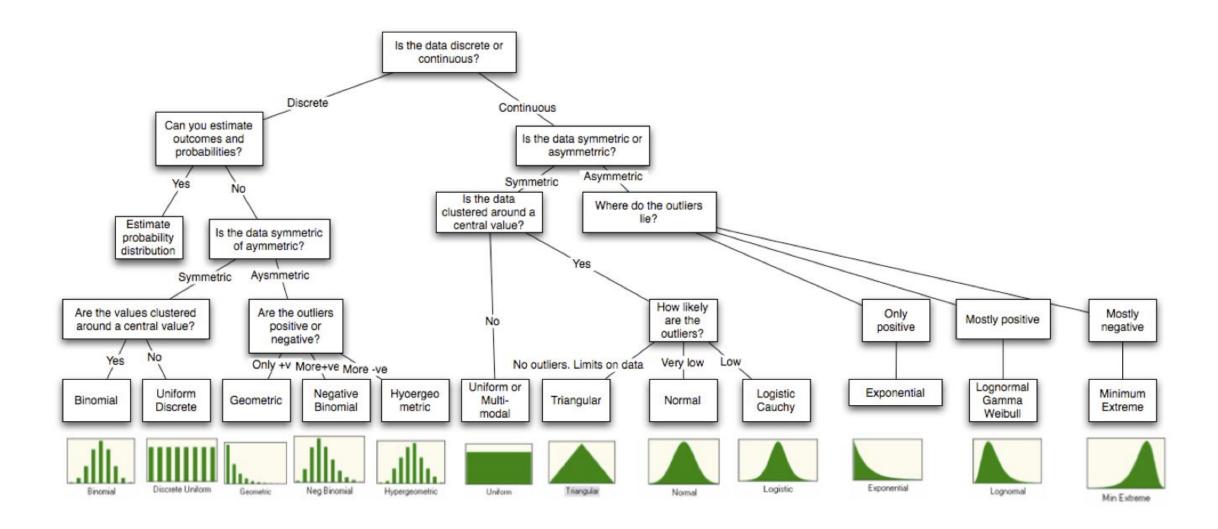
 $X \in \mathbb{R}$ , a real-valued quantity.

 $F(x) = \Pr(a \le X \le b) = \int_a^b f(x) \, dx$ , Probability Density Function (PDF), where  $f(x) \ge 0$  and  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \, dx = 1$ 

Cumulative Distribution Function (CDF), the area under the PDF curve to the left of the value in question.

# **Probability Distribution**





# **Summary Statistics**



## lacktriangle Expected value (Mean), $\mu$

Discrete:  $\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{x \in \Omega} x \cdot p(x)$ 

Continuous: $\mathbb{E}[X] = \int_{\Omega} x \cdot p(x) dx$ 

## • Variance, $\sigma^2$

A measure of the "spread" of a distribution

$$\mathbb{V}[X] = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])^2] = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - \mathbb{E}[X]^2$$

## Covariance

The degree to which two r.v. X and Y are (linearly) related  $Cov[X,Y] = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])(Y - \mathbb{E}[Y])] = \mathbb{E}[XY] - \mathbb{E}[X]\mathbb{E}[Y]$ 

## lacktriangle Correlation, $\rho$

The normalized measure (with a finite lower and upper bound) to which two r.v. X and Y are (linearly) related

$$corr[X,Y] = \frac{Cov[X,Y]}{\sqrt{V[X]V[Y]}}$$

## Skewness

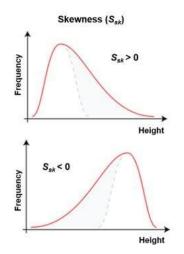
How much the distribution deviates from the normal distribution

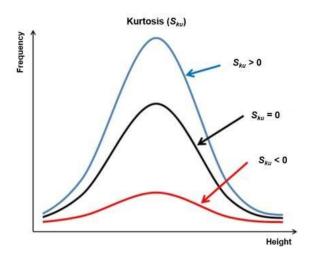
$$\mathbb{S}[X] = \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\frac{X-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^3\right]$$

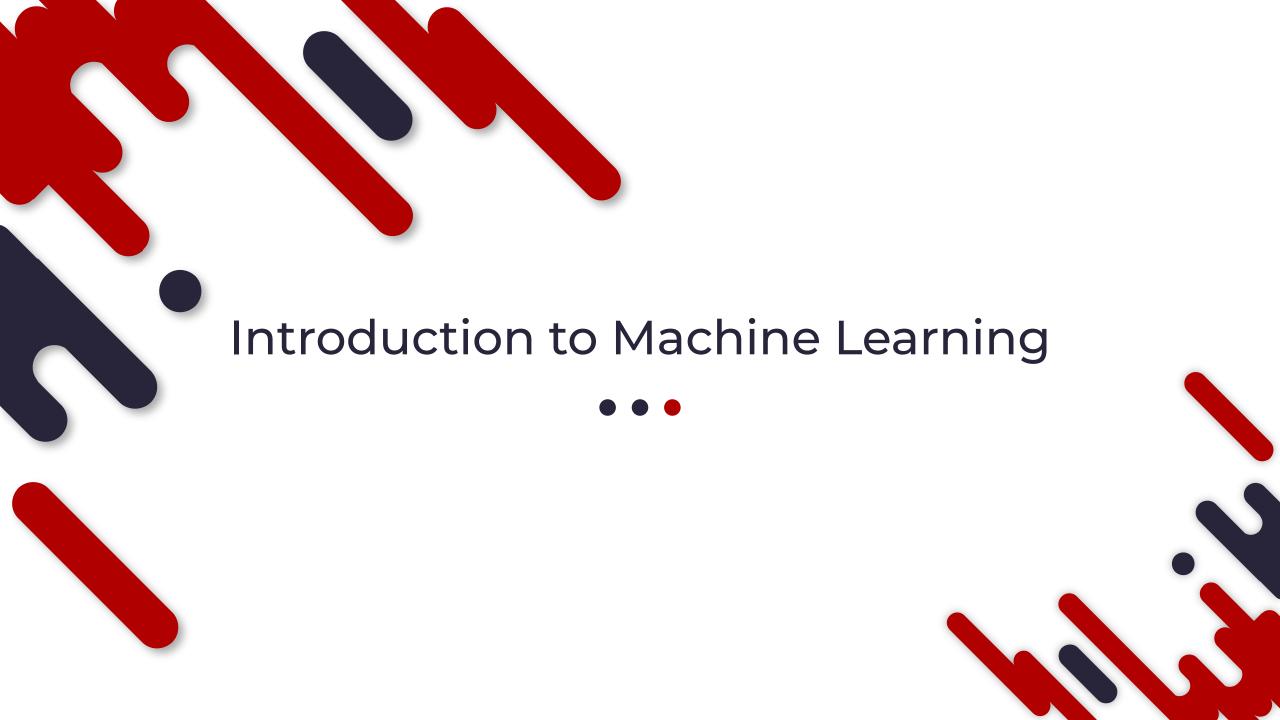
### Kurtosis

A measure of the combined size of the tails relative to whole distribution

$$\mathbb{K}[X] = \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\frac{X-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^4\right]$$



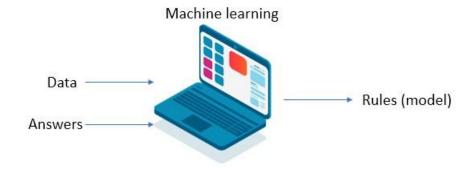




# **Basic Concepts**







## Components of Machine Learning

## Representation or Mapping Function

- a. Parametric: estimate  $\theta$  using  $\mathcal{D}$  Model has a fixed number of parameters, e.g., linear regression, logistic regression, naïve bayes, ANN
  - + simplify the function to a known form
  - + faster computation
  - require strong assumption
- b. Non-parametric: estimate  $Pr(\theta|\mathcal{D})$ The number of parameters grows with the amount of training data, e.g., kNN, SVM, decision tree
  - + no need strong assumption about the nature of data distribution
  - high computational cost

## (Learning) Objective Function

A function that is being optimized during learning / training e.g., Least square, Likelihood, Logistic loss, Hinge loss, Cross-entropy, Gini impurity

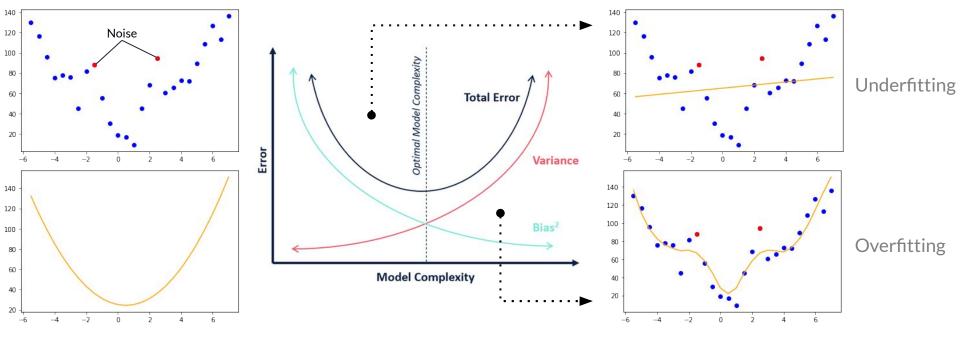
## Parameter Estimation or Algorithm

The process of quantifying uncertainty (i.e., parameters) about an unknown quantity estimated from a finite sample of data

- a. <u>Analytical</u> via Calculus & Algebra e.g., LS, ML, ERM, MAP, Bayes
- Numerical via Optimization methods
   e.g., Gradient descent, Newton's, BFGS, Lagrange multipliers, C4.5

# **Basic Concepts**

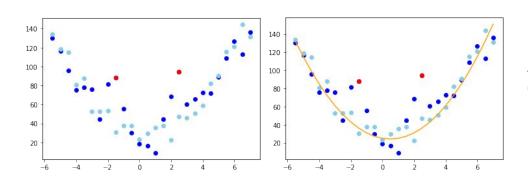




$$\mathsf{MSE}^{'*} = \mathbb{E}\left\{\mathsf{Bias}_{\mathcal{D}}\big[\hat{f}(x;\mathcal{D})\big]^2 + \mathsf{Var}_{\mathcal{D}}\big[\hat{f}(x;\mathcal{D})\big]\right\} + \sigma^2$$

## Strategies:

- a. Regularization, e.g., L1 norm, L2 norm
- b. k-fold Cross-validation
- c. Early stopping
- d. Dimensionality reduction
- e. Add more samples



No free lunch theorem! "All models are wrong, but some models are useful." — George Box (1987)

# Type of Learning

- Supervised learning
  - Regression, i.e., Y continuous
  - Classification, i.e., Y discrete or categorical
- Unsupervised learning
  - Dimensionality reduction, e.g., PCA, ICA, Factor analysis, AE
  - Clustering, e.g., Hierarchical, k-Means, DBSCAN, GMM
  - Anomaly detection, e.g., One-class SVM, Isolation forest, LOF
  - Recommender system, e.g., Content-based, CF
  - Association rule
  - Topic modeling, e.g., latent Dirichlet allocation
  - Synthetic data generation, e.g., VAE, GAN
- Semi-supervised learning
- Reinforcement learning
- Active learning

## Learning approaches

### Discriminative

Learning a decision boundary in order to make prediction of unseen data.

- a. Supervised:  $Pr(Y|X;\theta)$  e.g., linear regression, logistic regression, ANN, SVM, decision tree, kNN, ensembles
- b. Unsupervised:  $Pr(Z|X;\theta)$  e.g., PCA, One-class SVM, Isolation forest

### Generative

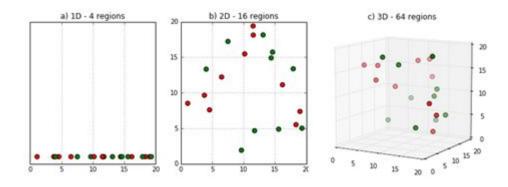
Learning the probability distribution of training data to return a probability for a given example.

- a. Supervised:  $Pr(X,Y|\theta) = Pr(Y|X;\theta)Pr(X)$ e.g., naïve bayes, Gaussian discriminant analysis, deep belief network
- **b.** Unsupervised:  $Pr(X|Z;\theta)$  OR  $Pr(X,Z|\theta)$  e.g., latent Dirichlet allocation, VAE, GAN



# **Dimensionality Reduction**





Curse of dimensionality

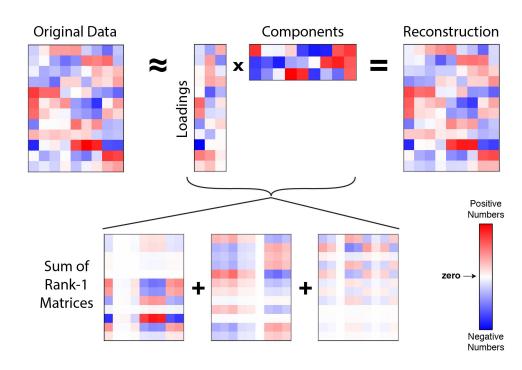
- 1. Less density (sparse)
- 2. Higher distance

- Principal Component Analysis (PCA)
- Factor Analysis
- Isomap
- t-Distributed Stochastic Neighbor Embedding (tSNE)
- Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP)
- Locally Linear Embedding (LLE)
- Kernel PCA
- Autoencoders

# Principal Component Analysis

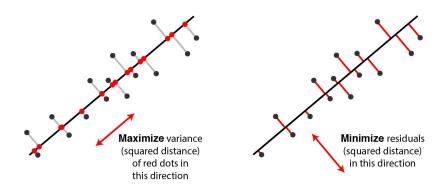
## Principal Component Analysis (PCA):

- a. Linear dimensionality reduction technique for data visualization and/or speeding machine learning algorithms.
- b. Extracting information from a high-dimensional space by projecting it into a lower-dimensional sub-space.
- c. Using an orthogonal transformation to convert a set of observations of possibly correlated variables into a set of values of linearly uncorrelated variables (orthogonal to each other).
- d. There is no guarantee that the new dimensions (principal components) are interpretable.
- e. First principal component has a maximum variance.

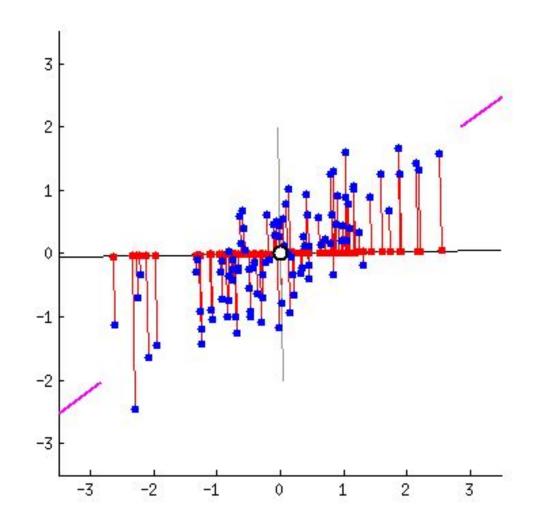


# Principal Component Analysis





- 1. The variation of values along this line should be maximal.
- 2. The reconstruction error (the connecting red line) should reach minimum



## PCA Hands-On

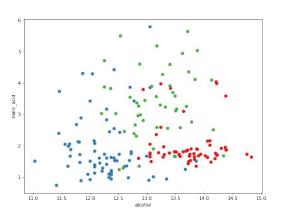
## Wine Dataset

```
import pandas as pd
from sklearn.datasets import load wine
# instantiating
wine = load_wine()
# creating dataframe
df = pd.DataFrame(data=wine["data"], columns=wine["feature_names"])
# checking first six rows of dataframe
df.head()
```

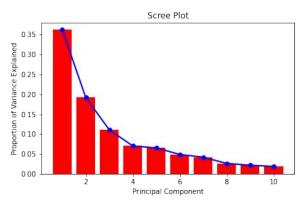
	alcohol	malic_acid	ash	alcalinity_of_ash	magnesium	total_phenols	flavanoids
0	14.23	1.71	2.43	15.6	127.0	2.80	3.06
1	13.20	1.78	2.14	11.2	100.0	2.65	2.76
2	13.16	2.36	2.67	18.6	101.0	2.80	3.24
3	14.37	1.95	2.50	16.8	113.0	3.85	3.49
4	13.24	2.59	2.87	21.0	118.0	2.80	2.69

```
# Dimension of data
df.shape
(178, 13)
```

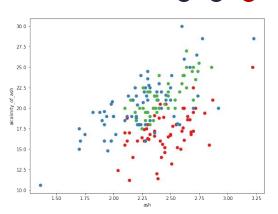
```
# Data preprocessing
from sklearn.preprocessing import StandardScaler
scaler = StandardScaler()
scaler.fit(df)
scaled_df = scaler.transform(df)
```



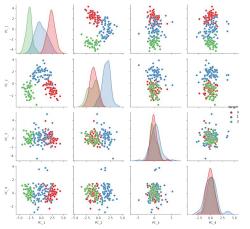






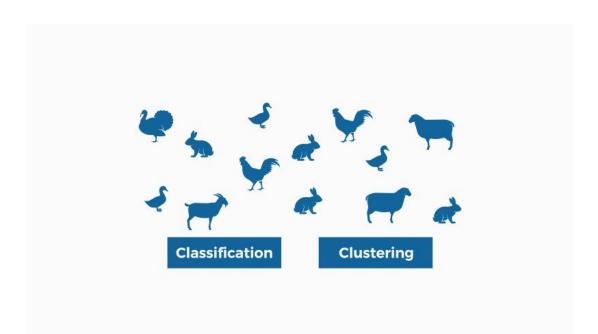


pca.fit(scaled\_df) pca.explained variance ratio [:4].sum() 0.735989990758993



# Clustering





- What do we need for clustering?
- Proximity measure (similarity OR distance)
   e.g., Euclidean distance, Manhattan distance, Minkowski distance, Jaccard distance
- Criterion function
   e.g., Intra-cluster cohesion / compactness (SSE), Inter-cluster
   separation / isolation
- 3. Algorithm

- Hierarchical
  - e.g., Agglomerative, Divisive
- Partitional
  - Distance-based:e.g., K-Means, k-Medoids, etc.
  - Density-based e.g., DBSCAN, etc.

- Model-basede.g., Gaussian mixture, SOM
- Graph-basede.g., Spectral clustering

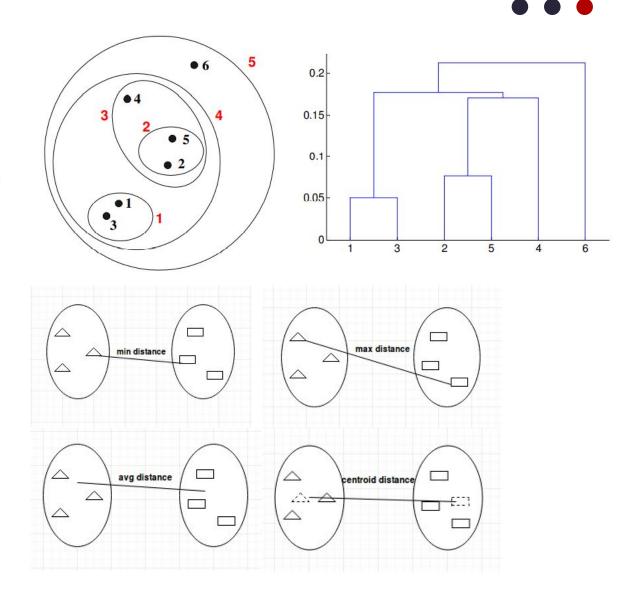
# Hierarchical clustering

Hierarchical algorithms find successive clusters using previously established clusters:

- a. Agglomerative: begin with each element as a separate cluster and merge them into successively larger clusters
- b. Divisive: begin with the whole set and proceed to divide it into successively smaller clusters

Four ways to measure inter-cluster distance:

- a. Single-linkage (minimum distance)
- b. Complete-linkage (maximum distance)
- c. Average-linkage
- d. Centroid-linkage
- e. Ward's method



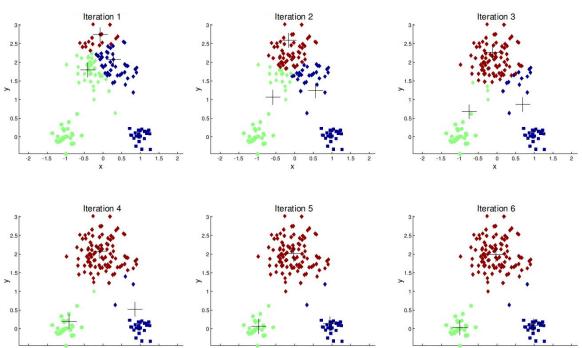
# k-Means clustering

Partitional clustering: each instance is placed in exactly one of k non-overlapping clusters (normally required K as parameter). k-Means clustering:

- a. Each cluster is associated with a centroid (center point)
- b. Each point is assigned to the cluster with the closest centroid
- c. The objective is to minimize the sum of distance of the points to their respective centroid

## k-Means variations:

- a. k-Medoids (the centroid of the cluster is defined to be one of the points in the cluster)
- k-Centers (the objective is to minimize the maximum diameter (total distance between any two points in the cluster)



# Strengths and Weaknesses



## Hierarchical clustering

## Strengths

- No need to specify the number of clusters in advance
- b. Maps nicely onto human intuition for some domains

### Weaknesses

- a. Do not scale well (longer time computation)
- b. Local optimum
- c. Interpretation of the results is very subjective

## k-Means

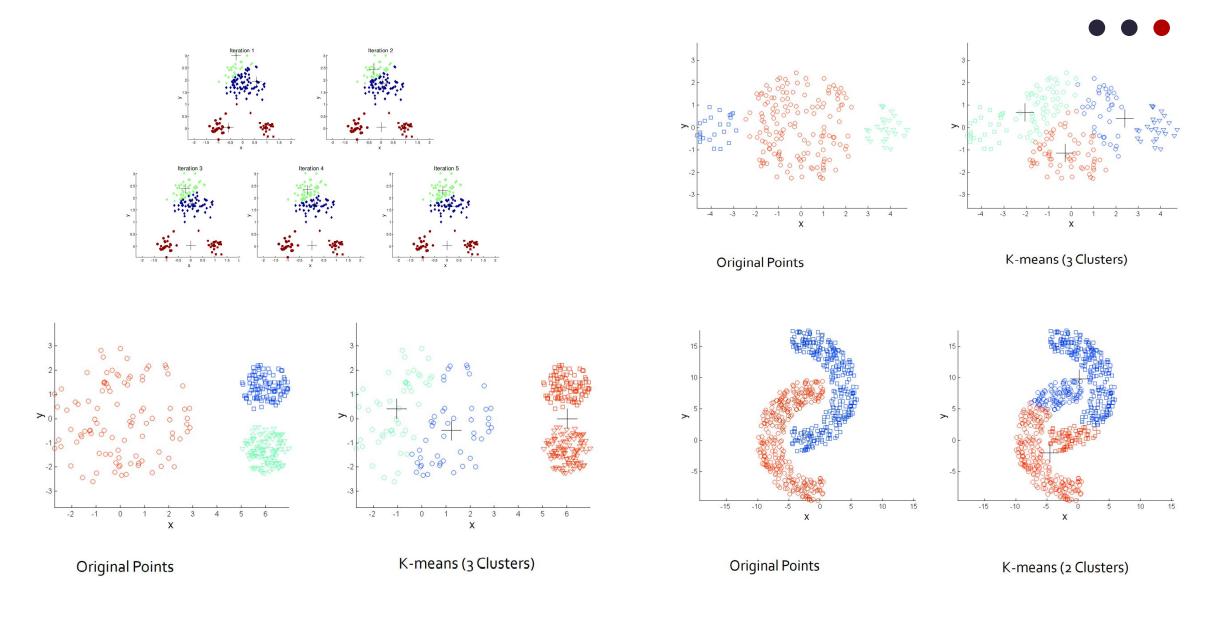
## Strengths

- a. Easy to understand and to implement
- b. Intuitive objective function
- c. More efficient in terms of computation

### Weaknesses

- a. Local optimum (if SSE is used)
- b. Only applicable for problems where mean/mode is defined
- Need to specify the number of clusters in advance
- d. Sensitive to outliers
- e. Sensitive to initial centorids
- f. Not suitable for discovering clusters with different sizes, densities, and non-convex shapes

# Examples of k-Means Limitations



## Known Cluster Labels

Small sample size or large number of cluster

- **a.** Rand Index: [0,1]
- b. Adjusted Rand Index: [-1,1]
- c. Normalized Mutual Information: [-1,1]
- d. Adjusted Mutual Information: [-1,1] Large sample size or small number of cluster
- a. Homogeneity: [0,1]
- b. Completeness: [0,1]
- c. V-measure: [0,1]
- d. Fowlkes-Mallows: [0,1]

## Performance Evaluation



## Unknown Cluster Labels

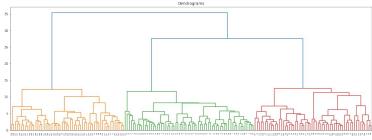
- a. Silhouette Coefficient: [-1,1]
- b. Calinski-Harabasz Index / Variance Ratio Criterion
- c. Davies-Bouldin Index: [0,∞]

# Clustering Hands-On

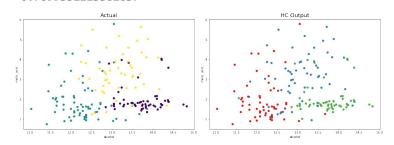


## Wine Dataset

from scipy.cluster.hierarchy import dendrogram, linkage
from sklearn.cluster import AgglomerativeClustering



```
# Train and predict cluster using Hierarchical clustering
hc_model = AgglomerativeClustering(n_clusters=3, affinity="euclidean", linkage="ward")
df["hc_output"] = hc_model.fit_predict(scaled_df)
# Insert the ground truth
df["target"] = wine["target"]
# Measure the model performance: 1.0 is perfect, around 0.0 is bad
from sklearn.metrics import adjusted_rand_score
adjusted_rand_score(df["target"], df["hc_output"])
0.7899332213582837
```



```
from sklearn.cluster import KMeans
distortions = []
K = range(1,10)
for k in K:
    kmean_model = KMeans(n_clusters=k)
    kmean model.fit(scaled df)
    distortions.append(kmean model.inertia )
                       The Elbow Method showing the optimal k
kmean_model = KMeans(n_clusters=3)
kmean_model.fit(scaled_df)
df["kmean output"] = kmean model.predict(scaled df)
adjusted_rand_score(df["target"], df["kmean_output"])
0.8974949815093207
```

## Task

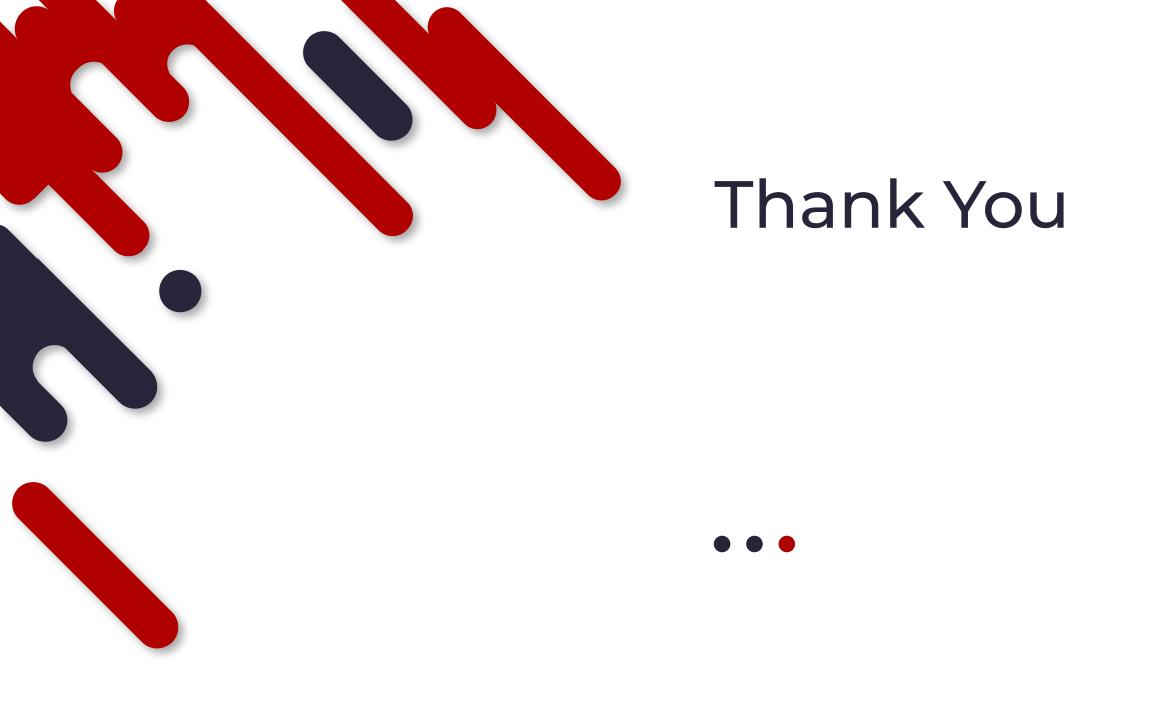


## Compare the performance between:

- 1. k-Means clustering for Cancer dataset from sklearn
- 2. k-Means clustering for *n* Principal Components of Cancer dataset from sklearn

## **Evaluation:**

- 1. Adjusted Rand Index (ARI)
- 2. Time computation (hint: use %%timeit in the top of the cell)





## **Bias-Variance Trade-off**

$$\begin{split} y &= f(x) + \varepsilon \\ \mathbb{E}\left[\left(y - \hat{f}(x;\mathcal{D})\right)^2\right] &= \mathbb{E}\left[\left(f(x) + \varepsilon - \hat{f}(x;\mathcal{D})\right)^2\right] \\ &= \mathbb{E}\left[\left(f(x) - \hat{f}(x;\mathcal{D})\right)^2\right] + \mathbb{E}[\varepsilon^2] + 2\mathbb{E}\left[\left(f(x) - \hat{f}(x;\mathcal{D})\right)\varepsilon\right] \\ &= \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\left(f(x) - \mathbb{E}[\hat{f}(x;\mathcal{D})]\right) + \left(\mathbb{E}[\hat{f}(x;\mathcal{D})] - \hat{f}(x;\mathcal{D})\right)\right)^2\right] + \mathbb{E}[\varepsilon^2] + 2\mathbb{E}\left[\left(f(x) - \hat{f}(x;\mathcal{D})\right)\right]\mathbb{E}[\varepsilon] \\ &= \mathbb{E}\left[\left(f(x) - \mathbb{E}[\hat{f}(x;\mathcal{D})]\right)^2\right] + \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\mathbb{E}[\hat{f}(x;\mathcal{D})] - \hat{f}(x;\mathcal{D})\right)^2\right] + 2\mathbb{E}\left[\left(f(x) - \mathbb{E}[\hat{f}(x;\mathcal{D})]\right)\right]\mathbb{E}\left[\left(\mathbb{E}[\hat{f}(x;\mathcal{D})] - \hat{f}(x;\mathcal{D})\right)\right] + \mathbb{E}[\varepsilon^2] \\ &= \left(f(x) - \mathbb{E}[\hat{f}(x;\mathcal{D})]\right)^2 + \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\mathbb{E}[\hat{f}(x;\mathcal{D})] - \hat{f}(x;\mathcal{D})\right)^2\right] + 2\left(f(x) - \mathbb{E}[\hat{f}(x;\mathcal{D})]\right)\mathbb{E}\left[\left(\mathbb{E}[\hat{f}(x;\mathcal{D})] - \hat{f}(x;\mathcal{D})\right)\right] + \mathbb{E}[\varepsilon^2] \\ &= \left(f(x) - \mathbb{E}[\hat{f}(x;\mathcal{D})]\right)^2 + \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\mathbb{E}[\hat{f}(x;\mathcal{D})] - \hat{f}(x;\mathcal{D})\right)^2\right] + 2\left(f(x) - \mathbb{E}[\hat{f}(x;\mathcal{D})]\right)(\mathbb{E}[\hat{f}(x;\mathcal{D})] - \mathbb{E}[\hat{f}(x;\mathcal{D})]\right) + \mathbb{E}[\varepsilon^2] \\ &= \left(f(x) - \mathbb{E}[\hat{f}(x;\mathcal{D})]\right)^2 + \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\mathbb{E}[\hat{f}(x;\mathcal{D})] - \hat{f}(x;\mathcal{D})\right)^2\right] + \mathbb{E}[\varepsilon^2] \\ &= \mathbb{B}ias[\hat{f}(x;\mathcal{D})]^2 + Var[\hat{f}(x;\mathcal{D})] + \sigma^2 \end{split}$$