

Day 5: Supervised Machine Learning

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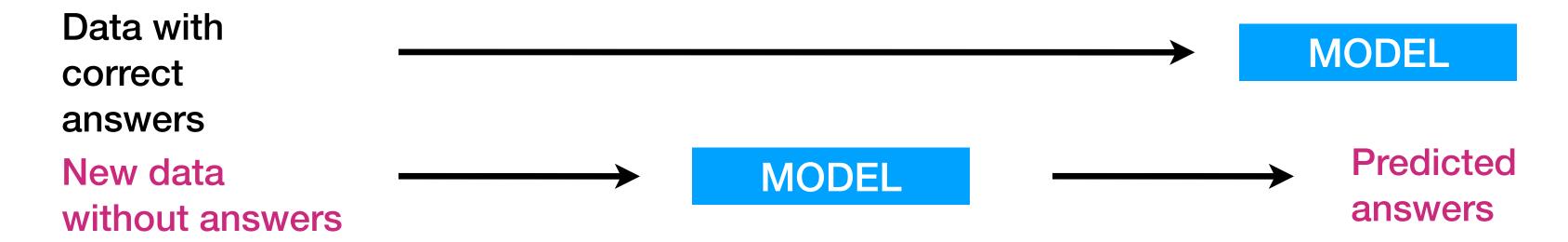


 Supervised learning problems involve constructing an accurate model that can predict some kind of an outcome when past data has labels for those outcomes

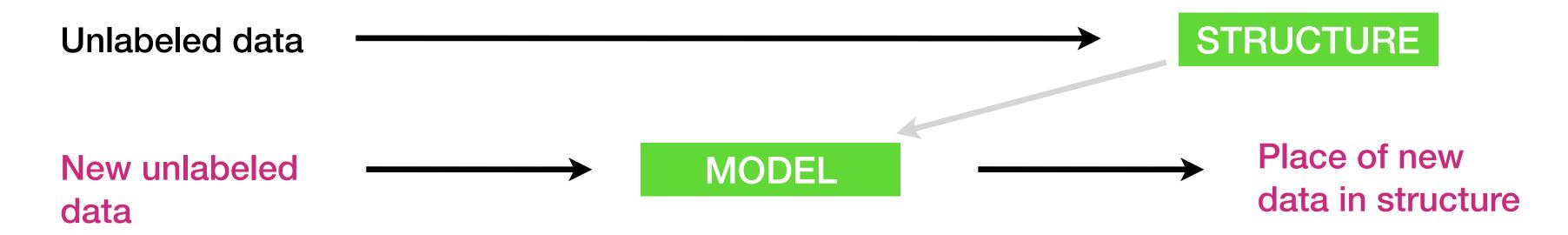
• Unsupervised learning problems involve constructing models where labels on historical data are unavailable.



 Supervised learning problems involve constructing an accurate model that can predict some kind of an outcome when past data has labels for those outcomes



 Unsupervised learning problems involve constructing models where labels on historical data are unavailable.



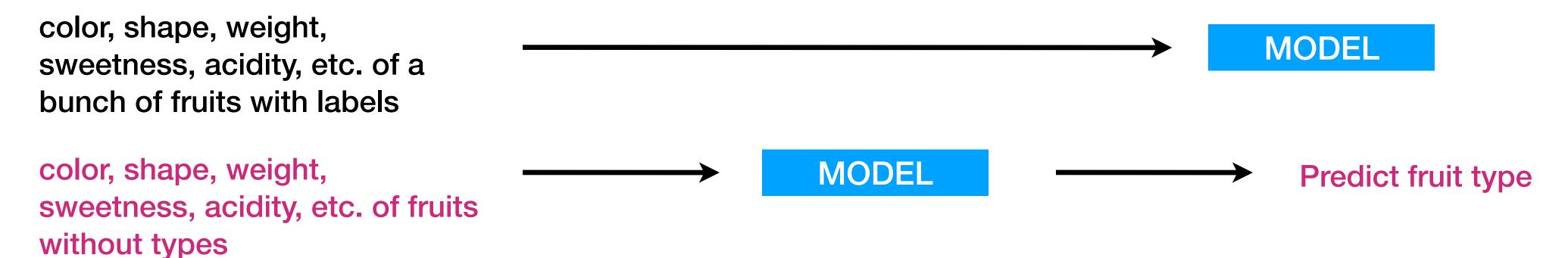


• A classification problem is a supervised learning problem where the objective is to learn to predict a categorical value

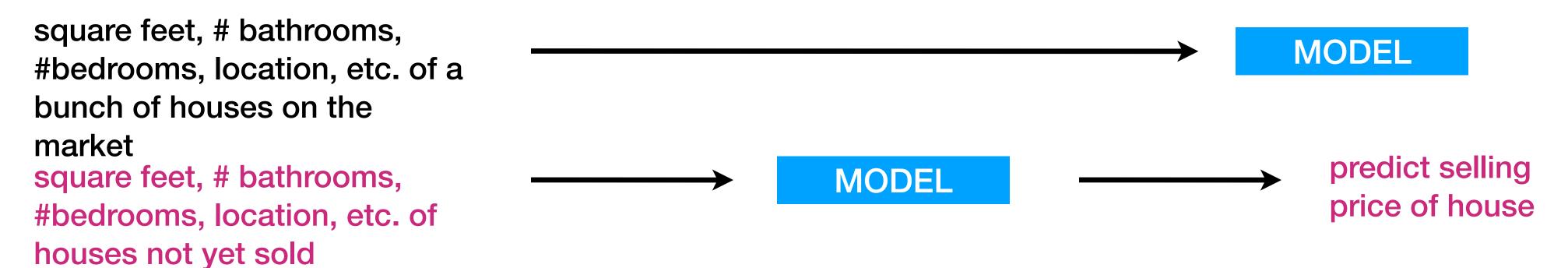
• A regression problem is a supervised learning problem where the objective is to learn to predict a continuous value.



 A classification problem is a supervised learning problem where the objective is to learn to predict a categorical value.



• A regression problem is a supervised learning problem where the objective is to learn to predict a continuous value.





Quiz Time: Classification or Regression?

- predicting whether or not a student was admitted to college based on SAT score, etc.
- predicting the ideal airbnb price listing based on listing features
- predicting lotus types based on petal width, petal length, etc.
- Predicting weight based on age, height, etc.



Linear Regression



Linear regression is the first model that we will learn because:

- it is widely used
- is very quick and easy to set up and therefore works well as a good first pass
- a trained linear regression model is very easy to understand



Linear Regression with sklearn

from sklearn.linear_model import LinearRegression
from sklearn.model_selection import train_test_split
from sklearn import metrics
import scipy.stats as stats



Features: Numerical attributes from which you will make predictions (A column)

Observations: One collection of features (A row)

Target: The value or category you're trying to predict for an observation

In the fruit example earlier...

What are examples of features in our fruit example from earlier?

What was the target?

What is an example of one observation?



The Dataset

http://archive.ics.uci.edu/ml/datasets/Auto+MPG

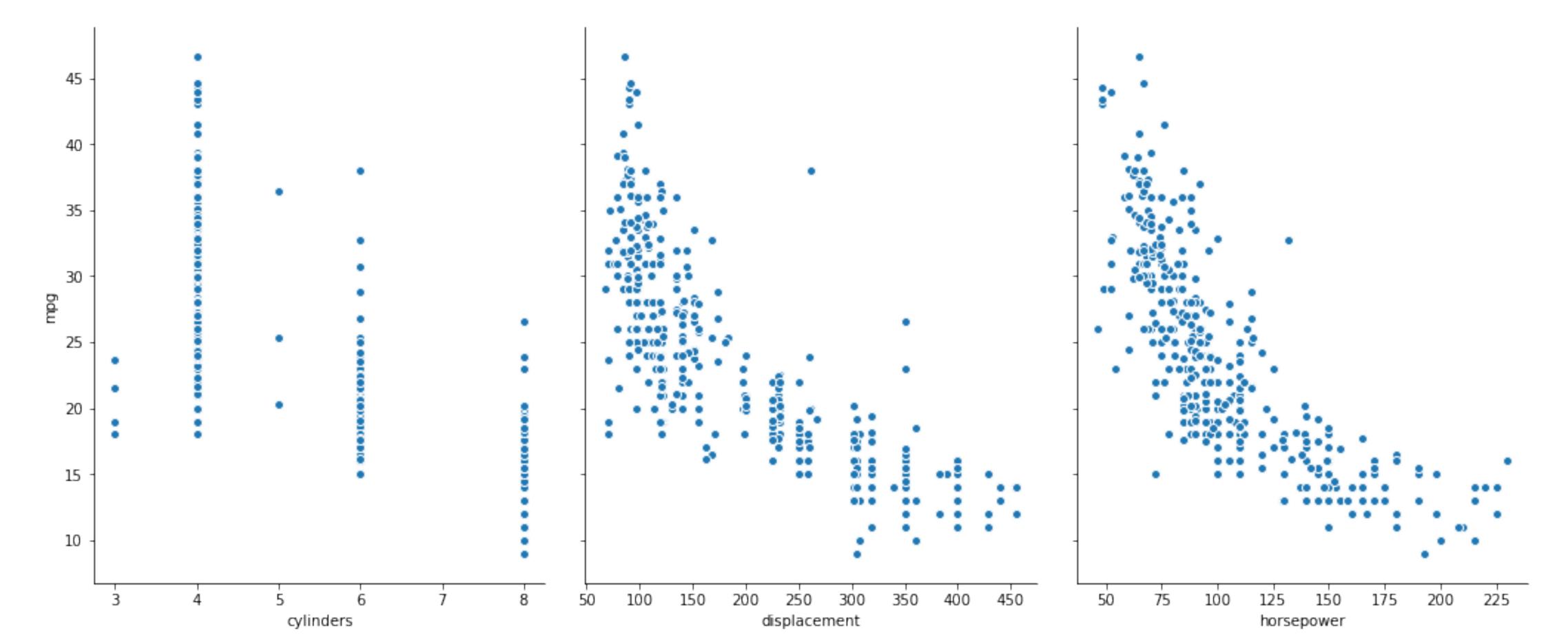
- cylinders: The number of cylinders in the model (numeric discrete)
- displacement: engine displacement (continuous)
- horsepower: horsepower of the model (continuous)
- weight: total weight of the car (continuous)
- acceleration: The vehicle acceleration rate of the model (continuous)
- mpg: approximate miles per gallon of the model (continuous)

What are the features?

What is the target?

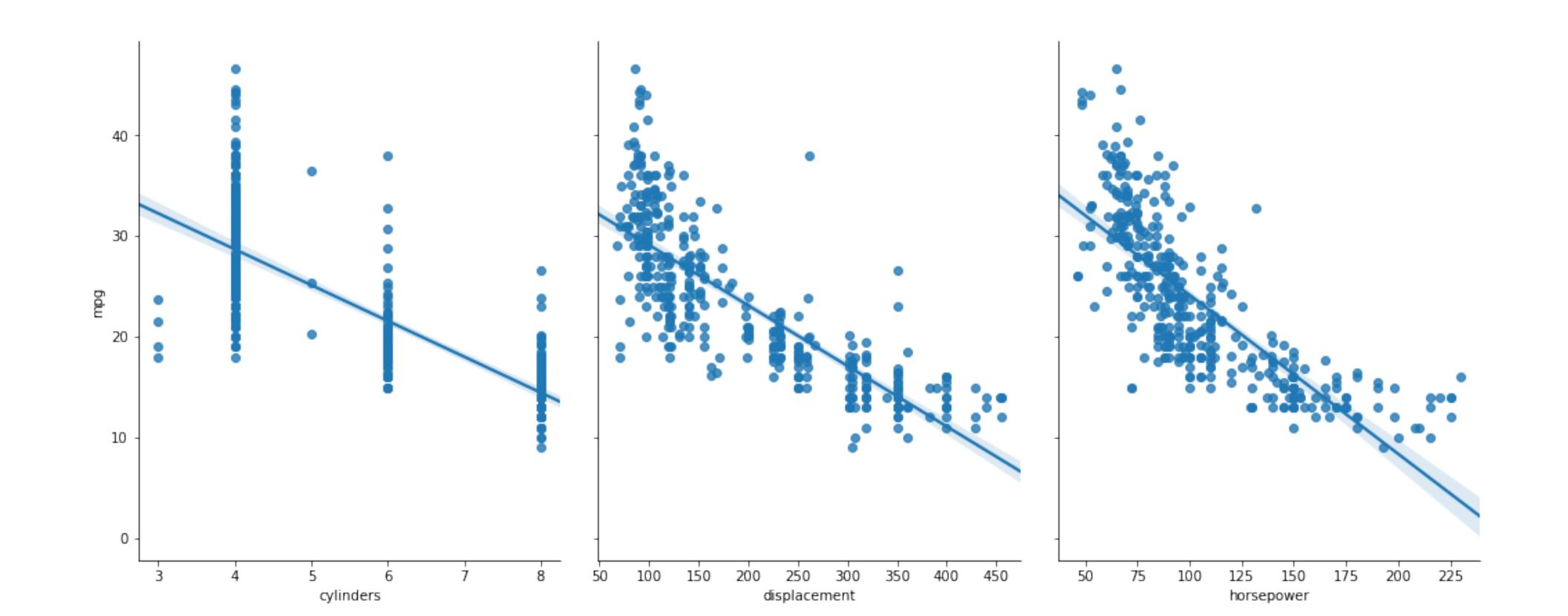
METIS

sns.pairplot(data,
x_vars=['cylinders','displacement','horsepower'], y_vars='mpg',
size=6, aspect=0.8)



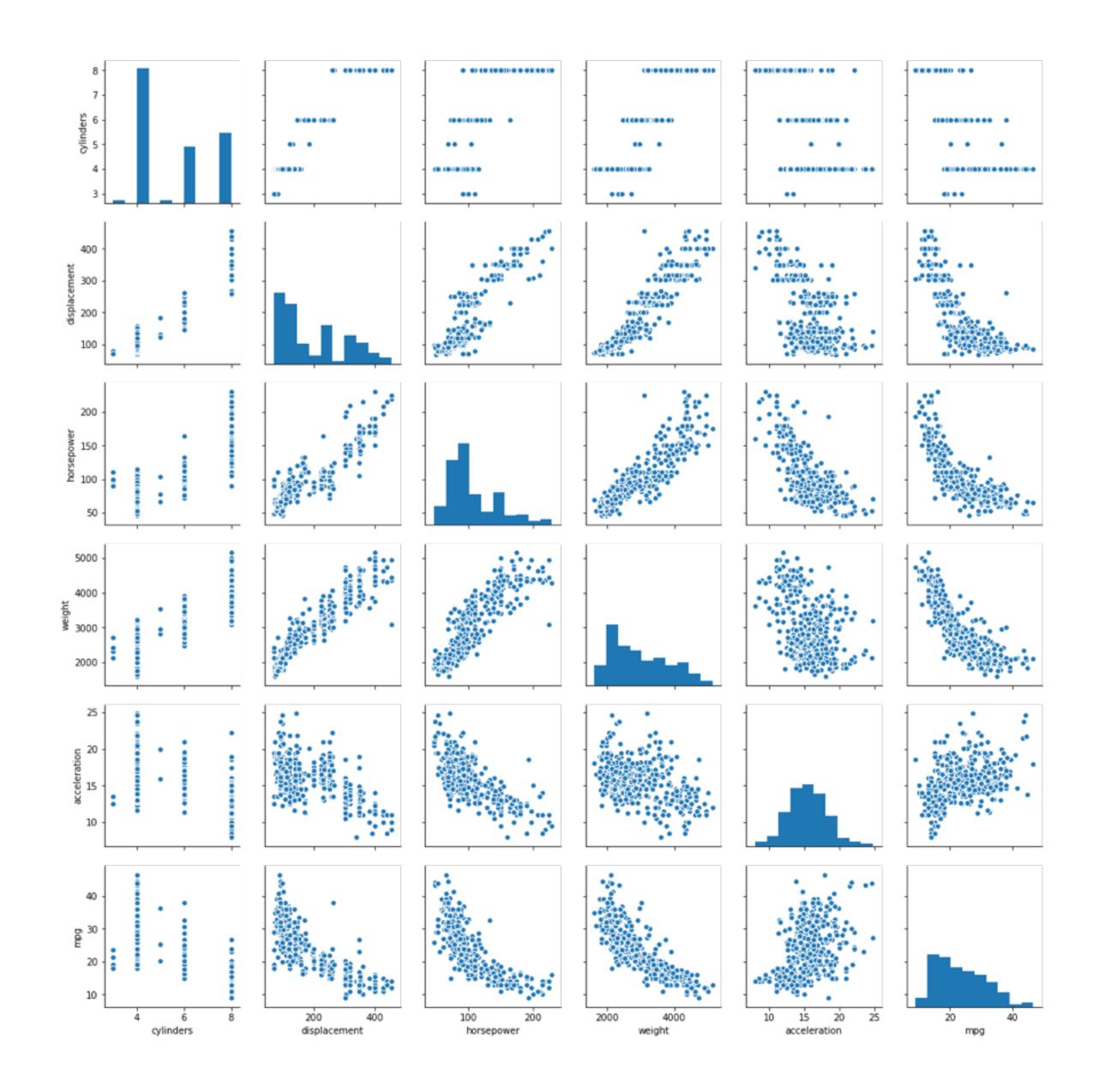
METIS

```
sns.pairplot(data,
x_vars=['cylinders','displacement','horsepower'], y_vars='mpg',
size=6, aspect=0.8, kind='reg')
```





sns.pairplot(data)



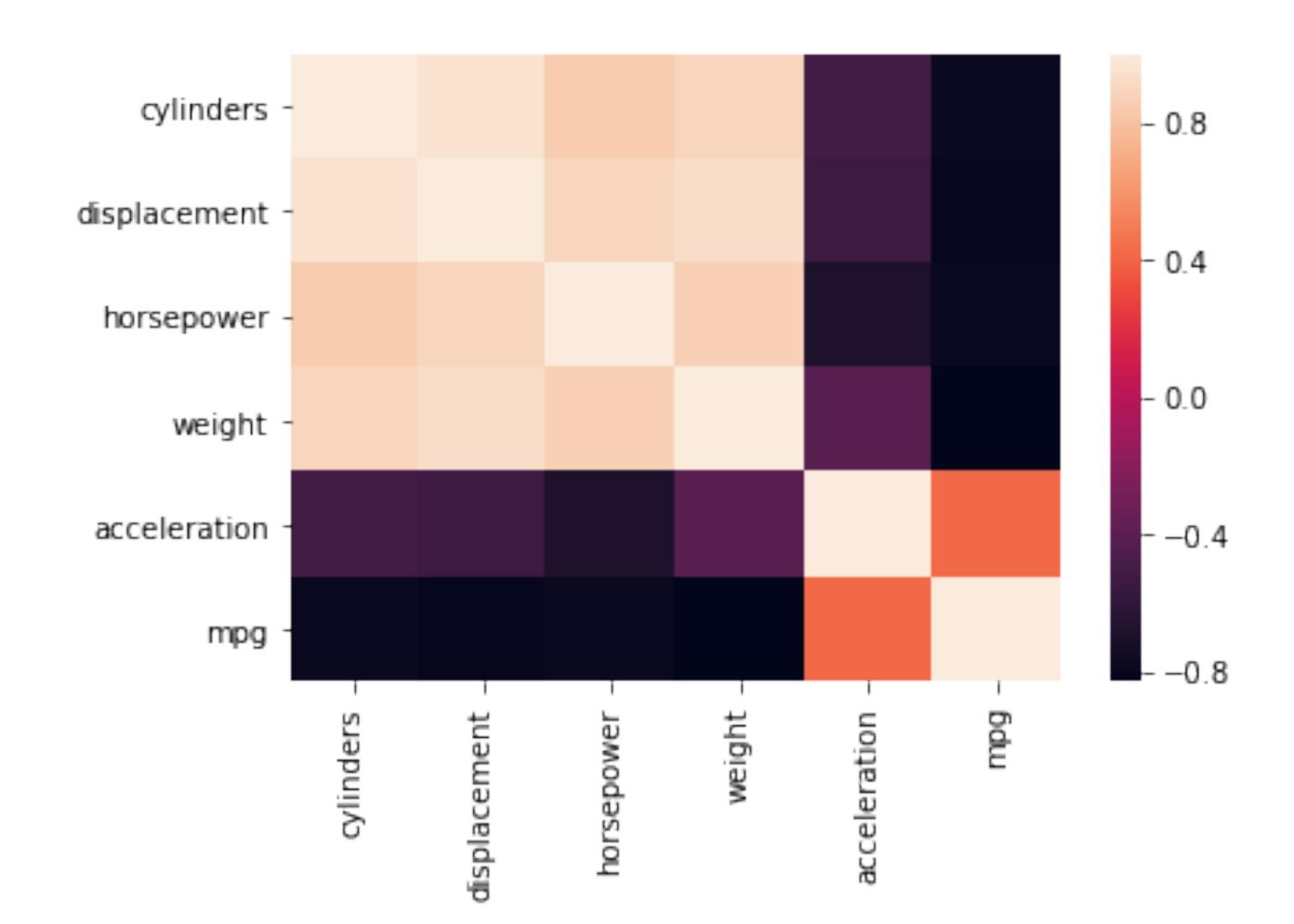


data.corr()

_		cylinders	displacement	horsepower	weight	acceleration	mpg
	cylinders	1.000000	0.950823	0.842983	0.897527	-0.504683	-0.777618
	displacement	0.950823	1.000000	0.897257	0.932994	-0.543800	-0.805127
	horsepower	0.842983	0.897257	1.000000	0.864538	-0.689196	-0.778427
	weight	0.897527	0.932994	0.864538	1.000000	-0.416839	-0.832244
	acceleration	-0.504683	-0.543800	-0.689196	-0.416839	1.000000	0.423329
	mpg	-0.777618	-0.805127	-0.778427	-0.832244	0.423329	1.000000



sns.heatmap(auto_correlations)





$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$$

```
target = intercept + (coefficient * feature)
```

Look Familiar?



The Augmented Matrix

Point Slope Form: y = mx + b

$$y = 800 + 20x$$
 $y = 10 + 100x$

General Form:

$$Ax + By = c$$

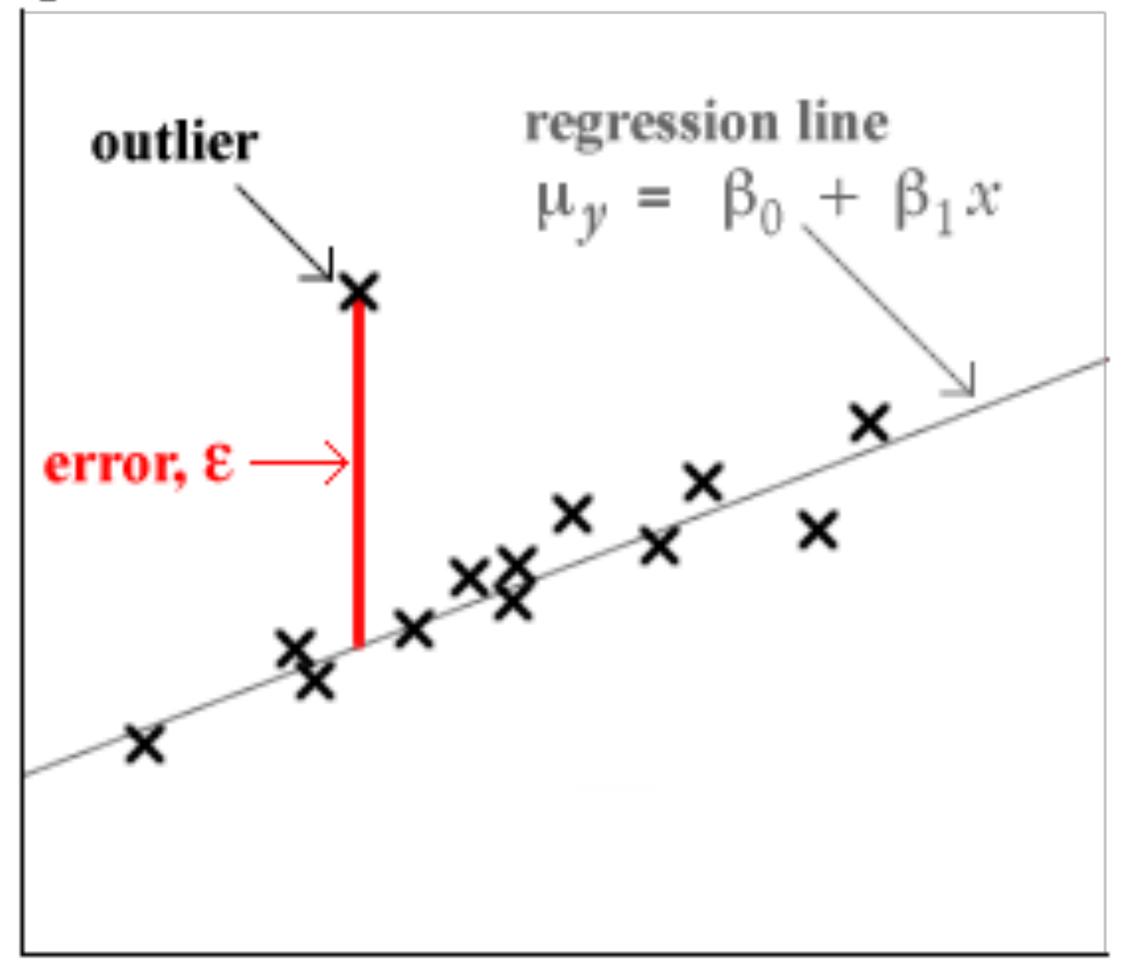
$$20x - 1y = 800$$
 $100x - 1y = 10$

Slide from linear algebra section



Simple Linear Regression

Response, Y



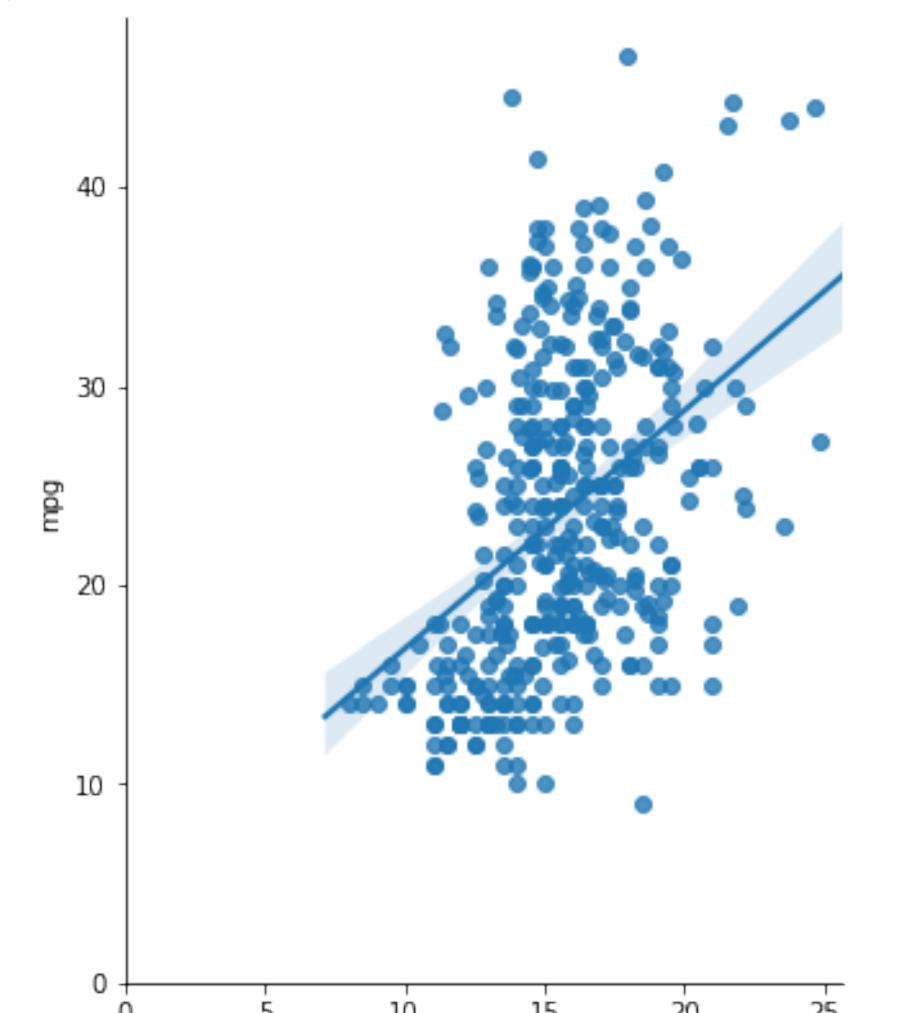


Simple Linear Regression with one feature

import LinearRegression from sklearn from sklearn.linear model import LinearRegression # create X and y feature cols = ['acceleration'] **Output:** X = data[feature cols] y intercept: 4.83324980484 The single coefficient: [1.19762419] y = data.mpg In other words, y=1.198x + 4.833# instantiate and fit acc linreg = LinearRegression() acc linreg.fit(X, y) # print the coefficients print("The y intercept:", acc linreg.intercept) print("The single coefficient:", acc linreg.coef)



```
sns.pairplot(data,x_vars=['acceleration'],y_vars='mpg',size=6,
aspect=0.8,kind='reg')
```





$$y = 4.833 + 1.197 * x$$

So, if a new car model has an acceleration of 30, what value would we predict for the mpg?



```
acc_linreg.predict(30)
```

```
Output:
array([ 40.76197544])
```



print(acc linreg2.coef)

Feature Scaling

```
data['acceleration centimeters'] = data['acceleration'] *
# create X and y
feature cols = ['acceleration centimeters']
X 2 = data[feature cols]
                                         Output:
y = data.mpg
                                         y intercept: 4.83324980484
                                         The single coefficient: [ 1.19762419]
# instantiate and fit
                                         In other words, y=1.198x + 4.833
acc linreg2 = LinearRegression()
acc linreg2.fit(X, y)
                                         Same as before!
# print the coefficients
print(acc linreg2.intercept )
```



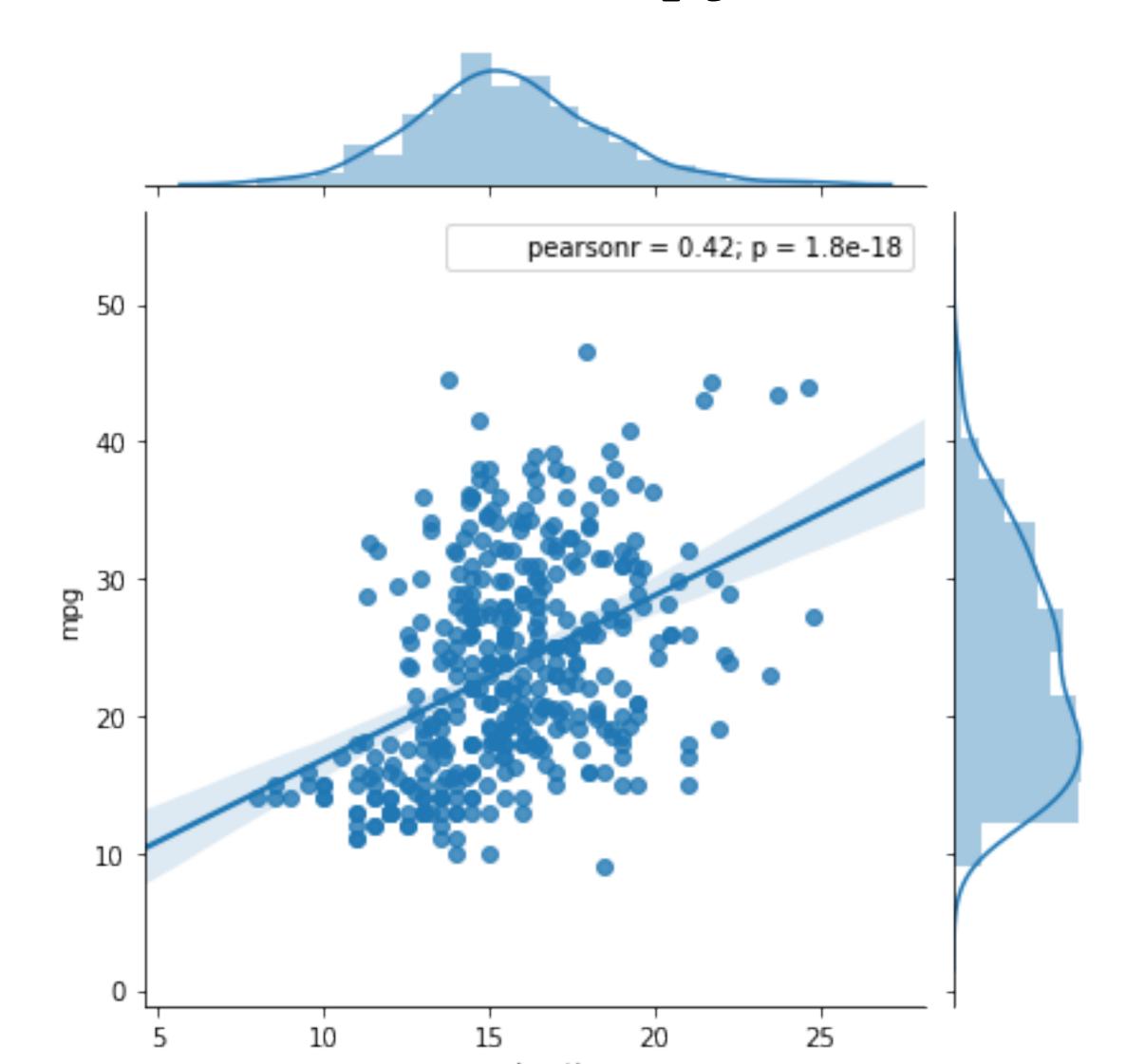
Feature Scaling

The scale of the features is irrelevant for linear regression models, since it will only affect the scale of the coefficients, and we simply change our interpretation of the coefficients

METI

METIS Model Evaluation

sns.jointplot('acceleration', 'mpg',data, kind="reg")



метіз Model Evaluation - r2 score

Residual Sum of Squares: the sum of the squared differences between the predicted values for a target column and the true values

Total Sum of Squares: It is defined as being the sum, over all observations, of the squared differences of each observation from the overall mean.

R2: 1 minus the total sum of all squares divided by the residual sum of squares

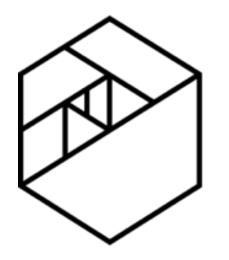
$$RSS = (y_1 - \hat{y_1})^2 + (y_2 - \hat{y_2})^2 + \ldots + (y_n - \hat{y_n})^2$$

We can shorten this to:

$$RSS = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y_i})^2$$

$$\mathrm{TSS} = \sum_{i=1}^n \left(y_i - \bar{y}\right)^2$$

$$R^2 \equiv 1 - rac{ ext{TSS}}{RSS}.$$



METIS Model Evaluation - r2 score

```
y_pred = acc_linreg.predict(X)
metrics.r2_score(y, y_pred)
```

>> 0.1792070501562546

метіз Multiple Linear Regression

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_n x_n$$

So, what would our equation look like in this case?

(hint: replace the 'x' values with our features)

 $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times acceleration + \beta_2 \times displacement + \beta_3 \times horsepower$

print(coeffs)

метіз Multiple Linear Regression

```
# create X and y except now with more columns in X
mult feature cols = ['acceleration', 'displacement', 'horsepower']
X mult = data[mult feature cols]
y mult = data.mpg
# instantiate and fit like last time
                                          Output:
                                          y intercept: 46.2547074969
multiple linreg = LinearRegression()
                                          coefficients:
multiple linreg.fit(X mult, y mult)
                                          [-0.41222985 -0.03665995 -0.08878252]
                                           In other words,
# find coefficients and intercept
                                           y=-0.412x1 - 0.0367x2 - 0.0888x3 + 46.3
coeffs = multiple linreg.coef
intercept = multiple linreg.intercept
# print the coefficients like last time
print(intercept)
```

метіз Multiple Linear Regression

```
y_mult_pred = multiple_linreg.predict(X_mult)
score = metrics.r2_score(y_mult, y_mult_pred)
```



Exercise

Create the multiple regression when you use every variable except for mpg to predict mpg.

What is this new r^2 value?

Mean Absolute Error (MAE) is the mean of the absolute value of the errors/residuals:

$$\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}|y_i-y_i^2|$$

$$MAE = \frac{|(actual_1 - predicted_1)| + |(actual_2 - predicted_2)| + \dots + |(actual_n - predicted_n)|}{n}$$

metrics.mean_absolute_error(y_true, y_pred)

Mean Squared Error (MSE) is the mean of the squared errors:

$$\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(y_i-y_i^2)^2$$

$$MSE = \frac{(actual_1 - predicted_1)^2 + (actual_2 - predicted_2)^2 + \dots + (actual_n - predicted_n)^2}{n}$$

metrics.mean_squared_error(y_true,y_pred)

Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE) is the square root of the mean of the squared errors:

$$\sqrt{\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(y_i-y_i^2)^2}$$

$$RMSE = \sqrt{MSE}$$

np.sqrt(metrics.mean_squared_error(y_true,y_pred))



Lets compare these metrics in terms of their usefulness/interpretability:

- MAE is the easiest to understand, because it's the average error.
- **MSE** is more popular than MAE, because MSE "punishes" larger errors, which tends to be useful in the real world.
- **RMSE** is even more popular than MSE, because RMSE is interpretable in the "y" units.

All of these are what are called **loss functions**, because we want to minimize the **loss** (from getting stuff wrong).



Exercise

- Calculate the MAE/MSE/RMSE of the simple linear regression model
- Calculate the MAE/MSE/RMSE of the 3 feature multiple regression model
- Calculate the MAE/MSE/RMSE of the model using all of the features
- What do you notice about all of these metrics as you keep adding features?



Question

With what we've done so far, we're in danger of overfitting our model. Does anyone know why?

Train/Test Split

```
X_train, X_test, y_train, y_test = train_test_split(X, y,
test size=0.3, random state=1)
```

METIS

Train/Test Split

```
#train on training set
mult linreg2 = LinearRegression()
mult linreg2.fit(X mult train, y mult train)
#generate predictions on training set and evaluate
y mult pred train = mult linreg2.predict(X mult train)
print("Training set
RMSE: ", np.sqrt(metrics.mean squared error(y mult train,
y mult pred train)))
#generate predictions on test set and evaluate
y mult pred test = mult linreg2.predict(X mult test)
print("Test set
RMSE: ", np.sqrt(metrics.mean squared error(y mult test,
y mult pred test)))
```



Train/Test Split

Output:

Training set RMSE: 4.41382089427

Test set RMSE: 4.60433157723

Notice that the test set error is greater than the training set error.

This should always be the case (why?).



Exercise

- Get MAE/MSE/RMSE training and test set predictions on the full linear regression model (using all features) with a test set of 30% of the data
- Get MAE/MSE/RMSE training and test set predictions on the full linear regression model (using all features) with a test set of 20% of the data
- Get MAE/MSE/RMSE training and test set predictions on the full linear regression model (using all features) with a test set of 10% of the data
- Anything you notice about the test set error metrics?

- These kinds of models are very simple to explain
- They are highly interpretable
- Model training and prediction is very fast
- Features do not need to be scaled (we will talk about feature scaling later)
- They can perform well with a small number of observations

- It assumes a linear relationship between the features and the outcome. This isn't always (almost never) the case.
- Performance is (generally) not competitive with the best supervised learning methods
- When you have lots of features, this approach can become sensitive to useless features
- This approach can't automatically learn feature interactions (although you can code them into a linear regression, will show you how to do that soon!)



Logistic Regression (Classification)

from sklearn.linear_model import LogisticRegression

from sklearn.linear_model import LinearRegression,
LogisticRegression



The Dataset

This dataset contains 6 biomechanical features used to classify orthopaedic patients into 2 classes - normal and abnormal:

pelvic incidence

What are the features?

- pelvic tilt
- lumbar lordosis angle
- sacral slope
- pelvic radius
- grade of spondylolisthesis

What is the target?



Convert Column to Int

Right now the "outcome" column has values of either "AB" for abnormal or "NO" for normal. In order to use linear regression, we'll want to turn these into boolean values.

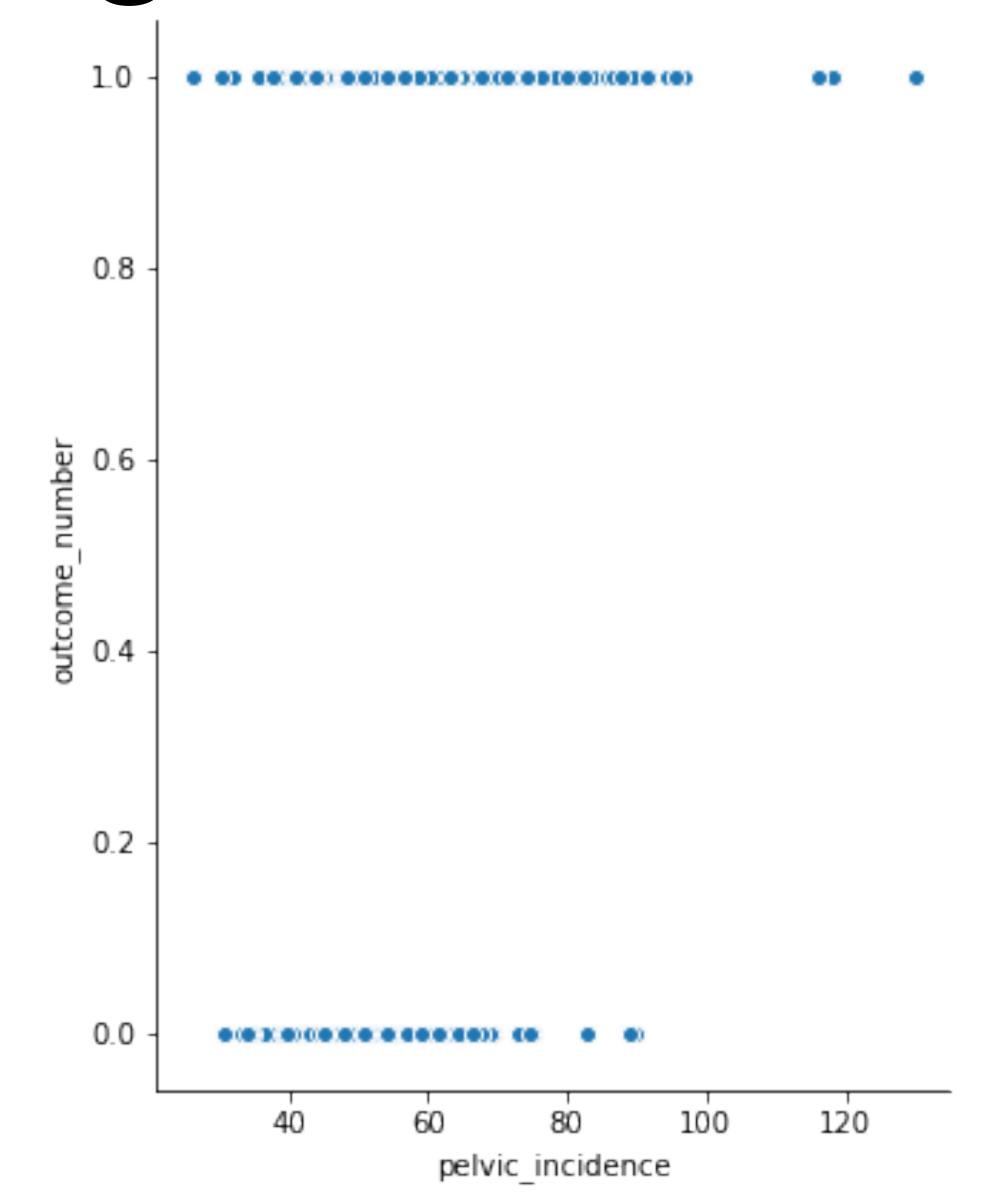
```
vertebral_data["outcome_number"] =
  (vertebral_data.outcome=='AB').astype(int)
```

Can anyone explain to us what is happening here?



Let's start with one feature

```
sns.pairplot(vertebral_data,
x_vars=["pelvic_incidence"],
y_vars="outcome_number",
size=6, aspect=0.8)
```

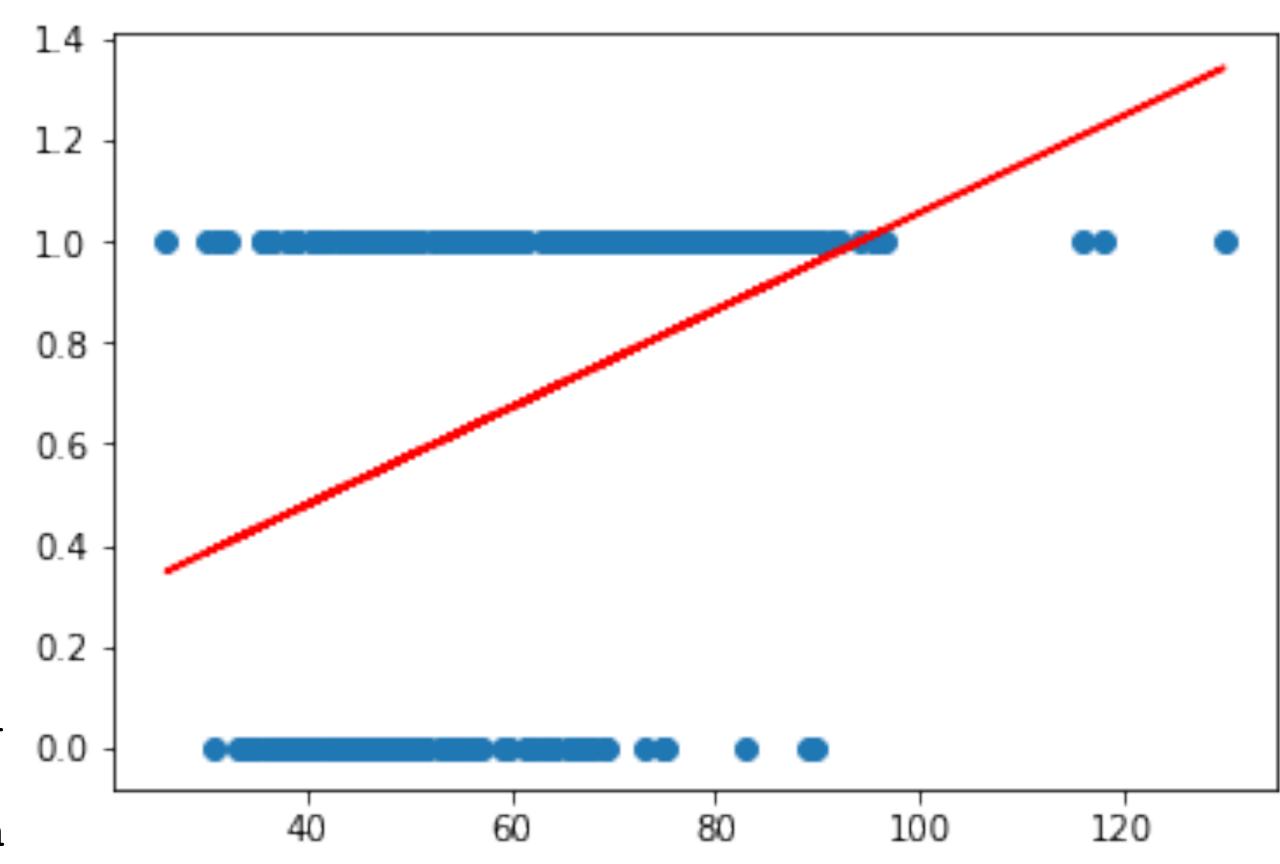




Linear Regression

```
store the predictions
feature cols = ['pelvic incidence']
X = vertebral data[feature cols]
y = vertebral data.outcome number
linreg = LinearRegression()
linreg.fit(X, y)
outcome pred = linreg.predict(X)
# scatter plot that includes the
regression line
plt.scatter(vertebral_data.pelvic inci
dence, vertebral data.outcome number)
plt.plot(vertebral_data.pelvic_inciden
ce, outcome pred, color='red')
```

fit a linear regression model and



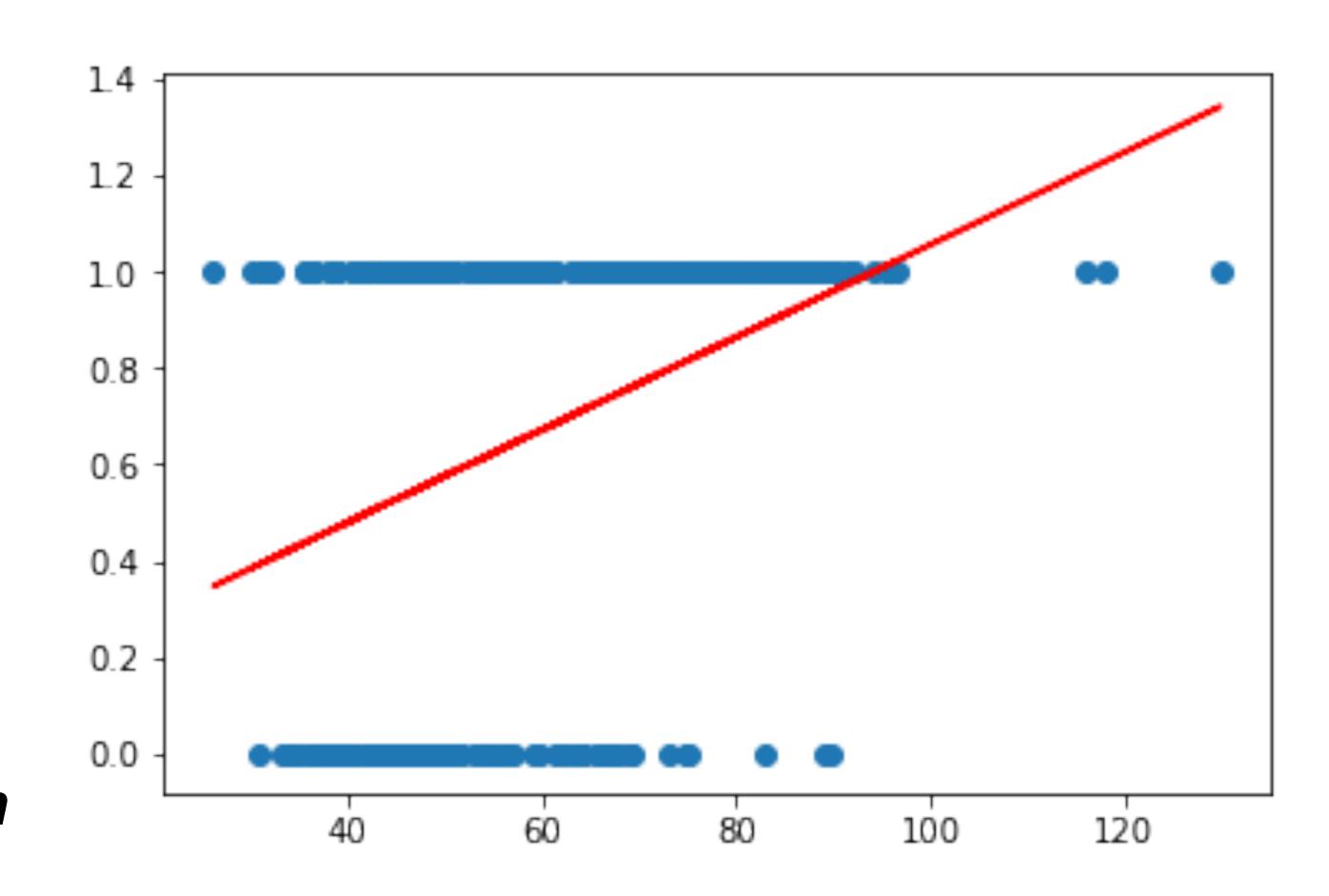


Linear Regression

If pelvic_incidence = 35, what class do we predict for our outcome?

If we predict 0 for the lower values of pelvic_incidence and 1 for the higher values, what's our cutoff value?

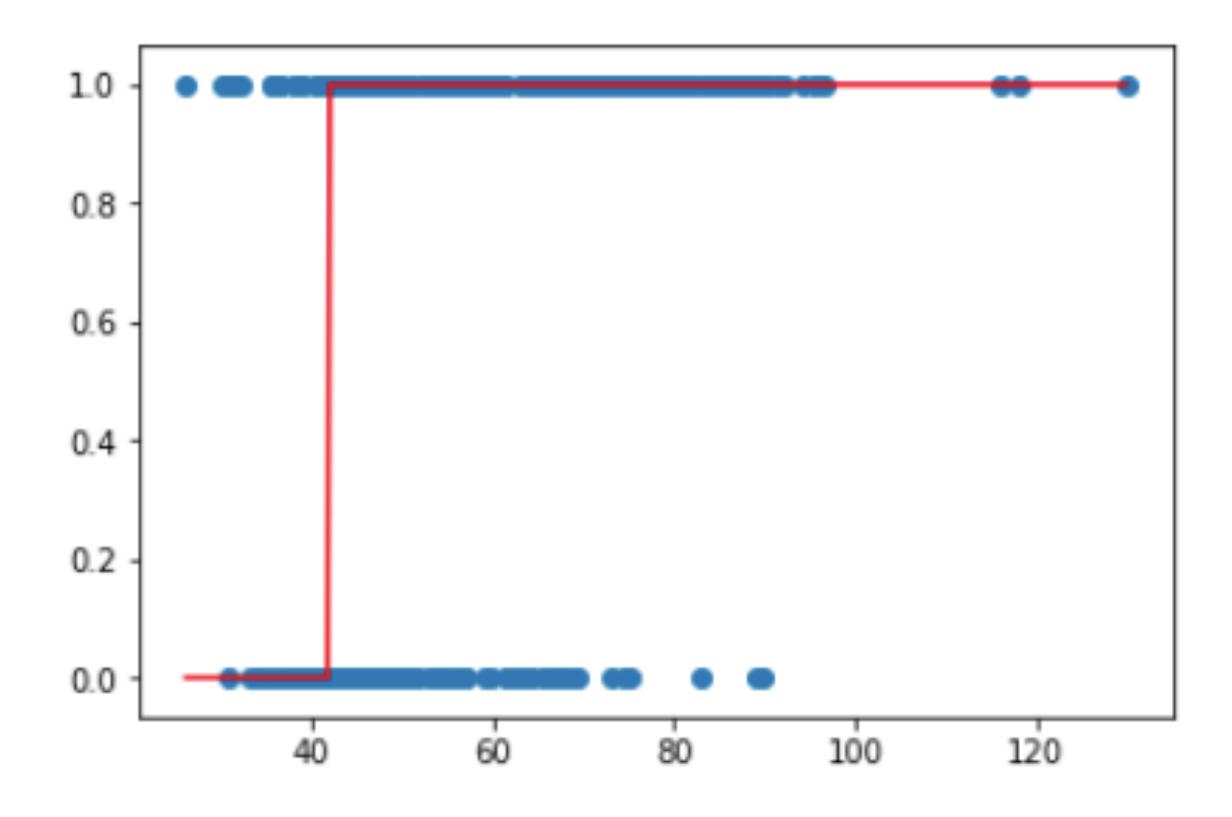
So, we could assign a rule saying: every observation with a prediction >= 0.05 gets assigned a class of 1.



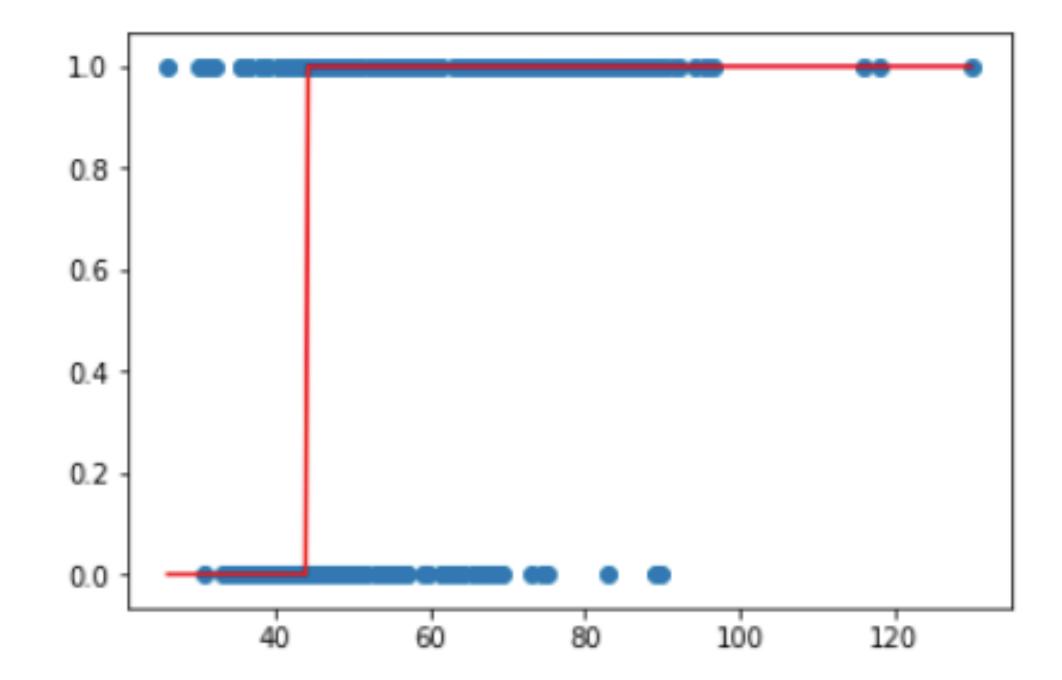
Linear Regression / Logistic Regression

```
outcome_pred_class = np.where(outcome_pred >= 0.5, 1, 0)
outcome_pred_class
```

Output:



```
# fit logistic regression model and make
predictions
logreg = LogisticRegression(C=1e9)
feature cols = ['pelvic incidence']
X = vertebral data[feature cols]
y = vertebral data.outcome number
logreg.fit(X, y)
outcome pred class log = logreg.predict(X)
# plot the class predictions
plt.scatter(vertebral data.pelvic incidence
, vertebral data.outcome number)
plt.plot(vertebral_data.pelvic_incidence,
outcome pred class log, color='red')
```



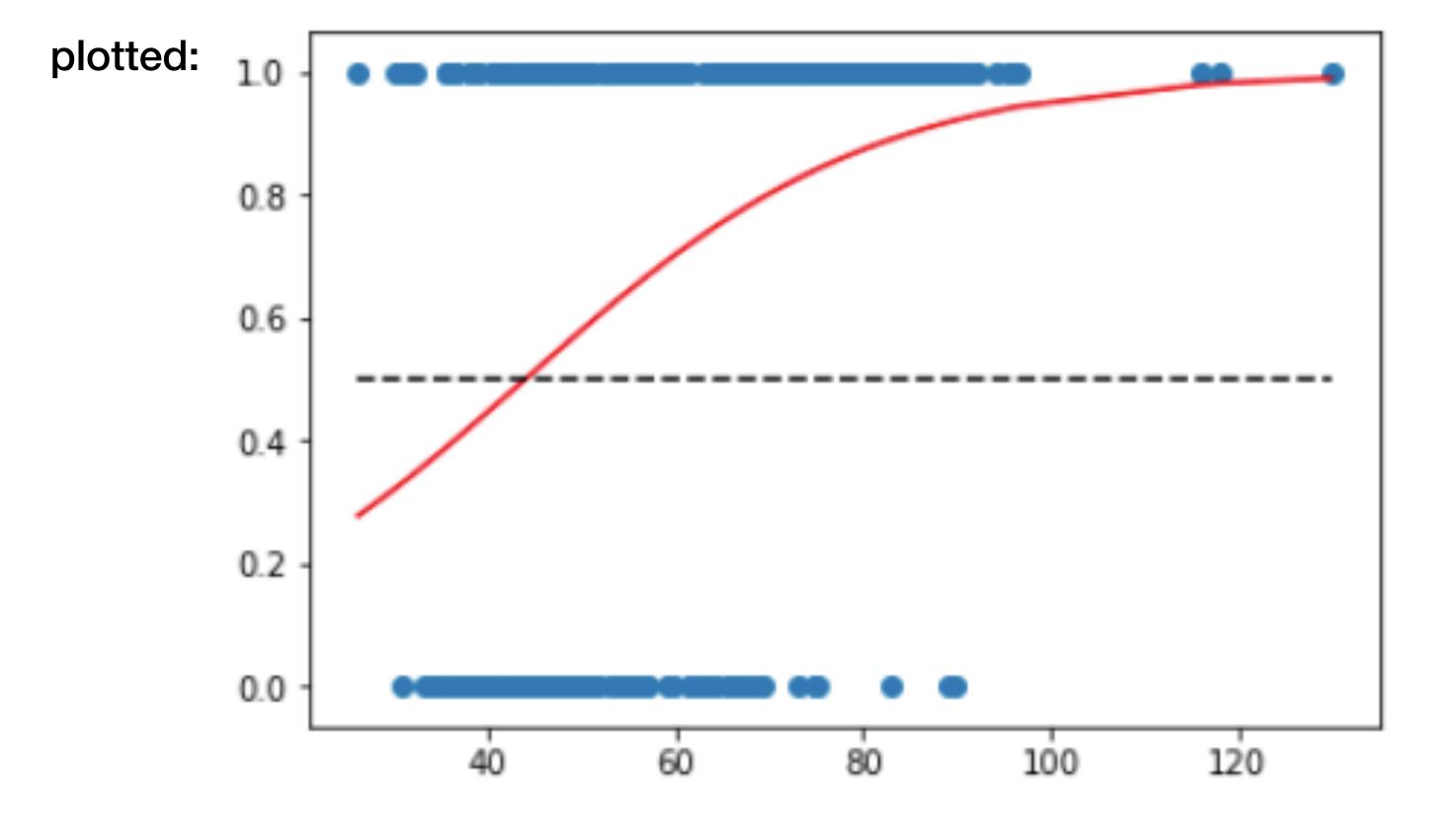


Look at notebook...

Logistic Regression

We can plot with predicted probabilities rather than class predictions to understand how confident we are in a given prediction.

outcome_probs = logreg.predict_proba(X)[:, 1]





Class Probability

Let's examine some example predictions in the notebook...



Review of Probability, Odds, e, and log



Class Probability

$$probability = \frac{one\ outcome}{all\ outcomes}$$

$$odds = \frac{one \ outcome}{all \ other \ outcomes}$$

What is the probability and odds for the following?:

- Drawing a king out of a deck of cards? (reminder: There are 52 cards in a deck)
 - Probability: 4/52 or 1/13
 - odds: 4/48 or 1/12
- Drawing a red card out of a deck?
 - Probability: 26/52 or 1/2
 - odds: 26/26 or 1/1

$$odds = \frac{probability}{1 - probability}$$

$$probability = \frac{odds}{1 + odds}$$



What is e?

What is e?

The base rate of growth shared by all continually growing processes

np.exp(1)

Output:

2.7182818284590451



What is natural log?

What is natural log?

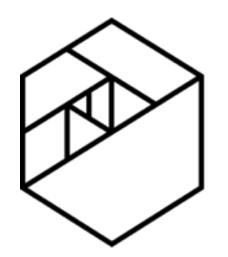
It returns the time needed to reach a certain level of growth.

It is also the inverse of the exponential function.

```
np.log(np.exp(1)) (time needed to grow 1 unit to 2.718 units)
```

Output:

1.0



METIS What is Logistic Regression?

Linear Regression: continuous response modeled as a linear combination of features

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \dots \beta_n x$$

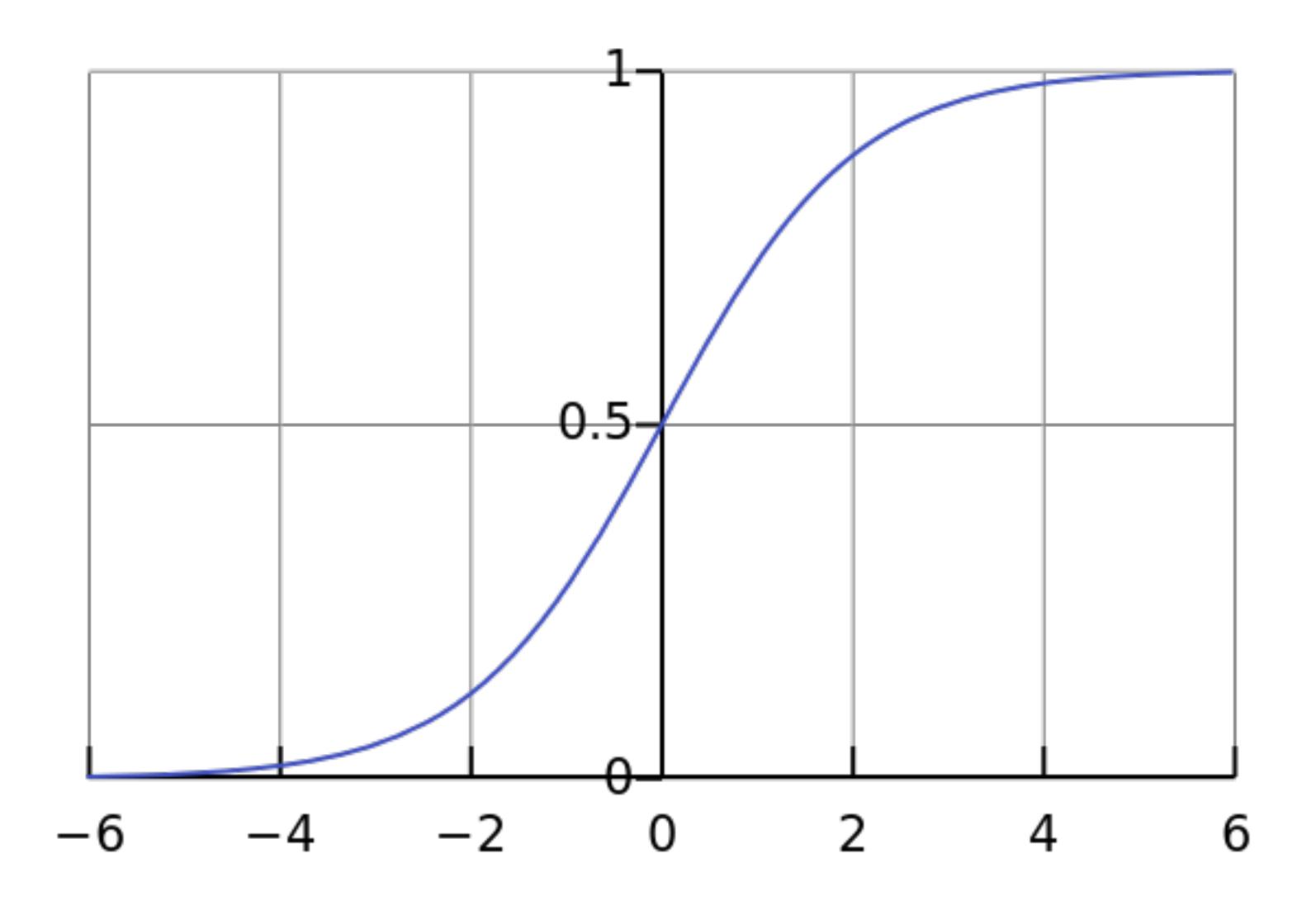
Logistic regression: log-odds of a categorical response being "true" (or the number 1) is modeled as a linear combination of the features. This is called the Logit Function.

$$\log\left(\frac{p}{1-p}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \dots + \beta_n x$$

This can be rearranged into the **Logistic Function**:

$$p = \frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \dots + \beta_n x}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \dots + \beta_n x}}$$





- Logistic regression outputs the probabilities of a specific class
- Those probabilities can be converted into class predictions

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } p \ge 0.5 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- Takes an 's' shape, which allows it to be differentiable
- Output between 0 and 1



Interpretation

walk through in notebook...

Linear Regression: continuous response modeled as a linear combination of features

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \dots \beta_n x$$

 Logistic regression: log-odds of a categorical response being "true" (or the number 1) is modeled as a linear combination of the features. This is called the Logit Function.

$$\log\left(\frac{p}{1-p}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \dots \beta_n x$$

This can be rearranged into the **Logistic Function**:

$$p = \frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \dots + \beta_n x}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \dots + \beta_n x}}$$



Model Performance

$$\label{eq:accuracy} Accuracy = \frac{\# \text{ of Correctly Predicted}}{\# \text{ of Observations}}$$

Model Performance

```
y = vertebral_data.outcome_number
y_pred = outcome_pred_class
metrics.accuracy_score(y,y_pred)
```

Model accuracy: 0.625806451613



Exercise

- Generate the logistic regression model incorporating all of the features we have available to predict outcome_number and get the accuracy when training and testing on all data. How much better is this than the case where we trained our model using only pelvic incidence?
- Use train/test split with 70% training, 30% testing and get the test error of the model trained on all features using train_test_split like we did during linear regression
- Inspect all of the model coefficients of the model trained on all features. Which feature is the most important for the prediction? Which is the least important?
- What are some problems you can see in using the data like we have been? (Look at the fraction of positive and negative outcomes in the dataset)



Conclusion

Logistic regression has some really awesome advantages:

- It is a highly interpretable method (if you remember what the conversions from log-odds to probability are)
 - Model training and prediction are fast
 - No tuning is required (excluding regularization, which we will talk about later)
 - No need to scale features
- Outputs well-calibrated predicted probabilities (the probabilities behave like probabilities



Conclusion

However, logistic regression also has some disadvantages:

- It presumes a linear relationship between the features and the log-odds of the response
- Compared to other, more fancypants modeling approaches, performance is (generally) not competitive with the best supervised learning methods
 - Like linear regression for regression, it is sensitive to irrelevant features
- Unless you explicitly code them (we will see how to do that later), logistic regression can't automatically learn feature interactions