

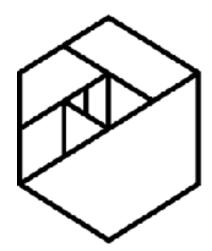
# Day 8: Feature Engineering & Cross Validation

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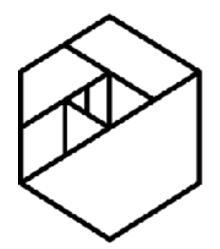
#### Goals for Today

- Articulate why feature scaling is important, and be able to do it using sklearn
- Use a variety of transformation methods to reduce non-normality in features
- Handle categorical features when building a machine learning model
- Handle null/missing values when building a machine learning model
- Use cross validation to accurately estimate model performance
- Articulate the strengths and weaknesses of basic cross validation
- Use cross validation to choose optimal model parameters by searching across many models simultaneously



# METIS Feature Engineering

- Transforming the values at our disposal into a representation that a given machine learning algorithm can use
- Creating new, derived features from the available features (using domain expertise) and use them when training a model
- Dealing with missing values, as most ML algorithms can't handle unknown values. They must be filled in.



# METIS Feature Engineering

- **Feature scaling**: making it so that all columns (features) range over the same values is very helpful for many (but not all) machine learning models. In some cases, scaling along samples is useful, as well.
- Turning categorical values into numerical values: machine learning algorithms only understand numbers, not categories.
- Handling missing values: Models break when you give them NaNs, what are some strategies to replace NaNs with "good" (i.e. useful) numbers?

#### METIS Build the Classifier

```
from sklearn.neighbors import KNeighborsClassifier
knn = KNeighborsClassifier(n_neighbors=1)
knn.fit(X, y)
```



#### METIS Build the Classifier

```
Training data:

id length mass rings

0 0 0.9 0.1 40

1 1 0.3 0.2 50

2 2 0.6 0.8 60
```

```
Single test sample:
length mass rings
0 0.59 0.79 54.9
```

Which class is it?

#### METIS Build the Classifier

```
print("Prediction: ",knn.predict(test))
>> Prediction: [1]
```



#### What happened?



#### Scale all the features



When you're creating a scaling object, you should first "fit" it to the training data, then transform both the training and testing data using the "fit" scaler.

If you try to fit the training and testing data separately, you will get inaccurate results.

## METIS Standard Scaling

$$zscore(x_i) = \frac{x_i - \mu}{\sigma}$$

```
scaled_feature = (feature - column_mean) / standard_deviation
```



## METIS Standard Scaling

$$zscore(x_i) = \frac{x_i - \mu}{\sigma}$$

from sklearn.preprocessing import StandardScaler

```
scaler = StandardScaler()
scaler.fit(X)
X_scaled = scaler.transform(X)
or
X scaled = scaler.fit transform(X)
```

original values:

#### Standard Scaling

```
scaled values:
 [[ 0.9 0.1 40.]
                              [[1.2247 -0.8627 -1.2247]
 [ 0.3 0.2 50.]
                              [-1.2247 -0.5392 0.
 [ 0.6 0.8 60.]]
                              [ 0. 1.4018 1.2247]]
Mean of each column:
                             Means of scaled data, per column:
 [ 0.6 0.3667 50.]
                              [0. -0. 0.]
SD of each column:
                             SD's of scaled data, per column:
 [ 0.2449  0.3091  8.165 ]
                              [ 1. 1. 1.]
```



# METIS Min/Max Scaling

$$X_{norm} = \frac{X - X_{min}}{X_{max} - X_{min}}$$

```
normed_feature = (feature - col_min) / (col_max - col_min)
```

#### Min/Max Scaling

```
from sklearn.preprocessing import MinMaxScaler
minmax= MinMaxScaler()

minmax.fit(X)
X_scaled_minmax = minmax.transform(X)

or

X scaled minmax = minmax.fit transform(X)
```

#### MinMax Scaling

```
original values:
 [[ 0.9 0.1 40.]
                           scaled values:
 [ 0.3 0.2 50.]
                           [[ 1. 0. ]
 [ 0.6 0.8 60.]]
                           [ 0. 0.1429 0.5 ]
                           [ 0.5 1. 1.
Mean of each column:
                          Means of scaled data, per column:
 [ 0.6 0.3667 50.]
                           [ 0.5 0.381 0.5 ]
SD of each column:
                           SD's of scaled data, per column:
 [ 0.2449 0.3091 8.165 ]
                           [ 0.4082 0.4416
                                          0.4082]
```



#### The Dataset

- Label (Target)
- Alcohol
- Malic acid
- Ash
- Alcalinity of ash
- Magnesium
- Total phenols
- Flavonoids
- Nonflavanoid phenols
- Proanthocyanins
- Color intensity
- Hue
- OD280/OD315 of diluted wines
- Proline



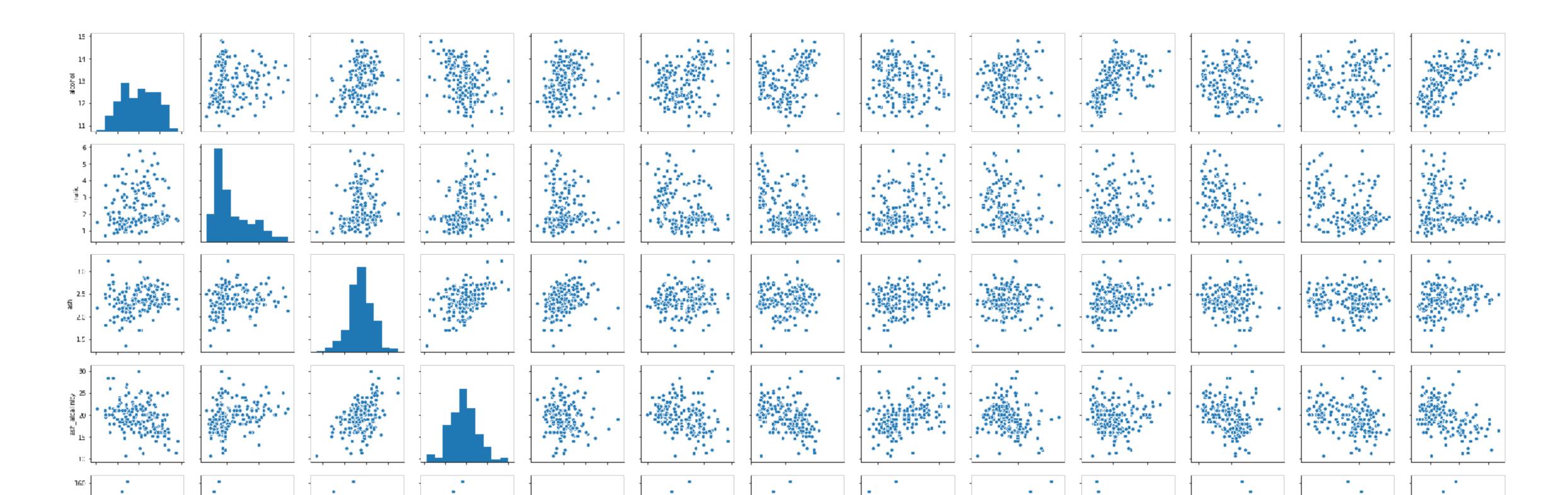


#### Exercise

- Using the wine dataset, build a knn model with 3 nearest neighbors to predict the wine's label from the remaining columns. Don't scale the data, and check the test error when using 80/20 train/test split. (use KNeighborsClassifier(n\_neighbors=3))
- Build the same model, with the same train/test split, but scale the data using StandardScaler and MinMaxScaler. What is the test error for each of these scaled datasets (for train\_test\_split use random\_state=1234 for reproducibility)?



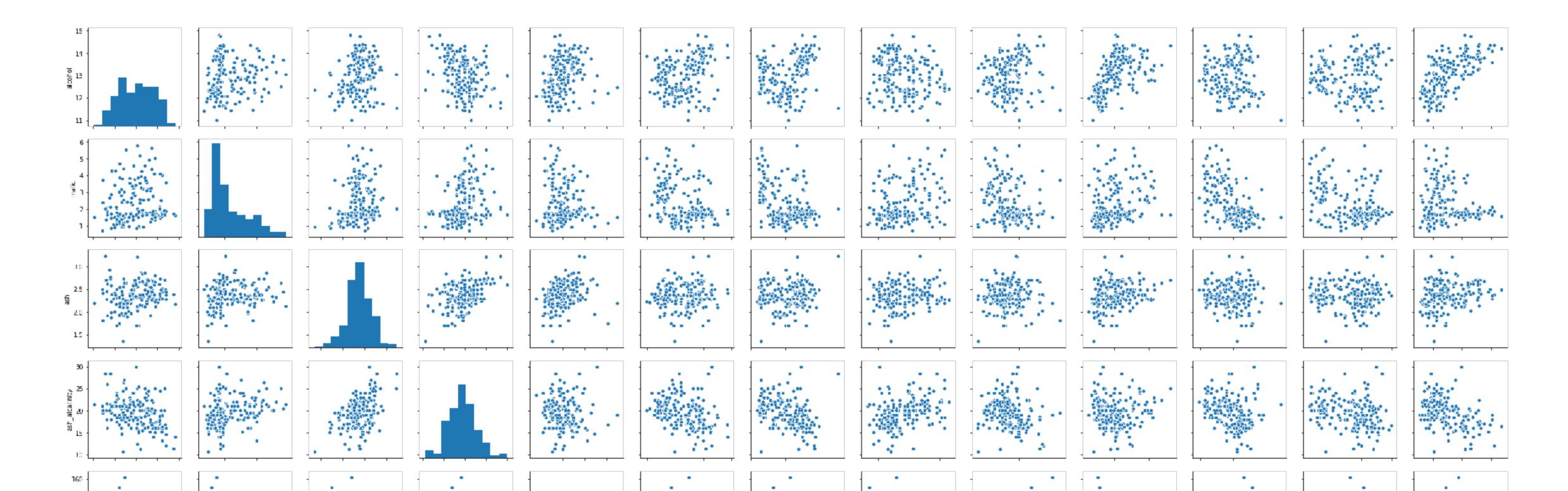
Many machine learning methods rely on the assumption that feature values are distributed normally and have a symmetrical shape. However, this is not usually (almost never) the case.





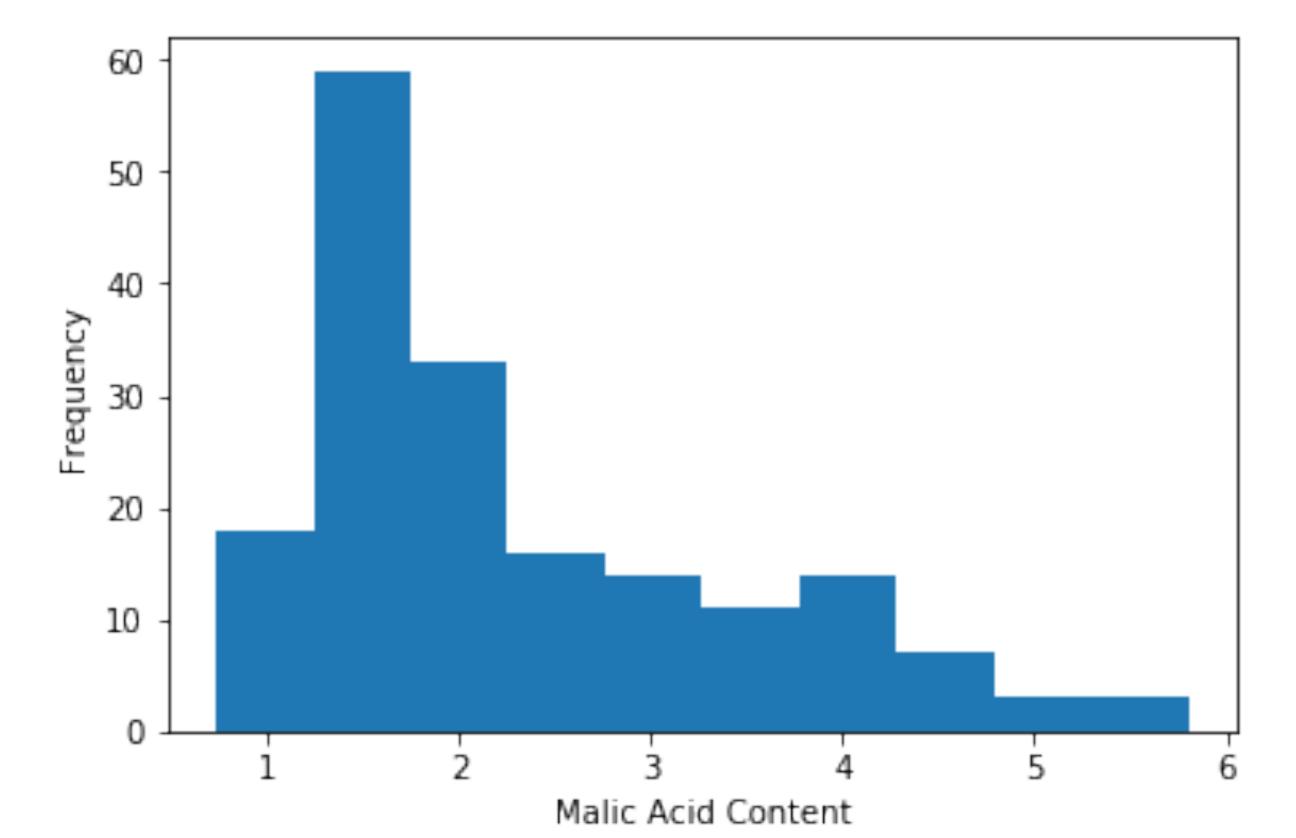
$$Skew = \frac{m^3}{\sigma^3}$$
 where  $m^3 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu_x)^3}{n}$ 

data['column'].skew()





Many machine learning methods rely on the assumption that feature values are distributed normally and have a symmetrical shape. However, this is not usually (almost never) the case.

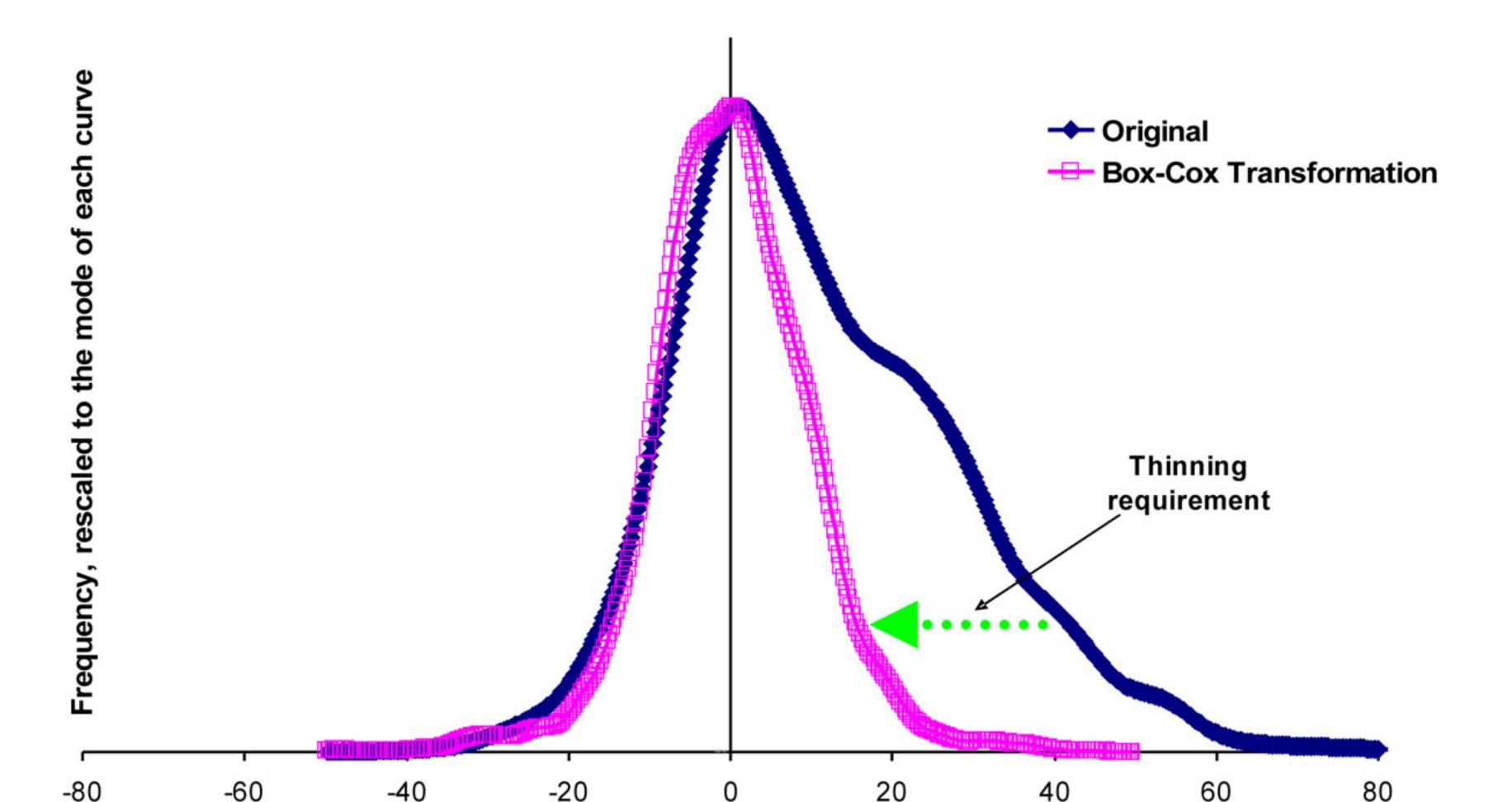




- 1. Square root transformation: take the square root of each value
- 2. Logarithmic transformation: take the natural logarithm of each value
- 3. **Box-Cox transformation:** Use the Box-Cox calculation to "figure out" the optimal power (exponent) to transform your data



The Box-Cox transformation, also known as the Power Transformation, is a very common way to "find" the best way to transform your data automatically.



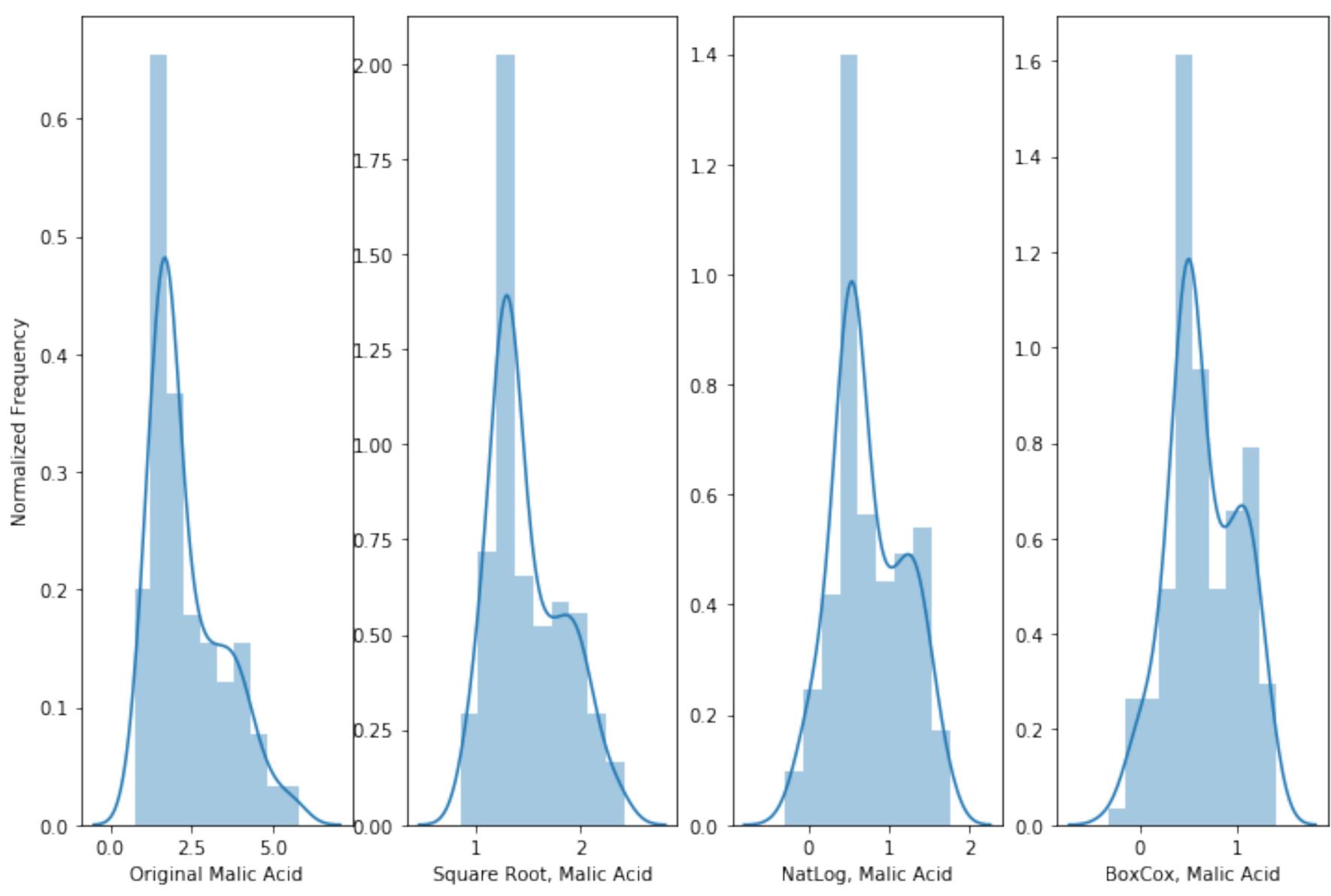


The Box-Cox transformation, also known as the Power Transformation, is a very common way to "find" the best way to transform your data automatically.

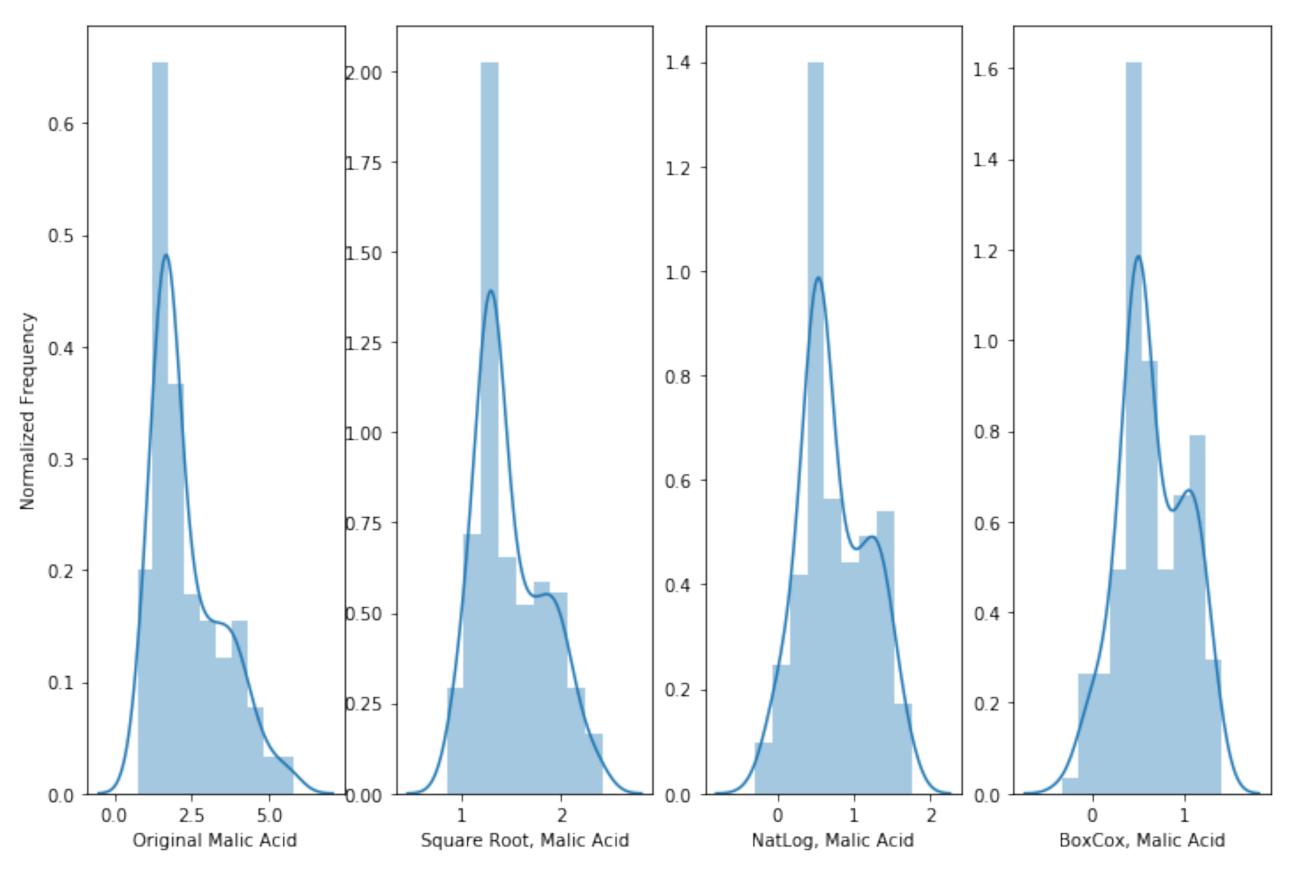
```
sqrt_malic = np.sqrt(wine_data.malic)
log_malic = np.log(wine_data.malic)
boxcox_malic,power_val = stats.boxcox(wine_data.malic)
```

**Note:** All of these transformations require that your data is positive to begin with. If you have negative values in your data, you must scale it to be all positive values first (using MinMax Scaler, for example).









```
[('original data skew', 1.0308694978039965),
  ('square_root skew', 0.6685620899904606),
  ('natural log skew', 0.2722937529081863),
  ('box-cox skew', 0.02682680832027062)]
```



#### Exercise

- Look at the individual variable histograms in the wine dataset using sns.distplot and compute each feature's original skew (not the targets) using stats.skew (a value very far from 0, to either side, is very bad). Which variables are candidates for one of these transformations?
- Transform those columns you think warrant a transformation.
- Compare the test-set error of a Logistic Regression Classifier (LogisticRegression) before/after applying your transformations on the dataset (use the random\_state=123 in train\_test\_split to compare identical splits of the data across both transformations).

- Ordered categories: transform them to sensible numeric values (example: small=1, medium=2, large=3)
- Unordered categories: use dummy encoding



#### The Dataset

Sex: M, F, and I (infant)

Length: Longest shell measurement

Diameter: Perpendicular to length

Height: Height with with meat in shell

Whole weight: Whole abalone weight

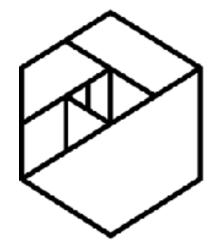
Shucked weight: Weight of meat only

Viscera weight: Gut weight (after bleeding)

Shell weight: Weight after being dried

Rings: This value +1.5 gives the abalone's age in years

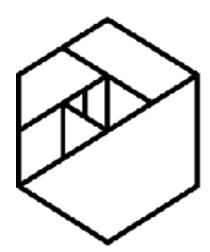




	sex	length	diam	height	whole	shucked	viscera	shell	age
0	М	0.455	0.365	0.095	0.5140	0.2245	0.1010	0.150	15
1	М	0.350	0.265	0.090	0.2255	0.0995	0.0485	0.070	7
2	F	0.530	0.420	0.135	0.6770	0.2565	0.1415	0.210	9
3	М	0.440	0.365	0.125	0.5160	0.2155	0.1140	0.155	10
4	I	0.330	0.255	0.080	0.2050	0.0895	0.0395	0.055	7

```
sex_dummies = pd.get_dummies(abalone_data.sex)
sex_dummies.head()
```

```
    F I M
    0 0 0 1
    1 0 0 1
    2 1 0 0
    3 0 0 1
    4 0 1 0
```



```
sex_dummies = pd.get_dummies(abalone_data.sex)
sex_dummies = sex_dummies[["F","I"]]
sex_dummies.head()
```

```
    F
    I
    O
    O
    O
    O
    O
    O
    O
    O
    O
    O
    O
    O
    O
    O
    O
    O
    O
    O
    O
```

Here is how we interpret the encoding:

- F is encoded as F=1 and I=0
- I is encoded as F=0 and I=1
- M is encoded as F=0 and I=0

```
abalone_data = pd.concat([abalone_data,sex_dummies],axis=1)
abalone_data.drop("sex",inplace=True,axis=1)
```

	length	diam	height	whole	shucked	viscera	shell	age	F	
0	0.455	0.365	0.095	0.5140	0.2245	0.1010	0.150	15	0	0
1	0.350	0.265	0.090	0.2255	0.0995	0.0485	0.070	7	0	0
2	0.530	0.420	0.135	0.6770	0.2565	0.1415	0.210	9	1	0
3	0.440	0.365	0.125	0.5160	0.2155	0.1140	0.155	10	0	0
4	0.330	0.255	0.080	0.2050	0.0895	0.0395	0.055	7	0	1



#### Missing Data

	age	bp	sg	al	su	rbc	рс	pcc	ba	bgr	•••	pcv	wc	rc	htn	dm	cad	appet	pe	ane	class
0	48	80	1.020	1	0	?	normal	notpresent	notpresent	121		44	7800	5.2	yes	yes	no	good	no	no	ckd
1	7	50	1.020	4	0	?	normal	notpresent	notpresent	?		38	6000	?	no	no	no	good	no	no	ckd
2	62	80	1.010	2	3	normal	normal	notpresent	notpresent	423		31	7500	?	no	yes	no	poor	no	yes	ckd
3	48	70	1.005	4	0	normal	abnormal	present	notpresent	117		32	6700	3.9	yes	no	no	poor	yes	yes	ckd
4	51	80	1.010	2	0	normal	normal	notpresent	notpresent	106		35	7300	4.6	no	no	no	good	no	no	ckd

#### Missing Data

```
kidney_data = pd.read_csv("<file>",
header=None,
na_values="?",
names=kidney columns)
```

	age	bp	sg	al	su	rbc	рс	pcc	ba	bgr	•••	pcv	wc	rc	htn	dm	cad	appet	pe	ane	class
0	48.0	80.0	1.020	1.0	0.0	NaN	normal	notpresent	notpresent	121.0		44.0	7800.0	5.2	yes	yes	no	good	no	no	ckd
1	7.0	50.0	1.020	4.0	0.0	NaN	normal	notpresent	notpresent	NaN		38.0	6000.0	NaN	no	no	no	good	no	no	ckd
2	62.0	80.0	1.010	2.0	3.0	normal	normal	notpresent	notpresent	423.0		31.0	7500.0	NaN	no	yes	no	poor	no	yes	ckd
3	48.0	70.0	1.005	4.0	0.0	normal	abnormal	present	notpresent	117.0		32.0	6700.0	3.9	yes	no	no	poor	yes	yes	ckd
4	51.0	80.0	1.010	2.0	0.0	normal	normal	notpresent	notpresent	106.0		35.0	7300.0	4.6	no	no	no	good	no	no	ckd



#### Missing Data

```
kidney_data.isnull().sum()
```

```
age 9
bp 12
sg 47
al 46
su 49
rbc 152
pc 65
```



Option 1: Drop null rows

kidney\_data\_nonnull = kidney\_data.dropna()

>>Fraction of data kept: 0.395





#### Option 2: Impute missing values:

We can **impute** (fill in) the data on a per-column basis. The imputation strategy for categorical columns is usually one of the following:

- 1. Fill in with the most common categorical value
- 2. Fill in with a special "missing" category

```
def get most frequent value(my column):
    return my column.value counts().index[0]
most frequent values per column =
kidney data[kidney columns[14:-1]].apply(get most frequen
t value,axis=0)
categorical most frequent =
kidney data[kidney columns[14:-1]].fillna(most frequent_v
alues per column, axis=0)
```



	rbc	рс	pcc	ba	htn	dm	cad	appet	pe	ane
0	normal	normal	notpresent	notpresent	yes	yes	no	good	no	no
1	normal	normal	notpresent	notpresent	no	no	no	good	no	no
2	normal	normal	notpresent	notpresent	no	yes	no	poor	no	yes
3	normal	abnormal	present	notpresent	yes	no	no	poor	yes	yes
4	normal	normal	notpresent	notpresent	no	no	no	good	no	no

```
special_missing_category =
kidney_data[kidney_columns[14:-1]].fillna("missing")
```

	rbc	рс	pcc	ba	htn	dm	cad	appet	pe	ane
0	missing	normal	notpresent	notpresent	yes	yes	no	good	no	no
1	missing	normal	notpresent	notpresent	no	no	no	good	no	no
2	normal	normal	notpresent	notpresent	no	yes	no	poor	no	yes
3	normal	abnormal	present	notpresent	yes	no	no	poor	yes	yes
4	normal	normal	notpresent	notpresent	no	no	no	good	no	no



For numerical columns, there are 3 common strategies for filling in missing values:

- 1. Fill in using the mean
- 2. Fill in using the median (when many outliers are present)
- 3. Fill in with some default value (e.g. 0).

```
mean_per_column = kidney_data[kidney_columns[:14]].apply(lambda x: x.mean(),axis=0)
numeric_mean_filled = kidney_data[kidney_columns[:14]].fillna(mean_per_column,axis=0)
```

	age	bp	sg	al	su	bgr	bu	SC	sod	pot	hemo	pcv	wc	rc
0	48.0	80.0	1.020	1.0	0.0	121.000000	36.0	1.2	137.528754	4.627244	15.4	44.0	7800.0	5.200000
1	7.0	50.0	1.020	4.0	0.0	148.036517	18.0	8.0	137.528754	4.627244	11.3	38.0	6000.0	4.707435
2	62.0	80.0	1.010	2.0	3.0	423.000000	53.0	1.8	137.528754	4.627244	9.6	31.0	7500.0	4.707435
3	48.0	70.0	1.005	4.0	0.0	117.000000	56.0	3.8	111.000000	2.500000	11.2	32.0	6700.0	3.900000
4	51.0	80.0	1.010	2.0	0.0	106.000000	26.0	1.4	137.528754	4.627244	11.6	35.0	7300.0	4.600000

```
median_per_column = kidney_data[kidney_columns[:14]].apply(lambda x: x.median(),axis=0)
numeric_mean_filled = kidney_data[kidney_columns[:14]].fillna(median_per_column,axis=0)
```

	age	bp	sg	al	su	bgr	bu	SC	sod	pot	hemo	pcv	wc	rc
0	48.0	80.0	1.020	1.0	0.0	121.0	36.0	1.2	138.0	4.4	15.4	44.0	7800.0	5.2
1	7.0	50.0	1.020	4.0	0.0	121.0	18.0	0.8	138.0	4.4	11.3	38.0	6000.0	4.8
2	62.0	80.0	1.010	2.0	3.0	423.0	53.0	1.8	138.0	4.4	9.6	31.0	7500.0	4.8
3	48.0	70.0	1.005	4.0	0.0	117.0	56.0	3.8	111.0	2.5	11.2	32.0	6700.0	3.9
4	51.0	80.0	1.010	2.0	0.0	106.0	26.0	1.4	138.0	4.4	11.6	35.0	7300.0	4.6

default\_value\_per\_column = kidney\_data[kidney\_columns[:14]].fillna(0.0)

	age	bp	sg	al	su	bgr	bu	SC	sod	pot	hemo	pcv	wc	rc
0	48.0	80.0	1.020	1.0	0.0	121.0	36.0	1.2	0.0	0.0	15.4	44.0	7800.0	5.2
1	7.0	50.0	1.020	4.0	0.0	0.0	18.0	0.8	0.0	0.0	11.3	38.0	6000.0	0.0
2	62.0	80.0	1.010	2.0	3.0	423.0	53.0	1.8	0.0	0.0	9.6	31.0	7500.0	0.0
3	48.0	70.0	1.005	4.0	0.0	117.0	56.0	3.8	111.0	2.5	11.2	32.0	6700.0	3.9
4	51.0	80.0	1.010	2.0	0.0	106.0	26.0	1.4	0.0	0.0	11.6	35.0	7300.0	4.6



#### Exercise

#### Using the kidney dataset:

- Create a complete, filled in dataset of non-missing values using mean imputation per numeric column, most frequent value imputation for the categorical values, convert all of the categorical columns into numerical columns using get\_dummies
- 2. Do the same thing using median imputation for each numeric column.
- 3. Compare test set errors when building a Logistic Regression model (LogisticRegression()) on the data and using train/test split (train\_test\_split(random\_state=123)), predicting the class column. Which imputation method seems to perform better on this dataset?

# METIS Polynomial Features

```
from sklearn.preprocessing import PolynomialFeatures
poly fit 3 = PolynomialFeatures(degree=3)
fitted_degree3 numeric kidneys =
poly fit 3.fit transform(kidney_data_filled[kidney_data_numeric_columns])
                                     8.0000e+01, ..., 3.1637e+08,
         1.0000e+00,
                       4.8000e+01,
array([[
         2.1091e+05,
                       1.4061e+02],
         1.0000e+00,
                       7.0000e+00,
                                     5.0000e+01, ..., 1.7280e+08,
          1.3824e+05,
                       1.1059e+02],
         1.0000e+00,
                       6.2000e+01,
                                     8.0000e+01, ..., 2.7000e+08,
         1.7280e+05,
                       1.1059e+02],
         1.0000e+00,
                       4.8000e+01,
                                    7.0000e+01, ..., 1.7507e+08,
          1.0191e+05,
                       5.9319e+01],
                                    8.0000e+01, ..., 2.4513e+08,
       [ 1.0000e+00,
                     5.1000e+01,
                      9.7336e+01]])
         1.5447e+05,
```

# METIS Polynomial Features

This transformation generates every possible pairwise combination of all of the numeric columns in the kidney dataset upto a degree of 3.

So, if we had 3 columns, X, Y, Z, this transformation would generate:

$$(1, X, Y, Z, XY, XZ, YZ, X^2, Y^2, Z^2, X^2Y, X^2Z, ..., XYZ, X^3, Y^3, Z^3)$$

However, this is complete overkill. What we usually want to generate is just the interactions (XY.YZ, etc. terms) not all of the polynomial degrees. In that case, we simply pass an extra Boolean parameter to the PolynomialFeatures function:

# METIS Polynomial Features

```
poly_fit_3_interact = PolynomialFeatures(degree=3,interaction_only=True)
interactions_only_kidney_columns =
poly_fit_3_interact.fit_transform(kidney_data_filled[kidney_data_numeric_columns])[:,
1:]
```



#### Exercise

- 1. Generate the interactions-only degree-2 polynomial-fit features for the kidney\_data null-filled dataset on the numeric columns only.
- 2. Use train\_test\_split to predict the class with/without these polynomial features using LogisticRegression(). What happens to train/test accuracy?



**Motivation:** We need a way to choose between several different machine learning models (or multiple versions of the same model). Our goal is **to estimate likely performance of a model on out-of-sample data**.



Initial approach: Train/test split

- Split the dataset into two pieces, so that the model can be trained and tested on different data.
- **Testing accuracy** is a better estimate than training accuracy of out-of-sample performance (because testing on the same data that you used to train the model causes **overfitting** and worse out-of-sample performance).
- However, just using one train/test split provides a high variance estimate since changing which observations happen to be in the testing set can significantly change testing accuracy.

What would be a better approach?



Better approach: Create a bunch of train/test splits, calculate the testing accuracy for each, and average the results together.



- 1. Split the dataset into K equal partitions (or "folds").
- 2. Use fold 1 as the **testing set** and the union of the other folds as the **training set**.
- 3. Calculate testing accuracy.
- 4. Repeat steps 2 and 3 K times, using a **different fold** as the testing set each time.
- 5. Use the average testing accuracy as the estimate of out-of-sample accuracy.



test

train

train

train

train

train

test

```
from sklearn.model selection import KFold,
cross val score
kf = KFold(n splits=5, shuffle=False)
from sklearn.cross validation import cross val score,
cross val predict
from sklearn import metrics
scores = cross val score(<model>, <features>, <target>,
cv=6)
```



#### Exercise

Compute cross-validated mean/std of accuracies when doing 20, 40, 50-fold cross-validation using cross\_val\_score(). What happens to the mean and standard deviation of the accuracies as you increase the number of folds?



Here are the advantages of cross-validation:

- More accurate estimate of out-of-sample accuracy
- More "efficient" use of data (every observation is used for both training and testing)

However, there are some advantages to using train/test split:

- Runs K times faster than K-fold cross-validation
- Simpler to examine the detailed results of the testing process



We can improve this basic cross-validation approach a bit more as follows:

#### Repeated cross-validation

- Repeat cross-validation multiple times (with different random splits of the data) and average the results
- More reliable estimate of out-of-sample performance by reducing the variance associated with a single trial of cross-validation

#### **Creating a hold-out set**

- "Hold out" a portion of the data before beginning the model building process
- Locate the best model using cross-validation on the remaining data, and test it using the hold-out set
- More reliable estimate of out-of-sample performance since hold-out set is truly out-of-sample

#### Feature engineering and selection within cross-validation iterations

- Normally, feature engineering and selection occurs before cross-validation
- Instead, you can perform all feature engineering and selection within each cross-validation iteration
- This gives us a more reliable estimate of out-of-sample performance since it better mimics the application of the model to out-of-sample data



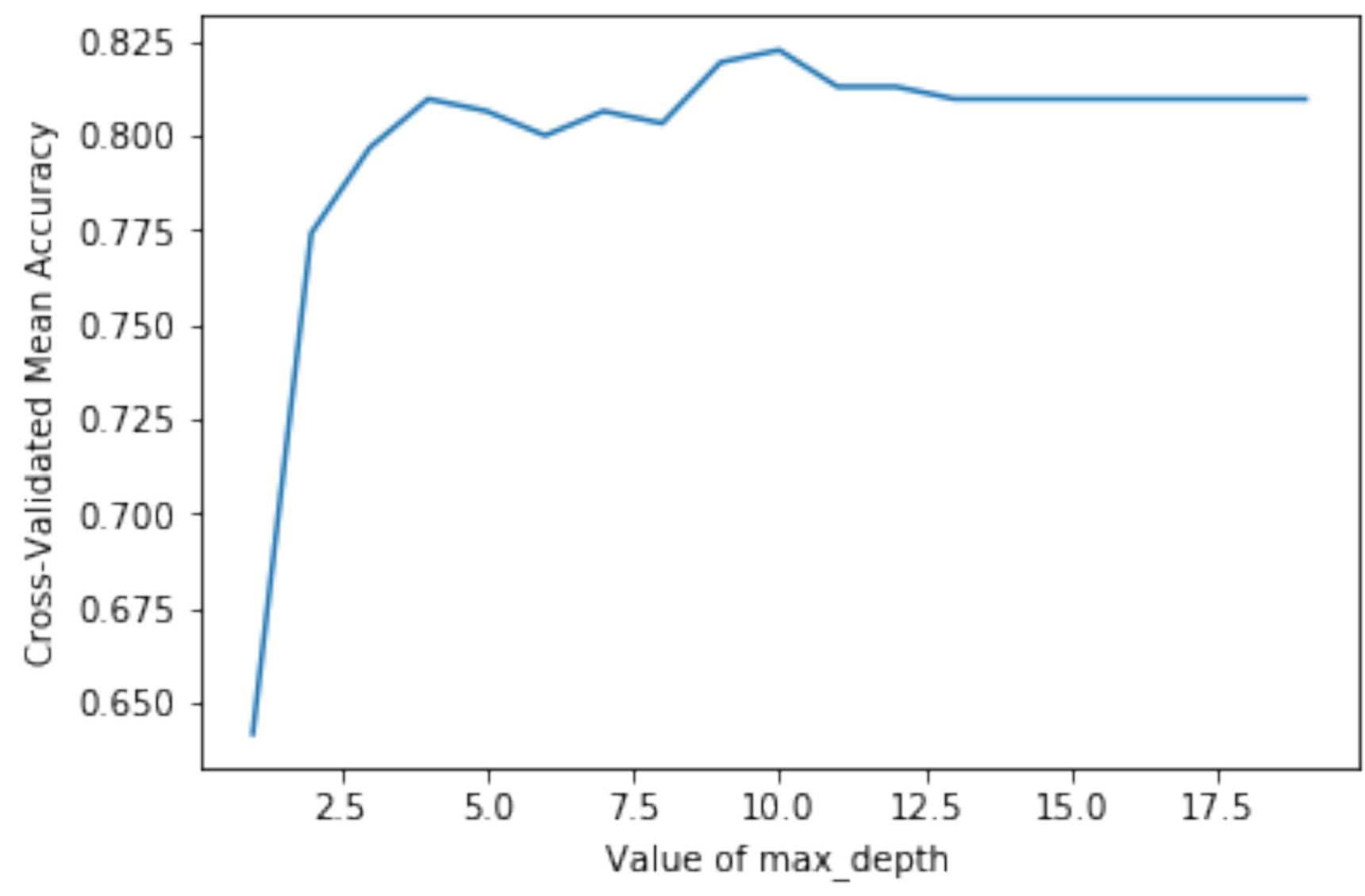
from sklearn.model\_selection import GridSearchCV

```
# try max depth=2
rf 2 = RandomForestClassifier(max depth=2, random_state=1)
print("Cross-validated mean accuracy for depth
2:",cross val score(rf 2, X, y, cv=10, scoring='accuracy').mean())
# try max depth=3
rf 3 = RandomForestClassifier(max depth=3, random state=1)
print("Cross-validated mean accuracy for depth
3:",cross val score(rf 3, X, y, cv=10, scoring='accuracy').mean())
Cross-validated mean accuracy for depth 2: 0.761290322581
Cross-validated mean accuracy for depth 3: 0.787096774194
```

# METIS

```
# use GridSearchCV to automate the search across depths 1-10
rf grid =
RandomForestClassifier(n estimators=50, random state=1, n jobs=-1)
#50 trees
max depth range = range(1, 20)
param grid = dict(max depth=max depth range)
print(param grid)
grid = GridSearchCV(rf grid, param grid, cv=10, scoring='accuracy')
grid.fit(X, y)
# store the results of the grid search
grid.grid scores_
grid mean scores = [result.mean validation score for result in
grid.grid_scores_]
```







#### Exercise

Using the kidney dataset, use and test several different imputation methods, different feature transformations, and different model parameters using GridSearchCV for the kidney dataset.

This will get you to use everything we've learned today on one dataset with several kinds of missing values, and using both categorical and numeric values.

Don't forget to transform the categories using pd.get\_dummies() once you've filled in the missing data!

Remember there are other parameters you can tune for random forests than just the maximum depth. Look at the random forest lesson or the <u>random forest documentation</u>.

Try to be systematic in your exploration. Your goal is to make as robust a model as you can (lowest average cross-validated test error).