Supervised learning

Inteligencia Artificial en los Sistemas de Control Autónomo Máster en Ciencia y Tecnología desde el Espacio

Departamento de Automática





Objectives

- 1. Extend supervised learning algorithms
- 2. Apply supervised learning to real-world problems

Bibliography

• Müller, Andreas C., Guido, Sarah. Introduction to Machine Learning with Python. O'Reilly. 2016

All figures have been taken from https://github.com/amueller/introduction_to_ml_with_ python/blob/master/02-supervised-learning.ipynb

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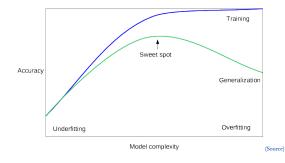
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Generalization, overfitting and underfitting

Generalization: accurate predictions on unseen data

- i.e. there is no overfitting neither underfitting
- Depends on model complexity and data variability





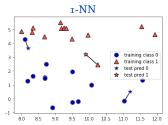
Generalization

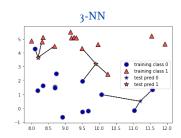
k-Nearest Neighbors

k-NN classification (I)

k-NN (k-Nearest Neighbors): Likely, the simplest classifier

- Given a data point, it takes its k closests neighbors
- Same prediction than its neighbors





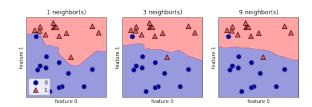
k-NN does not generate a model

• The whole dataset must be stored

k uses to be an odd number (1-NN, 3-NN, 5-NN, ...)



k-NN classification (II)



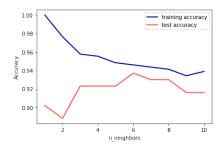
k determines the model complexity

- Smoother boundaries in larger k values
- Model complexity decreases with k
- If k equals the number of samples, k-NN always predicts the most frequent class

How to figure out the best k?



k-NN classification (III)





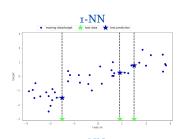
kNN regression (I)

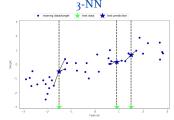
k-NN regression

Given a data point

- I. Take the k closest data points
- 2. Predict same target value (r-NN) or averate target value (k-NN)

Performace is measured with a regression metric, by default, R²

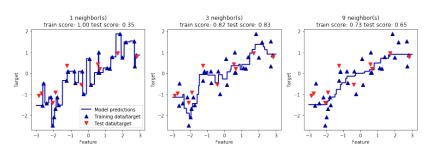






k-Nearest Neighbors

kNN regression (II)



k determines boundary smoothness

- I. With k = 1, prediction visits all data points
- 2. With large k values, fit is worse



k-Nearest Neighbors

Summary

| Hyperparameters | Advantages | Disadvantages |
|-----------------|------------|--------------------------|
| k | Simple | Slow with large datasets |
| Distance | Baseline | Bad performance with |
| | | hundreds or more attri- |
| | | butes |
| | | No model |
| | | Dataset must be stored |
| | | in memory |



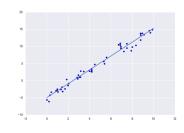
Linear model (I)

Linear model

$$\mathbf{y} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \mathbf{x}_1 + \beta_2 \mathbf{x}_2 + \dots + \beta_n \mathbf{x}_n$$

for a single feature $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1$, where

- β_0 is the intercept
- β_1 is the slope
- Intepretable model



Lineal models assume a linear relationship among variables

- This limitation can be easely overcomed
- Surprisingly good results in high dimensional spaces



Linear regression

Different linear models for regression

• The difference lies in how β_i parameters are learned

Ordinary Least Squares (OLS): Minimizes mean squared error

- OLS does not have any hyperparameter
- No complexity control

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

Linear regression can be used to fit non-linear models

• Just adding new attributes



Regularized linear models

Regularization: Term that penalizes complexity

- Added to the cost function
- Lineal models remain the same
- Train to minimize cost function and coefficients
- Intercepts are not part of regularization

Three regularizations

• L1 (Lasso regression), L2 (Ridge regression) and ElasticNet (L1 and L2)

Lasso (L1)

$$\alpha \sum_{j=1}^{n} |\beta_{j}|$$

Ridge (L2)

$$\frac{\alpha}{2} \sum_{j}^{n} \beta_{j}^{2}$$

ElasticNet

$$\alpha \left(\frac{\lambda}{2} \sum_{j}^{n} \beta_{j}^{2} + (1 - \lambda) \sum_{j}^{n} |\beta_{j}| \right)$$



Ridge regression

Ridge regression (or L2 regularization) adds a new term to cost function

$$MSE + \alpha \sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta_i^2$$

lpha controls the model complexity

- If $\alpha=0$ Ridge becomes a regular linear regression
- ullet Optimal lpha depends on the problem

Ridge by default



Lasso regression (I)

Lasso regression (or L1 regularization) adds a new term to cost function

$$MSE + \alpha \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} |\beta_i|$$

 α controls the model complexity

- If $\alpha = 0$ Ridge becomes a regular linear regression
- Optimal α depends on the problem

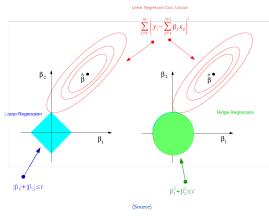
Some coefficiets may be exactly zero

- Implicit feature selection
- Easier interpretation
- Better with large number of attributes



Lasso regression (II)

Dimension Reduction of Feature Space with LASSO





ElasticNet

Lasso and Ridge can be combined

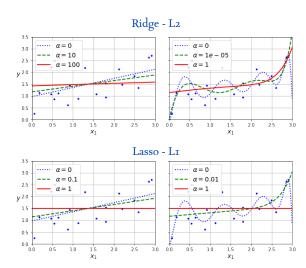
$$\mathrm{MSE} + \alpha \left(\lambda \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\mathrm{i}=1}^{\mathrm{n}} |\beta_{\mathrm{i}}| + (1 - \lambda) \sum_{\mathrm{i}=1}^{\mathrm{n}} \beta_{\mathrm{i}}^{2} \right)$$

Two hyperparameters

- ullet lpha controls the model complexity
- λ balances between L1 and L2



Regularized linear models comparison





Linear models for classification (I)

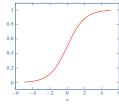
A linear regression can be used as classifier

- Just compare the prediction with a threshold (o, for instance)
 - If $\hat{\gamma} > 0$, assign class 1
 - If $\hat{\gamma} <= 0$, assign class -1
- The decision boundary for any binary linal classifier is a line, plane or hyperplane

A logistic regression is a generalization of a linear regression

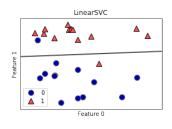
- It is a binary classifier
- Its output is a probability

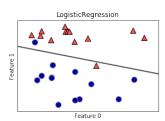
where $\sigma(t)$ is the logistic function, defined as $\sigma(t)=\frac{1}{1+e^t}$





Linear models for classification (II)



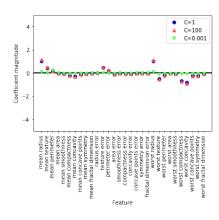




Linear models for classification (III)

The model can be regularized with L1, L2 and ElasticNet

- In Scikit-Learn, regularization strength is given by C
- Lower values of C correspond to smaller regularization strength





Summary

| Hyperparameters | Advantages | Disadvantages |
|---------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------|
| - | Fast train and predict | No complexity tuning |
| lpha (L1, L2, ElasticNet) | Scales well to large data- | Limited in low dimen- |
| | sets | sional spaces |
| l1_ratio (ElasticNet) | Better in high dimen- | - |
| | sional spaces | |
| | Few hyperparameters | |
| | Interpretable | |

Better when the number of features is large compared to the number of samples

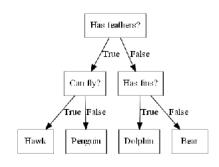


Decision trees are a family of algorithms for classification and regression

- They learn a tree data strucure
- Hierarchy of if/else questions (test, or node)
- Decision (terminal node or leaf)

Usually, datasets does not contain binary attributes

- Continous features
- Is feature i larger than value a?





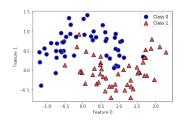
Building decision trees (I)

Tree learning algorithm

- 1. Begin with the root node
- Searches all possible tests (according to a purity measure)
- 3. The most informative test is taken
- 4. Repeat recursively

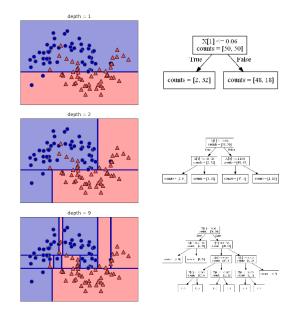
Prediction of a new data point

- Classification: Majority class in the partition
- Regression: Average value of target values in the partition





Building decision trees (II)



Building decision trees (III)

Let \mathfrak{p}_{mk} be the propotion of class k in node m, and Q_m the data in node m

Gini

Log Loss or Entropy

$$G(Q_m) = \sum_l p_{mk} (1 - p_{ml})$$

$$H(Q_{jn}) = -\sum_{l} p_{mk} log(p_{ml})$$

Controlling complexity of decision trees

Trees tend to grow until all leaves are pure

- Very big trees in real problems
- Big trees use to be overfitted models

Two strategies to prevent overfitting

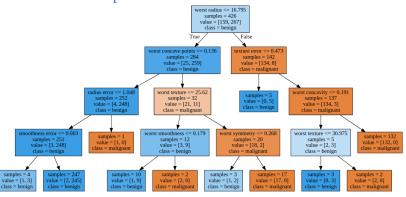
- Pre-prunning: Stop the creation of the tree early accorgind to some criteria
 - Maximum depth, number of leaves, minimum number of points in a node, ...
 - Implemented in Sciki-Learn
- Post-prunning: Build the tree and then remove nodes with little information



Analyzing decision trees

Decision trees is easily explained to nonexperts

- Interpretable models
- Deep trees are overwhelming
- Trick: Observe the path with most data





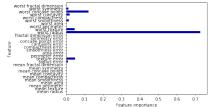
t-Nearest Neighbors Linear models **Decision Trees** Ensembles of Decision Trees Support Vector Machin

Decision Trees

Analyzing decision trees

Feature importace is a metric that summarizes features

- Number between o (not used at all) and I (perfect prediction)
- Feature importances sum to one
- Useful for feature selection and model interpretation



Some considerations

- It does not inform about the relationship between attribute and target
- It quantifies the importance in the tree
 - Correlated attributes may score low importance



Decision trees in regression

Decision trees are not able to extrapolate

- i. e. to predict outside of the range of the training data
- It is specially important in regression problems





Summary

| Hyperparameters | Advantages | Disadvantages |
|------------------|-----------------------|---------------------|
| max_depth | Visualization | Tend to overfit |
| max_leaf_nodes | Interpretable by non- | Poor generalization |
| | experts | |
| min_samples_leaf | Invariant to scale | |
| 'criterion' | Mix of categorial and | |
| | numerical data | |



Ensembles of Decision Trees

TODO



k-Nearest Neighbors Linear models Decision Trees Ensembles of Decision Trees Support Vector Machi

Ensembles of Decision Trees

Summary

Hyperparameters Advantages Disadvantages



Support Vector Machines

TODO



Support Vector Machines Kernelized Support Vector Machines

TODO



Summary

Support Vector Machines

Hyperparameters Advantages Disadvantages



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B: Summary

Hyperparameters Advantages Disadvantages



Algorithms

ARIMA (I)

AR: Autoregressive model

- Current observation depends on the last p observations
- Long term memory

MA: Moving Average model

- Current observation linearly depends on the last q innovations
- Short term memory

ARMA model = AR + MA

• ARMA(p, q): Two hyperparameters, p and q

AR(p)

$$X_t = c + \sum_{i=1}^p \phi_i X_{t-1} + \epsilon_t$$

MA(q)

$$X_t = \mu + \epsilon_t + \theta_1 \epsilon_{t-1} + ... + \theta_q \epsilon_{t-q}$$

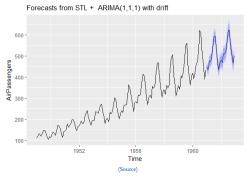


Algorithms

ARIMA (II)

ARIMA = AR + i + MA (AR integrated MA)

- ARIMA(p, d, q)
- Three integer parameters: p, q and d (in practice, low order models)



autoarima: search over p, q and d



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