# 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
- Géron, Aurélien. Hands-On Machine Learning with Scikit-Learn, Keras & TensorFlow. 2nd Edition. O'Reilly. 2019

Most figures have been taken from (A. Müller) and (A. Géron)

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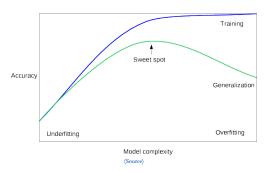
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# Generalization, overfitting and underfitting

Generalization: accurate predictions on unseen data

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

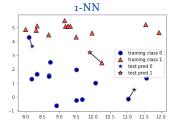


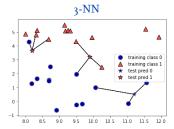


# k-NN classification (I)

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

- Given a data point, it takes its k closests neighbors
- Same prediction than the majority of its neighbors
- k uses to be an odd number (1-NN, 3-NN, 5-NN, ...)



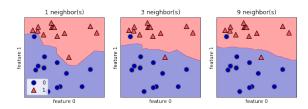


k-NN does not generate a model

The whole dataset must be stored



# k-NN classification (II)



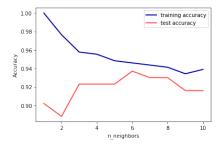
#### k determines the model complexity

- Smoother boundaries in larger k values
- Model complexity decreases with k

How to figure out the best k?



# k-NN classification (III)





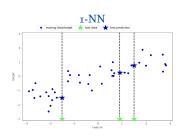
# kNN regression (I)

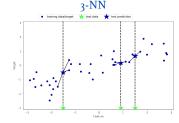
# k-NN regression

#### Given a data point

- I. Take the k closest data points
- 2. Predict same target value (1-NN) or averaged target value (k-NN)

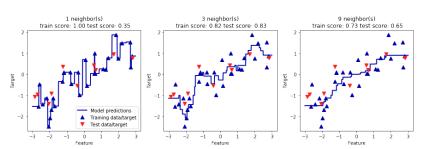
Performace is measured with a regression metric







# kNN regression (II)



#### k determines the boundary smoothness

With large k values, fit is smoother



# 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                |



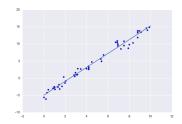
# Linear model (I)

#### 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

- $\beta_0$  is the intercept
- $\beta_1$  is the slope



Lineal models assume a linear relationship among variables

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

Intepretable model



# Linear regression

#### Different linear models for regression

• The difference lies in how  $\beta_i$  parameters are learned

Ordinary Least Squares (OLS): Minimizes mean squared error

- OLS does not have any hyperparameter
- No complexity control

$$MSE = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

where m is the number of instances

# Regularized linear models

#### Regularization: Term that penalizes complexity

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

#### Three regularizations

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

#### Lasso (L1)

$$\alpha \sum_{i=1}^{n} |\beta_i|$$

# Ridge (L2)

$$\alpha \sum_{j=1}^{n} \beta_{j}^{2}$$

#### ElasticNet

$$\frac{\alpha \left(r \sum_{j=1}^{n} |\beta_j| + (1-r) \sum_{j=1}^{n} \beta_j^2\right)}{\alpha \left(r \sum_{j=1}^{n} |\beta_j| + (1-r) \sum_{j=1}^{n} \beta_j^2\right)}$$



# Ridge regression

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

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

 $\alpha$  controls the penalty

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

Ridge by default



# Lasso regression (I)

### iso regression (1)

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

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

 $\alpha$  controls the penalty (and model complexity)

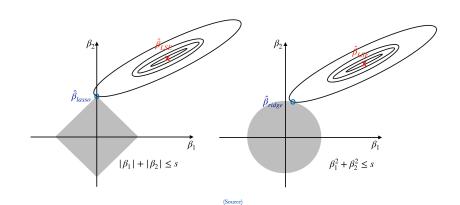
- If  $\alpha=0$  Lasso becomes a regular linear regression
- ullet Optimal lpha depends on the problem

Some coefficiets may be exactly zero

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



## Lasso regression (II)





# ElasticNet

Lasso and Ridge can be combined

$$\text{MSE} + \alpha \left( r \sum_{i=1}^{n} |\beta_i| + (1-r) \sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta_i^2 \right)$$

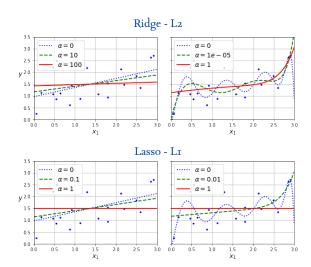
Two hyperparameters

- $\alpha$  controls the model complexity
- r balances between L1 and L2

ElasticNet is not a neural network!



# Regularized linear models comparison





# Linear models for classification (I)

A linear regression can be used as classifier

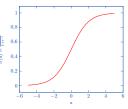
- Just compare the prediction with a threshold (o, for instance)
  - If  $\hat{y} > 0$ , assign  $C_1$ ; if  $\hat{y} \leq 0$ , assign  $C_2$
- The decision boundary is a line, plane or hyperplane

A logistic regression is a generalization of a linear regression

Probabilistic binary classifier

$$\hat{p} = \sigma \left(\beta_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i x_i \right), \hat{\gamma} = \begin{cases} C_1, & \text{if } \hat{p} < 0.5 \\ C_2, & \text{if } \hat{p} \geq 0.5 \end{cases}$$

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





# Summary

| Hyperparameters           | Advantages                                                          | Disadvantages                     |
|---------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
|                           | Fast train and predict                                              | Limited in low dimensional spaces |
| lpha (L1, L2, ElasticNet) | Scales well to large datasets                                       | Limited generalization            |
| l1_ratio (ElasticNet)     | Better in high dimensional spaces Few hyperparameters Interpretable |                                   |

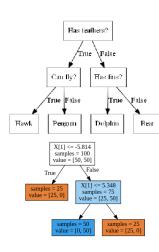


#### Decision trees are a family of algorithms

- Classification, regression and anomaly detection
- 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?





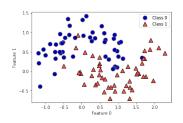
# Building decision trees (I)

# Tree learning algorithm

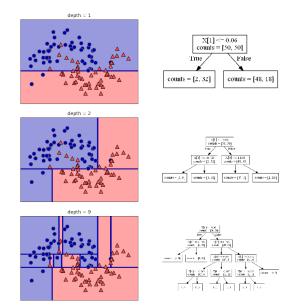
- 1. Begin with the root node
- Searches all possible tests (according to a purity measure)
- 3. The most informative test is taken
- 4. Repeat recursively

#### 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)

We need a measure of 'impurity': Gini and entropy

- Let C be the number of classes and p<sub>i</sub> is the probability of class i in the dataset S
- Gini:  $G(S) = 1 \sum_{i=1}^{C} p_i^2$
- Entropy:  $H(S) = -\sum_{i=1}^{C} p_i \log_2 p_i$

Both measures are used to learn trees

- Gini is faster
- Entropy is preferred with unbalanced datasets



# 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

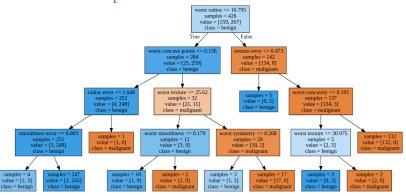
- Pre-prunning: Stop the creation of the tree early according to some criteria
  - Maximum depth, number of leaves, minimum number of points in a node, ...
  - Implemented in Scikit-Learn
- Post-prunning: Build the tree and then remove nodes with little information



# Analyzing decision trees

#### Decision trees are easily explained to nonexperts

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

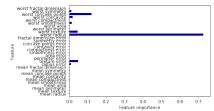




# Analyzing decision trees: Feature importance

#### Feature importance 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

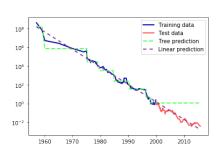
- It does not inform about the relationship between attribute and target
- It quantifies the importance in the tree



### 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-<br>experts                        | Poor generalization |
| min_samples_leaf<br>criterion | Invariant to scale Mix of categorial and numerical data |                     |



#### Ensembles of Decision Trees

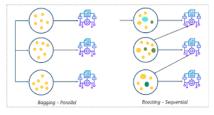
#### Ensembles

#### Ensembles, in ML, refers to the combination of several models

For instance, an ensemble of three classifers voting

Two common aproaches to build ensembles

- Bagging (or bootstrap) samples the dataset with replacement
  - The ensemble make prediction by aggregating its predictors
- Boosting trains models to correct previous models



(Source)



#### Ensembles of Decision Trees

#### Random forests

A tree is good doing his job, but does not generalize well

- Different trees could overfit in different ways
- Idea: Use many trees and aggregate their results

Random forest is a popular algorithm based on ensembles of trees

- Classification and regression
- Limits overfitting found in trees

It encourages tree diversity through training set and feature selection

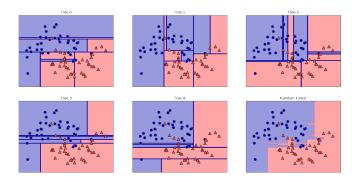
- Selecting data: Bootstrap
- Selecting features in each test
  - It does not look for the best test
  - It looks for the best test involving a random subset of features
  - The size of the features subset is a critical hyperparameter

Same hyperparameters than decision trees



# Analyzing random forests (I)

#### Random forest with five trees

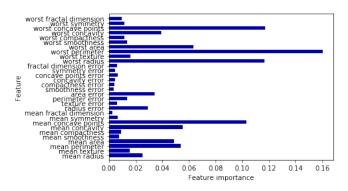




k-Nearest Neighbors Linear models Decision Trees Ensembles of Decision Trees Support Vector Machin

## **Ensembles of Decision Trees**

# Analyzing random forests (II)



#### Feature importance can be aggregated

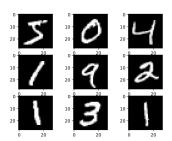
- More informative than single trees
- The algorithm must consider many possible explanations

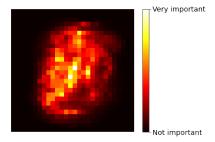


#### Ensembles of Decision Trees

# Analyzing random forests (III)

#### Random forest classifier with MNIST dataset







# Summary: Random forest

| Hyperparameters    | Advantages       | Disadvantages         |
|--------------------|------------------|-----------------------|
| Same than trees    | Same than trees  | Interpretation        |
| Number of trees    | High performance | High dimensional data |
| Number of features | Robust           | Sparse data           |
|                    | Widely used      | Memory and CPU        |
|                    | Parallelized     | -                     |



# Ensembles of Decision Trees

# Gradient boosted regression trees (I)

#### Gradient boosting trees is an ensemble of trees

- Based on boosting, builds trees in a serial manner
- One tree corrects the mistakes of the previous one

#### A set of weak learners is used

- Shallow trees (by default, 3 in Sklearn)
- No data randomization, strong pre-pruning

#### A new hyperparameter: learning rate

- How strongly each tree tries to correct
- High learning rate makes stronger corrections: More complex models
- More trees also adds more complexity

#### State of the art results

- Widely adopted by industry
- Comparable in performance with deep neural networks



# Summary: Gradient boosting

| Hyperparameters | Advantages                           | Disadvantages                |
|-----------------|--------------------------------------|------------------------------|
| Same than trees | Very high performance                | Slow                         |
| Number of trees | Invariant to scale                   | High dimensional data        |
| Learning rate   | Mix of categorial and numerical data | Tricky hyperparameter tuning |
|                 | nuncrical data                       | Overfitting                  |



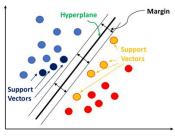
## Linear SVM (I)

#### SVM, or Support Vector Machines, is a popular and flexible learning model

- Classification, regression and outlayer detection
- Linear and non-linear models
- Quite popular with small and medium datasets

### Learning SVMs

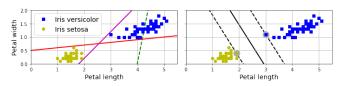
- It localizes data points in the boundary of the classes
  - They are named support vectors
- 2. Determine an hyperplane that splits them maxizing margin



(Source)



# Linear SVM (II)

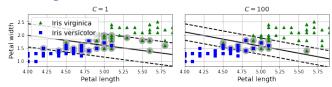


Two big problems with hard margins

Most datasets are not linearly separable and outlaiers

We look for a balance between good fit and margin violations: C

- C sets the tolerance to margin violations
- ullet Low C o High tolerance

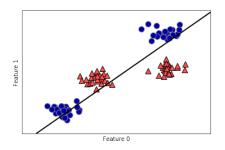


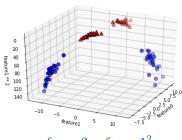


## Linear models and nonlinear features (I)

#### Plain SVMs are limited in low-dimensional spaces

- Lines, planes and hyperplanes
- Adding new features is a way to overcome this limitation

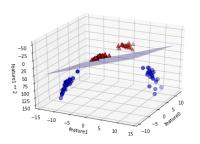


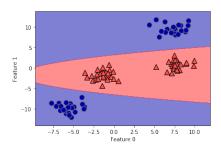


 $feature_2 = feature_1^2$ 



# Linear models and nonlinear features (II)







#### The kernel trick

Adding nonlinear attributes makes linear models much more powerful

- Which features should we add?
- How we compute interations in a 100-dimensional feature space?

Some mathematical magic: The kernel trick

- It computes data distances for expanded feature representation ...
- ... without computing the expansion!

It applies a function named kernel

- Polynomial kernel, up to a certain degree
- Radial basis function (RBF) kernel (Gaussian kernel)
- Linear kernel, no expansion is done

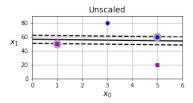
The kernel trick can be used in other techniques like PCA

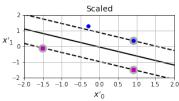


# Understanding SVMs (III)

#### SVM is very sensitive to scale

Always use standarized or normalized data







# Summary

| Hyperparameters | Advantages               | Disadvantages               |
|-----------------|--------------------------|-----------------------------|
| С               | Powerful                 | Memory and CPU              |
| $\gamma$        | Low and high dimensional | Number of samples           |
| Kernel          | Flexible                 | Scaling<br>No interpretable |

