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# Project-I by Group LasVegas

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## Abstract

This report provides a summary of our work done for the first project of the PCML course. The project consists of solving two problems: a regression and a classification problem. For the regression dataset, we have noticed two separate clusters of data. Therefore, we separated the data in two parts, and have applied different linear models to each part. To the classification dataset, we applied logistic regression and penalized logistic regression. In addition, we have investigated a few feature transformations which provided some additional improvements.

## 1 Introduction

The first project of the Pattern Classification and Machine Learning course focuses on applying linear models to regression and classification problems. The ultimate goal is to train a model which will be able to produce accurate response predictions to unseen input data. The unseen data is assumed to be produced by the same source(s) as the training data. The tasks involved in solving these problems are preprocessing the data, training linear models for the corresponding regression/classification tasks, and applying appropriate feature transformations to the input variables.

## 2 Regression

Regression models try to establish the relationships between the input and the output variables(s). It is used for predicting future outcomes for new (unobserved) data, or for interpreting the underlying connection(s) between the input and the output variables. In this project we will use linear regression models, which assume a linear relation between the inputs and the outputs. We will also use non-linear feature transforms, however the regression parameters will remain linear.

### 2.1 Data Description

The training data for regression consists of  $N_{tr} = 1400$  input and output data samples. Each input sample is a vector  $\mathbf{x}_n$  with dimensionality  $D = 38$ . All input samples are stored together in the matrix  $\mathbf{X}_{tr}$ . The output variables are scalar, and they are stored in the vector  $\mathbf{y}_{tr}$ . Each input vector  $\mathbf{x}_n$  contains 30 real valued variables and 8 categorical variables. From the categorical variables, 1 is binary (variable 37), 3 have three categories (variables 31, 33 and 34), and 4 have four categories (variables 32, 35, 36 and 38).

The test dataset  $\mathbf{X}_{te}$  consists of  $N_{te} = 600$  samples. The goal is to train a regression model by using the training data  $\mathbf{X}_{tr}$ , and then use it to produce predictions  $\hat{\mathbf{y}}_{te}$  for the unknown output variables  $\mathbf{y}_{te}$ . Test error for unseen data for our model is reported in the form of RMSE.

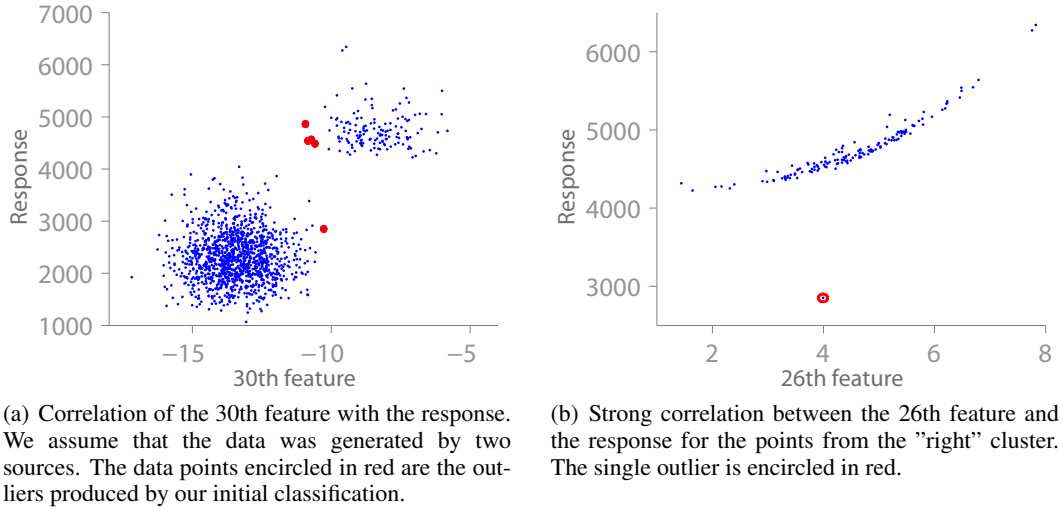


Figure 1: Input-output data correlation and outlier visualization.

## 2.2 Data visualization and cleaning

While doing the exploratory data analysis, we found out that out of 30 continuous predictors 29 appear to have a Gaussian-like distribution of their values and have correlation of about 0.2-0.4 with the response, 8 categorical variables have correlation between -0.1 and 0.1, and 30th feature has a high correlation of about 0.8, and has a distribution that looks like a combination of two Gaussian distributions. Figure 1(a) shows the response as a function of the 30th feature. From the figure we can see two clusters of points, and that the 30th feature provides a very clear separation between them. By visual inspection, we have concluded that the value of -10.5 of the 30th feature provides the cleanest separation between the "left" from the "right" clusters.

After we separate the "left" and the "right" clusters, we eliminate the outliers. The best separation boundary at -10.5 for the 30th feature misclassifies five data samples. They are shown encircled in red on Figure 1(a). The encircled samples which have a response between 4500 and 5000 are classified in the "left" dataset and represent the only outliers. In particular, we found out that for first 29 features number of points outside of 3, 4 and 5 standard deviations from the mean is not more than is expected to be for normal distribution, therefore we did not remove them as outliers.

On Figure 1(b) we show the response vs. the 26th feature for the data samples in the "right" cluster. We see a very clear pattern followed by all data samples except the one encircled with red, which is a result from the misclassification. We manually remove the outliers from both clusters.

We normalize the input variables to have zero mean and unit variance for all training data, or for each data cluster separately, depending on the algorithm used (explained in the following subsection). For the categorical variables which have more than 2 categories we have used dummy encoding. Due to this encoding, the final number of input variables has increased from 32 to 50.

## 2.3 Results

### 2.3.1 Evaluation procedure

For finding the best solution for the regression task we have tried several variations of linear regression methods with different feature transformations. Figure 2 gives an overview of the test error RMSE performance of the different methods. For producing the test RMSE, we have divided our input training dataset  $\mathbf{X}_{tr}$  in two parts, training and testing with 80%-20% ratio, respectively. The model parameters were computed by using only the training set, and the test RMSE was computed on the test set of data. Where required, the additional parameters of the models (e.g. polynomial basis degree, lambda) were computed by applying a 10 fold cross validation only on the training set. The computation of the test RMSE was repeated 10 times, and with each trial we selected the train

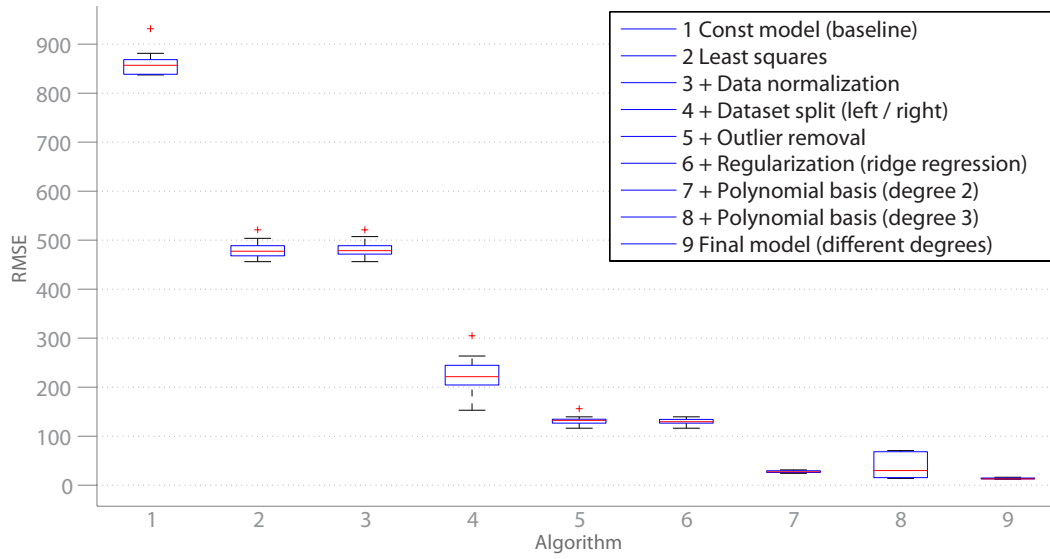


Figure 2: The box plots show an overview of the mean and standard deviation of the different regression methods and feature transformations which we have tried. Our model of choice is #9.

and test sets by random permutations, and by keeping the data ratio constant. We will justify the choice of 80%-20% train-test split ratio in the following text, by plotting the learning curve (Figure 3(b)).

### 2.3.2 Algorithms comparison

The first algorithm in Figure 2 is the baseline; it is just the mean of the output variable, and it does not depend on the input variables. For the second model, we apply least squares, and gradually increase its complexity by adding different features. From the sixth model, we use ridge regression, and, together with some data manipulation and feature transformations, we select it as the best algorithm for making predictions for our dataset.

Least squares easily outperforms the baseline algorithm. This is expected, since we previously observed that the input features are correlated with the output. We use all 50 input features in the model. As it can be seen from algorithm 3, normalizing the input variables does not provide an improvement for this dataset. However, when we split our data according to the 30th feature, as explained in the previous subsection, we experience a great improvement. In this case, we compute different model coefficients for the "left" and the "right" cluster. As a next step, we remove the outliers before training the model. This leads to an unexpectedly large increase in the performance of the model, although there are 4 outliers out of 1255 data points in the "left" and 1 outlier out of 145 data points in the "right" split.

When applying least squares we have noticed that we have some correlated predictors. To overcome the problem of ill-conditioning we have used ridge regression.

We selected the optimal lambda for ridge regression from the range  $[10^{-5}, 10^2]$  by testing 100 values in between, and choosing the lambda which minimizes validation RMSE, by employing 10 fold cross validation. We did not penalize the intercept  $\beta_0$ , which had values greater than 1000 for our dataset. The optimal lambda for both data splits are  $\lambda_L=5.4e-01$  and  $\lambda_R=4.7e-02$ . Resorting to ridge regression only slightly improved the test RMSE and its variance, however, it solved the problem of correlated predictors.

In algorithms 7-9 from Figure 2, we have used polynomial basis functions with different degrees. For algorithm 7 we squared all data entries for both "left" and "right" data splits, and in algorithm 8 we used degrees 2 and 3. It can be seen that these feature transformations significantly improve the prediction accuracy compared to the algorithms which did not employ them.

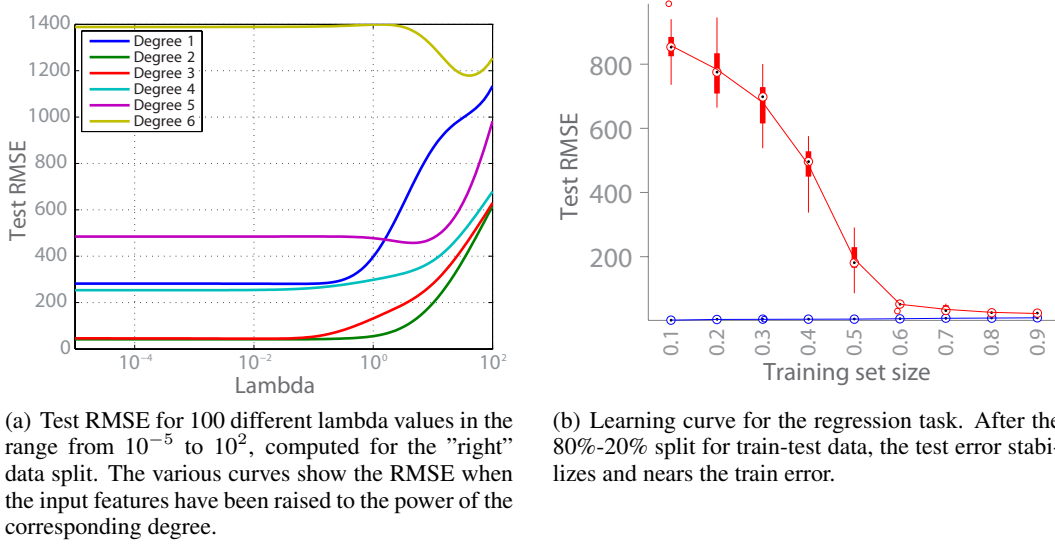


Figure 3: Comparison of different lambda and degree combinations. Learning curve for regression.

Figure 3(a) shows a plot of the test RMSE for the "right" split, for different  $\lambda_R$ . The various curves show the RMSE when the input features have been transformed by raising them to the corresponding degree. From the figure it can be seen that degree 2 and 3 clearly outperform all other degrees. A similar conclusion can be drawn by observing algorithms 7 and 8 from Figure 2. In addition, from Figure 3(a) it can be seen that all degrees have their optimal lambda value close to 0.

In algorithm 9 we have allowed the features of the "left" and the "right" splits to be transformed with  $i$  independent basis function. The optimal degree for the "left" split is 2, and for the "right" split is 3. The assembly of steps contained in algorithm 9 constitutes our final model, which we will use for providing predictions for the values in  $\mathbf{X}_{te}$ .

### 2.3.3 Learning curve

To finalize the discussion for regression, we show a plot of the learning curve in Figure 3(b). The plot is produced by using our final algorithm 9, while changing the ratio of train and test data. At the beginning the train RMSE is close to 0, since the training data is very limited, and the model is overfitting, hence the huge test error. As the amount of training data increases, we observe that the test error rapidly decreases, nears the train error and stabilizes after 80%-20%. This tells us that the amount of training data is sufficient for the calibration of our algorithm 9.

## 3 Classification

Classification categorizes the input variables(s) in discrete output classes or categories. It is used for predicting the categories for new (unobserved) data samples. For this task, we will train linear binary classifiers which we will later use to classify unseen (test) input variables.

### 3.1 Data Description

The training data for classification consists of  $N_{tr} = 1500$  input and output data samples. Each input sample is a vector  $\mathbf{x}_n$  of dimensionality  $D = 32$ , and all input samples are stored in the matrix  $\mathbf{X}_{tr}$ . The output variables are binary and they are stored in the vector  $\mathbf{y}_{tr}$ . Each input vector  $\mathbf{x}_n$  contains 30 real valued variables and 2 categorical variables. From the categorical variables, 1 has three categories (variable 22), and the other one has four categories (variable 1).

The test dataset consists of  $N_{te} = 1500$  samples. The objective of the classification task is to train a classification model by using the training data, and then to produce class predictions for the unknown

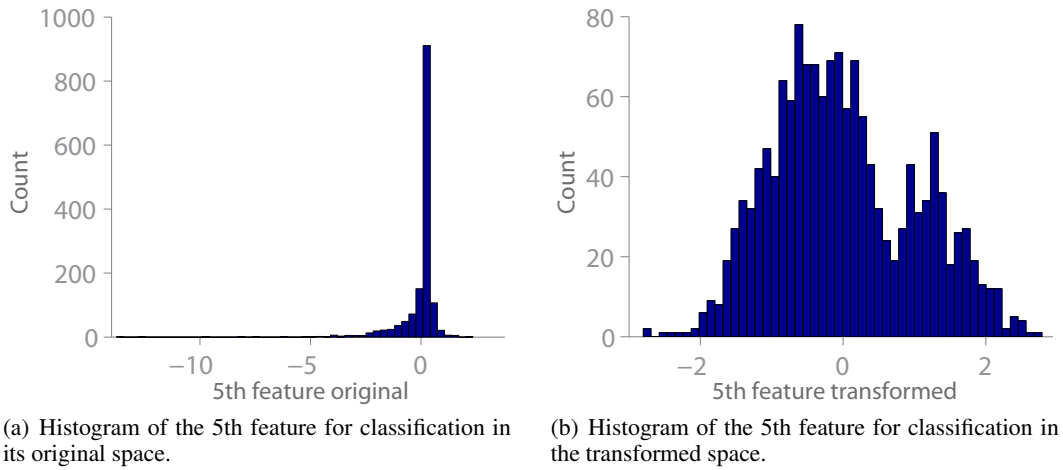


Figure 4: Feature transformations for classification.

output variables  $\mathbf{y}_{te}$ , corresponding to the input variables in  $\mathbf{X}_{te}$ . We give the total misclassification error in the forms of RMSE, 0-1 loss and log loss.

### 3.2 Data visualization, feature transformations and cleaning

By plotting the histogram of each continuous input variable, we have noticed that most of them have a Poisson-like distribution of their values. In order to bring their distributions closer to Gaussian, we have applied a feature transformation to each continuous element of the input training matrix  $\mathbf{X}_{tr}$ , by raising them to the power of  $\frac{1}{4}$ . Since some of the features had negative entries, we handled them by computing  $-\sqrt[4]{-x}$ . Figure 4(a) shows the original distribution of the 5th feature. On Figure 4(b) we can see the Gaussian nature of the distribution of the 5th feature after applying the transformation. We have also tried square root and logarithm as feature transformations, with lower results and less Gaussian-looking transformed features.

Similarly to the regression task, we again normalize the continuous variables and remove the outliers. We investigated the transformed features for the removal of the outliers. We eliminated a total of 30 data points which had at least one feature outside of the 5 standard deviations interval from the mean of the corresponding feature.

## 3.3 Results

### 3.3.1 Evaluation

The evaluation of the classification algorithms was done similarly to the evaluation of the regression algorithms. The train-test split was 80%-20%, we have used 10 fold cross validation for determining the necessary method specific parameters, and the mean and variance of the test error was established from 10 trials of randomly permuted train and test datasets.

### 3.3.2 Algorithms comparison

A comparison of the performance of the various methods which we have used for classification can be seen on Figure 5. We have used constant model (baseline) and variations of logistic regression with gradient descent and penalized logistic regression. The baseline is just the mean of the output variables, which is passed through the logistic function. The plain logistic regression from algorithm 2 clearly outperforms the baseline. Slight improvements can be seen thanks to normalization, regularization (regularization parameter was selected from  $[10^{-5}, 10^2]$ ), feature transformation. Huge improvement comes with polynomial basis functions (degrees 2 and 3), probably due to non-linear structure of decision boundary.

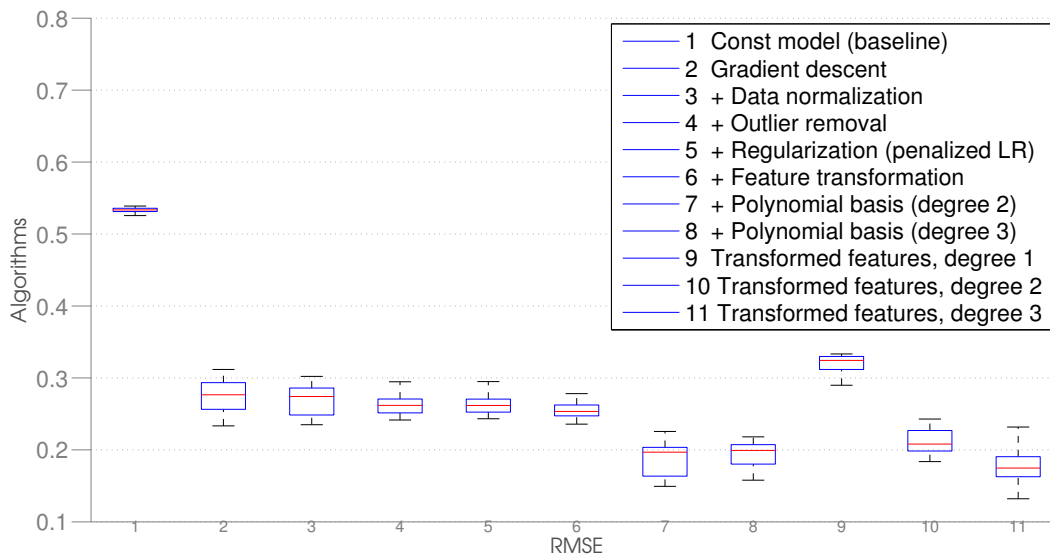


Figure 5: The box plots show an overview of the mean and standard deviation of the different classification methods and feature transformations which we have tried. Our model of choice is #11.

In algorithms 9-11, we reduce the dimensionality by not using the original features. For degree 3, the model with transformed features outperforms the model with the original plus transformed features, probably due to huge number of features in the set containing the original features. The mean test error for algorithm 11 is the lowest across all algorithms. For this model, the zero-one loss is 0.0435 and the log loss is -10.7835.

### 3.3.3 Learning curve

The learning curve for the classification task (not shown due to lack of space) is similar to the learning curve for the regression task, which is shown in Figure 3(b). The difference is that the test error for the classification task continues to slightly decrease, and the training error continues to slightly increase as we reach the 90%-10% train-test data split.

## 4 Summary

In this work we have analysed a classification and a regression problem. In our solution for the regression problem, first we split the dataset in "left" and "right" data splits, since the data was produced by two sources. Then we tested a set of linear regression algorithms together with different feature transformations, and have settled for ridge regression working with different polynomial basis for the two data splits. The achieved test RMSE is  $\approx 15$ , 50 times improvement over baseline and 30 times improvement over simple least squares.

We also analysed a classification dataset. There we noticed strongly skewed Poisson-like distributions of the input features. Therefore, we transformed the features to assume more Gaussian-like distributions. The model of choice was penalized logistic regression which worked solely on the transformed features, and polynomial basis functions of degree 3. The achieved test RMSE is  $\approx 0.18$ . This model significantly outperformed the baseline and plain logistic regression.

### Acknowledgments

The code for the essential functions was developed by all team members independently for error checking and correction. The bulk of the testing was done by Igor and Andrii. Igor produced the final "test errors" and "predictions". Andrii produced the figures, and Marjan summarized our finding by writing most of the report. All team members were engaged in the frequent project discussions.