

## Machine Learning for Predicting Numeric Values

Nysret Musliu

Database and Artificial Intelligence Group (DBAI)



#### Predicting CPU perfomance

	Cycle time (ns)		nemory (b)	Cache (Kb)	Cha	nnels	Performance
	MYCT	MMIN	MMAX	CACH	CHMIN	CHMAX	PRP
1	125	256	6000	256	16	128	198
2	29	8000	32000	32	8	32	269
208	480	512	8000	32	0	0	67
209	480	1000	4000	0	0	0	45

#### Predicting house prices in Vienna

Nr.Rooms	Size (m²)	Age of house	 Price (K)
1	35	1	110
4	120	20	250
3	85	10	235
3	78	2	210
2	54	5	170



## Example 3

Predicting the running time of an algorithm (e.g. for solving of a SAT problem ... See SATzilla)

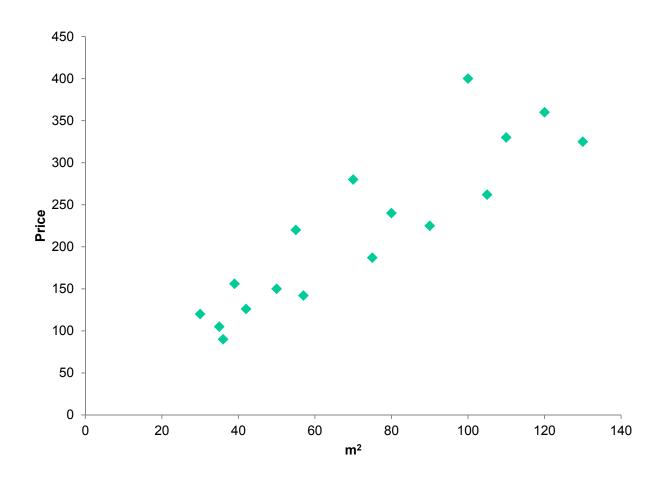
NrClauses	NrVariables	Ratio (C/V)	 Time (sec)
100	80	1	10
4000	400	2	450
30000	8500	1	2350
300	78	2	25
2000	540	1	170

Many other examples (see UCI repository, Kaggle...)



## Prices vs. Square meter

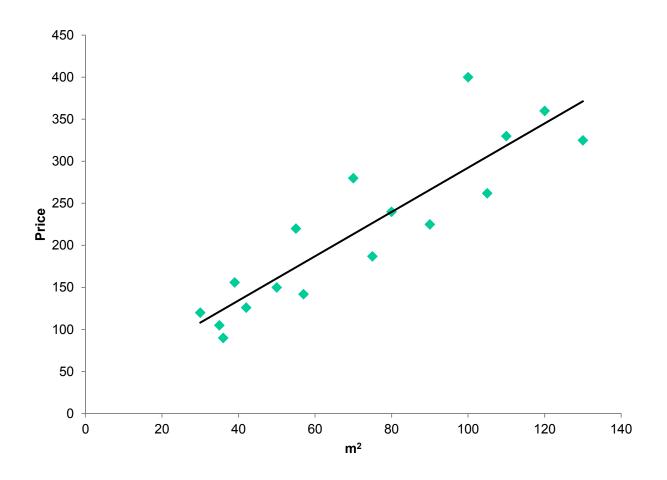
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## Model: Linear regression

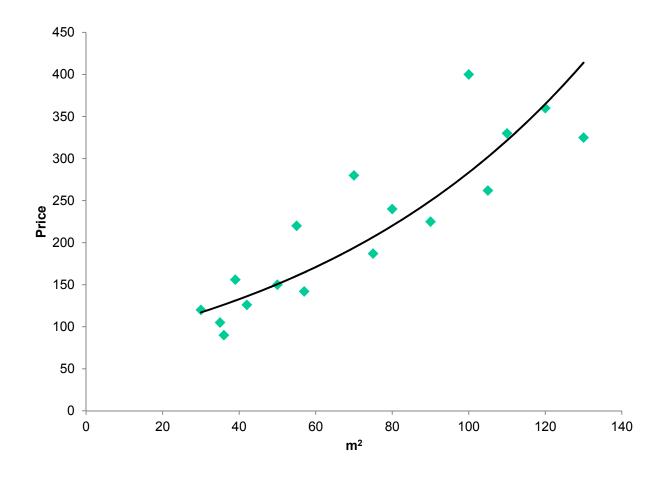
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## Model: Other functions

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## Model: Linear regression

x (m<sup>2</sup>)

 $W_0$ ,  $W_1$  -> parameters

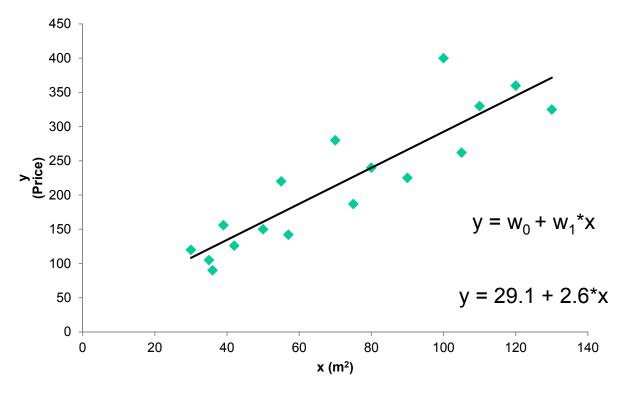
Problem: Find best values for w<sub>0</sub>, w<sub>1</sub>

Minimize some cost metric (sum of squared errors of prediction, ...)

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## Residual sum of squares (RSS)

RSS(w<sub>0</sub>, w<sub>1</sub>) = 
$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_i - (w_0 + w_1 * x_i))^2$$



## Finding best parameters

Minimize cost over all possible  $w_0$ ,  $w_1$ 

min RSS(
$$w_0, w_1$$
) =  $\sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_i - (w_0 + w_1 x_i))^2$ 

#### Gradient descent algorithm

- Initial values for w<sub>0</sub>, w<sub>1</sub>
- Iterative change of these values
- Until convergence

### Gradient descent

#### Repeat until convergence

$$\mathbf{w}_0 = \mathbf{w}_0 - \alpha \, \frac{\partial}{\partial w_0} RSS(w_0, w_1)$$

$$\mathbf{w}_1 = \mathbf{w}_1 - \alpha \, \frac{\partial}{\partial w_1} RSS(w_0, w_1)$$

Update w<sub>1</sub> and w<sub>0</sub> simultaneously

α -> learning rate



## Linear regression with multiple variables

**Gradient descent** 

Repeat until convergence

$$\mathbf{w}_{i} = \mathbf{w}_{i} - \alpha \frac{\partial}{\partial w_{i}} RSS(w_{0}, w_{1}, ..., w_{n})$$

Update  $w_0, w_1, ..., w_n$  simultaneously

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## Analytical solution for linear regression

	Nr.P.ooms	Size (m²)	Age		Price (K)
	1	35	1		110
	4	120	20		250
	3	85	10		235
	3	78	2		210
	2	54	5		170
			X		V y

$$w = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T y$$

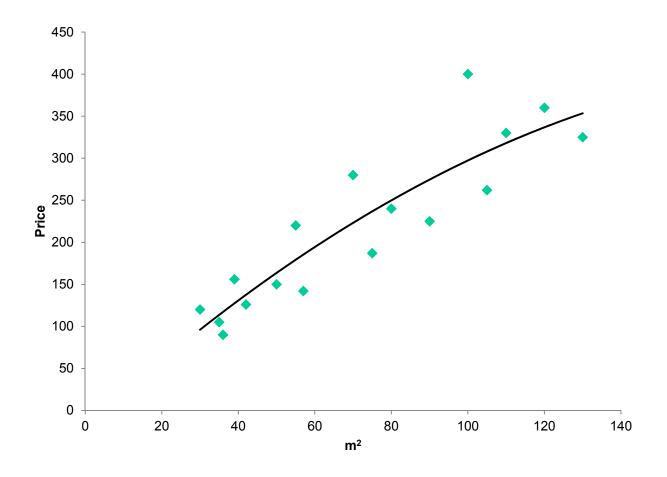


## Gradient descent versus analytical solution

- Gradient Descent
  - Needs many iteration
  - Learning rate should be determined
  - Useful when the number of features is large
- Normal equation
  - No iterations
  - No need to choose learning rate
  - Works slow if the number of features is too large



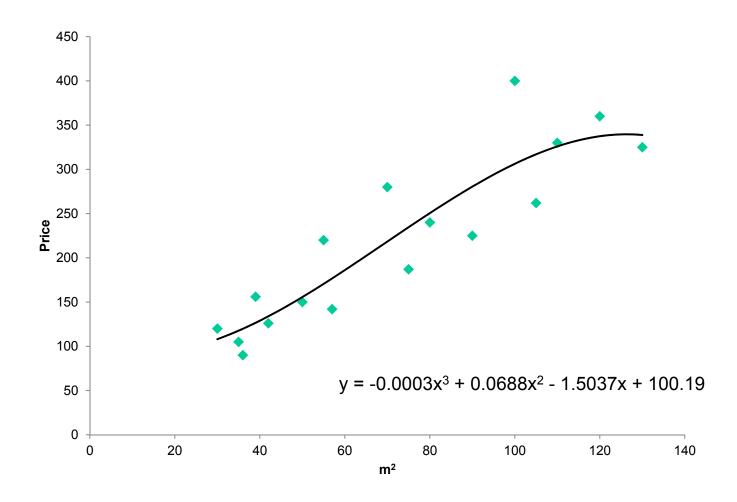
## Polynomial regression





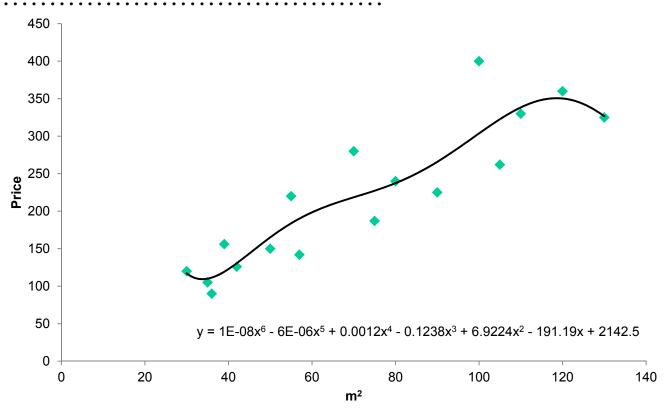
## Polynomial regression







## Polynomial regression



- High-order polynomials
  - Flexible
  - Problem of overfitting
  - Usually coefficients get very large

- Try to avoid overfitting caused by high-order polynomials
- Objective:
  - Balance between
    - How well function fits the data
    - Magnitude of coefficients

Total cost=measure of fit +  $\lambda$  \* measure of magnitude of coefficients

- Large λ
  - High bias, low variance
- Small λ
  - Low bias, high variance
- λ controls the model complexity



Feature selection task

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- Feature selection task
  - Feature selection: select features that minimize redundancy and maximize the relevance to the target
- Advantages of feature selection
  - Improved learning performance
  - Lower computational complexity
  - Decreased storage



### Feature Selection: all subsets

- Enumerate all possible subsets
  - Subsets for 8 features

Too many possibilities:

Number of features

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1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1



- The size of search space for m features is  $O(2^m)$
- NP-hard problem
- Wrapper Model: Search strategies
  - Best-first search
  - Hill Climbing
  - Genetic Algorithms
  - Branch and Bound
  - Tabu Search



## Greedy strategies

- Efficient and robust against overfitting
- Forward selection
  - Empty set of features
  - Features are added in the subset iteratively
- Backward elimination
  - Full set of features
  - Iterative elimination of less promising features



## Greedy strategies

- Forward Search
  - F={ }
  - While the desired number of features arrived
  - For each feature f not in F
    - Estimate by cross-validation the error of model on F U f
  - Add f with lowest error to F
- Backward elimination
  - F={All features}
  - While not reduced to desired number of features
  - For each feature f in F:
    - Estimate by cross-validation the error of model on F/f
  - Remove from F the feature f with the highest error



## Other techniques

- Metahuristic based techniques
- Wrapper models give better results than filter models
- Computationally expensive
- Better performance for the predefined classifier



## Regularization for feature selection

- Use regularization to eliminate some features
- Some coefficients should get exactly 0
- Some features are not used
- Features are selected if the coefficients are nonzero

## Using regularization for feature selection

Ridge Regression (L<sub>2</sub> regularized regression)

Total cost=measure of fit +  $\lambda$  \* measure of magnitude of coefficients

Total cost=RSS(
$$w_0, ..., w_n$$
) +  $\lambda * ||w||^2$ 

$$||\mathbf{w}||^2 = \mathbf{w}_0^2 + \dots + \mathbf{w}_n^2$$

Encourages small weights but not exactly 0

# Ridge Regression ( $L_2$ regularized regression)

Total cost=measure of fit + λ \* measure of magnitude of coefficients

Total cost=RSS(
$$w_0, ..., w_n$$
) +  $\lambda * ||w||_2^2$   
 $||w||_2^2 = w_0^2 + ... + w_n^2$ 

Encourages small weights but not exactly 0 Set small ridge coefficients to 0

## Lasso Regression (L<sub>1</sub> regularized regression)

Total cost=measure of fit + λ \* measure of magnitude of coefficients

Total cost=RSS(
$$w_0, ..., w_n$$
) +  $\lambda * ||w||_1$   
||w||<sub>1</sub> = | $w_0$ | +...+ | $w_n$ |

## k-NN Regression

- Data set of pairs (x<sub>1</sub>, y<sub>1</sub>), (x<sub>2</sub>, y<sub>2</sub>), ..., (x<sub>n</sub>, y<sub>n</sub>)
- y<sub>1</sub>, y<sub>2</sub>, ..., y<sub>n</sub> -> numeric values
- Prediction for the new instance  $x_m$  with k-NN:
  - Similar to k-NN for classification
  - Find k closest x<sub>i</sub> in the data set: x<sub>n1</sub>, x<sub>n2</sub>, ..., x<sub>ni</sub>
  - Predict

$$y_m = 1/k(y_{n1}, y_{n2}, ..., y_{ni})$$



## Evaluating numeric prediction

- Same strategies: independent test set, crossvalidation, significance tests, etc.
- Difference: error measures
- Actual target values: a<sub>1</sub> a<sub>2</sub> ...a<sub>n</sub>
- Predicted target values:  $p_1 p_2 \dots p_n$
- Most popular measure: mean-squared error

$$\frac{(p_1-a_1)^2 + \cdots + (p_n-a_n)^2}{n}$$

Easy to manipulate mathematically

Slides 32-49 are taken from this book: Data Mining Practical Machine Learning Tools and Techniques by I. H. Witten, E. Frank, M. A. Hall and C. J. Pal

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### Other measures

• The root mean-squared error:

$$\sqrt{\frac{(p_1-a_1)^2+\cdots+(p_n-a_n)^2}{n}}$$

 The mean absolute error is less sensitive to outliers than the mean-squared error:

$$\frac{|p_1-a_1|+\cdots+|p_n-a_n|}{n}$$

 Sometimes relative error values are more appropriate (e.g. 10% for an error of 50 when predicting 500)

## Improvement on the mean

- How much does the scheme improve on simply predicting the average?
- The relative squared error is:

$$\frac{(p_1-a_1)^2+\cdots+(p_n-a_n)^2}{(a_1-\bar{a})^2+\cdots+(a_n-\bar{a})^2}$$

(in this formula and the following two,  $\bar{a}$  is the mean value over the training data)

• The root relative squared error and the relative absolute error are:

$$\sqrt{\frac{(p_1-a_1)^2+\cdots+(p_n-a_n)^2}{(a_1-\bar{a})^2+\cdots+(a_n-\bar{a})^2}} \qquad \frac{|p_1-a_1|+\cdots+|p_n-a_n|}{|a_1-\bar{a}|+\cdots+|a_n-\bar{a}|}$$



### Correlation coefficient

Measures the statistical correlation between the predicted values and the actual values

$$\frac{S_{PA}}{\sqrt{S_P S_A}}, \text{ where } S_{PA} = \frac{\sum_i (p_i - \bar{p})(a_i - \bar{a})}{n-1}, S_P = \frac{\sum_i (p_i - \bar{p})^2}{n-1},$$

$$S_A = \frac{\sum_i (a_i - \bar{a})^2}{n-1} \text{ (here, } \bar{a} \text{ is the mean value over the test data)}$$

- Scale independent, between -1 and +1
- Good performance leads to large values!



- Best to look at all of them
- Often it doesn't matter
- Example:

Root mean-squared error
Mean absolute error
Root rel squared error
Relative absolute error
Correlation coefficient

A	В	С	D
67.8	91.7	63.3	57.4
41.3	38.5	33.4	29.2
42.2%	57.2%	39.4%	35.8%
43.1%	40.1%	34.8%	30.4%
0.88	0.88	0.89	0.91

- D best, C second-best
- A, B arguable

- Like decision trees, but:
  - Splitting criterion: minimize intra-subset variation
  - Termination criterion: std. dev. becomes small
  - Pruning criterion: based on numeric error measure
  - Prediction: Leaf predicts average class value of instances
- Yields piecewise constant functions
- Easy to interpret
- More sophisticated version: *model trees*

# |**TU**| Example Predicting CPU performance

Example: 209 different computer configurations

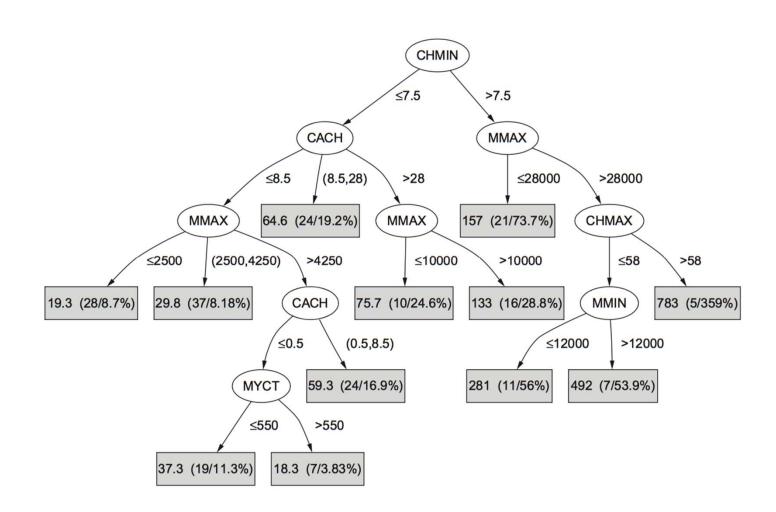
	Cycle time (ns)	Main memory (Kb)		Cache (Kb)	Channels		Performance
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208	480	512	8000	32	0	0	67
209	480	1000	4000	0	0	0	45

Linear regression function

PRP = -55.9 + 0.0489 MYCT + 0.0153 MMIN + 0.0056 MMAX + 0.6410 CACH - 0.2700 CHMIN + 1.480 CHMAX

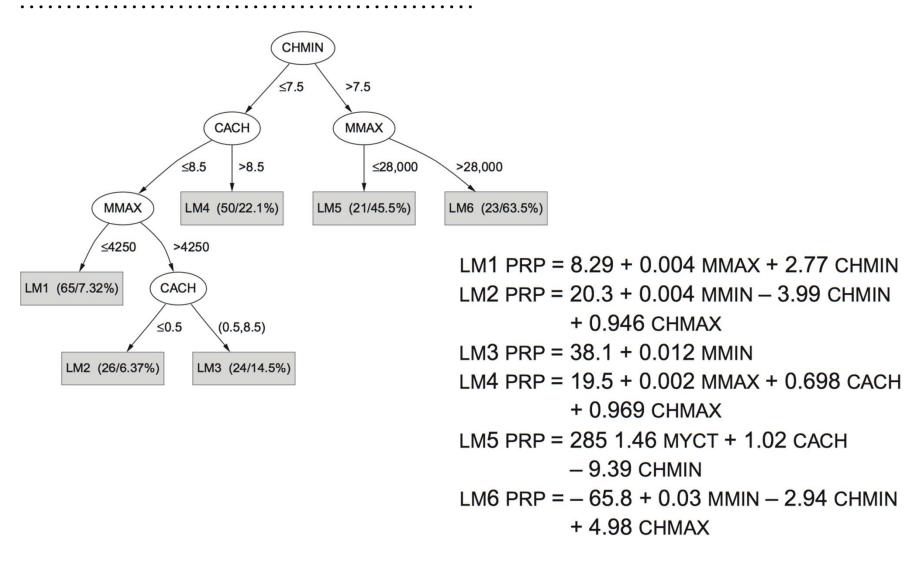


## Regression tree for the CPU data





### Model tree for the CPU data



- Build a regression tree
- Each leaf ⇒ linear regression function
- Smoothing: factor in ancestor's predictions
  - Smoothing formula:  $p' = \frac{np + kq}{n+k}$
  - Same effect can be achieved by incorporating ancestor models into the leaves
- p' -> the prediction passed up to the next higher node
- p -> prediction passed to this node from below
- q -> the value predicted by the model at this node
- n -> number of training instances that reach the node below
- k -> smoothing constant

- Build a regression tree
- Each leaf ⇒ linear regression function
- Smoothing: factor in ancestor's predictions
  - Smoothing formula:  $p' = \frac{np + kq}{n+k}$
  - Same effect can be achieved by incorporating ancestor models into the leaves
- Need linear regression function at each node
- At each node, use only a subset of attributes to build linear regression model
  - Those occurring in subtree
  - (+maybe those occurring in path to the root)
- Fast: tree usually uses only a small subset of the attributes

## Building the tree

Splitting: standard deviation reduction

$$SDR = sd(T) - \sum_{i} \left| \frac{T_i}{T} \right| \times sd(T_i)$$

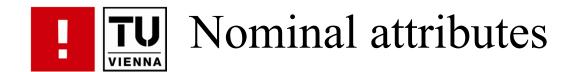
- Termination of splitting process:
  - Standard deviation < 5% of its value on full training set</li>
  - Too few instances remain (e.g., < 4)</li>

#### Pruning:

Heuristic estimate of absolute error of linear regression models:

$$\frac{n+v}{n-v}$$
 × average\_absolute\_error

- Greedily remove terms from LR models to minimize estimated error
- Proceed bottom up: compare error of LR model at internal node to error of subtree (this happens before smoothing is applied)
- Heavy pruning: single model may replace whole subtree



- Convert nominal attributes to binary ones
  - Sort attribute values by their average class values
  - If attribute has k values,
     generate k 1 binary attributes
    - i th attribute is 0 if original nominal value is part of the first i nominal values in the sorted list, and 1 otherwise
- Treat binary attributes as numeric in linear regression models and when selecting splits
- Can prove: best SDR split on one of the new binary attributes is the best (binary) SDR split on original nominal attribute
- In practice this process is not applied at every node of the tree but globally at the root node of the tree
  - Splits are no longer optimal but runtime and potential for overfitting are reduced this way.

- Let us consider the pseudo code for the model tree inducer M5'
- Four methods:
  - Main method: MakeModelTree
  - Method for splitting: split
  - Method for pruning: prune
  - Method that computes error: subtreeError
- We will briefly look at each method in turn
- We will assume that the linear regression method performs attribute subset selection based on error (discussed previously)
- Nominal attributes are replaced globally at the root node

```
MakeModelTree (instances)
  SD = sd(instances)
  for each k-valued nominal attribute
    convert into k-1 synthetic binary attributes
  root = newNode
  root.instances = instances
  split(root)
  prune(root)
  printTree(root)
```

split(node) { if sizeof(node.instances) < 4 or</pre> sd(node.instances) < 0.05\*SD</pre> node.type = LEAF else node.type = INTERIOR for each attribute for all possible split positions of attribute calculate the attribute's SDR node.attribute = attribute with maximum SDR split(node.left) split(node.right)

```
prune(node)
{
  if node = INTERIOR then
    prune(node.leftChild)
    prune(node.rightChild)
    node.model = linearRegression(node)
    if subtreeError(node) > error(node) then
        node.type = LEAF
}
```

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```
subtreeError(node)
  l = node.left; r = node.right
  if node = INTERIOR then
    return (sizeof(l.instances)*subtreeError(l)
            + sizeof(r.instances)*subtreeError(r))
             /sizeof(node.instances)
  else return error(node)
```