

## CSC380: Principles of Data Science

#### **Basic machine learning 1**

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- Probability
- Statistics



- Data Visualization
- Predictive modeling

#### Outline

- Introduction to Machine Learning
- Supervised Learning: Linear Regression
- Overfitting and underfitting
- Regularization in regression
- Feature Selection

## Introduction to Machine Learning

## What is machine learning (ML)?

Tom Mitchell established Machine Learning Department at CMU (2006).

#### Machine Learning, Tom Mitchell, McGraw Hill, 1997.



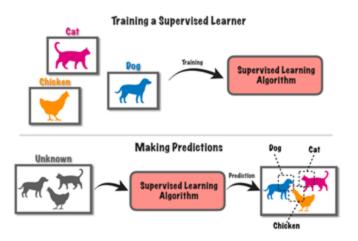
Machine Learning is the study of computer algorithms that improve automatically through experience. Applications range from datamining programs that discover general rules in large data sets, to information filtering systems that automatically learn users' interests.

This book provides a single source introduction to the field. It is written for advanced undergraduate and graduate students, and for developers and researchers in the field. No prior background in artificial intelligence or statistics is assumed.

- In short: algorithms adapt to data
- A subfield of <u>Artificial Intelligence (AI)</u> computers perform "intelligent" tasks.
- Classical AI vs ML: rule-driven approaches vs. data-driven approaches

## Supervised vs Unsupervised Learning

- Supervised Learning Training data consist of inputs and outputs
  - Classification, regression, translation, ...

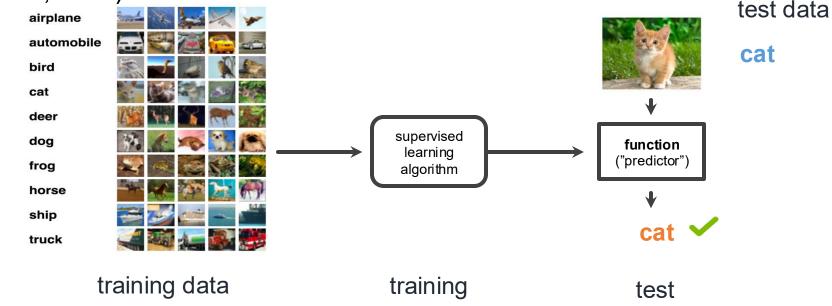


- Unsupervised Learning –
   Training data only contain inputs
  - Clustering, dimensionality reduction, segmentation, ...



## Supervised learning

Training / test data: datasets comprised of <u>labeled examples</u>: pairs of (feature, label)

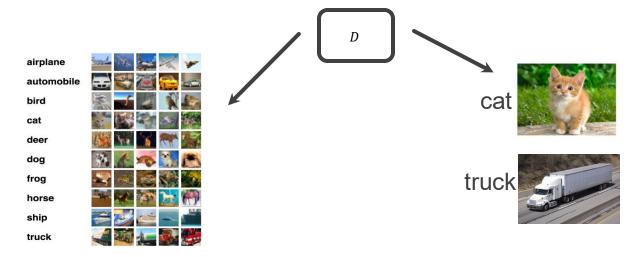


How should test data be chosen?

- Test data cannot be identical to training data.
- Test data cannot be just ONE data point.

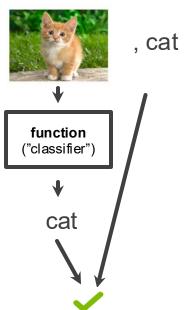
### Supervised learning setup

- Key assumption: training and test data are drawn from the same population, or data generating distribution D
  - They are assumed to be IID samples: independent and identically distributed
- Training and test data are independent



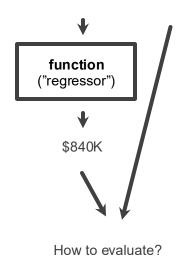
### Supervised learning setup

 Scenario 1: classification



Scenario 2: regression
 (e.g. house price prediction)

2000 sqft, 3 bedrooms, \$907K



• Loss function  $\ell$ : measures the quality of prediction  $\hat{y}$  respect to true label y

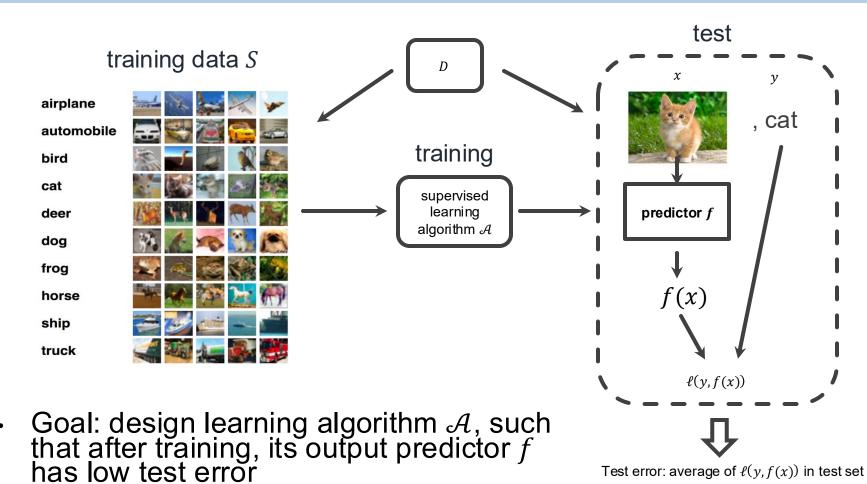
- Examples:
  - Classification error

$$\ell(y, \hat{y}) = 1$$
 if  $y \neq \hat{y}$ , and zero otherwise

Square loss

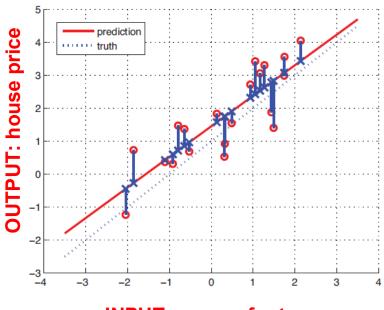
$$\ell(y, \hat{y}) = (y - \hat{y})^2$$
 - regression

## Supervised learning setup in one figure



# Supervised Learning: Linear Regression

### **Linear Regression**



**INPUT:** square footage

**Regression** Learn a function that predicts outputs from inputs,

$$y = f(x)$$

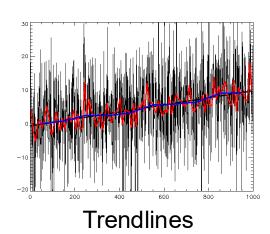
Outputs y are real-valued

**Linear Regression** As the name suggests, uses a *linear function*:

$$y = w^T x + b$$

### Linear Regression

#### Where is linear regression useful?



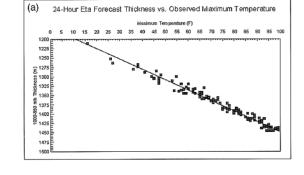
Altaba Inc. Stock Price Prediction

Stock Price Prediction

Stock Price Prediction

1996 2000 2004 2008 2012 2016

Time



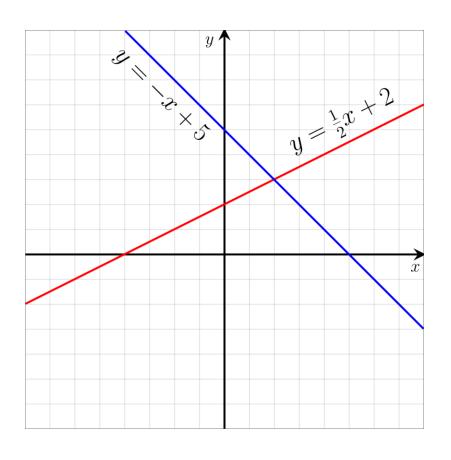
**Stock Prediction** 

Climate Models

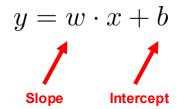
Massie and Rose (1997)

Used anywhere a linear relationship is assumed between continuous inputs / outputs

### Line Equation



Recall the equation for a line has a slope and an intercept,



- Intercept (b) indicates where line crosses y-axis
- Slope controls angle of line
- Positive slope (w) → Line goes up left-to-right
- Negative slope → Line goes down left-to-right

### Math Interlude: inner product

Two vectors:

$$\vec{x} = \langle 2, -3 \rangle$$
  $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}$ 

$$\vec{y} = \langle 5, 1 \rangle$$

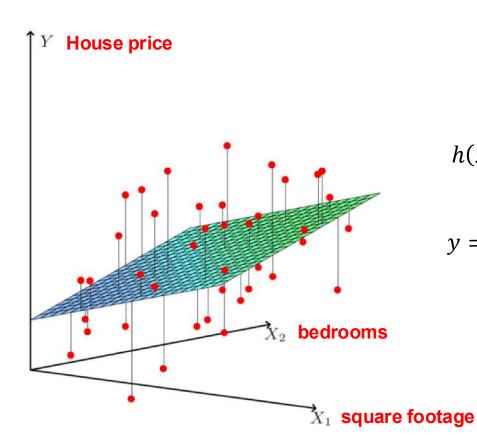
$$\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} -3 \end{bmatrix}$$

How to compute  $\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y}$  ?

Multiply corresponding entries and add:

$$\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} = \langle 2, -3 \rangle \cdot \langle 5, 1 \rangle = (2)(5) + (-3)(1) = 7$$

$$\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \end{bmatrix}$$
 (or just 7) (so  $\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y}$  becomes  $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y}$ )



$$h(x) = w_1 \cdot x_1 + w_2 \cdot x_2 + b = w \cdot x + b$$

$$y = w \cdot x + b$$
 is a hyperplane

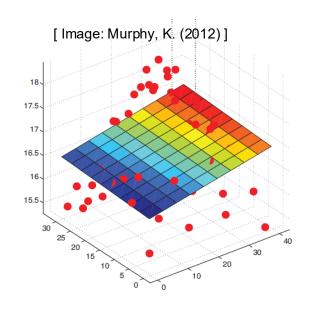
#### **Linear Regression**

For D-dimensional input vector  $x \in \mathbb{R}^D$  the plane equation,

$$y = w^T x + b$$

Sometimes we simplify this by including the intercept into the weight vector,

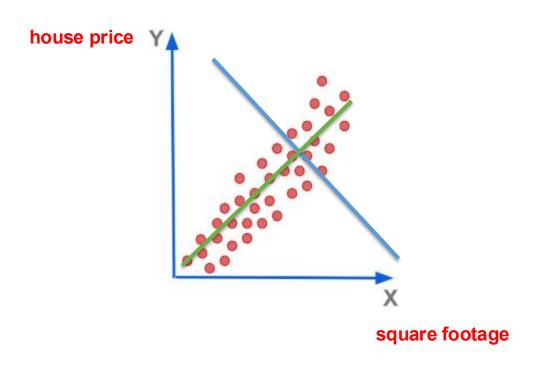
$$\widetilde{w} = \begin{pmatrix} w_1 \\ \vdots \\ w_D \\ b \end{pmatrix} \qquad \widetilde{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_D \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \qquad y = \widetilde{w}^T \widetilde{x}$$



Since: 
$$\widetilde{w}^T\widetilde{x} = \sum_{d=1}^D w_d x_d + b \cdot 1$$
 
$$= w^T x + b$$

### Learning Linear Regression Models

Which line is a better predictor, blue or green?



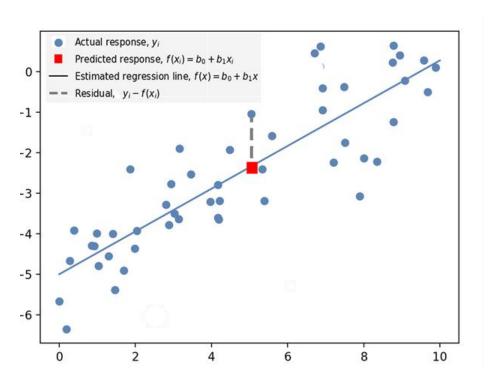
green

### Learning Linear Regression Models

#### There are at least two ways to think about fitting regression:

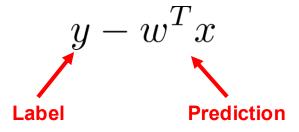
- Intuitive Find a plane/line that is close to data
- Functional Find a line that minimizes the square loss

### Fitting Linear Regression



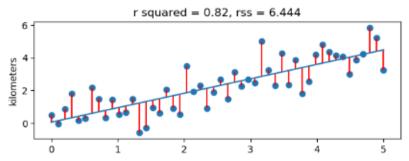
Intuition Find a line that is as close as possible to every training data point

The distance from each point to the line is the **residual** 



## Fitting linear regression

• Each point i induces a separate residual value  $y_i - w \cdot x_i$ 



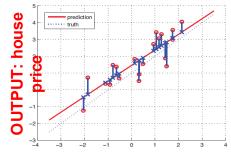
- We'd like to find w such that all  $y_i w \cdot x_i$  are small
- We can convert this to an optimization problem: find w that minimizes

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (y_i - w \cdot x_i)^2$$

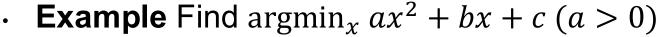
This is called the *least squares solution*

### Math Interlude: optimization problems

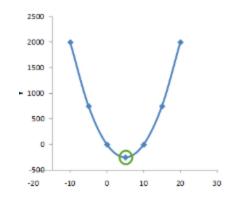
$$\underset{w \in \mathbb{R}^d}{\operatorname{argmin}}_{w \in \mathbb{R}^d} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - w \cdot x_i)^2$$
w: Optimization objective function variable



**INPUT:** square footage



• 
$$x = -\frac{b}{2a}$$



### Math Interlude: optimization problems

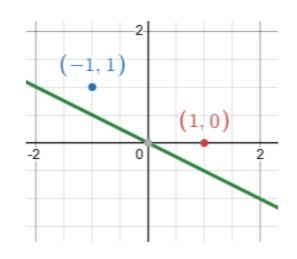
**Example** Suppose we have 2 data points (x=1, y=0) and (x=-1, y=1), we fit y = w x without intercept, find the least squares solution  $\widehat{w}$ 

**Solution** the objective function of least squares is  $(y_1 - w x_1)^2 + (y_2 - w x_2)^2$ 

which is

$$w^2 + (1+w)^2 = 2w^2 + 2w + 1$$

the minimizer is  $\widehat{w} = -\frac{b}{2a} = -\frac{1}{2}$ 



Why cannot the line fit perfectly?

Here, we only consider y = w x without intercept

#### In-class exercise: training and test loss

We have the following training data

Study hours (x)	Exam score (y)
1	2
3	6

- Q1: We fit a linear regression model  $y = w \cdot x$  that minimizes mean square error. What is this model  $\widehat{w}$ ?
- Q2: What is the average loss of model  $\widehat{w}$  on training and test data?

Study hours (x)	Exam score (y)
4	7
5	10

#### In-class exercise: training and test loss

#### Solution

$$\widehat{w} = \operatorname{argmin}_{w} (1w - 2)^{2} + (3w - 6)^{2}$$

Minimizer:  $\widehat{w} = -\frac{b}{2a} = 2$   $10w^2 - 40w + 40$ 

Study hours (x)	Exam score (y)
1	2
3	6

Training loss of  $\widehat{w}$ :

$$\frac{1}{2}((2-2)^2 + (6-6)^2) = 0$$

size of training set

Test loss of  $\widehat{w}$ :

$$\frac{1}{2}((8-7)^2+(10-10)^2)=0.5$$

size of test set

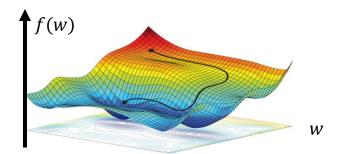
Study hours (x)	Exam score (y)	Predicted score
1	2	2
3	6	6

Study hours (x)	Exam score (y)	Predicted score
4	7	8
5	10	10

Usually, a trained model has smaller training loss than test loss

#### Math Interlude: optimization problems

• Unconstrained optimization problem: find  $\underset{w \in \mathbb{R}^d}{\operatorname{argmin}} f(w)$ 



- Solutions can oftentimes be found in one of two ways:
  - 1. Closed form solutions
  - Open-source or commercial optimization libraries (e.g. cvxpy, scipy.optimize.minimize)

### Linear Regression in Scikit-Learn

For Evaluation

#### Load your libraries,

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import numpy as np
from sklearn import datasets, linear_model
from sklearn.metrics import mean_squared_error, r2_score
```



#### Load data,

```
# Load the diabetes dataset
diabetes_X, diabetes_y = datasets.load_diabetes(return_X_y=True)
# Use only one feature
diabetes_X = diabetes_X[:, np.newaxis, 2]
```

Samples total	442
Dimensionality	10
Features	real, $2 < x < .2$
Targets	integer 25 - 346

#### Train / Test Split:

```
diabetes_X_train = diabetes_X[:-20]
diabetes_X_test = diabetes_X[-20:]
```

```
diabetes_y_train = diabetes_y[:-20]
diabetes_y_test = diabetes_y[-20:]
```

### Linear Regression in Scikit-Learn

#### Train (fit) and predict,

```
# Create linear regression object
regr = linear model.LinearRegression()
# Train the model using the training sets
regr.fit(diabetes X train, diabetes y train)
# Make predictions using the testing set
diabetes y pred = regr.predict(diabetes X test)
```



Coefficients: [998.57768914]

Intercept: 152.00335421448167

Scale sensitive, a bit hard

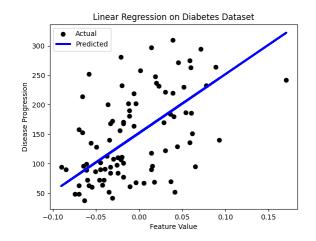
to interpret ->

Mean squared error: 4061.83

More interpretable-> Coefficient of determination (R^2): 0.23

#### Plot regression line with the test set,

```
# Plot outputs
plt.scatter(diabetes X test, diabetes y test, color="black")
plt.plot(diabetes X test, diabetes y pred, color="blue", linewidth=3)
plt.xticks(())
plt.yticks(())
plt.show()
```



#### Coefficient of Determination R<sup>2</sup>

Variance unexplained by Regression model 
$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{RSS}{SS} = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_i - w^T x_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_i - \bar{y})^2}$$
 Total variance in dataset Variance using avg. prediction

Where: 
$$\bar{y} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} y_i$$
 is the average output

 $R^2$  represents the proportion of the variance in y that is predictable from a  $x_i$ .

#### Coefficient of Determination R<sup>2</sup>

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{RSS}{SS}$$

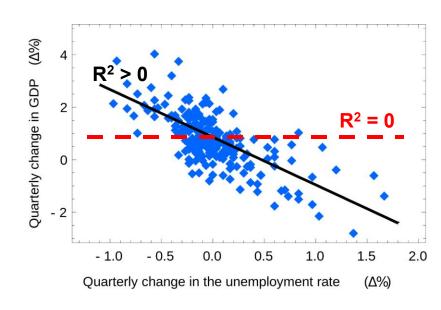
Variance unexplained by Regression model

Variance using avg. prediction

Maximum value R<sup>2</sup>=1.0 means model explains *all variation* in the data

R<sup>2</sup>=0 means model is as good as predicting average response

R<sup>2</sup><0 means model is worse than predicting average output (rare)



## Overfitting and underfitting

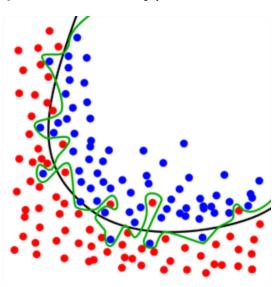
## Challenge in machine learning: generalization

Why not learn the most complex predictor that can work flawlessly for the training data and be done with it? (i.e., predicts every training data point correctly)

Problem: may not generalize to unseen data – called *overfitting* the training data.

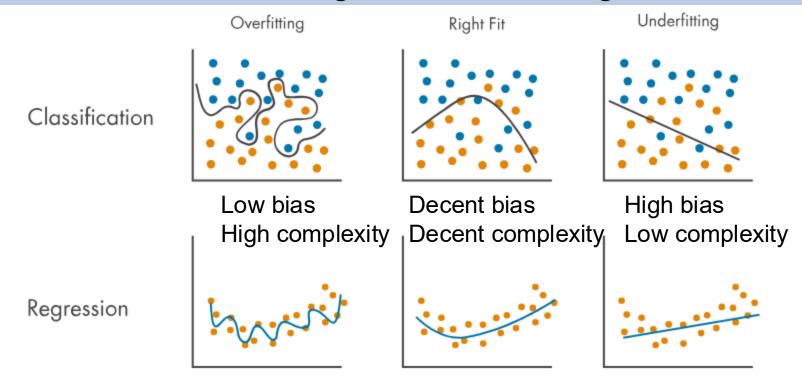
In other words, memorization is not generalization

<u>Mitigation:</u> Fit the training set but don't "overdo" it -- regularization.



**green**: may be sensitive to noise in training data **black**: more robust and can generalize better

### Overfitting and Underfitting



Ideal: select a model that trades off bias & complexity, i.e.,

- sophisticated enough to capture meaningful patterns for accurate predictions,
- yet not so intricate that it overfits the data. Low complexity

Low bias

#### Model selection

#### Examples of model complexity:

- The number of features used for prediction (more features => more complex)
- The weight of the predictors used for prediction (higher weight => more complex)

Model selection: choosing model with "just right" complexity for data

