

# Regression and Classification

**EPFL**



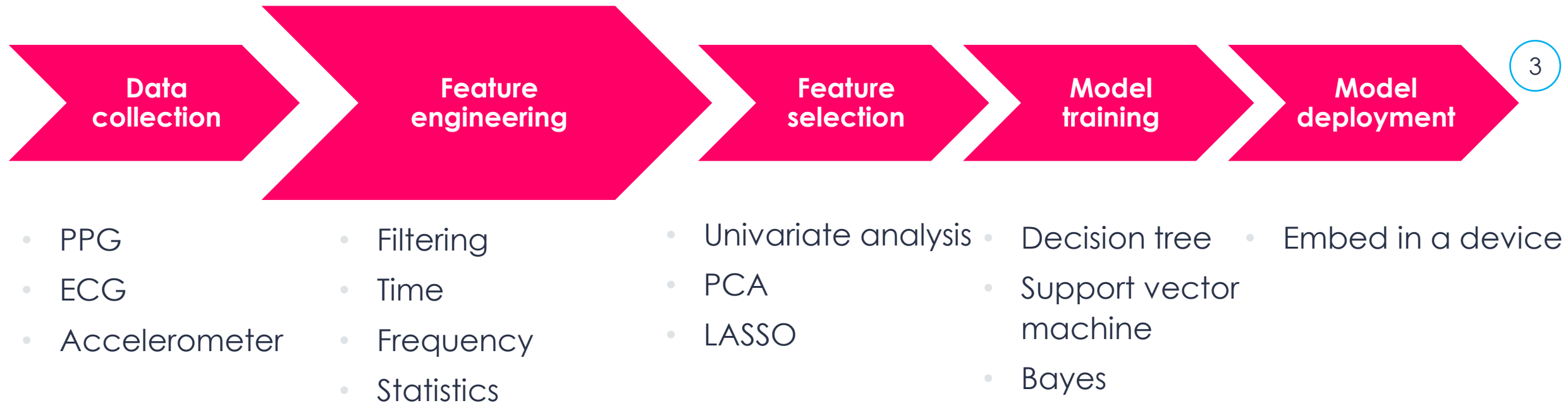
# Outline

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- Introduction to Machine Learning (ML)
- Regression
- Classification
  - Supervised
  - Unsupervised
- Regularization
- Feature selection
- Validation strategies
- Performance evaluation

# Introduction to Machine Learning

- **Goal:** “teach” a machine to interpret data
- **How:** Training a model with a data subset
- **Usage:** The trained model can then interpret new data



# Introduction to Machine Learning

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## Supervised (known labels)

- Support vector machine
- Linear regression
- Logistic regression
- Naïve Bayes
- Decision trees
- Neural networks

## Unsupervised (unknown labels)

- K- means
- Gaussian Mixture Model
- DBScan

## Reinforcement learning

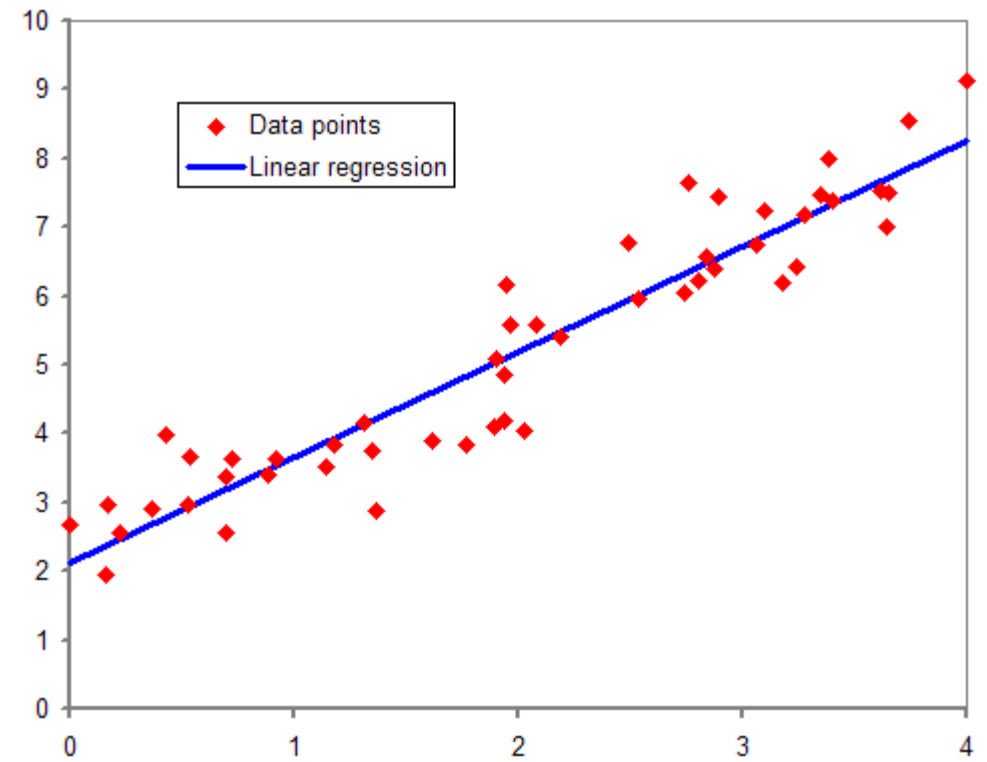
- Q-Learning
- Markov decision process
- Monte Carlo

# Regression vs Classification

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- **Regression**
  - Goal: estimate an output **value**
  - Usage: Mainly for **curve fitting**
- **Classification**
  - Goal: predict an output **class**

# Regression



# Regression

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- Estimate the dependence between a dependent variable (the output, Y) and 1 or more independent variables (the inputs, X).

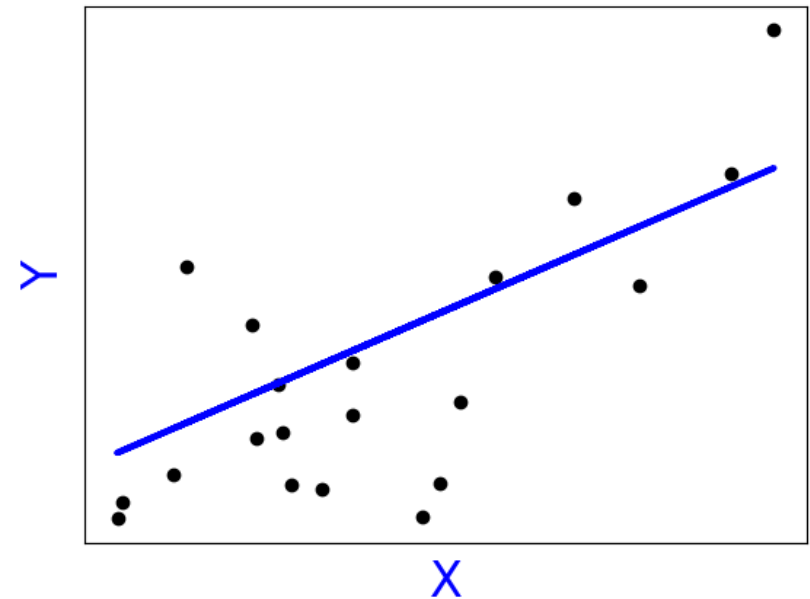
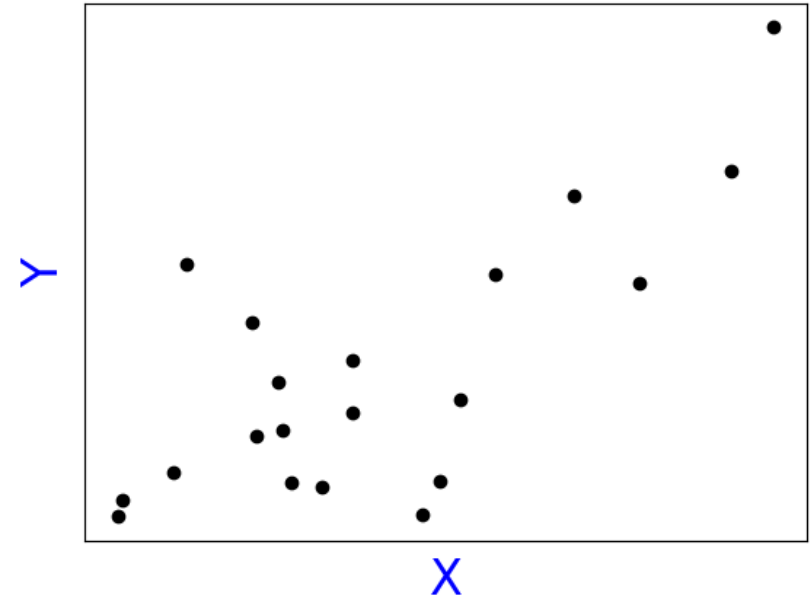
$$Y_i = f(X_i, \beta) + e_i$$

$\beta$ : model parameters,  $e$ : error term

- Linear regression assumes a linear relationship between inputs and output
- Nonlinear regression does not assume a linear relationship
  - E.g., exponential, logarithmic, Gaussian

# Linear regression

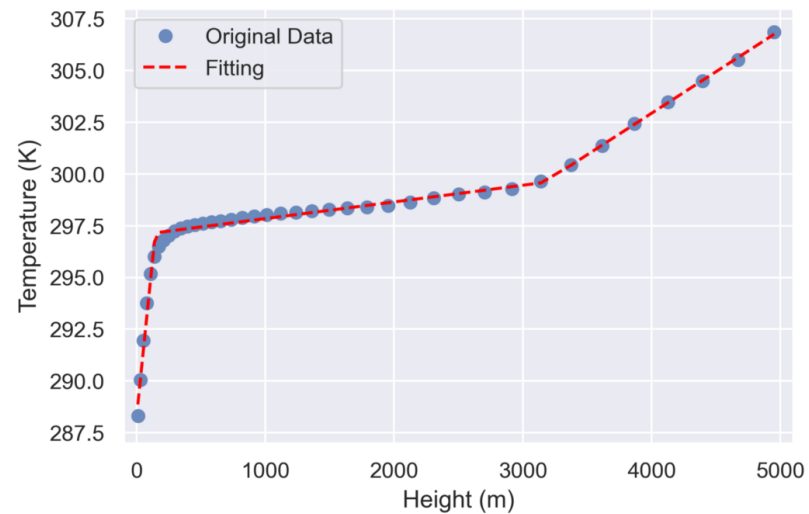
- $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \dots + \beta_n X_{in} + e_i$
- Least squares to find the best fit:
- $r_i = Y_i - f(X_i, \beta)$
- Objective: minimize  $S = \sum_{i=0}^n r_i^2$
- Polynomial regression is also linear regression!



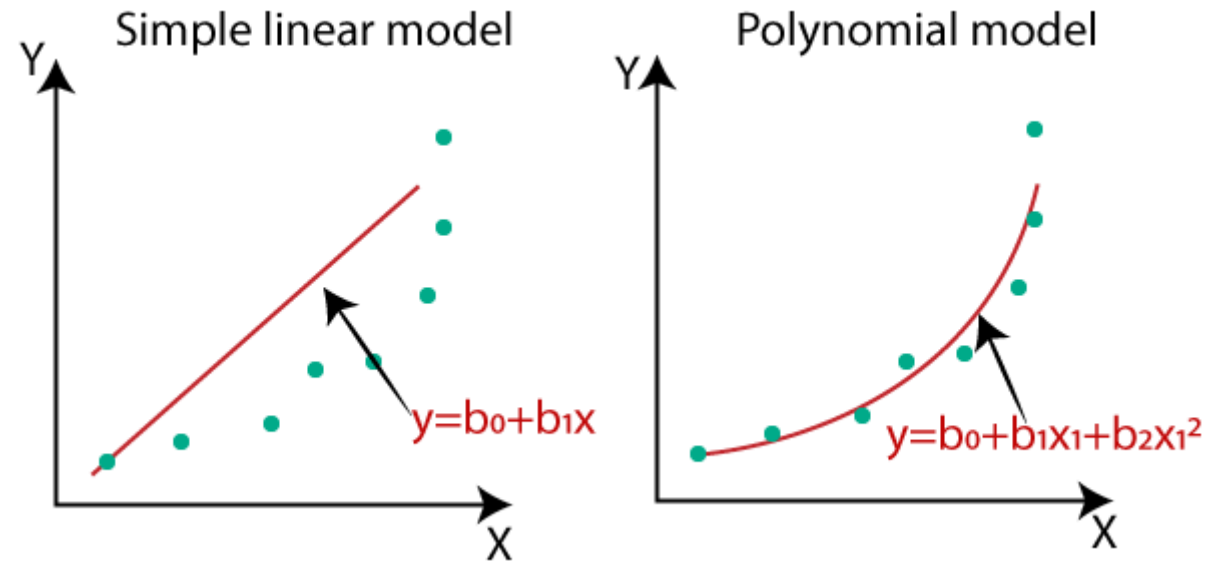


# Linear regression – additional examples

- Piecewise linear regression



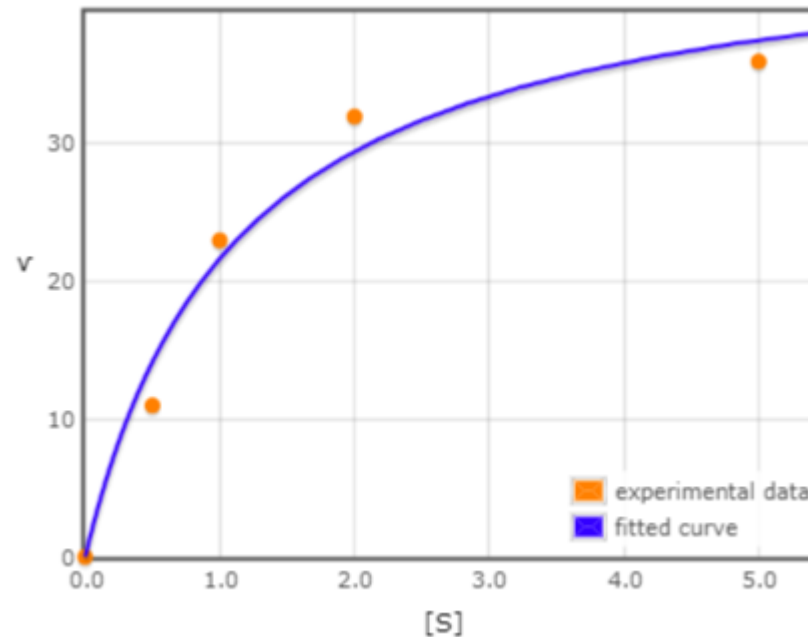
- Cubic polynomial regression



# Nonlinear regression

- Includes logarithmic, exponential, Gaussian, ...
- Example: Equation for enzyme kinetics:

- $$f(x, \beta) = \frac{\beta_1 * x}{\beta_2 + x}$$



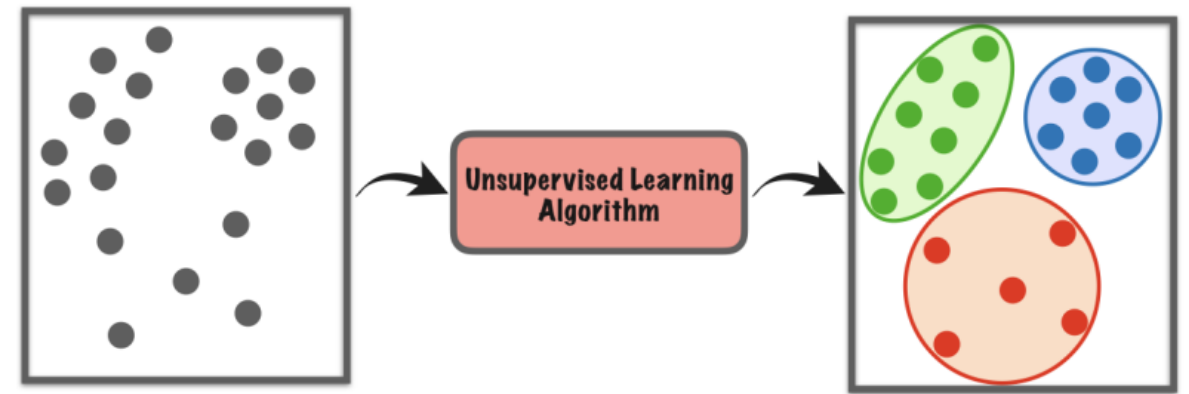
# Practical examples in digital health

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- Speed estimation from cadence

- $Speed = \beta_0 + \beta_1 cadence + \beta_2 slope + \beta_3 height + \beta_4 energy + \dots$

# Unsupervised learning / Clustering



# Centroid based method – k means

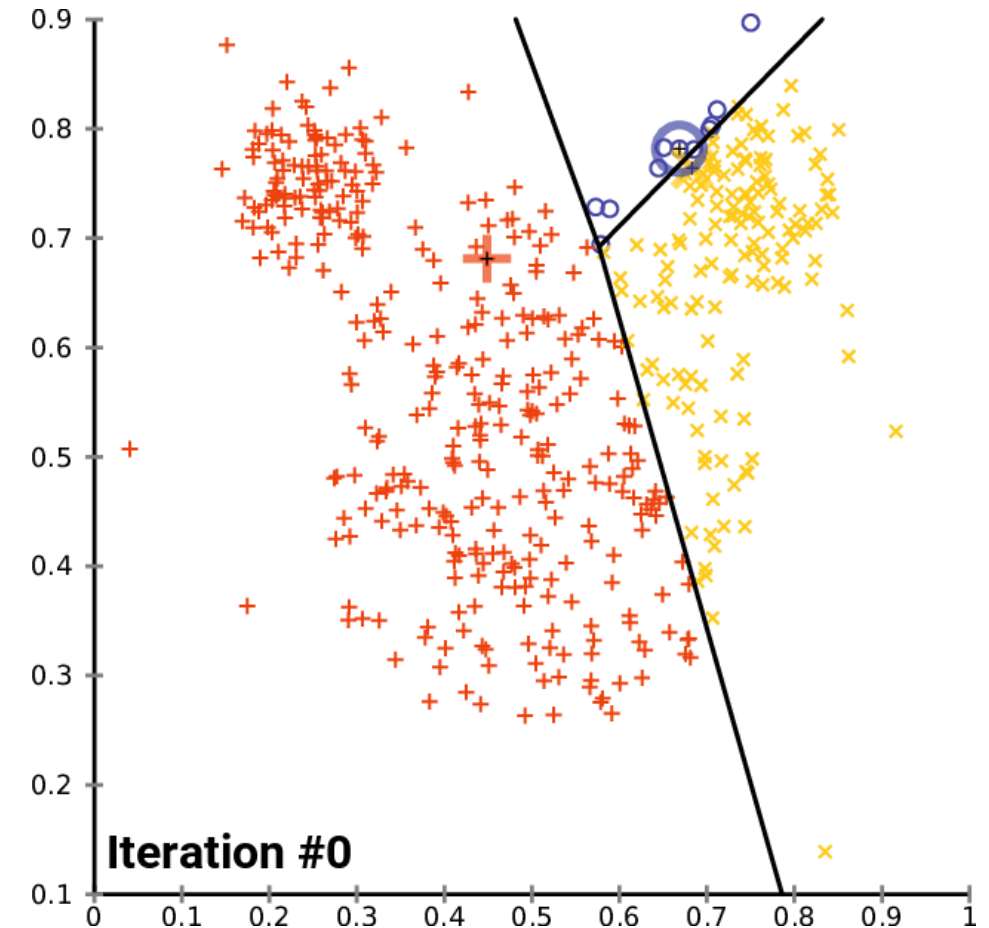
- Initialize a set of means  $\{m_1, m_2, \dots, m_k\}$
- Assign each observation to a cluster with mean based on least square distance

$$S_i^{(t)} = \left\{ x_p : \left\| x_p - m_i^{(t)} \right\|^2 \leq \left\| x_p - m_j^{(t)} \right\|^2 \forall j, 1 \leq j \leq k \right\}$$

- Update means (centroids)

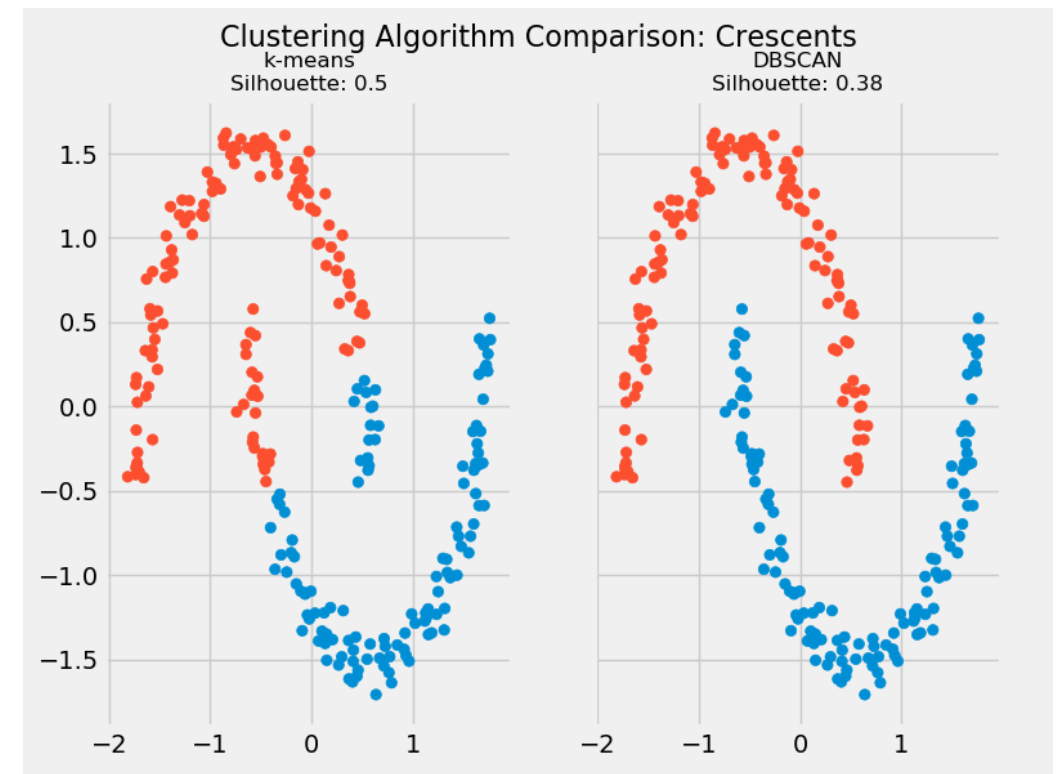
$$m_i^{(t+1)} = \frac{1}{|S_i^{(t)}|} \sum_{x_j \in S_i^{(t)}} x_j$$

- Converge when no more updates possible



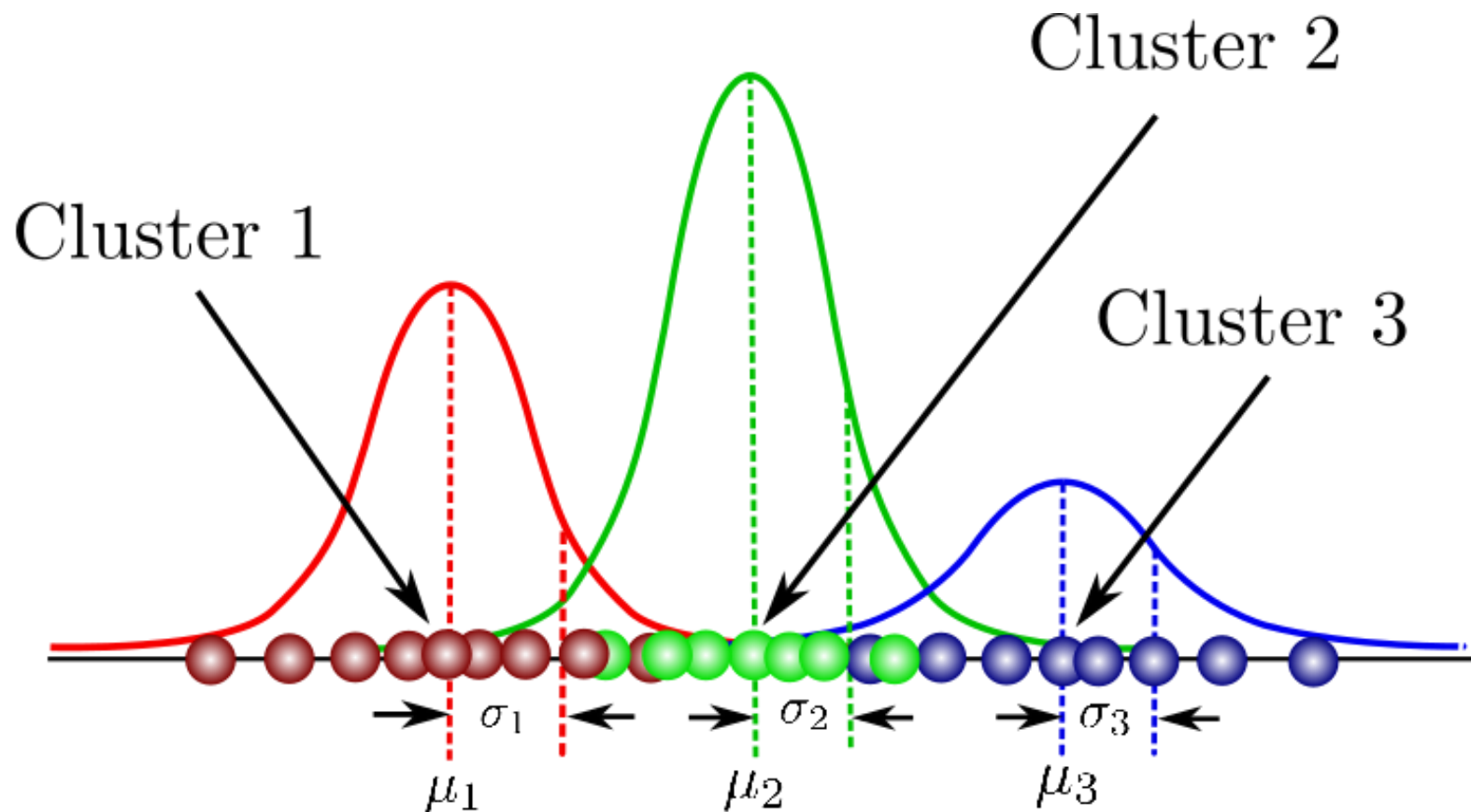
# Clustering – k means

- Advantages: easy method when labels are unknown
- Limitations: may not converge optimally (wrong clusters!)
- Initialization of clusters is not always evident, needs a predefined number of clusters
- Insensitive to data shape (e.g. non-linearly separable clusters)

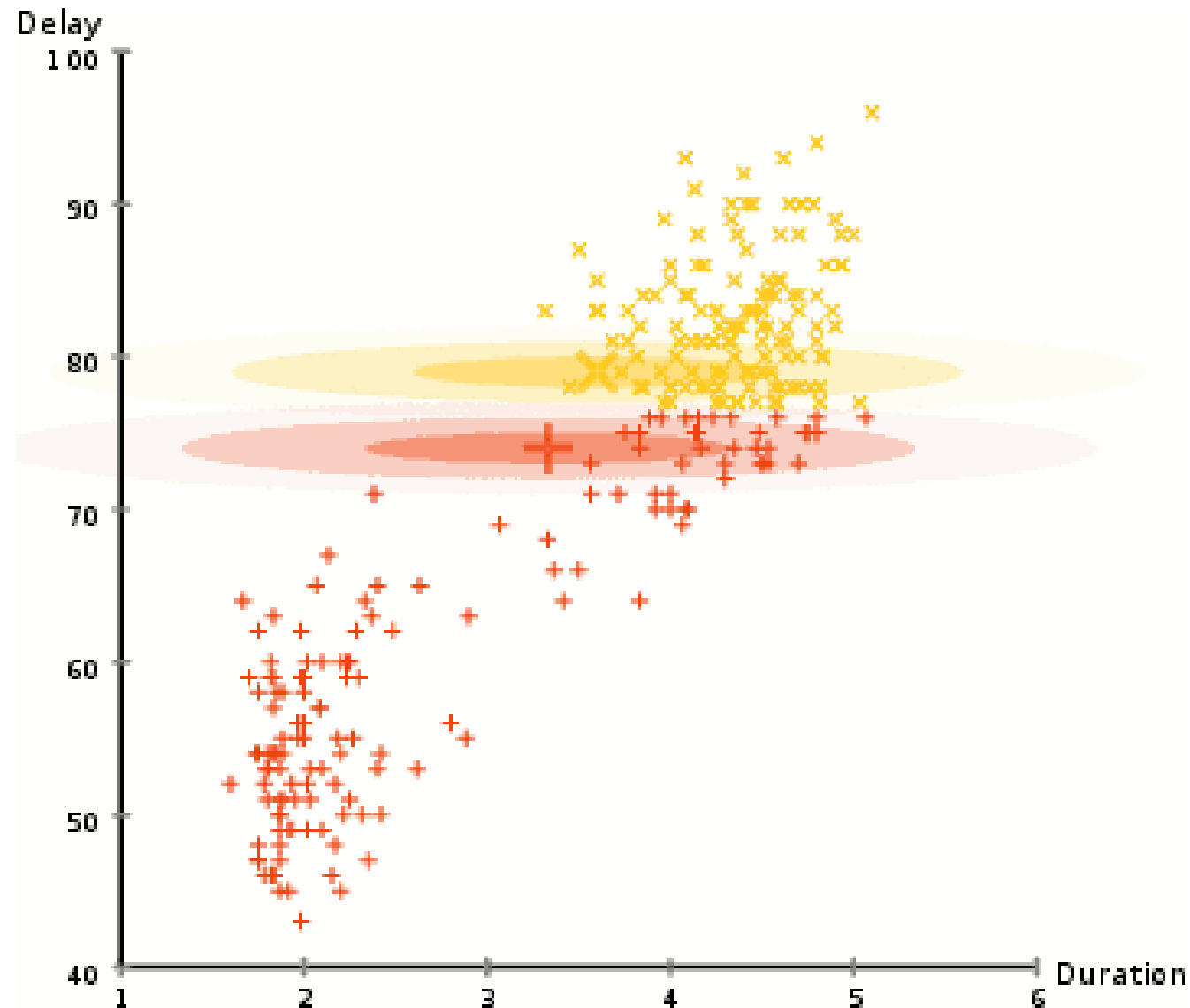


# Distribution based method – Gaussian Mixture Model

- Relies on a mixture of Gaussian densities
- Expectation – Maximization algorithm

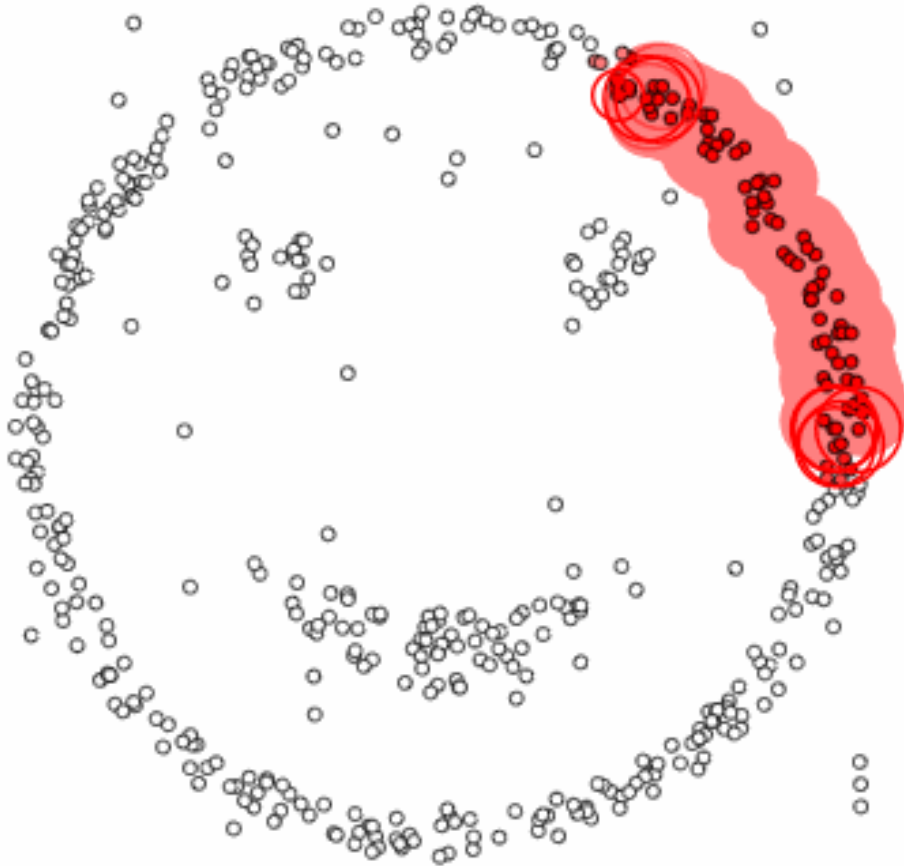


# Distribution based method – Gaussian Mixture Model





# Density based method – DBSCAN



- Requires two parameters:
  - $\epsilon$ , the radius of a neighborhood
  - minPTs, minimum number of points to form a dense region
- Start with a single point, and add new points to the cluster until there are no more points within  $\epsilon$
- Then, a new point belongs to a new cluster
- Repeat until there are no more points

# Clustering – DBSCAN

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- **Advantages**

- No prior #clusters knowledge
- Sensitive to data shape
- Robust to outliers
- Only two parameters needed

- **Drawbacks**

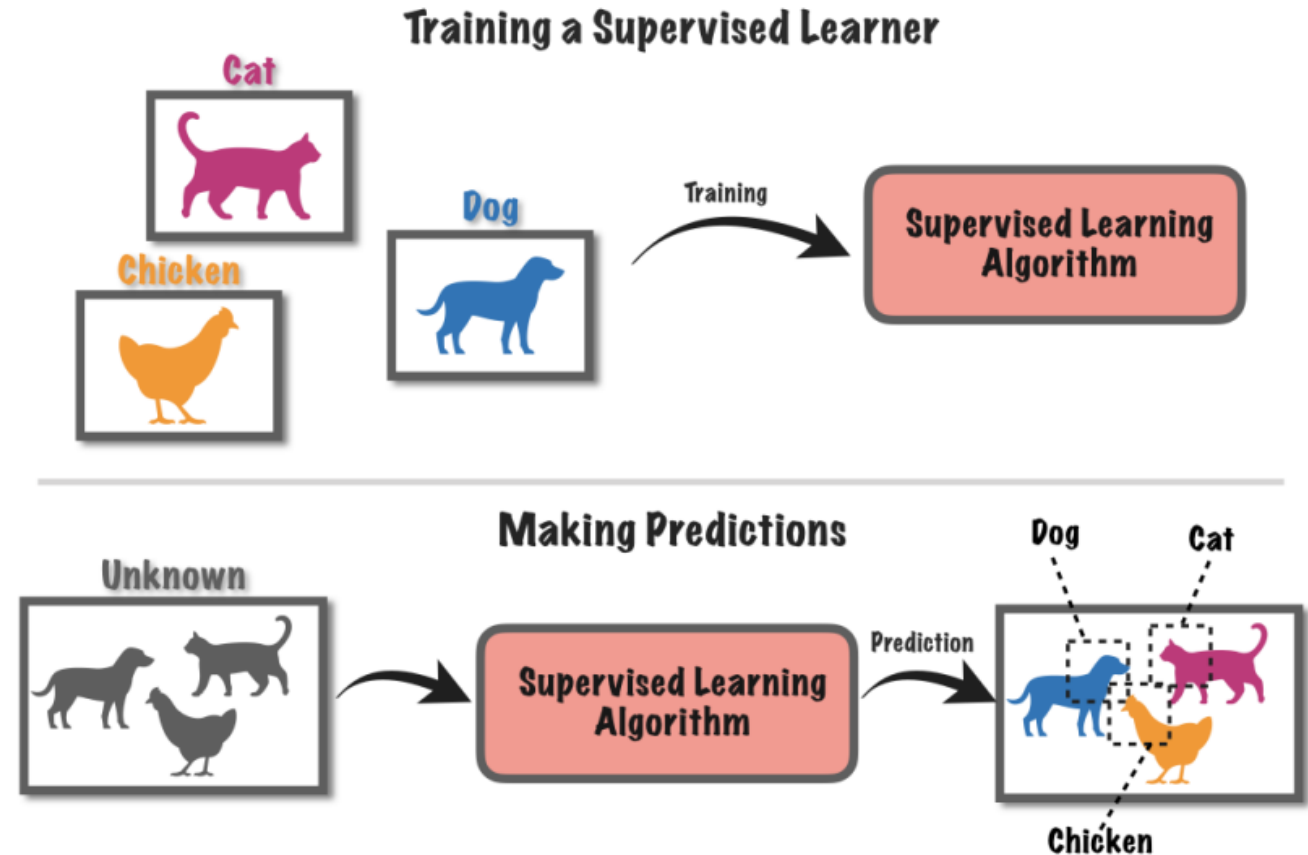
- Depends on order of point selection
- Heavily dependent on distance metric
- Choosing appropriate distance metric may be difficult

# Clustering – Conclusion

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- Clustering is useful when attempting to make sense of unlabeled data
- Several methods exist with varying advantages/drawbacks
- Model selection may benefit from prior knowledge about the data distribution/shape/domain expertise

# Supervised learning



# Naïve Bayes (probabilistic classifier)

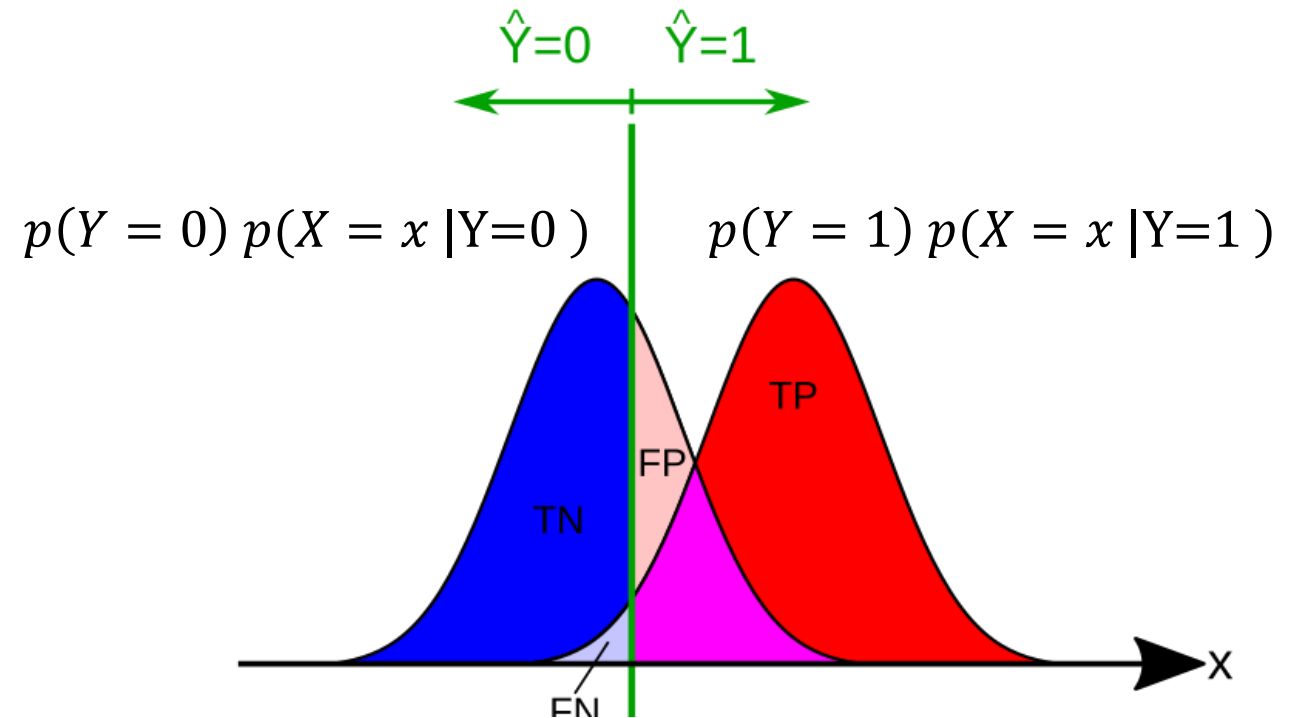
- Assign a new observation  $\hat{y}$  to a class C:

- $\hat{y} = \underset{k \in \{1, \dots, K\}}{\operatorname{argmax}} p(C_k) \prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i | C_k)$

- Common assumption is that probability is Gaussian:

- $p(x = v | C_k) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_k^2}} e^{-\frac{(v-\mu_k)^2}{2\sigma_k^2}}$

- Where v is an observation



# Logistic Regression

- Based on the logistic function, for data that has a “sigmoid” distribution

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(x-\mu)/s}}$$

with  $\mu$  a location parameter ( $p(\mu) = 0.5$ ) and  $s$  a scale parameter

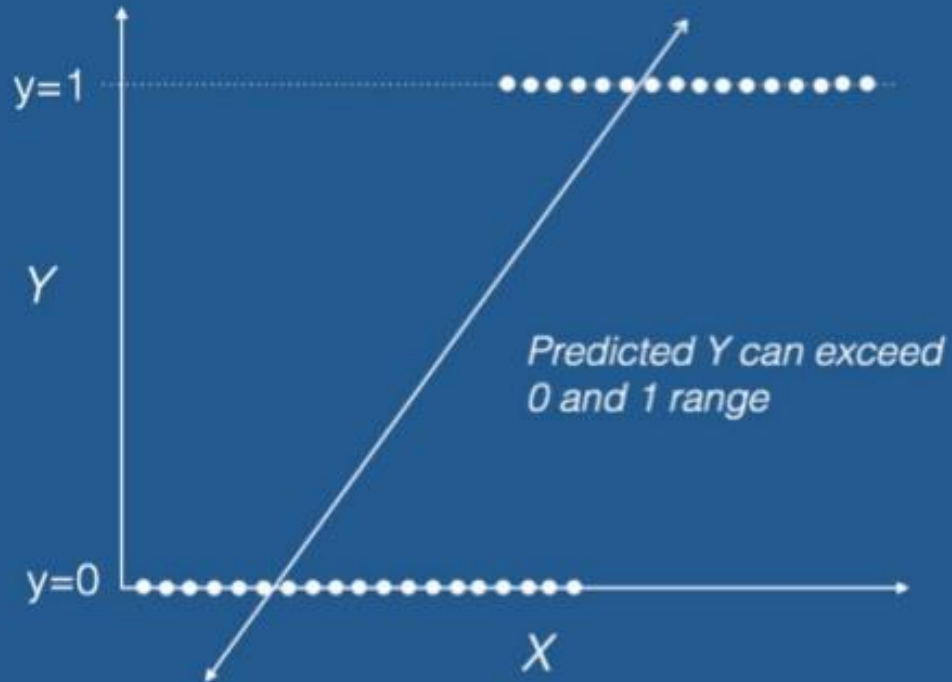
- Goal is to minimize negative log-likelihood (alternatively, maximize the positive log-likelihood):

$$cost = \begin{cases} -\log(p(x)) & \text{if } y = 1 \\ -\log(1 - p(x)) & \text{if } y = 0 \end{cases}$$

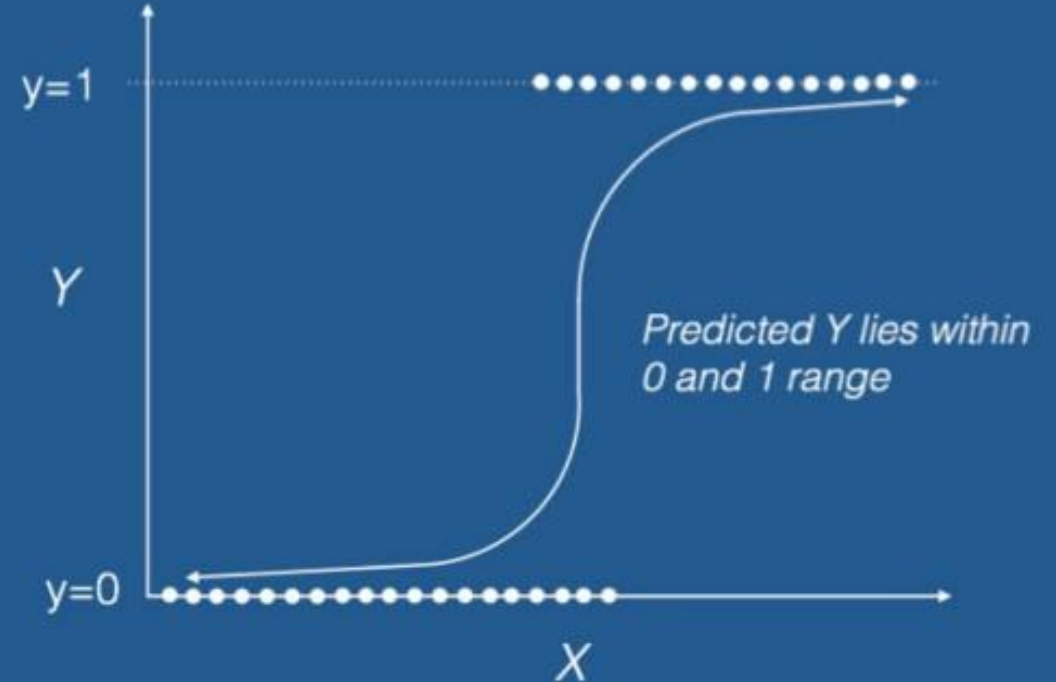
- Gradient descent: minimize the derivative of the cost function

# Logistic Regression

## Linear Regression



## Logistic Regression



# Decision trees

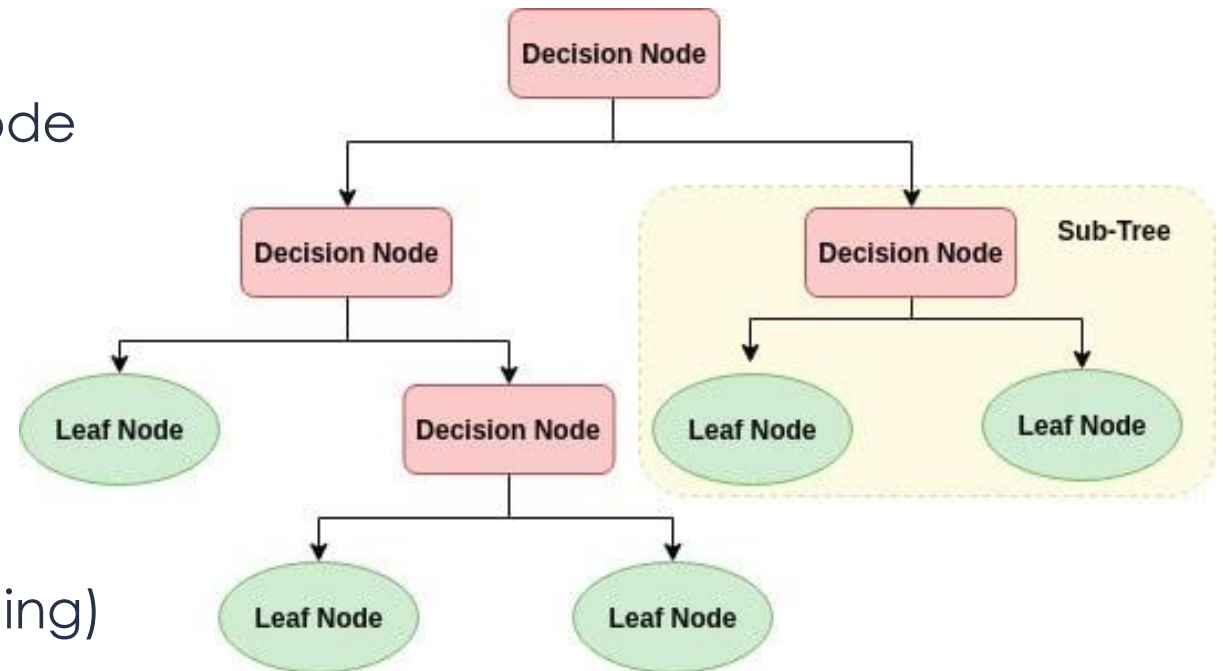
- Classification based on splitting data through decision nodes
- Attribute selection measure to optimize nodes:
- E.g., information gain / Gain ratio (used in C4.5 tree)

Entropy:  $H(T) = -\sum_{i=1}^J p_i \log_2(p_i)$

- Information gain between parent node and sum of children nodes:

$$IG(T, a) = H(T) - H(T|a)$$

- Tree depth and maximum nodes may be selected and optimized
- Tree pruning (e.g., reduced error pruning)





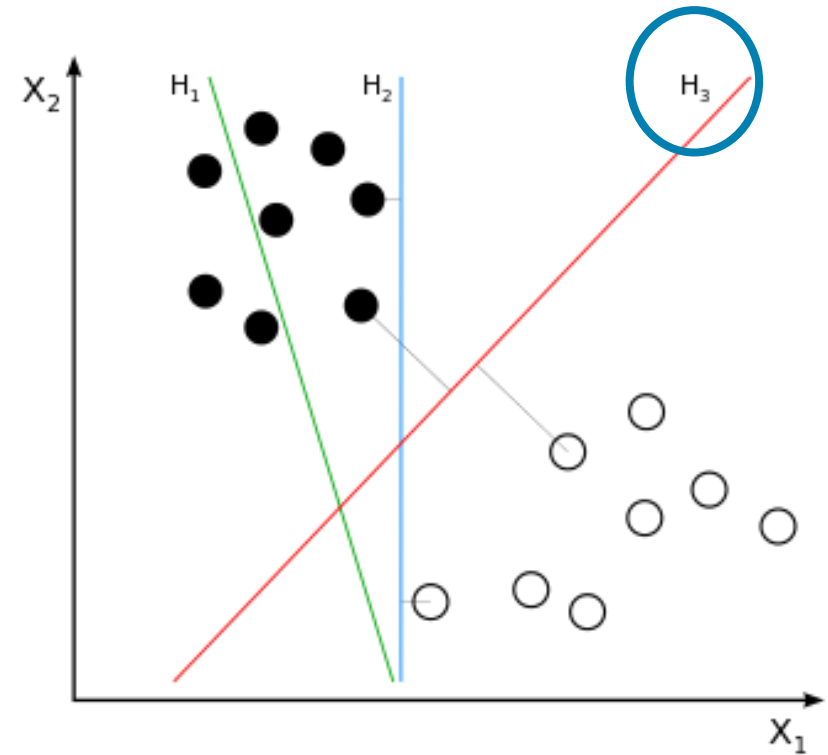
# Support Vector Machines

- Motivation: classify data with highest margin between classes
- Linear classifier:

$$w^T x - b = 1$$

$$w^T x - b = -1, w \text{ a vector normal to the hyperplane}$$

- Non-linear classifier (kernel)
  - E.g., Gaussian radial basis function
  - $K(x, x') = \exp\left(-\frac{\|x-x'\|^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$ ,  $x, x'$  are feature vectors
- Hard and soft margins



# Regularization

# Regularization

- Add additional constrain to the cost function of the models
- Regularized linear regression

- **Ridge Regression** 
$$\sum_{i=1}^n \left( y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j x_{ij} \right)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j^2 = \text{RSS} + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j^2$$

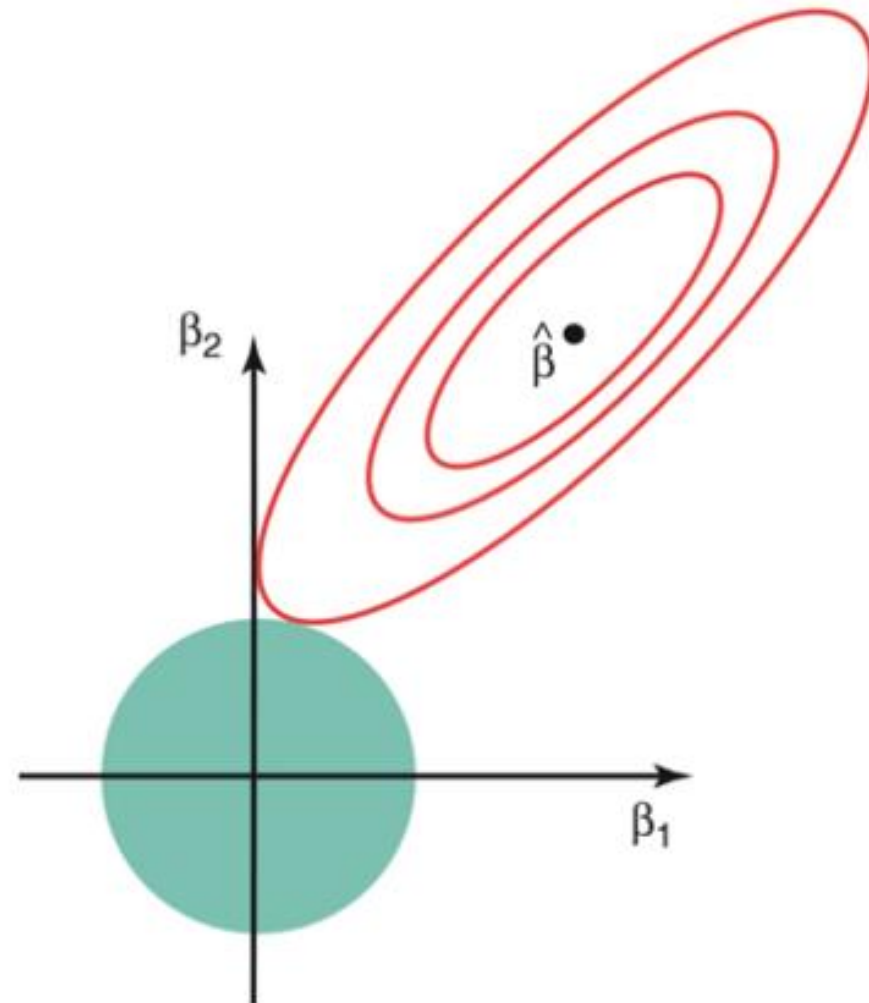
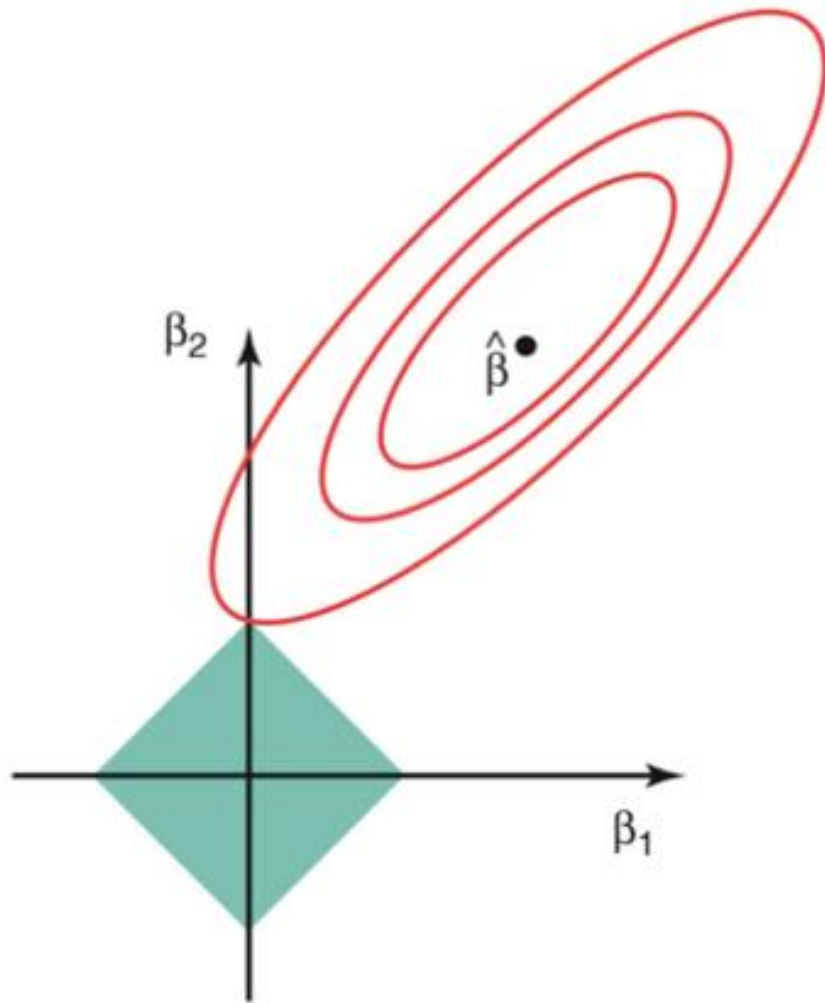
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- **LASSO** (least absolute shrinkage and selection operator)

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \left( y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j x_{ij} \right)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^p |\beta_j| = \text{RSS} + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^p |\beta_j|.$$

- Elastic net: Ridge + LASSO

# Regularization



# Regularization

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- Advantages:
  - Avoids overfitting
  - Manage multicollinearity among features (avoid singularity)
  - Dimensionality reduction (i.e., Simplicity and Computational Efficiency)
- Disadvantages
  - Deviation from the original goal (learning error reduction)

# Feature selection

# Feature selection

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- What are features? **Special characteristics of a class**
- E.g.:
  - Time domain: peak detection, zero-crossings, amplitude, peak-to-peak
  - Frequency domain: spectrogram transformation (e.g. Fourier)
  - Statistical: mean, median, variance, standard deviation, ...
  - Expert based / heuristic: domain or application specific!

# Feature selection

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- Goal: select subset of features to be used in classification
- Why not use all available features?
  - Simplify models, reduce time/computational complexity
  - Avoid “curse of dimensionality”: more data is needed to train with more features!
  - Avoid overfitting



# Feature selection - Algorithm

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- Filter
  - Rank features based on information metrics
- Wrapper
  - Use the performance of the model with the selected features to select the best subset
- Embedded
  - Feature selection is embedded in model (learns features and model simultaneously)

# Feature selection methods

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## Filter

- Univariate analysis
- Information gain
- Pearson correlation
- T-test

## Embedded

- LASSO

## Wrapper

- Sequential (forward/backward)
- Genetic algorithm
- Recursive elimination

# Feature selection

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- **Filter**

- Fast, classifier independent, reduces risk of overfitting, BUT
- Does not look at feature or model dependencies

- **Wrapper / Embedded**

- Models interactions/dependencies, may perform better than filter, BUT
- Slower algorithms, overfitting prone, classifier-dependent

# Validation strategies

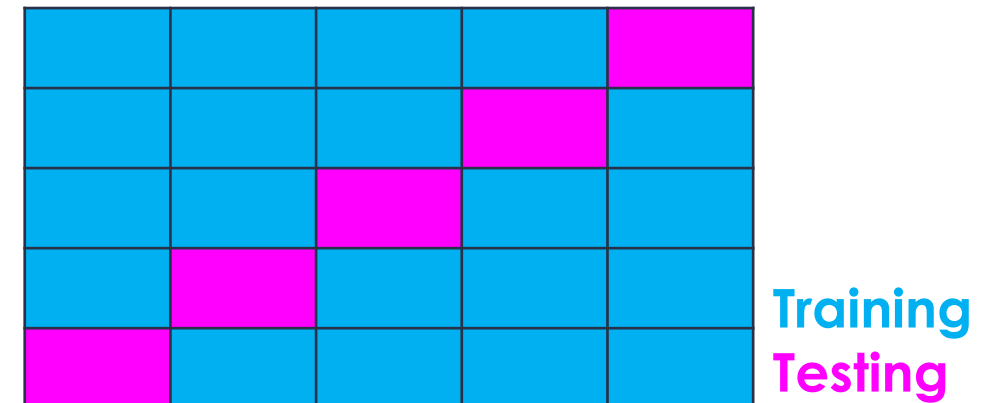
# Training / testing / validation

- Why train / test / validate?
- Model may perform well if trained with entire dataset, but may not **generalize** to classify unseen data → Avoid **overfitting**
- **Data splitting**



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- **Cross validation (e.g. leave one out)**
  - Split the data into  $n$  folds
  - Train on  $n-1$  folds and test on remaining fold
  - Repeat  $n$  times



# Performance evaluation

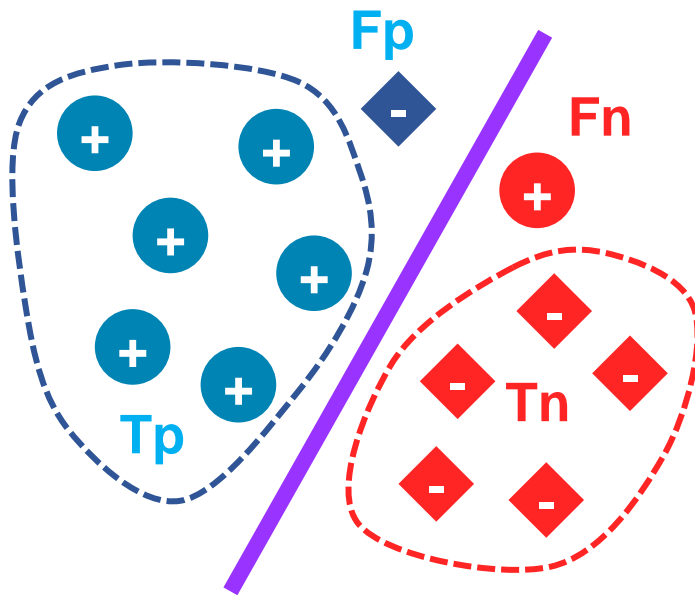
# Confusion matrix

- Table representation of classification outputs
- Used for performance metrics calculation
- Activity classification example:

		Predicted class		
		Rest	Walk	Run
Actual class	Rest	95	5	0
	Walk	0	92	8
	Run	0	2	98

# Confusion matrix performance metrics

- **TP = True Positive:** Class correctly detected
- **TN = True Negative:** Class correctly rejected
- **FP = False Positive:** Class incorrectly detected
- **FN = False Negative:** Class incorrectly rejected



$$\text{Sensitivity} = \frac{Tp}{Tp + Fn}$$

$$\text{Specificity} = \frac{Tn}{Tn + Fp}$$

$$\text{Accuracy} = \frac{Tp + Tn}{Tp + Fn + Tn + Fp}$$

$$\text{Precision} = \frac{Tp}{Tp + Fp}$$



# Confusion matrix performance metrics

- Activity classification example:

		Predicted class		
		Rest	Walk	Run
Actual class	Rest	95	5	0
	Walk	0	92	8
	Run	0	2	98

- Walk sensitivity =  $92 / (92 + 8) = 92\%$
- Walk precision =  $92 / (92 + 5 + 2) = 93\%$
- Walk specificity =  $(95 + 98) / (95 + 98 + 5 + 2) = 97\%$

# Coding tools for regression/machine learning

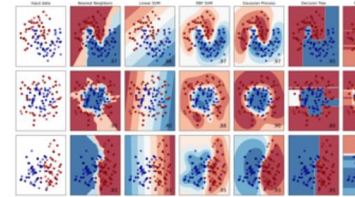
- [scikit-learn](https://scikit-learn.org/) (python toolbox)

## Classification

Identifying which category an object belongs to.

**Applications:** Spam detection, image recognition.

**Algorithms:** SVM, nearest neighbors, random forest, and more...



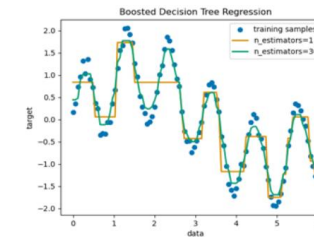
Examples

## Regression

Predicting a continuous-valued attribute associated with an object.

**Applications:** Drug response, Stock prices.

**Algorithms:** SVR, nearest neighbors, random forest, and more...



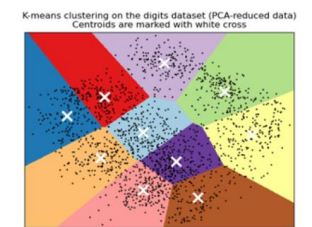
Examples

## Clustering

Automatic grouping of similar objects into sets.

**Applications:** Customer segmentation, Grouping experiment outcomes

**Algorithms:** k-Means, spectral clustering, mean-shift, and more...



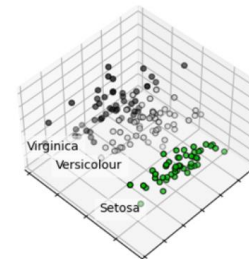
Examples

## Dimensionality reduction

Reducing the number of random variables to consider.

**Applications:** Visualization, Increased efficiency

**Algorithms:** PCA, feature selection, non-negative matrix factorization, and more...



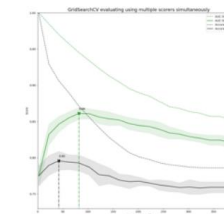
Examples

## Model selection

Comparing, validating and choosing parameters and models.

**Applications:** Improved accuracy via parameter tuning

**Algorithms:** grid search, cross validation, metrics, and more...



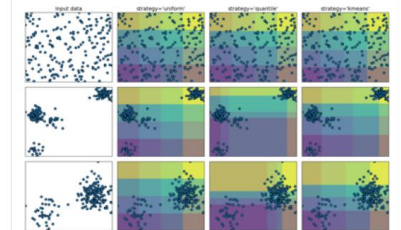
Examples

## Preprocessing

Feature extraction and normalization.

**Applications:** Transforming input data such as text for use with machine learning algorithms.

**Algorithms:** preprocessing, feature extraction, and more...



Examples

- 
- Ramin Soltani – asi@csem.ch
  - CSEM Signal Processing Group

