# 8 Advanced Practice

#### Handling Imbalanced Datasets

An dataset has one class under-represented.

e.g. Fraudulent e-commerce transactions are much less common than genuine ones. Noise puts genuine ones on the wrong side of the desired decision boundary, moving it to a place.

Possible solutions:

• For SVM, we can assign  $\qquad$  to the minority class.

e.g. For binary SVM, instead of finding soft-margin's

 $\operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{w},b} \left[ \frac{1}{2} \right]$  $\frac{1}{2}||\mathbf{w}||^2 + C\frac{1}{N}$  $\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \max(0, 1 - y_i(\mathbf{wx}_i + b))\Big]$ , we find something like

$$
\operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{w},b} \left[ \frac{1}{2} ||\mathbf{w}||^2 + C \frac{1}{N} \left( C_1 \sum_{\{(\mathbf{x}_i,y_i)|y_i=-1\}} \max(0,1-y_i(\mathbf{wx}_i+b)) + C_2 \sum_{\{(\mathbf{x}_i,y_i)|y_i=+1\}} \max(0,1-y_i(\mathbf{wx}_i+b)) \right) \right]
$$

where  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  are regularization parameters that can be set as  $\sqrt{\phantom{a}}$ 

e.g. See Burkov's Figure 8.1 on p. 98 (p. 3 of <www.dropbox.com/s/im1s2skkaikzrrs/Chapter8.pdf?dl=0>). The same problem (before re-weighting imbalanced data) arises with most algorithms.

- adds multiple copies of minority class examples.
- **EXECUTE:** randomly removes some majority class examples.
- Create examples by combining randomly sampled feature values from several examples of minority class.

Do train\_test\_split() addressing imbalance so that test data are \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_

#### Python

- The svm.SVC() we know<sup>[1](#page-0-0)</sup> has a class\_weight parameter:
	- The default None gives weights  $C_1 = C_2 = 1$  to each class.
	- It can be a dictionary of label: value pairs (where value  $> 0$ ) like {0: C\_1, 1: C\_2}.
	- Using 'balanced' gives weights inversely proportional to class counts in training data as  $N$  / (n\_classes  $*$  np.bincount(y)); e.g.

<span id="page-0-0"></span> $1$ svm.SVC(kernel='linear', C=1) for soft-margin linear SVM (or C=1000 for hard-margin),

svm.SVC(kernel='rbf', C=1, gamma='scale') for kernel trick for nonlinear boundary

```
y = np.array([0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1]) # 5 zeros, 1 oneN = y. shape # 6
counts = np.bincount(y) # array([5, 1])n_classes = counts.shape # 2
C_1, C_2 = N / (n_{classes} * counts) # 0.6, 3
```
• For over- and undersampling, $^2$  $^2$ 

```
– from imblearn.over_sampling import RandomOverSampler
    rs = RandomOverSampler(random_state=None)
    X_rresampled, y_rresampled = rs.fit_resample(X, y)– from imblearn.under_sampling import RandomUnderSampler
    rs = RandomUnderSampler(random_state=None)
    X_rresampled, y_rresampled = rs.fit_resample(X, y)e.g.
  X = np.array([1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6]). reshape(-1, 1)y = np.array([0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1])rs = RandomOverSampler()
  X_rresampled, y_rresampled = rs.fit_resample(X, y)print(f'Oversampling: X_resampled={X_resampled},\ny_resampled={y_resampled}')
  rs = RandomUnderSampler()
  X_rresampled, y_rresampled = rs.fit_resample(X, y)
```

```
print(f'Undersampling: X_resampled={X_resampled},\ny_resampled={y_resampled}')
```
To learn more:

User guide:

```
https://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/svm.html#unbalanced-problems
https://imbalanced-learn.org/stable/over_sampling.html
https://imbalanced-learn.org/stable/under_sampling.html
```
• Reference manual:

```
https://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/generated/sklearn.svm.SVC.html
https://imbalanced-learn.org/stable/references/generated/imblearn.over_sampling.RandomOverSampler.html
https://imbalanced-learn.org/stable/references/generated/imblearn.under_sampling.RandomUnderSampler.html
```
 $\bullet$  Example:<sup>[3](#page-1-1)</sup>

[https://scikit-learn.org/stable/auto\\_examples/svm/plot\\_separating\\_hyperplane\\_unbalanced.html](https://scikit-learn.org/stable/auto_examples/svm/plot_separating_hyperplane_unbalanced.html)

<span id="page-1-1"></span><span id="page-1-0"></span> $^{2}$ Do "New > Terminal" and then run conda install -c conda-forge imbalanced-learn to install package.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Click on "launch binder" to run it online. Note class\_weight= $\{1: 10\}$ , which leaves class 0 at the default weight of 1). Also try class\_weight={0: 1, 1: 1} (balanced) and class\_weight={0: 12, 1: 10} (almost balanced).

# Combining Models

While ensemble methods like random forests combine several similar weak models, we can also  $\begin{tabular}{c} combine different \hspace{1em} \hspace{1em} \hspace{1em} \hspace{1em} models: \end{tabular}$ 

- the predictions (regression) or scores (classification) of several models.
- Majority vote applies several models and returns the predicted class. (Resolve a tie by choosing randomly or returning an error (or use an odd number of models).)
- builds a meta-model whose input is the output of several base models. e.g. To combine models  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  that predict from the same set of classes, create a training example  $(\mathbf{x}'_i, y'_i)$  for the stacked model as  $(\mathbf{x}'_i = [f_1(\mathbf{x}_i), f_2(\mathbf{x}_i)], y'_i = y_i)^4$  $(\mathbf{x}'_i = [f_1(\mathbf{x}_i), f_2(\mathbf{x}_i)], y'_i = y_i)^4$  and train a meta-model on the new examples. Tune hyperparameters with cross-validation. Comparatave notes:
	- Stacking uses from the base models (scores across C class labels) than averaging or majority voting (single best class label from among  $C$  labels).
	- $-$  Stacking uses  $\_\_\_\_\_\_\$  models on the same data, while bagging uses the  $\_\_\_\_\_\_\$ model on different (bootstrap resampled) data.
	- Stacking uses to combine predictions from base models, while boosting uses a sequence of models in which the next model tries to correct the current one.

Base models should be by being made from different features or different algorithms.

### Python

 from sklearn.ensemble import StackingClassifier, StackingRegressor clf = StackingClassifier(estimators, final\_estimator=None) model = StackingRegressor(estimators, final\_estimator=None) estimators is a list of tuples (string name, estimator) giving the models to be stacked. final\_estimator uses the output of estimators as input.

### To learn more:

- User guide: <https://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/ensemble.html#stacking>
- Reference manual:

<https://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/generated/sklearn.ensemble.StackingClassifier.html> <https://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/generated/sklearn.ensemble.StackingRegressor.html>

Example:

[https://scikit-learn.org/stable/auto\\_examples/ensemble/plot\\_stack\\_predictors.html](https://scikit-learn.org/stable/auto_examples/ensemble/plot_stack_predictors.html)

<span id="page-2-0"></span> $^4f_1(\mathbf{x}_i)$  is the output of <code>clf1.predict\_proba(x)</code> or <code>clf1.decision\_function(x)</code> or <code>model1.predict(x).</code>

### Algorithm Efficiency

of algorithms reveals the computational complexity of algorithms in terms of the time (or memory or other resources) they require. We use <u>notation</u> to write time as a function of input size  $N$ , and then constants and lower-order terms.

- Suppose a program running on input of size n has run time  $f(n)$  seconds.
- $\bullet$  Big-O gives an upper bound on run-time to within a constant factor. A function  $f(n)$  is said to be  $O(g(n))$  if there exist constants C and N such that  $f(n) < C \cdot g(n)$  for all . (Draw picture.)
- Read " $f(n) = O(g(n))$ " as " $f(n)$  is big-O of g(n)."
- Here are some typical  $q(n)$  functions in increasing order:
	- $-g(n) = 1, e.g.$  by index i  $-g(n) = \log_2(n), e.g.$  in sorted array  $-g(n) = n, e.g.$  $-g(n) = n \log_2(n)$ , e.g. clever comparison  $-g(n) = n^2$ , e.g.  $-g(n) = n^3$ , e.g. matrix \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_,  $C = AB$  via  $c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik} \cdot b_{kj}$  $-g(n) = n!$ , e.g. traveling salesman via
- Just reading a data set of size n is  $O(\underline{\hspace{2cm}})$ , so an  $O(n)$  algorithm (that runs only once) counts as \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_. Since  $log_2(n)$  is small for typical n, an  $O(n \log_2(n))$  algorithm is often fast enough. Programs taking  $O(n^2)$  or more time may work for small n but can be for large n.
- The of the algorithm usually matters a lot more than processor speed, coding skill, programming language, etc.
- If we cannot figure out the  $O($ ) formula, we can \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ the code for several dataset sizes N and make a graph of time vs. N. e.g.

start = time.time() # get time in seconds since "time started" (often 1/1/1970) # ... code that requires timing goes here ...  $end = time.time()$  $seconds = end - start$ print(f'The code took {seconds} seconds.')

 $\bullet$  When the time is too long on N examples, work with a  $\_\_\_\_\_\$  randomly-selected subset.

To learn more:

- [https://scikit-learn.org/stable/computing/computational\\_performance.html](https://scikit-learn.org/stable/computing/computational_performance.html)
- <https://scikit-learn.org/stable/developers/performance.html>
- <https://www.thekerneltrip.com/machine/learning/computational-complexity-learning-algorithms>

# Multicore computing to speed up computation

In *multicore* computing, an algorithm is run  $\qquad$  on multiple CPU cores.<sup>[5](#page-4-0)</sup>

# Python

Some estimators support multicore computing via an **parameter:** set n\_jobs=None to use one core, n\_jobs=n to use n, or n\_jobs=-1 to use all. Find #CPUs via

import os # operating system interfaces (https://docs.python.org/3/library/os.html)  $n_CPU = os.cpu_count()$ 

Multicore methods include:

- §3: KNeighborsClassifier(), KNeighborsRegressor()
- §5: cross\_val\_score(), GridSearchCV(), RandomizedSearchCV()
- §5: permutation\_importance()
- §7: BaggingRegressor(), BaggingClassifier(), RandomForestRegressor(), RandomForestClassifier()
- §8: StackingClassifier(), StackingRegressor()

#### To learn more:

<span id="page-4-0"></span>User guide: <https://scikit-learn.org/stable/computing/parallelism.html>