# **Regression using ANN (function approximation)**

## **Case study**

using synthetic data (numerical and categorical features)

### **Content**

#### **1. Data Generation and Preprocessing**:

- Create synthetic data and standardizing it for training.
- Add categorical data and use one-hot encoder
- Understanding data data correlation
- **2. Building a Deep Neural Network**:
	- How to design a regression-focused DNN using Keras.
- **3. Training the Model**:
	- Training with validation splits and visualizing training progress.
	- Use regularization (dropout) and Early stopping
- **4. Model Evaluation**:
	- Calculating Mean Squared Error and understanding model performance.
- **5. Making Predictions**:
	- Converting scaled predictions back to the original scale for interpretation.

### **Dataset generation**

#### **Dataset Description**

The dataset used is a synthetic dataset with the next characteristics:

#### **1. Numerical Features**:

- The dataset contains *num\_samples* = 3000 examples with *num\_features* = 8 numerical features
- These features are generated randomly using np.random.rand, which creates values between 0 and 1, filling an array with the specified shape (num\_samples, num\_features).
- 3000 rows (samples) and 8 columns (features).
- This random data is then transformed in various non-linear ways using functions like sin, cos, exp, powers, and sums, to create complex relationships within the features and contribute to the target variable's value

#### **2. Categorical Features**:

- Two categorical features (xcat\_1, xcat\_2) are added using np.random.choice.
- These are generated by randomly selecting values from the categories ['A', 'B', 'C'].

### **Dataset generation**

#### **3. Combining into a DataFrame**:

•All these features (numerical and categorical) are combined into a pandas DataFrame called  $\times$  for easier handling.

•The target variable  $(y)$  is also included in the final DataFrame called combined\_df.

#### **4. Target Variable (y)**:

•The target variable is calculated using a combination of these non-linear interactions between the numerical features.

•Gaussian noise (randomness) is then added to the target variable, controlled by noise\_level, to make the prediction task more challenging.

#### **Shape and Format**:

•The final dataset has 3000 samples (rows) and 10 features (columns): 8 numerical and 2 categorical.

•The target variable (y) is a separate array or Series with 3000 values.

#### **Purpose**:

•The dataset is designed to be "difficult" in the context of regression problems.

•The non-linear relationships and noise introduced in the target variable make it challenging for simple models to make accurate predictions. This is a common practice to evaluate the performance of more complex models like deep neural networks.

### **Dataset generation**

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```
def generate difficult dataset (n samples=10000, n features=20, noise level=0.5):
         0.000
 \overline{2}3
        Generates a difficult dataset for deep learning regression.
        Args:
            n samples: Number of data points to generate.
            n features: Number of features.
 7
            noise level: Standard deviation of the Gaussian noise added to the target.
        Returns:
            X: Feature matrix (numpy array).
            y: Target variable (numpy array).
10
         HHH
        # Generate random features
1213
        X = np.random.randn(n samples, n features)# Create non-linear interactions between features
14
15
        y = (np.sin(X[:, 0] * X[:, 1]) + # Interaction between feature 0 and 1
16
            np. cos(X[:, 2] ** 2) + # Non-linear transformation of feature 2
17
            X[:, 3] * X[:, 4] - # Interaction between feature 3 and 4
18
            X[:, 5] ** 3 + \qquad # Non-linear transformation of feature 5
19
            np.exp(X[:, 6]) + # Exponential transformation of feature 6
20
            np.sum(X[:, 7:10], axis=1) + # Sum of features 7, 8, and 921
            np.random.random(n samples) * noise level # Add Gaussian noise22
23
        return X, y
24
```

```
# Generate the numeric dataset
                   26
                   27
                        num samples = 3000
Dataset 
                        num features = 828
                        X_numeric, y = generate_difficult_dataset(n_samples=num_samples,
                   29
generation30
                                                                  n_features=num_features, noise_level=0.25)
                        # Add synthetic categorical data
                   31
                   32np.random.seted(42)X categorical = np.randomchoice(['A', 'B', 'C'], size=(num_samples, 2))33
                   34
                   35
                        # Combine numerical and categorical data into a DataFrame
                   36
                        X = pd.DataFrame(X numeric, columns=[f"xnum[i] " for i in range(8)])X['xcat_1'] = X_categorical[:, 0]37
                   38
                        X['xcat 2'] = X_categorical[:, 1]39
                        y = y.reshape(-1, 1) # Reshape y to match expected input format
                   40
                   41
                        print("Shape of X (features):", X.shape)
                   42
                        print("Shape of y (target):", y.shape)
                   43
                   44
                   45
                        # Create a DataFrame for y
                        y_df = pd.DataFrame(y, columns=['target']) # Give y a column name
                   46
                   47
                        # Concatenate X and y df horizontally
                   48
                        combined df = pd.concat([X, y df], axis=1)49
                        # Print the combined DataFrame
                        print(combined df.to string())50
```
#### **Dataset structure**

Shape of X (features): (3000, 10) Shape of y (target): (3000, 1)



### **Data visualization**

Distribution of Target Variable



minimum: [1.00076199] maximum: [5.81300314] bin size: [0.16040804]



### **Correlation matrix for numerical features**

```
\overline{2}# Step 3: Calculate and visualize the correlation matrix for numerical features
    # Add the target variable to the DataFrame for correlation analysis
 \mathbf{3}data = X.copy()4
 5
     data['target'] = y6
     # Select only numerical features for correlation analysis
 \overline{7}8
     numerical features = data.select dtypes(include=np.number).columns
\overline{9}10
     # Calculate the correlation matrix for numerical features only
11
     correlation matrix = data[numerical_features].corr()
1213
     # Visualize the correlation matrix using a heatmap
14
     plt.figure(figsize=(10, 8))15
     sns.heatmap(correlation matrix, annot=True, cmap='coolwarm', fmt=".2f")
16
     plt.title('Correlation Matrix')
     plt.show()17
```


Understand how each feature is related to the target variable and other features.

The correlation matrix is a  $-0.6$ table that shows the correlation coefficients

 $1.0$ 

 $-0.8$ 

 $-0.2$ 

 $-0.0$ 

 $-0.2$ 

between multiple variables.  $-0.4$ 

> Each cell in the table represents the correlation between two variables.

The correlation coefficient, typically denoted by "r", ranges from  $-1$  to  $+1$ .



 $\alpha$  - and let  $\beta$  -  $\alpha$  . A finite  $\alpha$ 

 $M$ um<sub>\_0</sub>

 $xnum_1$ 

 $xnum_2$ 

 $xnum_3$ 

 $%$  xnum\_4

 $xnum_5$ 

 $\frac{1}{2}$ mum

 $xnum_7$ 

target

#### **Check for multicollinearity:**

❖ **Positive Correlation (r > 0):** Indicates that as one variable increases, the other variable tends to increase as well. A value **closer to +1** indicates a **stronger positive correlation**

✓ **important predictor**

❖ **Negative Correlation (r < 0):** Indicates that as one variable increases, the other variable tends to decrease. A value **closer to -1** indicates a **stronger negative correlation**

✓ **important predictor**

❖ **No Correlation (r ≈ 0):** Indicates that there is **no linear relationship** between the two variables. Changes in one variable do not predictably affect the other

➢ **may be relevant, but their influence is less direct**

If **two features have a very high correlation with each other** (e.g., above 0.8 or 0.9), it could indicate multicollinearity. This means they **provide similar information, and one of them might be redundant** in your model. - not the case here

 $1.0$ 

 $0.8$ 

 $-0.6$ 

 $-0.4$ 

 $-0.2$ 

 $-0.0$ 

 $-0.2$ 



#### **Convert categorical data into a numerical format**

Categorical data refers to variables that represent categories or labels rather than numerical values.

- $\triangleright$  "color" could have categories like "red" "blue" and "green"
- $\triangleright$  or in general one could have categories like "A" "B" and "C"
- ❑ Machine learning algorithms, however, typically require numerical input to perform computations.
	- $\checkmark$  Converting categorical data into numerical form allows these algorithms to process and learn from the data.



#### **Convert categorical data into a numerical format**

**using abel encoder** Label Encoding is a technique used to convert categorical data (data that is represented by categories or labels) into numerical data.

> This is often necessary because many machine learning algorithms work best with numerical input.



#### **How it works:**

**1. Fit:** The Label Encoder analyzes the categorical feature (column) to identify all the unique categories or labels present. This is done using the fit method.

**2. Transform:** Once it has learned the categories, it assigns a unique numerical label to each category.

It **starts from 0 and assigns consecutive integers to each distinct category**. This is done using the transform method.

**3. Fit\_transform:** The fit\_transform method is a convenient combination. It performs both steps in a single call.

#### **Convert categorical data into a numerical format**



#### **Limitations:**

- **Ordinality assumption:** Label Encoding might introduce an ordinal relationship between categories where none exists.
	- $\circ$  For example, assigning 0 to A, 1 to B, 2 to C might imply that B is somehow between A and C which might not be true.
- **Impact on models:** This implied ordinality can mislead some algorithms, especially distance-based algorithms like KNN.

- For each unique category in a categorical feature, One-Hot Encoding creates a new binary feature (column).
- If a data point belongs to that category, the corresponding binary feature is set to 1; otherwise, it's set to 0.



#### **Benefits of One-Hot Encoding:**

• Avoids ordinality: It doesn't introduce any ordinal relationship between categories.

• Suitable for most algorithms: Works well with a wide range of machine learning algorithms.

#### **Considerations:**

• Increased dimensionality: Can significantly increase the number of features, especially with high-cardinality categorical features (features with many unique categories). This can lead to increased computational cost and potential overfitting.

• Sparsity: The resulting data can be sparse (lots of zeros), which might require specialized data structures or algorithms.

#### **Collinearity issue**

Collinearity, or multicollinearity, occurs when two or more predictor variables (features) in a regression model are highly correlated with each other.

This can cause problems in the model, such as:

- Unstable coefficients: The estimated coefficients of the collinear variables can become unstable and vary significantly with small changes in the data.
- Reduced interpretability: It becomes difficult to interpret the individual effects of collinear variables on the target variable.
- Inflated standard errors: The standard errors of the coefficients can increase, making it harder to determine statistical significance.

#### **Addressing Collinearity in One-Hot Encoded Data**

One-Hot encoding can introduce perfect collinearity, also known as the "dummy variable trap."

This happens because the created dummy variables are perfectly linearly dependent.

If you have three categories (A, B, C) and you create three dummy variables (A, B, C), then knowing the values of two of the dummies automatically determines the value of the third.

To avoid this, you can **drop one of the dummy variables for each categorical feature**. This is called **dummy variable dropping** and is a common practice to address collinearity in One-Hot encoded data.





#### **Encoded Dataset**

Shape of X (features): (3000, 12) Shape of y (target): (3000, 1)



### **Data set split**



**Train set**: used to learn the parameters of the model

**Val set (validation set)**: supervises the learning generality (identify overfitting);

**Test set**: used as a proxy for unseen data and evaluate our model on test-set (brand-new data set)

Now we will **split** the full data set in 2 subsets:

- o **test\_set 20%** of the entire data set (**600** examples)
- $\circ$  train set 80% of the entire data set
	- Later on, when we will use .fit method to train our ANN model; from the train\_set
		- 22.22% (**30** examples) will be used for **validation**
		- 77.78% (**105** examples) for real model **trainig**

### **Data set split**

- # Step 5: Split data into training and test sets  $\overline{2}$
- from sklearn.model selection import train test split # Import the train test split function 3
- X\_train, X\_test, y\_train, y\_test = train\_test\_split(X\_encoded, y, test\_size=0.2, random\_state=42) 4

Shape of X\_train: (2400, 12) Shape of X\_test: (600, 12) Shape of y\_train: (2400, 1) Shape of y\_test: (600, 1)

### **Normalize dataset**<br>Both sets

• Numerical features

Train set • Targets

Test set • Encoded features are not normalized

```
# Step 6: Standardize the numerical data
 \mathbf{2}from sklearn.preprocessing import StandardScaler # Import the StandardScaler class
 3.
 4
     scalar X = StandardScalar()5.
     scalar <math>y = StandardScalar()</math>6
 7
    # Standardize only numerical columns for train set
 8
    X_t train.iloc[:, : 8] = scalar_X.fit_t ransform(X_t train.iloc[:, : 8])9
    # Standardize only numerical columns for test set
10
    X_test.iloc[:, :8] = scalar_X.transpose(m(X_test.iloc[:, :8])11
12
    y_train = scaler_y.fit_transform(y_train) # Standardize target for train test
13
    y_test = scalar_y.timeform(y_test) # Standardize target for test test \bigwedge 0
14
15
    #Jn pandas DataFrames, iloc is primarily used for integer-location based indexing.
16
17
    # It allows to select rows and columns from a DataFrame using their numerical positions (indices)
```


- **1. Centering:** The mean of the feature is subtracted from each feature value (x).
- **2. Scaling:** Each centered feature value is then divided by the standard deviation. This scales the distribution so that its variance becomes 1.

### **ANN model** Secvential

- # Step 7: Build the deep neural network model no Dropout here  $2^{\circ}$
- 3 import tensorflow

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4 from tensorflow import keras

```
6
   model = keras.Sequential([
```

```
keras.layers.Input(shape=(X_train.shape[1],), name="Input"),
keras.layers.Dense(units=64, activation='relu', name="hidden_layer_1"),
# keras.layers.Dropout(rate =0.1, name = "dropout_1"),
    # Drop 10% of the neurons in this layer during training
keras.layers.Dense(units=128, activation='relu', name="hidden_layer_2"),
# keras.layers.Dropout(rate =0.1, name = "dropout_2"),
    # Drop 10% of the neurons in this layer during training
keras.layers.Dense(64,'relu', name="hidden_layer_3"),
# keras.layers.Dropout(0.2, name = "dropout_3"),
    # Drop 20% of the neurons in this layer during training
keras.layers.Dense(1, activation=None, name = 'output')
     # Output layer for regression (1 node, no activation function)
```
 $name = "Regression_ANN")$ 

### **ANN model summary and diagram**

```
model.summary()21
    keras.utils.plot_model(model, to_file='model_diagram.png',
22
23
                            show_shapes=True, show_layer_names=True,
                            dpi=64, rankdir='TB') # Adjust dpi and rankdir
24
```




Total params: 17,473 (68.25 KB) Trainable params: 17,473 (68.25 KB) Non-trainable params:  $\theta$  (0.00 B)

### **ANN model summary and diagram**



### **Early stopping**

A regularization technique used in deep learning to prevent overfitting. Overfitting occurs when a model learns the training data too well, including its noise and random fluctuations, resulting in poor performance on unseen data.

#### **How it Works:**

**1. Validation Set:** A portion of the training data is set aside as a validation set. This set is not used to train the model directly.

**2. Monitoring:** During training, the model's performance (e.g., loss or accuracy) is evaluated on both the training set and the validation set.

**3. Stopping Criteria:** If the model's performance on the validation set starts to worsen (e.g., validation loss increases or validation accuracy decreases) while the performance on the training set continues to improve, it indicates that the model is starting to overfit.

**4. Early Stop:** Training is stopped before the model has a chance to fully overfit the training data. The model parameters from the epoch with the best performance on the validation set are saved and used as the final model.

#### **Benefits of Early Stopping:**

•**Prevents Overfitting:** Stops training before the model overfits, leading to better generalization on unseen data.

•**Saves Time and Resources:** Reduces unnecessary training time and computational resources by stopping training when further improvements are unlikely.

•**Improves Model Performance:** Can lead to a more robust and accurate model by selecting the best performing model during training.

```
# Step 8: Introduce Early Stopping
\mathcal{P}
```

```
import tensorflow
3
```

```
from tensorflow import keras
4
```

```
5
```

```
early_stopping = keras.callbacks.EarlyStopping(
6
        monitor='val_loss', # Monitor validation loss
 7
        patience=10, \rangle # Stop if no improvement for 10 epochs
8
        restore best weights=True # Restore weights from the best epoch
9
10
```
**Early stopping**



### **Configure (compile) the ANN - loss function**

- # Configure (compile) the model  $\mathbf 1$
- import tensorflow 2
- from tensorflow import keras  $\overline{3}$
- $\overline{4}$

6

5 model.compile(optimizer=keras.optimizers.Adam(learning\_rate=0.0002),

loss=keras.losses.MeanSquaredError(),

metrics=['mean\_squared\_error'])

mean\_squared\_error = 
$$
\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (\hat{y}^{(i)} - y^{(i)})^2
$$

### **Train the ANN model**

```
# Step 9: Train the model
 \overline{2}history = model.fit(3
         X_train, y_train,
4
         validation split=0.25, # used as data validation set
 5
         epochs=500,
 6
         batch size=1024,
 7
         # callbacks=[early_stopping], # Use EarlyStopping callback
8
         verbose=19
10
```
*Early stopping is not used for now*

 $2400 \cdot 0.25 = 600$  examples for validation  $2400 - 600 = 1800$  examples for training

### **Train the ANN model**

#### Beginning of training



### **Train the ANN model**

#### End of training



#### **Analyze the learning progress**



Model Loss During Training

### **Evaluate the ANN model**

Metric

R-squared

MSE

```
from sklearn.metrics import r2 score, mean squared error
                                     1
                                     \overline{2}3
                                         def display scores(model, X train, X test, y train, y test, scaler y):
                                              . . .
                                     \Delta5
                                             Calculates and displays MSE and R-squared scores for train and test sets.
                                     6
                                             Args:
                                     \overline{7}model: The trained Keras model.
                                     8
                                                 X train: Training data features; X test: Test data features.
                                     9
                                                 y train: Training data target; y test: Test data target.
                                                 scaler y: The StandardScaler object used for target variable scaling.
                                    1011
                                             CONTRACTOR
                                    12# Get predictions for train and test sets
                                    13y train pred = model.predict(X train)14
                                             y test pred = model.predict(X test)15
                                             # Inverse transform to get actual values
                                             y train actual = scaler y. inverse transform(y train)
                                    16
                                    17
                                             y test actual = scaler y. inverse transform(y test)
                                             y train pred actual = scaler y. inverse transform(y train pred)
                                    18
                                             y test pred actual = scaler y. inverse transform(y test pred)
                                    19
                                             # Calculate MSE and R-squared
                                    20
                                    21
                                             train mse = mean_squared_error(y_train_actual, y_train_pred_actual)
                                    22
                                             test mse = mean squared error(y test actual, y test pred actual)
                                    23
                                             train r2 = r2 score(y train actual, y train pred actual)
Model Evaluation Metrics:
                                    24
                                             test_r2 = r2_score(y_test_actual, y_test_pred_actual)
                                             # Display the scores in a formatted table
                                    25
                                             print(" - " * 30)26
               Train
                          Test
                                    27
                                             print("Model Evaluation Metrics:")
                                    28
                                             print(" - " * 30)print(f"{'Metric':<15} {'Train':<10} {'Test':<10}")
                                    29
               0.0382
                          0.0811
                                             print(" - " * 30)30
                                    31
                                             print(f"{'MSE':<15} {train_mse:<10.4f} {test_mse:<10.4f}")
               0.9329
                          0.8679
                                    32
                                             print(f"{'R-squared':<15} {train_r2:<10.4f} {test_r2:<10.4f}")
                                    33
                                             print(" - " * 30)34
                                    35
                                         display_scores(model, X_train, X_test, y_train, y_test, scaler_y)
```
### **Target vs predicted for test set**

```
# Step 12: Make predictions
 2^{\circ}y_pred = model.predict(X_test)
 3
 4
 5.
    # Convert predictions back to the original scale
    y_pred_original = scaler_y.inverse_transform(y_pred)
 6
    y_test_original = scaler_y.inverse_transform(y_test)
 \overline{7}8
 9
    # Plot actual vs predicted values
10
     plt.figure(figsize=(10, 5))plt.scatter(y_test_original, y_pred_original, alpha=0.7)
11plt.title('Actual vs Predicted')
12<sup>7</sup>13
     plt.xlabel('Actual Values')
14plt.ylabel('Predicted Values')
15
     plt.plot([min(y_test_original), max(y_test_original)],
              [min(y_test_original), max(y_test_original)],
16
              color='red', linewidth=2) # Reference line
17
     plt.show()18
```
### **Target vs predicted for test set**



### **Target vs predicted for test set**



Target vs. Predicted (First 25 Examples)

### **ANN model with Dropout regularization**

- # Step 7: Build the deep neural network model with Dropout  $2<sup>1</sup>$
- import tensorflow 3
- from tensorflow import keras

```
model = keras.Sequential(
```
keras.layers.Input(shape= $(X_t$ train.shape $[1]$ ,), name="Input"), keras.layers.Dense(units=64, activation='relu', name="hidden\_layer\_1"), keras.layers.Dropout(rate =0.1, name = "dropout  $1"$ ),

# Drop 10% of the neurons in this layer during training keras.layers.Dense(units=128, activation='relu', name="hidden layer 2"), keras.layers.Dropout(rate =0.1, name = "dropout  $2"$ ),

# Drop 10% of the neurons in this layer during training keras.layers.Dense(64,'relu', name="hidden\_layer\_3"),  $keras.layers.Dropout(0.2, name = "dropout_3"),$ 

# Drop 20% of the neurons in this layer during training  $keras.layers.Dense(1, activation=None, name = 'output')$ 

# Output layer for regression (1 node, no activation function) ], name = "Regression\_ANN")

# **ANN model with Dropout regularization**



**Total params: 17,473 (68.25 KB)** Trainable params: 17,473 (68.25 KB) Non-trainable params: 0 (0.00 B)

### **ANN model with Dropout regularization**



Model Loss During Training



```
# Step 8: Introduce Early Stopping
 \mathbf{2}import tensorflow
 3.
     from tensorflow import keras
 \mathbf{4}5.
     early stopping = keras.callbacks.EarlyStopping(
 6
\overline{J}monitor='val loss', # Monitor validation loss
        \sqrt{p}atience=10,
8
                                # Stop if no improvement for 10 epochs
9
         restore best weights=True # Restore weights from the best epoch
10
11
```

```
1
 2.
     # Step 9: Train the model
 3.
     history = model.fit(4
         X train, y train,
 5.
         validation_split=0.25, # used as data validation set
6
         epochs = 500,
\overline{f}batch size=1024,
        \epsilonallbacks=[early stopping\epsilon # Use EarlyStopping callback
8
         verbose=1
 9
10
```


No improvement in val\_loss for 10 consecutive epochs

Model Loss During Training





