

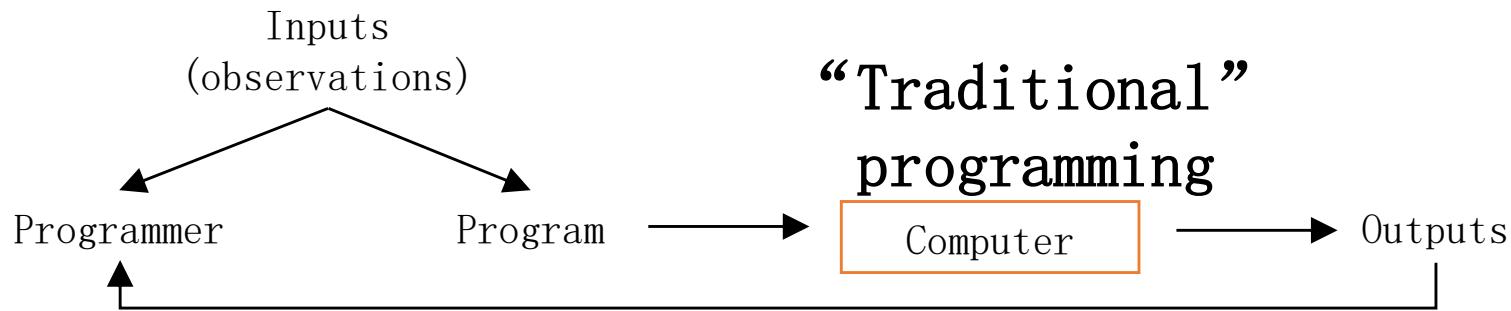
机器学习和量化交易实战

第四讲

Outline

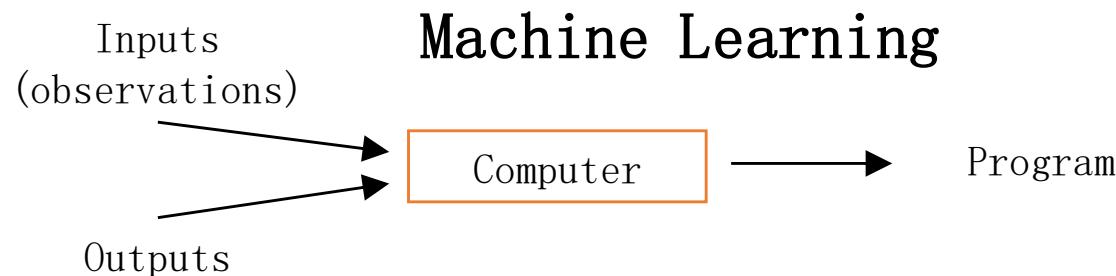
- From OLS to kernel machines and beyond
 - OLS
 - Ridge
 - L a s s o
 - Kernels
 - Cross-validation
 - Hands on: sklearn

What is Machine Learning?



Machine Learning is the field of study that gives computers the ability to learn without being explicitly programmed.

-- Arthur Samuel (1959)



Examples of Machine Learning



<https://flic.kr/p/5BLW6G> [CC BY 2.0]



http://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:American_book_company_1916_letter_envelope-2.JPG [filelinks] [public domain]



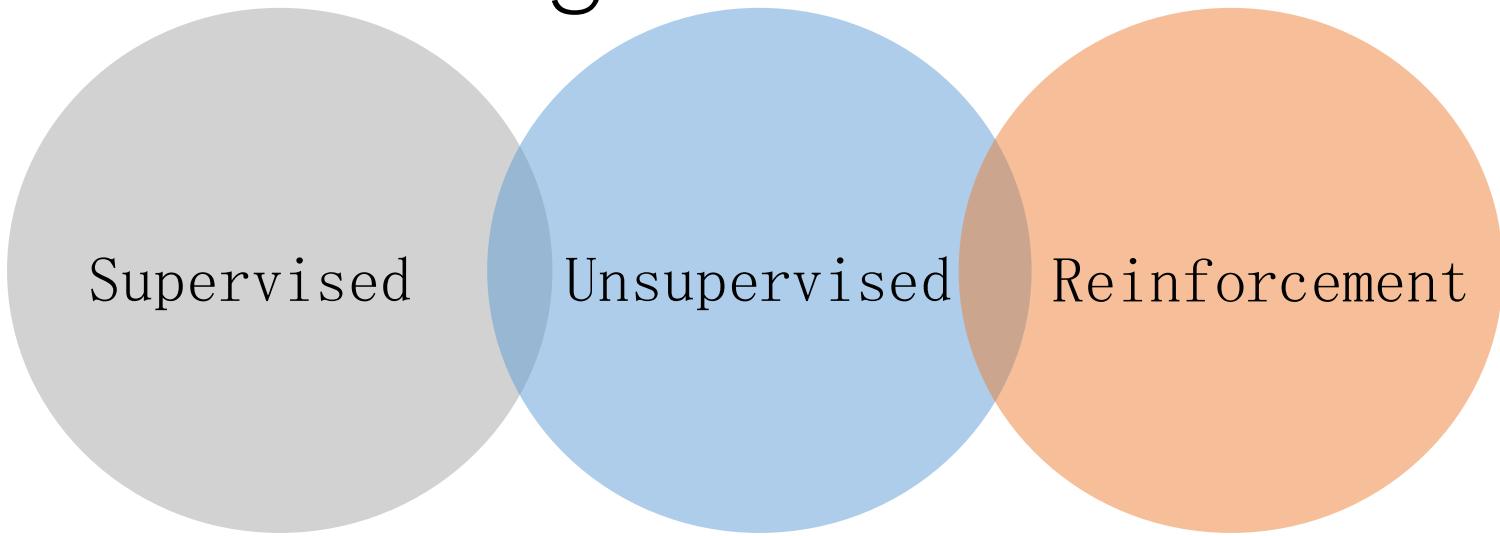
http://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Netflix_logo.svg [public domain]

And many, many more ...



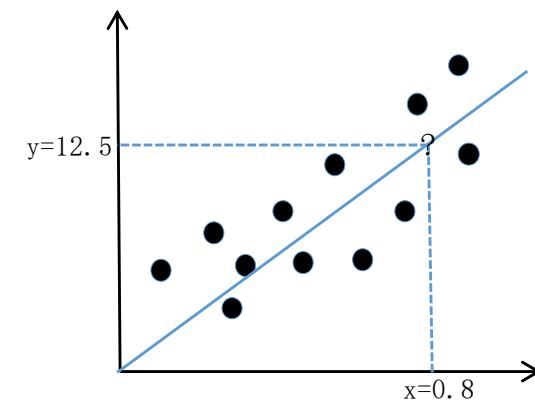
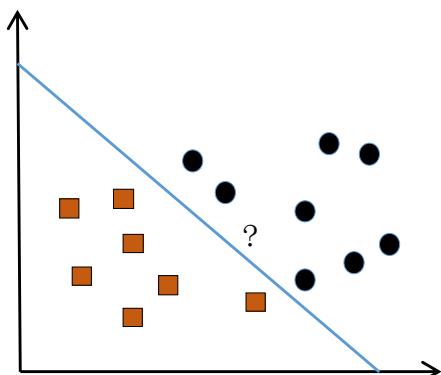
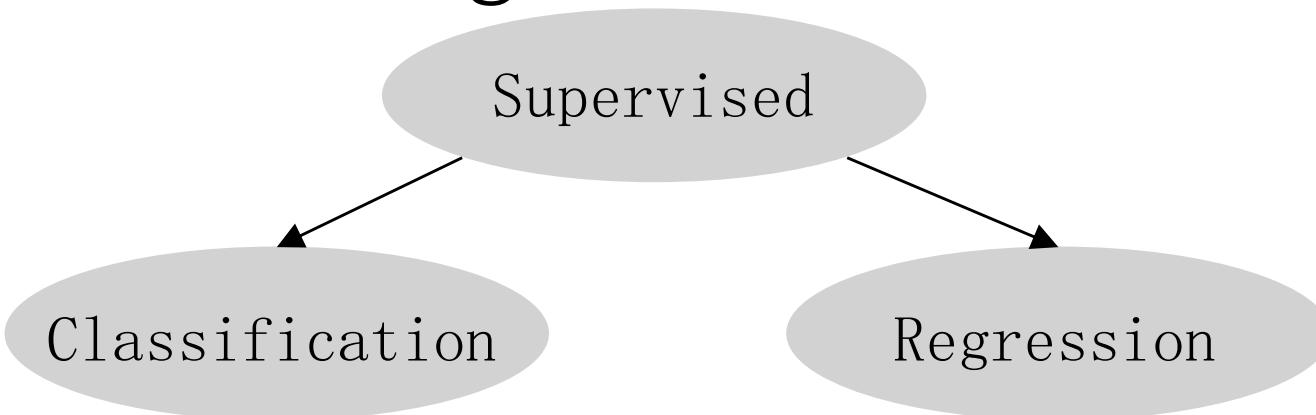
By Steve Jurvetson [CC BY 2.0]

3 Types of Learning

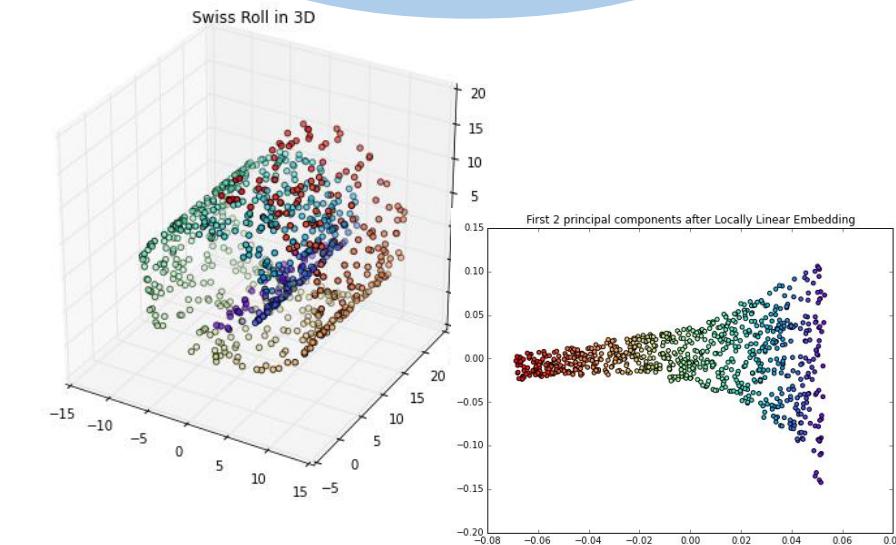
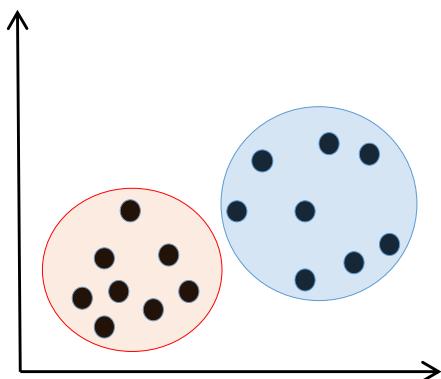
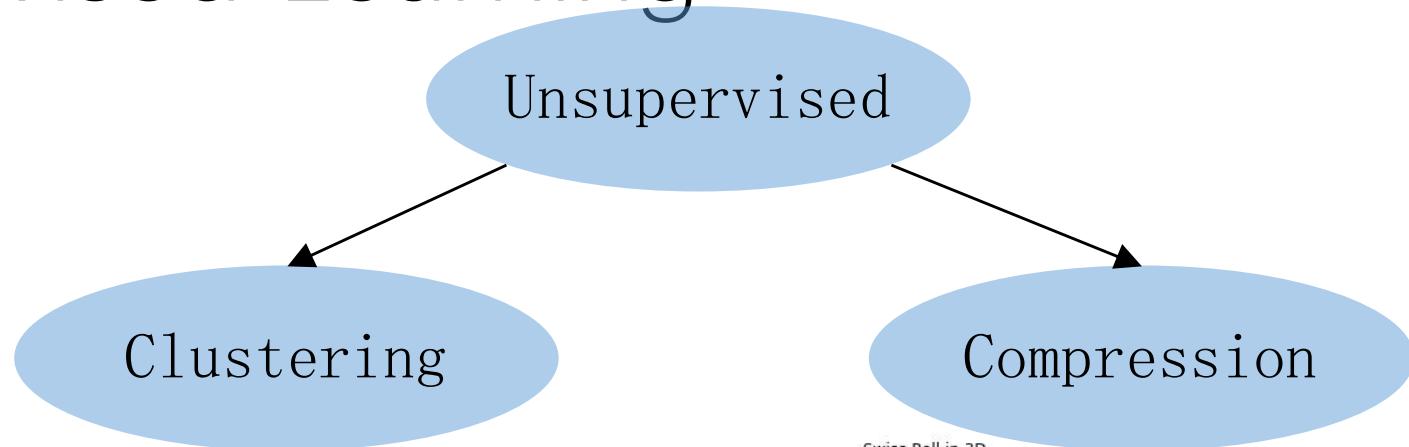


- Learning from labeled data
 - E. g., Spam classification
- Discover structure in unlabeled data
 - E. g., Document clustering
- Learning by “doing” with delayed reward
 - E. g., Chess computer

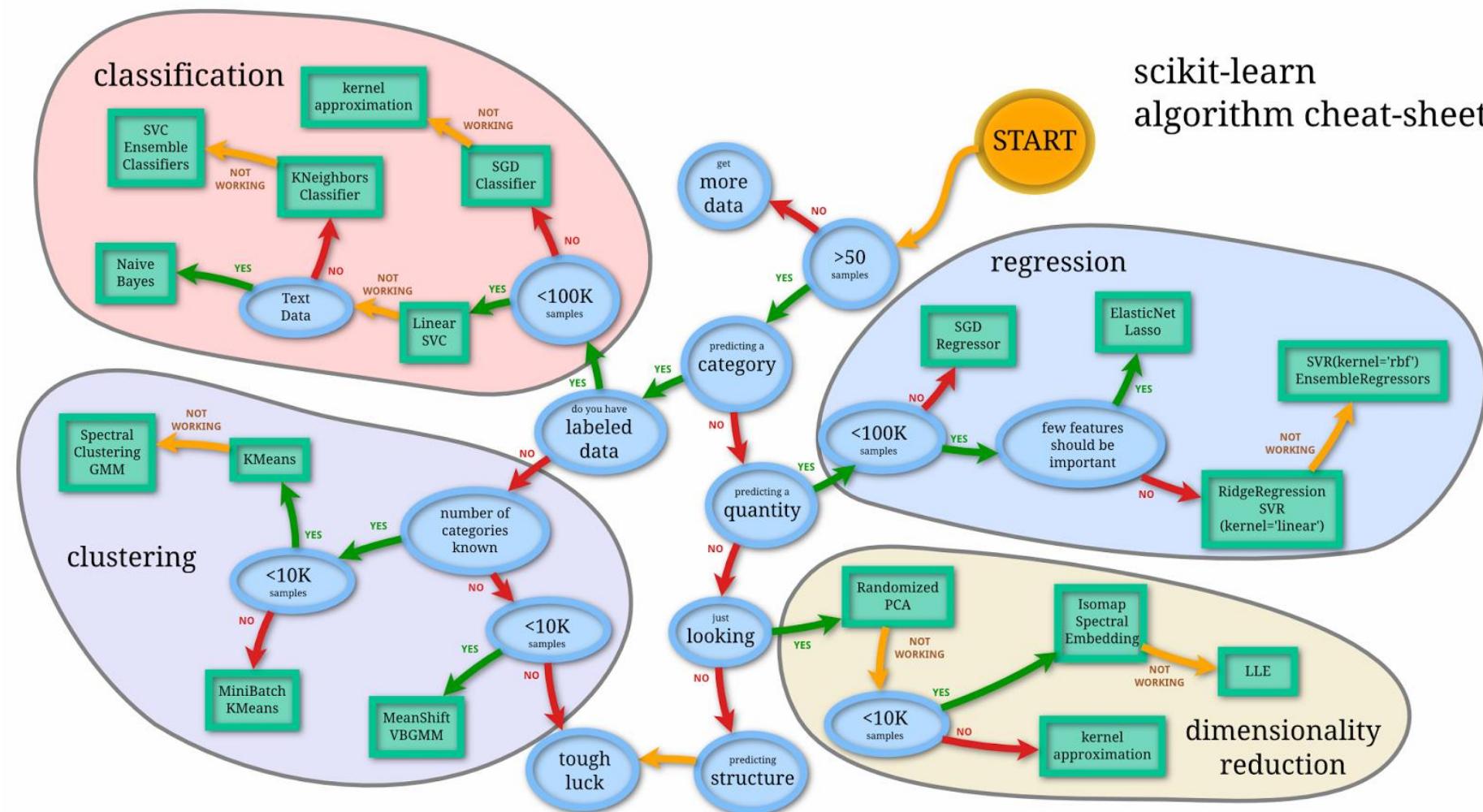
Supervised Learning



Unsupervised Learning



scikit-learn algorithm cheat-sheet



The simplest Sklearn workflow

```
train_x, train_y, test_x, test_y = getData()

model = somemodel()
model.fit(train_x,train_y)
predictions = model.predict(test_x)

score = score_function(test_y, predictions)
```

Flower Classification

Iris-Setosa



Iris-Setosa



Iris-Versicolor

Data Representation

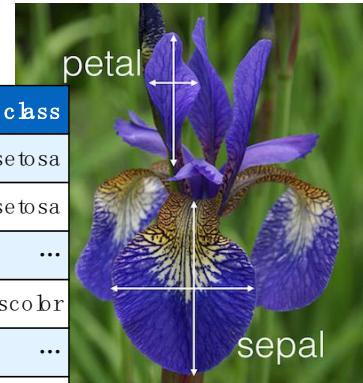
Instances (samples, observations)

	sepal_length	sepal_width	petal_length	petal_width	class
1	5.1	3.5	1.4	0.2	setosa
2	4.9	3.0	1.4	0.2	setosa
...
50	6.4	3.2	4.5	1.5	versicolor
...
150	5.9	3.0	5.1	1.8	virginica

Features (attributes, dimensions)

R IS

<https://archive.ics.uci.edu/ml/datasets/Iris>



Classes (targets)

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} & \cdots & x_{1D} \\ x_{21} & x_{22} & \cdots & x_{2D} \\ x_{31} & x_{32} & \cdots & x_{3D} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{N1} & x_{N2} & \cdots & x_{ND} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{y} = [y_1, y_2, y_3, \dots, y_N]$$

```
In [2]: from sklearn.datasets import load_iris  
iris = load_iris()
```

The resulting dataset is a Bunch object: you can see what's available using the method `keys()`:

```
In [3]: iris.keys()  
Out[3]: dict_keys(['target_names', 'data', 'feature_names', 'DESCR', 'target'])
```

Iris-Setosa

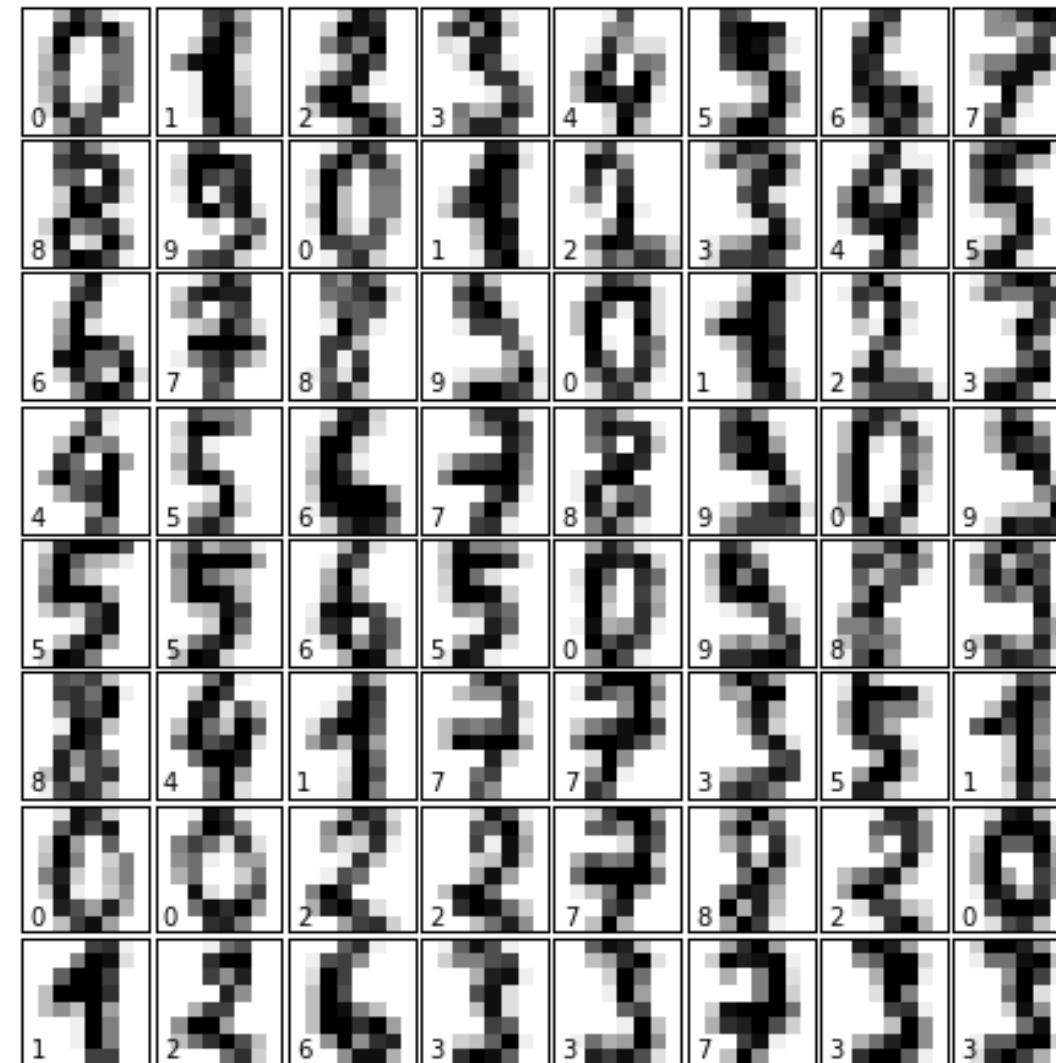


Iris-Setosa



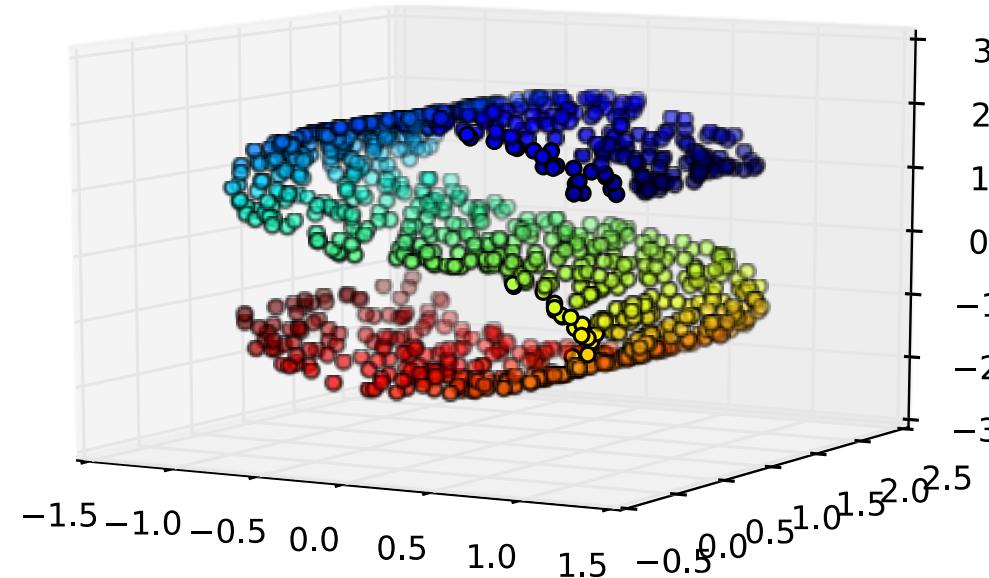
Iris-Versicolor

Digits

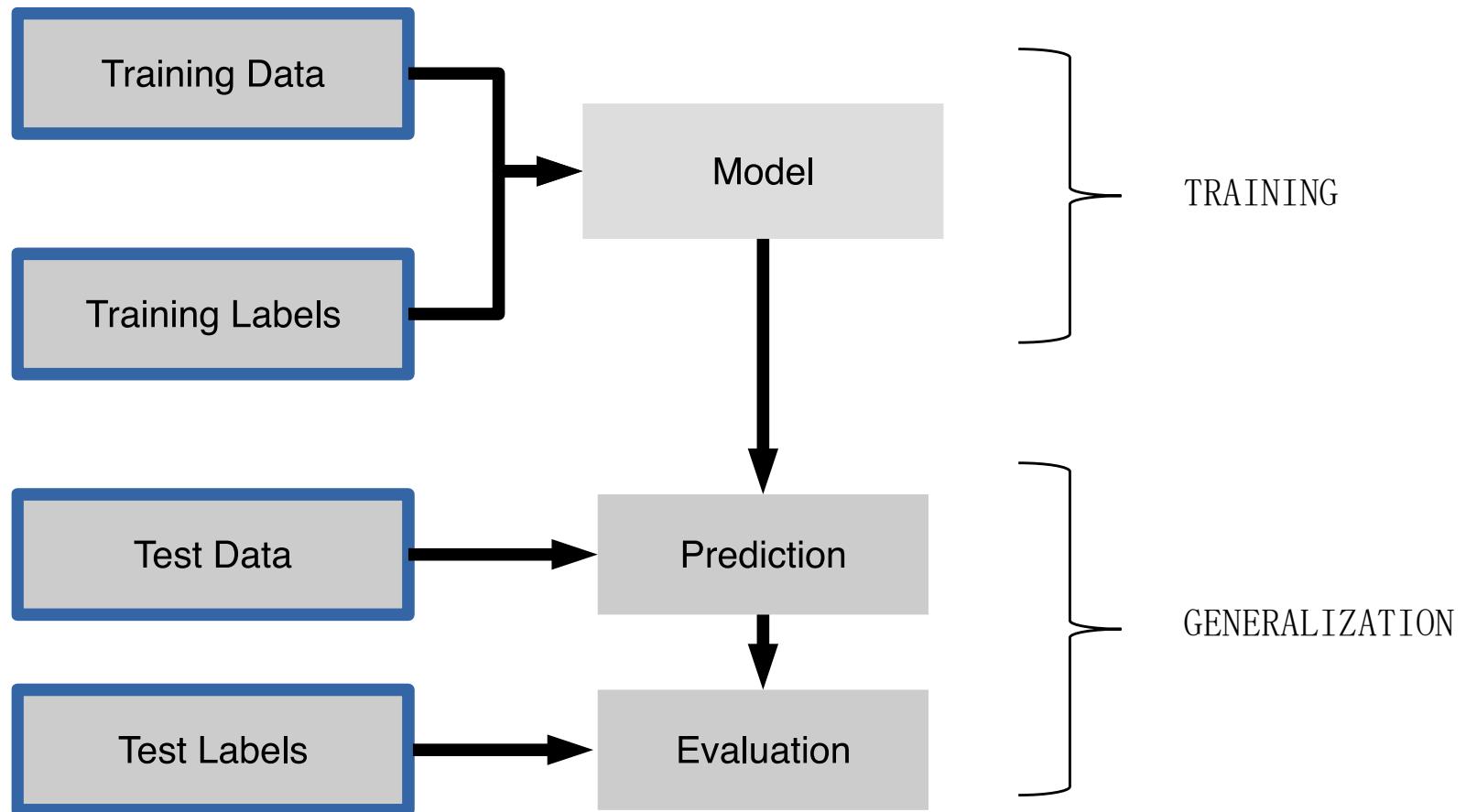


Generating Synthetic Data

```
from sklearn.datasets import make_...
```

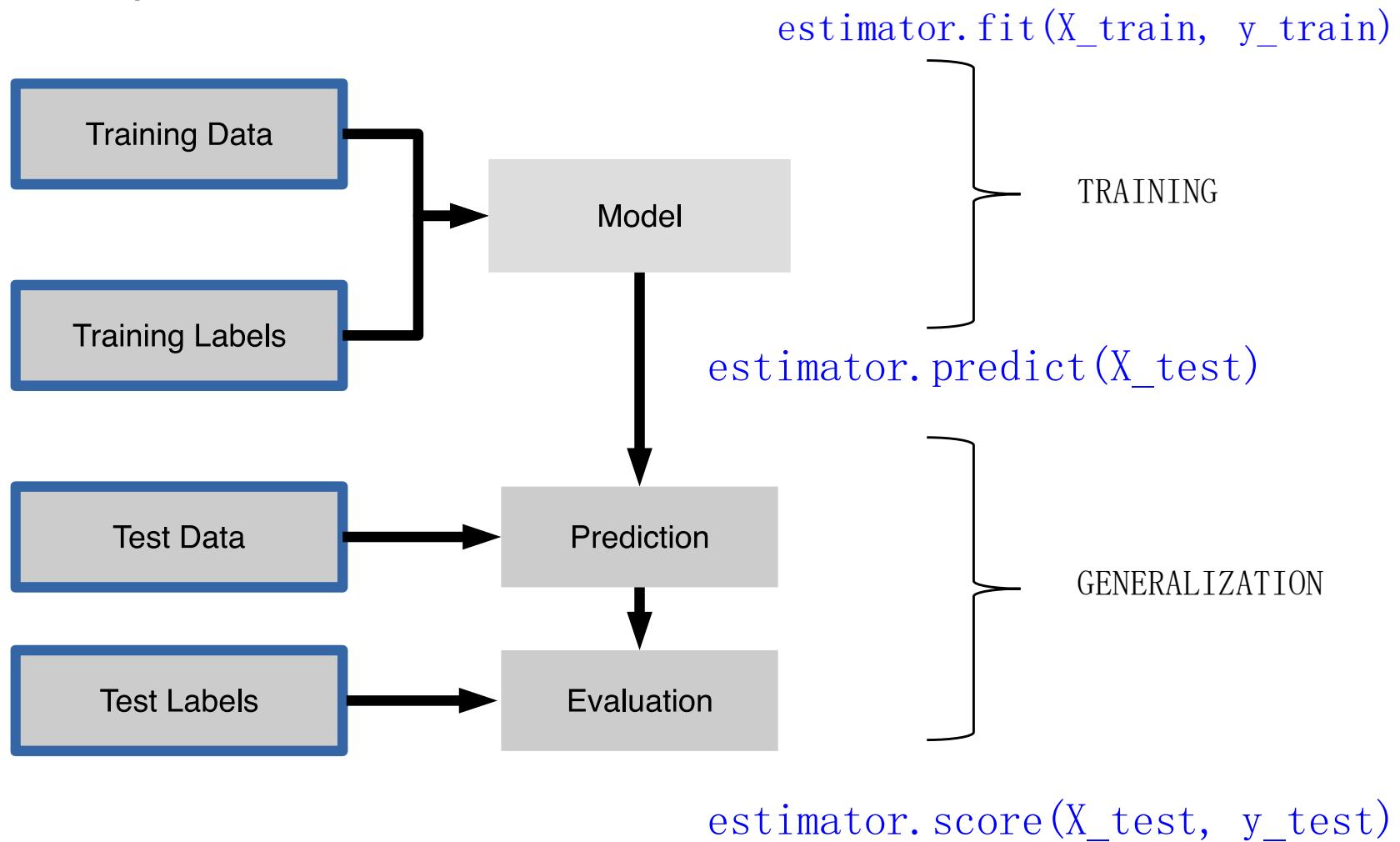


Supervised Workflow



- Fit model on all data after evaluation

Supervised Workflow



Regression Shrinkage and Selection via the Lasso

Regularization

All the answers so far are of the form

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$$

They require the inversion of $\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}$. This can lead to problems if the system of equations is poorly conditioned. A solution is to add a small element to the diagonal:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} + \delta^2 I_d)^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$$

This is the ridge regression estimate. It is the solution to the following **regularised quadratic cost function**

$$J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\theta})^T (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\theta}) + \delta^2 \boldsymbol{\theta}^T \boldsymbol{\theta}$$

Derivation

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial J(\theta)}{\partial \theta} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left\{ (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}\theta)^T (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}\theta) + \sigma^2 \theta^T \mathbf{I} \theta \right\} \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left\{ \mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{y} - 2 \mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{x} \theta + \theta^T \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x} \theta + \theta^T (\sigma^2 \mathbf{I}) \theta \right\} \\ &= -2 \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y} + 2 \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x} \theta + 2 \sigma^2 \mathbf{I} \theta \\ &= -2 \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y} + 2 (\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x} + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}) \theta\end{aligned}$$

identity matrix

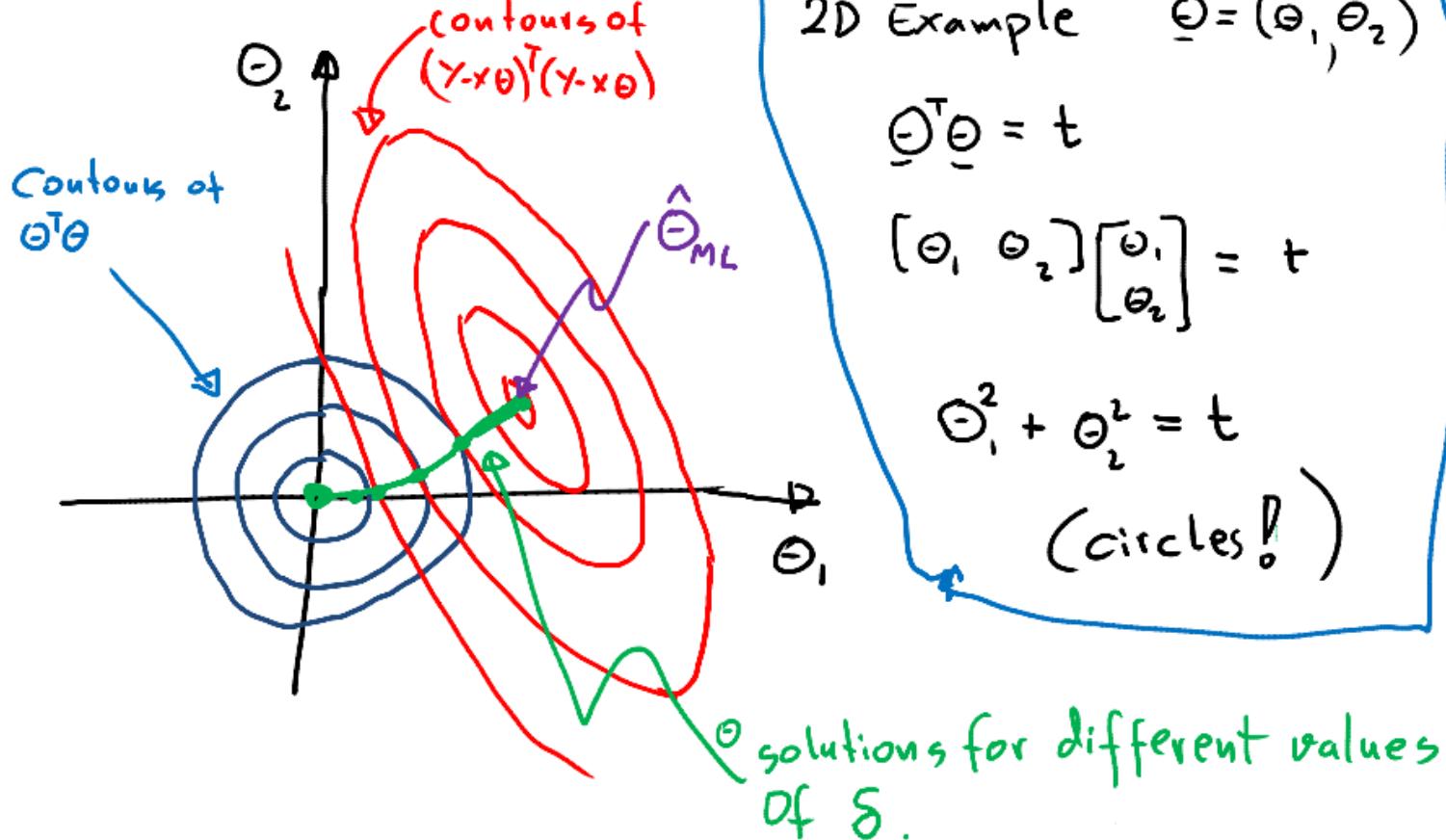
Equating to zero, yields

$$\hat{\theta}_{\text{ridge}} = (\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x} + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y}$$

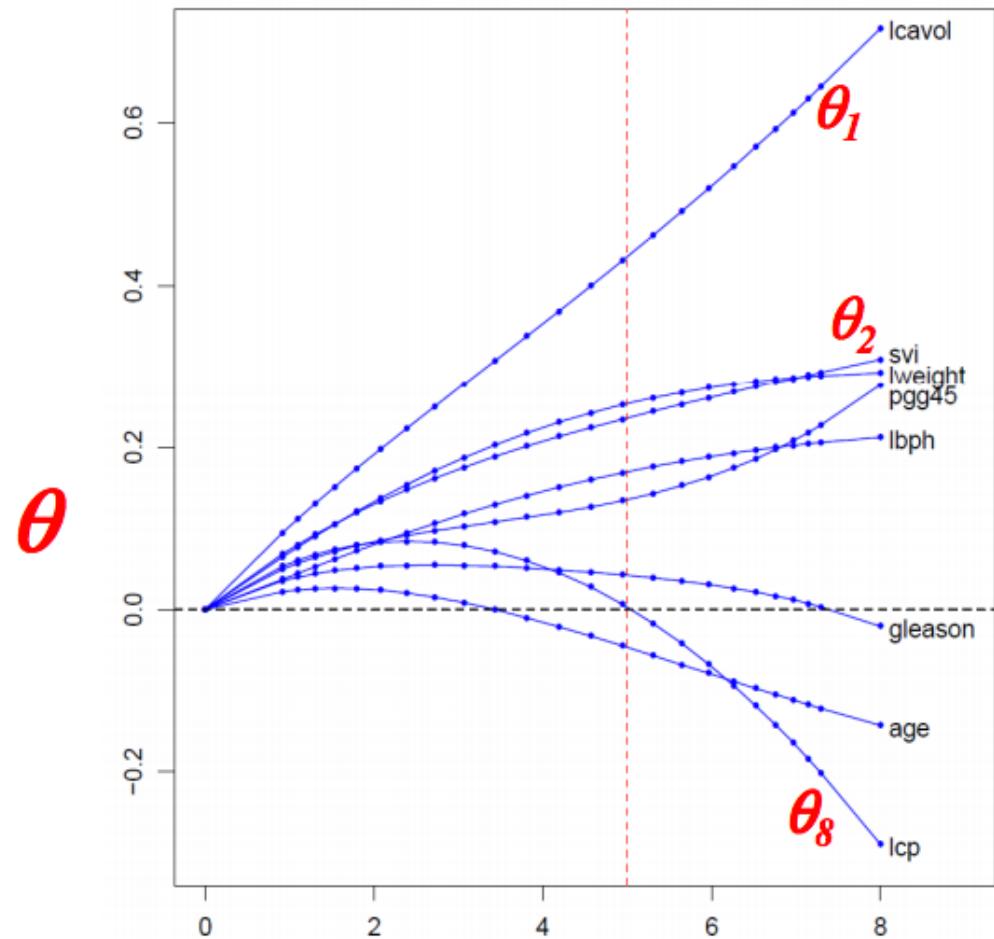
Ridge regression as constrained optimization

$$J(\theta) = (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\theta)^T(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\theta) + \delta^2\theta^T\theta$$

$$\theta : \min_{\theta^T\theta \leq t(\delta)} \{ (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\theta)^T(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\theta) \}$$



As δ increases, $t(\delta)$ decreases and each θ_i goes to zero.



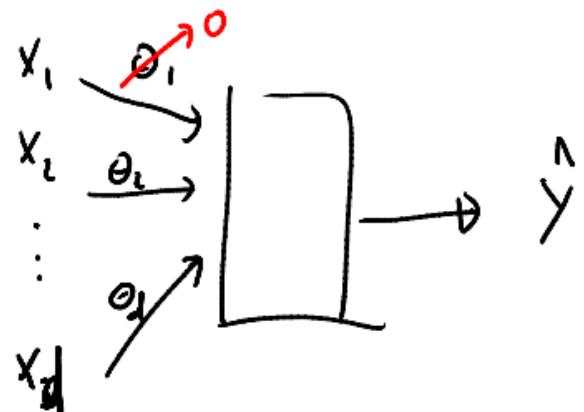
Ridge, feature selection, shrinkage and weight decay

Large values of $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ are penalised. We are *shrinking* $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ towards zero. This can be used to carry out *feature weighting*. An input $x_{i,d}$ weighted by a small θ_d will have less influence on the output y_i . This penalization with a regularizer is also known as weight decay in the neural networks literature.

Note that shrinking the bias term $\boldsymbol{\theta}_1$ is undesirable. To keep the notation simple, we will assume that the mean of \mathbf{y} has been subtracted from \mathbf{y} . This mean is indeed our estimate $\widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_1$.

```
from keras.regularizers import l2, activity_l2  
  
model.add(Dense(64, input_dim=64, w_regularizer=l2(0.01)))
```

Selecting features for prediction



$$\hat{y} = x_1\theta_1 + x_2\theta_2 + \dots + x_n\theta_n$$

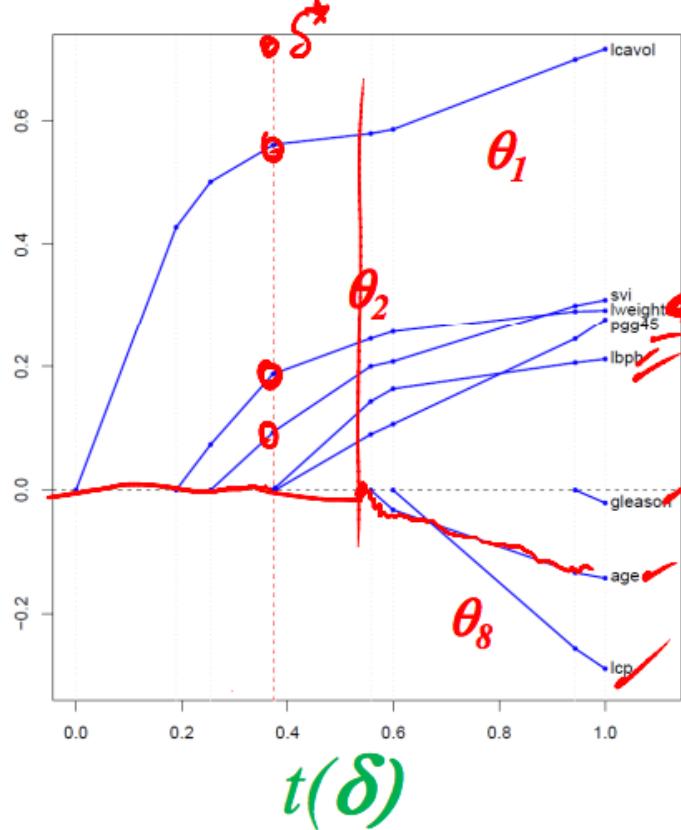
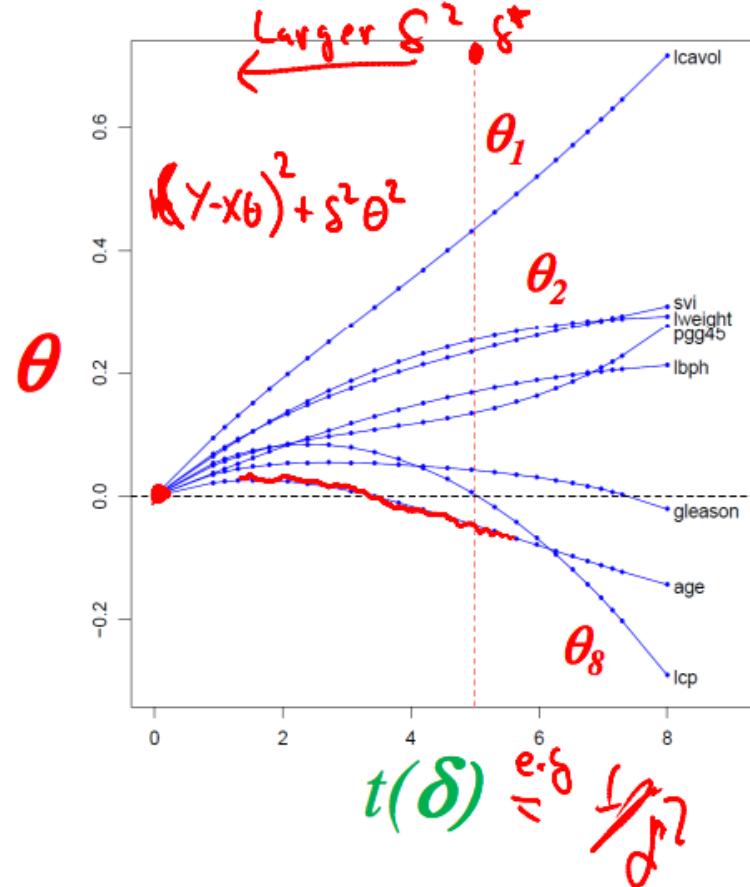
x_i is expensive

x_i does not contribute to good predictions \hat{y}

Then we want $\theta_i \rightarrow 0$

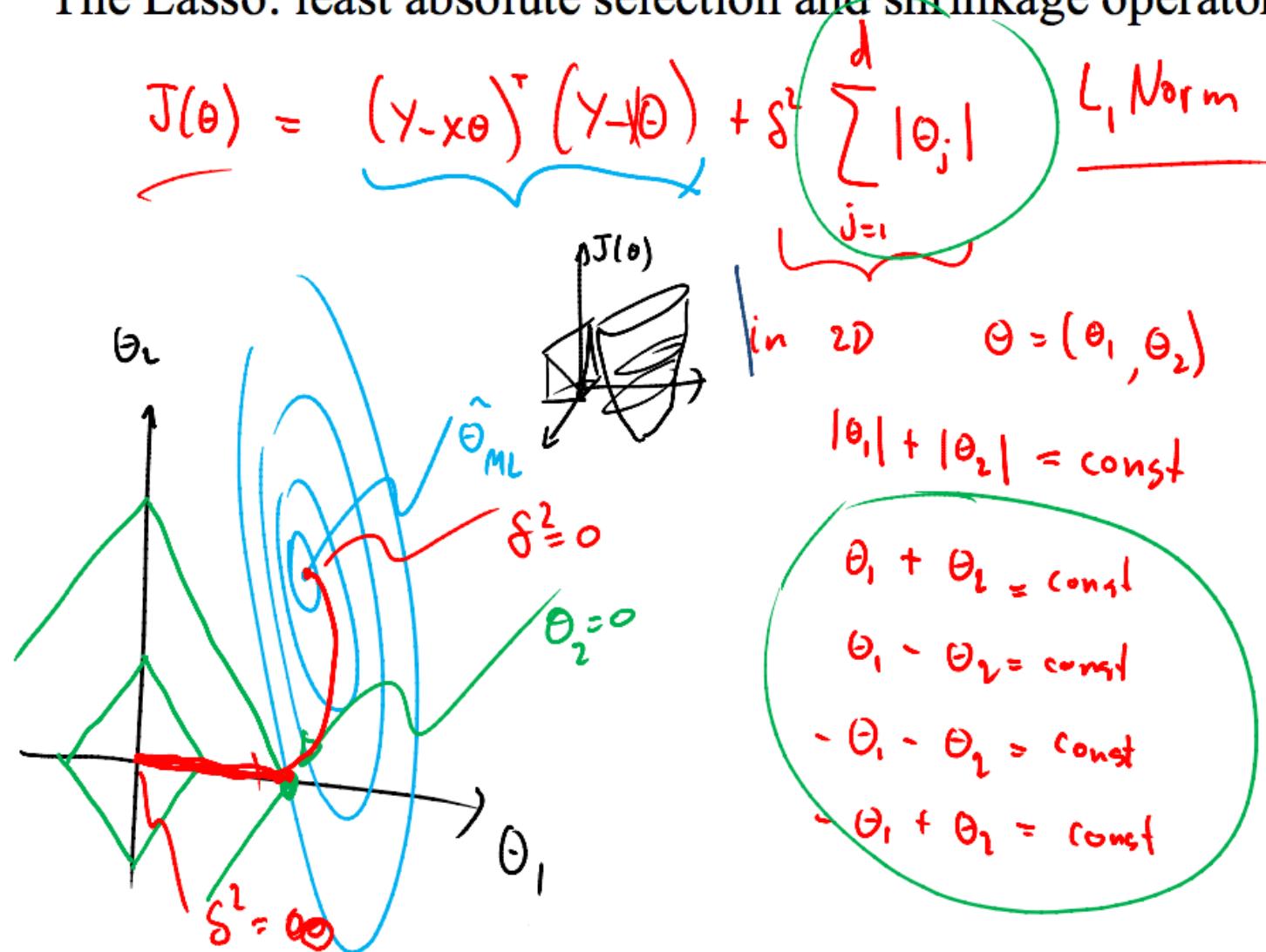
Selecting features for prediction

As δ increases, $t(\delta)$ decreases and each θ_i goes to zero, but too slowly for ridge. Lasso will ensure that irrelevant features x_i have weight $\theta_i = 0$.



[Hastie, Tibshirani & Friedman book]

The Lasso: least absolute selection and shrinkage operator

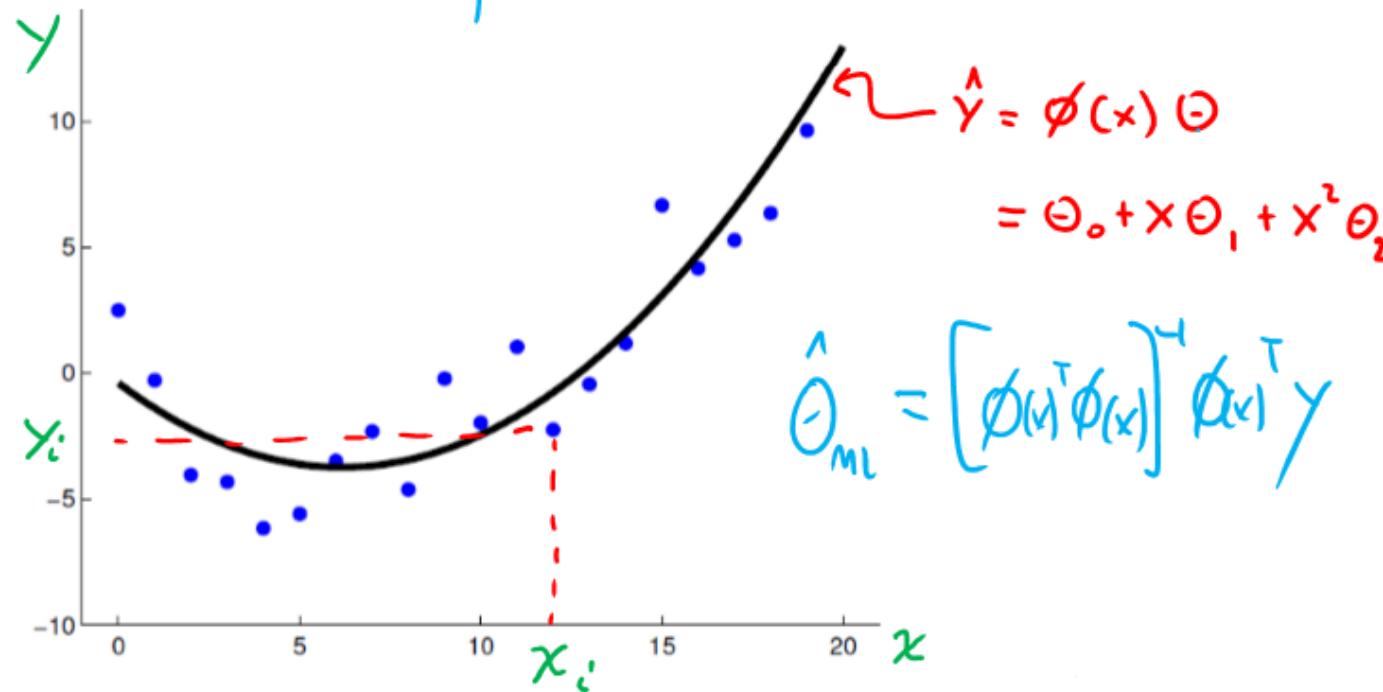


Going nonlinear via basis functions

We introduce basis functions $\phi(\cdot)$ to deal with nonlinearity:

$$y(\mathbf{x}) = \phi(\mathbf{x})\boldsymbol{\theta} + \epsilon$$

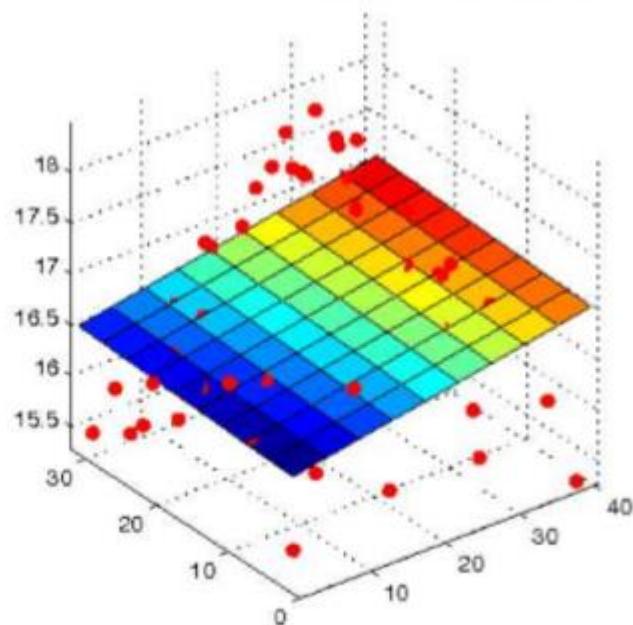
For example, $\phi(x) = [1, x, x^2]$



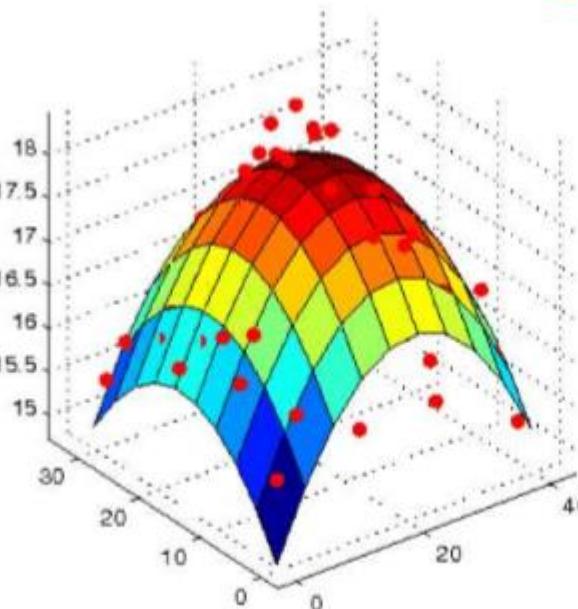
Going nonlinear via basis functions

$$y(\mathbf{x}) = \phi(\mathbf{x})\boldsymbol{\theta} + \epsilon$$

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}) = [1, x_1, x_2]$$



$$\phi(\mathbf{x}) = [1, x_1, x_2, x_1^2, x_2^2]$$

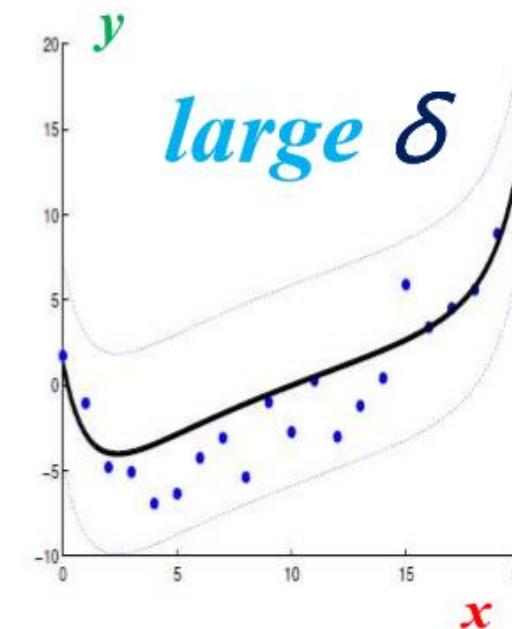
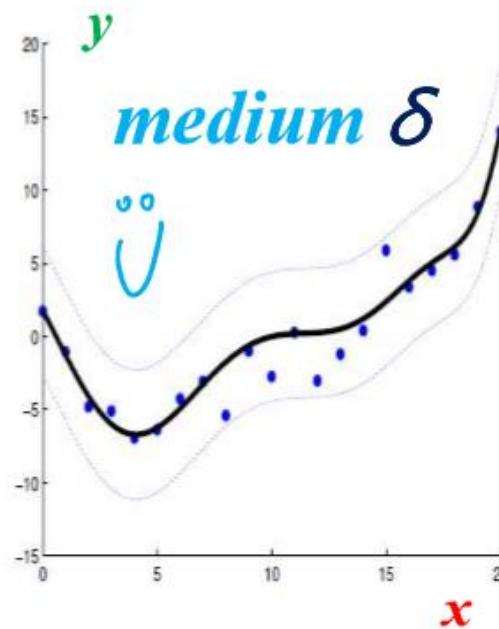
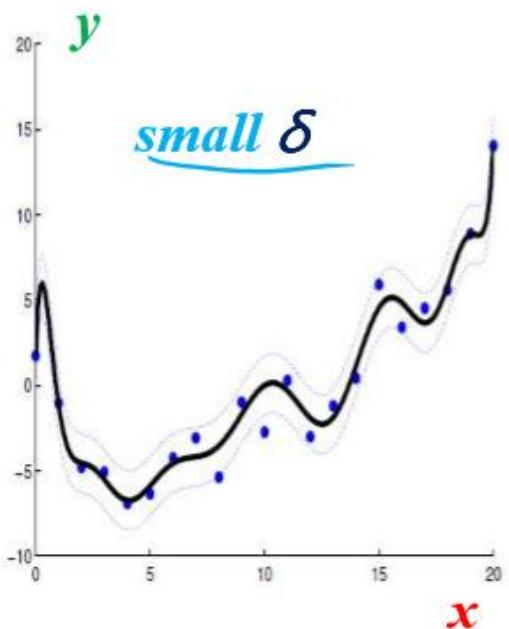


Example: Ridge regression with a polynomial of degree 14

$$\hat{y}(x_i) = \mathbf{1} \theta_0 + x_i \theta_1 + x_i^2 \theta_2 + \dots + x_i^{13} \theta_{13} + x_i^{14} \theta_{14}$$

$$\underline{\Phi} = [\mathbf{1} \ x_i \ x_i^2 \ \dots \ x_i^{13} \ x_i^{14}] \underline{x}_i^{15} \dots$$

$$J(\theta) = (\mathbf{y} - \Phi \theta)^T (\mathbf{y} - \Phi \theta) + \delta \underline{\theta^T \theta}$$

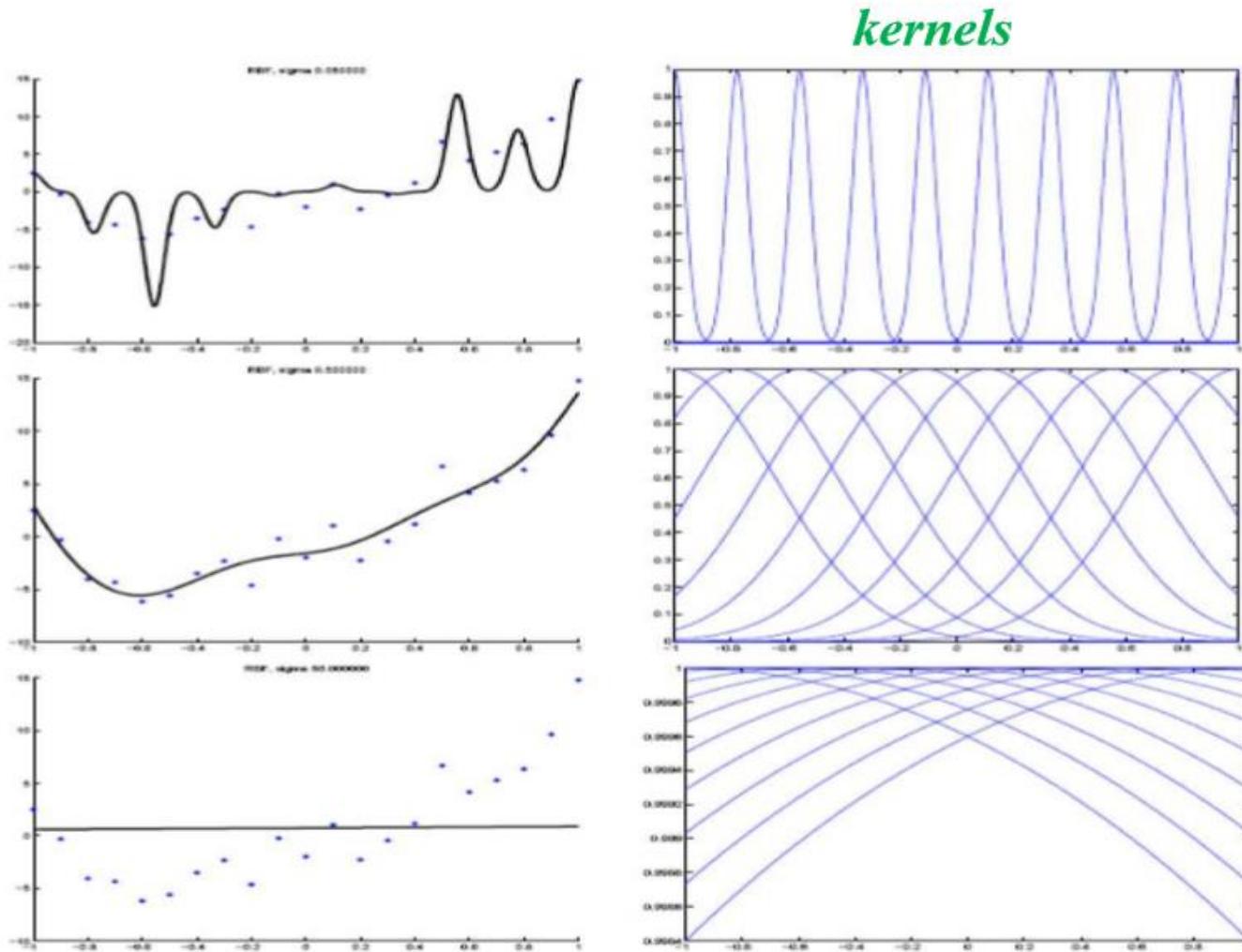


Kernel regression and RBFs

We can use kernels or radial basis functions (RBFs) as features:

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}) = [\kappa(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\mu}_1, \lambda), \dots, \kappa(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\mu}_d, \lambda)], \quad \text{e.g. } \kappa(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\mu}_i, \lambda) = e^{(-\frac{1}{\lambda} \|\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_i\|^2)}$$

We can choose the locations μ of the **basis functions** to be the inputs. That is, $\mu_i = \mathbf{x}_i$. These basis functions are known as **kernels**. The choice of width λ is tricky, as illustrated below.



Too small λ

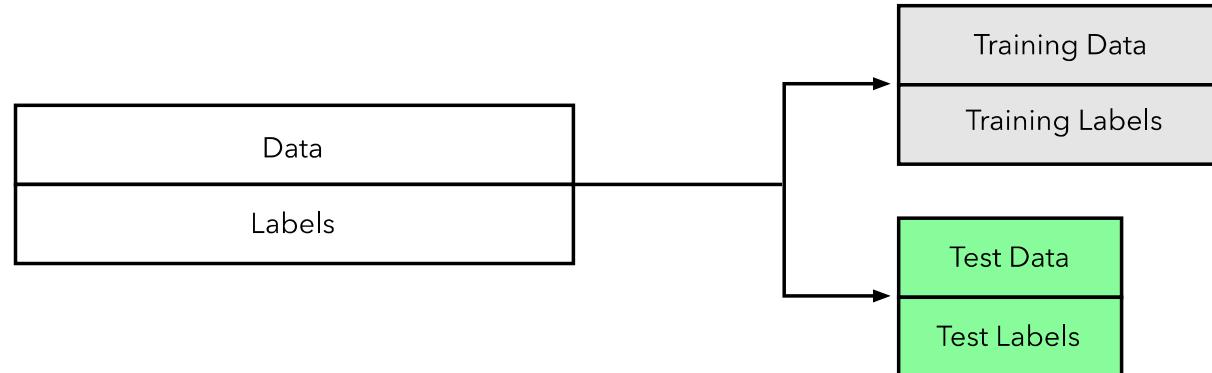
Right λ

Too large λ

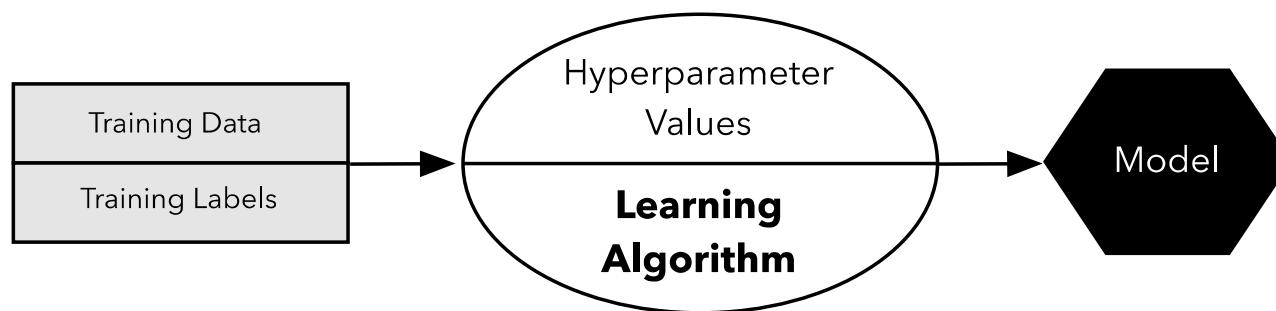
The big question is how do we choose the regularization coefficient, the width of the kernels or the polynomial order?

Holdout Evaluation I

1

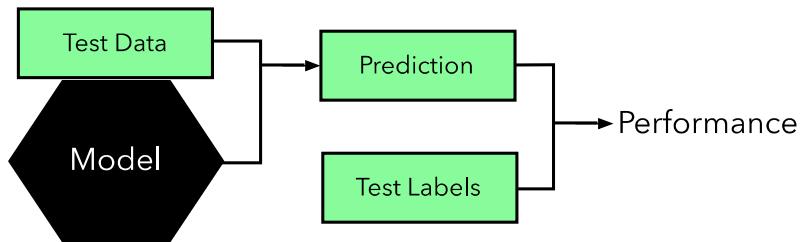


2

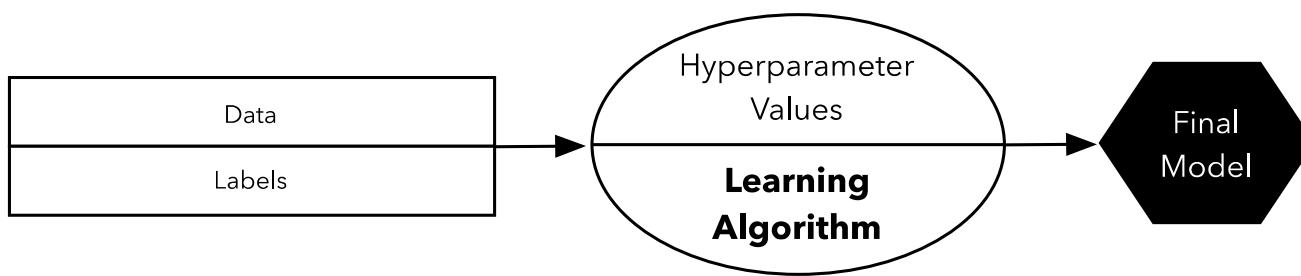


Holdout Evaluation II

3



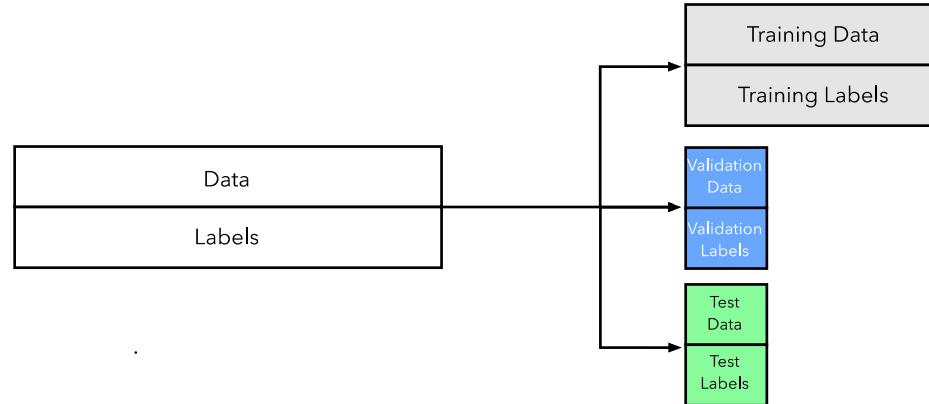
4



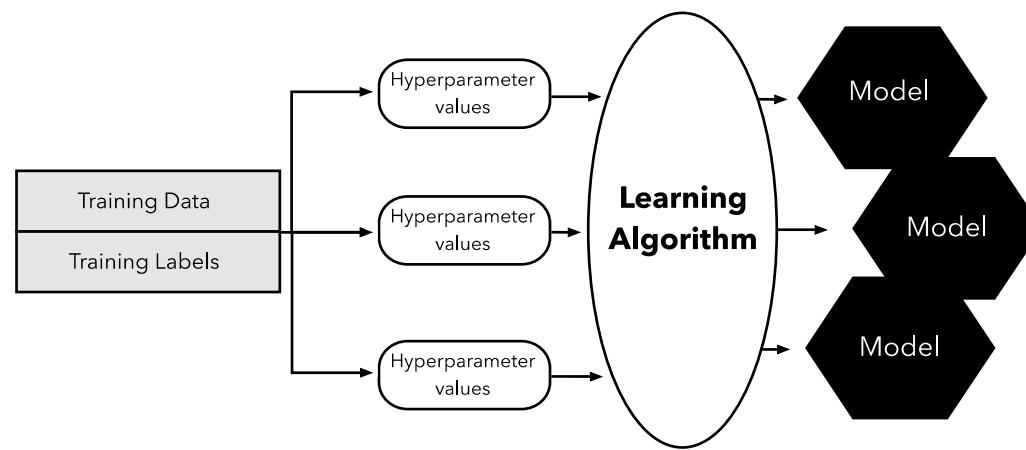
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Holdout Validation I

1

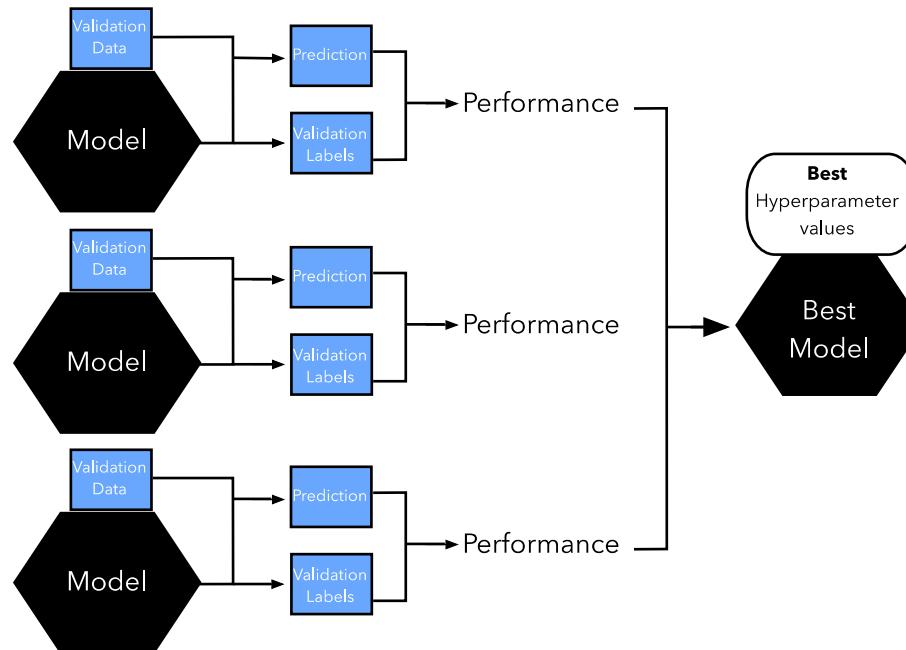


2

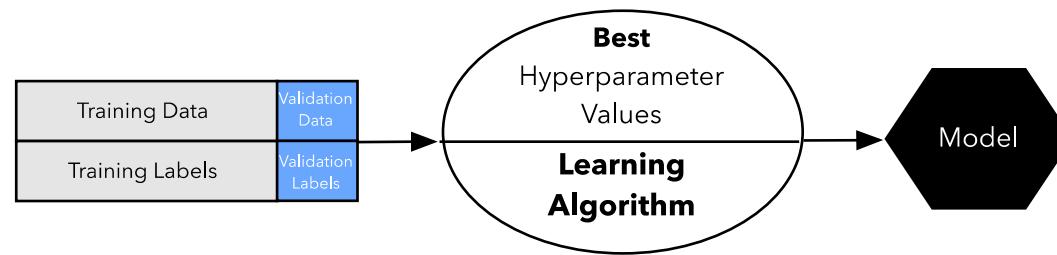


Holdout Validation II

3

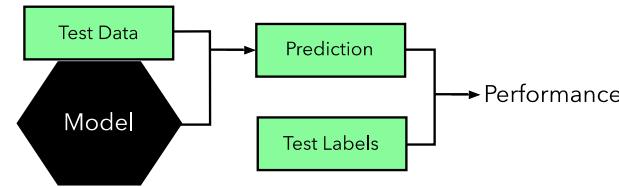


4

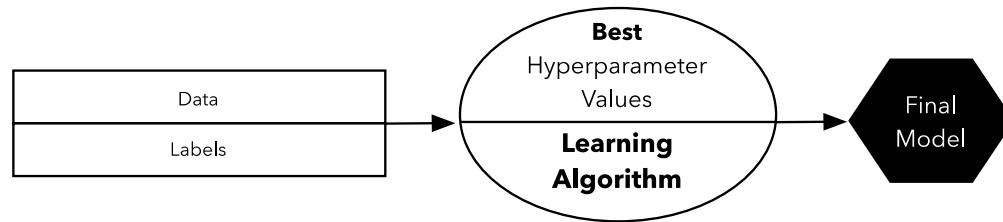


Holdout Validation III

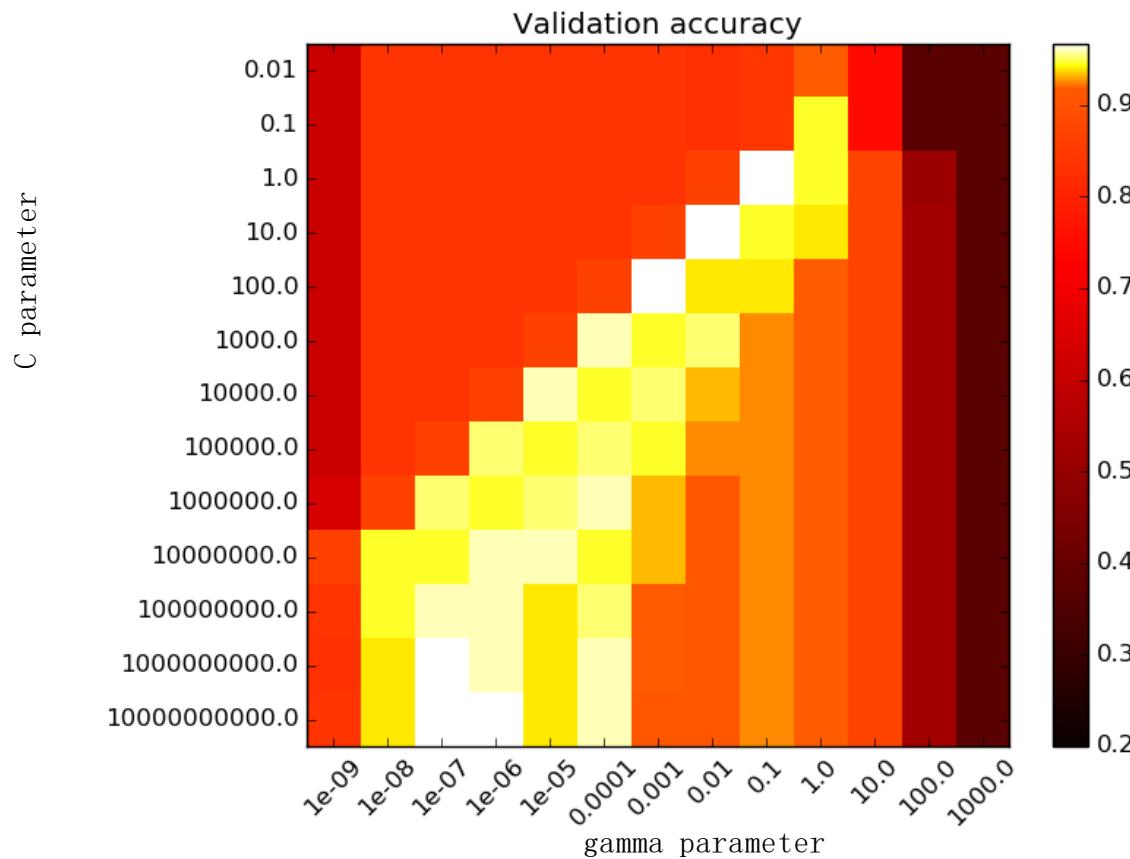
5



6



Grid Search



Now, big question

- How to define input X?
- http://stockcharts.com/school/doku.php?id=chart_school:technical_indicators