

# **INTRODUCTION TO DATA SCIENCE**

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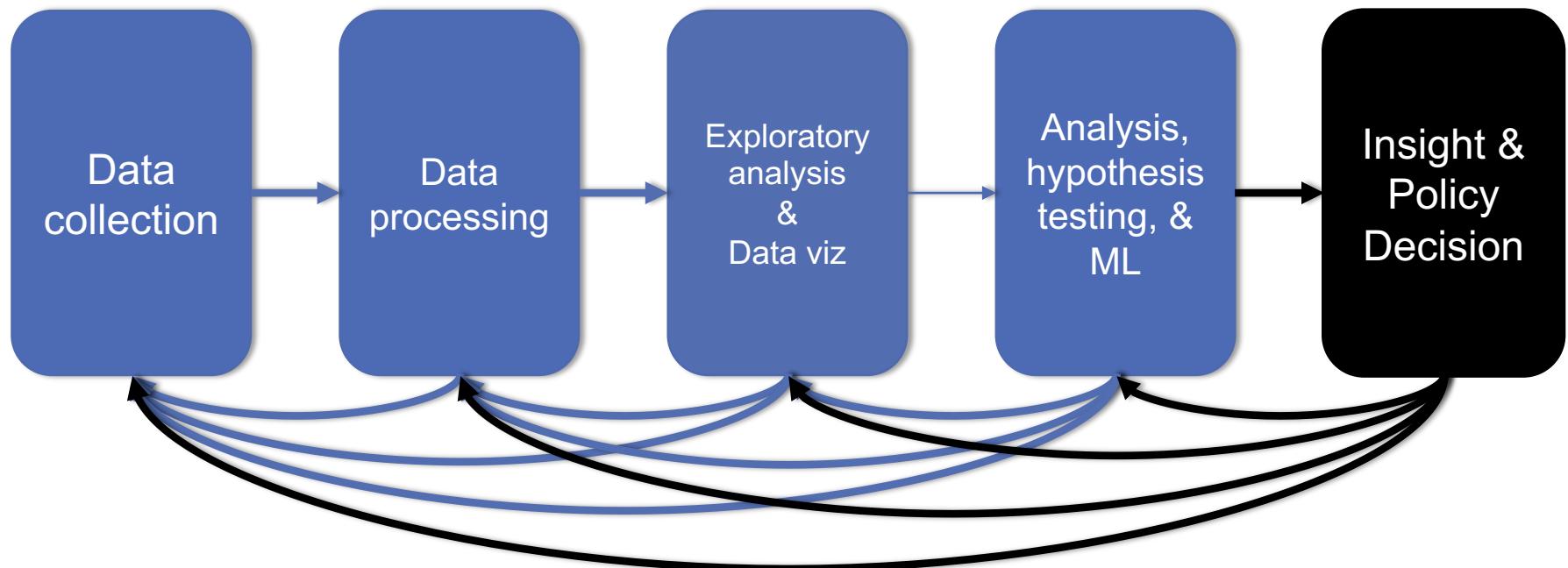
**Lecture #21 – 11/5/2019**

**CMSC320**  
**Tuesdays & Thursdays**  
**5:00pm – 6:15pm**



**COMPUTER SCIENCE**  
UNIVERSITY OF MARYLAND

# TODAY'S LECTURE

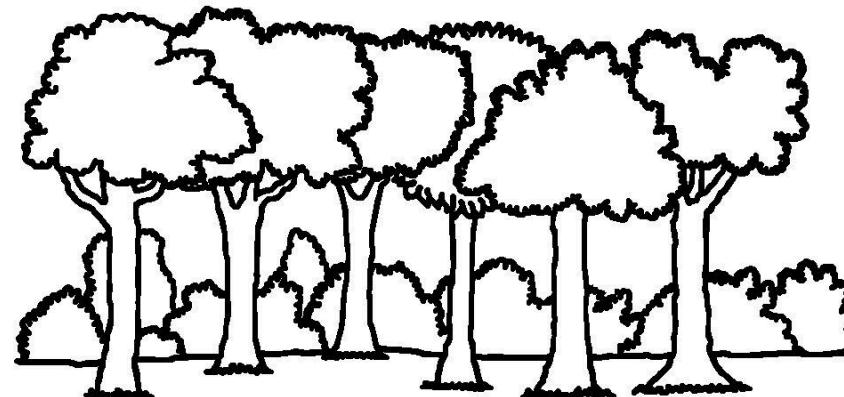


# TODAY'S LECTURE

## More nonlinear classification/regression methods

- Decision trees & random forests in Scikit-Learn
- K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN)
- Support Vector Machines (SVMs)

Thanks to: Hector Corrada Bravo (UMD), Panagiotis Tsaparas (U of I), Oliver Schulte (SFU)



# DECISION TREES IN SCIKIT

```
from sklearn.datasets import load_iris  
from sklearn import tree  
  
# Load a common dataset, fit a decision tree to it  
iris = load_iris()  
clf = tree.DecisionTreeClassifier()  
clf = clf.fit(iris.data, iris.target)
```

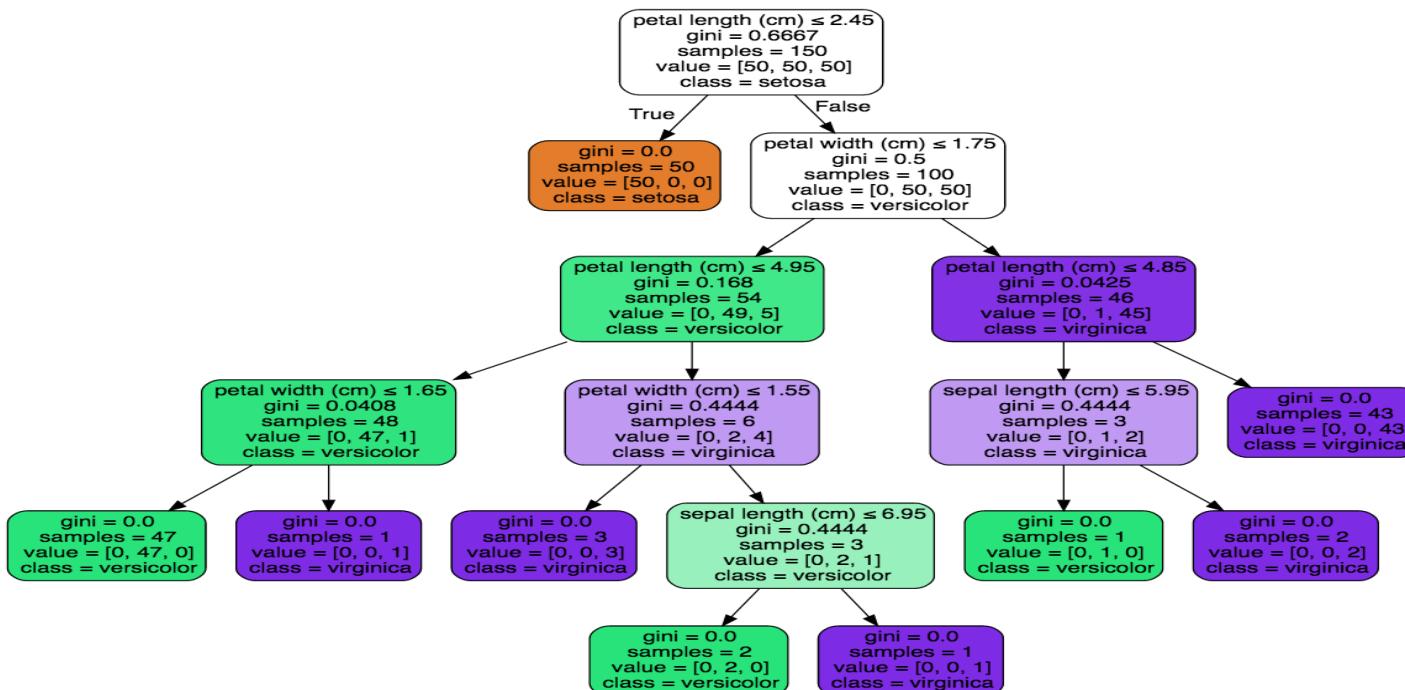
Trains a decision tree using default hyperparameters (attribute chosen to split on either Gini or entropy, no max depth, etc)

```
# Predict most likely class  
clf.predict([[2., 2.]])
```

```
# Predict PDF over classes (%training samples in leaf)  
clf.predict_proba([[2., 2.]])
```

# VISUALIZING A DECISION TREE

```
from IPython.display import Image  
dot_data = tree.export_graphviz(clf,  
                                out_file=None,  
                                feature_names=iris.feature_names,  
                                class_names=iris.target_names,  
                                filled=True, rounded=True)  
  
graph = pydotplus.graph_from_dot_data(dot_data)  
Image(graph.create_png())
```



# RANDOM FORESTS

Decision trees are very interpretable, but may be brittle to changes in the training data, as well as noise

**Random forests** are an ensemble method that:

- Resamples the training data;
- Builds many decision trees; and
- Averages predictions of trees to classify.

This is done through bagging and random feature selection



# BAGGING

**Bagging: Bootstrap aggregation**

**Resampling a training set of size n via the bootstrap:**

- Sample **with replacement** n elements

**General scheme for random forests:**

1. Create B bootstrap samples,  $\{Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_B\}$
2. Build B decision trees,  $\{T_1, T_2, \dots, T_B\}$ , from  $\{Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_B\}$

**Classification/Regression:**

1. Each tree  $T_j$  predicts class/value  $y_j$
2. Return average  $1/B \sum_{j=\{1,\dots,B\}} y_j$  for regression,  
or majority vote for classification

Original training  
dataset ( $Z$ ):

obs_id	ft_1	ft_2
1	12.2	puppy
2	34.5	dog
3	8.1	cat

$Z_1$

$Z_2$

$Z_B$

B Bootstrap  
samples  $Z_j$

obs_id	ft_1	ft_2
3	8.1	cat
2	34.5	dog
3	8.1	cat

$T_1$

obs_id	ft_1	ft_2
1	12.2	puppy
2	34.5	dog
1	12.2	puppy

$T_2$

obs_id	ft_1	ft_2
1	12.2	puppy
1	12.2	puppy
3	8.1	cat

$T_j$

$T_B$

Aggregate/Vote

Class estimate or predicted value

# RANDOM ATTRIBUTE SELECTION

We get some randomness via bootstrapping

- We like this! Randomness increases the bias of the forest slightly at a huge decrease in variance (due to averaging)

We can further reduce correlation between trees by:

1. For each tree, at every split point ...
2. ... choose a **random subset** of attributes ...
3. ... then split on the “best” (entropy, Gini) within only that subset

# RANDOM FORESTS IN SCIKIT-LEARN

```
from sklearn.ensemble import RandomForestClassifier  
  
# Train a random forest of 10 default decision trees  
X = [[0, 0], [1, 1]]  
Y = [0, 1]  
clf = RandomForestClassifier(n_estimators=10)  
clf = clf.fit(X, Y)
```

Can we get even more random?!

**Extremely randomized trees** (`ExtraTreesClassifier`) do bagging, random attribute selection, but also:

1. At each split point, choose random splits
2. Pick the best of those random splits

Similar bias/variance performance to RFs, but can be faster computationally



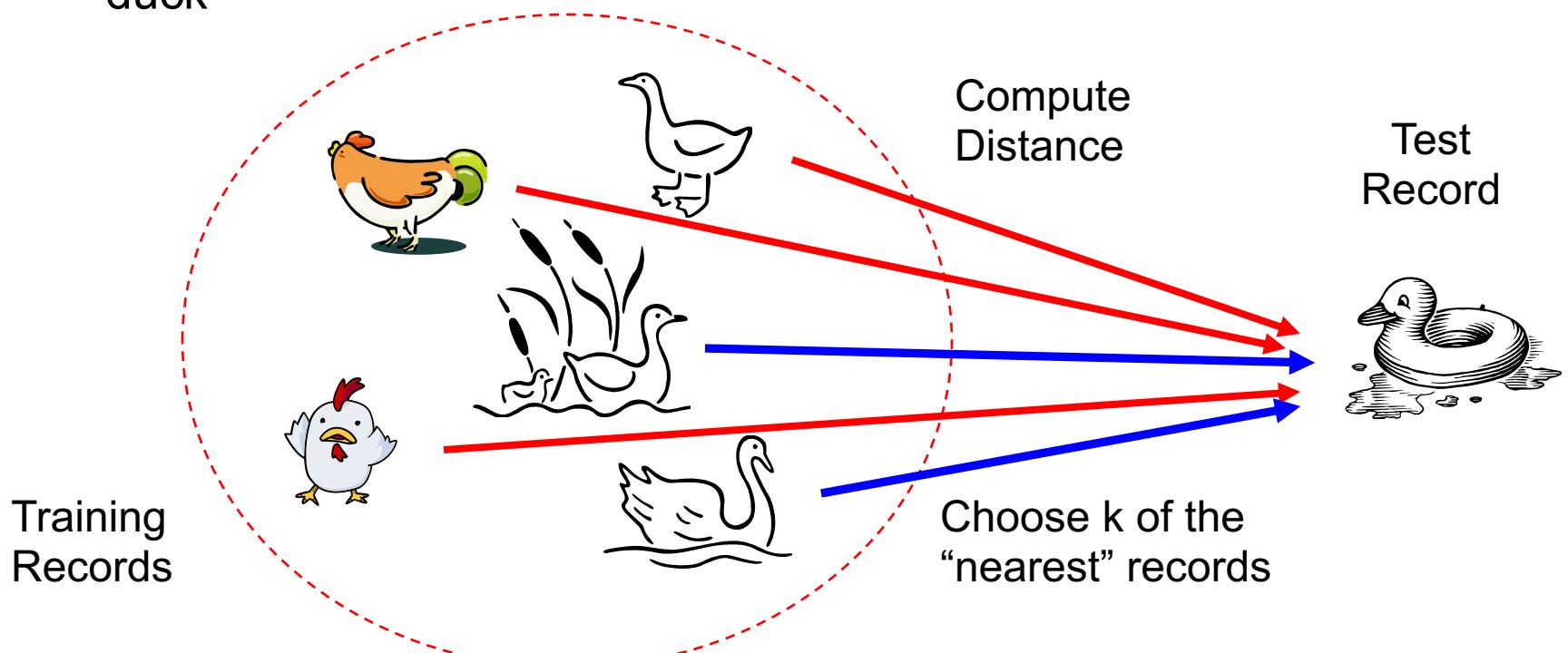


# K-NEAREST NEIGHBORS

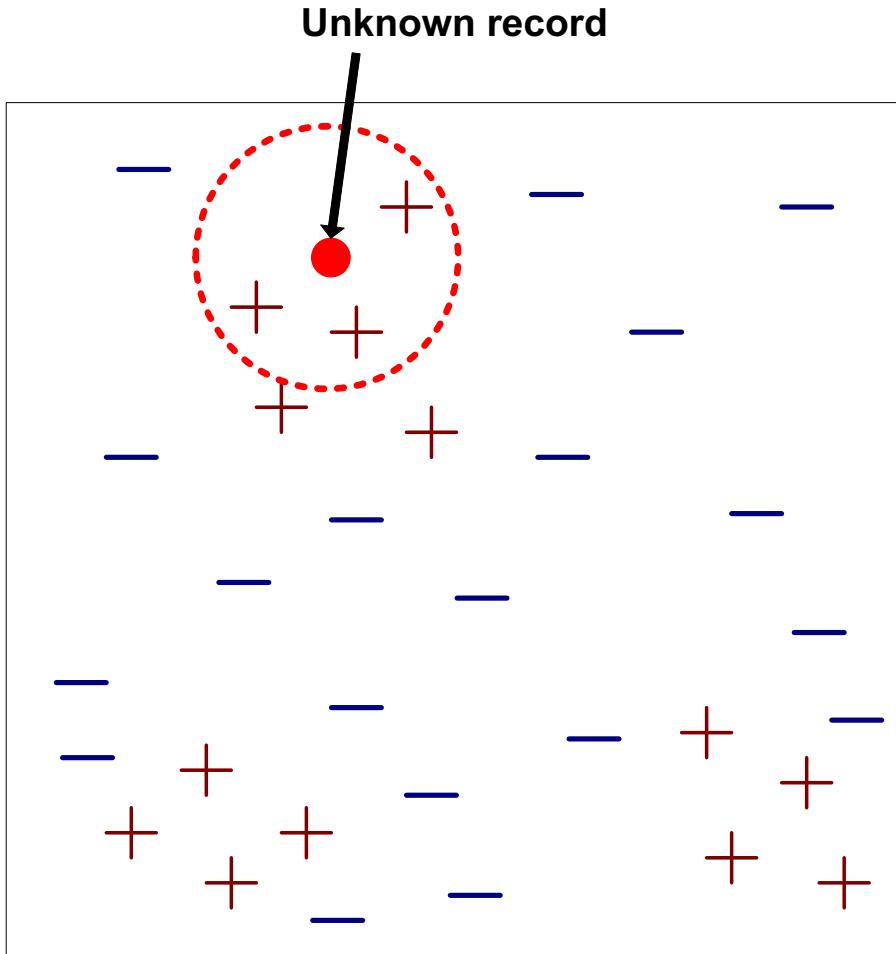
# NEAREST NEIGHBOR CLASSIFIERS

**Basic idea:**

- If it walks like a duck, quacks like a duck, then it's probably a duck

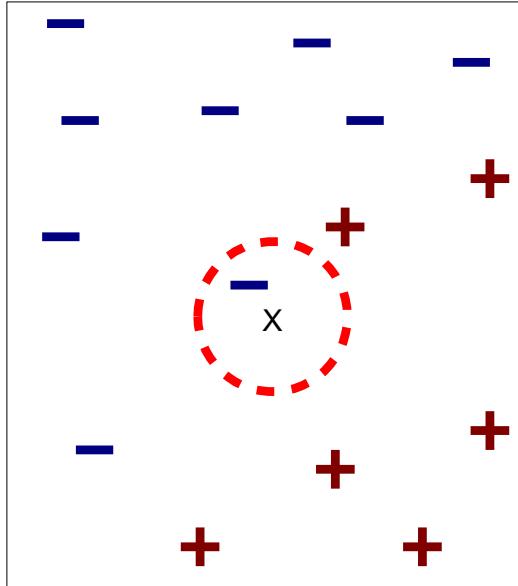


# NEAREST-NEIGHBOR CLASSIFIERS

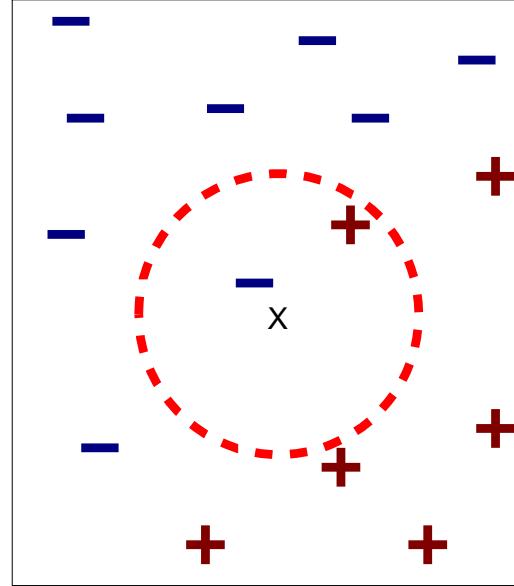


- Requires three things
  - The set of stored records
  - **Distance Metric** to compute distance between records
  - The value of  $k$ , the number of **nearest neighbors** to retrieve
- To classify an unknown record:
  - **Compute distance** to other training records
  - Identify  $k$  nearest neighbors
  - Use class labels of nearest neighbors to determine the class label of unknown record (e.g., by taking majority vote)

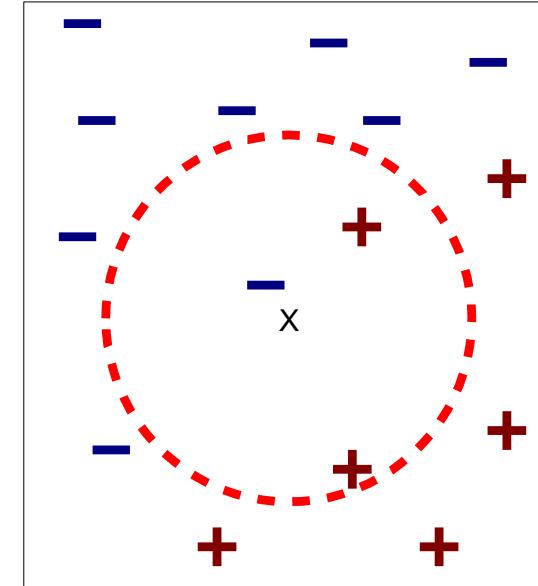
# DEFINITION OF NEAREST NEIGHBOR



(a) 1-nearest neighbor



(b) 2-nearest neighbor

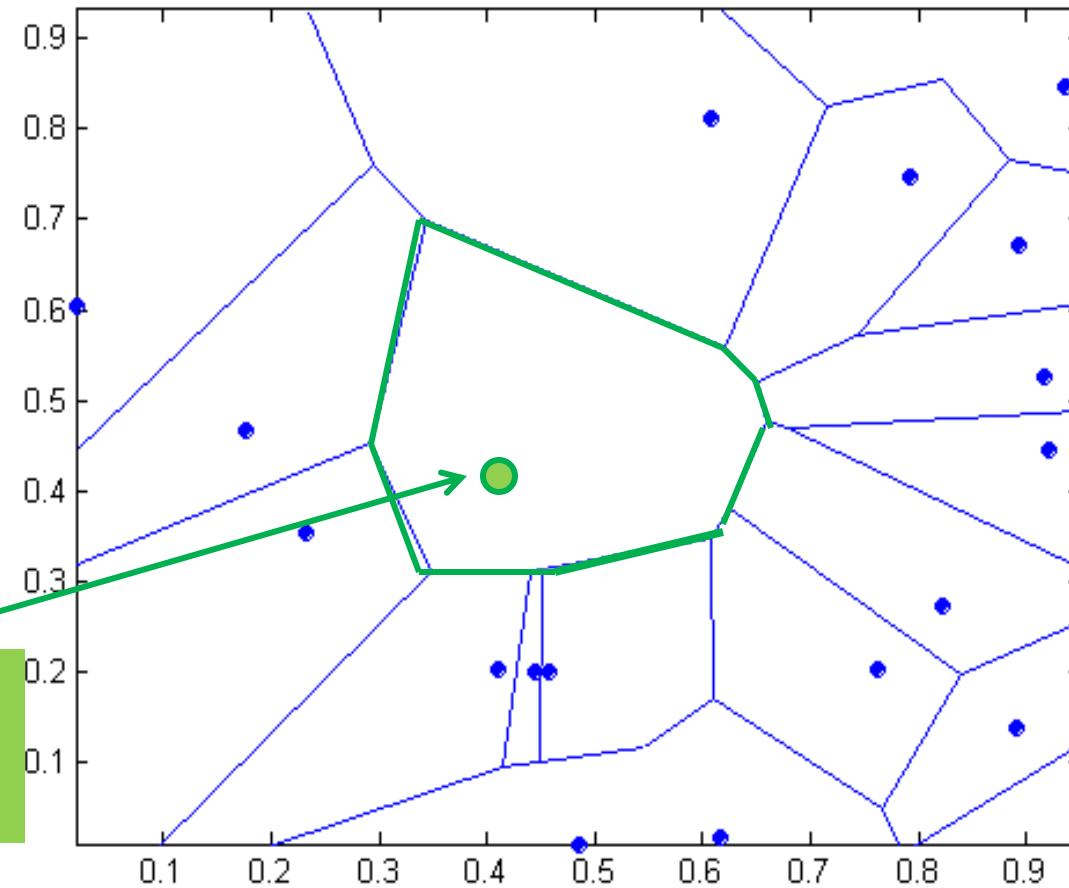


(c) 3-nearest neighbor

K-nearest neighbors of a record  $x$  are data points that have the  $k$  smallest distances to  $x$

# 1-NEAREST NEIGHBOR

Voronoi Diagram defines the classification boundary



# NEAREST NEIGHBOR CLASSIFICATION

**Compute distance between two points:**

- Euclidean distance

$$d(p, q) = \sqrt{\sum_i (p_i - q_i)^2}$$

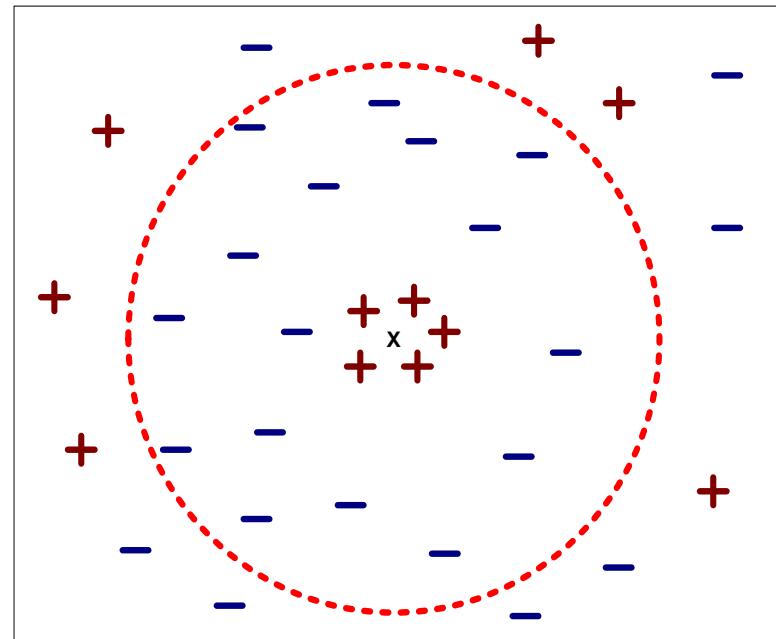
**Determine the class from nearest neighbor list**

- Take the majority vote of class labels among the k-nearest neighbors
- Weight the vote according to distance
  - E.g., weight factor  $w = 1/d^2$

# NEAREST NEIGHBOR CLASSIFICATION...

Choosing the value of k:

- If k is too small, sensitive to noise points
- If k is too large, neighborhood may include points from other classes



# NEAREST NEIGHBOR CLASSIFICATION...

## Scaling issues

- Attributes may have to be scaled to prevent distance measures from being dominated by one of the attributes
- Example:
  - height of a person may vary from 1.5m to 1.8m
  - weight of a person may vary from 90lb to 300lb
  - income of a person may vary from \$10K to \$1M

**Standardize variables, like in Mini-Project #2.**

# NEAREST NEIGHBOR CLASSIFICATION...

**Problem with Euclidean measure:**

- **High dimensional data**
  - **The curse of dimensionality** – data becomes sparse relative to the total volume of the space, distance metrics “lose meaning”
- **Can produce counter-intuitive results**

1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 0

vs

0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1

$$d = 1.4142$$

1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0

0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1

$$d = 1.4142$$

Solution: Normalize the vectors to unit length

# NEAREST NEIGHBOR CLASSIFICATION...

**k-NN classifiers are **lazy learners****

- It does not build models explicitly
- Unlike **eager learners** such as decision tree induction and rule-based systems

**Classifying unknown records are relatively expensive**

- Naïve algorithm:  $O(n)$
- Need for structures to retrieve nearest neighbors fast
  - The **Nearest Neighbor Search** problem
- CMSC420 covers spatial data structures extensively

# NEAREST NEIGHBOR SEARCH

## Two-dimensional kd-trees:

- A data structure for answering nearest neighbor queries in  $\mathbb{R}^2$

## kd-tree construction algorithm

- Select the **x** or **y** dimension (alternating between the two)
- Partition the space into two with a line passing from the median point
- Repeat recursively in the two partitions as long as there are enough points
- Can quickly query the tree for nearest neighbors by finding an incumbent best and pruning large chunks of the tree away

# K-NN: ADVANTAGES

**Simple technique that is easily implemented**

**Building model is cheap**

**Extremely flexible classification scheme**

**Well suited for:**

- Multi-modal classes
- Records with multiple class labels

**Can sometimes be the best method**

- Michihiro Kuramochi and George Karypis, Gene Classification using Expression Profiles: A Feasibility Study, International Journal on Artificial Intelligence Tools. Vol. 14, No. 4, pp. 641-660, 2005
- K nearest neighbor outperformed SVM for protein function prediction using expression profiles

# K-NN: DISADVANTAGES

**Classifying unknown records are relatively expensive**

- Requires distance computation of k-nearest neighbors
- Computationally intensive, especially when the size of the training set grows

**Accuracy can be severely degraded by the presence of:**

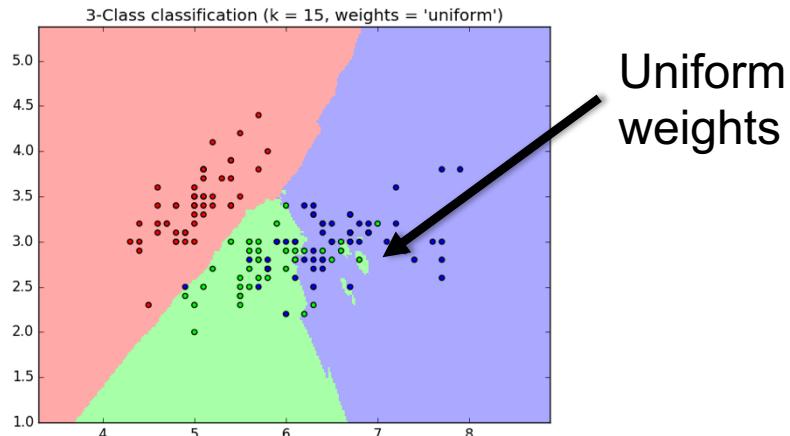
- Noisy or irrelevant features
- High-dimensional space
- Choosing the wrong distance metric
- Choosing the wrong  $k$

# KNN CLASSIFICATION IN SCIKIT-LEARN

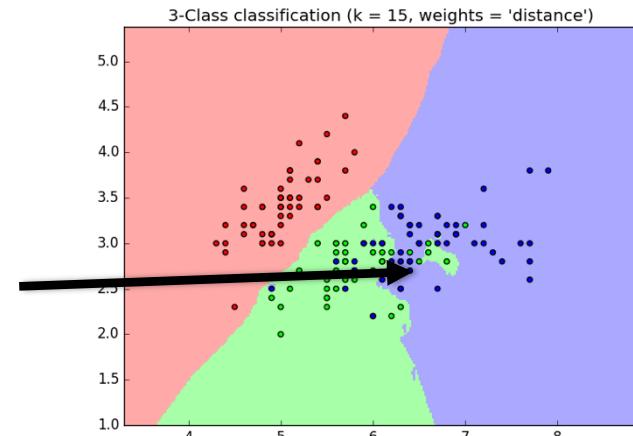
```
from sklearn import neighbors, datasets

# Load a common dataset, fit a 15-NN classifier to it
iris = datasets.load_iris()
X = iris.data[:, :2] # take the first two features
y = iris.target

clf = neighbors.KNeighborsClassifier(
    15, weights='uniform')
clf.fit(X, y)
```



1/d<sup>2</sup>  
weights



# LOCAL REGRESSION

**Basic Idea:** To predict a target value  $y$  for data point  $x$ , apply interpolation/regression to the neighborhood of  $x$ .

**Simplest version:** connect the dots.

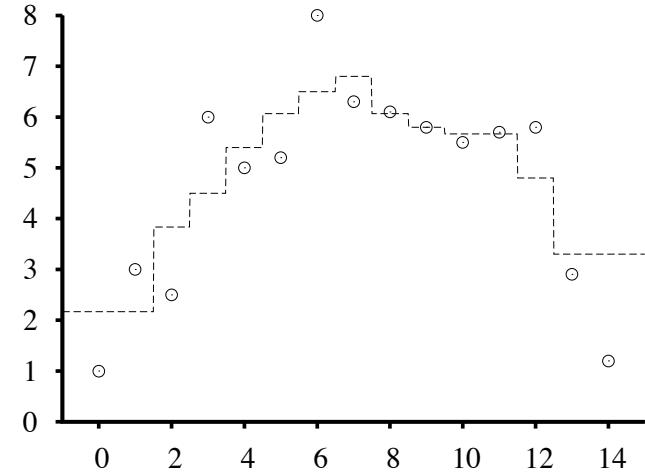
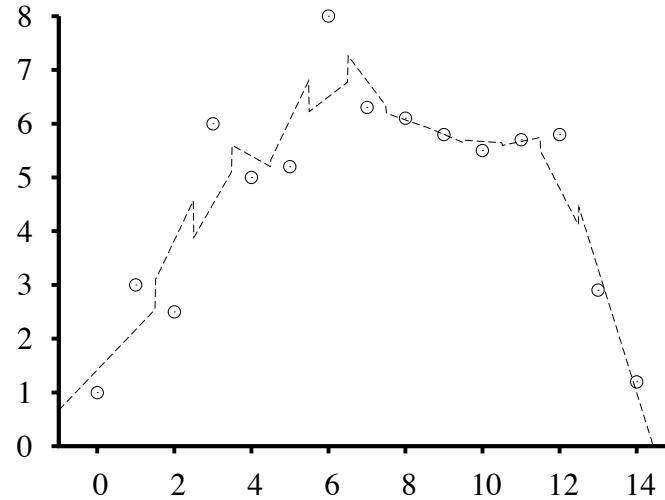


# K-NEAREST NEIGHBOR REGRESSION

Connect the dots uses  $k = 2$ , fits a line.

Ideas for  $k = 5$ .

- Fit a line using linear regression.
- Predict the average target value of the  $k$  points.



# LOCAL REGRESSION WITH KERNELS

Spikes in regression prediction come from in-or-out nature of neighborhood

Instead, **weight** examples as function of the distance

A **homogenous kernel function** maps the distance between two vectors to a number, usually in a nonlinear way.

$$k(x, x') = k(\text{distance}(x, x'))$$

Example: The quadratic kernel

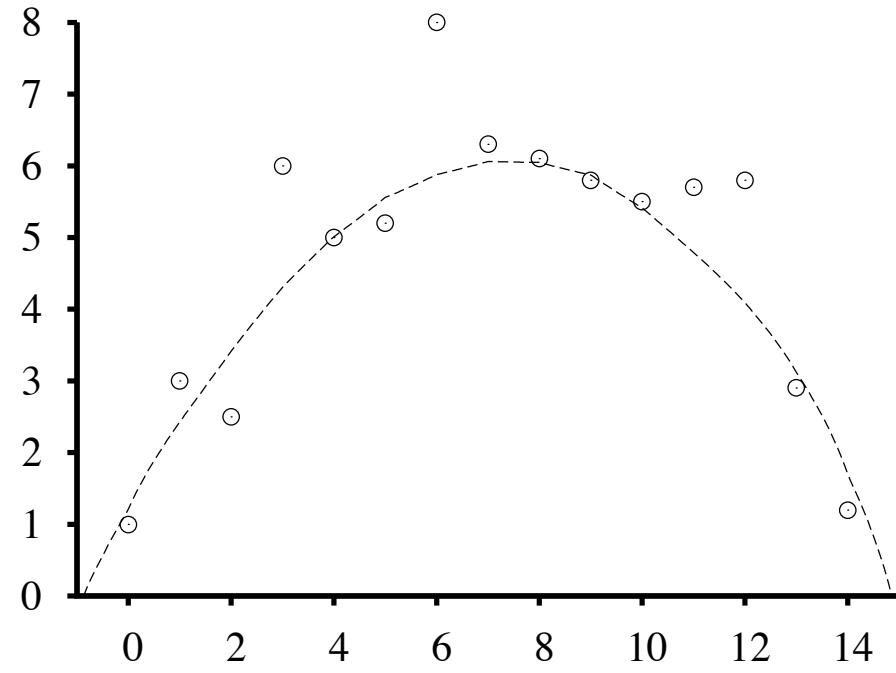
# KERNEL REGRESSION

For each query point  $\mathbf{x}_q$ ,  
prediction is made as  
weighted linear sum:

$$y(\mathbf{x}_q) = \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_q.$$

To find weights, solve the  
following regression on the  
k-nearest neighbors:

$$\mathbf{w}^* = \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{w}} \sum_j k(\operatorname{dist}(\mathbf{x}_q, \mathbf{x}_j))(t_j - \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_j)^2$$



# KNN REGRESSION IN SCIKIT-LEARN

```
from sklearn.neighbors import KNeighborsRegressor  
  
# Basic KNN regression in Scikit (interpolation)  
X = [[0], [1], [2], [3]]  
y = [0, 0, 1, 1]  
  
neigh = KNeighborsRegressor( n_neighbors=2 )  
neigh.fit(X, y)  
  
print(neigh.predict([[1.5]]))
```

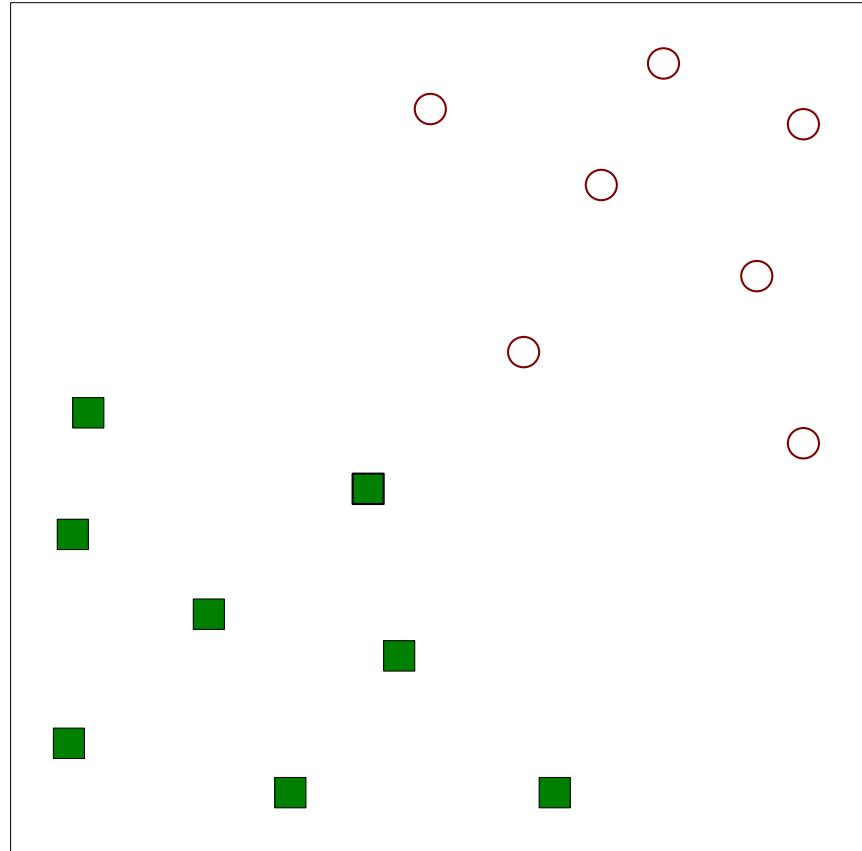
[ 0.5 ]

Also provides a variety of distance metrics, backing algorithms to find nearest neighbors, weight functions (down-weight points based on distance), etc.



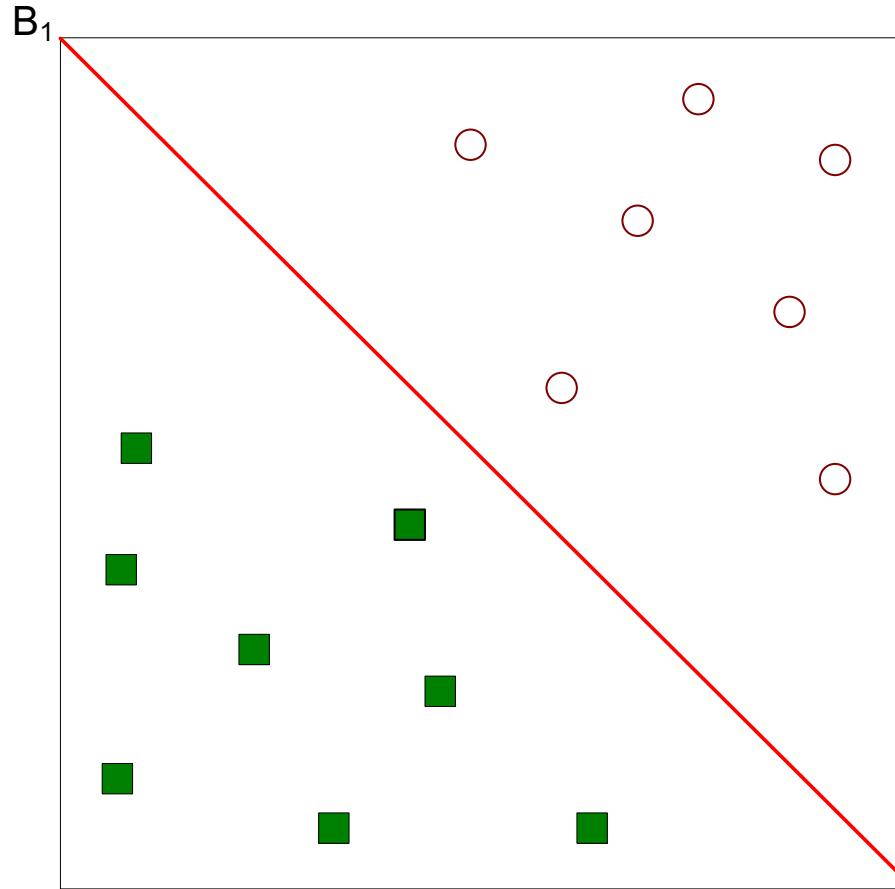
# **SUPPORT VECTOR MACHINES**

# SUPPORT VECTOR MACHINES (SVM)



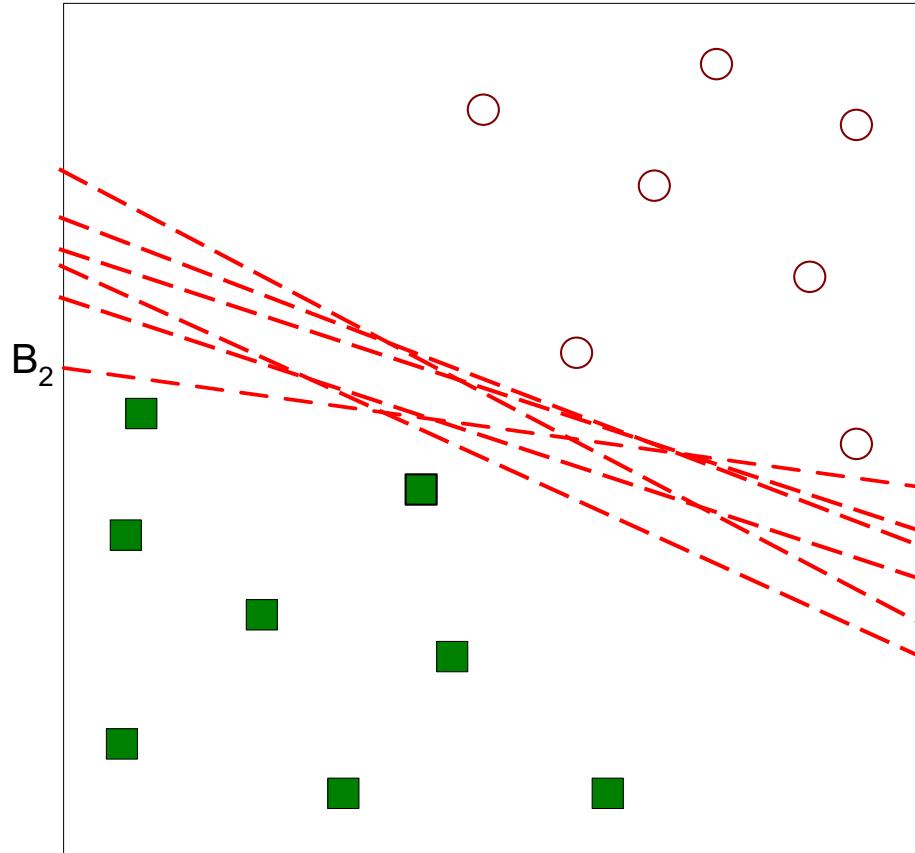
Find a linear hyperplane (decision boundary) that will separate the data

# SUPPORT VECTOR MACHINES



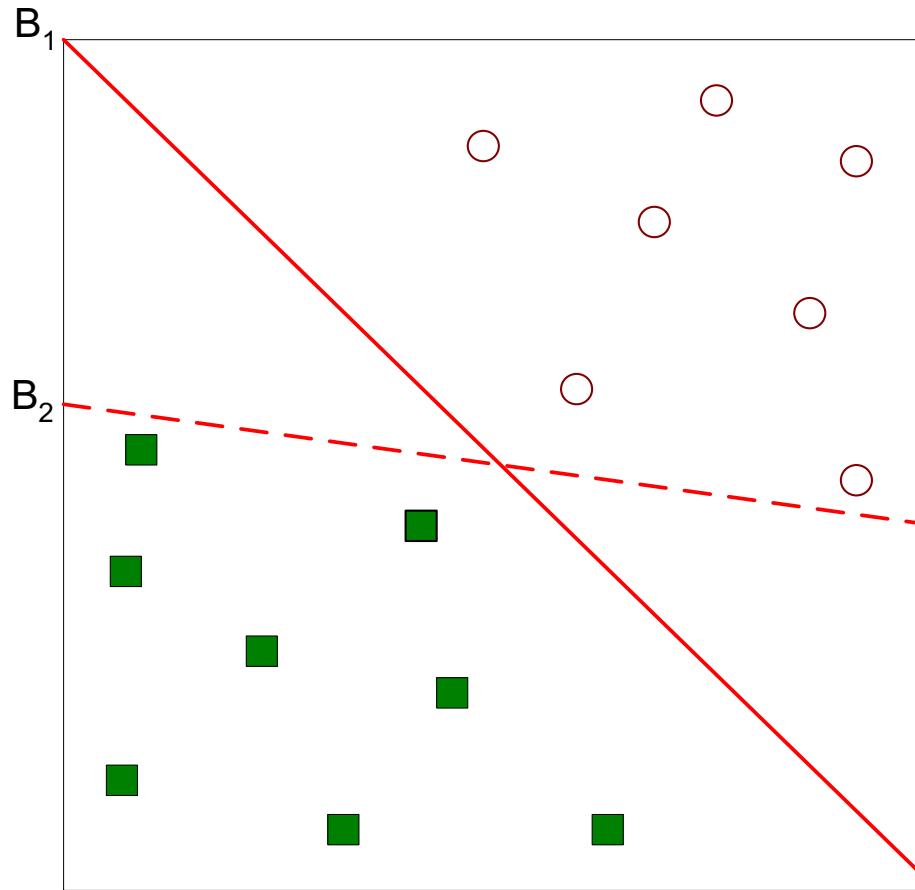
One possible solution

# SUPPORT VECTOR MACHINES



Other possible solutions

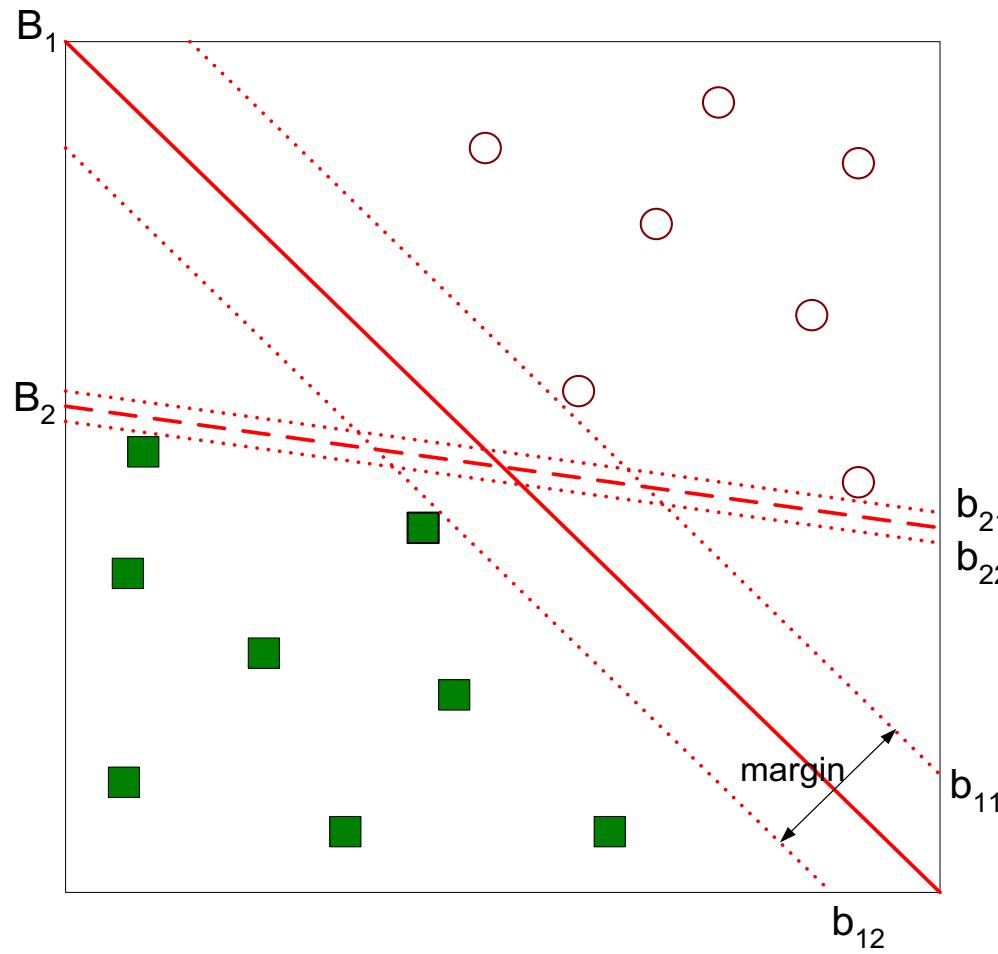
# SUPPORT VECTOR MACHINES



Which one is better?  $B_1$  or  $B_2$ ? ??????????

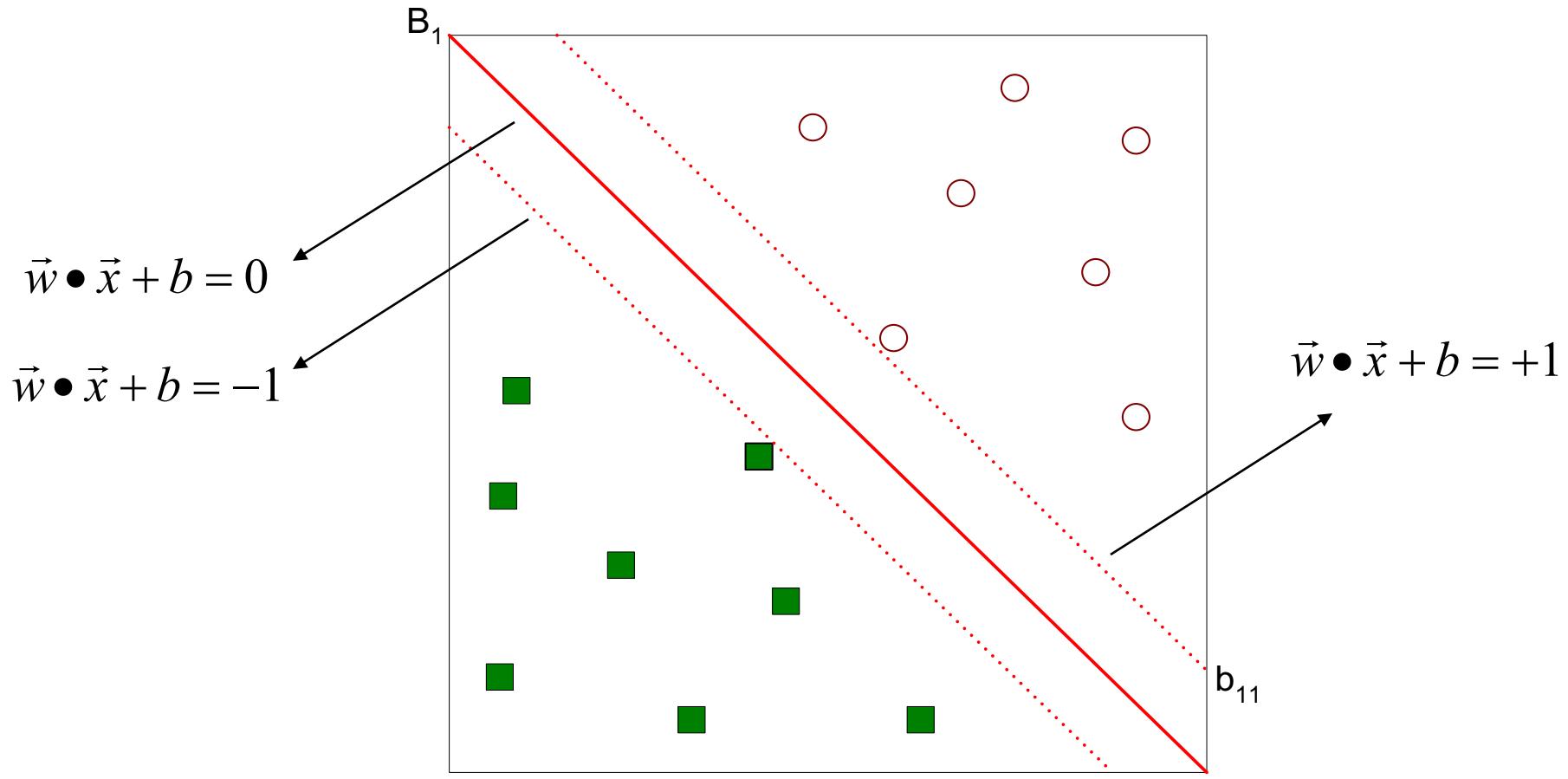
How do you define better? ??????????

# SUPPORT VECTOR MACHINES



Find hyperplane **maximizes** the margin  $\rightarrow B_1$  is better than  $B_2$

# SUPPORT VECTOR MACHINES



$$f(\vec{x}) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \vec{w} \cdot \vec{x} + b \geq 1 \\ -1 & \text{if } \vec{w} \cdot \vec{x} + b \leq -1 \end{cases}$$

$$\text{Margin} = \frac{2}{\|\vec{w}\|^2}$$

# SUPPORT VECTOR MACHINES

We want to maximize: Margin =  $\frac{2}{\|\vec{w}\|^2}$

Which is equivalent to minimizing:  $L(w) = \frac{\|\vec{w}\|^2}{2}$

But subject to the following constraints:

$$\vec{w} \cdot \vec{x}_i + b \geq 1 \text{ if } y_i = 1$$

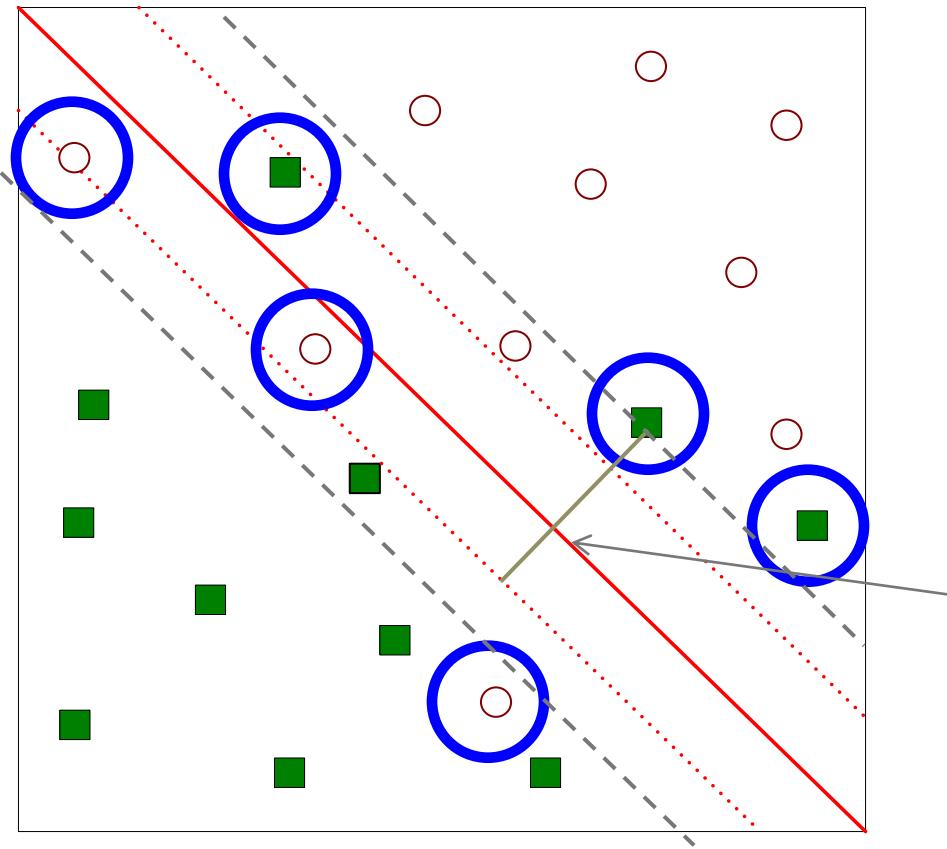
$$\vec{w} \cdot \vec{x}_i + b \leq -1 \text{ if } y_i = -1$$

This is a constrained optimization problem

- Numerical approaches to solve it (e.g., quadratic programming)

# SUPPORT VECTOR MACHINES

What if the problem is not linearly separable?



# SUPPORT VECTOR MACHINES

What if the problem is not linearly separable?

- Introduce **slack** variables
- Need to minimize:

$$L(w) = \frac{\|\vec{w}\|^2}{2} + C \left( \sum_{i=1}^N \xi_i^k \right)$$

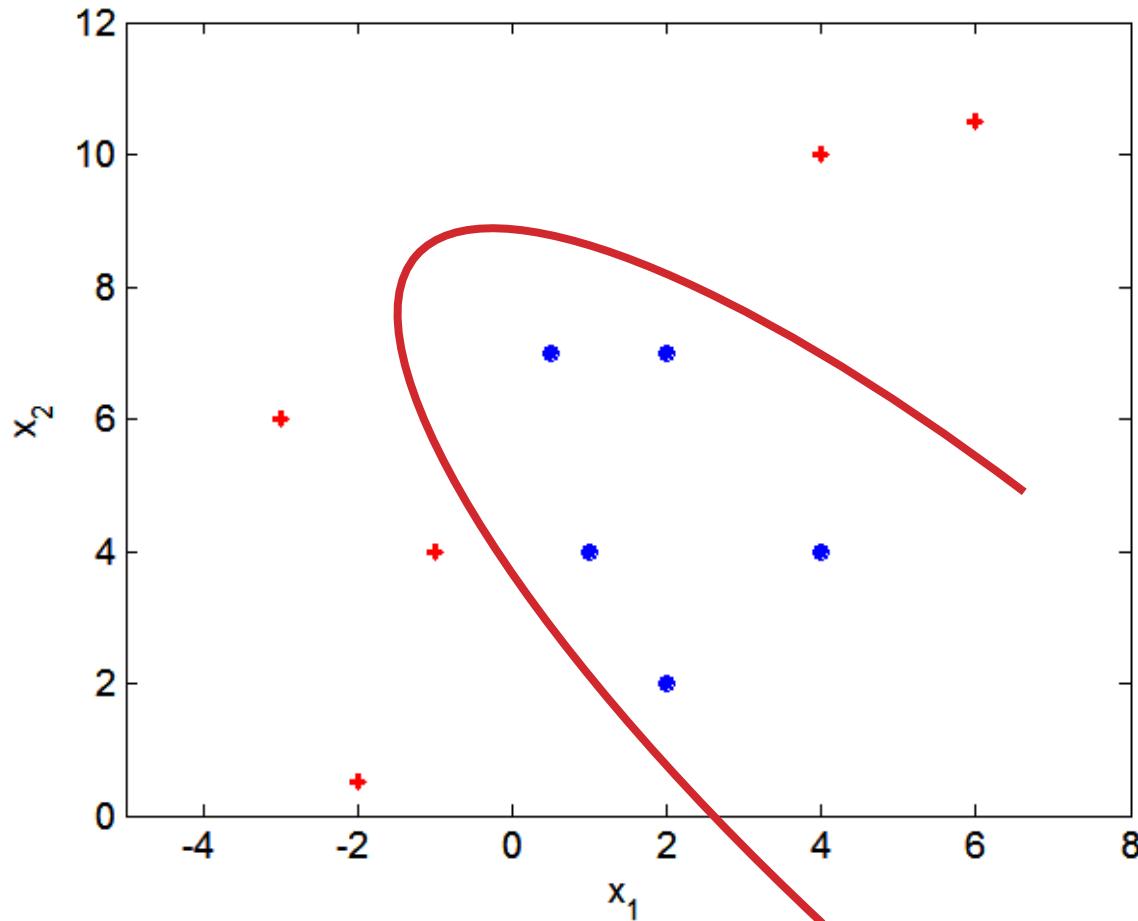
- Subject to:

$$\vec{w} \cdot \vec{x}_i + b \geq 1 - \xi_i \text{ if } y_i = 1$$

$$\vec{w} \cdot \vec{x}_i + b \leq -1 + \xi_i \text{ if } y_i = -1$$

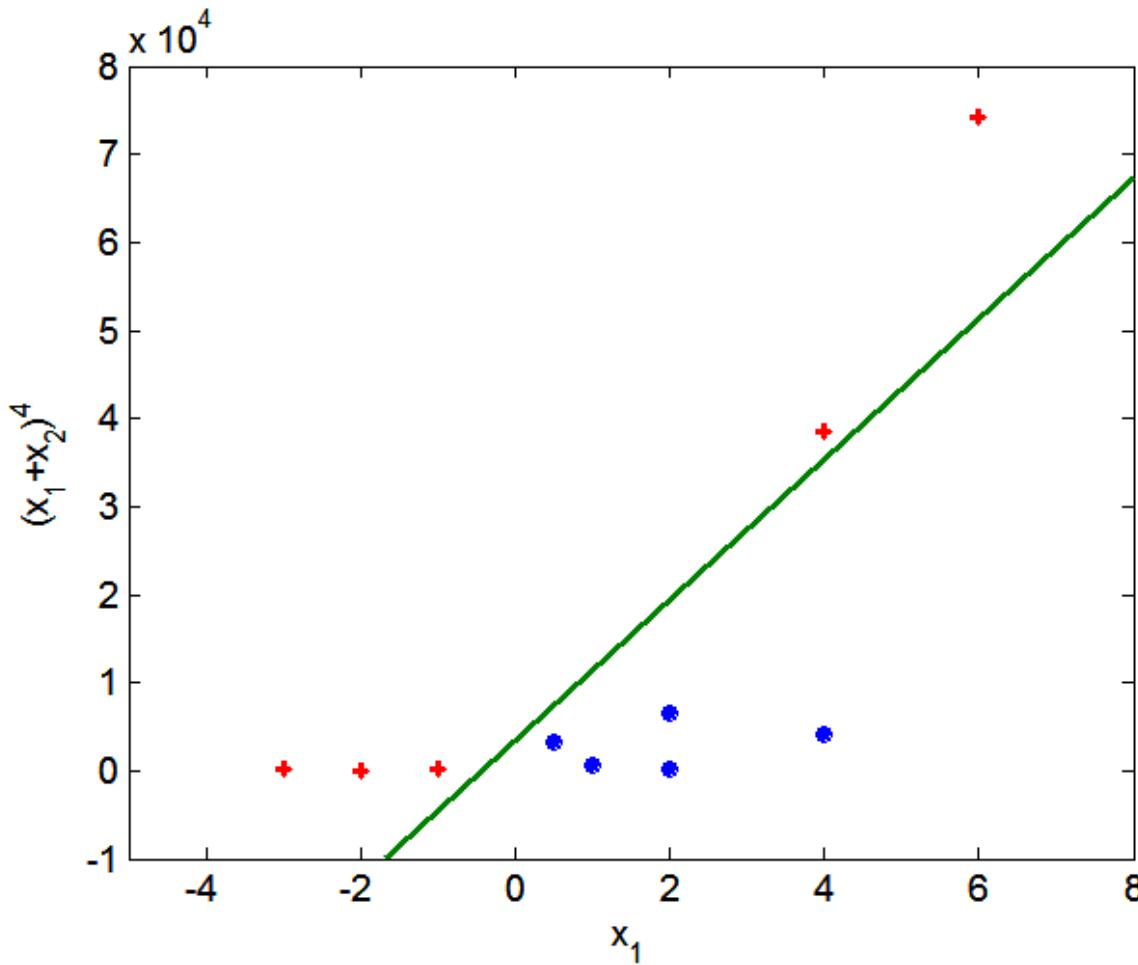
# NONLINEAR SUPPORT VECTOR MACHINES

What if the decision boundary is not linear?



# NONLINEAR SUPPORT VECTOR MACHINES

Transform data into higher dimensional space



# SVMS IN SCIKIT-LEARN

```
from sklearn import svm

# Fit a default SVM classifier to fake data
X = [[0, 0], [1, 1]]
y = [0, 1]
clf = svm.SVC()
clf.fit(X, y)
```

```
SVC(C=1.0, cache_size=200, class_weight=None, coef0=0.0,
decision_function_shape=None, degree=3, gamma='auto',
kernel='rbf', max_iter=-1, probability=False,
random_state=None, shrinking=True, tol=0.001,
verbose=False)
```

**Lots of defaults used for hyperparameters – can use cross validation to search for good ones**

# MODEL SELECTION IN SCIKIT-LEARN

```
from sklearn.model_selection import train_test_split
from sklearn.model_selection import GridSearchCV
from sklearn.metrics import classification_report

# ... Load some raw data into X and y ...
# Split the dataset in two equal parts
X_train, X_test, y_train, y_test = \
    train_test_split(X, y, test_size=0.5, random_state=0)
```

```
# Pick values of hyperparameters you want to consider
tuned_parameters = [{ 'kernel': ['rbf'],
                      'gamma': [1e-3, 1e-4],
                      'C': [1, 10, 100, 1000]},
                     { 'kernel': ['linear'],
                      'C': [1, 10, 100, 1000]}
                    ]
```

# MODEL SELECTION IN SCIKIT-LEARN

```
# Perform a complete grid search + cross validation  
# for each of the hyperparameter vectors  
clf = GridSearchCV(SVC(C=1),  
                    tuned_parameters,  
                    cv=5,  
                    scoring='precision')  
clf.fit(X_train, y_train)
```

```
# Now that you've selected good hyperparameters via CV,  
# and trained a model on your training data, get an  
# estimate of the "true error" on your test set  
y_true, y_pred = y_test, clf.predict(X_test)  
print(classification_report(y_true, y_pred))
```