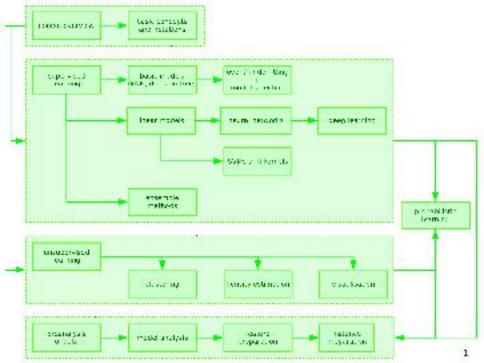
Machine Learning: Lesson 4

Basic Models for Supervised Learning

Benoît Frénay - Faculty of Computer Science





Outline of this Lesson

- · k-nearest neighbours
- decision trees

k-Nearest Neighbours

k-Nearest Neighbours for Classification

Training of a kNN classifier

Input: dataset $D = \{(x_i, t_i)\}$

Output: kNN classifier

store the dataset for future predictions

Prediction with a kNN classifier

Input: new instance x

Output: predicted class y

find the k nearest neighbours of x in the training set D: x_{i_1}, \ldots, x_{i_k} return the majority class y amongst the corresponding labels t_{i_1}, \ldots, t_{i_k}

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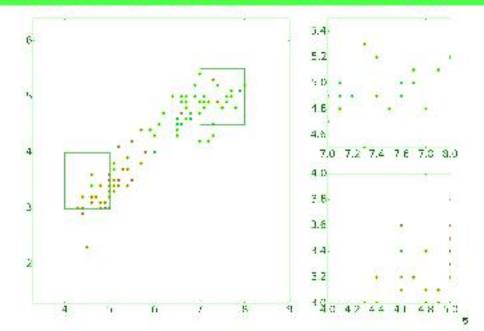
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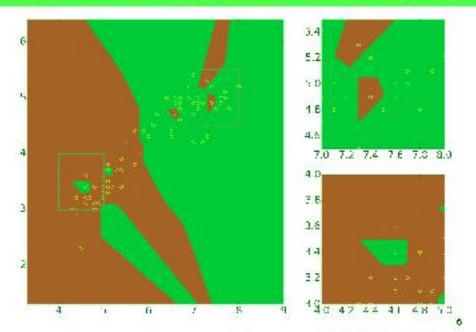
Learning bias

classification of an instance is close to the classification of nearby instances

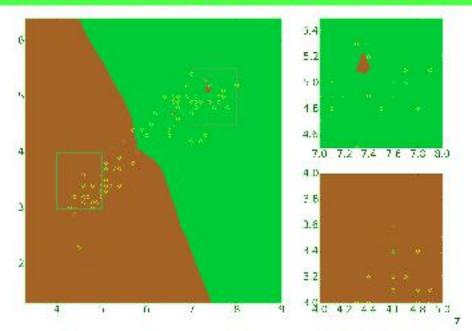
Example of k-Nearest Neighbours Binary Classifier (data)



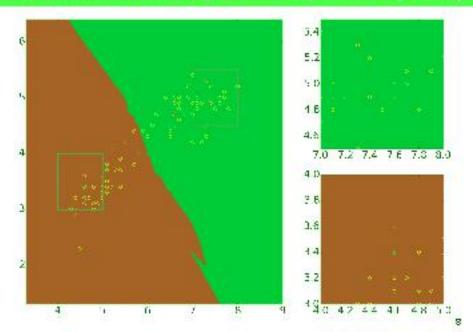
Example of k-Nearest Neighbours Binary Classifier (k=1)



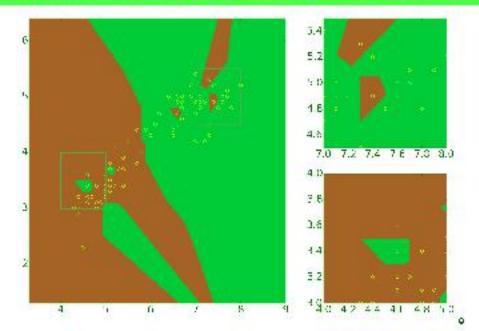
Example of k-Nearest Neighbours Binary Classifier (k = 3)



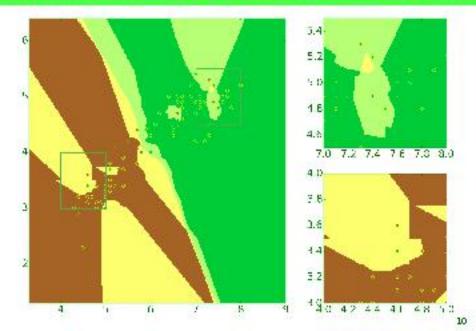
Example of k-Nearest Neighbours Binary Classifier (k=10



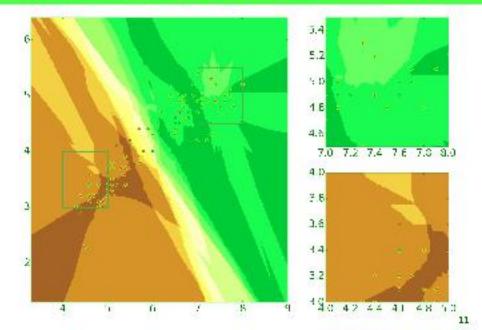
Example of k-Nearest Neighbours Binary Classifier (k=1)



Example of k-Nearest Neighbours Binary Classifier (k = 3)



Example of k-Nearest Neighbours Binary Classifier (k=10



Asymptotic Behaviour of the kNN Classifier



Definition of asymptotic behaviour

properties of the model when the number of instances $n \to \infty$

- typical question: is the model optimal when $n \to \infty$?
- beware: in practice, every dataset is finite (even big data)

Asymptotic misclassification rate with k=1

bounds on the misclassification rate:

$$P_a^* \le P_a \le P_a^* \left(2 - P_a^* \frac{C}{C - 1}\right)$$

where $P_{\mathbf{a}}^{\bullet}$ is the Bayes probability of error and C is the number of classes

the nearest neighbour error rate is bounded by twice the Bayes error rate

Pros and Cons of the kNN Classifier

Advantages

- easy to understand, simple to implement
- no time-consuming learning procedure (lazy learning)
- √ gives (surprisingly) good results and is rather robust
- can be generalised to non-Euclidian distances
- \forall probabilistic version $p(y|\mathbf{x}) = \#(\text{neighbours of } \mathbf{x} \text{ with label } y)/k$

Potential issues

- computational cost of prediction: O(n)
- memory usage for data storage: O(n)
- not suitable for descriptive modelling
- what if one of the features is more important?

Extension of kNN Models



Distance-based weighting schemes

$$\rho(y|x) = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{s=1}^{k} \mathbf{I} [t_{i_s} = y] \quad \Rightarrow \quad \rho(y|x) = \frac{\sum_{s=1}^{k} w_{i_s} \mathbf{I} [t_{i_s} = y]}{\sum_{s=1}^{k} w_{i_s}}$$

where e.g.

$$w_{i_k} = \frac{d(x, x_{i_k}) - d(x, x_{i_k})}{d(x, x_{i_k}) - d(x, x_{i_k})} \quad \text{or} \quad w_{i_k} = \frac{1}{d(x, x_{i_k})^2}$$

Choice of the distance metric

Manhattan/Mahalanobis distance, metrics for non-vectorial data, etc

Efficient implementations

kd-trees with cost $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$ for $d \leq 10$, ball-trees for high-dimensional data

k-Nearest Neighbours for Regression

Training of a kNN for regression

Input: dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{(\mathbf{x}_i, t_i)\}$

Output: kNN classifier

store the dataset for future predictions

Prediction with a kNN for regression

Input: new instance x

Output: predicted target value y

find the k nearest neighbours of \mathbf{x} in the training set \mathcal{D} : $\mathbf{x}_{i_1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{i_k}$ return the average target value for the neighbours $y = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{s=1}^{k} t_{i_s}$

k-Nearest Neighbours for Regression

Training of a kNN for regression

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Output: kNN classifier

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Prediction with a kNN for regression

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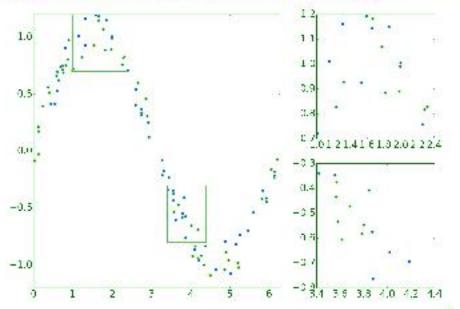
Output: predicted target value y

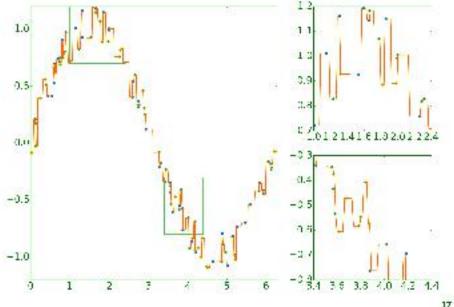
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Learning bias

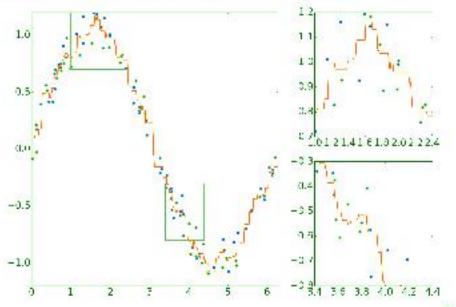
target value of an instance is close to the target value of nearby instances

Example of k-Nearest Neighbours Regression (data)

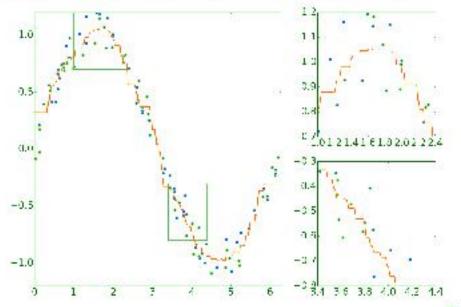




Example of k-Nearest Neighbours Regression (k=3)



Example of k-Nearest Neighbours Regression (k=10)



Decision Trees

Automation of Rule-based Reasoning

How is classification performed by humans?

- human experts often think in terms of rules (e.g. in medicine)
- powerful way to express expert knowledge ⇒ descriptive model

Examples of rules

- ♦ if (client_age < 23) ∧ (has_car = false) then product = voice_3G</p>
- if (client_age > 65) ∧ (has_car = true) then product = voice_only
- ♦ if (client_age < 15) ∧ (prepaid = true) then product = text_only</p>

Issues with rules

- not easy to read (imagine a large-scale real-world diagnostic system)
- rules are hard to obtain ⇒ what if we can obtain them from data?

Simple Example of Decision Tree

Set of rules

- if (PC starting) then (use PC)
- if (PC not starting) ∧ (PC not plugged in) then (plug PC in)
- if (PC not starting) A (PC plugged in) then (call technical service)



Definition of Decision Trees

Types of nodes

- · root node: at the top of the tree, no incoming edges
- internal node: one incoming edge and at least two outgoing edges
- leaf/terminal nodes: one incoming edge, but no outgoing edges

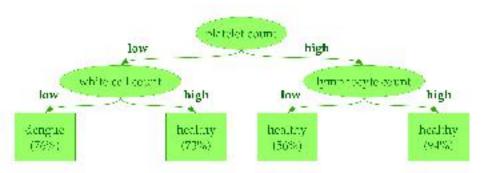
How to read a decision tree (top-bottom)

- · a decision always starts in root node
- the root and each internal node corresponds to one feature
- a each outgoing edge corresponds to a feature value
- · each leaf corresponds to one of the possible decision

Simplified Decision Tree for Dengue Fever

Dengue fever diagnosis

- target concept: does the patient have dengue fever?
- available features: count of lymphocytes, platelets and white cells
- possible value for each feature: low or high (binary tree)



Learning Decision Trees, the ID3 Algorithm

ID3(D, F)

```
Input: dataset D = \{(\mathbf{x}_i, t_i)\} and set F of features
Output: recursive decision tree classifying D with features in F
if all instances have the same label t then
   return a node with label r
else if the set of features F is empty then
   return a node with label t = majority label t in D
else
   create a node where decisions will use the best feature X_i in \mathcal{F} w.r.t. \mathcal{D}
   for each feature value v of X, do
      if \mathcal{D}_{v} = \{x_{i} \in \mathcal{D} | x_{i} = v\} \neq \emptyset then
          add child ID3 (\mathcal{D}_{v}, \mathcal{F} \setminus \{X_{v}\}) to the current node
      che
          add child to the current node with label t = majority label t in D
      end if
   end for
   return current node
end if
```

Prediction with a Decision Tree

```
Input: root of decision tree r, new instance x
Output: predicted class y
if r is a leaf (single-node tree) with label t then
  return class y = t
else
  let X_i be the decision feature associated with r
  let c be the child of r on the branch X_i = x_i
  return class y = decision tree classify(c, x)
end if
```

important: the prediction algorithm is independent of the learning algorithm

Splitting Criteria for Decision Trees

How do we choose the "best feature X_i in \mathcal{F} w.r.t. \mathcal{D}^{T} ?

- the ID3 algorithm does not explain how to choose decision features
- however, this choice determines the quality of the decision tree

Information gain

- measures how well a given feature separates training instances
- information gain = reduction in impurity when a given feature is used
- · question: how can we measure "impurity" ?

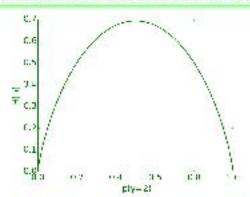
Splitting Criteria for Decision Trees

Definition of the entropy

the Shanon entropy of the probability distribution $\rho(Y)$ on class Y is

$$\mathcal{H}[\rho] = -\sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \rho(y) \log \rho(y)$$

notation: H[p] is a functional that returns a scalar for any function p(y)



Splitting Criteria for Decision Trees

Information gain

expected reduction in entropy if instances are partitioned using feature $X_{\!j}$

$$gain(\mathcal{D}, X_j) = H[\rho] - \sum_{v \in X_j} \frac{|\mathcal{D}_v|}{|\mathcal{D}|} H[\rho_v]$$

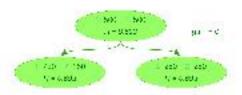
where p is the class distribution in D and for each value v of feature X_j

$$p_{\nu}(t|\mathbf{x}) = ext{percentage of instances of class } t ext{ in } \mathcal{D} ext{ with } X_j = v$$

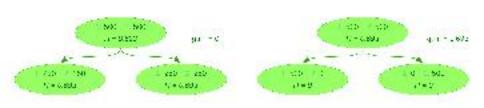
Other solutions

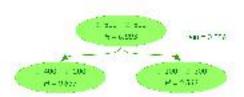
- there exist many other definitions to measure the impurity
- information gain can be extended for non-uniform classification costs

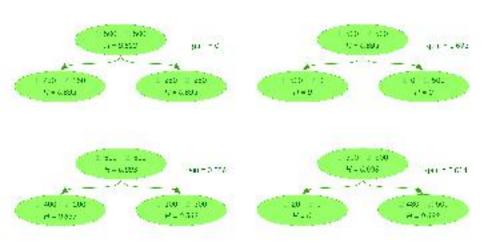




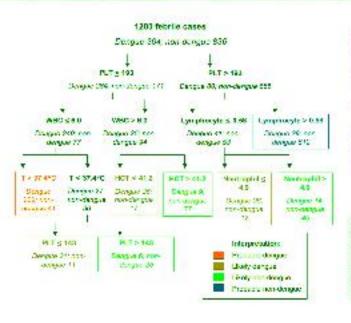








Real-World Decision Tree: Dengue Fever ($P_e = 15\%$)



Decision Mode Feature

Plate et opum s 183 K 1000mm³ White cell count s 5,0 x 1000 cell semmi

Body temperature a 37 450.

Plate et ≤ 148 x 1000 m n°

Herndson ≤ 4° 2°

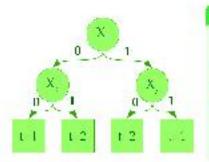
Lymphospie count ≤ 9.58 x. 1000 cel simm³ Neutropin I count × 4.9 c. 1008 (se somm

Termer L, Schneiber M, Low-JGH, Ong A, Thifvencern T, et al. (2008) Decision Than Algorithms Predict the Diagnosts and Outcome of Dengua Faver in the Early Photo of Biness. PLoS Negl Trop Dts 2(3): a198.

Rule Extraction from Decision Trees

Automatic Extraction

- each path in the decision tree is a conjunction (internal nodes)
- each conjunction term is a test on the value of a particular feature
- each conjunction is associated with a decision (if-then rule)
- a set of rules can be extracted by considering all possible paths.



Extracted rules

- if (X₁ = 0) ∧ (X₂ = 0) then (t = 1)
- \bullet if $(X_1 = 0) \land (X_2 = 1)$ then (t = 2)
- if (X₁ = 1) ∧ (X₃ = 0) then (t = 2)
- \bigcirc if $(X_1 = 1) \land (X_3 = 1)$ then (t = 1)

+ probabilities if leaves are not "pure"

Pros and Cons of Decision Trees

Advantages

- easy to understand, simple to implement
- efficient learning procedure, can be performed online
- can be used for predictive/descriptive modelling
- easy to explain to non-experts in machine learning
- can be extended to real variables (e.g. binary split x > v)

Potential issues

- number of nodes can increase very quickly for large datasets
- finding the smallest tree is NP-complete (ID3 is a greedy heuristic)
- limited expressiveness (only one variable at a time)

Outline of this Lesson

- · k-nearest neighbours
- decision trees

References





