

# Supervised Learning

**Week 8**

**KNN**

**Decision Tree (DT)**

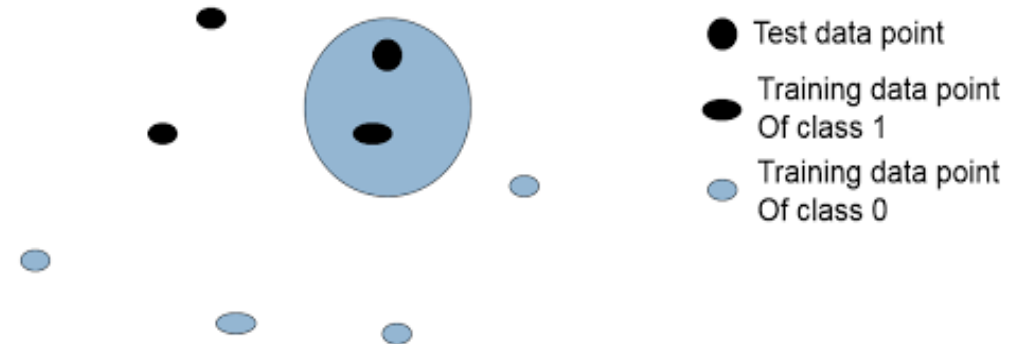
# KNN

**Algorithm & Variants**  
**Best K**

# KNN

## Algorithm & Variants

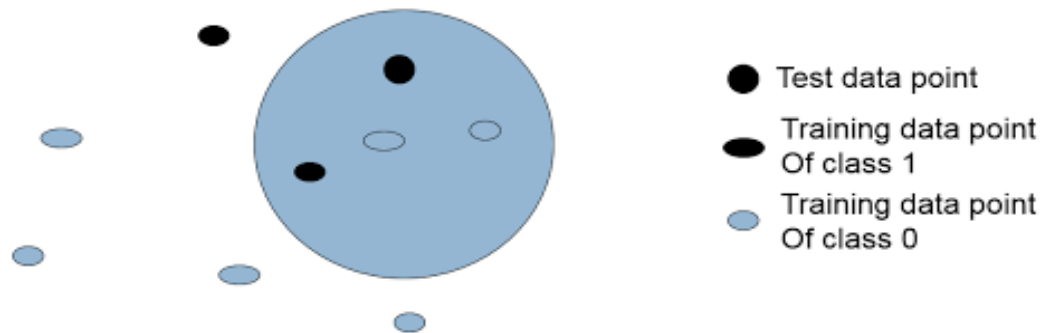
- For both classification and regression
  - A useful technique is to **assign weights based on the neighbours**.
  - The **nearest neighbors contribute more** to the average than the **distant ones**.
- The basic idea is to label the test data point same as the nearest neighbor.



# KNN

## Algorithm & Variants...

- How many neighbors?
  - $K=?$



- Let's say someone would like to **check K nearest neighbours** of the test point to make the decision.
  - **Label a test instance** same as the **majority label of the K-nearest** neighbours.
- The figure is an example a of **3-NN** classification.

# KNN

## Algorithm & Variants...

- How to **make the majority decisions**?
  - **Mode** of the class labels
    - Discrete cases
  - **Average** or mean distances
    - Continuous cases
  - **Distance-weighted** nearest neighbour algorithm (Shepard's method)
    - **Assign weights** to the neighbours **based on their distance** from the test point.
    - Weight may be **inverse square** of the distances ( $1/D^2$ )
      - **Higher the distance** of the neighbour, **lower its weight**.

# KNN

## Best number of neighbors (K)

- What is the **importance of the variable K**?
  - K controls the **shape of the decision boundary**
- Small values of K
  - Restrains the region of a given prediction
  - Forces classifier to be more **focused on the close regions and neighbours**
    - This will result in a **low bias** and **high variance**
- Higher values of K
  - Asking for more **information from distant training points**
  - Smoother decision boundaries
    - **Lower variance but increases bias**

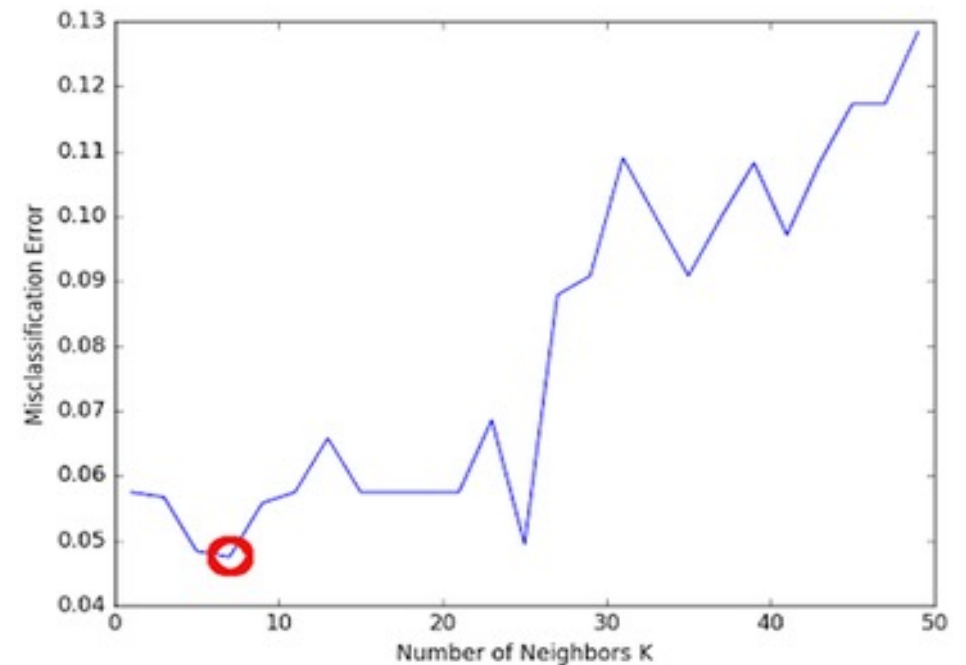
# KNN

## Best number of neighbors (K)...

- Finding the best K
  - There is **no rule of thumb** in selecting  $K_{max}$  since it depends on your desired rate of exploration for K
  - A simple and handy method
    - **Cross-validation** to partition your data into test and training samples
    - **Evaluate model** with different ranges of K values

$$K = 1, \dots, K_{max}$$

- The misclassification error can be used as a measurement of performance



# Remarks

- Learning is very **simple** (actually, no learning involved).
- **Classification is very time consuming** because we need to find distance with all the training instances.

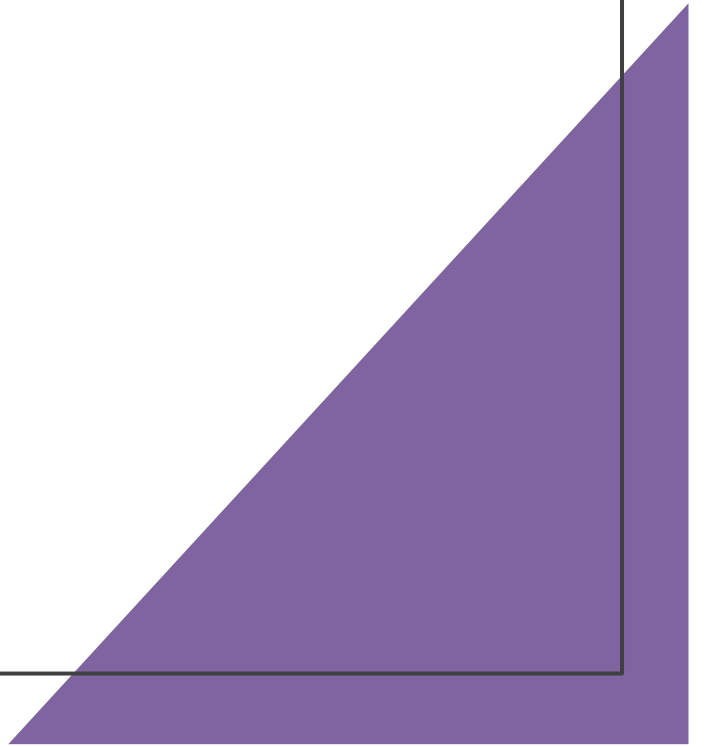


# Decision Tree (DT)

**Regression/classification trees**

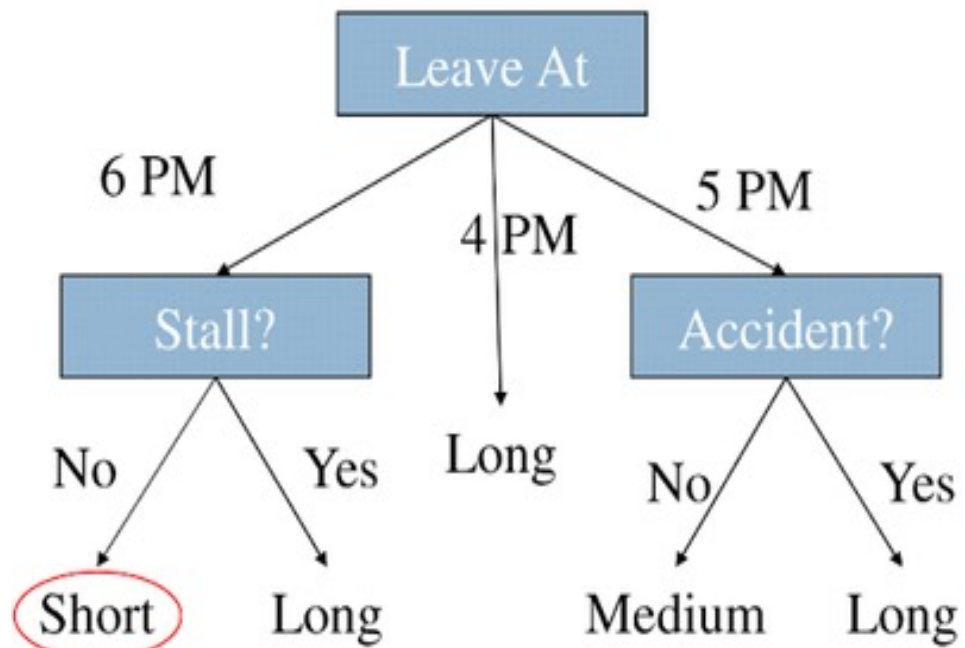
**Decision tree algorithms**

**Model complexity & pruning**



# Decision Trees

## Prediction of Commute Time

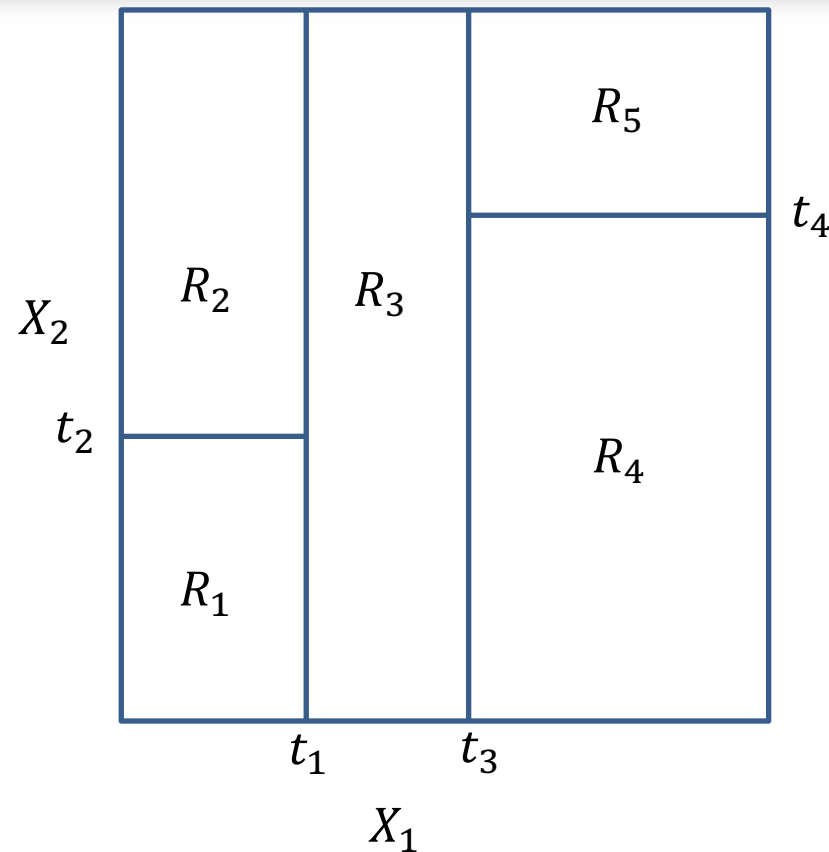
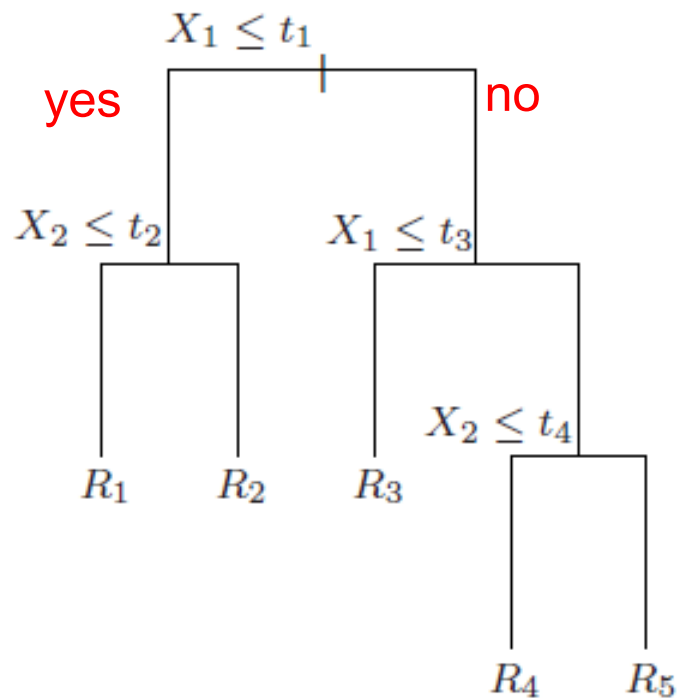


If we **leave at 6 PM** and there are **no cars stalled** on the road, what will our commute time be?

# Decision Trees

- A decision tree is a map of the possible outcomes of a series of related options.
- It weighs possible actions against one another
  - Costs, probabilities, and benefits
- Typically starts with a single node
  - Branches into possible outcomes.
- Simple and easy to interpret!
- May not be competitive with the best supervised learning algorithms in terms of prediction accuracy.

# Partition of Feature Space



[Figure taken from Hastie's  
ESL book]

# Decision Trees

- After partitioning the feature space, we can fit a simple model in each sub-region ( $R_1, R_2 \dots$ ).
- We can fit a regression model. Such decision trees are called regression trees.
- We can also fit a classification model. Such decision trees are called classification trees.
- Usually, extremely simple models such as majority (classification) or mean (regression) are used.

# Process of building a DT

- Let's start with the procedure:
  - We divide the feature space, i.e., the set of possible values for  $x_1, \dots, x_d$  into  $J$  **distinct and non-overlapping regions**,  $R_1, \dots, R_J$
  - For every instance that falls into region  $R_j$ , we make the same prediction, which is simply the **mean (or mode)** of response values for the training observations in  $R_j$ .

# Formulation of Regression Trees


- The overall goal of regression trees is to find regions  $R_1, R_2, \dots, R_J$  that minimize the training error:

$$\sum_{j=1}^J \sum_{i \in R_j} (y_i - \hat{y}_{R_j})^2$$

where  $\hat{y}_{R_j}$  is the mean of the target values of the training instances in the  $j^{th}$  region.

But how do we exactly perform these actions?

# Solution

- It is **computationally infeasible** to consider every possible partition of the feature space into  $J$  regions.
  - For this reason, **a top-down, greedy approach** is used
    - Known as **recursive binary splitting**.
  - Rather using a **brute-force solution**, we would like to work in **a heuristic** way.
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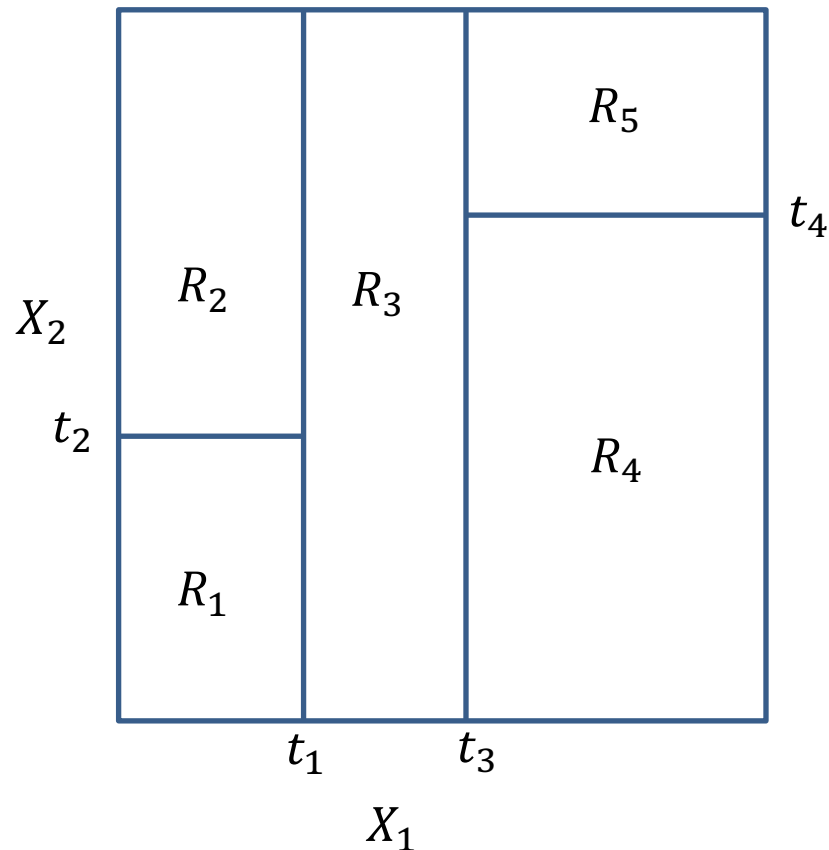


# Solution

- How the heuristic method works?
  - Select a feature  $x_j$  and a threshold  $s$  such that
    - Split the feature space
      - Regions  $\{x|x_j \leq s\}$  and  $\{x|x_j \geq s\}$ 
        - leads to the best possible reduction in training error
  - Not going into the joint space of all features
    - Use independent feature form such as  $x_j$  with a threshold  $s$ .
  - Repeat the process
    - Looking for the best feature and the best threshold
      - Minimize the error in each of the resulting regions.
    - instead of splitting the entire feature space, we only split one of the two previously identified regions.
    - The splitting process continues until a stopping criterion is reached.

# Prediction using DT

- We predict the response for a given test instance
  - using the mean (or mode) of the training instances in the region where the test observation falls.



# Classification trees...

- In the classification setting
  - we replace the sum of square error by the **classification error rate** as a criterion for making the binary splits.
  - **The classification error rate ( $E$ )** is defined as the fraction of the training instances in that region that do not belong to the most common class.

$$E = 1 - \max_k \hat{p}_{jk}$$

where  $\hat{p}_{jk}$  represents the proportion (fraction) of training instances in the  $j^{th}$  region that are from  $k^{th}$  class

$$CoD = \max_k \hat{p}_{jk}$$

- **CoD** (certainty of distribution) and close to 1
  - almost all the training points inside a region are voting for a certain class label.

# Classification trees...

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- Classification error is being less sensitive for tree-growing
- Alternative solution:
  - **Gini index ( $G$ )** is defined as

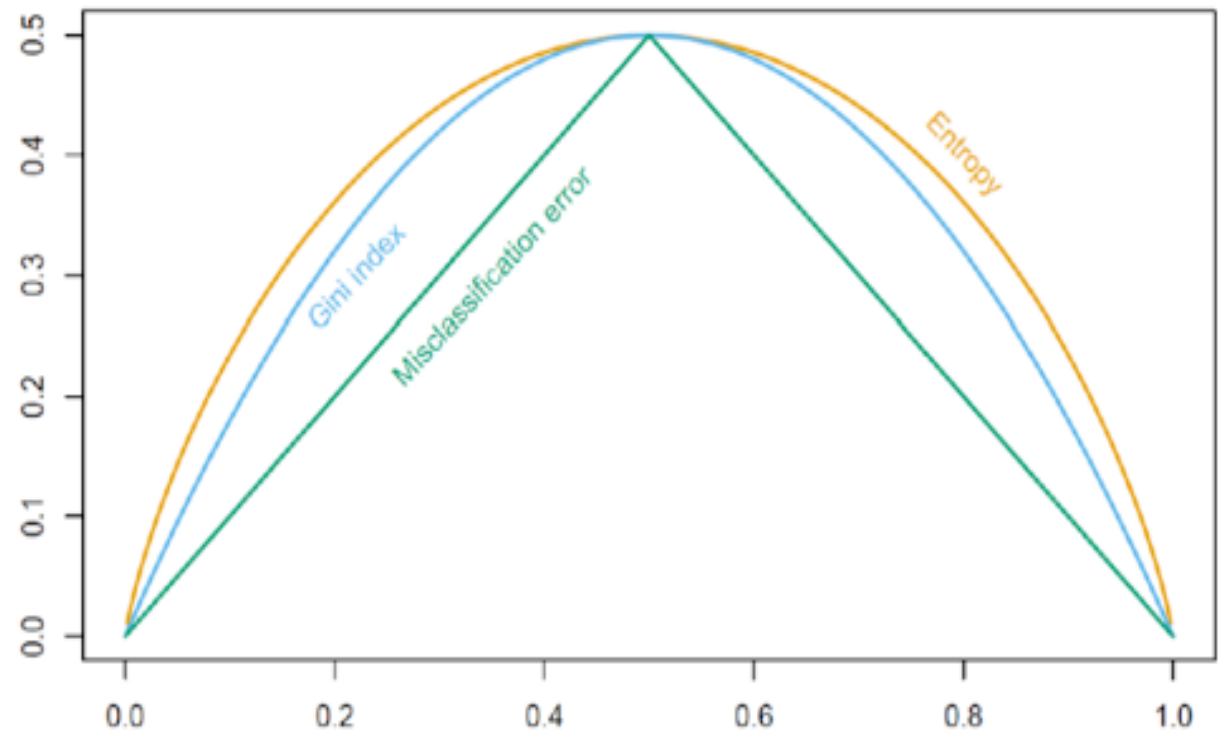
$$G = \sum_{k=1}^K \hat{p}_{jk} (1 - \hat{p}_{jk})$$

- It is a measure of node purity.  $G$  becomes small as  $\hat{p}_{jk}$  closes to either 0 or 1.
- **Entropy** defined as:

$$D = - \sum_{k=1}^K \hat{p}_{jk} \log \hat{p}_{jk}$$

# Classification trees...

- Pattern of Error, Gini Index and Entropy for different probabilities of class distributions:



# Decision tree algorithms

- Three of the more popular ones are listed:
  - **ID3** (Iterative Dichotomiser 3)
    - uses **Entropy**
  - **C4.5** (*Successor of ID3*)
    - *slightly more advanced version of ID3 and uses **Entropy***
  - **CART** (*Classification and Regression Tree*)
    - uses **Gini impurity**

# Decision tree algorithms:

## ID3 Algorithm...

- Calculate the **entropy of every feature** using the data set  $S$ .
- **Split** the set  $S$  into subsets **using the feature** for which **entropy is minimum**.
  - So **lesser values of entropy** means it should be **a good choice for selection of the attribute**
- Make a “**decision tree node**” containing that feature.
- **Recurse** on subsets using remaining features.

# Decision tree algorithms:

## ID3 Algorithm...

- If the **tree is very deep**
  - It partitions the **feature space into small regions**.
    - **Small number of training points** in sub-regions.
      - **Increases variance** and estimation becomes poor
- If the **tree is shallow**
  - **Large regions**
    - Small variance but **large bias**
- Need to find the **sweet point**
  - **Depth** of the decision tree
  - **Cross-validation** as discussed earlier (lecture – week 5)



# Model complexity and pruning

- **Pruning** is a technique that **reduces the size** of decision trees
  - Removes sections of the tree
    - Little power to classify instances.
- The tree-building process
  - **Overfit** (creating deep trees)
  - **Underfit** (creating small number of regions)
- Generally, there are several ways of pruning trees:
  - **Pre-pruning** (forward pruning)
  - **Post-pruning** (backward pruning)

# Model complexity and pruning:

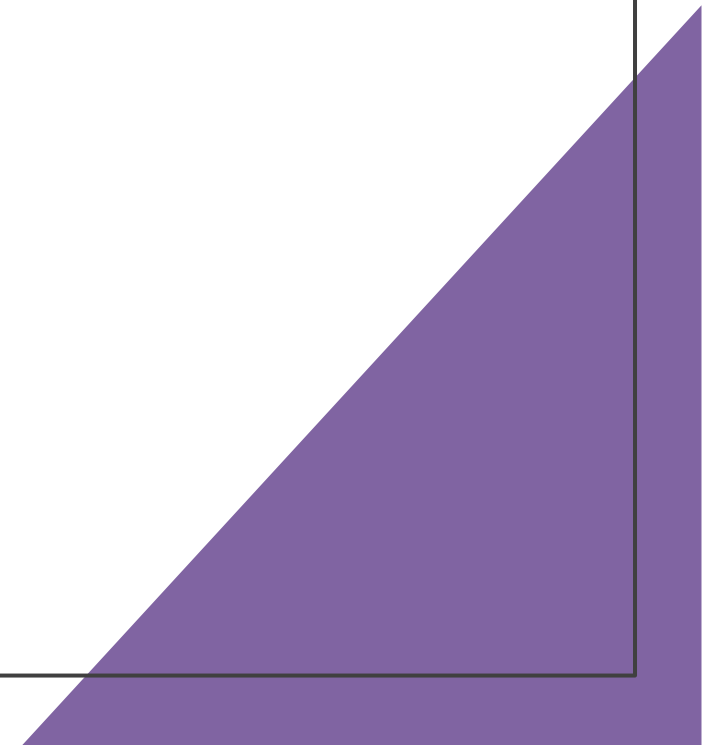
## Pre-pruning

- In **pre-pruning**
  - Decision is made **during the building process**
    - Stop adding nodes (e.g., by looking at entropy).
- In case of Entropy
  - Check the **amount of entropy reduction** by selecting different features.
  - Stop splitting when the entropy reduction is not significant.
- Pre-pruning **can be problematic**
  - Sometimes attributes individually do not contribute much to a decision, but combined, they may have a significant impact.

# Model complexity and pruning:

## Post-pruning

- **Post-pruning** waits until the full decision tree has been built
  - Then prunes the attributes by subtree replacement.
- Replace an entire subtree with a single region or node
  - It reproduces the smallest error.
- Select a subtree
  - Check – replacing it with a single node or feature incurs a **small amount of change in Entropy**.
  - If yes, trim the tree. If not, keep that subtree



# Decision trees : Advantage s/Disadvan tages

- Advantages:
  - Decision trees are **very easy to understand**
  - Decision trees are capable of modelling **nonlinear functions**.
  - Decision tree **can handle categorical variable**
- Disadvantages:
  - **Sensitive to small changes** in the data.
    - Adding few data points or change some small values will change the DT
  - **May overfit easily**
    - Deep decision trees increases risk of overfitting and high variance model.
  - **Only axis-aligned splits.**
    - Considers each feature independently
    - No joint probabilities of features
  - **Performance is not competitive**
    - SVM, KNN or Neural network

# Impact of distance metrics on KNN performance (Advanced topics)

- **KNN** classifies new data points according to their closeness
  - Neighbours
    - Distance measures
- Effectiveness of KNN
  - Selection distance metrics
  - Euclidean distance, Manhattan distance, and cosine similarity etc.
- Please use the following link for further explanation.

## References:

1. Prasath, V. B., et al. "[Distance and Similarity Measures Effect on the Performance of K-Nearest Neighbor Classifier--A Review.](#)" arXiv preprint arXiv:1708.04321 (2017).

# Feature importance of using Decision Trees (DT)

- **Decision Trees** uses feature selection to determine the most important classification features.
- DT operates by recursively segmenting the data into subsets based on the most informative features until a **stopping criterion** is reached.
  - Information gain or the Gini index
- At each node of the tree, the feature with **the highest score** is chosen as the splitting criterion.
  - The significance of each feature can be determined by considering how much it **contributes**.

## References:

1. Grabczewski, Krzysztof, and Norbert Jankowski. "[Feature selection with decision tree criterion](#)." Fifth International Conference on Hybrid Intelligent Systems (HIS'05). IEEE, 2005.

**Thank You.**