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# CSC380: Principles of Data Science

**Introduction to Machine Learning /  
Basics of Predictive Modeling and  
Classification**

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# Announcement

- Delay: Due to the urgent circumstances of the TA in charge, we haven't finished the grading of the Midterm and HW4. We will have it done by next Tuesday. HW5 is out now (due : 3/24)
- Midterm Curving
  - I am thinking about  $\sqrt{100 \times (\text{Your Score})}$  as the curved score.
    - E.g.) If your score is 50, your curved score is slightly over 70.

Because of the TA's circumstances,  
**One problem** is not graded yet.



I expect around 50% after full grading...

- Self-Withdrawal deadline: 3/28

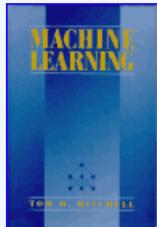
# What is machine learning?

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- Tom Mitchell established Machine Learning Department at CMU (2006).

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## Machine Learning, Tom Mitchell, McGraw Hill, 1997. “**through experience**”



*Machine Learning is the study of computer algorithms that improve automatically through experience.* Applications range from datamining programs that discover general rules in large data sets, to information filtering systems that automatically learn users' interests.

*This book provides a single source introduction to the field.* It is written for advanced undergraduate and graduate students, and for developers and researchers in the field. No prior background in artificial intelligence or statistics is assumed.

- A bit outdated with recent trends, but still has interesting discussion (and easy to read).
- A subfield of Artificial Intelligence – you want to perform nontrivial, smart tasks. The difference from the traditional AI is “how” you build a computer program to do it.

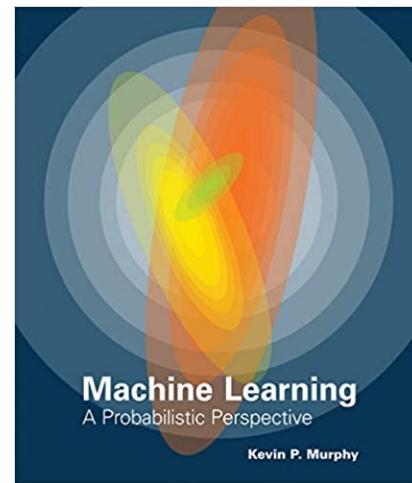
# Textbooks

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*We will use a more recent textbook for readings*

*Takes a **probabilistic approach** to  
machine learning*

*Consistent with the goals of data  
science in this class*



Murphy, K. "Machine Learning: A Probabilistic Perspective." MIT press, 2012

[\(UA Library\)](#)

# AI Task 1: Image classification

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- Predefined categories:  $\mathcal{C} = \{\text{cat, dog, lion, ...}\}$
- Given an image, classify it as one of the categories  $c \in \mathcal{C}$  with the highest accuracy.
- Use: sorting/searching images by category, medical imaging, object identification, traffic control, categorizing types of stars/events in the Universe (images taken from large surveying telescopes)



# AI Task 2: Recommender systems

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- Predict how user would rate a movie
- Use: For each user, pick an unwatched movie with high predicted ratings. (Youtube, Netflix, Amazon, etc.)
- Idea: compute user-user similarity or movie-movie similarity, then compute a weighted average.



	User 1	User 2	User 3
Movie 1	1	2	1
Movie 2	?	3	1
Movie 3	2	5	2
Movie 4	4	?	5
Movie 5	?	4	5

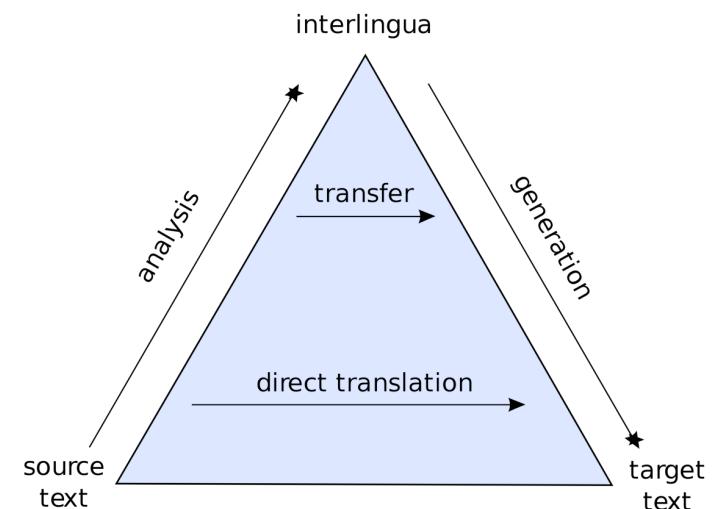
“collaborative filtering”

# AI Task 3: Machine translation

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- No need to explain how useful it is.
- **Task:** 1) Transform a sentence to the interlingual language (analysis) and 2) create a sentence with another language with the same meaning, with appropriate grammar structure (generation).

A screenshot of a machine translation application. At the top, there are language selection dropdowns: '언어 감지' (Language detection), '한국어' (Korean), '영어' (English, highlighted in blue), '중국어(간체)' (Simplified Chinese), and '영어' (English). Below this is a double-headed arrow icon. To the right are more language dropdowns: '영어' (English), '한국어' (Korean), and '중국어(간체)' (Simplified Chinese).  
The main area shows a translation pair:  
Source (English): Hello world!  
Target (Korean): 안녕 세상!  
Pronunciation: annyeong sesang!  
Below the text are various controls: microphone icons, a progress bar showing '12 / 5,000', and other UI elements.



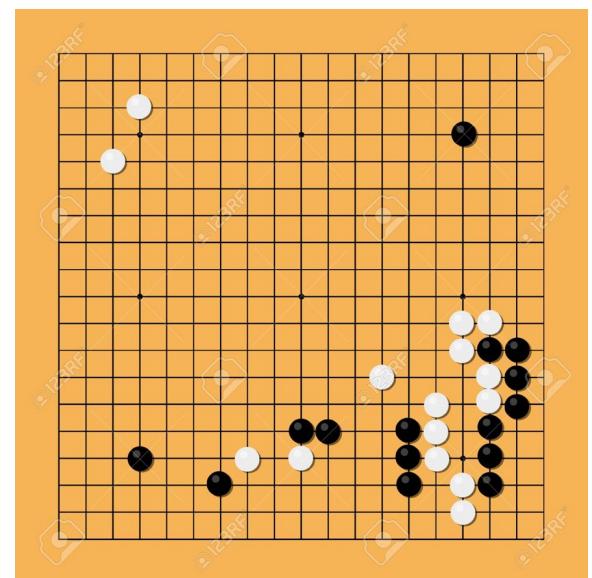
# AI Task 4: Board game

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- Predict win probability of a move in a given game state (e.g., AlphaGo)
- Traditionally considered as a “very smart” task to perform.

**Q: how will it be useful for us, though?**

- Use: From the AI Go player, you can do practice play or even learn from it.
  - Now it's a major trend in the field of Go
- Potential use: Board game (e.g., Catan) design, better AI
- Deeply related to robot AI and autonomous driving
  - Predict the future of your move



# Traditional AI vs Machine Learning (ML)



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- **Traditional AI:** you encode the knowledge (e.g., logic statements/rules), and the *machine* executes it.
  - e.g., if there is feather-like texture with two eyes and a beak, classify it as a bird.
  - Advancements in automated ‘**inference**’ like “if  $a \rightarrow b$  and  $b \rightarrow c$ , then  $a \rightarrow c$ ”.  $\Rightarrow$  ‘expert system’
- **ML:** Given a set of input and output pairs (e.g., animal picture + label), and train a **function** (a set of logical statements / a neural network) that maps the input to the output accurately.
  - As the “big data” era comes, data is abundant  $\Rightarrow$  turns out, better than systems based on hand-coded domain knowledge!
  - “statistical” approach // data-driven approach

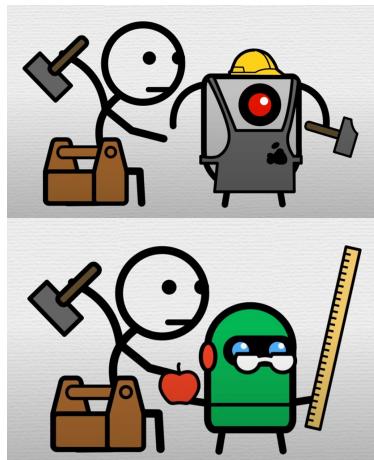
*“Every time I fire a linguist, the performance of the speech recognizer goes up.”*

– 1988, Frederick Jelinek, a Czech-American researcher in information theory & speech recognition.

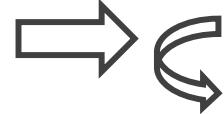
# Traditional AI vs Machine Learning (ML)

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- Traditional AI – watchmaker
  - You encode your knowledge (springs and parts) directly
  - You understand why those parts are necessary.
- Machine Learning (ML) – one example (from <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=R9OHn5ZF4Uo>)

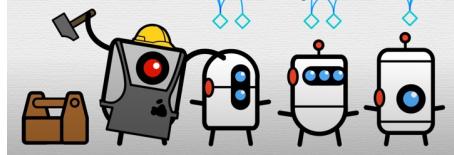


Auto-updater



Auto-tester

Automatically improve through  
Interaction and experience



It is possible that  
you might not know  
why your function is  
designed in that way



# Overview of ML Methods

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## Supervised Learning

- Provide *training* data consisting of input-output pairs and learn mapping
- E.g., Spam prediction, object detection or image classification, machine translation, etc.

## Unsupervised learning

- No predefined categories. Finds patterns in the data without the help of labels (outputs)
- E.g., clustering, dimensionality reduction, target tracking, image segmentation, etc.

## Reinforcement learning **We won't cover this**

- The environment interacts with your action, transferring you to different states.
- E.g., autonomous driving, robot AI, recommendation system

# Supervised Learning

# Basic setting: Supervised learning

example = data point  
labeled = categorized

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- Train data: dataset comprised of labeled examples: a pair of (input, label)

airplane	
automobile	
bird	
cat	
deer	
dog	
frog	
horse	
ship	
truck	



supervised  
learning  
algorithm



function  
("classifier")



cat!

training

testing



# Example function 1: Decision tree

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```
Task: predict the 5-star rating of a movie by a user
```

```
If age >= 60 then
    if genre = western then
        return 4.3
    else if release date > 1998 then
        return 2.5
    else ...
    ...
end if

else if age < 60 then
...
end if
```

training:

- determine the shape of the tree
- which condition to have at each node
- what to output from each leaf node

## Example function 2: Linear

Task: Image classification

Let  $x$  be a set of pixel values of a picture (30x30) =>  
900-dimensional vector  $x$ .

If  $0.124 \cdot x_1 - 2.5 \cdot x_2 + \dots + 2.31 \cdot x_{900} - 2.12 \geq 0$  then  
return cat

else

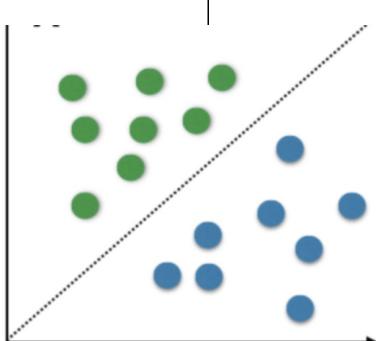
return dog

end

“linear combination”/“inner product”

training:

- determine the coefficients & threshold

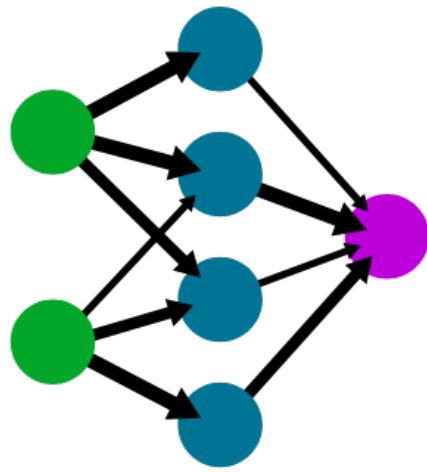


E.g., in 2d space, it induces a linear decision boundary:  
 $0.5 \cdot x_1 - 2.5 \cdot x_2 > 4.3$

# Example function 3: Nonlinear

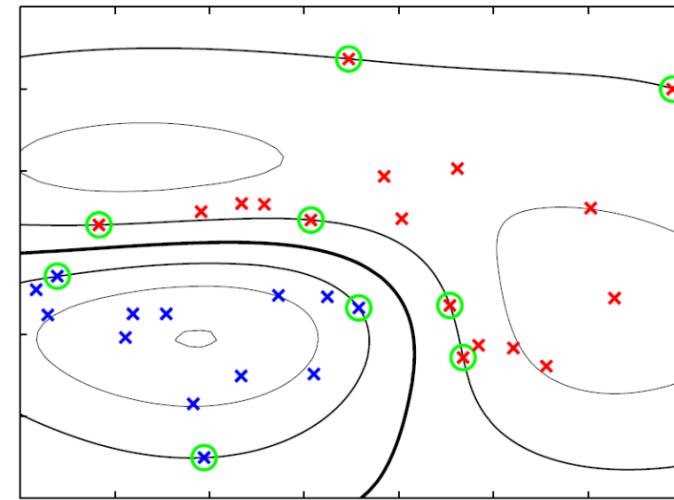
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Neural network



(stacked **linear** models with nonlinear **activation functions**)

Support Vector Machine



(**linear** in the induced feature space)

# Example: Naïve Bayes Classifier

Training Data:

Person	height (feet)	weight (lbs)	foot size(inches)
male	6	180	12
male	5.92 (5'11")	190	11
male	5.58 (5'7")	170	12
male	5.92 (5'11")	165	10
female	5	100	6
female	5.5 (5'6")	150	8
female	5.42 (5'5")	130	7
female	5.75 (5'9")	150	9



**Task:** Observe feature vector  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$  and predict class label  $y \in \{1, \dots, C\}$

**Model:** Treat features as *conditionally independent*, given class label:

$$p(x, y) = p(y) \prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i|y)$$

Doesn't capture correlation among features, but is easier to learn.

**Classification:** Bayesian model so classify by posterior,

$$p(y = c | x) = \frac{p(C = k)p(x|y = c)}{p(x)}$$

# Supervised learning: Types of prediction problems <sup>18</sup>

**Binary classification:** Choose between 2 classes

- Given an email, is it spam or not? (or the probability of it being a spam)

**Multi-class classification:** more than 2 categories.

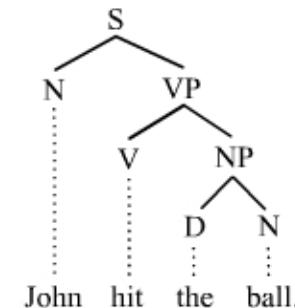
- Image classification with 1000 categories. (cat, dog, airplane, car, computer, ...)

**Regression:** the label is real-valued (e.g., price)

- Say I am going to visit Italy next month. Given the price trends in the past, what would be the price given (the # of days before the departure, day of week)?
- Predict the stocks/bitcoin price in the future

**Structured output prediction:** more than just a number

- Given a sentence, what is its grammatical parse tree?

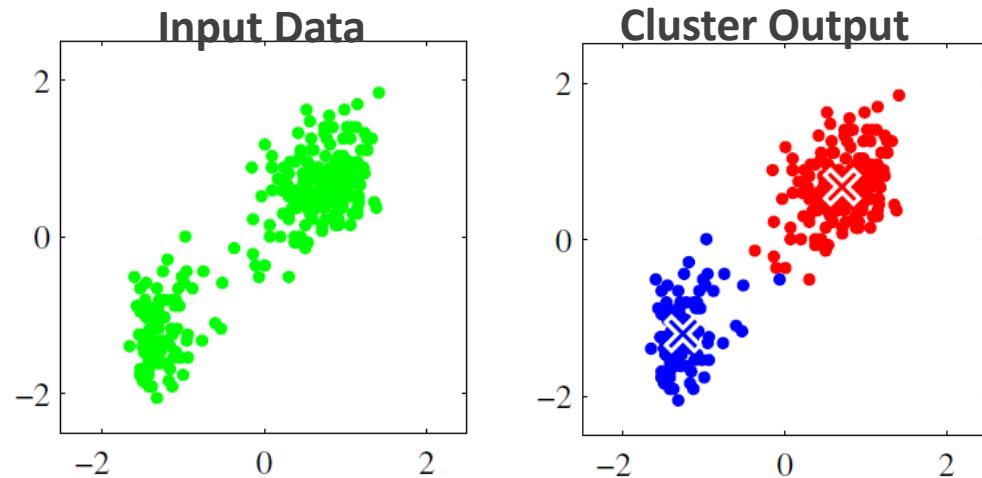


# Unsupervised Learning

# Example: Clustering

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Identify groups (clusters) of similar data



Useful for interpreting large datasets

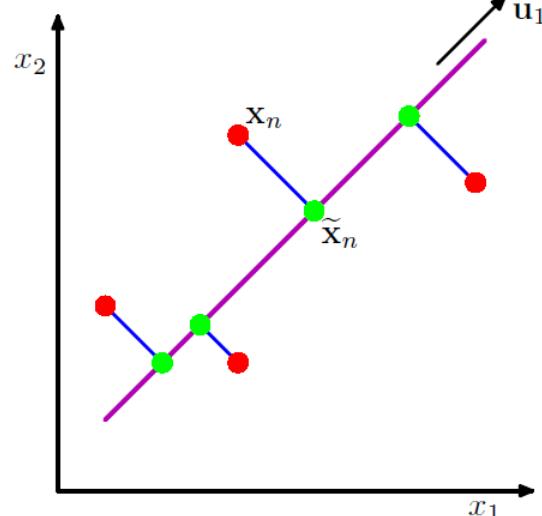
Clusters are assigned arbitrary labels (e.g. 1, 2, ..., K).  
=> afterwards, you may look at the data and name each group.

Common clustering algorithms: K-means, Expectation Maximization (EM)

# Example: Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

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Reduce dimension of high-dimensional data using linear projection



Identify directions of **maximum variation** in the data by computing **eigenvectors**

*Easier explanation: Identify important directions*

Linear projection onto K-dimensional subspace spanned by top K eigenvalues

Can be used for visualization (project to 2D) or for compressing images.

Source: Bishop, C. PRML

# Example: Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

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Reduce dimension of high-dimensional data using linear projection

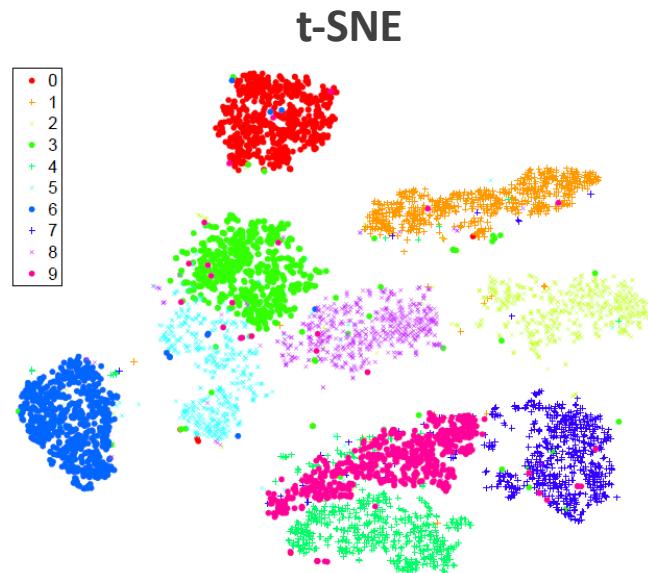


Source: Lawrence, N. (2005)

Example for modeling / visualizing  
handwritten digits

Each digit is a black/white image with  
28x28 pixels (784 dimensions)  
projected down to 2D

# Example: Nonlinear Dimensionality Reduction 23



Nonlinear reduction can (potentially) amplify clustering properties

**t-Distributed Stochastic Neighbor Embedding (t-SNE)** Models similarity between data as a t distribution and strives to find projection that preserves similarity.

# Example: Generative models



We won't cover this

- AI image generators
- It is hard to define how ‘good’ the generated image is.
  - How can we explain the ‘painting style’ to computers? Mostly impossible... → Unsupervised!

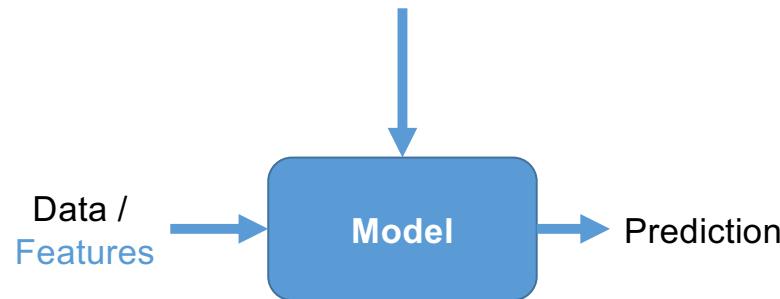


- **Supervised Learning** - Training data consist of inputs and outputs
  - Classification, regression, translation, ...
- **Unsupervised Learning** – Training data only contain inputs
  - Clustering, dimensionality reduction, segmentation, ...
- **Linear** models generate output as a *linear combination* of inputs,
  - E.g.  $y = w_1x_1 + w_2x_2 + \dots + w_dx_d$
  - PCA, linear regression, etc.
- **Nonlinear** models fit an arbitrary nonlinear function to map inputs-outputs
  - Neural networks, support vector machine, nonlinear dimensionality reduction

## Supervised Learning

works with labeled data

Labels / Outputs



## Unsupervised Learning

works with unlabeled data



## **ML models distinguished by a number of factors**

- Number of parameters needed (parametric / nonparametric)
- Whether they model uncertainty (probabilistic / nonprobabilistic)
- Do they model the data generation process? (generative / discriminative)

# CSC380: Principles of Data Science

## Basics of Predictive Modeling and Classification 1: Decision Tree

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# Decision Trees

figures/examples from “A Course in Machine Learning” by Hal Daume III <http://ciml.info/>

# Majority Vote Classifier

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The most basic classifier you can think of.

How to train:

- Given: A (train) dataset with  $m$  data points  $\{(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)})\}_{i=1}^m$  with  $C$  classes.
  - Compute the most common class  $c^*$  in the dataset.
- $$c^* = \arg \max_{c \in \{1, \dots, C\}} \sum_{i=1}^m \mathbf{I}\{y^{(i)} = c\}$$
- Output a classifier  $f(x) = c^*$ .

Stupid enough classifier! Always try to beat this classifier.

Often, state-of-the-art ML algorithms perform barely better than the majority vote classifier..

⇒ happens when there is no association between features and labels in the dataset

Example:

Data:  $m=10$

$x^{(i)}$ : images of cats and dogs

$y^{(i)}$ : label (cat/dog)

Suppose that there are 6 dogs and 4 cats.

After ‘training’, your classifier always outputs ‘dog’, even without looking at the input.

## Train set accuracy

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- Suppose the ML algorithm has trained a function  $f$  using the dataset  $D = \{(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)})\}_{i=1}^m$  where  $x^{(i)}$  is input and  $y^{(i)}$  is label.
- Train set accuracy:

$$\widehat{acc}(f) := \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \mathbf{I}\{f(x^{(i)}) = y^{(i)}\}$$

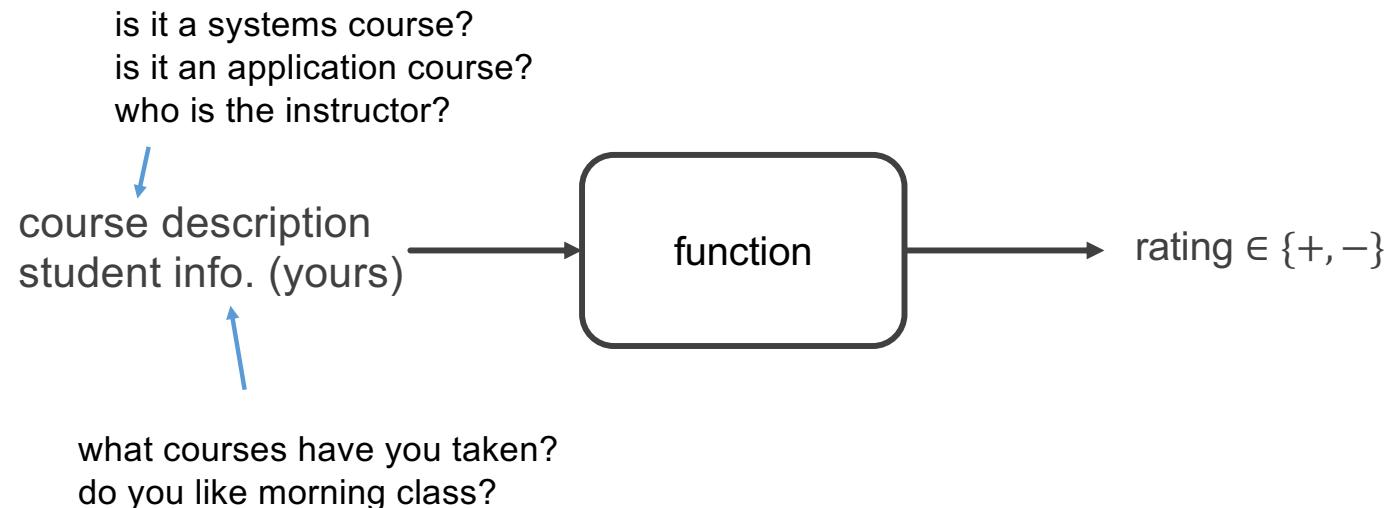
It is the number of times  
the function got the  
answer right divided by m.

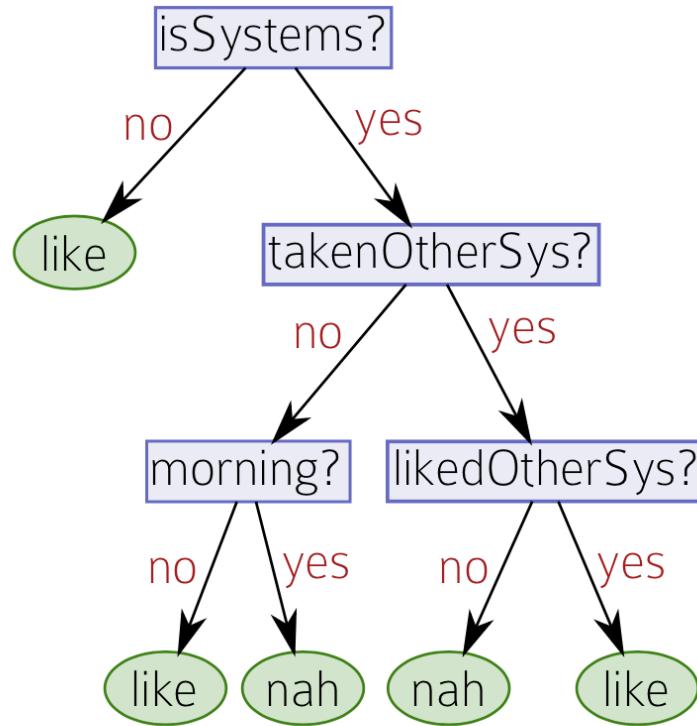
- Q: We have 100 data points (images) with 5 cats, 80 dogs, and 15 lions. What is the train set accuracy of the majority vote classifier?

.80

## Decision tree (example: course recommendation) 32

- Build software: recommend a set of courses for you
  - More precisely, given a course, predict its rating





Wouldn't it be nice to construct such a tree automatically by a computer algorithm?

Wouldn't it be nice if it accurately predicts?

You can, if you have data!

Rating	Easy?	<del>AI?</del>	<del>Sys?</del>	<del>Thy?</del>	Morning?
consider it to be 'like'	+2	y	y	n	y
	+2	y	y	n	y
	+2	n	y	n	n
	+2	n	n	n	y
	+2	n	y	y	n
	+1	y	y	n	n
	+1	y	y	n	y
	+1	n	y	n	y
	0	n	n	n	n
	0	y	n	n	y
consider it to be 'dislike'	0	n	y	n	y
	-1	y	y	y	n
	-1	n	n	y	y
	-1	n	n	y	n
	-1	y	n	y	n
	-2	n	n	y	y
	-2	n	y	y	n
	-2	y	n	y	n
	-2	y	n	y	y

HasTakenPrereqs (=: Prereq)  
 ↓  
 HasTakenACourseFromTheSameLecturer (=: Lecturer)  
 ↓  
 HasLabs

For example, this table is data D.  
 Each row is a course you've rated.  
 $x^{(i)}$  is a sequence of 5 yes/no ( $d=5$ ) for  $i$ -th course.  
 $y^{(i)}$  is the sign of the rating for  $i$ -th course.

Define the data  $D = \{(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)})\}_{i=1}^m$

$\in \{y, n\}^d$ 
 $\in \{+, -\}$

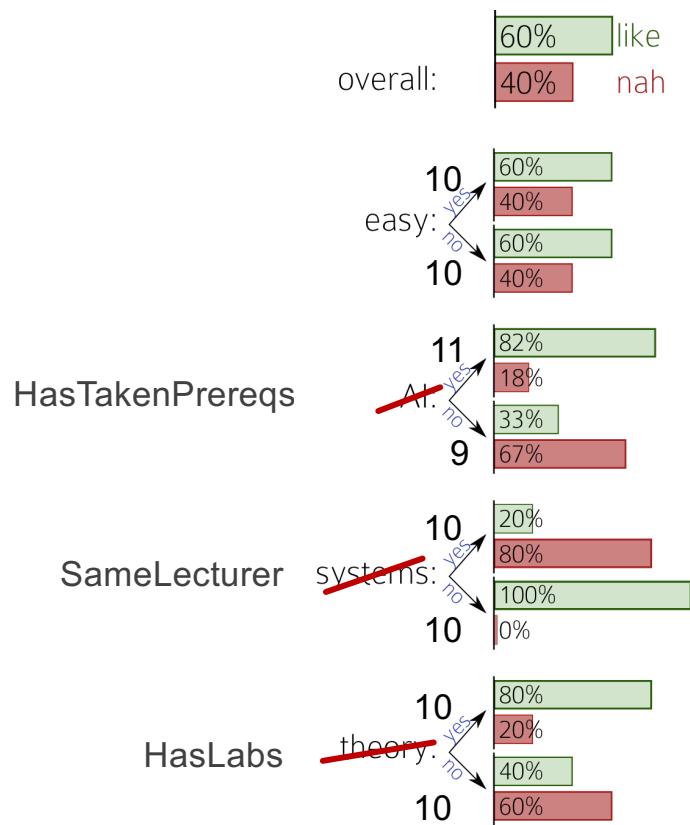
Each dimension of  $x^{(i)}$  is called a **feature**.  
 $x^{(i)}$  is called a **feature vector**.

- Main principle: Find a tree that has a high train set accuracy

$$\widehat{acc}(f) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \mathbf{I}\{f(x^{(i)}) = y^{(i)}\}$$

- This is essentially the main principle governing pretty much all the machine learning algorithms!
  - “[Empirical risk minimization](#)” principle  
(empirical risk := 1 – train\_accuracy)

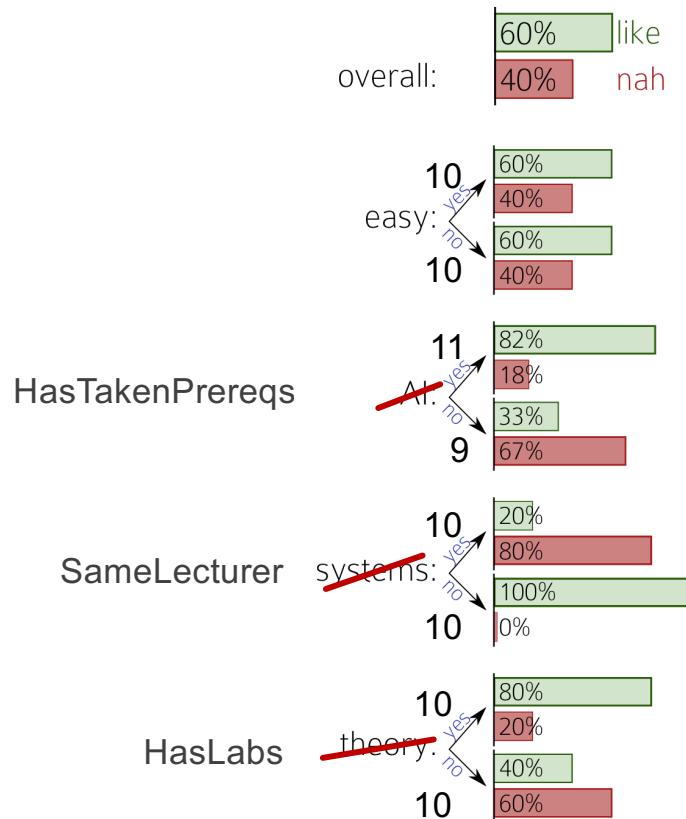
# How to construct a tree



Rating	Easy?	Prereqs	Lecturer	HasLabs	Morning?
		AI?	Sys?	Theory?	
+2	y	y	n	y	n
+2	y	y	n	y	n
+2	n	y	n	n	n
+2	n	n	n	y	n
+2	n	y	y	n	y
+1	y	y	n	n	n
+1	y	y	n	y	n
+1	n	y	n	y	n
0	n	n	n	n	y
0	y	n	n	y	y
0	n	y	n	y	n
0	y	y	y	y	y
-1	y	y	y	n	y
-1	n	n	y	y	n
-1	n	n	y	n	y
-1	y	n	y	n	y
-2	n	n	y	y	n
-2	n	y	y	n	y
-2	y	n	y	n	n
-2	y	n	y	n	y

# How to construct a tree

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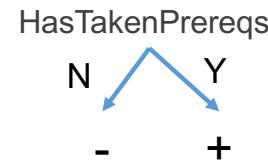


Baseline: majority vote classifier

Q: What is the train set accuracy? 0.60

Major  
(+)

Suppose we place the node **HasTakenPrereqs** at the root.  
Set the prediction at each leaf node as the majority vote.

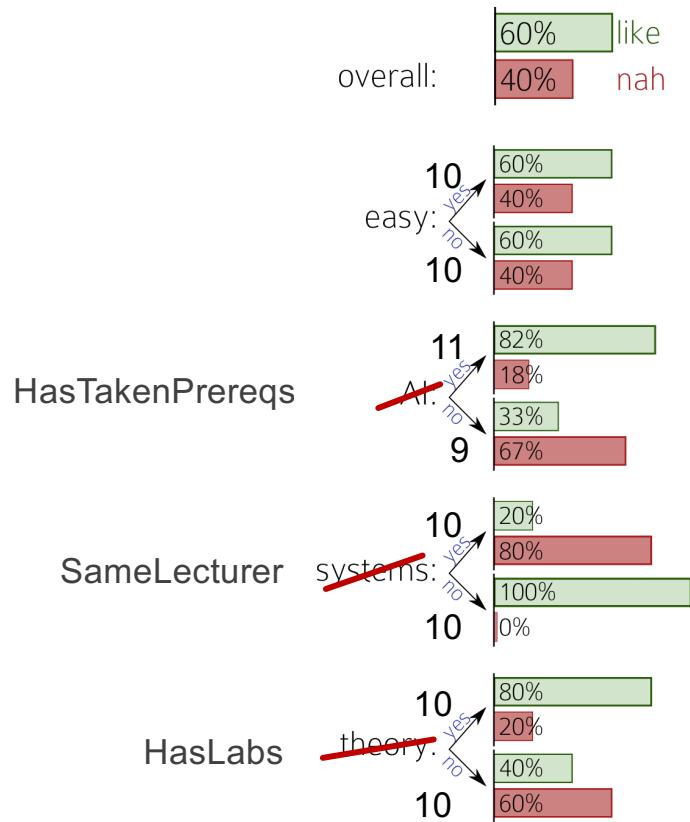


What is the train set accuracy now?

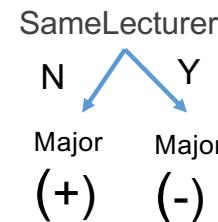
$$\frac{9}{20} \cdot \frac{6}{9} + \frac{11}{20} \cdot \frac{9}{11} = \frac{15}{20} = 0.75 \quad \text{improved!}$$

# How to construct a tree

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Suppose placing the node `SameLecturer` at the root.



What is the train set accuracy now?

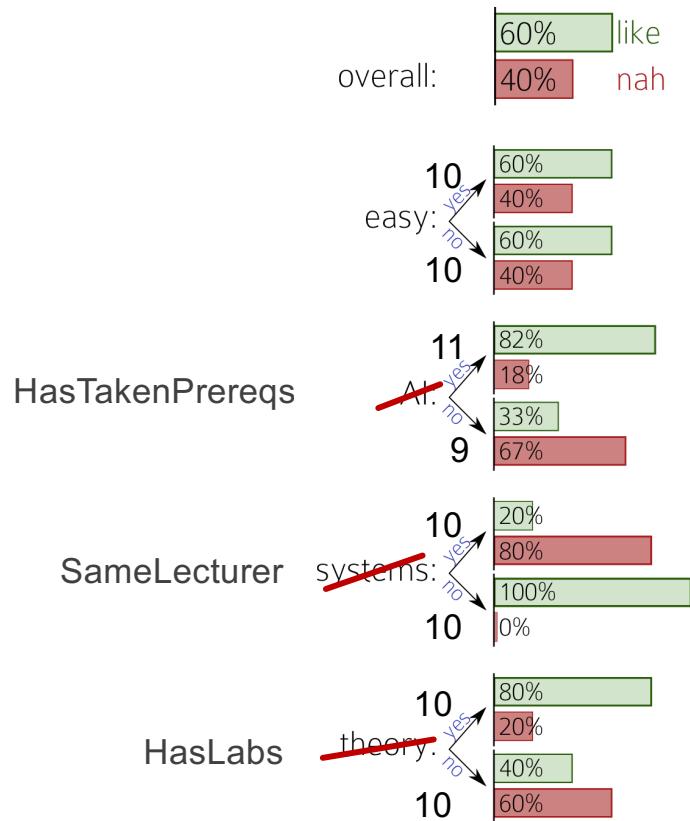
$$\frac{10}{20} \cdot \frac{10}{10} + \frac{10}{20} \cdot \frac{8}{10} = \frac{18}{20} = 0.9 \quad \text{even better!}$$

What would you do to build a depth-1 tree?

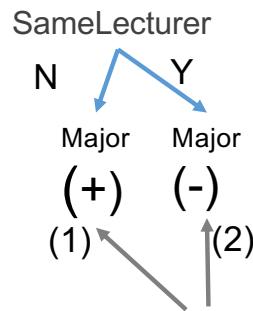
try out each feature and choose the one that leads to the largest accuracy!

# How to construct a tree

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What about depth 2?

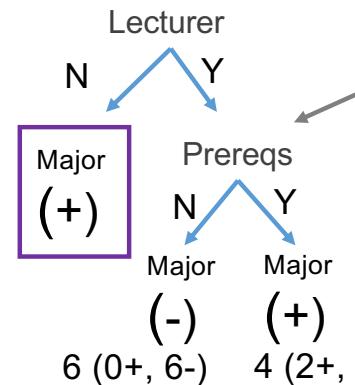
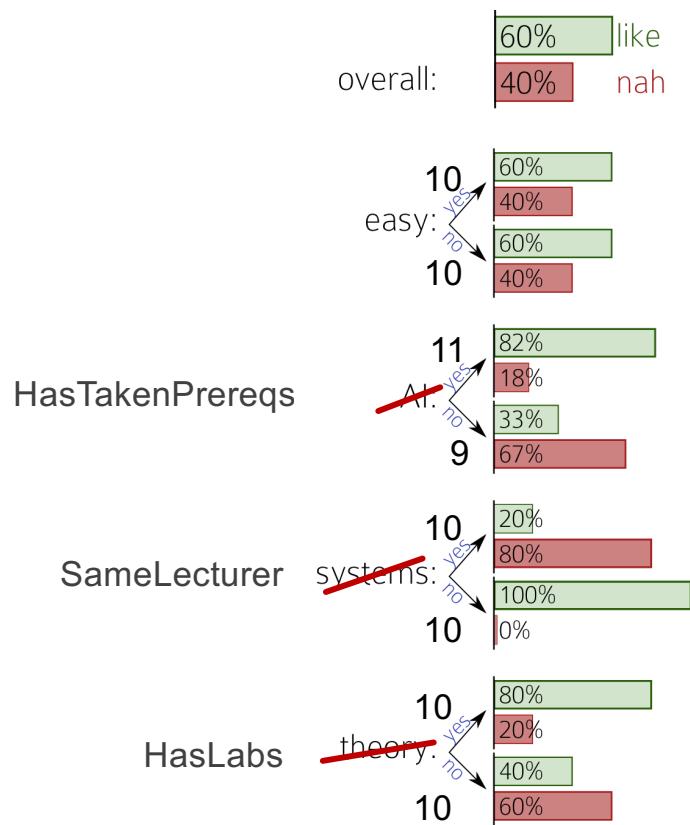


Which nodes to put at each leaf node?

Focus on (2). Try placing HasTakenPrereqs

# How to construct a tree

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Q: How many training data points fall here? 10

Q: How many training data points arrive at these two leaves? How many for each label?

Q: what prediction should we use for each leaf?

Q: What is the train set accuracy, conditioning on  
SameLecturer=Y?

'local' train set accuracy

$$\frac{6}{10} \cdot \frac{6}{6} + \frac{4}{10} \cdot \frac{2}{4} = \frac{8}{10}$$

Try all the other nodes and pick the one with the largest acc.!

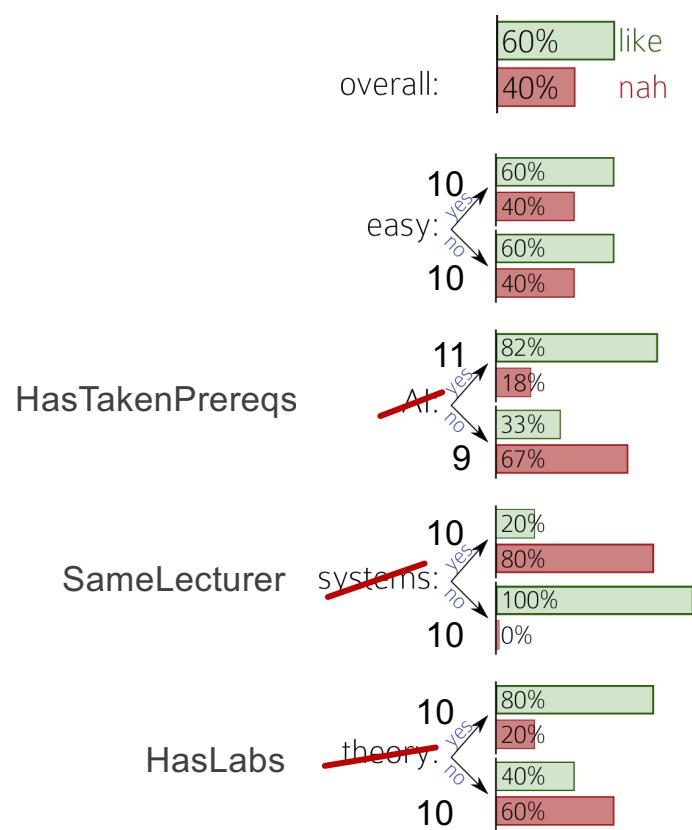
Then, repeat the same for SameLecturer=N branch!

=> but this has 1 local train set acc. So leave it be!

Move onto expanding nodes at depth 2!

# How to construct a tree

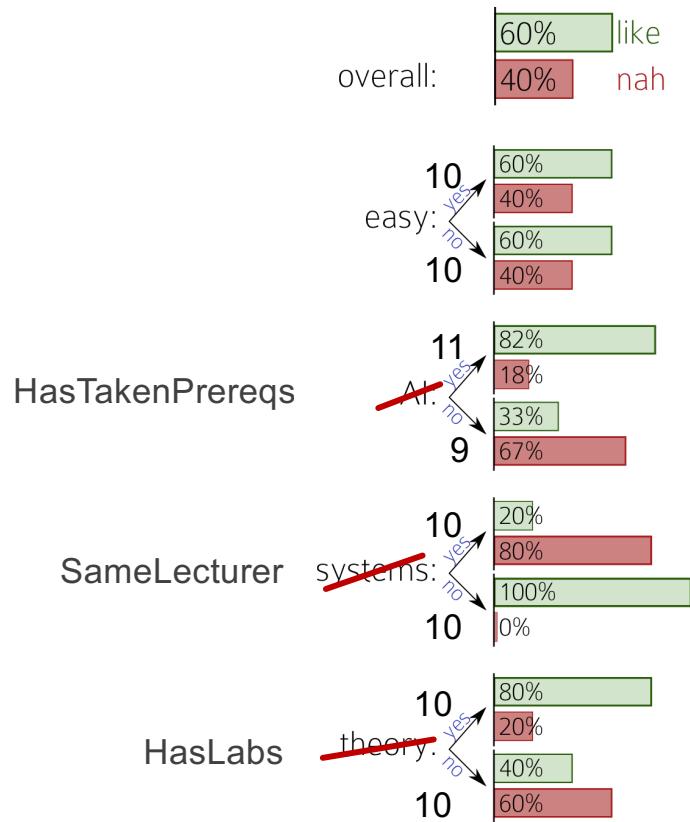
41



Rating	Easy?	Prereqs	Lecturer	HasLabs	
		AI?	Sys?	Theory?	Morning?
+2	y	y	n	y	n
+2	y	y	n	y	n
+2	n	y	n	n	n
+2	n	n	n	y	n
+2	n	y		n	y
+1	y	y	n	n	n
+1	y	y	n	y	n
+1	n	y	n	y	n
0	n	n	n	n	y
0	y	n	n	y	y
0	n	y	n	y	n
0	y	y		y	y
-1	y	y		n	y
-1	n	n		y	n
-1	n	n		n	y
-1	y	n		n	y
-2	n	n		y	n
-2	n	y		n	y
-2	y	n		n	n
-2	y	n		n	y

# How to construct a tree

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Overall idea:

1. Set the root node as a leaf node.
2. Grab a leaf node for which its 'local' train accuracy is not 1.
3. Find a feature that maximizes the 'local' train accuracy and replace the leaf node with a node with that feature; add leaf nodes and set their predictions by majority vote.
4. Repeat 2-3.

---

**Algorithm 1** DECISIONTREETRAIN(*data*, *remaining features*)

---

```

1: guess  $\leftarrow$  most frequent answer in data           // default answer for this data
2: if the labels in data are unambiguous then           <= i.e., all data points have the same label
3:   return LEAF(guess)                                // base case: no need to split further
4: else if remaining features is empty then
5:   return LEAF(guess)                                // base case: cannot split further
6: else                                                 // we need to query more features
7:   for all f  $\in$  remaining features do           <= there is no point in adding a feature
8:     NO  $\leftarrow$  the subset of data on which f=no
9:     YES  $\leftarrow$  the subset of data on which f=yes
10:    score[f]  $\leftarrow$  ( # of majority vote answers in NO
11:      + # of majority vote answers in YES ) / size(data)           <= answer = label

12:   end for
13:   f  $\leftarrow$  the feature with maximal score(f)
14:   NO  $\leftarrow$  the subset of data on which f=no
15:   YES  $\leftarrow$  the subset of data on which f=yes
16:   left  $\leftarrow$  DECISIONTREETRAIN(NO, remaining features \ {f})
17:   right  $\leftarrow$  DECISIONTREETRAIN(YES, remaining features \ {f})
18:   return NODE(f, left, right)
19: end if

```

---

---

**Algorithm 2** DECISIONTREETEST(*tree, test point*)

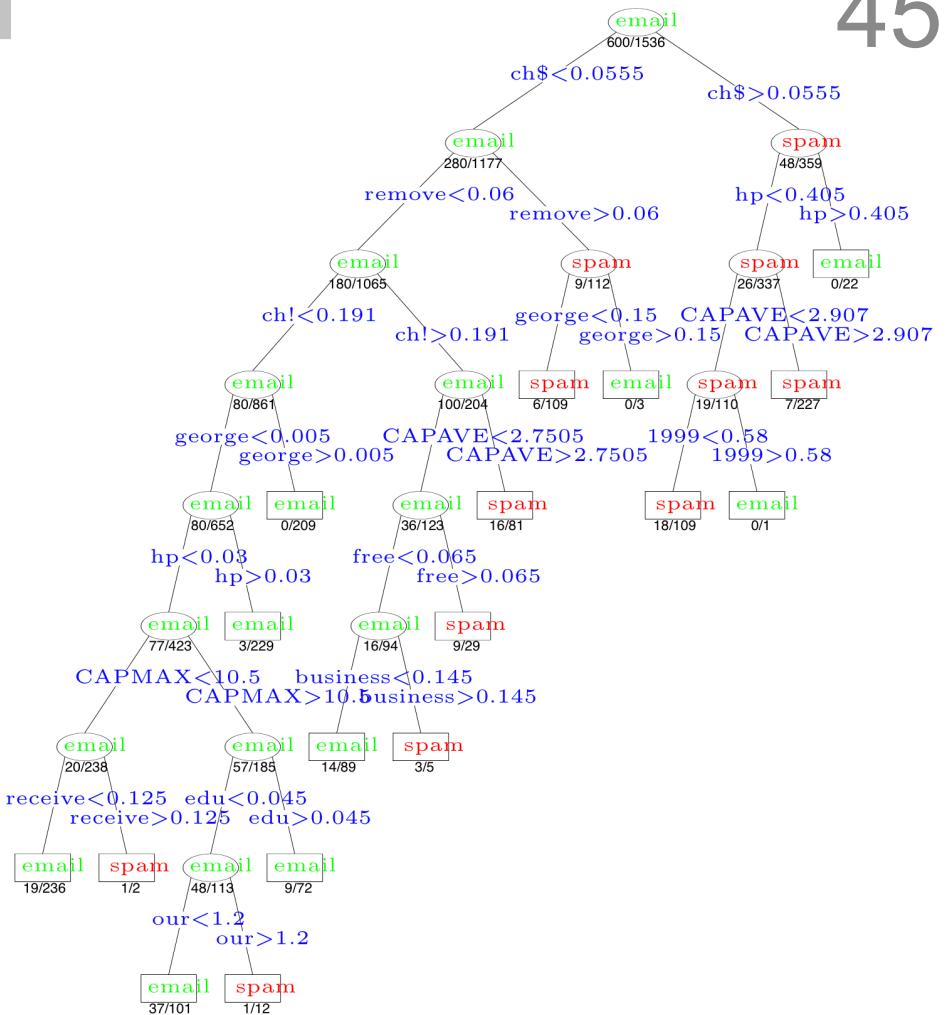
---

```
1: if tree is of the form LEAF(guess) then
2:   return guess
3: else if tree is of the form NODE(f, left, right) then
4:   if f = no in test point then
5:     return DECISIONTREETEST(left, test point)
6:   else
7:     return DECISIONTREETEST(right, test point)
8:   end if
9: end if
```

---

## Example: spam filtering I

- ▶ Spam dataset
- ▶ 4601 email messages, about 39% are spam
- ▶ Classify message by spam and not-spam
- ▶ 57 features
  - ▶ 48 are of the form “percentage of email words that is (WORD)”
  - ▶ 6 are of the form “percentage of email characters is (CHAR)”
  - ▶ 3 other features (e.g., “longest sequence of all-caps”)
- ▶ Final tree after pruning has 17 leaves, 9.3% test error rate



Error := 1 – accuracy.

Suppose we have trained a function  $\hat{f}$  on  $D = \{(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)})\}_{i=1}^m$  using a supervised learning algorithm.

- Train error: Evaluate on D.

$$\widehat{\text{err}}_D(\textcolor{brown}{f}) := \frac{1}{|D|} \sum_{(x,y) \in D} \mathbf{I}\{\textcolor{brown}{f}(x) \neq y\}$$

- Test error: Evaluate on  $D' = \{(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)})\}_{i=1}^{m'}$  not used for training.
  - It can be possible that our function just 'memorized' the training data and doesn't do well in real life. (overfitting)

Q: Choose one:

- (1) train error  $\geq$  test error    (2) train error  $\approx$  test error    (3) train error  $\leq$  test error

## Background: Workflow of Training a Classifier

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Standard practice:

- Given a data set  $D$ , split it into train set  $D_{train}$  and  $D_{test}$ 
  - large data: 90-10 ratio
  - medium data: 80-20 ratio
  - small data: 70-30 ratio
- Train on  $D_{train}$  and evaluate error rate on  $D_{test}$ . You trust that  $D_{test}$  will be the performance when you deploy the trained classifier.  
(these are guidelines only)

Discussion: What would be reasonable logics behind such a trust?

## CSC380: Principles of Data Science

**Basics of Predictive Modeling and  
Classification 2**

**Decision Trees / k-Nearest Neighborhood  
Kyoungseok Jang**

- Final curving: you will recover 66% of the score you lost.
  - E.g.) If your original score was 40, your curved score will be  $40 + (100 - 40) \times \frac{2}{3} = 80$
  - A bit more beneficial for the students who didn't have basic knowledge in probability and statistics.
  - New average: 83.3
- Final exam: I will spend a lecture for the final review, and I will try to 'describe' the problems more explicitly.
  - I will reuse several midterm problems with a bit of variation.

- Regrade request
  - Problem 7(4): We decided to give everyone the score. Please check your answer, and if your answer was 'False', please send us the regrade request.
  - For the student who used the back side of the paper for your answer, please let us know.

- Some students asked me about prerequisites.
  - Especially about the dimensionality reduction part
  - We will not evaluate you based on those prerequisites
    - We will not ask you like, how to calculate the eigenvectors or eigenvalues on your exam, or in your final project.
    - We will teach you the basic knowledge to understand. (E.g. inner product)
    - We will introduce you to some scipy functions for eigenvector computations.
    - (I am not sure whether we can cover the dimensionality reduction part)

I guess I will spend this lecture  
for the final review...

Apr 25	Clustering 2
Apr 27	Dimensionality reduction 1
May 2	Dimensionality reduction 2
May 8	Final Exam (3:30-5:30pm)

- There was a gap between our scheduled progress and our current progress
  - For example, we should have finished the ‘sampling bias’ part before the midterm.
  - Therefore, now HW5 was posted too early.
    - We will learn k-Nearest Neighborhood today and Naïve-Bayes Classifier on Thursday. (both of them were included in HW5...)
- Therefore, we will extend the due date for HW5 to Mar. 31<sup>st</sup>.

- Due to his personal circumstances, TA Saiful will no longer be in charge of this class.
- Temporarily, we will not be able to provide the following services.
  - His office hour: Wed
  - His piazza hour: Wed/ Thu/ Fri

- Decision Tree
  - Review
  - Variations - Different criterions
  - Different types of features / labels
  - Regression
  - Pruning
- K-Nearest Neighborhood
  - Main concepts
  - Feature scaling
  - Variations / Issues

# Review: Decision Tree method

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## Algorithm 1 DECISIONTREETRAIN(*data*, *remaining features*)

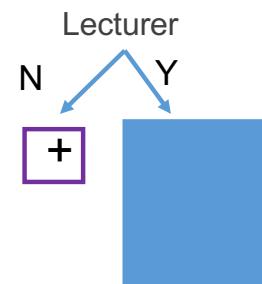
```
1: guess  $\leftarrow$  most frequent answer in data           // default answer for this data
2: if the labels in data are unambiguous then          <= i.e., all data points have the same label
3:   return LEAF(guess)                                // base case: no need to split further
4: else if remaining features is empty then
5:   return LEAF(guess)                                // base case: cannot split further
6: else                                                 // we need to query more features
7:   for all f  $\in$  remaining features do             <= there is no point in adding a feature
8:     NO  $\leftarrow$  the subset of data on which f=no        that appeared in its parent!
9:     YES  $\leftarrow$  the subset of data on which f=yes
10:    score[f]  $\leftarrow$  (# of majority vote answers in NO      <= score[f]='local' train set acc.
11:       + # of majority vote answers in YES ) / size(data)
12:   end for
13:   f  $\leftarrow$  the feature with maximal score(f)
14:   NO  $\leftarrow$  the subset of data on which f=no
15:   YES  $\leftarrow$  the subset of data on which f=yes
16:   left  $\leftarrow$  DECISIONTREETRAIN(NO, remaining features \ {f})
17:   right  $\leftarrow$  DECISIONTREETRAIN(YES, remaining features \ {f})
18:   return NODE(f, left, right)
19: end if
```

- Main question: How to calculate the ‘local’ train set accuracy? (*score*[*f*])

# Review: Decision tree - How to construct a tree

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Rating	Easy?	<del>AI?</del>	<del>Sys?</del>	<del>Thy?</del>	Morning?
+2	y	y	n	y	n
+2	y	y	n	y	n
+2	n	y	n	n	n
+2	n	n	n	y	n
+2	n	<b>y</b>	<b>y</b>	n	y
+1	y	y	n	n	n
+1	y	y	n	y	n
+1	n	y	n	y	n
0	n	n	n	n	y
0	y	n	n	y	y
0	n	y	n	y	n
0	y	<b>y</b>	<b>y</b>	y	y
-1	y	<b>y</b>	<b>y</b>	n	y
-1	n	<b>n</b>	<b>y</b>	y	n
-1	n	<b>n</b>	<b>y</b>	n	y
-1	y	<b>n</b>	<b>y</b>	n	y
-2	n	<b>n</b>	<b>y</b>	y	n
-2	n	<b>y</b>	<b>y</b>	n	y
-2	y	<b>n</b>	<b>y</b>	n	n
-2	y	<b>n</b>	<b>y</b>	n	y



Suppose that we already have this structure  
And need to construct more on the RHS.

According to the algorithm, we need to calculate score[f],  
which means the 'local' train set accuracy for each feature f.

Suppose that now our f is 'Prereqs'

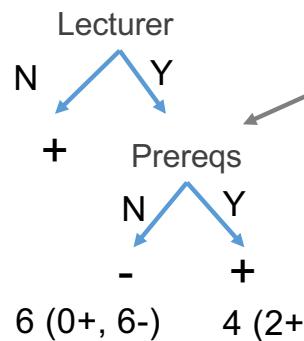
Main trick for calculating score[f]:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \widehat{acc}(f) &= \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \mathbf{I}\{f(x^{(i)}) = y^{(i)}\} \\
 &= \frac{1}{m} (\sum_{i \in YES} \mathbf{I}\{f(x^{(i)}) = y^{(i)}\} + \sum_{i \in NO} \mathbf{I}\{f(x^{(i)}) = y^{(i)}\})
 \end{aligned}$$

# Review: Decision tree - How to construct a tree

58

Rating	Easy?	Prereqs	Lecturer		HasLabs	Morning?
			AI?	Sys?		
+2	y	y	n	y	n	
+2	y	y	n	y	n	
+2	n	y	n	n	n	
+2	n	n	n	y	n	
+2	n	<span style="border: 1px solid blue; padding: 2px;">y</span>	<span style="border: 1px solid blue; padding: 2px;">y</span>	n	y	
+1	y	y	n	n	n	
+1	y	y	n	y	n	
+1	n	y	n	y	n	
0	n	n	n	n	y	
0	y	n	n	y	y	
0	n	y	n	y	n	
0	y	<span style="border: 1px solid blue; padding: 2px;">y</span>	<span style="border: 1px solid blue; padding: 2px;">y</span>	y	y	
-1	y	<span style="border: 1px solid blue; padding: 2px;">y</span>	<span style="border: 1px solid blue; padding: 2px;">y</span>	n	y	
-1	n	<span style="border: 1px solid orange; padding: 2px;">n</span>	<span style="border: 1px solid orange; padding: 2px;">y</span>	y	n	
-1	n	<span style="border: 1px solid orange; padding: 2px;">n</span>	<span style="border: 1px solid orange; padding: 2px;">y</span>	n	y	
-1	y	<span style="border: 1px solid orange; padding: 2px;">n</span>	<span style="border: 1px solid orange; padding: 2px;">y</span>	n	y	
-2	n	<span style="border: 1px solid orange; padding: 2px;">n</span>	<span style="border: 1px solid orange; padding: 2px;">y</span>	y	n	
-2	n	<span style="border: 1px solid blue; padding: 2px;">y</span>	<span style="border: 1px solid blue; padding: 2px;">y</span>	n	y	
-2	y	<span style="border: 1px solid orange; padding: 2px;">n</span>	<span style="border: 1px solid orange; padding: 2px;">y</span>	n	n	
-2	y	<span style="border: 1px solid orange; padding: 2px;">n</span>	<span style="border: 1px solid orange; padding: 2px;">y</span>	n	y	



Q: How many training data points fall here? 10

Q: How many training data points arrive at these two leaves? How many for each label?

Q: what prediction should we use for each leaf?  
A: Majority vote for each leaf

Q: How many samples will your current function outputs the 'correct' rating (sign) for each leaf?

Hint: Majority, since it is based on the majority vote 6 for left  
2 for right

Q: What is the train set accuracy, conditioning on SameLecturer=Y?

'local' train set accuracy  $\frac{1}{10}(6 + 2) = \frac{8}{10}$  or  $(\frac{6}{10} \frac{6}{6} + \frac{4}{10} \frac{2}{4}) = \frac{8}{10}$

Sum of (fraction of sub group \* fraction of correct answer in sub group)

- Recall the previous ‘score[f]’
- $\frac{6}{10} \frac{6}{6} + \frac{4}{10} \frac{2}{4}$
- Sum of (fraction of subgroup \* fraction of correct answer in subgroup)
- What if we change it to Sum of (fraction of a subgroup \* some function on that subgroup)

# Variations

Notions of uncertainty: binary case ( $\mathcal{Y} = \{0, 1\}$ )

Suppose in a set of examples  $S \subseteq \mathcal{X} \times \{0, 1\}$ , a  $p$  fraction are labeled as 1

What we did: Majority fraction = 1 – minority fraction

**① Classification error:** (red)

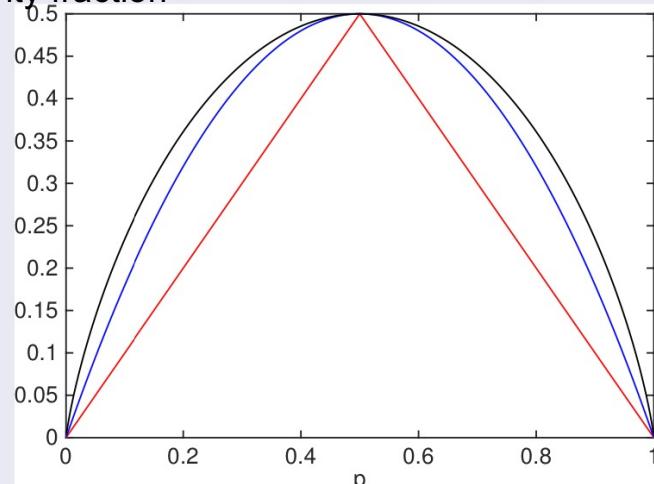
$$u(S) := \min\{p, 1 - p\}$$

**② Gini index:** (blue)

$$u(S) := 2p(1 - p)$$

**③ Entropy:** (black)

$$u(S) := p \log \frac{1}{p} + (1-p) \log \frac{1}{1-p}$$



Gini index and entropy (after some rescaling) are concave upper-bounds on classification error

Let  $q$  is the fraction of data points with feature=Y.

**Modification:**

Set score[f] as

$$q \cdot (-u(YES)) + (1 - q) \cdot (-u(NO))$$

Set score[f] as  $-u$  where  $u$  is one of these tree measure.

Using classification error is equivalent to using the accuracy.

For example,  
in the previous example,  
Lecturer=Y Prereqs=Y has  
 $p=2/4$

Check: When  $u$  is the classification error,  $q \cdot (-u(YES)) + (1 - q) \cdot (-u(NO)) = (\text{score we knew}) - 1$

# Decision tree – different types of features

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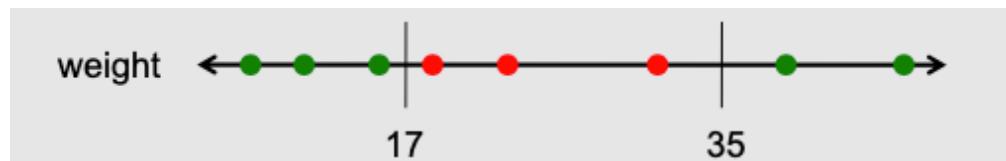
- Binary
- Categorical: values in  $\{1, \dots, C\}$  e.g., occupation, blood type
  - Option 1: Instead of 2 children, have  $C$  children.
  - Option 2: Derive  $C$  features of the form “feature= $c$ ?” for every  $c \in C$ .  
↑ binary features!

Q: How about features of the form “feature $\in C'$ ” for every  $C' \subset C$ ?

computational complexity ↑  
Because there are  $2^C$  subsets!

- Real value e.g., weight, age

- Sort the values.
- Find the **breakpoints**: For every two adjacent points with opposite labels, compute the midpoint.
- Derive features like “weight  $\leq$  breakpoint”



- Binary
- Multiclass: What changes do we need to make?
  - Almost none! Just extend the computation of accuracy to multiclass.

# If the number of classes is >2

Notions of uncertainty: general case

Suppose in  $S \subseteq \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$ , a  $p_k$  fraction are labeled as  $k$  (for each  $k \in \mathcal{Y}$ ).

① Classification error:

$$u(S) := 1 - \max_{k \in \mathcal{Y}} p_k$$

② Gini index:

$$u(S) := 1 - \sum_{k \in \mathcal{Y}} p_k^2$$

③ Entropy:

$$u(S) := \sum_{k \in \mathcal{Y}} p_k \log \frac{1}{p_k}$$

Each is *maximized* when  $p_k = 1/|\mathcal{Y}|$  for all  $k \in \mathcal{Y}$   
(i.e., equal numbers of each label in  $S$ )

Each is *minimized* when  $p_k = 1$  for a single label  $k \in \mathcal{Y}$   
(so  $S$  is **pure** in label)

# Regression: when the labels are real numbers

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- Classification vs Regression
  - Both supervised learning
  - Regression has real-valued labels.
- Examples: Price prediction. Property value prediction.
- Standard measure of performance: mean squared error:  $\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (f(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2$

Q: why are we using squared error rather than absolute error?

my opinion: convenience & tradition

- What changes needed for decision tree?

- How to make predictions at the leaf node?

Average labels of the data at the leaf;  
denote by  $\bar{y}_{YES}$  and  $\bar{y}_{NO}$ .

- How to adjust score[f]?

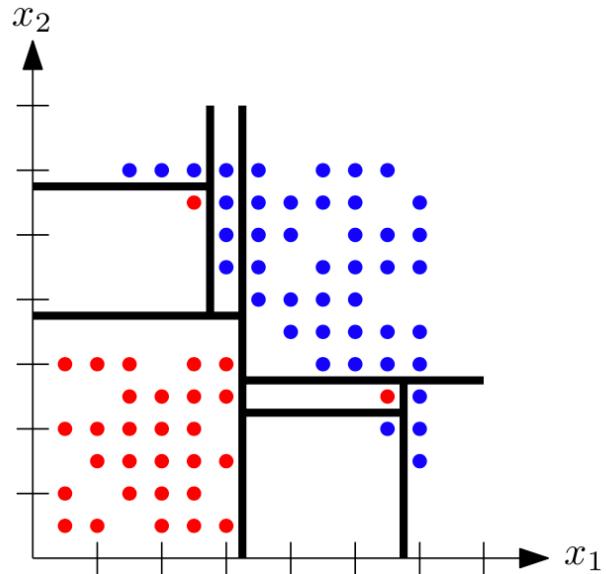
Use negative squared error

$$\frac{1}{|data|} \cdot \left( - \sum_{i \in YES} (y_i - \bar{y}_{YES})^2 - \sum_{i \in NO} (y_i - \bar{y}_{NO})^2 \right)$$

(notations from the decision tree pseudocode)

## “Spurious” patterns can be learned

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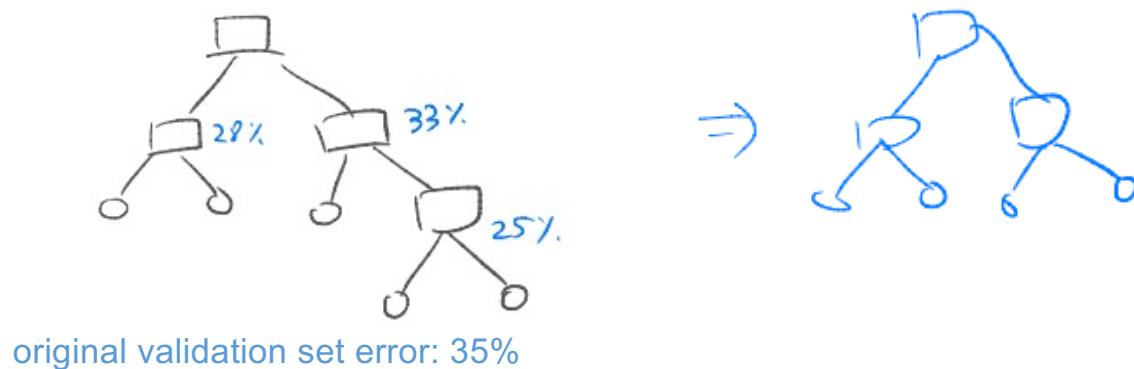
by the way, note axis-parallel decision boundaries

# Unlearn spurious patterns by pruning

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Split the data into **train set** and **validation set**

- Build a decision tree based on the **train set**; compute the **validation set** error
- While true
  - For each non-leaf node, pretend that it is a leaf node and then compute the validation set error (but do not make it a leaf node yet)
  - If none reduces the validation set error
    - Break
  - Else
    - **Prune** the one that reduces the validation set error the most



# k-Nearest Neighbors (k-NN)

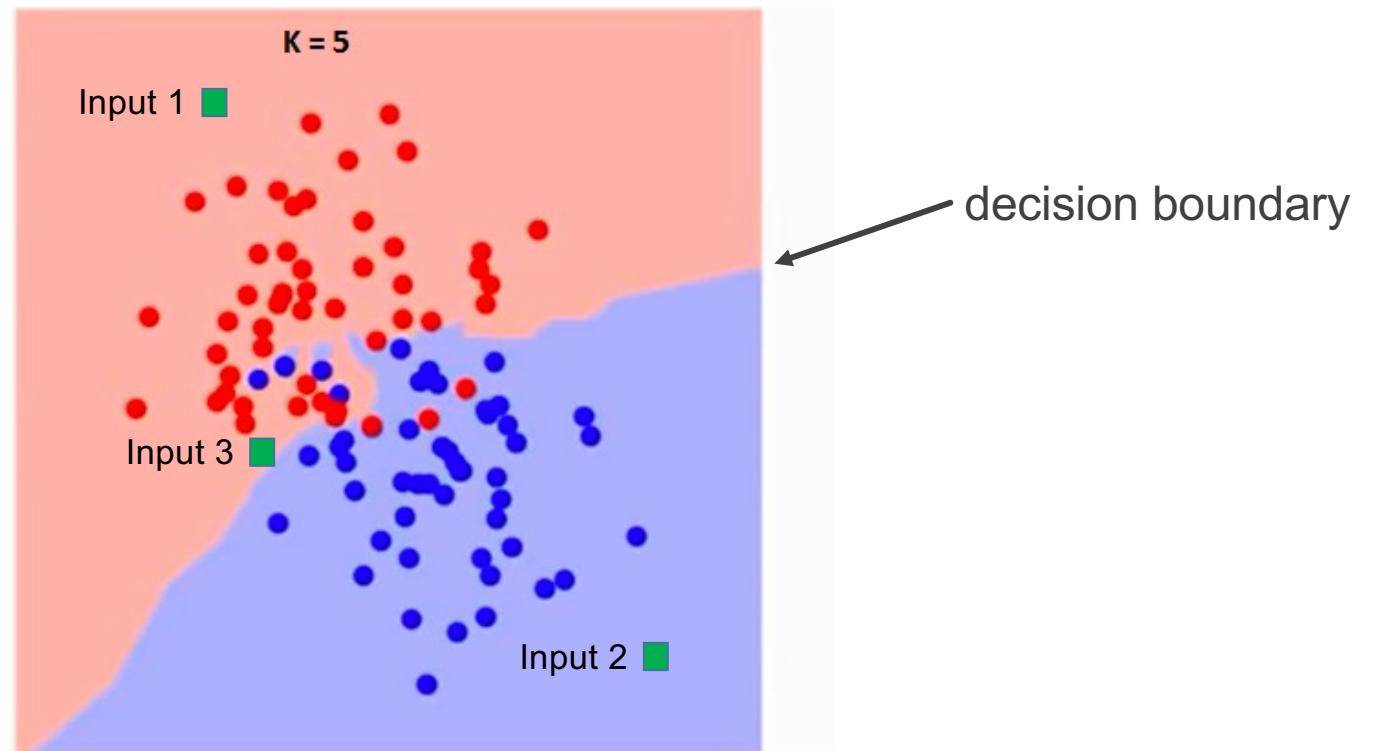
## $k$ -nearest neighbor: main concept

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- Train set:  $S = \{(x^{(1)}, y^{(1)}), \dots, (x^{(m)}, y^{(m)})\}$
- **Idea:** given a new, unseen data point  $x$ , its label should resemble the labels of **nearby points**
- What function?
  - Input:  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$
  - From  $S$ , find the  $k$  nearest points to  $x$  from  $S$ ; call it  $N(x)$ 
    - E.g., Euclidean distance
  - Output: the majority vote of  $\{y_i : i \in N(x)\}$ 
    - For regression, take the average label.

## k-NN example

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How to extract features as real values?

- Binary features: Take 0/1
- Categorical  $\{1, \dots, C\}$  (e.g., movie genres)
  - Binary vector of length  $C$ . Set  $c$ -th coordinate 1 and 0 otherwise. one-hot encoding

Q: Why don't we just take  $1, \dots, C$  as a real-valued feature?

## Distance:

- (popular) Euclidean distance:  $d(x, x') = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^d (x_i - x'_i)^2}$
- Manhattan distance :  $d(x, x') = \sum_{i=1}^d |x_i - x'_i|$

Q: If we shift a feature, would the distance change? no

Q: What about scaling a feature? yes

- Features having different scale can be problematic. (e.g., weights in lbs vs shoe size)
- [Definition] **Standardization**

- For each feature  $f$ , compute  $\mu_f = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m x_f^{(i)}$ ,  $\sigma_f = \sqrt{\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (x_f^{(i)} - \mu_f)^2}$
- Then, transform the data by  $\forall f \in \{1, \dots, d\}, \forall i \in \{1, \dots, m\}, x_f^{(i)} \leftarrow \frac{x_f^{(i)} - \mu_f}{\sigma_f}$

after transformation, each feature has mean 0 and variance 1

- Be sure to keep the “standardize” function and apply it to the test points.
  - Save  $\{(\mu_f, \sigma_f)\}_{f=1}^d$
  - For test point  $x^*$ , apply  $x_f^* \leftarrow \frac{x_f^* - \mu_f}{\sigma_f}, \forall f$

- Given: labeled data D
- Training
  - Compute and save  $\{(\mu_f, \sigma_f)\}_{f=1}^d$
  - Compute and save standardization of D
- Test
  - Given  $x^*$ , apply standardization  $x_f^* \leftarrow \frac{x_f^* - \mu_f}{\sigma_f}, \forall f$
  - Compute k nearest neighbors  $N(x^*)$
  - Predict by majority vote label in  $N(x^*)$  (average label for regression tasks)

## Variations

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Recall the majority vote rule:  $\hat{y} = \arg \max_{y \in \{1, \dots, C\}} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{N}(x)} 1\{y_i = y\}$



Q: Blue dot is the test point. If k=3, which label would it predict?

Q: Which label do you think we should predict?

### Weighted version

- $\hat{y} = \arg \max_{y \in \{1, \dots, C\}} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{N}(x)} w_i 1\{y^{(i)} = y\}$

weights that sum to 1

$$w_i \propto \exp(-\beta \cdot d(x, x^{(i)})), \beta > 0$$

~~$$w_i \propto \frac{1}{d(x, x^{(i)})^\beta}$$~~

$$w_i \propto \frac{1}{1 + d(x, x^{(i)})^\beta}$$

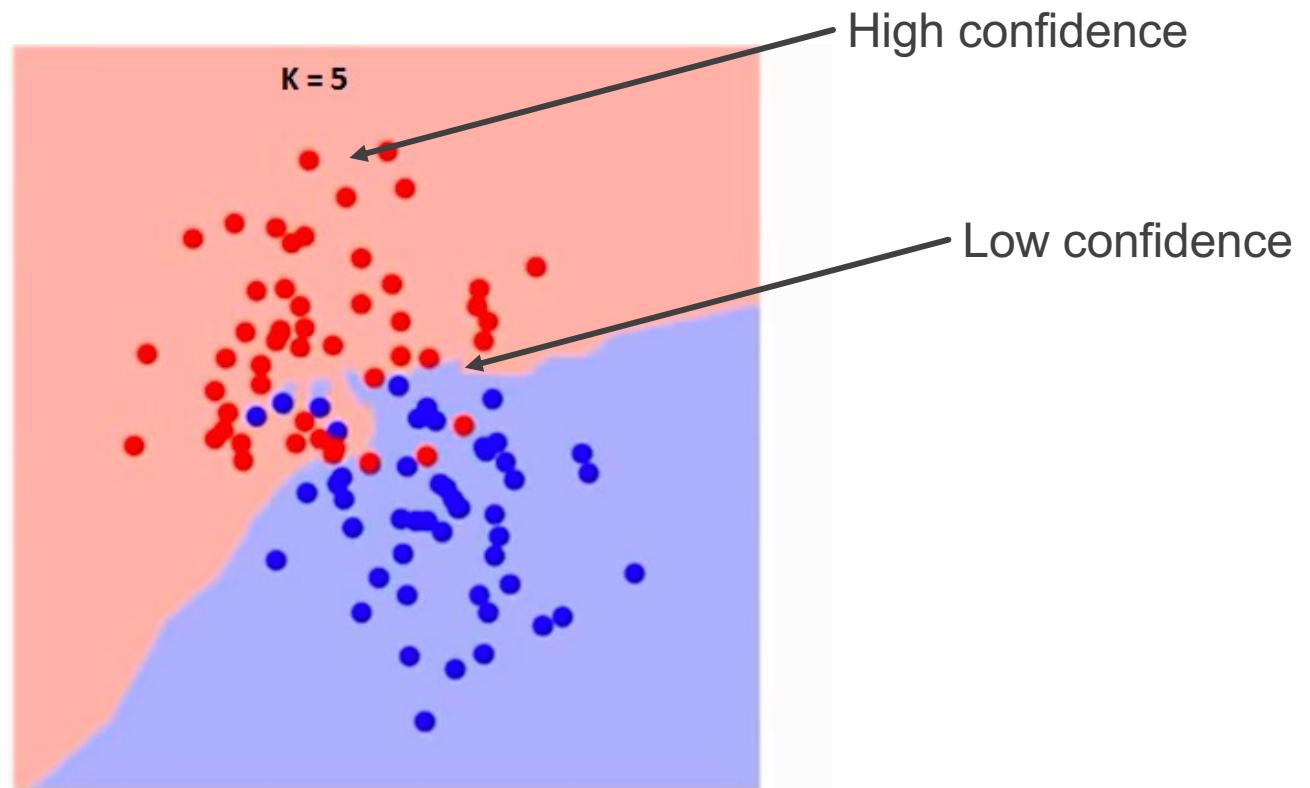
Q: What would be the downside of using weighted version?

tuning  $\beta$  is cumbersome!

## Confidence

- $P(Y = y|X = x) \propto \sum_{i \in \mathcal{N}(x)} 1\{y^{(i)} = y\}$
- $P(Y = y|X = x) \propto \sum_{i \in \mathcal{N}(x)} w_i 1\{y^{(i)} = y\}$  // weighted version

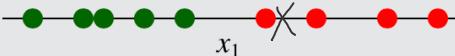
Same thing applies to decision tree – ( number of majority points in that leaf node / number of points in that leaf node)



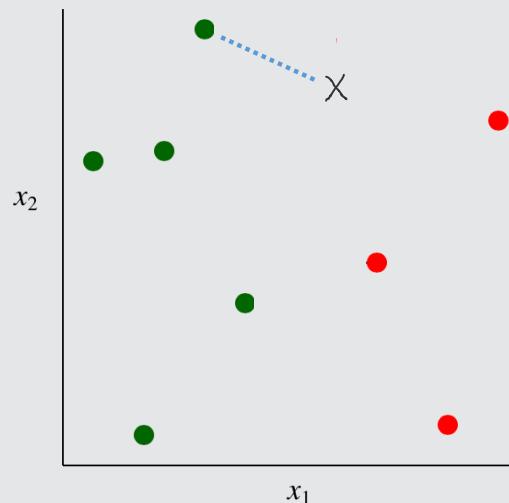
## Issues 1: irrelevant features

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here's a case in which there is one relevant feature  $x_1$  and a 1-NN rule classifies each instance correctly



consider the effect of an irrelevant feature  $x_2$  on distances and nearest neighbors



Q: how did we deal with irrelevant features in decision trees?

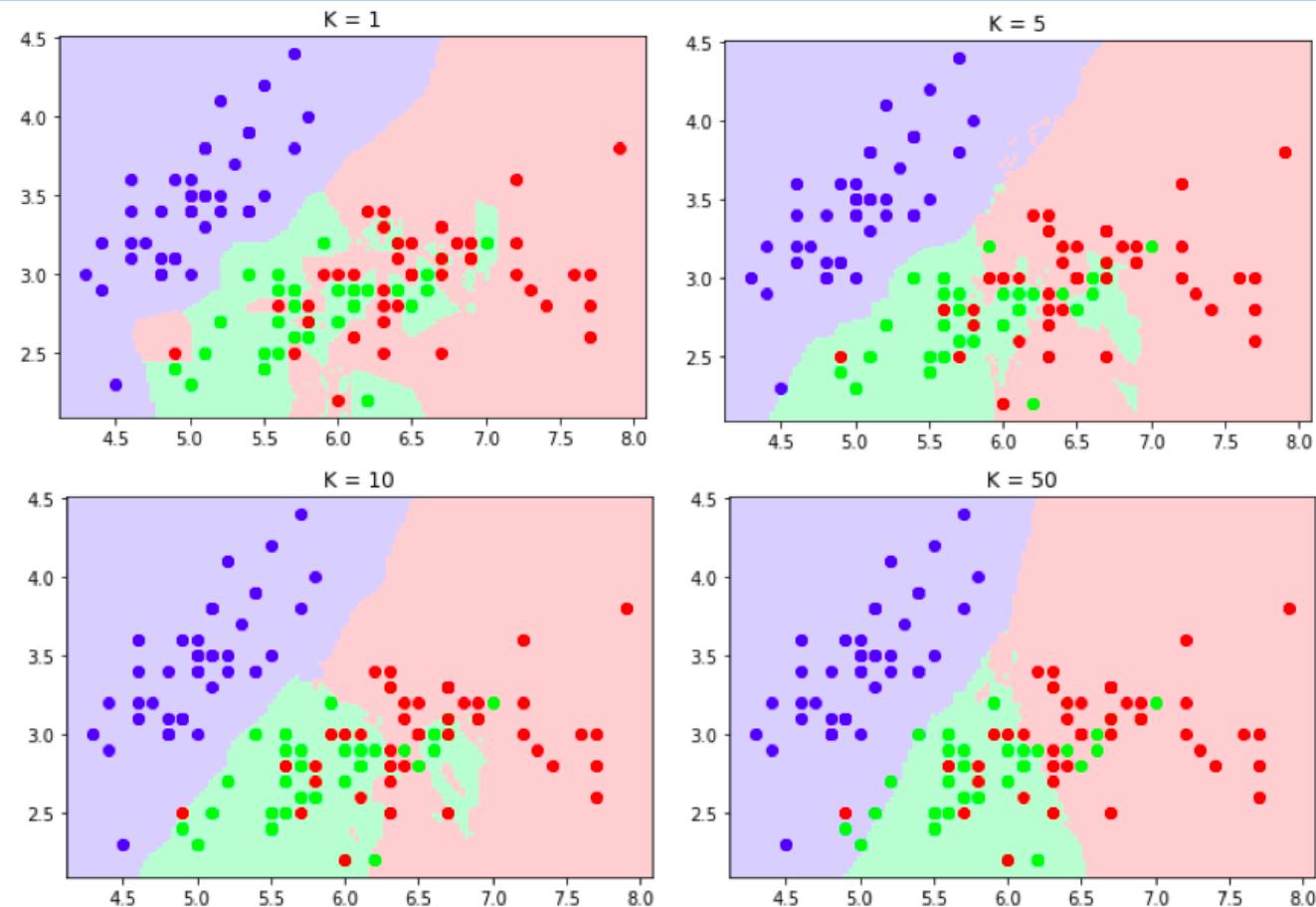
not all features are used because

- (i) we stop adding features when they are unnecessary (e.g. having zero local accuracies, subset is already pure)
- (ii) pruning

- How a k-NN function work:
  - Compute distance to  $m$  points  $O(dm)$
  - Sort distances  $O(m \log m)$
  - Pick  $k$  smallest.  $O(k)$
  - Overall  $O(m(d + \log m))$
- Issue: test time complexity scales linearly with  $m$ !!
- Solutions
  - k-d tree: Exact search
    - Best case:  $O(\log(m))$       Worst case:  $O(m)$

for large  $d$  very likely to hit the worst case
  - Locality-sensitive hashing: approximate search,  $O(m^\rho)$  with  $\rho \in (0,1)$

- Q: If we set  $k = m$ , then which classification rule does it look like?
- Q: If we set  $k = 1$ , what would be the train set error (assume there is no repeated train data point)?



## Comparison

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	Decision Tree	k-NN
• Interpretability	good	bad
• Sensitivity to irrelevant features	low	high
• train time	$O(dm^2 + dm \log m)$	$O(dm)$
• test time	depth of the tree worst: $O(\min\{d, m\})$ best: $\log(m)$	$O(m(d + \log(m)))$ <span style="color:red">bad</span>
• test time space complexity	worst: $O(m)$ in general: much smaller	$\Theta(dm)$

- Model selection
  - How to choose k?
  - Overfitting
- Naïve Bayes Classifier

Thank you!

## CSC380: Principles of Data Science

**Basics of Predictive Modeling and  
Classification 3 :  
Model Selection / Naïve Bayes Classifier  
Kyoungseok Jang**

- Regrade request
  - Question 7(4): We decided to give everyone the score. Please check your answer, and if your answer is 'False', please send us the regrade request.
  - For the student who used the back side of the paper for your answer, please let us know.

- Due to his personal circumstances, TA Saiful will no longer be in charge of this class.
- Temporarily, we will not be able to provide the following services.
  - His office hour: Wed
  - His piazza hour: Wed/ Thu/ Fri

- There was a problem with Lecture 17 (Mar. 21) recording.
  - The slides were missing in the video.
- I will re-record that lecture this weekend.

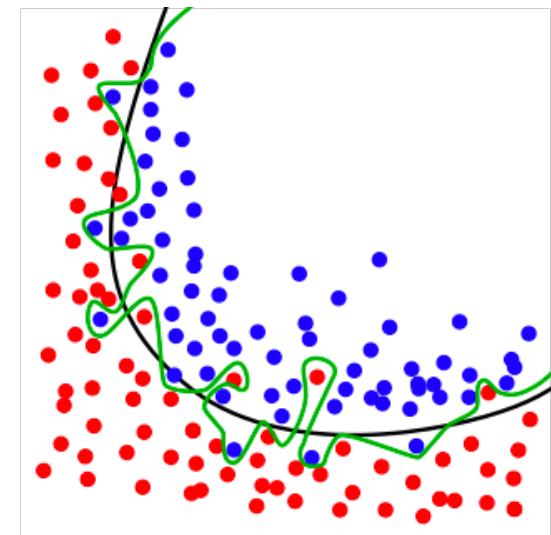
# Overfitting and Model Evaluation

Train set error is an important score to measure the performance of your function,  
But it's not enough.

**Extreme example:** Let's memorize the data. To predict an unseen data, just guess a random label.

This function will not work well on real life – called  
*overfitting*

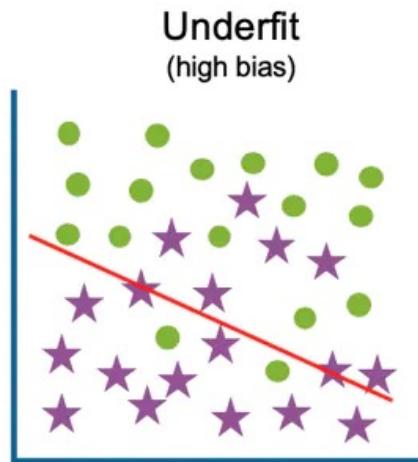
**Solution:** Fit our model based on the train set but shouldn't "over-do" it. This is called **regularization**.



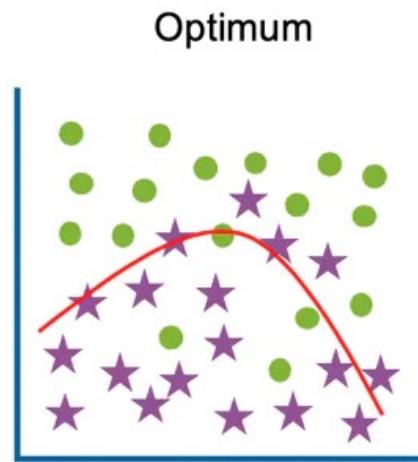
green: almost memorization  
black: true decision boundary

# Overfitting vs Underfitting

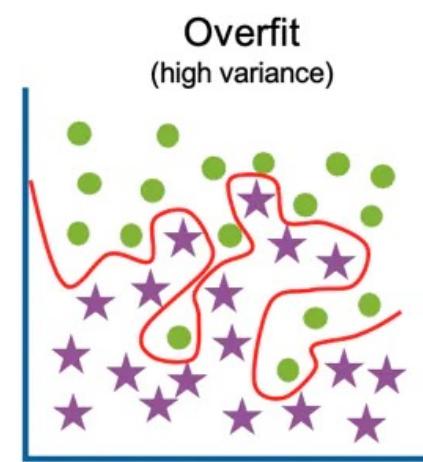
91



High training error  
High test error



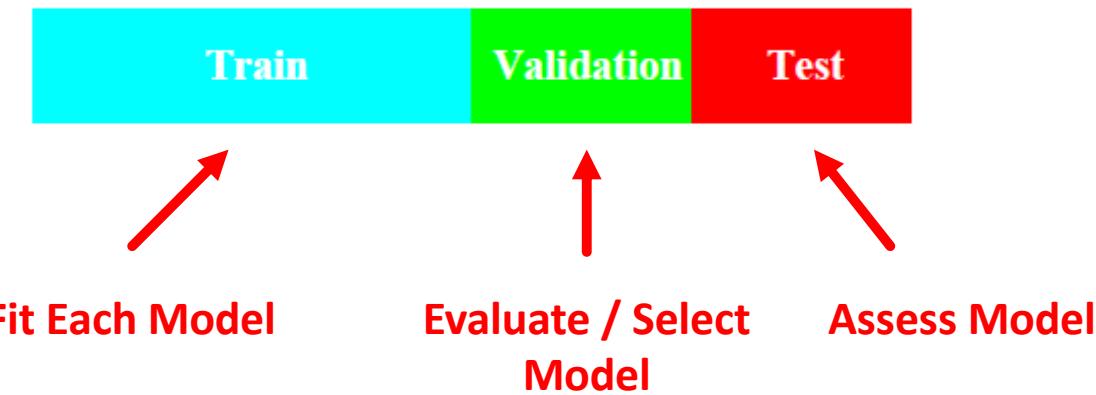
Low training error  
Low test error



Low training error  
High test error

Source: ibm.com

Partition your data into Train-Validation-Test sets



- Ideally, Test set is kept in a “vault” and only peek at it once model is selected
- Small dataset: 50% Training, 25% Validation, 25% Test (very loose rule set by statisticians)
- For large data (say a few thousands), 80-10-10 is usually fine.

## Validation set method:

- For each hyperparameter  $h \in H$ 
  - Train  $\hat{f}$  on train set with  $h$
  - Compute the error rate of  $\hat{f}$  on validation set
- Choose the best performing hyperparameter  $h^*$
- Use  $h^*$  to retrain the final model  $\hat{f}^*$  with both train and validation set.
- Finally, evaluate  $\hat{f}^*$  on test set to estimate its future performance.

**hyperparameter:** parameters of the model that are not trained automatically by ML algorithms. (e.g.,  $k$  in  $k$ -NN)

**parameters:** those that are trained automatically (e.g., tree structures in decision tree)

## Pro tip

- Do not use arithmetic grids; use geometric grids.

Don't     $k = 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, \dots$

Do         $k = 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, \dots$

**Downside:** How much do we trust the validation set?

## K-fold cross validation

- Randomly partition train set  $S$  into  $K$  disjoint sets; call them  $\text{fold}_1, \dots, \text{fold}_K$
- For each hyperparameter  $h \in \{1, \dots, H\}$ 
  - For each  $k \in \{1, \dots, K\}$ 
    - train  $\hat{f}_k^h$  with  $S \setminus \text{fold}_k$
    - measure error rate  $e_{h,k}$  of  $\hat{f}_k^h$  on  $\text{fold}_k$
  - Compute the average error of the above:  $\widehat{\text{err}}^h = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^K e_{h,k}$
- Choose  $\hat{h} = \arg \min_h \widehat{\text{err}}^h$
- Train  $\hat{f}^*$  using  $S$  (all the training points) with hyperparameter  $\hat{h}$
- Finally, evaluate  $\hat{f}^*$  on test set to estimate its future performance.

Leave one-out =  $m$ -fold cross validation ( $m$ : train set size)

⇒ When (1) the dataset is small (2) ML algorithm's retraining time complexity is low (e.g., kNN)

# Cross Validation using numpy.random.permutation 95

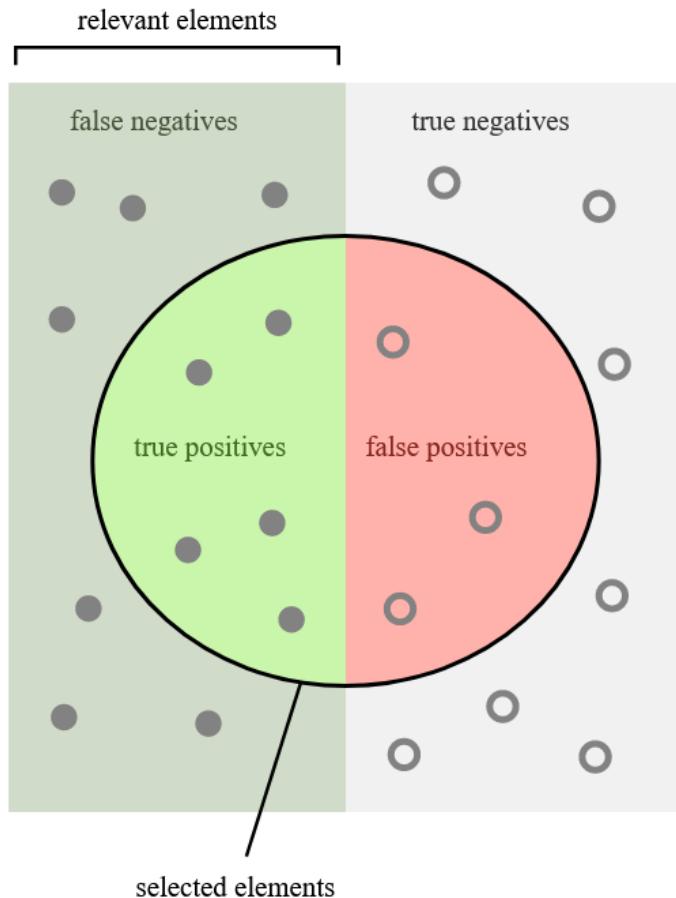
```
permidx = np.random.permutation(12)                                array([ 6,  1,  8,  7,  3,  4,  2,  5, 11, 10,  0,  9])  
  
idx = np.array([(i % 5) for i in np.arange(12)])                  array([0,  1,  2,  3,  4,  0,  1,  2,  3,  4,  0,  1])  
  
folds = [permidx[idx == i] for i in np.arange(5)]                 [array([6,  4,  0]),  
 array([1,  2,  9]),  
 array([8,  5]),  
 array([ 7, 11]),  
 array([ 3, 10])]  
  
folds_except = [permidx[idx != i] for i in np.arange(5)]          [array([ 1,  8,  7,  3,  2,  5, 11, 10,  9]),  
 array([ 6,  8,  7,  3,  4,  5, 11, 10,  0]),  
 array([ 6,  1,  7,  3,  4,  2, 11, 10,  0,  9]),  
 array([ 6,  1,  8,  3,  4,  2,  5, 10,  0,  9]),  
 array([ 6,  1,  8,  7,  4,  2,  5, 11,  0,  9])]
```

If the data is X (n by d array; n data points) and Y (length-n array)

- train set: X[folds\_except[0],:], Y[folds\_except[0]]
- validation set: X[folds[0],:], Y[folds[0]]

- Issue: Say we have few positive labels (=imbalanced class)  
The error rates in CV can be unstable.
- Goal: ensure each fold receives the same fraction of pos/neg labels.
- E.g.,  $|S|=100$ . 20 positive/80 negative.  $K=10$ 
  - Pool positive data points, randomly shuffle them; place 2 data points for each fold.
  - Perform the same with negative data points.

# Evaluating Classifiers



For binary classifiers we evaluate a couple standard metrics,

How many selected items are relevant?

$$\text{Precision} = \frac{\text{True Positives}}{\text{True Positives} + \text{False Positives}}$$

Precision is calculated as the ratio of true positives to the sum of true positives and false positives. It is represented by a circle divided into a green segment (true positives) and a red segment (false positives).

How many relevant items are selected?

$$\text{Recall} = \frac{\text{True Positives}}{\text{True Positives} + \text{False Negatives}}$$

Recall is calculated as the ratio of true positives to the sum of true positives and false negatives. It is represented by a circle divided into a green segment (true positives) and a light green segment (false negatives).

Tuning with precision vs. recall can be tricky, so we use F1 score,

$$F_1 = \frac{2}{\text{recall}^{-1} + \text{precision}^{-1}} = 2 \cdot \frac{\text{precision} \cdot \text{recall}}{\text{precision} + \text{recall}} = \frac{\text{tp}}{\text{tp} + \frac{1}{2}(\text{fp} + \text{fn})}$$

- This is the *harmonic mean* of precision and recall
  - $\min(x,y) \leq \text{harmonic\_mean}(x,y) \leq \text{geometric\_mean}(x,y) \leq \text{arithmetic\_mean}(x,y) \leq \max(x,y)$   
$$\frac{1}{\frac{1}{2}(\frac{1}{x} + \frac{1}{y})} \quad \sqrt{xy} \quad \frac{1}{2}(x + y)$$
- Can be very sensitive to *class imbalance* (num. positives vs negative)
- Gives equal importance to precision and recall – F1 may not be best when you care about one more than the other (e.g., in medical tests we care about recall)

# Confusion Matrix

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Suppose our classifier distinguishes between cats and non-cats.  
We can make the following table called **confusion matrix**:

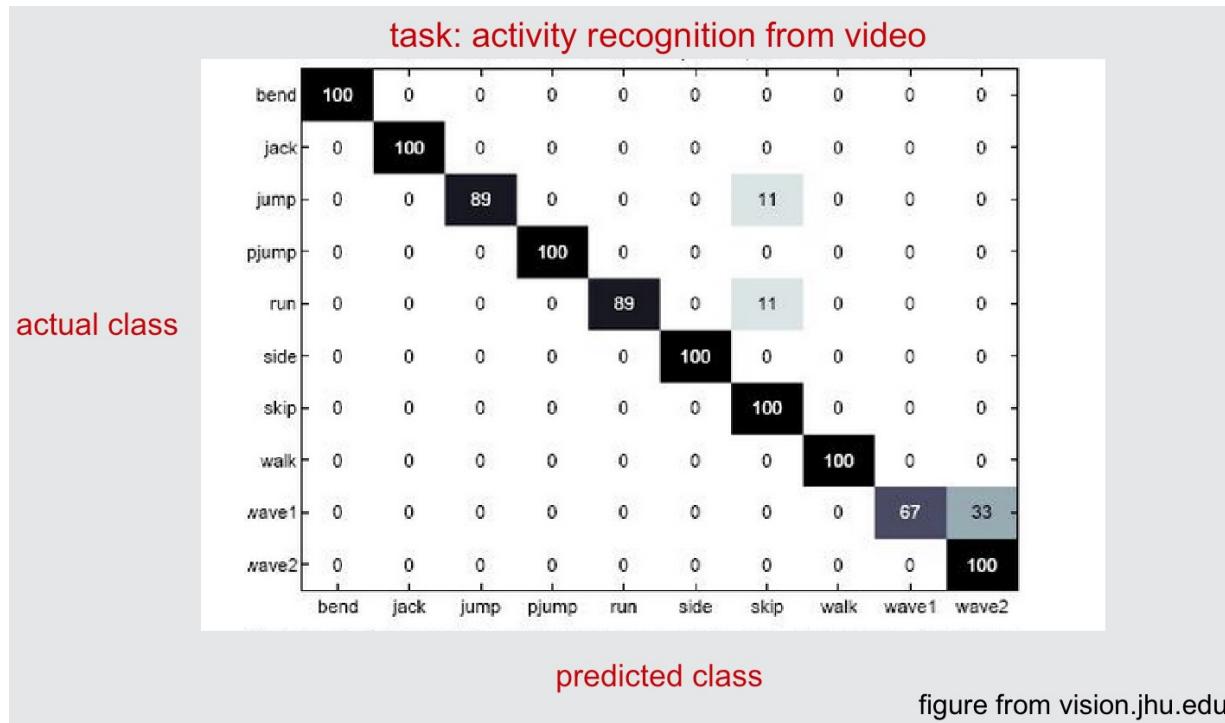
		Predicted class	Cat	Non-cat
Actual class	Cat	6 true positives	2 false negatives	
	Non-cat	1 false positive	3 true negatives	

It tells us if classifier is biased towards certain mistakes (False Positives, False Neg.)

Good for investigating opportunities to improve the classifier.

# Confusion Matrix

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Don't just stare at the overall error rate! Let's investigate what errors it is making.



Python library for machine learning. Install using Anaconda:

```
$ conda install -c conda-forge scikit-learn
```

Or using PyPi:

```
$ pip install -U scikit-learn
```

## Evaluation functions live in metrics

`metrics.confusion_matrix(y_true, y_pred, *)` Compute confusion matrix to evaluate the accuracy of a classification.

`metrics.dcg_score(y_true, y_score, *[k, ...])` Compute Discounted Cumulative Gain.

`metrics.det_curve(y_true, y_score[, ...])` Compute error rates for different probability thresholds.

`metrics.f1_score(y_true, y_pred, *[...,])` Compute the F1 score, also known as balanced F-score or F-measure.

`metrics.fbeta_score(y_true, y_pred, *, beta)` Compute the F-beta score.

`metrics.hamming_loss(y_true, y_pred, *[...,])` Compute the average Hamming loss.

`metrics.hinge_loss(y_true, pred_decision, *)` Average hinge loss (non-regularized).

`metrics.jaccard_score(y_true, y_pred, *[...,])` Jaccard similarity coefficient score.

`metrics.log_loss(y_true, y_pred, *[..., eps, ...])` Log loss, aka logistic loss or cross-entropy loss.

`metrics.matthews_corrcoef(y_true, y_pred, *)` Compute the Matthews correlation coefficient (MCC).

`metrics.multilabel_confusion_matrix(y_true, ...)` Compute a confusion matrix for each class or sample.

`metrics.ndcg_score(y_true, y_score, *[k, ...])` Compute Normalized Discounted Cumulative Gain.

`metrics.precision_recall_curve(y_true, ...)` Compute precision-recall pairs for different probability thresholds.

`metrics.precision_recall_fscore_support(...)` Compute precision, recall, F-measure and support for each class.

`metrics.precision_score(y_true, y_pred, *[...,])` Compute the precision.

`metrics.recall_score(y_true, y_pred, *[...,])` Compute the recall.



Models can be fit using the `fit()` function.  
E.g., Random Forest Classifier,

```
>>> from sklearn.ensemble import RandomForestClassifier
>>> clf = RandomForestClassifier(random_state=0)
>>> X = [[ 1,  2,  3], # 2 samples, 3 features
...      [11, 12, 13]]
>>> y = [0, 1] # classes of each sample
>>> clf.fit(X, y)
RandomForestClassifier(random_state=0)
```

`fit()` Generally accepts 2 inputs

- Sample matrix  $X$ —typically 2d array ( $n_{\text{samples}}, n_{\text{features}}$ )
- Target values  $Y$ —real numbers for regression, integer for classification

# k-Nearest Neighbors

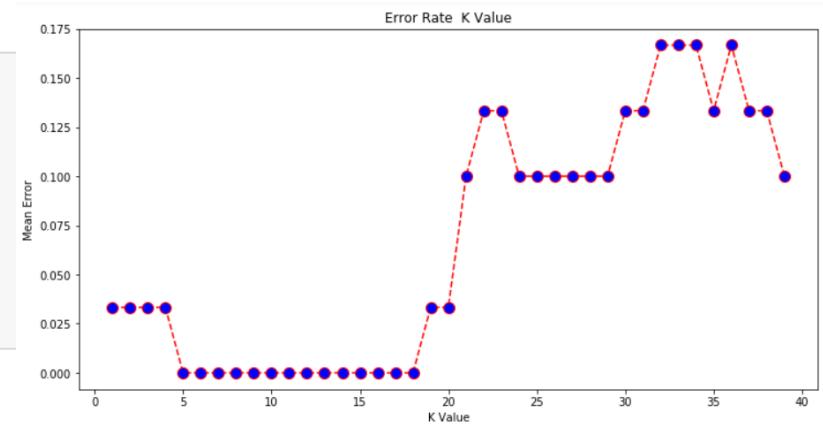
104

Train / evaluate the KNN classifier for each value K,

```
from sklearn.neighbors import KNeighborsClassifier  
error = []  
  
# Calculating error for K values between 1 and 40  
for i in range(1, 40):  
    knn = KNeighborsClassifier(n_neighbors=i)  
    knn.fit(X_train, y_train)  
    pred_i = knn.predict(X_val)  
    error.append(np.mean(pred_i != y_val))
```

↑ vector operation!

Print error:



in practice: use geometric grid like 1,2,4,8,...

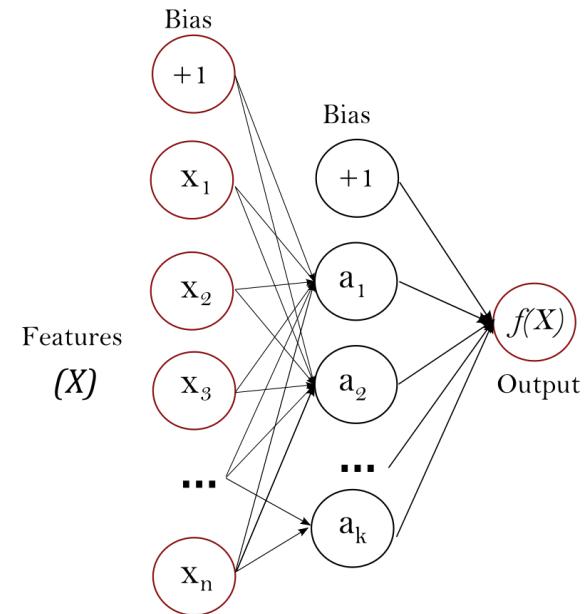
```
plt.figure(figsize=(12, 6))  
plt.plot(range(1, 40), error, color='red', linestyle='dashed', marker='o',  
         markerfacecolor='blue', markersize=10)  
plt.title('Error Rate K Value')  
plt.xlabel('K Value')  
plt.ylabel('Mean Error')
```

Can fit Neural Networks as well, for example a *multilayer perceptron* (MLP) for classification,

```
>>> from sklearn.neural_network import MLPClassifier
>>> X = [[0., 0.], [1., 1.]]
>>> y = [0, 1]
>>> clf = MLPClassifier(solver='lbfgs', alpha=1e-5,
...                      hidden_layer_sizes=(5, 2), random_state=1)
...
>>> clf.fit(X, y)
MLPClassifier(alpha=1e-05, hidden_layer_sizes=(5, 2), random_state=1,
              solver='lbfgs')
```

Now do some prediction on new data...

```
>>> clf.predict([[2., 2.], [-1., -2.]])
array([1, 0])
```



Neural nets for regression too:  
`sklearn.neural_network.MLPRegressor`

## Preprocessing : Z-Score

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Typical ML workflow starts with *pre-processing* or *transforming* data into some useful form, which Scikit-Learn calls *transformers*:

```
>>> from sklearn.preprocessing import StandardScaler  
>>> X = [[0, 15],  
...       [1, -10]]  
>>> # scale data according to computed scaling values  
>>> StandardScaler().fit(X).transform(X)  
array([[-1.,  1.],  
       [ 1., -1.]])
```

**Example** use this to do standardization in k-NN.

fit(X) returns the object created by StandardScaler() so you can use a series of dot operations!

- Features are standardized independently (columns of X)
- Other transformers live in `sklearn.preprocessing`

# Preprocessing : Z-Score

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```
>>> from sklearn.preprocessing import StandardScaler
>>> data = [[0, 0], [0, 0], [1, 1], [1, 1]]
>>> scaler = StandardScaler()
>>> print(scaler.fit(data))
StandardScaler()
>>> print(scaler.mean_)
[0.5 0.5]
>>> print(scaler.transform(data))
[[ -1. -1.]
 [-1. -1.]
 [ 1.  1.]
 [ 1.  1.]]
>>> print(scaler.transform([[2, 2]]))
[[ 3.  3.]]
```

- From k-NN: We learned Standardization
- [Definition] **Standardization**
  - For each feature  $f$ , compute  $\mu_f = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m x_f^{(i)}$ ,  $\sigma_f = \sqrt{\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (x_f^{(i)} - \mu_f)^2}$
  - Then, transform the data by  $\forall f \in \{1, \dots, d\}, \forall i \in \{1, \dots, m\}, x_f^{(i)} \leftarrow \frac{x_f^{(i)} - \mu_f}{\sigma_f}$
- Be sure to keep the “standardize” function and apply it to the test points.
  - Save  $\{(\mu_f, \sigma_f)\}_{f=1}^d$
  - For test point  $x^*$ , apply  $x_f^* \leftarrow \frac{x_f^* - \mu_f}{\sigma_f}, \forall f$

Oftentimes, categorical labels come as strings, which aren't easily modeled (e.g., with Naïve Bayes),

```
>>> le = preprocessing.LabelEncoder()
>>> le.fit(["paris", "paris", "tokyo", "amsterdam"])
LabelEncoder()
>>> list(le.classes_)
['amsterdam', 'paris', 'tokyo']
>>> le.transform(["tokyo", "tokyo", "paris"])
array([2, 2, 1]...)
>>> list(le.inverse_transform([2, 2, 1]))
['tokyo', 'tokyo', 'paris']
```

LabelEncoder transforms these into integer values, e.g. for categorical distributions

fit() is doing the heavy work: create the mapping from string to integers

Can *undo* using inverse\_transform so we don't have to store two copies of the data

Easily do cross validation for model selection / evaluation...

```
>>> from sklearn.datasets import make_regression
>>> from sklearn.linear_model import LinearRegression
>>> from sklearn.model_selection import cross_validate
...
>>> X, y = make_regression(n_samples=1000, random_state=0)
>>> lr = LinearRegression()
...
>>> result = cross_validate(lr, X, y) # defaults to 5-fold CV
>>> result['test_score'] # r_squared score is high because dataset is easy
array([1., 1., 1., 1., 1.])
```

- `sklearn.model_selection`
  - Many split functions: K-fold, leave-one-out, etc.

The `cross_validate` function differs from `cross_val_score` in two ways:

- It allows specifying multiple metrics for evaluation.
- It returns a dict containing fit-times, score-times (and optionally training scores as well as fitted estimators) in addition to the test score.

```
>>> from sklearn.preprocessing import StandardScaler
>>> from sklearn.linear_model import LogisticRegression
>>> from sklearn.pipeline import make_pipeline
>>> from sklearn.datasets import load_iris
>>> from sklearn.model_selection import train_test_split
>>> from sklearn.metrics import accuracy_score
...
>>> # create a pipeline object
>>> pipe = make_pipeline(
...     StandardScaler(),
...     LogisticRegression()
... )
...
>>> # load the iris dataset and split it into train and test sets
>>> X, y = load_iris(return_X_y=True)
>>> X_train, X_test, y_train, y_test = train_test_split(X, y, random_state=0)
...
>>> # fit the whole pipeline
>>> pipe.fit(X_train, y_train)
Pipeline(steps=[('standardscaler', StandardScaler()),
                ('logisticregression', LogisticRegression())])
>>> # we can now use it like any other estimator
>>> accuracy_score(pipe.predict(X_test), y_test)
0.97...
```

↑ calls predict() in the last object in the pipeline

ML workflows can be complicated. Chain tasks into a *pipeline*...

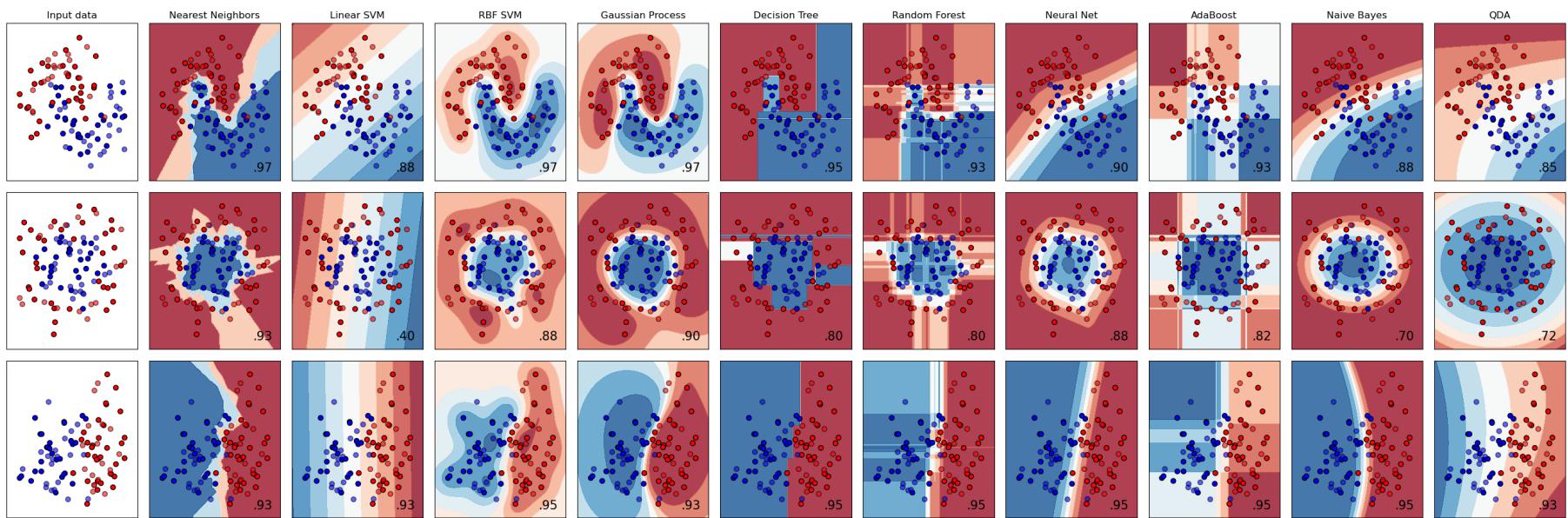
**Example** Standardizes data and fits logistic regression classifier

Nice `train_test_split` helper function

(default: 0.75 - 0.25 split)

- pipeline executes `fit()`/`transform()` functions in sequence!
- The final estimator only needs to implement `fit`.

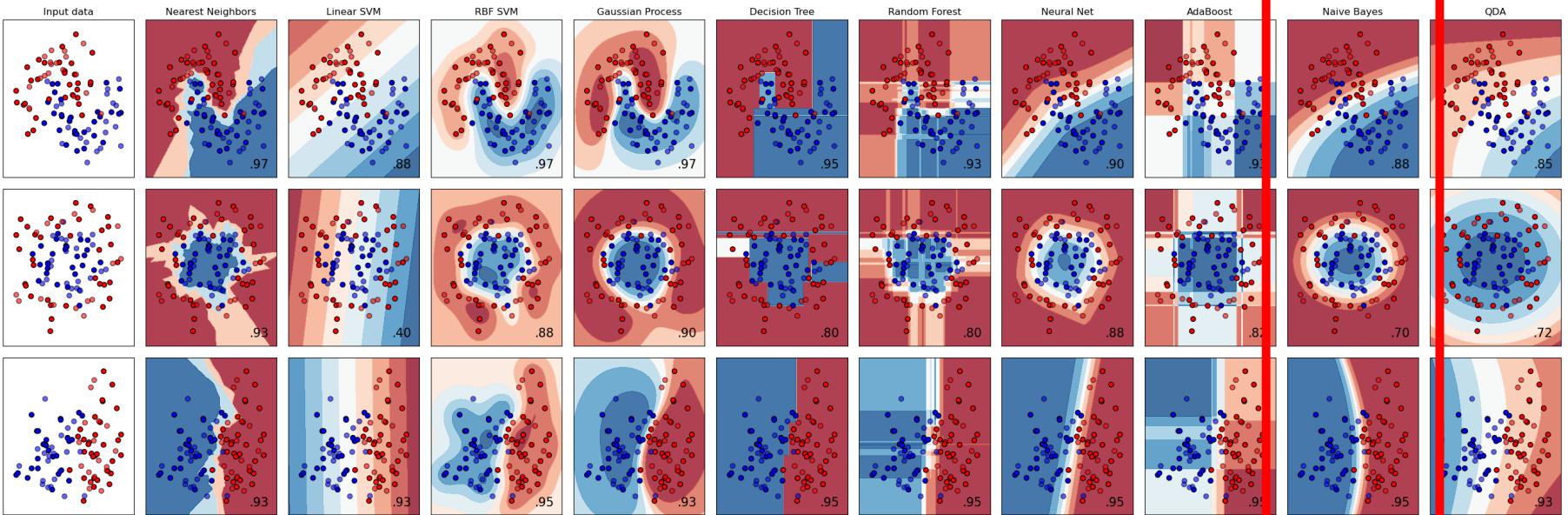
Easily try out *all* the classifiers...



[See full code.](#)

Easily try out *all* the classifiers...

Naïve Bayes



See full code.

# Naïve Bayes Classifier

**Heads Up** This section will return to some math as we go in depth. There will be lots of abstraction. However, much of it is review of MLE that you already know with a new application (Naïve Bayes Classification)

- 1) Ask questions if you are lost**
- 2) Prerequisite/ details like derivative will not be included in your evaluation**

- Introduction to Naïve Bayes Classifier
- Maximum Likelihood Estimation

## Training Data:

Person	height (feet)	weight (lbs)	foot size(inches)
male	6	180	12
male	5.92 (5'11")	190	11
male	5.58 (5'7")	170	12
male	5.92 (5'11")	165	10
female	5	100	6
female	5.5 (5'6")	150	8
female	5.42 (5'5")	130	7
female	5.75 (5'9")	150	9



**Task:** Observe features  $x_1, \dots, x_D$  and predict class label  $y \in \{1, \dots, C\}$

**Model:** Assume that the feature  $x$  and its label  $y$  follows certain type of distribution  $\mathcal{D}$  with parameter  $\theta$ .

$$(x, y) \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \mathcal{D}_\theta$$

**Training Algorithm:** Estimate  $\theta$

(if  $\mathcal{D}$  is gaussian, then  $\theta$  is the mean & var)

**To classify:** Compute

$$\hat{y} = \arg \max_{c \in \{1, \dots, C\}} p(y = c | x; \hat{\theta})$$

what comes after semicolon is the parameter of the distribution  
In this case, think of  $\mathcal{D}_{\hat{\theta}}$

# Naïve Bayes is a Specific Probabilistic Approach 116

**Training Data:**

Person	height (feet)	weight (lbs)	foot size(inches)
male	6	180	12
male	5.92 (5'11")	190	11
male	5.58 (5'7")	170	12
male	5.92 (5'11")	165	10
female	5	100	6
female	5.5 (5'6")	150	8
female	5.42 (5'5")	130	7
female	5.75 (5'9")	150	9



**Task:** Observe features  $x_1, \dots, x_D$  and predict class label  $y \in \{1, \dots, C\}$

**Naïve Bayes Model:** Treat features as *conditionally independent* given class label,

$$p(x, y) = p(y)p(x|y) = p(y) \prod_{d=1}^D p(x_d | y)$$

↑  
build individual models for these

**To classify a given instance  $x$ :** Bayes rule!

$$p(y = c | x) = \frac{p(y = c)p(x | y = c)}{p(x)}$$

$P(y=c)$ : Class prior dist.

$P(x|y=c)$ : class-conditional dist.

**Features are typically not independent!**

**Example 1** If a recent news article contains word “Biden” it is much more likely to contain the word “Joe”.



**Example 2** If the flower petal width is very large then the petal length is also likely to be large.



Source: [Matt Gormley](#)

**Simplifying Assumption:** “*Class conditional*” distribution assumes features are conditionally independent given class

$$p(x | y) = \prod_{d=1}^D p(x_d | y)$$

- “Naïve” as in general features are likely to be dependent.
- Every feature can have a different class-conditional distribution

Doesn’t capture correlation among features. But why would it be a good idea?

- Easy computation: For C classes and D features only  $O(CD)$  parameters
- Prevents overfitting
- Simplicity

## Naïve Bayes Classifier: Class prior parameters 119

For the **class prior distribution**, take categorical distribution. (recall: extension of Bernoulli)

$$y \sim \text{Categorical}(\pi), \quad \pi \in \mathbb{R}^C, \pi_c \geq 0, \sum_c \pi_c = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow p(y = c) = \pi_c$$

*⇒ C parameters for the ‘class prior distribution’*

# Naïve Bayes Classifier: likelihood parameters 120

For real-valued features we can use Normal distribution:

$$p(x | y = c) = \prod_{d=1}^D \mathcal{N}(x_d | \mu_{cd}, \sigma_{cd}^2)$$

Parameters of featured for class  $c$

Q: how many parameters?  
A:  $2 CD$

For binary features  $x_d \in \{0,1\}$  can use Bernoulli distributions:

$$p(x | y = c) = \prod_{d=1}^D \text{Bernoulli}(x_d | \theta_{cd})$$

“Coin bias” for  $d^{\text{th}}$  feature and class  $c$

Q: how many parameters?

- K-valued discrete features: use Categorical.
- Can mix-and-match, e.g. some discrete, some continuous features

$$p(x | y = c) = \prod_{d=1}^{D'} \text{Bernoulli}(x_d | \theta_{cd}) \prod_{d=D'+1}^D \mathcal{N}(x_d | \mu_{cd}, \sigma_{cd}^2)$$

# Naïve Bayes Classifier: Example

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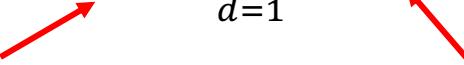
- When class prior distribution, class-conditional distributions are all Bernoulli

Feature	Binary vectors of length K $\mathbf{x} \in \{0, 1\}^K$ e.g.) $\mathbf{x} = (\text{Smoke?}, \text{Military?}, \text{Religion?})$
Assumption	$y = (\text{resident}=0, \text{foreigner}=1)$ $Y \sim \text{Bernoulli}(\phi)$ $X_k \sim \text{Bernoulli}(\theta_{k,Y}) \quad \forall k \in \{1, \dots, K\}$
Model:	$p_{\phi, \theta}(\mathbf{x}, y) = p_{\phi, \theta}(x_1, \dots, x_K, y)$ $= p_\phi(y) \prod_{k=1}^K p_{\theta_k}(x_k   y)$ $= (\phi)^y (1 - \phi)^{(1-y)} \prod_{k=1}^K (\theta_{k,y})^{x_k} (1 - \theta_{k,y})^{(1-x_k)}$

Classify: After training (fix  $\phi$  and  $\theta_{k,y}$ ),  
if  $\mathbf{x}=(1,0,1)$ ,  
substitute  $x1=1$ ,  $x2=0$ ,  $x3=1$   
and compare  $p(\mathbf{x},0)$  and  $p(\mathbf{x},1)$   
if  $p(\mathbf{x},1) > p(\mathbf{x},0)$ , then  
output (prediction) is 1.

Fitting the model requires learning all parameters...

$$p(x | y = c) = p(y = c; \pi) \prod_{d=1}^D p(x_d | \theta_{cd})$$

  
**Class Prior Parameters**      **Likelihood Parameters**

Given training data  $\mathcal{D} = \{(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)})\}_{i=1}^N$  maximize the likelihood function,

$$\theta^{\text{MLE}} = \arg \max_{\pi, \theta} \log p(\mathcal{D}; \pi, \theta)$$

Fitting the model requires learning all parameters...

$$p(x | C_\ell) = p(C_\ell; \pi) \prod_{d=1}^D p(x_d | \theta_{d\ell})$$

**Let's review maximum likelihood estimation...**

Given training data  $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^N$  maximize the likelihood function,

$$\theta^{\text{MLE}} = \arg \max_{\pi, \theta} \log p(\mathcal{D}; \pi, \theta)$$

*Substitute general form of Naïve Bayes distribution and simplify...*

**Maximum Likelihood Estimator (MLE)** as the name suggests, maximizes the likelihood function.

$$\hat{\theta}^{\text{MLE}} = \arg \max_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_N(\theta) = \arg \max_{\theta} \prod_{i=1}^N p(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)}; \theta)$$

**Question** How do we find the MLE?

1. closed-form
2. iterative methods

## Finding the maximum/maximizer of a function 125

Example: Suppose  $f(\theta) = -a\theta^2 + b\theta + c$  with  $a > 0$

It is a quadratic function.

=> finding the 'flat' point suffices

Compute the gradient and set it equal to 0

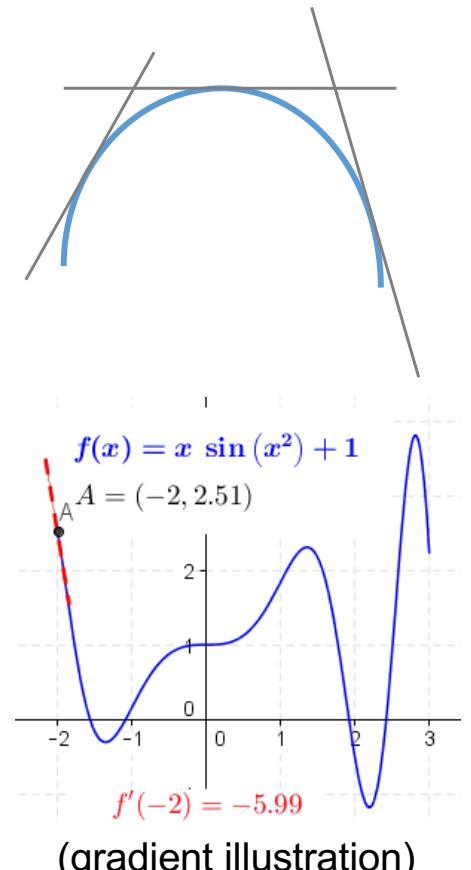
$$f'(\theta) = -2a\theta + b \Rightarrow \theta = \frac{b}{2a}$$

Closed form!

Q: Does this trick work for other functions?

⇒ Yes, for concave functions!

⇒ Roughly speaking, functions that curves down only, never upwards



# Finding the maximum/maximizer of a function 126

What if there is no closed form solution?

Example:  $f(\theta) = \frac{1}{2}x(ax - 2\log(x) + 2)$

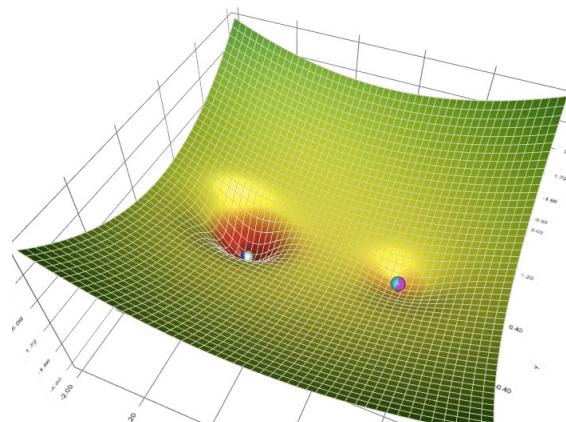
$$f'(\theta) = ax - \log(x)$$

No known closed form for  $ax = \log(x)$

Iterative methods:

- Gradient ascent (or *descent* if you are minimizing)
- Newton's method
- Etc. (beyond the scope of our class)

Iterative methods for **concave** functions  
=> Will find the global maximum  
for **nonconcave**,  
=> usually find a local maximum but could also get stuck at *stationary point*.



Gradient 'descent'

Fitting the model requires learning all parameters...

$$p(x | C_\ell) = p(C_\ell; \pi) \prod_{d=1}^D p(x_d | \theta_{d\ell})$$

Prior Parameters                      Likelihood Parameters

**...OK, back to Naïve Bayes**

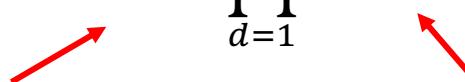
Given training data  $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^N$  maximize the likelihood function,

$$\theta^{\text{MLE}} = \arg \max_{\pi, \theta} \log p(\mathcal{D}; \pi, \theta)$$

*Substitute general form of Naïve Bayes distribution and simplify...*

Fitting the model requires learning all parameters...

$$p(x | y = c) = p(y = c; \pi) \prod_{d=1}^D p(x_d | \theta_{cd})$$

  
Prior Parameters                      Likelihood Parameters

Given training data  $\mathcal{D} = \{(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)})\}_{i=1}^m$  maximize the likelihood function,

$$\theta^{\text{MLE}} = \arg \max_{\pi, \theta} \log p(\mathcal{D}; \pi, \theta)$$

# Naïve Bayes Model : Maximum Likelihood 129

$$\theta^{\text{MLE}} = \arg \max_{\pi, \theta} \log p(\mathcal{D}; \pi, \theta) \quad (\mathcal{D} := \{(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)})\}_{i=1}^m)$$

Since data are iid

$$= \arg \max_{\pi, \theta} \log \prod_{i=1}^m p(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)}; \pi, \theta)$$

$\log(ab) = \log a + \log b$

$$= \arg \max_{\pi, \theta} \sum_{i=1}^m \log p(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)}; \pi, \theta)$$

Conditional probability +  
Naïve Bayes assumption

$$= \arg \max_{\pi, \theta} \sum_{i=1}^m \log p(y^{(i)}; \pi) + \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{d=1}^D \log p(x_d^{(i)} | y^{(i)}; \theta_{y^{(i)} d})$$

$\theta_{cd}$ : parameter for feature d for class c

Find zero-gradient if concave, or gradient-based optimization otherwise

# Example: Naïve Bayes with Bernoulli Features 130

## Analogy:

Roll a biased C-sided die (can be unfair)

$Y =$



Flip D biased coins

$X_1 | Y$



head prb

$\theta_{Y1}$

$X_2 | Y$



$\theta_{Y2}$

...

...

$X_D | Y$



$\theta_{YD}$

$y$	$x_1$	$x_2$	...	$x_D$
5	0	1	1	0
2	1	0	0	0
3	1	1	1	1
4	0	0	1	1
...	...			

Adapted from: [Matt Gormley](#)

## Example: Naïve Bayes with Bernoulli Features 131

Let each feature follow a Bernoulli distribution then the model is...

$$y \sim \text{Categorical}(\pi) \quad x_d | y = c \sim \text{Bernoulli}(\theta_{cd})$$

The Naïve Bayes joint distribution is then:

$$p(\mathcal{D}; \pi, \theta) = \prod_{i=1}^m \left( p(y^{(i)}; \pi) \prod_d p(x_d^{(i)}; \theta_{y^{(i)}d}) \right)$$

*Write down log-likelihood and optimize...*

## Bernoulli Naïve Bayes MLE

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Let  $m_c := \sum_{i=1}^m \mathbf{I}\{y^{(i)} = c\}$  be number of training examples in class  $c$  then,

$$\log p(\mathcal{D}; \pi, \theta) = \sum_{c=1}^C m_c \log \pi_c + \sum_{c=1}^C \sum_{i:y^{(i)}=c} \sum_{d=1}^D \log p(x_d^{(i)}; \theta_{cd})$$

Log-likelihood function is concave in all parameters so...

1. Take derivatives with respect to  $\pi$  and  $\theta$  separately.
2. Set derivatives to zero and solve

$$\hat{\pi}_c = \frac{m_c}{m}$$

Fraction of training  
examples from class  $c$

$$\hat{\theta}_{cd} = \frac{m_{cd}}{m_c}$$

Number of “heads” in  
training set from class  $c$

$$m_{cd} = \sum_{i=1}^m I\{y^{(i)} = c, x_d^{(i)} = 1\}$$

*Scikit-learn has separate classes each feature type*

`sklearn.naive_bayes.GaussianNB`

**Real-valued features**

`sklearn.naive_bayes.MultinomialNB`

Discrete K-valued feature counts (e.g. multiple die rolls, word count for an article)

`sklearn.naive_bayes.BernoulliNB`

**Binary features (e.g. coinflip)**

`sklearn.naive_bayes.CategoricalNB`

Discrete K-valued features (e.g. single die roll)

For large training data that don't fit in memory use Scikit-learn's [out-of-core learning](#)

[https://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/naive\\_bayes.html](https://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/naive_bayes.html)

## Bernoulli Naïve Bayes MLE

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$$\hat{\pi}_c = \frac{m_c}{m}$$

Fraction of training  
examples from class c

$$\hat{\theta}_{cd} = \frac{m_{cd}}{m_c}$$

Number of “heads” in  
training set from class c

What if there are *no* examples of class c in the training set?

$$\hat{\pi}_c = 0$$

Model will never learn to  
guess class c

What if all data points  $i$  in class c has  $x_d^{(i)} = 0$  in the training set?

$$\hat{\theta}_{cd} = 0$$

Model will assign 0 likelihood for test  
data with  $x_d = 1$  for class c  
(i.e.,  $p(x|y = c)$ ).

What does it imply on  $p(y = c|x)$  ?

0!

Training data needs to see every possible outcome for each feature

**Any ideas how we can fix this problem?**

We could add a small constant to prevent zero probabilities...

$$\hat{\pi}_c \propto m_c + \alpha \quad \hat{\theta}_{cj} \propto m_{cj} + \beta \quad \alpha, \beta > 0$$

Pseudocounts  
add- $\alpha$  Smoothing  
Laplace smoothing

Coincides with so-called *Maximum a Posteriori (MAP)* estimate! (as opposed to MLE)

**Bayesian** approach: Place a *prior* distribution over the parameter  $\pi$  and  $\{\theta_{cd}\}$  and then compute the *posterior* mean.

E.g., assume:  $\pi \sim \text{Dirichlet}(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_C)$  and  $y^{(1)}, \dots, y^{(n)} \sim \text{Bernoulli}(\pi)$

(Theorem)  $p(\pi \mid y^{(1)}, \dots, y^{(n)}) = \text{Dirichlet}(m_1 + \alpha_1, \dots, m_C + \alpha_C)$

It follows that  $\mathbf{E}[\pi \mid y^{(1)}, \dots, y^{(n)}] \propto m_c + \alpha_c$

**typical choice: set  $\alpha = \beta = 1$**

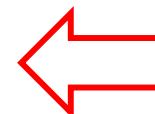
## sklearn.naive\_bayes.BernoulliNB

```
class sklearn.naive_bayes.BernoulliNB(*, alpha=1.0, binarize=0.0, fit_prior=True, class_prior=None)
```

[\[source\]](#)

**alpha : float, default=1.0**

Additive (Laplace/Lidstone) smoothing parameter (0 for no smoothing).



**Beta prior hyperparameter  
set to 0 for MLE**

**binarize : float or None, default=0.0**

Threshold for binarizing (mapping to booleans) of sample features. If None, input is presumed to already consist of binary vectors.

**fit\_prior : bool, default=True**

Whether to learn class prior probabilities or not. If false, a uniform prior will be used.

**class\_prior : array-like of shape (n\_classes,), default=None**

Prior probabilities of the classes. If specified the priors are not adjusted according to the data.

## sklearn.naive\_bayes.GaussianNB

```
class sklearn.naive_bayes.GaussianNB(*, priors=None, var_smoothing=1e-09)
```

[\[source\]](#)

**Parameters:**

**priors : array-like of shape (n\_classes,)**

Prior probabilities of the classes. If specified the priors are not adjusted according to the data.

**var\_smoothing : float, default=1e-9**

Portion of the largest variance of all features that is added to variances for calculation stability.

*New in version 0.20.*



this is to guard against the same kind of error as  
in Bernoulli NB due to all-1s in some features for  
a particular class.

**Bayesian prior on class-conditional variances**

**MLE if set to 0**