# CMSC 471 Fall 2012

#### **Class #23**

#### Thursday, November 15, 2012 Machine Learning II

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# Instance-Based & Bayesian Learning

Chapter 18.8, 20 (parts)

Some material adapted from lecture notes by Lise Getoor and Ron Parr

### **Today's Class**

- Project clarifications
- Extra credit assignment
- Guest lecture
- k-nearest neighbor
- k-means clustering
- Naïve Bayes
- Learning Bayes networks

#### **Instance-Based Learning**

K-nearest neighbor

#### IBL

- Decision trees are a kind of *model*-based learning
  - We take the training instances and use them to build a *model* of the mapping from inputs to outputs
  - This model (e.g., a decision tree) can be used to make predictions on new (test) instances
- Another option is to do *instance*-based learning
  - Save all (or some subset) of the instances
  - Given a test instance, use some of the stored instances in some way to make a prediction
- Instance-based methods:
  - Nearest neighbor and its variants (today)
  - Support vector machines (if you take 671)

#### **Nearest Neighbor**

- Vanilla "Nearest Neighbor":
  - Save all training instances  $X_i = (C_i, F_i)$  in T
  - Given a new test instance Y, find the instance  $X_i$  that is closest to Y
  - Predict class  $C_i$
- What does "closest" mean?
  - Usually: Euclidean distance in feature space
  - Alternatively: Manhattan distance, or any other distance metric





Borrowed from Ben Taskar of UPenn

#### **K-Nearest Neighbor**

- What if the data is noisy?
  - Generalize to k-nearest neighbor
  - Find the *k* closest training instances to *Y*
  - Use majority voting to predict the class label of *Y*
  - Better yet: use weighted (by distance) voting to predict the class label
    - Kernel Regression



#### Unsupervised Learning: Clustering

#### **Unsupervised Learning**

- Learn without a "supervisor" who labels instances
  - Clustering
  - Scientific discovery
  - Pattern discovery
  - Associative learning
- Clustering:
  - Given a set of instances *without labels*, partition them such that each instance is:
    - *similar* to other instances in its partition (intra-cluster similarity)
    - dissimilar from instances in other partitions (inter-cluster dissimilarity)

### **Clustering Techniques**

#### Hierarchical clustering

- Agglomerative clustering
  - Single-link clustering
  - Complete-link clustering
  - Average-link clustering
- Divisive clustering
- Partitional clustering
  - k-means clustering
- Spectral clustering
  - Dimension reduction

# **Agglomerative Clustering**

- Agglomerative:
  - Start with each instance in a cluster by itself
  - Repeatedly combine pairs of clusters until some stopping criterion is reached (or until one "super-cluster" with substructure is found)
  - Often used for non-fully-connected data sets (e.g., clustering in a social network)
- Single-link:
  - At each step, combine the two clusters with the smallest minimum distance between any pair of instances in the two clusters (i.e., find the shortest "edge" between each pair of clusters
- Average-link:
  - Combine the two clusters with the smallest average distance between all pairs of instances
- Complete-link:
  - Combine the two clusters with the smallest *maximum* distance between any pair of instances

#### k-Means

- Partitional:
  - Start with all instances in a set, and find the "best" partition
- k-Means:
  - Basic idea: use expectation maximization to find the best clusters
  - Objective function: Minimize the within-cluster sum of squared distances
  - Initialize k clusters by choosing k random instances as cluster
    "centroids" (where k is an input parameter)
  - E-step: Assign each instance to its nearest cluster (using Euclidean distance to the centroid)
  - M-step: Recompute the centroid as the center of mass of the instances in the cluster
  - Repeat until convergence is achieved

#### **Naïve Bayes**

#### **Naïve Bayes**

- Use Bayesian modeling
- Make the simplest possible independence assumption:
  - Each attribute is independent of the values of the other attributes, given the class variable
  - In our restaurant domain: Cuisine is independent of Patrons, *given* a decision to stay (or not)

#### **Bayesian Formulation**

- $p(C | F_1, ..., F_n) = p(C) p(F_1, ..., F_n | C) / P(F_1, ..., F_n)$ =  $\alpha p(C) p(F_1, ..., F_n | C)$
- Assume that each feature  $F_i$  is conditionally independent of the other features given the class C. Then:  $p(C | F_1, ..., F_n) = \alpha p(C) \prod_i p(F_i | C)$
- We can estimate each of these conditional probabilities from the observed counts in the training data:
   p(F<sub>i</sub> | C) = N(F<sub>i</sub> ∧ C) / N(C)
  - One subtlety of using the algorithm in practice: When your estimated probabilities are zero, ugly things happen
  - The fix: Add one to every count (aka "Laplacian smoothing")

#### Naive Bayes: Example

#### Naive Bayes: Analysis

- Naive Bayes is amazingly easy to implement (once you understand the bit of math behind it)
- Remarkably, naive Bayes can outperform many much more complex algorithms—it's a baseline that should pretty much always be used for comparison
- Naive Bayes can't capture interdependencies between variables (obviously)—for that, we need Bayes nets!

#### Learning Bayesian Networks

## **Bayesian Learning: Bayes' Rule**

• Given some model space (set of hypotheses h<sub>i</sub>) and evidence (data D):

 $- P(h_i|D) = \alpha P(D|h_i) P(h_i)$ 

• We assume that observations are independent of each other, given a model (hypothesis), so:

 $- P(h_i|D) = \alpha \prod_j P(d_j|h_i) P(h_i)$ 

- To predict the value of some unknown quantity, X (e.g., the class label for a future observation):
  - $P(X|D) = \sum_{i} P(X|D, h_i) P(h_i|D) = \sum_{i} P(X|h_i) P(h_i|D)$

These are equal by our independence assumption

### **Bayesian Learning**

- We can apply Bayesian learning in three basic ways:
  - MAP (Maximum A Posteriori) hypothesis: Choose the hypothesis with the highest *a posteriori* probability, given the data
  - MLE (Maximum Likelihood Estimate): Assume that all hypotheses are equally likely *a priori*; then the best hypothesis is just the one that maximizes the likelihood (i.e., the probability of the data given the hypothesis)
  - BMA (Bayesian Model Averaging): Don't just choose one hypothesis; instead, make predictions based on the weighted average of all hypotheses (or some set of best hypotheses)
- **MDL (Minimum Description Length) principle:** Use some encoding to model the complexity of the hypothesis, and the fit of the data to the hypothesis, then minimize the overall description of  $h_i + D$

#### **Learning Bayesian Networks**

- Given training set  $D = \{x[1], ..., x[M]\}$
- Find B that best matches **D** 
  - model selection
  - parameter estimation



#### Data D

#### **Parameter Estimation**

- Assume known structure
- Goal: estimate BN parameters  $\theta$ 
  - entries in local probability models, P(X | Parents(X))
- A parameterization  $\theta$  is good if it is likely to generate the observed data:

$$L(\theta: D) = P(D | \theta) = \prod_{m} P(x[m] | \theta)$$
  
i.i.d. samples

 Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE) Principle: Choose θ\* so as to maximize L

#### **Parameter Estimation II**

- The likelihood **decomposes** according to the structure of the network
  - $\rightarrow$  we get a separate estimation task for each parameter
- The MLE (maximum likelihood estimate) solution:
  - for each value x of a node X
  - and each instantiation *u* of *Parents(X)*



- Just need to collect the counts for every combination of parents and children observed in the data
- MLE is equivalent to an assumption of a uniform prior over parameter values

#### **Sufficient Statistics: Example**



#### **Model Selection**

**Goal:** Select the best network structure, given the data **Input:** 

- Training data
- Scoring function

#### **Output:**

– A network that maximizes the score

#### **Structure Selection: Scoring**

- Bayesian: prior over parameters and structure
  - get balance between model complexity and fit to data as a byproduct

Marginal likelihood

- Score (G:D) = log P(G|D)  $\alpha$  log [P(D|G) P(G)] ullet
- Marginal likelihood just comes from our parameter estimates
- Prior on structure can be any measure we want; typically a • function of the network complexity

#### Same key property: Decomposability

Score(structure) =  $\Sigma_i$  Score(family of  $X_i$ )





#### Variations on a Theme

- Known structure, fully observable: only need to do parameter estimation
- Unknown structure, fully observable: do heuristic search through structure space, then parameter estimation
- Known structure, missing values: use expectation maximization (EM) to estimate parameters
- Known structure, hidden variables: apply adaptive probabilistic network (APN) techniques
- Unknown structure, hidden variables: too hard to solve!

### Handling Missing Data



#### **EM (Expectation Maximization)**

- **Guess** probabilities for nodes with **missing values** (e.g., based on other observations)
- Compute the probability distribution over the missing values, given our guess
- Update the probabilities based on the guessed values
- Repeat until convergence

#### **EM Example**

- Suppose we have observed Earthquake and Alarm but not Burglary for an observation on November 27
- We estimate the CPTs based on the *rest* of the data
- We then estimate P(Burglary) for November 27 from those CPTs
- Now we recompute the CPTs as if that estimated value had been observed
- Repeat until convergence!

