

ARCHER Training Courses

Supervised Learning - Feature Extraction, Feature Selection, Decision Trees, Random Forests



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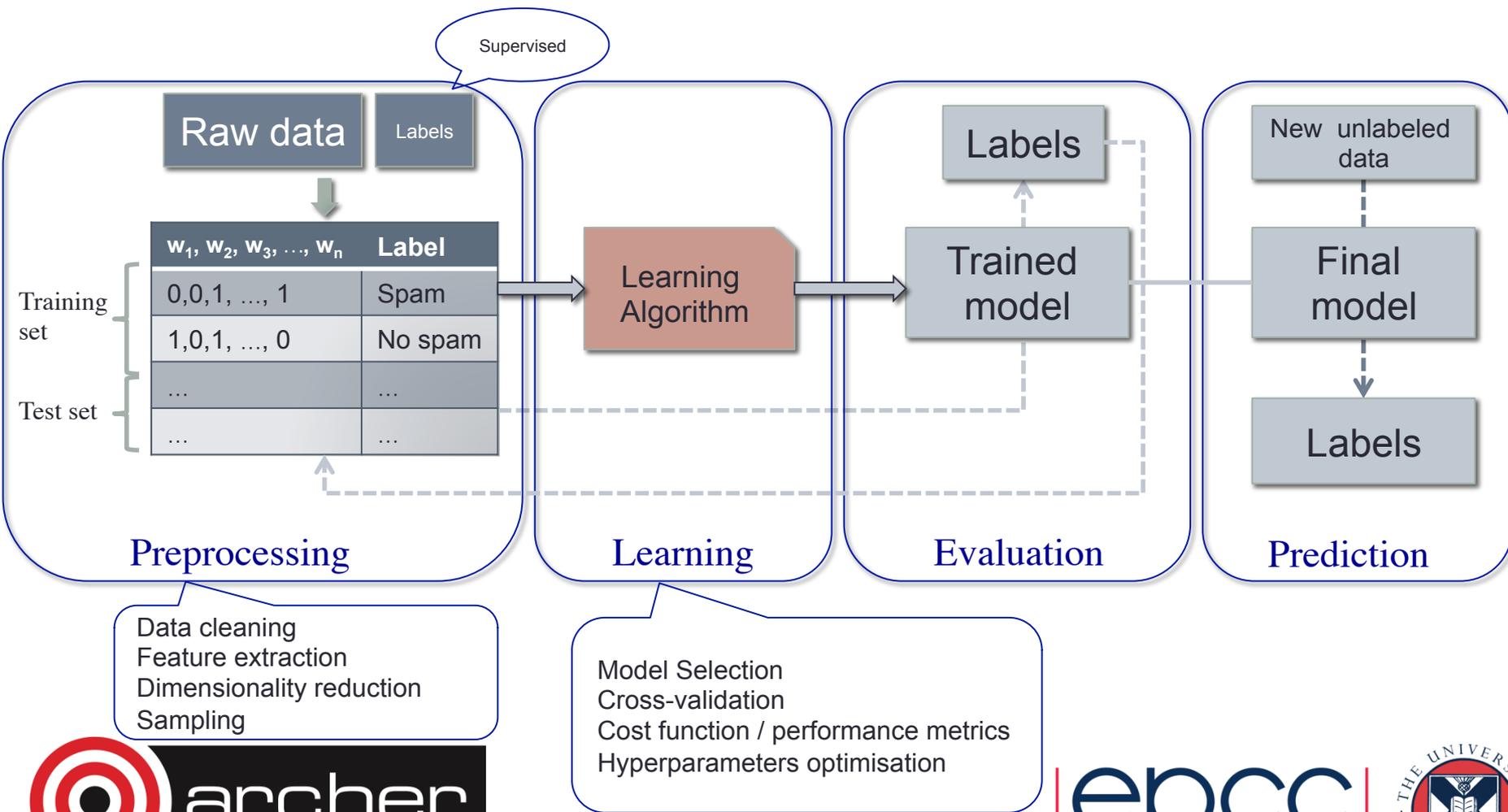


Machine Learning

- **Motivation:** to solve a problem on a computer we need an algorithm to transform an input to an output. For example, we could devise an algorithm for sorting a set of numbers. However, for some tasks we **do not have an algorithm**.
- **Example:** to tell spam emails from legitimate emails.
 - Input: email document
 - Output: spam/not spam
- **What we lack in knowledge, we make up for in data.**
 - We can easily store thousands of example messages (*training set*) which we know to be spam or not spam, and we want the machine to automatically extract the algorithm (learn) for this classification task.
- **Types of Machine Learning:**
 - **Supervised Learning** where there is an input X , and an output Y and the task is to learn the mapping from the input to the output.
 - **Classification:** when Y is a categorical variable (e.g. spam/not spam)
 - **Regression:** when Y is a continuous variable.
 - **Unsupervised Learning:** there is only an input X . The aim is to find regularities/structure in the input space. One method is called *clustering*, where the aim is to find clusters or groupings of input.

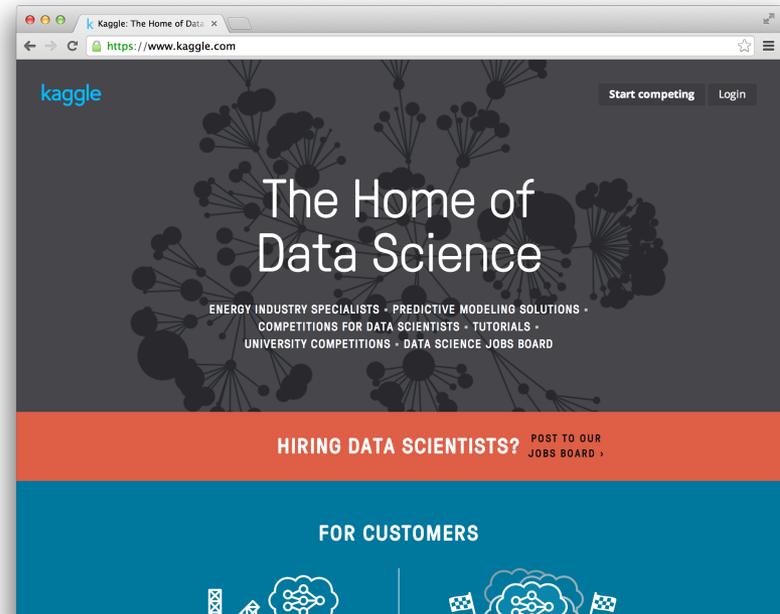


Supervised Machine Learning Classification



Feature extraction and selection

- *“Feature extraction and selection are the most important but underrated steps in machine learning. Better features are better than better algorithms.”*, Will Cukierski, Kaggle

The Kaggle logo, featuring the word "kaggle" in a lowercase, blue, sans-serif font with a trademark symbol.

Example mobile phone data

Outgoing Calls

Date-time

Duration

Number

Country

Customer

Address

Age

Email

Twitter account

Handsets

Date given

Manufacturer

Model

Payments

Date-time

Channel

Amount

Incoming Calls

Date-time

Duration

Number

Country

Contracts

Contracts

Start

End

Duration

Amount

Support events

Date-time

Type {tech, complaint}

Duration

Feature extraction

- Use a domain expert if you have one
 - If you don't have one – find one!
- Features that may be useful to predict churn
 - Average calls per week
 - Average data usage per week
 - Number of calls made abroad in last month
 - Usage of data abroad in last month
 - Number of foreign trips in last 6 months
 - Time left on contract
 - Number of friends (detected through calls and texts) recently churned?
 - Number of positive/negative tweets in last month
 - Number of positive/negative phone related tweets in last month
 - Phone related tweets of friends?



Feature extraction information buckets

- Relevant and useful but impossible to get:
 - Salary, family status
 - Can some of your data be useful proxies for this?
 - Can external data help here?
- Relevant and useful, possible to log, did log.
 - Feature selection will help discover if it is useful.
- Relevant and useful, possible to log, didn't log.
 - Think in advance if you want about what may be useful to log.
- Not relevant or useful, but didn't know that and logged it.
 - Features selection with find this out.
- Not relevant or useful, can't capture it.
 - Don't worry 'bout a thing!



Large number of features

- In late 1990s few domains explored more than 40 features
- Now it is not uncommon for the number of features to be very large:
 - Gene expression:
 - Microarray data says what genes are expressed in a sample (e.g. cancer biopsy)
 - 6,000 to 60,000 genes (features)
 - 100 patients in each category (cancer/non-cancer)
 - Text classification:
 - Bag of words
 - 15,000 effective words (features)
 - x50,000 to 800,000 documents



Feature selection for supervised learning

- Feature selection: choosing features to include in a model
- Why do feature selection?
 - Reduce measurement and storage requirements
 - Reduce time for both training and model utilisation
 - Facilitate visualisation and improve understanding
 - Defy the curse of dimensionality and improve performance
- Not looking to rank individual features but instead find *useful* subsets for building good predictors
 - Relevant features that are highly correlated with features already in a subset would therefore be excluded.
- Ranking may be useful for other tasks:
 - e.g. targeting drug research



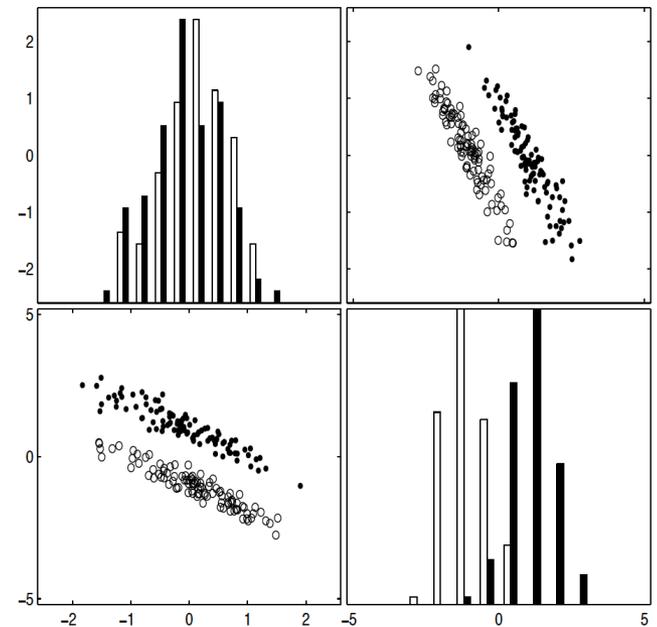
Choosing features

- In a 2003 paper *Introduction to Variable and Feature Selection*, Guyon and Elisseeff classify three approaches to feature selection:
 - Filters
 - Select subsets of variables as pre-processing step before learning.
 - Wrappers
 - Use learning system as black box to score subsets of variables as to their predictive power.
 - Embedded methods
 - Feature selection is an embedded part of the learning algorithm.



Filters

- Rank features according to a metric or statistic
 - This is a proxy measure for the performance of a model and is designed to fast to compute while still being useful
- If we look at all features independently
 - Could miss important interactions
 - Could have redundant features
 - But unless they are absolutely correlated then likely to still be useful
- Example methods:
 - Mutual information
 - Correlation with target variable
 - Significance tests
 - e.g. run linear regression with one feature and look at R-squared or p-values.



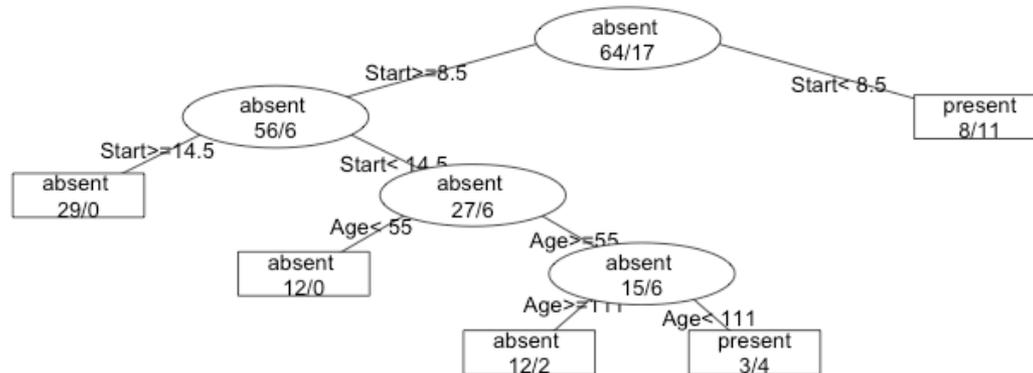
Wrappers

- Use learning system as black box to score subsets of variables as to their predictive power.
- Selection algorithms
 - Forward selection
 - Add features one at a time choosing the one that gives best improvement.
 - Stop when selection criterion fails to improve.
 - Backward elimination
 - Remove features one at a time choosing the one that gives best improvement
 - Stop when selection criterion fails to improve.
 - Combined approach
 - Add a few, remove the worst, repeat.
 - {A} {A,B} {A,B,C} {A,B,C,D} {A,C,D} {A,C,D,E}
- Need to divide training set into two



Embedded Selection: Decision Trees

- Embedded selection:
 - Learning algorithms explicitly selects features
 - E.g. decision tree (classification) or regression tree (prediction)



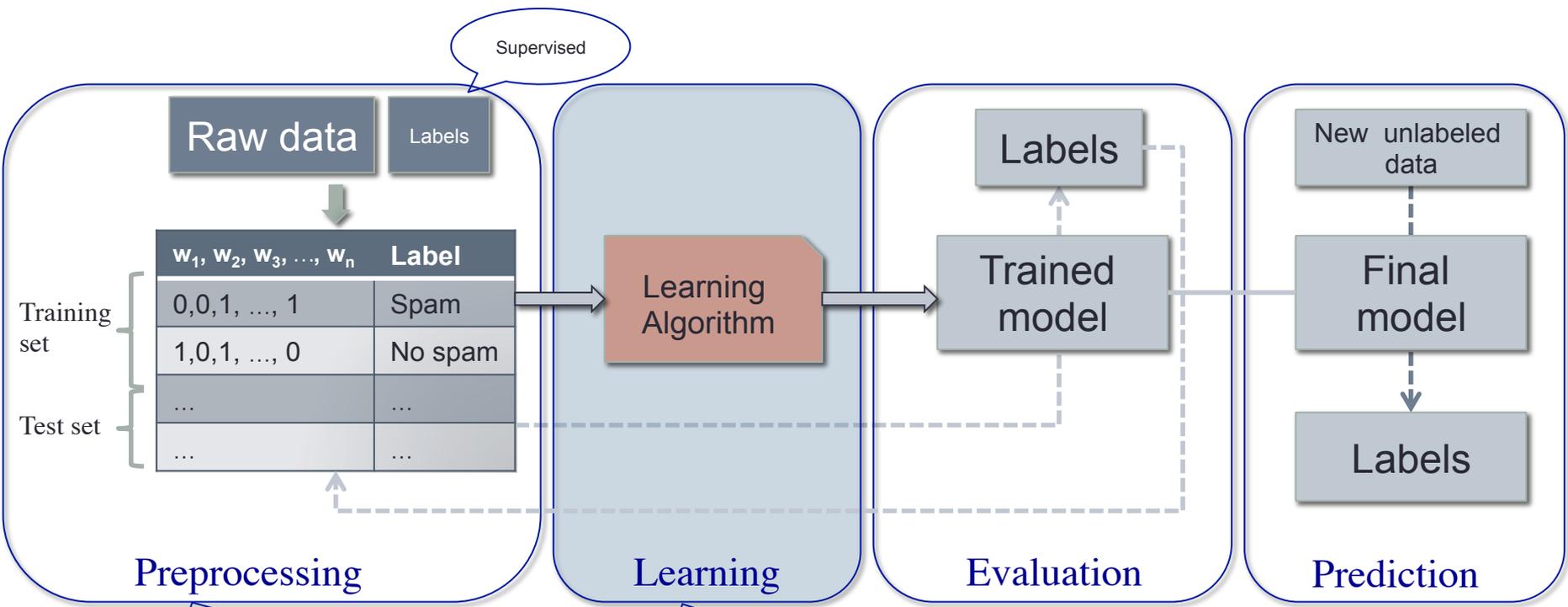
Kyphosis dataset of children who have had corrective back surgery.

Data:

- Kyphosis absent/present
- Age (months)
- Number of vertebrae
- Start vertebra

- Decision trees can be very useful to extract knowledge that humans can understand and act upon.

Supervised Machine Learning Classification



Data cleaning
 Feature extraction
 Dimensionality reduction
 Sampling

Decision Trees:

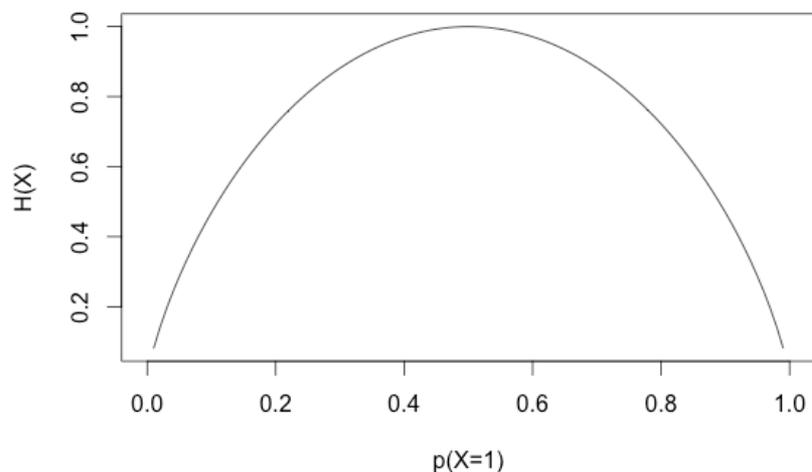
- Embedded Feature selection
- Maximise information gain using entropy to decide the splits



Entropy

- Entropy – measure of disorder or uncertainty.
- For binary event X we define entropy as:

$$H(X) = -p(X = 1) \log_2(p(X = 1)) - p(X = 0) \log_2(p(X = 0))$$



Information gain for a feature

- Define information gain for feature a as the amount of entropy we lose by adding that feature

$$IG(X, a) = H(X) - H(X|a)$$

- Define *specific conditional entropy* as:

$$H(X|a = a_0) = -p(X = 1|a = a_0) \log_2(p(X = 1|a = a_0)) - p(X = 0|a = a_0) \log_2(p(X = 0|a = a_0))$$

- Combine these to get *conditional entropy*:

$$H(X|a) = \sum_{a_i} p(a = a_i) \cdot H(X|a = a_i)$$



Information gain worked example

Random variable: gender

Hat	Glasses	Gender	Hat	Glasses	Gender
T	F	M	T	F	F
F	F	M	T	F	F
F	F	M	T	T	F
F	T	M	F	T	F

$$H(X) = -p(X = M) \log_2(p(X = M)) - p(X = F) \log_2(p(X = F)) = 1$$

$$H(X|\text{hat} = T) = -p(X = M|\text{hat} = T) \log_2(p(X = M|\text{hat} = T)) - p(X = F|\text{hat} = T) \log_2(p(X = F|\text{hat} = T))$$

$$= -0.25 \cdot \log_2(0.25) - 0.75 \cdot \log_2(0.75) = 0.8112781$$

$$H(X|\text{hat} = F) = 0.8112781$$

$$H(X|\text{hat}) = p(\text{hat} = T)H(X|\text{hat} = T) + p(\text{hat} = F)H(X|\text{hat} = F)$$

$$= 0.5 \cdot 0.8112781 + 0.5 \cdot 0.8112781 = 0.8112781$$

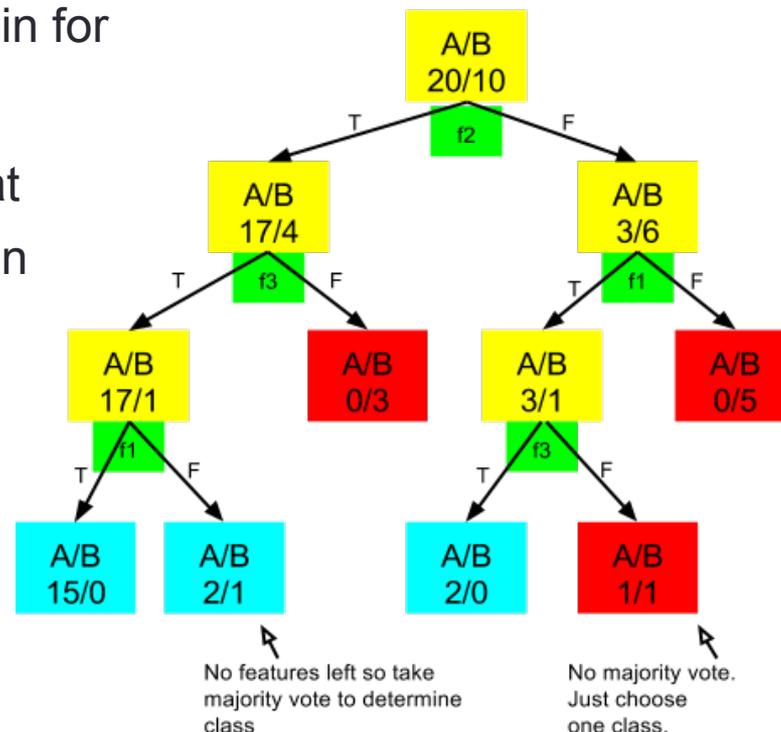
$$IG(X, \text{hat}) = H(X) - H(X|\text{hat}) = 1 - 0.8112781 = 0.1887219$$

$$IG(X, \text{glasses}) = H(X) - H(X|\text{glasses}) = 1 - 0.9508458 = 0.0491542$$



Decision Tree algorithm

- At root node determine the information gain for each feature
- Split the node according to the feature that gives the maximum information gain (given starting entropy for that node)
- Repeat process again for each new node until:
 - All entries in the node are the same class, or
 - All features are used: take a majority vote



- Final tree to often pruned to avoid **over-fitting**



The model learns the noise of the training data and is unable to generalise to unseen data



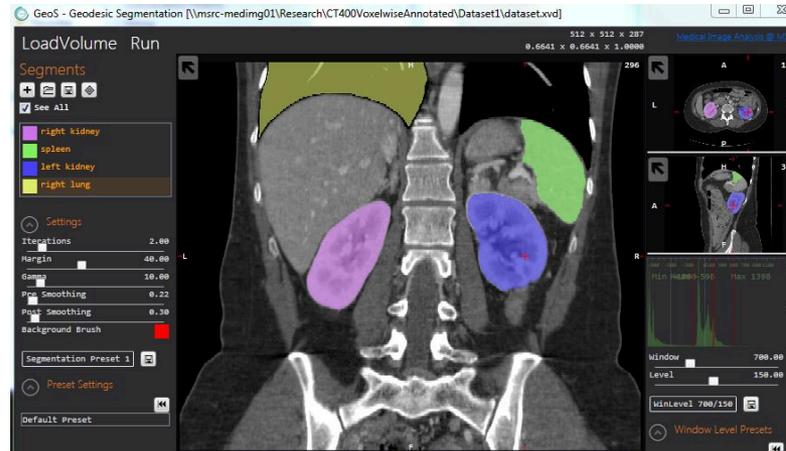
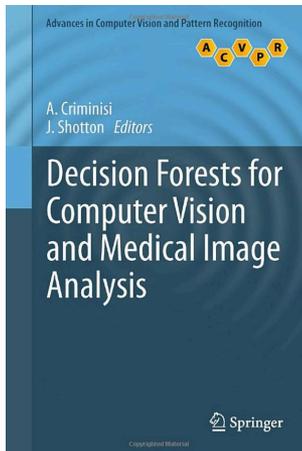
Bagging

- Ensemble algorithms
 - Produce multiple models and then when classifying (or predicting) combine the results of all the models in some way
- Bagging is a popular ensemble algorithm
 - Bagging = Bootstrap AGGregation
 - Bootstrap sampling – sampling with replacement
 - Take bootstrap samples, train multiple models, aggregate results from multiple models
- Aggregation of results:
 - Classification: choose most common class
 - Prediction: average the results
- No need to prune as the sampling and multiple trees prevents over-fitting



Random Forest

- Bagging of decision trees plus one change
- Change to algorithm to select from only a random sample of features at *each node*
- Typically $\text{SQRT}(n)$ where n is the number of features
- Notoriously difficult to understand
- Very popular in medical image analysis and segmentation

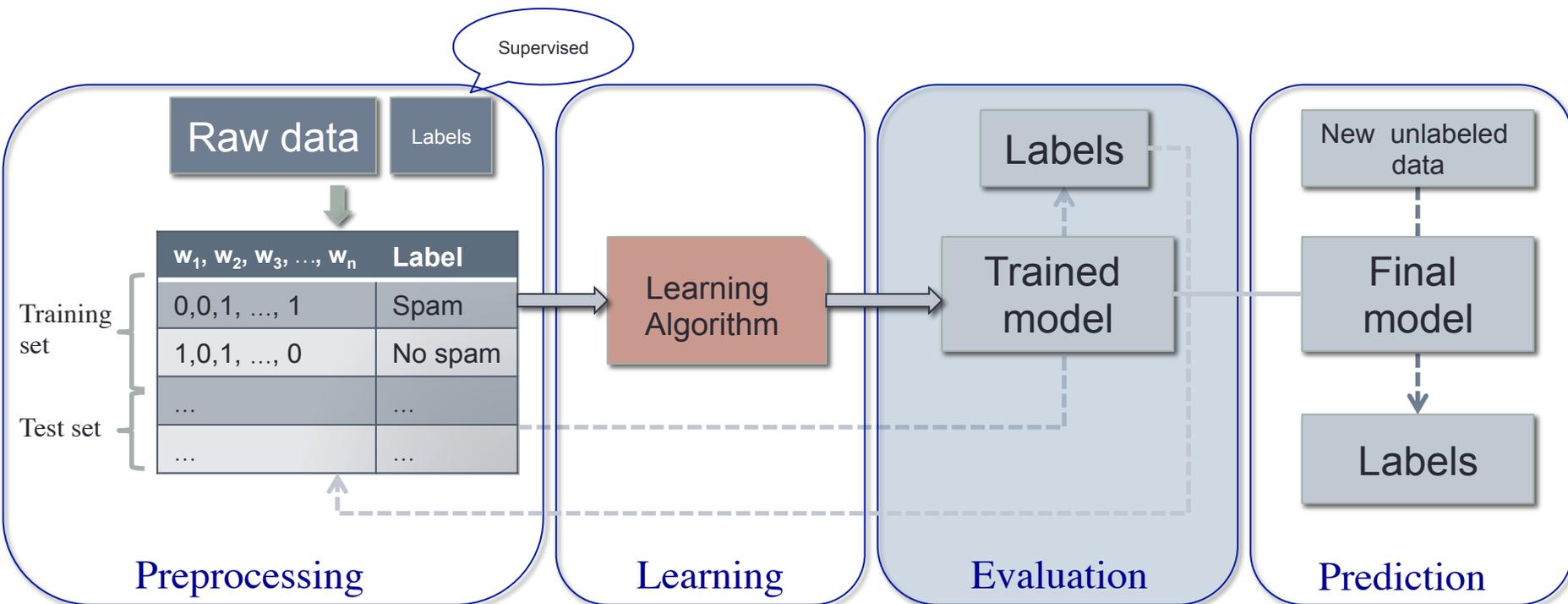


HPC Implications

- For a decision forest can adopt a task parallel approach where the trees are generated in parallel.
- Efficiencies can be made by using a tree-reduction pattern to combine results, $O(\log N)$, rather than a gather-to-master approach, $O(N)$.
- Parallel algorithms exist for building single decision trees
 - These expect many sample and few features (e.g. social science)
 - Microarray data is typically many features and few samples
- Applying the model can also be parallelised
 - Each tree processed in parallel
 - Multiple cases processed in parallel
- GPUs can be used to apply model to images or 3D volumes



Supervised Machine Learning Classification



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Decision Trees:
• Embedded Feature selection
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Evaluation metrics

- Accuracy: fraction of correctly classified cases.
- For binary outcomes, we define TP, FP, FN, and TN as follows:

		Gold Standard	
		True	False
Test Outcome	True	True Positive (TP)	False Positive (FP)
	False	False Negative (FN)	True Negative (TN)

Binary Classification Statistics

- **Accuracy**

- $(TP+TN)/(P+N) = (17+55)/100 = 0.72$

- **Sensitivity (recall, true positive rate):** % of Positives predicted as being positive

- $TP/P = TP/(TP+FN) = 17/20 = 0.85$

- **Specificity (true negative rate):** % of Negatives predicted as being negative

- $TN/N = TN/(FP+TN) = 55/80 = 0.69$

- **Precision (positive predictive value):** % of predicted positives that are True Positives.

- $TP/(TP+FP) = 17/(17+25) = 17/42 = 0.40$

- **Negative predictive value**

- $TN/(TN+FN) = 55/58 = 0.94$

- **F-score:** harmonic mean of precision and recall

- $(2 \times \text{precision} \times \text{recall})/(\text{precision} + \text{recall}) = 0.548$

		Gold Standard	
		True	False
Test	True	TP	FP
	False	FN	TN

	True	False	Total
True	17	25	42
False	3	55	58
Total	20	80	100



ROC curve

- Receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve
 - Sensitivity against (1-specificity)
 - $(1\text{-specificity}) = 1 - \text{TN}/(\text{FP} + \text{TN}) = \text{False Positive rate} = \text{FP}/(\text{FP} + \text{TN})$
- Point on curve dependent on tunable parameter in algorithm
 - On Random Forest, the tunable parameter is the proportion of the trees necessary to predict 1 (positive).
- If the ROC curve is close to the line $y=x$ then the classification algorithm is as good as tossing a coin.
- The area under the curve (AUC) provides an evaluation measure of the classifier:
 - a AUC close to 1 implies a good classifier

