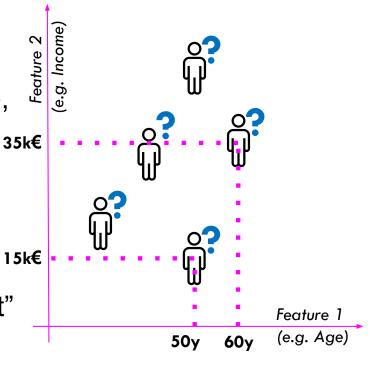
Classification: Basic Concepts and Techniques

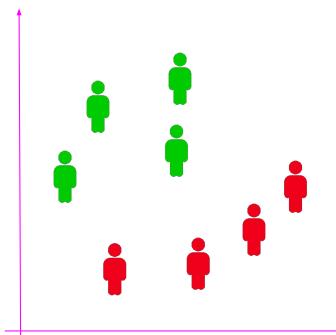
Classification problem

- What we have
 - A set of objects, each of them described by some features
 - people described by age, gender, height, etc.
 - bank transactions described by type, amount, time, etc.
- What we want to do
 - Associate the objects of a set to a class, taken from a predefined list
 - •• "good customer" vs. "churner"
 - "normal transaction" vs.● "fraudulent"
 - "low risk patient" vs. ●"risky"



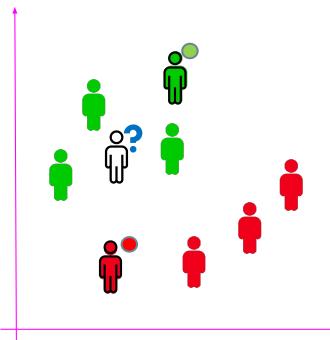
Classification problem

- What we know
 - No domain knowledge or theory
 - Only examples: Training Set
 - Subset of labelled objects
- What we can do
 - Learn from examples
 - Make inferences about the other objects



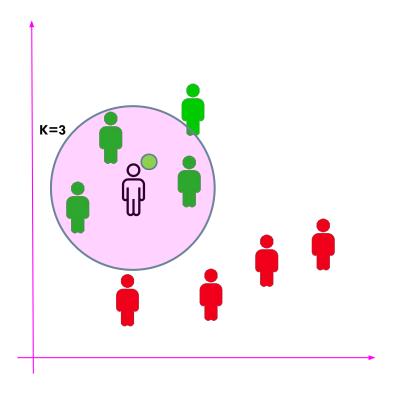
The most stupid classifier

- Rote learner
 - To classify object X, check if there is a labelled example in the training set identical to X
 - Yes □ X has the same label
 - No □ I don't know

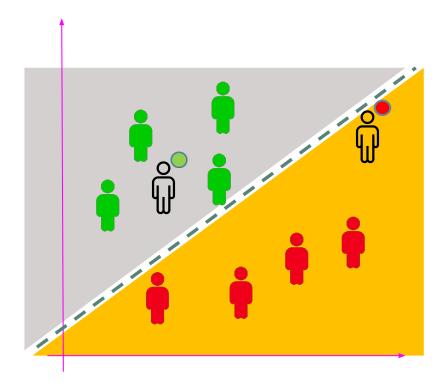


Classify by similarity

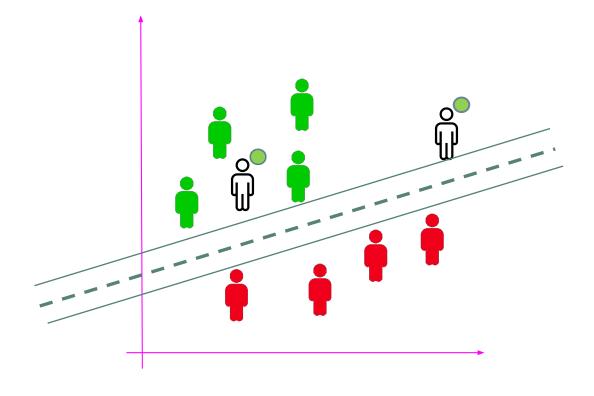
- K-Nearest Neighbors
 - Decide label based on K most similar examples



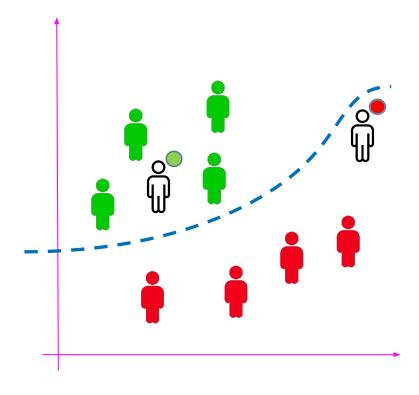
Example 1: linear separation line



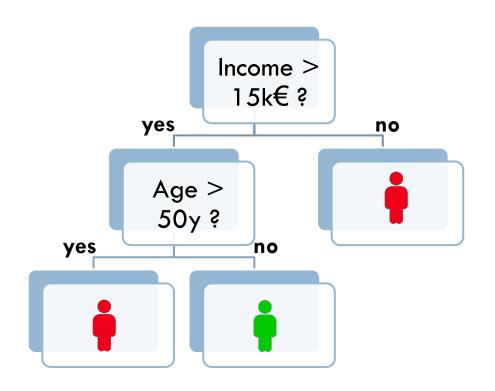
Example 2: Support Vector Machine (linear)

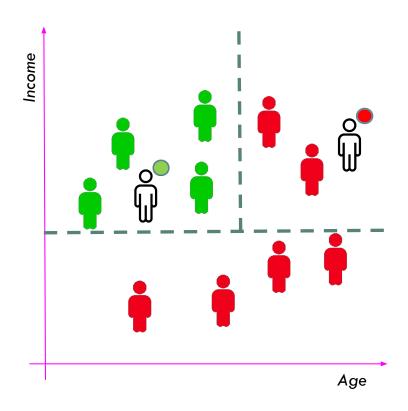


Example 3: Non-linear separation line



Decision Trees





Classification: Definition

- Given a collection of records (training set)
 - Each record is by characterized by a tuple (x,y), where x is the attribute set and y is the class label
 - x: attribute, predictor, independent variable, input
 - y: class, response, dependent variable, output
- Task: Learn a model that maps each attribute set
 x into one of the predefined class labels y
- Goal: <u>previously unseen</u> records should be assigned a class as accurately as possible.
 - A test set is used to determine the accuracy of the model. Usually, the given data set is divided into training and test sets, with training set used to build the model and test set used to validate it.

*

Supervised learning

 Supervised learning refers to problems where the value of a target attribute should be predicted based on the values of other attributes.

 Unsupervised learning (e.g. Cluster analysis) is not concerned with a specific target attribute.

 Problems with a categorical target attribute are called classification, problems with a numerical target attribute are called regression.

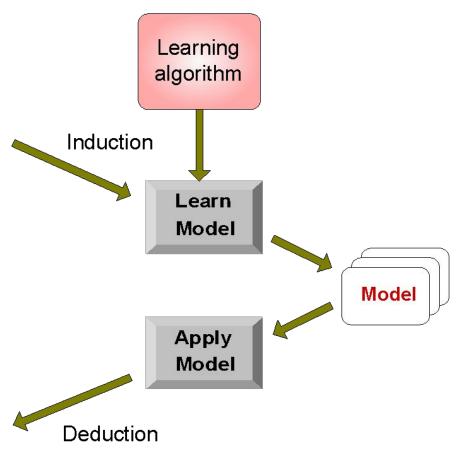
General Approach for Building Classification Model



Training Set

Tid	Attrib1	Attrib2	Attrib3	Class
11	No	Small	55K	?
12	Yes	Medium	80K	?
13	Yes	Large	110K	?
14	No	Small	95K	?
15	No	Large	67K	?

Test Set



Examples of Classification Task

Task	Attribute set, <i>x</i>	Class label, y
Categorizing email messages	Features extracted from email message header and content	spam or non-spam
Identifying tumor cells	Features extracted from MRI scans	malignant or benign cells
Cataloging galaxies	Features extracted from telescope images	Elliptical, spiral, or irregular-shaped galaxies

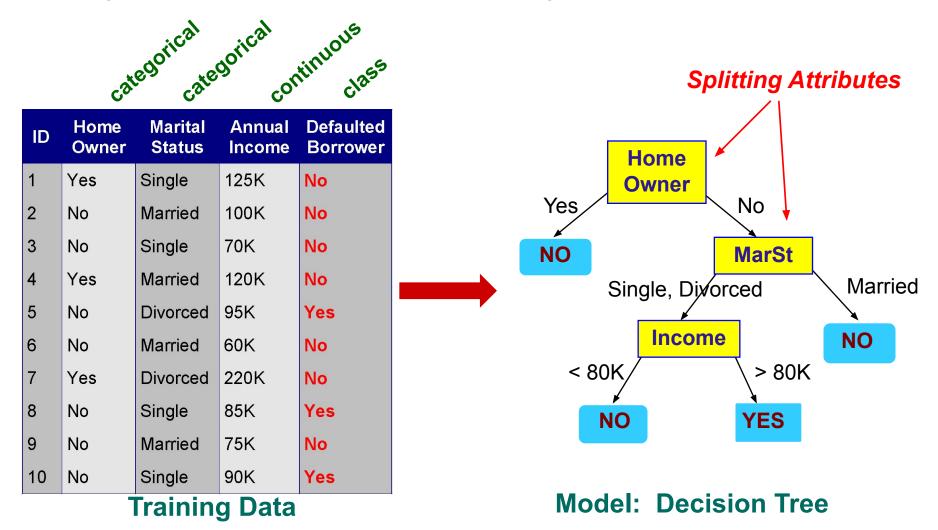
Classification Techniques

- Base Classifiers
 - Decision Tree based Methods
 - Rule-based Methods
 - Nearest-neighbor
 - Neural Networks
 - Deep Learning
 - Naïve Bayes and Bayesian Belief Networks
 - Support Vector Machines
- Ensemble Classifiers
 - Boosting, Bagging, Random Forests

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Example of a Decision Tree

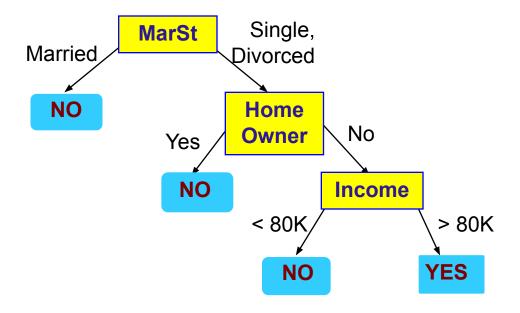
Consider the problem of predicting whether a loan borrower will repay the loan or default on the loan payments.



Another Example of Decision Tree

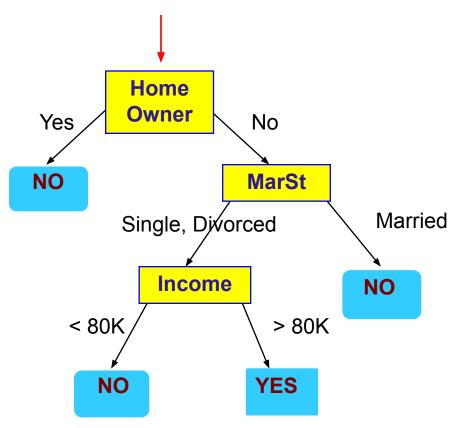
categorical continuous

ID	Home Owner	Marital Status	Annual Income	Defaulted Borrower
1	Yes	Single	125K	No
2	No	Married	100K	No
3	No	Single	70K	No
4	Yes	Married	120K	No
5	No	Divorced	95K	Yes
6	No	Married	60K	No
7	Yes	Divorced	220K	No
8	No	Single	85K	Yes
9	No	Married	75K	No
10	No	Single	90K	Yes



There could be more than one tree that fits the same data!

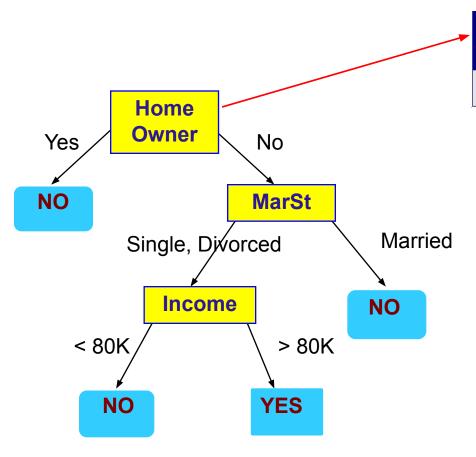
Start from the root of tree.



Test Data

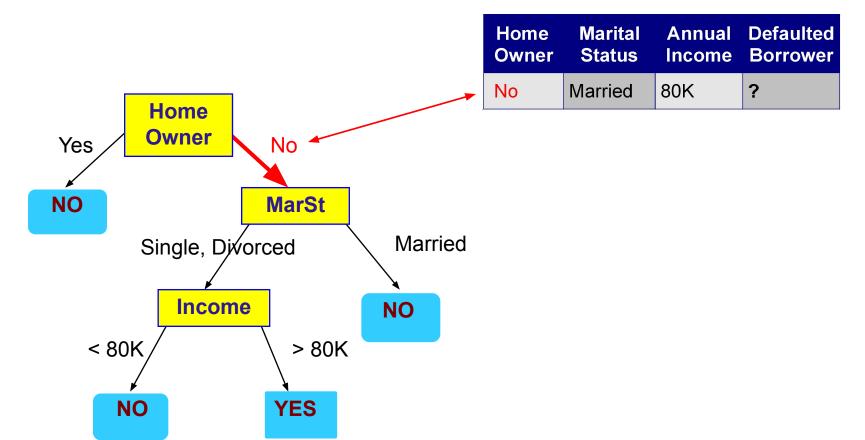
			Defaulted Borrower
No	Married	80K	?

Test Data

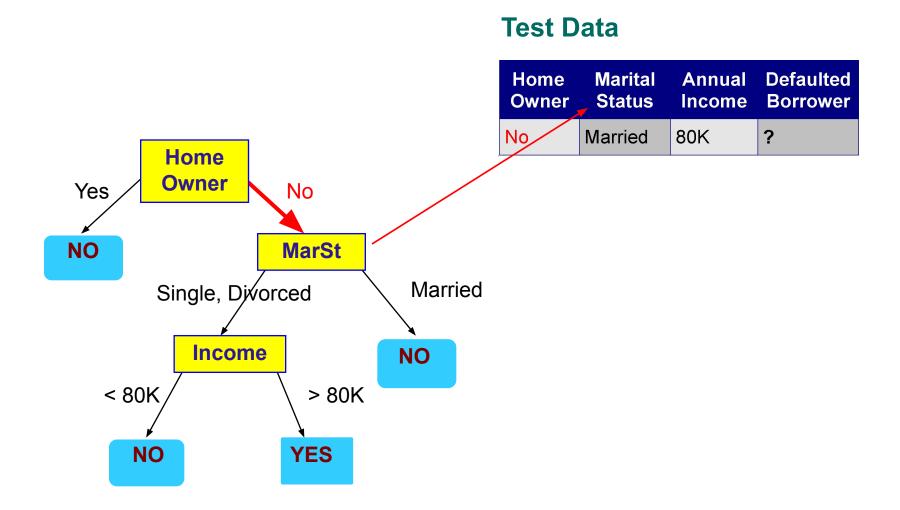


			Defaulted Borrower
No	Married	80K	?

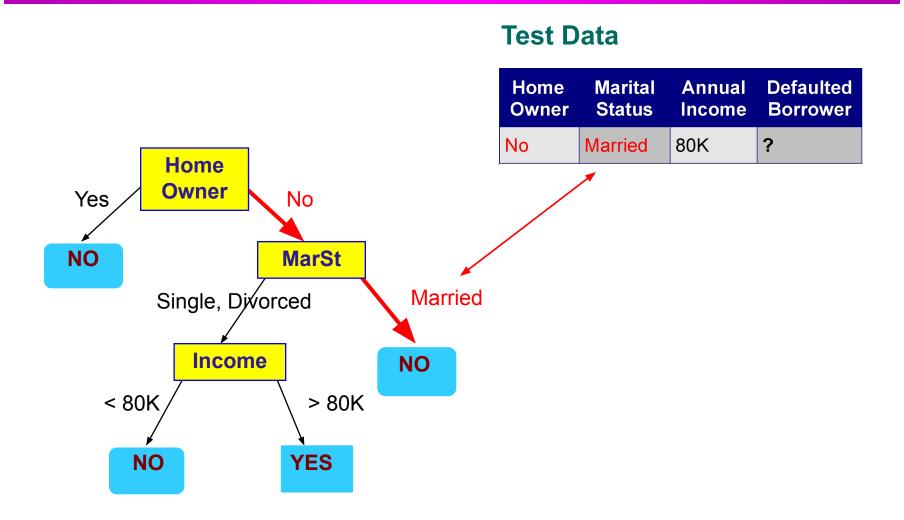
Test Data

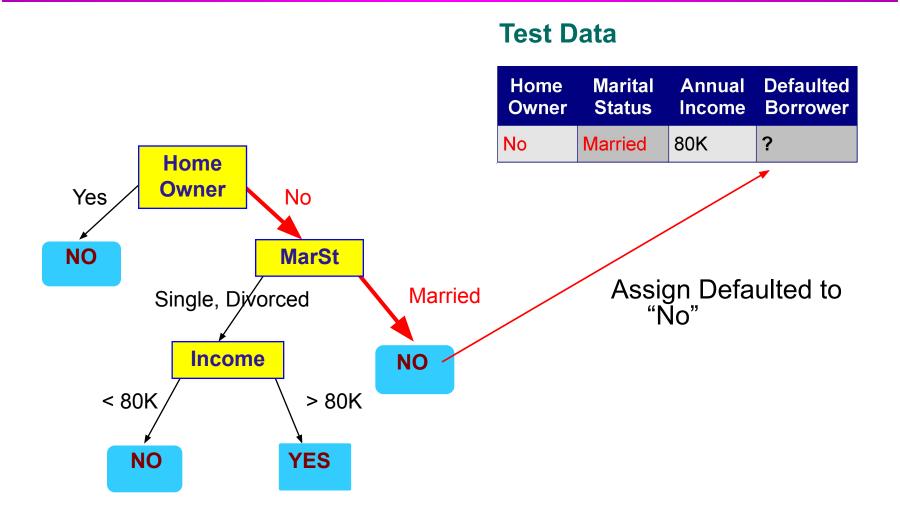


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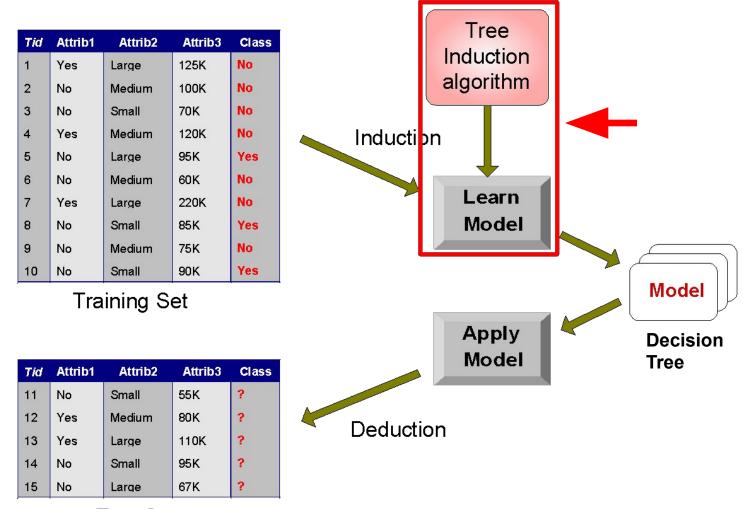


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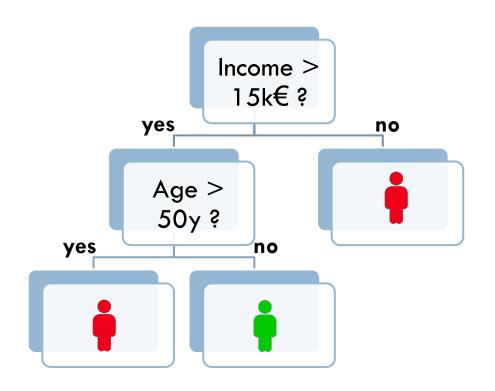


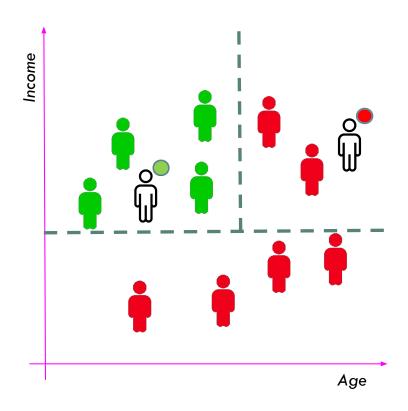
Decision Tree Classification Task



Test Set

Decision Trees





Decision Tree Induction

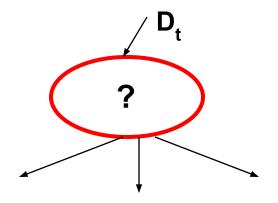
- Many Algorithms:
 - Hunt's Algorithm (one of the earliest)
 - CART
 - ID3, C4.5
 - SLIQ,SPRINT

d

General Structure of Hunt's Algorithm

- Let D_t be the set of training records that reach a node t
- General Procedure:
 - If D_t contains records that belong the same class y_t, then t is a leaf node labeled as y_t
 - If D_t contains records that belong to more than one class, use an attribute test to split the data into smaller subsets.
 Recursively apply the procedure to each subset.

ID	Home Owner	Marital Status	Annual Income	Defaulted Borrower
1	Yes	Single	125K	No
2	No	Married	100K	No
3	No	Single	70K	No
4	Yes	Married	120K	No
5	No	Divorced	95K	Yes
6	No	Married	60K	No
7	Yes	Divorced	220K	No
8	No	Single	85K	Yes
9	No	Married	75K	No
10	No	Single	90K	Yes

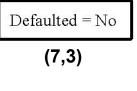


Defaulted = No

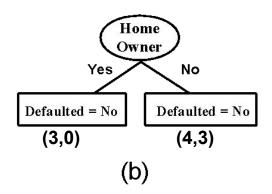
(7,3)

(a)

ID	Home Owner	Marital Status	Annual Income	Defaulted Borrower
1	Yes	Single	125K	No
2	No	Married	100K	No
3	No	Single	70K	No
4	Yes	Married	120K	No
5	No	Divorced	95K	Yes
6	No	Married	60K	No
7	Yes	Divorced	220K	No
8	No	Single	85K	Yes
9	No	Married	75K	No
10	No	Single	90K	Yes

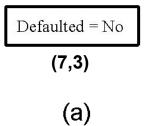


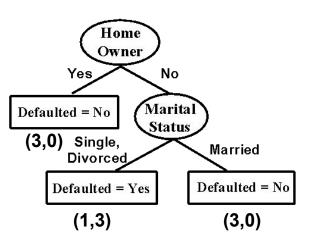




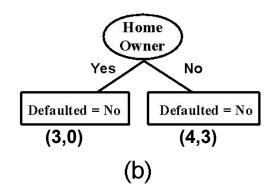
ID	Home Owner	Marital Status	Annual Income	Defaulted Borrower
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7	Yes	Divorced	220K	No
8	No	Single	85K	Yes
9	No	Married	75K	No
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*



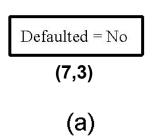


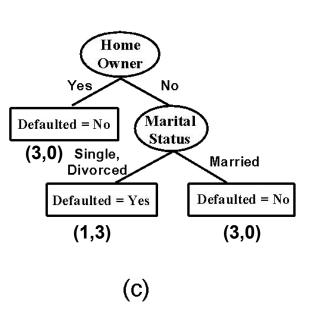
(c)

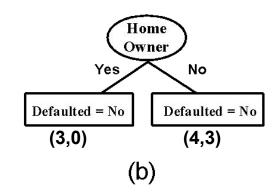


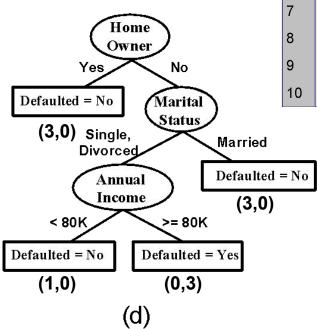
ID	Home Owner	Marital Status	Annual Income	Defaulted Borrower
1	Yes	Single	125K	No
2	No	Married	100K	No
3	No	Single	70K	No
4	Yes	Married	120K	No
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6	No	Married	60K	No
7	Yes	Divorced	220K	No
8	No	Single	85K	Yes
9	No	Married	75K	No
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*









ID	Home Owner	Marital Status	Annual Income	Defaulted Borrower
1	Yes	Single	125K	No
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6	No	Married	60K	No
7	Yes	Divorced	220K	No
8	No	Single	85K	Yes
9	No	Married	75K	No
10	No	Single	90K	Yes

Design Issues of Decision Tree Induction

Greedy strategy:

 the number of possible decision trees can be very large, many decision tree algorithms employ a heuristic-based approach to guide their search in the vast hypothesis space.

 Split the records based on an attribute test that optimizes certain criterion.

*

Tree Induction

How should training records be split?

- Method for specifying test condition
 - depending on attribute types
- Measure for evaluating the goodness of a test condition

How should the splitting procedure stop?

- Stop splitting if all the records belong to the same class or have identical attribute values
- Early termination

How to specify the attribute test condition?

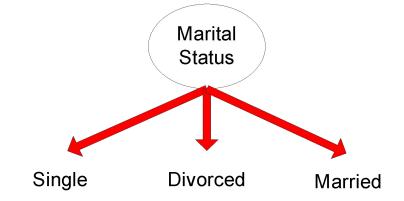
Methods for Expressing Test Conditions

- Depends on attribute types
 - Binary
 - Nominal
 - Ordinal
 - Continuous

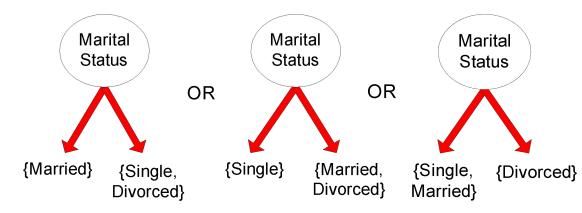
- Depends on number of ways to split
 - 2-way split
 - Multi-way split

Test Condition for Nominal Attributes

- Multi-way split:
 - Use as many partitions as distinct values.



- Binary split:
 - Divides values into two subsets



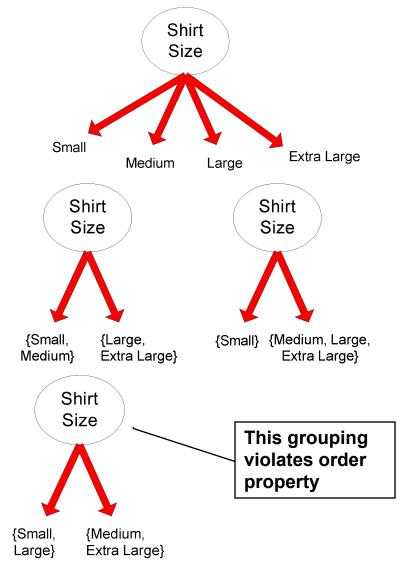
Test Condition for Ordinal Attributes

Multi-way split:

Use as many partitions as distinct values

Binary split:

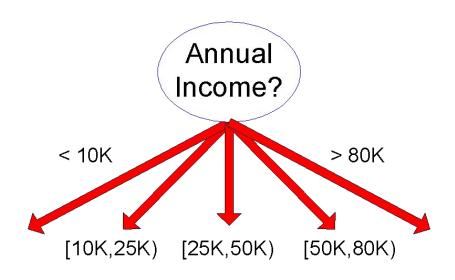
- Divides values into two subsets
- Preserve order property among attribute values



Test Condition for Continuous Attributes



(i) Binary split



(ii) Multi-way split

Splitting Based on Continuous Attributes

- Different ways of handling
 - Discretization to form an ordinal categorical attribute

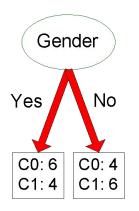
Ranges can be found by equal interval bucketing, equal frequency bucketing (percentiles), or clustering.

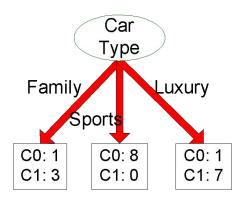
- Static discretize once at the beginning
- Dynamic repeat at each node
- Binary Decision: (A < v) or (A ≥ v)
 - consider all possible splits and finds the best cut
 - can be more compute intensive

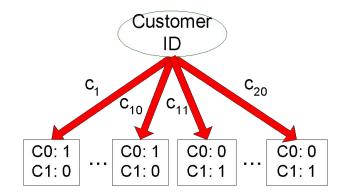
How to determine the Best Split

Before Splitting: 10 records of class 0, 10 records of class 1

Customer Id	Gender	Car Type	Shirt Size	Class
1	M	Family	Small	C0
2	M	Sports	Medium	C0
3	\mathbf{M}	Sports	Medium	C0
4	\mathbf{M}	Sports	Large	C0
5	\mathbf{M}	Sports		
6	\mathbf{M}	Sports	Extra Large	C0
7	\mathbf{F}	Sports	Small	C0
8	\mathbf{F}	Sports	Small	C0
9	\mathbf{F}	Sports	Medium	C0
10	\mathbf{F}	Luxury	Large	C0
11	\mathbf{M}	Family	Large	C1
12	\mathbf{M}	Family	Extra Large	C1
13	\mathbf{M}	Family	Medium	C1
14	M	Luxury	Extra Large	C1
15	F	Luxury	Small	C1
16	\mathbf{F}	Luxury	Small	C1
17	\mathbf{F}	Luxury	Medium	C1
18	\mathbf{F}	Luxury Medium		C1
19	\mathbf{F}	Luxury		
20	\mathbf{F}	Luxury	Large	C1







Which test condition is the best?

Tree Induction

How to determine the best split?

How to determine the Best Split

- Greedy approach:
 - Nodes with purer / homogeneous class distribution are preferred
- Need a measure of node impurity:

C0: 5

C1: 5

High degree of impurity, Non-homogeneous C0: 9

C1: 1

Low degree of impurity, Homogeneous

Measures of Node Impurity

Gini Index

$$GINI(t) = 1 - \sum_{j} [p(j|t)]^{2}$$

Entropy

$$Entropy(t) = -\sum_{j} p(j \mid t) \log p(j \mid t)$$

Misclassification error

$$Error(t) = 1 - \max_{i} P(i \mid t)$$

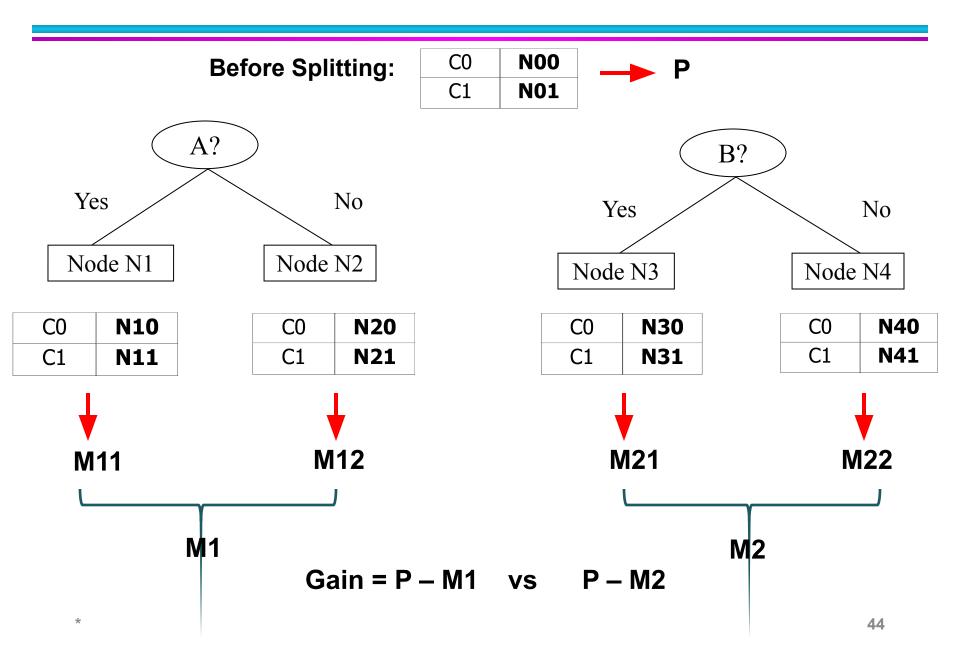
Finding the Best Split

- Compute impurity measure (P) before splitting
- Compute impurity measure (M) after splitting
 - Compute impurity measure of each child node
 - M is the weighted sum of impurity of children
- Choose the attribute test condition that produces the highest gain

Gain = P - M

or equivalently, lowest impurity measure after splitting (M)

Finding the Best Split



Measure of Impurity: GINI

Gini Index for a given node t :

$$GINI(t) = 1 - \sum_{j} [p(j | t)]^{2}$$

(NOTE: p(j | t) is the relative frequency of class j at node t).

- Maximum (1 1/n_c) when records are equally distributed among all classes, implying least interesting information
- Minimum (0.0) when all records belong to one class, implying most interesting information

^

Measure of Impurity: GINI

Gini Index for a given node t :

$$GINI(t) = 1 - \sum_{j} [p(j | t)]^{2}$$

(NOTE: p(j | t) is the relative frequency of class j at node t).

- For 2-class problem (p, 1 - p):

• GINI =
$$1 - p^2 - (1 - p)^2 = 2p (1-p)$$

C1	0
C2	6
Gini=	0.000

C1	3							
C2	3							
Gini=0.500								

Computing Gini Index of a Single Node

$$GINI(t) = 1 - \sum_{j} [p(j | t)]^{2}$$

$$P(C1) = 0/6 = 0$$
 $P(C2) = 6/6 = 1$
 $Gini = 1 - P(C1)^2 - P(C2)^2 = 1 - 0 - 1 = 0$

P(C1) =
$$1/6$$
 P(C2) = $5/6$
Gini = $1 - (1/6)^2 - (5/6)^2 = 0.278$

P(C1) =
$$2/6$$
 P(C2) = $4/6$
Gini = $1 - (2/6)^2 - (4/6)^2 = 0.444$

Gini Index for a Collection of Nodes

When a node p is split into k partitions (children)

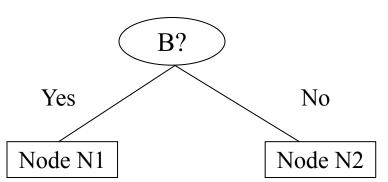
$$GINI_{split} = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{n_i}{n} GINI(i)$$

where, n_i = number of records at child i, n_i = number of records at parent node p.

- Choose the attribute that minimizes weighted average
 Gini index of the children
- Gini index is used in decision tree algorithms such as CART, SLIQ, SPRINT

Binary Attributes: Computing GINI Index

- Splits into two partitions
- Effect of Weighing partitions:
 - Larger and Purer Partitions are sought for.



	Parent
C1	7
C2	5
Gini	= 0.486

Gini(N1)	
$= 1 - (5/6)^2 -$	$(1/6)^2$
= 0.278	

Gini(N2)
=
$$1 - (2/6)^2 - (4/6)^2$$

= 0.444

	N1	N2
C1	5	2
C2	1	4
Gin	i=0.3	61

Weighted Gini of N1 N2 = 6/12 * 0.278 +

= 0.361

Gain = 0.486 - 0.361 = 0.125

Categorical Attributes: Computing Gini Index

- For each distinct value, gather counts for each class in the dataset
- Use the count matrix to make decisions

Multi-way split

	CarType									
	Family	Sports	Luxury							
C1	1	8	1							
C2	3	0	7							
Gini	0.163									

Two-way split (find best partition of values)

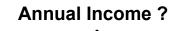
	CarType								
	{Sports, Luxury} {Famil								
C1	9	1							
C2	7	3							
Gini	0.468								

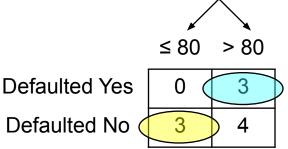
	CarT	уре				
	{Sports}	{Family Luxury}				
C1	8	2				
C2	0	10				
Gini	0.1	67				

Which of these is the best?

- Use Binary Decisions based on one value
- Several Choices for the splitting value
 - Number of possible splitting values= Number of distinct values
- Each splitting value has a count matrix associated with it
 - Class counts in each of the partitions, A < v and A ≥ v
- Simple method to choose best v
 - For each v, scan the database to gather count matrix and compute its Gini index
 - Computationally Inefficient! (O(N²))
 Repetition of work.

ID	Home Owner	Marital Status	Annual Income	Defaulted
1	Yes	Single	125K	No
2	No	Married	100K	No
3	No	Single	70K	No
4	Yes	Married	120K	No
5	No	Divorced	95K	Yes
6	No	Married	60K	No
7	Yes	Divorced	220K	No
8	No	Single	85K	Yes
9	No	Married	75K	No
10	No	Single	90K	Yes

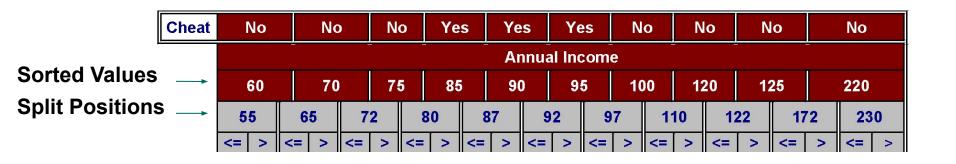




- For efficient computation O(NlogN): for each attribute,
 - Sort the attribute on values
 - Linearly scan these values, each time updating the count matrix and computing gini index
 - Choose the split position that has the least gini index

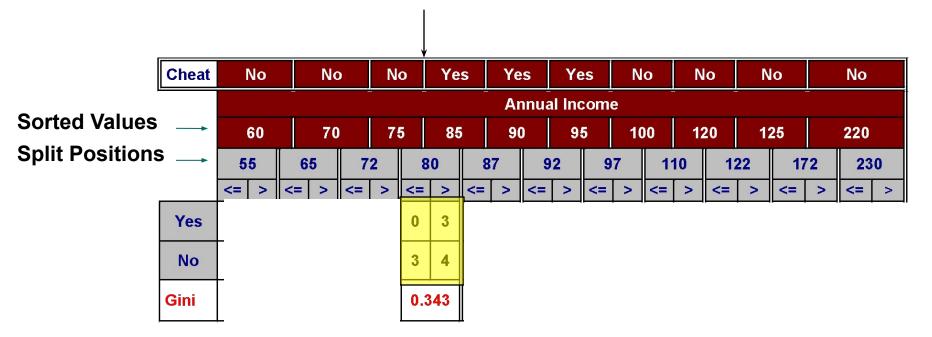
	Cheat	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No
						Annua	al Incom	е			
Sorted Values	→	60	70	75	85	90	95	100	120	125	220

- For efficient computation: for each attribute,
 - Sort the attribute on values
 - Linearly scan these values, each time updating the count matrix and computing gini index
 - Choose the split position that has the least gini index

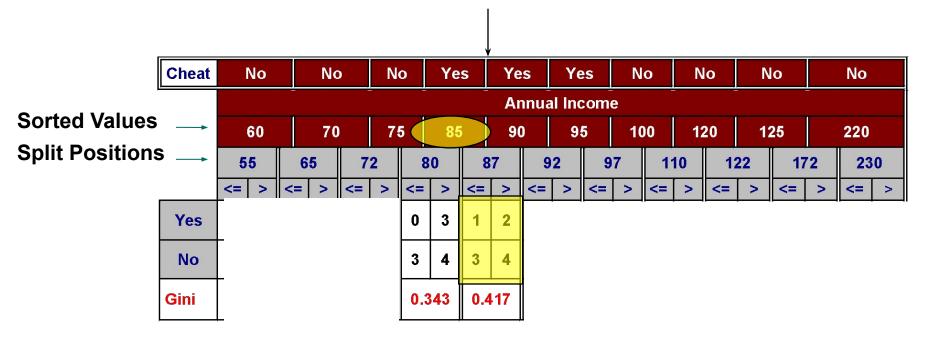


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- For efficient computation: for each attribute,
 - Sort the attribute on values
 - Linearly scan these values, each time updating the count matrix and computing gini index
 - Choose the split position that has the least gini index



- For efficient computation: for each attribute,
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- For efficient computation: for each attribute,
 - Sort the attribute on values
 - Linearly scan these values, each time updating the count matrix and computing gini index
 - Choose the split position that has the least gini index

		No	lo No)	No		Ye	s	Yes		Υє	es No		o	No I		N	No		No		
0 - 4 - 1 \ / - 1			Annual Income																				
Sorted Values	60		70 75		5	85		90 9		5 100		120		125		220							
Split Positions	S —	5	5	6	5	7	2	8	0	8	7	9	2	9	7	11	10	12	22	17	′2	230	
į		<=	>	<=	>	<=	>	<=	>	<=	>	<=	>	<=	>	<=	>	<=	>	<=	>	<=	>
	Yes	0	3	0	3	0	3	0	3	1	2	2	1	3	0	3	0	3	0	3	0	3	0
	No	0	7	1	6	2	5	3	4	3	4	3	4	3	4	4	3	5	2	6	1	7	0
	Gini	0.4	20	0.4	.400 0.375		0.343		0.417		0.400		<u>0.300</u>		0.343		0.375		0.4	00 0.420		20	

Measure of Impurity: Entropy

Entropy at a given node t:

$$Entropy(t) = -\sum_{j} p(j \mid t) \log p(j \mid t)$$

(NOTE: p(j | t) is the relative frequency of class j at node t).

- Maximum (log n_c) when records are equally distributed among all classes implying least information
- Minimum (0.0) when all records belong to one class, implying most information
- Entropy based computations are quite similar to the GINI index computations

Computing Entropy of a Single Node

$$Entropy(t) = -\sum_{j} p(j \mid t) \log_{2} p(j \mid t)$$

$$P(C1) = 0/6 = 0$$
 $P(C2) = 6/6 = 1$
Entropy = $-0 \log 0 - 1 \log 1 = -0 - 0 = 0$

P(C1) = 1/6 P(C2) = 5/6
Entropy =
$$-(1/6) \log_2 (1/6) - (5/6) \log_2 (1/6) = 0.65$$

$$P(C1) = 2/6$$
 $P(C2) = 4/6$
Entropy = - (2/6) $log_2(2/6) - (4/6) log_2(4/6) = 0.92$

Computing Information Gain After Splitting

Information Gain:

$$GAIN_{split} = Entropy(p) - \left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{n_{i}}{n} Entropy(i)\right)$$

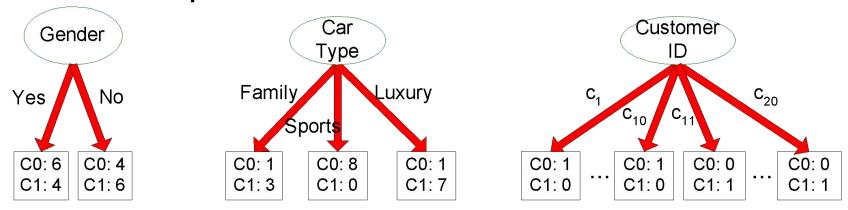
Parent Node, p is split into k partitions; n_i is number of records in partition i

- Measures Reduction in Entropy achieved because of the split. Choose the split that achieves most reduction (maximizes GAIN)
- Used in the ID3 and C4.5 decision tree algorithms
- Disadvantage: Tends to prefer splits that result in large number of partitions, each being small but pure.

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Problem with large number of partitions

 Node impurity measures tend to prefer splits that result in large number of partitions, each being small but pure



- Customer ID has highest information gain because entropy for all the children is zero
- Can we use such a test condition on new test instances?

Solution

- A low impurity value alone is insufficient to find a good attribute test condition for a node
- Solution: Consider the number of children produced by the splitting attribute in the identification of the best split
- High number of child nodes implies more complexity
- Method 1: Generate only binary decision trees
 - This strategy is employed by decision tree classifiers such as CART
- Method 2: Modify the splitting criterion to take into account the number of partitions produced by the attribute

Gain Ratio

Gain Ratio:

$$GainRATIO_{split} = \frac{GAIN_{split}}{SplitINFO} | SplitINFO = -\sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{n_i}{n} \log \frac{n_i}{n}$$

Parent Node, p is split into k partitions n_i is the number of records in partition i

- Adjusts Information Gain by the entropy of the partitioning (SplitINFO).
 - Higher entropy partitioning (large number of small partitions) is penalized!
- Used in C4.5 algorithm
- Designed to overcome the disadvantage of Information Gain

Gain Ratio

Gain Ratio:

$$GainRATIO_{split} = \frac{GAIN_{split}}{SplitINFO} | SplitINFO = -\sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{n_{i}}{n} \log \frac{n_{i}}{n}$$

Parent Node, p is split into k partitions n_i is the number of records in partition i

	CarType		
	Family	Sports	Luxury
C1	1	8	1
C2	3	0	7
Gini	0.163		

	CarType		
	{Sports, Luxury} {Family}		
C1	9	1	
C2	7	3	
Gini	0.468		

$$SplitINFO = 0.72$$

	CarType	
	{Sports}	{Family, Luxury}
C1	8	2
C2	0	10
Gini	0.167	

SplitINFO = 0.97

Measure of Impurity: Classification Error

Classification error at a node t :

$$Error(t) = 1 - \max_{i} P(i \mid t)$$

- Maximum (1 1/n_c) when records are equally distributed among all classes, implying least interesting information
- Minimum (0) when all records belong to one class, implying most interesting information

Computing Error of a Single Node

$$Error(t) = 1 - \max_{i} P(i \mid t)$$

$$P(C1) = 0/6 = 0$$
 $P(C2) = 6/6 = 1$

Error =
$$1 - \max(0, 1) = 1 - 1 = 0$$

$$P(C1) = 1/6$$
 $P(C2) = 5/6$

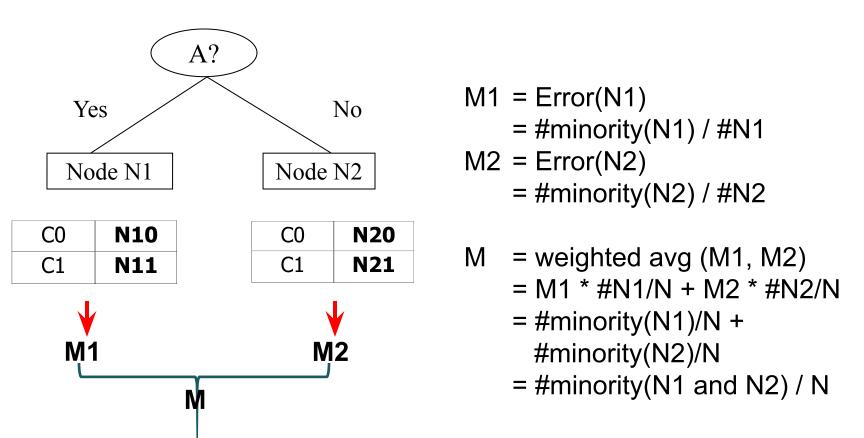
Error =
$$1 - \max(1/6, 5/6) = 1 - 5/6 = 1/6$$

$$P(C1) = 2/6$$
 $P(C2) = 4/6$

Error =
$$1 - \max(2/6, 4/6) = 1 - 4/6 = 1/3$$

Weighted Misclassification Error

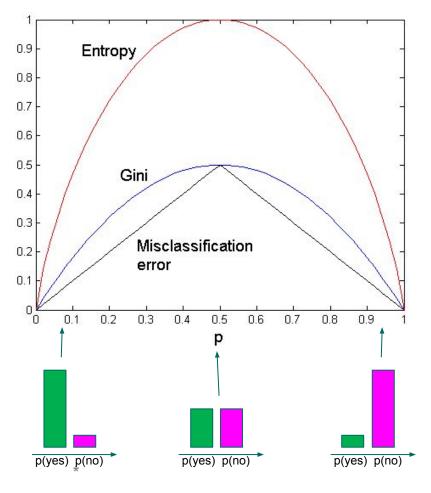
Easy to compute



 The aggregate error M is equivalent to the fraction of errors over both nodes after the split

Comparison among Impurity Measures

For a 2-class problem:

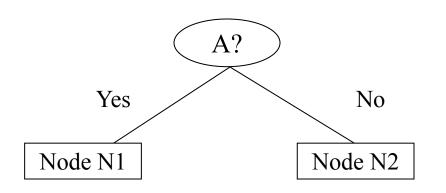


Consistency among the impurity mesures

•if a node N1 has lower entropy than node N2, then the Gini index and error rate of N1 will also be lower than that of N2

The attribute chosen as splitting criterion by the impurity measures can still be different!

Misclassification Error vs Gini Index



	Parent	
C1	7	
C2	3	
Gini = 0.42		

Gini(N1)
=
$$1 - (3/3)^2 - (0/3)^2$$

= 0

Gini(N2)
=
$$1 - (4/7)^2 - (3/7)^2$$

= 0.489

	N1	N2
C1	3	4
C2	0	3
Gini=0.342		

Gini(Children)

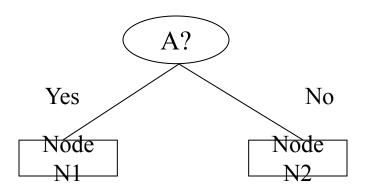
= 3/10 * 0

+ 7/10 * 0.489

= 0.342

Gini improves but error remains the same!!

Misclassification Error vs Gini Index



	Parent	
C1	7	
C2	3	
Gini = 0.42		

	N1	N2	
C1	3	4	
C2	0	3	
Gini=0.342			

	N1	N2	
C1	3	4	
C2	1	2	
Gini=0.416			

Misclassification error for all three cases = 0.3!

Determine when to stop splitting

Stopping Criteria for Tree Induction

 Stop expanding a node when all the records belong to the same class

 Stop expanding a node when all the records have similar attribute values

Early termination (to be discussed later)

Algorithms: ID3, C4.5, C5.0, CART

- ID3 uses the Hunt's algorithm with information gain criterion and gain ratio
- C4.5 improves ID3
 - Needs entire data to fit in memory
 - Handles missing attributes and continuous attributes
 - Performs tree post-pruning
 - C5.0 is the current commercial successor of C4.5
 - Unsuitable for Large Datasets
- CART builds multivariate decision (binary) trees

Advantages of Decision Tree

- Easy to interpret for small-sized trees
- Accuracy is comparable to other classification techniques for many simple data sets
- Robust to noise (especially when methods to avoid overfitting are employed)
- Can easily handle redundant or irrelevant attributes
- Inexpensive to construct
- Extremely fast at classifying unknown record
- Handle Missing Values

Irrelevant Attributes

- Irrelevant attributes are poorly associated with the target class labels, so they have little or no gain in purity
- In case of a large number of irrelevant attributes, some of them may be accidentally chosen during the tree-growing process
- Feature selection techniques can help to eliminate the irrelevant attributes during preprocessing

*

Redundant Attributes

 Decision trees can handle the presence of redundant attributes

 An attribute is redundant if it is strongly correlated with another attribute in the data

 Since redundant attributes show similar gains in purity if they are selected for splitting, only one of them will be selected as an attribute test condition in the decision tree algorithm.

*

Advantages of Decision Tree

- Easy to interpret for small-sized trees
- Accuracy is comparable to other classification techniques for many simple data sets
- Robust to noise (especially when methods to avoid overfitting are employed)
- Can easily handle redundant or irrelevant attributes
- Inexpensive to construct
- Extremely fast at classifying unknown record
- Handle Missing Values

Computational Complexity

- Finding an optimal decision tree is NP-hard
- Hunt's Algorithm uses a greedy, top-down, recursive partitioning strategy for growing a decision tree
- Such techniques quickly construct a reasonably good decision tree even when the training set size is very large.
- Construction DT Complexity: O(M N log N) where M=n. attributes, N=n. instances
- Once a decision tree has been built, classifying a test record is extremely fast, with a worst-case complexity of O(w), where w is the maximum depth of the tree.

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Advantages of Decision Tree

- Easy to interpret for small-sized trees
- Accuracy is comparable to other classification techniques for many simple data sets
- Robust to noise (especially when methods to avoid overfitting are employed)
- Can easily handle redundant or irrelevant attributes
- Inexpensive to construct
- Extremely fast at classifying unknown record
- Handle Missing Values

Handling Missing Attribute Values

- Missing values affect decision tree construction in three different ways:
 - Affects how impurity measures are computed
 - Affects how to distribute instance with missing value to child nodes
 - Affects how a test instance with missing value is classified

Computing Impurity Measure

Tid	Refund	Marital Status	Taxable Income	Class
1	Yes	Single	125K	No
2	No	Married	100K	No
3	No	Single	70K	No
4	Yes	Married	120K	No
5	No	Divorced	95K	Yes
6	No	Married	60K	No
7	Yes	Divorced	220K	No
8	No	Single	85K	Yes
9	No	Married	75K	No
10	?	Single	90K	Yes

Missing value

Before Splitting:

Entropy(Parent)

$$= -0.3 \log(0.3) - (0.7) \log(0.7) = 0.8813$$

	Class = Yes	Class = No
Refund=Yes	0	3
Refund=No	2	4
Refund=?	1	0

Split on Refund:

$$= -(2/6)\log(2/6) - (4/6)\log(4/6) = 0.9183$$

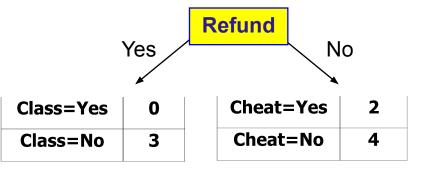
Entropy(Children)

$$= (0.3)(0) + (0.6)(0.9183) = 0.551$$

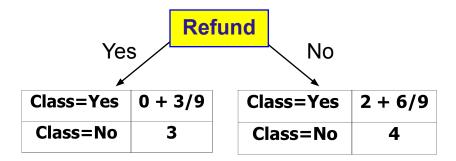
Gain =
$$0.9 \times (0.8813 - 0.551) = 0.3303$$

Distribute Instances

Tid	Refund	Marital Status	Taxable Income	Class
1	Yes	Single	125K	No
2	No	Married	100K	No
3	No	Single	70K	No
4	Yes	Married	120K	No
5	No	Divorced 95K		Yes
6	No	Married	Married 60K	
7	Yes	Divorced 220K		No
8	No	Single	85K	Yes
9	No	Married 75K		No



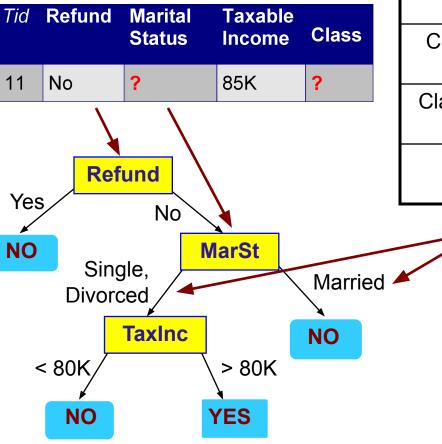
Tid Refund			Taxable Income Class	
10	?	Single	90K	Yes



Probability that Refund=Yes is 3/9
Probability that Refund=No is 6/9
Assign record to the left child with weight = 3/9 and to the right child with weight = 6/9

Classify Instances

New record:



	Married	Single	Divorced	Total
Class=No	3	1	0	4
Class=Yes	6/9	1	1	2.67
Total	3.67	2	1	6.67

Probabilistic split method (C4.5)

Probability that Marital Status

= Married is 3.67/6.67

Probability that Marital Status

={Single,Divorced} is 3/6.67

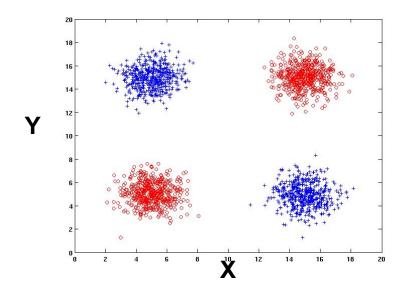
Disadvantages

- Space of possible decision trees is exponentially large.
 Greedy approaches are often unable to find the best tree.
- Does not take into account interactions between attributes
- Each decision boundary involves only a single attribute

*

Handling interactions

Interacting attributes: able to distinguish between classes when used together, but individually they provide little or no information.



+: 1000 instances

o: 1000 instances

Test Condition:

 $X \le 10$ and $Y \le 10$

Entropy (X): 0.99

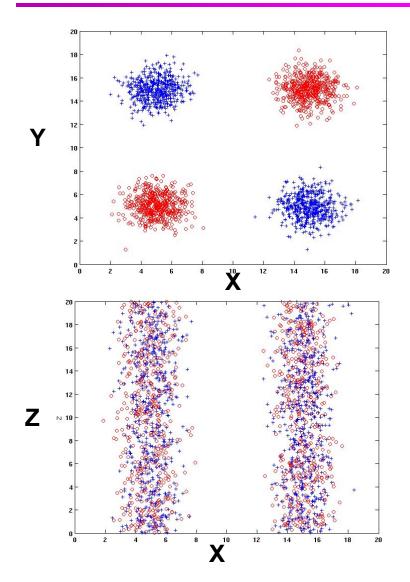
Entropy (Y): 0.99



No reduction in the impurity measure when used individually

*

Handling interactions



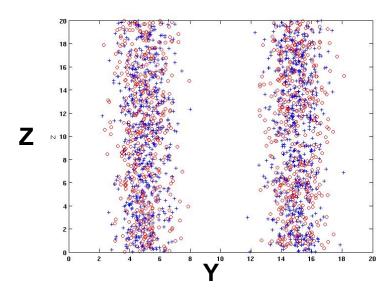
+: 1000 instances

o: 1000 instances

Adding Z as a noisy attribute generated from a uniform distribution

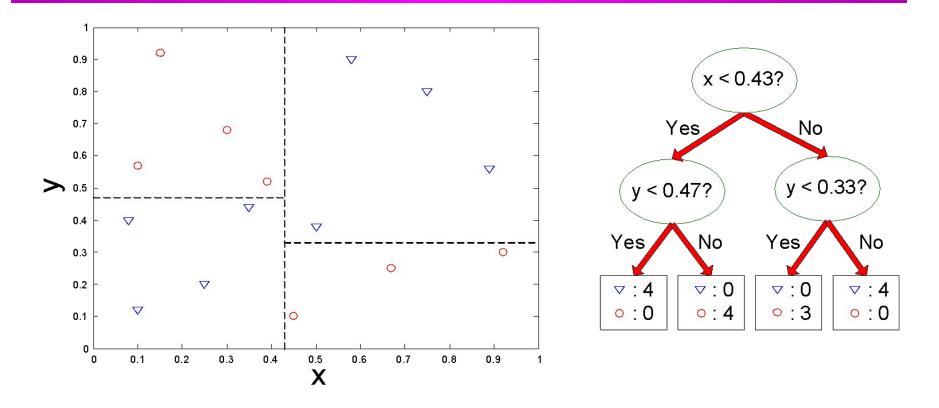
Entropy (X): 0.99 Entropy (Y): 0.99 Entropy (Z): 0.98

Attribute Z will be chosen for splitting!



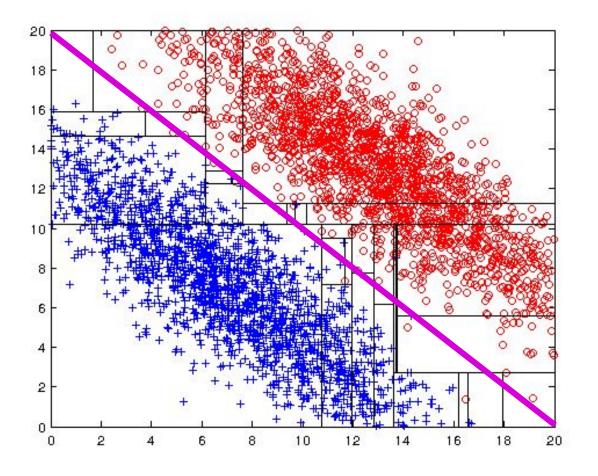
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Decision Boundary



- Border line between two neighboring regions of different classes is known as decision boundary
- Decision boundary is parallel to axes because test condition involves a single attribute at-a-time

Limitations of single attribute-based decision boundaries

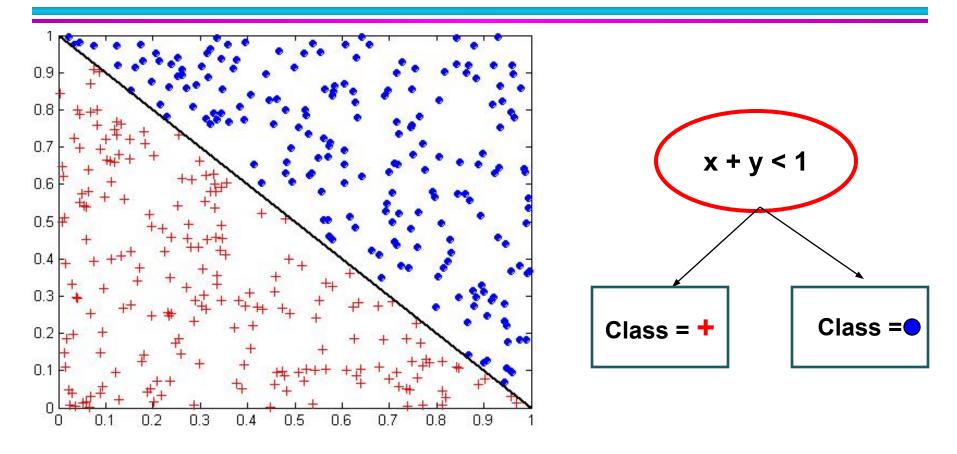


Both positive (+) and negative (o) classes generated from skewed Gaussians with centers at (8,8) and (12,12) respectively.

Test Condition x + y < 20

*

Oblique Decision Trees



- Test condition may involve multiple attributes
- More expressive representation
- Finding optimal test condition is computationally expensive

Data Fragmentation

 Number of instances gets smaller as you traverse down the tree

 Number of instances at the leaf nodes could be too small to make any statistically significant decision

- Solution: constrain the splittable nodes by
 - min. number of objects in each leaf
 - number nodes / leaves in the tree

Practical Issues of Classification

Underfitting and Overfitting

Costs of Classification

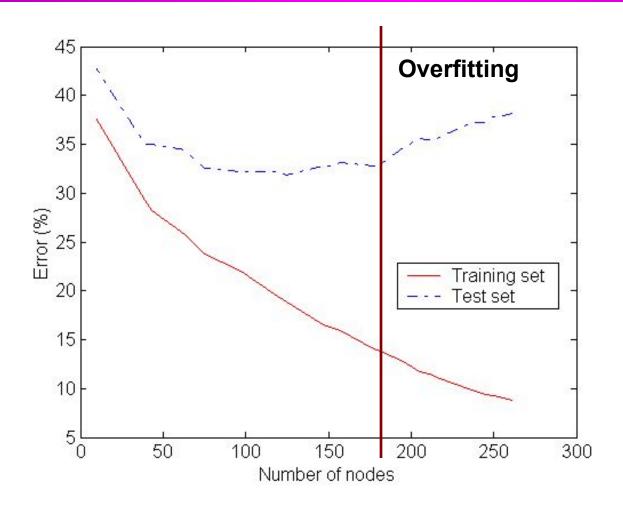
Classification Errors

- Training errors (apparent errors)
 - Errors committed on the training set

- Test errors
 - Errors committed on the test set

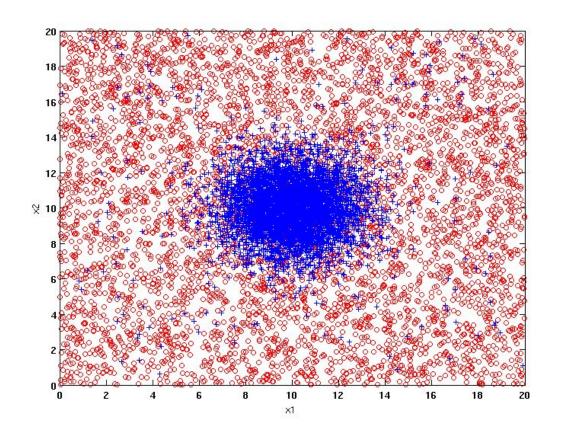
- Generalization errors
 - Expected error of a model over random selection of records from same distribution

Underfitting and Overfitting



Underfitting: when model is too simple, both training and test errors are large

Example Data Set

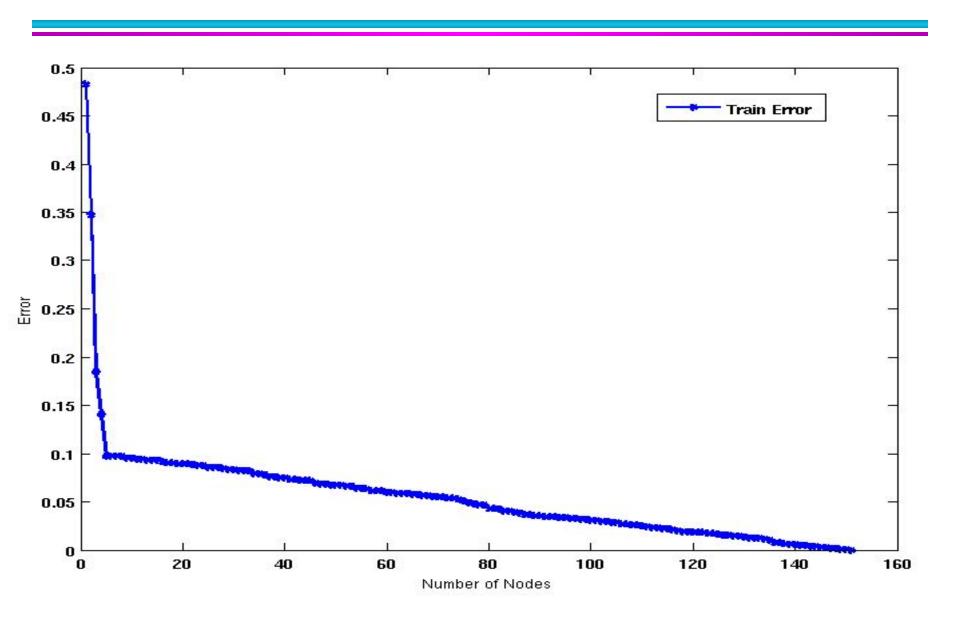


Two class problem:

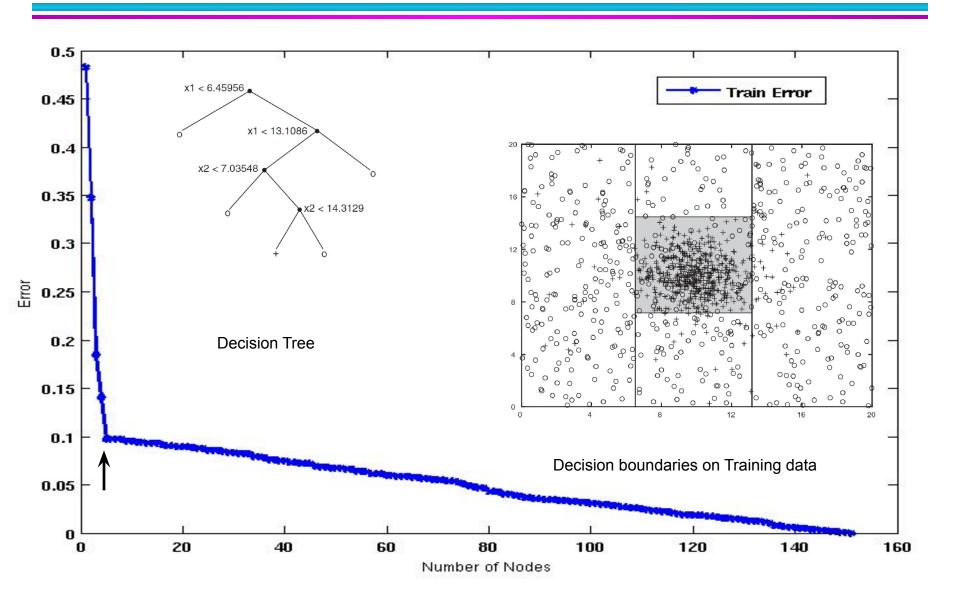
- +: 5200 instances
- 5000 instances generated from a Gaussian centered at (10,10)
- 200 noisy instances added
- o: 5200 instances
- Generated from a uniform distribution

10 % of the data used for training and 90% of the data used for testing

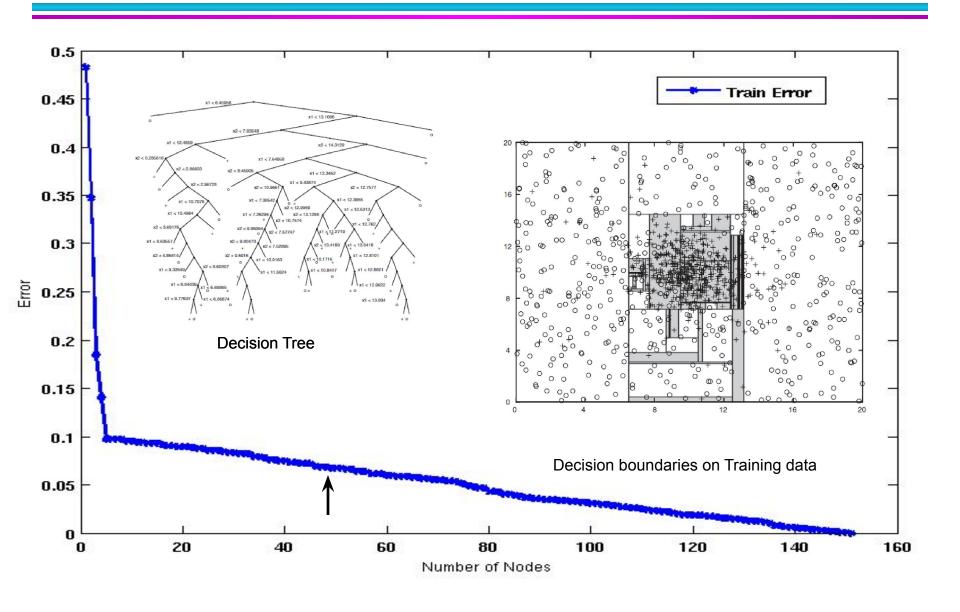
Increasing number of nodes in Decision Trees



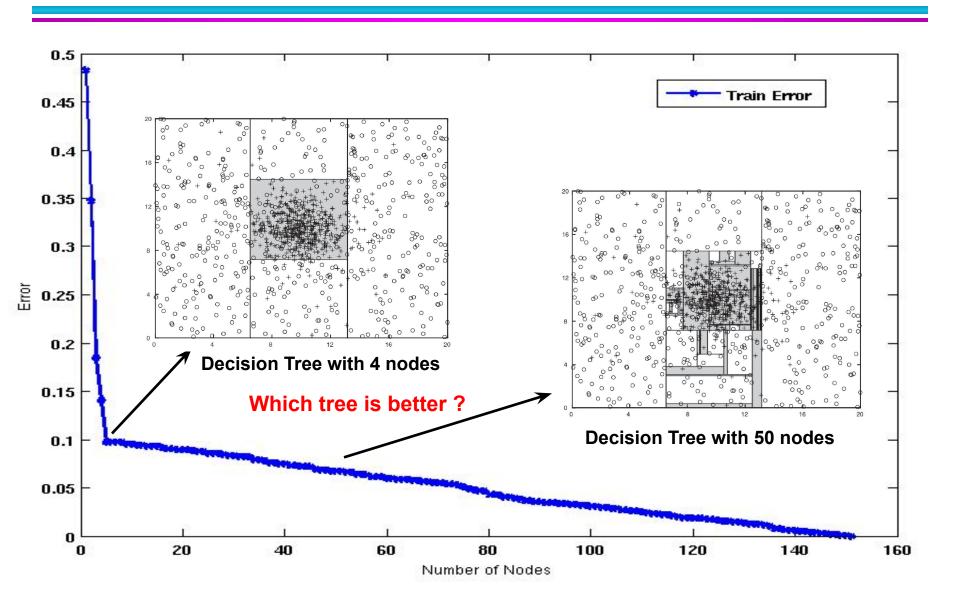
Decision Tree with 4 nodes



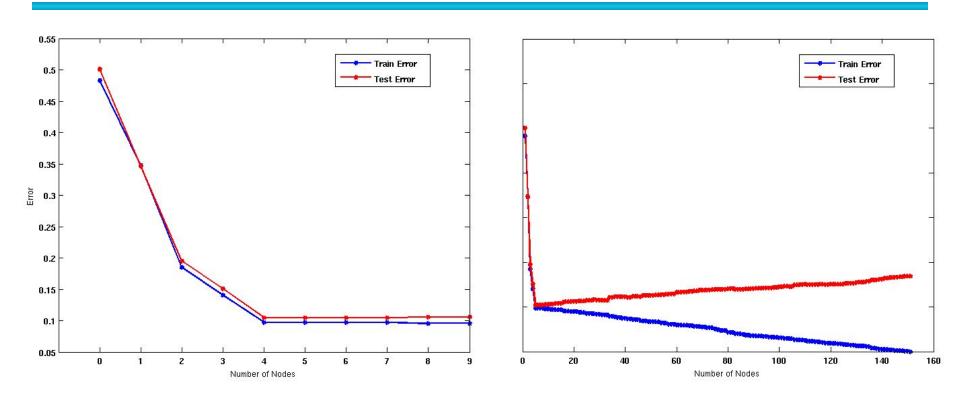
Decision Tree with 50 nodes



Which tree is better?

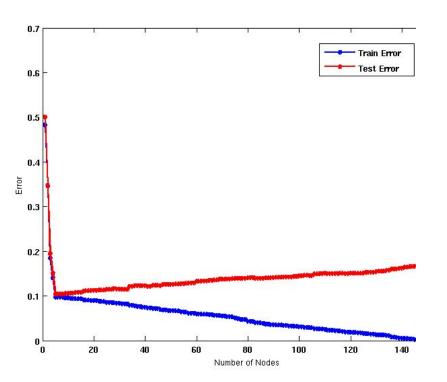


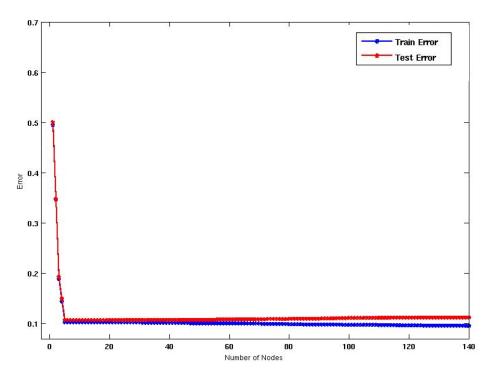
Model Overfitting



Underfitting: when model is too simple, both training and test errors are largeOverfitting: when model is too complex, training error is small but test error is large

Model Overfitting

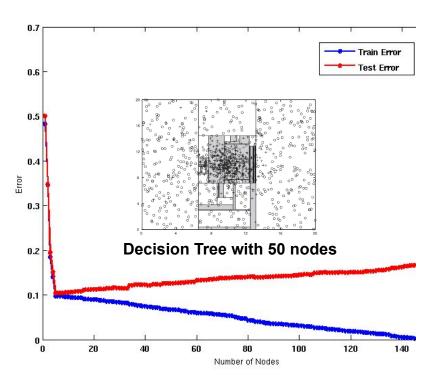


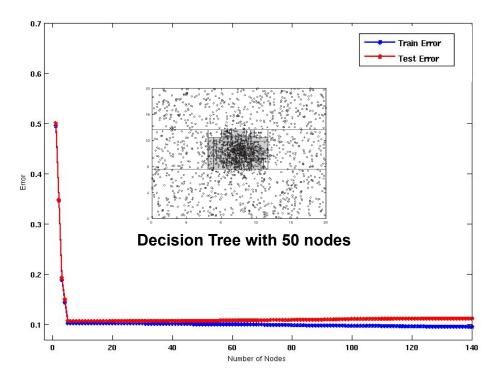


Using twice the number of data instances

- If training data is under-representative, testing errors increase and training errors decrease on increasing number of nodes
- Increasing the size of training data reduces the difference between training and testing errors at a given number of nodes

Model Overfitting

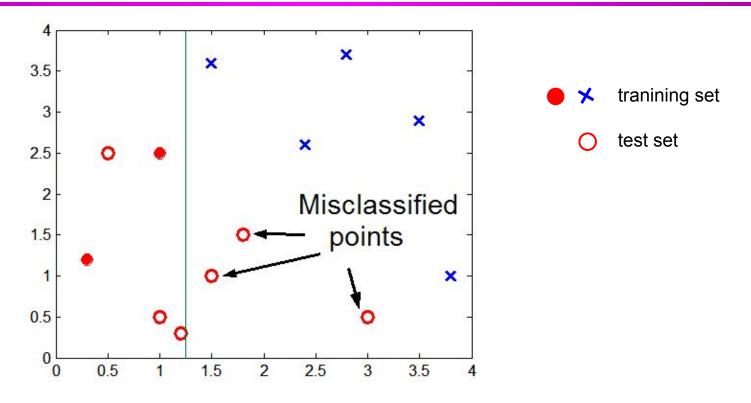




Using twice the number of data instances

- If training data is under-representative, testing errors increase and training errors decrease on increasing number of nodes
- Increasing the size of training data reduces the difference between training and testing errors at a given number of nodes

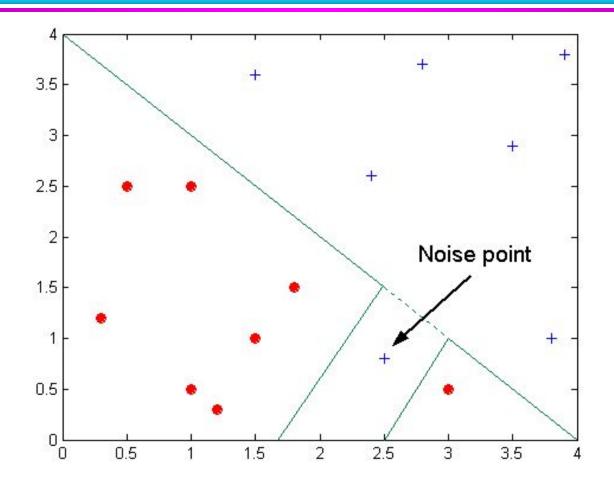
Overfitting due to Insufficient Examples



Lack of data points in the lower half of the diagram makes it difficult to predict correctly the class labels of that region

- Insufficient number of training records in the region causes the decision tree to predict the test examples using other training records that are irrelevant to the classification task

Overfitting due to Noise



Decision boundary is distorted by noise point

Notes on Overfitting

- Overfitting results in decision trees that <u>are more</u> <u>complex</u> than necessary
- Training error no longer provides a good estimate of how well the tree will perform on previously unseen records

Need new ways for estimating errors

Model Selection

- Performed during model building
- Purpose is to ensure that model is not overly complex (to avoid overfitting)
- Need to estimate generalization error
 - Using Validation Set
 - Incorporating Model Complexity
 - Estimating Statistical Bounds

Model Selection Using Validation Set

- Divide <u>training</u> data into two parts:
 - Training set:
 - use for model building
 - Validation set:
 - use for estimating generalization error
 - Note: validation set is not the same as test set
- Drawback:
 - Less data available for training

Model Selection Incorporating Model Complexity

- Rationale: Occam's Razor
 - Given two models of similar generalization errors, one should prefer the simpler model over the more complex model
 - A complex model has a greater chance of being fitted accidentally by errors in data
 - Therefore, one should include model complexity when evaluating a model

```
Gen. Error(Model) = Train. Error(Model, Train. Data) + \alpha x Complexity(Model)
```

Estimating Generalization Errors

- Re-substitution errors: error on training (Σ err(t))
- Generalization errors: error on testing (Σ err'(t))
- Methods for estimating generalization errors:
 - Pessimistic approach
 - Optimistic approach
 - Reduced error pruning (REP):
 - uses validation data set to estimate generalization error

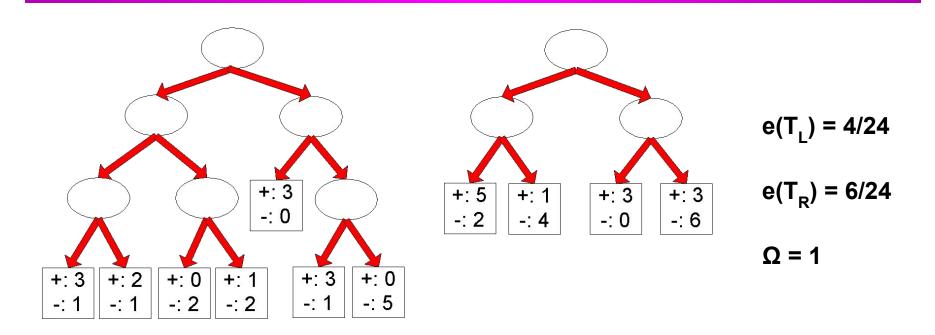
Estimating the Complexity of Decision Trees

 Pessimistic Error Estimate of decision tree T with k leaf nodes:

$$err_{gen}(T) = err(T) + \Omega \times \frac{k}{N_{train}},$$

- err(T): error rate on all training records
- Ω : Relative cost of adding a leaf node
- k: number of leaf nodes
- N_{train}: total number of training records

Estimating the Complexity of Decision Trees: Example



Decision Tree, T_L

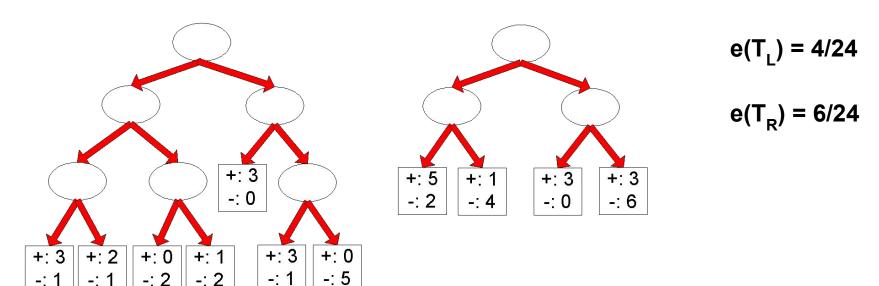
Decision Tree, T_R

$$e_{qen}(T_L) = 4/24 + 1*7/24 = 11/24 = 0.458$$

$$e_{gen}(T_R) = 6/24 + 1*4/24 = 10/24 = 0.417$$

Estimating the Complexity of Decision Trees

- Re-substitution Estimate:
 - Using training error as an optimistic estimate of generalization error
 - Referred to as optimistic error estimate



Decision Tree, T₁

Decision Tree, T_R

Occam's Razor

 Given two models of similar generalization errors, one should prefer the simpler model over the more complex model

 For complex models, there is a greater chance that it was fitted accidentally by errors in data

 Therefore, one should include model complexity when evaluating a model

Minimum Description Length (MDL)

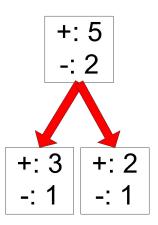
X	V	Yes No	7.7	
X ₁	1	0 B?	X	У
X ₂	0	B_1 B_2	X ₁	?
X ₃	0	C? 1	X ₂	?
X ₄	4	A c_1 c_2 B	X_3	?
^4	· I		X_4	?
X _n	1		X	2
		/ \	⊢ ∧ n	!

- Cost(Model, Data) = Cost(Data|Model) + Cost(Model)
 - Cost is the number of bits needed for encoding.
 - Search for the least costly model.
- Cost(Data|Model) encodes the misclassification errors.
- Cost(Model) uses node encoding (number of children) plus splitting condition encoding.

Estimating Statistical Bounds

Apply a **statistical correction** to the training error rate of the model that is indicative of its model complexity.

- •Need probability distribution of training error: available or assumed.
- •The number of errors committed by a leaf node in a decision tree can be assumed to follow a **binomial distribution**.



Before splitting:
$$e = 2/7$$
, $e'(7, 2/7, 0.25) = 0.503$
 $e'(T) = 7 \times 0.503 = 3.521$

After splitting:

$$e(T_L) = 1/4$$
, $e'(4, 1/4, 0.25) = 0.537$
 $e(T_R) = 1/3$, $e'(3, 1/3, 0.25) = 0.650$
 $e'(T) = 4 \times 0.537 + 3 \times 0.650 = 4.098$

$$e'(N, e, \alpha) = \frac{e + \frac{z_{\alpha/2}^2}{2N} + z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{e(1-e)}{N} + \frac{z_{\alpha/2}^2}{4N^2}}}{1 + \frac{z_{\alpha/2}^2}{N}}$$

Therefore, do not split

How to Address Overfitting...

- Pre-Pruning (Early Stopping Rule)
 - Stop the algorithm before it becomes a fully-grown tree
 - Typical stopping conditions for a node:
 - Stop if all instances belong to the same class
 - Stop if all the attribute values are the same
 - More restrictive conditions:
 - Stop if number of instances is less than some user-specified threshold
 - Stop if class distribution of instances are independent of the available features (e.g., using χ² test)
 - Stop if expanding the current node does not improve impurity measures (e.g., Gini or information gain).
 - Stop if estimated generalization error falls below certain threshold

How to Address Overfitting...

Post-pruning

- Grow decision tree to its entirety
- Trim the nodes of the decision tree in a bottom-up fashion
- If generalization error improves after trimming, replace sub-tree by a leaf node.
- Class label of leaf node is determined from majority class of instances in the sub-tree
- Can use MDL for post-pruning

Example of Post-Pruning

Class = Yes	20	
Class = No	10	
Error = 10/30		

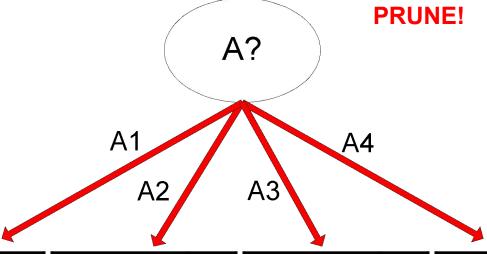
Training Error (Before splitting) = 10/30

Pessimistic error = (10 + 0.5)/30 = 10.5/30

Training Error (After splitting) = 9/30

Pessimistic error (After splitting)

$$= (9 + 4 \times 0.5)/30 = 11/30$$



Class = Yes	8
Class = No	4

Class = Yes	3
Class = No	4

Class = Yes	4
Class = No	1

Class = Yes	5
Class = No	1

- Metrics for Performance Evaluation
 - How to evaluate the performance of a model?

- Methods for Performance Evaluation
 - How to obtain reliable estimates?

- Methods for Model Comparison
 - How to compare the relative performance among competing models?

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Metrics for Performance Evaluation

- Focus on the predictive capability of a model
 - Rather than how fast it takes to classify or build models, scalability, etc.

Confusion Matrix:

	PREDICTED CLASS			
		Class=Yes	Class=No	
ACTUAL CLASS	Class=Yes	а	b	
	Class=No	С	d	

a: TP (true positive)

b: FN (false negative)

c: FP (false positive)

d: TN (true negative)

Metrics for Performance Evaluation...

	PREDICTED CLASS		
		Class=Yes	Class=No
ACTUAL CLASS	Class=Yes	a (TP)	b (FN)
	Class=No	c (FP)	d (TN)

Most widely-used metric:

Accuracy =
$$\frac{a+d}{a+b+c+d} = \frac{TP+TN}{TP+TN+FP+FN}$$

Limitation of Accuracy

- Consider a 2-class problem
 - Number of Class 0 examples = 9990
 - Number of Class 1 examples = 10

- If model predicts everything to be class 0, accuracy is 9990/10000 = 99.9 %
 - Accuracy is misleading because model does not detect any class 1 example

Cost Matrix

	PREDICTED CLASS			
	C(i j)	Class=Yes	Class=No	
ACTUAL CLASS	Class=Yes	C(Yes Yes)	C(No Yes)	
	Class=No	C(Yes No)	C(No No)	

C(i|j): Cost of misclassifying class j example as class i

Computing Cost of Classification

Cost Matrix	PREDICTED CLASS		
	C(i j)	+	-
ACTUAL CLASS	+	-1	100
	-	1	0

Model M ₁	PREDICTED CLASS		
		+	-
ACTUAL CLASS	+	150	40
OLAGO	-	60	250

Model M ₂	PREDICTED CLASS		
		+	-
ACTUAL CLASS	+	250	45
OLAGO	-	5	200

Accuracy = 80%

Cost = 3910

Accuracy = 90%

Cost = 4255

Cost vs Accuracy

Count	PREDICTED CLASS			
		Class=Yes	Class=No	
ACTUAL CLASS	Class=Yes	а	b	
	Class=No	С	d	

Accuracy is proportional to cost if

1.
$$C(Yes|No)=C(No|Yes) = q$$

2.
$$C(Yes|Yes)=C(No|No) = p$$

$$N = a + b + c + d$$

Accuracy =
$$(a + d)/N$$

Cost	PREDICTED CLASS				
		Class=Yes	Class=No		
ACTUAL CLASS	Class=Yes	р	q		
	Class=No	q	р		

Cost-Sensitive Measures

Precision (p) =
$$\frac{TP}{TP + FP}$$

Recall (r) = $\frac{TP}{TP + FN}$
F-measure (F) = $\frac{2rp}{r + p} = \frac{2TP}{2TP + FN + FP}$

- Precision is biased towards C(Yes|Yes) & C(Yes|No)
- Recall is biased towards C(Yes|Yes) & C(No|Yes)
- F-measure is biased towards all except C(No|No)

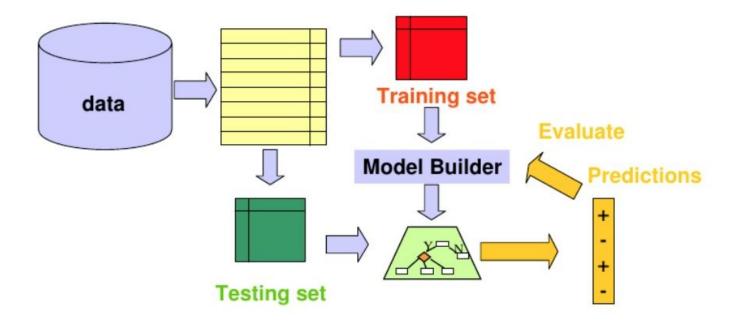
Weighted Accuracy =
$$\frac{w_1 a + w_4 d}{w_1 a + w_2 b + w_3 c + w_4 d}$$

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Methods for evaluation



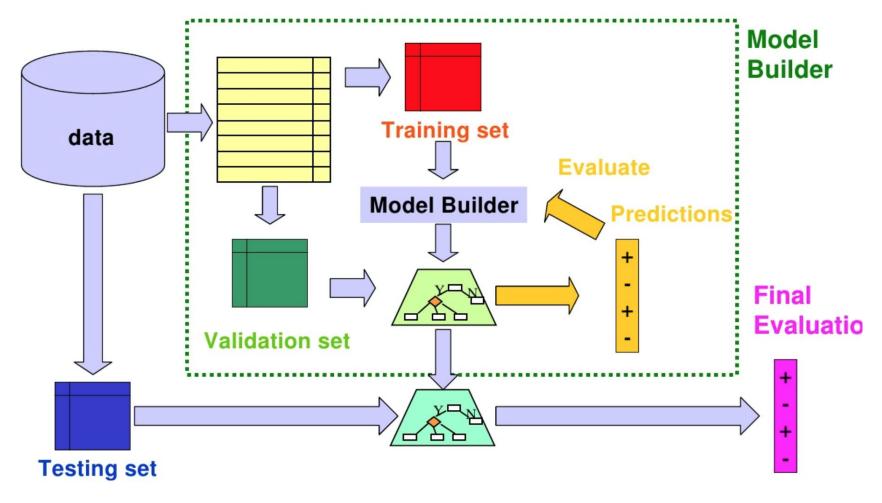
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Parameter Tuning

- It is important that the test data is not used in any way to create the classifier
- Some learning schemes operate in two stages:
 - Stage 1: builds the basic structure
 - Stage 2: optimizes parameter settings
 - The test data can't be used for parameter tuning!
 - Proper procedure uses three sets:
 - training data,
 - validation data,
 - test data
 - Validation data is used to optimize parameters
- Once evaluation is complete, all the data can be used to build the final classifier
- Generally, the larger the training data the better the classifier
- The larger the test data the more accurate the error estimate

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Evaluation: training, validation, test

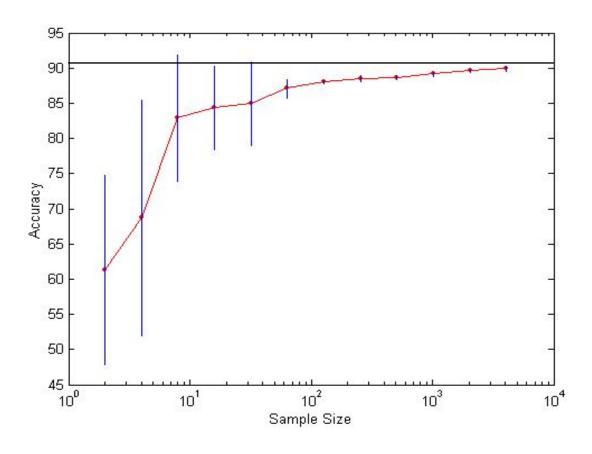


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Methods for Performance Evaluation

- How to obtain a reliable estimate of performance?
- Performance of a model may depend on other factors besides the learning algorithm:
 - Class distribution
 - Cost of misclassification
 - Size of training and test sets

Learning Curve



- Learning curve shows how accuracy changes with varying sample size
- Requires a sampling schedule for creating learning curve:

Effect of small sample size:

- Bias in the estimate
- Variance of estimate

- 1. How much a classification model benefits from adding more training data?
- 2. Does the model suffer from a variance error or a bias error?

Methods of Estimation

- Holdout
 - Reserve 2/3 for training and 1/3 for testing
- Random subsampling
 - Repeated holdout
- Cross validation
 - Partition data into k disjoint subsets
 - k-fold: train on k-1 partitions, test on the remaining one
 - Leave-one-out: k=n
- Stratified sampling
 - oversampling vs undersampling
- Bootstrap
 - Sampling with replacement

Small & Unbalanced Data

- The holdout method reserves a certain amount for testing and uses the remainder for training
- Usually, one third for testing, the rest for training
- For small or "unbalanced" datasets, samples might not be representative
 - For instance, few or none instances of some classes
- Stratified sample
 - Balancing the data
 - Make sure that each class is represented with approximately equal proportions in both subsets

*

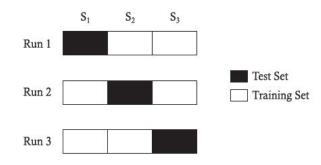
Repeated holdout method

- Holdout estimate can be made more reliable by repeating the process with different subsamples
 - In each iteration, a certain proportion is randomly selected for training (possibly with stratification)
 - The error rates on the different iterations are averaged to yield an overall error rate
- This is called the repeated holdout method
- Still not optimum: the different test sets overlap

*

Cross-validation

- Avoids overlapping test sets
 - First step: data is split into k subsets of equal size
 - Second step: each subset in turn is used for testing and the remainder for training
- This is called k-fold cross-validation
- Often the subsets are stratified before cross-validation is performed



- The error estimates are averaged to yield an overall error estimate
- Even better: repeated stratified cross-validation E.g. ten-fold cross-validation is repeated ten times and results are averaged (reduces the variance)

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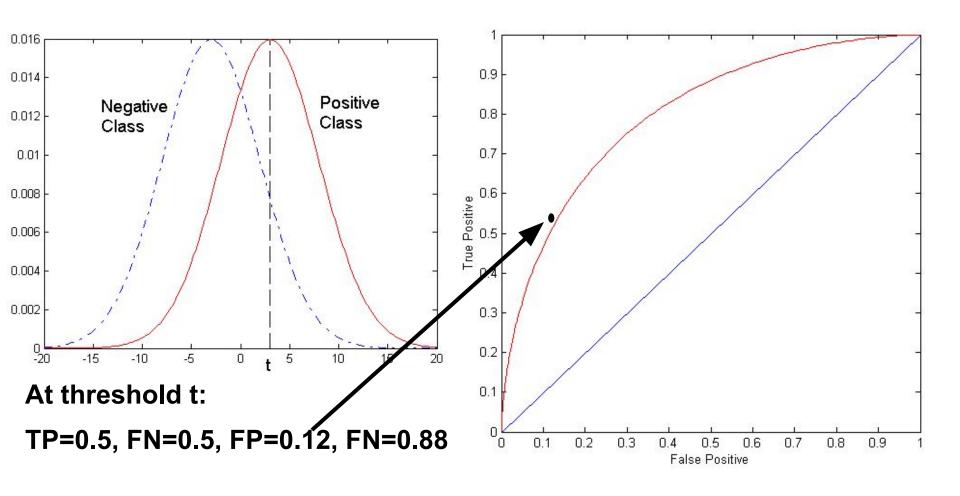
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ROC (Receiver Operating Characteristic)

- Developed in 1950s for signal detection theory to analyze noisy signals
 - Characterize the trade-off between positive hits and false alarms
- ROC curve plots TP (on the y-axis) against FP (on the x-axis)
- Performance of each classifier represented as a point on the ROC curve
 - changing the threshold of algorithm, sample distribution or cost matrix changes the location of the point

ROC Curve

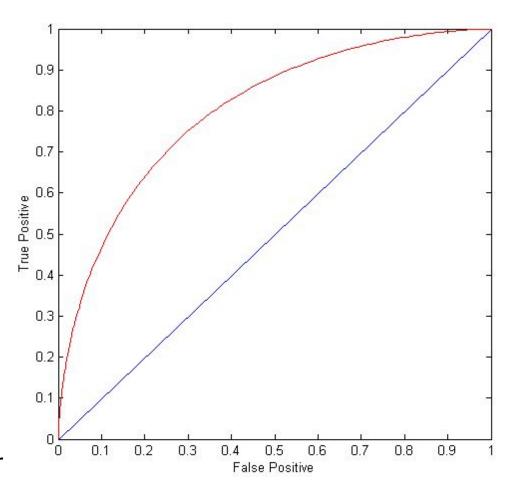
- 1-dimensional data set containing 2 classes (positive and negative)
- any points located at x > t is classified as positive



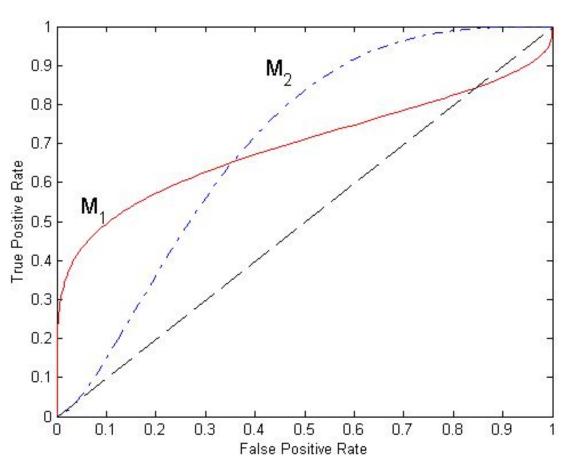
ROC Curve

(TP,FP):

- (0,0): declare everything to be negative class
- (1,1): declare everything to be positive class
- (1,0): ideal
- Diagonal line:
 - Random guessing
 - Below diagonal line:
 - prediction is opposite of the true class



Using ROC for Model Comparison



- No model consistently outperform the other
 - M₁ is better for small FPR
 - M₂ is better for large FPR
- Area Under the ROC curve
 - Ideal:
 - Area = 1
 - Random guess:
 - Area = 0.5

How to Construct an ROC curve

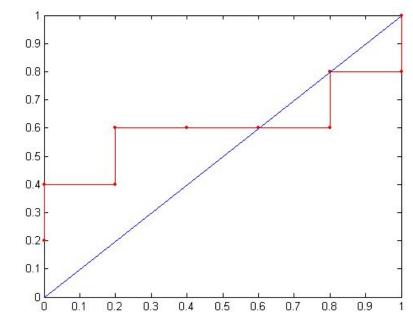
Instance	P(+ A)	True Class
1	0.95	+
2	0.93	+
3	0.87	-
4	0.85	-
5	0.85	-
6	0.85	+
7	0.76	-
8	0.53	+
9	0.43	-
10	0.25	+

- Use classifier that produces posterior probability for each test instance P(+|A)
- Sort the instances according to P(+|A) in decreasing order
- Apply threshold at each unique value of P(+|A)
- Count the number of TP, FP, TN, FN at each threshold
- TP rate, TPR = TP/(TP+FN)
- FP rate, FPR = FP/(FP + TN)

How to construct an ROC curve

	Class	+	-	+	-		- -	+		+	+	
Threshol	ld >=	0.25	0.43	0.53	0.76	0.85	0.85	0.85	0.87	0.93	0.95	1.00
	TP	5	4	4	3	3	3	3	2	2	1	0
	FP	5	5	4	4	3	2	1	1	0	0	0
	TN	0	0	1	1	2	3	4	4	5	5	5
	FN	0	1	1	2	2	2	2	3	3	4	5
-	TPR	1	0.8	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.2	0
	FPR	1	1	0.8	0.8	0.6	0.4	0.2	0.2	0	0	0





Test of Significance

- Given two models:
 - Model M1: accuracy = 85%, tested on 30 instances
 - Model M2: accuracy = 75%, tested on 5000 instances
- Can we say M1 is better than M2?
 - How much confidence can we place on accuracy of M1 and M2?
 - Can the difference in performance measure be explained as a result of **random fluctuations** in the test set?

Confidence Interval for Accuracy

- Prediction can be regarded as a Bernoulli trial (binomial random experiment)
 - A Bernoulli trial has 2 possible outcomes
 - Possible outcomes for prediction: correct or wrong
 - Probability of success is constant
 - Collection of Bernoulli trials has a Binomial distribution:
 - x ~ Bin(N, p) x: # of correct predictions, N trials, p constant prob.
 - e.g: Toss a fair coin 50 times, how many heads would turn up?
 Expected number of heads = N×p = 50 × 0.5 = 25

Given x (# of correct predictions) or equivalently, acc=x/N, and N (# of test instances)

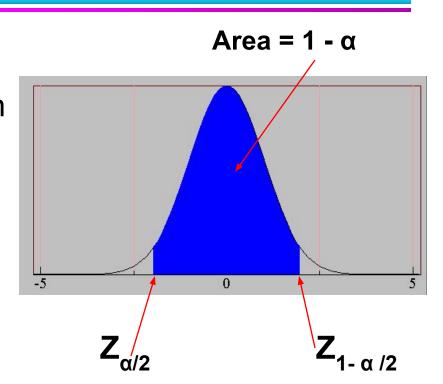
Can we predict p (true accuracy of model)?

Confidence Interval for Accuracy

- For large test sets (N > 30),
 - acc has a normal distribution with mean p and variance p(1-p)/N

$$P(Z_{\alpha/2} < \frac{acc - p}{\sqrt{p(1-p)/N}} < Z_{1-\alpha/2})$$

$$= 1 - \alpha$$



Confidence Interval for p:

$$p = \frac{2 \times N \times acc + Z_{\alpha/2}^{2} \pm \sqrt{Z_{\alpha/2}^{2} + 4 \times N \times acc - 4 \times N \times acc^{2}}}{2(N + Z_{\alpha/2}^{2})}$$

Confidence Interval for Accuracy

- Consider a model that produces an accuracy of 80% when evaluated on 100 test instances:
 - N=100, acc = 0.8
 - Let 1- α = 0.95 (95% confidence)
 - Which is the confidence interval?
 - From probability table, $Z_{\alpha/2}$ =1.96

N	50	100	500	1000	5000
p(lower)	0.670	0.711	0.763	0.774	0.789
p(upper)	0.888	0.866	0.833	0.824	0.811

1-α	Z
0.99	2.58
0.98	2.33
0.95	1.96
0.90	1.65

Comparing Performance of 2 Models

- Given two models, say M1 and M2, which is better?
 - M1 is tested on D1 (size=n1), found error rate = e₁
 - M2 is tested on D2 (size=n2), found error rate = e₂
 - Assume D1 and D2 are independent
 - If n1 and n2 are sufficiently large, then

$$e_1 \sim N(\mu_1, \sigma_1)$$

 $e_2 \sim N(\mu_2, \sigma_2)$

- Approximate variance of error rates: $\hat{\sigma}_i = \frac{e_i(1-e_i)}{n}$

Comparing Performance of 2 Models

- To test if performance difference is statistically significant: d = e1 – e2
 - $d \sim N(d_t, \sigma_t)$ where d_t is the true difference
 - Since D1 and D2 are independent, their variance adds up:

$$\sigma_t^2 = \sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2 \cong \hat{\sigma}_1^2 + \hat{\sigma}_2^2$$

$$= \frac{e1(1-e1)}{n1} + \frac{e2(1-e2)}{n2}$$

- It can be shown at $(1-\alpha)$ confidence level,

$$d_{t} = d \pm Z_{\alpha/2} \hat{\sigma}_{t}$$

An Illustrative Example

- Given: M1: n1 = 30, e1 = 0.15
 M2: n2 = 5000, e2 = 0.25
- d = |e2 e1| = 0.1 (2-sided test to check: dt = 0 or dt <> 0)

$$\hat{\sigma}_d^2 = \frac{0.15(1 - 0.15)}{30} + \frac{0.25(1 - 0.25)}{5000} = 0.0043$$

At 95% confidence level, Z_{α/2}=1.96

$$d_{1} = 0.100 \pm 1.96 \times \sqrt{0.0043} = 0.100 \pm 0.128$$

=> Interval contains 0 => difference may not be statistically significant

Comparing Performance of 2 Algorithms

- Each learning algorithm may produce k models:
 - L1 may produce M11, M12, ..., M1k
 - L2 may produce M21, M22, ..., M2k
- If models are generated on the same test sets D1,D2, ..., Dk (e.g., via cross-validation)
 - For each set: compute $d_j = e_{1j} e_{2j}$
 - d_i has mean d_t and variance σ_t^2
 - Estimate:

$$\sum_{t=0}^{k} (d_{j} - \overline{d})^{2}$$

$$\hat{\sigma}_{t}^{2} = \frac{j=1}{k(k-1)}$$

$$d_{t} = \overline{d} \pm t_{1-\alpha,k-1} \hat{\sigma}_{t}$$