Unit-6 Classification and Prediction



Outline

- Introduction to classification
- Classification & prediction issues
- Classification methods
- Prediction methods

Introduction to classification

- Classification is a supervised learning method.
- It is a data mining function that assigns items in a collection to target categories or classes.
- The goal of classification is to accurately predict the target class for each case in the data.
- For example, a classification model could be used to identify loan applicants as low, medium, or high credit risks.
- In supervised learning, the learner(computer program) is provided with two sets of data, training data set and test data set.
- The idea is for the learner to "learn" from a set of labeled examples in the training set so that it can identify unlabeled examples in the test set with the highest possible accuracy.

Introduction to classification (Cont..)

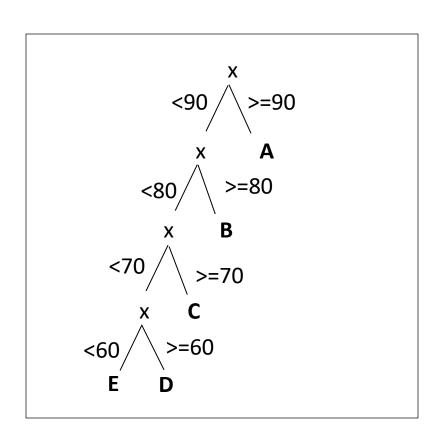
- Suppose a Database D is given as $D = \{t_1, t_2, ... t_n\}$ and a set of desired classes are $C = \{C_1, ..., C_m\}$.
- The classification problem is to define the mapping m in such a way that which tuple of database D belongs to which class of C.
- Actually we divides D into equivalence classes.
- Prediction is similar, but it viewed as having infinite number of classes.

Classification Example

- Teachers classify students grades as A,B,C,D or E.
- Identify individuals with credit risks (high, low, medium or unknown).
- In cricket (batsman, bowler, all-rounder)
- Websites (educational, sports, music)

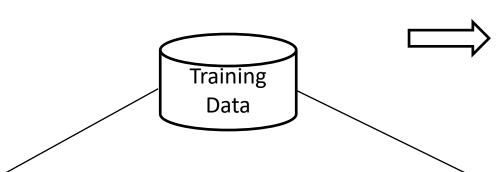
Classification Example (Cont..)

- How teachers give grades to students based on their obtained marks?
 - If <u>x >= 90</u> then A grade.
 - If 80 <= x < 90 then B grade.
 - If <u>70 <= x < 80</u> then C grade.
 - If <u>60 <= x < 70</u> then **D** grade.
 - If <u>x < 60</u> then **E** grade.

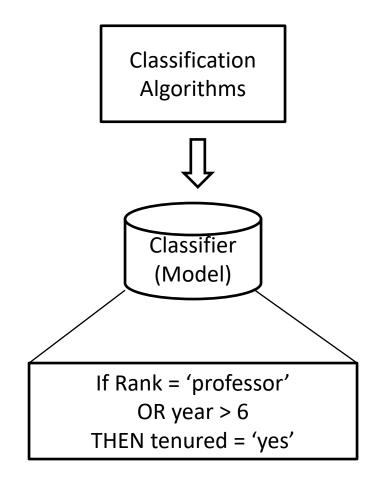


Classification: a two step process

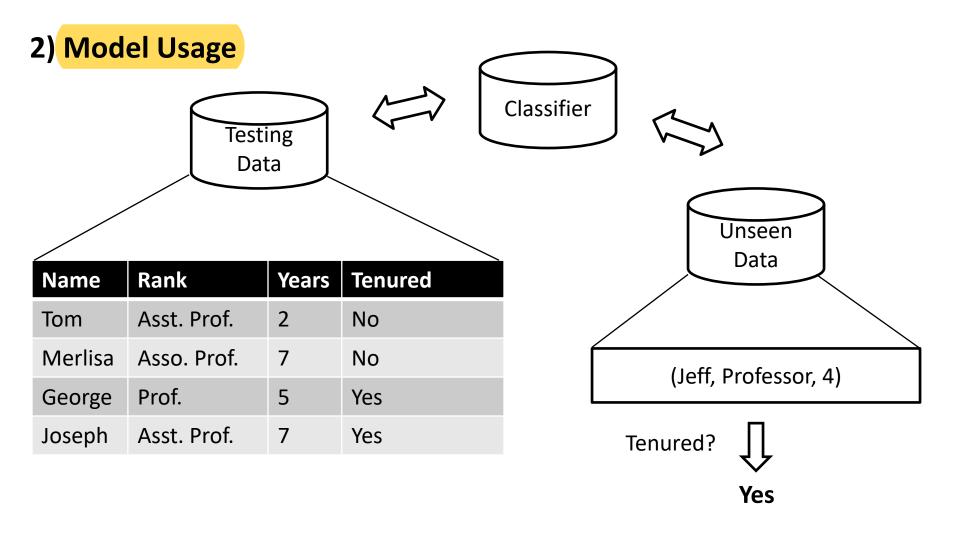
1) Model Construction



Name	Rank	Years	Tenured
Mike	Asst. Prof.	3	No
Mary	Asst. Prof.	7	Yes
Bill	Prof.	2	Yes
Jim	Asso. Prof.	7	Yes
Dave	Asst. Prof.	6	No
Anne	Asso. Prof.	3	No



Classification: a two step process (Cont..)



Classification: a two step process (Cont..)

1) Model Construction

- Describing a set of predetermined classes:
 - Each tuple/sample is assumed to belong to a predefined class, as determined by the class label attribute.
 - The set of tuples used for model construction is called as training set.
 - The model is represented as classification rules, decision trees, or mathematical formulae.

2) Model Usage

- For classifying future or unknown objects
 - Estimate accuracy of the model
 - The known label of test sample is compared with the classified result from the model.
 - Accuracy rate is the percentage of test set samples that are correctly classified by the model.

Classification & prediction issues

Data Preparation

- Data cleaning
 - Pre-process data in order to reduce noise and handle missing values.
- Relevance analysis (Feature selection)
 - Remove the irrelevant or redundant attributes.
- Data transformation
 - Generalize the data to higher level concepts using concept hierarchies and/or normalize data which involves scaling the values.

Classification & prediction issues (Cont..)

Evaluating Classification Methods

- Predict accuracy
 - This refers the ability of the model to correctly predict the class label of new or previously unseen data.
- Speed and scalability
 - Time to construct model
 - Time to use the model
- Robustness
 - Handling noise and missing values
- Interpretability
 - Understanding and insight provided by model
- Goodness of rules
 - Decision tree size
 - Strongest rule or not

Classification & prediction methods

Classification

Decision Tree

Bayesian Classification

Rule Based Classification

Neural Network

Prediction

Linear Regression

Non Linear Regressions

Logistic Regression

Decision tree

- One of the most common tasks is to build models for the prediction of the class of an object on the basis of its attributes.
- The objects can be seen as a customer, patient, transaction, e-mail message or even a single character.
- Attributes of patient object can be heart rate, blood pressure, weight and gender etc.
- The class of the patient object would most commonly be positive/negative for a certain disease.

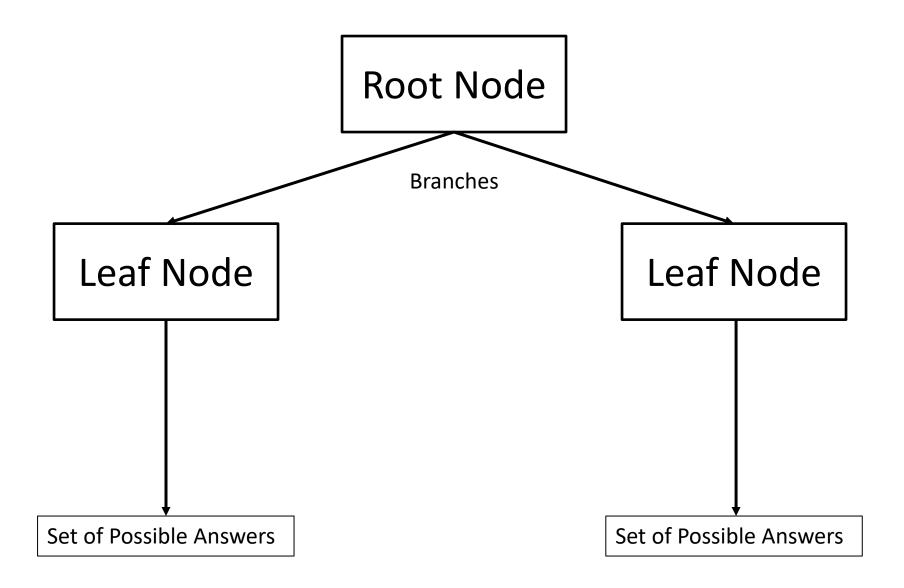
Decision tree (Cont..)

- In decision tree are represented by a **fixed set of attributes** (e.g. gender) and their values (e.g. male, female) described as **attribute-value pairs**.
- If the attribute has **small** number of **disjoint possible values** (e.g. high, medium, low) or there are only two possible classes (e.g. true, false) then decision tree learning is easy.
- Extension to decision tree algorithm also handles real value attributes (e.g. salary).
- It gives a class label to each instance of dataset.

Decision tree (Cont..)

- Decision tree is a classifier in the form of a tree structure
 - Decision node: Specifies a test on a single attribute
 - Leaf node: Indicates the value of the target attribute
 - Arc/edge: Split of one attribute
 - Path: A disjunction of test to make the final decision

Decision tree representation- example



Key requirements for classification

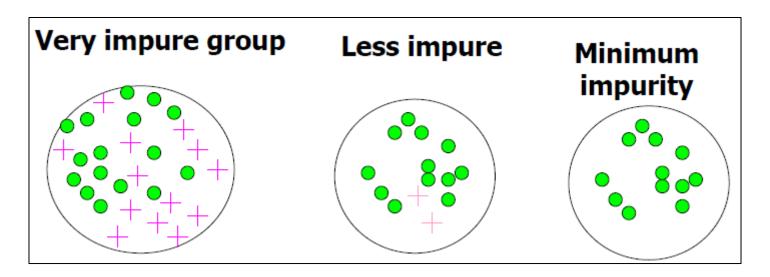
- Sufficient data:
 - **Enough training cases** should be provided to learn the model.
- Attribute-value description:
 - Object or case must be expressible in terms of a **fixed collection of properties or attributes** (e.g., hot, mild, cold).
- Predefined classes (target values):
 - The target function has discrete output values (boolean or multiclass)

Important terms for decision tree

- Entropy
- Information Gain
- Gini Index

Entropy (E)

- It defines the certainty of a decision
 - 1 if completely certain,
 - 0 if completely uncertain,
 - Normally data remains between 0 to 1 as entropy, a probability-based measure used to calculate the amount of uncertainty.



Entropy (E) (Cont..)

- It measures that of how much information we don't know (how uncertain we are about the data).
- It can be also used to measure how much information we gain from an attribute when the target attribute is revealed to us.
- Which attribute is best?
 - ✓ The attribute with the largest expected reduction in entropy is the 'best' attribute to use next.
 - ✓ Because if we have a large expected reduction it means taking away that attribute has a big effect, meaning it must be very certain.

Entropy (E) (Cont..)

- A decision tree is built top-down from a root node and involves partitioning the data into subsets that contain instances with similar values (homogenous).
- ID3 algorithm uses entropy to calculate the homogeneity of a sample.
- If the sample is completely homogeneous the entropy is zero and if the sample is an equally divided it has entropy of one.

Information Gain

- Information gain can be used for continues-valued (numeric)
 attributes.
- The attribute which has the highest information gain is selected for split.
- Assume, that there are two classes P(positive) & N(negative).
- Suppose we have S samples, out of these p samples belongs to class P and n samples belongs to class N.
- The amount of information, needed to decide split in S belongs to
 P or N & that is defined as

$$I(p,n) = -\frac{p}{p+n} \log_2 \frac{p}{p+n} - \frac{n}{p+n} \log_2 \frac{n}{p+n}$$

Gini Index

- Assume there exist several possible split values for each attribute.
- We may need other tools, such as clustering, to get the possible split values.
- It can be modified for categorical attributes.
- An alternative method to information gain is called the Gini Index.
- Gini is used in CART (Classification and Regression Trees).
- If a dataset T Contains examples from n classes, gini index, gini(T) is defined as

Gini (T) = 1 -
$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} p_j^2$$

- **n**: the number of classes
- p_i: the probability that a tuple in D belongs to class Ci

Gini Index (Cont..)

After splitting T into two subsets T1 and T2 with sizes N1 and N2,
 the gini index of the split data is defined as

Gini_{split} (T) =
$$\frac{N_1}{N}$$
 gini (T₁) + $\frac{N_2}{N}$ gini (T₂)

Example – ID3

Age	Income	Student	Credit_Rating	Class: buys_computer
<=30	High	No	Fair	No
<=30	High	No	Excellent	No
3140	High	No	Fair	Yes
>40	Medium	No	Fair	Yes
>40	Low	Yes	Fair	Yes
>40	Low	Yes	Excellent	No
3140	Low	Yes	Excellent	Yes
<=30	Medium	No	Fair	No
<=30	Low	Yes	Fair	Yes
>40	Medium	Yes	Fair	Yes
<=30	Medium	Yes	Excellent	Yes
3140	Medium	No	Excellent	Yes
3140	High	Yes	Fair	Yes
>40	Medium	No	Excellent	No

- Class P: buys_computer = "Yes" (9 records)
- Class N : buys_computer = "No" (5 records)
- Total number of Records 14.
- Now, Information Gain = I (p,n)

$$I(p,n) = -\frac{p}{p+n}\log_2\frac{p}{p+n} - \frac{n}{p+n}\log_2\frac{n}{p+n}$$

$$I(9,5) = -\frac{9}{14}\log_2\frac{9}{14} - \frac{5}{14}\log_2\frac{5}{14}$$

$$I(9,5) = 0.940$$

Solution – ID3 (Age <=30,31..40,>40)

Age	Income	Student	Credit_Rating	Buys_Computer
<=30	High	No	Fair	No
<=30	High	No	Excellent	No
<=30	Medium	No	Fair	No
<=30	Low	Yes	Fair	Yes
<=30	Medium	Yes	Excellent	Yes

Age	Income	Stu.	Cr_Rating	Buys
3140	High	No	Fair	Yes
3140	Low	Yes	Excellent	Yes
3140	Medium	No	Excellent	Yes
3140	High	Yes	Fair	Yes

Age	Income	Stu.	Cr_Rating	Buys
>40	Medium	No	Fair	Yes
>40	Low	Yes	Fair	Yes
>40	Low	No	Excellent	No
>40	Medium	Yes	Fair	Yes
>40	Medium	No	Excellent	No

Solution - ID3 (Age ≤ 30)

- Compute the information gain & Entropy For Age <=30,
 - P_i = Yes class = 2
 - $N_i = No class = 3$

So, Information Gain = I(p,n)

$$I(p,n) = -\frac{p}{p+n}\log_2\frac{p}{p+n} - \frac{n}{p+n}\log_2\frac{n}{p+n}$$

$$I(2,3) = -\frac{2}{5}log_2\frac{2}{5} - \frac{3}{5}log_2\frac{3}{5}$$

$$I(2,3) = 0.971$$

Age	P _i	N _i	I (P _i , N _i)
<=30	2	3	0.971
3140	4	0	0
>40	3	2	0.971

- So the expected information needed to classify a given sample if the samples are partitioned according to age is,
- Calculate entropy using the values from the Table and the formula given below:

$$E(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{v} \frac{P_i + N_i}{p+n} I(P_i, N_i)$$

$$E(Age) = \frac{5}{14} I(2,3) + \frac{4}{14} I(4,0) + \frac{5}{14} I(3,2)$$

$$E(Age) = 0.694$$

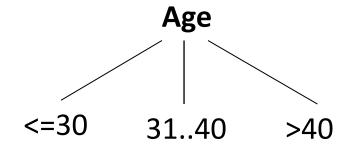
Gain (Age) = I (p, n)
$$-$$
 E (Age)
= $0.940 - 0.694$
= 0.246

Similarly,

Gain	value
Gain (age)	0.246
Gain (income)	0.029
Gain (student)	0.151
Gain (credit_rating)	0.048

So, here we start decision tree with root node Age.

Now the age has highest information gain among all the attributes, so select age as test attribute and create the node as age and show all possible values of age for further splitting.



Solution - ID3 (Age ≤ 30)

Age	Income	Student	Credit_Rating	Buys_Computer
<=30	High	No	Fair	No
<=30	High	No	Excellent	No
<=30	Medium	No	Fair	No
<=30	Low	Yes	Fair	Yes
<=30	Medium	Yes	Excellent	Yes

Solution - ID3 (Age ≤ 30)

- Compute Information gain & Entropy for Age with sample S_{<=30}.
- For age <=30,
 - Pi = Yes = 2
 - Ni = No = 3

$$I(p,n) = -\frac{p}{p+n} \log_2 \frac{p}{p+n} - \frac{n}{p+n} \log_2 \frac{n}{p+n}$$

$$I(2,3) = -\frac{2}{5} \log_2 \frac{2}{5} - \frac{3}{5} \log_2 \frac{3}{5}$$

$$I(3,2) = 0.971$$

Solution – ID3 (Age <= 30, Income)

Income	P _i	N _i	I (P _i , N _i)
High	0	2	0
Medium	1	1	1
Low	1	0	0

In above table high (0,2) homogeneous so I(0,2) = 0, Medium equal portion so I(1,1) = 1 & Low I(1,0) = 0.

$$E (A) = \sum_{i=1}^{v} \frac{P_i + N_i}{p+n} I (P_i, N_i)$$

$$E(Income) = \frac{2}{5} I (0,2) + \frac{2}{5} I (1,1) + \frac{1}{5} I (1,0)$$

$$E(Income) = 0.4$$

Solution – ID3 (Age <= 30, Student)

student	P _i	N _i	I (P _i , N _i)
No	0	3	0
Yes	2	0	0

In above table I (0,3) = 0 & I(2,0) = 0 So E(Student) is 0.

Gain
$$(S_{<=30}, Student) = I(p,n) - E(Student)$$

= 0.971 - 0
= 0.971

Solution – ID3 (Age <= 30, credit_rating)

credit_rating	P _i	N _i	I (P _i , N _i)
Fair	1	2	0.918
Excellent	1	1	1

$$E(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{v} \frac{P_i + N_i}{p+n} I(P_i, N_i)$$

E(credit_rating) =
$$\frac{3}{5} | (1,2) + \frac{2}{5} | (1,1)$$

$$E(credit_rating) = 0.951$$

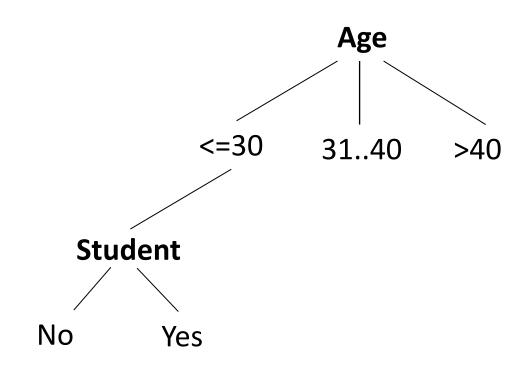
Gain
$$(S_{<=30}, credit_rating) = I (p, n) - E (credit_rating)$$

= 0.971 - 0.951
= 0.020

Solution - ID3 (Age <=30)

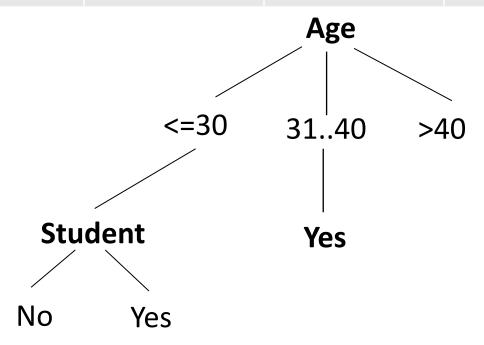
Gain (Age <= 30)	value
Income	0.571
Student	0.971
Credit_rating	0.020

As shown in table we get maximum gain for student so, select **student** as leaf node for age <=30



Solution – ID3 (Age 31..40)

Age	Income	Student	Credit_Rating	Buys_Computer
3140	High	No	Fair	Yes
3140	Low	Yes	Excellent	Yes
3140	Medium	No	Excellent	Yes
3140	High	Yes	Fair	Yes



Solution – ID3 (Age > 40)

Age	Income	Student	Credit_Rating	Buys_Computer
>40	Medium	No	Fair	Yes
>40	Low	Yes	Fair	Yes
>40	Low	No	Excellent	No
>40	Medium	Yes	Fair	Yes
>40	Medium	No	Excellent	No

Solution - ID3 (Age > 40)

- Compute Information gain for Age with sample S_{>40}.
- For age > 40,
 - Pi = Yes = 3
 - Ni = No = 2

$$I(p,n) = -\frac{p}{p+n} \log_2 \frac{p}{p+n} - \frac{n}{p+n} \log_2 \frac{n}{p+n}$$

$$I(3,2) = -\frac{3}{5} \log_2 \frac{3}{5} - \frac{2}{5} \log_2 \frac{2}{5}$$

$$I(3,2) = 0.971$$

Solution – ID3 (Age > 40, Income)

Income	P _i	N _i	I (P _i , N _i)
High	0	0	0
Medium	2	1	0.918
Low	1	1	1

$$E(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{v} \frac{P_{i} + N_{i}}{p+n} I(P_{i}, N_{i})$$

E(Income) =
$$\frac{0}{5}$$
I(0,0) + $\frac{3}{5}$ I(2,1) + $\frac{2}{5}$ I(1,1)

$$E(Income) = 0.951$$

Gain ($S_{>40}$,Income) = I (p, n) – E (Income) = 0.971 – 0.951 = 0.020

Solution – ID3 (Age > 40, credit_rating)

Credit_rating	P_{i}	N _i	I (P _i , N _i)
Fair	3	0	0
Excellent	0	2	0

$$E(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{v} \frac{P_i + N_i}{p+n} I(P_i, N_i)$$

E(credit_rating) =
$$\frac{3}{5}$$
 | (3,0) + $\frac{2}{5}$ | (0,2)

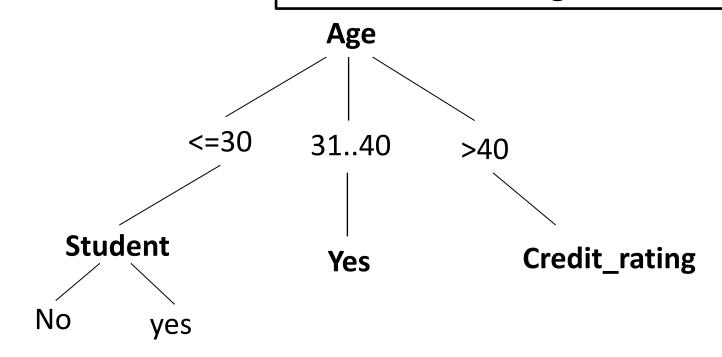
Gain
$$(S_{>40}, credit_rating) = I(p, n) - E(credit_rating)$$

= 0.971 - 0
= 0.971

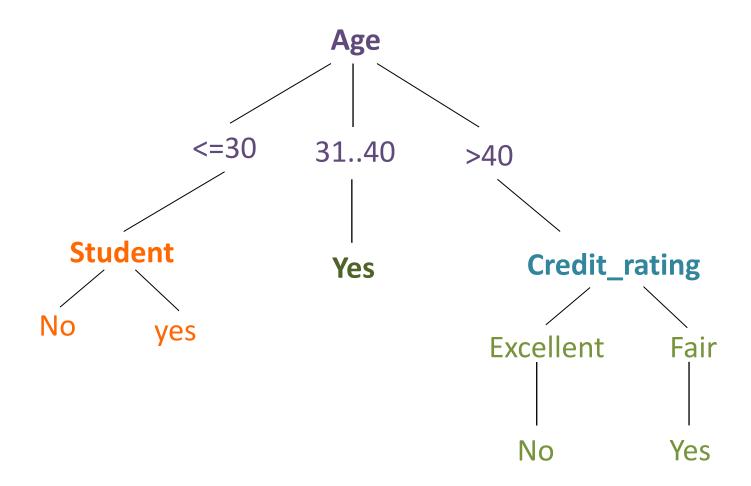
Solution - ID3 (Age > 40)

Gain (Age > 40)	value
Income	0.020
Credit_rating	0.971

As shown in table we get maximum gain for credit_rating so, select credit_rating as leaf node for age > 40



Decision Tree – ID3



Classification rules from decision tree

- IF age = "<=30" AND student = "no" THEN buys_computer = "no"
- IF age = "<=30" AND student = "yes" THEN buys_computer = "yes"
- IF age = "31..40" THEN buys_computer = "yes"
- IF age = ">40" AND credit_rating = "excellent" THEN buys_computer = "no"
- IF age = ">40" AND credit_rating = "fair" THEN buys_computer = "yes"

Overfitting and Tree Pruning

- Overfitting: An induced tree may overfit the training data
 - ✓ Too many branches, some may reflect anomalies due to noise or outliers
 - ✓ Poor accuracy for unseen samples
- Two approaches to avoid overfitting
 - ✓ Prepruning: Halt tree construction early-do not split a node if this would result in the goodness measure falling below a threshold
 - Difficult to choose an appropriate threshold
 - ✓ Postpruning: Remove branches from a "fully grown" tree—get a sequence of progressively pruned trees
 - Use a set of data different from the training data to decide which is the "best pruned tree"

Bayesian Classification

- Thomas Bayes, who proposed the Bayes Theorem so, it named Bayesian theorem.
- It is statistical method & supervised learning method for classification.
- It can solve problems involving both categorical and continuous valued attributes.
- Bayesian classification is used to find conditional probabilities.

The Bayes Theorem

The Bayes Theorem:

•
$$P(H|X) = \frac{P(X|H) P(H)}{P(X)}$$

- P(H|X): Probability that the customer will buy a computer given that we know his age, credit rating and income. (Posterior Probability of H)
- P(H): Probability that the customer will buy a computer regardless of age, credit rating, income (Prior Probability of H)
- P(X|H): Probability that the customer is 35 years old, have fair credit rating and earns \$40,000, given that he has bought computer (Posterior Probability of X)
- **P(X)**: Probability that a person from our set of customers is 35 years old, have fair credit rating and earns \$40,000. (Prior Probability of X)

Naïve Bayes classifier - Example

Age	Income	Student	Credit_Rating	Class: buys_computer
<=30	High	No	Fair	No
<=30	High	No	Excellent	No
3140	High	No	Fair	Yes
>40	Medium	No	Fair	Yes
>40	Low	Yes	Fair	Yes
>40	Low	Yes	Excellent	No
3140	Low	Yes	Excellent	Yes
<=30	Medium	No	Fair	No
<=30	Low	Yes	Fair	Yes
>40	Medium	Yes	Fair	Yes
<=30	Medium	Yes	Excellent	Yes
3140	Medium	No	Excellent	Yes
3140	High	Yes	Fair	Yes
>40	Medium	No	Excellent	No

Naïve Bayes classifier - Solution

Age		
P (<=30 Yes) = 2/9	P (<=30 No) = 3/5	
P (3140 Yes) = 4/9	P (3140 No) = 0/5	P (Yes) = 9/14
P (> 40 Yes) = 3/9	P (> 40 No) = 2/5	P (No) = 5/14
Income		
P (High Yes) = 2/9	P (High No) = 2/5	
P (Medium Yes) = 4/9	P (Medium No) = 2/5	
P (Low Yes) = 3/9	P (Low No) = 1/5	
Student		
P (No Yes) = 3/9	P (No No) = 4/5	
P (Yes Yes) = 6/9	P (Yes No) = 1/5	
Credit_rating		
P (Fair Yes) = 6/9	P (Fair No) = 2/5	
P (Excellent Yes) = 3/9	P (Excellent No) = 3/5	

Naïve Bayes classifier - Solution

- An unseen sample Y = (<=30, Low, Yes, Excellent)</p>
- P(Y|Yes).P(Yes) = P(<=30|Yes). P(Low|Yes). P(Yes|Yes).
 P(Excellent|Yes) . P(Yes)
 = 2/9 * 3/9 * 6/9 * 3/9 * 9/14
 = 0.010582
- P(Y|No).P(No) = P(<=30|No). P(Low|No). P(Yes|No).
 P(Excellent|No). P(No)
 = 3/5 * 1/5 * 1/5 * 3/5 * 5/14
 = 0.005142
- Choose the class so that it maximizes this probability, this means that new instance will be classified as Yes (Buys_computer)

Try yourself (Bayesian Classification)

Car No	Color	Туре	Origin	Stolen?
1	Red	Sports	Domestic	Yes
2	Red	Sports	Domestic	No
3	Red	Sports	Domestic	Yes
4	Yellow	Sports	Domestic	No
5	Yellow	Sports	Imported	Yes
6	Yellow	SUV	Imported	No
7	Yellow	SUV	Imported	Yes
8	Yellow	SUV	Domestic	No
9	Red	SUV	Imported	No
10	Red	Sports	Imported	Yes

Unseen Data
Y = <Red, Domestic,
SUV>
Actual Data
Y = <Red, Sports,
Domestic>

0.024,0.072
(Unseen)
0.192, 0.096
(Actual)

Rule Based Classification

- It is featured by building rules based on an object attributes.
- Rule-based classifier makes use of a set of IF-THEN rules for classification.
- We can express a rule in the following from
 - IF condition THEN conclusion
- Let us consider a rule R1,

R1: IF age=youth AND student=yes THEN buy_computer=yes

- The IF part of the rule is called rule antecedent or precondition.
- The THEN part of the rule is called rule consequent (conclusion).
- The antecedent (IF) part the condition consist of one or more attribute tests and these tests are logically ANDed.
- The consequent (THEN) part consists of class prediction.

Rule Based Classification (Cont..)

We can also write rule R1 as follows:

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R1: ((age = youth) ^ (student = yes)) => (buys_computer = yes)
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- If the condition (that is, all of the attribute tests) in a rule antecedent holds true for a given tuple, we say that the rule antecedent is satisfied and that the rule covers the tuple.
- A rule R can be assessed by its coverage and accuracy.
- Given a tuple X, from a class labeled data set D, let it covers the number of tuples by R; the number of tuples correctly classified by R; and |D| be the number of tuples in D.
- We can define the coverage and accuracy of R as

Coverage (R) =
$$\frac{n_{covers}}{|D|}$$

Accuracy (R) =
$$\frac{n_{correct}}{n_{covers}}$$

Measure	Formula
accuracy, recognition rate	$\frac{TP+TN}{P+N}$
error rate, misclassification rate	$\frac{FP+FN}{P+N}$
sensitivity, true positive rate, recall	$\frac{TP}{P}$
specificity, true negative rate	$\frac{TN}{N}$
precision	$\frac{TP}{TP+FP}$
F, F ₁ , F-score, harmonic mean of precision and recall	$\frac{2 \times precision \times recall}{precision + recall}$
F_{β} , where β is a non-negative real number	$\frac{(1+\beta^2) \times precision \times recall}{\beta^2 \times precision + recall}$

TP,TN,FP,P, N refer to the number of true positive, true negative, false positive, positive, and negative samples, respectively

- True positives (TP): These refer to the positive tuples that were correctly labeled by the classifier. Let TP be the number of true positives.
- True negatives (TN): These are the negative tuples that were correctly labeled by the classifier. Let TN be the number of true negatives.
- False positives (FP): These are the negative tuples that were incorrectly labeled as positive (e.g., tuples of class buys computer D no for which the classifier predicted buys computer D yes). Let FP be the number of false positives.
- False negatives (FN): These are the positive tuples that were mislabeled as negative (e.g., tuples of class buys computer D yes for which the classifier predicted buys computer D no). Let FN be the number of false negatives.
- These terms are summarized in the confusion matrix

Predicted class

Actual class

	yes	no	Total
yes	TP	FN	P
no	FP	TN	N
Total	P'	N'	P + N

Confusion matrix, shown with totals for positive and negative tuples.

Classes	buys_computer = yes	buys_computer = no	Total	Recognition (%)
buys_computer = yes	6954	46	7000	99.34
buys_computer = no	412	2588	3000	86.27
Total	7366	2634	10,000	95.42

■ The accuracy of a classifier on a given test set is the percentage of test set tuples that are correctly classified by the classifier. That is

$$accuracy = \frac{TP + TN}{P + N}.$$

The error rate or misclassification rate of a classifier, M, which is simply 1- accuracy, where accuracy is the accuracy of M. This also can be computed as,

$$error rate = \frac{FP + FN}{P + N}.$$

- consider the class imbalance problem, where the main class of interest is rare.
- That is, the data set distribution reflects a significant majority of the negative class and a minority positive class.
- For example, in fraud detection applications, the class of interest (or positive class) is "fraud," which occurs much less frequently than the negative "nonfraudulant" class.

- The sensitivity and specificity measures can be used, respectively, for this purpose.
- Sensitivity is also referred to as the true positive (recognition) rate (i.e., the proportion of positive tuples that are correctly identified), while specificity is the true negative rate (i.e., the proportion of negative tuples that are correctly identified).

$$sensitivity = \frac{TP}{P}$$
$$specificity = \frac{TN}{N}.$$

- Precision can be thought of as a measure of exactness (i.e., what percentage of tuples labeled as positive are actually such),
- Recall is a measure of completeness (what percentage of positive tuples are labeled as such).

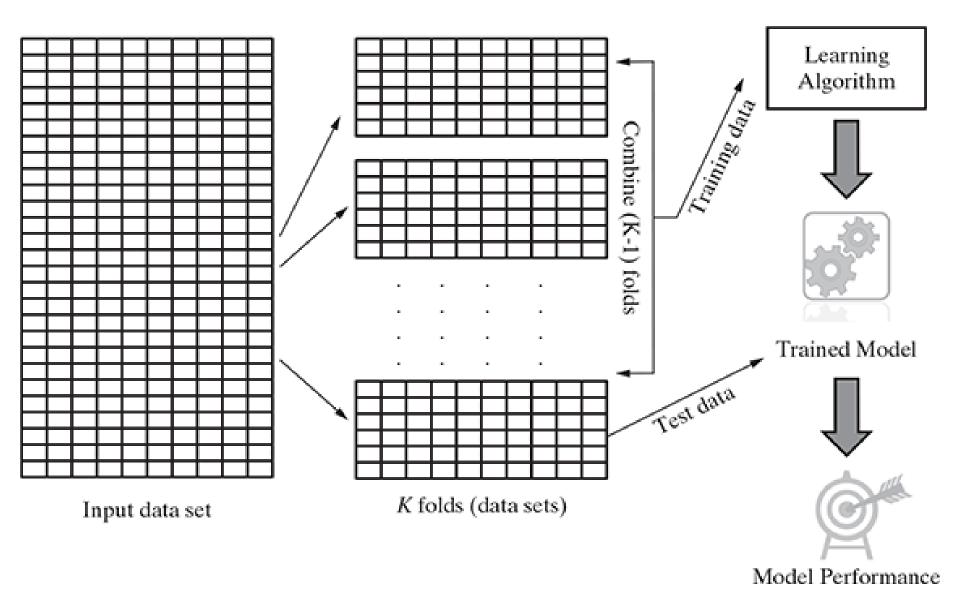
$$precision = \frac{TP}{TP + FP}$$

$$recall = \frac{TP}{TP + FN} = \frac{TP}{P}.$$

Cross-Validation

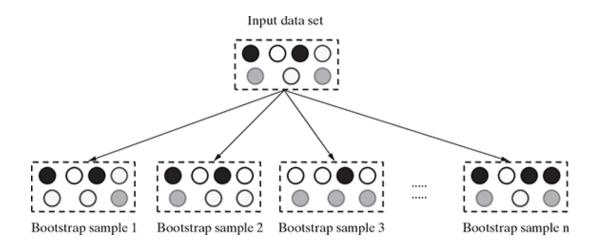
- In k-fold cross-validation, the initial data are randomly partitioned into k mutually exclusive subsets or "folds," D1, D2, ..., Dk, each of approximately equal size.
- Training and testing is performed k times.
- In iteration i, partition Di is reserved as the test set, and the remaining partitions are collectively used to train the model.
- That is, in the first iteration, subsets D2, ..., Dk collectively serve as the training set to obtain a first model, which is tested on D1; the second iteration is trained on subsets D1, D3,, Dk and tested on D2; and so on.

Cross-Validation



Bootstrap

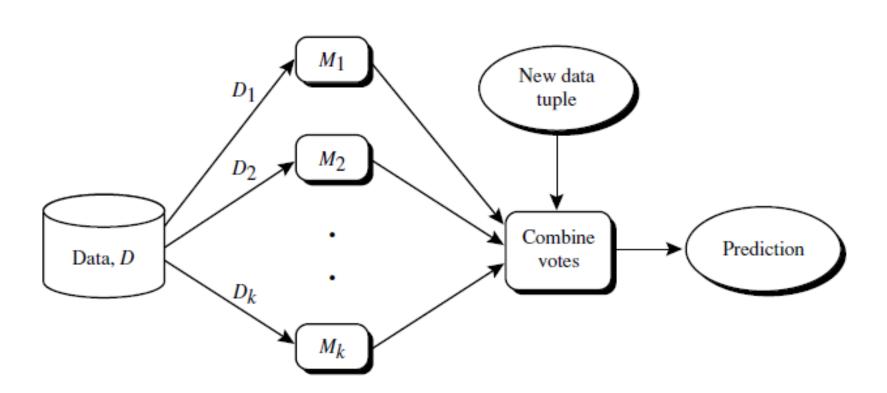
- The **bootstrap** method samples the given training tuples uniformly with replacement.
- That is, each time a tuple is selected, it is equally likely to be selected again and re-added to the training set.



- It is used for increasing classification accuracy.
- An ensemble for classification is a composite model, made up of a combination of classifiers.
- The individual classifiers vote, and a class label prediction is returned by the ensemble based on the collection of votes.
- Ensembles tend to be more accurate than their component classifiers.

- Popular ensemble methods are:
 - √ Bagging,
 - ✓ Boosting, and
 - ✓ Random forests

- An ensemble combines a series of k learned models (or base classifiers), M1, M2, ..., Mk, with the aim of creating an improved composite classification model, M*.
- A given data set, D, is used to create k training sets, D1, D2, . . . ,
 Dk, where Di (1<= i <=k-1) is used to generate classifier Mi .
- Given a new data tuple to classify, the base classifiers each vote by returning a class prediction.
- The ensemble returns a class prediction based on the votes of the base classifiers.



Random Forests

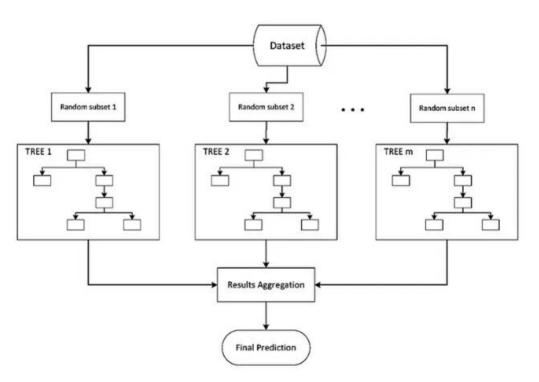
- Imagine that each of the classifiers in the ensemble is a decision tree classifier so that the collection of classifiers is a "forest."
- The individual decision trees are generated using a random selection of attributes at each node to determine the split.
- More formally, each tree depends on the values of a random vector sampled independently and with the same distribution for all trees in the forest.
- During classification, each tree votes and the most popular class is returned.
- Random forests can be built using bagging.
- A training set, *D*, of *d* tuples is given.
- The general procedure to generate k decision trees for the ensemble is as follows.
- For each iteration, i (i = 1, 2, . . . , k), a training set, Di, of d tuples is sampled with replacement from D.
- Each Di is a bootstrap sample of D, so that some tuples may occur more than once in Di, while others may be excluded.

Random Forests

- Let F be the number of attributes to be used to determine the split at each node, where F is much smaller than the number of available attributes.
- To construct a decision tree classifier, Mi, randomly select, at each node, F attributes as candidates for the split at the node.
- The CART methodology is used to grow the trees. The trees are grown to maximum size and are not pruned.
- Random forests formed this way, with random input selection, are called Forest-RI.

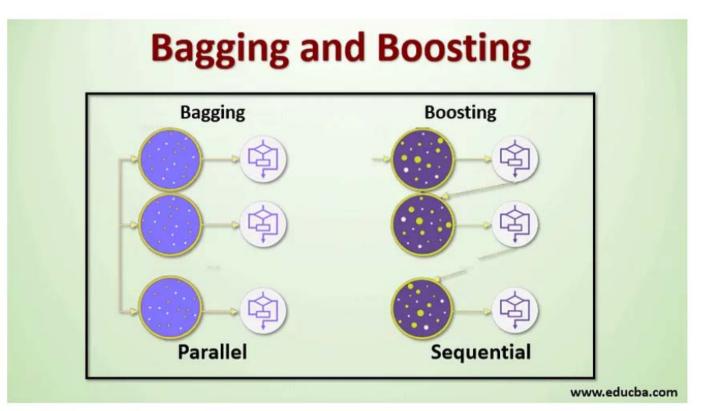
Types of Ensemble Methods

1. BAGGing, or Bootstrap AGGregating. BAGGing gets its name because it combines Bootstrapping and Aggregation to form one ensemble model. Given a sample of data, multiple bootstrapped subsamples are pulled. A Decision Tree is formed on each of the bootstrapped subsamples. After each subsample Decision Tree has been formed, an algorithm is used to aggregate over the Decision Trees to form the most efficient predictor. The image below will help explain:



Given a Dataset, bootstrapped subsamples are pulled. A Decision Tree is formed on each bootstrapped sample. The results of each tree are aggregated to yield the strongest, most accurate predictor.

Definition: — The term 'Boosting' refers to a family of algorithms which converts weak learner to strong learners. Boosting is an ensemble method for improving the model predictions of any given learning algorithm. The idea of boosting is to train weak learners sequentially, each trying to correct its predecessor. The weak learners are sequentially corrected by their predecessors and, in the process, they are converted into strong learners.



2. Random Forest Models. Random Forest Models can be thought of as BAGGing, with a slight tweak. When deciding where to split and how to make decisions, BAGGed Decision Trees have the full disposal of features to choose from. Therefore, although the bootstrapped samples may be slightly different, the data is largely going to break off at the same features throughout each model. In contrary, Random Forest models decide where to split based on a random selection of features. Rather than splitting at similar features at each node throughout, Random Forest models implement a level of differentiation because each tree will split based on different features. This level of differentiation provides a greater ensemble to aggregate over, ergo producing a more accurate predictor. Refer to the image for a better understanding.

