

Decision tree classifiers

Decision tree classifiers are used successfully in many diverse areas. Their most important feature is the capability of capturing descriptive decision making knowledge from the supplied data. Decision tree can be generated from training sets. The procedure for such generation based on the set of objects (S), each belonging to one of the classes C_1, C_2, \dots, C_k is as follows:

Step 1. If all the objects in S belong to the same class, for example C_i , the decision tree for S consists of a leaf labeled with this class

Step 2. Otherwise, let T be some test with possible outcomes O_1, O_2, \dots, O_n . Each object in S has one outcome for T so the test partitions S into subsets S_1, S_2, \dots, S_n where each object in S_i has outcome O_i for T . T becomes the root of the decision tree and for each outcome O_i we build a subsidiary decision tree by invoking the same procedure recursively on the set S_i .

Gradient boosting

Gradient boosting is a machine learning technique used in regression and classification tasks, among others. It gives a prediction model in the form of an ensemble of weak prediction models, which are typically decision trees.^{[1][2]} When a decision tree is the weak learner, the resulting algorithm is called gradient-boosted trees; it usually outperforms random forest. A gradient-boosted trees model is built in a stage-wise fashion as in other boosting methods, but it generalizes the other methods by allowing optimization of an arbitrary differentiable loss function.

K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN)

- Simple, but a very powerful classification algorithm
- Classifies based on a similarity measure
- Non-parametric
- Lazy learning
- Does not “learn” until the test example is given
- Whenever we have a new data to classify, we find its K-nearest neighbors from the training data

Example

- Training dataset consists of k-closest examples in feature space
- Feature space means, space with categorization variables (non-metric variables)
- Learning based on instances, and thus also works lazily because instance close to the input vector for test or prediction may take time to occur in the training dataset

Logistic regression Classifiers

Logistic regression analysis studies the association between a categorical dependent variable and a set of independent (explanatory) variables. The name *logistic regression* is used when the dependent variable has only two values, such as 0 and 1 or Yes and No. The name *multinomial logistic regression* is usually reserved for the case when the dependent variable has three or more unique values, such as Married, Single, Divorced, or Widowed. Although the type of data used for the dependent variable is different from that of multiple regression, the practical use of the procedure is similar.

Logistic regression competes with discriminant analysis as a method for analyzing categorical-response variables. Many statisticians feel that logistic regression is more versatile and better suited for modeling most situations than is discriminant analysis. This is because logistic regression does not assume that the independent variables are normally distributed, as discriminant analysis does.

This program computes binary logistic regression and multinomial logistic regression on both numeric and categorical independent variables. It reports on the regression equation as well as the goodness of fit, odds ratios, confidence limits, likelihood, and deviance. It performs a comprehensive residual analysis including diagnostic residual reports and plots. It can perform an independent variable subset selection search, looking for the best regression model with the fewest independent variables. It provides confidence intervals on predicted values and provides ROC curves to help determine the best cutoff point for classification. It allows you to validate your results by automatically classifying rows that are not used during the analysis.

Naïve Bayes

The naive bayes approach is a supervised learning method which is based on a simplistic hypothesis: it assumes that the presence (or absence) of a particular feature of a class is unrelated to the presence (or absence) of any other feature .

Yet, despite this, it appears robust and efficient. Its performance is comparable to other supervised learning techniques. Various reasons have been advanced in the literature. In this tutorial, we highlight an explanation based on the representation bias. The naive bayes classifier is a linear classifier, as well as linear discriminant

analysis, logistic regression or linear SVM (support vector machine). The difference lies on the method of estimating the parameters of the classifier (the learning bias).

While the Naive Bayes classifier is widely used in the research world, it is not widespread among practitioners which want to obtain usable results. On the one hand, the researchers found especially it is very easy to program and implement it, its parameters are easy to estimate, learning is very fast even on very large databases, its accuracy is reasonably good in comparison to the other approaches. On the other hand, the final users do not obtain a model easy to interpret and deploy, they does not understand the interest of such a technique.

Thus, we introduce in a new presentation of the results of the learning process. The classifier is easier to understand, and its deployment is also made easier. In the first part of this tutorial, we present some theoretical aspects of the naive bayes classifier. Then, we implement the approach on a dataset with Tanagra. We compare the obtained results (the parameters of the model) to those obtained with other linear approaches such as the logistic regression, the linear discriminant analysis and the linear SVM. We note that the results are highly consistent. This largely explains the good performance of the method in comparison to others. In the second part, we use various tools on the same dataset ([Weka 3.6.0](#), [R 2.9.2](#), [Knime 2.1.1](#), [Orange 2.0b](#) and [RapidMiner 4.6.0](#)). We try above all to understand the obtained results.

Random Forest

Random forests or random decision forests are an ensemble learning method for classification, regression and other tasks that operates by constructing a multitude of decision trees at training time. For classification tasks, the output of the random forest is the class selected by most trees. For regression tasks, the mean or average prediction of the individual trees is returned. Random decision forests correct for decision trees' habit of overfitting to their training set. Random forests generally outperform decision trees, but their accuracy is lower than gradient boosted trees. However, data characteristics can affect their performance.

The first algorithm for random decision forests was created in 1995 by Tin Kam Ho[1] using the random subspace method, which, in Ho's formulation, is a way to implement the "stochastic discrimination" approach to classification proposed by Eugene Kleinberg.

An extension of the algorithm was developed by Leo Breiman and Adele Cutler, who registered "Random Forests" as a trademark in 2006 (as of 2019, owned by Minitab, Inc.). The extension combines Breiman's "bagging" idea and random selection of features, introduced first by Ho[1] and later independently by Amit Geman[13] in order to construct a collection of decision trees with controlled variance.

Random forests are frequently used as "blackbox" models in businesses, as they generate reasonable predictions across a wide range of data while requiring little configuration.

SVM

In classification tasks a discriminant machine learning technique aims at finding, based on an *independent and identically distributed (iid)* training dataset, a discriminant function that can correctly predict labels for newly acquired instances. Unlike generative machine learning approaches, which require computations of conditional probability distributions, a discriminant classification function takes a data point x and assigns it to one of the different classes that are a part of the classification task. Less powerful than generative approaches, which are mostly used when prediction involves outlier detection, discriminant approaches require fewer computational resources and less training data, especially for a multidimensional feature space and when only posterior probabilities are needed. From a geometric perspective, learning a classifier is equivalent to finding the equation for a multidimensional surface that best separates the different classes in the feature space.

SVM is a discriminant technique, and, because it solves the convex optimization problem analytically, it always returns the same optimal hyperplane parameter—in contrast to *genetic algorithms (GAs)* or *perceptrons*, both of which are widely used for classification in machine learning. For perceptrons, solutions are highly dependent on the initialization and termination criteria. For a specific kernel that transforms the data from the input space to the feature space, training returns uniquely defined SVM model parameters for a given training set, whereas the perceptron and GA classifier models are different each time training is initialized. The aim of GAs

and perceptrons is only to minimize error during training, which will translate into several hyperplanes' meeting this requirement.