Data Analytics

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Summary: KNN

- ☐ K-Nearest Neighbor (KNN) Classifier
- A simple classifier, a lazy learner
- 1). Choose an odd number for K
- 2). Calculate distances between target and instances in training set
- 3). Pick the top KNN and assign the majority label as prediction
- ☐ Extended Problems in Classification Algorithms
- Q1. Is it able to take categorical features? If Yes, how to treat them
- Q2. Is normalization required?
- Q3. How to alleviate overfitting problem?

Note: they are general concerns in classification, not only KNN.

Summary: Naïve Bayes Classifier

1). How to treat numerical and categorical data in Naïve Bayes?

In KNN, we need to transform nominal data to numerical ones. In Naïve Bayes, we need to transform numerical data to nominal data.

2). Is normalization required in Naïve Bayes?

It is not necessary in Naïve Bayes, but required in KNN

3). Overfitting in Naïve Bayes?

Be careful about the imbalanced data in Naïve Bayes.

4). Which one is better?

It depends. You'd better try Naïve Bayes if there are multiple nominal features

Logistic Regression

Simple Logistic regression model

Simple case: Relationship between <u>qualitative binary variable</u> Y and one x-variable:

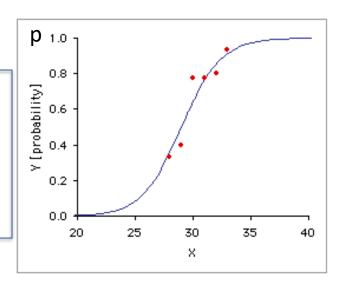
Model for probability p=Pr(Y=1) for each value x.

$$\log(\frac{p}{1-p}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$$

Odds=
$$\frac{p}{1-p} = \frac{P(Y=1)}{P(Y=0)}$$

measures the odds that event Y = 1 occurs

Note: the logistic regression model is linear in log(odds).



Interpreting odds $\frac{p}{1-p} = \frac{P(Y=1)}{P(Y=0)}$

Let p=Pr(Y=1) the probability of "success"

- If odd>1 then $pr(Y=1) > Pr(Y=0) \rightarrow Pr(Y=1) > 0.5$
- If odd=1 then $Pr(Y=1) = Pr(Y=0) \rightarrow Pr(Y=1)=0.5$
- If odd<1 then $p=pr(Y=1) < Pr(Y=0) \rightarrow Pr(Y=1) < 0.5$

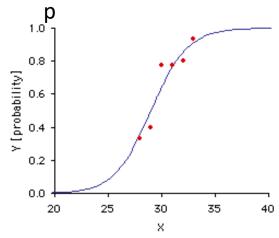
Simple Logistic regression model

Simple case: Relationship between qualitative binary variable Y and one x-variable:

Model for probability p=Pr(Y=1) for each value x.

$$\log(\frac{p}{1-p}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$$

The slope parameter measures the degree of association between the probability p = pr(Y=1) and the value of X.



If $\beta_1 > 0$, then the odds of success **increases** with an increase in X. If $\beta_1 < 0$, then the odds of success **decreases** with an increase in X.

 $e^{\beta_1}-1$ = percentage change in odds of success for every unit increase in X.

Example of logistic model

The predictive model for $p=Pr(Y=task\ completed)$ is

or
$$\log(\frac{\hat{p}}{1-\hat{p}}) = -3.0597 + 0.1615 \, months \, of \, experience$$

$$\hat{p} = \frac{\exp(-3.0597 + 0.1615 \, months \, of \, experience)}{1 + \exp(-3.0597 + 0.1615 \, months \, of \, experience)}$$

What does the slope β_1 mean?

The log(p/(1-p)) increases of 0.1615, for each additional month of experience.

Or using the anti-log function exp(0.1615) = 1.17

The odds p/(1-p) of success increase of 17%, for each additional month of experience.

Multiple logistic regression models

- Relationship between a qualitative binary variable Y and several X-variables
- Model for probability p=Pr(Y=1):

$$\log(\frac{p}{1-p}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \beta_3 x_3 + \beta_4 x_4 + e$$

• The x-variable can be quantitative or qualitative (represented by dummy variables), just the similar process of incorporating dummy variables when we introduce multiple linear regression models.

Estimation procedures

- Parameter estimates are computed using Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE). It is no longer Least Squares!
- Results hold only for large samples
- You can still use different feature selection methods, such as backward, forward, stepwise, etc, by using the step function in R
- The residuals in logistic regression are difficult to be interpreted. You can ignore residual analysis

R code

R code

```
predict(fit, type="response", newdata=dataframe)
https://stat.ethz.ch/R-manual/R-
devel/library/stats/html/predict.glm.html
```

type

the type of prediction required. The default is on the scale of the linear predictors; the alternative "response" is on the scale of the response variable. Thus for a default binomial model the default predictions are of log-odds (probabilities on logit scale) and type = "response" gives the predicted probabilities. The "terms" option returns a matrix giving the fitted values of each term in the model formula on the linear predictor scale.

```
residuals(fit, type="deviance") # residuals
```

N-fold cross validation → you can still use cv.glm()
The output is not longer prediction errors, but error rate
Accuracy = 1 - error rate

R Code

- Special Note: the glm function with family = binominal(), can only be used for binary classifications.
- If you would like to perform multi-class classifications, you need to use other functions

R Code for multi-class Classifications

If you use hold-out evaluation

```
library(nnet)
library(Metrics)
model=multinom(class~.,data=train)
pd=predict(model,newdata=test,type="class")
accuracy(class,pd)
```

If you use N-fold cross validation
library(caret)
library(nnet)
model = train(x,y,'multinom',trControl=trainControl(method='cv',number=5))
print(model)

Data: Case Study 3 - Admissions

```
admit,gre,gpa,rank
0,380,3.61,3
1,660,3.67,3
1,800,4,1
1,640,3.19,4
0,520,2.93,4
1,760,3,2
1,560,2.98,1
0,400,3.08,2
```

Example: hold-out evaluations, load and split data

```
> mydata=read.csv("case3 admission.csv",header=T)
> mydata=mydata[sample(nrow(mydata)),]
> select.data = sample (l:nrow(mydata), 0.8*nrow(mydata))
> train.data = mydata[select.data,]
> test.data = mydata[-select.data,]
> head(mydata)
   admit gre gpa rank
265 1 520 3.90
140 1 600 3.58
120 0 340 2.92
                    3
172 0 540 2.81
247 0 680 3.34
168 0 720 3.77
> train.label=train.data$admit
> test.label=test.data$admit
```

Example: hold-out evaluations, build model by FS

```
> full=glm(admit~gre+gpa+rank, data=train.data, family=binomial())
> base=glm(admit~gpa, data=train.data, family=binomial())
> library(leaps)
Warning message:
package 'leaps' was built under R version 3.5.2
> step(base, scope=list(upper=full, lower=~1), direction="both", trace=F)
Call: glm(formula = admit ~ gpa + rank + gre, family = binomial(),
   data = train.data)
Coefficients:
(Intercept)
                            rank
                    gpa
                                             gre
 -2.861669 0.683853 -0.594686 0.002019
Degrees of Freedom: 319 Total (i.e. Null); 316 Residual
Null Deviance:
                   402.1
Residual Deviance: 370.7 AIC: 378.7
```

Example: hold-out evaluations, produce probabilities

```
> predict(full, type="response", newdata=test.data)
       168
0.35114554 0.48386137 0.31932437 0.48369815 0.27974173 0.41706093 0.45565929 0.46461888
                                                     283
0.17113226 0.45889138 0.41777034 0.42851806 0.17527994 0.19625871 0.53655916 0.22292808
        95
                  266
                                         108
                                                                            187
0.40947750 0.16875397 0.40949799 0.28059366 0.31286434 0.48556940
                                                                    0.25990833 0.34126702
        86
                  358
                                                     385
                                         112
                                                                            293
                                                                                       330
0.27620968 0.56483108 0.53208385 0.11299118 0.21580479 0.70974819 0.46308072 0.09732698
       379
                  176
                              113
                                                                             25
                                         109
                                                                                       304
0.22793249 0.37877506 0.13384615 0.13770473 0.20762858 0.43184987
        54
                               18
                                         150
                                                     226
                                                                            123
                                                                                       131
0.39126377 0.54957227 0.10263655 0.57472852 0.31031481 0.42867812 0.16152450 0.34716567
> prob=predict(full, type="response", newdata=test.data)
```

- Example: hold-out evaluations
- Next, choose cut-off value to calculate accuracy

```
> for (i in 1:length (pr
     if(prob[i]>0.5) {
          prob[i]=1
      }else{
 prob[i]=0
> library(Metrics)
> accuracy(test.label, prob)
[1] 0.6875
> prob=predict(full, type="response", newdata=test.data)
> for(i in 1:length(prob)){
      if(prob[i]>0.4){
          prob[i]=1
       }else{
 prob[i]=0
  accuracy(test.label, prob)
```

Example: 5-fold cross validation

```
> fit=glm(admit~gre+gpa+rank, data=mydata)
> cv.glm(fit, data=mydata, K=5)$delta
[1] 0.2013244 0.2007128
>
```

- Use \$delta to get the error rate
- Always read the first one which is the raw rate
- The error rate in this case is 0.2013244
- The accuracy = 1 error rate = 0.79868

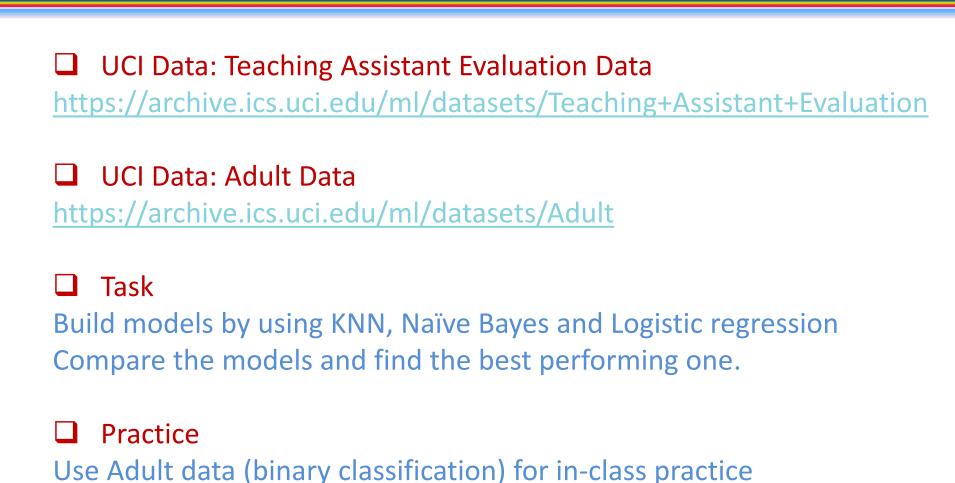
Classification Algorithms

- Classification algorithm is the key component in the process
- They are able to learn from training and build models

There are many (supervised) classification algorithms:

- K-nearest neighbor classifier
- Naïve Bayes classifier
- Decision tress
- Logistic regression
- Support Vector Machines
- Ensemble classifiers (e.g., random forest)
- •

In-Class Practice



Use TA evaluation data (multi-class) as your assignment

In-Class Practice

☐ Hints

Make a decision about features and labels

Make a decision about evaluations (strategy and metrics)

Make a decision about which algorithms to be used

Preprocess your data according to the requirements in each algorithm

Run classifications on the preprocessed data