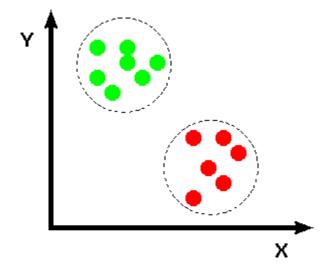


Classification

• *Classification* is about identifying to which of a set of categories a new observation belongs, on the basis of a training set of data.



Naïve Bayes Classification

Terms

- Classes possible outcomes that we would classify an object to.
 - E.g. Buy or don't buy
 - Denoted as C_i
- Predictors attribute data used to classify objects.
 - E.g. gender, income, marriage status, education background
 - Denoted as x_1, x_2, \dots, x_p

Cut-off Probability

- In general, classification is about finding $P(C_i|x_1,x_2,...,x_p)$.
- A cut-off probability p is pre-defined.
- If $P(C_i|x_1,x_2,...,x_p)$ >p, then the object will be classified under class C_i .
- When p=0.5, the classification rule is called majority voting rule.

Exact Bayes Procedure

•
$$P(C_i|x_1,...,x_p) = \frac{P(x_1,...,x_p|C_i)P(C_i)}{P(x_1,...,x_p|C_1)P(C_1)+\cdots+P(x_1,...,x_p|C_m)P(C_m)}$$

- However, when the number of predictors gets larger, many of the records to be classified will be without exact matches.
- For example, a male loan applicant, age 45, married with 5 children, graduated from Techno India University, manager. Is he risky or safe customer?

Naïve Bayes

•
$$P(C_i|x_1,...,x_p) = \frac{[P(x_1|C_i)P(x_2|C_i)...P(x_p|C_i)]P(C_i)}{[P(x_1|C_1)P(x_2|C_1)...P(x_p|C_1)]P(C_1)+...+[P(x_1|C_m)P(x_2|C_m)...P(x_p|C_m)]P(C_m)}$$

Lasagna Triers Example

- Suppose we are going to use the following predictors to classify customers: Age, PayType, Nbhd.
- The probability of a customer with Age = 30, PayType = "Hourly" and Nbhd = "West" is then

```
P(Yes | Age = 30, PayType = "Hourly", Nbhd="West")
```

P(Age = 30|Yes)P(PayType = Hourly|Yes)P(Nbhd = West|Yes)P(Yes)

 $\overline{P(Age = 30|Yes)P(PayType = \text{Hourly}|Yes)P(Nbhd = \text{West}|Yes)P(Yes) + P(Age = 30|No)P(PayType = \text{Hourly}|No)P(Nbhd = \text{West}|No)P(No)P(No)}}$

Categorical Predictor

• P(Yes)

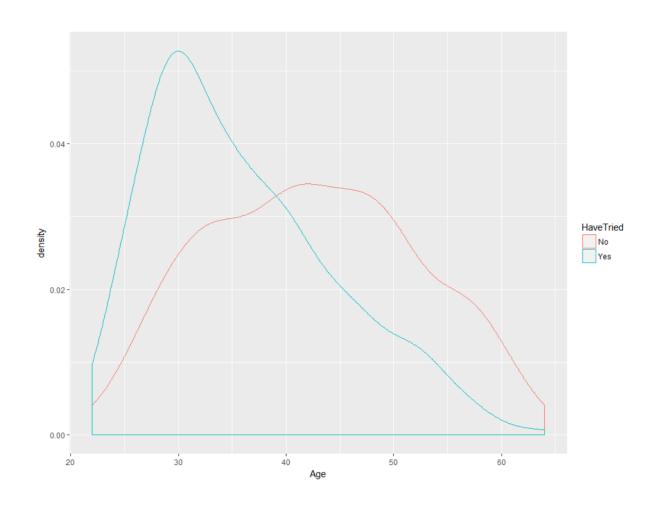
```
nrow(triers.train[triers.train$HaveTried=="Yes",])/nrow(triers.train)
```

P(Nbhd="West" | Yes)

nrow(triers.train[triers.train\$HaveTried=="Yes"&triers.train\$Nbhd=="West",])/nrow(triers.train
[triers.train\$HaveTried=="Yes",])

Continuous Predictor

 Using the attributes' mean and standard deviation, for each of the two class outcomes (HaveTried=Yes and HaveTried=No), we estimate the *pdf* value at any given decision point and use it as the conditional probability in the formula.



Example on Age

Mean & Standard Deviation of Age among triers

```
mean.triers <- mean(triers.train[triers.train$HaveTried=="Yes",]$Age)
sd.triers <- sd(triers.train[triers.train$HaveTried=="Yes",]$Age)
```

Mean & Standard Deviation of Age among non-triers

```
mean.nontriers <- mean(triers.train[triers.train$HaveTried=="No",]$Age)
sd.nontriers <- sd(triers.train[triers.train$HaveTried=="No",]$Age)</pre>
```

• P(Age=30 | Yes)

```
dnorm(30,mean.triers,sd.triers)
```

Use e1071 package

Model

```
m <- naiveBayes(HaveTried ~ ., data = triers.train)
```

Prediction

```
predict(m, triers.train)
```

Evaluation

```
a<-table(predict(m, triers.train), triers.train$HaveTried)
accuracy <- (a[1,1]+a[2,2])/sum(a)
accurary</pre>
```

Decision Tree Classification

German Credit Case

- File: germancredit.csv
- The data set contains attributes and outcomes on 1000 loan applications.
- To construct a model to predict if a loan applicant is going to default.

Splitting

- Choose the predictor variable that best splits the data into two groups such that the *purity* (homogeneity) of the outcome in the two groups is maximized (that is, as many default cases in one group and non-default cases in the other group as possible).
- If the predictor is categorical, combine the categories to obtain two groups with maximum purity.
- If the predictor is continuous, choose a cut-off point that maximizes purity for the two groups created.

Comparison of different splits

> df.foreign

```
0 1 default.rate
foreign 667 296 0.3073728
german 33 4 0.1081081
```

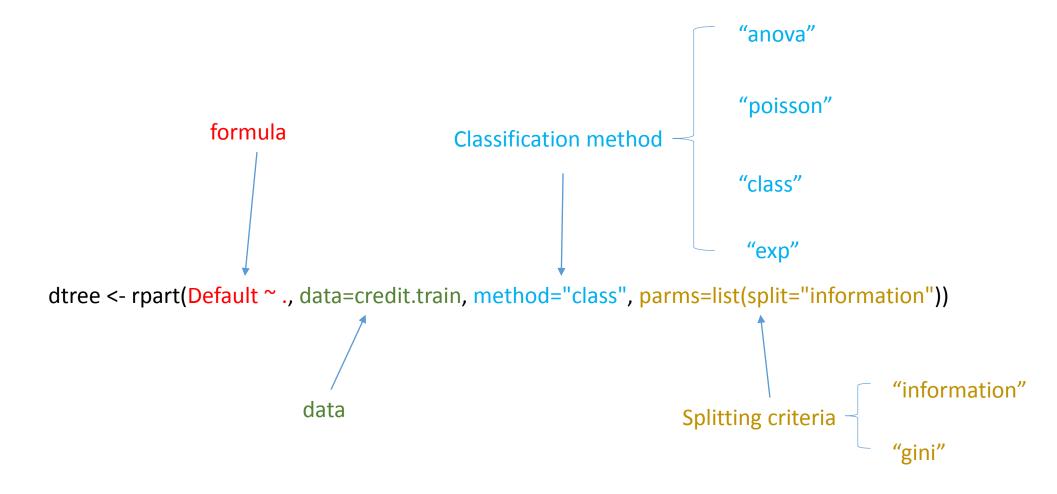
> df.history

```
0 1 default.rate
good 36 53 0.5955056
poor 421 197 0.3187702
terrible 243 50 0.1706485
```

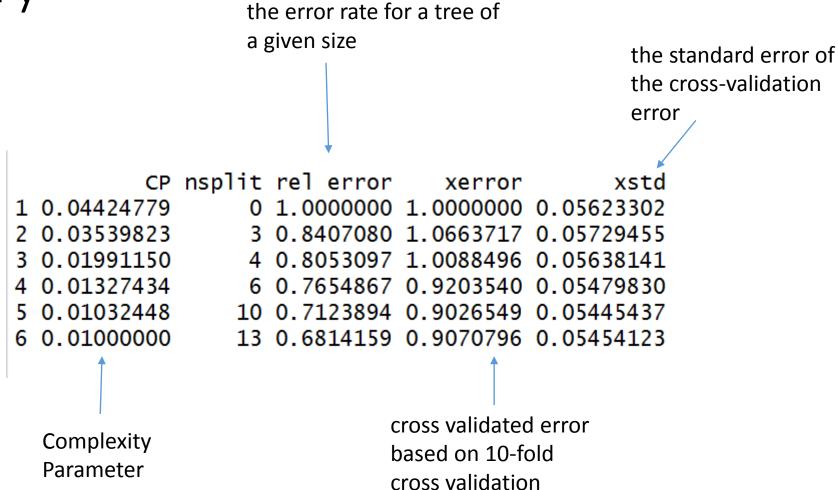
Decision Tree Procedure

- Step 1: Split data by a predictor
- Step 2: Separate the data into these two groups, and continue the process for each sub-group.
- Step 3: Repeat Step 1 and 2 until a subgroup contains fewer than a minimum number of observations or no splits decrease the impurity beyond a specific threshold.

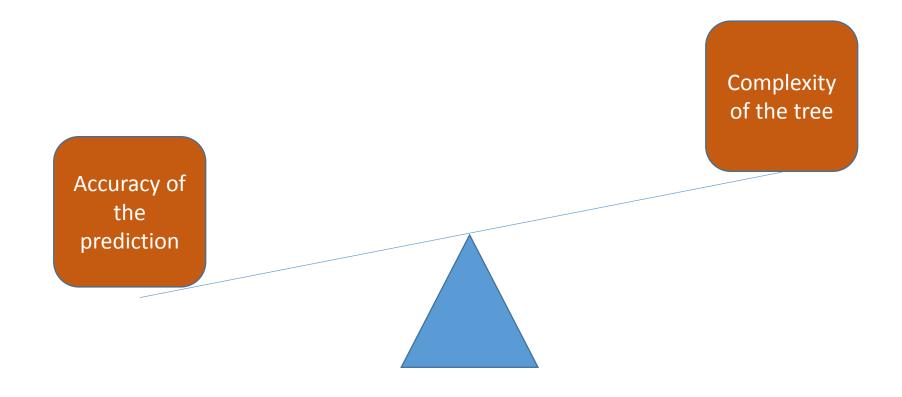
Model



Summary



Trade-off in Decision Tree



Ср

- Internally, rpart keeps track of something called the complexity of a tree.
- The complexity measure is a combination of the size of a tree and the ability of the tree to separate the classes of the target variable. If the next best split in growing a tree does not reduce the tree's overall complexity by a certain amount, rpart will terminate the growing process.
- This amount is specified by the *complexity parameter*, cp, in the call to rpart.
- Setting cp to a negative amount ensures that the tree will be fully grown.

Other means of controlling growth of the tree

- minsplit: the minimum number of observations that must exist in a node in order for a split to be attempted.
- *minbucket*: the minimum number of observations in any terminal node.
- maxcompete: the number of competitor splits retained in the output
- maxsurrogate: the number of surrogate splits retained in the output.
- *Usesurrogate*: how to use surrogates in the splitting process. It takes options 0, 1, or 2.
- xval: number of cross-validations.
- *surrogatestyle*: controls the selection of a best surrogate. Options: 1 and 2.
- maxdepth: Set the maximum depth of any node of the final tree, with the root node counted as depth 0.

Pruning Tree – Method 1

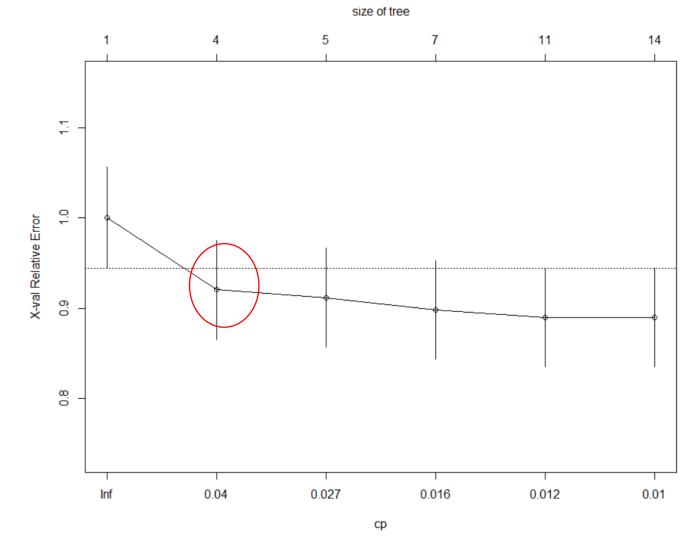
Choose the smallest tree whose cross-validated error is within one standard error of the minimum cross-validated error value.

The threshold is 0.9070796 + 0.05454123

The smallest tree is Node 2 with nsplit = 3 and the corresponding cp value to use is some value above 0.03539823, for example 0.04

Pruning Tree - Method 2

plotcp(dtree)



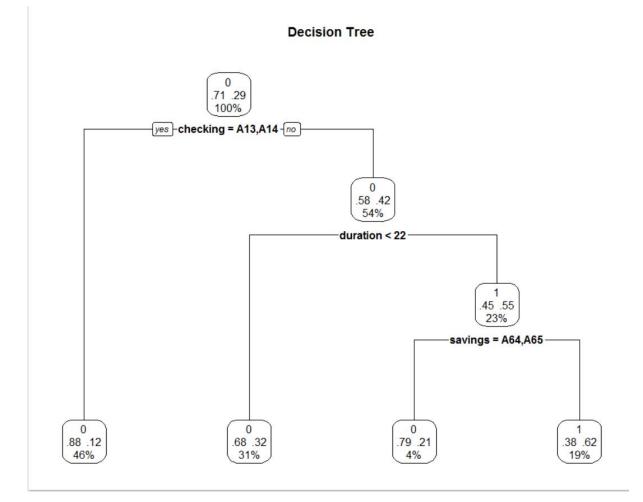
Choose the tree size associated with the largest cp below the dotted line.

Prune the tree

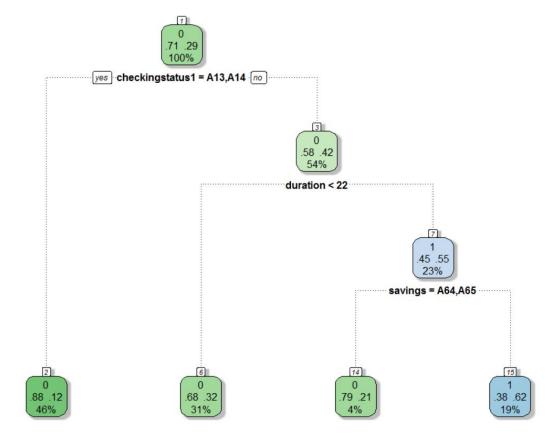
dtree.pruned <- prune(dtree, cp=0.04)</pre>

Visualizing Tree

prp(dtree.pruned, type=2, fallen.leaves = TRUE, extra=104, main="Decision Tree")



Require(rattle)
fancyRpartPlot(dtree.pruned)



Measuring the prediction outcomes

```
dtree.pred <- predict(dtree.pruned, credit.test, type = "response")

dtree.pred <- predict(dtree.pruned, credit.test, type = "class")

dtree.perf <- table (credit.test$Default, dtree.pred,dnn=c("Actual","Predicted"))

> dtree.perf
    Predicted
Actual 0 1
    0 119 15
    1 47 27
```

Cost Matrix

What if the cost of a default case is five times the benefit of a non-default case?

| | Predicted | |
|-------------|-------------|---------|
| Actual | Non-Default | Default |
| Non-Default | 0 | 1 |
| Default | 5 | 0 |

dtree <- rpart(Default ~ ., data=credit.train, method="class", parms=list(split="information",loss=matrix(c(0,1,5,0), byrow=TRUE, nrow=2)))

Conditional Inference Trees

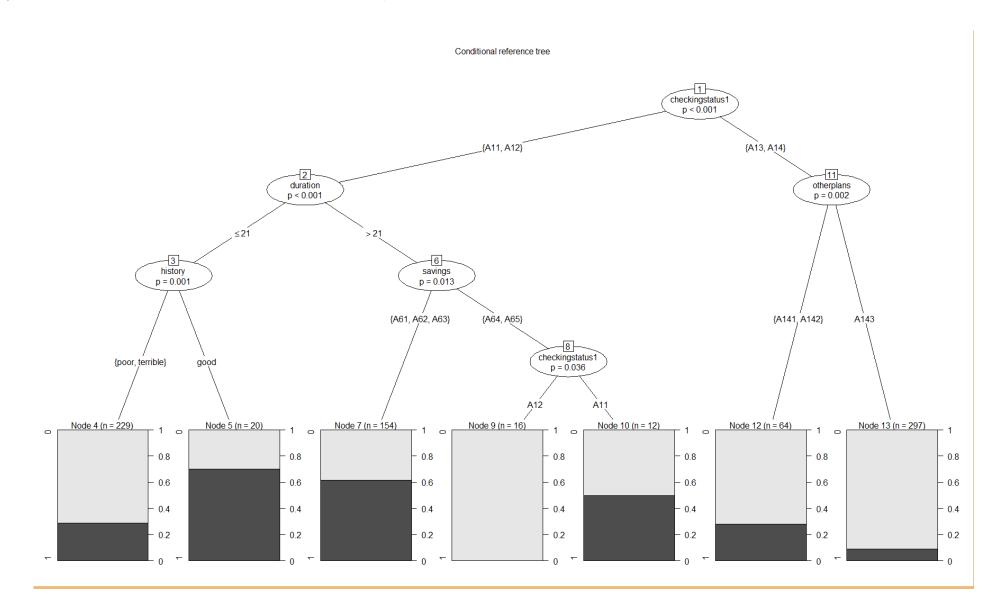
Algorithm

- Calculate p-values for the relationship between each predicator and the outcome variable.
- Select the predictor with the lowest p-value
- Explore all possible binary splits on the chosen predictor and dependent variable, and pick the most significant split.
- Separate the data into these two groups, and continue the process for each subgroup
- Continue until splits are no longer significant or the minimum node size is reached.

ctree() function

Ctree view

plot(fit.ctree,main="Conditional reference tree")



Adding Weights

fit.ctree<- ctree(Default~., credit.train, weights= ifelse(credit.train\$Default==1, 5, 1))



Random Forest

Algorithm

- Grow a large number of decision trees by sampling N cases with replacement from the training set.
- Sample m<N variables at each node. These variables are considered candidates for splitting in that node. The value m is the same for each node.
- Grow each tree fully without pruning.
- Terminal nodes are assigned to a class based on the mode of cases in that node.
- Classify new cases by sending them down all the trees and taking a vote – majority rules.

Model

library(randomForest)

```
set.seed(1234)
```

fit.forest <- randomForest(Default ~., data=credit.train, na.action = na.roughfix, importance=TRUE)

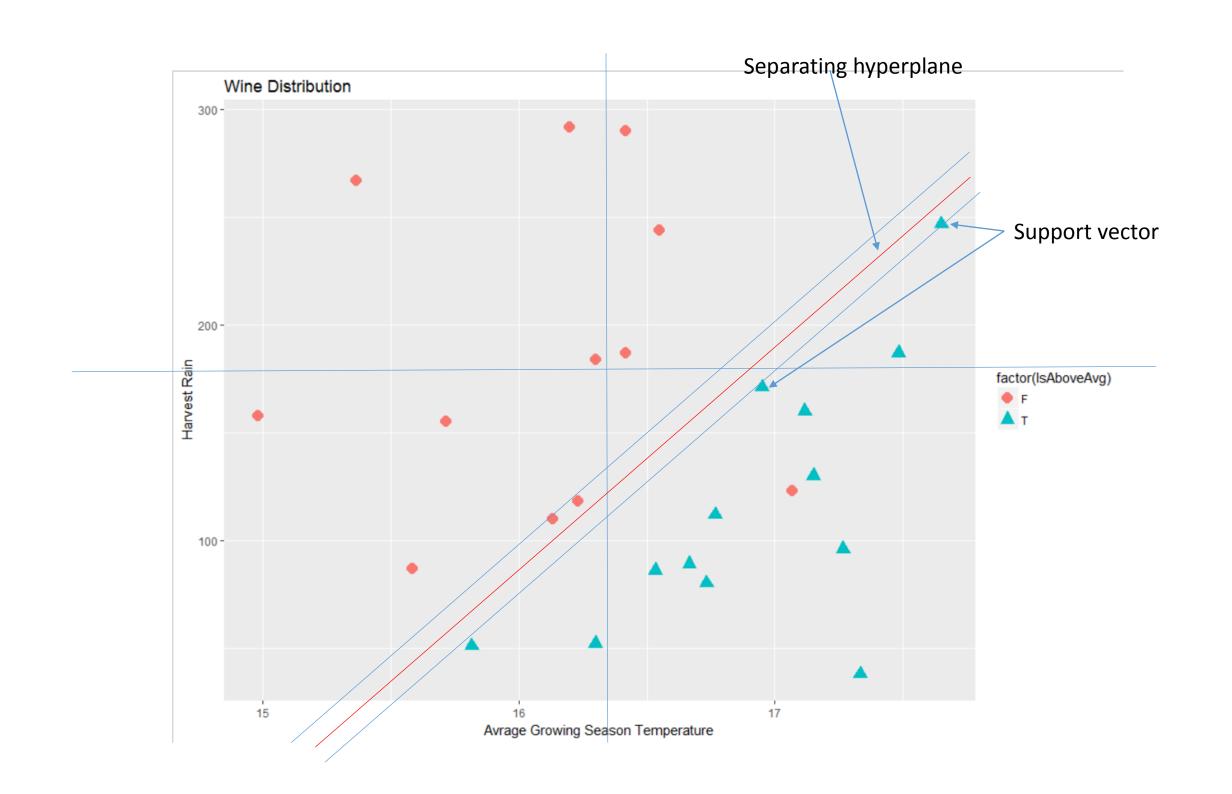
Take cost into consideration

fit.forest <- randomForest(Default \sim ., data=credit.train, na.action = na.roughfix, importance=TRUE, cutoff=c(5/6,1/6))

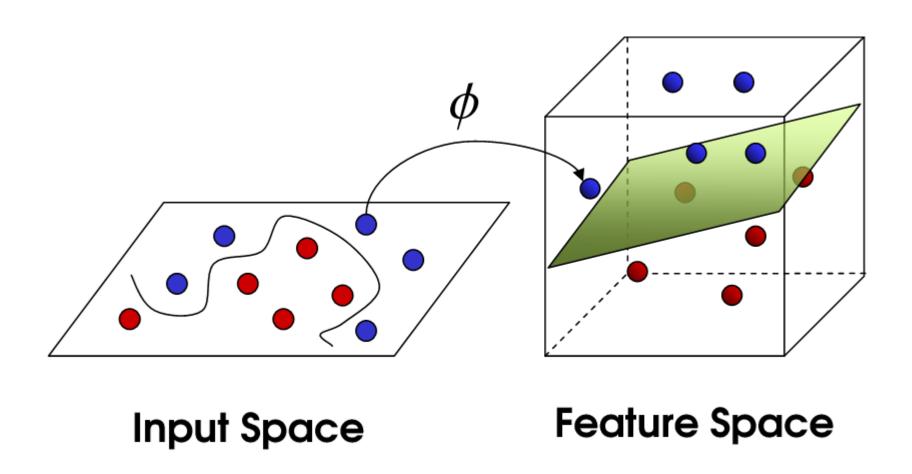
Support Vector Machines

Support Vector Machines (SVM)

- SVM seeks an optimal hyperplane for separating two classes in a multidimensional space.
- The hyperplane is chosen to maximize the margin between the two classes' closest points.
- The points on the boundary of the margin are called support vectors.
- The middle of the margin is the *separating hyperplane*.



Some data that is complex in lower dimension becomes simple in higher dimension



Model

- library(e1071)
- fit.svm <- svm(Default ~., data=credit.train)
- fit.svm
- svm.pred <- predict (fit.svm, credit.train)

Tuning performance

- Two parameters gamma and cost are affecting the performance of SCM.
- Larger values of gamma result in a larger number of support vectors.
- The cost parameter represents the cost of making errors. A large value severely penalizes errors and leads to a more complex classification boundary. It may lead to overfitting problem.

Tuning Performance

tuned <- tune.svm(Default ~., data=credit.train, gamma=10^(-6:1),cost=10^(-10:10))

tuned

Handling asymmetric cost

```
credit.train$Default <- factor(credit.train$Default, levels=c(0,1), labels=c("NDF","DF"))
fit.svm.cost <- svm(Default ~., data=credit.train, class.weights=c(NDF=1,DF=5))</pre>
```