# **CS6220: DATA MINING TECHNIQUES**

### Matrix Data: Classification: Part 1

**Instructor: Yizhou Sun** 

yzsun@ccs.neu.edu

January 20, 2016

# **Matrix Data: Classification: Part 1**

- Classification: Basic Concepts
- Decision Tree Induction
- Model Evaluation and Selection
- Summary

### **Supervised vs. Unsupervised Learning**

- Supervised learning (classification)
  - Supervision: The training data (observations, measurements, etc.) are accompanied by labels indicating the class of the observations
  - New data is classified based on the training set
- Unsupervised learning (clustering)
  - The class labels of training data is unknown
  - Given a set of measurements, observations, etc. with the aim of establishing the existence of classes or clusters in the data

# Prediction Problems: Classification vs. Numeric Prediction

- Classification
  - predicts categorical class labels
  - classifies data (constructs a model) based on the training set and the values (class labels) in a classifying attribute and uses it in classifying new data
- Numeric Prediction
  - models continuous-valued functions, i.e., predicts unknown or missing values
- Typical applications
  - Credit/loan approval:
  - Medical diagnosis: if a tumor is cancerous or benign
  - Fraud detection: if a transaction is fraudulent
  - Web page categorization: which category it is

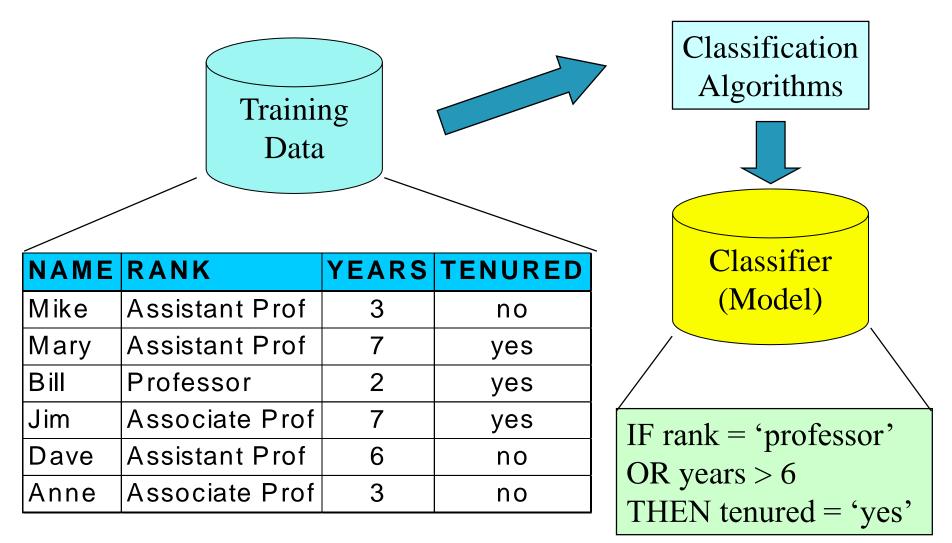
# Classification—A Two-Step Process (1)

- 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
    - For data point  $i : \langle x_i, y_i \rangle$
    - Features: x<sub>i</sub>; class label: y<sub>i</sub>
  - The model is represented as classification rules, decision trees, or mathematical formulae
    - Also called classifier
  - The set of tuples used for model construction is training set

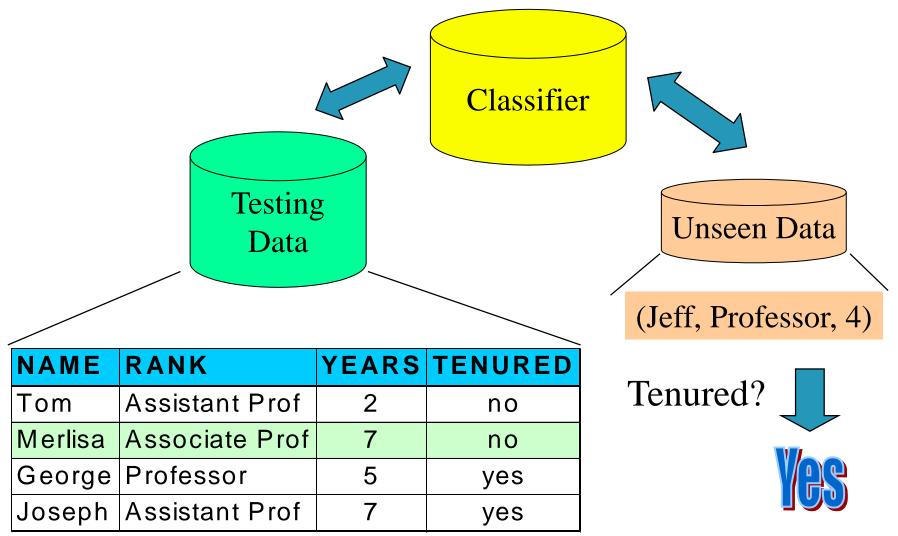
### Classification—A Two-Step Process (2)

- 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
    - Test set is independent of training set (otherwise overfitting)
    - Accuracy rate is the percentage of test set samples that are correctly classified by the model
      - Most used for binary classes
  - If the accuracy is acceptable, use the model to classify new data
- Note: If the test set is used to select models, it is called validation (test) set

### **Process (1): Model Construction**



### **Process (2): Using the Model in Prediction**



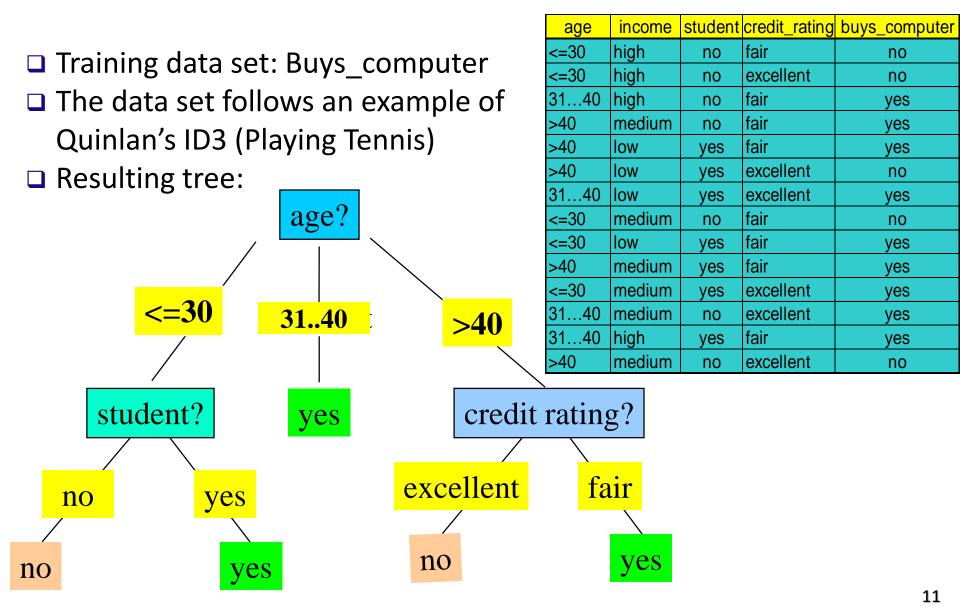
# **Classification Methods Overview**

- Part 1
  - Decision Tree
  - Model Evaluation
- Part 2
  - Bayesian Learning: Naïve Bayes, Bayesian belief network
  - Logistic Regression
- Part 3
  - SVM
  - kNN
  - Other Topics

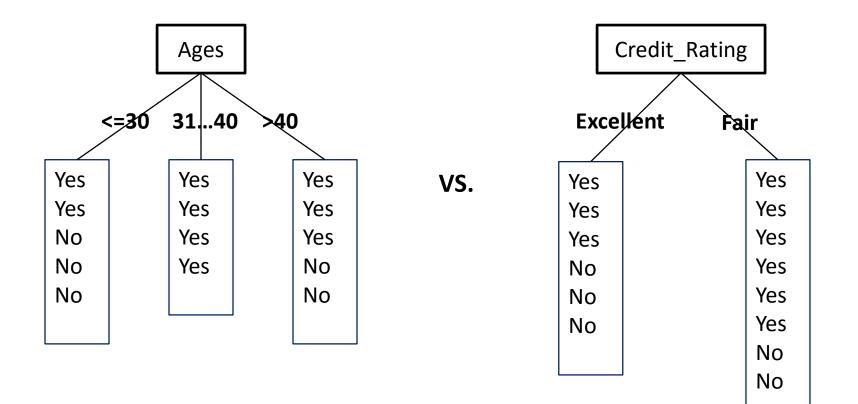
# **Matrix Data: Classification: Part 1**

- Classification: Basic Concepts
- Decision Tree Induction
- Model Evaluation and Selection
- Summary

# **Decision Tree Induction: An Example**

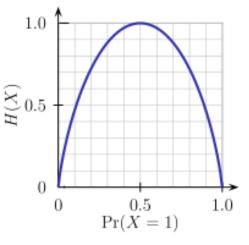


### How to choose attributes?



# **Brief Review of Entropy**

- Entropy (Information Theory)
  - A measure of uncertainty (impurity) associated with a random variable
  - Calculation: For a discrete random variable *Y* taking *m* distinct values {*y*<sub>1</sub>, ..., *y<sub>m</sub>*},
    - $H(Y) = -\sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i \log(p_i)$ , where  $p_i = P(Y = y_i)$
  - Interpretation:
    - Higher entropy => higher uncertainty
    - Lower entropy => lower uncertainty
- Conditional Entropy
  - $H(Y|X) = \sum_{x} p(x)H(Y|X=x)$



m = 2

# Attribute Selection Measure: Information Gain (ID3/C4.5)

- Select the attribute with the highest information gain
- Let p<sub>i</sub> be the probability that an arbitrary tuple in D belongs to class C<sub>i</sub>, estimated by |C<sub>i, D</sub>|/|D|
- Expected information (entropy) needed to classify a tuple in D:  $Info(D) = -\sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i \log_2(p_i)$
- Information needed (after using A to split D<sup>i=1</sup> into v partitions) to classify D (conditional entropy):  $Info_A(D) = \sum_{j=1}^{\nu} \frac{|D_j|}{|D|} \times Info(D_j)$
- Information gained by branching on attribute A

$$Gain(A) = Info(D) - Info_A(D)$$

### **Attribute Selection: Information Gain**

Class N: buys_computer = "no"							
Info(D)	I = I(9,5) =	$-\frac{9}{14}\log$	$g_2(\frac{9}{14})$	$-\frac{5}{14}\log_2(\frac{5}{14})$	)=(		
	age	p <sub>i</sub>	n <sub>i</sub>	l(p <sub>i</sub> , n <sub>i</sub> )			
	<=30	2	3	0.971			
	3140	4	0	0			
	>40	3	2	0.971			

Class P: buys\_computer = "yes"

age	income	student	credit_rating	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

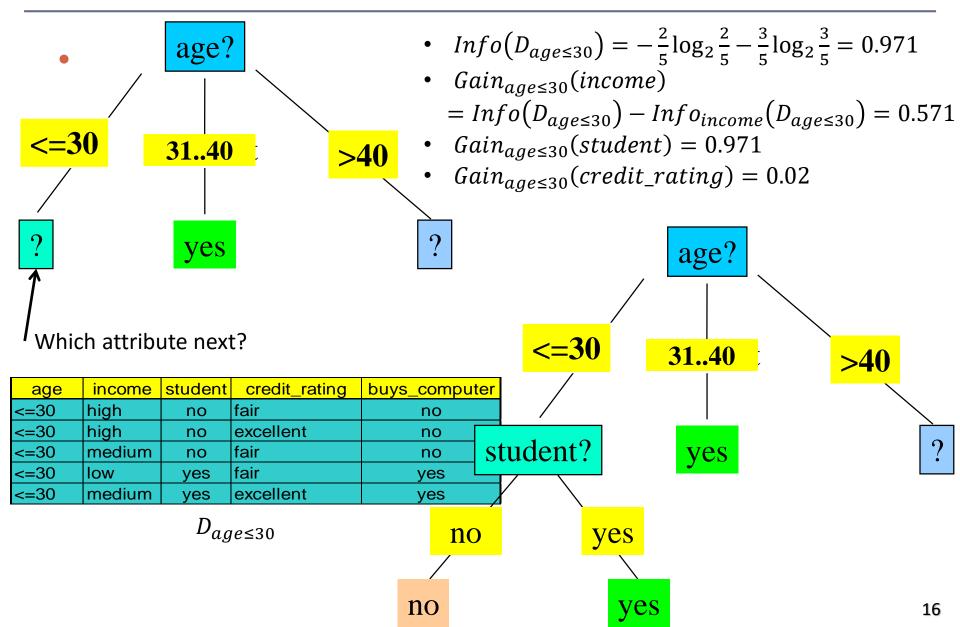
 $Info_{age}(D) = \frac{5}{14}I(2,3) + \frac{4}{14}I(4,0) + \frac{5}{14}I(3,2) = 0.694$ 

 $\frac{5}{14}I(2,3)$  means "age <=30" has 5 out of 14 samples, with 2 yes'es and 3 no's. Hence

 $Gain(age) = Info(D) - Info_{age}(D) = 0.246$ Similarly,

Gain(income) = 0.029 Gain(student) = 0.151Gain(credit rating) = 0.048

# **Attribute Selection for a Branch**



## **Algorithm for Decision Tree Induction**

- Basic algorithm (a greedy algorithm)
  - Tree is constructed in a top-down recursive divide-and-conquer manner
  - At start, all the training examples are at the root
  - Attributes are categorical (if continuous-valued, they are discretized in advance)
  - Examples are partitioned recursively based on selected attributes
  - Test attributes are selected on the basis of a heuristic or statistical measure (e.g., information gain)
- Conditions for stopping partitioning
  - All samples for a given node belong to the same class
  - There are no remaining attributes for further partitioning majority voting is employed for classifying the leaf
  - There are no samples left use majority voting in the parent partition

## Computing Information-Gain for Continuous-Valued Attributes

- Let attribute A be a continuous-valued attribute
- Must determine the *best split point* for A
  - Sort the value A in increasing order
  - Typically, the midpoint between each pair of adjacent values is considered as a possible *split point* 
    - $(a_i + a_{i+1})/2$  is the midpoint between the values of  $a_i$  and  $a_{i+1}$
  - The point with the *minimum expected information requirement* for A is selected as the split-point for A
- Split:
  - D1 is the set of tuples in D satisfying A ≤ split-point, and D2 is the set of tuples in D satisfying A > split-point

### Gain Ratio for Attribute Selection (C4.5)

- Information gain measure is biased towards attributes with a large number of values
- C4.5 (a successor of ID3) uses gain ratio to overcome the problem (normalization to information gain)

SplitInfo<sub>A</sub>(D) = 
$$-\sum_{j=1}^{\nu} \frac{|D_j|}{|D|} \times \log_2(\frac{|D_j|}{|D|})$$

- GainRatio(A) = Gain(A)/SplitInfo(A)
- Ex.  $SplitInfo_{income}(D) = -\frac{4}{14} \times \log_2\left(\frac{4}{14}\right) - \frac{6}{14} \times \log_2\left(\frac{6}{14}\right) - \frac{4}{14} \times \log_2\left(\frac{4}{14}\right) = 1.557$ 
  - gain\_ratio(income) = 0.029/1.557 = 0.019
- The attribute with the maximum gain ratio is selected as the splitting attribute

### Gini Index (CART, IBM IntelligentMiner)

• If a data set *D* contains examples from *n* classes, gini index, gini(*D*) is defined as  $gini(D) = 1 - \sum_{j=1}^{\nu} p_j^2$ 

where  $p_j$  is the relative frequency of class j in D

- If a data set *D* is split on A into two subsets  $D_1$  and  $D_2$ , the gini index gini(*D*) is defined as  $gini_A(D) = \frac{|D_1|}{|D|}gini(D_1) + \frac{|D_2|}{|D|}gini(D_2)$
- Reduction in Impurity:

$$\Delta gini(A) = gini(D) - gini_A(D)$$

 The attribute provides the smallest gini<sub>split</sub>(D) (or the largest reduction in impurity) is chosen to split the node (need to enumerate all the possible splitting points for each attribute)

### **Computation of Gini Index**

- Ex. D has 9 tuples in buys\_computer = "yes" and 5 in "no"  $gini(D) = 1 - \left(\frac{9}{14}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{5}{14}\right)^2 = 0.459$
- Suppose the attribute income partitions D into 10 in D<sub>1</sub>: {low, medium} and 4 in D<sub>2</sub>

$$\begin{split} gini_{income \in \{low, medium\}}(D) &= \left(\frac{10}{14}\right) Gini(D_1) + \left(\frac{4}{14}\right) Gini(D_2) \\ &= \frac{10}{14} \left(1 - \left(\frac{7}{10}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{3}{10}\right)^2\right) + \frac{4}{14} \left(1 - \left(\frac{2}{4}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{2}{4}\right)^2\right) \\ &= 0.443 \\ &= Gini_{income \in \{high\}}(D). \end{split}$$

Gini<sub>{low,high}</sub> is 0.458; Gini<sub>{medium,high}</sub> is 0.450. Thus, split on the {low,medium} (and {high}) since it has the lowest Gini index

### **Comparing Attribute Selection Measures**

- The three measures, in general, return good results but
  - Information gain:
    - biased towards multivalued attributes
  - Gain ratio:
    - tends to prefer unbalanced splits in which one partition is much smaller than the others (why?)
  - Gini index:
    - biased to multivalued attributes

### **\*Other Attribute Selection Measures**

- <u>CHAID</u>: a popular decision tree algorithm, measure based on  $\chi^2$  test for independence
- <u>C-SEP</u>: performs better than info. gain and gini index in certain cases
- <u>G-statistic</u>: has a close approximation to  $\chi^2$  distribution
- MDL (Minimal Description Length) principle (i.e., the simplest solution is preferred):
  - The best tree as the one that requires the fewest # of bits to both (1) encode the tree, and (2) encode the exceptions to the tree
- Multivariate splits (partition based on multiple variable combinations)
  - <u>CART</u>: finds multivariate splits based on a linear comb. of attrs.
- Which attribute selection measure is the best?
  - Most give good results, none is significantly superior than others

# **Overfitting and Tree Pruning**

- <u>Overfitting</u>: 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
  - <u>Prepruning</u>: *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
  - <u>Postpruning</u>: *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"

# **Matrix Data: Classification: Part 1**

- Classification: Basic Concepts
- Decision Tree Induction
- Model Evaluation and Selection
- Summary

# **Model Evaluation and Selection**

- Evaluation metrics: How can we measure accuracy?
  Other metrics to consider?
- Use validation test set of class-labeled tuples instead of training set when assessing accuracy
- Methods for estimating a classifier's accuracy:
  - Holdout method, random subsampling
  - Cross-validation

### **Classifier Evaluation Metrics: Confusion Matrix**

#### **Confusion Matrix:**

Actual class\Predicted class	C <sub>1</sub>	¬ C <sub>1</sub>	
C <sub>1</sub>	True Positives (TP)	False Negatives (FN)	
¬ C <sub>1</sub>	False Positives (FP)	True Negatives (TN)	

**Example of Confusion Matrix:** 

Actual class\Predicted class	buy_computer = yes	buy_computer = no	Total
buy_computer = yes	6954	46	7000
buy_computer = no	412	2588	3000
Total	7366	2634	10000

- Given *m* classes, an entry, *CM*<sub>i,j</sub> in a confusion matrix indicates # of tuples in class *i* that were labeled by the classifier as class *j*
- May have extra rows/columns to provide totals

### Classifier Evaluation Metrics: Accuracy, Error Rate, Sensitivity and Specificity

A\P	С	¬C	
С	ΤР	FN	Ρ
−C	FP	ΤN	Ν
	P'	N'	All

 Classifier Accuracy, or recognition rate: percentage of test set tuples that are correctly classified

Accuracy = (TP + TN)/All

Error rate: 1 – accuracy, or
 Error rate = (FP + FN)/All

- Class Imbalance Problem:
  - One class may be *rare*, e.g. fraud, or HIV-positive
  - Significant majority of the negative class and minority of the positive class
  - Sensitivity: True Positive recognition rate

Sensitivity = TP/P

- Specificity: True Negative recognition rate
  - Specificity = TN/N

#### **Classifier Evaluation Metrics:** Precision and Recall, and F-measures Precision: exactness – what % of tuples that the classifier labeled as positive are actually positive $\overline{TP + FP}$ precision Recall: completeness – what % of positive tuples did the classifier label as positive? TPrecall $\overline{TP + FN}$ Perfect score is 1.0 Inverse relationship between precision & recall • F measure (F<sub>1</sub> or F-score): harmonic mean of precision and $2 \times precision \times recall$ recall, precision + recall• $F_{\beta}$ : weighted measure of precision and recall • assigns ß times as much weight to recall as to precision $F_{\beta} = \frac{(1+\beta^2) \times precision \times recall}{\beta^2 \times precision + recall}$

# **Classifier Evaluation Metrics: Example**

Actual Class\Predicted class	cancer = yes	cancer = no	Total	Recognition(%)
cancer = yes	90	210	300	30.00 (sensitivity)
cancer = no	140	9560	9700	98.56 (specificity)
Total	230	9770	10000	96.50 ( <i>accuracy</i> )

• *Precision* = 90/230 = 39.13%

*Recall* = 90/300 = 30.00%

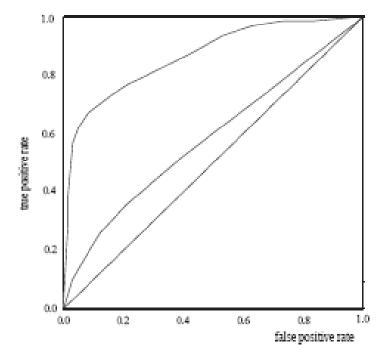
# Evaluating Classifier Accuracy: Holdout & Cross-Validation Methods

### Holdout method

- Given data is randomly partitioned into two independent sets
  - Training set (e.g., 2/3) for model construction
  - Test set (e.g., 1/3) for accuracy estimation
- <u>Random sampling</u>: a variation of holdout
  - Repeat holdout k times, accuracy = avg. of the accuracies obtained
- Cross-validation (k-fold, where k = 10 is most popular)
  - Randomly partition the data into *k mutually exclusive* subsets, each approximately equal size
  - At *i*-th iteration, use D<sub>i</sub> as test set and others as training set
  - <u>Leave-one-out</u>: *k* folds where *k* = # of tuples, for small sized data
  - <u>\*Stratified cross-validation</u>\*: folds are stratified so that class dist. in each fold is approx. the same as that in the initial data

### Model Selection: ROC Curves

- ROC (Receiver Operating Characteristics) curves: for visual comparison of classification models
- Originated from signal detection theory
- Shows the trade-off between the true positive rate and the false positive rate
- The area under the ROC curve is a measure of the accuracy of the model
- Rank the test tuples in decreasing order: the one that is most likely to belong to the positive class appears at the top of the list
- Area under the curve: the closer to the diagonal line (i.e., the closer the area is to 0.5), the less accurate is the model



- Vertical axis represents the true positive rate
- Horizontal axis rep. the false positive rate
- The plot also shows a diagonal line
- A model with perfect accuracy will have an area of 1.0

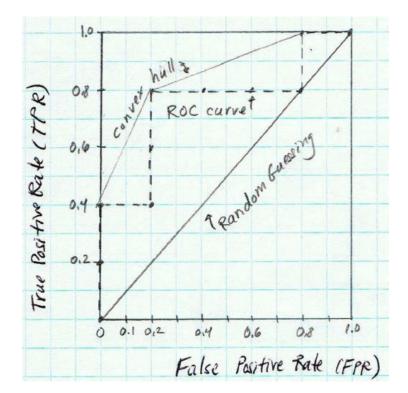
# **Plotting an ROC Curve**

- True positive rate: TPR = TP/P (sensitivity)
- False positive rate: FPR = FP/N (1-specificity)

- Rank tuples according to how likely they will be a positive tuple
  - Idea: when we include more tuples in, we are more likely to make mistakes, that is the trade-off!
  - Nice property: not threshold (cut-off) need to be specified, only rank matters

$Tuple \ \#$	Class	Prob.	TP	FP	TN	FN	TPR	FPR
1	р	0.9	1	0	5	4	0.2	0
2	р	0.8	2	0	5	3	0.4	0
3	n	0.7	2	1	4	3	0.4	0.2
4	р	0.6	3	1	4	2	0.6	0.2
5	р	0.55	4	1	4	1	0.8	0.2
6	n	0.54	4	2	3	1	0.8	0.4
7	n	0.53	4	3	2	1	0.8	0.6
8	n	0.51	4	4	1	1	0.8	0.8
9	р	0.50	5	4	0	1	1.0	0.8
10	n	0.4	5	5	0	0	1.0	1.0

Example



# **Matrix Data: Classification: Part 1**

- Classification: Basic Concepts
- Decision Tree Induction
- Model Evaluation and Selection
- Summary 🦊

### **Summary**

- Classification is a form of data analysis that extracts models describing important data classes.
- decision tree induction
- Evaluation
  - Evaluation metrics include: accuracy, sensitivity, specificity, precision, recall, F measure, and  $F_{\beta}$  measure.
  - k-fold cross-validation is recommended for accuracy estimation.
  - ROC curves are useful for model selection.

### References (1)

- C. Apte and S. Weiss. **Data mining with decision trees and decision rules**. Future Generation Computer Systems, 13, 1997
- C. M. Bishop, Neural Networks for Pattern Recognition. Oxford University Press, 1995
- L. Breiman, J. Friedman, R. Olshen, and C. Stone. **Classification and Regression Trees**. Wadsworth International Group, 1984
- C. J. C. Burges. A Tutorial on Support Vector Machines for Pattern Recognition. Data Mining and Knowledge Discovery, 2(2): 121-168, 1998
- P. K. Chan and S. J. Stolfo. Learning arbiter and combiner trees from partitioned data for scaling machine learning. KDD'95
- H. Cheng, X. Yan, J. Han, and C.-W. Hsu, <u>Discriminative Frequent Pattern Analysis for</u> <u>Effective Classification</u>, ICDE'07
- H. Cheng, X. Yan, J. Han, and P. S. Yu, <u>Direct Discriminative Pattern Mining for</u> <u>Effective Classification</u>, ICDE'08
- W. Cohen. Fast effective rule induction. ICML'95
- G. Cong, K.-L. Tan, A. K. H. Tung, and X. Xu. Mining top-k covering rule groups for gene expression data. SIGMOD'05

### References (2)

- A. J. Dobson. An Introduction to Generalized Linear Models. Chapman & Hall, 1990.
- G. Dong and J. Li. Efficient mining of emerging patterns: Discovering trends and differences. KDD'99.
- R. O. Duda, P. E. Hart, and D. G. Stork. **Pattern Classification**, 2ed. John Wiley, 2001
- U. M. Fayyad. Branching on attribute values in decision tree generation. AAAI'94.
- Y. Freund and R. E. Schapire. A decision-theoretic generalization of on-line learning and an application to boosting. J. Computer and System Sciences, 1997.
- J. Gehrke, R. Ramakrishnan, and V. Ganti. Rainforest: A framework for fast decision tree construction of large datasets. VLDB'98.
- J. Gehrke, V. Gant, R. Ramakrishnan, and W.-Y. Loh, **BOAT -- Optimistic Decision Tree Construction**. SIGMOD'99.
- T. Hastie, R. Tibshirani, and J. Friedman. **The Elements of Statistical Learning: Data Mining, Inference, and Prediction.** Springer-Verlag, 2001.
- D. Heckerman, D. Geiger, and D. M. Chickering. Learning Bayesian networks: The combination of knowledge and statistical data. Machine Learning, 1995.
- W. Li, J. Han, and J. Pei, CMAR: Accurate and Efficient Classification Based on Multiple Class-Association Rules, ICDM'01.

### References (3)

- T.-S. Lim, W.-Y. Loh, and Y.-S. Shih. A comparison of prediction accuracy, complexity, and training time of thirty-three old and new classification algorithms. Machine Learning, 2000.
- J. Magidson. The Chaid approach to segmentation modeling: Chi-squared automatic interaction detection. In R. P. Bagozzi, editor, Advanced Methods of Marketing Research, Blackwell Business, 1994.
- M. Mehta, R. Agrawal, and J. Rissanen. SLIQ : A fast scalable classifier for data mining. EDBT'96.
- T. M. Mitchell. Machine Learning. McGraw Hill, 1997.
- S. K. Murthy, Automatic Construction of Decision Trees from Data: A Multi-Disciplinary Survey, Data Mining and Knowledge Discovery 2(4): 345-389, 1998
- J. R. Quinlan. Induction of decision trees. *Machine Learning*, 1:81-106, 1986.
- J. R. Quinlan and R. M. Cameron-Jones. FOIL: A midterm report. ECML'93.
- J. R. Quinlan. **C4.5: Programs for Machine Learning**. Morgan Kaufmann, 1993.
- J. R. Quinlan. Bagging, boosting, and c4.5. AAAI'96.



- R. Rastogi and K. Shim. Public: A decision tree classifier that integrates building and pruning. VLDB'98.
- J. Shafer, R. Agrawal, and M. Mehta. SPRINT : A scalable parallel classifier for data mining. VLDB'96.
- J. W. Shavlik and T. G. Dietterich. Readings in Machine Learning. Morgan Kaufmann, 1990.
- P. Tan, M. Steinbach, and V. Kumar. Introduction to Data Mining. Addison Wesley, 2005.
- S. M. Weiss and C. A. Kulikowski. Computer Systems that Learn: Classification and Prediction Methods from Statistics, Neural Nets, Machine Learning, and Expert Systems. Morgan Kaufman, 1991.
- S. M. Weiss and N. Indurkhya. **Predictive Data Mining**. Morgan Kaufmann, 1997.
- I. H. Witten and E. Frank. Data Mining: Practical Machine Learning Tools and Techniques, 2ed. Morgan Kaufmann, 2005.
- X. Yin and J. Han. CPAR: Classification based on predictive association rules. SDM'03
- H. Yu, J. Yang, and J. Han. Classifying large data sets using SVM with hierarchical clusters. KDD'03.