CS6220: DATA MINING TECHNIQUES

Chapter 8&9: Classification: Part 1

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Chapter 8&9. Classification: Part 1

- Classification: Basic Concepts
- Decision Tree Induction
- Rule-Based Classification
- 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 (discrete or nominal)
  - 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*: $< \boldsymbol{x_i}, y_i >$
    - Features: $\boldsymbol{x_i}$; class label: y_i
  - 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

Training Data

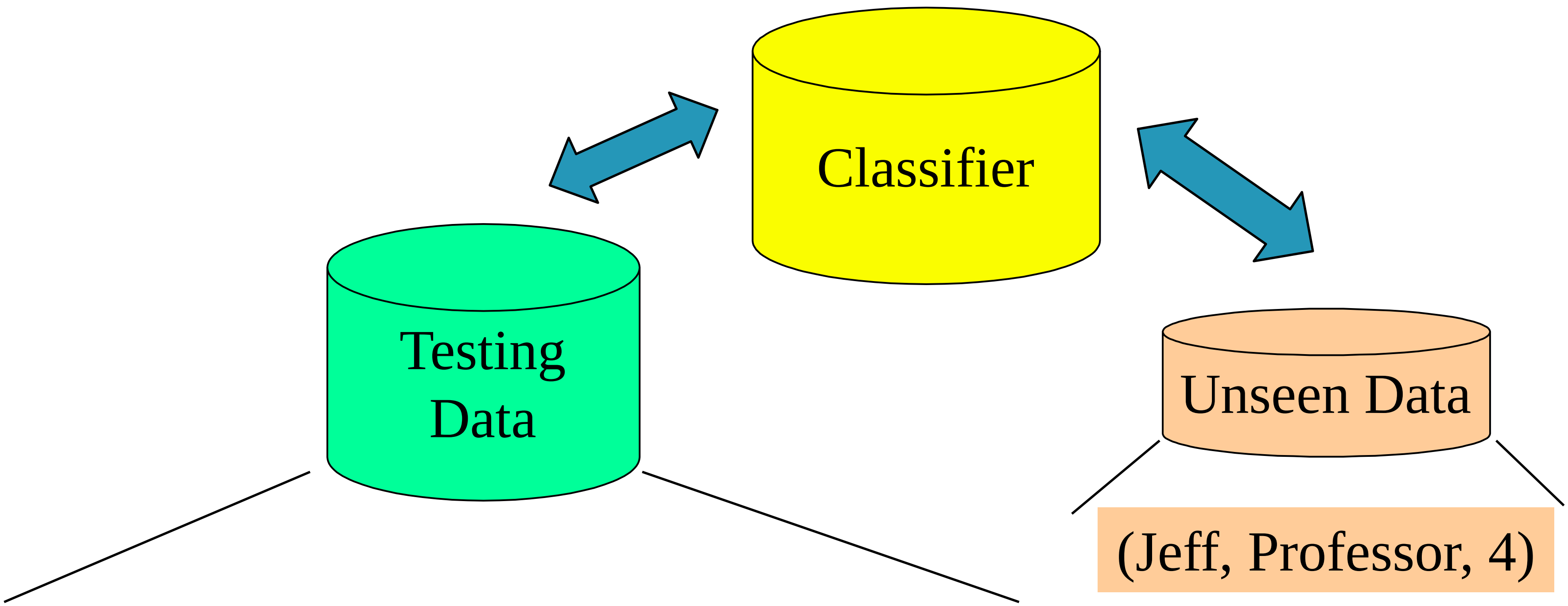
NAME	RANK	YEARS	TENURED
Mike	Assistant Prof	3	no
Mary	Assistant Prof	7	yes
Bill	Professor	2	yes
Jim	Associate Prof	7	yes
Dave	Assistant Prof	6	no
Anne	Associate Prof	3	no

Classification Algorithms

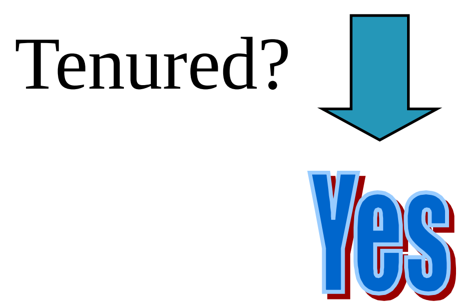
Classifier (Model)

IF rank = ‘professor’
OR years > 6
THEN tenured = ‘yes’

Process (2): Using the Model in Prediction



NAME	RANK	YEARS	TENURED
Tom	Assistant Prof	2	no
Merlisa	Associate Prof	7	no
George	Professor	5	yes
Joseph	Assistant Prof	7	yes



Classification Methods Overview

- Part 1
  - Decision tree
  - Rule-based classification
- Part 2
  - ANN
  - SVM
- Part 3
  - Bayesian Learning: Naïve Bayes, Bayesian belief network
  - Instance-based learning: KNN
- Part 4
  - Pattern-based classification
  - Ensemble
  - Other topics

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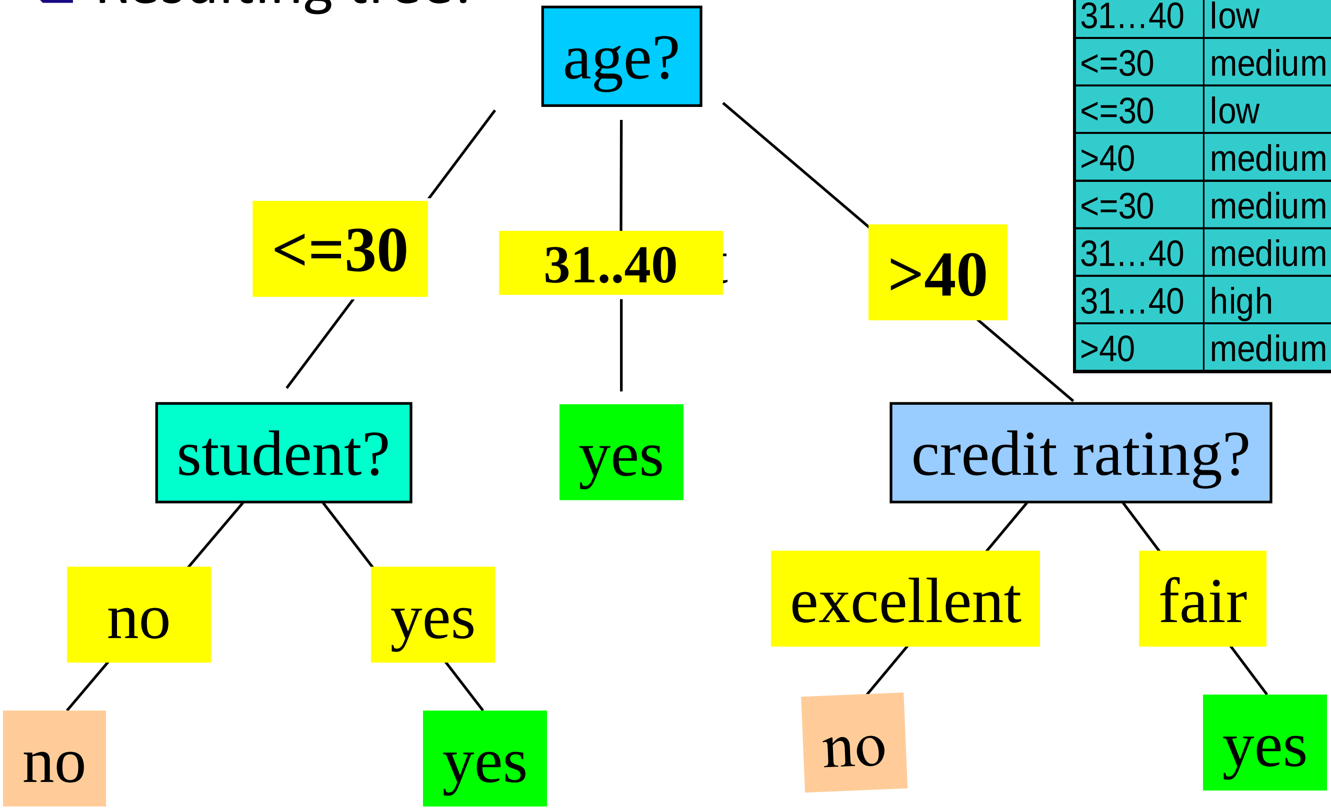
Decision Tree Induction: An Example

- Training data set: Buys_computer
- The data set follows an example of Quinlan's ID3 (Playing Tennis)
- Resulting tree:



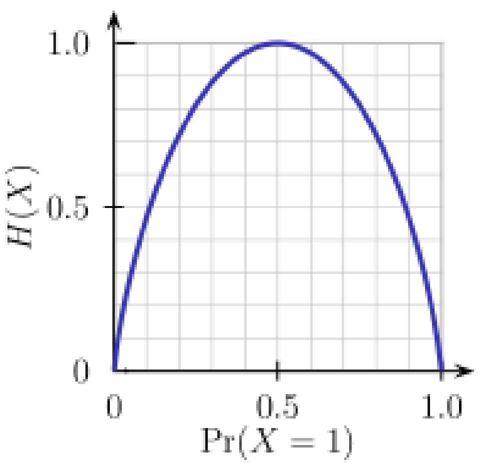
age	income	student	credit_rating	buys_computer
<=30	high	no	fair	no
<=30	high	no	excellent	no
31…40	high	no	fair	yes
>40	medium	no	fair	yes
>40	low	yes	fair	yes
>40	low	yes	excellent	no
31…40	low	yes	excellent	yes
<=30	medium	no	fair	no
<=30	low	yes	fair	yes
>40	medium	yes	fair	yes
<=30	medium	yes	excellent	yes
31…40	medium	no	excellent	yes
31…40	high	yes	fair	yes
>40	medium	no	excellent	no

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

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 $\{y_1, \dots, y_m\}$,
    - $H(Y) = -\sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i \log(p_i)$, 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_i be the probability that an arbitrary tuple in D belongs to class C_i, estimated by $|C_{i, D}|/|D|$
- 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 into v partitions) to classify D:

$$Info_A(D) = \sum_{j=1}^{v} \frac{|D_j|}{|D|} \times Info(D_j)$$

- Information gained by branching on attribute A

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

Attribute Selection: Information Gain

- Class P: buys_computer = "yes"
- Class N: buys_computer = "no"

$$Info(D) = I(9,5) = -\frac{9}{14}\log_2(\frac{9}{14}) - \frac{5}{14}\log_2(\frac{5}{14}) = 0.940$$

age	p_i	n_i	$I(p_i, n_i)$
<=30	2	3	0.971
31…40	4	0	0
>40	3	2	0.971

age	income	student	credit_rating	buys_computer
<=30	high	no	fair	no
<=30	high	no	excellent	no
31…40	high	no	fair	yes
>40	medium	no	fair	yes
>40	low	yes	fair	yes
>40	low	yes	excellent	no
31…40	low	yes	excellent	yes
<=30	medium	no	fair	no
<=30	low	yes	fair	yes
>40	medium	yes	fair	yes
<=30	medium	yes	excellent	yes
31…40	medium	no	excellent	yes
31…40	high	yes	fair	yes
>40	medium	no	excellent	no

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

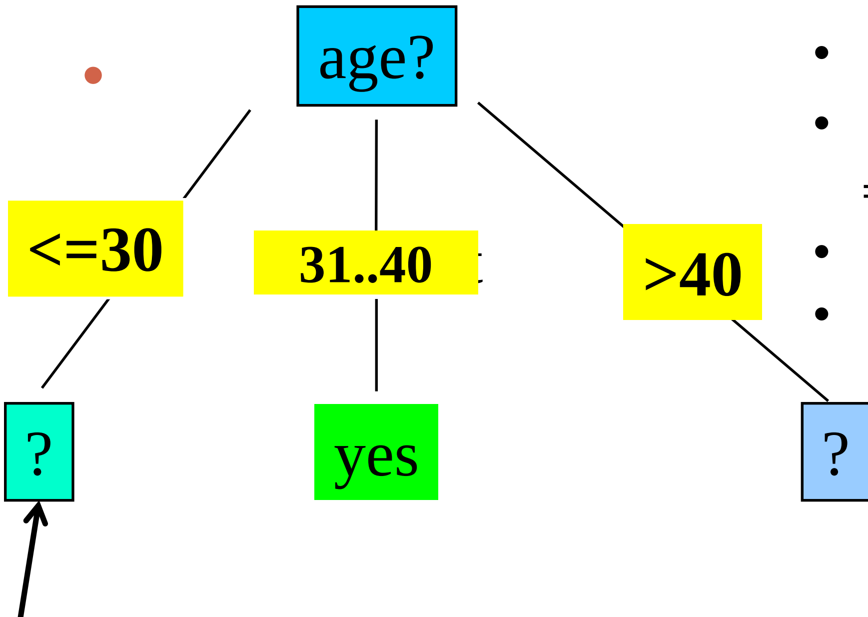
$\frac{5}{14}I(2,3)$ means "age <=30" has 5 out of 14 samples, with 2 yes'es and 3 no's. Hence

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

Similarly,

$$Gain(income) = 0.029$$
$$Gain(student) = 0.151$$
$$Gain(credit\_rating) = 0.048$$

Attribute Selection for a Branch

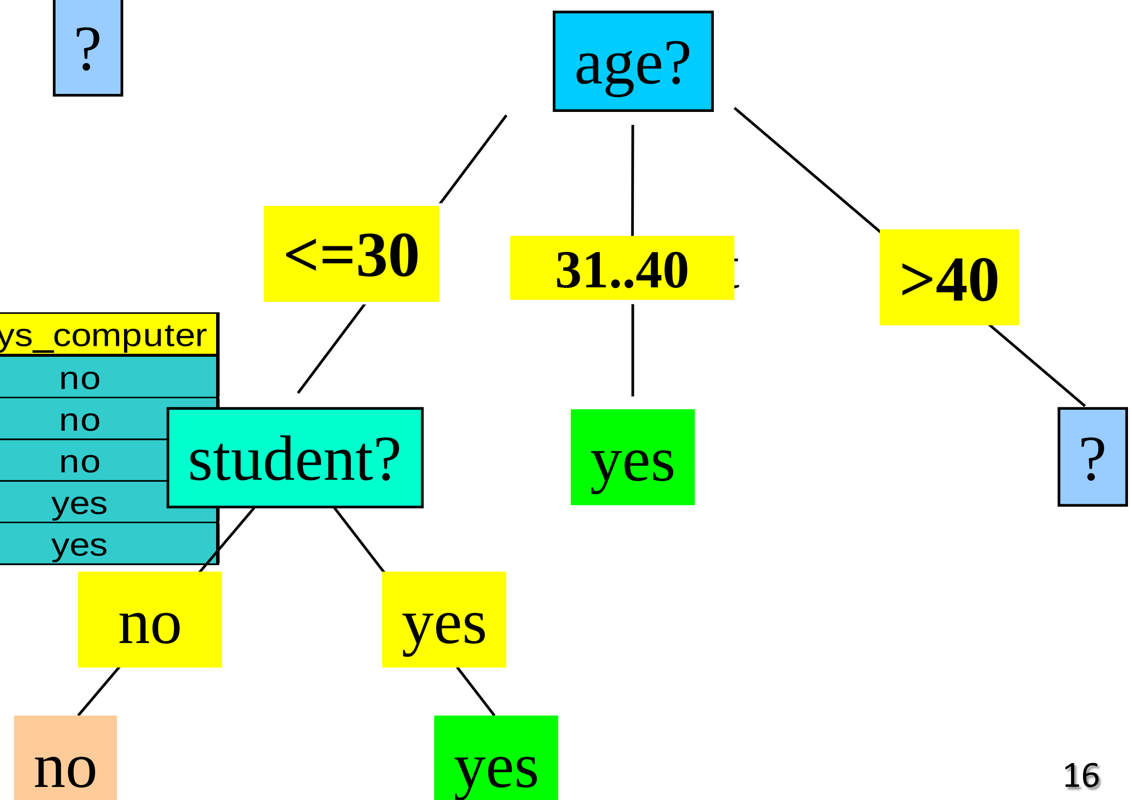


Which attribute next?

- $Info(D_{age\leq 30}) = -\frac{2}{5}\log_2\frac{2}{5} - \frac{3}{5}\log_2\frac{3}{5} = 0.971$
- $Gain_{age\leq 30}(income)$
  $= Info(D_{age\leq 30}) - Info_{income}(D_{age\leq 30}) = 0.571$
- $Gain_{age\leq 30}(student) = 0.971$
- $Gain_{age\leq 30}(credit\_rating) = 0.02$

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

$D_{age\leq 30}$



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)

$$SplitInfo_A(D) = -\sum_{j=1}^{v} \frac{|D_j|}{|D|} \times \log_2\left(\frac{|D_j|}{|D|}\right)$$

  - 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

$$gini(D) = 1 - \sum_{j=1}^{n} p_j^2$$

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 $gini_{split}(D)$ (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_1: {low, medium} and 4 in D_2

$$gini_{income \in \{low,medium\}}(D) = \left(\frac{10}{14}\right)Gini(D_1) + \left(\frac{4}{14}\right)Gini(D_2)$$

$$= \frac{10}{14}\left(1 - \left(\frac{7}{10}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{3}{10}\right)^2\right) + \frac{4}{14}\left(1 - \left(\frac{2}{4}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{2}{4}\right)^2\right)$$
$$= 0.443$$
$$= Gini_{income \in \{high\}}(D).$$

$Gini_{\{low,high\}}$ is 0.458; $Gini_{\{medium,high\}}$ 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
    - has difficulty when # of classes is large

Other Attribute Selection Measures

- CHAID: a popular decision tree algorithm, measure based on χ^2 test for independence
- C-SEP: performs better than info. gain and gini index in certain cases
- G-statistic: has a close approximation to χ^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)
  - CART: 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

- 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"

Enhancements to Basic Decision Tree Induction

- Allow for **continuous-valued attributes**
  - Dynamically define new discrete-valued attributes that partition the continuous attribute value into a discrete set of intervals
- Handle **missing attribute values**
  - Assign the most common value of the attribute
  - Assign probability to each of the possible values
- **Attribute construction**
  - Create new attributes based on existing ones that are sparsely represented
  - This reduces fragmentation, repetition, and replication

Classification in Large Databases

- Classification—a classical problem extensively studied by statisticians and machine learning researchers
- Scalability: Classifying data sets with millions of examples and hundreds of attributes with reasonable speed
- Why is decision tree induction popular?
  - relatively faster learning speed (than other classification methods)
  - convertible to simple and easy to understand classification rules
  - can use SQL queries for accessing databases
  - comparable classification accuracy with other methods
- RainForest (VLDB'98 — Gehrke, Ramakrishnan & Ganti)
  - Builds an AVC-list (attribute, value, class label)

Scalability Framework for RainForest

- Separates the scalability aspects from the criteria that determine the quality of the tree
- Builds an AVC-list**: AVC (Attribute, Value, Class_label)**
- **AVC-set** (of an attribute *X*)
  - Projection of training dataset onto the attribute *X* and class label where counts of individual class label are aggregated
- **AVC-group** (of a node *n*)
  - Set of AVC-sets of all predictor attributes at the node *n*

Rainforest: Training Set and Its AVC Sets

Training Examples

age	income	student	credit_rating	comp
<=30	high	no	fair	no
<=30	high	no	excellent	no
31…40	high	no	fair	yes
>40	medium	no	fair	yes
>40	low	yes	fair	yes
>40	low	yes	excellent	no
31…40	low	yes	excellent	yes
<=30	medium	no	fair	no
<=30	low	yes	fair	yes
>40	medium	yes	fair	yes
<=30	medium	yes	excellent	yes
31…40	medium	no	excellent	yes
31…40	high	yes	fair	yes
>40	medium	no	excellent	no

AVC-set on *Age*

Age	Buy_Computer	
	yes	no
<=30	2	3
31..40	4	0
>40	3	2

AVC-set on *income*

income	Buy_Computer	
	yes	no
high	2	2
medium	4	2
low	3	1

AVC-set on *Student*

student	Buy_Computer	
	yes	no
yes	6	1
no	3	4

AVC-set on *credit_rating*

Credit rating	Buy_Computer	
	yes	no
fair	6	2
excellent	3	3

BOAT (Bootstrapped Optimistic Algorithm for Tree Construction)

- Use a statistical technique called *bootstrapping* to create several smaller samples (subsets), each fits in memory
- Each subset is used to create a tree, resulting in several trees
- These trees are examined and used to construct a new tree *T'*
  - It turns out that *T'* is very close to the tree that would be generated using the whole data set together
- Adv: requires only two scans of DB, an incremental alg.

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Using IF-THEN Rules for Classification

- Represent the knowledge in the form of IF-THEN rules

  R: IF *age* = youth AND *student* = yes THEN *buys_computer* = yes

  - Rule antecedent/precondition vs. rule consequent
- Assessment of a rule: *coverage* and *accuracy*
  - n_{covers} = # of tuples covered by R
  - $n_{correct}$ = # of tuples correctly classified by R

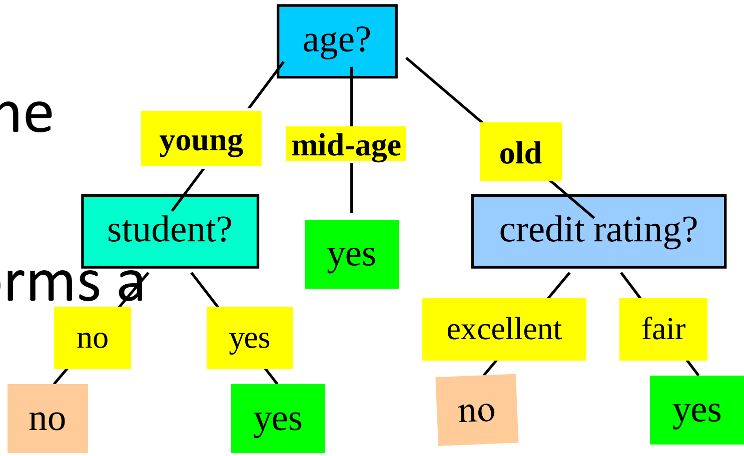
  coverage(R) = n_{covers} /|D| /* D: training data set */

  accuracy(R) = $n_{correct}$ / n_{covers}

- If more than one rule are triggered, need **conflict resolution**
  - Size ordering: assign the highest priority to the triggering rules that has the "toughest" requirement (i.e., with the *most attribute tests*)
  - Class-based ordering: decreasing order of *prevalence or misclassification cost per class*
  - Rule-based ordering (**decision list**): rules are organized into one long priority list, according to some measure of rule quality or by experts

Rule Extraction from a Decision Tree

- Rules are *easier to understand* than large trees
- One rule is created *for each path* from the root to a leaf
- Each attribute-value pair along a path forms a conjunction: the leaf holds the class prediction
- Rules are mutually exclusive and exhaustive



- Example: Rule extraction from our *buys_computer* decision-tree

IF *age* = young AND *student* = *no* THEN *buys_computer* = *no*

IF *age* = young AND *student* = *yes* THEN *buys_computer* = *yes*

IF *age* = mid-age THEN *buys_computer* = *yes*

IF *age* = old AND *credit_rating* = *excellent* THEN *buys_computer* = *no*

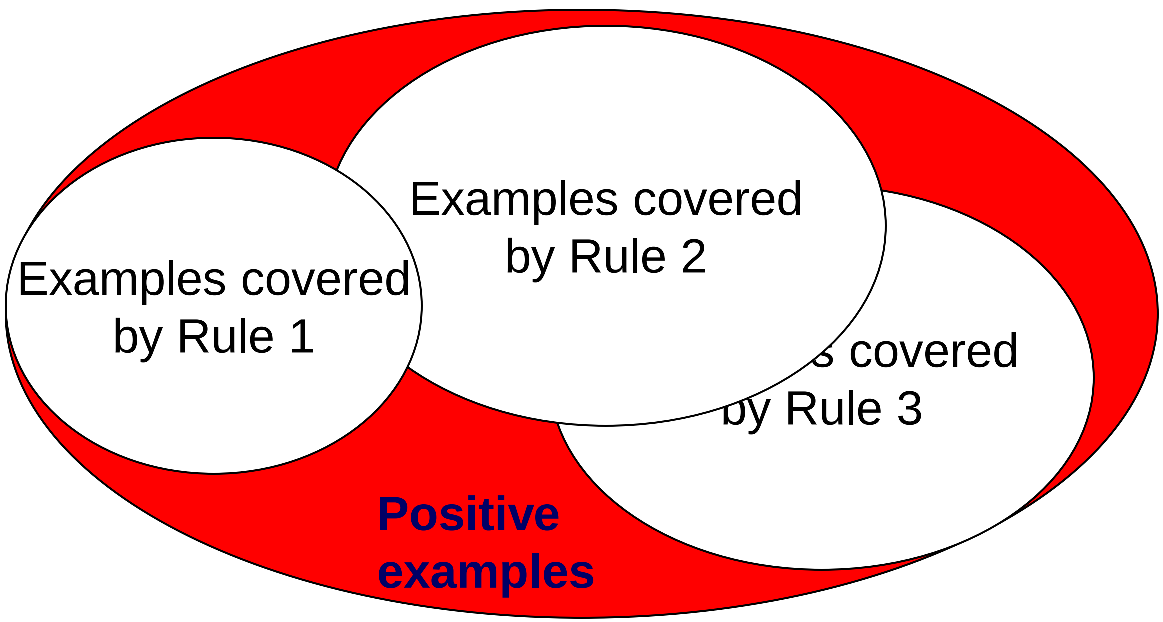
IF *age* = old AND *credit_rating* = *fair* THEN *buys_computer* = *yes*

Rule Induction: Sequential Covering Method

- Sequential covering algorithm: Extracts rules directly from training data
- Typical sequential covering algorithms: FOIL, AQ, CN2, RIPPER
- Rules are learned *sequentially*, each for a given class C_i will cover many tuples of C_i but none (or few) of the tuples of other classes
- Steps:
  - Rules are learned one at a time
  - Each time a rule is learned, the tuples covered by the rules are removed
  - Repeat the process on the remaining tuples until *termination condition*, e.g., when no more training examples or when the quality of a rule returned is below a user-specified threshold
- Comp. w. decision-tree induction: learning a set of rules *simultaneously*

Sequential Covering Algorithm

while (enough target tuples left)
  generate a rule
  remove positive target tuples satisfying this rule



Rule Generation

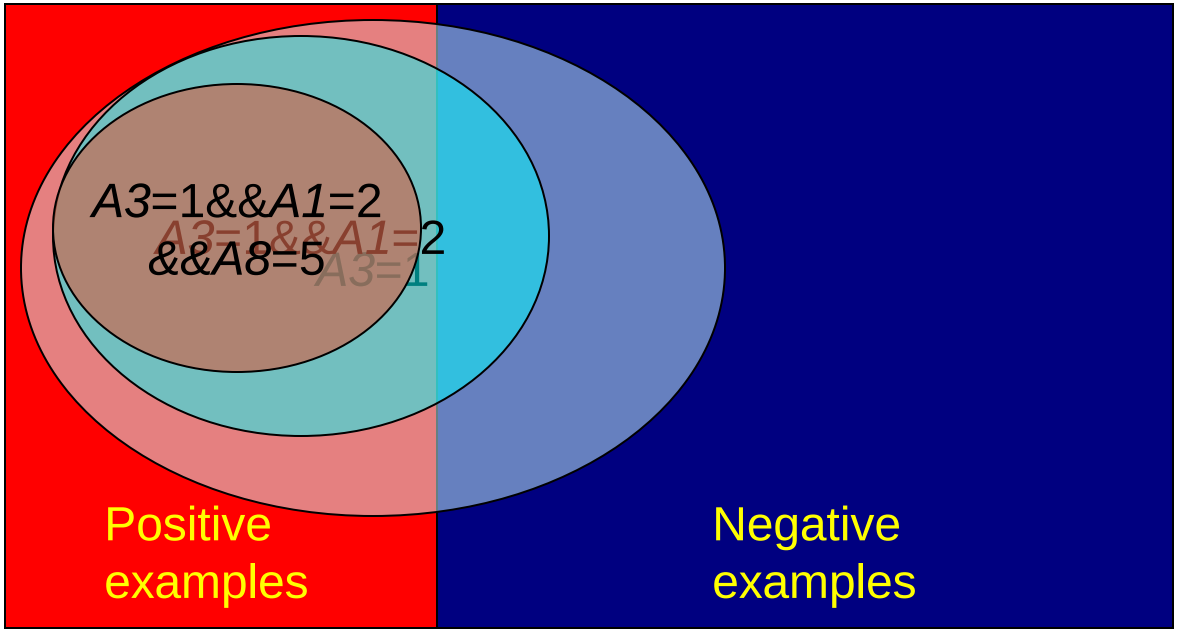
- To generate a rule

while(true)

find the "best" predicate *p*

if foil-gain(*p*) > threshold **then** add *p* to current rule

else break



How to Learn-One-Rule?

- Start with the *most general rule* possible: condition = empty
- *Adding new attributes* by adopting a greedy depth-first strategy
  - Picks the one that most improves the rule quality
- Rule-Quality measures: consider both coverage and accuracy
  - Foil-gain (in FOIL & RIPPER): assesses info_gain by extending condition

$$FOIL\_Gain = pos' \times (\log_2 \frac{pos'}{pos'+neg'} - \log_2 \frac{pos}{pos+neg})$$

    - favors rules that have high accuracy and cover many positive tuples
- Rule pruning based on an independent set of test tuples

$$FOIL\_Prune(R) = \frac{pos - neg}{pos + neg}$$

Pos/neg are # of positive/negative tuples covered by R.

If *FOIL_Prune* is higher for the pruned version of R, prune R

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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
- Comparing classifiers:
  - Confidence intervals
  - Cost-benefit analysis and ROC Curves

Classifier Evaluation Metrics: Confusion Matrix

Confusion Matrix:

Actual class\Predicted class	C_1	$\neg C_1$
C_1	**True Positives (TP)**	**False Negatives (FN)**
$\neg C_1$	**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, $CM_{i,j}$ 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	C	¬C	
C	**TP**	**FN**	**P**
¬C	**FP**	**TN**	**N**
	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

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

- **Recall:** completeness – what % of positive tuples did the classifier label as positive?

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

- Perfect score is 1.0
- Inverse relationship between precision & recall
- ***F* measure (*F_1* or *F*-score)**: harmonic mean of precision and recall,

$$F = \frac{2 \times precision \times recall}{precision + recall}$$

- **F_β**: 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	96.40 (*accuracy*)

- *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
  - Random sampling: 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_i as test set and others as training set
  - Leave-one-out: *k* folds where *k* = # of tuples, for small sized data
  - *Stratified cross-validation*: folds are stratified so that class dist. in each fold is approx. the same as that in the initial data

Estimating Confidence Intervals: Classifier Models M_1 vs. M_2

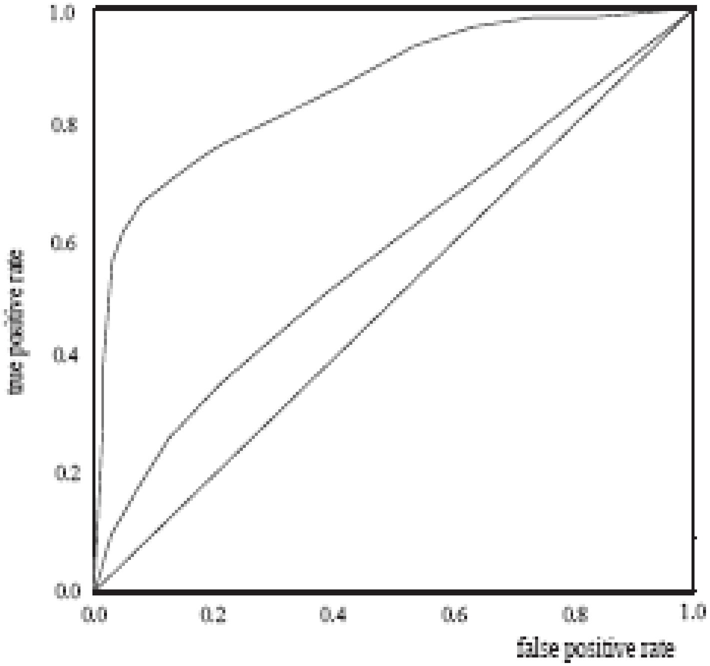
- Suppose we have 2 classifiers, M_1 and M_2, which one is better?
- Use 10-fold cross-validation to obtain $\overline{err}(M_1)$ and $\overline{err}(M_2)$
- These mean error rates are just *point estimates* of error on the true population of *future* data cases
- What if the difference between the 2 error rates is just attributed to *chance*?
  - Use a **test of statistical significance**
  - Obtain **confidence limits** for our error estimates

Estimating Confidence Intervals: Null Hypothesis

- Perform 10-fold cross-validation of two models: M_1 & M_2
- Assume samples follow normal distribution
- Use two sample **t-test** (or **Student's t-test**)
- **Null Hypothesis**: M_1 & M_2 are the same (means are equal)
- If we can **reject** null hypothesis, then
  - we conclude that the difference between M_1 & M_2 is **statistically significant**
  - Chose model with lower error rate

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

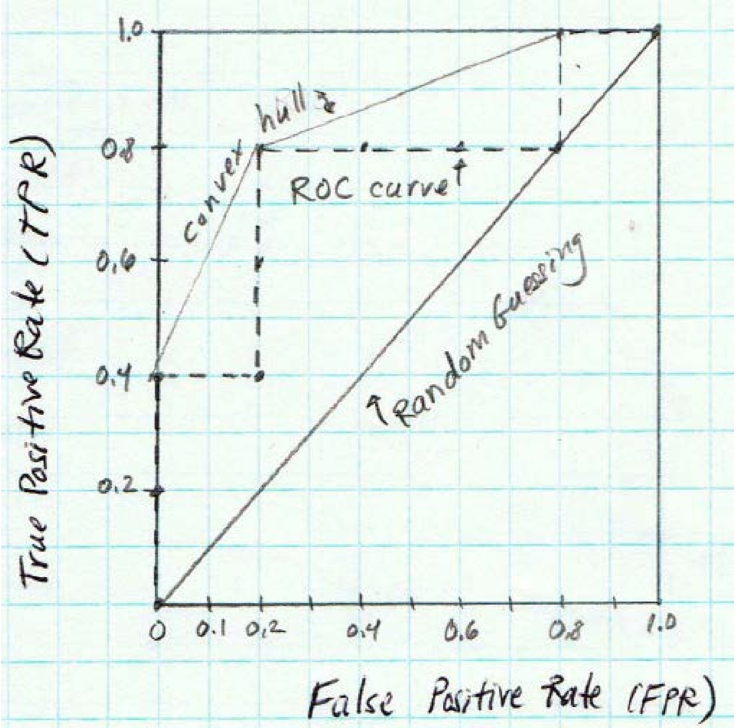
Plotting an ROC Curve

- True positive rate: $TPR = TP/P$ (sensitivity or recall)
- 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	p	0.9	1	0	5	4	0.2	0
2	p	0.8	2	0	5	3	0.4	0
3	n	0.7	2	1	4	3	0.4	0.2
4	p	0.6	3	1	4	2	0.6	0.2
5	p	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	p	0.50	5	4	0	1	1.0	0.8
10	n	0.4	5	5	0	0	1.0	1.0

Example



Issues Affecting Model Selection

- **Accuracy**
  - classifier accuracy: predicting class label
- **Speed**
  - time to construct the model (training time)
  - time to use the model (classification/prediction time)
- **Robustness**: handling noise and missing values
- **Scalability**: efficiency in disk-resident databases
- **Interpretability**
  - understanding and insight provided by the model
- Other measures, e.g., goodness of rules, such as decision tree size or compactness of classification rules

Chapter 8&9. Classification: Part 1

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

Summary

- Classification is a form of data analysis that extracts models describing important data classes.
- Effective and scalable methods have been developed for decision tree induction, rule-based classification, and many other classification methods.
- Evaluation
  - Evaluation metrics include: accuracy, sensitivity, specificity, precision, recall, F measure, and F_{β} measure.
  - Stratified k-fold cross-validation is recommended for accuracy estimation.
  - Significance tests and ROC curves are useful for model selection.

- Homework 1 is due today
- Course project proposal will be due next Monday

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