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- Classification is the task of assigning objects to one of several predefined categories.
- It is an important problem in many applications
	- Detecting spam email messages based on the message header and content.
	- Categorizing cells as malignant or benign based on the results of MRI scans.
	- Classifying galaxies based on their shapes.

- The input data for a classification task is a collection of records.
- Each record, also known as an instance or example, is characterized by a tuple (**x**, *y*)
- **x** is the attribute set
- *y* is the class label, also known as category or target attribute.
- The class label is a discrete attribute.

- Classification is the task of learning a target function *f* that maps each attribute set **x** to one of the predefined class labels *y*.
- The target function is also known informally as a classification model.

- A classification technique (or classifier) is a systematic approach to perform classification on an input data set.
- Examples include
	- Decision tree classifiers
	- Neural networks
	- Support vector machines

- A classification technique employs a learning algorithm to identify a model that best fits the relationship between the attribute set and the class label of the input data.
- The model generated by a learning algorithm should
	- Fit the input data well and
	- Correctly predict the class labels of records it has never seen before.
- A key objective of the learning algorithm is to build models with good generalization capability.

- First, a training set consisting of records whose class labels are known must be provided.
- The training set is used to build a classification model.
- This model is subsequently applied to the test set, which consists of records which are different from those in the training set.

- Evaluation of the performance of the model is based on the counts of correctly and incorrectly predicted test records.
- These counts are tabulated in a table known as a confusion matrix.
- Each entry f_{ij} in this table denotes the number of records from class *i* predicted to be of class *j*.

- The total number of correct predictions made by the model is $f_{11} + f_{00}$.
- The total number of incorrect predictions is $f_{10} + f_{01}$.

- The information in a confusion matrix can be summarized with the following two measures
	- **↑ Accuracy**

$$
Accuracy = \frac{f_{11} + f_{00}}{f_{11} + f_{10} + f_{01} + f_{00}}
$$

Error rate

$$
Error\ rate = \frac{f_{10} + f_{01}}{f_{11} + f_{10} + f_{01} + f_{00}}
$$

• Most classification algorithms aim at attaining the highest accuracy, or equivalently, the lowest error rate when applied to the test set.

- We can solve a classification problem by asking a series of carefully crafted questions about the attributes of the test record.
- Each time we receive an answer, a follow-up question is asked.
- This process is continued until we reach a conclusion about the class label of the record.

- The series of questions and answers can be organized in the form of a decision tree.
- It is a hierarchical structure consisting of nodes and directed edges.
- The tree has three types of nodes
	- A root node that has no incoming edges, and zero or more outgoing edges.
	- * Internal nodes, each of which has exactly one incoming edge and two or more outgoing edges.
	- Leaf or terminal nodes, each of which has exactly one incoming edge and no outgoing edges.

- In a decision tree, each leaf node is assigned a class label.
- The non-terminal nodes, which include the root and other internal nodes, contain attribute test conditions to separate records that have different characteristics.

- Classifying a test record is straightforward once a decision tree has been constructed.
- Starting from the root node, we apply the test condition.
- We then follow the appropriate branch based on the outcome of the test.
- This will lead us either to
	- Another internal node, for which a new test condition is applied, or
	- A leaf node.
- The class label associated with the leaf node is then assigned to the record.

- Efficient algorithms have been developed to induce a reasonably accurate, although suboptimal, decision tree in a reasonable amount of time.
- These algorithms usually employ a greedy strategy that makes a series of locally optimal decisions about which attribute to use for partitioning the data.

- A decision tree is grown in a recursive fashion by partitioning the training records into successively purer subsets.
- We suppose
	- $\cdot U_n$ is the set of training records that are associated with node *n*.
	- $\mathcal{C} = \{c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_K\}$ is the set of class labels.

- If all the records in U_n belong to the same class c_k , then n is a leaf node labeled as c_k .
- If U_n contains records that belong to more than one class,
	- An attribute test condition is selected to partition the records into smaller subsets.
	- A child node is created for each outcome of the test condition.
	- \cdot The records in U_n are distributed to the children based on the outcomes.
- The algorithm is then recursively applied to each child node.

- For each node, let $p(c_k)$ denotes the fraction of training records from class *k*.
- In most cases, the leaf node is assigned to the class that has the majority number of training records.
- The fraction $p(c_k)$ for a node can also be used to estimate the probability that a record assigned to that node belongs to class *k*.

- Decision trees that are too large are susceptible to a phenomenon known as overfitting.
- A tree pruning step can be performed to reduce the size of the decision tree.
- Pruning helps by trimming the tree branches in a way that improves the generalization error.

- Each recursive step of the tree-growing process must select an attribute test condition to divide the records into smaller subsets.
- To implement this step, the algorithm must provide
	- A method for specifying the test condition for different attribute types and
	- An objective measure for evaluating the goodness of each test condition.

- Binary attributes
	- The test condition for a binary attribute generates two possible outcomes.

- Nominal attributes
	- A nominal attribute can produce binary or multiway splits.
	- \cdot There are 2^{N-1}-1 ways of creating a binary partition of N attribute values.
	- For a multiway split, the number of outcomes depends on the number of distinct values for the corresponding attribute.

(b) Binary split {by grouping attribute values}

- Ordinal attributes
	- Ordinal attributes can also produce binary or multiway splits.
	- Ordinal attributes can be grouped as long as the grouping does not violate the order property of the attribute values.

• Continuous attributes

- The test condition can be expressed as a comparison test *v*≤*T* or *v*>*T* with binary outcomes, or
- A range query with outcomes of the form *Tj* ≤*v*< *Tj*+1, for *j*=1,…,*J*
- For the binary case
	- The decision tree algorithm must consider all possible split positions *T*, and
	- Select the one that produces the best partition.
- For the multiway split,
	- The algorithm must consider multiple split positions.

- Example: credit risk estimation
- An individual's credit risk depends on such attributes as **credit history, current debt, collateral** and **income**.
- For this example, there exists a decision tree which can correctly classify all the objects.

- In a decision tree, each internal node represents a test on some attribute, such as **credit history** or **debt**.
- Each possible value of that attribute corresponds to a branch of the tree.
- Leaf nodes represent classifications, such as **low** or **moderate risk**.

- Suppose income is selected as the root attribute to be tested.
- This partitions the example set as shown in the figure.

• Since the partition $\{1,4,7,11\}$ consists entirely of high-risk individuals, a leaf node is created.

- For the partition $\{2,3,12,14\}$
	- **credit history** is selected as the attribute to be tested.
	- \cdot This further divides this partition into $\{2,3\}$, $\{14\}$ and $\{12\}$.

- Each attribute of an instance contributes a certain amount of information to the classification process.
- We measure the amount of information gained by the selection of each attribute.
- We then select the attribute that provides the greatest information gain.

- Information theory provides a mathematical basis for measuring the information content of a message.
- We may think of a message as an instance in a collection of possible messages.
- The information content of a message depends on
	- **Example 1** The size of this collection
	- * The frequency with which each possible message occurs.

- The amount of information in a message with occurrence probability p is defined as $-log_2p$.
- Suppose we are given
	- \cdot a collection of messages, $C = \{c_2, c_2, \ldots, c_K\}$
	- \cdot the occurrence probability $p(c_k)$ for each c_k .
- We define the entropy *I* as the expected information content of a message in *C*:

$$
I = -\sum_{k=1}^{K} p(c_k) \log_2 p(c_k)
$$

• The information is measured in bits.

- We can measure the information content of a set of training instances from the probabilities of occurrences of the different classes.
- In our example
	- $p(\text{high risk})=6/14$
	- *p*(moderate risk)=3/14
	- $\div p$ (low risk)=5/14

- The set of training instances is denoted as *U*
- We can calculate the information content of the tree using the previous equation

$$
I(U) = -\frac{6}{14}\log_2\left(\frac{6}{14}\right) - \frac{3}{14}\log_2\left(\frac{3}{14}\right) - \frac{5}{14}\log_2\left(\frac{5}{14}\right)
$$

= $-\frac{6}{14}(-1.222) - \frac{3}{14}(-2.222) - \frac{5}{14}(-1.485)$
= 1.531 bits

- The information gain provided by making a test at a node is the difference between
	- The amount of information needed to complete the classification before performing the test.
	- The amount of information needed to complete the classification after performing the test.
- The latter is defined as the weighted average of the information in all its subtrees.

- If we select attribute *P*, with *N* values, this will partition *U* into subsets $\{U_1, U_2, \ldots, U_N\}$.
- The average information required to complete the classification after selecting *P* is

$$
\bar{I}(P) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{|U_n|}{|U|} I(U_n)
$$

- The information gain from attribute *P* is computed as follows.
	- \ast gain(P) = $I(U) \overline{I}(P)$
- If the attribute **income** is chosen, the examples are partitioned as follows:
	- $\cdot \{1,4,7,11\}$
	- $\cdot \{2,3,12,14\}$
	- $\cdot \{5,6,8,9,10,13\}$

• The expected information needed to complete the classification is

$$
\overline{I}(income) = \frac{4}{14}I(U_1) + \frac{4}{14}I(U_2) + \frac{6}{14}I(U_3)
$$

= $\frac{4}{14}(0.0) + \frac{4}{14}(1.0) + \frac{6}{14}(0.650)$
= 0.564 bits

• The information gain can be computed as follows:

 $gain(income) = I(U) - \overline{I}(income)$ $= 1.531 - 0.564$ $= 0.967$ bits

- Similarly, we can show that
	- gain(credit history)=0.266
	- \div gain(debt)=0.063
	- gain(collateral)=0.207
- The attribute **income** will be selected, since it provides the greatest information gain.

Continuous attributes

- If attribute *P* has continuous numeric values *v*, we can apply a binary test.
- The outcome of the test depends on a threshold value *T*.
- There are two possible outcomes:
	- $\cdot \cdot \cdot \cdot T$
	- $\cdot \cdot \cdot \cdot T$
- The training set is then partitioned into 2 subsets U_1 and U_2 .

Continuous attributes

- We apply sorting to values of attribute *P* to result in the sequence $\{v_1, v_2, ..., v_R\}$.
- Any threshold between v_r and v_{r+1} will divide the set into two subsets
	- $\ast \{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_r\}$
	- $\mathbf{\hat{v}} \left\{ V_{r+1}, V_{r+2}, \ldots, V_R \right\}$
- There are *R*-1 possible splits.

Continuous attributes

- For $r = 1, \ldots, R-1$, the corresponding threshold is chosen as $T_r = (v_r + v_{r+1})/2$.
- We can then evaluate the gain in information for each T_r

 $gain(P,T_r) = I(U) - \overline{I}(P,T_r)$

where $I(P, T_r)$ is a function of T_r .

• The threshold T_r which maximizes $gain(P, T_r)$ is then chosen.

Impurity measures

- The measures developed for selecting the best split are often based on the degree of impurity of the child nodes.
- Besides entropy, other examples of impurity measures include
	- Gini index

$$
G = 1 - \sum_{k=1}^{K} p(c_k)^2
$$

Classification error

$$
E = 1 - \max_{k} p(c_k)
$$

Impurity measures

- In the following figure, we compare the values of the impurity measures for binary classification problems.
- *p* refers to the fraction of records that belong to one of the two classes.
- All three measures attain their maximum value when *p*=0.5.
- The minimum values of the measures are attained when *p* equals 0 or 1.

Impurity measures

Gain ratio

- Impurity measures such as entropy and Gini index tend to favor attributes that have a large number of possible values.
- In many cases, a test condition that results in a large number of outcomes may not be desirable.
- This is because the number of records associated with each partition is too small to enable us to make any reliable predictions.

Gain ratio

- To solve this problem, we can modify the splitting criterion to take into account the number of possible attribute values.
- In the case of information gain, we can use the gain ratio which is defined as follows

Gain Ratio =
$$
\frac{Gain(P)}{Split Info}
$$

where

Split
$$
Info = -\sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{|U_n|}{|U|} \log_2 \frac{|U_n|}{|U|}
$$

- The test condition described so far involve using only a single attribute at a time.
- The tree-growing procedure can be viewed as the process of partitioning the attribute space into disjoint regions.
- The border between two neighboring regions of different classes is known as a decision boundary.

- Since the test condition involves only a single attribute, the decision boundaries are rectilinear, i.e., parallel to the coordinate axes.
- This limits the expressiveness of the decision tree representation for modeling complex relationships among continuous attributes.

- An oblique decision tree allows test conditions that involve more than one attribute.
- The following figure illustrates a data set that cannot be classified effectively by a conventional decision tree.
- This data set can be easily represented by a single node of an oblique decision tree with the test condition *x*+*y*<1
- However, finding the optimal test condition for a given node can be computationally expensive.

