## Managing Big Data Classification: Alternative Methods

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Reminder of the classification problem • Given a collection of records (training set )

> Each record contains a set of **attributes**, one of the attributes is (always) the **class**.

Find a model for class attribute as a function of the values of other attributes.

 Goal: previously unseen records should be assigned a class as accurately as possible.

# A big picture of classification methods



### Alternative methods

Rule-based classifiers
 k-Nearest Neighbors (k-NN)
 Naïve Bayes

## Rule-based classifiers

- Classify records by using a collection of "if...then..." rules
- General form of rule: (Condition)  $\rightarrow$  y
  - > where
    - Condition is a conjunctions (logical AND/^) of attributes
    - y is the class label
  - > LHS: rule antecedent or condition (Left-hand side)
  - > RHS: rule consequent (Right-hand side)
  - Examples of classification rules:
    - (Blood Type=Warm)  $\land$  (Lay Eggs=Yes)  $\rightarrow$  Birds

Antecedent/LHS

Consequent/RHS

# Rule-based classifier (Example)

Name	Blood Type	Give Birth	Can Fly	Live in Water	Class	
human	warm	yes	no	no	mammals	
python	cold	no	no	no	reptiles	
salmon	cold	no	no	yes	fishes	
whale	warm	yes	no	yes	mammals	
frog	cold	no	no	sometimes	amphibians	
komodo	cold	no	no	no	reptiles	
bat	warm	yes	yes	no	mammals	
pigeon	warm	no	yes	no	birds	
cat	warm	yes	no	no	mammals	
leopard shark	cold	yes	no	yes	fishes	
turtle	cold	no	no	sometimes	reptiles	
penguin	warm	no	no	sometimes	birds	
porcupine	warm	yes	no	no	mammals	
eel	cold	no	no	yes	fishes	
salamander	cold	no	no	sometimes	amphibians	
gila monster	cold	no	no	no	reptiles	
platypus	warm	no	no	no	mammals	
owl	warm	no	yes	no	birds	
dolphin	warm	yes	no	yes	mammals	
eagle	warm	no	yes	no	birds	

Records (also called instances)

R1: (Give Birth = no)  $\land$  (Can Fly = yes)  $\rightarrow$  Birds R2: (Give Birth = no)  $\land$  (Live in Water = yes)  $\rightarrow$  Fishes R3: (Give Birth = yes)  $\land$  (Blood Type = warm)  $\rightarrow$  Mammals R4: (Give Birth = no)  $\land$  (Can Fly = no)  $\rightarrow$  Reptiles R5: (Live in Water = sometimes)  $\rightarrow$  Amphibians

Set of rules for above dataset

Applying rule-based classifier
Say that a rule r covers an instance or record x if the attributes of the instance satisfy the condition of the rule (result TRUE)

R1: (Give Birth = no)  $\land$  (Can Fly = yes)  $\rightarrow$  Birds R2: (Give Birth = no)  $\land$  (Live in Water = yes)  $\rightarrow$  Fishes R3: (Give Birth = yes)  $\land$  (Blood Type = warm)  $\rightarrow$  Mammals R4: (Give Birth = no)  $\land$  (Can Fly = no)  $\rightarrow$  Reptiles R5: (Live in Water = sometimes)  $\rightarrow$  Amphibians

Name	Blood Type	Give Birth	Can Fly	Live in Water	Class
hawk	warm	no	yes	no	? /
grizzly bear	warm	yes	no	no	? /

Above rules cover instances (look at conditions):

The rule R1 covers a instance "hawk" => Bird ( class )

The rule R3 covers the instance "grizzly bear" => Mammal (class)

# Measuring "quality" of rule?

 Assume classification rule A → y, where A an expression of any number on conjunctions on attributes, y class attribute and a dataset D

#### Coverage of a rule:

 Fraction of records that satisfy only the antecedent (LHS or expression A) of a rule

 $Coverage(r) = \frac{|A|}{|D|},$ 

|A| = number of inst. satisf. antecedent,

|D| = number of inst. in dataset

#### Accuracy of rule

 Fraction of records that satisfy both the antecedent and consequent of a rule

 $Accuracy(r) = \frac{|A \cap y|}{|A|}$ ,

 $|A \cap y| = number of inst. satisf. antecedent and consequent$ 

# Measuring "quality" of rule? Examples

- Rule: (Status=Single)  $\rightarrow$  No
  - > Coverage of rule = 4/10 = 40%
  - > Accuracy of rule = 2/4 = 50%
- Rule: (Refund=Yes) → Yes
  - > Coverage of rule = 3/10 = 30%
  - > Accuracy rule = 0/3 = 0%
- Rule: (Status=Married) ∧ (TaxInc. < 70k) → No
  - > Coverage of rule = 1/10 = 10%
  - Accuracy or fule = 1/1 = 100%
- Rule: (Refund=No) ∧ (TaxInc. > 65K) → Yes
  - > Coverage of rule = 6/10 = 60%
  - Accuracy or rule = 3/6 = 50%

Tid	Refund	Marital Status	Taxable Income	Class
1	Yes	Single	125K	No
2	No	Married	100K	No
3	No	Single	70K	No
4	Yes	Married	120K	No
5	No	Divorced	95K	Yes
6	No	Married	60K	No
7	Yes	Divorced	220K	No
8	No	Single	85K	Yes
9	No	Married	75K	No
10	No	Single	90K	Yes

Dataset, |D|=10

## How do rules work?

Rules are triggered by each instance i.e. starts the execution. Example:

**R1:** (Give Birth = no)  $\land$  (Can Fly = yes)  $\rightarrow$  Birds

- **R2:** (Give Birth = no)  $\land$  (Live in Water = yes)  $\rightarrow$  Fishes
- **R3:** (Give Birth = yes)  $\land$  (Blood Type = warm)  $\rightarrow$  Mammals
- **R4:** (Give Birth = no)  $\land$  (Can Fly = no)  $\rightarrow$  Reptiles
- **R5:** (Live in Water = sometimes)  $\rightarrow$  Amphibians

Name	Blood Type	Give Birth	Can Fly	Live in Water	Class
lemur	warm	yes	no	no	?
turtle	cold	no	no	sometimes	?
dogfish shark	cold	yes	no	yes	?

What rules are triggered by the above data?

- A lemur triggers rule R3, so it is classified as a mammal
- A turtle triggers both R4 and R5
- A dogfish shark triggers none of the above rules

## Characteristics of rules

#### Mutually exclusive rules

- Classifier contains mutually exclusive rules if the rules are independent of each other
- > Every record is covered by at most one rule

#### • Exhaustive rules

 Classifier (i.e. set of rules) has exhaustive coverage if it accounts for every possible combination of attribute values

> Each record is covered by at least one rule

# Examples of characteristics

#### • Example

name	Body Temp	Skin	Gives birth	Lives in water	Flys	Has legs	Hibernat es	Type (class)
Lemour	warm	fur	yes	no	no	yes	yes	mammal
Turtle	cold	scales	no	sometimes	no	yes	Yes	Not mammal
Dogfish shark	cold	scales	yes	yes	no	no	no	Not mammal

R1: (Body Temp = cold)  $\rightarrow$  Not mammal R2: (Body Temp = warm)  $\land$  (Gives birth = yes)  $\rightarrow$  Mammal R3: (Body Temp = warm)  $\land$  (Gives birth = no)  $\rightarrow$  Not mammal

This rule set is i) mutual exclusive and ii) <u>exhaustive</u>

# Building classification rules

#### Two ways

#### > Direct Method

- Extract rules directly from training data
- Algorithms: RIPPER, CN2, Holte's 1R

#### > Indirect Method

- Extract rules from other classification models (e.g. decision trees, neural networks, etc).
- Algorithms: C4.5rules

## Direct method

Sequential covering algorithm

- 1. Start from an empty rule
- 2. Grow a rule using the Learn-One-Rule function
  - Grow a rule, by adding attributes in a greedy way
- 3. Remove training records covered by the rule
- 4. Repeat Step (2) and (3) until stopping criterion is met

## Direct method

Sequential covering algorithm

- Extracts rule for each value of class sequentially.
- > Learn-one-rule returns one new rule based on its efficiency:
  - Large positive rate
  - Small negative rate
- How are rules "grown"?

# Example of Sequential Covering



(i) Original Data



(ii) Step 1

Start by finding instances with attributes/conditions that have great <u>positive</u> cover by rule. Remove these instances

# Example of Sequential Covering



(iii) Step 2



(iv) Step 3

Continue finding the next rule which covers as much of the space as possible.

## Strategies for growing rules

• How do rules grow i.e. get "bigger" by enclosing more conditions?

- Two Strategies
  - > General to specific
  - > Specific to general

# Strategies for growing rules



# Strategies for growing rules

### Specific to general



# 1. Select one random instance

2. Create rule out of instance, by forming conjunctions from attributes of instance

3. Start removing conjunctions until it starts covering negative instances

# Summary of Direct Method

#### Grow a single rule

- Using general-to-specific or specificto general strategies
- Remove Instances satisfying rule
- Prune the rule (if necessary)
- Add rule to Current Rule Set
- Repeat

# Indirect Method Use Decision Tree to extract rules



 Add rules by forming conjunctions at each node. Braches/Paths to leaves represent one rule

## Indirect Method - Example



R1: (Refund=Yes)  $\rightarrow$  No R2: (Refund=No)  $\wedge$  (MarSt=Married)  $\rightarrow$  No R3: (Refund=No)  $\wedge$  (MarSt = Single, Divorced)  $\wedge$  (TaxInc < 80K)  $\rightarrow$  Yes

# Advantages of Rule based classifiers

- As highly expressive as decision trees
- Easy to interpret
- Easy to generate
- Can classify new instances rapidly
- Performance comparable to decision trees

# k-Nearest Neighbors

# Instance-based classifiers



also

called

- Instance based classifier? •
  - Just store the training records • forever
  - Do not process training • records at all to learn something (in contrast to e.g. decision trees)
  - Use stored training records to 0 predict class label of unseen records

#### Unseen Case



### Instance-based classifiers

- Instance-based are among the simplest classifiers in existens
- Examples methods:
  - > Rote-learner
    - Memorizes (i.e. stores) entire training data and performs classification only if attributes of record match one of the training examples exactly
  - > k-Nearest neighbor (k-NN)
    - Uses <u>k "closest" points (nearest neighbors)</u> for performing classification
      - For categorical class vars: majority vote of k closest points

Nearest Neighbor Classifiers
 Basic idea of k-NN (aka duck-typing):
 If it walks like a duck, quacks like a duck, then it's probably a duck



# k-Nearest Neighbors Classifiers

- Outline of k-NN algorithm (quite simple)
  - Calculate distance between new (unclassified) record and <u>all other records in dataset (training</u> <u>set)</u>
  - Find the k records in dataset with the closest distances to new record
    - k is always given, input of algorithm
  - > Look at the class of these k nearest records
  - If majority of the k records belong to class C, then new record is assigned class C (one way)
    - k usually chosen odd
  - k-NN is a non-parametric method (in contrast to decision trees)
    - Non-parametric? Does not care at all about he distribution of records

## k-Nearest Neighbor Classifiers

#### • Historical note

 One of the earliest methods to classify records (and one of the simplest)

• 1956

# Nearest-Neighbor (NN) Classifiers



- NN requires three things
  - The set of stored records
  - **Distance Metric** to compute distance between records
  - The value of k, the number of nearest neighbors to retrieve
- To classify an unknown record:
  - Compute distance to all other training records
  - Identify **k** nearest neighbors i.e. smallest distance
    - Use class labels of nearest neighbors to determine the class label of unknown record (e.g., by taking majority vote)

## Defining Neighbors



(a) 1-nearest neighbor (b) 2-nearest neighbor (c) 3-nearest neighbor k=1 k=2 k=3

k-Nearest Neighbors of a record x are data points that have the k smallest distance to x

# 1 nearest-neighbor

#### 1-NN (k=1) aka Voronoi Diagram

If unknown record falls in this area, then class of unknown record is the class of training record defining the area

In a Voronoi diagram: -Points are training records -Areas represent "regions" where the training record is the closest point and hence defines the class

> Training records



# Nearest Neighbor Classification

- Based on the notion of distance between records (or "points")
- How to calculate distance between records?
  - Many, many ways depending on attribute types and objective
- For records with numerical attributes, variations of the Minkowski distance:

$$d(x,y) = \sqrt[r]{\sum_{k=1}^{n} |(x_k - y_k)|^r}$$

Nearest Neighbor Classification
If r=1, Minkowski distance becomes the Manhattan distance

$$d(p,q) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} |p_i - q_i|$$

... where p, q vectors i.e.  $(p_1, p_2, p_3, ..., p_k)$ of numericals. Nearest Neighbor Classification If r=2, Minkowski distance becomes the Euclidean distance

$$\mathbf{d}(\mathbf{p},\mathbf{q}) = \sqrt{\sum_{i=k}^{k} (\mathbf{p}_i - \mathbf{q}_i)^2}$$

... where p, q vectors i.e.  $(p_1, p_2, p_3, ..., p_k)$ of numericals.
- Solution 3 most popular distance measures in use for <u>numerical records</u> in k-NN:
  - 1. Euclidean distance
  - 2. Manhattan or City block distance
  - 3. Supremum or  $L_{\infty}$  norm, i.e. Minkowski distance when  $r \rightarrow \infty$ . What does that mean?
    - As r→∞, the Minkowski formula is dominated by the term with the biggest difference
    - A fancy way of saying: "ignore all other attributes/dimensions except the ones with the biggest difference".





Solution: Normalize the vectors to unit length

Curse of dimensionality

In general when large number of attributes present, all records become close i.e. distances shrink.

What about records with nominal attributes?

- > E.g. (blue, Spaghetti, skirt)
- > Compute Overlap (or Hamming) measure:

$$\mathbf{d}(\mathbf{p},\mathbf{q}) = \sum_{i=1}^{\mathbf{m}} \mathbf{d}(\mathbf{p}_i,\mathbf{q}_i)$$

... where p, q vectors with nominal values  $d(p_i, q_i) = 1$  if  $p_i <>q_i$  and  $d(p_i, q_i)=0$  if  $p_i = q_i$ i.e. distance is 1 if they differ and 0 otherwise

### Nearest Neighbor Classification – Overlap measure example

		Overlap distances
1. (a, b, a, c) → A		> $d(1,5) = d(a,a) + d(b,b) +$
2. (a, b, c, a) $\rightarrow$ B	5. (a, b, b, a)	d(a,b) + d(c,a) = 0+0+1+1 = 2
3. (b, a, c, c) $\rightarrow$ C	New record.	> d(2,5) = 0+0+1+0 = 1
$4 (c a b c) \rightarrow A$	Class?	d(3,5) = 1+1+1+1 = 4
4. (C, d, b, C) - A		> $d(3,5) = 1+1+0+1 = 3$

Training records/dataset – stored permanently

- Classification of new data? Based on overlap (Hamming) distances:
  - If k=1, then new record belongs to class B
  - If k=2, then new record belongs to classes A or B (?)
  - If k=3, then new record belongs to class A
  - If k=4, then new record belongs to class A

- Overlap (Hamming) distance not the only way to measure distance for nominal attributes
- More clever ways to calculate distances of nominal attributes, which give much better results
  - > For example Value Difference Measure VDM

Value Difference Measure

- > Takes into consideration the class(!)
- Gives much better results than the Hamming distance
- > Defined as:

$$d(p,q) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |P(c_i|p) - P(c_i|q)|^n$$

# ... where p, q nominal <u>values</u>, n=number of classes, $P(c_i|p) = probability of class c_i given the presence of value p (Bayesian prob.)$

Note: The Modified Value Difference Measure does <u>not</u> <u>raise to power n</u> the difference.

### • Example of VDM

- Assume cars sold in various colors: red, green, blue etc
- For Overlap measure, difference between red and green is the same as the difference red and blue

> However, red and blue cars may sell more than green cars which somehow implies that red is closer to blue than to green

- VDM aims to capture this
- Measures always depend on the objective!

- How to calculate distance when vectors have numerical and nominal attributes (mixed data types) ?
  - > e.g. (43, blue, Married, 50901, Good, Peking Duck, 0.87) ?
  - Not always an easy task!
  - > Find yourself one measure that makes sense
    - You can come up with your own that makes sense for your context
    - Although there are many available e.g. Gower's General Similarity Coefficient
  - You may also combine different measures into a single measure. E.g.
    - Euclidean distance for numerical attributes
    - Other measure for nominal values
    - Combine (somehow) the above two

### In general

- You design your own distance measure function
- > Put your knowledge of the domain in
- > Reason about what makes things similar and what not
  - Depends on the domain, objective etc

- Aren't there any properties that the distance function must have? Yes there are
- A metric or distance function D(·, ·) for all points x, y and z, must satisfy the following properties:
  - > Nonnegativity:  $D(x, y) \ge 0$
  - > Reflexivity: D(x, y) = 0 if and only if x = y
  - > Symmetry: D(x, y) = D(y, x)
  - > Triangle inequality:  $D(x,y)+D(y,z) \ge D(x,z)$

# Example of k-nn: ordinal and nominal values Training records (stored)

Credit risk data

Income? Name **Debt?** Married? Risk High High Yes Good Joe Amber Good Low High Yes High No Harry Low Poor Lindsay High Low Yes Poor Kaley Low Low Yes Poor

Class

How would Maria who is single, high-income earner, and low in debt be classified?
 Record for Maria: (Low, High, No)

- Assume k=3
- Proper distance metric?
  - > Using Overlap (Hamming): 0=same, 1=different and sum

Name	Debt?	Income?	Married?	Risk
Joe	High	High	Yes	Good
Amber	Low	High	Yes	Good
Harry	Low	High	No	Poor
Lindsay	High	Low	Yes	Poor
Kaley	Low	Low	Yes	Poor

#### Maria: (Low, High, No, ????)

Step 1.

Calculate distance of Maria from all other records of the training set. d(Maria, Joe) = 1 + 0 + 1 = 2 d(Maria, Amber) = 0 + 0 + 1 = 1 d(Maria, Harry) = 0 + 0 + 0 = 0 d(Maria, Lindsay) = 1 + 1 + 1 = 3 d(Maria, Kaley) = 0 + 1 + 0 = 1

### Assume k=3

- Proper distance metric?
  - > Using Overlap (Hamming): 0=same, 1=different and sum

Name	Debt?	Income?	Married?	Risk
Joe	High	High	Yes	Good
Amber	Low	High	Yes	Good
Harry	Low	High	No	Poor
Lindsay	High	Low	Yes	Poor
Kaley	Low	Low	Yes	Poor

Maria: (Low, High, No, ????)

Sort distances in ascending order

d(Maria, Harry) = 0 d(Maria, Amber) = 1 d(Maria, Kaley) = 1 d(Maria, Joe) = 2 d(Maria, Lindsay) = 3

### Assume k=3

- Proper distance metric?
  - > Using Overlap (Hamming): 0=same, 1=different and sum

Name	Debt?	Income?	Married?	Risk
Joe	High	High	Yes	Good
Amber	Low	High	Yes	Good
Harry	Low	High	No	Poor
Lindsay	High	Low	Yes	Poor
Kaley	Low	Low	Yes	Poor

Maria: (Low, High, No, ????)

Step 3.

Keep the k closest records to Maria (here, k=3) d(Maria, Harry) = 0 d(Maria, Amber) = 1 d(Maria, Kaley) = 1



The **k-neighborhood of** Maria

### Assume k=3

- Proper distance metric?
  - > Using Overlap (Hamming): 0=same, 1=different and sum

Name	Debt?	Income?	Married?	Risk
Joe	High	High	Yes	Good
Amber	Low	High	Yes	Good
Harry	Low	High	No	Poor
Lindsay	High	Low	Yes	Poor
Kaley	Low	Low	Yes	Poor

Maria: (Low, High, No, ????)

Step 4.

Look at the class of the 3 closest record to Maria d(Maria, Harry) → Poor (=class of Harry) d(Maria, Amber) → Good (=class of Amber) d(Maria, Kaley) → Poor (=class of Kaley)

### Assume k=3

- Proper distance metric?
  - > Using Overlap (Hamming): 0=same, 1=different and sum

Name	Debt?	Income?	Married?	Risk
Joe	High	High	Yes	Good
Amber	Low	High	Yes	Good
Harry	Low	High	No	Poor
Lindsay	High	Low	Yes	Poor
Kaley	Low	Low	Yes	Poor

Maria: (Low, High, No, POOR)

Step 5. Assign to Maria the

most frequent class (majority vote) d(Maria, Harry)  $\rightarrow$  Poor d(Maria, Amber)  $\rightarrow$  Good d(Maria, Kaley)  $\rightarrow$  Poor Class of Maria: <u>POOR</u>

### Example MVDM

Class

### Calculate distances using the <u>Modified</u> value difference metric (MVDM)

Tid	Refund	Marital Status	Taxable Income	Cheat
1	Yes	Single	125K	No
2	No	Married	100K	No
3	No	Single	70K	No
4	Yes	Married	120K	No
5	No	Divorced	95K	Yes
6	No	Married	60K	No
7	Yes	Divorced	220K	No
8	No	Single	85K	Yes
9	No	Married	75K	No
10	No	Single	90K	Yes

 $\begin{array}{l} \textbf{d(Single, Married)} = | P(Yes | Single) - \\ P(Yes | Married) | + | P(No | Single) - \\ P(No | Married) | = | (2/10)/(4/10) - \\ (0/10)/(4/10) | + | (2/10)/(4/10) - \\ (4/10)/(4/10) | = 1 \end{array}$ 

d(Single, Divorces) = |2/4 - 1/2| + |2/4 - 1/2| = 0

d(Married, Divorced) = | 0/4 - 1/2 | + | 4/4 - 1/2 | = 1

d(Refund=Yes, Refund=No) = | 0/3 - 3/7 | + | 3/3 - 4/7 | = 6/7

# Example of k-nn: ordinal and nominal values Credit risk data

Class

Name	Debt?	Income?	Married?	Risk
Joe	High	High	Yes	Good
Amber	Low	High	Yes	Good
Harry	Low	High	No	Poor
Lindsay	High	Low	Yes	Poor
Kaley	Low	Low	Yes	Poor

 How would Maria who is single, high-income earner, and low in debt be classified? <u>NOTE:</u> <u>Using MVDM</u>

Record for Maria: (Low, High, No)

Assume k=3

### • Distance metric?

> Using MVDM

Name	Debt?	Income?	Married?	Risk
Joe	High	High	Yes	Good
Amber	Low	High	Yes	Good
Harry	Low	High	No	Poor
Lindsay	High	Low	Yes	Poor
Kaley	Low	Low	Yes	Poor

### Step 1.

Calculate distance of Maria from all other records of the training set using MVDM. Hence calculate first differences between nominal values of all attributes. Maria: (Low, High, No, ????)

Dept?: d(High, Low) = |P(Good | High) - P(Good | Low)| + |P(Poor | High) - P(Poor | Low)| = |1/2 - 1/3| + |1/2 - 2/3| = 0.33333

Incomme? d(High, Low) = |P(Good|High) – P(Good|Low)| + |P(Poor|High) – P(Poor|Low)| = |(2/5)-(0/5)| + |(1/5)-(2/5)| = 0.6

Married?d(Yes, No) = |P(Good|Yes) – P(Good|No)| + |P(Poor|Yes) – P(Poor|No)| = |(1/2) – 0| + ||(1/2) – 1 | = 1

# Example of k-nn: ordinal and nominal values (cont.) Assume k=3

Proper distance metric?

> Using <u>MVDM</u>

Name	Debt?	Income?	Married?	Risk
Joe	High	High	Yes	Good
Amber	Low	High	Yes	Good
Harry	Low	High	No	Poor
Lindsay	High	Low	Yes	Poor
Kaley	Low	Low	Yes	Poor

Maria: (Low, High, No, ????)

Step 2.

Calculate actual distances. Based on previous slide d(Maria, Harry) = d(Low, Low) + d(High, High) + d(No, No) = 0 d(Maria, Amber) = d(Low,Low) + d(High, High) + d(No,Yes) = 0 + 0 + 1 = 1 d(Maria, Kaley) = d(Low, Low) + d(High,Low) + d(No,Yes) = 0 + 0.6 + 1 = 1.6 d(Maria, Joe) = d(Low,High) + d(High,High) + d(No,Yes) = 0.333 + 0 + 1 = 1.333 d(Maria, Lindsay) = d(Low,High) + d(High,Low) + d(No,Yes) = 0.333 + 0.6 + 1 = 1.933

### Example of k-nn: ordinal and nominal values (cont.) • Assume k=3

- Proper distance metric?
  - > Using MVDM

Name	Debt?	Income?	Married?	Risk
Joe	High	High	Yes	Good
Amber	Low	High	Yes	Good
Harry	Low	High	No	Poor
Lindsay	High	Low	Yes	Poor
Kaley	Low	Low	Yes	Poor

#### Maria: (Low, High, No, ????)

Sort distances in ascending order

d(Maria, Harry) = 0 d(Maria, Amber) = 1 d(Maria, Joe) = = 1.333 d(Maria, Kaley) = 1.6 d(Maria, Lindsay) = 1.933

Proper distance metric?

> Using MVDM

Name	Debt?	Income?	Married?	Risk
Joe	High	High	Yes	Good
Amber	Low	High	Yes	Good
Harry	Low	High	No	Poor
Lindsay	High	Low	Yes	Poor
Kaley	Low	Low	Yes	Poor

Maria: (Low, High, No, ????)

Step 4.

Keep the k (=3) closest records to Maria d(Maria, Harry) = 0 d(Maria, Amber) = 1 d(Maria, Joe) = = 1.333

Proper distance metric?

> Using MVDM

Name	Debt?	Income?	Married?	Risk
Joe	High	High	Yes	Good
Amber	Low	High	Yes	Good
Harry	Low	High	No	Poor
Lindsay	High	Low	Yes	Poor
Kaley	Low	Low	Yes	Poor

Maria: (Low, High, No, ????)

Step 5.

Get class of the k (=3) closest records to Maria d(Maria, Harry) =  $0 \rightarrow$  Poor (=class of Harry) d(Maria, Amber) =  $1 \rightarrow$  Good (=class of Amber) d(Maria, Joe) =  $1.333 \rightarrow$  Good (=class of Joe)

### Example of k-nn: ordinal and nominal values (cont.) • Assume k=3

Proper distance metric?

> Using MVDM

Name	Debt?	Income?	Married?	Risk
Joe	High	High	Yes	Good
Amber	Low	High	Yes	Good
Harry	Low	High	No	Poor
Lindsay	High	Low	Yes	Poor
Kaley	Low	Low	Yes	Poor

Maria: (Low, High, No, <u>Good</u>)

Step 6.

Assign to Maria the most frequent class (majority vote) d(Maria, Harry) =  $0 \rightarrow$  Poor d(Maria, Amber) =  $1 \rightarrow$  Good d(Maria, Joe) =  $1.333 \rightarrow$  Good



- How to reach decision based on k nearest neighbors?
  - > Many different approaches
    - Un-weighted votes: count simply the most frequent class among k nearest neighbors
    - Distance weighted votes: weigh each vote by some factor that takes into consideration e.g. the distance
      - Hence, records further away have less influence in the voting process

### Choosing the value of k:

- > If **k** is **too small**, sensitive to **noise points**
- If k is too large, neighborhood may include points from other classes
- > Rule of thumb: k ~= sqrt(number of observations)



# Very important! <u>Scaling issues for numerical</u> <u>attributes</u>

- Attributes may have to be scaled to prevent distance measures from being dominated by one of the attributes
- > Example:
  - height of a person may vary from 1.5m to 1.8m
  - weight of a person may vary from 90lb to 300lb
  - income of a person may vary from \$10K to \$1M
  - Assume <u>all above in record data</u>. Difference in income a lot greater than height difference, which influences (dominates) the distance measure.
- In practice, all numerical attributes are usually scaled to the (0,1) range (other ranges possible too)

### Why scaling – Example

 Assume vector representing visitors/customer to a website with attributes: Age, Income, Number of visits.

Jim: (75, 55000, 35) => Jim is old and visits site often

k-NN distance measure may calculate that Alice is closest to Jim, because <u>income dominates</u>

### Alice: (22, 54000, 0) => Alice is young and never

visited the site

But this does not sound "reasonable". Other attributes differences have been masked by income

• How to scale? Many different ways

 Calculate what portion of the range a value accounts for (called min-max normalization)

New value = 
$$\frac{Old value - x_{minimum}}{x_{maximum} - x_{minimum}}$$

...where "Old value" current value of an attribute,  $x_{minimum} =$  the minimum value of the attribute and  $x_{maximum} =$  the maximum value of the attribute Ranges from 0 to 1. Do this for all attributes.

- How to scale? Many different ways
  - Express each value in terms of z scores i.e. how many std. deviations σ it is away from the mean of attribute (called standardization):

$$z_{val} = \frac{(val - \overline{y_{val}})}{\sigma}$$

...where "val" a value of an attribute,  $\overline{y}_{val}$  = mean of attribute y for which val is a value and  $\sigma$  the std deviation of attribute y Ranges aprox. from -3 to 3 Apply this to all numerical attributes

- k-NN classifiers are <u>lazy learners</u>
  - > It does not build models explicitly
    - Instead stores training data and computes distances every time (wtf!). Does not build model.
  - Unlike eager learners such as decision tree induction and rule-based systems
  - Classifying unknown records is relatively expensive
    - Always compute again distances instances for each new record
- Decision Trees/Rule-based are <u>eager</u>
   <u>learners</u>
  - They build model out of training data

# kNN prone to overfitting Overfitting when k small (k=1). Why?

#### When k small then

classification prone to noise. E.g consider a space where most points are class A, few class B. Test records happens to be near record of class B. If k=1 probably misclassified as B, which is counterintuitive.

# Nearest Neighbor implementation in R

- Using the iris dataset to classify different species of iris plant
  - > 3 species: virginica, setosa, versicolor
  - Determine species (class) based on some characteristics, length and width- of petals and sepals. Will use k-nn algorithm





Iris virginica



Iris setosa



Iris versicolor

### k-NN in R

### The k-NN algorithm in R

#includes the class package, containing the necessary functions for k-nn
library(class)

#Add the Iris dataset. Note: iris dataset is build-in and comes with R data(iris)

#Take a quick look at the data (peek at data)
head(iris)

# Something strange things can be seen. The iris dataset is sorted on class. i.e. # 50 first records are all the same species, next 50 are the same etc. # This does not help us in getting a good training dataset which should contain # a good mix of each species. # Hence, first shuffle iris dataset. There are many ways to do it, but this is one

# Initialize random number generator set.seed(9850) # Get 150 random numbers from 0 to 1 from a uniform distribution gp <- runif(nrow(iris)) # Now, use the outcome of order on gp, to get the rankings of the random numbers # and use these to shuffle iris records iris <-iris[order(gp),] #Take a look at the values of each attribute. summary(iris) # There is an issue. Attributes have different ranges. This may introduce bias. So, # try to normalize each value of attribute in the range 0 to 1. One easy way to do # this is to normalize is to use min-max normalization : # new\_value = (old\_value - col\_min())/ (col\_max() - col\_min() ) . To do this, we will use a # function. Makes things easier. "Continued on next slide."

### k-NN in R

```
# Continued from previous slide
# Define a function to normalize all attributes. Yes, in R you can define function and
# store the definition of function in variables (whaaaat???)
norm <- function(x) { return( (x-min(x)) / (max(x)-min(x)) ) }
# Now normalize each attribute by applying norm i.e. make each value from 0 to 1
```

```
iris[,"Sepal.Length"] <- norm(iris$Sepal.Length)
iris[,"Sepal.Width"] <- norm(iris$Sepal.Width)
iris[,"Petal.Length"] <- norm(iris$Petal.Length)
iris[,"Petal.Width"] <- norm(iris$Petal.Width)</pre>
```

```
#Take a look at the data again
summary(iris)
```

```
# Looks cool! Create now training dataset We will use first 129 records as training
# set and the rest as testing set
iris_train <- iris[1:129,]
iris test <- iris[130:150,]</pre>
```

```
# Single out, i.e. keep separately the class of each record. This will help us make
# some tests easier. Also, the R function for knn requires it.
iris_train_target <-iris[1:129, 5]
iris test target <-iris[130:150, 5]</pre>
```

```
# This is advance ninja techniques vol 4: without the next lines, R;s knn function
# goes berserk.
iris_train <-iris_train[, -5]
iris_test <-iris_test[, -5]</pre>
```

# Now we are ready to apply the k-NN algorithm. See next slide ...
## k-NN in R

# Continued from previous slide
# Call R's knn function which does our job. Set as k the square root of
# number of records in dataset (a rule of thumb)

model1 <- knn(train=iris train, test=iris test, cl=iris train target, k=13)</pre>

# Ok done! At this point we have calculated the k-nearest neighbors
# and assigned class by majority vote for each one of the records in the iris\_test
# dataset. I.e. we have predicted a class for each record in the testing set.

# Print the confusion matrix to see how our model has performed table(iris test target, model1)

## Complexity of k-NN?

- Suppose we have training set of size d and dimension d and require k closest neighbors
  - Complexity to compute distance to one training record: O(d)
  - Complexity to compute distance to all training records: O(nd)
  - Complexity to find k closest distances: O(nk)
  - > Total time (complexity): O(nd + nk)
  - For large training set (usually the case) expensive!

## K-NN: Possible if class is continuous

#### Classification

 $\hat{y} = \text{most common class in set } \{y_1, \dots, y_K\}$ 

#### Regression

$$\hat{y} = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^{K} y_k$$

In regression, take the average of values of k nearest neighbors. This will be the "class" or dependent value for unknown record

## K-NN: Possible if class is continuous

## Weighted by distance Classification

 $\hat{y} = \text{most common class in weighted set}$  $\left\{ D(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_1) y_1, \dots, D(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_K) y_K \right\}$ 

> Regression

$$\hat{y} = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{K} D(x, x_k) y_k}{\sum_{k=1}^{K} D(x, x_k)}$$

## Advantages/Disadvantages of k-NN?

- Advantages
  - > "Learning" is very, very fast
    - If you can call it "learning" (well, it's not learning actually)
  - > Can "learn" complex target functions/models easily
    - Because there is no model to learn.
  - Does not lose any information
    - Compare with decision tree
- Disadvantages
  - Computationally expensive, slow query time i.e. slow to classify unknown records
    - Due to number of times the distance has to be calculated training sets generally large
  - Requires lots of storage
    - Not a problem anymore (in 1956 was great problem)
  - Easily fooled by irrelevant attributes (most important problem) Curse of dimensionality.
    - Signal of important attributes may be masked by the noise of many irrelevant attributes

## Naïve Bayes Classifiers

## Naïve Bayes classifiers

#### Naïve Bayes classifiers?

- > A probabilistic framework for solving classification problems
  - Probabilistic? Calculate some probabilities and decide class based on these
  - Record belongs to a class with some probability
    - Can calculate probability for any class (!)
    - We don't assert with certainty the class a record belongs to
- Based on conditional probabilities
- Based on Bayes theorem

### Preliminaries

Conditional probability

Probability of event A given that event B has occurred

 $P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$ 



Tells us how the probability of events A and B occurring wrt  $\Omega$  (S). Measures how big/pct the common area is between A and B with respect to  $\Omega$  (S)

Tells us the probability of event A given that B occurred. Measures how big/pct the common area between A and B with respect to B

- Bayes theorem
  - > Tells us how conditions are related to events:

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B)}$$

 Derives straight from conditional probabilities:

 $P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}, \text{ but since } P(B|A) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} \to P(A \cap B) = P(B|A)P(A)$ hence  $P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B)}$ 

 Intuitively understanding the elements in Bayes' theorem

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B)}$$

- P(A): <u>Prior belief</u>. Probability of event A before seeing any data. The hypothesis.
- P(B | A): <u>Likelihood</u>. Probability of the data if event B is true
- P(B): <u>Data evidence</u>. Marginal probability of the data
- P(A | B): Posterior probability. Probability of event A after having seen data of event B

#### Bayes theorem

- Alternative forms of Bayes' theorem, based on Law of Total Probability
- > Law of total probability? Assume space  $\Omega$  is partitioned into n partitions  $A_i$  such that  $A_i \cap A_j =$  $\emptyset$  (mutual exclusive) and  $\cup A_i = \Omega$  (exhaustive), then probability of event B occurring is:

$$P(B) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} P(A_i \cap B) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} P(B|A_i)P(A_i)$$

# Bayes Theorem Bayes theorem Visualizing Law of Total Probability



Partitions of space. Event B spawns/crosses partitions.

- Bayes theorem
  - > Based on Law of total probability, Bayes theorem becomes:

 $P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} P(B|A_i)P(A_i)}$ 

...assuming that **space B is partitioned in n partitions A<sub>i</sub>** with the same properties (i.e. A<sub>i</sub> mutual exclusive and exhaustive) Examples of Bayes theorem (quite counterintuitive)

Assume the following:

- > Breast cancer affects 1% of women
- > A test (e.g. mammogram) detects breast cancer 80% if the person has breast cancer
- 9.1% of the test detects breast cancer when the person has not cancer (false positive)
- > Question: Given that a woman takes the test and the test reveals cancer (i.e. indicated that the woman has cancer) what is the probability that she really has cancer?

Examples of Bayes theorem (quite counterintuitive)

What do we have?

- > P(has breast cancer) = 0.01
- > P(Test says br. cancer | has br. cancer) = 0.8
- > P(Test says br. cancer | has not br. cancer) = 0.096
- For the woman which took the test and it revealed breast cancer, we are actually looking for this:
  - P(has breast cancer | test says br. cancer) = ?
    - The basic idea here is that it's different for a test to say it and actually having it!

## Examples of Bayes theorem (quite counterintuitive)

#### Applying Bayes Theorem

 $P(has br. cancer | test says br. cancer) = \frac{P(test says br. cancer | has br. cancer)P(has br. cancer)}{P(test says br. cancer)}$ 

P(test says br. Cancer | has br. Cancer) known = 0.8, P(has br. cancer) also known = 0.01. For P(test says br. cancer) we can apply the Law of total probability: we have two partitions -br. Cancer and no br. Cancer- that are mutual exclusive and exhaustive and "test says br. cancer" crosses both areas. Hence

P(test says br. cancer) = P(test says br. cancer | has cancer)P(has cancer) + P(test says br. cancer | has no cancer)P(has no cancer) = 0.8\*0.01 + 0.096\*(1-0.01) = 0.10304

Answering the question:

P(has br. Cancer | test says br. Cancer) = (0.8\*0.01)/0.10304 = 0.077 (or 7.7%) NOTE: Quite small chance, even test came out positive for breast cancer.

## Bayesian classifier: basic idea

- Assume that X are all the values of some attributes of a record r (x<sub>1</sub>,x<sub>2</sub>,x<sub>3</sub>,...,x<sub>d</sub>) and Y the class label of the record
  - Note: X will stand in next sections as the set of all values of attributes of a record (except class of course)
- Further assume that the class label Y is non-deterministically related to X
  - Non-deterministically? Simply means you can not associate values of X with a particular value of Y with certainty 100%

## Bayesian classifier: basic idea

- Then, we can treat X and Y as random variables and calculate P(Y | X) i.e. the probability that record r, with these values X on its attributes belongs to class Y.
  - The problem of classifying record r becomes then to find Y (class) that maximizes P(Y | X)
    This is the maximized of Personian
- This is the main idea of Bayesian classifiers

## Bayesian classifier: basic idea

- P(Y | X) known as posterior probability
- P(Y) known as prior probability
- As with all classification methods, 2 phases
  - Training phase: Try to calculate P(Y | X) based on the records of the training set
  - > Testing phase: Given a record X' with unknown class, and find P(Y'|X') which maximizes this probability. If Y' maximizes, say record X' belongs to class Y'

## Bayesian classifier: basic idea

#### • How to compute P(Y | X) ?

- More clearly P(Y | X) is actually P(Y | x<sub>1</sub> ∩ x<sub>2</sub> ∩ x<sub>3</sub> ∩ … ∩ x<sub>d</sub>) where xi values on attributes of record with dimension d. (Remember X attribute values)
- > Use Bayes Theorem to calculate posterior probability:

 $P(Y|X) = \frac{P(X|Y)P(Y)}{P(X)}$ 

## Bayesian classifier: basic idea

#### • How to compute P(Y | X) ?

 $P(Y|X) = \frac{P(X|Y)P(Y)}{P(X)}$ 

...calculates posterior probability based on prior probability P(Y), conditional dependence P(X | Y) and P(X) called the evidence. Now, given a record r, with unknown class Y, in order to see which class it belongs, try to maximize P(Y | X) or maximize P(X | Y)P(Y) since P(X) for record r always constant (and not always computable). Record belongs to class Y that maximizes this probability,

## Bayesian classifier: basic idea

#### • How to calculate P(Y | X)?

- > It's easy to calculate prior P(Y) based on training set
- > Calculating **P(X | Y) not that easy**.
  - Note: For record r with dimension d and attribute values (x1, x2, x3, ..., xd), P(X | Y) = P(x<sub>1</sub> ∩ x<sub>2</sub> ∩ x<sub>3</sub> ∩ ... ∩ x<sub>d</sub> | Y)
- Bayes classifiers differ in their way they deal with calculating P(X | Y) and what assumptions they make
  - <u>Naïve Bayes classifier</u>
  - Artificial Neural Networks (ANN)

## Naïve Bayes Classifier

 Naïve Bayes classifier assumes that the attributes X of record r are <u>conditionally</u> <u>independent of class Y</u>. I.e.

 $P(X|Y = y) = P(x_1 \cap x_2 \cap \dots \cap x_d | Y = y) = \prod_{i=1}^d P(x_i | Y = y)$ 

In Naïve Bayes, new record r is classified to **class y** <u>if</u> <u>P(y) Π P(x<sub>i</sub> | Y=y) is maximal.</u>

## Naïve Bayes Classifier

#### Conditional independence

> Let there be three events X, Y, Z. We say that event X is conditionally independent of Z given Y when:

 $P(X | Y \cap Z) = P(X | Y) \text{ or equivalent}$  $P(X \cap Z | Y) = P(X | Y)P(Z | Y)$ 

## Naïve Bayes Classifier for discrete attributes - Example

Tid	Refund	Marital Status	Taxable Income	Evade	
1	Yes	Single	125K	Νο	
2	No	Married	100K	No	
3	No	Single	70K	No	
4	Yes	Married	120K	Νο	
5	No	Divorced	95K	Yes	
6	No	Married	60K	No	
7	Yes	Divorced	220K	Νο	
8	No	Single	85K	Yes	
9	No	Married	75K	Νο	
10	No	Single	90K	Yes	

• For discrete attributes: >  $P(Y) = N_v / N, Y class$ attributé • P(Yes) = 3/10• P(No) = 7/10  $P(X_i | Y_k) = |X_{ik}| / N_{yk}$ Where  $|X_{ik}|$  number of attributes having value x<sub>i</sub> and belong to class  $Y_k$ . E.g. P(Status=Married | No) =

4/7 P(Refund=Yes | Yes) = 0 Naive Bayes Classifier for qualitative attributes – applying naive Bayes example

Training Data						
ID	Μ	N	Q	R		
1	M1	N3	Q2	R2		
2	M2	N3	Q2	R1		
3	M2	N2	Ql	R1		
4	M1	N2	Ql	R2		
5	M2	N1	Q3	R2		
6	M1	N1	Q3	R2		

Clace

Assume all attributes categorical. Assume conditional independence of class

Given record X =(M2, N3, Q1). What is it's class?

- > P(R1) = 1/3
- > P(R2) = 2/3
- Calculate P(R1 | X) . Note: Can't and don't need to calculate P(X). P(X | R1)P(R1)= P(M2 | R1)P(N3 | R1)P(Q1 | R1)P( R1) =1\*(1/2)\*(1/2)(1/3)= 0.083

 Calculate P(R2 | X). P(M2 | R2)P(N3 | R2)P(Q1 | R2)P(R2) = (1/4)\*(1/4)\*(1/4)\*(2/3)=0.0104
 Since P(R1 | X) > P(R2 | X), record X belongs to class R1

## Naïve Bayes Classifier for qualitative attributes – applying naïve Bayes example

#### Training data

Name	Give Birth	Can Fly	Live in Water	Have Legs	Class
human	yes	no	no	yes	mammals
python	no	no	no	no	non-mammals
salmon	no	no	yes	no	non-mammals
whale	yes	no	yes	no	mammals
frog	no	no	sometimes	yes	non-mammals
komodo	no	no	no	yes	non-mammals
bat	yes	yes	no	yes	mammals
pigeon	no	yes	no	yes	non-mammals
cat	yes	no	no	yes	mammals
leopard shark	yes	no	yes	no	non-mammals
turtle	no	no	sometimes	yes	non-mammals
penguin	no	no	sometimes	yes	non-mammals
porcupine	yes	no	no	yes	mammals
eel	no	no	yes	no	non-mammals
salamander	no	no	sometimes	yes	non-mammals
gila monster	no	no	no	yes	non-mammals
platypus	no	no	no	yes	mammals
owl	no	yes	no	yes	non-mammals
dolphin	yes	no	yes	no	mammals
eagle	no	yes	no	yes	non-mammals

Give Birth	Can Fly	Live in Water	Have Legs	Class
yes	no	yes	no	?

Assume

- A: all attributes of unknown record
- > M: Mammals
- > N: Non-Mammal
- P(A | M) =
  (6/7)\*(6/7)\*(2/7)\*(2/7)=
  0.06
- P(A | N) = 0.0042
- P(A | M)\*P(M) = 0.021
- P(A | N) P(N) = 0.0027
- Hence, since P(A | M)\*P(M) > P(A | N)\*P(N) <u>unknown is</u> classified as "Mammal".

Unknown record. Find class

## Naive Bayes Classifier: Continuous attributes

#### • For continuous attributes:

- > **Discretize** the range into bins
  - one ordinal attribute per bin (e.g. poor, good, better, very good etc. <u>Note: have ordering</u>)
  - violates independence assumption
    - Discretization may mask discriminating factors of attribute (loss of information)
- > Two-way split: (A < v) or (A > v)
  - choose only one of the two splits as new attribute
- > Probability density estimation:
  - Assume attribute follows a normal distribution
  - Use data to estimate parameters of distribution (e.g., mean and standard deviation)
  - Once probability distribution is known, can use it to estimate the conditional probability P(A<sub>i</sub> | c)

## Naïve Bayes Classifier: Continuous attributes

- Probability density estimation method
  - Assume every continuous attribute normally distributed.
  - > Calculate mean, variance for each attribute given class
  - > Calculate P(x<sub>i</sub> | Y<sub>j</sub>) for each (x<sub>i</sub>, Y<sub>j</sub>) pair as follows, using the normal distribution's PDF:

$$P(x_i|Y_j) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_{ij}^2}} e^{-\frac{(x_i - \mu_{ij})^2}{2\sigma_{ij}^2}}$$

## Naïve Bayes Classifier: Continuous attributes

#### PDF of normal distribution of attributes assumption in Naïve Bayes



Some notes: The PDF (Probability Density Function) does not calculate probabilities(!). For continuous variable X  $P(X=x_0) = 0$ . The PDF tells us the "density" at this point i.e. how common are samples (i.e. observed values) at exactly this value  $X=x_0$ 

$$P(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

## Naïve Bayes Classifier: Continuous attributes - Example

1

Tid	Refund	Marital Status	Taxable Income	Evade
1	Yes	Single	125K	No
2	No	Married	100K	No
3	No	Single	70K	No
4	Yes	Married	120K	No
5	No	Divorced	95K	Yes
6	No	Married	60K	No
7	Yes	Divorced	220K	No
8	No	Single	85K	Yes
9	No	Married	75K	No
10	No	Single	90K	Yes

#### Training Data

- Assume Income (cont. var) normally distributed
  - Calculate P(x<sub>i</sub> | c<sub>i</sub>) for each pair (x<sub>i</sub> | c<sub>i</sub>) using normal distribution's PDF
  - To do this, calculate for each class (yes/no), mean and variance
    - For Class=no

 $\frac{(120-110)^2}{2*2975}$ 

- Sample mean µ of "no" class = 110K (add all income where class=no and divide by # of "no" classes). Note: will use value 110, as we take each income as measured in K. i.e. 125 instead of 125000 (125K)
- Sample variance σ<sup>2</sup> of "no" class = 2975

0.0072

P(Income=120 | No) =

## Naïve Bayes Classifier: Example with unknown record

#### Conditional prob for discrete attributes from training data

#### naive Bayes Classifier:

P(Refund=Yes|No) = 3/7 P(Refund=No|No) = 4/7 P(Refund=Yes|Yes) = 0 P(Refund=No|Yes) = 1 P(Marital Status=Single|No) = 2/7 P(Marital Status=Divorced|No)=1/7 P(Marital Status=Married|No) = 4/7 P(Marital Status=Single|Yes) = 2/7 P(Marital Status=Divorced|Yes)=1/7 P(Marital Status=Married|Yes) = 0

#### For taxable income: If class=No: sample mean=110 sample variance=2975 If class=Yes: sample mean=90 sample variance=25

Data needed to calculate continuous variables assuming normal distribution, via PDF

- Assume previous training data
- We are given new, unclassified record X=(No, Married, 120K). Class=?? Mixed: discrete and continuous attributes.
- Calculate P(X | Class=No) and P(X | Class=Yes) for record X
- P(X | Class=No) = P(Ref=No | No)\*P(Married | No)\*P(120 K | Class=No) = (4/7)\*(4/7)\*0.0072 = 0.0024
- P(X | Class=Yes) = P(Ref=No | Class=Yes)\*P(Married | Class=Yes)\*P(Income=120K | Class=Yes) = 1 × 0 × 1.2 × 10<sup>-9</sup> = 0
- Calculate now P(X | Class=No)\*P(No) and P(X | Class=Yes)\*P(Yes)
  - P(X | Class=No)\*P(No) = 0.0024 \*(7/10) = 0.00168
    - P(X | Class=Yes)\*P(Yes) = 0
- Since P(X | Class=No)\*P(No) > P(X | Class=Yes)\*P(Yes), given record X is classified as "No"

## Naïve Bayes Classifier improvements

- If one of the conditional probability is zero, then the entire expression becomes zero
- Other probability estimation:

Original : 
$$P(A_i | C) = \frac{N_{ic}}{N_c}$$
  
Laplace :  $P(A_i | C) = \frac{N_{ic} + 1}{N_c + c}$   
m - estimate :  $P(A_i | C) = \frac{N_{ic} + mp}{N_c + m}$ 

c: number of classesp: prior probabilitym: parameter

## Naïve Bayes in R

#Includes functions for Naïve Bayes
library(e1071)

#We will be using the Congressional Voting Records Data Set
#From: http://archive.ics.uci.edu/ml/datasets/Congressional+Voting+Records

#First read the data. Note the dataset HAS NO headers, hence set header to FALSE. #We well add headers later. NOTE: Change your path to data appropriately! voteData = read.csv("house-votes-84.data", header=FALSE) attach(voteData)

#Add headers to data. Makes working with dataset easier colnames(voteData) <- c("party", "infants", "water-cost", "budgetRes", "PhysicianFr", "ElSalvador", "ReligSch", "AntiSat", "NicarAid", "Missile", "Immigration", "CorpCutbacks", "EduSpend", "RightToSue", "Crime", "DFExports", "SAExport")

#Take a quick look at the data. Is everything ok? head(voteData)

#Looks fine. We are now ready to train our model and derive our Naïve Bayes #classifier. We want to predict the party based on how a congress delegate #has voted on various issues. NaiveBayesModel <- naiveBayes (party ~ ., data = voteData)</pre>

#Done! Model created. Variable NaiveBayesModel contains now our naïve bayes model #as it resulted from the training data (voting records dataset) #Now, try to predict the party based on the voting history of some congressman. See next slide

## Naïve Bayes in R

#Now, try to apply the Naïve Bayes model to an unknown record.

#Apply Naive Bayes model to unknown record i.e. to last record that was
#added to voteData
unknownRecordClass = predict(NaiveBayesModel, voteData[nrow(voteData), ])

#Now unknownRecordClass has the class i.e. party predicted for unknown record.
#Let's see it
unknownRecordClass

#You can also plot it (sigh)
plot(unknownRecordClass)

## Naïve Bayes - Summary

#### Advantages

- > Robust to isolated noise points
- Can handle missing values by ignoring the instance during probability estimate calculations
- > Robust to irrelevant attributes

#### Disadvantages

- Assumption: class conditional independence, which may cause loss of accuracy
- Independence assumption may not hold for some attribute. Practically, dependencies exist among variables
  - Use other techniques such as Bayesian Belief Networks (BBN)
## Appendices

## Appendix B: Bibliography

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