



MEDNARODNA  
PODIPLOMSKA ŠOLA  
JOŽEFA ŠTEFANA

INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGIES  
Master study programme

# Data and Text Mining

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December 2, 2019

[http://kt.ijs.si/petra\\_kralj/dmtm2.html](http://kt.ijs.si/petra_kralj/dmtm2.html)

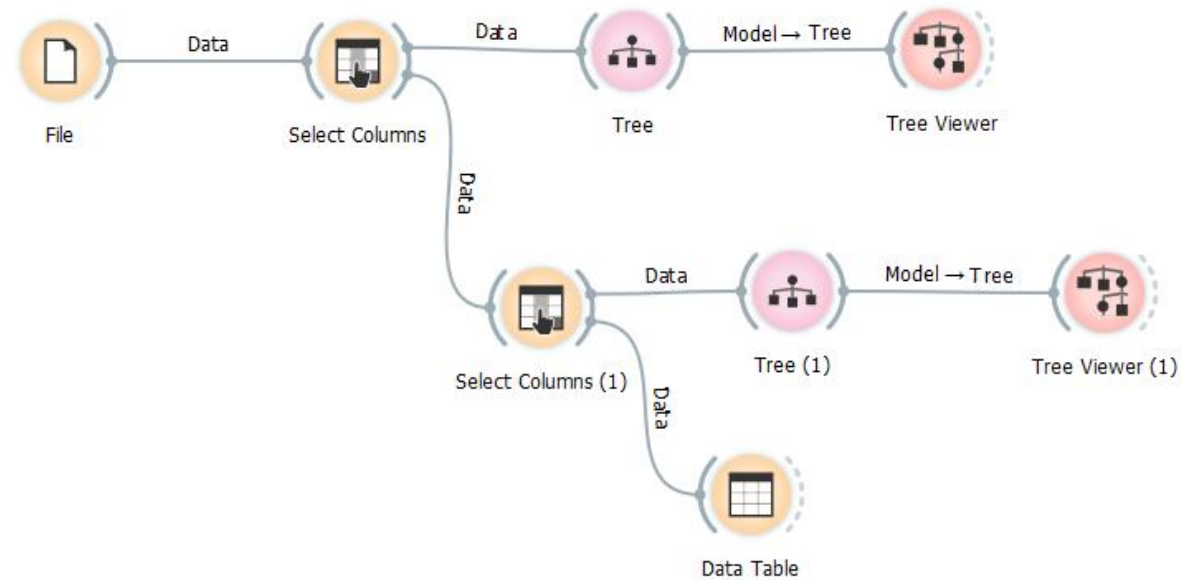
# In previous episodes ...

- 23-Oct-19
  - **Data**, data types
  - Interactive **visualization** (Orange)
  - **Classification** with decision trees (root, leaves, rules, entropy, info gain, TDIDT, ID3)
- 6-Nov-19
  - Classification: train – test (evaluate) - apply
  - **Decision tree** example (on blackboard)
  - Decision tree language bias (Orange workflow)
  - Homework:
    - InfoGain questions
    - Orange workflow
    - Reading “Classification and regression by randomForest” by Liaw & Wiener, 2002
- 25-Nov-19
  - **Evaluation**:
    - Methods: train-test, leave-one-out, randomized sampling,...
    - Metrics: accuracy, confusion matrix, precision, recall, F1,...
  - Homework: XOR, questions, precision and recall

# Assignment 1

1. Sketch the real decision tree model behind the data of the XOR example.
2. What happens if we remove the attribute “C”? Guess first, then use an Orange workflow and find out.

A	B	C	AxorB
1	1	1	0
1	1	1	0
1	0	1	1
1	0	0	1
0	1	0	1
0	1	0	1
0	0	1	0
0	0	0	0



# Assignment 2: Questions

1. What do we get when testing on the training set?
2. Can we always get a 100% accuracy on the training set?
3. When do we use “leave-one-out”?
4. What is stratified sampling?
5. When is classification accuracy “good”?

# Assignment 3: Compute the precision, recall and F1 for both classifiers for the class Fraud

Two confusion matrices for two classifiers

		Predicted		
		Fraud	Not Fraud	
Actual	Fraud	0	4	4
	Not fraud	0	9996	9996
		0	10000	
		Predicted		
		Fraud	Not Fraud	
Actual	Fraud	4	0	4
	Not fraud	300	9696	9996
		304	9696	

For the class *Fraud*

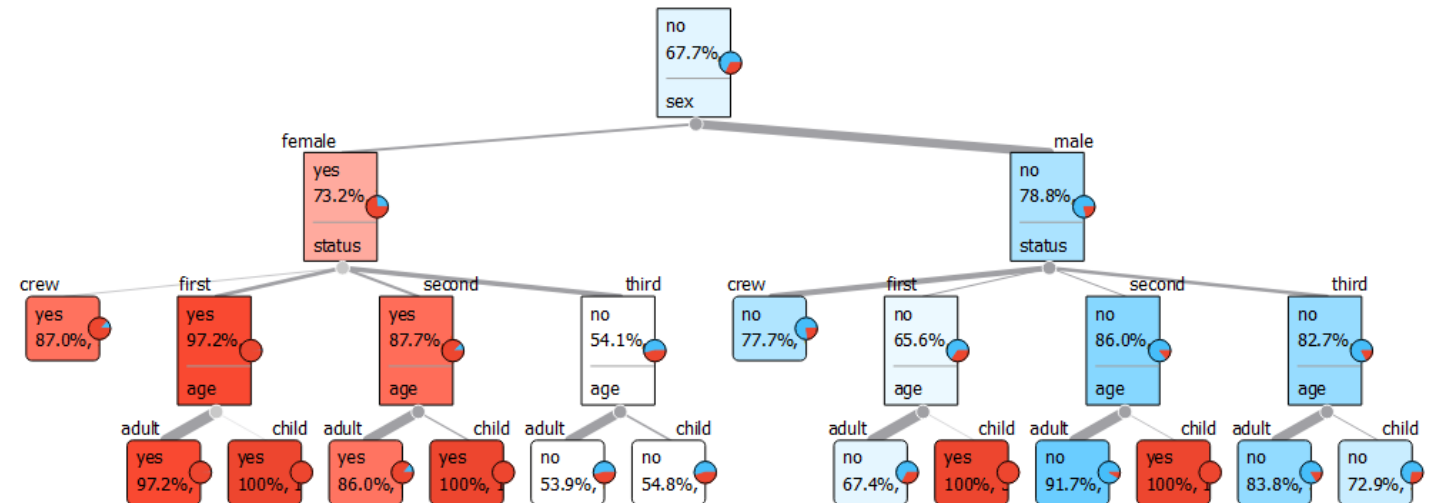
- Precision=
- Recall=
- F1=
  
- Precision=
- Recall=
- F1=

# Homework

- Express F1 in terms of the entries in the confusion matrix (TP, FP, TN, FN) and simplify the equation.

# High precision and/or high recall?

- Can we make a model more precise (increase precision)?
- How sure is the model about a certain prediction?
- We can set different thresholds and get different binary classifiers.
- Find a trade-off between precision and recall appropriate for a problem at hand.



# Probabilistic classification

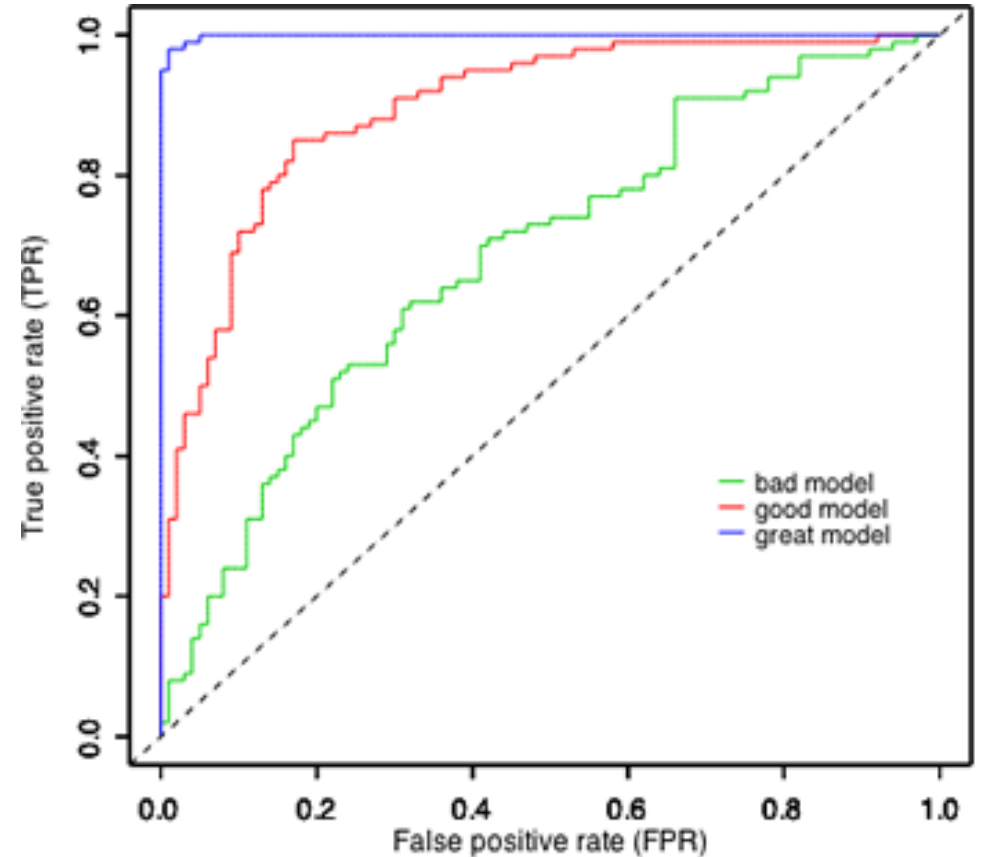
- A **probabilistic** classifier is a classifier that is able to predict, given an observation of an input, a **probability** distribution over a set of classes, rather than only outputting the most likely class that the observation should belong to.
- Ranking
- Tresholds/cutpoints

	Actual class	Confidence classifier for class Y
P1	Y	1
P2	Y	1
P3	Y	0.95
P4	Y	0.9
P5	Y	0.9
P6	N	0.85
P7	Y	0.8
P8	Y	0.6
P9	Y	0.55
P10	Y	0.55
P11	N	0.3
P12	N	0.25
P13	Y	0.25
P14	N	0.2
P15	N	0.1
P16	N	0.1
P17	N	0.1
P18	N	0
P19	N	0
P20	N	0



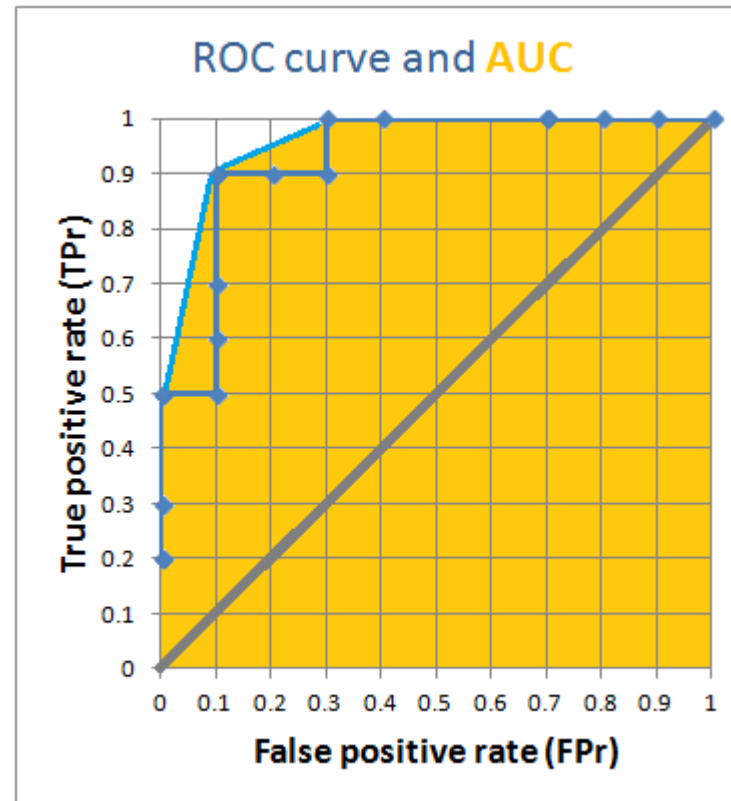
# ROC curve and AUC

- **Receiver Operating Characteristic curve** (or ROC curve) is a plot of the true positive rate (TPR=Sensitivity=Recall) against the false positive rate (FPR) for different possible cutpoints.
- It shows the tradeoff between sensitivity and specificity (any increase in sensitivity will be accompanied by a decrease in specificity).
- The closer the curve to the top left corner, the “better” the classifier.
- The diagonal represents the random classifiers (predicting the positive class with some probability regardless the data).



# AUC - Area Under (ROC) Curve

- Performance is measured by the area under the ROC curve (AUC). An area of 1 represents a perfect classifier; an area of 0.5 represents a worthless classifier.
- The area under the curve (AUC) is equal to the probability that a classifier will rank a randomly chosen positive example higher than a randomly chosen negative example.

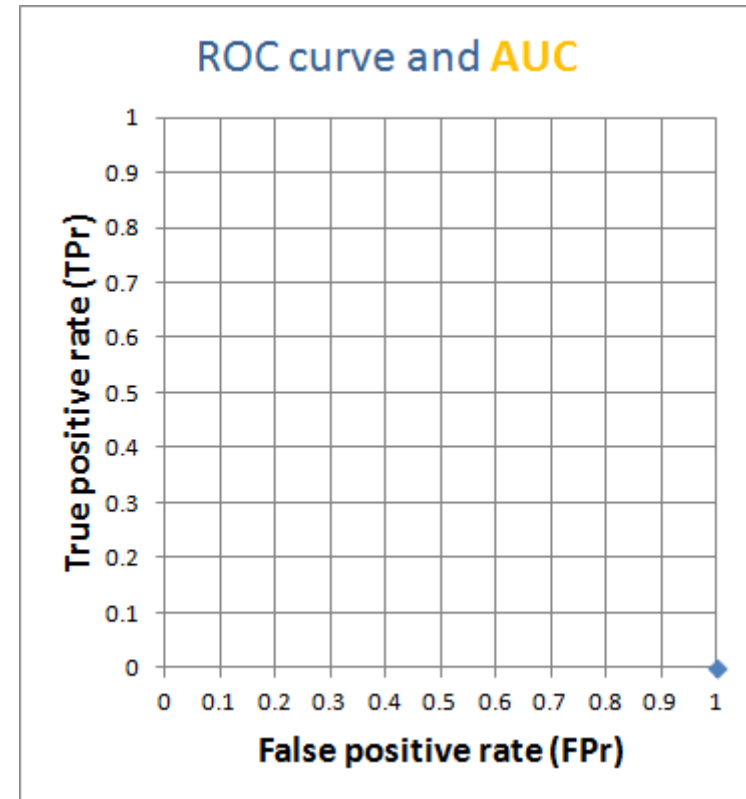


# Exercise: ROC curve and AUC

	Actual class	Confidence classifier for class Y	FP	TP	FPr	TPr
P1	Y	1				
P2	Y	1				
P3	Y	0.95				
P4	Y	0.9				
P5	Y	0.9				
P6	N	0.85				
P7	Y	0.8				
P8	Y	0.6				
P9	Y	0.55				
P10	Y	0.55				
P11	N	0.3				
P12	N	0.25				
P13	Y	0.25				
P14	N	0.2				
P15	N	0.1				
P16	N	0.1				
P17	N	0.1				
P18	N	0				
P19	N	0				
P20	N	0				

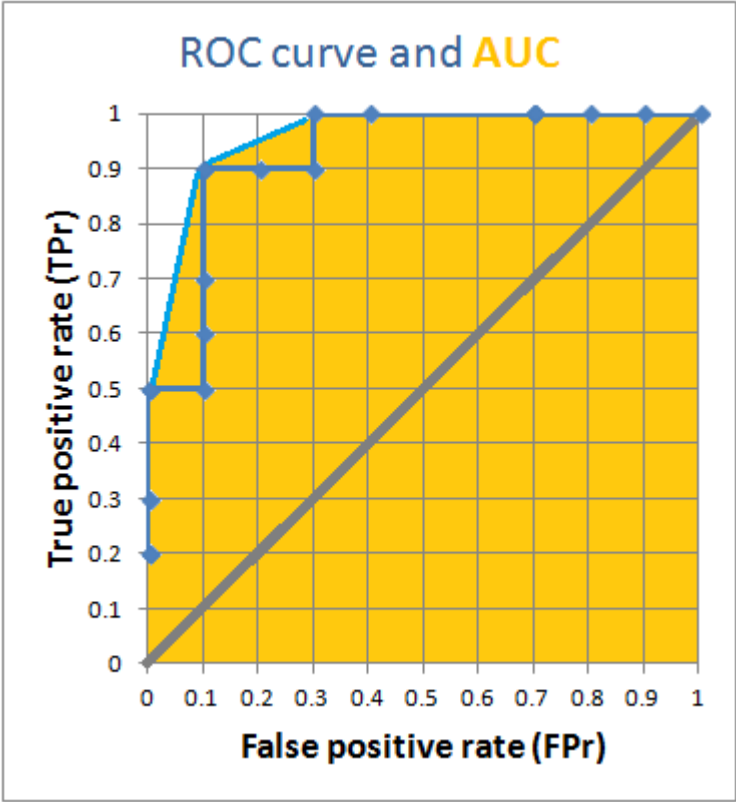
# ROC curve and AUC

	Actual class	Classifier confidence for class Y	FP	TP	FPr	TPr
P1	Y	1	0	2	0	0.2
P2	Y	1	0	2	0	0.2
P3	Y	0.95	0	3	0	0.3
P4	Y	0.9	0	5	0	0.5
P5	Y	0.9	0	5	0	0.5
P6	N	0.85	1	5	0.1	0.5
P7	Y	0.8	1	6	0.1	0.6
P8	Y	0.6	1	7	0.1	0.7
P9	Y	0.55	1	9	0.1	0.9
P10	Y	0.55	1	9	0.1	0.9
P11	N	0.3	2	9	0.2	0.9
P12	N	0.25	3	9	0.3	0.9
P13	Y	0.25	3	10	0.3	1
P14	N	0.2	4	10	0.4	1
P15	N	0.1	7	10	0.7	1
P16	N	0.1	7	10	0.7	1
P17	N	0.1	7	10	0.7	1
P18	N	0	8	10	0.8	1
P19	N	0	9	10	0.9	1
P20	N	0	10	10	1	1



# ROC curve and AUC

	Actual class	Classifier confidence for class Y	FP	TP	FPr	TPr
P1	Y	1	0	2	0	0.2
P2	Y	1	0	2	0	0.2
P3	Y	0.95	0	3	0	0.3
P4	Y	0.9	0	5	0	0.5
P5	Y	0.9	0	5	0	0.5
P6	N	0.85	1	5	0.1	0.5
P7	Y	0.8	1	6	0.1	0.6
P8	Y	0.6	1	7	0.1	0.7
P9	Y	0.55	1	9	0.1	0.9
P10	Y	0.55	1	9	0.1	0.9
P11	N	0.3	2	9	0.2	0.9
P12	N	0.25	3	9	0.3	0.9
P13	Y	0.25	3	10	0.3	1
P14	N	0.2	4	10	0.4	1
P15	N	0.1	7	10	0.7	1
P16	N	0.1	7	10	0.7	1
P17	N	0.1	7	10	0.7	1
P18	N	0	8	10	0.8	1
P19	N	0	9	10	0.9	1
P20	N	0	10	10	1	1



Area Under (the convex) Curve  
 AUC = 0.96

# Probabilistic classification

A **probabilistic** classifier is a classifier that is able to predict, given an observation of an input, a **probability** distribution over a set of classes, rather than only outputting the most likely class that the observation should belong to.

$$p(C_k \mid x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

# Naïve Bayes Classifier

The background of the slide is a light blue gradient. It features a central, semi-transparent portrait of Thomas Bayes, an 18th-century English statistician, mathematician, and Presbyterian minister. The portrait is framed by a circular border. Surrounding the portrait are various mathematical symbols and letters, including the Greek letter sigma ( $\sigma$ ), the Greek letter tau ( $\tau$ ), and the letters 'L', 'J', and 'T', all rendered in a light, semi-transparent font.

# Basic probability refresh

- Probability of A

$$P(A)$$

- Independence

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B)$$

$$P(A|B) = P(A)$$

$$P(B|A) = P(B)$$

- Conditional probability

$$P(A|B) = P(A, B)/P(B)$$

- Bayes' Rule

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

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



# The idea behind the Naïve Bayes Classifier

- We are interested in the probability of the class  $C$  given the attribute values  $X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots, X_n$

$$P(C|X_1X_2 \dots X_n)$$

- We „**naively**“ assume that all attribute values  $X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots, X_n$  are mutually independent, conditional on the category  $C$

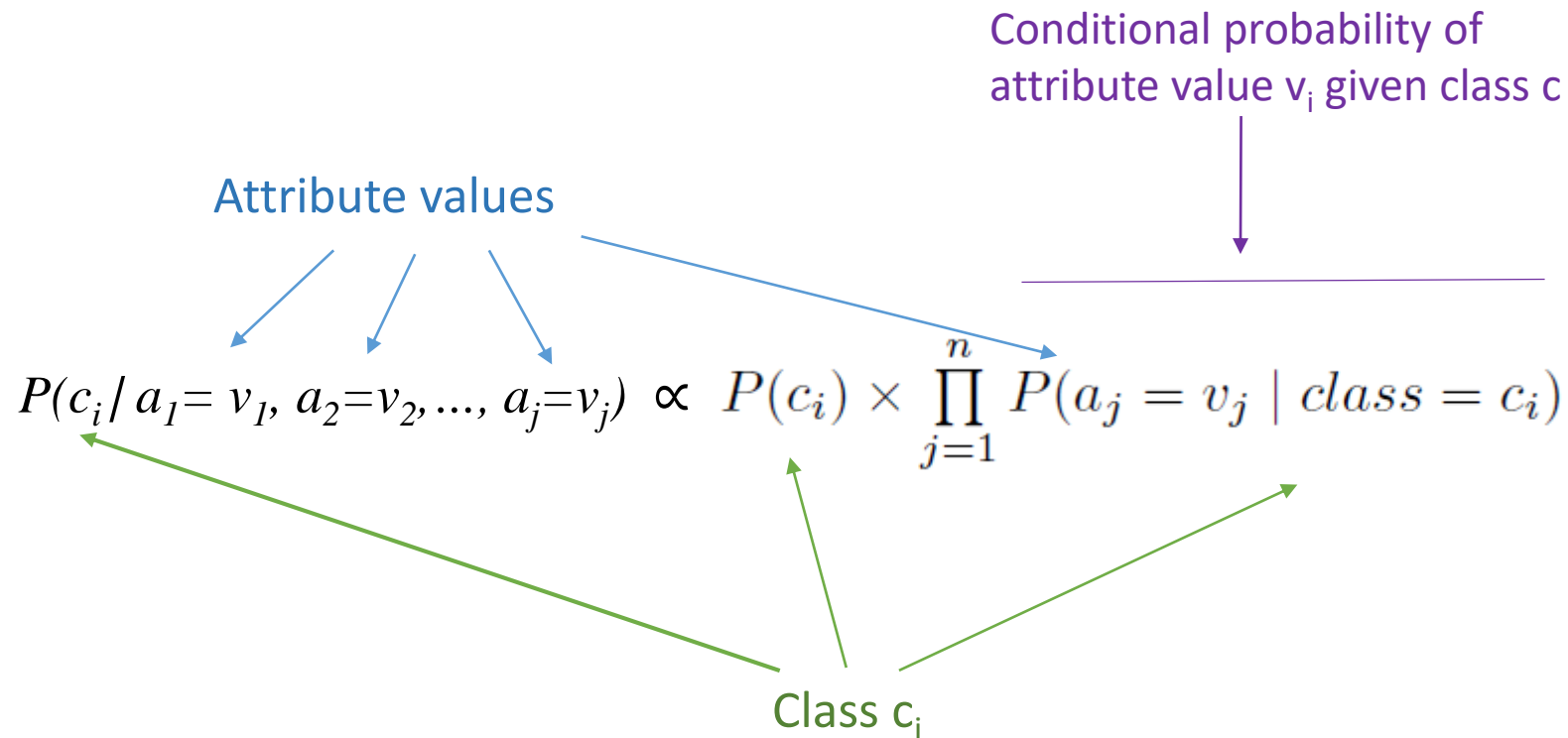
$$P(X_1X_2 \dots X_n|C) \approx P(X_1|C) \cdot P(X_2|C) \cdot \dots \cdot P(X_n|C)$$

# Homework

- Learn about the derivation of the Naïve Bayes formula  
[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Naive\\_Bayes\\_classifier](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Naive_Bayes_classifier)

$$p(C_k, x_1, \dots, x_n) = \frac{p(C_k) p(\mathbf{x} | C_k)}{p(\mathbf{x})} = \dots = p(C_k) \prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i | C_k)$$

# Naïve Bayes Classifier



\* where  $\propto$  denotes proportionality

\* The results are not probabilities (they do not sum up to 1). The formula is simplified for easy implementation (and time complexity), while the results are proportional to the estimates of the probabilities of a class given the attribute values.

# Exercise: Naïve Bayes Classifier

Color	Size	Time	Caught
black	large	day	YES
white	small	night	YES
black	small	day	YES
red	large	night	NO
black	large	night	NO
white	large	night	NO

$$P(c_i | a_1=v_1, a_2=v_2, \dots, a_j=v_j) \propto P(c_i) \times \prod_{j=1}^n P(a_j = v_j | class = c_i)$$

- Does the spider catch a white ant during the night?
- Does the spider catch the big black ant at daytime?

# Exercise: Naïve Bayes Classifier

Does the spider catch a white ant during the night?

Color	Size	Time	Caught
black	large	day	YES
white	small	night	YES
black	small	day	YES
red	large	night	NO
black	large	night	NO
white	large	night	NO

$$P(c_i | a_1=v_1, a_2=v_2, \dots, a_j=v_j) \propto P(c_i) \times \prod_{j=1}^n P(a_j = v_j | class = c_i)$$

$v_1 = \text{“Color = white”}$

$v_2 = \text{“Time = night”}$

$c_1 = YES$

$c_2 = NO$

$$\begin{aligned} P(C_1|v_1, v_2) &= \\ &= P(YES|C = w, T = n) \\ &= P(YES) \cdot P(C = w|YES) \cdot P(T = n|YES) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{3} \\ &= \frac{1}{18} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} P(C_2|v_1, v_2) &= \\ &= P(NO|C = w, T = n) \\ &= P(NO) \cdot P(C = w|NO) \cdot P(T = n|NO) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{3} \cdot 1 \\ &= \frac{1}{6} \end{aligned}$$

# Exercise: Naïve Bayes Classifier

Does the spider catch the big black ant at daytime?

Color	Size	Time	Caught
black	large	day	YES
white	small	night	YES
black	small	day	YES
red	large	night	NO
black	large	night	NO
white	large	night	NO

$$P(c_i | a_1=v_1, a_2=v_2, \dots, a_j=v_j) \propto P(c_i) \times \prod_{j=1}^n P(a_j = v_j | class = c_i)$$

**Ant 2: Color = black, Size = large, Time = day**

$$v_1 = \text{"Color = black"} = \text{"C = b"}$$

$$v_2 = \text{"Size = large"} = \text{"S = l"}$$

$$v_3 = \text{"Time = day"} = \text{"T = d"}$$

$$c_1 = YES$$

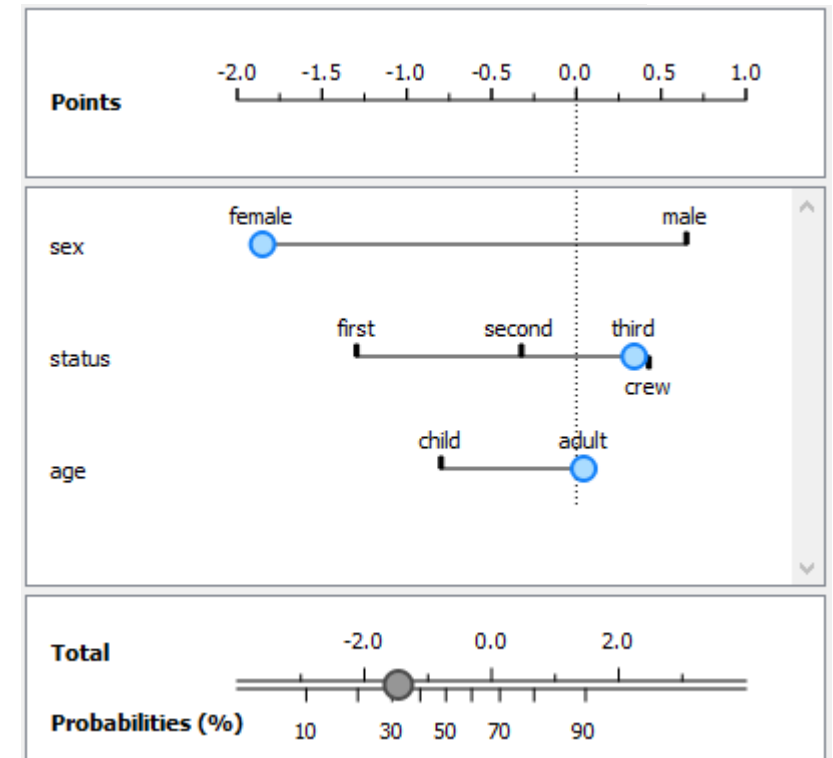
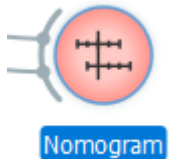
$$c_2 = NO$$

$$\begin{aligned} P(C_1 | v_1, v_2, v_3) &= \\ &= P(YES | C = b, S = l, T = d) \\ &= P(YES) \cdot P(C = b | YES) \cdot P(S = l | YES) \cdot P(T = d | YES) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{2}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{2}{3} \\ &= \frac{4}{54} = \frac{2}{27} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} P(C_2 | v_1, v_2, v_3) &= \\ &= P(NO | C = b, S = l, T = d) \\ &= P(NO) \cdot P(C = b | NO) \cdot P(S = l | NO) \cdot P(T = d | NO) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{3}{3} \cdot 0 \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

# Use of Naïve Bayes

- Frequently used in practice
  - Medical diagnosis
    - The attributes are inherently chosen to be as independent as possible
    - NB is not sensitive to missing data
  - Simple text classification(features are words)
    - Classification of news into categories
    - Spam detection
  - ....
- Why?
  - Simple
  - Not sensitive to missing values
  - Uses all the available data
  - Very few parameters
  - Visualization with nomograms



# Probability Estimation





# Estimating probability

- In machine learning we often estimate probabilities from small samples of data and their subsets:
  - In the 5<sup>th</sup> depth of a decision tree we have just about 1/32 of all training examples.
- Estimate the probability based on the amount of evidence and of the prior probability
  - Coin flip: prior probability 50% - 50%
  - One coin flip does not make us believe that the probability of heads is 100%
  - More evidence can make us suspect that the coin is biased

# Estimating probability

## Relative frequency

- $P(c) = n(c) / N$
- A disadvantage of using relative frequencies for probability estimation arises with small sample sizes, especially if the probabilities are either very close to zero, or very close to one.
- In our spider example:  
$$P(\text{Time}=\text{day} \mid \text{caught}=\text{NO}) =$$
$$= 0/3 = 0$$

$n(c)$  ... number of examples where  $c$  is true

$N$  ... number of all examples

$k$  ... number of possible events

# Relative frequency vs. Laplace estimate

## Relative frequency

- $P(c) = n(c) / N$
- A disadvantage of using relative frequencies for probability estimation arises with small sample sizes, especially if the probabilities are either very close to zero, or very close to one.
- In our spider example:  
$$P(\text{Time}=\text{day} \mid \text{caught}=\text{NO}) = 0/3 = 0$$

$n(c)$  ... number of examples where  $c$  is true

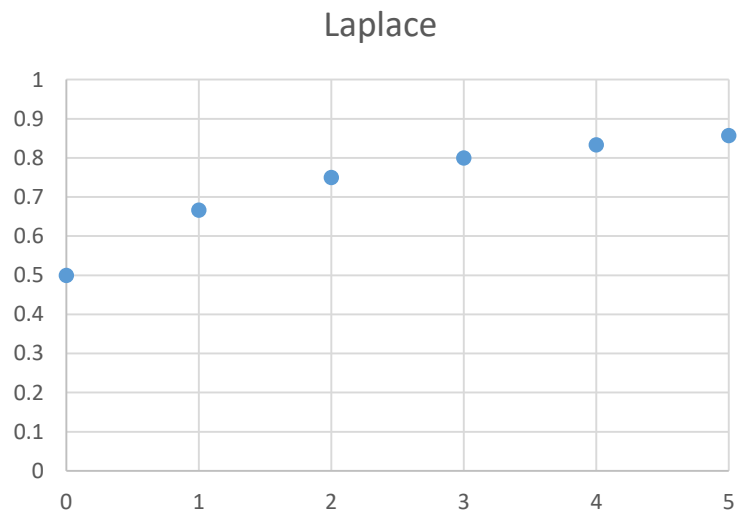
$N$  ... number of all examples

$k$  ... number of possible events

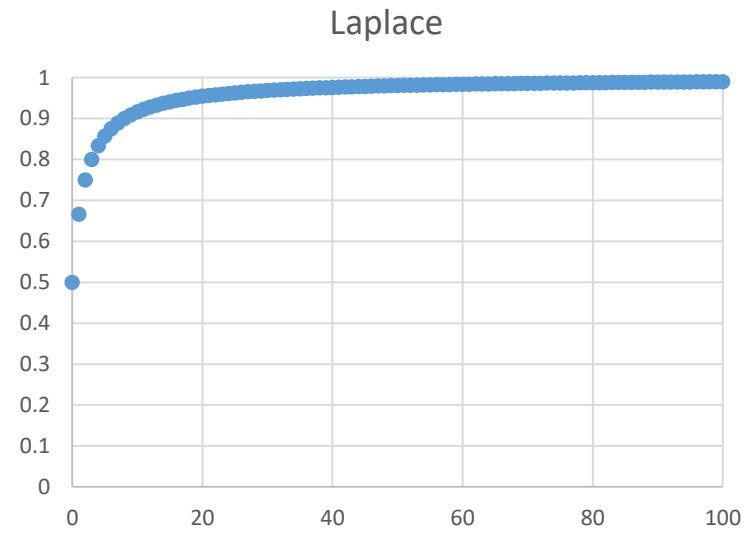
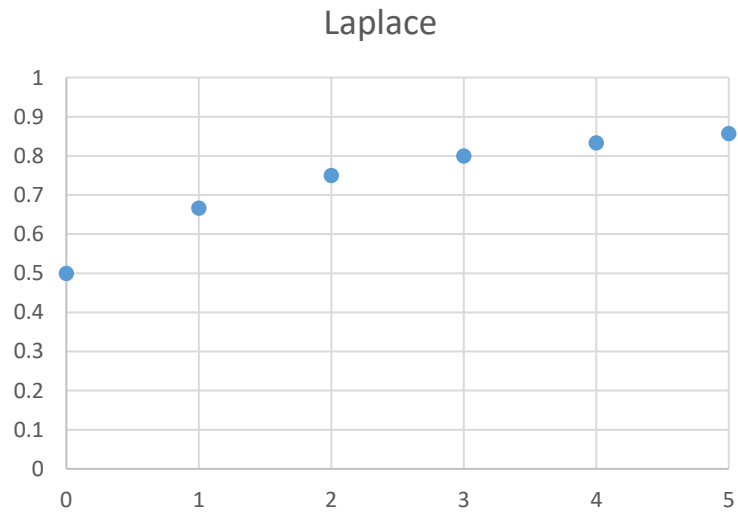
## Laplace estimate

- Assumes uniform prior distribution over the probabilities for each possible event
- $P(c) = (n(c) + 1) / (N + k)$
- In our spider example:  $P(\text{Time}=\text{day} \mid \text{caught}=\text{NO}) = (0+1)/(3+2) = 1/5$
- With lots of evidence it approximates relative frequency
- If there were 300 cases when the spider didn't catch ants at night:  $P(\text{Time}=\text{day} \mid \text{caught}=\text{NO}) = (0+1)/(300+2) = 1/302 = 0.003$
- With Laplace estimate probabilities can never be 0.

# Laplace estimate



# Laplace estimate



# Homework

- Compare the Naïve Bayes classifier with decision trees.
- How do we evaluate the Naïve Bayes classifier? Methods, metrics.
- Estimate the probabilities of C1 and C2 in the table below by relative frequency and Laplace estimate.

Number of events		Relative frequency		Laplace estimate	
Class C1	Class C2	P(C1)	P(C2)	P(C1)	P(C2)
0	2				
12	88				
12	988				
120	880				

# Literature

- Max Bramer: Principles of data mining (2007)

- 2. Introduction to Classification: Naive Bayes and Nearest Neighbour

On pg. 30, there is a mistake where it says “making the assumption that the attributes are independent” ... it should be “conditionally independent given the class”. Refer to [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Naive\\_Bayes\\_classifier](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Naive_Bayes_classifier)

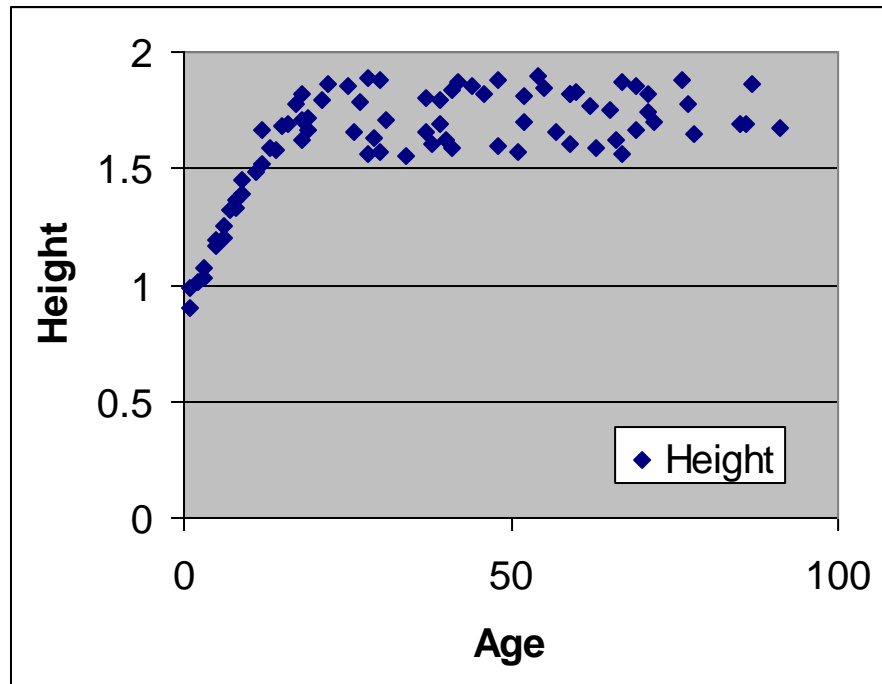
# Numeric prediction





# Example

- data about 80 people: Age and Height



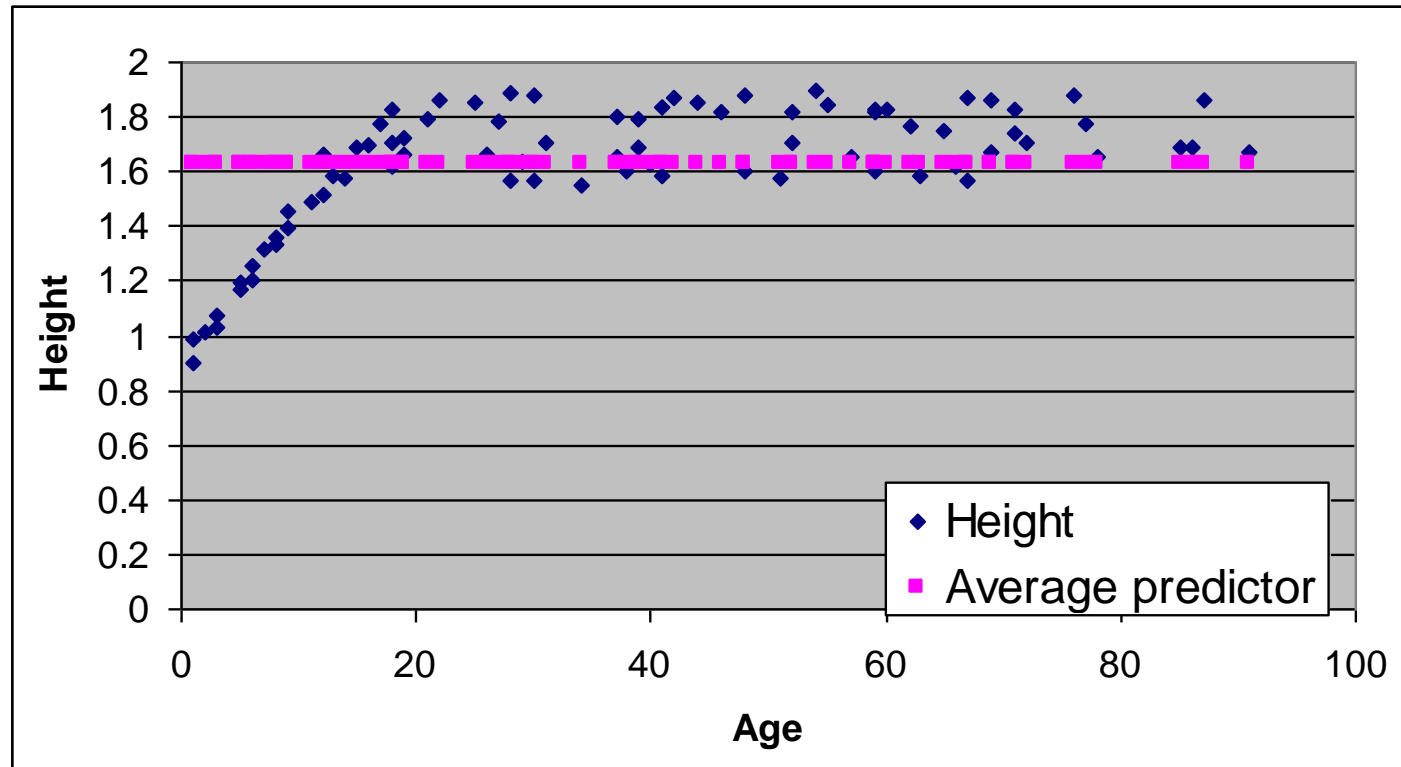
Age	Height
3	1.03
5	1.19
6	1.26
9	1.39
15	1.69
19	1.67
22	1.86
25	1.85
41	1.59
48	1.60
54	1.90
71	1.82
...	...

# Test set

Age	Height
2	0.85
10	1.4
35	1.7
70	1.6

# Baseline numeric predictor

- Average of the target variable



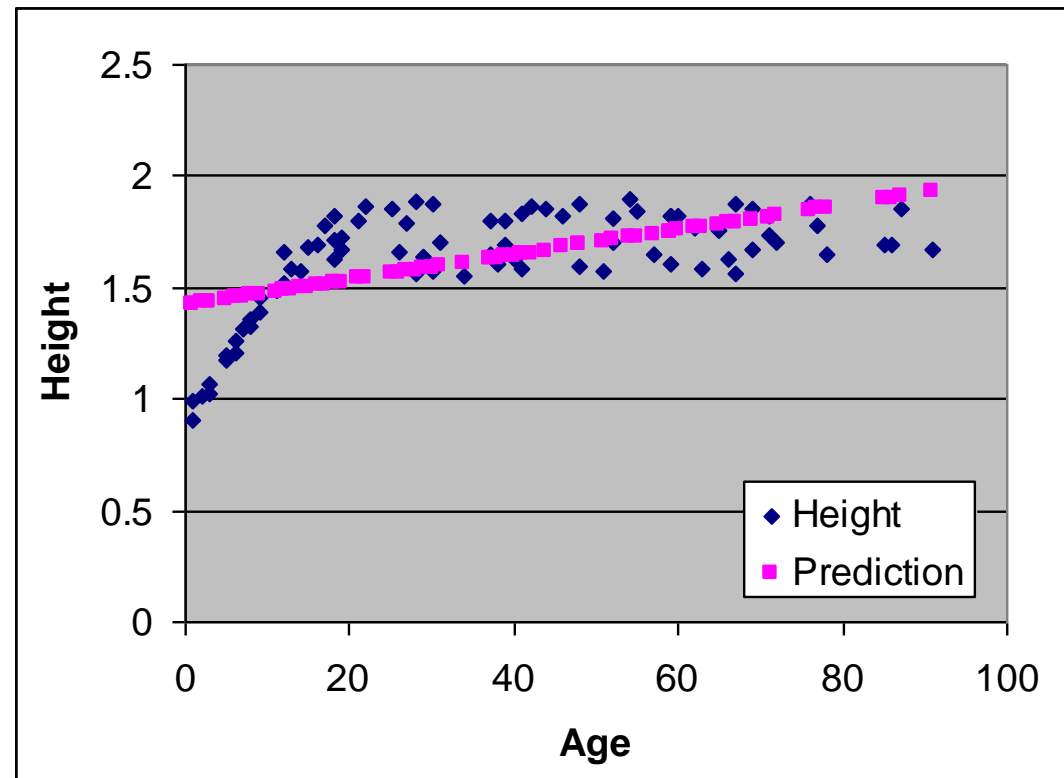
# Baseline predictor: prediction

Average of the target variable is 1.63

Age	Height	Baseline
2	0.85	
10	1.4	
35	1.7	
70	1.6	

# Linear Regression Model

$$\text{Height} = 0.0056 * \text{Age} + 1.4181$$

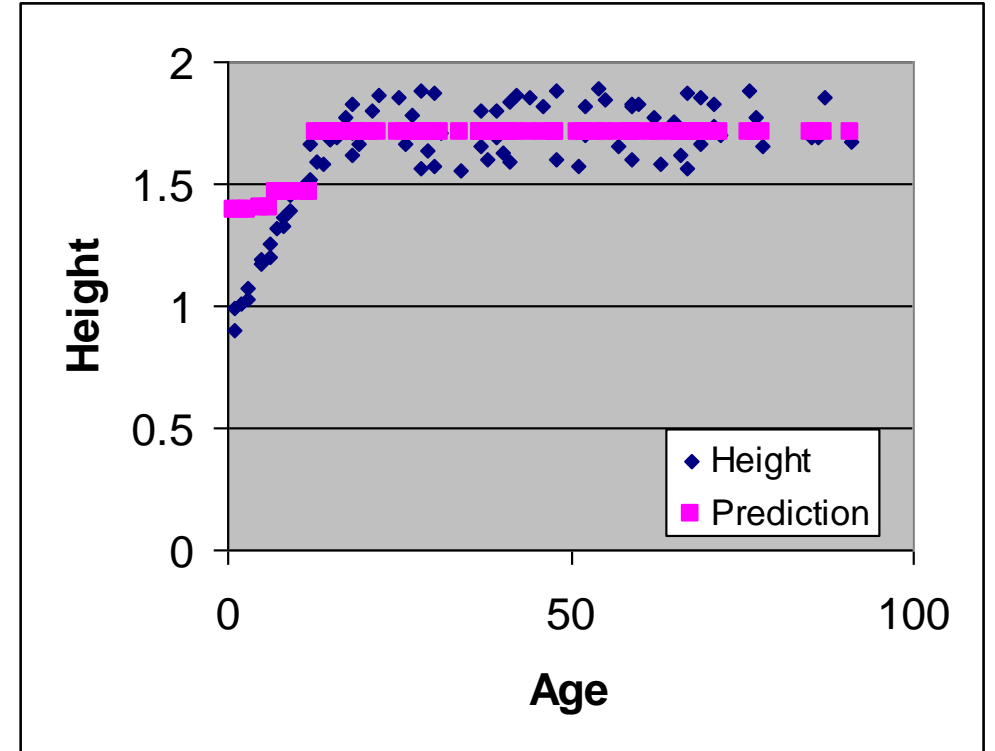
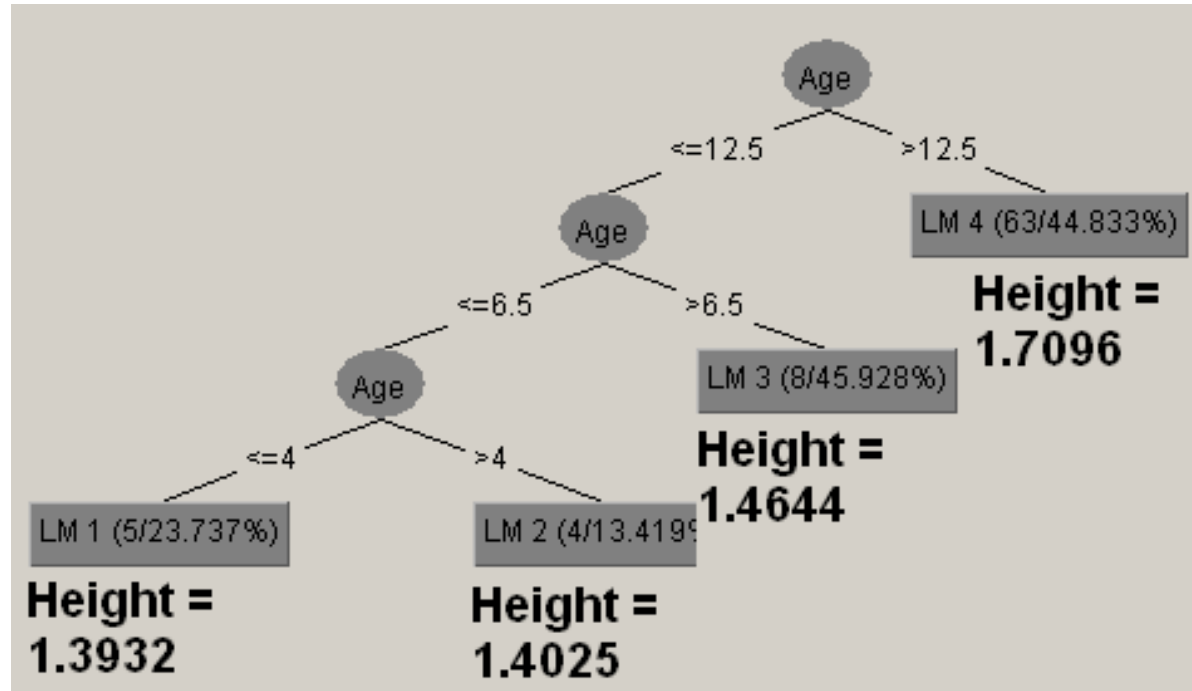


# Linear Regression: prediction

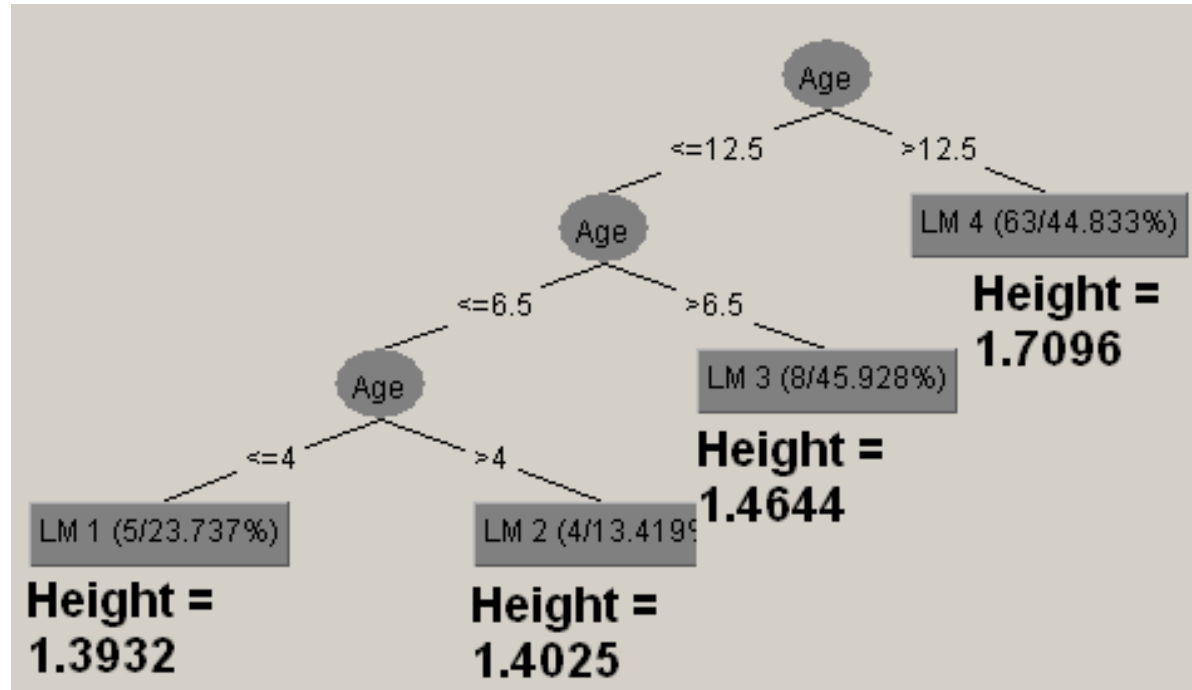
$$\text{Height} = 0.0056 * \text{Age} + 1.4181$$

Age	Height	Linear regression
2	0.85	
10	1.4	
35	1.7	
70	1.6	

# Regression tree



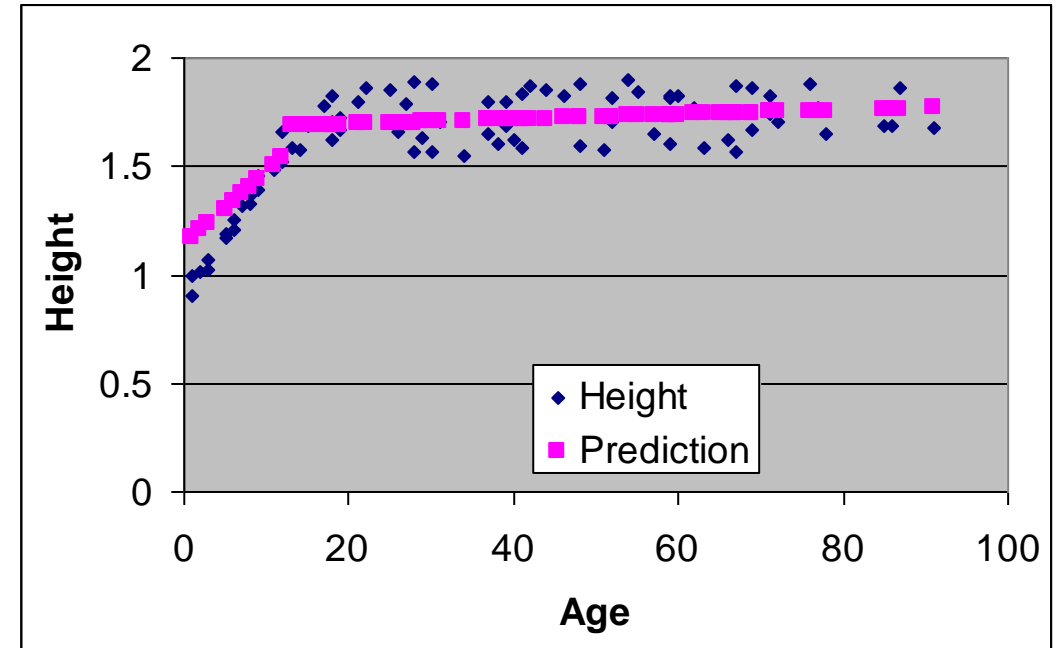
# Regression tree: prediction



Age	Height	Regression tree
2	0.85	
10	1.4	
35	1.7	
70	1.6	



# Model tree



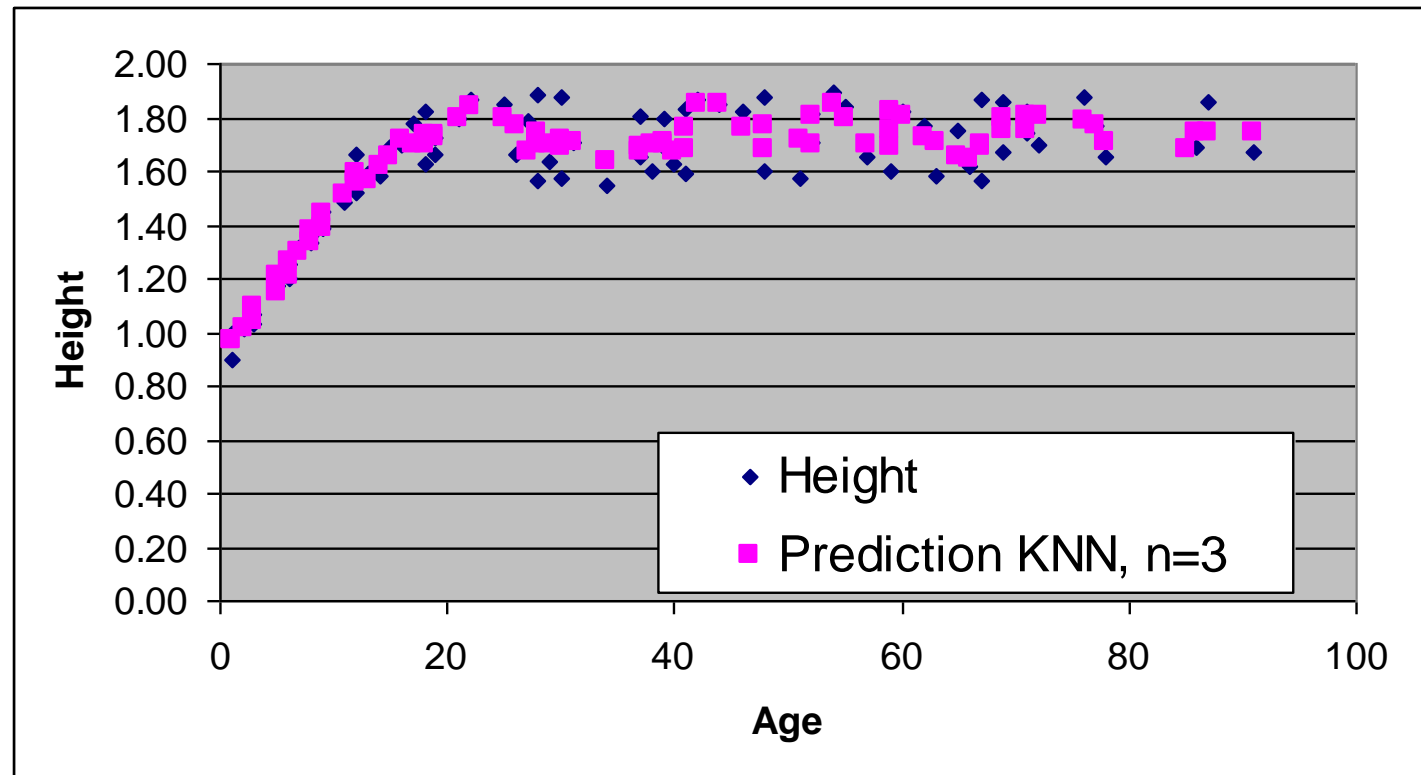
# Model tree: prediction



Age	Height	Model tree
2	0.85	
10	1.4	
35	1.7	
70	1.6	

# KNN – K nearest neighbors

- Looks at K closest examples (by non-target attributes) and predicts the average of their target variable
- In this example, K=3



# KNN prediction

Age	Height
1	0.90
1	0.99
2	1.01
3	1.03
3	1.07
5	1.19
5	1.17

Age	Height	kNN
2	0.85	
10	1.4	
35	1.7	
70	1.6	

# KNN prediction

Age	Height
8	1.36
8	1.33
9	1.45
9	1.39
11	1.49
12	1.66
12	1.52
13	1.59
14	1.58

Age	Height	kNN
2	0.85	
10	1.4	
35	1.7	
70	1.6	

# KNN prediction

Age	Height
30	1.57
30	1.88
31	1.71
34	1.55
37	1.65
37	1.80
38	1.60
39	1.69
39	1.80

Age	Height	kNN
2	0.85	
10	1.4	
35	1.7	
70	1.6	

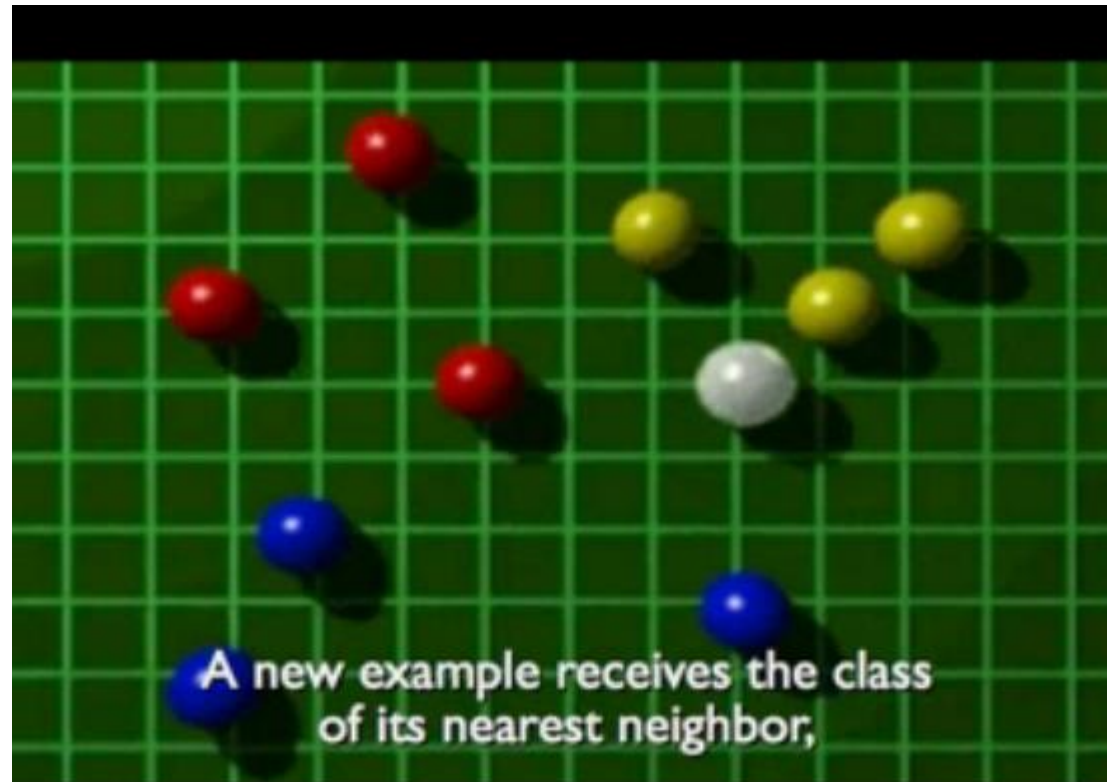
# KNN prediction

Age	Height
67	1.56
67	1.87
69	1.67
69	1.86
71	1.74
71	1.82
72	1.70
76	1.88

Age	Height	kNN
2	0.85	
10	1.4	
35	1.7	
70	1.6	

# KNN video

- [http://videlectures.net/aaai07\\_bosch\\_knnc](http://videlectures.net/aaai07_bosch_knnc)

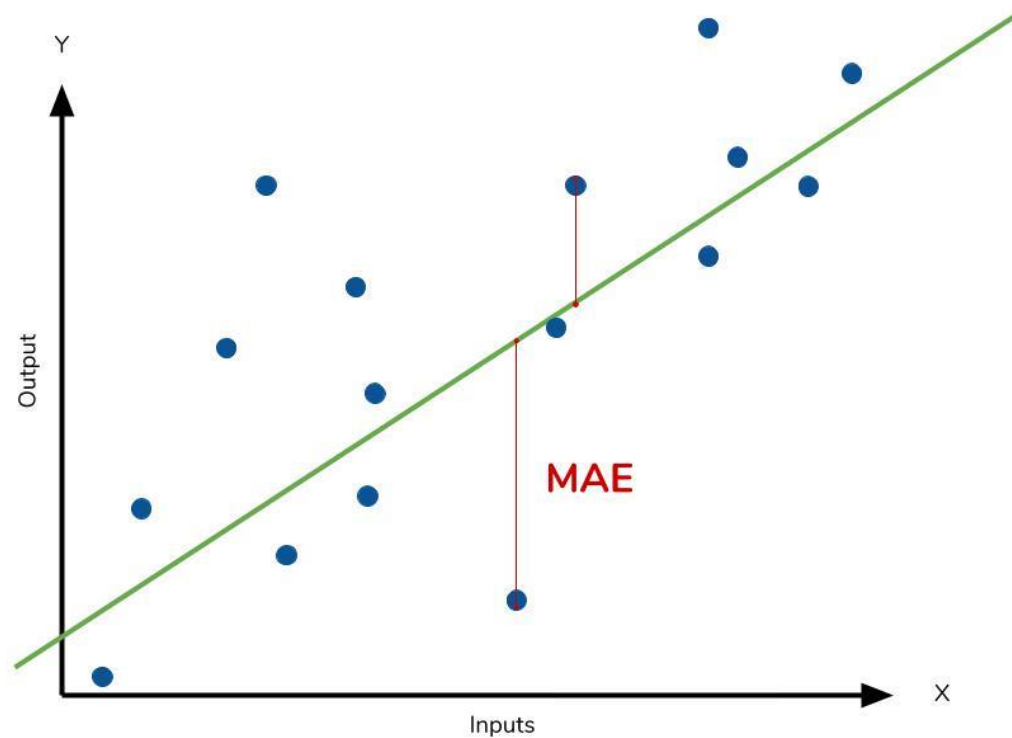




# Which predictor is the best?

Age	Height	Baseline	Linear regression	Regression tree	Model tree	kNN
2	0.85	1.63	1.43	1.39	1.20	1.00
10	1.4	1.63	1.47	1.46	1.47	1.44
35	1.7	1.63	1.61	1.71	1.71	1.67
70	1.6	1.63	1.81	1.71	1.75	1.77

# MAE: Mean absolute error



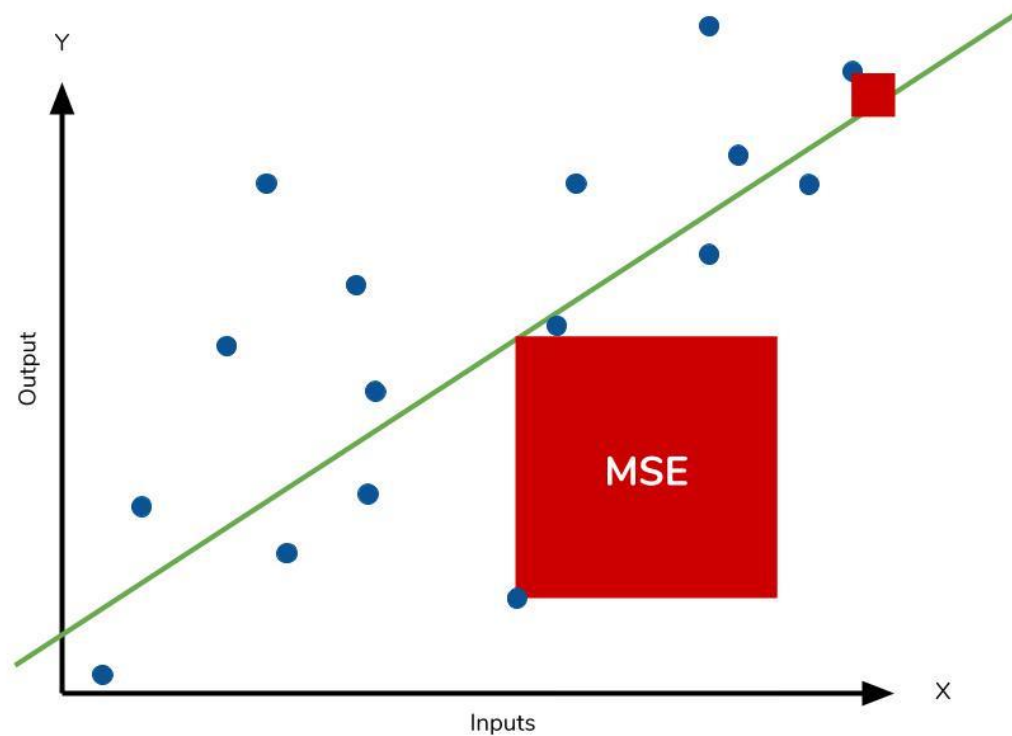
$$MAE = \frac{1}{n} \sum \left| y - \hat{y} \right|$$

Annotations for the equation:

- Divide by the total number of data points (points to  $\frac{1}{n}$ )
- Actual output value (points to  $y$ )
- Predicted output value (points to  $\hat{y}$ )
- Sum of (points to  $\sum$ )
- The absolute value of the residual (points to  $|y - \hat{y}|$ )

The average difference between the predicted and the actual values.  
The units are the same as the units in the target variable.

# MSE: Mean squared error



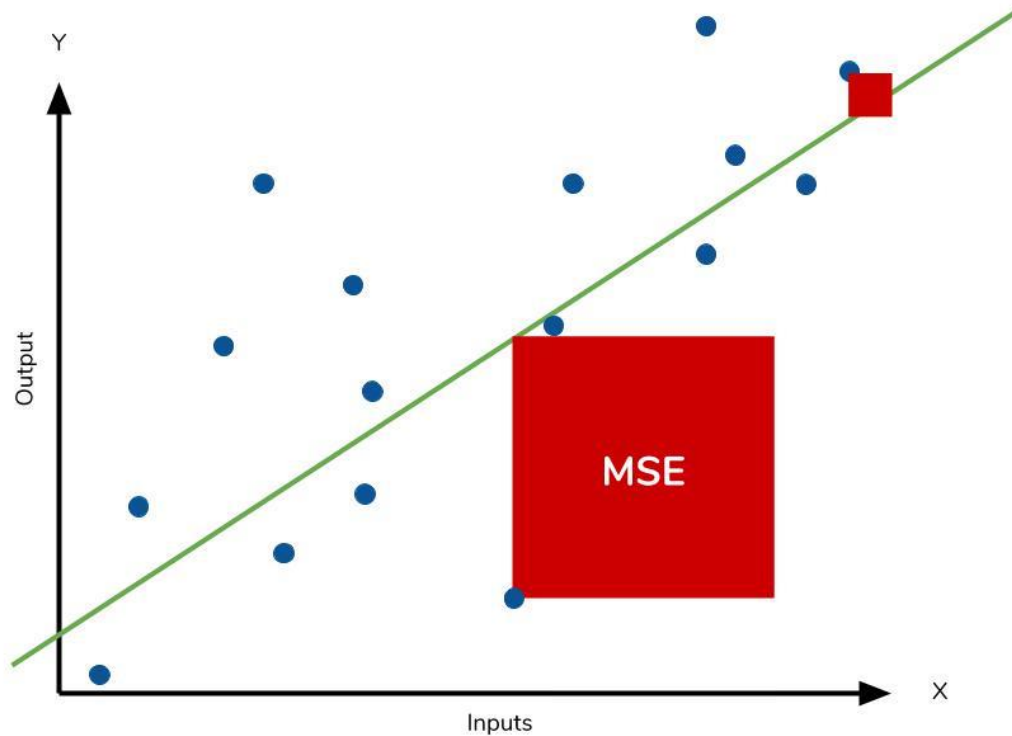
$$MSE = \frac{1}{n} \sum \left( \underbrace{y - \hat{y}}_{\substack{\text{The square of the difference} \\ \text{between actual and} \\ \text{predicted}}} \right)^2$$

Mean squared error measures the average squared difference between the estimated values and the actual value.

Weights large errors more heavily than small ones.

The units of the errors are squared.

# RMSE: Root mean square error

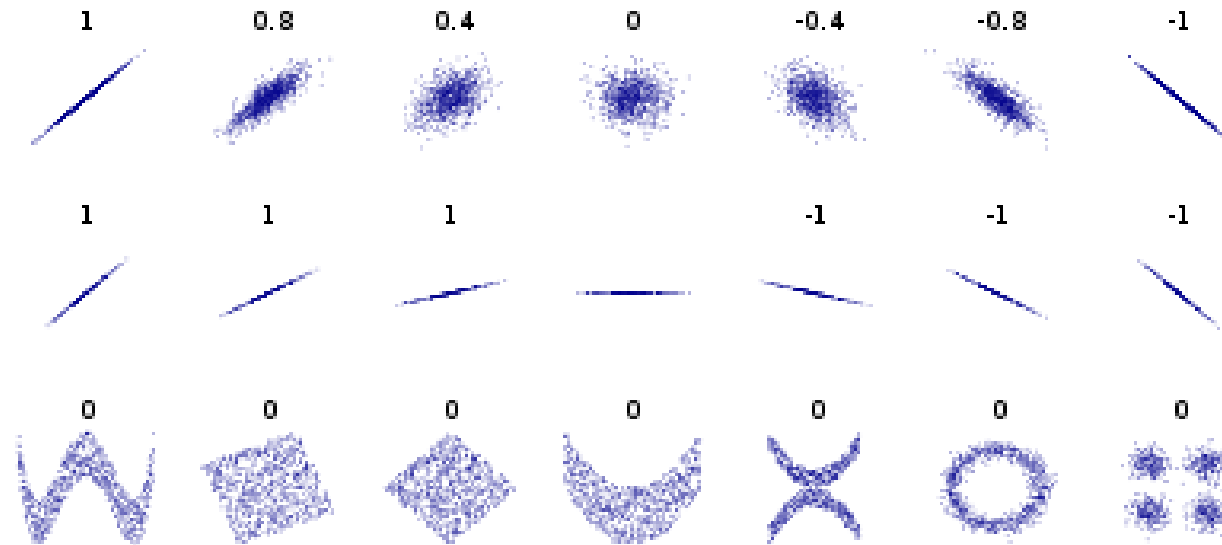


$$RMSE = \sqrt{MSE}$$

Taking the square root of MSE yields the root-mean-square error (RMSE), which has the same units as the quantity being estimated.

# Correlation coefficient

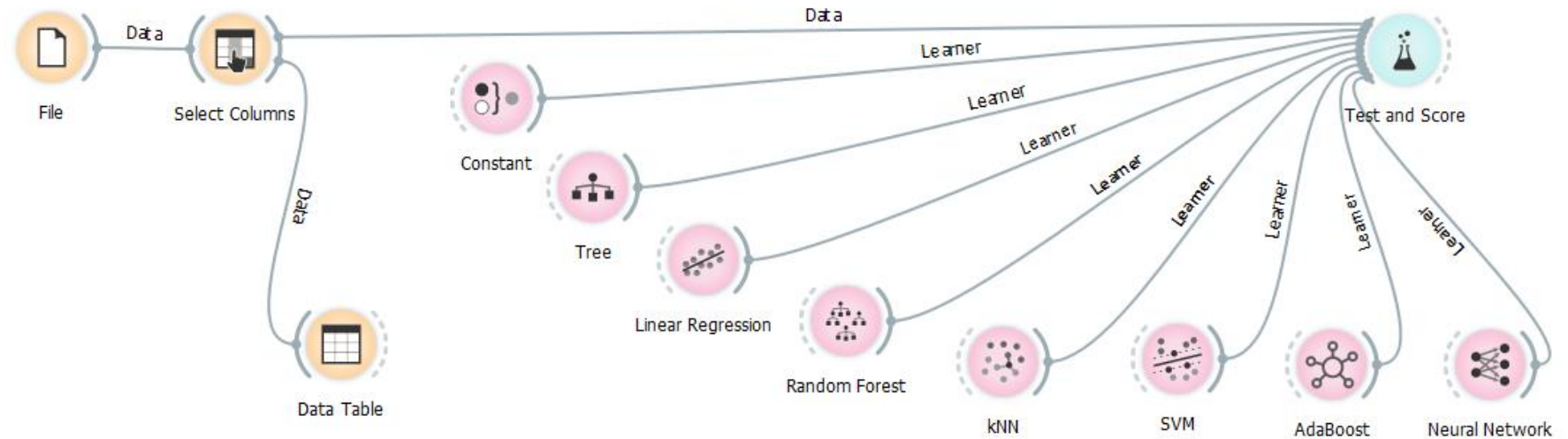
- Pearson correlation coefficient is a statistical formula that measures the strength between variables and relationships.



Similar to confusion matrix in the classification case.  
No unit.

# Numeric prediction in Orange

## Models



## Metrics

- MSE – mean squared error
- RMSE – root mean squared error
- MAE – mean absolute error
- $R^2$  – correlation coefficient

Evaluation Results				
Model	MSE	RMSE	MAE	R2
Constant	0.055	0.236	0.175	-0.005
Linear Regression	0.033	0.181	0.142	0.405
SVM	0.032	0.179	0.128	0.423
Neural Network	0.026	0.161	0.118	0.533
kNN	0.011	0.107	0.086	0.794
Tree	0.010	0.100	0.073	0.817
AdaBoost	0.004	0.066	0.057	0.922
Random Forest	0.003	0.057	0.048	0.940

<b>Numeric prediction</b>	<b>Classification</b>
<b>Data:</b> attribute-value description	
<b>Target variable:</b> Continuous	<b>Target variable:</b> Categorical (nominal)
<b>Evaluation:</b> cross validation, separate test set, ...	
<b>Error:</b> MSE, MAE, RMSE, ...	<b>Error:</b> 1-accuracy
<b>Algorithms:</b> Linear regression, regression trees,...	<b>Algorithms:</b> Decision trees, Naïve Bayes, ...
<b>Baseline predictor:</b> Mean of the target variable	<b>Baseline predictor:</b> Majority class

# Performance measures for numeric prediction

Performance measure	Formula
mean-squared error	$\frac{(p_1 - a_1)^2 + \dots + (p_n - a_n)^2}{n}$
root mean-squared error	$\sqrt{\frac{(p_1 - a_1)^2 + \dots + (p_n - a_n)^2}{n}}$
mean absolute error	$\frac{ p_1 - a_1  + \dots +  p_n - a_n }{n}$
relative squared error	$\frac{(p_1 - a_1)^2 + \dots + (p_n - a_n)^2}{(a_1 - \bar{a})^2 + \dots + (a_n - \bar{a})^2}, \text{ where } \bar{a} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i a_i$
root relative squared error	$\sqrt{\frac{(p_1 - a_1)^2 + \dots + (p_n - a_n)^2}{(a_1 - \bar{a})^2 + \dots + (a_n - \bar{a})^2}}$
relative absolute error	$\frac{ p_1 - a_1  + \dots +  p_n - a_n }{ a_1 - \bar{a}  + \dots +  a_n - \bar{a} }$
correlation coefficient	$\frac{S_{PA}}{\sqrt{S_P S_A}}, \text{ where } S_{PA} = \frac{\sum_i (p_i - \bar{p})(a_i - \bar{a})}{n-1},$ $S_P = \frac{\sum_i (p_i - \bar{p})^2}{n-1}, \text{ and } S_A = \frac{\sum_i (a_i - \bar{a})^2}{n-1}$

\*  $p$  are predicted values and  $a$  are actual values.



# Homework

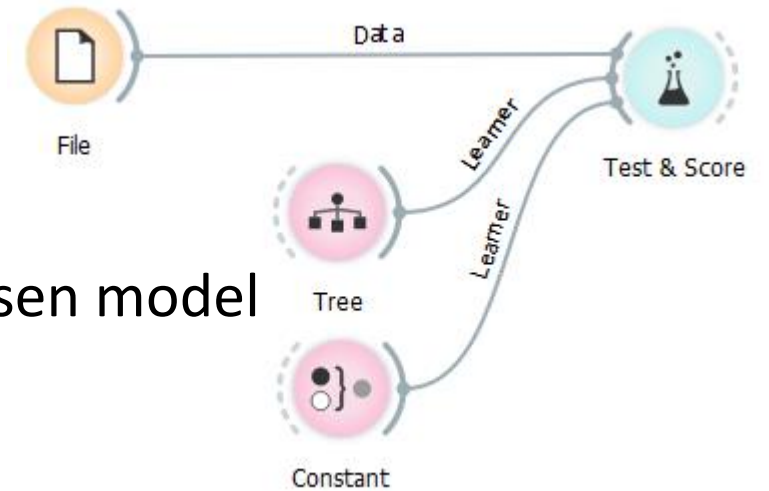
- Read

Loh, Wei-Yin. "Classification and regression trees." Wiley Interdisciplinary Reviews: Data Mining and Knowledge Discovery 1.1 (2011): 14-23.

<https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/full/10.1002/widm.8>

- Compare decision and regression trees.
- Rules of thumb when choosing the k parameter of KNN.

# Homework



- Use Orange and a calculator to compute RRSE for a chosen model
- Data: regressionAgeHeight.csv
- RRSE = root relative squared error
  - Nominator: sum of squared differences between the actual and the expected values
  - Denominator: sum of squared errors

$$RRSE = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (p_i - a_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (\bar{a} - a_i)^2}}$$

$p$  – predicted,  $a$  – actual,  $\bar{a}$  – the mean of the actual

- RRSE: Ratio between the error of the model and the error of the naïve model (predicting the average)
- Hint: If we divide both the nominator and the denominator by  $n$  we get RSE of the model and const model.