Issues (cont'd)

- Class imbalance
- Classifier takes too long
- Classifier doesn't generalize well

### Classifier takes too long

- Subsampling:
	- Do not necessarily use all the data
	- Learning curve suggests training size
- Distributed Approach:
	- How to split the data and combine the results
	- Depends on algorithm
	- Distributed-computing frameworks: Hadoop, Mahoot, MapReduce, TensorFlow…

### Classifier does not generalize well

### • A classifier

- Has a low error rate on the training set
- Has high error when you evaluate on a test set
- Solutions
	- Try a smaller set of features
	- Get more training examples
	- Obtain new features

CLASS IMBALANCE

## Application 1

- Data source: an automated inspection system for monitoring products and find defective items
- How many items are defective?
- How many items are operational?

Defective products: 4 in 1 million Defective vs Operational: 4 vs 999,996

### Application 2

- Data source: credit card fraud detection system
- How many transactions are fraudulent?
- How many transactions are legitimate?

Fraud transactions: 1 in 100

### Class Imbalance

• A disproportionate number of instances that belong to different classes



## Challenges

- First, it can be difficult to find enough samples of a rare class.
- Second, accuracy which is a traditional measure for evaluating classification performance is not good for evaluating models in the case of class imbalance.

### Challenges (cont'd)

- In credit card fraud example: what is the accuracy of a model that classifies ALL transactions as legitimate?
- In fact, a correct classification of the rare class has a greater value than a correct classification of the majority class

- Issues:
	- Performance measures need to be modified

## Approaches

### • Alternative metrics

- capture different criteria performance than accuracy

### • Cost sensitive learning

- minimize the cost of a model on a training dataset by assigning uneven penalties or costs when making predictions.

### • Sampling

- Binary classification:
	- Rare: Positive
	- Majority: Negative

Confusion Matrix:



•**True Positive Rate**: fraction of positive instances correctly predicted  $TPR = TP/(TP + FN)$ 

•**True Negative Rate**: fraction of negative instances correctly predicted  $TNR = TN/(FP + TN)$ 

•**False Positive Rate**: fraction of negative instances predicted positive FPR = FP/(TN + FP)

•**False Negative Rate**: fraction of positive instances predicted negative FNR = FN/(TP + FN)



• **Recall**: fraction of positive records correctly predicted (true positive)

### $r = TP/(TP + FN)$

• **Precision**: fraction of records that are truly positive in the set predicted as positive (ratio between the True Positives and all the Positives)

 $p = TP/(TP + FP)$ 

#### •**For example:**

For all the patients who actually have heart disease, recall tells us how many we correctly identified as having a heart disease.

The measure of patients that we correctly identify having a heart disease out of all the patients we predicted they have heart disease. -- precision



• **Recall**: fraction of positive records correctly predicted (true positive)

 $r = TP/(TP + FN)$ 

• **Precision**: fraction of records that are truly positive in the set predicted as positive  $p = TP/(TP + FP)$ 

- •A model can usually maximize one but not the other
- •Building a model that maximizes both is difficult

 $\cdot$  **F**<sub>1</sub> measure:

 $F_1 = 2rp/(r + p) = 2/(1/r + 1/p)$ 

from sklearn.metrics import precision recall fscore support

The support is the number of occurrences of each class

### Credit Card Fraud Example

• **Recall**:

 $r = TP/(TP + FN) = 1/5 = 0.2$ 

• **Precision**:  $p = TP/(TP + FP) = 1/1 = 1$ 



 $\cdot$  **F<sub>1</sub>** measure:

 $F_1 = 2rp/(r + p) = 2*0.2*1/1.2 = 0.33$ 

• **Error Rate**:

 $\varepsilon = 4/100 = 0.04$ 

### Credit Card Fraud Example

• **Recall**:

 $r = TP/(TP + FN) = 4/5 = 0.8$ 

• **Precision**:  $p = TP/(TP + FP) = 4/4 = 1$ 



 $\cdot$  **F<sub>1</sub>** measure:

 $F_1 = 2rp/(r + p) = 2/(1/r + 1/p) = 2*0.8*1/1.8 = 0.88$ 

• **Error Rate**:

 $\varepsilon = 1/100 = 0.01$ 

### Cost Sensitive Learning

- Incorporate cost in the process of building the model
- Decisions tree:
	- Select the attribute for the split
	- Decide whether to prune a subtree

- Nearest Neighbor:
	- Update decision boundary based on cost





## Sampling-Based Approaches

- Modify distribution so rare classes are well represented
- **Undersampling**:
	- Choose all positive records
	- Randomly choose an equal number of negative records
- Problem: might drop some important negative records
- Solution: Perform undersampling multiple times

*Sample used*

*Discard*

## Sampling-Based Approaches

### • **Oversampling**:

- Choose all negative records
- Replicate positive records until both sets have equal number of records
- Problem: if data is noisy, noise may be replicated
- Added examples: provide no new information
- But: prevent learning algorithm from pruning important parts of the model because of not enough data points



*Replicate positive class*

# CLASSIFICATION – MULTICLASS CLASSIFICATION

### Multiclass Classification • Character recognition

### $\bigvee$   $\bigvee$  $\Lambda$  $\cup$

### Multiclass Classification

• Image recognition



### Multiclass Classification Approaches

- One versus All (OVA)
- One versus One (OVO)
- Error correcting codes

## One Versus All

- $Y = \{y_1, y_2, ..., y_k\}$ : the set of class labels
- Classifier building:
	- $\bullet$  For each  $y_i$ , create a binary problem such that:
		- $\cdot$  Instances belonging to  $y_i$  are positive
		- $\cdot$  Instances not belonging to  $y_i$  are negative
- Tuple Classification:
	- Classify the tuple using each classifier
	- $\cdot$  If classifier i returns a positive label,  $y_i$  gets one vote
	- $\cdot$  If classifier i returns a negative label, all classes except  $y_i$  get a vote
	- Assign the class with the most votes

### One Versus All - Example











### One Versus All - Example

Classify test tuple  $X: (-, +, -, -)$ 

*Classification results through all the One vs. All classifiers*



Classify test tuple  $X: (+, -, +, -)$ 



Randomly break the tie

### One Versus One

- $Y = \{y_1, y_2, ..., y_k\}$ : the set of class labels
- Classifier building:
	- For each pair  $y_i$  and  $y_i$  create a binary problem:
		- Keep instances belonging to  $y_i$  and  $y_i$
		- Ignore other instances
- Tuple Classification:
	- Classify the tuple using each classifier  $C_{ij}$
	- If classifier C<sub>ij</sub> returns *i* label, y<sub>i</sub> gets one vote
	- If it returns *j*,  $y_i$  gets one vote
	- Assign the class with the most votes

### One Versus One - Example

 $X1$  A  $X2$  B  $X3$   $A$  $X4$  C  $X5$  C  $X6$  D  $X7$  B  $X8$  A Input **Instances** 





Instances for  $C_{AD}$  $X1 \mid A$  $X3$   $A$  $X6$  D  $X8$  A



### Instances for  $C_{BC}$





### One Versus One - Example

• Classify test tuple X: (B, A, D, B, D, D)



### Characteristics

- One vs All:
	- Builds k classifiers for a k class problem
	- Full training set for each classifier
- One vs One:
	- Builds k(k-1)/2 classifiers
	- Subset of training set for each classifier
- Sensitive to binary classification errors

### Error correcting codes

- Idea: Add redundancy to increase chances of detecting errors
- Training:
	- Represent each *yi* by a unique *n* bit codeword
	- Build *n* binary classifiers, each to predict one bit
- Testing
	- Run each classifier on the test instance to predict its bit vector
	- Assign, to the test instance, the codeword with the closest Hamming distance to the output codeword
- Hamming distance: number of bits that differ

### Example

- Given:  $Y = \{y_1, y_2, y_3, y_4\}$
- Encode each *yi* as:



- Need to train 7 classifiers
	- Generate 7 training sets.
	- For example, given Record <X,  $y_2$ >, add:
		- <X, 0> in the training set of classifiers 1..4
		- <X, 1> in the training set for 5..7

## Data transformation - Example











Instances







## Example:

•Test instance result: (0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1)



Hamming Distance =  $1$  Hamming Distance = 3





Hamming Distance = 3 Hamming Distance = 3



Classify as  $y_1$ 

### Design issues

• How to design the appropriate set of codewords for each class

- Minimum codeword length to represent k classes  $n = log_2 k$
- It is required that both the row-wise and column-wise separation are large • Each individual codeword should be separated from each of the other codewords with a large Hamming distance
	- Large row-wise separation: more tolerance for errors
	- Large column wise separation: binary classifiers are mutually independent

## Exam 1 (10/8)

No Textbook; No Notes; No Slides; No ChatGPT

- Week 1 to Week 6
	- Preprocessing
	- Classification
	- Association Mining

1-Introduction

2-Data Preprocessing (Part 1)

3-Data Preprocessing (Part 2)

4-Classification (Decision Trees)

5-Classification (SVM)

6-Classification (Naive Bayes)

7-Classification (KNN)

8-Classification (Neural Networks)

9-Classification (Ensemble; Classifier Comparison)

10-Classification (Class imbalance; Multi-class)

*11 + 12: Association Mining (Next week)*

- Textbook to refer for preparation
	- Tan et al.  $1^{st}$  edition (Ch. 1-5, 6.1-6.3, 7.1-7.3)
	- Tan et al.  $2^{nd}$  edition (Ch. 1-4, 5.1-5.3, 6.1-6.3)
	- Shmueli et al.  $3^{rd}$  edition (2.2, 4.1-4.8, 5.3, Ch. 7-9.6, Ch. 11, 13.1, 14.1)

Exam 1 (10/8)

- Question types:
	- Multiple choice
	- True/false
	- Short answer
- Kinds of questions:
	- Definitions
	- When to use technique

Example Question:

- **What is underfitting and how do you overcome it?**
- **What are training, validation, and test sets, and why is it important to distinguish between them?**
- **All classification algorithms are equally effective across various datasets.** True or False?

# Exam 1 (10/8)

- **Not** on the exam
	- Memorization of formulas
	- Solving formulas
	- Deep learning