

Week 7

Course. Introduction to Machine Learning

Theory 7. Lazy learning

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Introduction to Machine Learning

Unsupervised Learning

Cluster Analysis

Factor Analysis

Visualization

K-Means,
Fuzzy C-means,
EM

PCA, ICA

Self Organized Maps (SOM) ,
Multi-Dimensional Scaling

Lazy Learning
(K-NN, IBL, CBR)

Overfitting,
model selection and feature selection

Kernel Learning

Ensemble Learning
(Trees, Adaboost)

Perceptron,
SVM

Supervised Learning

Non Linear Decision

Linear Decision

Decision Learning Theory

Basic concepts of Decision Learning Theory

Bias/Variance,
VC dimension,
Practical advice of how to use learning algorithms

Contents

1. Introduction to lazy learning
2. Nearest neighbor
3. Instance-based learning
4. K-Nearest neighbor
5. Case-based reasoning



Introduction to Lazy Learning

Definition: lazy learning

- The computation undertaken by a learning system can be viewed as occurring at two distinct times:
 - **Training time**: Is the time prior to consultation during which the system makes inferences from training data in preparation for consultation time
 - **Consultation time**: Consultation time is the time between when an object is presented to a system for an inference to be made and the time when the inference is completed
- **LAZY LEARNING** refers to any machine learning process that defers the majority of computation to consultation time
 - Lazy learning stands in contrast to eager learning in which the majority of computation occurs at training time

Introduction to lazy learning

- **Lazy learning** delays **generalization** until a query is made to the system
- **Generalization Performance** of a learning algorithm refers to the performance on out-of-simple data of the models learned by the algorithm
 - Out-of-sample data are data that were not used to learn a model

Introduction to lazy learning

- **Advantages:**
 - The target function is approximated locally
 - It can simultaneously solve multiple problems
 - It deals successfully with changes in the problem domain
 - Suitable for complex and incomplete problem domains

- **Disadvantages:**
 - It requires a large space to store the entire training
 - It may be slow for solving a problem but it has a fast training

Lazy and Eager Learning

- Lazy: wait for query before generalizing
 - k-Nearest Neighbour, Case-Based Reasoning, ...
- Eager: generalize before seeing query
 - Radial Basis Function Networks, ANN, ID3, ...
- Does it matter?
 - Eager learner must create global approximation
 - Lazy learner can create many local approximations
 - Lazy learner can represent more complex functions

Lazy learning approaches

In this lesson we will learn about:

- Nearest Neighbour
- Instance-based learning
- Case-based reasoning

{case, exemplar, instance, memory}

-based-

{learning, reasoning}



Nearest Neighbor (NN)

Definition

- In a data collection M , the *nearest neighbor* to a data object q is the data object M_i , which minimizes $dist(q, M_i)$,
 - where $dist$ is a *distance measure* defined for the objects in question
 - note that the fact that the object M_i is the nearest neighbor to q does not imply that q is the nearest neighbor to M_i

Basic idea:

1. Get some example set of cases with known outputs
 - E.g. Diagnoses of infectious diseases by experts
2. When you see a new case, assign its output to be the same as the most similar known case
 - Your symptoms most resemble Mr. X
 - Mr. X had a flu
 - Ergo you have the flu

General learning task

- There is a set of possible examples, $X = \{x_i\}$
- Each example is an n-tuple of attribute values, $\vec{x}_1 = \langle a_1, \dots, a_k \rangle$
- There is a target function that maps X onto set Y,
 $f: X \rightarrow Y$
- The data is a set of tuples <example, target function values>

$$D = \{ \langle \vec{x}_1, f(\vec{x}_1) \rangle, \dots, \langle \vec{x}_m, f(\vec{x}_m) \rangle \}$$

- Find a hypothesis h such that

$$\forall \vec{x}, h(\vec{x}) \approx f(\vec{x})$$

Nearest neighbour

- Task: Given some set of training data

$$D = \{<\vec{x}_1, f(\vec{x}_1)>, \dots <\vec{x}_m, f(\vec{x}_m)>\}$$

and a query point \vec{x}_q , predict $f(\vec{x}_q)$

1. Find the nearest member of the data set

to the query

2. Assign the nearest neighbour output to the query

$$\vec{x}_{nn} = \arg \min_{x \in D} (d(\vec{x}, \vec{x}_q))$$

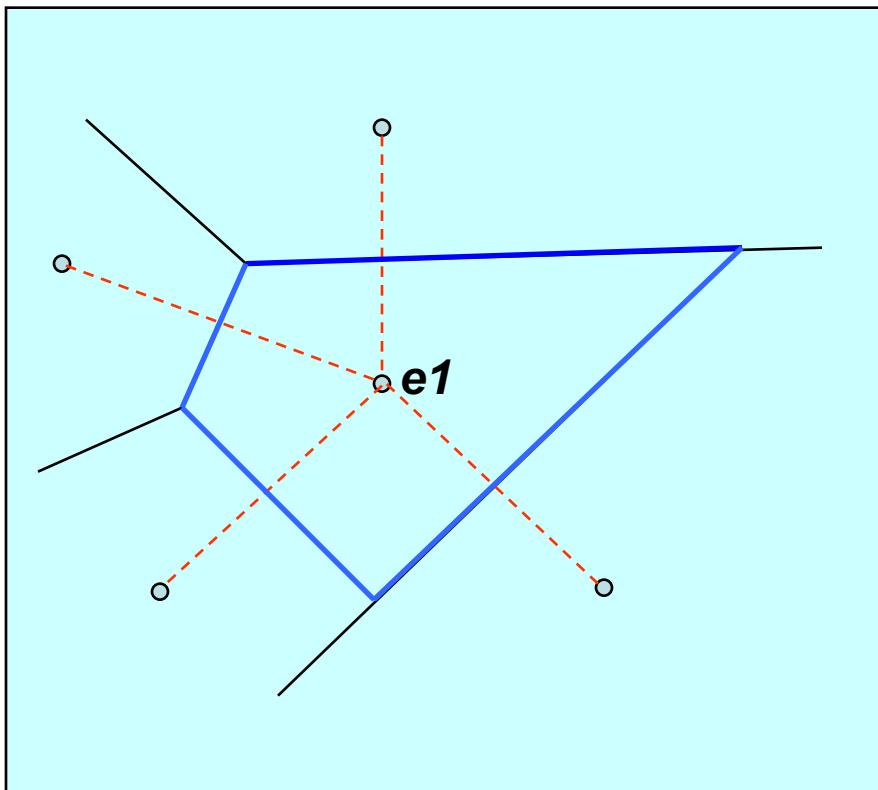
$$h(\vec{x}_q) = f(\vec{x}_{nn})$$

Our hypothesis

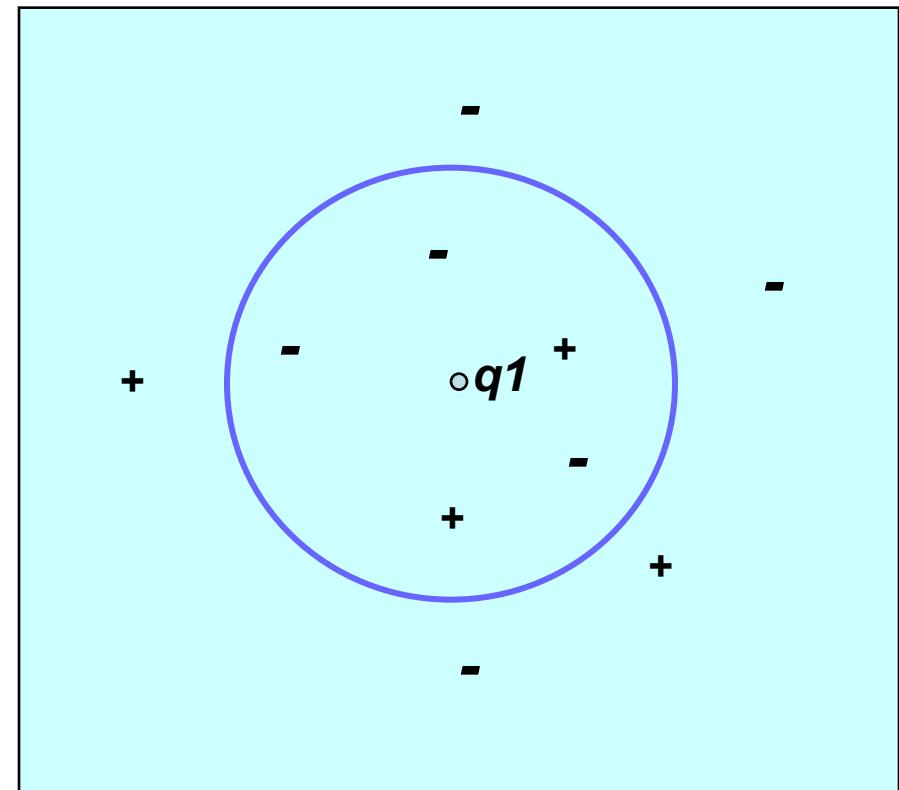
distance function

- In the nearest neighbor the problem is to find, among a set of points (or feature vectors), the one which is most similar or closest to a given *test point* according to some distance measure
- In mathematics, a **Voronoi diagram** is a way of dividing space into a number of regions
 - The regions are called Voronoi cells
 - A Voronoi diagram is the computational geometry concept that represents partition of the given space onto regions, with bounds determined by distances to a specified family of objects
 - The partitioning of a plane with n points into convex polygons such that each polygon contains exactly one generating point and every point in a given polygon is closer to its generating point than to any other

Voronoi diagram



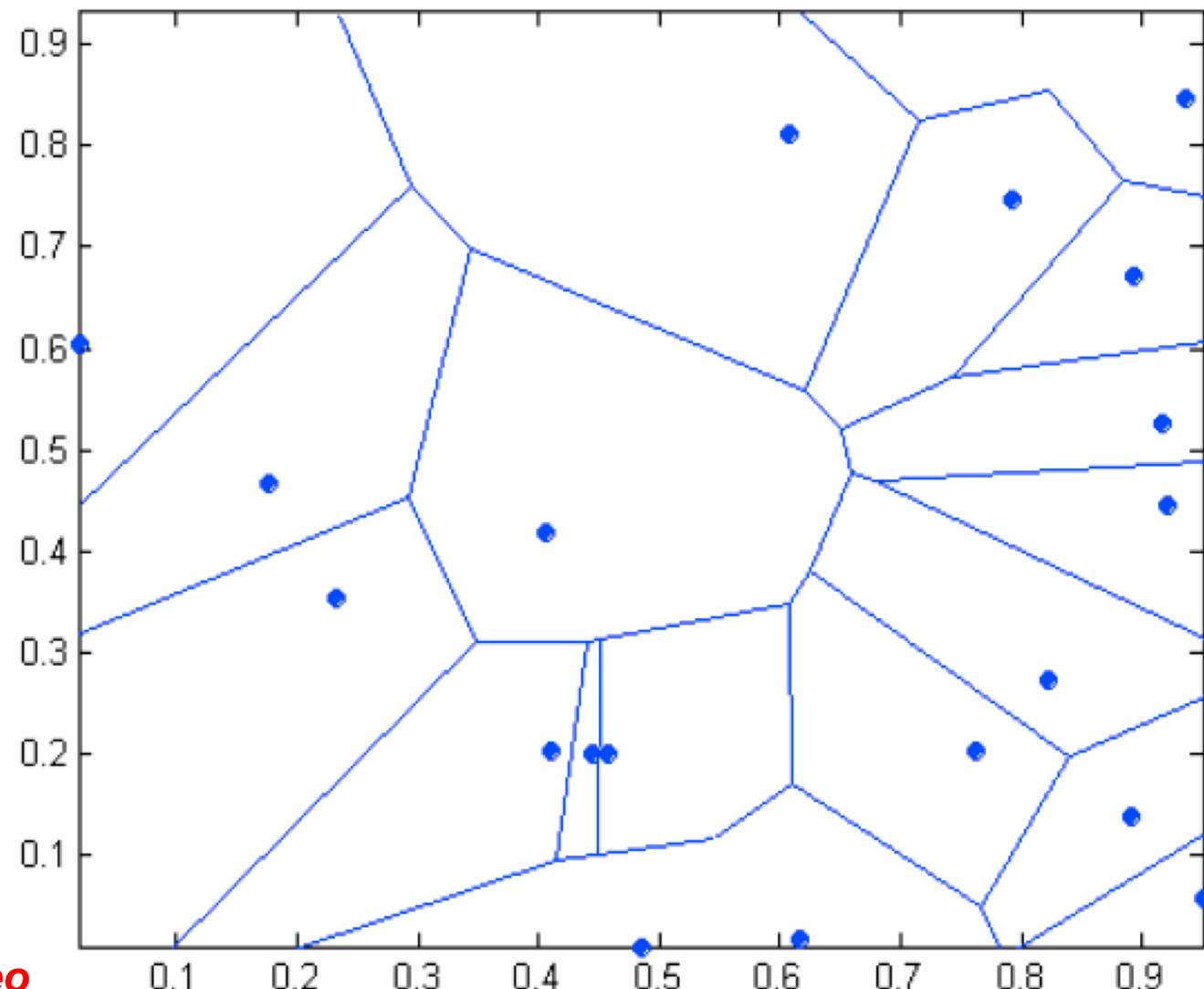
*1-nearest neighbor:
the concept represented by $e1$*



*5-nearest neighbors:
 $q1$ is classified as negative*



Voronoi diagram



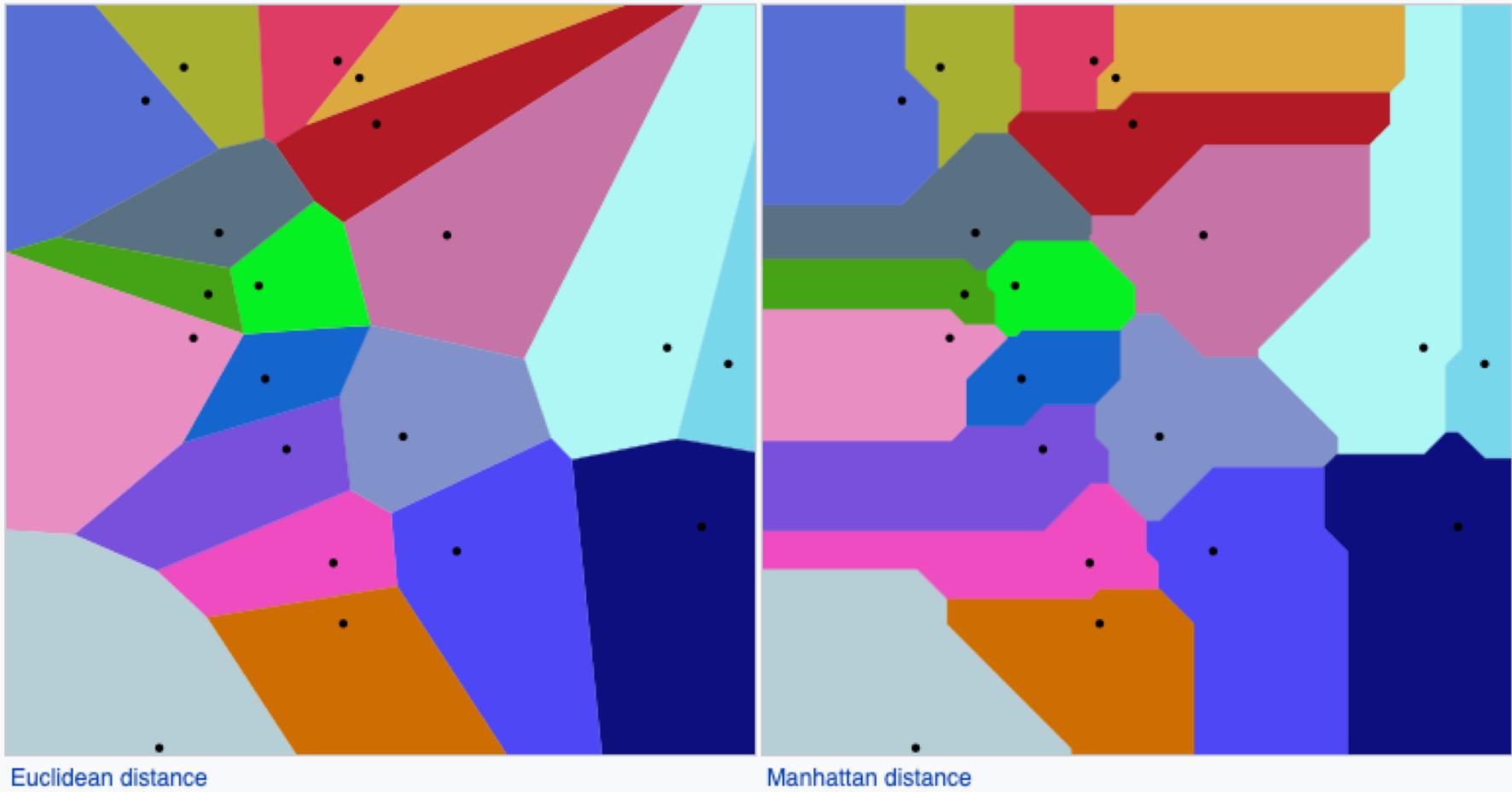
Look at the video

https://youtu.be/k_7gMp5wh5A

Voronoi diagram

Different metrices give rise to different Voronoi diagrams

Voronoi diagrams of 20 points under two different metrics



Instance-based Learning

(IBL)

- A lazy learning algorithm
 - Similar to nearest neighbour algorithm
- Differences:
 - Normalizes all attributes in range [0..1]
 - Handles missing attributes
- One way of solving tasks of approximating **discrete or real valued** target functions
- It produces local approximations to the target function
- Key idea of instance based learning version 1 (IB1):
 - just store the training examples, D
 - when a test example is given then **find the closest** matches

- A distance measure
 - Nearest neighbour: typically Euclidean
- Number of neighbours to consider
 - Nearest neighbour: one
- A weighting function (optional)
 - Nearest neighbour: unused (equal weights)
- How to fit with neighbours
 - Nearest neighbour: same output as nearest neighbour

- IBL algorithms are derived from the nearest neighbor pattern classifier
- They only use selected instances to generate classification predictions
- IBL algorithms are incremental and their goals include:
 - maximizing classification accuracy on subsequently presented instances
- Instance-base learning is a carefully focused case-based learning approach that contributes evaluated algorithms for:
 - selecting good cases for classification,
 - reducing storage requirements,
 - tolerating noise, and
 - learning attribute relevance

- IBL algorithms assume that “*similar instances have similar classifications*”
- IB1 is identical to the nearest neighbor algorithm, except that
 - it normalizes its attributes’ ranges,
 - processes instances incrementally, and
 - has a simple policy for tolerating missing values.

Table 1. The IB1 algorithm (CD = Concept Description).

```
CD ← ∅
for each  $x \in$  Training Set do
    1. for each  $y \in CD$  do
        Sim[y] ← Similarity( $x, y$ )
    2.  $y_{\max} \leftarrow$  some  $y \in CD$  with maximal Sim[y]
    3. if class( $x$ ) = class( $y_{\max}$ )
        then classification ← correct
        else classification ← incorrect
    4.  $CD \leftarrow CD \cup \{x\}$ 
```

IBL algorithms

- Assume that “***similar instances have similar classifications***”
- **IB1** is identical to the nearest neighbor algorithm, except that
 - it normalizes its attributes’ ranges,
 - processes instances incrementally, and
 - has a simple policy for tolerating missing values.
- **IB2** is identical to IB1, except that
 - it saves only misclassified instances
- **IB3** is an extension of IB2 that employs a “*wait and see*” evidence gathering method to determine which of the saved instances are expected to perform well during classification



What else?



TO READ:

Instance-based learning algorithms

D.W. Aha, D. Kibler, and M.K. Albert

Machine Learning , 6, 37- 66 (1991)



- Sections 1 and 2 (from page 37 to page 48)
- The remaining of the sections are optional



K-Nearest Neighbor (KNN)

- A distance measure
 - typically Euclidean
- Number of neighbors to consider
 - k (it is a predefined positive integer, typically small and odd)
 - The optimal k can be calculated by special techniques (hyper parameter optimization techniques)
- A weighting function (optional)
 - Unused (equal weights)
- How to fit with neighbors
 - Vote using K nearest neighbors (or take average, for regression)

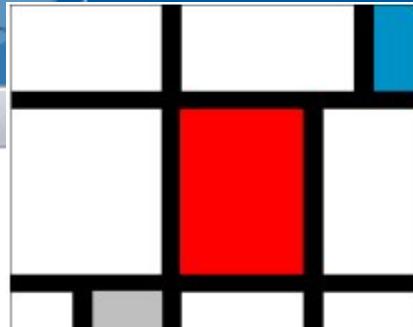
- Training method
 - Save the training examples
- At prediction time:
 - Find the k training examples that are closest to the test example x
 - **Classification:** The output is a class membership. Predict the most frequent class among those y_i 's
 - **Regression:** The output is a value. Predict the average of among the y_i 's
- Improvements:
 - Weighting examples from the neighborhood
 - Measuring “closeness”
 - Finding “close” examples in a large training set *quickly*

When to consider NN algorithms

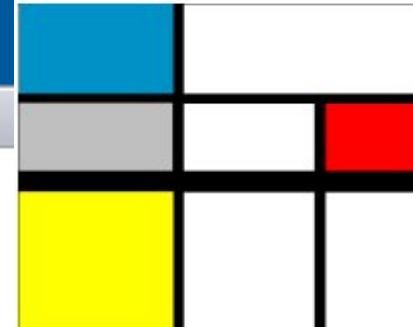
- Instances map to points in \Re^n
- Not more than say 20 attributes per instance
- Lots of training data
- Advantages:
 - Training is very fast
 - Can learn complex target functions
 - Don't lose information
- Disadvantages:
 - ??? (We will see them shortly...)



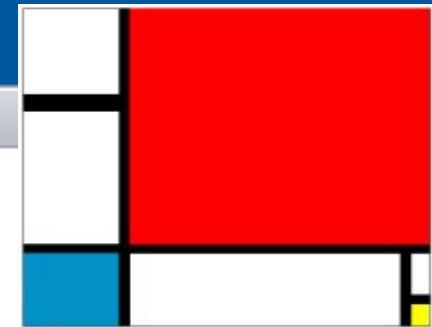
Mondrian Example



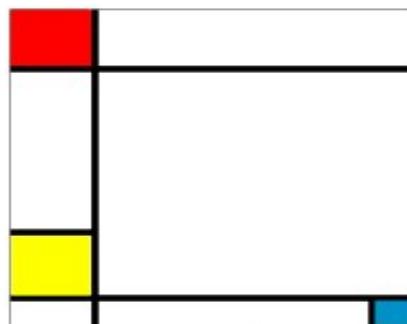
one



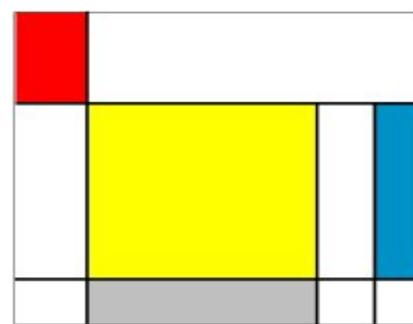
two



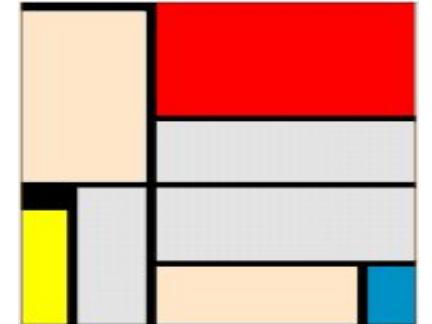
three



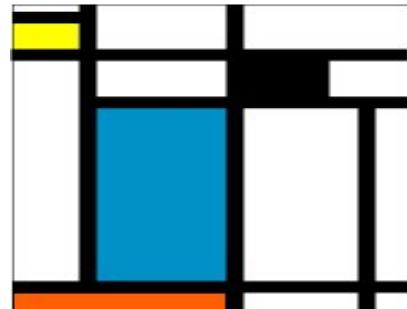
four



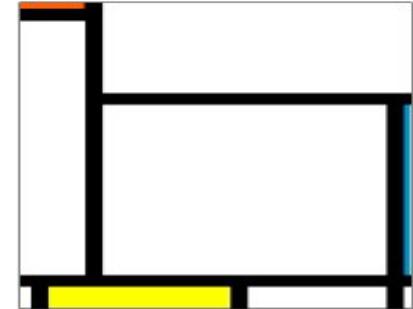
five



six



seven



Eight ?



Training data

Number	Lines	Line types	Rectangles	Colours	Mondrian?
1	6	1	10	4	No
2	4	2	8	5	No
3	5	2	7	4	Yes
4	5	1	8	4	Yes
5	5	1	10	5	No
6	6	1	8	6	Yes
7	7	1	14	5	No

Test instance X_q

Number	Lines	Line types	Rectangles	Colours	Mondrian?
8	7	2	9	4	

Keep data in normalised form

One way to normalise the data $a_r(x)$ to a $\bar{a}_r(x)$ is

$$x_t' \equiv \frac{\bar{x}_t - x_t}{\sigma_t}$$

$\bar{x}_r \equiv$ mean of t^{th} attributes

$\sigma_t \equiv$ standard deviation of t^{th} attributes

Keep data in normalised form

Another way to normalise the data is rescaling the range of features to the range [0, 1] or [-1 , 1]

$$x_t' \equiv \frac{x_t - \min}{\max - \min}$$

$\min \equiv \min \text{ of } t^{\text{th}} \text{ attributes}$

$\max \equiv \max \text{ of } t^{\text{th}} \text{ attributes}$



Normalised training data

Number	Lines	Line types	Rectangles	Colours	Mondrian?
1	0.632	-0.632	0.327	-1.021	No
2	-1.581	1.581	-0.588	0.408	No
3	-0.474	1.581	-1.046	-1.021	Yes
4	-0.474	-0.632	-0.588	-1.021	Yes
5	-0.474	-0.632	0.327	0.408	No
6	0.632	-0.632	-0.588	1.837	Yes
7	1.739	-0.632	2.157	0.408	No

Test instance (x_q)

Number	Lines	Line types	Rectangles	Colours	Mondrian?
8	1.739	1.581	-0.131	-1.021	

Computing distances

Example	Distance of test instance to the example	Mondrian?
1	2.517	No
2	3.644	No
3	2.395	Yes
4	3.164	Yes
5	3.472	No
6	3.808	Yes
7	3.490	No

Classification

1-NN	Yes
3-NN	Yes
5-NN	No
7-NN	No

Issues to consider in a k-NN

- About the k
 - In a binary classification, it is helpful to choose k to be an odd number to avoid tied votes
 - Small k captures fine structure of the problem better
 - Large k is less sensitive to noise (particularly class noise)
- The principle of “majority voting” for deciding the class labels can be problematic when the class distribution is skewed
 - Instances of a more frequent class tend to dominate the prediction of the new examples
- Irrelevant features within a large feature set, tend to degrade performance
- The simple model where all instances are treated fairly using the same distance metric may be inadequate

Distance-Weighted kNN

- We might want to weight nearer neighbours more heavily
 - A typical weight is the inverse of the square of the distance

$$f(\mathbf{x}_q) := \frac{\sum_{i=1}^k w_i f(\mathbf{x}_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^k w_i} \text{ where } w_i = \frac{1}{d(\mathbf{x}_q, \mathbf{x}_i)^2}$$

- The weighted k-NN algorithm can be used for classification or regression
- In the weighted approach one can extend the k-nearest neighbour method from k to all data items.
 - The alternative to keep to k elements is called a local weighted method
 - The extension to all data items is called global weighted method



- **Advantages**
 - Fast training (it's a lazy algorithm)
 - Learn complex functions easily
 - Do not lose information
- **Disadvantages**
 - Slow at query time
 - Needs lots of storage
 - Easily fooled by irrelevant attributes
 - Use statistical methods to remove irrelevant ones (e.g., PCA or cross-validation)

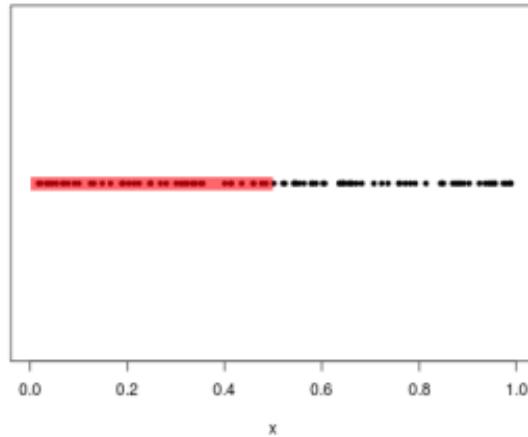
- Nearest neighbor easily misled when X has a high-dimension
- Low-dimensional intuitions do not extend to high dimensions
- **The curse of dimensionality**
 - When dimensionality increases, the volume of the space increases so fast that the available data becomes sparse.
 - The number of features is too large relative to the number of training samples

This makes a poor generalization ability of the classifier

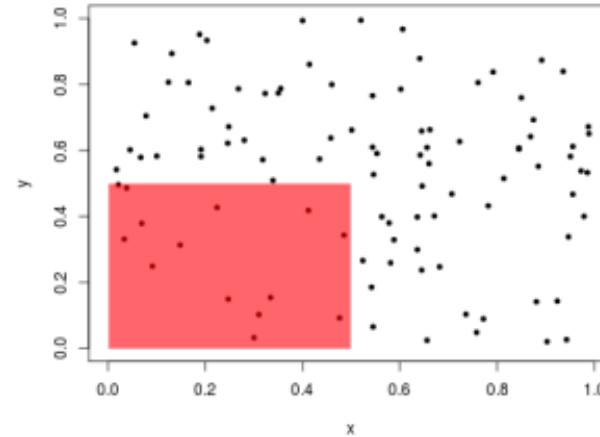


Curse of dimensionality

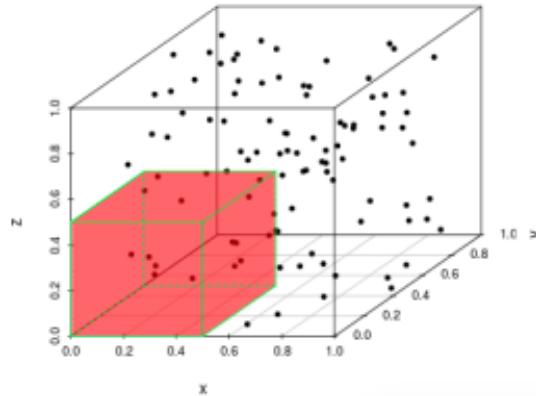
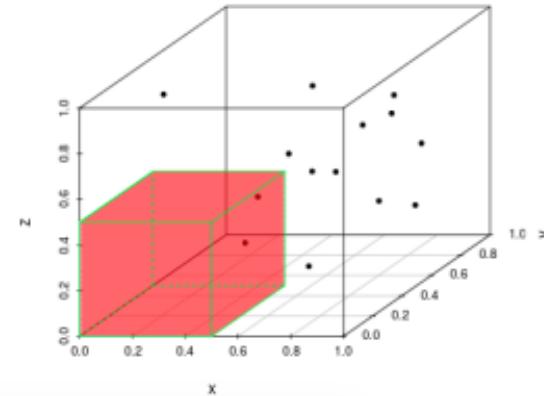
1-D: 42% of data captured.



2-D: 14% of data captured.



3-D: 7% of data captured.

4-D: 3% of data captured.
 $t = 0$ 



Case-Based Reasoning

(CBR)

Introduction to CBR

- *In this course we focus on the basic principle rather than on specific applications or tools*
- Briefly
 - CBR is an advanced instance-based learning applied to more complex instance objects
 - Objects may include complex structural descriptions of cases and adaptation rules
 - The power comes from the organisation and content of the cases themselves

Faced this situation before?

- Oops the car stopped.
 - What could have gone wrong?
- Aah.. Last time it happened, there was no petrol.
 - Is there petrol?
 - Yes.
 - Oh but wait I remember the tyre was punctured (ban bocor)

This is the normal thought process of a human when faced with a problem which is similar to a problem he/she had faced before.

How do we solve problems?

- By knowing the steps to apply
 - from symptoms to a plausible diagnosis
- But not always applying causal knowledge
 - diseases cause symptoms
 - symptoms do not cause diseases!
- How does an expert solve problems?
 - uses same “book learning” as a novice
 - but quickly selects the right knowledge to apply
- Heuristic knowledge (“rules of thumb”)
 - “I don’t know why this works but it does and so I’ll use it again!”
 - difficult to elicit

Another way we solve problems?

- By remembering how we solved a similar problem in the past
- This is Case Based Reasoning (CBR)!
 - memory-based problem-solving
 - re-using past experiences
- Experts often find it easier to relate stories about past cases than to formulate rules

Problems we solve this way

- Medicine
 - doctor remembers previous patients especially for rare combinations of symptoms
- Law
 - English/US law depends on precedence
 - case histories are consulted
- Management
 - decisions are often based on past rulings
- Financial
 - performance is predicted by past results

What is Case-based Reasoning

- Case-based reasoning is [...] **reasoning by remembering** – [Leake, 1996]
- A case-based reasoner solves new problems by adapting solutions that were used to solve old problems - [Riesbeck & Schank, 1989]
- Case-based reasoning is both [...] the ways people use cases to solve problems and the ways we can make machines use them – [Kolodner, 1993]
- Case-based reasoning is a recent approach to problem solving and learning [...] - [Aamodt & Plaza, 1994]

Case-based reasoning is ...

- A methodology to model human reasoning and thinking
- A methodology for building intelligent computer systems
- **CBR in a nutshell:**
 - Store previous experience (cases) in memory
 - To solve new problems:
 - Retrieve similar experience about similar situations from the memory
 - Reuse the experience in the context of the new situation : complete or partial reuse, or adapt according to differences
 - Store new experience in memory (**learning**)

A bit of history

- Roots of CBR is found in the works of Roger Shank on dynamic memory in 1983
- Other trails into the CBR field has come from
 - Analogical reasoning in 1990
 - Problem solving and experimental learning within philosophy and psychology
- The first CBR system, CYRUS developed by Janet Kolodner at Yale university (1983)

CBR cycle

Description
of a new
situation

Case_n
-Prob
-∅

new problem

Retrieve

Case
-Prob
-Sol
K

Retrieved
Case

Case
-Prob
-Sol

Case_n
-Prob
-∅

The CBR cycle as
described by
Aamodt&Plaza 1994

Case_n
-Prob
-Sol'

Retain

Case Base

Similarity
Knowledge

Case
Knowledge

Adaptation
Knowledge

Vocabulary
Knowledge

Reuse

Case_n
-Prob
-Sol'

Case_n
-Prob
-Sol

Confirmed
Solution

Suggested
Solution

Revise

Description of CBR Cycle

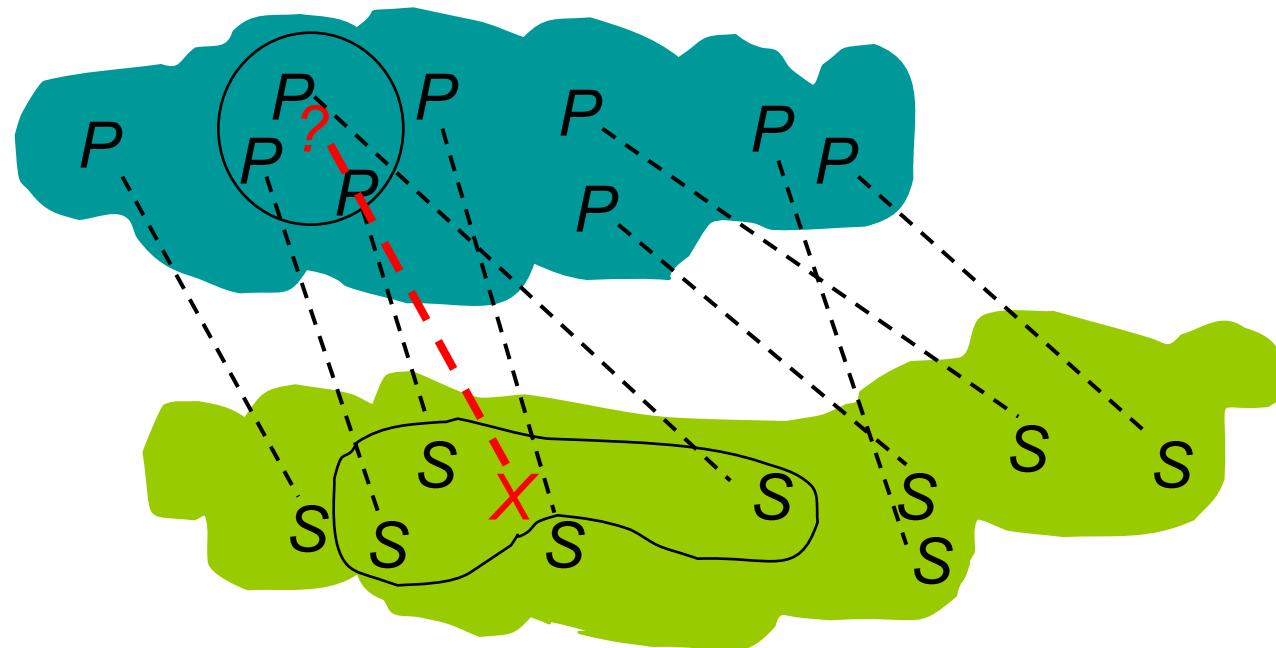
The CBR process is a cyclic procedure with 4 phases

- A new problem to be solved is introduced in the problem space
- During **retrieval**, a new problem is matched against problems of the previous cases by computing a similarity function, and the most similar problem and its stored solution are found
- If the proposed solution does not meet the necessary requirements of a new problem situation, **adaptation** occurs (reuse phase) and a new solution is created
- **Revise** the proposed solution
- A received solution and a new problem together form a new case that is incorporated in the case base during the learning step (**retain** phase)
 - In this way CBR system evolves into a better reasoner as the capability of the system is improved by extending of stored experience

- Case-base
 - database of previous cases (experience)
- Retrieval of relevant cases
 - index for cases in library
 - matching most similar case(s)
 - retrieving the solution(s) from these case(s)
- Adaptation of solution
 - alter the retrieved solution(s) to reflect differences between new case and retrieved case(s)

Main CBR Assumption

- New problem can be solved by
 - retrieving similar problems
 - adapting retrieved solutions
- Similar problems **have** similar solutions



CBR Assumption(s)

- The **main assumption** is that:
 - *Similar problems have similar solutions:*
 - e.g., an aspirin can be taken for any mild pain
- More assumptions:
 - **The world is a regular place:** what holds true today will probably hold true tomorrow
 - (e.g., if you have a headache, you take aspirin, because it has always helped)
 - **Situations repeat:** if they do not, there is no point in remembering them
 - (e.g., it helps to remember how you found a parking space near that restaurant)

Two big tasks of CBR

- Classification tasks (good for CBR)
 - Diagnosis - what type of fault is this?
 - Prediction / estimation - what happened when we saw this pattern before?
- Synthesis tasks (harder for CBR)
 - Engineering Design
 - Planning
 - Scheduling

CBR cycle

Description
of a new
situation

Case_n
-Prob
-∅

new problem

Retrieve

Retrieved
Case

Case
-Prob
-Sol

The CBR cycle as
described by
Aamodt&Plaza 1994

Case_n
-Prob
-Sol'

Case Base

Similarity
Knowledge

Case
Knowledge

Adaptation
Knowledge

Vocabulary
Knowledge

Retain

Reuse

Case_n
-Prob
-Sol

Suggested
Solution

Confirmed
Solution

Revise

A simple example: What's a case?

- A case describes one particular diagnostic situation
- A case records several features and their specific values occurred in that situation
- A case is not a rule !!!

Technical Diagnosis of Car Faults

Figures of this example come from:

R. Bergmann, University of Kaiserslautern

C A S E 1	Problem (Symptoms)	
	Feature	Value
	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Problem: Front light doesn't work• Car: VW Golf II, 1.6 L• Year: 1993• Battery voltage: 13,6 V• State of lights: OK• State of light switch: OK	
Solution		<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Diagnosis: Front light fuse defect• Repair: Replace front light fuse

		Feature	Value
C A S E 1	Problem (Symptoms)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Problem: Front light doesn't work • Car: VW Golf II, 1.6 L • Year: 1993 • Battery voltage: 13,6 V • State of lights: OK • State of light switch: OK 	
	Solution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Diagnosis: Front light fuse defect • Repair: Replace front light fuse 	
C A S E 2	Problem (Symptoms)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Problem: Front light doesn't work • Car: Audi A6 • Year: 1995 • Battery voltage : 12,9 V • State of lights: surface damaged • State of light switch: OK 	
	Solution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Diagnosis: Bulb defect • Repair: Replace front light 	

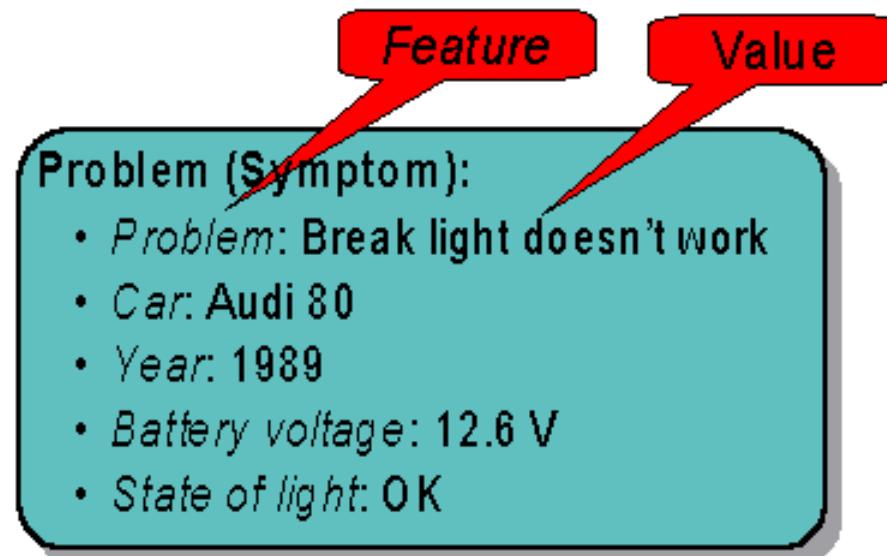
A case base with two cases:

- Each case describes a particular situation
- All cases are independent from each other

- Flat feature-value list
 - Simple case structure is sometimes sufficient for problem solving
 - Easy to store and retrieve in a CBR system
- Object Oriented representation
 - Case: collection of objects (instances of classes) in the sense of OO
 - Required for complex and structured objects
- For special tasks:
 - Graph representations: case = set of nodes and arcs
 - Plans: case = (partially) ordered set of actions
 - Predicate logic: case = set of atomic formulas
- The choice of representation is
 - Dependent on requirements of domain and task
 - Structure of already available case data

Solving a new diagnostic problem

- A new problem must be solved
- We make several observations in the current situation
- Observations define a new problem
- Not all feature values must be known
- Note: The new problem is a case without solution part

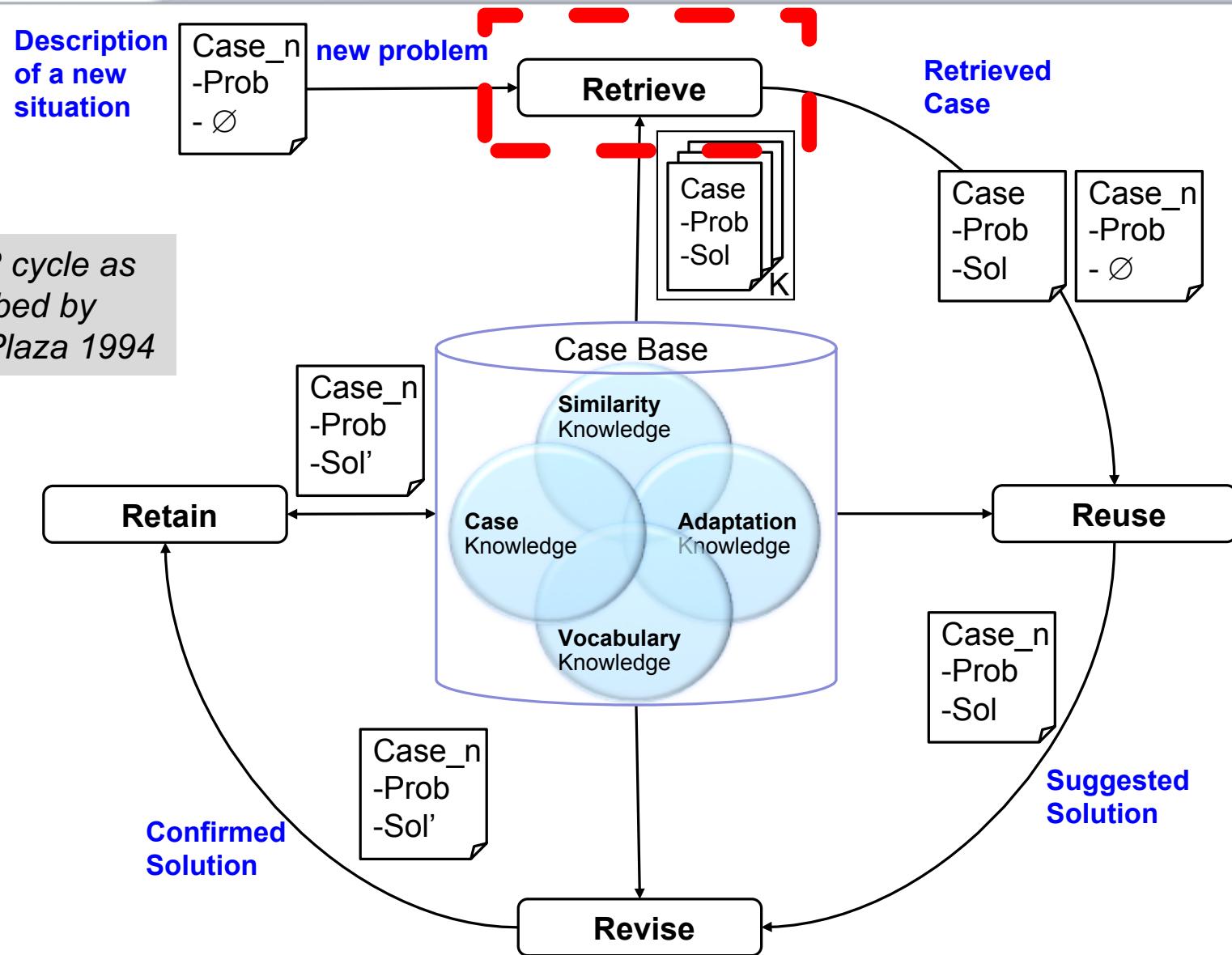


Problem (Symptom):

- Problem: Break light doesn't work
- Car: Audi 80
- Year: 1989
- Battery voltage: 12.6 V
- State of light: OK

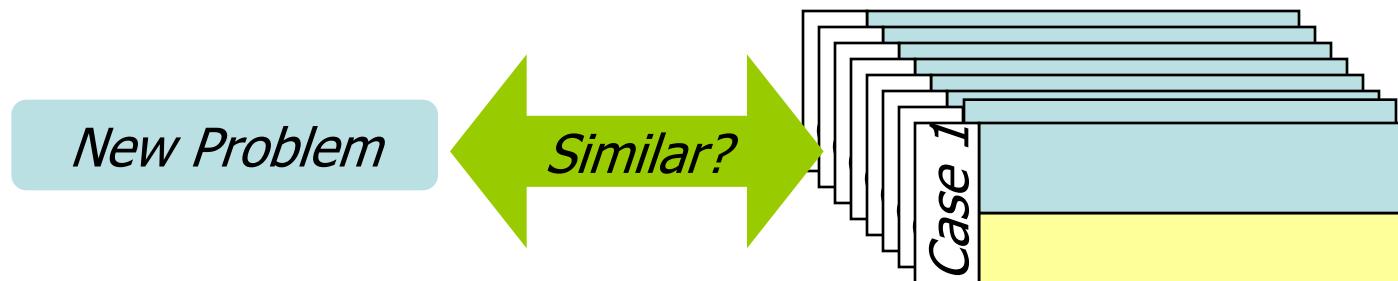
Feature Value

CBR cycle



Retrieving A Car Diagnosis Case

- Compare new problem to each case
- Select most similar



- Similarity is most important concept in CBR
 - When are two cases similar?
 - How are cases ranked according to similarity?
- Similarity of cases
 - Similarity for each feature
 - Depends on feature values
 - BUT: Importance of different feature values may be different

Retrieve: What is similarity?

- Purpose of similarity:
 - Select cases that can be adapted easily to the current problem
 - Select cases that have (nearly) the same solution than the current problem
- Basic assumption: similar problems have similar solutions
- Degree of similarity = utility /reusability solution
- Goal of similarity modeling: provide a good approximation
 - Close to real reusability
 - Easy to compute

Nearest Neighbour Retrieval

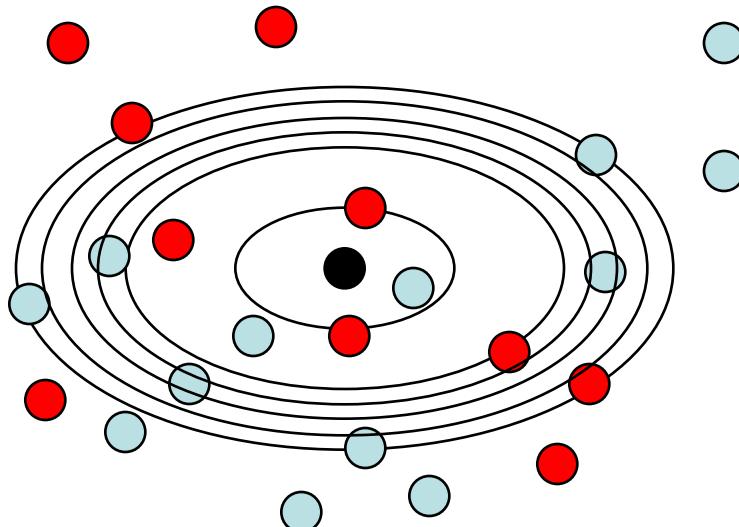
- Retrieve most similar
- k-nearest neighbour
 - k-NN
 - like scoring in bowls or curling
- Example

?

1-NN

?

5-NN



Retrieve: Modeling similarity

- Different approaches depending on case representation
- Similarity measures:
 - Function to compare two cases
sim: Case x Case $\rightarrow [0..1]$
 - Local similarity measure: similarity on feature level
 - Global similarity measure: similarity on case or object level
 - Combines local similarity measures
 - Takes care of different importance of attributes (weights)
 - (Sub-)Graph isomorphism for graph representations
 - Logical inferences

Similarity Computation for case

1

Problem (Symptom)

- Prob.: Break light doesn't work
- Car: Audi 80
- Year: 1989
- Battery voltage: 12.6 V
- State of lights: OK

Problem (Symptoms)

- Problem: Front light doesn't work
- Car: VW Golf II, 1.6 L
- Year: 1993
- Battery voltage: 13.6 V
- State of lights: OK
- State of light switch: OK

Solution

- Diagnosis: Front light fuse defect
- Repair: Replace front light fuse

Very important feature: weight = 6

Less important feature: weight = 1

Similarity Computation by Weighted Average

$$\text{similarity}(\text{new}, \text{case 1}) = 1/20 * [6*0.8 + 1*0.4 + 1*0.6 + 6*0.9 + 6* 1.0] = 0.86$$

Similarity Computation for case 2

Problem (Symptom)

- Prob.: Break light doesn't work
- Car: Audi 80
- Year: 1989
- Battery voltage: 12.6 V
- State of lights: OK

Problem (Symptoms)

- Problem: Front light doesn't work
- Car: Audi A6
- Year: 1995
- Battery voltage : 12.9 V
- State of lights: surface damaged
- State of light switch: OK

Very important feature: weight = 6 ← →
Less important feature: weight = 1 ← →

Solution

- Diagnosis: Bulb defect
- Repair: Replace front light

Similarity Computation by Weighted Average

$$\text{similarity}(\text{new}, \text{case 2}) = 1/20 * [6*0.8 + 1*0.8 + 1*0.4 + 6*0.95 + 6*0] = 0.585$$

- Efficient case retrieval is essential for large case bases
- Different approaches depending
 - On the case representation
 - Size of the case base
- Organisation of the case base:
 - Linear lists, only for small case bases
 - Index structures for large case bases
 - Kd-trees, Retrieval nets, discrimination nets, ...
- How to store cases:
 - Databases: for large case bases or if shared with other applications
 - Main memory: for small case bases, not shared

Reuse Solution from Case 1

New Problem

- Symptom: brakelight does not work
- Car: Ford Fiesta
- Year: 1997
- Battery: 9.2v
- Headlights: undamaged
- HeadlightSwitch: ?

Problem

- Case 1*
- Symptom: headlight does not work
 - ...

Solution

- Diagnosis: headlight fuse blown
- Repair: replace headlight fuse

— Solution to New Problem

- Diagnosis: headlight fuse blown
- Repair: replace headlight fuse

— After Adaptation

- Diagnosis: brakelight fuse blown
- Repair: replace brakelight fuse

CBR cycle

Description
of a new
situation

Case_n
-Prob
-∅

new problem

Retrieve

Case
-Prob
-Sol
K

Retrieved
Case

Case
-Prob
-Sol

Case_n
-Prob
-∅

The CBR cycle as
described by
Aamodt&Plaza 1994

Case_n
-Prob
-Sol'

Retain

Case Base

Similarity
Knowledge

Case
Knowledge

Adaptation
Knowledge

Vocabulary
Knowledge

Reuse

Case_n
-Prob
-Sol'

Case_n
-Prob
-Sol

Suggested
Solution

Revise

Confirmed
Solution

- Single retrieved solution
 - Re-use this solution
- Multiple retrieved solutions
 - Vote/average of retrieved solutions
 - Weighted according to
 - Ranking
 - Similarity
- Iterative retrieval
 - Solve components of the solution one at a time

How to Adapt the Solution

- Adaptation alters proposed solution:
- Null adaptation - copy retrieved solution
 - Used by CBR-Lite systems
- Manual or interactive adaptation
 - User adapts the retrieved solution (Adapting is easier than solving?)
- Automated adaptation
 - CBR system is able to adapt the retrieved solution
 - Adaptation knowledge required

- *Substitution*
 - change some part(s) of the retrieved solution
 - simplest and most common form of adaptation
- *Transformation*
 - alters the structure of the solution
- *Generative*
 - replays the method of deriving the retrieved solution on the new problem
 - most complex form of adaptation

Examples of Adaptation

- CHEF
 - CBR system to plan Szechuan recipes
 - Hammond (1990)
- *Substitution adaptation*
 - substitute ingredients in the retrieved recipe to match the menu
 - Retrieved recipe contains beef and broccoli
 - New menu requires chicken and snowpeas
 - Replace chicken for beef, snowpeas for broccoli
- *Transformation adaptation*
 - Add, change or remove steps in the recipe
 - Skinning step added for chicken, not done for beef

Examples of Adaptation

- Car diagnosis example
 - Symptoms, faults and repairs for brake lights are analogous to those for headlight
 - *Substitution*: brake light fuse
- Planning example
 - Train journeys and flights are analogous
 - *Transformation*: flights need check-in step added

CBR cycle

Description
of a new
situation

Case_n
-Prob
-∅

new problem

Retrieve

Case
-Prob
-Sol
K

**Retrieved
Case**

Case
-Prob
-Sol

Case_n
-Prob
-∅

The CBR cycle as
described by
Aamodt&Plaza 1994

Retain

Case_n
-Prob
-Sol'

Case Base

Similarity
Knowledge

Case
Knowledge

Adaptation
Knowledge

Vocabulary
Knowledge

Reuse

Case_n
-Prob
-Sol

**Confirmed
Solution**

Case_n
-Prob
-Sol'

Revise

**Suggested
Solution**

- Revise phase:
 - No revise phase
 - Verification of the solution by computer simulation
 - Verification / evaluation of the solution in the real world
- Criteria for revision
 - Correctness of the solution
 - Quality of the solution
 - Other, e.g., user preferences

CBR cycle

Description
of a new
situation

Case_n
-Prob
-∅

new problem

Retrieve

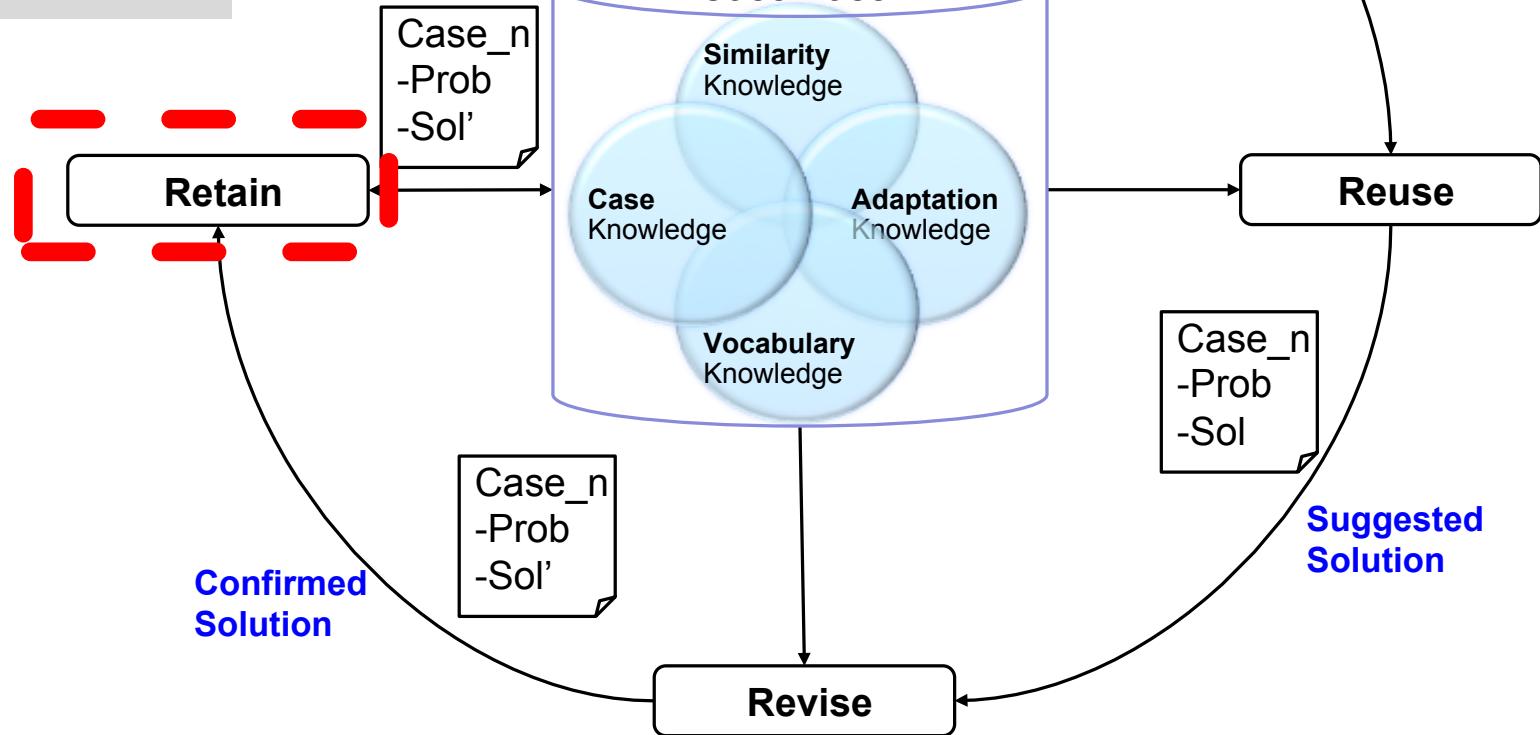
Case
-Prob
-Sol
K

**Retrieved
Case**

Case
-Prob
-Sol

Case_n
-Prob
-∅

The CBR cycle as
described by
Aamodt&Plaza 1994



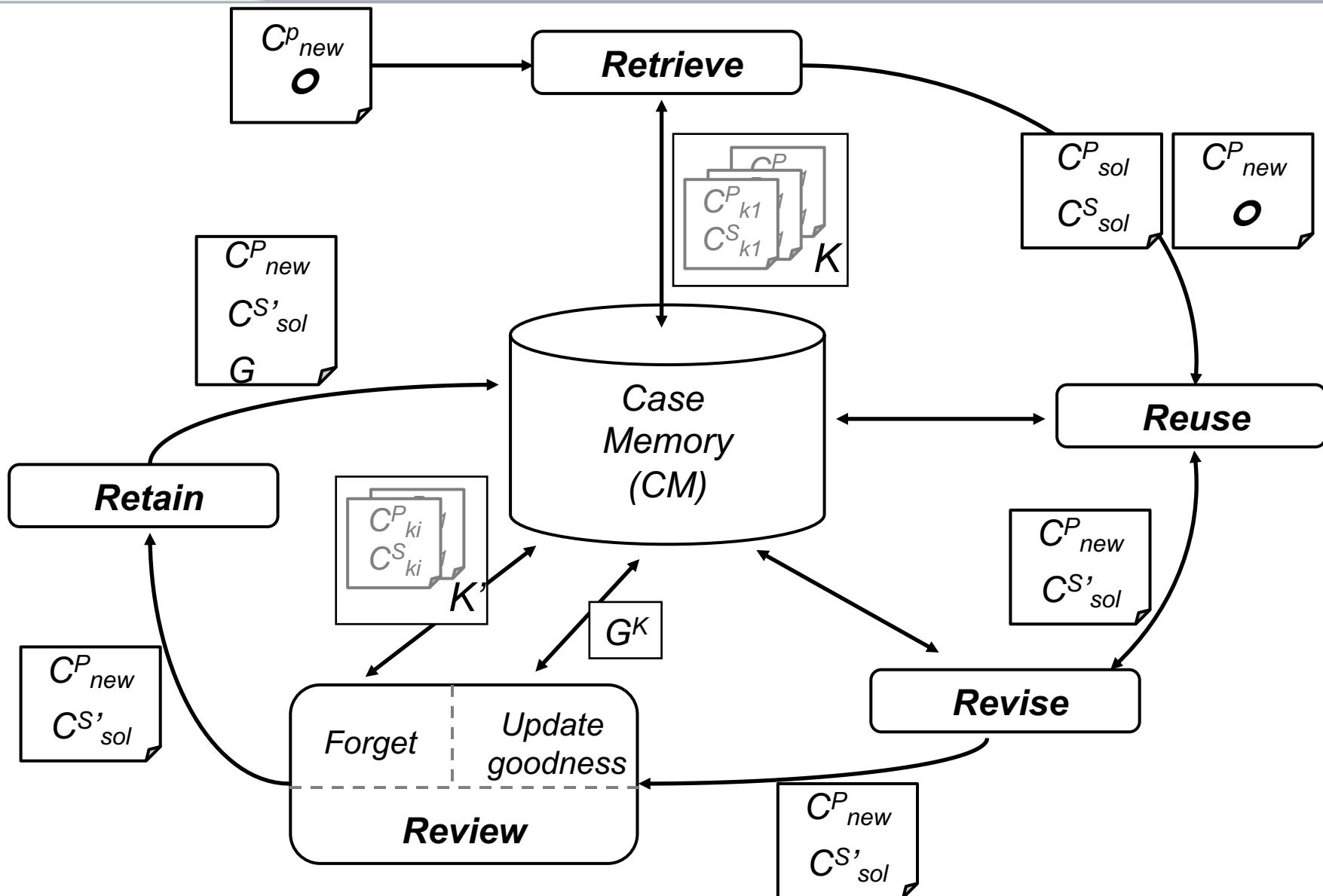
- What can be learned:
 - New experience to be retained as new case
 - Improved similarity assessment, importance of features
 - Organization / Indexing of the case base to improve efficiency
 - Knowledge for solution adaptation
 - Forgetting cases (learn to forget)
 - For efficiency or because out of date
 - Deleting an old case
 - Old is not necessarily bad
 - Does it leave a gap?



- **Advantages**
 - solutions are quickly proposed
 - derivation from scratch is avoided
 - domains do not need to be completely understood
 - cases useful for open-ended/ill-defined concepts
 - highlights important features
- **Disadvantages**
 - old cases may be poor
 - library may be biased
 - most appropriate cases may not be retrieved
 - retrieval/adaptation knowledge still needed

- Reduces the knowledge acquisition effort
- Requires less maintenance effort
- Improves problem solving performance through reuse
- Makes use of existing data, e.g., in databases
- Improve over time and adapt to changes in the environment
- High user acceptance

A CBR approach: ACBR Cycle



Summary of CBR

- CBR is a technique for solving problems based on experience
- CBR problem solving involves four phases
 - Retrieval, Reuse, Revise, and Retain
- Different techniques for:
 - Representing the knowledge, in particular, the cases
 - Realizing the four phases
- CBR has several advantages over traditional Knowledge-based Systems
- Several applications
 - Classification, diagnosis, decision support, planning, configuration, design, ...



TO READ:

**Case-Based Reasoning: Foundational Issues,
Methodological Variations, and System Approaches**

Agnar Aamodt, Enric Plaza

AI Communications, Vol. 7 Nr. 1 (1994) pp. 35-59



- Sections 1, 2, and 3 (from page 1 to page 9)
- The remaining of the sections are optional

Week 7

Course. Introduction to Machine Learning

Theory 7. Lazy learning

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