UNIT – IV LOGIC BASED AND ALGEBRAIC MODELS

- Distance Based Models: Neighbors and Exemplars, Nearest Neighbor Classification, Distance based clustering algorithms - K-means and K-medoids, Hierarchical clustering.
- Rule Based Models: Rule learning for subgroup discovery, Association rules mining – Apriori Algorithm, Confidence and Support parameters.
- Tree Based Models: Decision Trees, Minority Class, Impurity Measures – Gini Index and Entropy, Best Split.

Minkowski distance

- If $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}^d$, the Minkowski distance of order
- *p* > 0 is defined as

Dis_p(x, y) =
$$\left(\sum_{j=1}^{d} |x_j - y_j|^p\right)^{1/p} = ||x - y||_p$$

• 1-norm denotes Manhattan distance, also called cityblock distance:

$$Dis_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \sum_{j=1}^d |x_j - y_j|$$

• 2-norm refers to Euclidean distance

$$\mathrm{Dis}_2(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) = \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^d (x_j - y_j)^2} = \sqrt{(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})^\mathrm{T}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})}$$

- Given an instance space X, a distance metric is
- a function Dis : $\mathcal{X} X \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that for any x, y, $z \in \mathcal{X}$
 - distances between a point and itself are zero: Dis(x,x) =
 0;
 - 2. all other distances are larger than zero: if x = y then Dis(x, y) > 0;
 - 3. distances are symmetric: Dis(y,x) = Dis(x, y);
 - 4. detours can not shorten the distance: $Dis(x, z) \le Dis(x, y) + Dis(y, z)$.
- If the second condition is weakened to a non-strict inequality i.e., Dis(x, y) may be zero even if x = y t the function Dis is called a pseudo-metric.

Exemplars :

 centroids that find a centre of mass according to a chosen distance metric,

or

medoids that find the most centrally located data
 point

1,2,3,4,5

Geometric Mean > M= 1 x1 xcx

Geometric Mean >

- Medoids
 - Always the members of data set
 - Can be selected by calculating distance metric
- Centroid
 - Mean
 - Imaginary data points ——

The arithmetic mean minimises squared Euclidean distance

The arithmetic mean μ of a set of data points
 D in a Euclidean space is the unique point
 that minimises the sum of squared Euclidean
 distances to those data points.

Nearest neighbour Classification

- Most commonly used distance based classifier
- Uses each training instance as exemplar
- Can be used in two ways
 - Decision boundary
 - A perpendicular bisector of the line connecting the two exemplars
 - Decision rule

K-Nearest Neighbour (kNN)

- Takes a vote between the $\underline{k} \ge 1$ nearest exemplars of the instance to be classified and predicts majority class.
- Well suited for classification task
- Supervised learning

K-Nearest Neighbour (kNN)

- Takes a vote between the $k \ge 1$ nearest exemplars of the instance to be classified and predicts majority class.
- K value selection is most important
- Generally it is odd and set to the square root of no of training examples
- No standard procedure exists. K is selected after testing several k values on variety of test data sets.

Working

- Training data set(labeled) <-----
- Test data set(unlabeled)
- For each record in test data set kNN identifies k records in training data that are nearest in similarity
- Unlabeled test instance is assigned the class of majority of the k nearest neighbours

- Let k b e any integer generally odd and must not be multiple of no. of classes.
 - Find n Euclidean Distances between Xnew and X1,X2,X3,....,Xn
 - Arrange all distances in Ascending order
 - Select K shortest distances
 - Find K corresponding points
 - Find their labels →
 - Find Maximum from the labels and assign to new data point.

R implementation

- knn(train, test, class, k) function
 - train is a data frame containing training data
 - test is a data frame containing testing data
 - Class vector with class for each row in training data
 - K an integer indicating nearest neighbours

Returns the vector of predicted classes

Distance based clustering

- Unsupervised Learning
- exemplar-based
 - Predictive

- (entroid
- 2 medoid

- not exemplar-based
 - − Descriptive →

 Predictive distance-based clustering methods use the same ingredients as distance based classifiers: a distance metric, a way to construct exemplars and a distance-based decision rule.

KMeans

Lloy d's algo

- The K-means problem is to find a partition that minimises the total within-cluster scatter.
- The algorithm iterates between partitioning the data using the nearest-centroid decision rule, and recalculating centroids from a partition

Steps

- Select initial centroids at random
- Calculate the distance of each instance from Zeach centroid
 Zeach centroid
- Assign every instance to cluster represented by it's nearest centroid
- Recalculate the centroid for each k clusters
- Go to step 2 and keep on repeating until no change in centroids is observed

 Consider the following instances given as input to k-means clustering algorithm for k=3. Find the members of these 3 clusters.

Algorithm 8.1: KMeans(D, K) - K-means clustering using Euclidean distance Dis2.

Input : data $D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$; number of clusters $K \in \mathbb{N}$.

Output: K cluster means $\mu_1, ..., \mu_K \in \mathbb{R}^d$.

randomly initialise K vectors $\mu_1, ..., \mu_K \in \mathbb{R}^d$;

repeat

assign each $\underline{\mathbf{x}} \in D$ to $\operatorname{argmin}_{f} \operatorname{Dis}_{2}(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\mu}_{f})$;

for j = 1 to K do

$$D_{j} \leftarrow \{\mathbf{x} \in D | \mathbf{x} \text{ assigned to cluster } j\};$$

$$\mu_{j} = \frac{1}{|D_{j}|} \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in D_{j}} \mathbf{x};$$

$$\mu_f = \frac{1}{|D_f|} \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in D_f} \mathbf{x};$$

until no change in μ_1, \ldots, μ_K ;

return $\mu_1,...,\mu_K$;

Algorithm 8.2: KMedoids(D, K, Dis) - K-medoids clustering using arbitrary distance metric Dis.

```
Input : data D \subseteq \mathcal{X}; number of clusters K \in \mathbb{N};
distance metric Dis: \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}.
```

Output : K medoids $\mu_1, \dots, \mu_K \in D$, representing a predictive clustering of \mathscr{X} .

```
1 randomly pick \underline{K} data points \mu_1, ..., \mu_K \in D;
```

```
2 repeat

3 assign each \mathbf{x} \in D to \underset{j}{\operatorname{argmin}} \operatorname{Dis}(\mathbf{x}, \mu_{j});

4 for j = 1 to k do

5 D_{j} \leftarrow \{\mathbf{x} \in D | \mathbf{x} \text{ assigned to cluster } j\};

6 \mu_{j} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{x} \in D_{j}} \sum_{\mathbf{x}' \in D_{j}} \operatorname{Dis}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}');

7 end
```

- 8 until no change in $\mu_1, ..., \mu_K$;
- 9 return μ₁,...,μ_K;

Algorithm 8.3: PAM(D, K, Dis) – Partitioning around medoids clustering using arbitrary distance metric Dis.

```
: data D \subseteq \mathcal{X}; number of clusters K \in \mathbb{N};
                 distance metric Dis: \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}.
    Output : K medoids \mu_1, \ldots, \mu_K \in D, representing a predictive clustering of \mathcal{X}.
 1 randomly pick K data points \mu_1, ..., \mu_K \in D;
 2 repeat
         assign each x \in D to \operatorname{argmin}_{f} \operatorname{Dis}(x, \mu_{f});
 3
         for j = 1 to k do
 4
            D_j \leftarrow \{\mathbf{x} \in D | \mathbf{x} \text{ assigned to cluster } j\};
 5
         end
 6
        Q \leftarrow \sum_{i} \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in D_{i}} \mathrm{Dis}(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\mu}_{i});
7
         for each medoid m and each non-medoid o do
 R
              calculate the improvement in Q resulting from swapping m with o;
 9
         end
10
         select the pair with maximum improvement and swap;
11
12 until no further improvement possible;
13 return \mu_1, ..., \mu_K;
```

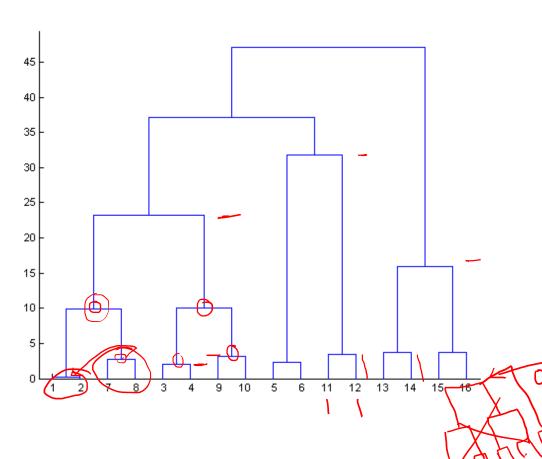
Hierarchical clustering

- represent clusters using trees.
- trees use features to navigate the instance space similar to decision trees

- We start with every data point in a separate cluster
- We keep merging the most similar pairs of data points/clusters until we have one big cluster left
- This is called a <u>bottom-up</u> or agglomerative method

Dendrogram

- Given a data set D, a dendrogram is a binary tree with the elements of D at its leaves.
- An internal node of the tree represents the subset of elements in the leaves of the subtree rooted at that node.
- The level of a node is the distance between the two clusters represented by the children of the node.
- Leaves have level 0.



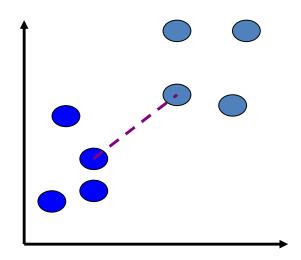
- This produces a binary tree or dendrogram
- The final cluster is the root and each data item is a leaf
- The height of the bars indicate how close the items are

- We already know about distance measures between data items, but what about between a data item and a cluster or between two clusters?
- We just treat a data point as a cluster with a single item, so our only problem is to define a linkage method between clusters
- As usual, there are lots of choices...

Single Linkage (*2)



- The minimum of all pairwise distances between points in the two clusters
- Tends to produce long, "loose" clusters

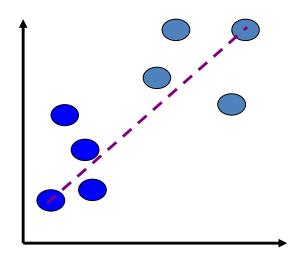


Average Linkage

- Eisen's cluster program defines average linkage as follows:
 - Each cluster c_i is associated with a mean vector μ_i which is the mean of all the data items in the cluster
 - The distance between two clusters c_i and c_j is then just $d(\mu_i$, μ_j)
- This is somewhat non-standard this method is usually referred to as centroid linkage and average linkage is defined as the average of all pairwise distances between points in the two clusters

Complete Linkage

- The maximum of all pairwise distances between points in the two clusters
- Tends to produce very tight clusters



Given Data instances

•
$$X = \{ (1,1), (1.5,1.5), (5,5), (3,4), (4,4), (3,3.5) \}$$

Distance	Α	В	С	D	E	F
A	0	0.71	5.66	3.61	424	3 20
В	0.71	0				
С	5.66		0			
D	3.61			0		
E	4.再				0	
F	320					0

1) Single linkage

$$d(A_1B)$$

$$= \sqrt{(-1.5)^2 + (1-1.5)^2}$$

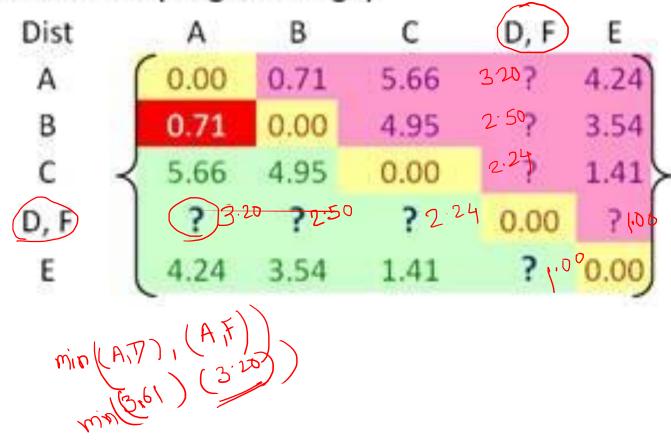
$$= \sqrt{(-0.5)^2 + (-0.5)^2}$$

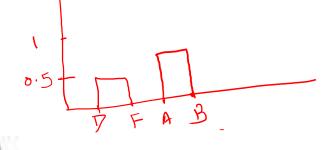
$$= \sqrt{0.2540.25} = \sqrt{0.5}$$

$$= 0.71$$

Dist	Α	В	С	D	Ε	F	199			
A (0.00	0.71	5.66	3.61	4.24	3.20	n			
В	0.71	0.00	4.95	2.92	3.54	2.50				
c J	5.66	4.95	0.00	2.24	1.41	2.50				
D	3.61	2.92	2.24	0.00	1.00	0.50	16			
E	4.24	3.54	1.41	1.00	0.00	1.12				
F	3.20	2.50	2.50	0.50	1.12	0.00	U			
(B.P.F)X (B.P.F)X (B.P.F)X										

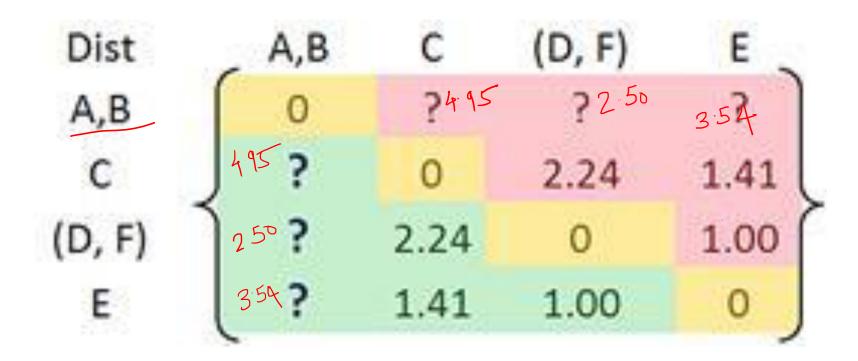
Min Distance (Single Linkage)





Min Distance (Single Linkage)

Dist	Α	В	С	D, F	E	
	0.00	0.71	75.66	√3.20	4.24	
(B) -7	0.71	0.00	74.95	✓2.50	3.54	
C <	5.66	4.95	0.00	2.24	1.41	>
D, F	3.20	2.50	2.24	0.00	1.00	
E	4.24	3.54	1.41	1.00	0.00	
	~					

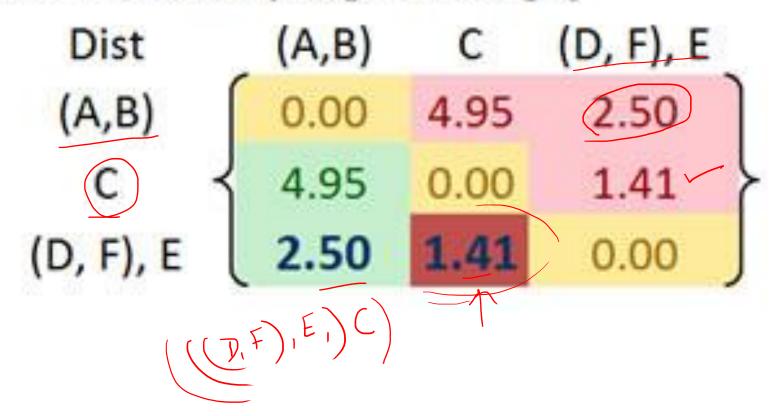


$$((\mathcal{P},\mathcal{F}),\mathcal{E})$$

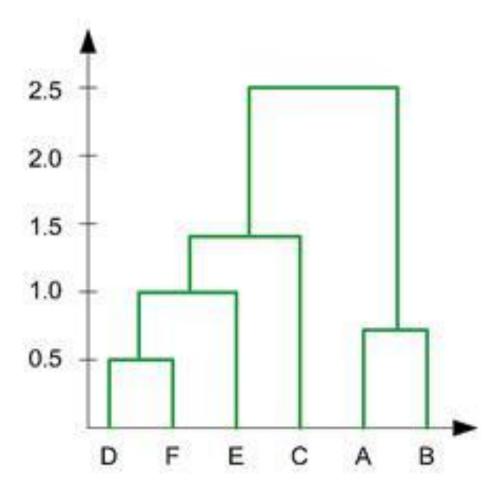
Min Distance (Single Linkage)

Dist	A,B	С	(D, F)	E	
A,B	0	4.95	2.50	3.54	
С	4.95	0	2.24	1.41	
(D, F)	2.50	2.24	0	1.00	_
E	3.54	1.41	1.00	0	
)					

Min Distance (Single Linkage)



Min Distance (Single Linkage) Dist (A,B) (D, F), E),C (A,B) 0.00 2.50 ((D, F), E),C 2.50 0.00



Rule Based Models:

Rule learning for subgroup discovery, Association rule mining.

Rule Based models

- Logical Models
- Rule has two parts
 - − Body ←
 - head <-----</pre>

Transactions

- Most rule learning algorithms work on the strategy called separate-and-conquer
- They search for a rule that explains some part of the data, separate these examples and recursively conquer the remaining examples.

Rule Based Models

- Rule
 - A notation that represents which item is brought with what items.
- Itemset A => itemsetB
 - Items on the right were frequently bought along with items on the left
- e.g {milk, bread} => {butter}

Definitions -

- Item --->
- Item set
- Transaction ->
- Support count →

- ->1) Milk Bread, Butter ->1) Milk eggs, salt ×3) Bread, eggs, salt ->4) Milk eggs, salt Milk - 3 3/4×100 75% Bread - 2 50% Butter - 1 25% eggs - 3 75% salt - 2 50%
- Sup(I) = no of transactions t that support
 (Contains) I
 - I is an Item set
- Frequent Item set is one with at least the minimum support count(minsup)

Association Rule R

$$-X => Y$$

- X and Y are Disjoint
- Y is non empty set

Rule Support and Confidence

- Support
 - Proportion of transactions in the data set which contain Itemset

- Confidence of a rule
- Conf(X =>Y) = supp($X \cup Y$)/supp(X)

Association Rule mining task

- Given a set of Transactions T, the goal of association rule mining is to find all rules having
 - Support >= minsup
 - Confidence >= minconf

- Apporaches
 - Brute force

Apriori Algorithm

- K=1
- Generate frequent itemsets of length 1
- Repeat until no new frequent itemsets are identified
 - Generate length(k+1) candidate itemsets from length k frequent itemsets
 - Prune candidate itemsets containing subsets of length k that are infrequent
 - Count the support of each candidate
 - Eliminate candidates that are infrequent

 For the following given Transaction Data-set, Generate Rules using Apriori Algorithm. Consider the values as Support=50% and Confidence=75%

Transaction ID	Items Purchased
1	Bread, Cheese, Egg, Juice
2	Bread, Cheese, Juice
3	Bread, Milk, Yogurt
4	Bread, Juice, Milk
5	Cheese, Juice, Milk

Item	Support frequency	Support (%)
Bread 1	<u></u>	4/5 (80%)
Checse	·3 I	3/5 (60%)
- Egg → -		1/25 20%
Juice	4	4/5 80%
Milk	3	60 1 / ₆
- Yogurt ->	1	20 %

	T	T
Brene	4	80 %
Cheese	3	60 %
Juice	4	80% t
mik	3	6 o°/ ₀
Bread, cheese	2	40 <
Brew, Juice	3	(60)
Bread, Mik	2_	40
checse, with	3	60
Juice milk	2	40 <

2)

$$conf(x \rightarrow Y) = \frac{sup(xuy)}{sup(x)}$$

Bread Juice ? Bread Unice ? Juice ?	3	6°% 6°%
	3/1, 3/1,	7.5.0/
Bread > Juice Juice > Bread	3/4 3/5/4/5 3/4 2/4 3/0	75% 75% 100
Juic -> cheese cheese -> Juic	17	75 % .

24 12 L3 Bread, Juice <-Brew Juice, ches Bread Juice, Checse Bread, cheese Brew cheese equ Juice Milk Juice, Milk, cheese Juice Cheese Bread Juice chuse Bread, eq a Brew cheese egg

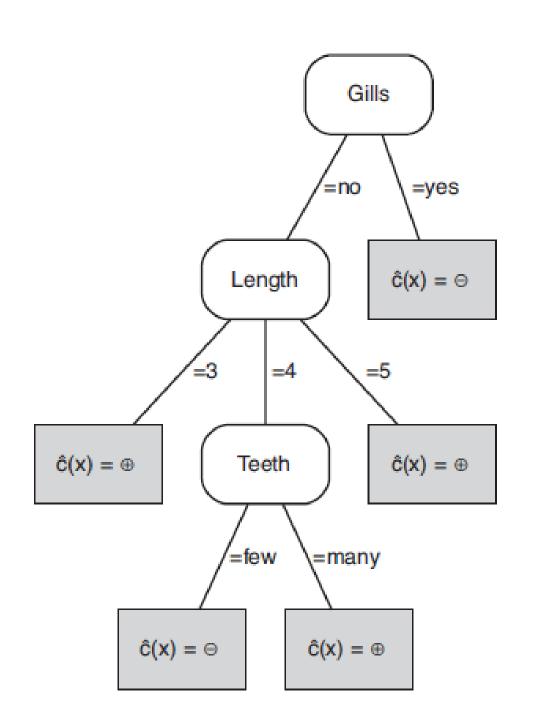
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DVD,Notebook,Inkpen,Inkbottle	
Ink bottle	

Tree Based Models

- Decision Trees
- Ranking and Probability estimation Trees
- Regression trees
- Clustering Trees.

Decision Tree

- The most popular models in machine learning.
- Trees are expressive and easy to understand
- recursive 'divide-and-conquer' nature.
- This tree can be turned into a logical expression
- Tree models are not limited to classification but can be employed to solve almost any machine learning task, including ranking and probability estimation, regression and clustering.



- A feature tree is a tree such that each internal node(the nodes that are not leaves) is labeled with a feature, and each edge emanating from an internal node is labeled with a literal.
- The set of literals at a node is called a split.
- Each leaf of the tree represents a logical expression, which is the conjunction of literals encountered on the path from the root of the tree to the leaf.
- The extension of that conjunction (the set of instances covered by it) is called the instance space segment associated with the leaf.

Important Definitions

- Pure
- Impurity
- Entropy: measure of Purity
 - Indicates how mixed the class values are
 - Given by formula

$$Entropy(S) = \sum_{i=1}^{c} -p_i \log_2(p_i)$$

Weighted Average impurity is calculated by

$$Imp({D_1,...,D_l}) = \sum_{j=1}^l \frac{|D_j|}{|D|} Imp(D_j)$$

Homogeneous(D) returns true if the instances in D are homogeneous enough to be labelled with a single label, and false otherwise;

Label(D) returns the most appropriate label for a set of instances D;

BestSplit(D, F) returns the best set of literals to be put at the root of the tree.

Algorithm 5.1: GrowTree(D, F) – grow a feature tree from training data.

7 **return** a tree whose root is labelled with S and whose children are T_i

```
: data D; set of features F.
  Output: feature tree T with labelled leaves.
1 if Homogeneous(D) then return Label(D); // Homogeneous, Label: see text
2 S \leftarrow \text{BestSplit}(D, F);
                                                   // e.g., BestSplit-Class (Algorithm 5.2)
3 split D into subsets D_i according to the literals in S;
4 for each i do
     if D_i \neq \emptyset then T_i \leftarrow \text{GrowTree}(D_i, F) else T_i is a leaf labelled with Label(D);
6 end
```

Algorithm 5.2: BestSplit-Class(D, F) – find the best split for a decision tree.

```
: data D; set of features F.
    Input
    Output: feature f to split on.
 1 I_{\min} \leftarrow 1;
 2 for each f \in F do
         split D into subsets D_1, ..., D_l according to the values v_i of f;
 3
       if Imp({D_1,...,D_l}) < I_{min} then
I_{\min} \leftarrow Imp(\{D_1, ..., D_l\});
f_{\text{best}} \leftarrow f;
         end
 8 end
 9 return f<sub>best</sub>
```

p1: Length = $3 \land Gills = no \land Beak = yes \land Teeth = many$ p2: Length = $4 \land Gills = no \land Beak = yes \land Teeth = many$ p3: Length = $3 \land Gills = no \land Beak = yes \land Teeth = few$ p4: Length = $5 \land Gills = no \land Beak = yes \land Teeth = many$ p5: Length = $5 \land Gills = no \land Beak = yes \land Teeth = few$

n1: Length = $5 \land Gills = yes \land Beak = yes \land Teeth = many$ n2: Length = $4 \land Gills = yes \land Beak = yes \land Teeth = many$ n3: Length = $5 \land Gills = yes \land Beak = no \land Teeth = many$ n4: Length = $4 \land Gills = yes \land Beak = no \land Teeth = many$ n5: Length = $4 \land Gills = no \land Beak = yes \land Teeth = few$

Length =
$$[3,4,5]$$
 $[2+,0-][1+,3-][2+,2-]$

Gills = [yes, no]
$$[0+,4-][5+,1-]$$

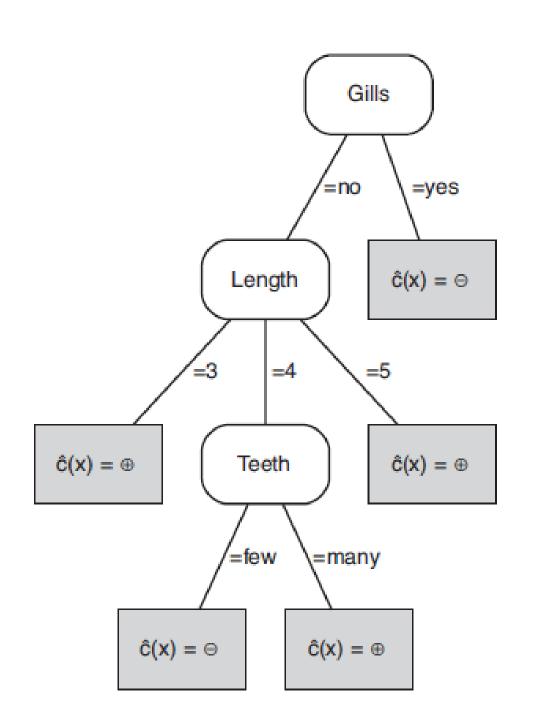
Beak = [yes, no]
$$[5+,3-][0+,2-]$$

Teeth =
$$[many, few]$$
 $[3+,4-][2+,1-]$

Length 2/10.0 +4/10.0.81+4/10.1 = 0.72

Gills
$$4/10 \cdot 0 + 6/10 \cdot \left(-(5/6) \log_2(5/6) - (1/6) \log_2(1/6)\right) = 0.39;$$

Beak $8/10 \cdot \left(-(5/8) \log_2(5/8) - (3/8) \log_2(3/8)\right) + 2/10 \cdot 0 = 0.76;$
Teeth $7/10 \cdot \left(-(3/7) \log_2(3/7) - (4/7) \log_2(4/7)\right) + 3/10 \cdot \left(-(2/3) \log_2(2/3) - (1/3) \log_2(1/3)\right) = 0.97.$



• Gini Index
$$(1-p)p$$

• Minority class
$$1/2 - \left| \frac{1}{p-1/2} \right|$$

Square root of Gini Index

Rank and Probability Estimation Tree

- Decision tress whose leaves represents ranks or probabilities is called as Ranking or probability estimation Tree.
- Aim in these trees is not classifying training instances but to find instances which are most likely to belong particular class.
- Input to this model is training instances and out put is probability estimation tree

- To convert Decision tree into ranking tree
 - Order Leaf nodes in non increasing empirical probabilities

- To convert Decision tree into Probability Estimation Tree
 - Find probability for each tree node with Laplace estimator.

Regression Trees

Here we replace impurity measure by Var

$$Var(Y) = \frac{1}{|Y|} \sum_{y \in Y} (y - \overline{y})^2$$

where $\overline{y} = \frac{1}{|Y|} \sum_{y \in Y} y$ is the mean of the target values in Y;

Clustering Trees

Dissimilarity is calculated to calculate the split

$$Dis(D) = \frac{1}{|D|^2} \sum_{x \in D} \sum_{x' \in D} Dis(x, x')$$