

Data Mining

Practical Machine Learning Tools and Techniques

Slides for Chapter 3 of *Data Mining* by I. H. Witten and E. Frank



Output: Knowledge representation

- Decision tables
- Decision trees
- Decision rules
- Association rules
- Rules with exceptions
- Rules involving relations
- Linear regression
- Trees for numeric prediction
- Instance-based representation
- Clusters



Output: representing structural patterns

- Many different ways of representing patterns
 - Decision trees, rules, instance-based, ...
- Also called "knowledge" representation
- Representation determines inference method
- Understanding the output is the key to understanding the underlying learning methods
- Different types of output for different learning problems (e.g. classification, regression, ...)



Decision tables

- Simplest way of representing output:
 - Use the same format as input!
- Decision table for the weather problem:

| Outlook | Humidity | Play |
|----------|----------|------|
| Sunny | High | No |
| Sunny | Normal | Yes |
| Overcast | High | Yes |
| Overcast | Normal | Yes |
| Rainy | High | No |
| Rainy | Normal | No |

Main problem: selecting the right attributes



Decision trees

- "Divide-and-conquer" approach produces tree
- Nodes involve testing a particular attribute
- Usually, attribute value is compared to constant
- Other possibilities:
 - Comparing values of two attributes
 - Using a function of one or more attributes
- Leaves assign classification, set of classifications, or probability distribution to instances
- Unknown instance is routed down the tree



Nominal and numeric attributes

- Nominal:
 number of children usually equal to number values
 ⇒ attribute won't get tested more than once
 - Other possibility: division into two subsets
- Numeric: test whether value is greater or less than constant ⇒ attribute may get tested several times
 - Other possibility: three-way split (or multi-way split)
 - Integer: less than, equal to, greater than
 - Real: below, within, above



Missing values

- Does absence of value have some significance?
- Yes ⇒"missing" is a separate value
- No ⇒"missing" must be treated in a special way
 - Solution A: assign instance to most popular branch
 - Solution B: split instance into pieces
 - Pieces receive weight according to fraction of training instances that go down each branch
 - Classifications from leave nodes are combined using the weights that have percolated to them



Classification rules

- Popular alternative to decision trees
- *Antecedent* (pre-condition): a series of tests (just like the tests at the nodes of a decision tree)
- Tests are usually logically ANDed together (but may also be general logical expressions)
- *Consequent* (conclusion): classes, set of classes, or probability distribution assigned by rule
- Individual rules are often logically ORed together
 - Conflicts arise if different conclusions apply



From trees to rules

- Easy: converting a tree into a set of rules
 - One rule for each leaf:
 - Antecedent contains a condition for every node on the path from the root to the leaf
 - Consequent is class assigned by the leaf
- Produces rules that are unambiguous
 - Doesn't matter in which order they are executed
- But: resulting rules are unnecessarily complex
 - Pruning to remove redundant tests/rules



From rules to trees

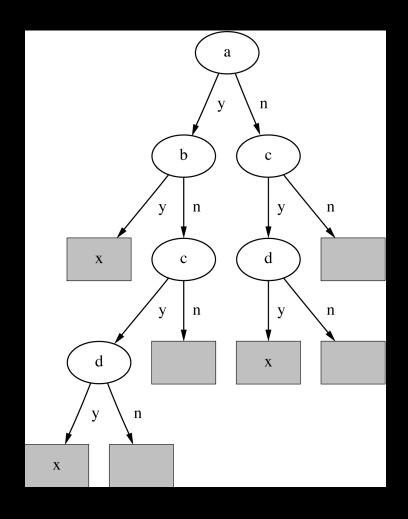
- More difficult: transforming a rule set into a tree
 - Tree cannot easily express disjunction between rules
- Example: rules which test different attributes

```
If a and b then x
If c and d then x
```

- Symmetry needs to be broken
- Corresponding tree contains identical subtrees (⇒"replicated subtree problem")

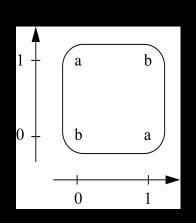


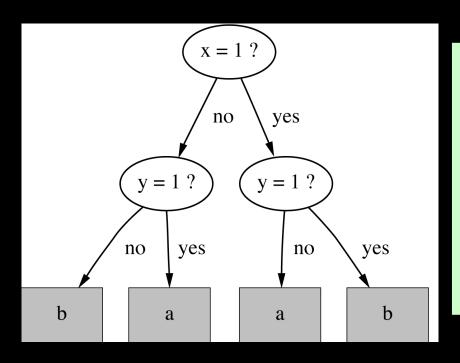
A tree for a simple disjunction





The exclusive-or problem





```
If x = 1 and y = 0
    then class = a

If x = 0 and y = 1
    then class = a

If x = 0 and y = 0
    then class = b

If x = 1 and y = 1
    then class = b
```

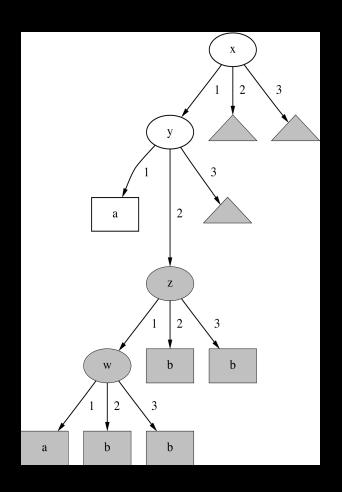


A tree with a replicated subtree

```
If x = 1 and y = 1
    then class = a

If z = 1 and w = 1
    then class = a

Otherwise class = b
```





"Nuggets" of knowledge

- Are rules independent pieces of knowledge? (It seems easy to add a rule to an existing rule base.)
- Problem: ignores how rules are executed
- Two ways of executing a rule set:
 - Ordered set of rules ("decision list")
 - Order is important for interpretation
 - Unordered set of rules
 - Rules may overlap and lead to different conclusions for the same instance



Interpreting rules

- What if two or more rules conflict?
 - Give no conclusion at all?
 - Go with rule that is most popular on training data?
 - *****
- What if no rule applies to a test instance?
 - Give no conclusion at all?
 - Go with class that is most frequent in training data?
 - ***** ...



Special case: boolean class

- Assumption: if instance does not belong to class "yes", it belongs to class "no"
- Trick: only learn rules for class "yes" and use default rule for "no"

```
If x = 1 and y = 1 then class = a

If z = 1 and w = 1 then class = a

Otherwise class = b
```

- Order of rules is not important. No conflicts!
- Rule can be written in disjunctive normal form



Association rules

- Association rules...
 - ... can predict any attribute and combinations of attributes
 - ... are not intended to be used together as a set
- Problem: immense number of possible associations
 - Output needs to be restricted to show only the most predictive associations ⇒only those with high *support* and high *confidence*



Support and confidence of a rule

- Support: number of instances predicted correctly
- Confidence: number of correct predictions, as proportion of all instances that rule applies to
- Example: 4 cool days with normal humidity

```
If temperature = cool then humidity = normal
```

- \Rightarrow Support = 4, confidence = 100%
- Normally: minimum support and confidence prespecified (e.g. 58 rules with support ≥ 2 and confidence ≥ 95% for weather data)



Interpreting association rules

Interpretation is not obvious:

```
If windy = false and play = no then outlook = sunny and humidity = high
```

is *not* the same as

```
If windy = false and play = no then outlook = sunny
If windy = false and play = no then humidity = high
```

It means that the following also holds:

```
If humidity = high and windy = false and play = no
    then outlook = sunny
```



Rules with exceptions

- Idea: allow rules to have exceptions
- Example: rule for iris data

```
If petal-length ≥ 2.45 and petal-length < 4.45 then Iris-versicolor
```

New instance:

| Sepal | Sepal | Petal | Petal | Type |
|--------|-------|--------|-------|-------------|
| length | width | length | width | |
| 5.1 | 3.5 | 2.6 | 0.2 | Iris-setosa |

Modified rule:

```
If petal-length ≥ 2.45 and petal-length < 4.45 then Iris-versicolor EXCEPT if petal-width < 1.0 then Iris-setosa
```



A more complex example

Exceptions to exceptions to exceptions ...

```
default: Iris-setosa
except if petal-length ≥ 2.45 and petal-length < 5.355
          and petal-width < 1.75
       then Iris-versicolor
            except if petal-length ≥ 4.95 and petal-width < 1.55
                   then Iris-virginica
                   else if sepal-length < 4.95 and sepal-width ≥ 2.45
                        then Iris-virginica
       else if petal-length \geq 3.35
            then Iris-virginica
                 except if petal-length < 4.85 and sepal-length < 5.95
                        then Iris-versicolor
```



Advantages of using exceptions

- Rules can be updated incrementally
 - Easy to incorporate new data
 - Easy to incorporate domain knowledge
- People often think in terms of exceptions
- Each conclusion can be considered just in the context of rules and exceptions that lead to it
 - Locality property is important for understanding large rule sets
 - "Normal" rule sets don't offer this advantage



More on exceptions

- Default...except if...then...
 is logically equivalent to
 if...then...else
 (where the else specifies what the default did)
- But: exceptions offer a psychological advantage
 - Assumption: defaults and tests early on apply more widely than exceptions further down
 - Exceptions reflect special cases



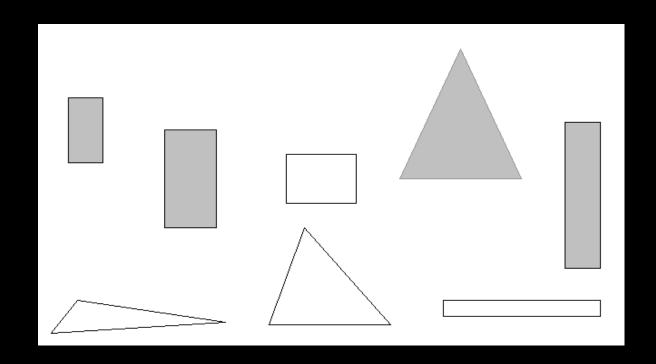
Rules involving relations

- So far: all rules involved comparing an attributevalue to a constant (e.g. temperature < 45)
- These rules are called "propositional" because they have the same expressive power as propositional logic
- What if problem involves relationships between examples (e.g. family tree problem from above)?
 - Can't be expressed with propositional rules
 - More expressive representation required



The shapes problem

- Target concept: standing up
- Shaded: standing Unshaded: lying





A propositional solution

| Width | Height | Sides | Class |
|-------|--------|-------|----------|
| 2 | 4 | 4 | Standing |
| 3 | 6 | 4 | Standing |
| 4 | 3 | 4 | Lying |
| 7 | 8 | 3 | Standing |
| 7 | 6 | 3 | Lying |
| 2 | 9 | 4 | Standing |
| 9 | 1 | 4 | Lying |
| 10 | 2 | 3 | Lying |

```
If width ≥ 3.5 and height < 7.0
    then lying
If height ≥ 3.5 then standing</pre>
```



A relational solution

Comparing attributes with each other

```
If width > height then lying
If height > width then standing
```

- Generalizes better to new data
- Standard relations: =, <, >
- But: learning relational rules is costly
- Simple solution: add extra attributes
 (e.g. a binary attribute is width < height?)



Rules with variables

Using variables and multiple relations:

```
If height_and_width_of(x,h,w) and h > w
  then standing(x)
```

The top of a tower of blocks is standing:

```
If height_and_width_of(x,h,w) and h > w
    and is_top_of(y,x)
    then standing(x)
```

The whole tower is standing:

```
If is_top_of(x,z) and
   height_and_width_of(z,h,w) and h > w
   and is_rest_of(x,y)and standing(y)
   then standing(x)
If empty(x) then standing(x)
```

Recursive definition!



Inductive logic programming

- Recursive definition can be seen as logic program
- Techniques for learning logic programs stem from the area of "inductive logic programming" (ILP)
- But: recursive definitions are hard to learn
 - Also: few practical problems require recursion
 - Thus: many ILP techniques are restricted to nonrecursive definitions to make learning easier



Trees for numeric prediction

- Regression: the process of computing an expression that predicts a numeric quantity
- Regression tree: "decision tree" where each leaf predicts a numeric quantity
 - Predicted value is average value of training instances that reach the leaf
- *Model tree*: "regression tree" with linear regression models at the leaf nodes
 - Linear patches approximate continuous function

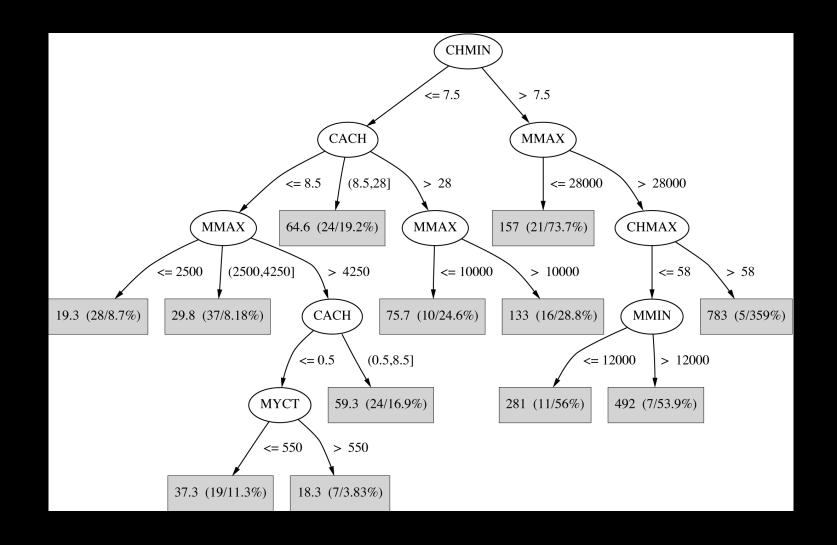


Linear regression for the CPU data

```
PRP =
- 56.1
+ 0.049 MYCT
+ 0.015 MMIN
+ 0.006 MMAX
+ 0.630 CACH
- 0.270 CHMIN
+ 1.46 CHMAX
```

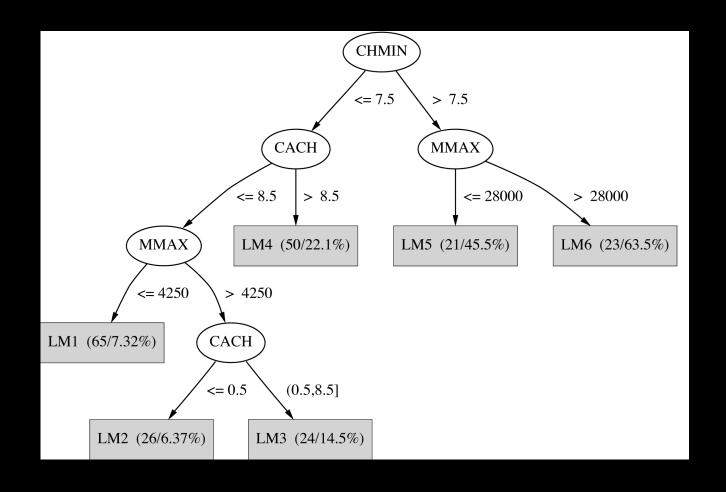


Regression tree for the CPU data





Model tree for the CPU data





Instance-based representation

- Simplest form of learning: rote learning
 - Training instances are searched for instance that most closely resembles new instance
 - The instances themselves represent the knowledge
 - Also called instance-based learning
- Similarity function defines what's "learned"
- Instance-based learning is *lazy* learning
- Methods: nearest-neighbor, k-nearest-neighbor, ...

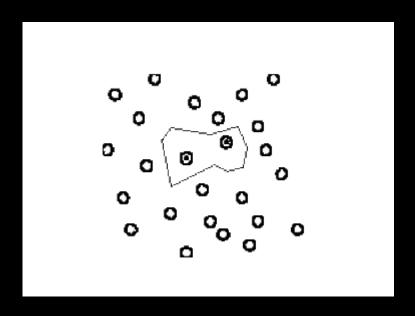


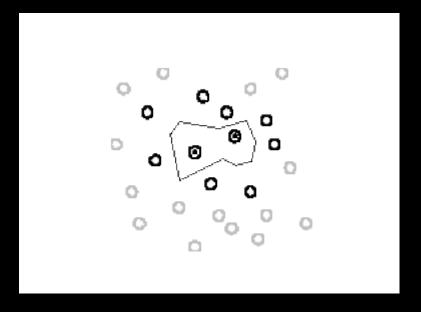
The distance function

- Simplest case: one numeric attribute
 - Distance is the difference between the two attribute values involved (or a function thereof)
- Several numeric attributes: normally, Euclidean distance is used and attributes are normalized
- Nominal attributes: distance is set to 1 if values are different, 0 if they are equal
- Are all attributes equally important?
 - Weighting the attributes might be necessary



Learning prototypes

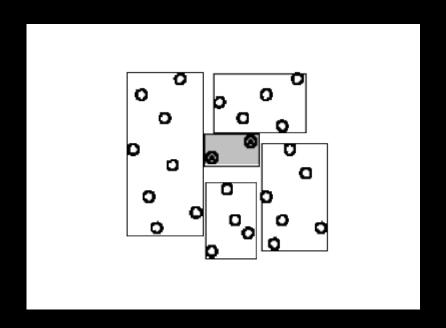


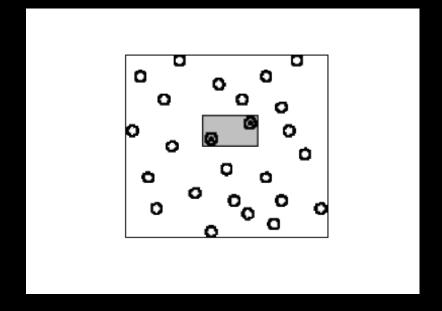


- Only those instances involved in a decision need to be stored
- Noisy instances should be filtered out
- Idea: only use *prototypical* examples



Rectangular generalizations



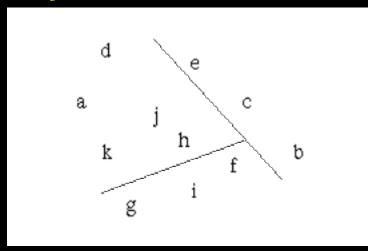


- Nearest-neighbor rule is used outside rectangles
- Rectangles are rules! (But they can be more conservative than "normal" rules.)
- Nested rectangles are rules with exceptions

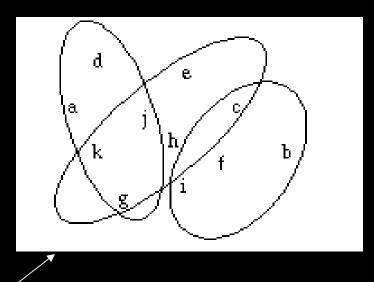


Representing clusters I

Simple 2-D representation



Venn diagram



Overlapping clusters

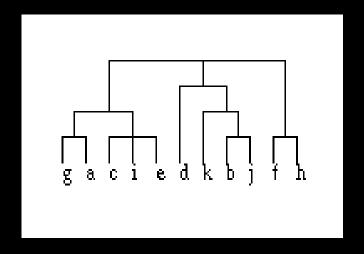


Representing clusters II

Probabilistic assignment

| | 1 | 2 | 2 | |
|---|-----|-----|-----|--|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | |
| | 0.4 | 0.1 | 0.5 | |
| a | 0.4 | 0.1 | 0.5 | |
| b | 0.1 | 0.8 | 0.1 | |
| c | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.4 | |
| d | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.8 | |
| e | 0.4 | 0.2 | 0.4 | |
| f | 0.1 | 0.4 | 0.5 | |
| g | 0.7 | 0.2 | 0.1 | |
| h | 0.5 | 0.4 | 0.1 | |
| | | | | |

Dendrogram



NB: dendron is the Greek word for tree