Finding Explanations: Rules!

- Propositional Rules:
 - Rules from Decision Trees
 - Rule Sets and Lists
 - Geometrical Rules
 - CN2
- First Order Rules:
 - Inductive Logic Programming
 - FOIL

Propositional¹ Rules are simple:

 $^{^{1}}$ proposition = truthbearer or statement.

Either true or false (under an interpretation).

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only atomic facts

© Michael R. Berthold, Christian Borgelt, Frank Höppner, Frank Klawonn and Iris Adä

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Example:

IF $x_1 \le 10$ AND $x_3 = red$ THEN class A

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Example:

IF
$$\underbrace{x_1 \leq 10 \text{ AND } x_3 = red}_{\text{antecedent}}$$
 THEN class A consequent

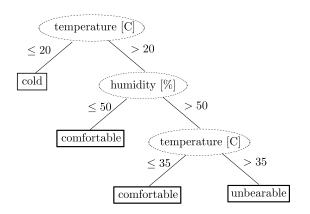
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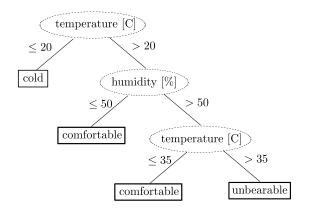
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Atomic facts of propositional rules:

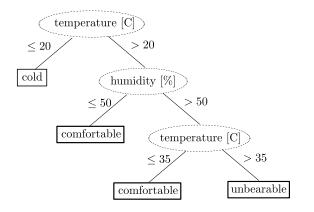
- constraints on numerical attributes, e.g. <, \le , =, ...
- ullet constraints on nominal attributes, e.g. =, \in set
- constraints on ordinal attributes, e.g. <, \in set, \in range

Finding Propositional Rules in Data

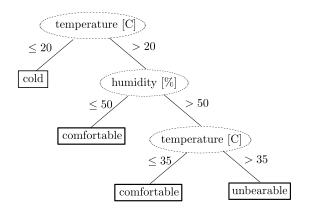




 $R_a: \mathsf{IF} \ \mathsf{temperature} \le 20 \ \mathsf{THEN} \ \mathsf{class} \ \mathsf{``cold''}$

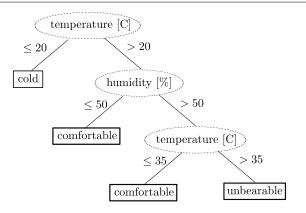


 R_a : IF temperature ≤ 20 THEN class "cold" R_b : IF temperature > 20 AND humidity ≤ 50 THEN class "comf."



 $R_a: \mathsf{IF} \ \mathsf{temperature} \le 20 \ \mathsf{THEN} \ \mathsf{class} \ \mathsf{``cold''}$

 $R_c: \mathsf{IF} \ \ \mathsf{temperature} \in (20, 35] \ \ \mathsf{AND} \ \ \mathsf{humidity} > 50 \ \ \mathsf{THEN} \ \mathsf{class} \ \ \text{``comf.''}$



 $R_a:$ IF temperature ≤ 20 THEN class "cold" $R_b:$ IF temperature > 20 AND humidity ≤ 50 THEN class "comf." $R_c:$ IF temperature $\in (20,35]$ AND humidity > 50 THEN class "comf." $R_d:$ IF temperature > 35 AND humidity > 50 THEN class "unbearable"

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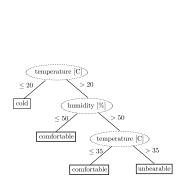
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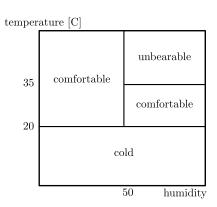
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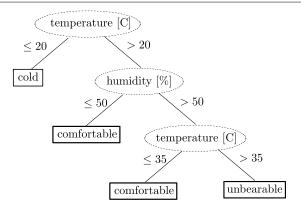
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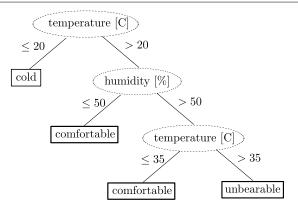
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and (due to the recursive nature of the trees):

 redundancy (constraints on splits appear in several rules.)

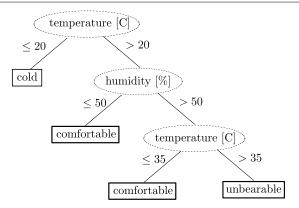


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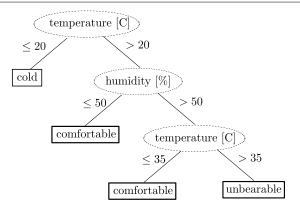
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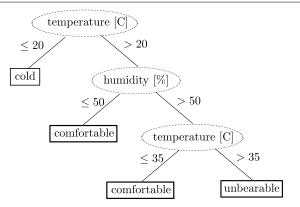


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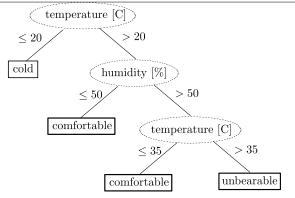
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Extracting Ordered Rules from Trees



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↑ order of rules matters!

Extracting Ordered Rules from Trees

- previous example was heavily imbalanced tree.
- more balanced tree results in nested ordering of rules.
- in normal trees ordered rule extraction is considerably more complex.

Categorization of more general Propositional Rule Learners:

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the rule is generalized:

IF $x_1 \in [12, 12.3]$ AND $x_2 = 3.5$ AND $x_3 \in \{'\text{red}', '\text{blue}'\}$ THEN class k

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and iteratively specialize the rule.

So far we only generalized/specialized one rule.

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- Many rule learning algorithms wrap the learning of one rule into an outer loop based on set covering strategy (sequential covering):
 - attempts to build most important rules first
 - iteratively adds smaller / less important rules

Geometrical Rule Learners

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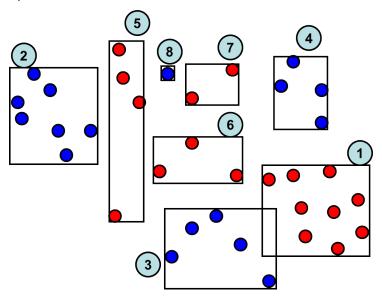
- limited to numerical attributes (comparable ranges help, too)
- Goal:
 - Find rectangular (axes parallel) area(s) one by one that are occupied only by patterns of one class.
 - each such area represents a rule:

IF
$$x_1 \in [a_1, b_1] \wedge \cdots \wedge x_n \in [a_n, b_n]$$
 THEN class k

- Creates one rule after the other until no more useful rules can be built.
 - To find one rule:
 - draw random starting point
 - form most specific rectangular hypothesis covering this point
 - While possible
 - find nearest neighbor of same class
 - generalize hypothesis (rectangle) to include this point (the latter may not be possible for all neighbors of the same class)

Geometrical Rule Learners

An example:



Geometrical Rule Learners: RecBF Learner

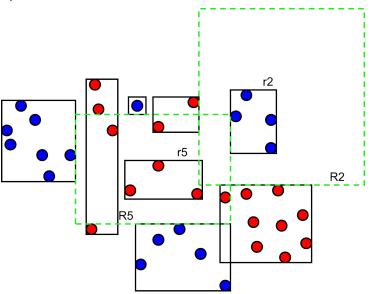
- Goal: Finding specific and general rules
 - Allows to estimate classification certainty
- RecBF algorithm: motivated by Neural Network Learning method
- Finds most specific within each (locally) most general rule
- Iterative algorithm
- (Much) faster than rule-by-rule approach.

BuildRuleSet

Algorithm $RecBF(T)$	
input:	training data T
output:	a general and specific rule set ${\cal R}$ matching ${\cal T}$
1	$R = \emptyset$
2	while rules R are not stable
3	$\forall (\vec{x}, k) \in T$
4	if $\exists R^k \in R : \operatorname{covers}(R^k, \vec{x})$ then
	// Covered:
5	$R^k.w++ \hspace{0.1in} // \hspace{0.1in}$ increase weight
6	$\operatorname{cover}(R^k, \vec{x})$
7	else
	// Commit:
8	$R = R \cup \text{newRule}(\vec{x})$
9	endif
10	$\forall R^{k'} \in R : k \neq k' \land \operatorname{covers}(R^k, \vec{x}):$
11	$\operatorname{shrink}(R^{k'}, \vec{x})$

RecBF Learner

An example:



RecBF Learner: Operations

• Rule stability:

 Algorithm converges guaranteed if training data is conflict free (Maximum: n iterations for n training patterns)

Covered:

- simple boundary test
- Make sure specific rule R covers new \vec{x} : boundary expansion

Commit:

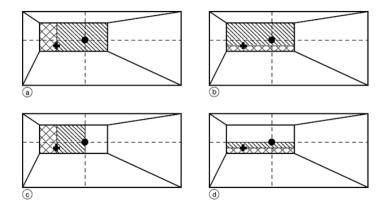
• Simple insert of most general rule R with corresponding most specific rule, centered on new training pattern

Shrink:

- Reducing rectangle to exclude conflicting pattern: n choices.
- Heuristics:
 - maximize remaining volume
 - ullet Avoid shrinkage of specific rule of R

RecBF Learner: Shrink

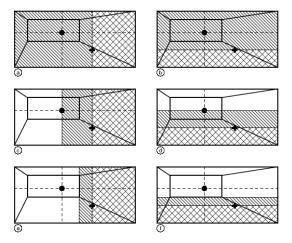
Options for Specialization of specialized rules:



(a,b): entire region considered, (c,d): regions to anchor considered.

RecBF Learner: Shrink

Options for Specialization of general rules:

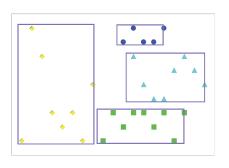


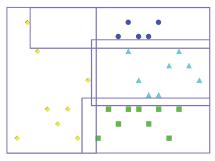
(a,b): entire region considered, (c,d): regions to anchor considered, (e,f): regions to "core" considered.

RecBF Learner: Operations

- Problems:
 - Depends on order of training examples
 - Shrink-procedure based on heuristics
- Properties
 - Explains all training pattern correctly
 - Most general rules depend on few attributes only
 - Most specific rules depend on all attributes

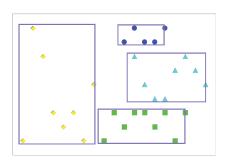
Examples² of Specialized and Generalized Rules:

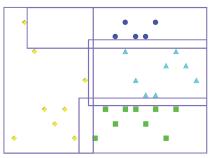




²images from Peter Flach

Examples² of Specialized and Generalized Rules:





Are there more general (or special) rule sets?

²images from Peter Flach

Back to Propositional Rules: CN2

The CN2 Rule Learning Algorithm

Peter Clark and Tim Niblett: **The CN2 Induction Algorithm**, *Machine Learning Journal*, 3(4):261-283, 1989.

- prominent, early example of rule learning algorithm
- set covering approach
- greedy algorithm rule specialization
- simple heuristic for "most important" rule selection.

Algorithm BuildRuleSet (D, p_{\min})		
input:	training data D	
parameter:	performance threshold p_{\min}	
output:	a rule set R matching D with performance $\geq p_{\min}$	
1	$R = \emptyset$	
2	$D_{\text{rest}} = D$	
3	while (Performance $(R, D_{\text{rest}}) < p_{\min}$)	
4	$r = \text{FindOneGoodRule}(D_{\text{rest}})$	
5	$R = R \cup \{r\}$	
6	$D_{\text{rest}} = D_{\text{rest}} - \text{covered}(r, D_{\text{rest}})$	
7	endwhile	
8	return R	

Alternative implementations by varying:

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Remark: Decision Tree Based Good Rule Finding

- Following (more than) one branch resembles a general-to-specific beam search:
 - Hypothesis (rule) is increasingly specified
 - At each branching point all possible specializations are considered
 - Choice of best branch can be made based on information gain, coverage, or mix of both
 - Class (rule post condition) depends on majority class at each point
- Greedy algorithm can produce sub-optimal solution
 - Beam search produces k candidate solutions (at each level only the k best branches are kept)
- Sometimes only learning rules of one class is sufficient (e.g. to model a minority class), default class = majority class.

FindOneGoodRule

Algorithm FindOneGoodRule($D_{ m rest}$)		
input:	(subset of) training data $D_{ m rest}$	
output:	one good rule r explaining some instances of the training data	
1	$h_{ m best}={ m true}$ $//$ most general hypothesis	
2	$H_{\text{candidates}} = \{h_{\text{best}}\}$	
3	while $H_{\mathrm{candidates}} eq \emptyset$	
4	$H_{\text{candidates}} = \text{specialize} (H_{\text{candidates}})$	
5	$h_{\text{best}} = \arg\max_{h \in H_{\text{candidates}} \cup \{h_{\text{best}}\}} \{\text{Performance}(h, D_{\text{rest}})\}$	
6	$\operatorname{update}(H_{\operatorname{candidates}})$ // clean up	
7	endwhile	
8	return 'IF h_{best} THEN $\arg \max_{k} \{ \text{covered}_{k}(h_{\text{best}}, D_{\text{rest}}) \}'$	

Heuristics for FindOneGoodRule

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Estimating the probability using relative frequencies:

$$p(k|\text{Conditions}) = \frac{\text{\#covered correct}}{\text{\#covered total}}$$

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• m-estimate:

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. . .

Probability Estimates (cont.)

. . .

• m-estimate:

$$p(k|R) = \frac{\text{\#covered correct} + m \cdot p(k)}{\text{\#covered total} + m}$$

- special case: p(k) = 1/#classes, m = #classes
- takes into account prior class probabilities
- independent of number of classes
- m is domain dependent (more noise, larger m)

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Weighted measures in order to favor more general rules:

$$W_G(R',R) = \frac{\text{\#correct covered by } R'}{\text{\#correct covered by } R} \cdot _G(R',R)$$

Issues with most propositional rule learners:

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- Propositional Rules not very expressive...

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They would need to "cover" training examples for all possible (x,y) combinations.

Limitations of Propositional Rules

Propositional rule learners can not express rules such as:

IF x is Father of y AND y is female THEN y is Daughter of x

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For this, other types of rules are more approriate.

First Order Rules differ from propositional logic by their use of variables. FOL is also based on a number of base constructs:

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- <u>functions</u>, e.g. age(x), which produce constants.

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- \forall : the universal quantifier, e.g. $\forall x,y: \mathrm{Daughter}(x,y) \to \mathrm{female}(x)$
- \exists : existential quantifier, e.g. $\forall x: \exists y: \text{female}(\mathbf{x}) \to \text{Daughter}(x,y)$

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horn clauses: clauses with at most one positive literal.

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H, the <u>head</u> of the rule is the consequent, all L_i together form the body or antecedent.

Horn clauses are also used to express Prolog programs \Rightarrow Learning First Order Rules is often called "Inductive Logic Programming" (ILP).

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- existentially qualified variables (z in this case):
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- existentially qualified variables (z in this case):
 - IF y is Parent of z AND z is Parent of x THEN x is Grandchild of y
- Recursive rules:
 - IF x is Parent of z AND z is Anchestor of yTHEN x is Anchestor of yIF x is Parent of y THEN x is Anchestor of y

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- FOIL (First Order Inductive Learning method) was one of the first algorithms published.
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- one (easy) extension: literals in body can be negated.

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 - negating of either of the above forms of literals.
- How does FOIL pick the "best" specialization?

FOIL: Guiding the Search

FoilGain used to evaluation contribution of new literal L to rule R:

FoilGain
$$(L, R) = t \left(-\log_2 \frac{p'}{p' + n'} - \log_2 \frac{p}{p + n} \right)$$

- R: rule
- ullet p: number of positive bindings of R
- ullet n: number of negative bindings of R
- L: new literal
- R': new rule (R with added L)
- p': number of positive bindings of R'
- n': number of negative bindings of R'

If L introduces a new variable, any original binding is considered to be covered if at least some of the (extended) binding of R is present in the bindings of R'.

- Target literal: GrandDaughter(x, y)(the grand daughter of x is y)
- Training "data" (assertions):
 - GrandDaughter(Victor, Sharon)
 - Father(Sharon, Bob)
 - Father(Tom, Bob)
 - Female(Sharon)
 - Father(Bob, Victor)
- Closed world assumption:
 - all other bindings of predicates above are implicitly false, e.g.
 - ¬Father(Bob, Tom)
 - ¬Female(Victor)
 - ¬GrandDaugher(Bob, Sharon), . . .
- Available predicates:
 - Father(x, y)
 - \bullet Female(x)

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- Final result:
 - GrandDaughter(x,y) := Father(y,z), Father(z,x), Female(y)

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 - Stopping criteria considers description-length principle to avoid adding lengthy rules to explain few examples.

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- Applicable for special types of data (e.g. structured or mainly nominal values)