COMP3308/3608, Lecture 5 ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE

Introduction to Machine Learning. K-Nearest Neighbor. Rule-Based Algorithms: 1R

Reference: Russell and Norvig, p.693-697, 738-741 Witten, Frank and Hall ch. 1-2, p.85-89, 131-138

Reminders

- No homework this week (week 5)
- Quiz during the tutorial
 - Duration: 40 min, weight: 12%
 - Paper-based
 - Covers the material on search only (weeks 2 and 3 only)
 - It doesn't cover game playing (week 4)
 - Closed book: no books, notes or electronic devices
 - The questions are similar to the tutorial questions
 - Problem solving
 - Short answers
 - Bring your student ID card as we need to check it
 - You <u>must</u> do the quiz in your allocated tutorial class
- · See also quiz information on eLearning

Outline

- Introduction to Machine Learning (ML)
 - What is learning and ML?
 - Classification of ML methods
- K-nearest neighbor
- Learning rules 1R algorithm

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Learning and Machine Learning

- Machine Learning (ML) is the area of AI that is concerned with writing computer programs that can <u>learn</u> from
 - examples
 - domain knowledge
 - user feedback
- *ML* is the core of AI without an ability to learn, a system cannot be considered intelligent
- What does it mean to learn? What do you understand by learning? When are you sure that you have learned something?

Definitions of learning

- Definitions of *learning* from dictionary:
 - 1) To get knowledge of something by study, experience, or being taught
 - 2) To become aware by information or from observations
 - 3) To <u>commit to memory</u>
 - 4) To be informed of, ascertain; to receive instruction
- Learning is making useful changes in our minds (Minsky)
- But when talking about computers (i.e. *ML*) these definitions have shortcomings!

Learning Definitions – Shortcomings

- 1) and 2) impossible to test if learning has been achieved or not
 - How do you know if a machine has got knowledge of...?
 - Or if it has become aware...? Can computers be aware or conscious philosophical issue
- 3) and 4) committing to memory, receiving instructions
 - Sound too passive; trivial tasks for computers
 - You can receive instructions and memorize things without being able to benefit from them, e.g. not able to apply new knowledge to new situations

Learning – Operational Definition

- Learning denotes changes in the system that are adaptive in the sense that they enable the system to do the same task or tasks drawn from the same population more efficiently and more effectively the next time (Herbert Simon)
 - Computers learn when they change their behavior in a way that makes them perform better in the future
 - Ties learning to performance rather than knowledge

Types of ML

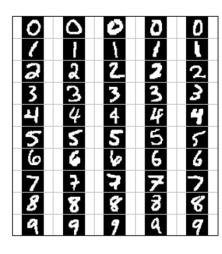
- Three main types
 - Supervised
 - Unsupervised
 - Reinforcement
- Forth type: associations learning developed within the database community in early 90s

Supervised ML Tasks - Examples

• Classification task: recognizing post codes (=recognizing digits)

Given: Handwritten digits and their corresponding label (class)

Task: Build a classifier that can label new handwritten digits



For the image:

- 5 people wrote the numbers from 0 to 9
- 1 example = 1 handwritten digit (50 in total)
- each example is labelled with the digit it represents (0,1,... or 9) => there are 10 classes

image ref: http://www-inst.eecs.berkeley.edu/~cs188/fa06/projects/classification/4/writeup/img2.gif

• Regression task: predicting the exchange rate of AUD

Given: data from previous years (economic indicators, political events) with the corresponding exchange rate

Task: Build a classifier to predict the exchange rate for future days

• The difference between classification and regression is in the type of the class variable – nominal vs numeric

Supervised Learning - Definition

- Given: a set of pre-classified (labelled) examples {x,y}, x input vector, y target output
- Task: learn a function (classifier, model) which encapsulates the information in these examples (i.e. maps x->y) and can be used predictively
 - i.e. to predict the value of one variable (y) from the known values of other variables (x)



Why is it called supervised?

- 2 types of supervised learning
 - Classification: the variable to be predicted is categorical (i.e. its values belong to a pre-specified, finite set of possibilities)
 - Regression: the variable to be predicted is numeric
- Examples of supervised algorithms: 1R, k-NN, DTs, NB, neural networks (perceptron, backpropagation), SVM

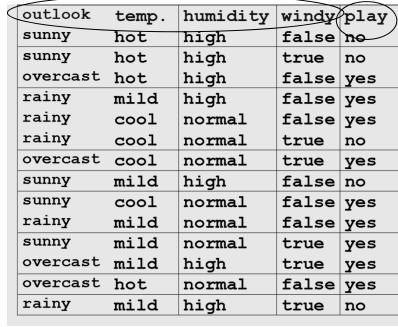
Classification - Ex.1

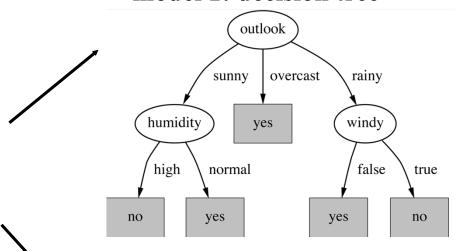
input data

input vector

target class

	4	1	• •	4
model	•	\mathbf{Q}	CICION	traa
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model 2: rules

if outlook=sunny then play=no
elseif outlook=overcast then play=yes
elseif outlook=rainy then play=yes

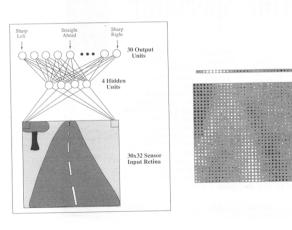
model 3: ...

We can learn different types of models

Classification Ex.2 - Driving Motor Vehicles

- ALVINN, Pomerleau et al., 1993
- Driving a van along a highway
- Uses a neural network classifier
- Data
 - Input vectors: derived from the 30x32 image (black and white values)
 - Outputs (classes): 32 classes, corresponding to the turning directions left, straight, right; different degrees
 - 1 labelled example is: input vector + class label (turning direction)
- The machine that changed the world http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=tXMaFhO6dIY
 Ealy NN: minute 39-41, ALVINN and NetTalk: minute 41-46





Classification - More Examples

- Banking 1: Is a mortgage application a good or bad credit risk?
- Banking 2: Is a credit card transaction fraudulent or not?
- Medicine: Is a particular disease present or not?
- Law: Was a given will written by the real diseased person or by somebody else?
- Security: Is a given behavior a possible terrorist threat?

Regression - Example

input

CPU performance data

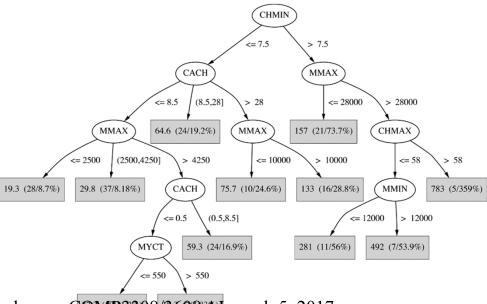
	cycle		memory Kb)	cache	cha	nnels	perfor- mance
	time (ns)	min	max	(Kb)	min	max	
	муст	MMIN	ммах	CACH	CHMIN	CHMAX	PRP
1	125	256	6000	256	16	128	198
2	29	8000	32000	32	8	32	269
3	29	8000	32000	32	8	32	220
4	29	8000	32000	32	8	32	172
5	29	8000	16000	32	8	16	132
207	125	2000	8000	0	2	14	52
208	480	512	8000	32	0	0	67
209	480	1000	4000	0	0	0	45

model

linear regression

0.006 MMAX + 0.630 CACH0.270 CHMIN + 1.46 CHMAX

regression tree



Task: Predict computer performance

Irena Koprinska, irena.koprinska@sydney.edu.au COMP3308/36083AI, week 5, 2017

More Regression Examples

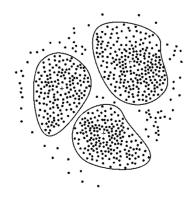
- Predict electricity demand in the next hour from previous demands
- Predict retirement savings from current savings and market indicators
- Predict the house prices in Sydney in 2020
- Predict the sales of a new product based on advertisement expenditure
- Predict wind velocity based on temperature, humidity, pressure

Reinforcement Learning

- Each example has a score (grade) instead of correct output
- Much less common that supervised learning
- Most suited to control systems applications

Unsupervised Learning (Clustering)

- Given: a collection of input vectors x
 - no target outputs y are given
- Task: group (cluster) the input examples into a finite number of clusters so that the examples
 - From each cluster are similar to each other
 - From different clusters are dissimilar to each other
- Examples of clustering algorithms: k-means, nearest neighbor, hierarchical clustering



Clustering – Example

Customer profiling

A department store wants to segment its customers into groups and create a special catalog for each group. The attributes for the grouping included customer's income, location and physical characteristics (age, height, weight, etc.).

- Clustering was used to find clusters of similar customers
- A catalogue was created for each cluster based on the cluster characteristics and mailed to each customer

Associations Learning

- Find relationships in data
 - market-basket analysis find combinations of items that occur typically together
 - sequential analysis find frequent sequences in data

Market-Basket Analysis – Example

- Uses the information about <u>what</u> customers buy to give us insight into <u>who</u> they are and <u>why</u> they make certain purchases
 - Ex.1. A grocery store owner is trying to decide if to put bread on sale. He generates association rules and finds what other products are typically purchased with bread. A particular type of cheese is sold 60% of the time the bread is sold and a jam is sold 70% of the time. Based on these findings, he decides:
 - 1) to place some cheese and jam at the end of the aisle where the bread is
 - 2) not to place either of these 3 items on sale at the same time.

Frequent Sequences – Example

- Goal: Given a sequence of events, find frequent sub-sequences
 - These patterns are similar to market-basket analysis but the relationship is based on time
- Ex. 1: The webmaster at a company X periodically analyses the web log data to determine how the users of X browse them. He finds that 70% of time the users of page A follow one of the following patterns:
 - $\cdot A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C$
 - A->D->B->C
 - \cdot A->E->B->C
 - => A-> C if a frequent pattern
 - => he then decides to add a link from page A to C
- Ex.2: Finding sub-sequences in DNA data for particular species

More ML Applications

- Fraud detection
 - Health care medical insurance fraud, inappropriate medical treatment
 - Credit card services, phone card and retail fraud
 - Data: historical transactions and other data
- Sport analyzing game statistics (shots blocked, assists and fouls) to gain competitive advantage
 - "When player X is on the floor, player Y's shot accuracy decreases from 75% to 30%"
- Astronomy
 - JPL and the Palomar Observatory discovered 22 quasars using ML
- Web applications
 - Mining web logs to discover customer preferences and behavior, analyze effectiveness of web marketing, improve web site organization

Why is ML Important?

adapted from http://www.site.uottawa.ca/~nat/Courses/csi5387.html

- Some tasks cannot be defined well, except by examples
 - e.g. recognizing people (man vs women), handwritten digits, etc.
- The amount of knowledge available about certain tasks is too big for explicit encoding into rules or difficult to extract from experts)
 - e.g. medical diagnosis easier to learn from cases (symptoms->diagnosis)
- Need for adaptation
 - Humans often produce machines that do not work as well as desired in the environments in which they are used
 - Environments change over time e.g. a spam email filter; the characteristics of spam email change over time
- Relationships and correlations can be hidden within large amounts of data. ML/Data Mining may be able to find these relationships.

Machine Learning vs Data Mining

- Data Mining (DM): search for hidden patterns in large datasets
 - these patterns should be meaningful, useful and actionable
- Most of the techniques used for DM have been developed in ML
 - DM deals with large and multidimensional data, ML not necessary
 - DM is applied ML
- Motivation for DM
 - Data explosion huge databases



- examples: supermarket transaction data, credit card usage data, mobile usage data, government statistics, molecular databases, medical records, Wikipedia and other large test collections, etc.
- We are drowning in data but starving for knowledge!

What jobs will disappear in the 21 century?

prison guards

teachers

stockbrokers

orthodontists

insurance and retail estate agents, autodealesrs

mailcarriers

CEOs

truckers

fathers

housekeepers

What will be the 10 hottest jobs of the 21 century?

pharmers

tissue engineers

Turing testers

(vaccine carrying tomato)

hot-line handyman (remote diagnostics)

gene programmers

narrowcasters <u>data miners</u> (personalised ads)

Time magazine, June 26, 2000

Irena Koprinska, irena.koprinska@sydney.edu.au COMP3308/3608 AI, week 5, 2017

If you were born in 2012....you would work in Data Mining

• SMH, 6 April 2012

http://www.smh.com.au/lifestyle/life/whats-the-future-baby-20120405-1wfez.html

- "My schooling will become more interesting as I go, as today's digital natives grow up to become teachers. They'll know how to use all the gadgets at their disposal to make learning easier, fun and compatible with my short attention span. I'll always be switched on. I'll crowdsource my big decisions, taking votes among my closest 30 or so net friends. I'll do a university degree of course just about everyone will. I'll probably work in a knowledge-based service industry which will depend on mining data from customer transactions in unimaginable volumes to determine which services to provide to whom, where and when".
- Side question: Technology vs "chalk & talk" teaching which one is better?

https://www.openlearning.com/educationist/ChalkAndTalkOrTechnologyDoIHave AChoice Part One

The 10 Toughest Jobs To Fill In 2016 – Data Scientist

Forbes magazine, 24 September 2015

https://www.forbes.com/sites/susanadams/2015/09/24/the-10-toughest-jobs-to-fill-in-2016/#d665d4a6fcca

• "With the explosion of big data and the need to track it, employers keep on hiring data scientists. But qualified candidates are in short supply. The field is so new, the Bureau of Labor Statistics doesn't even track it as a profession. Yet thousands of companies, from startups that analyze credit card data in order to target marketing and advertising campaigns, to giant corporations like Ford Motor F +0.26% and Price WaterhouseCoopers, are bringing on scores of people who can take gigantic data sets and wrestle them into usable information. As an April report from technology market research firm Forrester put it, "Businesses are drowning in data but starving for insights."

Classification

K-Nearest Neighbor Algorithm

Classification Setup Again

- Given: a set of pre-labelled examples
 - 14 examples
 - 4 attributes: outlook, temperature, humidity and windy)
 - the class is *play* (values: *yes*, *no*)
- Task: Build a model (classifier) that can be used to predict the class of <u>new</u> (unseen) examples

e.g. predict the class (yes or no) of outlook=sunny, temp=hot, humidity=low, windy=true

class

outlook	temp.	humidity	windy	play
sunny	hot	high	false	no
sunny	hot	high	true	no
overcast	hot	high	false	yes
rainy	mild	high	false	yes
rainy	cool	normal	false	yes
rainy	cool	normal	true	no
overcast	cool	normal	true	yes
sunny	mild	high	false	no
sunny	cool	normal	false	yes
rainy	mild	normal	false	yes
sunny	mild	normal	true	yes
overcast	mild	high	true	yes
overcast	hot	normal	false	yes
rainy	mild	high	true	no

- Examples used to build the model are called training data
- Success is measured empirically on another set called testing data
 - Testing data hasn't been used to build the classifier; it is also labelled
 - Performance measure: *accuracy* proportion of correctly classified test examples

Nominal and Numeric Attributes

- 2 types of attributes (features):
 - numeric (continuous) their values are numbers
 - nominal (categorical) their values belong to a pre-specified, finite set of possibilities

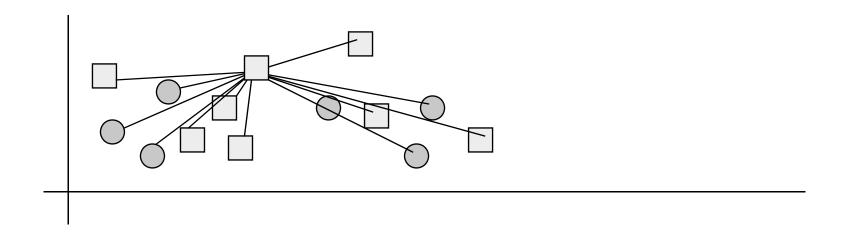
outlook	temp.	humidity	windy	play
sunny	hot	high	false	no
sunny	hot	high	true	no
overcast	hot	high	false	yes
rainy	mild	high	false	yes
rainy	cool	normal	false	yes
rainy	cool	normal	true	no
overcast	cool	normal	true	yes
sunny	mild	high	false	no
sunny	cool	normal	false	yes
rainy	mild	normal	false	yes
sunny	mild	normal	true	yes
overcast	mild	high	true	yes
overcast	hot	normal	false	yes
rainy	mild	high	true	no

sepal length	sepal width	petal length	petal width	iris	type
5.1	3.5	1.4	0.2	iris	setosa
4.9	3.0	1.4	0.2	iris	setosa
4.7	3.2	1.3	0.2	iris	setosa
6.4	3.2	4.5	1.5	iris	versicolor
6.9	3.1	4.9	1.5	iris	versicolor
5.5	2.3	4.0	1.3	iris	versicolor
6.5	2.8	4.6	1.5	iris	versicolor
6.3	3.3	6.0	2.5	iris	virginica
5.8	2.7	5.1	1.9	iris	virginica
• • •					

nominal numeric

Nearest Neighbor Algorithm

- Remember all your training data
- To classify a new, unlabelled example:
 - Find the nearest training data example
 - Return the answer (class) associated with it
- "Nearest" is determine based on a distance measure



Commonly Used Distance Measures

- A, B examples with attribute values a_1 , a_2 ,..., a_n & b_1 , b_2 ..., b_n e.g. A = [1, 3, 5], B = [1, 6, 9]
- **Eucledian distance most frequently used**

$$D(A,B) = \sqrt{(a_1 - b_1)^2 + (a_2 - b_2)^2 + \dots + (a_n - b_n)^2}$$

Manhattan distance

$$D(A,B) = |a_1 - b_1| + |a_2 - b_2| + \dots + |a_n - b_n|$$

Minkowski distance – generalization of Eucledian & Manhattan

$$D(A,B) = (|a_1 - b_1|^q + |a_2 - b_2|^q + ... + |a_n - b_n|^q)^{1/q}$$
 q - positive integer



q=? Minkowski = Eucledian distance?

q=? Minkowski =Manhattan distance?

Nearest Neighbor - Example

• Given is the following dataset where years_experince is the only attribute and salary is the class. What will be the prediction for the new example years_experince=5 using the Nearest-Neighbor algorithm with the Manhattan distance?

	years_experience	salary
1	4	low
2	9	medium
3	8	medium
4	15	high
5	20	high
6	7	medium
7	12	medium
8	23	medium
9	1	low
10	16	medium

Answer

• Given is the following dataset where years_experince is the only attribute and salary is the class. What will be the prediction for the new example years_experince=5 using the Nearest-Neighbor algorithm with the Manhattan distance?

	years_experience	salary	D(new, current)
1	4	low	1
2	9	medium	4
3	8	medium	3
4	15	high	10
5	20	high	15
6	7	medium	2
7	12	medium	7
8	23	medium	18
9	1	low	4
10	16	medium	11

• The closest neighbor is ex.1 (distance=1) => Nearest-Neighbor will predict salary=low

Need for Normalization

- Different attributes are measured on different scales
- When calculating the distance between 2 examples, the effect of the attributes with smaller scale will be less significant than those with larger
 - Example: Predict the car gas consumption based on 2 attributes -
- car weight [kg] and number of cylinders

Ex1: 6000, 4

Ex2: 1000, 2

D(ex1,ex2)=|6000-1000|+|4-2|=5002

The effect of the number of cylinders will be lost!

Solution: Normalize attribute values between 0 and 1

Normalization

Solution: Normalize attribute values between 0 and 1

$$a_i = \frac{v_i - \min v_i}{\max v_i - \min v_i}$$

 v_i – the actual value of attribute i

min v_i and max v_i – the minimum and maximum value of v_i taken over all examples in the training set (for attribute i)

Ex.: Consider a dataset with 4 examples values of the attribute <u>car weight</u> [kg] original: 1000, 6000, 8000, 10000 normalized: 0, 0.55, 0.77, 1

values of the attribute number of cylinders: original: 2, 4, 6, 4 normalised: 0, 0.5, 1, 0.5

original ->normalised ex1 1000, 2 0, 0 ex2 6000, 4 0.55, 0.5 ex3 8000, 6 0.77, 1 ex4 10000, 4 1, 0.5 dist(ex1,ex2)=|0-0.55|+|0-0.5|=1.05both attributes are contributing, car weight doesn't dominate

Lazy Learning

- Nearest neighbor is also called instance-based learning
- Nearest neighbor is an example of lazy learning
 - stores all training examples and does not build a classifier until a new (unlabeled) example needs to be classified
- Opposite to eager learning
 - Construct classifier before receiving new examples to classify
 - Examples: 1R, decision trees, Naïve Bayes, neural networks, SVM
- Lazy classifiers are faster at training but slower at classification
 - training = memorizing
 - all computations are delayed to classification time

Computation Complexity – Time and Space

- Training is fast no model is built; just storing training examples
- Classification (prediction for a new example)
 - · Compare each unseen example with each training example
 - If m training examples with dimensionality n => lookup for 1 unseen example takes m*n computations, i.e. O(mn)
- Memory requirements you need to remember each training example, O(mn)
- Impractical for large data due to time and memory requirements
 - Variations using more efficient data structures (KD-trees) see Witten and Frank p.132-137, Norvig and Russell p.739-741, allowing to forget some examples and also not to compare with some (Hand et al., *Handbook of Data Mining*, p.352)

K-Nearest Neighbor

- Using the closest 1 example (to predict the class of the new example) is called 1-Nearest Neighbor
- Using the k closest examples is called k-Nearest Neighbor
 - majority voting is used to take the decision e.g. 3-NN: circle, circle, square -> new example is classified as circle
 - increases the robustness of the algorithm to noisy examples
 - increases the computational time (slightly)
- K-Nearest Neighbor is very sensitive to the value of k
 - rule of thumb: $k \le sqrt(\#training_examples)$
 - commercial packages typically use k=10
- Can be used also for numeric prediction (regression)
 - The classifier returns the average value of the real-valued labels associated with the k nearest neighbors of the unknown example

K-Nearest Neighbor for Our Example

• What will be the prediction for the new example years_experince=5 using the 1-and 3-Nearest-Neighbor with the Manhattan distance?

	years_experience	salary	D(new, current)
1	4	low	1
2	9	medium	4
3	8	medium	3
4	15	high	10
5	20	high	15
6	7	medium	2
7	12	medium	7
8	23	medium	18
9	1	low	4
10	16	medium	11

- 1-Nearest-Neighbor will predict salary=low (we saw this before)
- 3-Nearest-Neighbor will predict salary=medium
 - closest 3 neighbors: ex.1 (low), ex.6 (medium) and ex.3 (medium) => the majority prediction is medium

Distance for Nominal Attributes

ex.1: (red, new)

ex2: (blue, new)

distance (ex1, ex2) = ?

- Simple solution:
 - 1 the difference between two attribute values that <u>are not</u> the same
 - 0 the difference between two attribute values that <u>are</u> the same
 - no need for normalization
- =>Manhattan_distance(ex1,ex2)=1+0=1

Distance for Nominal Attributes with Missing Values

• Principle: a missing value is maximally different from any other value

• Case 1: Nominal attributes

ex.1: (red, ?) // "?" means missing value

ex2: (blue, new)

d(ex1, ex2)=?

- 1 one or both of the attribute values are missing
- 0 the two attribute values are the same and are non-missing
- =>Mantattan_distance(ex1,ex2)=1+1=2

Distance for Numeric Attributes with Missing Values?

- Principle: a missing value is maximally different from any other value
 - Case 2: numeric attributes

```
ex.1: (0.2, ?) // "?" means missing value
```

ex2: (0.7, 0.1)

d(ex1, ex2)=?

- If the two values are missing, the difference between them is 1
- If only one of them is missing, the difference is either the other value (normalized) or 1 minus that value, whichever is larger, i.e. if values are missing, the difference is as large as possible
- =>Manhattan distance(ex1,ex2)=|0.2-0.7|+0.9=1.4

Variations: Weighted Nearest Neighbor

- Idea: Closer neighbors count more than distant neighbors
- Distance-weighted nearest-neighbor algorithm
 - Find the k nearest neighbors
 - Weight their contribution based on their distance to the new example
 - bigger weight if they are closer
 - smaller weight if they are further

$$w_i = \frac{1}{D(X_{new}, X_i)}$$

- Instead of using only the k nearest neighbors, use all training examples
 - the very distant will have very little effect (weight will be too small)
 - disadvantage slower algorithm

Curse of Dimensionality

adapted from 6.034 AI, MIT

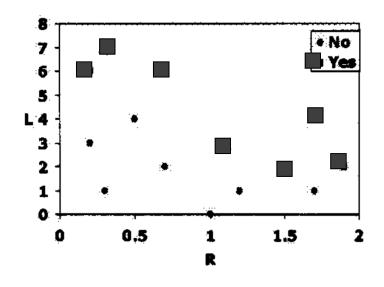
- High dimensional data causes problems for all classifiers overfitting
- Nearest neighbors algorithms are great in low dimensions (up to 6) but as the dimensionality increases they become ineffective
- In high dimensions most examples are
 - far from each other
 - close to the boundaries
 - imagine sprinkling data points uniformly within a 10-dim unit hypercube (cube whose sides are of length 1). 90% of the data are outside a cube with sides >0.63
- => the notion of nearness that is very effective in low dimensional space becomes ineffective in a high dim space
- => nearest neighbor classification cannot be trusted for highdimensional data
- Solution: feature selection to reduce dimensionality

1-Nearest Neighbor Decision Boundary

Example taken from 6.034 AI, MIT

- What is the decision boundary of 1-NN algorithm?
- Think of each example as a point in the feature space

Bankruptcy Example



- Predicting bankruptcy
- 2 attributes:

on x: R – ratio of earnings to expenses on y: L – number of late payments on

credit cards over the past year

• 2 classes:

yes – high risk for bankruptcy

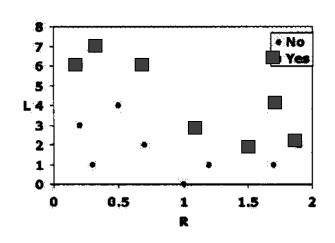
no - low risk for bankruptcy

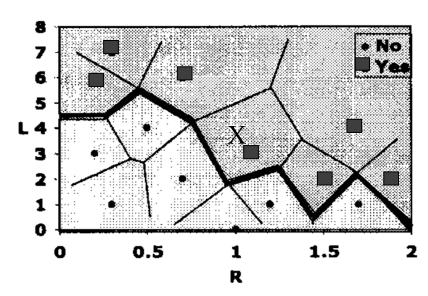
1-Nearest Neighbor Decision Boundary

Example taken from 6.034 AI, MIT

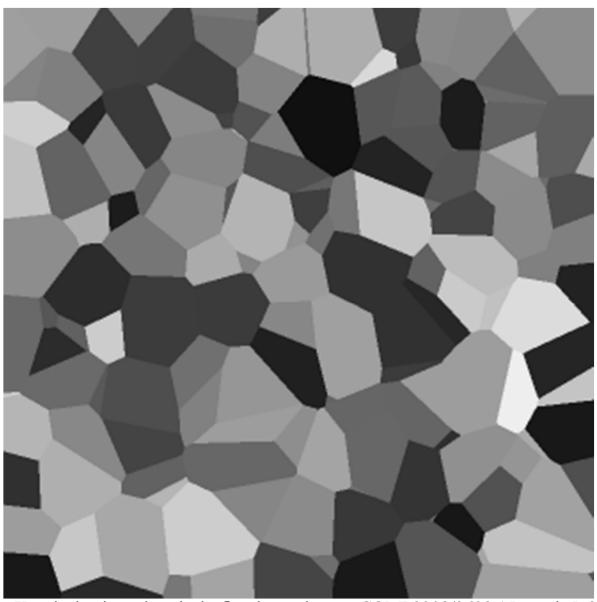
- The training data defines a partitioning in the feature space called Voronoi partition (tessellation)
 - Each training example has an associated Voronoi region
 - Voronoi region for a point (training example) = its nearby area
 - More precisely: if an example Y falls in the Voronoi region of the training example X, then X is the closest training example to Y
- In 1-NN a decision boundary is represented by the edges in the Voronoi space that separate the points of the two classes

Bankruptcy Example





$\begin{tabular}{ll} Voronoi\ diagram\\ www.math.unimaas.nl/personal/ronaldw/DAM/voordracht-DAM_2.ppt \end{tabular}$



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K-Nearest-Neighbor – Discussion

- Simple method; works well in practice (like 1R & Naive Bayes)
- Slow for big databases as the entire database have to be compared with each testing example
 - requires efficient indexing + there are more efficient variations
- Curse of dimensionality "nearness" is ineffective in high dim
 - solution: feature selection to reduce dimensionality
- Very sensitive to irrelevant attributes, solutions:
 - weight each attribute when calculating the distance
 - feature selection to select informative attributes
- Produces arbitrarily shaped decision boundary defined by a subset of the Voronoi edges
- High variability of the decision boundary depending on the composition of training data and number of nearest neighbors
- Sensitive to noise

K-Nearest-Neighbor – Discussion (2)

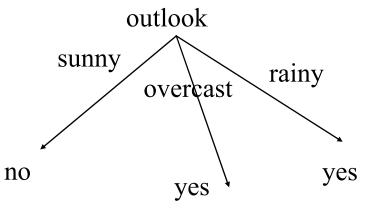
- Local vs global information
- The standard k-nearest neighbor algorithm (which considers only a few neighbors) makes predictions based on <u>local</u> information
- Other ML algorithms, e.g. 1R, decision trees and neural networks try to find a global model that fits the training set

Rule Learning: 1R Algorithm

1R Algorithm

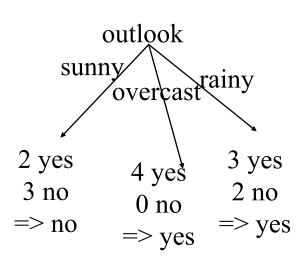
- 1R stands for "1-rule"
- Generates 1 rule that tests the value of a single attribute
 - e.g. a rule that tests the value of outlook if <u>outlook=sunny</u> then class=no elseif <u>outlook=overcast</u> then class=yes elseif outlook=rainy then class=yes
 - The rule can be represented as a 1-level decision tree (decision stump)
 - At the root: test the attribute value
 - Each branch corresponds to a value
 - Each leaf corresponds to a class

outlook	temp.	humidity	windy play
sunny	hot	high	false no
sunny	hot	high	true no
overcast	hot	high	false yes
rainy	mild	high	false yes
rainy	cool	normal	false yes
rainy	cool	normal	true no
overcast	cool	normal	true yes
sunny	mild	high	false no
sunny	cool	normal	false yes
rainy	mild	normal	false yes
sunny	mild	normal	true yes
overcast	mild	high	true yes
overcast	hot	normal	false yes
rainy	mild	high	true no



How to Determine the Class for the Leaves?

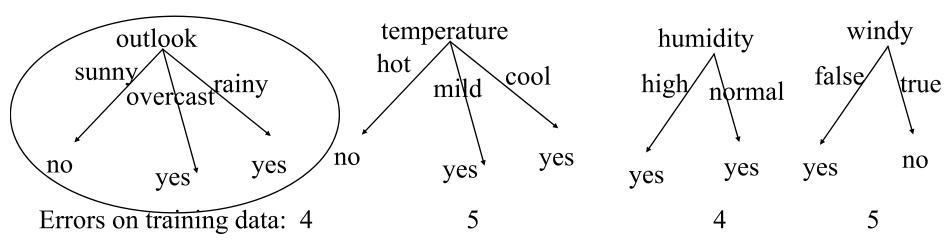
- Take the majority class of the leaf
- This means minimizing the number of examples from the training data that will be misclassified



				\bigcap
/outlook	temp.	humidity	windy	play
sunny \	hot	high	false	no \
sunny	hot	high	true	no
overcast	hot	high	false	yes
rainy	mild	high	false	yes
rainy	cool	normal	false	yes
rainy	cool	normal	true	no
overcast	cool	normal	true	yes
sunny	mild	high	false	no
sunny	cool	normal	false	yes
rainy	mild	normal	false	yes
sunny	mild	normal	true	yes
overcast/	mild	high	true	yes
\ overcast	hot	normal	false	yes
\rainy /	mild	high	true	no /

How to Select the Best Rule?

- A rule is generated for each attribute
- Which is the best rule (i.e. the best attribute)?
 - The one with the smallest number of misclassifications (errors) on training data (i.e. the one with the *highest accuracy*)
- 1R algorithm
 - Generate a rule (decision stump) for each attribute
 - Evaluate each rule on the training data and calculate the number of errors
 - Choose the one with the smallest number of errors



1R on the Weather Data

rule	attri-	attribute values &	rules	errors	total
No	bute	counts			errors
1	outlook	sunny: 2 yes, <u>3 no</u>	sunny -> no	2/5	4/14
		overcast: 4 yes, 0 no	overcast -> yes	0/4	
		rainy: 3 yes, 2 no	rainy -> yes	2/5	
2	temp.	hot: 2 yes, 2 no*	hot -> no	2/4	5/14
		mild: 4 yes, 2 no	mild -> yes	2/6	
		$cool: \overline{2 \text{ yes}}, 1 \text{ no}$	cool -> yes	1/4	
3	humidity	high: 4 yes, 3 no	high -> yes	3/7	4/14
		normal: 6 yes, 1 no	normal -> yes	1/7	
5	windy	true: 3 yes, 3 no*	false -> yes	2/8	5/14
		false: 6 yes, 2 no	true -> no	3/6	

^{* -} random choice in case of ties

Final rule - rule 1 (tie with rule 3): if outlook=sunny then play=no elseif outlook=overcast then play=yes elseif outlook=rainy then play=yes

outlook	temp.	humidity	windy	play
sunny	hot	high	false	no
sunny	hot	high	true	no
overcast	hot	high	false	yes
rainy	mild	high	false	yes
rainy	cool	normal	false	yes
rainy	cool	normal	true	no
overcast	cool	normal	true	yes
sunny	mild	high	false	no
sunny	cool	normal	false	yes
rainy	mild	normal	false	yes
sunny	mild	normal	true	yes
overcast	mild	high	true	yes
overcast	hot	normal	false	yes
rainy	mild	high	true	no

1R: Pseudo Code and Components

Pseudo code

For each attribute,

For each value of that attribute, make a rule as follows:

- count how often each class appears
- find the most frequent class
- make the rule assign that class to this attribute value.

Calculate the error rate of the rules.

Choose the rule with the smallest error rate.

Components of 1R

- Model a rule testing the value of 1 attribute
- Preference function number of misclassifications on training data
- Search method evaluate all attributes

Handling Examples with Missing Values

- How to use 1R or other classification algorithms if there are missing values? (generic topic, not only about 1R)
- Method 1: Ignore all instances with missing attribute value tempting solution! But:
 - often these instances are useful
 - sometimes the attributes whose values are missing play no part in the decision, in which case these instances are as good as any other

-					
	outlook	temp.	humidity	windy	play
	sunny	hot	high	false	no
	?	hot	high	true	no
	overcast	hot	high	false	yes
	rainy	mild	high	false	yes
	rainy	cool	normal	false	yes
	?	cool	normal	true	no
	overcast	cool	normal	true	yes
	sunny	mild(?	false	no
	sunny	cool	normal	false	yes
	rainy	mild	normal	false	yes
	sunny	mild	normal	true	yes
	overcast	mild	high	true	yes
	overcast	hot	normal	false	yes
	?	mild	high	true	no
7					

- Method 2 (used in 1R): treat the missing value as another possible value of the attribute; this assumes that the absence of a value is significant
- Ex.: if there are missing values for outlook, a 1R rule for outlook will consider 4 splits (on sunny, overcast, rainy and missing)

Handling Examples with Missing Values (2)

Method 3: Replace the missing values - 2 common ways:

A(missing)=most common value for attribute A in all training examples

	temp!	humidity	windy	play
sunny	hot	high	false	no
sunny	hot	high	true	no
overcast	hot	high	false	yes
rainy	mild	high	false	yes
?	cool	normal	false	yes
rainy	cool	normal	true	no
overcast	cool	normal	true	yes
sunny	mild	high	false	no
sunny	?	normal	false	yes
rainy	mild	normal	false	yes
sunny	mild	normal	true	yes
overcast	i s	high	true	yes
overcast	hot	normal	false	yes
rainy	mild	high	true	no

E.g. attribute A=temp., replace? for this attribute with *mild* (most common for A)

A(missing)=most common value for attribute A in all training examples from the same class as the class of the example with the missing value

E.g. A=temp., replace? for this attribute with *mild* (most common among all ex. from class *yes*)

Dealing With Numeric Attributes

- temperature and humidity are numeric
- Need to discretize numeric attributes, i.e. numeric attributes -> nominal
- Simple procedure
 - 1. Sort the training examples in increasing order according to the value of the numeric attribute

temp.	humidity	windy	play
85	85	false	no
80	90	true	no
83	86	false	yes
70	96	false	yes
68	80	false	yes
65	70	true	no
64	65	true	yes
72	95	false	no
69	70	false	yes
75	80	false	yes
75	70	true	yes
73	90	true	yes
81	75	false	yes
71	91	true	no
	85 80 83 70 68 65 64 72 69 75 75 73	85 85 80 90 83 86 70 96 68 80 65 70 64 65 72 95 69 70 75 80 75 70 73 90 81 75	85 85 false 80 90 true 83 86 false 70 96 false 68 80 false 65 70 true 64 65 true 72 95 false 69 70 false 75 80 false 75 70 true 73 90 true 81 75 false

values of temperature:

- 2. Place breakpoints whenever the class changes, halfway between the values
- 3. Take the class for each interval and form the rule

```
if temperature <64.5 than play=yes elseif temperature \in [64.5, 65.5) than play=no elseif temperature \in [66.5, 70.5) than play=yes elseif temperature \in [70.5, 72.5) than play=no elseif temperature \in [72.5, 77.5) than play=yes elseif temperature \in [77.5, 80.5) than play=no elseif temperature \in [80.5, 84) than play=yes elseif temperature >=84 than play=no elseif temperature >=84 than play=no
```

Problem with this Discretization Procedure

- It tends to generate a large number of intervals, i.e. attributes with many values (= highly branching attributes)
- This is a problem may lead to overfitting
- Overfitting: the error on the training set is very small but when a new data is presented to the classifier, the error is high
 - => the classifier has memorized the training examples but has not learned to generalize to new examples!
- Example overfitting in 1R due to noise in data
 - A single example with incorrect class will most likely generate a separate interval; as a result the 1R rule may not classify well the new data

A Better Discretization Procedure

- For 1R overfitting is likely to occur when an attribute has a large number of possible values
- Simple solution aggregation:
 - impose a minimum number of examples of the majority class in each partition, e.g. minimum number=3

- · when adjacent partitions have the same majority class, merge them
- final discretization

64 65 68 69 70 71 72 72 75 75 80 81 83 85 yes no yes yes yes no no yes yes yes no yes yes no if temperature
$$\leq$$
 77.5 then play=yes elseif temperature $>$ 77.5 then play=no*

* Arbitrary choice no for the 2d interval; if yes has been chosen => no need for any breakpoint at all

Data with Numeric Attributes – Final Rule Set

rule No	attri- bute	Rules	errors	total errors
1	outlook	<pre>sunny -> no overcast -> yes rainy -> yes</pre>	2/5 0/4 2/5	4/14
2	temp.	<pre>< 77.5 -> yes > 77.5 -> no*</pre>	3/10 2/4	5/14
3	humidity	<pre> 82.5 -> yes 82.5 & \le 95.5 -> no >95.5 -> yes </pre>	1/7 2/6 0/1	3/14
5	windy	false -> yes true -> no	2/8 3/6	5/14

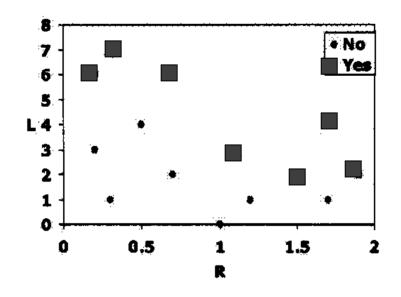
· Which rule will be selected?

Decision Boundary

Example taken from 6.034 AI, MIT

- 1R defines a decision boundary in the feature space
- Suppose that the 1R split is binary. What will be the shape of the decision boundary?

Bankruptcy Example



- Predicting bankruptcy
- 2 attributes:
 - **R** ratio of earnings to expenses
- L number of late payments on credit cards over the past year
- 2 classes:
 - yes high risk for bankruptcy
 - no low risk for bankruptcy

1R – Discussion

- 1R was described in a paper by Holte (1993)
 - 1R's simple rules were just slightly less accurate than the much more complex decision trees and other state-of- the-art classification algorithms
- Simple and computationally cheap algorithm
- Simplicity first pays off
 - Always try the simple algorithms first!
 - Simple algorithms give a useful first impression of the dataset

Why do Simple Algorithms Work Well?

- The structure underlying many real world problems may be quite *rudimentary*, e.g.
 - just one attribute is sufficient to determine the class of the example
 - several attributes contribute independently with equal importance
 - a linear combination of attributes may be sufficient