

The **WEKA** **Workbench**

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FOURTH EDITION **DATA MINING** **Practical Machine Learning** **Tools and Techniques**



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Chapter 1

Introduction to Weka

The WEKA workbench is a collection of machine learning algorithms and data preprocessing tools that includes virtually all the algorithms described in our book. It is designed so that you can quickly try out existing methods on new datasets in flexible ways. It provides extensive support for the whole process of experimental data mining, including preparing the input data, evaluating learning schemes statistically, and visualizing the input data and the result of learning. As well as a wide variety of learning algorithms, it includes a wide range of preprocessing tools. This diverse and comprehensive toolkit is accessed through a common interface so that its users can compare different methods and identify those that are most appropriate for the problem at hand. WEKA was developed at the University of Waikato in New Zealand; the name stands for *Waikato Environment for Knowledge Analysis*. Outside the university the WEKA, pronounced to rhyme with *Mecca*, is a flightless bird with an inquisitive nature found only on the islands of New Zealand. The system is written in Java and distributed under the terms of the GNU General Public License. It runs on almost any platform and has been tested under Linux, Windows, and Macintosh operating systems.

1.1 What's in WEKA?

WEKA provides implementations of learning algorithms that you can easily apply to your dataset. It also includes a variety of tools for transforming datasets, such as the algorithms for discretization and sampling. You can preprocess a dataset, feed it into a learning scheme, and analyze the resulting classifier and its performance—all without writing any program code at all.

The workbench includes methods for the main data mining problems: regression, classification, clustering, association rule mining, and attribute selection. Getting to know the data is an integral part of the work, and many data visualization facilities and data preprocessing tools are provided. All algorithms take their input in the form of a single relational table that can be read from a file or generated by a database query.

One way of using WEKA is to apply a learning method to a dataset and analyze its output to learn more about the data. Another is to use learned models to generate predictions on new instances. A third is to apply several different learners and compare their performance in order to choose one for prediction. In the interactive WEKA interface you select the learning method you want from a menu. Many methods have tunable parameters, which you access through a property sheet or *object editor*. A common evaluation module is used to measure the performance of all classifiers. Implementations of actual learning schemes are the most valuable resource that

WEKA provides. But tools for preprocessing the data, called *filters*, come a close second. Like classifiers, you select filters from a menu and tailor them to your requirements.

1.2 How do you use it?

The easiest way to use WEKA is through a graphical user interface called the *Explorer*. This gives access to all of its facilities using menu selection and form filling. For example, you can quickly read in a dataset from a file and build a decision tree from it. The Explorer guides you by presenting options as forms to be filled out. Helpful *tool tips* pop up as the mouse passes over items on the screen to explain what they do. Sensible default values ensure that you can get results with a minimum of effort—but you will have to think about what you are doing to understand what the results mean.

There are three other graphical user interfaces to WEKA. The *Knowledge Flow* interface allows you to design configurations for streamed data processing. A fundamental disadvantage of the Explorer is that it holds everything in main memory—when you open a dataset, it immediately loads it all in. That means that it can only be applied to small-to medium-sized problems. However, WEKA contains some incremental algorithms that can be used to process very large datasets. The Knowledge Flow interface lets you drag boxes representing learning algorithms and data sources around the screen and join them together into the configuration you want. It enables you to specify a data stream by connecting components representing data sources, preprocessing tools, learning algorithms, evaluation methods, and visualization modules. If the filters and learning algorithms are capable of incremental learning, data will be loaded and processed incrementally.

WEKA’s third interface, the *Experimenter*, is designed to help you answer a basic practical question when applying classification and regression techniques: Which methods and parameter values work best for the given problem? There is usually no way to answer this question *a priori*, and one reason we developed the workbench was to provide an environment that enables WEKA users to compare a variety of learning techniques. This can be done interactively using the Explorer. However, the Experimenter allows you to automate the process by making it easy to run classifiers and filters with different parameter settings on a corpus of datasets, collect performance statistics, and perform significance tests. Advanced users can employ the Experimenter to distribute the computing load across multiple machines using Java remote method invocation. In this way you can set up large-scale statistical experiments and leave them to run.

The fourth interface, called the *Workbench*, is a unified graphical user interface that combines the other three (and any plugins that the user has installed) into one application. The Workbench is highly configurable, allowing the user to specify which applications and plugins will appear, along with settings relating to them.

Behind these interactive interfaces lies the basic functionality of WEKA. This can be accessed in raw form by entering textual commands, which gives access to all features of the system. When you fire up WEKA you have to choose among five different user interfaces via the WEKA GUI Chooser: the Explorer, Knowledge Flow, Experimenter, Workbench, and command-line interfaces. Most people choose the Explorer, at least initially.

1.3 What else can you do?

An important resource when working with WEKA is the online documentation, which has been automatically generated from the source code and concisely reflects its structure. We will explain how to use this documentation. We will also identify WEKA’s major building blocks, highlighting

which parts contain supervised learning methods, which contain tools for data preprocessing, and which contain methods for other learning schemes. The online documentation gives the only complete list of available algorithms because WEKA is continually growing and—being generated automatically from the source code—the online documentation is always up to date. Moreover, it becomes essential if you want to proceed to the next level and access the library from your own Java programs or write and test learning schemes of your own.

In most data mining applications, the machine learning component is just a small part of a far larger software system. If you intend to write a data mining application, you will want to access the programs in WEKA from inside your own code. By doing so, you can solve the machine learning subproblem of your application with a minimum of additional programming. We show how to do that by presenting an example of a simple data mining application in Java. This will enable you to become familiar with the basic data structures in WEKA, representing instances, classifiers, and filters.

If you intend to become an expert in machine learning algorithms (or, indeed, if you already are one), you will probably want to implement your own algorithms without having to address such mundane details as reading the data from a file, implementing filtering algorithms, or providing code to evaluate the results. If so, we have good news for you: WEKA already includes all this. To make full use of it, you must become acquainted with the basic data structures. To help you reach this point, we will describe these structures in more detail and explain an illustrative implementation of a classifier.

1.4 How do you get it?

WEKA is available from <http://www.cs.waikato.ac.nz/ml/weka>. You can download either a platform-specific installer or an executable Java jar file that you run in the usual way if Java is installed. We recommend that you download and install it now, and follow through the examples in the upcoming sections.

1.5 The package management system

The WEKA software has evolved considerably since the third edition of this book was published. Many new algorithms and features have been added to the system, a number of which have been contributed by the community. With so many algorithms on offer we felt that the software could be considered overwhelming to the new user. Therefore a number of algorithms and community contributions were removed and placed into plugin *packages*. A package management system was added that allows the user to browse for, and selectively install, packages of interest.

Another motivation for introducing the package management system was to make the process of contributing to the WEKA software easier, and to ease the maintenance burden on the WEKA development team. A contributor of a plugin package is responsible for maintaining its code and hosting the installable archive, while WEKA simply tracks the package metadata. The package system also opens the door to the use of third-party libraries, something that we would have discouraged in the past in order to keep a lightweight footprint for WEKA.

Figure 1.1 shows the main window of the graphical package manager, which can be accessed from the Tools menu in the *GUI Chooser* panel shown in Figure 1.2. The very first time the package manager is accessed it will download information about the currently available packages. This requires an internet connection, however, once the package metadata has been downloaded it is possible to use the package manager to browse package information while offline. Of course, an Internet connection is still required to be able to actually install a package.

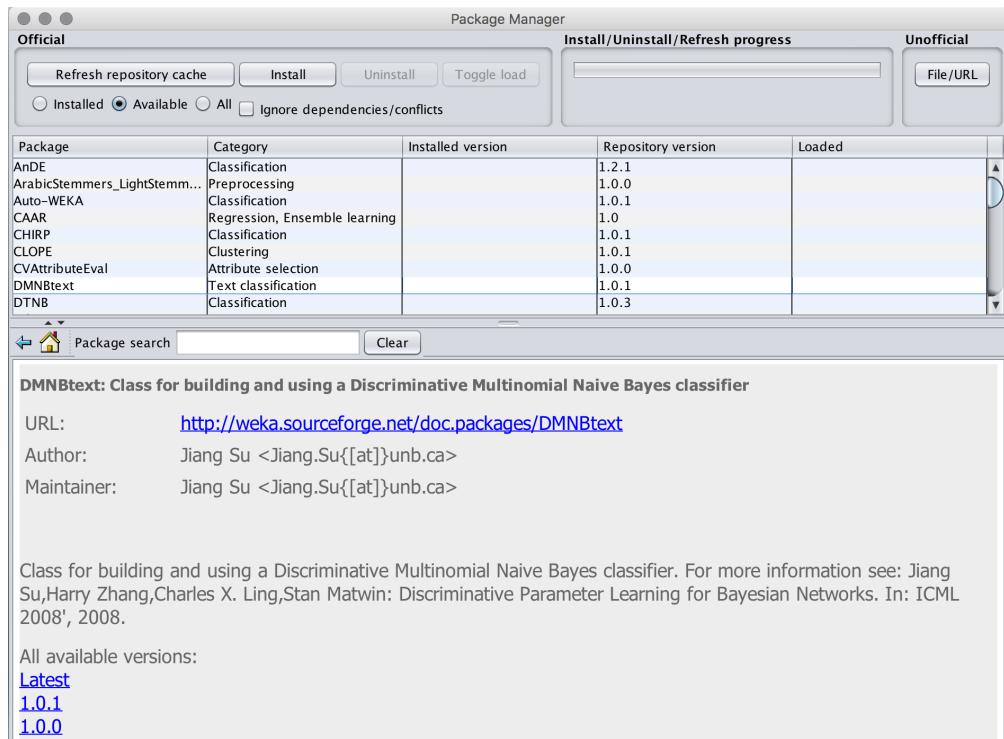


Figure 1.1: The graphical package manager.

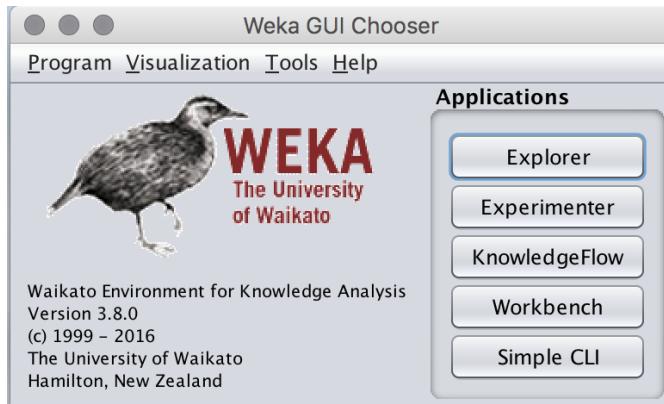


Figure 1.2: The GUI Chooser.

The package manager presents a list of packages near the top of its window and a panel at the bottom that displays information on the currently selected package in the list. The user can choose to display packages that are available but not yet installed, only packages that are installed, or all packages. The list presents the name of each package, the broad category that it belongs to, the version currently installed (if any), the most recent version of the package available that is compatible with the version of WEKA being used, and a field that, for installed packages, indicates whether the package has been loaded successfully by WEKA or not. Although

Package	Category	Installed version	Repository version	Loaded
CAAR	Regression, Ensemble learning		1.0	
CHIRP	Classification		1.0.1	
CLOPE	Clustering		1.0.1	
CVAttributeEval	Attribute selection		1.0.0	
DMNBtext	Text classification		1.0.1	
DTNB	Classification		1.0.1	
DlcaDistance	Distance		1.0.0	
DistributionBasedBalance	Preprocessing		1.0.0	
EAR4	Regression, Ensemble learn...		1.0	

Figure 1.3: Choosing a version of the *DMNBtext* package to install.

not obvious at first glance, it is possible to install older versions of a particular package. The Repository version field in the list is actually a drop-down box. Figure 1.3 shows selecting a version of the *DMNBtext* package to install. The list of packages can be sorted, in ascending or descending order, by clicking on either the package or category column header.

Author:	Jiang Su <Jiang.Su{[at]}unb.ca>
Category:	Text classification
Date:	2012-03-20
Depends:	weka (>=3.7.1)
Description:	Class for building and using a Discriminative Multinomial Naive Bayes classifier. For more information see: Jiang Su,Harry Zhang,Charles X. Ling,Stan Matwin: Discriminative Parameter Learning for Bayesian Networks. In: ICML 2008', 2008.
License:	GPL 3.0
Maintainer:	Jiang Su <Jiang.Su{[at]}unb.ca>
PackageURL:	http://prdownloads.sourceforge.net/weka/DMNBtext1.0.1.zip?download
URL:	http://weka.sourceforge.net/doc.packages/DMNBtext
Version:	1.0.1

Figure 1.4: Additional information for the *DMNBtext* package.

(a) Primary package.

(b) Dependency.

Figure 1.5: Installing a package with dependencies.

The information panel at the bottom of the window has clickable links for each version of a given package. “Latest” always refers to the latest version of the package, and is the same as the highest version number available. Clicking one of these links displays further information, such

as the author of the package, its license, where the installable archive is located, and its dependencies. Figure 1.4 shows this information for the *DMNBtext* package. The information about each package is also browsable at the Web location where WEKA’s package metadata is hosted. At the time of writing this can be found at <http://weka.sourceforge.net/packageMetaData/>. All packages have at least one dependency listed—the minimum version of the core WEKA system that they can work with. Some packages list further dependencies on other packages. For example, the *multiInstanceLearning* package depends on the *multiInstanceFilters* package. When installing *multiInstanceLearning*, and assuming that *multiInstanceFilters* is not already installed, the system will inform the user the *multiInstanceFilters* is required and will be installed automatically. Figure 1.5 shows the dialogs displayed by the package manager when installing *multiInstanceLearning*.

The package manager displays what are known as *official* packages for WEKA. These are packages that have been submitted to the WEKA team for a cursory review and have had their metadata added to the official central metadata repository. For one reason or another, an author of a package might decide to make it available in an unofficial capacity. These packages do not appear in the official list on the web, or in the list displayed by the graphical package manager. If the user knows the URL to an archive containing an unofficial package, it can be installed by using the button in the upper right-hand corner of the package manager window.

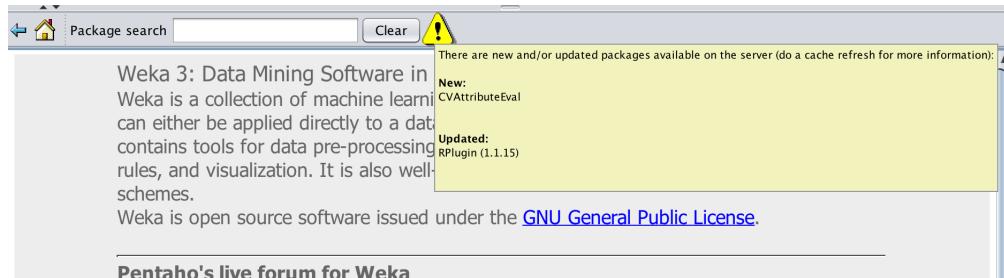


Figure 1.6: New/updated packages available.

Whenever a new package, or new version of an existing one, becomes available the package manager informs the user by displaying a large yellow warning icon. Hovering over this icon displays a tool-tip popup that lists the new packages and prompts the user to click the *Refresh repository cache* button. Clicking this button downloads a fresh copy of all the package information to the user’s computer. Figure 1.6 shows what is displayed in the situation where there is one new package available and one upgrade to an existing package.

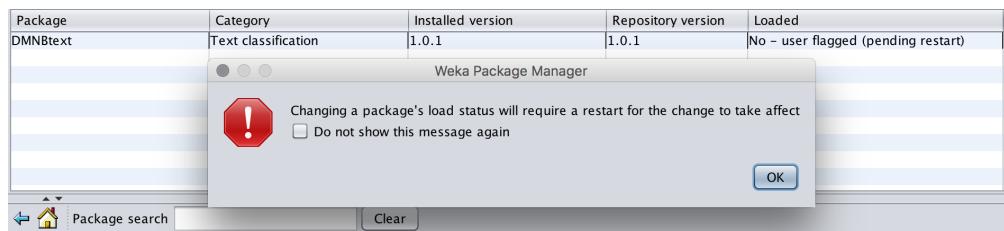


Figure 1.7: Changing the load status of a package.

The *Install* and *Uninstall* buttons at the top of the package manager’s window do exactly as their names suggest. More than one package can be installed or uninstalled in one go by selecting

multiple entries in the list. By default, WEKA attempts to load all installed packages, and if a package cannot be loaded for some reason a message will be displayed in the *Loaded* column of the list. The user can opt to prevent a particular package from being loaded by selecting it and then clicking the *Toggle load* button. This will mark the package as one that should not be loaded the next time that WEKA is started. This can be useful if an unstable package is generating errors, conflicting with another package (perhaps due to third-party libraries), or otherwise preventing WEKA from operating properly. Figure 1.7 shows what is displayed when a package’s load status is toggled.

Chapter 2

The Explorer

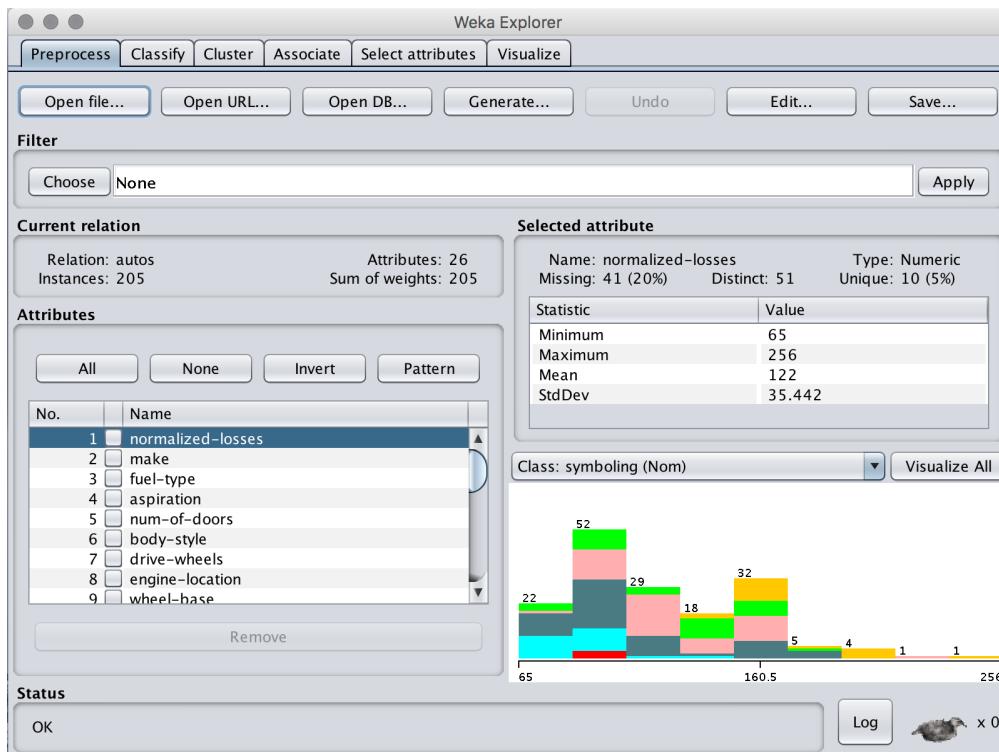


Figure 2.1: The Explorer interface.

WEKA's main graphical user interface, the Explorer, gives access to all its facilities using menu selection and form filling. It is illustrated in Figure 2.1. To begin, there are six different panels, selected by the tabs at the top, corresponding to the various data mining tasks that WEKA supports. Further panels can become available by installing appropriate packages.

2.1 Getting started

Suppose you have some data and you want to build a decision tree from it. First, you need to prepare the data, then fire up the Explorer and load in the data. Next you select a decision tree construction method, build a tree, and interpret the output. It is easy to do it again with a different tree construction algorithm or a different evaluation method. In the Explorer you can flip back and forth between the results you have obtained, evaluate the models that have been built on different datasets, and visualize graphically both the models and the datasets themselves—including any classification errors the models make.

(a) Spreadsheet. A screenshot of a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet titled 'weather'. The data is organized into columns: outlook, temperature, humidity, windy, and play. The first row contains column headers. The data rows are numbered 1 through 15. The last row is empty.

	A	B	C	D	E
1	outlook	temperature	humidity	windy	play
2	sunny	85	85	FALSE	no
3	sunny	80	90	TRUE	no
4	overcast	83	86	FALSE	yes
5	rainy	70	96	FALSE	yes
6	rainy	68	80	FALSE	yes
7	rainy	65	70	TRUE	no
8	overcast	64	65	TRUE	yes
9	sunny	72	95	FALSE	no
10	sunny	69	70	FALSE	yes
11	rainy	75	80	FALSE	yes
12	sunny	75	70	TRUE	yes
13	overcast	72	90	TRUE	yes
14	overcast	81	75	FALSE	yes
15	rainy	71	91	TRUE	no
16					

(b) CSV. A screenshot of a Microsoft Word document showing the same weather data as a CSV file. The data is a single column of text separated by commas.

```
outlook,temperature,humidity,windy,play
sunny,85,85, FALSE,no
sunny,80,90, TRUE,no
overcast,83,86, FALSE, yes
rainy,70,96, FALSE, yes
rainy,68,80, FALSE, yes
rainy,65,70, TRUE, no
overcast,64,65, TRUE, yes
sunny,72,95, FALSE, no
sunny,69,70, FALSE, yes
rainy,75,80, FALSE, yes
sunny,75,70, TRUE, yes
overcast,72,90, TRUE, yes
overcast,81,75, FALSE, yes
rainy,71,91, TRUE, no
```

(c) ARFF. A screenshot of a text editor showing the weather data in ARFF format. The file starts with a header section defining attributes and their domains, followed by a data section containing the 15 data points.

```
@relation weather

@attribute outlook {sunny, overcast, rainy}
@attribute temperature numeric
@attribute humidity numeric
@attribute windy {TRUE, FALSE}
@attribute play {yes, no}

@data
sunny,85,85, FALSE,no
sunny,80,90, TRUE,no
overcast,83,86, FALSE, yes
rainy,70,96, FALSE, yes
rainy,68,80, FALSE, yes
rainy,65,70, TRUE, no
overcast,64,65, TRUE, yes
sunny,72,95, FALSE, no
sunny,69,70, FALSE, yes
rainy,75,80, FALSE, yes
sunny,75,70, TRUE, yes
overcast,72,90, TRUE, yes
overcast,81,75, FALSE, yes
rainy,71,91, TRUE, no
```

Figure 2.2: Weather data.

2.1.1 Preparing the data *Excel*

The data is often presented in a spreadsheet or database. However, WEKA's native data storage method is ARFF format. You can easily convert from a spreadsheet to ARFF. The bulk of an ARFF file consists of a list of the instances, and the attribute values for each instance are separated by commas. Most spreadsheet and database programs allow you to export data into a file in comma-separated value (CSV) format as a list of records with commas between items. Having done this, you need only load the file into a text editor or word processor; add the dataset's name using the `@relation` tag, the attribute information using `@attribute`, and a `@data` line; and save the file as raw text. For example, Figure 2.19 shows an Excel spreadsheet containing the weather data, the data in CSV form loaded into Microsoft Word, and the result of converting it manually into an ARFF file. However, you do not actually have to go through these steps to create the ARFF file yourself, because the Explorer can read CSV spreadsheet files directly, as described later.

2.1.2 Loading the data into the Explorer

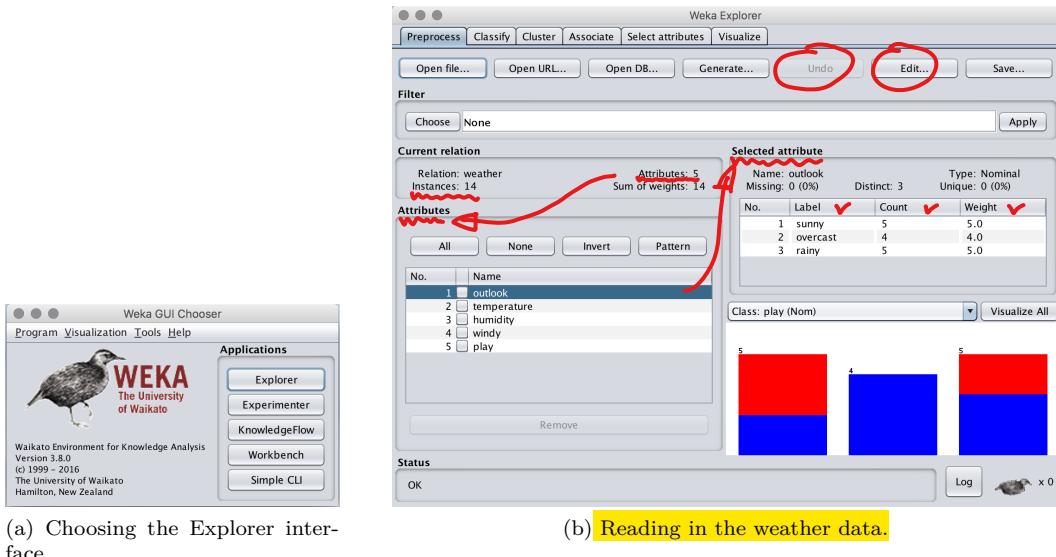


Figure 2.3: Weather data in the Explorer.

Let us load this data into the Explorer and start analyzing it. Fire up WEKA to get the *GUI Chooser panel* in Figure 2.3a. Select *Explorer* from the five choices on the right-hand side. (The others were mentioned earlier: *Simple CLI* is the old-fashioned command-line interface.)

What you see next is the main Explorer screen, shown in Figure 2.3b. Actually, the figure shows what it will look like *after* you have loaded in the weather data. The six tabs along the top are the basic operations that the Explorer supports: right now we are on *Preprocess*. Click the Open file button to bring up a standard dialog through which you can select a file. Choose the *weather.arff* file. If you have it in CSV format, change from *ARFF data files* to *CSV data files*. When you specify a .csv file it is automatically converted into ARFF format. *also JSON*

Having loaded the file, the screen will be as shown in Figure 2.3b. This tells you about the dataset: it has 14 instances and five attributes (center left); the attributes are called *outlook*,

temperature, humidity, windy, and play (lower left). The first attribute, *outlook*, is selected by default (you can choose others by clicking them) and has no missing values, three distinct values, and no unique values; the actual values are *sunny*, *overcast*, and *rainy* and they occur five, four, and five times, respectively (center right). A histogram at the lower right shows how often each of the two values of the class, *play*, occurs for each value of the *outlook* attribute. The attribute *outlook* is used because it appears in the box above the histogram, but you can draw a histogram of any other attribute instead. Here *play* is selected as the class attribute; it is used to color the histogram, and any filters that require a class value use it too.

The *outlook* attribute in Figure 2.3b is nominal. If you select a numeric attribute, you see its minimum and maximum values, mean, and standard deviation. In this case the histogram will show the distribution of the class as a function of this attribute.

You can delete an attribute by clicking its checkbox and using the *Remove* button. *All* selects all the attributes, *None* selects none, *Invert* inverts the current selection, and *Pattern* selects those attributes whose names match a user-supplied regular expression. You can undo a change by clicking the *Undo* button. The *Edit* button brings up an editor that allows you to inspect the data, search for particular values and edit them, and delete instances and attributes. Right-clicking on values and column headers brings up corresponding context menus.

2.1.3 Building a decision tree

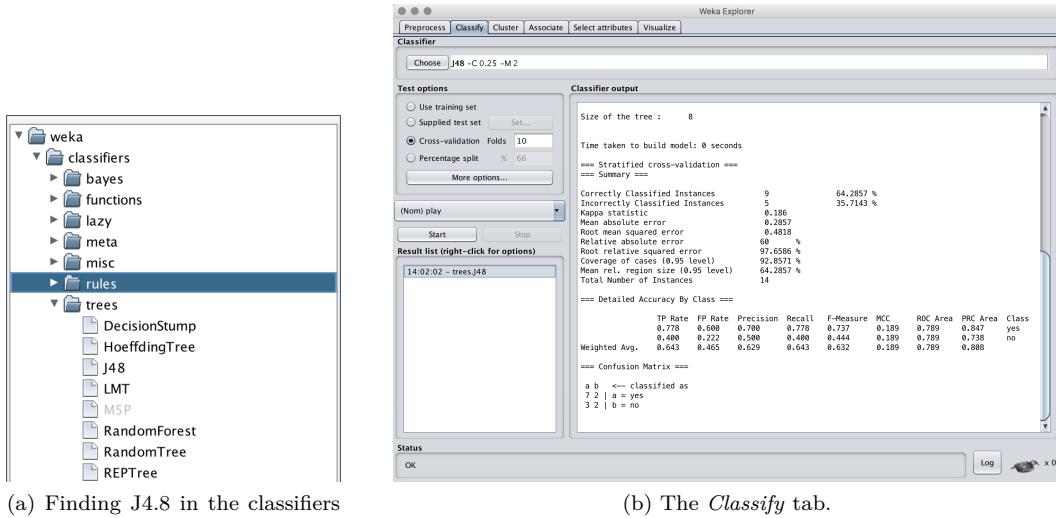


Figure 2.4: J4.8 in the Explorer.

To see what the C4.5 decision tree learner does with this dataset, use the J4.8 algorithm, which is WEKA's implementation of this algorithm. (J4.8 actually implements a later and slightly improved version called C4.5 revision 8, which was the last public version of this family of algorithms before C5.0 was released.) Click the *Classify* tab to get a screen that looks like Figure 2.4b. Actually, the figure shows what it will look like *after* you have analyzed the weather data.

First select the classifier by clicking the *Choose* button at the top left, opening up the trees section of the hierarchical menu in Figure 2.4a, and finding *J48*. The menu structure represents

the organization of the WEKA code into modules and the items you need to select are always at the lowest level. Once selected, *J48* appears in the line beside the *Choose* button as shown in Figure 2.4b, along with its default parameter values. If you click that line, the J4.8 classifier’s object editor opens up and you can see what the parameters mean and alter their values if you wish. The Explorer generally chooses sensible defaults.

Having chosen the classifier, invoke it by clicking the *Start* button. WEKA works for a brief period—when it is working, the little bird at the lower right of Figure 2.4b jumps up and dances—and then produces the output shown in the main panel of Figure 2.4b.

2.1.4 Examining the output

Figure 2.5 shows the full output (Figure 2.4b only gives the lower half). At the beginning is a summary of the dataset, and the fact that 10-fold cross-validation was used to evaluate it. That is the default, and if you look closely at Figure 2.4b you will see that the *Cross-validation* box at the left is checked. Then comes a pruned decision tree in textual form. The model that is shown here is always one generated from the full dataset available from the *Preprocess panel*. The first split is on the outlook attribute, and then, at the second level, the splits are on humidity and windy, respectively. In the tree structure, a colon introduces the class label that has been assigned to a particular leaf, followed by the number of instances that reach that leaf, expressed as a decimal number because of the way the algorithm uses fractional instances to handle missing values. If there were incorrectly classified instances (there aren’t in this example) their number would appear too: thus *2.0/1.0* means that two instances reached that leaf, of which one is classified incorrectly. Beneath the tree structure the number of leaves is printed; then the total number of nodes (*Size of the tree*). There is a way to view decision trees more graphically, which we will encounter later.

The next part of the output gives estimates of the tree’s predictive performance. In this case they are obtained using stratified cross-validation with 10 folds, the default in Figure 2.4b. As you can see, more than 30% of the instances (5 out of 14) have been misclassified in the cross-validation. This indicates that the results obtained from the training data are optimistic compared with what might be obtained from an independent test set from the same source. From the confusion matrix at the end observe that 2 instances of class *yes* have been assigned to class *no* and 3 of class *no* are assigned to class *yes*.

As well as the classification error, the evaluation module also outputs the Kappa statistic, the mean absolute error, and the root mean-squared error of the class probability estimates assigned by the tree. The root mean-squared error is the square root of the average squared loss. The mean absolute error is calculated in a similar way using the absolute instead of the squared difference. It also outputs relative errors, which are based on the prior probabilities (i.e., those obtained by the ZeroR learning scheme described later). Finally, for each class it also outputs various statistics. Also reported is the per-class average of each statistic, weighted by the number of instances from each class. All of these evaluation measures are discussed in Chapter 5 of the book.

2.1.5 Doing it again

You can easily run J4.8 again with a different evaluation method. Select *Use training set* (near the top left in Figure 2.4b) and click *Start* again. The classifier output is quickly replaced to show how well the derived model performs on the training set, instead of showing the cross-validation results. This evaluation is highly optimistic. It may still be useful, because it generally represents an upper bound to the model’s performance on fresh data. In this case, all 14 training instances

```

==== Run information ====
Scheme:      weka.classifiers.trees.J48 -C 0.25 -M 2
Relation:     weather
Instances:    14
Attributes:   5
              outlook
              temperature
              humidity
              windy
              play
Test mode:    10-fold cross-validation

==== Classifier model (full training set) ====
J48 pruned tree
-----
outlook = sunny
|   humidity <= 75: yes (2.0)
|   humidity > 75: no (3.0)
outlook = overcast: yes (4.0)
outlook = rainy
|   windy = TRUE: no (2.0)
|   windy = FALSE: yes (3.0)

Number of Leaves : 5

Size of the tree : 8

Time taken to build model: 0.27 seconds

==== Stratified cross-validation ===
==== Summary ===

Correctly Classified Instances      9          64.2857 %
Incorrectly Classified Instances   5          35.7143 %
Kappa statistic                   0.186
Mean absolute error               0.2857
Root mean squared error          0.4818
Relative absolute error           60          %
Root relative squared error      97.6586 %
Total Number of Instances         14

==== Detailed Accuracy By Class ====

      TP Rate   FP Rate   Precision   Recall   F-Measure   ROC Area   Class
      0.778     0.6        0.7        0.778     0.737     0.789     yes
      0.4        0.222     0.5        0.4        0.444     0.789     no
Weighted Avg.   0.643     0.465     0.629     0.643     0.632     0.789

==== Confusion Matrix ====
a b  <-- classified as
7 2 | a = yes
3 2 | b = no

```

Figure 2.5: Output from the J4.8 decision tree learner.

are classified correctly. In some cases a classifier may decide to leave some instances unclassified, in which case these will be listed as *Unclassified Instances*. This does not happen for most learning schemes in WEKA.

The panel in Figure 2.4b has further test options: *Supplied test set*, in which you specify a separate file containing the test set, and *Percentage split*, with which you can hold out a certain percentage of the data for testing. You can output the predictions for each instance by clicking the *More options* button and checking the appropriate entry. There are other useful options, such as suppressing some output and including other statistics such as entropy evaluation measures and cost-sensitive evaluation. For the latter you must enter a cost matrix: type the number of classes into the *Classes* box (and terminate it with the *Enter* or *Return* key) to get a default cost matrix, then edit the values as required.

2.1.6 Working with models

The small pane at the lower left of Figure 2.4b, which contains one highlighted line, is a history list of the results. The Explorer adds a new line whenever you run a classifier. Because you have now run the classifier twice, the list will contain two items. To return to a previous result set, click the corresponding line and the output for that run will appear in the Classifier Output pane. This makes it easy to explore different classifiers or evaluation schemes and revisit the results to compare them.

The result history list is the entry point to some powerful features of the Explorer. When you right-click an entry a menu appears that allows you to view the results in a separate window, or save the result buffer. More importantly, you can save the model that WEKA has generated in the form of a Java object file. You can reload a model that was saved previously, which generates a new entry in the result list. If you now supply a test set, you can reevaluate the old model on that new set.

Several items on the right-click menu allow you to visualize the results in various ways. At the top of the Explorer interface is a separate *Visualize* tab, but that is different: it shows the dataset, not the results for a particular model. By right-clicking an entry in the history list you can see the classifier errors. If the model is a tree or a Bayesian network you can see its structure. You can also view the margin curve and various cost and threshold curves, including the cost/benefit analysis tool. For all of these you must choose a class value from a submenu. The *Visualize threshold curve* menu item allows you to see the effect of varying the probability threshold above which an instance is assigned to that class. You can select from a wide variety of curves that include the ROC and recall-precision curves. To see these, choose the X- and Y-axes appropriately from the menus given. For example, set X to *False Positive Rate* and Y to *True Positive Rate* for an ROC curve or X to *Recall* and Y to *Precision* for a recall-precision curve.

Figure 2.6 shows two ways of looking at the result of using J4.8 to classify the iris dataset—we use this rather than the weather data because it produces more interesting pictures. Figure 2.6a shows the tree. Right-click a blank space in this window to bring up a menu enabling you to automatically scale the view or force the tree into the window. Drag the mouse to pan around the space. It's also possible to visualize the instance data at any node, if it has been saved by the learning algorithm.

Figure 2.6b shows the classifier errors on a two-dimensional plot. You can choose which attributes to use for X and Y using the selection boxes at the top. Alternatively, click one of the speckled horizontal strips to the right of the plot: left-click for X and right-click for Y. Each strip shows the spread of instances along that attribute. X and Y appear beside the ones you have chosen for the axes.

The data points are colored according to their class: blue, red and green for *Iris setosa*, *Iris*

versicolor, and *Iris virginica*, respectively (there is a key at the bottom of the screen). Correctly classified instances are shown as crosses; incorrectly classified ones appear as boxes (of which there are three in Figure 2.6b). You can click on an instance to bring up relevant details: its instance number, the values of the attributes, its class, and the predicted class.

2.1.7 When things go wrong

Beneath the result history list, at the bottom of Figure 2.3b, is a status line that says, simply, *OK*. Occasionally this changes to *See error log*, an indication that something has gone wrong. For example, there may be constraints among the various different selections you can make in a panel. Most of the time the interface grays out inappropriate selections and refuses to let you choose them. But occasionally the interactions are more complex, and you can end up selecting an incompatible set of options. In this case, the status line changes when WEKA discovers the incompatibility—typically when you press *Start*. To see the error, click the *Log* button to the left of the bird in the lower right-hand corner of the interface. WEKA also writes a detailed log to a file, called *weka.log*, under the *wekafiles* directory in the user’s home directory. This often contains more information about the causes of problems than the Explorer’s Log window because it captures debugging output directed to the standard out and error channels.

2.2 Exploring the Explorer

We have briefly investigated two of the six tabs at the top of the Explorer window in Figure 2.3b and Figure 2.4b. In summary, here’s what all of the tabs do:

1. *Preprocess*: Choose the dataset and modify it in various ways.
2. *Classify*: Train learning schemes that perform classification or regression and evaluate them.
3. *Cluster*: Learn clusters from the dataset.
4. *Associate*: Learn association rules for the data and evaluate them.
5. *Select attributes*: Select the most relevant aspects of the dataset.
6. *Visualize*: View different two-dimensional plots of the data and interact with them.

Each tab gives access to a whole range of facilities. In our tour so far, we have barely scratched the surface of the *Preprocess* and *Classify* panels.

At the bottom of every panel is a *Status* box and a *Log* button. The status box displays messages that keep you informed about what’s going on. For example, if the Explorer is busy loading a file, the status box will say so. Right-clicking anywhere inside this box brings up a little menu with two options: display the amount of memory available to WEKA, and run the Java garbage collector. Note that the garbage collector runs constantly as a background task anyway.

Clicking the *Log* button opens a textual log of the actions that WEKA has performed in this session, with timestamps.

As noted earlier, the little bird at the lower right of the window jumps up and dances when WEKA is active. The number beside the \times shows how many concurrent processes are running. If the bird is standing but stops moving, it’s sick! Something has gone wrong, and you may have to restart the Explorer.

2.2.1 Loading and filtering files

Along the top of the *Preprocess panel* in Figure 2.3b are buttons for opening files, URLs, and databases. Initially, only files whose names end in *.arff* appear in the file browser; to see others, change the *Format* item in the file selection box.

2.2.2 Converting files to ARFF

WEKA has converters for the following file formats:

- spreadsheet files with extension *.csv*,
- C4.5’s native file format with extensions *.names* and *.data*,
- serialized instances with extension *.bsi*,
- LIBSVM format files with extension *.libsvm*,
- SVM-Light format files with extension *.dat*,
- XML-based ARFF format files with extension *.xarf*,
- JSON-based ARFF format files with extension *.json*,
- ASCII Matlab files with extension *.m*.

The appropriate converter is used based on the file extension. If WEKA cannot load the data, it tries to interpret it as ARFF. If that fails, it pops up the box shown in Figure 2.7a.

This is a generic object editor, used throughout WEKA for selecting and configuring object. For example, when you set parameters for a classifier, you use the same kind of box. The *CSVLoader* for *.csv* files is selected by default, and the *More* button gives you more information about it, shown in Figure 2.7b. It is always worth looking at the documentation! In this case, it explains that the spreadsheet’s first row determines the attribute names and gives a brief description of the CSVLoader’s options. Click *OK* to use this converter. For a different one, click *Choose* to select from the list in Figure 2.7c.

The *ArffLoader* is the first option, and we reached this point only because it failed. The second option is for the C4.5 format, in which there are two files for a dataset, one giving field names and the other giving the actual data. The third option, *CSVLoader*, is the default, and we clicked *Choose* because we want a different one. The fourth option is for reading from a database rather than a file; however, the *SQLViewer* tool, shown in Figure 2.8 and accessible by pressing the *Open DB* button on the *Preprocess* panel, is a more user-friendly route for accessing a database. The “serialized instances” option is for reloading datasets that have been saved as Java serialized object. Any Java object can be saved in this format and reloaded. As a native Java format, it is quicker to load than an ARFF file, which must be parsed and checked. When repeatedly reloading a large dataset it may be worth saving it in this form.

The tenth menu item is for importing a directory containing plain text files for the purposes of text mining. The imported directory is expected to have a specific structure—namely a set of subdirectories, each containing one or more text files with the extension *.txt*. Each text file becomes one instance in the dataset, with a string attribute holding the contents of the file and a nominal class attribute holding the name of the subdirectory that it came from. This dataset can then be further processed into word frequencies using the *StringToWordVector* filter (covered in the next section). The last option is for loading data files in XRFF, the XML Attribute Relation

File format. As the name suggests, this gives ARFF header and instance information in the XML markup language.

Further features of the generic object editor in Figure 2.7a are *Save*, which saves a configured object, and *Open*, which opens a previously saved one. These are not useful for this particular kind of object. But other generic object editor panels have many editable properties, and having gone to some trouble to set them up you may want to save the configured object to reuse later.

Files on your computer are not the only source of datasets for WEKA. You can open a URL, and WEKA will use the hypertext transfer protocol (HTTP) to download an ARFF file from the Web. Or you can open a database (*Open DB*)—any database that has a Java database connectivity (JDBC) driver—and retrieve instances using the SQL *Select* statement. This returns a relation that WEKA reads in as an ARFF file. To make this work with your database, you may need to modify the file *weka/experiment/DatabaseUtils.props* in the WEKA distribution by adding your database driver to it. (To access this file, expand the *weka.jar* file in the WEKA distribution.) Figure 2.8 shows the SQLViewer tool that appears when *Open DB* is clicked. In this example, the iris dataset has been extracted from a single database table.

Data can be saved in all these formats (with the exception of the directory containing text files) using the *Save* button in the *Preprocess* panel (Figure 2.3b). It is also possible to generate artificial data using the *Generate* button. Artificial data suitable for classification can be generated from decision lists, radial-basis function networks and Bayesian networks, as well as the classic LED24 domain. Artificial regression data can be generated according to mathematical expressions. There are also several generators for producing artificial data for clustering purposes. Apart from loading and saving datasets, the *Preprocess* panel also allows you to filter them. Filters are an important component of WEKA.

2.2.3 Using filters

Clicking *Choose* (near the top left) in Figure 2.3b gives a list of filters like that in Figure 2.9a. Actually, you get a collapsed version: click on an arrow to open up its contents. We will describe how to use a simple filter to delete specified attributes from a dataset, in other words, to perform manual attribute selection. The same effect can be achieved more easily by selecting the relevant attributes using the tick boxes and pressing the *Remove* button. Nevertheless we describe the equivalent filtering operation explicitly, as an example.

Remove is an unsupervised attribute filter, and to see it you must scroll further down the list. When selected, it appears in the line beside the *Choose* button, along with its parameter values—in this case the line reads simply “*Remove*”. Click that line to bring up a generic object editor with which you can examine and alter the filter’s properties. (You did the same thing earlier by clicking the *J48* line in Figure 2.4b to open the *J4.8* classifier’s object editor.) The object editor for the *Remove* filter shown in Figure 2.9b.

To learn about it, click *More* to show the information in Figure 2.9c. This explains that the filter removes a range of attributes from the dataset. It has an option, *attributeIndices*, that specifies the range to act on and another called *invertSelection* that determines whether the filter selects attributes or deletes them. There are boxes for both of these in the object editor shown in Figure 2.9b, and in fact we have already set them to *1,2* (to affect attributes 1 and 2, namely *outlook* and *temperature*) and *False* (to remove rather than retain them). Click *OK* to set these properties and close the box. Notice that the line beside the *Choose* button now reads *Remove -R 1,2*. In the command-line version of the *Remove* filter, the option *-R* is used to specify which attributes to remove. After configuring an object it’s often worth glancing at the resulting command-line formulation that the Explorer sets up.

Figure 2.9 demonstrates a further feature of the generic object editor, namely “capabilities.”

Algorithms in WEKA may provide information about what data characteristics they can handle, and, if they do, a *Capabilities* button appears underneath *More* in the generic object editor (Figure 2.9b). Clicking it brings up Figure 2.9d, which gives information about what the method can do. Here it states that *Remove* can handle many attribute characteristics, such as different types (nominal, numeric, relational, etc.) and missing values. It shows the minimum number of instances that are required for *Remove* to operate on.

Figure 2.9e shows a list of selected constraints on capabilities, which is obtained by clicking the *Filter* button at the bottom of Figure 2.9a. If the current dataset exhibits some characteristic that is ticked in Figure 2.9e but missing from the capabilities for the *Remove* filter (Figure 2.9d), the *Apply* button to the right of *Choose* in Figure 2.3b will be grayed out, as will the entry in the list in Figure 2.9a. Although you cannot apply it, you can nevertheless select a grayed-out entry to inspect its options, documentation and capabilities using the generic object editor. You can release individual constraints by deselecting them in Figure 2.9e, or click the *Remove filter* button to clear all the constraints.

Apply the filter by clicking *Apply* (at the right-hand side of Figure 2.3b). Immediately the screen in Figure 2.10 appears—just like the one in Figure 2.3b but with only three attributes, *humidity*, *windy*, and *play*. At this point the fifth button in the row near the top becomes active. *Undo* reverses the filtering operation and restores the original dataset, which is useful when you experiment with different filters.

The first attribute, *humidity*, is selected and a summary of its values appears on the right. As a numeric attribute, the minimum and maximum values, mean, and standard deviation are shown. Below is a histogram that shows the distribution of the *play* attribute. Unfortunately, this display is impoverished because the attribute has so few different values that they fall into two equal-sized bins. More realistic datasets yield more informative histograms.

2.2.4 Training and testing learning schemes

The *Classify* panel lets you train and test learning schemes that perform classification or regression. Section 2.1 explained how to interpret the output of a decision tree learner and showed the performance figures that are automatically generated by the evaluation module. The interpretation of these is the same for all models that predict a categorical class. However, when evaluating models for numeric prediction, WEKA produces a different set of performance measures

As an example, in Figure 2.11a the CPU performance dataset has been loaded into WEKA. You can see the histogram of values of the first attribute, *MYCT*, at the lower right. In Figure 2.11b the model tree inducer M5' has been chosen as the classifier by going to the *Classify* panel, clicking the *Choose* button at the top left, opening up the trees section of the hierarchical menu shown in Figure 2.4a, finding *M5P*, and clicking *Start*. The hierarchy helps to locate particular classifiers by grouping items with common functionality

Figure 2.12 shows the output. The pruned model tree contains splits on three of the six attributes in the data. The root splits on the *CHMIN* attribute, yielding a linear model at the leaf on the left-hand branch and the remaining structure in the right-hand branch. There are five leaves in all, each with a corresponding linear model. The first number in parentheses at each leaf is the number of instances that reach it; the second is the root mean squared error of the predictions from the leaf's linear model for those instances, expressed as a percentage of the standard deviation of the class attribute computed over all the training data. The description of the tree is followed by several figures that measure its performance. These are derived from the test option chosen in Figure 2.11b, 10-fold cross-validation (not stratified, because stratification does not apply when the class is numeric).

Ordinary linear regression, another scheme for numeric prediction, is found under *Linear-*

Regression in the *functions* section of the menu in Figure 2.4a. It builds a single linear regression model rather than the five in Figure 2.12; not surprisingly, its performance is slightly worse.

To get a feel for their relative performance, let us visualize the errors these schemes make, as we did for the iris dataset in Figure 2.6b. Right-click the entry in the history list and select *Visualize classifier errors* to bring up the two-dimensional plot of the data in Figure 2.16. The points are color coded by class—but in this case the color varies continuously because the class is numeric. In Figure 2.16 the *MMAX* attribute has been selected for the X-axis and *CHMAX* has been chosen for the Y-axis because this gives a reasonable spread of points. Each data point is marked by a cross whose size indicates the absolute value of the error for that instance. The smaller crosses in Figure 2.13a (for M5'), when compared with those in Figure 2.13b (for linear regression), show that M5' is superior.

2.2.5 Using a metalearner

Metalearners take simple classifiers and turn them into more powerful learners. For example, to boost decision stumps in the Explorer, go to the *Classify* panel and choose the classifier *AdaboostM1* from the meta section of the hierarchical menu. When you configure this classifier by clicking it, the object editor shown in Figure 2.14 appears. This has its own classifier field, which we set to *DecisionStump* (as shown). This method could itself be configured by clicking (except that *DecisionStump* happens to have no editable properties). Click *OK* to return to the main *Classify* panel and *Start* to try out boosting decision stumps up to 10 times. It turns out that this mislabels only 7 of the 150 instances in the iris data—good performance considering the rudimentary nature of decision stumps and the rather small number of boosting iterations.

2.2.6 Clustering and association rules

Use the *Cluster* and *Associate* panels to invoke clustering algorithms and methods for finding association rules. When clustering, WEKA shows the number of clusters and how many instances each cluster contains. For some algorithms the number of clusters can be specified by setting a parameter in the object editor. For probabilistic clustering methods, WEKA measures the log-likelihood of the clusters on the training data: the larger this quantity, the better the model fits the data. Increasing the number of clusters normally increases the likelihood, but may overfit.

The controls on the *Cluster* panel are similar to those for *Classify*. You can specify some of the same evaluation methods—use training set, supplied test set, and percentage split (the last two are used with the log-likelihood). A further method, classes to clusters evaluation, compares how well the chosen clusters match a preassigned class in the data. You select an attribute (which must be nominal) that represents the “true” class. Having clustered the data, WEKA determines the majority class in each cluster and prints a confusion matrix showing how many errors there would be if the clusters were used instead of the true class. If your dataset has a class attribute, you can ignore it during clustering by selecting it from a pull-down list of attributes, and see how well the clusters correspond to actual class values. Finally, you can choose whether or not to store the clusters for visualization. The only reason not to do so is to conserve space. As with classifiers, you visualize the results by right-clicking on the result list, which allows you to view two-dimensional scatter plots like the one in Figure 2.6b. If you have chosen classes to clusters evaluation, the class assignment errors are shown. For the *Cobweb* clustering scheme, you can also visualize the tree.

The *Associate* panel is simpler than *Classify* or *Cluster*. WEKA contains several algorithms for determining association rules and no methods for evaluating such rules. Figure 2.15 shows the output from the Apriori program for association rules on the nominal version of the weather

data. Despite the simplicity of the data, several rules are found. The number before the arrow is the number of instances for which the antecedent is true; that after the arrow is the number of instances for which the consequent is true also; and the confidence (in parentheses) is the ratio between the two. Ten rules are found by default: you can ask for more by using the object editor to change *numRules*.

2.2.7 Attribute selection

The *Select attributes* panel gives access to several methods for attribute selection. This involves an attribute evaluator and a search method. Both are chosen in the usual way and configured with the object editor. You must also decide which attribute to use as the class. Attribute selection can be performed using the full training set or using cross-validation. In the latter case it is done separately for each fold, and the output shows how many times—that is, in how many of the folds—each attribute was selected. The results are stored in the history list. When you right-click an entry here you can visualize the dataset in terms of the selected attributes (choose *Visualize reduced data*).

2.2.8 Visualization

The *Visualize* panel helps you visualize a dataset—not the result of a classification or clustering model, but the dataset itself. It displays a matrix of two-dimensional scatter plots of every pair of attributes. Figure 2.16a shows the iris dataset. You can select an attribute—normally the class—for coloring the data points using the controls at the bottom. If it is nominal, the coloring is discrete; if it is numeric, the color spectrum ranges continuously from blue (low values) to orange (high values). Data points with no class value are shown in black. You can change the size of each plot, the size of the points, and the amount of jitter, which is a random displacement applied to X and Y values to separate points that lie on top of one another. Without jitter, a thousand instances at the same data point would look just the same as one instance. You can reduce the size of the matrix of plots by selecting certain attributes, and you can subsample the data for efficiency. Changes in the controls do not take effect until the *Update* button is clicked.

Click one of the plots in the matrix to enlarge it. For example, clicking on the top left plot brings up the panel in Figure 2.16b. You can zoom in on any area of this panel by choosing *Rectangle* from the menu near the top right and dragging out a rectangle on the viewing area like that shown. The *Submit* button near the top left rescales the rectangle into the viewing area.

2.3 Filtering algorithms

Now we take a detailed look at the filtering algorithms implemented within WEKA. These are accessible from the Explorer, and also from the Knowledge Flow and Experimenter interfaces described later. All filters transform the input dataset in some way. When a filter is selected using the *Choose* button, its name appears in the line beside that button. Click that line to get a generic object editor to specify its properties. What appears in the line is the command-line version of the filter, and the parameters are specified with minus signs. This is a good way of learning how to use the WEKA commands directly.

There are two kinds of filter: unsupervised and supervised. This seemingly innocuous distinction masks a rather fundamental issue. Filters are often applied to a training dataset and then also applied to the test file. If the filter is supervised—for example, if it uses class values to derive good intervals for discretization—applying it to the test data will bias the results. It is the discretization intervals derived from the *training* data that must be applied to the test data.

When using supervised filters you must to be careful to ensure that the results are evaluated fairly, an issue that does not arise with unsupervised filters.

We treat WEKA's unsupervised and supervised filtering methods separately. Within each type there is a further distinction between *attribute filters*, which work on the attributes in the datasets, and *instance filters*, which work on the instances. To learn more about a particular filter, select it in the WEKA Explorer and look at its associated object editor, which defines what the filter does and the parameters it takes.

2.3.1 Unsupervised attribute filters

We will first discuss WEKA's unsupervised attribute filters, which do not require a class attribute to be set.

2.3.1.1 Adding and removing attributes

Add inserts an attribute at a given position, whose value is declared to be missing for all instances. Use the generic object editor to specify the attribute's name, where it will appear in the list of attributes, and its possible values (for nominal attributes); for date attributes you can also specify the date format. *Copy* copies existing attributes so that you can preserve them when experimenting with filters that overwrite attribute values. Several attributes can be copied together using an expression such as *1-3* for the first three attributes, or *first-3,5,9-last* for attributes 1, 2, 3, 5, 9, 10, 11, 12 The selection can be inverted, affecting all attributes except those specified. These features are shared by many filters. *AddUserFields* can be used to add multiple new attributes to a dataset in one go. The user can specify the name, type and value to use for each attribute.

AddID inserts a numeric identifier attribute at the user-specified index in the list of attributes. An identifier attribute is useful for keeping track of individual instances after a dataset has been processed in various ways, such as being transformed by other filters, or having the order of the instances randomized.

Remove has already been described. Similar filters are *RemoveType*, which deletes all attributes of a given type (nominal, numeric, string, date, or relational), and *RemoveUseless*, which deletes constant attributes and nominal attributes whose values are different for almost all instances. You can decide how much variation is tolerated before an attribute is deleted by specifying the number of distinct values as a percentage of the total number of values. Note that some unsupervised attribute filters behave differently if the menu in the *Preprocess* panel has been used to set a class attribute. (By default, the last attribute is the class attribute.) For example, *RemoveType* and *RemoveUseless* both skip the class attribute.

InterquartileRange adds new attributes that indicate whether the values of instances can be considered outliers, or extreme values. The definition of outlier and extreme value is based on the difference between the 25th and 75th quartile of an attribute's values. Values are flagged as extreme if they exceed the 75th quartile (or fall below the 25th quartile) by the product of the user-specified extreme value factor and the interquartile range. Values that are not extreme values but exceed the 75th quartile (or fall below the 25th quartile) by the product of the outlier factor and the interquartile range are flagged as outliers. The filter can be configured to flag an instance as an outlier or extreme if any of its attribute values are deemed outliers or extreme, or to generate an outlier/extreme indicator pair for each attribute. It is also possible to flag all extreme values as outliers, and to output attributes that indicate by how many interquartile ranges an attribute's value deviates from the median.

AddCluster applies a clustering algorithm to the data before filtering it. You use the object editor to choose the clustering algorithm. Clusterers are configured just as filters are. The

AddCluster object editor contains its own *Choose* button for the clusterer, and you configure the clusterer by clicking its line and getting another object editor panel, which must be filled in before returning to the *AddCluster* object editor. This is probably easier to understand when you do it in practice than when you read about it here! At any rate, once you have chosen a clusterer, *AddCluster* uses it to assign a cluster number to each instance, as a new attribute. The object editor also allows you to ignore certain attributes when clustering, specified as described previously for *Copy*. *ClusterMembership* uses a clusterer, again specified in the filter's object editor, to generate membership values. A new version of each instance is created whose attributes are these values. The class attribute, if set, is ignored during clustering.

AddExpression creates a new attribute by applying a mathematical function to numeric attributes. The expression can contain attribute references and constants; arithmetic operators +, -, *, /, and ^; the functions *log* and *exp*, *abs* and *sqr*, *floor*, *ceil* and *rint*¹, *sin*, *cos* and *tan*; and parentheses. Attributes are specified by the prefix *a*, for example, *a7* is the seventh attribute. An example expression is

$$a1^2*a5/\log(a7*4.0)$$

There is a debug option that replaces the new attribute's value with a postfix parse of the supplied expression.

MathExpression is similar to *AddExpression* but can be applied to multiple attributes. Rather than creating a new attribute it replaces the original values with the result of the expression *in situ*; because of this, the expression cannot reference the value of other attributes. All the operators that apply to *AddExpression* can be used, as well as the minimum, maximum, mean, sum, sum-squared and standard deviation of the attribute being processed. Furthermore, simple if-then-else expressions involving the operators and functions can be applied as well.

Whereas *AddExpression* and *MathExpression* apply mathematical functions specified in textual form, *NumericTransform* performs an arbitrary transformation by applying a given Java function to selected numeric attributes. The function can be anything that takes a *double* as its argument and returns another *double*, for example, *sqrt()* in *java.lang.Math*. One parameter is the name of the Java class that implements the function (which must be a fully qualified name); another is the name of the transformation method itself.

Normalize scales all numeric values in the dataset to lie between 0 and 1. The normalized values can be further scaled and translated with user-supplied constants. *Center* and *Standardize* transform them to have zero mean; *Standardize* gives them unit variance too. All three skip the class attribute, if set. *RandomSubset* randomly selects a subset of the attributes to include in the output; the user specifies how many (as a percentage of the number of attributes). The class attribute, if set, is always included.

CartesianProduct produces a new attribute with values resulting from performing the Cartesian product between two or more nominal attributes. The name of the new attribute is a concatenation of the names of the original attributes.

PartitionedMultiFilter is a special filter that applies a set of filters to a corresponding set of attribute ranges in the input dataset. The user supplies and configures each filter, and defines the range of attributes for them to work with. There is an option to delete attributes that are not covered by any of the ranges. Only filters that operate on attributes are allowed. The output of the individual filters is assembled into a new dataset.

Reorder alters the order of the attributes in the data; the new order is specified by supplying a list of attribute indices. By omitting or duplicating indices it is possible to delete attributes or make several copies of them.

¹The *rint* function rounds to the closest integer.

2.3.1.2 Changing values

SwapValues swaps the positions of two values of a nominal attribute. The order of values is entirely cosmetic—it does not affect learning at all—but if the class is selected, changing the order affects the layout of the confusion matrix. *MergeTwoValues* merges values of a nominal attribute into a single category. The new value’s name is a concatenation of the two original ones, and every occurrence of either of the original values is replaced by the new one. The index of the new value is the smaller of the original indices. For example, if you merge the first two values of the *outlook* attribute in the weather data—in which there are five *sunny*, four *overcast*, and five *rainy* instances—the new *outlook* attribute will have values *sunny_overcast* and *rainy*; there will be nine *sunny_overcast* instances and the original five *rainy* ones. *MergeManyValues* is similar to *MergeTwoValues* but allows any number of values of a nominal attribute to be replaced by a single category. The user can specify the name of the new category to create. *MergeInfrequentValues* also merges several nominal values into one category, but in this case the process is controlled by a user-supplied minimum frequency. Values that occur fewer times than this minimum are replaced with the new category. Like *SwapValues*, the new value’s name is a concatenation of the the original ones. The user can opt to have a short identifier, based on a hash code, used as the new value instead—this is useful if the concatenated names become very long.

One way of dealing with missing values is to replace them globally before applying a learning scheme. *ReplaceMissingValues* replaces each missing value by the mean for numeric attributes and the mode for nominal ones. If a class is set, missing values of that attribute are not replaced by default, but this can be changed. *ReplaceMissingWithUserConstant* is another filter that can replace missing values. In this case, it allows the user to specify a constant value to use. This constant can be specified separately for numeric, nominal and date attributes.

ReplaceWithMissingValue is a filter that does the opposite of the ones we have just discussed—it replaces non-missing values, for a user-specified range of attributes, with missing values at random. The probability that a given value will be replaced with a missing value can be set as an option.

NumericCleaner replaces the values of numeric attributes that are too small, too large or too close to a particular value with default values. A different default can be specified for each case, along with thresholds for what is considered to be too large or small and a tolerance value for defining “too close” can be specified as well.

AddValues adds any values from a user-supplied list that are not already present in a nominal attribute. The labels can optionally be sorted. *ClassAssigner* can be used to set or unset a dataset’s class attribute. The user supplies the index of the new class attribute; a value of zero unsets the existing class attribute.

SortLabels can be used to sort the values of selected nominal attributes.

2.3.1.3 Conversions

Many filters convert attributes from one form to another. *Discretize* uses equal-width or equal-frequency binning to discretize a range of numeric attributes, specified in the usual way. For the former method the number of bins can be specified or chosen automatically by maximizing the likelihood using leave-one-out cross-validation. It is also possible to create several binary attributes instead of one multi-valued one. For equal-frequency discretization, the desired number of instances per interval can be changed. *PKIDiscretize* discretizes numeric attributes using equal-frequency binning; the number of bins is the square root of the number of values (excluding missing values). Both these filters skip the class attribute by default.

MakeIndicator converts a nominal attribute into a binary indicator attribute and can be used to transform a multiclass dataset into several two-class ones. It substitutes a binary attribute for the chosen nominal one, whose values for each instance are 1 if a particular original value was present and 0 otherwise. The new attribute is declared to be numeric by default, but it can be made nominal if desired.

For some learning schemes, such as support vector machines, multivalued nominal attributes must be converted to binary ones. The *NominalToBinary* filter transforms all specified multivalued nominal attributes in a dataset into binary ones, replacing each attribute with k values by k binary attributes using a simple one-per-value (“one-hot”) encoding. The new attributes will be numeric by default. Attributes that are already binary are left untouched. *NumericToBinary* converts all numeric attributes into nominal binary ones (except the class, if set). If the value of the numeric attribute is exactly 0, the new attribute will be 0, and if it is missing, the new attribute will be missing; otherwise, the value of the new attribute will be 1. These filters also skip the class attribute. *NumericToNominal* converts numeric attributes to nominal ones by simply adding every distinct numeric value to the list of nominal values. This can be a useful filter to apply after importing a .csv file—WEKA’s CSV import facility creates a numeric attribute for any data column whose values can all be parsed as numbers, unless configured to do otherwise, but it might make sense to interpret the values of an integer attribute as discrete instead.

FirstOrder takes a range of N numeric attributes and replaces them with $N - 1$ numeric attributes whose values are the differences between consecutive attribute values from the original instances. For example, if the original attribute values were 3, 2, and 1, the new ones will be -1 and -1 .

KernelFilter converts the data to a kernel matrix: it outputs a new dataset, containing the same number of instances as before, in which each value is the result of evaluating a kernel function on a pair of the original instances. By default, all attributes are transformed to center them around zero before the kernels are computed, though they are not rescaled to unit variance. However, different filters can be specified.

PrincipalComponents performs a principal components transformation on the dataset. First, any multi-valued nominal attributes are converted to binary, and missing values are replaced by means. The data is normalized (by default). The number of components is normally determined based on the user-specified proportion of variance to be covered, but it is also possible to specify the number of components explicitly.

Transpose, as the name suggests, transposes the data—instances become attributes and attributes become instances. If the first attribute in the original data is a nominal or string identifier, this will be used to create attribute names in the transposed data. Any other attributes must be numeric. The attribute names in the original data are used to create a string identifier attribute in the transposed data.

2.3.1.4 String conversion

A string attribute has an unspecified number of values. *StringToNominal* converts it to nominal with a set number of values. You should ensure that all string values that will appear in potential test data are represented in the dataset. *NominalToString* converts the other way.

StringToWordVector produces numeric attributes that represent the frequency of words in the value of a string attribute. The set of words—that is, the new attribute set—is determined from the full set of values in the string attribute. The new attributes can be named with a user-determined prefix to keep attributes derived from different string attributes distinct.

There are many options that affect tokenization. Words can be formed from contiguous alphabetic sequences or separated by a given set of delimiter characters. In the latter case, they

can be further split into n -grams (with user-supplied minimum and maximum length), or be processed by a stemming algorithm. They can be converted to lowercase before being added to the dictionary, or all words on a supplied list of stopwords can be ignored. Words that are not among the top k words ranked by frequency can be discarded (slightly more than k words will be retained if there are ties at the k th position). If a class attribute has been assigned, the top k words for each class will be kept (this can be turned off by the user). The value of each word attribute reflects its presence or absence in the string, but this can be changed. A count of the number of times the word appears in the string can be used instead. Word frequencies can be normalized to give each document’s attribute vector the same Euclidean length—this length is not chosen to be 1, to avoid the very small numbers that would entail, but is the average length of all documents that appear as values of the original string attribute. Alternatively, the frequencies f_{ij} for word i in document j can be transformed using $\log(1 + f_{ij})$ or the TFIDF measure.

FixedDictionaryStringToWordVector is similar to *StringToWordVector* but allows the user to provide a dictionary file containing the words that will form the attributes, rather than building a dictionary on the fly. The format of the dictionary file is that of one word per line, with each followed by an optional count (separated by a comma) of how many documents in the corpus from which the dictionary was derived contained that word.

ChangeDateFormat alters the formatting string that is used to parse date attributes. Any format supported by Java’s *SimpleDateFormat* class can be specified.

2.3.1.5 Time series

Two filters work with time series data. *TimeSeriesTranslate* replaces the values of an attribute (or attributes) in the current instance with the equivalent value in some other (previous or future) instance. *TimeSeriesDelta* replaces attribute values in the current instance with the difference between the current value and the value in some other instance. In both cases instances in which the time-shifted value is unknown may be removed, or missing values used.

2.3.1.6 Randomizing the attributes

Other attribute filters degrade the data. *AddNoise* takes a nominal attribute and changes a given percentage of its values. Missing values can be retained or changed along with the rest. *Obfuscate* anonymizes data by renaming the relation, attribute names, and nominal and string attribute values. *RandomProjection* projects the dataset on to a lower-dimensional subspace using a random matrix with columns of unit length. The class attribute is not included in the projection.

2.3.2 Unsupervised instance filters

WEKA’s instance filters affect all instances in a dataset rather than all values of a particular attribute or set of attributes.

2.3.2.1 Randomizing and subsampling

Randomize does just what the name suggests—it randomizes the order of the instances in the dataset. The user can specify a random number seed to use in this process.

There are various ways of generating subsets of the data. Use *Resample* to produce a random sample by sampling with or without replacement, or *RemoveFolds* to split the data into a given number of cross-validation folds and reduce it to just one of them. If a random number seed is

provided, the dataset will be shuffled before the subset is extracted. *ReservoirSample* uses the reservoir sampling algorithm to produce a random sample (without replacement) from a dataset. When used from the Knowledge Flow interface (see Chapter 3) or from the command line, the dataset is read incrementally, so that datasets that exceed main memory can be sampled.

RemovePercentage removes a given percentage of instances, and *RemoveRange* removes a certain range of instance numbers. To remove all instances that have certain values for nominal attributes, or numeric values above or below a certain threshold, use *RemoveWithValues*. By default all instances are deleted that exhibit one of a given set of nominal attribute values (if the specified attribute is nominal) or a numeric value below a given threshold (if it is numeric). However, the matching criterion can be inverted. The attribute information is normally left unchanged, but this can be altered so that corresponding values of a nominal attribute are deleted from its definition.

RemoveFrequentValues can be used to remove those instances containing the most- or least-frequent values of a particular nominal attribute; the user can specify how many frequent or infrequent values to remove.

SubsetByExpression selects all instances that satisfy a user-supplied logical expression. The expression can involve mathematical operators and functions, such as those used by *AddExpression* and *MathExpression*, and logical operators (such as *and*, *or* and *not*), applied to attribute values. For example, the expression

(CLASS is 'mammal') and (ATT14 > 2)

selects only those instances whose class attribute has the value mammal and whose 14th attribute exceeds 2.

You can remove outliers by applying a classification method to the dataset (specifying it just as the clustering method was specified previously for *AddCluster*) and use *RemoveMisclassified* to delete the instances that it misclassifies. The process is normally repeated until the data is fully cleansed, but a maximum number of iterations can be specified instead. Cross-validation can be used rather than evaluation on the training data, and for numeric classes an error threshold can be specified.

2.3.2.2 Sparse instances

The *NonSparseToSparse* and *SparseToNonSparse* filters convert between the regular representation of a dataset and its sparse representation.

2.3.3 Supervised filters

Supervised filters are available from the Explorer's *Preprocess* panel, just as unsupervised ones are. As mentioned earlier, you need to be careful with them because, despite appearances, they are not really preprocessing operations. We noted this earlier with regard to discretization—it must not use the test data's class values because these are supposed to be unknown—and this is true for supervised filters in general.

Because of popular demand, WEKA allows you to invoke supervised filters as a preprocessing operation, just like unsupervised filters. However, if you intend to use them for classification you should adopt a different methodology. A *metalearner* is provided so that the process of building the filtering model becomes part of the learning process. This filters the test data using the filter that has been created from the training data. It is also useful for some unsupervised filters. For example, in *StringToWordVector* the dictionary will be created from the training data alone:

words that are novel in the test data will be discarded. To use a supervised filter in this way, invoke the *FilteredClassifier* metalearning scheme from the *meta* section of the menu displayed by the Classify panel's Choose button. Figure 2.17a shows the object editor for this metalearning scheme. With it you choose a classifier and a filter. Figure 2.17b shows the menu of filters.

Supervised filters, just like unsupervised ones, are divided into attribute and instance filters.

2.3.3.1 Supervised attribute filters

Discretize, highlighted in Figure 2.17, uses the MDL method of supervised discretization. You can specify a range of attributes or force the discretized attribute to be binary. The class must be nominal. By default Fayyad and Irani's (1993) criterion is used, but Kononenko's method (1995) is an option.

There is a supervised version of the *NominalToBinary* filter that transforms all multivalued nominal attributes to binary ones. In this version, the transformation depends on whether the class is nominal or numeric. If nominal, the same method as before is used: an attribute with k values is transformed into k binary attributes. If the class is numeric, however, the method described in used by the model tree learner M5' is applied. In either case the class itself is not transformed.

ClassOrder changes the ordering of the class values. The user determines whether the new ordering is random or in ascending or descending class frequency. This filter must not be used with the *FilteredClassifier* metalearning scheme!

AddClassification adds to the data the predictions of a given classifier, which can be either trained on the input dataset or loaded from a file as a serialized object. New attributes can be added that hold the predicted class value, the predicted probability distribution (if the class is nominal), or a flag that indicates misclassified instances (or, for numeric classes, the difference between the predicted and actual class values).

AttributeSelection applies a given attribute selection technique in order to reduce the number of attributes in the data. The user can choose which attribute or subset evaluator to use and combine it with a search strategy in order to implement an attribute selection method.

ClassConditionalProbabilities converts the values of nominal and numeric attributes into class conditional probability estimates. For each original attribute A converted, it creates as many new attributes as there are class values, where the value of the new attribute corresponding to class C_k is $P(A|C_k)$. This is essentially the same as what the naive Bayes classifier computes and, in fact, the implementation uses naive Bayes internally. Like the unsupervised filters that merge nominal values, this filter can help when dealing with nominal attributes that have a large number of distinct values.

2.3.3.2 Supervised instance filters

There are four supervised instance filters. *Resample* is like the eponymous unsupervised instance filter except that it maintains the class distribution in the subsample. Alternatively, it can be configured to bias the class distribution towards a uniform one. Sampling can be performed with (default) or without replacement. *SpreadSubsample* also produces a random subsample, but the frequency difference between the rarest and the most common class can be controlled—for example, you can specify at most a 2 : 1 difference in class frequencies. You can also limit the number of instances in any class by specifying an explicit maximum count.

SMOTE is another filter that samples the data and alters the class distribution (Chawla et al., 2002). Like *SpreadSubsample*, it can be used to adjust the relative frequency between minority and majority classes in the data—but it takes care not to undersample majority classes and it oversamples the minority class by creating synthetic instances using a k -nearest neighbor

approach. The user can specify the oversampling percentage and the number of neighbors to use when creating synthetic instances.

Like the unsupervised instance filter *RemoveFolds*, *StratifiedRemoveFolds* outputs a specified cross-validation fold for the dataset, except that this time the fold is stratified.

2.4 Learning algorithms

On the *Classify* panel, when you select a learning algorithm using the *Choose* button the command-line version of the classifier appears in the line beside the button, including the parameters specified with minus signs. To change them, click that line to get an appropriate object editor. The classifiers in WEKA are divided into Bayesian classifiers, trees, rules, functions, lazy classifiers and a final miscellaneous category. We describe them briefly here, along with their parameters. To learn more, choose one in the WEKA Explorer interface and examine its object editor. A further kind of classifier, the metalearner, is described in the next section.

2.4.1 Bayesian classifiers

NaiveBayes implements the probabilistic Naive Bayes classifier. *NaiveBayesSimple* uses the normal distribution to model numeric attributes. *NaiveBayes* can use kernel density estimators, which improve performance if the normality assumption is grossly incorrect; it can also handle numeric attributes using supervised discretization.

Figure 2.18 shows the output of *NaiveBayes* on the weather data. The salient difference between this and the output in Figure 2.5 of *J48* on the same data is that instead of a tree in textual form, here the parameters of the *Naive Bayes* model are presented in a table. The first column shows attributes and the other two show class values; entries are either frequency counts of nominal values or parameters of normal distributions for numeric attributes. For example, Figure 2.18 shows that the mean temperature value for instances of class yes is 72.9697, while for instances for which *windy* = *yes* the values *true* and *false* occur 4 and 7 times respectively. The grand total of the yes and no counts for *windy* is, surprisingly, 18—more than the 14 instances in the weather data (the situation for *outlook* is even worse, totaling 20). The reason is that *NaiveBayes* avoids zero frequencies by applying the Laplace correction, which involves initializing each count to 1 rather than to 0.

NaiveBayesUpdateable is an incremental version that processes one instance at a time; it can use a kernel estimator but not discretization. *NaiveBayesMultinomial* implements the multinomial Bayes classifier; *NaiveBayesMultinomialUpdateable* is an incremental version. *NaiveBayes-MultinomialText* is a version of incremental multinomial naive Bayes that can work directly on string attributes. It effectively performs the function of the *StringToWordVector* filter, minus the TF/IDF transformation, on the fly.

BayesNet learns Bayesian nets under the assumptions made in Section 6.7: nominal attributes (numeric ones are prediscretized) and no missing values (any such values are replaced globally). There are four different algorithms for estimating the conditional probability tables of the network. Search is done using the K2 or the TAN algorithms, or more sophisticated methods based on hill-climbing, simulated annealing, tabu search, and genetic algorithms. Optionally search speed can be improved using AD trees. There are also two algorithms that use conditional independence tests to learn the structure of the network; alternatively, the network structure can be loaded from an XML file. More details on the implementation of Bayesian networks in WEKA can be found in Bouckaert (2004).

You can observe the network structure by right-clicking the history item and selecting Visualize graph. Figure 2.19a shows the graph for the nominal version of the weather data, which in

fact corresponds to the Naive Bayes result with all probabilities conditioned on the class value. This is because the search algorithm defaults to K2 with the maximum number of parents of a node set to one. Reconfiguring this to three by clicking on K2 in the configuration panel yields the more interesting network in Figure 2.19b. Clicking on a node shows its probability distribution—Figure 2.19c is obtained by clicking on the windy node in Figure 2.19b.

2.4.2 Trees

Of the tree classifiers in WEKA, we have already seen how to use J4.8, which reimplements C4.5. To see the options, click the line beside the *Choose* button in Figure 2.4b to bring up the object editor in Figure 2.20. You can build a binary tree instead of one with multiway branches. You can set the confidence threshold for pruning (default 0.25), and the minimum number of instances permissible at a leaf (default 2). Instead of standard C4.5 pruning you can choose reduced-error pruning. The *numFolds* parameter (default 3) determines the size of the pruning set: the data is divided equally into that number of parts and the last one used for pruning. When visualizing the tree it is nice to be able to consult the original data points, which you can do if *saveInstanceData* has been turned on (it is off, or *False*, by default to reduce memory requirements). You can suppress subtree raising, yielding a more efficient algorithm; force the algorithm to use the unpruned tree instead of the pruned one; or use Laplace smoothing for predicted probabilities.

DecisionStump, designed for use with the boosting methods described later, builds one-level binary decision trees for datasets with a categorical or numeric class, dealing with missing values by treating them as a separate value and extending a third branch from the stump. Trees built by *RandomTree* consider a given number of random features at each node, performing no pruning. *RandomForest* constructs random forests by bagging ensembles of random trees.

REPTree builds a decision or regression tree using information gain/variance reduction and prunes it using reduced-error pruning. Optimized for speed, it only sorts values for numeric attributes once. It deals with missing values by splitting instances into pieces, as C4.5 does. You can set the minimum number of instances per leaf, maximum tree depth (useful when boosting trees), minimum proportion of training set variance for a split (numeric classes only), and number of folds for pruning.

M5P is the model tree learner M5† described in Chapter 7 of the book.

LMT builds logistic model trees. It can deal with binary and multiclass target variables, numeric and nominal attributes, and missing values. When fitting the logistic regression functions at a node using the *LogitBoost* algorithm, it uses cross-validation to determine how many iterations to run just once and employs the same number throughout the tree instead of cross-validating at every node. This heuristic (which you can switch off) improves the run time considerably, with little effect on accuracy. Alternatively, you can set the number of boosting iterations to be used throughout the tree manually, or use a fast heuristic based on the Akaike Information Criterion instead of cross-validation. Weight trimming during the boosting process can be used to further improve run time. Normally, it is the misclassification error that cross-validation minimizes, but the mean absolute error of the probability estimates can be chosen instead. The splitting criterion can be based on C4.5’s information gain (the default) or on the LogitBoost residuals, striving to improve the purity of the residuals. LMT employs the minimal cost-complexity pruning mechanism to produce a compact tree structure.

HoeffdingTree is an implementation of the incremental decision tree algorithm described in Chapter 13 of the book. It offers options to create splits based on information gain or the Gini index. Predictions at the leaves of the tree can be made by either majority class or naive Bayes models.

2.4.3 Rules

DecisionTable builds a decision table classifier. It evaluates feature subsets using best-first search and can use cross-validation for evaluation (Kohavi 1995b). An option uses the nearest-neighbor method to determine the class for each instance that is not covered by a decision table entry, instead of the table's global majority, based on the same set of features.

OneR is the 1R classifier with one parameter: the minimum bucket size for discretization. Figure 2.21 shows its output for the labor negotiations data. The Classifier model part shows that wage-increase-first-year has been identified as the basis of the rule produced, with a split at the value 2.9 dividing bad outcomes from good ones (the class is also good if the value of that attribute is missing). Beneath the rules the fraction of training instances correctly classified by the rules is given in parentheses.

Part obtains rules from partial decision trees. It builds the tree using C4.5's heuristics with the same user-defined parameters as J4.8. Figure 2.22 shows the output of Part for the labor negotiations data. Three rules are found, and are intended to be processed in order, the prediction generated for any test instance being the outcome of the first rule that fires. The last, "catch-all," rule will always fire if no other rule fires. As with J4.8, the numbers in parentheses that follow each rule give the number of instances that are covered by the rule followed by the number that are misclassified (if any).

M5Rules obtains regression rules from model trees built using M5'. *Ridor* learns rules with exceptions by generating the default rule, using incremental reduced-error pruning to find exceptions with the smallest error rate, finding the best exceptions for each exception, and iterating.

JRip implements Ripper algorithm, including heuristic global optimization of the rule set (Cohen 1995). *NNge* is a nearest-neighbor method for generating rules using nonnested generalized exemplars.

2.4.4 Functions

Algorithms that fall into the *functions* category include an assorted group of classifiers that can be written down as mathematical equations in a reasonably natural way. Other methods, such as decision trees and rules, cannot (there are exceptions: Naive Bayes has a simple mathematical formulation). Four of them implement linear regression. *SimpleLinearRegression* learns a linear regression model based on a single attribute—it chooses the one that yields the smallest squared error. Missing values and nonnumeric attributes are not allowed. Figure 2.23 shows the output of *SimpleLinearRegression* for the CPU performance data. The attribute that has the smallest squared error in this case is *MMAX*.

LinearRegression performs least-squares multiple linear regression including attribute selection, either greedily using backward elimination or by building a full model from all attributes and dropping terms one by one in decreasing order of their standardized coefficients until a stopping criteria is reached. Both methods use a version of the AIC termination criterion. Attribute selection can be turned off. The implementation has two further refinements: a heuristic mechanism for detecting collinear attributes (which can be turned off) and a ridge parameter that stabilizes degenerate cases and can reduce overfitting by penalizing large coefficients. Technically, *LinearRegression* implements ridge regression.

SMO implements the sequential minimal optimization algorithm for training a support vector classifier (Platt, 1998; Keerthi et al., 2001), using kernel functions such as polynomial or Gaussian kernels. Missing values are replaced globally, nominal attributes are transformed into binary ones, and attributes are normalized by default—note that the coefficients in the output are based on the normalized data. Normalization can be turned off, or the input standardized to zero mean and unit variance. Pairwise classification is used for multiclass problems. Logistic regression

models can be fitted to the support vector machine output to obtain probability estimates. In the multiclass case the predicted probabilities will be combined using pairwise coupling (Hastie and Tibshirani, 1998). When working with sparse instances, turn normalization off for faster operation.

Figure 2.24 shows the output of *SMO* on the iris data. A polynomial kernel with an exponent of 1 has been used, making the model a linear support vector machine. Since the iris data contains three class values, three binary SMO models have been output—one hyperplane to separate each possible pair of class values. Furthermore, since the machine is linear, the hyperplanes are expressed as functions of the attribute values in the original (albeit normalized) space. Figures 2.25 and 2.26 show the result when the exponent of the polynomial kernel is set to 2, making the support vector machine nonlinear. There are three binary SMO models as before, but this time the classifiers are expressed as functions of the support vectors. Each support vector is shown enclosed in angle brackets, along with the value of its coefficient α . The value of the offset parameter, b , is shown as the last component of each function.

SMOreg implements the sequential minimal optimization algorithm for learning a support vector regression model (Smola and Schölkopf, 1998).

VotedPerceptron is the voted perceptron algorithm. *Winnow* modifies the basic perceptron to use multiplicative updates. The implementation allows for a second multiplier β —different from $1/\alpha$ —to be used, which makes the algorithm slightly more flexible than the version of balanced Winnow discussed in the book.

GaussianProcesses implements the Bayesian Gaussian process technique for non-linear regression. Users can specify the kernel function, along with a “noise” regularization parameter for controlling the closeness of fit. They can choose to have the training data normalized or standardized before learning the regression. For point estimates, this method is equivalent to kernel ridge regression.

SGD implements stochastic gradient descent learning of linear models. Models can be learned in either a batch or incremental fashion. The loss function chosen determines the type of model learned. Available loss functions include the hinge loss (linear support vector classifier), log loss (logistic regression), squared loss (least squares linear regression), epsilon-insensitive loss (support vector regression) and Huber loss (robust regression). *SGDText*, like *NaiveBayesMultinomialText*, is a version that is designed for text classification and can operate directly on string attributes. *SGDText* is limited to just the hinge and log loss.

SimpleLogistic builds logistic regression models, fitting them using LogitBoost with simple regression functions as base learners and determining how many iterations to perform using cross-validation—which supports automatic attribute selection. *SimpleLogistic* generates a degenerate logistic model tree comprising a single node, and supports the options given earlier for *LMT*.

Logistic is an alternative implementation for building and using a multinomial logistic regression model with a ridge estimator to guard against overfitting by penalizing large coefficients, based on work by le Cessie and van Houwelingen (1992). Figure 2.27 shows its output on the iris data. The coefficients of the regression functions are shown in tabular form, one for each class value except for the last class. Given m input attributes and k classes, the probability predicted for class j (with the exception of the last class) is given by

$$P(j|a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m) = \frac{\exp(w_0^j + w_1^j a_1 + w_2^j a_2 + \dots + w_m^j a_m)}{1 + \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \exp(w_0^j + w_1^j a_1 + w_2^j a_2 + \dots + w_m^j a_m)}$$

where w_0^j is the intercept term for class j . The probability of the last class k is given by

$$1 - \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} P(j|a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m)$$

Beneath the table of regression coefficients is a second table giving an estimate of the odds ratio for each input attribute and class value. For a given attribute, this value gives an indication of its influence on the class when the values of the other attributes are held fixed.

2.4.5 Neural networks

MultilayerPerceptron is a neural network that is trained using back propagation. Although listed under functions, it differs from the other schemes because it has its own user interface. If you load up the numeric version of the weather data, invoke *MultilayerPerceptron*, set *GUI* to *True* in its object editor, and run the network by clicking *Start* on the *Classify* panel, the diagram in Figure 2.28 appears in a separate window. This network has three layers: an input layer on the left with one rectangular box for each attribute (colored green); a hidden layer next to it (red) to which all the input nodes are connected; and an output layer at the right (orange). The labels at the far right show the classes that the output nodes represent. Output nodes for numeric classes are automatically converted to unthresholded linear units.

Before clicking *Start* to run the network, you can alter its structure by adding nodes and connections. Nodes can be selected or deselected. All six nodes in the hidden and output layers in Figure 2.28 are deselected, indicated by the gray color of their center. To select a node, simply click on it. This changes the color of its center from gray to bright yellow. To deselect a node, right-click in an empty space. To add a node, ensure that none is selected and left-click anywhere in the panel; the new node will be selected automatically. In Figure 2.28, a new node has been added at the lower center. To connect two nodes, select the start node and then click on the end one. If several start nodes are selected, they are all connected to the end node. If you click in empty space instead, a new node is created as the end node. Notice that connections are directional (although the directions are not shown). The start nodes remain selected; thus you can add an entire hidden layer with just a few clicks, as shown in Figure 2.28b. To remove a node, ensure that no nodes are selected and right-click it; this also removes all connections to it. To remove a single connection, select one node and right-click the node at the other end.

As well as configuring the structure of the network, you can control the learning rate, the momentum, and the number of passes that will be taken through the data, called *epochs*. The network begins to train when you click *Start*, and a running indication of the epoch and the error for that epoch is shown at the lower left of the panel in Figure 2.28. Note that the error is based on a network that changes as the value is computed. For numeric classes the error value depends on whether the class is normalized. The network stops when the specified number of epochs is reached, at which point you can accept the result or increase the desired number of epochs and press *Start* again to continue training.

MultilayerPerceptron need not be run through the graphical interface. Several parameters can be set from the object editor to control its operation. If you are using the graphical interface they govern the initial network structure, which you can override interactively. With *autoBuild* set, hidden layers are added and connected up. The default is to have the one hidden layer shown in Figure 2.28a, but without *autoBuild* this would not appear and there would be no connections. The *hiddenLayers* parameter defines what hidden layers are present and how many nodes each one contains. Figure 2.28a is generated by a value of 4 (one hidden layer with four nodes), and although 2.28b was created by adding nodes interactively, it could have been generated by setting *hiddenLayers* to 4,5 (one hidden layer with four nodes and another with five). The value is a comma-separated list of integers; 0 gives no hidden layers. Furthermore, there are predefined values that can be used instead of integers: *i* is the number of attributes, *o* the number of class values, *a* the average of the two, and *t* their sum. The default, *a*, was used to generate Figure 2.28a.

The options *learningRate* and *momentum* set values for these parameters, which can be overridden in the graphical interface. A *decay* parameter causes the learning rate to decrease with time: it divides the starting value by the epoch number to obtain the current rate. This sometimes improves performance and may stop the network from diverging. The *reset* parameter automatically resets the network with a lower learning rate and begins training again if it is diverging from the answer (this option is only available if the graphical interface is not used).

The *trainingTime* parameter sets the number of training epochs. Alternatively, a percentage of the data can be set aside for validation (using *validationSetSize*): then training continues until performance on the validation set starts to deteriorate consistently—or until the specified number of epochs is reached. If the percentage is set to zero, no validation set is used. The *validationThreshold* parameter determines how many consecutive times the validation set error can deteriorate before training is stopped.

The *NominalToBinaryFilter* filter is specified by default in the *MultilayerPerceptron* object editor; turning it off may improve performance on data in which the nominal attributes are really ordinal. The attributes can be normalized (with *normalizeAttributes*), and a numeric class can be normalized too (with *normalizeNumericClass*). Both may improve performance; these options are turned on by default.

2.4.6 Lazy classifiers

Lazy learners store the training instances and do no real work until classification time. The simplest lazy learner is the *k*-nearest-neighbor classifier, which is implemented by *IBk*. A variety of different search algorithms can be used to speed up the task of finding the nearest neighbors. A linear search is the default, but other options include kD-trees, ball trees and so-called “cover trees” (Beygelzimer et al., 2006). The distance function used is a parameter of the search method. The default is the same as for *IB1*, that is, the Euclidean distance; other options include Chebyshev, Manhattan and Minkowski distances. The number of nearest neighbors (default $k = 1$) can be specified explicitly in the object editor or determined automatically using leave-one-out cross-validation, subject to an upper limit given by the specified value. Predictions from more than one neighbor can be weighted according to their distance from the test instance, and two different formulas are implemented for converting the distance into a weight. The number of training instances kept by the classifier can be restricted by setting the window size option. As new training instances are added, the oldest ones are removed to maintain the number of training instances at this size. *KStar* is a nearest-neighbor method with generalized distance function based on transformations, discussed in Chapter 7 of the book.

LWL is a general algorithm for locally weighted learning. It assigns weights using an instance-based method and builds a classifier from the weighted instances. The classifier is selected in *LWL*’s object editor: a good choice is naive Bayes or logistic regression for classification problems and linear regression for regression problems. You can set the number of neighbors used, which determines the kernel bandwidth, and the kernel shape to use for weighting—linear, inverse, or Gaussian. Attribute normalization is turned on by default.

2.4.7 Miscellaneous classifiers

The “Misc.” category includes just two classifiers, unless further corresponding WEKA packages have been installed. *SerializedClassifier* loads a model that has been serialized to a file and uses it for prediction. Providing a new training dataset has no effect, because it encapsulates a static model. Similarly, performing cross-validation using *SerializedClassifier* makes little sense. *InputMappedClassifier* wraps a base classifier (or model that has been serialized to a file) and

constructs a mapping between the attributes present in the incoming test data and those that were seen when the model was trained. Values for attributes present in the test data but not in the training data are simply ignored. Values for attributes present at training time but not present in the test data receive missing values. Similarly, missing values are used for incoming nominal values not seen during training.

2.4.8 Metalearning algorithms

Metalearning algorithms take classifiers and turn them into more powerful learners. One parameter specifies the base classifier(s); others specify the number of iterations for iterative schemes such as bagging and boosting and an initial seed for the random number generator. We already met *FilteredClassifier* in Section 2.3.3: it runs a classifier on data that has been passed through a filter, which is a parameter. The filter's own parameters are based exclusively on the training data, which is the appropriate way to apply a supervised filter to test data.

2.4.8.1 Bagging and randomization

Bagging bags a classifier to reduce variance. This implementation works for both classification and regression, depending on the base learner. In the case of classification, predictions are generated by averaging probability estimates, not by voting. One parameter is the size of the bags as a percentage of the training set. Another is whether to calculate the out-of-bag error, which gives the average error of the ensemble members (Breiman 2001).

RandomCommittee is even simpler: it builds an ensemble of base classifiers and averages their predictions. Each one is based on the same data but uses a different random number seed. This only makes sense if the base classifier is randomized; otherwise, all classifiers would be the same.

RandomSubSpace builds an ensemble of classifiers, each trained using a randomly selected subset of the input attributes. Aside from the number of iterations and random seed to use, it provides a parameter to control the size of the attribute subsets. *RotationForest* implements the rotation forest ensemble learner. Although the classic paper on rotation forests, Rodriguez et al. (2006), uses random subspaces and principal components to create an ensemble of decision trees, WEKA's implementation allows the base classifier to be any classification or regression scheme. The principal components transformation is performed by WEKA's filter of the same name. *RotationForest* can be configured to use other projections such as random projections or partial least squares. Other parameters control the size of the subspaces and the number of instances that are input to the projection filter.

2.4.8.2 Boosting

AdaBoostM1 implements the classic boosting algorithm. It can be accelerated by specifying a threshold for weight pruning. *AdaBoostM1* resamples if the base classifier cannot handle weighted instances (you can also force resampling anyway).

Whereas *AdaBoostM1* only applies to nominal classes, *AdditiveRegression* enhances the performance of a regression learner. There are two parameters: shrinkage, which governs the learning rate, and the maximum number of models to generate. If the latter is infinite, work continues until the error stops decreasing.

LogitBoost performs additive logistic regression. Like *AdaBoostM1*, it can be accelerated by specifying a threshold for weight pruning. The appropriate number of iterations can be determined using internal cross-validation; there is a shrinkage parameter that can be tuned to prevent overfitting; and you can choose resampling instead of reweighting.

2.4.8.3 Combining classifiers

Vote provides a baseline method for combining classifiers. The default scheme is to average their probability estimates or numeric predictions, for classification and regression respectively. Other combination schemes are available, for example, using majority voting for classification.

Stacking combines classifiers using stacking for both classification and regression problems. You specify the base classifiers, the metalearner, and the number of cross-validation folds.

2.4.8.4 Cost-sensitive learning

There is one metalearner, called *CostSensitiveLearning*, for cost-sensitive learning. The cost matrix can be supplied as a parameter or loaded from a file in the directory set by the *onDemandDirectory* property, named by the relation name and with the extension *cost*. *CostSensitiveClassifier* either reweights training instances according to the total cost assigned to each class or predicts the class with the minimum expected misclassification cost rather than the most likely one.

2.4.8.5 Optimizing performance

Five metalearners use the wrapper technique to optimize the base classifier's performance. *AttributeSelectedClassifier* selects attributes, reducing the data's dimensionality before passing it to the classifier. You can choose the attribute evaluator and search method as in the *Select attributes* panel described in Section 2.2. *CVParameterSelection* optimizes performance by using cross-validation to select parameters. For each parameter you give a string containing its lower and upper bounds and the desired number of increments. For example, to vary parameter *-P* from 1 to 10 in increments of 1, use

```
P 1 10 10
```

The number of cross-validation folds to be used can be specified.

MultiScheme selects a classifier to use from among several by using either the resubstitution error or cross-validation on the training data. Performance is measured using percentage correct in the case of classification and mean squared error for regression.

IterativeClassifierOptimizer optimizes the number of iterations performed by iterative classifiers, such as boosting methods, using cross-validation on the training data. Performance can be measured using any of the metrics described in Chapter 5 of the book. The user can specify parameters such as how many cross-validation folds to use, how many iterations to look ahead in order to find a better solution, and how often to perform the evaluation (if evaluation of every iteration is proving too time consuming).

The fifth metalearner, *ThresholdSelector*, optimizes one of a number of different evaluation metrics, including F-measure, precision, recall, accuracy and true positive rate, by selecting a probability threshold on the classifier's output. Performance can be measured on the training data, on a holdout set, or by cross-validation. The probabilities returned by the base learner can be rescaled into the full range [0,1], which is useful if the scheme's probabilities are restricted to a narrow subrange. The metalearner can be applied to multiclass problems by specifying the class value for which the optimization is performed as

1. The first class value.
2. The second class value.

3. Whichever value is least frequent.
4. Whichever value is most frequent.
5. The first class named *yes*, *positive*, or *1*.

2.4.8.6 Retargeting classifiers for different tasks

Three metalearners adapt learners designed for one kind of task to another. *ClassificationViaRegression* performs classification using a regression method by binarizing the class and building a regression model for each value. *RegressionByDiscretization* is a regression scheme that discretizes the class attribute into a specified number of bins using equal-width discretization and then employs a classifier. The predictions are the weighted average of the mean class value for each discretized interval, with weights based on the predicted probabilities for the intervals.

MultiClassClassifier handles multiclass problems with two-class classifiers using any of these methods:

1. One versus all the rest.
2. Pairwise classification using voting to predict.
3. Exhaustive error-correcting codes.
4. Randomly selected error-correcting codes.

Random code vectors are known to have good error-correcting properties: a parameter specifies the length of the code vector as a factor that is multiplied by the number of classes in the data. For pairwise classification, pairwise coupling of probability estimates can be turned on.

2.5 Clustering algorithms

The *Cluster* panel provides access to clustering algorithms. *Cobweb* and *SimpleKMeans* are described in Chapter 4 of the book; *EM* is described in Chapter 9. For the *EM* implementation you can specify how many clusters to generate, or the algorithm can decide by cross-validating the loglikelihood—in which case the number of folds is fixed at 10 (unless there are fewer than 10 training instances). You can specify the maximum number of iterations and set the minimum allowable standard deviation for the normal density calculation. Clusters are Gaussian distributions with diagonal covariance matrices. *SimpleKMeans* clusters data using *k*-means; the number of clusters is specified by a parameter. The user can choose between the Euclidean and Manhattan distance metrics. In the latter case the algorithm is actually *k*-medians instead *k*-means, and the centroids are based on medians rather than means in order to minimize the within-cluster distance function.

Figure 2.29 shows the output of *SimpleKMeans* for the weather data, with default options: two clusters and Euclidean distance. The result of clustering is shown as a table whose rows are attribute names and whose columns correspond to the cluster centroids; an additional cluster at the beginning shows the entire data set. The number of instances in each cluster appears in parentheses at the top of its column. Each table entry is either the mean (numeric attribute) or mode (nominal attribute) of the corresponding attribute for the cluster in that column; users can choose to show standard deviations (numeric attribute) and frequency counts (nominal attributes) as well. The bottom of the output shows the result of applying the learned clustering model. In this case, it assigned each training instance to one of the clusters, showing the same

result as the parenthetical numbers at the top of each column. An alternative is to use a separate test set or a percentage split of the training data, in which case the figures would be different.

Figure 2.29 shows the output of *EM* for the same data, with the number of clusters set to two. Although there is no notion of the number of instances in each cluster, the columns are again headed by its prior probability in parentheses. The table entries show the parameters of normal distributions for numeric attributes or frequency counts for the values of nominal attributes—and here the fractional count values reveal the “soft” nature of the clusters produced by the EM algorithm, in that any instance can be split between several clusters. At the bottom the loglikelihood of the model (again with respect to the training data) is shown, as well as the number of instances assigned to each cluster when the learned model is applied to the data as a classifier.

Cobweb implements both the Cobweb algorithm for nominal attributes and the Classit algorithm for numeric attributes. The ordering and priority of the merging and splitting operators differs from the original Cobweb and Classit papers (where it is somewhat ambiguous). This implementation always compares four different ways of treating a new instance and chooses the best: adding it to the best host, making it into a new leaf, merging the two best hosts and adding it to the merged node, and splitting the best host and adding it to one of the splits. *Acuity* and *cutoff* are parameters.

HierarchicalClusterer implements agglomerative (bottom-up) generation of hierarchical clusters (Section 6.8 of the book). Several different link types, which are ways of measuring the distance between clusters, are available as options.

FarthestFirst implements the farthest-first traversal algorithm of Hochbaum and Shmoys (1985), cited by Sanjoy Dasgupta (2002); a fast, simple, approximate clusterer modeled on *k*-means. *MakeDensityBasedClusterer* is a metaclusterer that wraps a clustering algorithm to make it return a probability distribution and density. To each cluster and attribute it fits a discrete distribution or a symmetric normal distribution (whose minimum standard deviation is a parameter).

Canopy implements the canopy clustering algorithm algorithm of McCallum, Nigam and Ungar (2000). Canopy clustering is often used as an initialization strategy for *k*-means or as a fast approximate clustering method for use on large datasets, where applying another algorithm directly might be impractical. The algorithm partitions the input data into proximity regions (canopies) in the form of hyperspheres defined by a loose distance, *T1*, from the region’s center. A second tight distance, *T2* (where *T2* < *T1*), is used to control how many canopies are formed by the algorithm. At most two passes over the data are required. The first pass creates the canopies, and it starts by choosing one instance at random to form the center of the first canopy. Following this, each of the remaining instances are considered in turn, by computing its distance to the center of each existing canopy. If a given instance is outside the *T2* distance to all canopies then it forms a new canopy, otherwise it is discarded. The second pass over the data assigns instances to canopies and makes use of the loose *T1* distance. Because canopies can overlap according to *T1* distance, it is possible for a given instance to belong to more than one canopy.

2.6 Association rule learners

WEKA has three association rule learners. *Apriori* implements the Apriori algorithm. It starts with a minimum support of 100% of the data items and decreases this in steps of 5% until there are at least 10 rules with the required minimum confidence of 0.9 or until the support has reached a lower bound of 10%, whichever occurs first. (These default values can be changed.) There are four alternative metrics for ranking rules: *Confidence*, which is the proportion of

the examples covered by the premise that are also covered by the consequent; *Lift*, which is determined by dividing the confidence by the support; *Leverage*, which is the proportion of additional examples covered by both the premise and the consequent beyond those expected if the premise and consequent were statistically independent; and *Conviction*, a measure defined by Brin et al. (1997). You can also specify a significance level, and rules will be tested for significance at this level. Apriori has an option to limit the rules found to those that contain just the value of a single attribute in the consequence of the rule. Such rules are called “class” association rules—i.e., classification rules.

In order to process market-basket data with Apriori, where we are interested in knowing (from the items present in shoppers’ baskets) which items are purchased together, it is necessary to encode the input ARFF data in a specific way. In particular, since we are not interested in co-occurrence of items not present in shopping baskets, the attributes corresponding to items should be declared as single-valued nominal ones in the ARFF file. Missing values can be used to indicate the absence of an item from a shopping basket.

FPGrowth implements the frequent pattern tree mining algorithm. Being designed for market-basket data, Apriori’s special encoding for this type of data is not implemented here. All attributes are expected to be binary nominal ones, and the user can specify which of the two values is to be treated as positive, i.e., indicates presence in the basket (the default is to use the second value). FPGrowth can operate on either standard or sparse instances. Most of its options are the same as for Apriori. It finds the requested number of rules in the same way—by iteratively decreasing the minimum support. Optionally, the user can have FPGrowth find all the rules that meet the lower bound for the minimum support and the minimum value set for the ranking metric (confidence, lift, leverage or conviction).

FilteredAssociator allows the data to be passed through a filter before it reaches an associator. Both the filter and the base associator are options that the user can configure.

2.7 Attribute selection

Figure 2.31 shows that part of WEKA’s attribute selection panel where you specify the attribute evaluator and search method. Attribute selection is normally done by searching the space of attribute subsets, evaluating each one. A potentially faster but less accurate approach is to evaluate the attributes individually and sort them, discarding attributes that fall below a chosen cut-off point.

2.7.1 Attribute subset evaluators

Subset evaluators take a subset of attributes and return a numerical measure that guides the search. They are configured like any other WEKA object. *CfsSubsetEval* assesses the predictive ability of each attribute individually and the degree of redundancy among them, preferring sets of attributes that are highly correlated with the class but with low intercorrelation. An option iteratively adds attributes that have the highest correlation with the class, provided that the set does not already contain an attribute whose correlation with the attribute in question is even higher. Missing can be treated as a separate value, or its counts can be distributed among other values in proportion to their frequency.

Whereas *CfsSubsetEval* is a filter method of attribute selection, *WrapperSubsetEval* implements a wrapper method. *WrapperSubsetEval* uses a classifier to evaluate attribute set and employs cross-validation to estimate the accuracy of the learning scheme for each set.

2.7.2 Single-attribute evaluators

Single-attribute evaluators are used with the *Ranker* search method to generate a ranked list from which *Ranker* discards a given number (explained in the next subsection). *ReliefFAttributeEval* is instance-based: it samples instances randomly and checks neighboring instances of the same and different classes. It operates on discrete and continuous class data. Parameters specify the number of instances to sample, the number of neighbors to check, whether to weight neighbors by distance, and an exponential function that governs how rapidly weights decay with distance.

InfoGainAttributeEval evaluates attributes by measuring their information gain with respect to the class. It discretizes numeric attributes first using the MDL-based discretization method (it can be set to binarize them instead). This method, along with the next three, can treat missing as a separate value or distribute the counts among other values in proportion to their frequency. *ChiSquaredAttributeEval* evaluates attributes by computing the chi-squared statistic with respect to the class. *GainRatioAttributeEval* evaluates attributes by measuring their gain ratio with respect to the class. *SymmetricalUncertAttributeEval* evaluates an attribute by measuring its symmetrical uncertainty with respect to the class.

OneRAttributeEval uses the simple accuracy measure adopted by the *OneR* classifier. It can use the training data for evaluation, as *OneR* does, or it can apply internal cross-validation: the number of folds is a parameter. It adopts *OneR*'s simple discretization method: the minimum bucket size is a parameter.

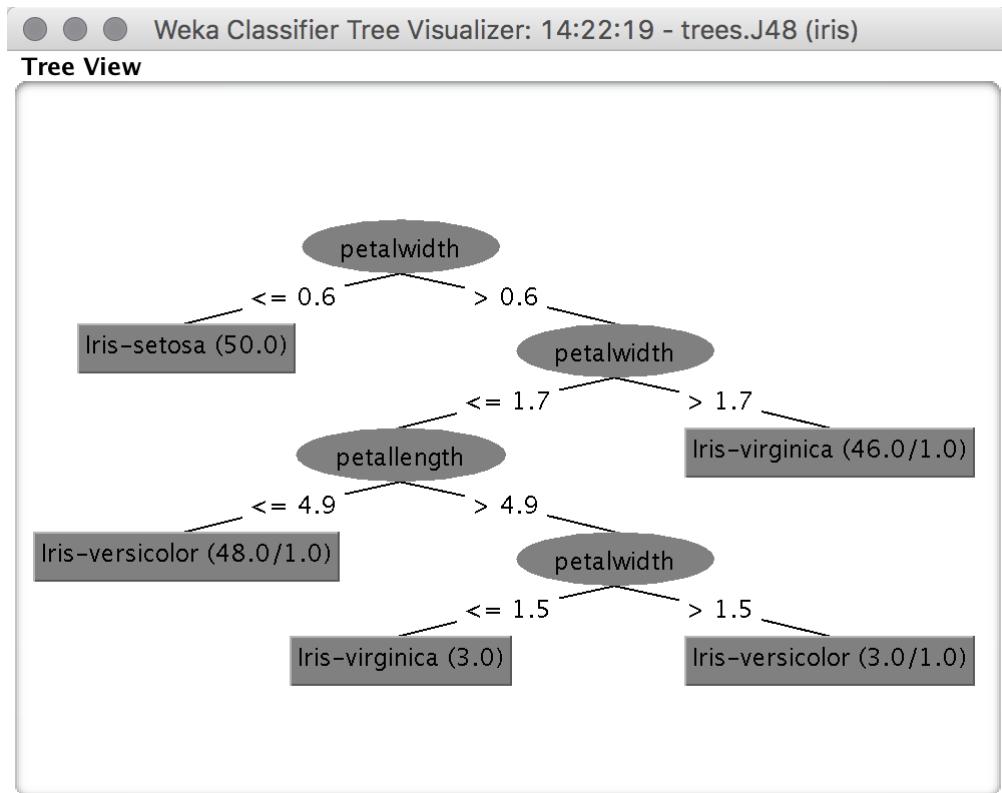
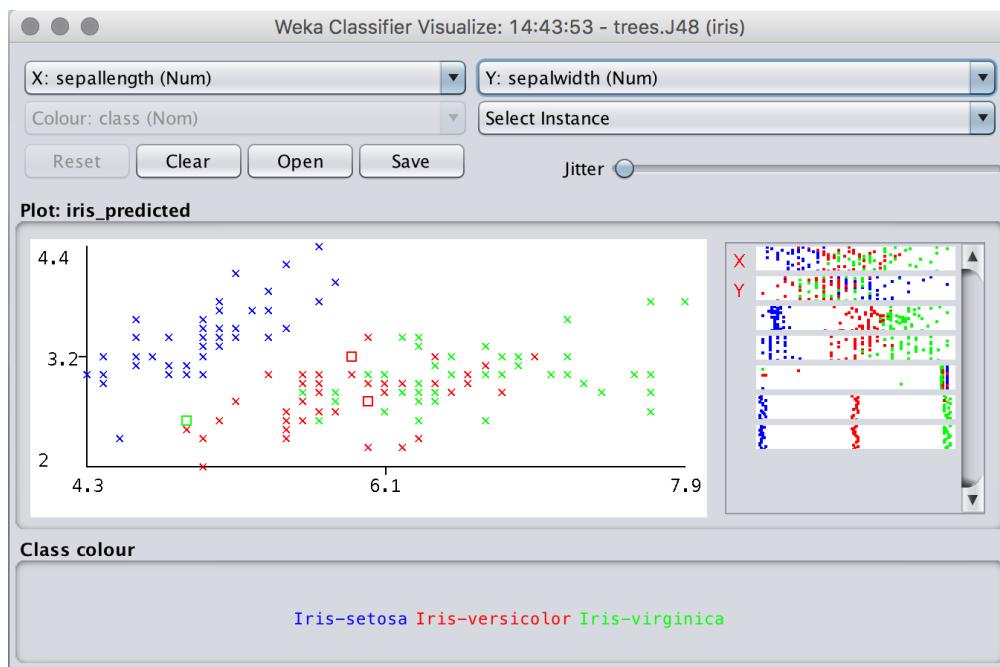
Unlike other single-attribute evaluators, *PrincipalComponents* transforms the set of attributes. The new attributes are ranked in order of their eigenvalues. Optionally, a subset is selected by choosing sufficient eigenvectors to account for a given proportion of the variance (95% by default). Finally, the reduced data can be transformed back to the original space.

2.7.3 Search methods

Search methods traverse the attribute space to find a good subset. Quality is measured by the chosen attribute subset evaluator. Each search method can be configured with WEKA's object editor. *BestFirst* performs greedy hill climbing with backtracking; you can specify how many consecutive nonimproving nodes must be encountered before the system backtracks. It can search forward from the empty set of attributes, backward from the full set, or start at an intermediate point (specified by a list of attribute indexes) and search in both directions by considering all possible single-attribute additions and deletions. Subsets that have been evaluated are cached for efficiency; the cache size is a parameter.

GreedyStepwise searches greedily through the space of attribute subsets. Like *BestFirst*, it may progress forward from the empty set or backward from the full set. Unlike *BestFirst*, it does not backtrack but terminates as soon as adding or deleting the best remaining attribute decreases the evaluation metric. In an alternative mode, it ranks attributes by traversing the space from empty to full (or vice versa) and recording the order in which attributes are selected. You can specify the number of attributes to retain or set a threshold below which attributes are discarded.

Finally we describe *Ranker*, which as noted earlier is not a search method for attribute subsets but a ranking scheme for individual attributes. It sorts attributes by their individual evaluations and must be used in conjunction with one of the single-attribute evaluators—not an attribute subset evaluator. *Ranker* not only ranks attributes but also performs attribute selection by removing the lower-ranking ones. You can set a cut-off threshold below which attributes are discarded, or specify how many attributes to retain. You can specify certain attributes that must be retained regardless of their rank.

(a) $J4.8$ tree for the iris data.(b) $J4.8$'s errors on the iris data.Figure 2.6: Visualizing the result of $J4.8$ on the iris data.

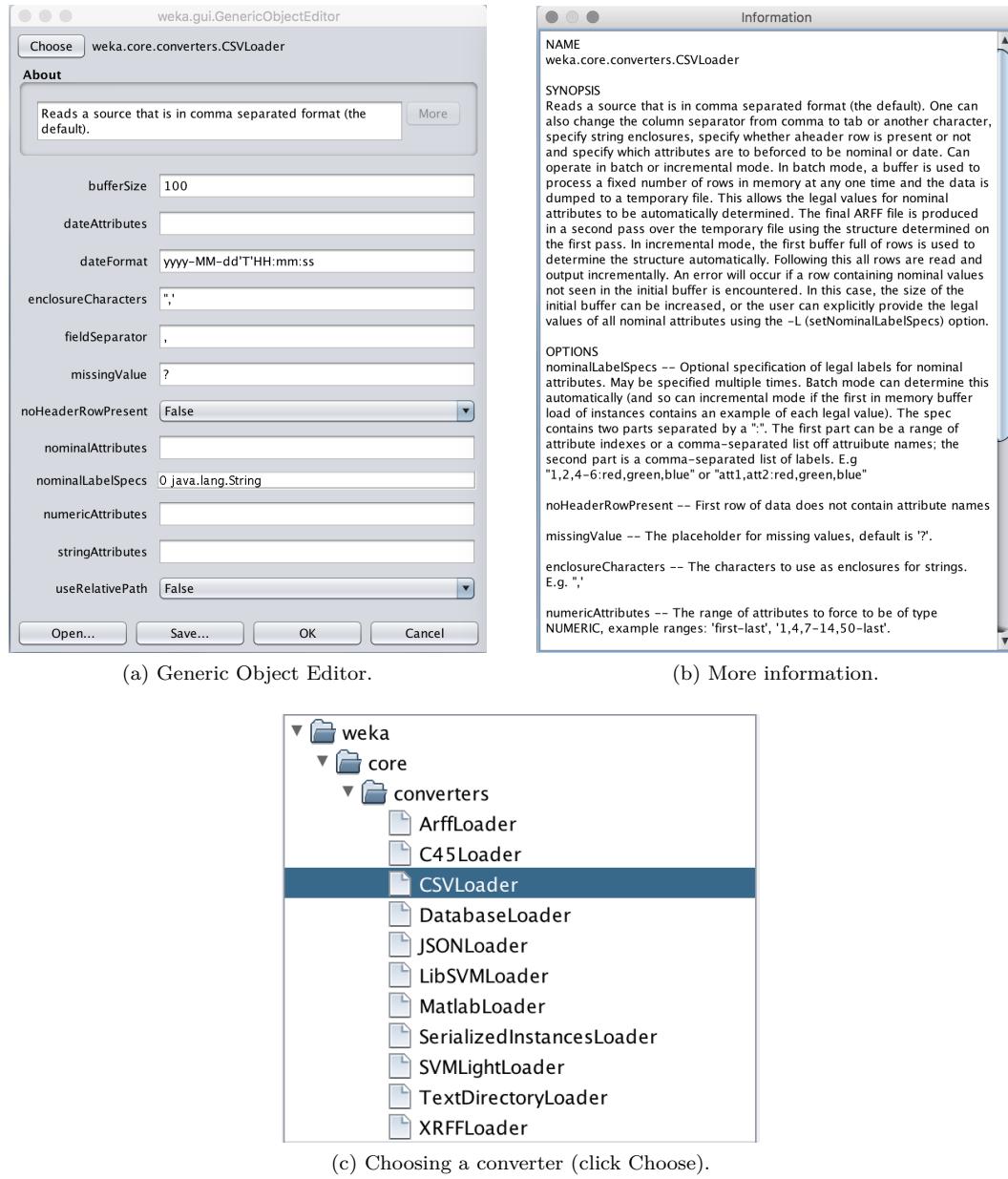


Figure 2.7: The Generic Object Editor.

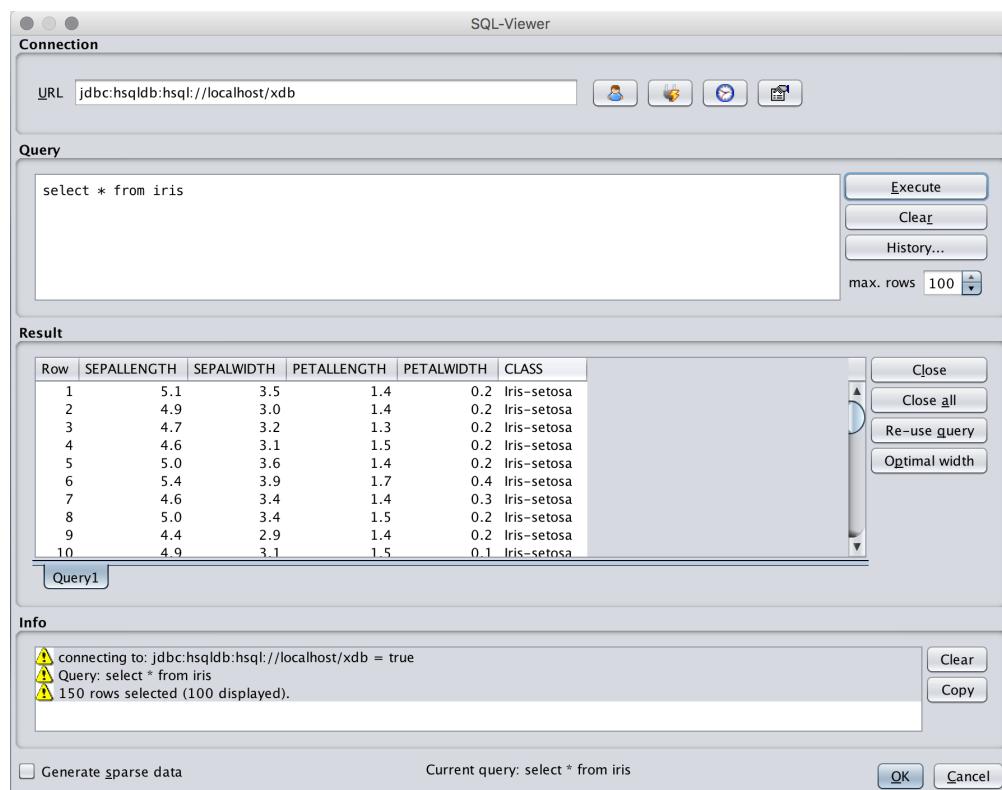
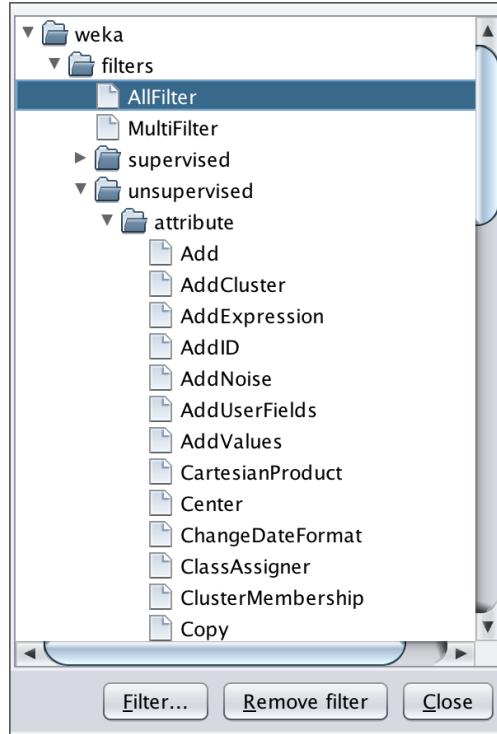


Figure 2.8: The SQLViewer tool.



(a) The filters menu.

The left panel is the 'weka.gui.GenericObjectEditor' for the 'weka.filters.unsupervised.attribute.Remove' class. It has fields for 'attributeIndices' (text input), 'debug' (dropdown: False), 'doNotCheckCapabilities' (dropdown: False), and 'invertSelection' (dropdown: False). Buttons at the bottom include 'Open...', 'Save...', 'OK', and 'Cancel'. The right panel is the 'Information' panel, which displays detailed documentation for the Remove filter, including its synopsis, options, and capabilities.

(b) An object editor.

(c) More information (click *More*).

The left panel is the 'Information about Capabilities' dialog, listing 'CAPABILITIES' such as 'Class -- No class, Relational class, Nominal class, String class, Missing class values, Unary class, Binary class, Empty nominal class, Numeric class, Date class' and 'Attributes -- Nominal attributes, Missing values, Binary attributes, Empty nominal attributes, Numeric attributes, Relational attributes, Unary attributes, Date attributes, String attributes'. It also shows 'Additional min # of instances: 0'. The right panel is the 'Filtering Capabilities...' dialog, which lists various filter requirements with checkboxes. Some checkboxes are highlighted in blue, indicating they possibly meet the requirements.

(d) Information about the filter's capabilities (click *Capabilities*).

(e) Constraints on capabilities.

Figure 2.9: Choosing a filter.

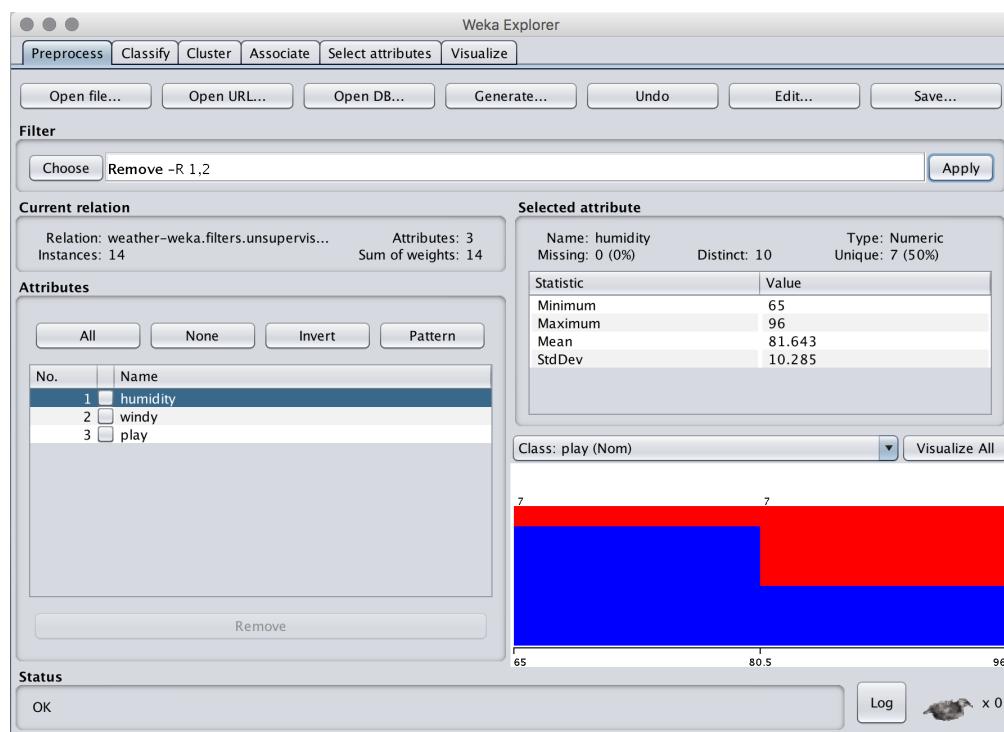
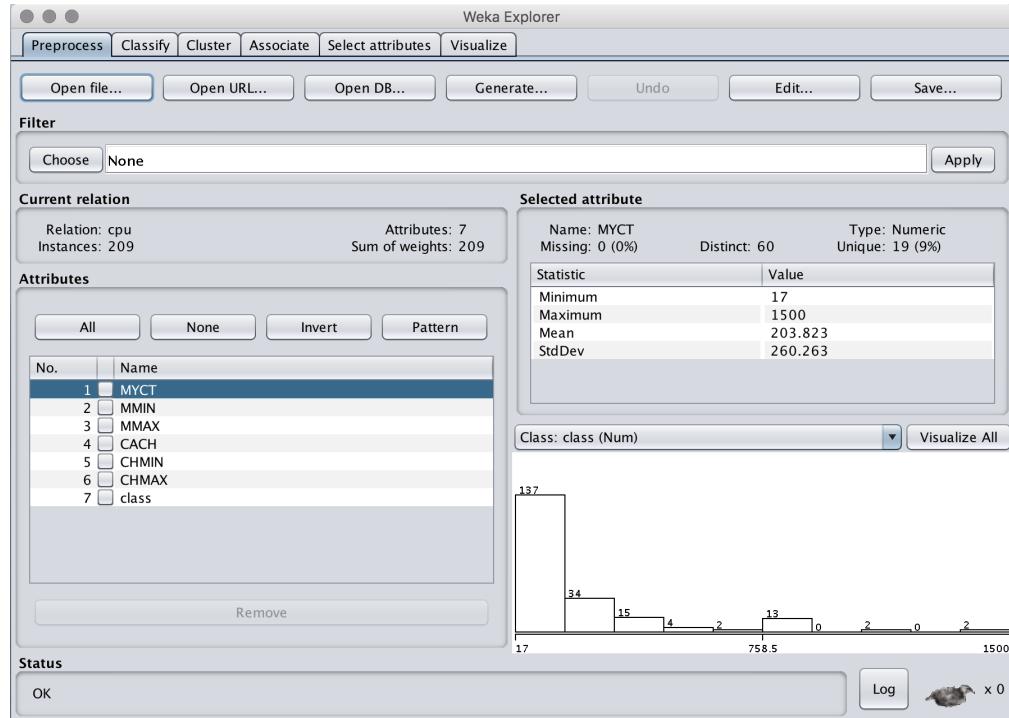
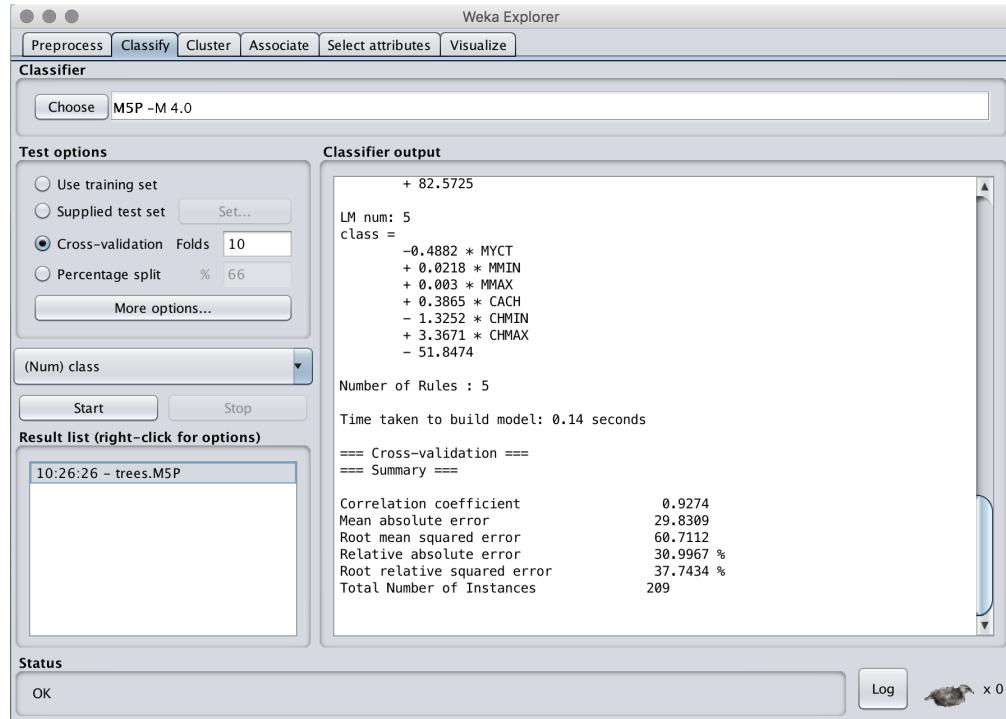


Figure 2.10: The weather data with two attributes removed.

(a) CPU data in the *Preprocess* panel.(b) *M5'* performance on the CPU data.Figure 2.11: Processing the CPU performance data with *M5'*.

```

==== Run information ====

Scheme:      weka.classifiers.trees.M5P -M 4.0
Relation:    cpu
Instances:   209
Attributes:  7
              MYCT
              MMIN
              MMAX
              CACH
              CHMIN
              CHMAX
              class
Test mode:   10-fold cross-validation

==== Classifier model (full training set) ====

M5 pruned model tree:
(using smoothed linear models)

CHMIN <= 7.5 : LM1 (165/12.903%)
CHMIN > 7.5 :
|   MMAX <= 28000 :
|   |   MMAX <= 13240 :
|   |   |   CACH <= 81.5 : LM2 (6/18.551%)
|   |   |   CACH > 81.5 : LM3 (4/30.824%)
|   |   MMAX > 13240 : LM4 (11/24.185%)
|   MMAX > 28000 : LM5 (23/48.302%)

LM num: 1
class =
-0.0055 * MYCT + 0.0013 * MMIN + 0.0029 * MMAX + 0.8007 * CACH + 0.4015 * CHMAX
+ 11.0971

LM num: 2
class =
-1.0307 * MYCT + 0.0086 * MMIN + 0.0031 * MMAX + 0.7866 * CACH - 2.4503 * CHMIN
+ 1.1597 * CHMAX + 70.8672

LM num: 3
class = -1.1057 * MYCT + 0.0086 * MMIN + 0.0031 * MMAX + 0.7995 * CACH
- 2.4503 * CHMIN + 1.1597 * CHMAX + 83.0016

LM num: 4
class = -0.8813 * MYCT + 0.0086 * MMIN + 0.0031 * MMAX + 0.6547 * CACH
- 2.3561 * CHMIN + 1.1597 * CHMAX + 82.5725

LM num: 5
class = -0.4882 * MYCT + 0.0218 * MMIN + 0.003 * MMAX + 0.3865 * CACH
- 1.3252 * CHMIN + 3.3671 * CHMAX - 51.8474

Number of Rules : 5

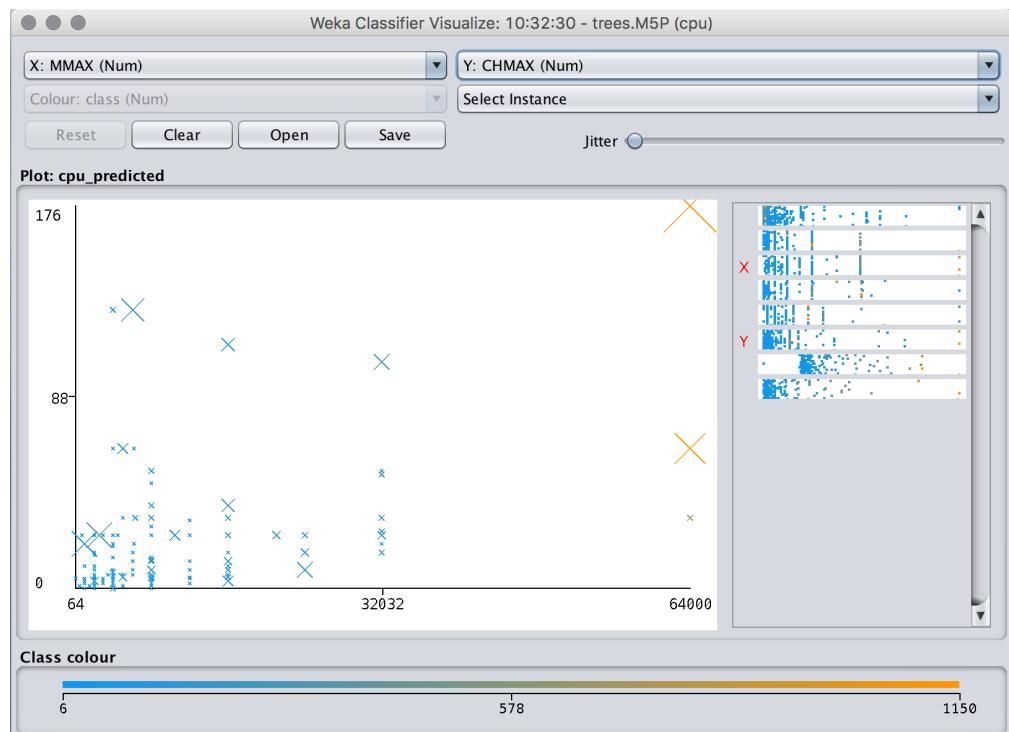
Time taken to build model: 0.14 seconds

==== Cross-validation ====
==== Summary ====

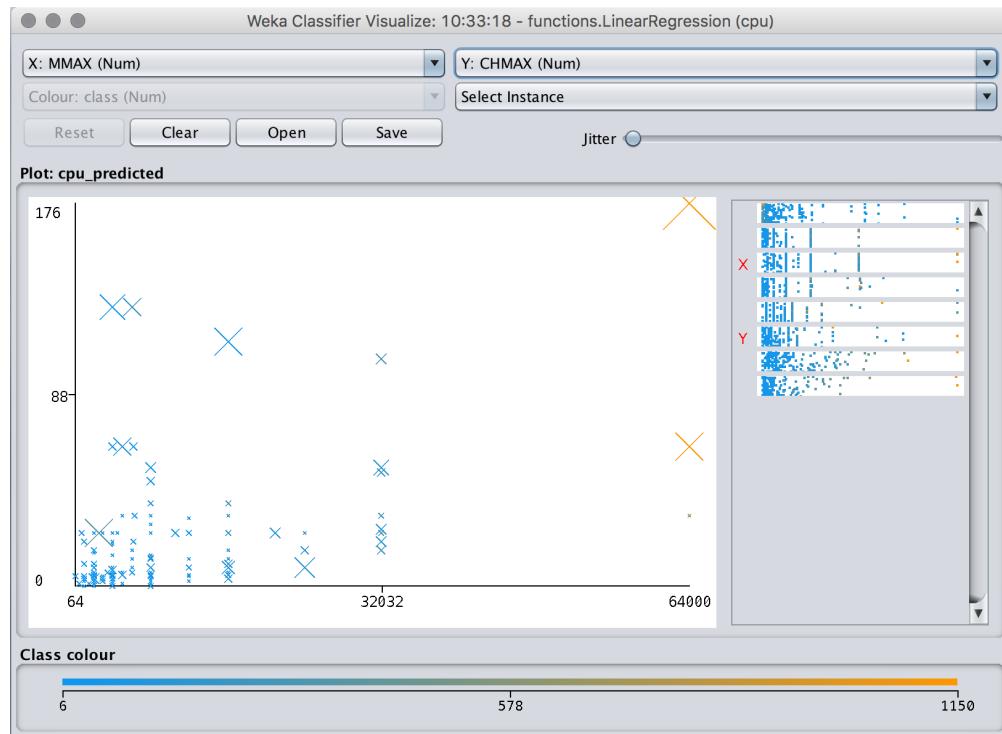
Correlation coefficient          0.9274
Mean absolute error             29.8309
Root mean squared error         60.7112
Relative absolute error         30.9967 %
Root relative squared error    37.7434 %
Total Number of Instances       209

```

Figure 2.12: Output from the M5' program for numeric prediction.



(a) M5'.



(b) Linear regression.

Figure 2.13: Visualizing errors.

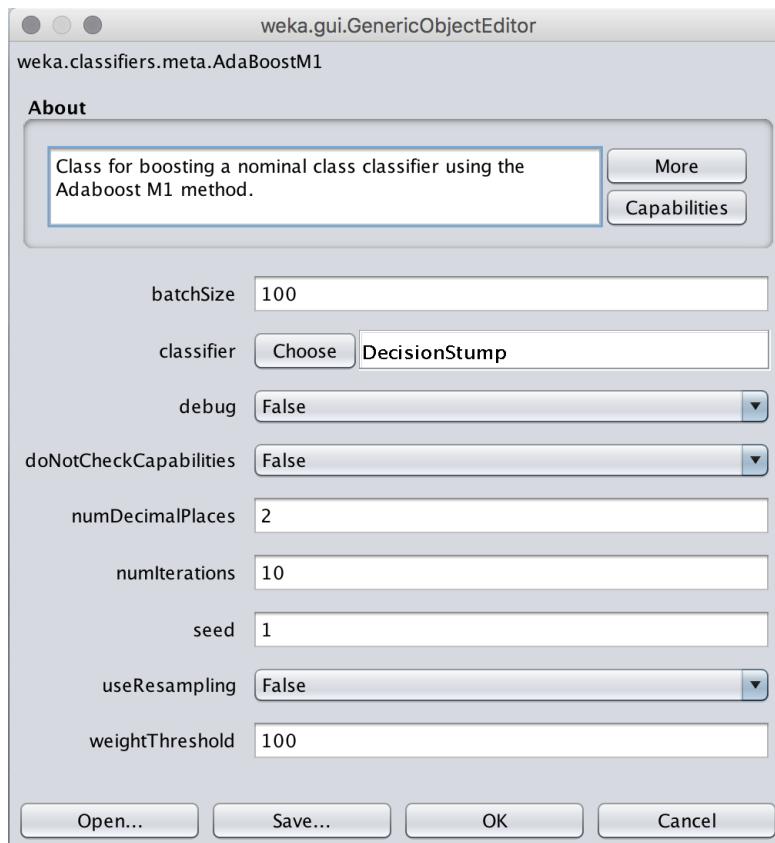


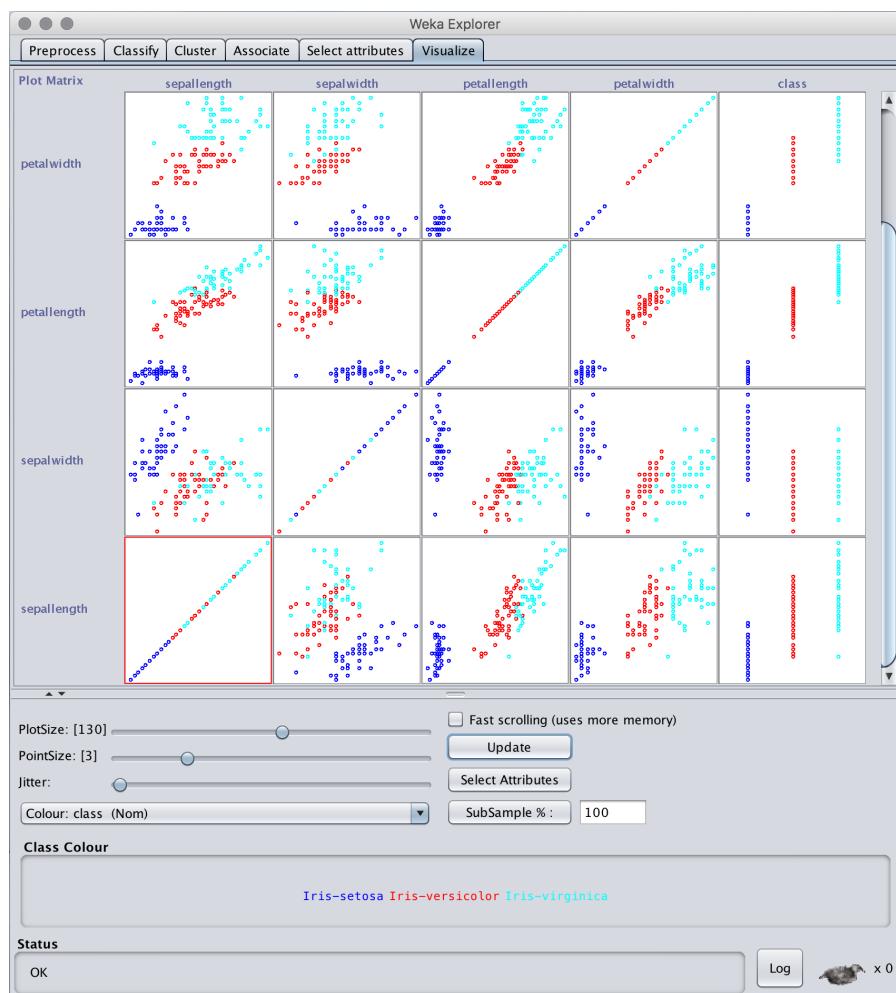
Figure 2.14: Configuring a metalearner for boosting decision stumps.

```

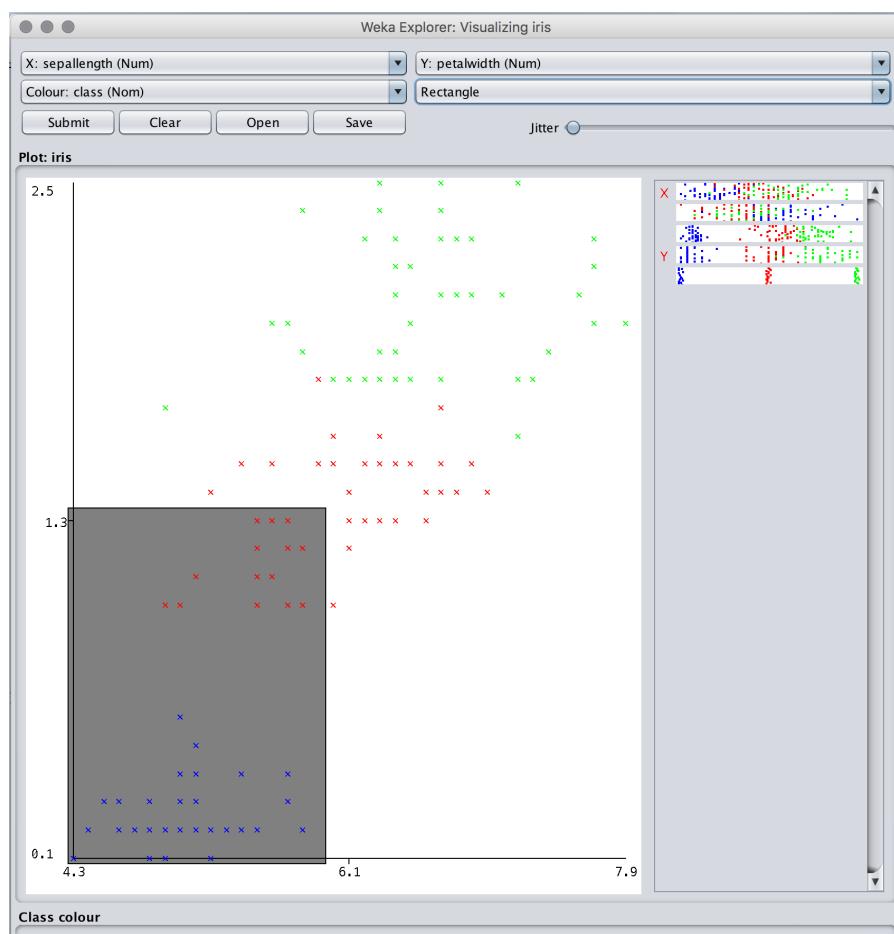
1. outlook=overcast 4 ==> play=yes 4 <conf:(1)> lift:(1.56) lev:(0.1) [1] conv:(1.43)
2. temperature=cool 4 ==> humidity=normal 4 <conf:(1)> lift:(2) lev:(0.14) [2] conv:(2)
3. humidity=normal windy=FALSE 4 ==> play=yes 4 <conf:(1)> lift:(1.56) lev:(0.1) [1] conv:(1.43)
4. outlook=sunny play=no 3 ==> humidity=high 3 <conf:(1)> lift:(2) lev:(0.11) [1] conv:(1.5)
5. outlook=sunny humidity=high 3 ==> play=no 3 <conf:(1)> lift:(2.8) lev:(0.14) [1] conv:(1.93)
6. outlook=rainy play=yes 3 ==> windy=FALSE 3 <conf:(1)> lift:(1.75) lev:(0.09) [1] conv:(1.29)
7. outlook=rainy windy=FALSE 3 ==> play=yes 3 <conf:(1)> lift:(1.56) lev:(0.08) [1] conv:(1.07)
8. temperature=cool play=yes 3 ==> humidity=normal 3 <conf:(1)> lift:(2) lev:(0.11) [1] conv:(1.5)
9. outlook=sunny temperature=hot 2 ==> humidity=high 2 <conf:(1)> lift:(2) lev:(0.07) [1] conv:(1)
10. temperature=hot play=no 2 ==> outlook=sunny 2 <conf:(1)> lift:(2.8) lev:(0.09) [1] conv:(1.29)

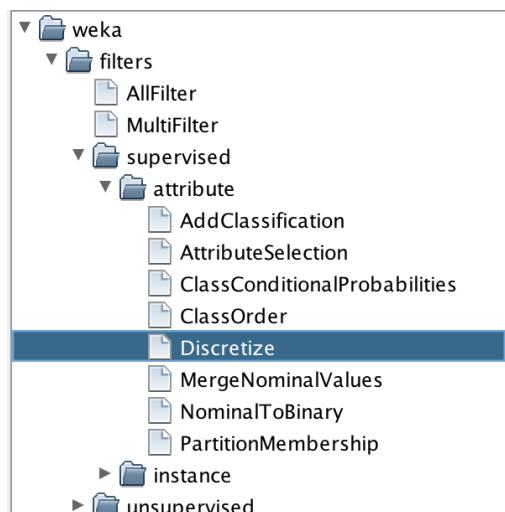
```

Figure 2.15: Output from the Apriori program for association rules.



(a) Scatter plot matrix.



(a) Configuring *FilteredClassifier*.

(b) The menu of filters.

Figure 2.17: Using WEKA's metalearner for discretization.

```

==== Run information ===

Scheme:      weka.classifiers.bayes.NaiveBayes
Relation:    weather
Instances:   14
Attributes:  5
             outlook
             temperature
             humidity
             windy
             play
Test mode:   10-fold cross-validation

==== Classifier model (full training set) ===

Naive Bayes Classifier

          Class
Attribute   yes     no
             (0.63) (0.38)
=====
outlook
  sunny      3.0    4.0
  overcast    5.0    1.0
  rainy       4.0    3.0
  [total]     12.0   8.0

temperature
  mean      72.9697 74.8364
  std. dev.  5.2304  7.384
  weight sum 9        5
  precision  1.9091  1.9091

humidity
  mean      78.8395 86.1111
  std. dev. 9.8023  9.2424
  weight sum 9        5
  precision 3.4444  3.4444

windy
  TRUE      4.0    4.0
  FALSE     7.0    3.0
  [total]   11.0   7.0

Time taken to build model: 0 seconds

==== Stratified cross-validation ===
==== Summary ===

Correctly Classified Instances      9           64.2857 %
Incorrectly Classified Instances   5           35.7143 %
Kappa statistic                   0.1026
Mean absolute error               0.4649
Root mean squared error          0.543
Relative absolute error           97.6254 %
Root relative squared error      110.051 %
Total Number of Instances         14

==== Detailed Accuracy By Class ===

      TP Rate  FP Rate  Precision  Recall   F-Measure  MCC     ROC Area  PRC Area  Class
      0.889   0.800    0.667     0.889    0.762     0.122   0.444    0.633    yes
      0.200   0.111    0.500     0.200    0.286     0.122   0.444    0.397    no
Weighted Avg.   0.643   0.554    0.607     0.643    0.592     0.122   0.444    0.548

==== Confusion Matrix ===

  a b  <-- classified as
  8 1 | a = yes
  4 1 | b = no

```

Figure 2.18: Output of *NaiveBayes* for the weather data.

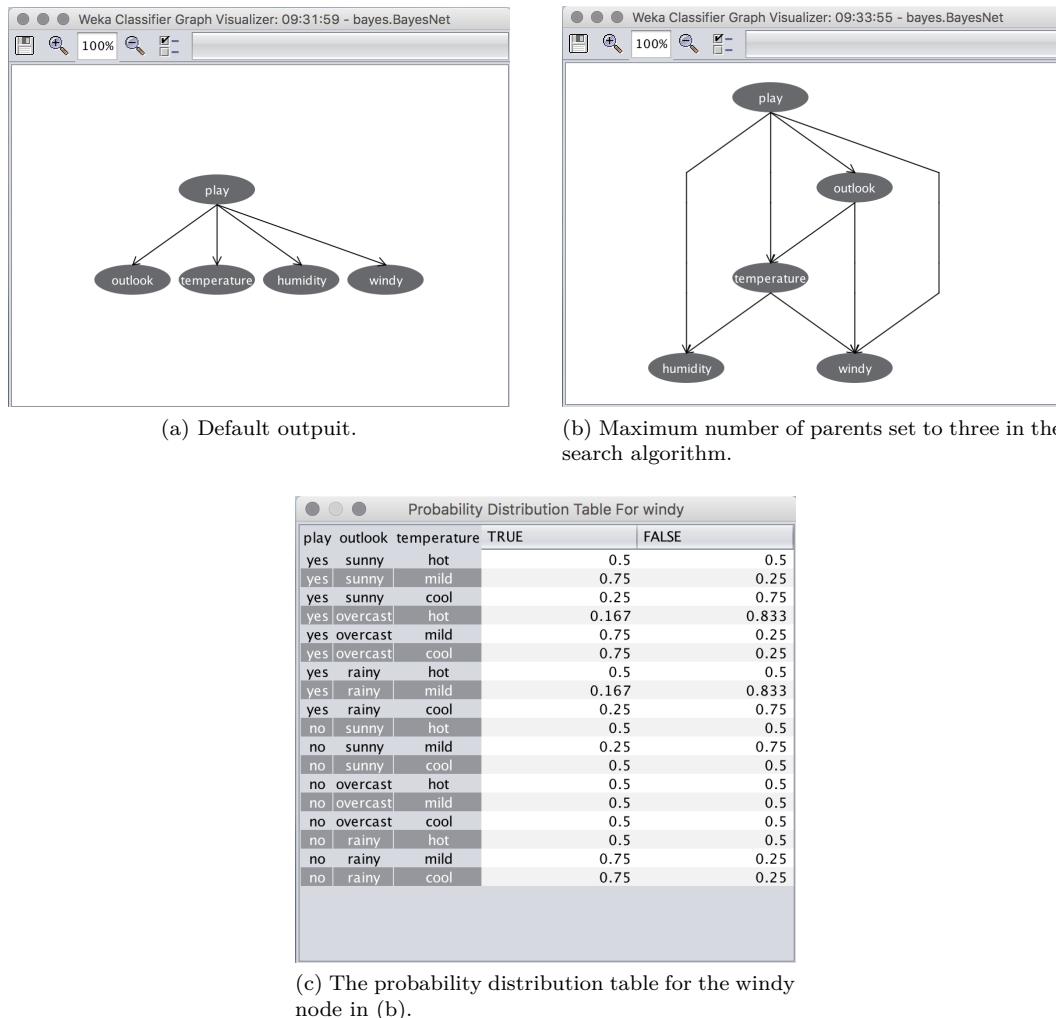


Figure 2.19: Visualizing a Bayesian network for the weather data (nominal version).

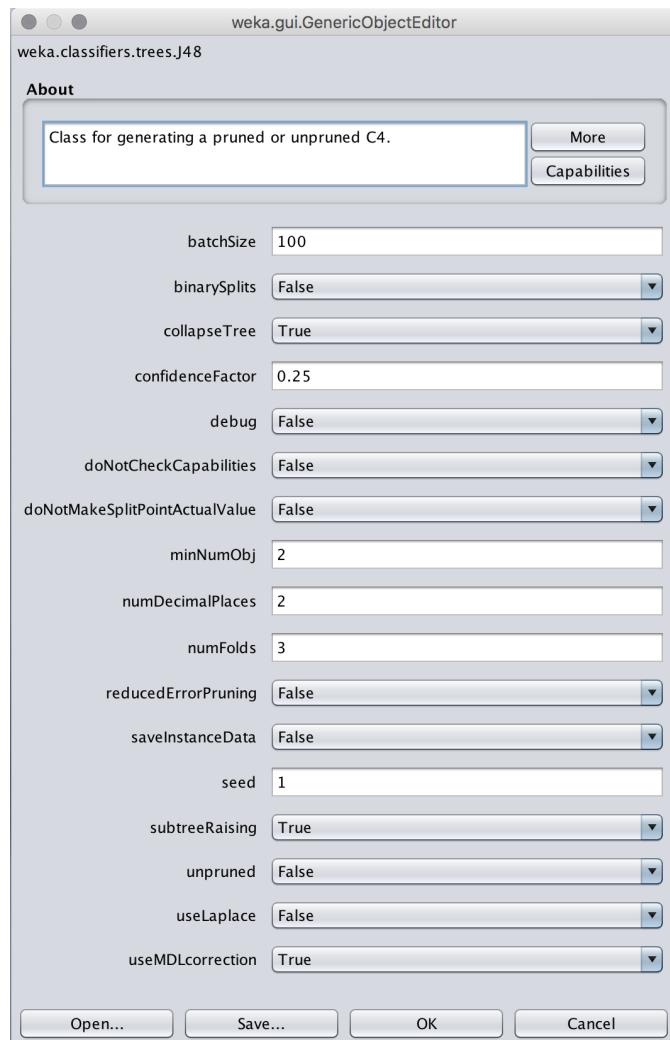


Figure 2.20: Changing the parameters for J4.8.

```

==== Run information ====
Scheme:      weka.classifiers.rules.OneR -B 6
Relation:    labor-neg-data
Instances:   57
Attributes:  17
duration
wage-increase-first-year
wage-increase-second-year
wage-increase-third-year
cost-of-living-adjustment
working-hours
pension
standby-pay
shift-differential
education-allowance
statutory-holidays
vacation
longterm-disability-assistance
contribution-to-dental-plan
bereavement-assistance
contribution-to-health-plan
class
Test mode: 10-fold cross-validation

==== Classifier model (full training set) ====
wage-increase-first-year:
< 2.9-> bad
>= 2.9-> good
?-> good
(48/57 instances correct)

Time taken to build model: 0 seconds

==== Stratified cross-validation ====
==== Summary ====
Correctly Classified Instances      41          71.9298 %
Incorrectly Classified Instances   16          28.0702 %
Kappa statistic                   0.3382
Mean absolute error               0.2807
Root mean squared error           0.5298
Relative absolute error           61.3628 %
Root relative squared error      110.9627 %
Total Number of Instances         57

==== Detailed Accuracy By Class ====
      TP Rate  FP Rate  Precision  Recall  F-Measure  MCC      ROC Area  PRC Area  Class
      0.450    0.135    0.643     0.450    0.529     0.349    0.657     0.482    bad
      0.865    0.550    0.744     0.865    0.800     0.349    0.657     0.731    good
Weighted Avg.    0.719    0.404    0.709     0.719    0.705     0.349    0.657     0.644

==== Confusion Matrix ====
  a  b  <- classified as
9 11 |  a = bad
5 32 |  b = good

```

Figure 2.21: Output of *OneR* for the labor negotiations data.

```

==== Run information ====
Scheme:      weka.classifiers.rules.PART -M 2 -C 0.25 -Q 1
Relation:    labor-neg-data
Instances:   57
Attributes:  17
              duration
              wage-increase-first-year
              wage-increase-second-year
              wage-increase-third-year
              cost-of-living-adjustment
              working-hours
              pension
              standby-pay
              shift-differential
              education-allowance
              statutory-holidays
              vacation
              longterm-disability-assistance
              contribution-to-dental-plan
              bereavement-assistance
              contribution-to-health-plan
              class
Test mode:   10-fold cross-validation

==== Classifier model (full training set) ====
PART decision list
-----
wage-increase-first-year > 2.5 AND
longterm-disability-assistance = yes AND
statutory-holidays > 10: good (25.67)

wage-increase-first-year <= 4 AND
working-hours > 36: bad (19.4/1.58)

: good (11.93/2.18)

Number of Rules : 3

Time taken to build model: 0.01 seconds

==== Stratified cross-validation ===
==== Summary ====
Correctly Classified Instances      45          78.9474 %
Incorrectly Classified Instances   12          21.0526 %
Kappa statistic                   0.5378
Mean absolute error               0.2884
Root mean squared error           0.4339
Relative absolute error           63.0507 %
Root relative squared error      90.8836 %
Total Number of Instances         57

==== Detailed Accuracy By Class ====


|               | TP Rate | FP Rate | Precision | Recall | F-Measure | MCC   | ROC Area | PRC Area | Class |
|---------------|---------|---------|-----------|--------|-----------|-------|----------|----------|-------|
| 0.700         | 0.162   | 0.700   | 0.700     | 0.700  | 0.700     | 0.538 | 0.726    | 0.613    | bad   |
| 0.838         | 0.300   | 0.838   | 0.838     | 0.838  | 0.838     | 0.538 | 0.726    | 0.758    | good  |
| Weighted Avg. | 0.789   | 0.252   | 0.789     | 0.789  | 0.789     | 0.538 | 0.726    | 0.707    |       |


==== Confusion Matrix ====
a  b  <- classified as
14 6 |  a = bad
 6 31 |  b = good

```

Figure 2.22: Output of *Part* for the labor negotiations data.

```
==== Run information ====

Scheme:      weka.classifiers.functions.SimpleLinearRegression
Relation:    cpu
Instances:   209
Attributes:  7
              MYCT
              MMIN
              MMAX
              CACH
              CHMIN
              CHMAX
              class
Test mode:   10-fold cross-validation

==== Classifier model (full training set) ====

Linear regression on MMAX

0.01 * MMAX - 34

Predicting 0 if attribute value is missing.

Time taken to build model: 0 seconds

==== Cross-validation ====
==== Summary ====

Correlation coefficient          0.7844
Mean absolute error            53.8054
Root mean squared error        99.5674
Relative absolute error         55.908 %
Root relative squared error    61.8997 %
Total Number of Instances       209
```

Figure 2.23: Output of *SimpleLinearRegression* on the CPU performance data.

```

==== Run information ====
Scheme:      weka.classifiers.functions.SMO -C 1.0 -L 0.001 -P 1.0E-12 -N 0 -V -1 -W 1
              -K "weka.classifiers.functions.supportVector.PolyKernel -E 1.0 -C 250007"
              -calibrator "weka.classifiers.functions.Logistic -R 1.0E-8 -M -1 -num-decimal-places 4"
Relation:    iris
Instances:   150
Attributes:  5
              sepallength
              sepalwidth
              petallength
              petalwidth
              class
Test mode:   10-fold cross-validation

==== Classifier model (full training set) ====
SMO

Kernel used:
  Linear Kernel: K(x,y) = <x,y>

Classifier for classes: Iris-setosa, Iris-versicolor

BinarySMO
Machine linear: showing attribute weights, not support vectors.

  0.6829 * (normalized) sepallength
+  -1.523 * (normalized) sepalwidth
+  2.2034 * (normalized) petallength
+  1.9272 * (normalized) petalwidth
-
  0.7091

Number of kernel evaluations: 352 (70.32% cached)

Classifier for classes: Iris-setosa, Iris-virginica

BinarySMO
Machine linear: showing attribute weights, not support vectors.

  0.5886 * (normalized) sepallength
+  -0.5782 * (normalized) sepalwidth
+  1.6429 * (normalized) petallength
+  1.4777 * (normalized) petalwidth
-
  1.1668

Number of kernel evaluations: 284 (68.996% cached)

Classifier for classes: Iris-versicolor, Iris-virginica

BinarySMO
Machine linear: showing attribute weights, not support vectors.

  0.3176 * (normalized) sepallength
+  -0.863 * (normalized) sepalwidth
+  3.0543 * (normalized) petallength
+  4.0815 * (normalized) petalwidth
-
  4.5924

Number of kernel evaluations: 453 (61.381% cached)

Time taken to build model: 0.03 seconds

==== Stratified cross-validation ====
==== Summary ====

  Correctly Classified Instances      144      96      %
  Incorrectly Classified Instances     6       4      %
  Kappa statistic                   0.94
  Mean absolute error                 0.2311
  Root mean squared error                0.288
  Relative absolute error                  52      %
  Root relative squared error            61.101 %
  Total Number of Instances           150

==== Detailed Accuracy By Class ====


|               | TP    | Rate  | FP    | Rate  | Precision | Recall | F-Measure | MCC   | ROC Area | PRC Area | Class           |
|---------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-----------|--------|-----------|-------|----------|----------|-----------------|
|               | 1.000 | 0.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000     | 1.000  | 1.000     | 1.000 | 1.000    | 0.96     | Iris-setosa     |
|               | 0.980 | 0.050 | 0.907 | 0.980 | 0.942     | 0.913  | 0.965     | 0.896 | 0.896    | 0.96     | Iris-versicolor |
|               | 0.900 | 0.010 | 0.978 | 0.900 | 0.938     | 0.910  | 0.970     | 0.930 | 0.930    | 0.96     | Iris-virginica  |
| Weighted Avg. | 0.960 | 0.020 | 0.962 | 0.960 | 0.960     | 0.941  | 0.978     | 0.942 | 0.942    | 0.96     |                 |



==== Confusion Matrix ====


|    |    |    |                     |
|----|----|----|---------------------|
| a  | b  | c  | <-- classified as   |
| 50 | 0  | 0  | a = Iris-setosa     |
| 0  | 49 | 1  | b = Iris-versicolor |
| 0  | 5  | 45 | c = Iris-virginica  |


```

Figure 2.24: Output of SMO on the iris data.

```

==== Run information ====
Scheme:      weka.classifiers.functions.SMO -C 1.0 -L 0.001 -P 1.0E-12 -N 0 -V -1 -W 1
-K 'weka.classifiers.functions.supportVector.PolyKernel -E 2.0 -C 250007'
-calibrator "weka.classifiers.functions.Logistic -R 1.0E-8 -M -1 -num-decimal-places 4"
Relation:    iris
Instances:   150
Attributes:  5
              sepallength
              sepalwidth
              petallength
              petalwidth
              class
Test mode:   10-fold cross-validation

==== Classifier model (full training set) ====
SMO
Kernel used:
  Poly Kernel: K(x,y) = <x,y>^2.0
Classifier for classes: Iris-setosa, Iris-versicolor
BinarySMO
  1   * <0.333333 0.166667 0.457627 0.375 > * X]
-   1   * <0.222222 0.541667 0.118644 0.166667 > * X]
-   1   * <0.138889 0.416667 0.067797 0.083333 > * X]
-   1   * <0.166667 0.416667 0.067797 0.041667 > * X]
+   1   * <0.222222 0.208333 0.338983 0.416667 > * X]
-   1   * <0.055556 0.125 0.050847 0.083333 > * X]
-   1   * <0.027778 0.375 0.067797 0.041667 > * X]
+   1   * <0.166667 0.166667 0.389831 0.375 > * X]
+   1   * <0.361111 0.208333 0.491525 0.416667 > * X]
+   1   * <0.194444 0 0.423720 0.375 > * X]
-   1   * <0.194444 0.416667 0.101695 0.041667 > * X]
-   1   * <0.138889 0.458333 0.101695 0.041667 > * X]
+   1   * <0.194444 0.125 0.389831 0.375 > * X]
+   0.3697 * <0.361111 0.375 0.440678 0.5 > * X]
-   0.4599 * <0.138889 0.416667 0.067797 0 > * X]
-   0.9098 * <0.194444 0.625 0.101695 0.208333 > * X]
+   1   * <0.333333 0.166667 0.474576 0.416667 > * X]
+   1   * <0.388889 0.25 0.423729 0.375 > * X]
-   0.8085

Number of support vectors: 18
Number of kernel evaluations: 2416 (72.564% cached)
Classifier for classes: Iris-setosa, Iris-virginica
BinarySMO
  1   * <0.166667 0.208333 0.59322 0.666667 > * X]
-   0.856 * <0.055556 0.125 0.050847 0.083333 > * X]
+   0.1315 * <0.555556 0.333333 0.694915 0.583333 > * X]
-   1   * <0.222222 0.541667 0.118644 0.166667 > * X]
+   1   * <0.472222 0.083333 0.677966 0.583333 > * X]
-   0.2756 * <0.194444 0.625 0.101695 0.208333 > * X]
-   1.0183

Number of support vectors: 6
Number of kernel evaluations: 1364 (60.726% cached)
Classifier for classes: Iris-versicolor, Iris-virginica
BinarySMO
  1   * <0.555556 0.208333 0.677966 0.75 > * X]
-   1   * <0.305556 0.416667 0.59322 0.583333 > * X]
-   1   * <0.666667 0.458333 0.627119 0.583333 > * X]
-   1   * <0.472222 0.583333 0.59322 0.625 > * X]
+   1   * <0.444444 0.416667 0.694915 0.708333 > * X]
-   1   * <0.527778 0.083333 0.59322 0.583333 > * X]
+   1   * <0.416667 0.291667 0.694915 0.75 > * X]
-   1   * <0.472222 0.291667 0.694915 0.625 > * X]
+   0.4559 * <0.555556 0.375 0.779661 0.708333 > * X]
-   1   * <0.666667 0.416667 0.677966 0.666667 > * X]
+   1   * <0.611111 0.416667 0.762712 0.708333 > * X]
-   1   * <0.5 0.375 0.627119 0.541667 > * X]
-   1   * <0.722222 0.458333 0.661017 0.583333 > * X]
+   1   * <0.472222 0.083333 0.677966 0.583333 > * X]
+   1   * <0.583333 0.458333 0.762712 0.708333 > * X]
+   1   * <0.611111 0.5 0.694915 0.791667 > * X]
+   1   * <0.5 0.416667 0.661017 0.708333 > * X]
-   1   * <0.694444 0.333333 0.644068 0.541667 > * X]
-   1   * <0.5 0.416667 0.610169 0.541667 > * X]
+   1   * <0.416667 0.291667 0.694915 0.75 > * X]
+   1   * <0.527778 0.333333 0.644068 0.708333 > * X]
-   1   * <0.444444 0.5 0.644068 0.708333 > * X]
+   1   * <0.5 0.25 0.779661 0.541667 > * X]
+   1   * <0.555556 0.291667 0.661017 0.708333 > * X]
+   1   * <0.361111 0.333333 0.661017 0.791667 > * X]
-   1   * <0.555556 0.208333 0.661017 0.583333 > * X]
-   0.4559 * <0.555556 0.125 0.576271 0.5 > * X]
+   1   * <0.555556 0.333333 0.694915 0.583333 > * X]
+   1   * <0.166667 0.208333 0.59322 0.666667 > * X]
+   1   * <0.805556 0.416667 0.813559 0.625 > * X]
-   1   * <0.555556 0.541667 0.627119 0.625 > * X]
+   1   * <0.472222 0.416667 0.644068 0.708333 > * X]
-   1   * <0.361111 0.416667 0.59322 0.583333 > * X]
-   1   * <0.583333 0.5 0.59322 0.583333 > * X]
-   1   * <0.472222 0.375 0.59322 0.583333 > * X]
-   1   * <0.611111 0.333333 0.610169 0.583333 > * X]
-   3.5378

Number of support vectors: 36
Number of kernel evaluations: 3524 (66.711% cached)
Time taken to build model: 0.01 seconds

```

Figure 2.25: Output of SMO with a nonlinear kernel on the iris data.

```

==== Stratified cross-validation ====
==== Summary ====

    Correctly Classified Instances      144          96      %
    Incorrectly Classified Instances     6           4      %
    Kappa statistic                      0.94
    Mean absolute error                  0.2311
    Root mean squared error              0.288
    Relative absolute error              52      %
    Root relative squared error         61.101 %
    Total Number of Instances           150

==== Detailed Accuracy By Class ====


|               | TP    | Rate  | FP    | Rate  | Precision | Recall | F-Measure | MCC   | ROC Area | PRC Area | Class           |
|---------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-----------|--------|-----------|-------|----------|----------|-----------------|
| 1.000         | 0.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000     | 1.000  | 1.000     | 1.000 | 1.000    | 1.000    | Iris-setosa     |
| 0.940         | 0.030 | 0.940 | 0.940 | 0.940 | 0.940     | 0.910  | 0.955     | 0.955 | 0.904    | 0.904    | Iris-versicolor |
| 0.940         | 0.030 | 0.940 | 0.940 | 0.940 | 0.940     | 0.910  | 0.972     | 0.972 | 0.916    | 0.916    | Iris-virginica  |
| Weighted Avg. | 0.960 | 0.020 | 0.960 | 0.960 | 0.960     | 0.960  | 0.940     | 0.976 | 0.976    | 0.940    |                 |


==== Confusion Matrix ====

    a   b   c   <-- classified as
50   0   0 |  a = Iris-setosa
 0 47   3 |  b = Iris-versicolor
 0   3 47 |  c = Iris-virginica

```

Figure 2.26: Output of *SMO* with a nonlinear kernel on the iris data, cont'd.

```

==== Run information ====
Scheme:      weka.classifiers.functions.Logistic -R 1.0E-8 -M -1 -num-decimal-places 4
Relation:    iris
Instances:   150
Attributes:  5
              sepallength
              sepalwidth
              petallength
              petalwidth
              class
Test mode:   10-fold cross-validation

==== Classifier model (full training set) ====
Logistic Regression with ridge parameter of 1.0E-8
Coefficients...
      Class
Variable  Iris-setosa  Iris-versicolor
-----
sepallength  21.8065    2.4652
sepalwidth   4.5648     6.6809
petallength  -26.3083   -9.4293
petalwidth   -43.887    -18.2859
Intercept    8.1743     42.637

Odds Ratios...
      Class
Variable  Iris-setosa  Iris-versicolor
-----
sepallength  2954196659.8892    11.7653
sepalwidth   96.0426     797.0304
petallength  0           0.0001
petalwidth   0           0

Time taken to build model: 0.01 seconds

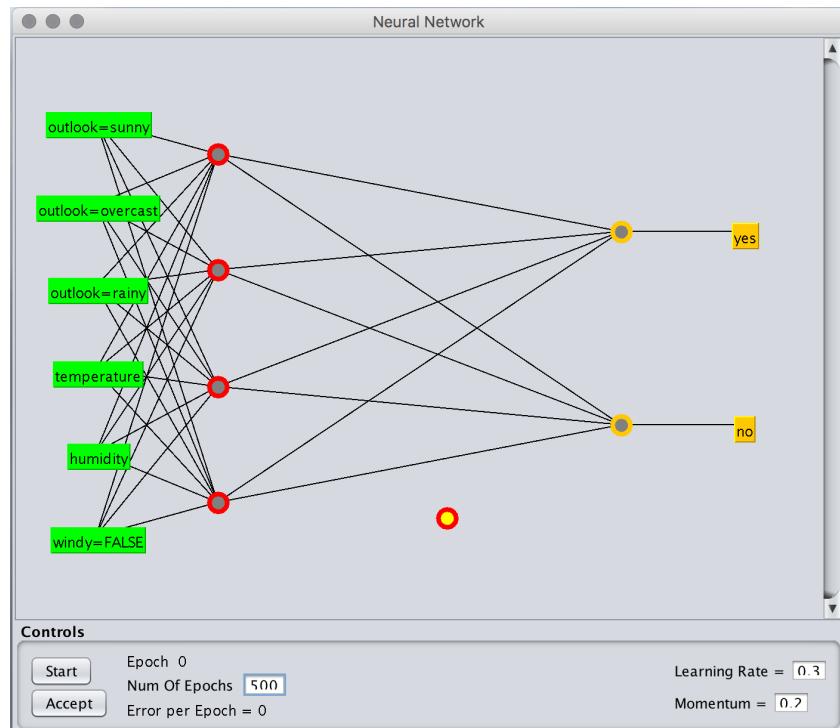
==== Stratified cross-validation ====
==== Summary ====
Correctly Classified Instances      144      96      %
Incorrectly Classified Instances    6        4       %
Kappa statistic                   0.94
Mean absolute error               0.0287
Root mean squared error          0.1424
Relative absolute error          6.456 %
Root relative squared error     30.2139 %
Total Number of Instances        150

==== Detailed Accuracy By Class ====
      TP Rate  FP Rate  Precision  Recall  F-Measure  MCC      ROC Area  PRC Area  Class
1.000    0.000    1.000     1.000    1.000    1.000    1.000    1.000  Iris-setosa
0.920    0.020    0.958     0.920    0.939    0.910    0.970    0.933  Iris-versicolor
0.960    0.040    0.923     0.960    0.941    0.911    0.975    0.933  Iris-virginica
Weighted Avg.  0.960    0.020    0.960     0.960    0.940    0.982    0.955

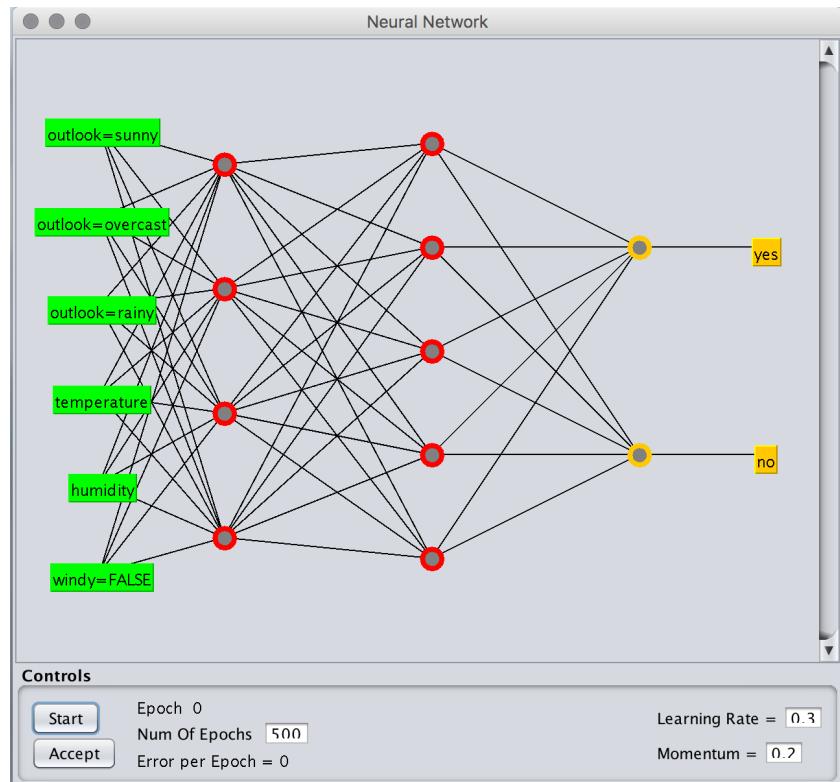
==== Confusion Matrix ====
  a  b  c  <-- classified as
50  0  0 | a = Iris-setosa
0 46  4 | b = Iris-versicolor
0  2 48 | c = Iris-virginica

```

Figure 2.27: Output of *Logistic* for the iris data.



(a) Beginning the process of editing the network to add a second hidden layer.



(b) The finished network with two hidden layers.

Figure 2.28: Using WEKA's neural-network graphical user interface.

```

==== Run information ====
Scheme:      weka.clusterers.SimpleKMeans -init 0 -max-candidates 100
              -periodic-pruning 10000 -min-density 2.0 -t1 -1.25 -t2 -1.0 -N 2
              -A "weka.core.EuclideanDistance -R first-last" -I 500
              -num-slots 1 -S 10
Relation:    weather
Instances:   14
Attributes:  5
              outlook
              temperature
              humidity
              windy
              play
Test mode:   evaluate on training data

==== Clustering model (full training set) ====

kMeans
=====
Number of iterations: 3
Within cluster sum of squared errors: 16.237456311387238

Initial starting points (random):

Cluster 0: rainy,75,80,TRUE,yes
Cluster 1: overcast,64,65,TRUE,yes

Missing values globally replaced with mean/mode

Final cluster centroids:
          Cluster#
Attribute  Full Data      0        1
              (14.0)  (9.0)  (5.0)
=====
outlook       sunny       sunny   overcast
temperature  73.5714   75.8889  69.4
humidity     81.6429   84.1111  77.2
windy        FALSE      FALSE   TRUE
play         yes        yes    yes

Time taken to build model (full training data) : 0 seconds

==== Model and evaluation on training set ====
Clustered Instances

0      9 ( 64%)
1      5 ( 36%)

```

Figure 2.29: Output of *SimpleKMeans* for the weather data.

```

==== Run information ====

Scheme:      weka.clusterers.EM -I 100 -N 2 -X 10 -max -1
              -ll-cv 1.0E-6 -ll-iter 1.0E-6 -M 1.0E-6 -K 10
              -num-slots 1 -S 100
Relation:    weather
Instances:   14
Attributes:  5
              outlook
              temperature
              humidity
              windy
              play
Test mode:   evaluate on training data

==== Clustering model (full training set) ===

EM
==

Number of clusters: 2
Number of iterations performed: 7

      Cluster
Attribute      0      1
              (0.35) (0.65)
=====
outlook
  sunny      3.8732  3.1268
  overcast    1.7746  4.2254
  rainy       2.1889  4.8111
  [total]     7.8368 12.1632
temperature
  mean       76.9173 71.8054
  std. dev.  5.8302  5.8566
humidity
  mean       90.1132 77.1719
  std. dev.  3.8066  9.1962
windy
  TRUE        3.14    4.86
  FALSE       3.6967  6.3033
  [total]     6.8368 11.1632
play
  yes        2.1227  8.8773
  no         4.7141  2.2859
  [total]     6.8368 11.1632

Time taken to build model (full training data) : 0 seconds

==== Model and evaluation on training set ===

Clustered Instances

  0      4 ( 29%)
  1      10 ( 71%)

Log likelihood: -9.13037

```

Figure 2.30: Output of *EM* for the weather data.



Figure 2.31: Attribute selection: specifying an evaluator and a search method.

Chapter 3

The Knowledge Flow Interface

With the Knowledge Flow interface, users select WEKA components from a tool bar, place them on a layout canvas, and connect them into a directed graph that processes and analyzes data. It provides an alternative to the Explorer for those who like thinking in terms of how data flows through the system. It also allows the design and execution of configurations for streamed data processing, which the Explorer cannot do. You invoke the Knowledge Flow interface by selecting *KnowledgeFlow* from the choices on the panel shown in Figure 2.3a.

3.1 Getting started

Here is a step-by-step example that loads an ARFF file and performs a cross-validation using J48. We describe how to build up the final configuration shown in Figure 3.1. First create a source of data by expanding the *DataSources* folder in the *Design* palette and selecting *ARFFLoader*. The mouse cursor changes to crosshairs to signal that you should next place the component. Do this by clicking anywhere on the canvas, whereupon a copy of the ARFF loader icon appears there. To connect it to an ARFF file, right-click it to bring up the pop-up menu shown in Figure 3.2a. Click *Configure* to get the dialog in Figure 3.2b, from which you can either browse for an ARFF file by clicking the *Browse* button, or type the path to one in the *Filename* field.

Now we specify which attribute is the class using a *ClassAssigner* object. This is found under the *Evaluation* folder in the *Design* palette, so expand the *Evaluation* folder, select the *ClassAssigner*, and place it on the canvas. To connect the data source to the class assigner, right-click the data source icon and select *dataset* from the menu, as shown in Figure 3.2a. A rubber-band line appears. Move the mouse over the class assigner component and left-click. A red line labeled *dataset* appears, joining the two components. Having connected the class assigner, choose the class by right-clicking it, selecting *Configure*, and entering the location of the class attribute.

We will perform cross-validation on the J48 classifier. In the data flow model, we first connect the *CrossValidationFoldMaker* to create the folds on which the classifier will run, and then pass its output to an object representing J48. *CrossValidationFoldMaker* is in the *Evaluation* folder. Select it, place it on the canvas, and connect it to the class assigner by right-clicking the latter and selecting *dataset* from the menu (which is similar to that in Figure 3.2a). Next select J48 from the *trees* folder under the *Classifiers* folder and place a J48 component on the canvas. Connect J48 to the cross-validation fold maker in the usual way, but make the connection twice by first choosing *trainingSet* and then *testSet* from the pop-up menu for the cross-validation fold maker. The next step is to select a *ClassifierPerformanceEvaluator* from the *Evaluation*

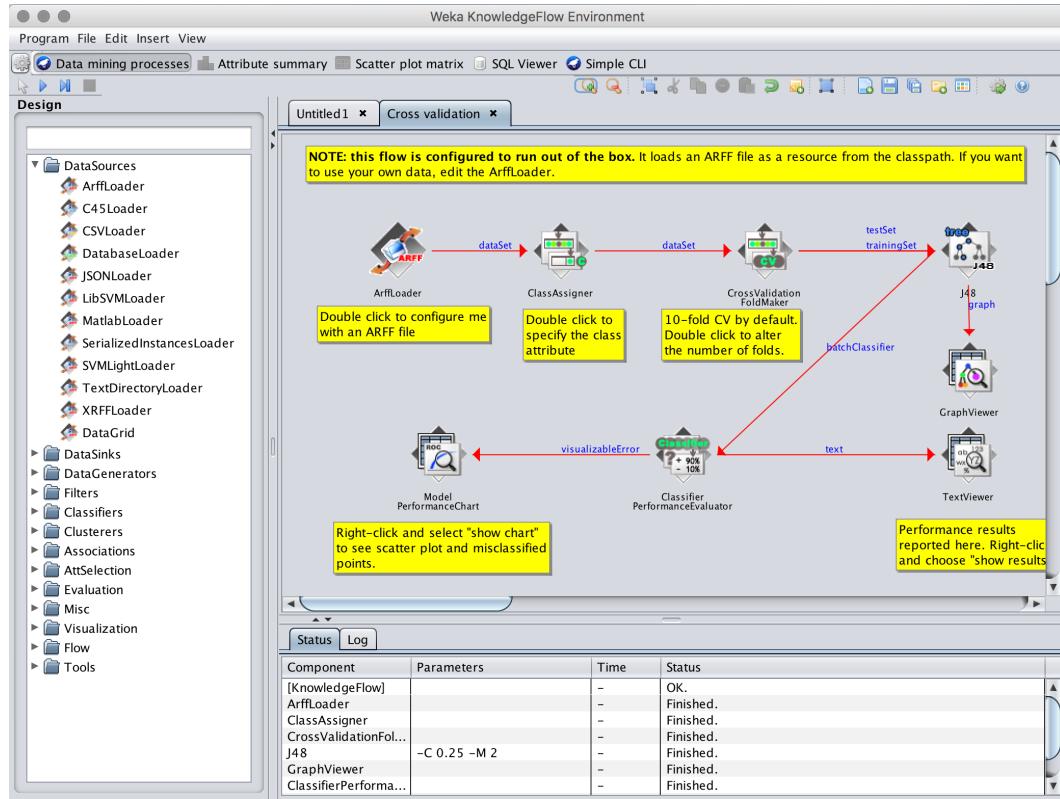


Figure 3.1: The Knowledge Flow interface.

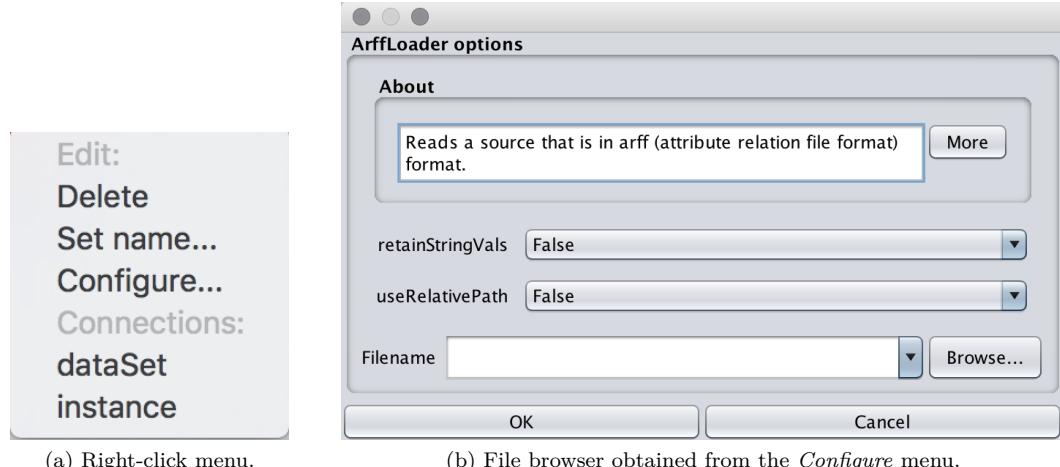


Figure 3.2: Configuring a data source in the Knowledge Flow.

folder and connect J48 to it by selecting the *batchClassifier* entry from the pop-up menu for J48. Finally, from the *Visualization* folder we place a *TextViewer* component on the canvas. Connect

the classifier performance evaluator to it by selecting the text entry from the pop-up menu for the performance evaluator.

At this stage the configuration is as shown in Figure 3.1 except that there is as yet no graph viewer. Start the flow of execution by clicking one of the two triangular-shaped “play” buttons at the left side of the main toolbar. The leftmost play button launches all data sources present in the flow in parallel; the other play button launches the data sources sequentially, where a particular order of execution can be specified by including a number at the start of the component’s name (a name can be set via the Set name entry on popup menu). For a small dataset things happen quickly. Progress information appears in the status area at the bottom of the interface. The entries in the status area show the progress of each step in the flow, along with their parameter settings (for learning schemes) and elapsed time. Any errors that occur in a processing step are shown in the status area by highlighting the corresponding row in red. Choosing *Show results* from the text viewer’s pop-up menu brings the results of cross-validation up in a separate window, in the same form as for the Explorer.

To complete the example, add a *GraphViewer* and connect it to J48’s graph output to see a graphical representation of the trees produced for each fold of the cross-validation. Once you have redone the cross-validation with this extra component in place, selecting *Show results* from its pop-up menu produces a list of trees, one for each cross-validation fold. By creating cross-validation folds and passing them to the classifier, the Knowledge Flow model provides a way to hook into the results for each fold.

The flow that you’ve just laboriously created is actually available (minus the *GraphViewer*) as a built-in *template*. Example templates can be accessed from the *Template* button, which is the third icon from the right in the toolbar at the top of the Knowledge Flow interface. There are a number of templates that come with WEKA, and certain packages, once installed via the package manager, add further ones to the menu. The majority of template flows can be executed without further modification as they have been configured to load datasets that come with the WEKA distribution.

3.2 Knowledge Flow components

Most of the Knowledge Flow components will be familiar from the Explorer. The *Classifiers* folder contains all of WEKA’s classifiers, the *Filters* folder contains the filters, the *Clusterers* folder holds the clusterers, the *AttSelection* folder contains evaluators and search methods for attribute selection, and the *Associations* panel holds the association rule learners. All components in the Knowledge Flow are run in a separate thread of execution, except in the case where data is being processed incrementally—in this case a single thread of execution is used because, generally, the amount of processing done per data point is small, and launching a separate thread to process each one would incur a significant overhead.

Possible data sources are ARFF files, XML ARFF files, JSON ARFF files, CSV files exported from spreadsheets, the C4.5 file format, databases, serialized instances, LibSVM and SVMLight data formats, and a special loader (*TextDirectoryLoader*) to load a directory of plain text files into a single set of instances. There is also a data source called *DataGrid* that allows the user to define attributes and enter the values of instances via a graphical interface. There is a data sink that corresponds to each data source, with the exception of the *TextDirectoryLoader* and *DataGrid*. In addition, there are data sinks that can save raw text, static image data and WEKA serialized models.

Under the *Visualization* folder, the *DataVisualizer* pops up a panel for visualizing data in a two-dimensional scatter plot as in Figure 2.6b, in which you can select the attributes you would

like to see. *ScatterPlotMatrix* pops up a matrix of two-dimensional scatter plots for every pair of attributes, shown in Figure 2.16a. *AttributeSummarizer* gives a matrix of histograms, one for each attribute, like that in the lower right-hand corner of Figure 2.3b. *ModelPerformanceChart* draws ROC curves and other threshold curves. *CostBenefitAnalysis* allows interactive exploration of the tradeoffs in cost or benefit arising from different cost matrices. *GraphViewer*, used above, pops up a panel for visualizing tree-based models, as in Figure 2.6a. As before, you can zoom, pan, and visualize the instance data at a node (if it has been saved by the learning algorithm).

StripChart is a new visualization component designed for use with incremental learning. In conjunction with the *IncrementalClassifierEvaluator* described in the next paragraph it displays a learning curve that plots accuracy—both the percentage accuracy and the root mean-squared probability error—against time. It shows a fixed-size time window that scrolls horizontally to reveal the latest results.

Under the *Evaluation* folder, *TrainingSetMaker* and *TestSetMaker* make a dataset into the corresponding kind of set. The *CrossValidationFoldMaker* constructs cross-validation folds from a dataset; the *TrainTestSplitMaker* splits it into training and test sets by holding part of the data out for the test set. The *ClassAssigner* allows you to decide which attribute is the class. With *ClassValuePicker* you choose a value that is treated as the positive class when generating ROC and other threshold curves. The *ClassifierPerformanceEvaluator* collects evaluation statistics: it can send the textual evaluation to a text viewer and the threshold curves to a performance chart. The *IncrementalClassifierEvaluator* performs the same function for incremental classifiers: it computes running squared errors and so on. There is also a *ClustererPerformanceEvaluator*, which is similar to the *ClassifierPerformanceEvaluator*. The *PredictionAppender* takes a classifier and a dataset and appends the classifier’s predictions to the dataset.

Components under the *Flow* folder tend to affect the flow of data in some way. *FlowByExpression* enables incoming data to be sent to two downstream components based on the evaluation of a logical expression. The expression can involve one or more clauses that test the value of an attribute in the incoming data against a constant or the value of another attribute. Multiple clauses can be and’ed or or’ed together. *Block*, when connected between two components, delays the passing of data to the downstream component until a user-specified component has finished processing. *InstanceStreamToBatchMaker* collects instances arriving in a stream from an incoming “instance” connection and produces a batch dataset when the last instance has arrived. This is particularly useful when placed after a reservoir sampling filter—it allows the instances output by reservoir sampling to be used to train batch learning schemes. The *Join* component performs an inner join on two incoming dataset or instance streams. The user specifies the key fields to join on for both datasets, and both are expected to arrive in sorted order of their key fields.

Under the *Tools* folder, *Sorter* sorts instances within batch datasets or instance streams according to the values of one or more user-specified attributes. It can handle datasets larger than can be fit into main memory by using instance connections and specifying an in-memory buffer size. The component implements a merge sort by writing the sorted in-memory buffer to a file when full, and then interleaving instances from the disk-based file(s) when the incoming instance stream has finished. *SubstringReplacer* replaces occurrences of substring or regular expression matches in incoming string attributes with user-specified values. *SubstringLabeler* matches substrings in a similar fashion, but instead of replacing them it creates a new attribute in the data that holds the value of a label specified by the user for each match condition.

3.3 Configuring and connecting the components

You establish the knowledge flow by configuring the individual components and connecting them up. The menus that are available by right-clicking various component types have up to three sections: *Edit*, *Connections*, and *Actions*. The *Edit* operations delete components and open up their configuration panel. You can give a component a name by choosing *Set name* from the pop-up menu. Classifiers and filters are configured just as in the Explorer. Data sources are configured by opening a file (as we saw previously) or by setting a database connection, and evaluation components are configured by setting parameters such as the number of folds for cross-validation. The *Connections* operations are used to connect components together by selecting the type of connection from the source component and then clicking on the target object. Not all targets are suitable; applicable ones are highlighted. Items on the connections menu are disabled (grayed out) until the component receives other connections that render them applicable.

There are two kinds of connection from data sources: *dataset* connections and *instance* connections. The former are for batch operations such as classifiers like *J48*; the latter are for stream operations such as *NaiveBayesUpdateable*. A data source component cannot provide both types of connection: once one is selected, the other is disabled. When a dataset connection is made to a batch classifier, the classifier needs to know whether it is intended to serve as a training set or a test set. To do this, you first make the data source into a test or training set using the *TestSetMaker* or *TrainingSetMaker* components from the Evaluation panel. On the other hand, an *instance* connection to an incremental classifier is made directly: there is no distinction between training and testing because the instances that flow update the classifier incrementally. In this case a prediction is made for each incoming instance and incorporated into the test results; then the classifier is trained on that instance. If you make an *instance* connection to a batch classifier it will be used as a test instance because training cannot possibly be incremental whereas testing always can be. Conversely, it is quite possible to test an incremental classifier in batch mode using a dataset connection.

Connections from a filter component are enabled when it receives input from a data source, whereupon follow-on *dataset* or *instance* connections can be made. *Instance* connections cannot be made to supervised filters or to unsupervised filters that cannot handle data incrementally (such as *Discretize*). To get a test or training set out of a filter, you need to put the appropriate kind in.

The classifier menu has two types of connection. The first type, namely *graph* and *text* connections, provide graphical and textual representations of the classifier's learned state and is only activated when it receives a training set input. The other type, namely *batchClassifier* and *incrementalClassifier* connections, makes data available to a performance evaluator and is only activated when a test set input is present too. Which one is activated depends on the type of the classifier.

Evaluation components are a mixed bag. *TrainingSetMaker* and *TestSetMaker* turn a dataset into a training or test set. *CrossValidationFoldMaker* turns a dataset into both a training set and a test set. *ClassifierPerformanceEvaluator* generates textual and graphical output for visualization components. Other evaluation components operate like filters: they enable follow-on *dataset*, *instance*, *training set*, or *test set* connections depending on the input (e.g., *ClassAssigner* assigns a class to a dataset). *Visualization* components do not have connections, although some have actions such as *Show results* and *Clear results*.

3.4 Incremental learning

In most respects the Knowledge Flow interface is functionally similar to the Explorer: you can do similar things with both. It does provide some additional flexibility—for example, you can see the tree that J48 makes for each cross-validation fold. But its real strength is the potential for incremental operation.

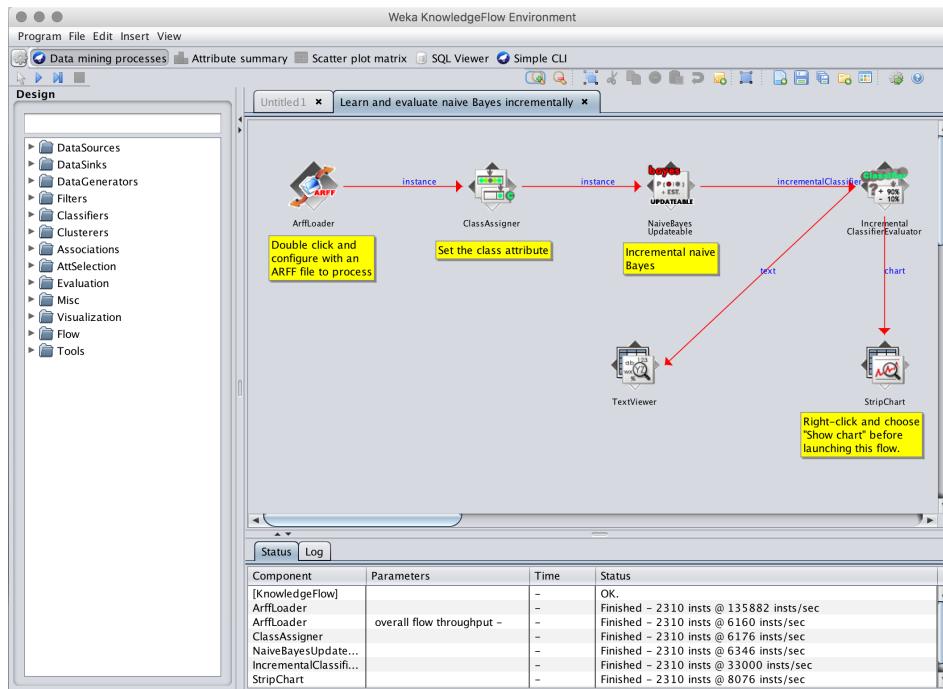
WEKA has several classifiers that can handle data incrementally: *SGD*, *SGDText*, *HoeffdingTree*, *NaiveBayesMultinomialText*, a version of Naive Bayes (*NaiveBayesUpdateable*), instance-based learners (*IBk*, *KStar*, *LWL*), and *NaiveBayesMultinomialUpdateable*. All filters that work instance by instance are incremental: *Add*, *AddExpression*, *AddValues*, *ChangeDateFormat*, *ClassAssigner*, *Copy*, *FirstOrder*, *MakeIndicator*, *MergeTwoValues*, *MergeManyValues*, *NominalToBinary*, *NonSparseToSparse*, *NumericToBinary*, *NumericTransform*, *NumericCleaner*, *Obfuscate*, *PartitionedMultiFilter*, *RandomSubset*, *Remove*, *RemoveByName*, *RemoveType*, *RemoveWithValues*, *RenameAttribute*, *RenameNominalValues*, *Reorder*, *ReplaceMissingWithUserConstant*, *ReservoirSample*, *SparseToNonSparse*, and *SwapValues*.

If all components connected up in the Knowledge Flow interface operate incrementally, so does the resulting learning system. It does not read in the dataset before learning starts, as the Explorer does. Instead, the data source component reads the input instance by instance and passes it through the Knowledge Flow chain.

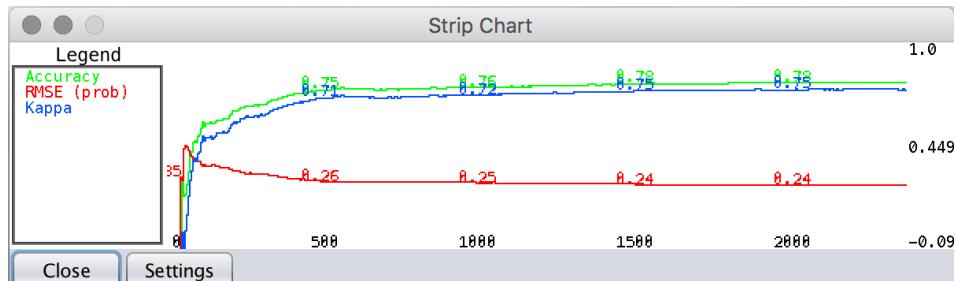
Figure 3.3a shows a configuration that works incrementally. An instance connection is made from the loader to a class assigner component, which, in turn, is connected to the updatable Naive Bayes classifier. The classifier’s text output is taken to a viewer that gives a textual description of the model. Also, an *incrementalClassifier* connection is made to the corresponding performance evaluator. This produces an output of type *chart*, which is piped to a *StripChart* visualization component to generate a scrolling data plot.

Figure 3.3b shows the strip chart output. It plots accuracy, Kappa, and the root mean-squared probability error against time. As time passes, the whole plot (including the axes) moves leftward to make room for new data at the right. When the vertical axis representing time 0 can move left no farther, it stops and the time origin starts to increase from 0 to keep pace with the data coming in at the right. Thus when the chart is full it shows a window of the most recent time units. The strip chart can be configured to alter the number of instances shown on the *x* axis.

This particular Knowledge Flow configuration can process input files of any size, even ones that do not fit into the computer’s main memory. However, it all depends on how the classifier operates internally. For example, although they are incremental, many instance-based learners store the entire dataset internally.



(a) The configuration.



(b) StripChart output.

Figure 3.3: A Knowledge Flow that operates incrementally.

Chapter 4

The Experimenter

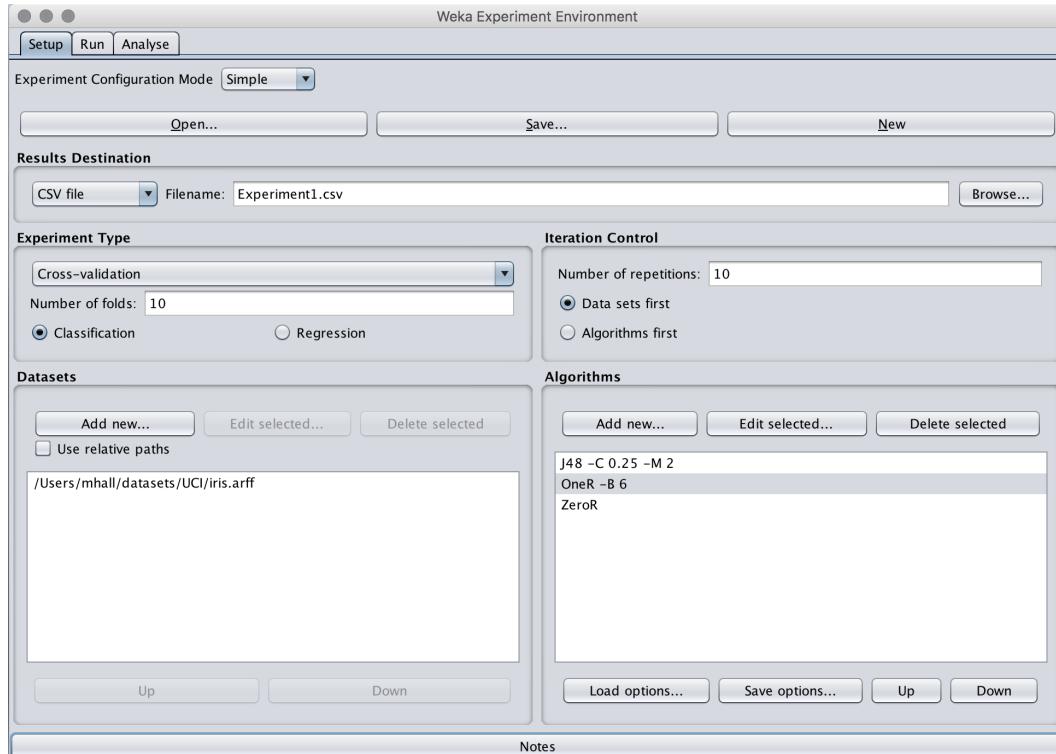
The Explorer and Knowledge Flow environments help you determine how well machine learning schemes perform on given datasets. But serious investigative work involves substantial experiments—typically running several learning schemes on different datasets, often with various parameter settings—and these interfaces are not really suitable for this. The Experimenter enables you to set up large-scale experiments, start them running, leave them, and come back when they have finished and analyze the performance statistics that have been collected. They automate the experimental process. The statistics can be stored in ARFF format, and can themselves be the subject of further data mining. You invoke this interface by selecting *Experimenter* from the choices at the side of the panel in Figure 2.3a.

Whereas the Knowledge Flow transcends limitations of space by allowing machine learning runs that do not load in the whole dataset at once, the Experimenter transcends limitations of time. It contains facilities for advanced users to distribute the computing load across multiple machines using Java RMI. You can set up big experiments and just leave them to run.

4.1 Getting started

As an example, we will compare the J4.8 decision tree method with the baseline methods *OneR* and *ZeroR* on the iris dataset. The Experimenter has three panels: *Setup*, *Run* and *Analyze*. Figure 4.1a shows the first: you select the others from the tabs at the top. Here, the experiment has already been set up. To do this, first click *New* (toward the right at the top) to start a new experiment (the other two buttons in that row save an experiment and open a previously saved one). Then, on the line below, select the destination for the results—in this case the file *Experiment1*—and choose *CSV file*. Underneath, select the datasets—we have only one, the iris data. To the right of the datasets, select the algorithms to be tested—we have three. Click *Add* new to get a standard WEKA object editor from which you can choose and configure a classifier. Repeat this operation to add the three classifiers. Now the experiment is ready.

The other settings in Figure 4.1a are all default values. If you want to reconfigure a classifier that is already in the list, you can use the *Edit selected* button. You can also save the options for a particular classifier in XML format for later reuse. You can right-click on an entry to copy the configuration to the clipboard, and add or enter a configuration from the clipboard.



(a) Setting it up.

```
Key_Dataset,Key_Run,Key_Fold,Key_Scheme,Key_Scheme_options,Key_Scheme_version_ID,Date_time,
Number_of_training_instances,Number_of_testing_instances,Number_correct,Number_incorrect,
Number_unch classified,Percent_correct,Percent_incorrect,Percent_ unclassified,Kappa_statistic,
Mean_absolute_error,Root_mean_squared_error,Relative_absolute_error,Root_relative_squared_error,
SF_prior_entropy,SF_scheme_entropy,SF_entropy_gain,SF_mean_prior_entropy,SF_mean_scheme_entropy,
SF_mean_entropy_gain,KB_information,KB_mean_information,KB_relative_information,True_positive_rate,
Num_true_positives,False_positive_rate,Num_false_positives,True_negative_rate,Num_true_negatives,
False_negative_rate,Num_false_negatives,IR_precision,IR_recall,F_measure,Matthews_correlation,
Area_under_ROC,Area_under_PRC,Weighted_avg_true_positive_rate,Weighted_avg_false_positive_rate,
Weighted_avg_true_negative_rate,Weighted_avg_false_negative_rate,Weighted_avg_IR_precision,
Weighted_avg_IR_recall,Weighted_avg_F_measure,Weighted_avg_matthews_correlation,
Weighted_avg_area_under_ROC,Weighted_avg_area_under_PRC,Unweighted_macro_avg_F_measure,
Unweighted_micro_avg_F_measure,Elapsed_Time_training,Elapsed_Time_testing,UserCPU_Time_training,
UserCPU_Time_testing,UserCPU_Time_millis_training,UserCPU_Time_millis_testing,Serialized_Model_Size,
Serialized_Train_Set_Size,Serialized_Test_Set_Size,Coverage_of_Test_Cases_By_Regions,
Size_of_Predicted_Regions,Summary,measureTreeSize,measureNumLeaves,measureNumRules
iris,1,1,weka.classifiers.trees.J48,'-C 0.25 -M 2',-217733168393644444,2.01604080413E7,135.0,15.0,
14.0,1.0,0.0,0.93.3333333333333,6.666666666666667,0.0,0.9,0.0450160137965016,0.1693176548766098,
10.128603104212857,35.917698581356284,23.77443751081735,2.632715099281766,21.141722411535582,
1.5849625007211567,0.17551433995211774,1.4094481607690388,21.6156535998677994,1.4410435733245328,
1363.79589990507,1.0,5.0,0.0,0.0,1.0,10.0,0.0,0.0,1.0,1.0,1.0,1.0,1.0,1.0,0.9333333333333333,
0.0333333333333333,0.96666666666666667,0.06666666666666667,0.9444444444444445,0.9333333333333333,
0.9326599326599326,0.9062760897356267,1.0,1.0,0.9326599326599326,0.9333333333333333,0.008,0.001,
0.006288999999999995,8.09999999999999E-4,6.289,0.581,4236.0,10633.0,2353.0,100.0,35.5555555555555555,
'Number of leaves: 4\nSize of the tree: 7\n',7.0,4.0,4.0
```

(b) The results file.

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	
Dataset	Run	Fold	Scheme	Scheme options	Number of training instances	Number of testing instances	Number correct	Number incorrect	Number unclassified	Percent correct	Percent incorrect	Percent unclassified	Kappa statistic	Mean absolute error	Root mean squared error	
1 iris	1	1	weka.classifiers.trees.J48	'-C 0.25 -M 2	135	15	14	1	0	93.333333 6.66666667	0	0	0.9	0.04501601	0.16931765	
2 iris	1	2	weka.classifiers.trees.J48	'-C 0.25 -M 2	135	15	15	0	0	100	0	0	0	1	0.01058801	0.01588652
3 iris	1	3	weka.classifiers.trees.J48	'-C 0.25 -M 2	135	15	15	0	0	100	0	0	0	1	0.01058801	0.01588652
4 iris	1	4	weka.classifiers.trees.J48	'-C 0.25 -M 2	135	15	15	0	0	100	0	0	0	1	0.01058801	0.01588652
5 iris	1	5	weka.classifiers.trees.J48	'-C 0.25 -M 2	135	15	14	1	0	93.333333 6.66666667	0	0	0	0.9	0.0586533	0.21277975
6 iris	1	6	weka.classifiers.trees.J48	'-C 0.25 -M 2	135	15	15	0	0	100	0	0	0	1	0.00940076	0.01486493
7 iris	1	7	weka.classifiers.trees.J48	'-C 0.25 -M 2	135	15	13	2	0	86.6666667 13.333333	0	0	0.8	0.09312169	0.29831136	
8 iris	1	8	weka.classifiers.trees.J48	'-C 0.25 -M 2	135	15	13	2	0	86.6666667 13.333333	0	0	0.8	0.09185185	0.29499715	
9 iris	1	9	weka.classifiers.trees.J48	'-C 0.25 -M 2	135	15	15	0	0	100	0	0	0	1	0.00940076	0.01486493
10 iris	1	10	weka.classifiers.trees.J48	'-C 0.25 -M 2	135	15	15	0	0	100	0	0	0	1	0.01058801	0.01588652
11 iris	2	1	weka.classifiers.trees.J48	'-C 0.25 -M 2	135	15	14	1	0	93.333333 6.66666667	0	0	0	0.9	0.05271765	0.20654967
12 iris	2	2	weka.classifiers.trees.J48	'-C 0.25 -M 2	135	15	13	2	0	86.6666667 13.333333	0	0	0.8	0.0198966	0.2948591	
13 iris	2	3	weka.classifiers.trees.J48	'-C 0.25 -M 2	135	15	14	1	0	93.333333 6.66666667	0	0	0.8	0.06795491	0.21102321	
14 iris	2	4	weka.classifiers.trees.J48	'-C 0.25 -M 2	135	15	15	0	0	100	0	0	0	1	0.01058801	0.01588652
15 iris	2	5	weka.classifiers.trees.J48	'-C 0.25 -M 2	135	15	15	0	0	100	0	0	0	1	0.01058801	0.01588652
16 iris	2	6	weka.classifiers.trees.J48	'-C 0.25 -M 2	135	15	13	2	0	86.6666667 13.333333	0	0	0.8	0.0292929	0.29663711	
17 iris	2	7	weka.classifiers.trees.J48	'-C 0.25 -M 2	135	15	15	0	0	100	0	0	0	1	0.01058801	0.01588652
18 iris	2	8	weka.classifiers.trees.J48	'-C 0.25 -M 2	135	15	14	1	0	93.333333 6.66666667	0	0	0.9	0.04867725	0.210574	
19 iris	2	9	weka.classifiers.trees.J48	'-C 0.25 -M 2	135	15	13	2	0	86.6666667 13.333333	0	0	0.8	0.1005003	0.28085766	
20 iris	2	10	weka.classifiers.trees.J48	'-C 0.25 -M 2	135	15	15	0	0	100	0	0	0	1	0.01058801	0.01588652
21 iris	3	1	weka.classifiers.trees.J48	'-C 0.25 -M 2	135	15	15	0	0	100	0	0	0	1	0.01058801	0.01588652
22 iris	3	2	weka.classifiers.trees.J48	'-C 0.25 -M 2	135	15	14	1	0	93.333333 6.66666667	0	0	0.9	0.05793937	0.21192618	

(c) Spreadsheet with results.

Figure 4.1: A experiment.

4.2 Running an experiment

To run the experiment, click the *Run* tab, which brings up a panel that contains a *Start* button (and little else); click it. A brief report is displayed when the operation is finished. The file *Experiment1.csv* contains the results. The first two lines are shown in Figure 4.1b: they are in CSV format and can be read directly into a spreadsheet, the first part of which appears in Figure 4.1c. Each row represents 1 fold of a 10-fold cross-validation (see the *Fold* column). The cross-validation is run 10 times (the *Run* column) for each classifier (the *Scheme* column). Thus the file contains 100 rows for each classifier, which makes 300 rows in all (plus the header row). Each row contains plenty of information, including the options supplied to the machine learning scheme; the number of training and test instances; the number (and percentage) of correct, incorrect, and unclassified instances; the mean absolute error, root mean-squared error, and many more.

There is a great deal of information in the spreadsheet, but it is hard to digest. In particular, it is not easy to answer the question posed previously: how does J4.8 compare with the baseline methods *OneR* and *ZeroR* on this dataset? For that we need the *Analyze* panel.

4.3 Analyzing the results

The reason that we generated the output in CSV format was to show the spreadsheet in Figure 4.1c. The Experimenter normally produces its output in ARFF format. You can also leave the file name blank, in which case the Experimenter stores the results in a temporary file.

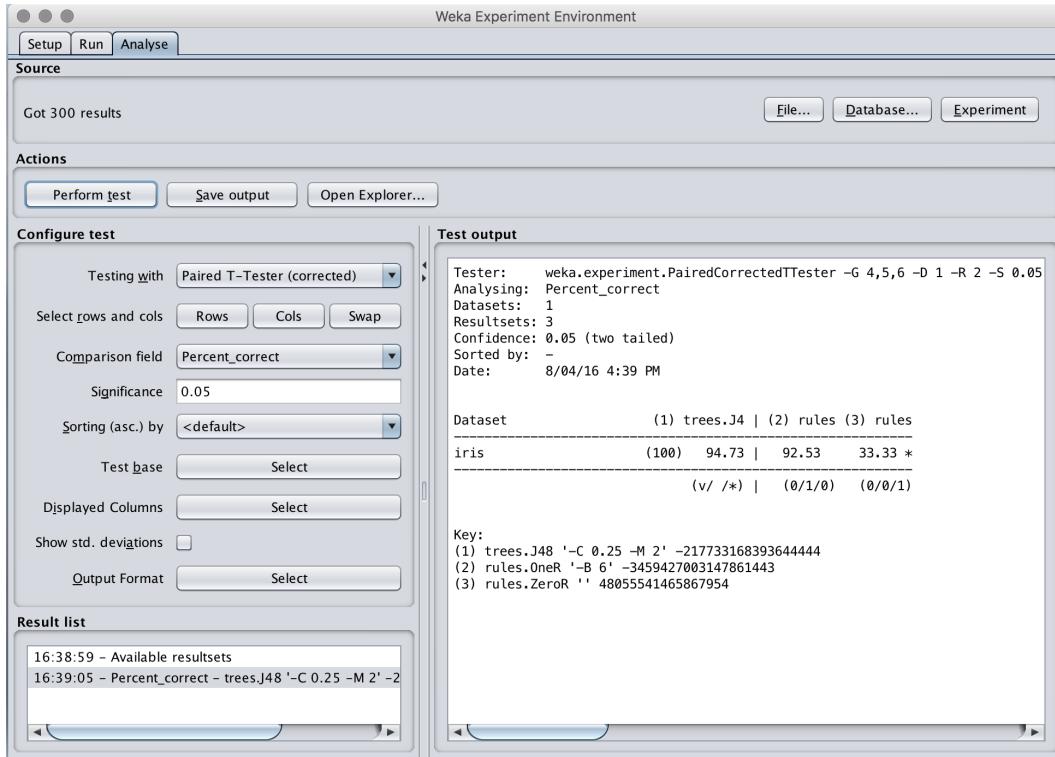


Figure 4.2: Statistical test results for the experiment of Figure 4.1a.

The *Analyze* panel is shown in Figure 4.2. To analyze the experiment that has just been performed, click the *Experiment* button at the right near the top; otherwise, supply a file that contains the results of another experiment. Then click *Perform test* (near the bottom on the left). The result of a statistical significance test of the performance of the first learning scheme (*J48*) versus the other two (*OneR* and *ZeroR*) will be displayed in the large panel on the right.

We are comparing the percent correct statistic: this is selected by default as the comparison field shown toward the left of Figure 4.2. The three methods are displayed horizontally, numbered (1), (2), and (3), as the heading of a little table. The labels for the columns are repeated at the bottom—*trees.J48*, *rules.OneR*, and *rules.ZeroR*—in case there is insufficient space for them in the heading. The inscrutable integers beside the scheme names identify which version of the scheme is being used. They are present by default to avoid confusion among results generated using different versions of the algorithms. The value in brackets at the beginning of the iris row (100) is the number of experimental runs: 10 times 10-fold cross-validation.

The percentage correct for the three schemes is shown in Figure 4.2 94.73% for method 1, 92.53% for method 2, and 33.33% for method 3. The symbol placed beside a result indicates that it is statistically better (*v*) or worse (*) than the baseline scheme—in this case J4.8—at the specified significance level (0.05, or 5%). The corrected resampled *t*-test is used here. Here, method 3 is significantly worse than method 1, because its success rate is followed by an asterisk. At the bottom of columns 2 and 3 are counts (x/y/z) of the number of times the scheme was better than (x), the same as (y), or worse than (z) the baseline scheme on the datasets used in the experiment. In this case there is only one dataset; method 2 was equivalent to method 1 (the baseline) once, and method 3 was worse than it once. (The annotation (*v*/ *) is placed at the bottom of column 1 to help you remember the meanings of the three counts x/y/z.)

The output in the Analyze panel can be saved into a file by clicking the “Save output” button. It is also possible to open a WEKA Explorer window to further analyze the experimental results obtained, by clicking on the “Open Explorer” button.

4.4 Simple setup

In the *Setup* panel of Figure 4.1a we left most options at their default values. The experiment type is a 10-fold cross-validation repeated 10 times. You can alter the number of folds in the box at center left and the number of repetitions in the box at center right. The experiment type is classification; you can specify regression instead. You can choose several datasets, in which case each algorithm is applied to each dataset, and change the order of iteration using the *Data sets first* and *Algorithm first* buttons. The alternative to cross-validation is the holdout method. There are two variants, depending on whether the order of the dataset is preserved or the data is randomized. You can specify the percentage split (the default is two-thirds training set and one-third test set).

Experimental setups can be saved and reopened. You can make notes about the setup by pressing the *Notes button*, which brings up an editor window. Serious WEKA users soon find the need to open up an experiment and rerun it with some modifications—perhaps with a new dataset or a new learning algorithm. It would be nice to avoid having to recalculate all the results that have already been obtained! If the results have been placed in a database rather than an ARFF or CSV file, this is exactly what happens. You can choose *JDBC database* in the results destination selector and connect to any database that has a JDBC driver. You need to specify the database’s URL and enter a username and password. To make this work with your database you may need to modify the *weka/experiment/DatabaseUtils.props* file in the WEKA distribution. If you alter an experiment that uses a database, WEKA will reuse previously computed results

whenever they are available. This greatly simplifies the kind of iterative experimentation that typically characterizes data mining research.

4.5 Advanced setup

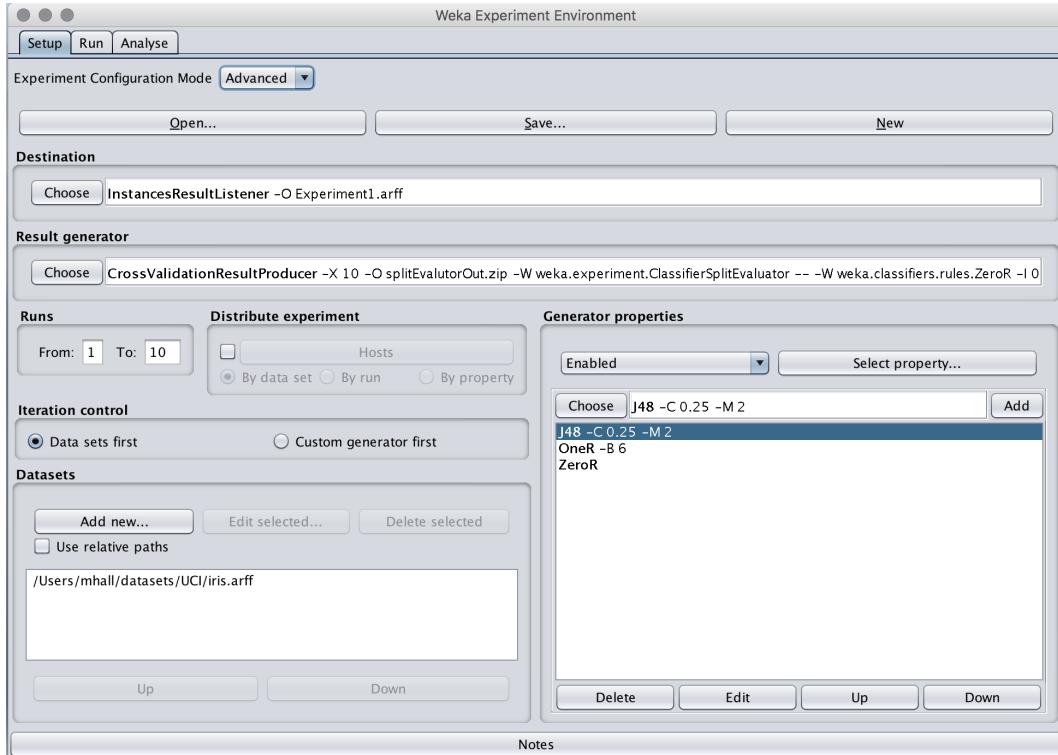


Figure 4.3: Setting up an Experimenter in advanced mode.

The Experimenter has an advanced mode. Select *Advanced* from the drop down box near the top of the panel shown in Figure 4.1a to obtain the more formidable version of the panel shown in Figure 4.3. This enlarges the options available for controlling the experiment—including, for example, the ability to generate learning curves. However, the advanced mode is hard to use, and the simple version suffices for most purposes. For example, in advanced mode you can set up an iteration to test an algorithm with a succession of different parameter values, but the same effect can be achieved in simple mode by putting the algorithm into the list several times with different parameter values.

One thing you can do in advanced mode but not in simple mode is run experiments using clustering algorithms. Here, experiments are limited to those clusterers that can compute probability or density estimates, and the main evaluation measure for comparison purposes is the log-likelihood. To set this up quickly, first click the *Result generator* to bring up an object editor for the *CrossValidationResultProducer*. Then click the *Choose* button for the split evaluator and select *DensityBasedClustererSplitEvaluator* from the list. At this point the panel on the lower right that contained the list of classifiers goes blank and the *Generator properties* drop-down box displays *Disabled*. Re-enable this, and a new window appears with a list of properties (Fig-

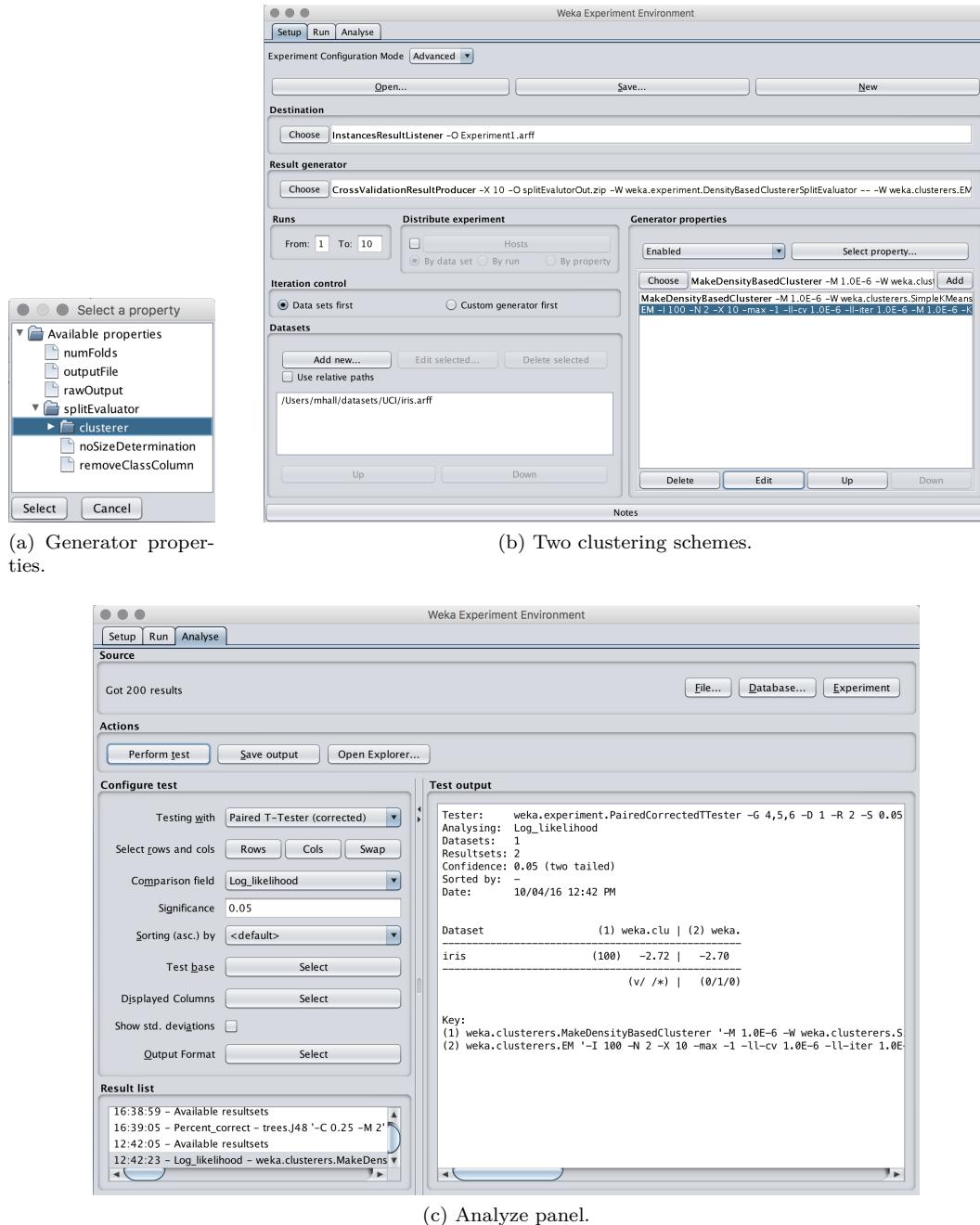


Figure 4.4: An experiment in clustering.

ure 4.4a). Expand the *splitEvaluator* entry, select clusterer (as shown in the figure), and click the *Select button*. Now the active list will reappear in the bottom right-hand panel, along with the ability to add clustering schemes, just as we did with classifiers.

Figure 4.4b shows a setup with two clustering schemes configured: *EM* and the *MakeDensityBasedClusterer* wrapped around *SimpleKMeans*. After running this experiment, these two can be compared in the *Analyze* panel. The comparison field is not set up with a meaningful default, so choose *Log-likelihood* from the drop-down box before pressing the *Perform test* button. Figure 4.4c shows the results for these clustering algorithms.

Another thing you may need the advanced mode for is to set up distributed experiments, which we describe in Section 4.7

4.6 The Analyze panel

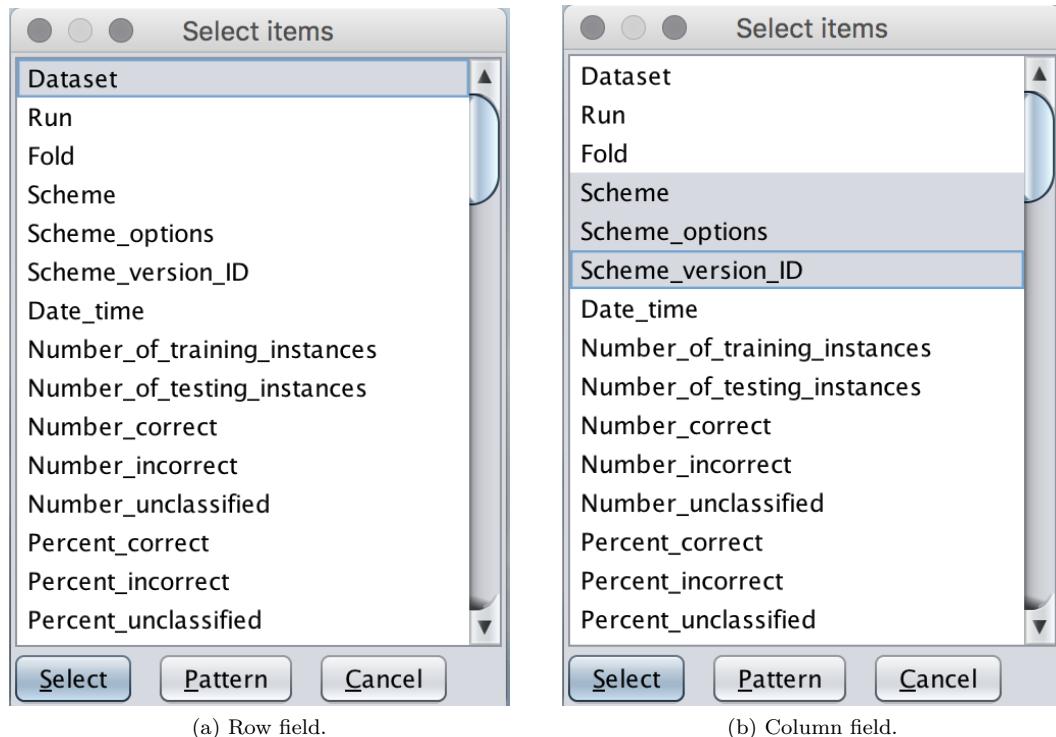
Our walkthrough used the *Analyze* panel to perform a statistical significance test of one learning scheme (*J48*) versus two others (*OneR* and *ZeroR*). The test was on the error rate—the *Comparison* field in Figure 4.2. Other statistics can be selected from the drop-down menu instead: percentage incorrect, percentage unclassified, root mean-squared error, the remaining error measures discussed in Chapter 5 of the book, and various entropy figures. Moreover, you can see the standard deviation of the attribute being evaluated by ticking the *Show std deviations* checkbox.

Use the *Test base* menu to change the baseline scheme from *J4.8* to one of the other learning schemes. For example, selecting *OneR* causes the others to be compared with this scheme. In fact, that would show that there is a statistically significant difference between *OneR* and *ZeroR* but not between *OneR* and *J48*. Apart from the learning schemes, there are two other choices in the *Select base* menu: *Summary* and *Ranking*. The former compares each learning scheme with every other scheme and prints a matrix whose cells contain the number of datasets on which one is significantly better than the other. The latter ranks the schemes according to the total number of datasets that represent wins ($>$) and losses ($<$) and prints a league table. The first column in the output gives the difference between the number of wins and the number of losses.

The *Row* and *Column* fields determine the dimensions of the comparison matrix. Clicking *Select* brings up a list of all the features that have been measured in the experiment—in other words, the column labels of the spreadsheet in Figure 4.1c. You can select which to use as the rows and columns of the matrix. (The selection does not appear in the *Select* box because more than one parameter can be chosen simultaneously.) Figure 4.5 shows which items are selected for the rows and columns of Figure 4.2. The two lists show the experimental parameters (the columns of the spreadsheet). *Dataset* is selected for the rows (and there is only one in this case, the iris dataset), and *Scheme*, *Scheme options*, and *Scheme_version_ID* are selected for the column (the usual convention of shift-clicking selects multiple entries). All three can be seen in Figure 4.2—in fact, they are more easily legible in the key at the bottom.

If the row and column selections were swapped and the *Perform test* button pressed again, the matrix would be transposed, giving the result in Figure 4.5. There are now three rows, one for each algorithm, and one column, for the single dataset. If instead the row of *Dataset* were replaced by *Run* and the test were performed again, the result would be as in Figure 4.5d. Run refers to the runs of the cross-validation, of which there are 10, so there are now 10 rows. The number in parentheses after each row label (100 in Figure 4.5c and 10 in Figure 4.5d) is the number of results corresponding to that row—in other words, the number of measurements that participate in the averages displayed by the cells in that row.

There is a button that allows you to select a subset of columns to display (the baseline column is always included), and another that allows you to select the output format: plain text (default),



(a) Row field.

(b) Column field.

Dataset	(1) iris
trees.J48 '-C 0.25 -M 2' (100)	94.73
rules.OneR '-B 6' -345942(100)	92.53
rules.ZeroR '' 4805554146(100)	33.33
(v/ /*)	

(c) Result of swapping the row and column selections.

Dataset	(1) trees.J4		(2) rules	(3) rules
1	(10)	96.00	92.00	33.33 *
2	(10)	94.00	93.33	33.33 *
3	(10)	94.00	92.00	33.33 *
4	(10)	95.33	92.67	33.33 *
5	(10)	95.33	92.00	33.33 *
6	(10)	95.33	93.33	33.33 *
7	(10)	94.00	92.00	33.33 *
8	(10)	94.00	92.67	33.33 *
9	(10)	94.00	93.33	33.33 *
10	(10)	95.33	92.00	33.33 *
	(v/ /*)		(0/10/0)	(0/0/10)

(d) Substituting *Run* for *Dataset* as the rows.

Figure 4.5: Configuring rows and columns.

output for the LaTeX typesetting system, CSV format, HTML, data and script suitable for input to the GNUMPlot graph plotting software, and just the significance symbols in plain text format. It is also possible to show averages and abbreviate filter class names in the output.

There is an option to choose whether to use the paired corrected *t*-test or the standard *t*-test for computing significance. The way the rows are sorted in the results table can be changed by choosing the *Sorting (asc.)* by option from the drop-down box. The default is to use natural ordering, presenting them in the order that the user entered the dataset names in the *Setup* panel. Alternatively the rows can be sorted according to any of the measures that are available in the *Comparison field*.

4.7 Distributing processing over several machines

A remarkable feature of the Experimenter is that it can split up an experiment and distribute it across several processors. This is for advanced WEKA users and is only available from the advanced version of the *Setup* panel. Some users avoid working with this panel by setting the experiment up on the simple version and switching to the advanced version to distribute it, because the experiment's structure is preserved when you switch. However, distributing an experiment *is* an advanced feature and is often difficult. For example, file and directory permissions can be tricky to set up.

Distributing an experiment works best when the results are all sent to a central database by selecting *JDBC* database as the results destination in Figure 4.1a. It uses the RMI facility, and works with any database that has a JDBC driver. It has been tested on several freely available databases. Alternatively, you could instruct each host to save its results to a different ARFF file and merge the files afterwards.

To distribute an experiment across multiple hosts, each host must (a) have Java installed, (b) have access to whatever datasets you are using, and (c) be running the *weka.experiment.RemoteEngine* experiment server. If results are sent to a central data base, the appropriate JDBC drivers must be installed on each host. Getting all this right is the difficult part of running distributed experiments.

To initiate a remote engine experiment server on a host machine, first copy *remoteExperimentServer.jar* from the WEKA distribution to a directory on the host. Unpack it with

```
jar -xvf remoteExperimentServer.jar
```

It expands to three files: *remoteEngine.jar*, an executable *jar* file that contains the experiment server, *remote.policy*, and *remote.policy.example*.

The *remote.policy* file grants the remote engine permission to perform certain operations, such as connecting to ports or accessing a directory. It needs to be edited to specify correct paths in some of the permissions; this is self-explanatory when you examine the file. By default, it specifies that code can be downloaded on HTTP port 80 from anywhere on the Web, but the remote engines can also load code from a file URL instead. To arrange this, either uncomment the example in *remote.policy* or tailor *remote.policy.example* to suit your needs. The latter file contains a complete example for a fictitious user (*johndoe*) under a Linux operating system. The remote engines also need to be able to access the datasets used in an experiment (see the first entry in *remote.policy*). The paths to the datasets are specified in the Experimenter (i.e., the client), and the same paths must be applicable in the context of the remote engines. To facilitate this it may be necessary to specify relative pathnames by selecting the *Use relative paths* tick box shown in the *Setup* panel of the Experimenter.

To start the remote engine server, type

```
java -classpath remoteEngine.jar:<path_to_any_jdbc_drivers>
-Djava.security.policy=remote.policy weka.experiment.RemoteEngine
```

from the directory containing *remoteEngine.jar*. All going well you will see this message (or something like it):

```
user@ml:remote_engine>Host name : ml.cs.waikato.ac.nz
Attempting to start RMI registry on port 1099 ...
RemoteEngine bound in RMI registry
```

This indicates that the remote engine has started the RMI registry on port 1099 and is running successfully. You can run more than one remote engine on a given machine, and it makes sense to do so if the machine in question has multiple processors or a multi-core processor. To do so, start each remote engine as above, but instead of the default port (1099) specify a different one using a command line option (*-p*) to the remote engine. Repeat the process for all hosts.

Now start the Experimenter by typing

```
java -Djava.rmi.server.codebase=<URL_for_weka_code>
weka.gui.experiment.Experimenter
```

The URL specifies where the remote engines can find the code to be executed. If it denotes a directory (i.e., one that contains the WEKA directory) rather than a jar file, it must end with path separator (e.g., */*).

The Experimenter's advanced *Setup* panel in Figure 4.3 contains a small pane at center left that determines whether an experiment will be distributed or not. This is normally inactive. To distribute the experiment click the checkbox to activate the *Hosts* button; a window will pop up asking for the machines over which to distribute the experiment. Host names should be fully qualified (e.g., *ml.cs.waikato.ac.nz*).

If a host is running more than one remote engine, enter its name into the window multiple times, along with the port number if it is not the default. For example:

```
ml.cs.waikato.ac.nz
ml.cs.waikato.ac.nz:5050
```

tells the Experimenter that the host *ml.cs.waikato.ac.nz* is running two remote engines, one at the default port of 1099 and a second at port 5050.

Having entered the hosts, configure the rest of the experiment in the usual way (better still, configure it before switching to the advanced setup mode). When the experiment is started using the *Run* panel, the progress of the subexperiments on the various hosts is displayed, along with any error messages.

Distributing an experiment involves splitting it into subexperiments that RMI sends to the hosts for execution. By default, experiments are partitioned by dataset, in which case there can be no more hosts than there are datasets. Then each subexperiment is self-contained: it applies all schemes to a single dataset. An experiment with only a few datasets can be partitioned by run instead. For example, a 10 times 10-fold cross-validation would be split into 10 subexperiments, 1 per run.

Chapter 5

The Command-Line Interface

Lurking behind WEKA’s interactive interfaces—the Explorer, the Knowledge Flow, the Experimenter and the Workbench—lies its basic functionality. This can be accessed more directly through a command-line interface. Select *Simple CLI* from the interface choices at the right of Figure 2.3a to bring up a plain textual panel with a line at the bottom on which you enter commands. Alternatively, use the operating system’s command-line interface to run the classes in *weka.jar*, in which case you must first set the *CLASSPATH* environment variable as explained in WEKA’s *README* file.

5.1 Getting started

At the beginning of Section 2.1.3 we used the Explorer to invoke the J4.8 learner on the weather data. To do the same thing in the command-line interface, type

```
java weka.classifiers.trees.J48 -t data/weather.arff
```

into the line at the bottom of the text panel. This incantation calls the Java virtual machine (in the Simple CLI, Java is already loaded) and instructs it to execute J4.8. WEKA is organized in *packages* (not to be confused with the plugin packages that are managed by WEKA’s package manager) that correspond to a directory hierarchy. The program to be executed is called *J48* and resides in the *trees* package, which is a subpackage of *classifiers*, which is part of the overall *weka* package. The next section gives more details of the package structure. The *-t* option signals that the next argument is the name of the training file: we are assuming that the weather data resides in a *data* subdirectory of the directory from which you fired up WEKA. The result resembles the text shown in Figure 2.5. In the Simple CLI it appears in the panel above the line where you typed the command.

5.1.1 weka.Run

Typing in fully qualified class names can become a chore after a while, especially if you are using meta learning schemes that themselves require various base learners to be specified. Using the *weka.Run* command line tool allows you to type in shortened versions of scheme names, and WEKA will attempt to find a match by scanning the names of all the schemes it knows about. Using *weka.Run*, the previous J4.8 invocation becomes

```
java weka.Run .J48 -t data/weather.arff
```

A small saving perhaps, but consider the following

```
java weka.Run .Stacking -M .Logistic -B .J48 -B ".FilteredClassifier -F \"Remove -R 1\""
-W .NaiveBayes" -B .OneR -t data/iris.arff
```

Without *weka.Run*'s scheme matching this would look like

```
java weka.classifiers.meta.Stacking -M weka.classifiers.functions.Logistic
-B weka.classifiers.trees.J48 -B "weka.classifiers.meta.FilteredClassifier
-F \"weka.filters.unsupervised.attribute.Remove -R 1\""
-W weka.classifiers.bayes.NaiveBayes" -B weka.classifiers.rules.OneR
-t data/iris.arff
```

If you are not using the Simple CLI, but instead are using your operating system's command-line interface, then *weka.Run* provides another benefit—it automatically adds all the classes from plugin packages into the CLASSPATH. This saves having to modify the CLASSPATH every time you install a new plugin package.

5.2 The structure of WEKA

We have explained how to invoke filtering and learning schemes with the Explorer and connect them together with the Knowledge Flow interface. To go further, it is necessary to learn something about how WEKA is put together. Detailed, up-to-date information can be found in the online documentation included in the distribution. This is more technical than the descriptions of the learning and filtering schemes given by the *More* button in the Explorer and Knowledge Flow's object editors. It is generated directly from comments in the source code using the Javadoc utility. To understand its structure, you need to know how Java programs are organized.

5.2.1 Classes, instances, and packages

Every Java program is implemented as a class or collection of classes. In object-oriented programming, a *class* is a collection of variables along with some *methods* that operate on them. Together, they define the behavior of an object belonging to the class. An *object* is simply an instantiation of the class that has values assigned to all the class's variables. In Java, an object is also called an *instance* of the class. Unfortunately, this conflicts with the terminology used in this book, where the terms *class* and *instance* appear in the quite different context of machine learning. From now on, you will have to infer the intended meaning of these terms from their context. This is not difficult—and sometimes we will use the word *object* instead of Java's *instance* to make things clear.

In WEKA, the implementation of a particular learning algorithm is encapsulated in a class—which may depend on other classes for some of its functionality. For example, the *J48* class described previously builds a C4.5 decision tree. Each time the Java virtual machine executes *J48*, it creates an instance of this class by allocating memory for building and storing a decision tree classifier. The algorithm, the classifier it builds, and a procedure for outputting the classifier are all part of that instantiation of the *J48* class.

Larger programs are usually split into more than one class. The *J48* class, for example, does not actually contain any code for building a decision tree. It includes references to instances of other classes that do most of the work. When there are a lot of classes—as in WEKA—they become difficult to comprehend and navigate. Java allows classes to be organized into packages. A *package* is just a directory containing a collection of related classes: for example, the *trees* package mentioned previously contains the classes that implement decision trees. Packages are

organized in a hierarchy that corresponds to the directory hierarchy: *trees* is a subpackage of the *classifiers* package, which is itself a subpackage of the overall *weka* package.

When you consult the online documentation generated by Javadoc from your Web browser, the first thing you see is an alphabetical list of all the packages in WEKA, as shown in Figure 5.1. (If you view the Javadoc with frames, you will see more than this. Click on *NO FRAMES* to remove the extra information.) Here we introduce a few of them in order of importance.

5.2.2 The *weka.core* package

The *core* package is central to the WEKA system, and its classes are accessed from almost every other class. You can determine what they are by clicking on the *weka.core* hyperlink, which brings up the web page shown in Figure 5.-2.

This web page is divided into several parts, the main ones being the *interface summary* and the *class summary*. The latter is a list of classes contained within the package, and the former lists the interfaces it provides. An interface is similar to a class, the only difference being that it does not actually do anything by itself—it is merely a list of methods without actual implementations. Other classes can declare that they “implement” a particular interface and then provide code for its methods. For example, the *OptionHandler* interface defines those methods that are implemented by all classes that can process command-line options, including all classifiers.

The key classes in the core package are *Attribute*, *Instance*, and *Instances*. An object of class *Attribute* represents an attribute. It contains the attribute’s name, its type, and, in the case of a nominal or string attribute, its possible values. An object of class *Instance* contains the attribute values of a particular instance; and an object of class *Instances* holds an ordered set of instances, in other words, a dataset. You can learn more about these classes by clicking their hyperlinks; we return to them in Chapter 6 when we show how to invoke machine learning schemes from other Java code. However, you can use WEKA from the command line without knowing the details.

Clicking the *Overview* hyperlink in the upper left corner of any documentation page returns you to the listing of all the packages in WEKA that is shown in Figure 5.1.

5.2.3 The *weka.classifiers* package

The *classifiers* package contains implementations of most of the algorithms for classification and numeric prediction described in this book. (Numeric prediction is included in *classifiers*: it is interpreted as prediction of a continuous class.) The most important class in this package is *AbstractClassifier*, which implements the *Classifier* interface. *Classifier* defines the general structure of any scheme for classification or numeric prediction and declares three important methods, *buildClassifier()*, *classifyInstance()*, and *distributionForInstance()*. In the terminology of object-oriented programming, the learning algorithms are represented by subclasses of *AbstractClassifier* and therefore automatically inherit these three methods. Every scheme redefines them according to how it builds a classifier and how it classifies instances. This gives a uniform interface for building and using classifiers from other Java code. Hence, for example, the same evaluation module can be used to evaluate the performance of any classifier in WEKA.

To see an example, click on *weka.classifiers.trees* and then on *DecisionStump*, which is a class for building a simple one-level binary decision tree (with an extra branch for missing values). Its documentation page, shown in Figure 5.-2, shows the fully qualified name of this class, *weka.classifiers.trees.DecisionStump*, near the top. You have to use this rather lengthy name whenever you build a decision stump from the command line, unless you use *weka.Run*. The

Package
weka
weka.associations
weka.attributeSelection
weka.classifiers
weka.classifiers.bayes
weka.classifiers.bayes.net
weka.classifiers.bayes.net.estimate
weka.classifiers.bayes.net.search
weka.classifiers.bayes.net.search.ci
weka.classifiers.bayes.net.search.fixed
weka.classifiers.bayes.net.search.global
weka.classifiers.bayes.net.search.local
weka.classifiers.evaluation
weka.classifiers.evaluation.output.prediction
weka.classifiers.functions
weka.classifiers.functions.neural
weka.classifiers.functions.supportVector
weka.classifiers.lazy
weka.classifiers.lazy.kstar
weka.classifiers.meta
weka.classifiers.misc
weka.classifiers.pmml.consumer
weka.classifiers.pmml.producer
weka.classifiers.rules
weka.classifiers.rules.part
weka.classifiers.trees
weka.classifiers.trees.ht
weka.classifiers.trees.j48
weka.classifiers.trees.lmt
weka.classifiers.trees.m5
weka.classifiers.xml
weka.clusterers
weka.core
weka.core.converters
weka.core.expressionlanguage
weka.core.expressionlanguage.common
weka.core.expressionlanguage.core
weka.core.expressionlanguage.parser
weka.core.expressionlanguage.weka
weka.core.json
weka.core.logging
weka.core.matrix
weka.core.metastore
weka.core.neighboursearch
weka.core.neighboursearch.balltrees
weka.core.neighboursearch.covertrees
weka.core.neighboursearch.kdtrees
weka.core.packageManagement
weka.core.pmml
weka.core.pmml.jaxbbindings
weka.core.scripting
weka.core.stemmers
weka.core.stopwords
weka.core.tokenizers
weka.core.xml
weka.datagenerators
weka.datagenerators.classifiers.classification
weka.datagenerators.classifiers.regression
weka.datagenerators.clusterers
weka.estimators
weka.experiment
weka.experiment.xml
weka.filters
weka.filters.supervised.attribute
weka.filters.supervised.instance
weka.filters.unsupervised.attribute
weka.filters.unsupervised.instance
weka.gui
weka.gui.arffviewer
weka.gui.beans
weka.gui.beans.xml
weka.gui.boundaryvisualizer
weka.gui.experiment
weka.gui.explorer
weka.gui.filters
weka.gui.graphvisualizer
weka.gui.hierarchyvisualizer
weka.gui.knowledgeflow
weka.gui.knowledgeflow.steps
weka.gui.scripting
weka.gui.scripting.event
weka.gui.sql
weka.gui.sql.event
weka.gui.streams
weka.gui.treevisualizer
weka.gui.visualize
weka.gui.visualize.plugins
weka.knowledgeflow
weka.knowledgeflow.steps

Figure 5.1: Javadoc: the front page.

Package weka.core

Interface Summary	
Interface	Description
AdditionalMeasureProducer	Interface to something that can produce measures other than those calculated by evaluation modules.
Aggregateable<E>	Interface to something that can aggregate an object of the same type with itself.
BatchPredictor	Interface to something that can produce predictions in a batch manner when presented with a set of Instances.
CapabilitiesHandler	Classes implementing this interface return their capabilities in regards to datasets.
CapabilitiesIgnorer	Classes implementing this interface make it possible to turn off capabilities checking.
CommandlineRunnable	Interface to something that can be run from the command line.
Copyable	Interface implemented by classes that can produce "shallow" copies of their objects.
CustomDisplayStringProvider	For classes that do not implement the OptionHandler interface and want to provide a custom display string in the GenericObjectEditor, which is more descriptive than the class name.
DistanceFunction	Interface for any class that can compute and return distances between two instances.
Drawable	Interface to something that can be drawn as a graph.
EnvironmentHandler	Interface for something that can utilize environment variables.
Instance	Interface representing an instance.
LogHandler	Interface to something that can output messages to a log
Matchable	Interface to something that can be matched with tree matching algorithms.
MultiInstanceCapabilitiesHandler	Multi-Instance classifiers can specify an additional Capabilities object for the data in the relational attribute, since the format of multi-instance data is fixed to "bag/NOMINAL,data/RELATIONAL,class".
OptionHandler	Interface to something that understands options.
PartitionGenerator	This interface can be implemented by algorithms that generate a partition of the instance space (e.g., decision trees).
Randomizable	Interface to something that has random behaviour that is able to be seeded with an integer.
RevisionHandler	For classes that should return their source control revision.
Summarizable	Interface to something that provides a short textual summary (as opposed to <code>toString()</code> which is usually a fairly complete description) of itself.
TechnicalInformationHandler	For classes that are based on some kind of publications.
ThreadSafe	Interface to something that is thread safe
Undoable	Interface implemented by classes that support undo.
WeightedInstancesHandler	Interface to something that makes use of the information provided by instance weights.

Figure 5.2: Javadoc: the *weka.core* package.

Class Summary	
Class	Description
AbstractInstance	Abstract class providing common functionality for the original instance implementations.
AlgVector	Class for performing operations on an algebraic vector of floating-point values.
AllJavadoc	Applies all known Javadoc-derived classes to a source file.
Attribute	Class for handling an attribute.
AttributeLocator	This class locates and records the indices of a certain type of attributes, recursively in case of Relational attributes.
AttributeMetaInfo	
AttributeStats	A Utility class that contains summary information on the values that appear in a dataset for a particular attribute.
BinarySparseInstance	Class for storing a binary-data-only instance as a sparse vector.
Capabilities	A class that describes the capabilities (e.g., handling certain types of attributes, missing values, types of classes, etc.) of a specific classifier.
ChebyshevDistance	Implements the Chebyshev distance.
Check	Abstract general class for testing in Weka.
CheckGOE	Simple command line checking of classes that are editable in the GOE.
CheckOptionHandler	Simple command line checking of classes that implement OptionHandler.
CheckScheme	Abstract general class for testing schemes in Weka.
CheckScheme.PostProcessor	a class for postprocessing the test-data
ClassCache	A singleton that stores all classes on the classpath.
ClassCache.ClassFileFilter	For filtering classes.
ClassCache.DirectoryFilter	For filtering classes.
ClassDiscovery	This class is used for discovering classes that implement a certain interface or are derived from a certain class.
ClassDiscovery.StringCompare	compares two strings.
ClassLoaderUtil	Utility class that can add jar files to the classpath dynamically.
ConjugateGradientOptimization	This subclass of Optimization.java implements conjugate gradient descent rather than BFGS updates, by overriding findArgmin(), with the same tests for convergence, and applies the same line search code.
ContingencyTables	Class implementing some statistical routines for contingency tables.
Copyright	A class for providing centralized Copyright information.
DateAttributeInfo	Stores information for date attributes.
Debug	A helper class for debug output, logging, clocking, etc.
Debug.Clock	A little helper class for clocking and outputting times.
Debug.DBO	contains debug methods
Debug.Log	A helper class for logging stuff.
Debug.Random	This extended Random class enables one to print the generated random numbers etc., before they are returned.
Debug.SimpleLog	A little, simple helper class for logging stuff.

Figure 5.1: Javadoc: the *weka.core* package cont.

Debug.Timestamp	A class that can be used for timestamps in files, The <code>toString()</code> method simply returns the associated Date object in a timestamp format.
Defaults	Base class for providing a set of default settings for an application.
DenseInstance	Class for handling an instance.
DictionaryBuilder	Class for building and maintaining a dictionary of terms.
EnumHelper	Helper/wrapper class for obtaining an arbitrary enum value from an arbitrary enum type.
Environment	This class encapsulates a map of all environment and java system properties.
EnvironmentProperties	Extends Properties to allow the value of a system property (if set) to override that which has been loaded/set.
EuclideanDistance	<p>Implementing Euclidean distance (or similarity) function.</p> <p>One object defines not one distance but the data model in which the distances between objects of that data model can be computed.</p> <p>Attention: For efficiency reasons the use of consistency checks (like are the data models of the two instances exactly the same), is low.</p> <p>For more information, see:</p> <p>Wikipedia.</p>
FastVector<E>	Deprecated
FileHelper	Wrapper class for File objects.
FilteredDistance	Applies the given filter before calling the given distance function.
FindWithCapabilities	Locates all classes with certain capabilities.
FontHelper	Wrapper class for Font objects.
GlobalInfoJavadoc	Generates Javadoc comments from the class's <code>globalInfo</code> method.
InstanceComparator	A comparator for the <code>Instance</code> class.
Instances	Class for handling an ordered set of weighted instances.
Javadoc	Abstract superclass for classes that generate Javadoc comments and replace the content between certain comment tags.
ListOptions	Lists the options of an OptionHandler
ManhattanDistance	Implements the Manhattan distance (or Taxicab geometry).
Matrix	<p>Deprecated</p> <p><i>Use <code>weka.core.matrix.Matrix</code> instead - only for backwards compatibility.</i></p>
Memory	A little helper class for Memory management.
MinkowskiDistance	<p>Implementing Minkowski distance (or similarity) function.</p> <p>One object defines not one distance but the data model in which the distances between objects of that data model can be computed.</p> <p>Attention: For efficiency reasons the use of consistency checks (like are the data models of the two instances exactly the same), is low.</p> <p>For more information, see:</p> <p>Wikipedia.</p>
NominalAttributeInfo	Stores information for nominal and string attributes.

Figure 5.0: Javadoc: the `weka.core` package cont.

NormalizableDistance	Represents the abstract ancestor for normalizable distance functions, like Euclidean or Manhattan distance.
Optimization	Implementation of Active-sets method with BFGS update to solve optimization problem with only bounds constraints in multi-dimensions.
Option	Class to store information about an option.
OptionHandlerJavadoc	Generates Javadoc comments from the OptionHandler's options.
PluginManager	Class that manages a global map of plugins.
PropertyPath	A helper class for accessing properties in nested objects, e.g., accessing the "getRidge" method of a LinearRegression classifier part of MultipleClassifierCombiner, e.g., Vote.
PropertyPath.Path	Contains a (property) path structure
PropertyPath.PathElement	Represents a single element of a property path
ProtectedProperties	Simple class that extends the Properties class so that the properties are unable to be modified.
Queue	Class representing a FIFO queue.
RandomVariates	Class implementing some simple random variates generator.
Range	Class representing a range of cardinal numbers.
RelationalAttributeInfo	Stores information for relational attributes.
RelationalLocator	This class locates and records the indices of relational attributes,
RepositoryIndexGenerator	Class for generating html index files and supporting text files for a Weka package meta data repository.
ResampleUtils	Helper class for resampling.
RevisionUtils	Contains utility functions for handling revisions.
SelectedTag	Represents a selected value from a finite set of values, where each value is a Tag (i.e.
SerializationHelper	A helper class for determining serialVersionUIDs and checking whether classes contain one and/or need one.
SerializedObject	Class for storing an object in serialized form in memory.
Settings	Maintains a collection of settings.
Settings.SettingKey	Class implementing a key for a setting.
SingleIndex	Class representing a single cardinal number.
SparseInstance	Class for storing an instance as a sparse vector.
SpecialFunctions	Class implementing some mathematical functions.
Statistics	Class implementing some distributions, tests, etc.
Stopwords	Class that can test whether a given string is a stop word.
StringLocator	This class locates and records the indices of String attributes, recursively in case of Relational attributes.
SystemInfo	This class prints some information about the system setup, like Java version, JVM settings etc.
Tag	A Tag simply associates a numeric ID with a String description.
TechnicalInformation	Used for paper references in the Javadoc and for BibTex generation.
TechnicalInformationHandlerJavadoc	Generates Javadoc comments from the TechnicalInformationHandler's data.

Figure 5.-1: Javadoc: the *weka.core* package cont.

Tee	This class pipelines print/println's to several PrintStreams.
TestInstances	Generates artificial datasets for testing.
Trie	A class representing a Trie data structure for strings.
Trie.TrieIterator	Represents an iterator over a trie
Trie.TrieNode	Represents a node in the trie.
Utils	Class implementing some simple utility methods.
Version	This class contains the version number of the current WEKA release and some methods for comparing another version string.
WekaEnumeration<E>	Class for enumerating an array list's elements.
WekaPackageManager	Class providing package management and manipulation routines.

Figure 5.-2: Javadoc: the *weka.core* package cont.

class name is sited in a small tree structure showing the relevant part of the class hierarchy. As you can see, *DecisionStump* is a subclass of *weka.classifiers.AbstractClassifier*, which is itself a subclass of *java.lang.Object*. The *Object* class is the most general one in Java: all classes are automatically subclasses of it.

After some generic information about the class—brief documentation, its version, and the author—Figure 5.-2 gives an index of the constructors and methods of this class. A constructor is a special kind of method that is called whenever an object of that class is created, usually initializing the variables that collectively define its state. The index of methods lists the name of each one, the type of parameters it takes, and a short description of its functionality. Beneath those indexes, the web page gives more details about the constructors and methods. We return to these details later.

As you can see, *DecisionStump* overwrites *distributionForInstance()* from *AbstractClassifier*: the default implementation of *classifyInstance()* in *AbstractClassifier* then uses this method to produce its classifications. In addition, *DecisionStump* contains the *getCapabilities()*, *getRevision()*, *globalInfo()*, *toSource()*, *toString()*, and *main()* methods. We discuss *getCapabilities()* shortly. The *getRevision()* method simply returns the revision number of the classifier. There is a utility class in the *weka.core* package that prints it to the screen, which is used by WEKA maintainers when diagnosing and debugging problems reported by users. The *globalInfo()* method returns a string describing the classifier, which, along with the scheme's options, is displayed by the *More* button in the generic object editor in WEKA's graphical user interfaces. The *toString()* method returns a textual representation of the classifier, used whenever it is printed on the screen, while the *toSource()* method is used to obtain a source code representation of the learned classifier. (This is only implemented if the classifier implements the *Sourcable* interface.) The *main()* method is called when you ask for a decision stump from the command line, in other words, every time you enter a command beginning with

```
java weka.classifiers.trees.DecisionStump
```

The presence of a *main()* method in a class indicates that it can be run from the command line: all learning methods and filter algorithms implement it.

The *getCapabilities()* method is called by the generic object editor to provide information about the capabilities of a learning scheme (Figure 2.9d). The training data is checked against

OVERVIEW PACKAGE CLASS TREE DEPRECATED INDEX HELP

PREV CLASS NEXT CLASS FRAMES NO FRAMES ALL CLASSES
 SUMMARY: NESTED | FIELD | CONSTR | METHOD DETAIL: FIELD | CONSTR | METHOD

weka.classifiers.trees

Class DecisionStump

```
java.lang.Object
  weka.classifiers.AbstractClassifier
    weka.classifiers.trees.DecisionStump
```

All Implemented Interfaces:

```
java.io.Serializable, java.lang.Cloneable, Classifier, Sourcable, BatchPredictor,
CapabilitiesHandler, CapabilitiesIgnorer, CommandlineRunnable, OptionHandler,
RevisionHandler, WeightedInstancesHandler
```

```
public class DecisionStump
extends AbstractClassifier
implements WeightedInstancesHandler, Sourcable
```

Class for building and using a decision stump. Usually used in conjunction with a boosting algorithm. Does regression (based on mean-squared error) or classification (based on entropy). Missing is treated as a separate value.

Typical usage:

```
java weka.classifiers.meta.LogitBoost -I 100 -W weka.classifiers.trees.DecisionStump -t
training_data
```

Valid options are:

```
-D
If set, classifier is run in debug mode and
may output additional info to the console
```

Version:
\$Revision: 9171 \$

Author:
Eibe Frank (eibe@cs.waikato.ac.nz)

See Also:
Serialized Form

Figure 5.-1: *DecisionStump*: a class of the *weka.classifiers.trees* package.

Constructor Summary

Constructors
<code>Constructor and Description</code>
<code>DecisionStump()</code>

Method Summary

All Methods	Static Methods	Instance Methods	Concrete Methods
Modifier and Type	Method and Description		
<code>void</code>	<code>buildClassifier(Instances instances)</code> Generates the classifier.		
<code>double[]</code>	<code>distributionForInstance(Instance instance)</code> Calculates the class membership probabilities for the given test instance.		
<code>Capabilities</code>	<code>getCapabilities()</code> Returns default capabilities of the classifier.		
<code>java.lang.String</code>	<code>getRevision()</code> Returns the revision string.		
<code>java.lang.String</code>	<code>globalInfo()</code> Returns a string describing classifier		
<code>static void</code>	<code>main(java.lang.String[] argv)</code> Main method for testing this class.		
<code>java.lang.String</code>	<code>toSource(java.lang.String className)</code> Returns the decision tree as Java source code.		
<code>java.lang.String</code>	<code>toString()</code> Returns a description of the classifier.		

Methods inherited from class weka.classifiers.AbstractClassifier

```
batchSizeTipText, classifyInstance, debugTipText, distributionsForInstances,
doNotCheckCapabilitiesTipText, forName, getBatchSize, getDebug,
getDoNotCheckCapabilities, getNumDecimalPlaces, getOptions,
implementsMoreEfficientBatchPrediction, listOptions, makeCopies, makeCopy,
numDecimalPlacesTipText, postExecution, preExecution, run, runClassifier,
setBatchSize, setDebug, setDoNotCheckCapabilities, setNumDecimalPlaces, setOptions
```

Figure 5.-2: *DecisionStump*: a class of the *weka.classifiers.trees* package cont.

the learning scheme's capabilities when the *buildClassifier()* method is called, and an error raised when the classifier's stated capabilities do not match the data's characteristics. The *getCapabilities()* method is present in the *AbstractClassifier* class and, by default, enables all capabilities (i.e., imposes no constraints). This makes it easier for new WEKA programmers to get started because they need not learn about and specify capabilities initially. Capabilities are covered in more detail in Chapter 7.

5.2.4 Other packages

Several other packages listed in Figure 5.1 are worth mentioning: *weka.associations*, *weka.clusterers*, *weka.datagenerators*, *weka.estimators*, *weka.filters*, and

weka.attributeSelection. The *weka.associations* package contains association rule learners. These have been placed in a separate package because association rules are fundamentally different from classifiers. The *weka.clusterers* package contains methods for unsupervised learning. Artificial data can be generated using the classes in *weka.datagenerators*. The *weka.estimators* package contains subclasses of a generic *Estimator* class, which computes different types of probability distributions. These subclasses are used by the naive Bayes algorithm (among others).

In the *weka.filters package*, the *Filter* class defines the general structure of classes containing filter algorithms, which are all implemented as subclasses of *Filter*. Like classifiers, filters can be used from the command line: we will see how shortly. The *weka.attributeSelection* package contains several classes for attribute selection. These are used by the *AttributeSelectionFilter* in *weka.filters.supervised.attribute*, but can also be invoked separately.

5.2.5 Javadoc indexes

As mentioned previously, all classes are automatically subclasses of *Object*. To examine the tree that corresponds to WEKA's hierarchy of classes, select the *Overview* link from the top of any page of the online documentation. Click *Tree* to display the overview as a tree that shows which classes are subclasses or superclasses of a particular class—for example, which classes inherit from *AbstractClassifier*.

The online documentation contains an index of all classes, packages, publicly accessible variables (called *fields*) and methods in WEKA—in other words, all fields and methods that you can access from your own Java code. To view it, click *Overview* and then *Index*.

Suppose you want to check which WEKA classifiers and filters are capable of operating incrementally. Searching for the word *incremental* in the index would soon lead you to the keyword *UpdateableClassifier*. In fact, this is a Java interface; interfaces are listed after the classes in the overview tree. You are looking for all classes that implement this interface. Clicking any occurrence of it in the documentation brings up a page that describes the interface and lists the classifiers that implement it. To find the filters is a little trickier unless you know the keyword *StreamableFilter*, which is the name of the interface that streams data through a filter: again its page lists the filters that implement it. You would stumble across that keyword if you knew any example of a filter that could operate incrementally.

5.3 Command-line options

In the preceding example, the *-t* option was used on the command line to communicate the name of the training file to the learning algorithm. There are many other options that can be used with any learning scheme, and also scheme-specific ones that apply only to particular schemes. If you invoke a learning scheme with the *-h* or *-help* option, or without any command-line options

at all, it displays the applicable options: first the general options, then the scheme-specific ones. In the command-line interface, type:

```
java weka.Run .J48 -h
```

You will see a list of the options common to all learning schemes, shown in Table 5.1, followed by those that apply only to *J48*, shown in Table 5.2. A notable one is *-info*, which outputs a very brief description of the scheme. We will explain the generic options and then briefly review the scheme-specific ones.

Option	Function
<i>-h</i> or <i>-help</i>	Print help information
<i>-synopsis</i> or <i>-info</i>	In combination with <i>-h</i> or <i>-help</i> , prints the information from the “More” button in a classifier’s generic object editor
<i>-t <training file></i>	Specify training file
<i>-T <test file></i>	Specify test file. If none, a cross-validation is performed on the training data
<i>-c <class index></i>	Specify index of class attribute
<i>-x <number of folds></i>	Specify number of folds for cross-validation
<i>-s <random number seed></i>	Specify random number seed for cross-validation
<i>-no-cv</i>	Don’t perform cross-validation
<i>-split-percentage <training percentage></i>	Specify percentage of the data to use for the training set in a train-test split
<i>-preserve-order</i>	Preserve original order of the data when performing a train-test split
<i>-m <cost matrix file></i>	Specify file containing cost matrix
<i>-l <input file></i>	Specify input file for model
<i>-d <output file></i>	Specify output file for model
<i>-v</i>	Output no statistics for training data
<i>-o</i>	Output statistics only, not the classifier
<i>-k</i>	Output information-theoretic statistics
<i>-p <attribute range></i>	Output predictions for test instances
<i>-distribution</i>	In combination with <i>-p</i> , output the full probability distribution for discrete class data instead of just the predicted label
<i>-r</i>	Output cumulative margin distribution
<i>-z <class name></i>	Output the source representation of the classifier
<i>-g</i>	Output the graph representation of the classifier
<i>-xml <filename> <xml string></i>	Set scheme-specific options from XML encoded options stored in a file or in a supplied string
<i>-threshold-file <file></i>	Save threshold data (for ROC curves, etc.) to a file
<i>-threshold-label <label></i>	Class label for the threshold data
<i>-no-predictions</i>	Turns off the collection of predictions in order to conserve memory
<i>-force-batch-training</i>	Always train classifier in batch mode, never incrementally
<i>-toggle</i>	Comma-separated list of metric names to toggle in the output
<i>-classifications</i>	Uses the specified class for generating the classification output
<i>-do-not-output-per-class-statistics</i>	Suppress the output of information retrieval statistics for each class

Table 5.1: Generic options for learning schemes in WEKA

5.3.1 Generic options

The options in Table 5.1 determine which data is used for training and testing, how the classifier is evaluated, and what kind of statistics are displayed. For example, the *-T* option is used to provide the name of the test file when evaluating a learning scheme on an independent test set. By default the class is the last attribute in an ARFF file, but you can declare another one to be the class using *-c* followed by the position of the desired attribute, 1 for the first, 2 for the second, and so on.

When cross-validation is performed (the default if a test file is not provided), the data is randomly shuffled first. To repeat the cross-validation several times, each time reshuffling the data in a different way, set the random number seed with *-s* (default value 1). With a large dataset you may want to reduce the number of folds for the cross-validation from the default value of 10 using *-x*. If performance on the training data alone is required, *-no-cv* can be used to suppress cross-validation; *-v* suppresses output of performance on the training data. As an alternative to cross-validation, a train-test split of the data specified with the *-t* option can be performed by supplying a percentage to use as the new training set with *-split-percentage* (the remaining data is used as the test set). Randomization of the data can be suppressed when performing a train-test split by specifying *-preserve-order*.

In the Explorer, cost-sensitive evaluation is invoked as described in Section 2.1.5. To achieve the same effect from the command line, use the *-m* option to provide the name of a file containing the cost matrix. Here is a cost matrix for the weather data:

```
2 2  % Number of rows and columns in the matrix
0 10  % If true class yes and prediction no, penalty is 10.
1 0   % If true class no and prediction yes, penalty is 1.
```

The first line gives the number of rows and columns, that is, the number of class values. Then comes the matrix of penalties. Comments introduced by % can be appended to the end of any line.

It is also possible to save and load models. If you provide the name of an output file using *-d*, WEKA saves the classifier generated from the training data. To evaluate the same classifier on a new batch of test data, you load it back using *-l* instead of rebuilding it. If the classifier can be updated incrementally, you can provide both a training file and an input file, and WEKA will load the classifier and update it with the given training instances.

If you wish only to assess the performance of a learning scheme, use *-o* to suppress output of the model. Use *-k* to compute information-theoretic measures from the probabilities derived by a learning scheme.

People often want to know which class values the learning scheme actually predicts for each test instance. The *-p* option prints each test instance's number, the index of its class value and the actual value, the index of the predicted class value and the predicted value, a "+" if the class was misclassified, and the probability of the predicted class value. The probability predicted for each of the possible class labels of an instance can be output by using the *-distribution* flag in conjunction with *-p*. In this case, "*" is placed beside the probability in the distribution that corresponds to the predicted class value. The *-p* options also outputs attribute values for each instance and must be followed by a specification of the range (e.g., 1–2)—use 0 if you do not want any attribute values. You can also output the cumulative margin distribution for the training data, which shows the distribution of the margin measure. Finally, you can output the classifier's source representation (if the classifier implements the *Sourcable* interface), and a graphical representation if the classifier can produce one.

Data relating to performance graphs such as ROC and recall-precision curves can be sent to a file using the *-threshold-file* option. The class label to treat as the positive class for generating the data can be specified with *-threshold-label*. The next section discusses how scheme-specific options are supplied on the command line; they can also be set from an XML file or string using the *-xml* option.

Option	Function
<i>-U</i>	Use unpruned tree
<i>-O</i>	Do not collapse tree
<i>-C <pruning confidence></i>	Specify confidence threshold for pruning
<i>-M <number of instances></i>	Specify minimum number of instances in any leaf
<i>-R</i>	Use reduced-error pruning
<i>-N <number of folds></i>	Specify number of folds for reduced-error pruning; one fold is used as pruning set
<i>-B</i>	Use binary splits only
<i>-S</i>	Don't perform subtree raising
<i>-L</i>	Retain instance information
<i>-A</i>	Smooth the probability estimates using Laplace smoothing
<i>-J</i>	Prevent the use of the MDL correction for the information gain of numeric splits
<i>-Q</i>	Seed for shuffling the data
<i>-doNotMakeSplitPointActualValue</i>	Do not find a split point that is an actual value in the training set

Table 5.2: Scheme-specific options

5.3.2 Scheme-specific options

Table 5.2 shows the options specific to J4.8. You can force the algorithm to use the unpruned tree instead of the pruned one. You can suppress subtree raising, which increases efficiency. You can set the confidence threshold for pruning and the minimum number of instances permissible at any leaf. As well as C4.5's standard pruning procedure, reduced-error pruning can be performed. The *-N* option governs the size of the holdout set: the dataset is divided equally into that number of parts and the last is held out (default value 3). You can smooth the probability estimates using the Laplace technique, set the random number seed for shuffling the data when selecting a pruning set, and store the instance information for future visualization. It is possible to turn off the MDL-based correction for the information gain on numeric attributes, which sometimes results in inappropriate pre-pruning. To reduce runtime on large datasets with numeric attributes, we can also turn off C4.5's mechanism that refines the initial split point on a numeric attribute to be a value that actually occurs in the training set. Finally, to build a binary tree instead of one with multiway branches for nominal attributes, use *-B*.

Chapter 6

Embedded Machine Learning

In most practical applications of data mining the learning component is an integrated part of a far larger software environment. If the environment is written in Java, you can use WEKA to solve the learning problem without writing any machine learning code yourself. When invoking learning schemes from the graphical user interfaces or the command line, there is no need to know anything about programming in Java. In this section we show how to access these algorithms from your own Java code. From now on, we assume that you have at least some rudimentary knowledge of Java.

6.1 A simple data mining application

We present a simple data mining application for learning a model that classifies text files into two categories, *hit* and *miss*. The application works for arbitrary documents: we refer to them as *messages*. The implementation uses the *StringToWordVector* filter mentioned in Section 2.3.1.4 to convert the messages into attribute vectors. We assume that the program is called every time a new file is to be processed. If the user provides a class label for the file, the system uses it for training; if not, it classifies it. The decision tree classifier *J48* is used to do the work.

Figure 6.-1 shows the source code for the application program, implemented in a class called *MessageClassifier*. The command-line arguments that the *main()* method accepts are the name of a text file (given by *-m*), the name of a file holding an object of class *MessageClassifier* (*-t*), and, optionally, the classification of the message in the file (*-c*). If the user provides a classification, the message will be converted into an example for training; if not, the *MessageClassifier* object will be used to classify it as hit or miss.

6.2 main()

The *main()* method reads the message into a Java *StringBuffer* and checks whether the user has provided a classification for it. Then it reads a *MessageClassifier* object from the file given by *-t*, and creates a new object of class *MessageClassifier* if this file does not exist. In either case the resulting object is called *messageCl*. After checking for illegal command-line options, the program calls the method *updateData()* message to update the training data stored in *messageCl* if a classification has been provided; otherwise it calls *classifyMessage()* to classify it. Finally, the *messageCl* object is saved back into the file, because it may have changed. In the following, we first describe how a new *MessageClassifier* object is created by the constructor

```


/**
 * Java program for classifying short text messages into two classes.
 */

import weka.classifiers.Classifier;
import weka.classifiers.trees.J48;
import weka.core.Attribute;
import weka.core.DenseInstance;
import weka.core.Instance;
import weka.core.Instances;
import weka.core.SerializationHelper;
import weka.core.Utils;
import weka.filters.Filter;
import weka.filters.unsupervised.attribute.StringToWordVector;

import java.io.FileNotFoundException;
import java.io.FileReader;
import java.io.Serializable;
import java.util.ArrayList;

public class MessageClassifier implements Serializable {

    /** for serialization. */
    private static final long serialVersionUID = -123455813150452885L;

    /** The training data gathered so far. */
    private Instances m_Data = null;

    /** The filter used to generate the word counts. */
    private StringToWordVector m_Filter = new StringToWordVector();

    /** The actual classifier. */
    private Classifier m_Classifier = new J48();

    /** Whether the model is up to date. */
    private boolean m_UpToDate;

    /**
     * Constructs empty training dataset.
     */
    public MessageClassifier() {
        String nameOfDataset = "MessageClassificationProblem";

        // Create vector of attributes.
        ArrayList<Attribute> attributes = new ArrayList<Attribute>(2);

        // Add attribute for holding messages.
        attributes.add(new Attribute("Message", (ArrayList<String>) null));

        // Add class attribute.
        ArrayList<String> classValues = new ArrayList<String>(2);
        classValues.add("miss");
        classValues.add("hit");
        attributes.add(new Attribute("Class", classValues));

        // Create dataset with initial capacity of 100, and set index of class.
        m_Data = new Instances(nameOfDataset, attributes, 100);
        m_Data.setClassIndex(m_Data.numAttributes() - 1);
    }
}


```

Figure 6.1: The message classifier

```

/**
 * Updates model using the given training message.
 *
 * @param message the message content
 * @param classValue the class label
 */
public void updateData(String message, String classValue) {
    // Make message into instance.
    Instance instance = makeInstance(message, m_Data);

    // Set class value for instance.
    instance.setClassValue(classValue);

    // Add instance to training data.
    m_Data.add(instance);

    m_UpToDate = false;
}

/**
 * Classifies a given message.
 *
 * @param message the message content
 * @throws Exception if classification fails
 */
public void classifyMessage(String message) throws Exception {
    // Check whether classifier has been built.
    if (m_Data.numInstances() == 0)
        throw new Exception("No classifier available.");

    // Check whether classifier and filter are up to date.
    if (!m_UpToDate) {
        // Initialize filter and tell it about the input format.
        m_Filter.setInputFormat(m_Data);

        // Generate word counts from the training data.
        Instances filteredData = Filter.useFilter(m_Data, m_Filter);

        // Rebuild classifier.
        m_Classifier.buildClassifier(filteredData);

        m_UpToDate = true;
    }

    // Make separate little test set so that message
    // does not get added to string attribute in m_Data.
    Instances testset = m_Data.stringFreeStructure();

    // Make message into test instance.
    Instance instance = makeInstance(message, testset);

    // Filter instance.
    m_Filter.input(instance);
    Instance filteredInstance = m_Filter.output();

    // Get index of predicted class value.
    double predicted = m_Classifier.classifyInstance(filteredInstance);

    // Output class value.
    System.out.println("Message classified as : " +
        m_Data.classAttribute().value((int) predicted));
}

```

Figure 6.0: The message classifier cont.

```

/**
 * Method that converts a text message into an instance.
 *
 * @param textthe message content to convert
 * @param datathe header information
 * @returnthe generated Instance
 */
private Instance makeInstance(String text, Instances data) {
    // Create instance of length two.
    Instance instance = new DenseInstance(2);

    // Set value for message attribute
    Attribute messageAtt = data.attribute("Message");
    instance.setValue(messageAtt, messageAtt.addStringValue(text));

    // Give instance access to attribute information from the dataset.
    instance.setDataset(data);

    return instance;
}

/**
 * Main method. The following parameters are recognized:
 *
 * -m messagefile
 *      Points to the file containing the message to classify or use for
 *      updating the model.
 * -c classlabel
 *      The class label of the message if model is to be updated. Omit for
 *      classification of a message.
 * -t modelfile
 *      The file containing the model. If it doesn't exist, it will be
 *      created automatically.
 *
 * @param args the commandline options
 */
public static void main(String[] args) {
    try {
        // Read message file into string.
        String messageName = Utils.getOption('m', args);
        if (messageName.length() == 0)
            throw new Exception("Must provide name of message file ('-m <file>').");
        FileReader m = new FileReader(messageName);
        StringBuffer message = new StringBuffer();
        int l;
        while ((l = m.read()) != -1)
            message.append((char) l);
        m.close();

        // Check if class value is given.
        String classValue = Utils.getOption('c', args);

        // If model file exists, read it, otherwise create new one.
        String modelName = Utils.getOption('t', args);
        if (modelName.length() == 0)
            throw new Exception("Must provide name of model file ('-t <file>').");
        MessageClassifier messageCl;
        try {
            messageCl = (MessageClassifier) SerializationHelper.read(modelName);
        }
        catch (FileNotFoundException e) {
            messageCl = new MessageClassifier();
        }

        // Check if there are any options left
        Utils.checkForRemainingOptions(args);

        // Process message.
        if (classValue.length() != 0)
            messageCl.updateData(message.toString(), classValue);
        else
            messageCl.classifyMessage(message.toString());

        // Save message classifier object only if it was updated.
        if (classValue.length() != 0)
            SerializationHelper.write(modelName, messageCl);
    }
    catch (Exception e) {
        e.printStackTrace();
    }
}
}

```

Figure 6.-1: The message classifier cont.

MessageClassifier() and then explain how the two methods *updateData()* and *classifyMessage()* work.

6.3 messageClassifier()

Each time a new *MessageClassifier* is created, objects for holding the filter and classifier are generated automatically. The only nontrivial part of the process is creating a dataset, which is done by the constructor *MessageClassifier()*. First the dataset's name is stored as a string. Then an *Attribute* object is created for each attribute, one to hold the string corresponding to a text message and the other for its class. These objects are stored in a dynamic array of type *ArrayList*.

Attributes are created by invoking one of the constructors in the class *Attribute*. This class has a constructor that takes one parameter—the attribute's name—and creates a numeric attribute. However, the constructor we use here takes two parameters: the attribute's name and a reference to an *ArrayList*. If this reference is null, as in the first application of this constructor in our program, WEKA creates an attribute of type *string*. Otherwise, a nominal attribute is created. This is how we create a class attribute with two values *hit* and *miss*: by passing the attribute's name (*class*) and its values—stored in an *ArrayList*—to *Attribute()*.

To create a dataset from this attribute information, *MessageClassifier()* must create an object of the class *Instances* from the *core* package. The constructor of *Instances* used by *MessageClassifier()* takes three arguments: the dataset's name, a *ArrayList* containing the attributes, and an integer indicating the dataset's initial capacity. We set the initial capacity to 100; it is expanded automatically if more instances are added. After constructing the dataset, *MessageClassifier()* sets the index of the class attribute to be the index of the last attribute.

6.4 updateData()

Now you know how to create an empty dataset, consider how the *MessageClassifier* object actually incorporates a new training message. The method *updateData()* does this. It first converts the given message into a training instance by calling *makeInstance()*, which begins by creating an object of class *Instance* that corresponds to an instance with two attributes. The constructor of the *Instance* object sets all the instance's values to be missing and its weight to 1. The next step in *makeInstance()* is to set the value of the string attribute holding the text of the message. This is done by applying the *setValue()* method of the *Instance* object, providing it with the attribute whose value needs to be changed, and a second parameter that corresponds to the new value's index in the definition of the string attribute. This index is returned by the *addStringValue()* method, which adds the message text as a new value to the string attribute and returns the position of this new value in the definition of the string attribute.

Internally, an *Instance* stores all attribute values as double-precision floating-point numbers regardless of the type of the corresponding attribute. In the case of nominal and string attributes this is done by storing the index of the corresponding attribute value in the definition of the attribute. For example, the first value of a nominal attribute is represented by 0.0, the second by 1.0, and so on. The same method is used for string attributes: *addStringValue()* returns the index corresponding to the value that is added to the definition of the attribute.

Once the value for the string attribute has been set, *makeInstance()* gives the newly created instance access to the data's attribute information by passing it a reference to the dataset. In WEKA, an *Instance* object does not store the type of each attribute explicitly; instead, it stores a reference to a dataset with the corresponding attribute information.

Returning to `updateData()`, once the new instance has been returned from `makeInstance()` its class value is set and it is added to the training data. We also initialize `m_UpToDate`, a flag indicating that the training data has changed and the predictive model is hence not up to date.

6.5 `classifyMessage()`

Now let's examine how `MessageClassifier` processes a message whose class label is unknown. The `classifyMessage()` method first checks whether a classifier has been built by determining whether any training instances are available. It then checks whether the classifier is up to date. If not (because the training data has changed) it must be rebuilt. However, before doing so the data must be converted into a format appropriate for learning using the `StringToWordVector` filter. First, we tell the filter the format of the input data by passing it a reference to the input dataset using `setInputFormat()`. Every time this method is called, the filter is initialized—that is, all its internal settings are reset. In the next step, the data is transformed by `useFilter()`. This generic method from the `Filter` class applies a filter to a dataset. In this case, because `StringToWordVector` has just been initialized, it computes a dictionary from the training dataset and then uses it to form a word vector. After returning from `useFilter()`, all the filter's internal settings are fixed until it is initialized by another call of `setInputFormat()`. This makes it possible to filter a test instance without updating the filter's internal settings (in this case, the dictionary).

Once the data has been filtered, the program rebuilds the classifier—in our case a `J48` decision tree—by passing the training data to its `buildClassifier()` method. Then it sets `m_UpToDate` to true. It is an important convention in WEKA that the `buildClassifier()` method completely initializes the model's internal settings before generating a new classifier. Hence we do not need to construct a new `J48` object before we call `buildClassifier()`.

Having ensured that the model stored in `m_Classifier` is current, we proceed to classify the message. Before `makeInstance()` is called to create an `Instance` object from it, a new `Instances` object is created to hold the new instance and passed as an argument to `makeInstance()`. This is done so that `makeInstance()` does not add the text of the message to the definition of the string attribute in `m_Data`. Otherwise, the size of the `m_Data` object would grow every time a new message was classified, which is clearly not desirable—it should only grow when training instances are added. Hence a temporary `Instances` object is created and discarded once the instance has been processed. This object is obtained using the method `stringFreeStructure()`, which returns a copy of `m_Data` with an empty string attribute. Only then is `makeInstance()` called to create the new instance.

The test instance must also be processed by the `StringToWordVector` filter before being classified. This is easy: the `input()` method enters the instance into the filter object, and the transformed instance is obtained by calling `output()`. Then a prediction is produced by passing the instance to the classifier's `classifyInstance()` method. As you can see, the prediction is coded as a double value. This allows WEKA's evaluation module to treat models for categorical and numeric prediction similarly. In the case of categorical prediction, as in this example, the double variable holds the index of the predicted class value. To output the string corresponding to this class value, the program calls the `value()` method of the dataset's class attribute.

There is at least one way in which our implementation could be improved. The classifier and the `StringToWordVector` filter could be combined using the `FilteredClassifier` metalearner described in Section 2.3.3. This classifier would then be able to deal with string attributes directly, without explicitly calling the filter to transform the data. We have not done this here because we wanted to demonstrate how filters can be used programmatically.

Chapter 7

Writing New Learning Schemes

Suppose you need to implement a special-purpose learning algorithm that is not included in WEKA. Or suppose you are engaged in machine learning research and want to investigate a new learning scheme. Or suppose you just want to learn more about the inner workings of an induction algorithm by actually programming it yourself. This section uses a simple example to show how to make full use of WEKA’s class hierarchy when writing classifiers.

Scheme	Description	Book section
<code>weka.classifiers.bayes.NaiveBayesSimple</code>	Probabilistic learner	4.2
<code>weka.classifiers.trees.Id3</code>	Decision tree learner	4.3
<code>weka.classifiers.rules.Prism</code>	Rule learner	4.4
<code>weka.classifiers.lazy.IB1</code>	Instance-based learner	4.7

Table 7.1: Simple learning schemes in WEKA

The plugin package called *simpleEducationalLearningSchemes* includes the elementary learning schemes listed in Table 7.1. None take any scheme-specific command-line options. They are all useful for understanding the inner workings of a classifier. As an example, we describe the `weka.classifiers.trees.Id3` scheme, which implements the *ID3* decision tree learner. Other schemes, such as clustering algorithms and association rule learners, are organized in a similar manner.

7.1 An example classifier

Figure 7.-4 gives the source code of `weka.classifiers.trees.Id3`, which, as you can see from the code, extends the *AbstractClassifier* class. Every classifier in WEKA does so, whether it predicts a nominal class or a numeric one. It also implements two interfaces, *TechnicalInformationHandler* and *Sourcable*, which allow the implementing class to provide bibliographical references for display in WEKA’s graphical user interface and a source code representation of its learned model respectively.

The first method in `weka.classifiers.trees.Id3` is *globalInfo()*: we mention it here before moving on to the more interesting parts. It simply returns a string that is displayed in WEKA’s graphical user interface when this scheme is selected. Part of the string includes information generated by the second method, *getTechnicalInformation()*, which formats a bibliographic reference for the ID3 algorithm. The third method, *getCapabilities()*, returns information on the data characteristics that ID3 can handle, namely nominal attributes and a nominal class—and

```

import weka.classifiers.*;
import weka.core.*;
import java.util.Enumeration;

/**
 * Class implementing an Id3 decision tree learner
 */
public class Id3 extends AbstractClassifier implements TechnicalInformationHandler, Sourcable {

    /** for serialization */
    static final long serialVersionUID = -2693678647096322561L;

    /** The node's successors. */
    private Id3[] m_Successors;

    /** Attribute used for splitting. */
    private Attribute m_Attribute;

    /** Class value if node is leaf. */
    private double m_ClassValue;

    /** Class distribution if node is leaf. */
    private double[] m_Distribution;

    /** Class attribute of dataset. */
    private Attribute m_ClassAttribute;

    /**
     * Returns a string describing the classifier.
     *
     * @return a description suitable for the GUI.
     */
    public String globalInfo() {
        return "Class for constructing an unpruned decision tree based on the ID3 "
            + "algorithm. Can only deal with nominal attributes. No missing values "
            + "allowed. Empty leaves may result in unclassified instances. For more "
            + "information see: \n\n" + getTechnicalInformation().toString();
    }

    /**
     * Returns an instance of a TechnicalInformation object, containing detailed
     * information about the technical background of this class, e.g., paper
     * reference or book this class is based on.
     *
     * @return the technical information about this class
     */
    @Override
    public TechnicalInformation getTechnicalInformation() {
        TechnicalInformation result = new TechnicalInformation(Type.ARTICLE);
        result.setValue(Field.AUTHOR, "R. Quinlan");
        result.setValue(Field.YEAR, "1986");
        result.setValue(Field.TITLE, "Induction of decision trees");
        result.setValue(Field.JOURNAL, "Machine Learning");
        result.setValue(Field.VOLUME, "1");
        result.setValue(Field.NUMBER, "1");
        result.setValue(Field.PAGES, "81-106");
        return result;
    }

    /**
     * Returns default capabilities of the classifier.
     *
     * @return the capabilities of this classifier
     */
    @Override
    public Capabilities getCapabilities() {
        Capabilities result = super.getCapabilities();
        result.disableAll();

        // attributes
        result.enable(Capability.NOMINAL_ATTRIBUTES);

        // class
        result.enable(Capability.NOMINAL_CLASS);
        result.enable(Capability.MISSING_CLASS_VALUES);

        // instances
        result.setMinimumNumberInstances(0);

        return result;
    }
}

```

Figure 7.1: The source code for the *ID3* decision tree learner.

```

/**
 * Builds Id3 decision tree classifier.
 *
 * @param data the training data
 * @exception Exception if classifier can't be built successfully
 */
@Override
public void buildClassifier(Instances data) throws Exception {

    // can classifier handle the data?
    getCapabilities().testWithFail(data);

    // remove instances with missing class
    data = new Instances(data);
    data.deleteWithMissingClass();

    makeTree(data);
}

/**
 * Method for building an Id3 tree.
 *
 * @param data the training data
 * @exception Exception if decision tree can't be built successfully
 */
private void makeTree(Instances data) throws Exception {

    // Check if no instances have reached this node.
    if (data.numInstances() == 0) {
        m_Attribute = null;
        m_ClassValue = Utils.missingValue();
        m_Distribution = new double[data.numClasses()];
        return;
    }

    // Compute attribute with maximum information gain.
    double[] infoGains = new double[data.numAttributes()];
    Enumeration<Attribute> attEnum = data.enumerateAttributes();
    while (attEnum.hasMoreElements()) {
        Attribute att = attEnum.nextElement();
        infoGains[att.index()] = computeInfoGain(data, att);
    }
    m_Attribute = data.attribute(Utils.maxIndex(infoGains));

    // Make leaf if information gain is zero.
    // Otherwise create successors.
    if (Utils.eq(infoGains[m_Attribute.index()], 0)) {
        m_Attribute = null;
        m_Distribution = new double[data.numClasses()];
        Enumeration<Instance> instEnum = data.enumerateInstances();
        while (instEnum.hasMoreElements()) {
            Instance inst = instEnum.nextElement();
            m_Distribution[(int) inst.classValue()]++;
        }
        Utils.normalize(m_Distribution);
        m_ClassValue = Utils.maxIndex(m_Distribution);
        m_ClassAttribute = data.classAttribute();
    } else {
        Instances[] splitData = splitData(data, m_Attribute);
        m_Successors = new Id3[m_Attribute.numValues()];
        for (int j = 0; j < m_Attribute.numValues(); j++) {
            m_Successors[j] = new Id3();
            m_Successors[j].makeTree(splitData[j]);
        }
    }
}

```

Figure 7.0: The source code for the *ID3* decision tree learner cont.

```

/**
 * Classifies a given test instance using the decision tree.
 *
 * @param instance the instance to be classified
 * @return the classification
 * @throws NoSupportForMissingValuesException if instance has missing values
 */
@Override
public double classifyInstance(Instance instance)
    throws NoSupportForMissingValuesException {

    if (instance.hasMissingValue()) {
        throw new NoSupportForMissingValuesException("Id3: no missing values, "
            + "please.");
    }
    if (m_Attribute == null) {
        return m_ClassValue;
    } else {
        return m_Successors[(int) instance.value(m_Attribute)]
            .classifyInstance(instance);
    }
}

/**
 * Computes class distribution for instance using decision tree.
 *
 * @param instance the instance for which distribution is to be computed
 * @return the class distribution for the given instance
 * @throws NoSupportForMissingValuesException if instance has missing values
 */
@Override
public double[] distributionForInstance(Instance instance)
    throws NoSupportForMissingValuesException {

    if (instance.hasMissingValue()) {
        throw new NoSupportForMissingValuesException("Id3: no missing values, "
            + "please.");
    }
    if (m_Attribute == null) {
        return m_Distribution;
    } else {
        return m_Successors[(int) instance.value(m_Attribute)]
            .distributionForInstance(instance);
    }
}

/**
 * Prints the decision tree using the private toString method from below.
 *
 * @return a textual description of the classifier
 */
@Override
public String toString() {

    if ((m_Distribution == null) && (m_Successors == null)) {
        return "Id3: No model built yet.";
    }
    return "Id3\n\n" + toString(0);
}

/**
 * Computes information gain for an attribute.
 *
 * @param data the data for which info gain is to be computed
 * @param att the attribute
 * @return the information gain for the given attribute and data
 * @throws Exception if computation fails
 */
private double computeInfoGain(Instances data, Attribute att)
    throws Exception {

    double infoGain = computeEntropy(data);
    Instances[] splitData = splitData(data, att);
    for (int j = 0; j < att.numValues(); j++) {
        if (splitData[j].numInstances() > 0) {
            infoGain -= ((double) splitData[j].numInstances() / (double) data
                .numInstances()) * computeEntropy(splitData[j]);
        }
    }
    return infoGain;
}

```

Figure 7.-1: The source code for the *ID3* decision tree learner cont.

```


    /**
     * Computes the entropy of a dataset.
     *
     * @param data the data for which entropy is to be computed
     * @return the entropy of the data's class distribution
     * @throws Exception if computation fails
     */
    private double computeEntropy(Instances data) throws Exception {

        double[] classCounts = new double[data.numClasses()];
        Enumeration<Instance> instEnum = data.enumerateInstances();
        while (instEnum.hasMoreElements()) {
            Instance inst = instEnum.nextElement();
            classCounts[(int) inst.classValue()]++;
        }
        double entropy = 0;
        for (int j = 0; j < data.numClasses(); j++) {
            if (classCounts[j] > 0) {
                entropy -= classCounts[j] * Utils.log2(classCounts[j]);
            }
        }
        entropy /= data.numInstances();
        return entropy + Utils.log2(data.numInstances());
    }

    /**
     * Splits a dataset according to the values of a nominal attribute.
     *
     * @param data the data which is to be split
     * @param att the attribute to be used for splitting
     * @return the sets of instances produced by the split
     */
    private Instances[] splitData(Instances data, Attribute att) {

        Instances[] splitData = new Instances[att.numValues()];
        for (int j = 0; j < att.numValues(); j++) {
            splitData[j] = new Instances(data, data.numInstances());
        }
        Enumeration<Instance> instEnum = data.enumerateInstances();
        while (instEnum.hasMoreElements()) {
            Instance inst = instEnum.nextElement();
            splitData[(int) inst.value(att)].add(inst);
        }
        for (Instances element : splitData) {
            element.compactify();
        }
        return splitData;
    }

    /**
     * Outputs a tree at a certain level.
     *
     * @param level the level at which the tree is to be printed
     * @return the tree as string at the given level
     */
    private String toString(int level) {

        StringBuffer text = new StringBuffer();

        if (m_Attribute == null) {
            if (Utils.isMissingValue(m_ClassValue)) {
                text.append(": null");
            } else {
                text.append(": " + m_ClassAttribute.value((int) m_ClassValue));
            }
        } else {
            for (int j = 0; j < m_Attribute.numValues(); j++) {
                text.append("\n");
                for (int i = 0; i < level; i++) {
                    text.append("  ");
                }
                text.append(m_Attribute.name() + " = " + m_Attribute.value(j));
                text.append(m_Successors[j].toString(level + 1));
            }
        }
        return text.toString();
    }
}


```

Figure 7.-2: The source code for the *ID3* decision tree learner cont.

```

/**
 * Adds this tree recursively to the buffer.
 *
 * @param id the unique id for the method
 * @param buffer the buffer to add the source code to
 * @return the last ID being used
 * @throws Exception if something goes wrong
 */
protected int toSource(int id, StringBuffer buffer) throws Exception {
    int result;
    int i;
    int newID;
    StringBuffer[] subBuffers;

    buffer.append("\n");
    buffer.append("    protected static double node" + id + "(Object[] i) {\n");

    // leaf?
    if (m_Attribute == null) {
        result = id;
        if (Double.isNaN(m_ClassValue)) {
            buffer.append("        return Double.NaN;");
        } else {
            buffer.append("        return " + m_ClassValue + ";");
        }
        if (m_ClassAttribute != null) {
            buffer.append("    // " + m_ClassAttribute.value((int) m_ClassValue));
        }
        buffer.append("\n");
        buffer.append("    }\n");
    } else {
        buffer.append("        checkMissing(i, " + m_Attribute.index() + ");\n");
        buffer.append("        // " + m_Attribute.name() + "\n");

        // subtree calls
        subBuffers = new StringBuffer[m_Attribute.numValues()];
        newID = id;
        for (i = 0; i < m_Attribute.numValues(); i++) {
            newID++;

            buffer.append("        ");
            if (i > 0) {
                buffer.append("else ");
            }
            buffer.append("if (((String) i[" + m_Attribute.index() + "]).equals(\""
                + m_Attribute.value(i) + "\"))\n");
            buffer.append("            return node" + newID + "(i);\n");

            subBuffers[i] = new StringBuffer();
            newID = m_Successors[i].toSource(newID, subBuffers[i]);
        }
        buffer.append("    else\n");
        buffer.append("        throw new IllegalArgumentException(\"Value '" + i["
            + m_Attribute.index() + "] + "' is not allowed!\\");\n");
        buffer.append("    }\n");
    }

    // output subtree code
    for (i = 0; i < m_Attribute.numValues(); i++) {
        buffer.append(subBuffers[i].toString());
    }
    subBuffers = null;

    result = newID;
}

return result;
}

```

Figure 7-3: The source code for the *ID3* decision tree learner cont.

```

/**
 * Returns a string that describes the classifier as source. The classifier
 * will be contained in a class with the given name (there may be auxiliary
 * classes), and will contain a method with the signature:
 *
 * <pre>
 * <code>
 * public static double classify(Object[] i);
 * </code>
 * </pre>
 *
 * where the array <code>i</code> contains elements that are either Double,
 * String, with missing values represented as null. The generated code is
 * public domain and comes with no warranty. <br/>
 * Note: works only if class attribute is the last attribute in the dataset.
 *
 * @param className the name that should be given to the source class.
 * @return the object source described by a string
 * @throws Exception if the source can't be computed
 */
@Override
public String toSource(String className) throws Exception {
    StringBuffer result;
    int id;

    result = new StringBuffer();

    result.append("class " + className + "{\n");
    result
        .append("    private static void checkMissing(Object[] i, int index) {\n");
    result.append("        if (i[index] == null)\n");
    result.append("            throw new IllegalArgumentException(\"Null values \""
        + "are not allowed!\");\n");
    result.append("    }\n\n");
    result.append("    public static double classify(Object[] i) {\n");
    id = 0;
    result.append("        return node" + id + "(i);\n");
    result.append("    }\n");
    toSource(id, result);
    result.append("}\n");

    return result.toString();
}

/**
 * Returns the revision string.
 *
 * @return the revision
 */
@Override
public String getRevision() {
    return RevisionUtils.extract("$Revision: 10390 $");
}

/**
 * Main method.
 *
 * @param args the options for the classifier
 */
public static void main(String[] args) {
    runClassifier(new Id3(), args);
}
}

```

Figure 7.-4: The source code for the *ID3* decision tree learner cont.

the fact that it can deal with missing class values and data that contains no instances (although the latter does not produce a useful model!). Capabilities are described in Section 7.2.

7.1.1 buildClassifier()

The *buildClassifier()* method constructs a classifier from a training dataset. In this case it first checks the data's characteristics against ID3's capabilities. Characteristics of the training data, such as numeric attributes or missing attribute values, will cause the *Capabilities* class to raise an exception, because the ID3 algorithm cannot handle these. It then makes a copy of the training set (to avoid changing the original data) and calls a method from *weka.core.Instances* to delete all instances with missing class values, because these instances are useless in the training process. Finally, it calls *makeTree()*, which actually builds the decision tree by recursively generating all subtrees attached to the root node.

7.1.2 makeTree()

The first step in *makeTree()* is to check whether the dataset is empty. If it is, a leaf is created by setting *m_Attribute* to null. The class value *m_ClassValue* assigned to this leaf is set to be missing, and the estimated probability for each of the dataset's classes in *m_Distribution* is initialized to 0. If training instances are present, *makeTree()* finds the attribute that yields the greatest information gain for them. It first creates a Java enumeration of the dataset's attributes. If the index of the class attribute is set—as it will be for this dataset—the class is automatically excluded from the enumeration.

Inside the enumeration, each attribute's information gain is computed by *computeInfoGain()* and stored in an array. We will return to this method later. The *index()* method from *weka.core.Attribute* returns the attribute's index in the dataset, which is used to index the array. Once the enumeration is complete, the attribute with the greatest information gain is stored in the instance variable *m_Attribute*. The *maxIndex()* method from *weka.core.Utils* returns the index of the greatest value in an array of integers or doubles. (If there is more than one element with maximum value, the first is returned.) The index of this attribute is passed to the *attribute()* method from *weka.core.Instances*, which returns the corresponding attribute.

You might wonder what happens to the array field corresponding to the class attribute. We need not worry about this because Java automatically initializes all elements in an array of numbers to zero, and the information gain is always greater than or equal to zero. If the maximum information gain is zero, *makeTree()* creates a leaf. In that case *m_Attribute* is set to null, and *makeTree()* computes both the distribution of class probabilities and the class with greatest probability. (The *normalize()* method from *weka.core.Utils* normalizes an array of nonnegative doubles to sum to one.)

When it makes a leaf with a class value assigned to it, *makeTree()* stores the class attribute in *m_ClassAttribute*. This is because the method that outputs the decision tree needs to access this to print the class label.

If an attribute with nonzero information gain is found, *makeTree()* splits the dataset according to the attribute's values and recursively builds subtrees for each of the new datasets. To make the split it calls the method *splitData()*. This creates as many empty datasets as there are attribute values, stores them in an array (setting the initial capacity of each dataset to the number of instances in the original dataset), and then iterates through all instances in the original dataset and allocates them to the new dataset that corresponds to the attribute's value. It then reduces memory requirements by compacting the *Instances* objects. Returning to *makeTree()*, the resulting array of datasets is used for building subtrees. The method creates an array of

Id3 objects, one for each attribute value, and calls *makeTree()* on each one by passing it the corresponding dataset.

7.1.3 computeInfoGain()

Returning to *computeInfoGain()*, the information gain associated with an attribute and a dataset is calculated using a straightforward implementation of the formula from Chapter 4 in the book. First, the entropy of the dataset is computed. Then, *splitData()* is used to divide it into subsets, and *computeEntropy()* is called on each one. Finally, the difference between the former entropy and the weighted sum of the latter ones—the information gain—is returned. The method *computeEntropy()* uses the *log2()* method from *weka.core.Utils* to obtain the logarithm (to base 2) of a number.

7.1.4 classifyInstance()

Having seen how ID3 constructs a decision tree, we now examine how it uses the tree structure to predict class values and probabilities. Every classifier must implement the *classifyInstance()* method or the *distributionForInstance()* method (or both). The *AbstractClassifier* superclass contains default implementations for both methods. The default implementation of *classifyInstance()* calls *distributionForInstance()*. If the class is nominal, it predicts the class with maximum probability, or a missing value if all probabilities returned by *distributionForInstance()* are zero. If the class is numeric, *distributionForInstance()* must return a single-element array that holds the numeric prediction, and this is what *classifyInstance()* extracts and returns. Conversely, the default implementation of *distributionForInstance()* wraps the prediction obtained from *classifyInstance()* into a single-element array. If the class is nominal, *distributionForInstance()* assigns a probability of one to the class predicted by *classifyInstance()* and a probability of zero to the others. If *classifyInstance()* returns a missing value, all probabilities are set to zero. To give you a better feeling for just what these methods do, the *weka.classifiers.trees.Id3* class overrides them both.

Let's look first at *classifyInstance()*, which predicts a class value for a given instance. As mentioned in the previous section, nominal class values, like nominal attribute values, are coded and stored in *double* variables, representing the index of the value's name in the attribute declaration. This is used in favor of a more elegant object-oriented approach to increase speed of execution. In the implementation of ID3, *classifyInstance()* first checks whether there are missing attribute values in the instance to be classified; if so, it throws an exception. The class attribute is skipped in this check, otherwise the classifier could not make predictions for new data, where the class is unknown. Otherwise, it descends the tree recursively, guided by the instance's attribute values, until a leaf is reached. Then it returns the class value *m_ClassValue* stored at the leaf. Note that this might be a missing value, in which case the instance is left unclassified. The method *distributionForInstance()* works in exactly the same way, returning the probability distribution stored in *m_Distribution*.

Most machine learning models, and in particular decision trees, serve as a more or less comprehensible explanation of the structure found in the data. Accordingly, each of WEKA's classifiers, like many other Java objects, implements a *toString()* method that produces a textual representation of itself in the form of a *String* variable. ID3's *toString()* method outputs a decision tree in roughly the same format as J4.8 (Figure 2.5). It recursively prints the tree structure into a *String* variable by accessing the attribute information stored at the nodes. To obtain each attribute's name and values, it uses the *name()* and *value()* methods from *weka.core.Attribute*. Empty leaves without a class value are indicated by the string null.

7.1.5 toSource()

`weka.classifiers.trees.Id3` implements the *Sourcable* interface. *Classifiers* that implement this interface can produce a source code representation of the learned model, which can be output on the command line by using the `-z` option (Section 5.3). WEKA produces a Java class (whose name is provided by the `-z` option) that can be used to make predictions independently of the WEKA libraries. Also output is a class called *WekaWrapper* that extends *AbstractClassifier* and uses the named class to make predictions. This class can be used for testing the source code representation of the model within the WEKA framework—i.e., it can be run from the command line or used in the Explorer. Because the actual classifier is hard-coded, the *buildClassifier()* method of the *WekaWrapper* does nothing more than check the data against the capabilities.

Figures 7.-3 and 7.-3 show the code produced by `weka.classifiers.trees.Id3` when run on the nominal-attribute version of the weather data. The name *Id3Weather* was provided with the `-z` option, and a class of this name is shown in Figure 7.-3. All its methods are static, meaning that they can be used without having to instantiate an *Id3Weather* object. The first method is called *classify* and takes as argument an array of objects that give the attribute values for the instance to be classified. Each node in the ID3 tree that has been learned is represented in the source code by a static method. The *classify()* method passes the instance to be classified to the method corresponding to the root of the *tree-node0()*. The *node0()* method corresponds to a test on the outlook attribute. Because it is not a leaf, it calls a node representing one of the subtrees—which one depends on the value of outlook in the instance being classified. Processing of a test instance continues in this fashion until a method corresponding to a leaf node is called, at which point a classification is returned.

Figure 7.-3 shows the *WekaWrapper* class that uses *Id3Weather*. Its *classifyInstance()* method constructs an array of objects to pass to the *classify()* method in *Id3Weather*. The attribute values of the test instance are copied into the array and mapped to either *String* objects (for nominal values) or *Double* objects (for numeric values). If an attribute value is missing in the test instance, its corresponding entry in the array of objects is set to *null*.

7.1.6 main()

Apart from *getRevision()*, which is optional and simply returns a version identifier, the only method in *Id3* that has not been described yet is *main()*, which is called whenever the class is executed from the command line. As you can see, it is simple: it calls the method *runClassifier()* from its superclass (*AbstractClassifier*) with a new instance of *Id3* and the given command-line options. *runClassifier()* tells WEKA’s *Evaluation* class to evaluate the supplied classifier with the given command-line options and prints the resulting string. The one-line expression in *runClassifier()* that does this calls the *evaluation()* method in WEKA’s evaluation class and is enclosed in a try-catch statement, which catches the various exceptions that can be thrown by WEKA’s routines or other Java methods.

The *evaluation()* method in `weka.classifiers.Evaluation` interprets the generic scheme-independent command-line options described in Section 5.3 and acts appropriately. For example, it takes the `-t` option, which gives the name of the training file, and loads the corresponding dataset. If there is no test file it performs a cross-validation by creating a classifier object and repeatedly calling *buildClassifier()* and *classifyInstance()* or *distributionForInstance()* on different subsets of the training data. Unless the user suppresses output of the model by setting the corresponding command-line option, it also calls the *toString()* method to output the model built from the full training dataset.

What happens if the scheme needs to interpret a specific option such as a pruning parameter? This is accomplished using the *OptionHandler* interface in `weka.core`. A classifier that implements

```

class Id3Weather {
    private static void checkMissing(Object[] i, int index) {
        if (i[index] == null)
            throw new IllegalArgumentException("Null values are not allowed!");
    }

    public static double classify(Object[] i) {
        return node0(i);
    }

    protected static double node0(Object[] i) {
        checkMissing(i, 0);

        // outlook
        if (((String) i[0]).equals("sunny"))
            return node1(i);
        else if (((String) i[0]).equals("overcast"))
            return node4(i);
        else if (((String) i[0]).equals("rainy"))
            return node5(i);
        else
            throw new IllegalArgumentException("Value '" + i[0] + "' is not allowed!");
    }

    protected static double node1(Object[] i) {
        checkMissing(i, 2);

        // humidity
        if (((String) i[2]).equals("high"))
            return node2(i);
        else if (((String) i[2]).equals("normal"))
            return node3(i);
        else
            throw new IllegalArgumentException("Value '" + i[2] + "' is not allowed!");
    }

    protected static double node2(Object[] i) {
        return 1.0; // no
    }

    protected static double node3(Object[] i) {
        return 0.0; // yes
    }

    protected static double node4(Object[] i) {
        return 0.0; // yes
    }

    protected static double node5(Object[] i) {
        checkMissing(i, 3);

        // windy
        if (((String) i[3]).equals("TRUE"))
            return node6(i);
        else if (((String) i[3]).equals("FALSE"))
            return node7(i);
        else
            throw new IllegalArgumentException("Value '" + i[3] + "' is not allowed!");
    }

    protected static double node6(Object[] i) {
        return 1.0; // no
    }

    protected static double node7(Object[] i) {
        return 0.0; // yes
    }
}

```

Figure 7.-3: Source code (*Id3Weather* class) produced by *weka.classifiers.trees.Id3* for the weather data.

```

import weka.core.Attribute;
import weka.core.Capabilities;
import weka.core.Capabilities.Capability;
import weka.core.Instance;
import weka.core.Instances;
import weka.core.RevisionUtils;
import weka.classifiers.Classifier;
import weka.classifiers.AbstractClassifier;

public class WekaWrapper
    extends AbstractClassifier {

    /**
     * Returns only the toString() method.
     *
     * @return a string describing the classifier
     */
    public String globalInfo() {
        return toString();
    }

    /**
     * Returns the capabilities of this classifier.
     *
     * @return the capabilities
     */
    public Capabilities getCapabilities() {
        weka.core.Capabilities result = new weka.core.Capabilities(this);

        result.enable(weka.core.Capabilities.Capability.NOMINAL_ATTRIBUTES);
        result.enable(weka.core.Capabilities.Capability.NOMINAL_CLASS);
        result.enable(weka.core.Capabilities.Capability.MISSING_CLASS_VALUES);

        result.setMinimumNumberInstances(0);

        return result;
    }

    /**
     * only checks the data against its capabilities.
     *
     * @param i the training data
     */
    public void buildClassifier(Instances i) throws Exception {
        // can classifier handle the data?
        getCapabilities().testWithFail(i);
    }

    /**
     * Classifies the given instance.
     *
     * @param i the instance to classify
     * @return the classification result
     */
    public double classifyInstance(Instance i) throws Exception {
        Object[] s = new Object[i.numAttributes()];

        for (int j = 0; j < s.length; j++) {
            if (!i.isMissing(j)) {
                if (i.attribute(j).isNominal())
                    s[j] = new String(i.stringValue(j));
                else if (i.attribute(j).isNumeric())
                    s[j] = new Double(i.value(j));
            }
        }

        // set class value to missing
        s[i.classIndex()] = null;

        return Id3Weather.classify(s);
    }
}

```

Figure 7.-2: Source code (*WekaWrapper* class) produced by *weka.classifiers.trees.Id3* for the weather data.

```

/**
 * Returns the revision string.
 *
 * @return      the revision
 */
public String getRevision() {
    return RevisionUtils.extract("1.0");
}

/**
 * Returns only the classnames and what classifier it is based on.
 *
 * @return a short description
 */
public String toString() {
    return "Auto-generated classifier wrapper, based on weka.classifiers.trees.Id3"
        + "(generated with WEKA 3.8.0).\n" + this.getClass().getName() + "/Id3Weather";
}

/**
 * Runs the classifier from commandline.
 *
 * @param args the commandline arguments
 */
public static void main(String args[]) {
    runClassifier(new WekaWrapper(), args);
}
}

```

Figure 7.-3: Source code (*WekaWrapper* class) produced by *weka.classifiers.trees.Id3* for the weather data.

this interface contains three methods, *listOptions()*, *setOptions()*, and *getOptions()*, which can be used to list all the classifier's scheme-specific options, to set some of them, and to get the options that are currently set. The *evaluation()* method in *Evaluation* automatically calls these methods if the classifier implements the *OptionHandler* interface. Once the scheme-independent options have been processed, it calls *setOptions()* to process the remaining options before using *buildClassifier()* to generate a new classifier. When it outputs the classifier, it uses *getOptions()* to output a list of the options that are currently set. For a simple example of how to implement these methods, look at the source code for *weka.classifiers.rules.OneR*.

OptionHandler makes it possible to set options from the command line. To set them from within the graphical user interfaces, WEKA uses the Java *beans* framework. All that is required are *set...()* and *get...()* methods for every parameter used by the class. For example, the methods *setPruningParameter()* and *getPruningParameter()* would be needed for a pruning parameter. There should also be a *pruningParameterTipText()* method that returns a description of the parameter for the graphical user interface. Again, see *weka.classifiers.rules.OneR* for an example.

In recent versions of WEKA, explicit implementation of *listOptions()*, *setOptions()*, and *getOptions()* is no longer necessary. Instead, each *set...()* and *get...()* pair can be annotated with the information for the corresponding command-line option using the Java annotation mechanism. *AbstractClassifier*, etc., take care of implementing appropriate *OptionHandler* methods.

Some classifiers can be incrementally updated as new training instances arrive; they do not have to process all the data in one batch. In WEKA, incremental classifiers implement the *UpdateableClassifier* interface in *weka.classifiers*. This interface declares only one method, namely *updateClassifier()*, which takes a single training instance as its argument. For an example of how to use this interface, look at the source code for *weka.classifiers.lazy.IBk*.

If a classifier is able to make use of instance weights, it should implement the *WeightedIn-*

stancesHandler interface from *weka.core*. Then other algorithms, such as those for boosting, can make use of this property.

In *weka.core* are many other useful interfaces for classifiers—for example, interfaces for classifiers that are *randomizable*, *summarizable*, *drawable*, and *graphable*. For more information on these and other interfaces, look at the Javadoc for the classes in *weka.core*.

7.2 Conventions for implementing classifiers

There are some conventions that you must obey when implementing classifiers in WEKA. If you do not, things will go awry. For example, WEKA’s evaluation module might not compute the classifier’s statistics properly when evaluating it. The *CheckClassifier* class can be used to check the basic behaviour of a classifier, although it cannot catch all problems.

The first convention has already been mentioned: each time a classifier’s *buildClassifier()* method is called, it must reset the model. The *CheckClassifier* class performs tests to ensure that this is the case. When *buildClassifier()* is called on a dataset, the same result must always be obtained, regardless of how often the classifier has previously been applied to the same or other datasets. However, *buildClassifier()* must not reset instance variables that correspond to scheme-specific options, because these settings must persist through multiple calls of *buildClassifier()*. Also, calling *buildClassifier()* must never change the input data.

Two other conventions have also been mentioned. One is that when a classifier cannot make a prediction, its *classifyInstance()* method must return *Utils.missingValue()* and its *distributionForInstance()* method must return probabilities of zero for all classes. The ID3 implementation in Figure 7.4 does this. Another convention is that with classifiers for numeric prediction, *classifyInstance()* returns the numeric value that the classifier predicts. Some classifiers, however, are able to predict nominal classes and their class probabilities, as well as numeric class values—*weka.classifiers.lazy.IBk* is an example. These implement the *distributionForInstance()* method, and if the class is numeric they return an array of size 1 whose only element contains the predicted numeric value.

Another convention—not absolutely essential, but useful nonetheless—is that every classifier implements a *toString()* method that outputs a textual description of itself.

7.2.1 Capabilities

We close this chapter with a closer look at the idea of “capabilities.” As mentioned earlier, these allow a learning scheme to indicate what data characteristics it can handle. This information is displayed in the object editor when the user presses the *Capabilities* button; it also serves to disable the application of a scheme in the Explorer when the current data does not match its stated capabilities.

To ease the programming burden for those new to developing with WEKA, the superclasses of the major types of learning scheme (*AbstractClassifier*, *AbstractClusterer* and *AbstractAssociator*) disable all capabilities constraints by default. This allows programmers to focus on the main task of implementing the learning functionality, without having to bother with capabilities. However, once satisfied that the scheme is working correctly, the programmer should specify capabilities that reflect the scheme’s ability to handle various data characteristics by overriding the superclass’s *getCapabilities()* method. This method returns a *weka.core.Capabilities* object that encapsulates the characteristics that the scheme can handle.

In Figure 7.4, *Id3*’s *getCapabilities()* method first obtains a *Capabilities* object by calling *super.getCapabilities()*. This returns a *Capabilities* object without any constraints. The best way to proceed is to call the *disableAll()* method on the *Capabilities* object and then enable

the relevant characteristics—those that the scheme can handle. *Id3* does just this, enabling the ability to handle nominal attributes, a nominal class attribute and missing class values. It also specifies that a minimum of zero training instances are required. For the most part, individual capabilities are turned on or off by calling the *enable()* or *disable()* method of the *Capabilities* object. These methods take constants that are defined in the enumeration shown in Figure 7.-2, which is part of the *Capabilities* class.

Enum Constants
Enum Constant and Description
BINARY_ATTRIBUTES can handle binary attributes
BINARY_CLASS can handle binary classes
DATE_ATTRIBUTES can handle date attributes
DATE_CLASS can handle date classes
EMPTY_NOMINAL_ATTRIBUTES can handle empty nominal attributes
EMPTY_NOMINAL_CLASS can handle empty nominal classes
MISSING_CLASS_VALUES can handle missing values in class attribute
MISSING_VALUES can handle missing values in attributes
NO_CLASS can handle data without class attribute, eg clusterers
NOMINAL_ATTRIBUTES can handle nominal attributes
NOMINAL_CLASS can handle nominal classes
NUMERIC_ATTRIBUTES can handle numeric attributes
NUMERIC_CLASS can handle numeric classes
ONLY_MULTIINSTANCE can handle multi-instance data
RELATIONAL_ATTRIBUTES can handle relational attributes
RELATIONAL_CLASS can handle relational classes
STRING_ATTRIBUTES can handle string attributes
STRING_CLASS can handle string classes
UNARY_ATTRIBUTES can handle unary attributes
UNARY_CLASS can handle unary classes

Figure 7.-2: Javadoc for the *Capability* enumeration.