

Artificial Intelligence

Inductive Learning Algorithms

Outline

- Supervised Learning — Classification
 - Training Dataset Format
 - Information based learning
 - Distance based learning
 - Probability based learning
 - Deep learning
- Association — Discover Association Rules
- Unsupervised Learning — Cluster Analysis

Data Design

- Data collection is formed as a table.
- Each row in the table represents one instance of the prediction subject—the phrase one-row-per-subject is often used to describe this structure.
- Each row is composed of a number of attributes/features that capture the basic characteristics of an instance.
- An attribute/feature is a property or characteristic of an instance that may vary, either from one instance to another or from one time to another.
- One of the attributes is designated as the target feature. The rest of the attributes are descriptive features.

Information Based Learning

- Information based machine learning algorithms try to build predictive models using only the most informative features.
- In this context an informative feature is a descriptive feature whose values split the instances in the dataset into homogeneous sets with respect to the target feature value.
- Model Representation:
 - Expert systems
 - Decision trees

Decision Tree

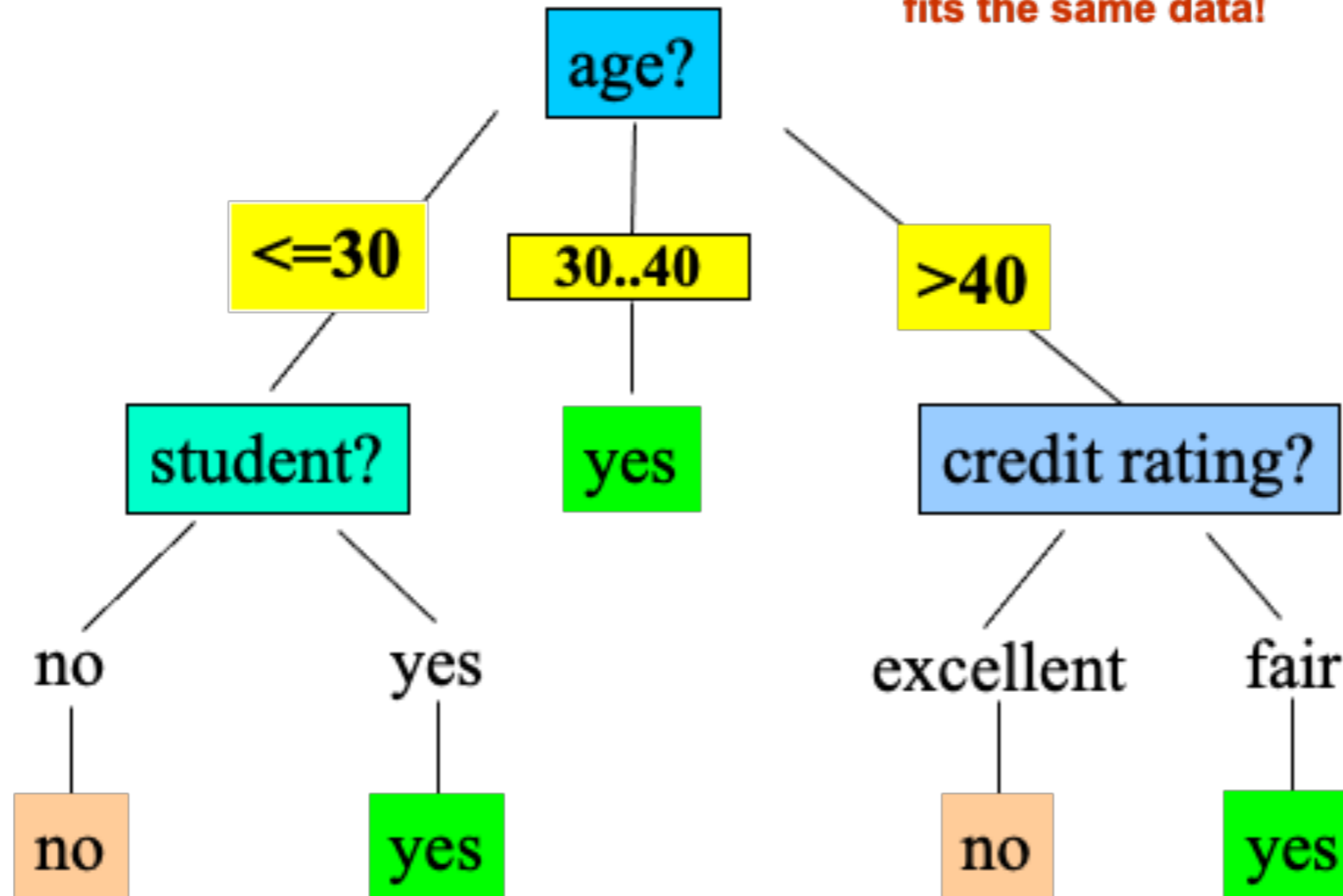
- A decision tree consists of:
 - a root node (or starting node),
 - interior nodes,
 - and leaf nodes (or terminating nodes).
- Each of the non-leaf nodes (root and interior) in the tree specifies a test to be carried out on one of the query's descriptive features.
- Each of the leaf nodes specifies a predicted classification for the query.

An Example of Training Dataset

Age	Income	Student	Credit_rating	Buys_computer
<=30	high	no	fair	no
<=30	high	no	excellent	no
31...40	high	no	fair	yes
>40	medium	no	fair	yes
>40	low	yes	fair	yes
>40	low	yes	excellent	no
31...40	low	yes	excellent	yes
<=30	medium	no	fair	no
<=30	low	yes	fair	yes
>40	medium	yes	fair	yes
<=30	medium	yes	excellent	yes
31...40	medium	no	excellent	yes
31...40	high	yes	fair	yes
>40	medium	no	excellent	no

Sample Decision Tree

There could be more than one tree that fits the same data!



Advantages and Limitations

- Simple to understand and interpret
- Uses a white box model
- Performs well with large datasets
- Prone to overfitting
- Not suitable for some concepts, such as XOR
- The problem of learning an optimal decision tree is known to be NP-complete.

Select the Attribute

- Use greedy algorithms
- Apply to building decision tree:
 - In each step, choose the attribute that seems to be the “best”
 - “best” -- the attribute that most likely splits the dataset into pure sets with respect to the target feature
 - Result: shallower trees
- Computational metric of the purity of a set — Entropy

Entropy (I)

- Claude Shannon's entropy model defines a computational measure of the impurity of the elements of a set.
- An easy way to understand the entropy of a set is to think in terms of the uncertainty associated with guessing the result if you were to make a random selection from the set.
- Entropy is related to the probability of an outcome:
 - High probability — Low entropy
 - Low probability — High entropy

Entropy (II)

- Shannon's model of entropy is a weighted sum of the logs of the probabilities of each of the possible outcomes when we make a random selection from a set.

- Entropy at a given node t :

$$Entropy(t) = - \sum_j p(j | t) \log(p(j | t))$$

(NOTE: $p(j | t)$ is the relative frequency of class j at node t).

- Measures homogeneity of a node.
- Maximum ($\log n_c$) when records are equally distributed among all classes, implying least information
- Minimum (0.0) when all records belong to one class, implying most information

Information Gain

- Information Gain:

$$GAIN_{split} = Entropy(t) - \left(\sum_{i=1}^k \frac{n_i}{n} Entropy(i) \right)$$

- Parent Node t is split into k partitions
- n_i is number of records in partition i
- Information gain measures reduction in entropy achieved because of the split.
- Greedy algorithm (such as ID3) chooses the split that achieves the most reduction.
- Disadvantage: tends to prefer splits that result in large number of partitions, each being small but pure.

Practical Issues with Decision Trees

- Overfitting --- splitting the data on an irrelevant feature
 - Pre-pruning
 - Post-pruning
- Under-fitting
- Missing value in training data
- Missing value in query

Similarity Based Learning

- The fundamentals of similarity-based learning are:
 - Feature space
 - An abstract n-dimensional space that is created by taking each of the descriptive features in a training data set to be the axes of a reference space and each instance in the dataset is mapped to a point in the feature space based on the values of its descriptive features.
 - Similarity metrics
 - Measures the similarity between two instances according to a feature space.

Metric

- Mathematically, a metric must conform to the following four criteria:
 - Non-negativity: $\text{metric}(a, b) \geq 0$
 - Identity: $\text{metric}(a, b) = 0 \iff a = b$
 - Symmetry: $\text{metric}(a, b) = \text{metric}(b, a)$
 - Triangular Inequality:
 $\text{metric}(a, b) \leq (\text{metric}(a, c) + \text{metric}(c, b))$
Where $\text{metric}(a, b)$ is a function that returns the distance (or dissimilarity) between two instances a and b .

Common Metric

- Hamming (Manhattan) distance ($p = 1$)
- Euclidean distance ($p = 2$)
- Minkowski distance in a feature space with m descriptive features:

$$Minkowski(a, b) = (\sum_{i=1}^m abs(a[i] - b[i])^p)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

- The larger the value of p , the more emphasis is placed on the features with large differences in values because there differences are raised to the power of p .

The Nearest Neighbour Algorithm

- Require: set of training instances and a query to be classified
- Algorithm:
 - Iterate across the instances and find the instance that is shortest distance from the query position in the feature space.
 - Make a prediction for the query equal to the value of the target feature of the nearest neighbour.

Advantages vs Disadvantages

- It is an instance-based learning algorithm
 - Store training examples and delay the processing (“lazy evaluation”) until a new instance must be classified.
- It is easy to add new data items into the training dataset to update the model.
- Supervised machine learning is based on the stationarity assumption which states that the data doesn’t change – remains stationary – over time.
- In the context of classification, supervised machine learning creates models that distinguish between the classes that are present in the dataset they are induced from.
- So if a classification model is trained to distinguish between lions, frogs and ducks, the model will classify a query as being either a lion, a frog or a duck; even if the query is actually an elephant.

Probability Based Learning

- We can use estimates of likelihoods to determine the most likely prediction that should be made.
- More importantly, we revise these predictions based on data we collect and whenever extra evidence becomes available.

- Bayes' Theorem

$$P(X|Y) = \frac{P(Y|X)P(X)}{P(Y)}$$

- Example:

A patient has tested positive for a serious disease. The test is 99% accurate. However, the disease is extremely rare, striking only 1 in 10,000 people. What is the actual probability that the patient has the disease?

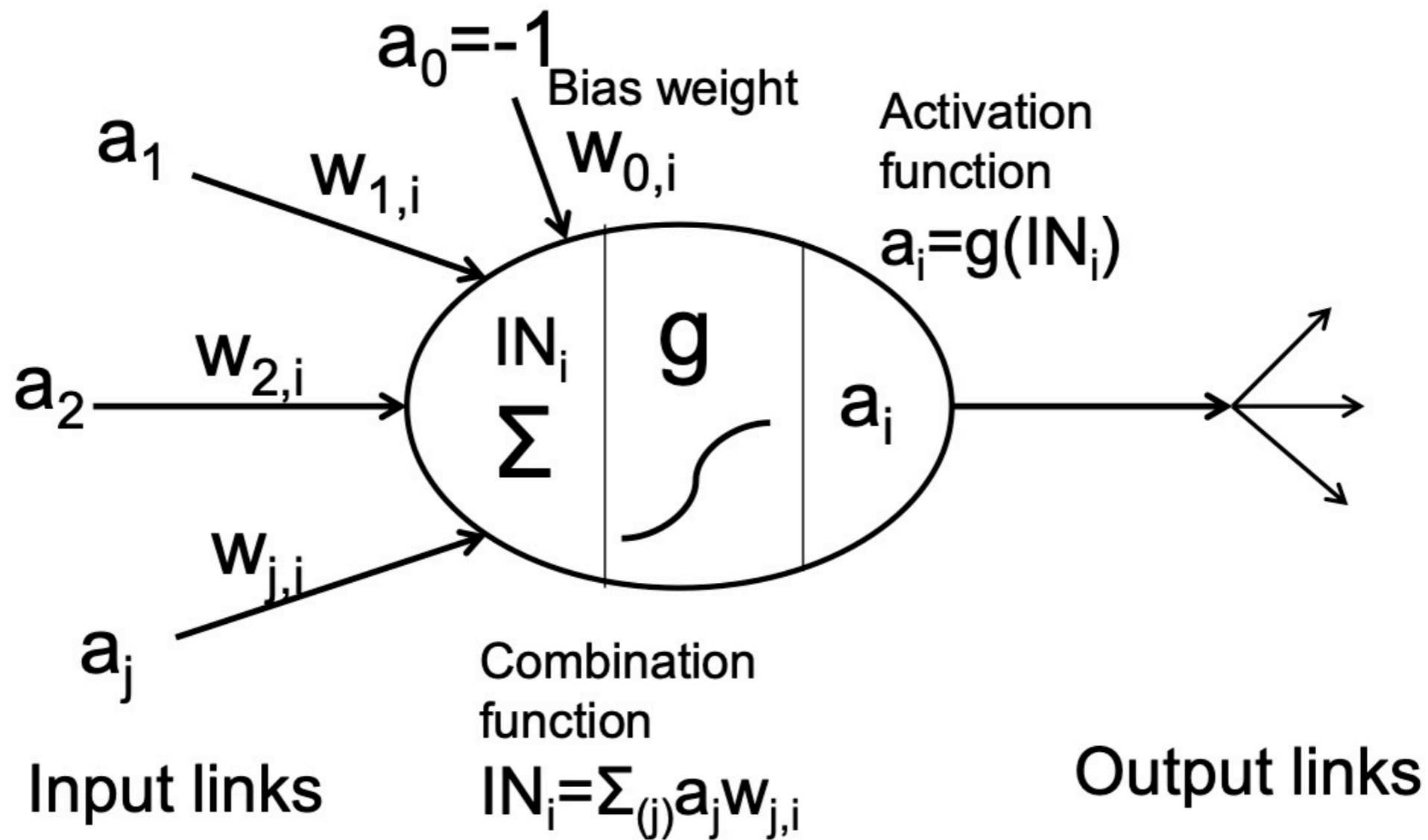
Advantages vs Disadvantages

- Incremental
- Probabilistic prediction
- Practical difficulty — require initial knowledge of many probabilities, significant computational cost
- If dataset is not large enough, model is over-fitting to the training data.

Deep Learning – Artificial Neural Network

- Simulate human brain
- Typical human brain has
 - 10^{11} neurons of 20+ types,
 - 10^{14} synapses
 - 1ms to 10ms cycle time
- Signals are noisy “spike trains” of electrical potential.

Modelling a Neuron



Modelling Neuron Networks

- Consists nodes and edges.
- Node takes input and triggers other nodes through connections.
- Each node has an activation function to decide whether to fire up.
- Each edge not only permits to transfer the value, but also has a weight.
- Artificial neural network simulates the brain.
- Artificial neural network is abstract and media independent. We can use parallel circuits or execute a program on a serial processor.

Forward Application and Back-propagation Learning

- Forward Application:
Feed forward propagation of input pattern signals through network to result outputs
- Back-propagation Learning:
computes error signal, propagates the error backwards through network, adjusting the weight where the actual and desired output values are different

Advantages vs Disadvantages

- Very powerful — With sigmoidal activation functions, it can be shown that a three-layer ANN can approximate any continuous function to arbitrary accuracy.
- Learning is simply adjusting edge weights
- Overfitting — Memorizing training data instead of learning knowledge.
- An ANN is a blackbox.

Association and Training Dataset Format

- Discover Association Rules:
 - Given a set of transactions, find rules that will predict the occurrence of an item based on the occurrences of other items in the transaction
- Training Dataset Format
 - A large set of transactions
 - Each transaction is a list of items
 - An itemset is a collection of one or more items
- Association Rule — An implication expression of the form $X \rightarrow Y$, where X and Y are itemsets
 - Rule form: “Body \rightarrow Head [support, confidence]”
 - Example: buys(x, “diapers”) \rightarrow buys(x, “beers”) [0.5%, 60%]

Terminologies

- Support count (σ)
 - Frequency of occurrence of an itemset; E.g. $\sigma(\{\text{Milk, Bread, Diaper}\}) = 2$
- Support
 - Fraction of transactions that contain an itemset; E.g. $\sigma(\{\text{Milk, Bread, Diaper}\}) = 2/5$
- Frequent Itemset
 - An itemset whose support is greater than or equal to a min-support threshold
- Support (S) of an association rule $X \rightarrow Y$
 - Fraction of transactions that contain both X and Y
- Confidence (C) of an association rule $X \rightarrow Y$
 - Measures how often items in Y appear in transactions that contain X
- Interest (I)
 - The interest of an association rule $X \rightarrow Y$ is the absolute value of the amount by which the confidence differs from the probability of Y

Association Algorithms

- Brute-force approach — computationally prohibitive
 - List all possible association rules
 - Compute the support and confidence for each rule
 - Prune rules that fail the min-support and min-confidence thresholds
- Two-step approach:
 - Frequent Itemset Generation — Generate all itemsets whose support is greater than min-support
 - Brute-force algorithm — Computationally expensive
 - A-Priori Algorithm and FP Growth Algorithm
 - Rule Generation — Generate high confidence rules from each frequent itemset, where each rule is a binary partitioning of a frequent itemset

Cluster Analysis

- Cluster: a collection of data objects
 - Similar to one another within the same cluster
 - Dissimilar to the objects in other clusters
- Cluster analysis
 - Grouping a set of data objects into clusters
 - Intra-cluster distances are minimized
 - Inter-cluster distances are maximized
- Clustering is unsupervised classification: no predefined class labels

Common Clustering Algorithms

- Partitioning algorithms
 - K-means and its variants
- Hierarchy algorithms
- Density-based algorithms
- Grid-based algorithms
- Model-based algorithms

Summary

- The main objective of inductive learning:
to capture the relationships among data's features from observing the behaviour of a large collection of data objects.
- A model learned by induction is not guaranteed to be correct.
- Learning can't occur unless the learning process is biased in some way.
- There is not one best approach that always outperforms the others in learning in general and in machine learning in particular.
- Key tasks in building an inductive learning process
 - Become situationally fluent so that we can converse with experts in the application domain
 - Collect as much relevant data as possible
 - Explore the data to understand it correctly
 - Spend time cleaning and organizing the data
 - Think hard about the best ways to represent features
 - Spend time designing the evaluation process correctly