

Data Mining and Knowledge Discovery

**Part of
Jožef Stefan IPS Programme - ICT3
Part overlapping with ICT2
Statistics Programme**

2018 / 2019

Nada Lavrač

Jožef Stefan Institute
Ljubljana, Slovenia

Data Mining 2018/2019 Logistics: Course participants

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- Petra Kralj Novak: petra.kralj.novak@ijs.si

<p>IPS ICT3 students</p> <p>Data and text mining Knowledge Technologies Module</p>	<p>Živa Prelog Blaž Škrlj Junoš Lukan Luka Žnidarič Tadej Krivec Tine Kolenik Urban Škvorc</p>
<p>IPS ICT2 students</p> <p>Data mining and knowledge discovery</p>	<p>Andrejaana Andova Iztok Renčelj Martin Molan Patrik Zajec</p>
<p>Statistics</p> <p>Podatkovno rudarjenje in odkrivanje zakonitosti v podatkih</p>	<p>Maja Buhin Pandur Tina Grbac</p>

Course Schedule – 2016/17

					IKT2	IKT3	STAT
torek	6.11.	17-19	MPS	Nada Lavrac	✓	✓	✓
sreda	7.11.	16-19	MPS	Bojan Cestnik	✓		
četrtek	8.11.	17-19	Oranžna	Petra Kralj Novak	✓	✓	✓
torek	13.11.	15-17	MPS	Nada Lavrac	✓	✓	✓
četrtek	15.11.	15-18	Oranžna	Petra Kralj Novak	✓	✓	✓
sreda	21.11.	15-19	MPŠ	Dunja Mladenić	✓		
četrtek	22.11.	17-19	Oranžna	Nada Lavrac	✓	✓	✓
četrtek	29.11.	15-18	Oranžna	Petra Kralj Novak	✓	✓	✓
četrtek	6.12.	15-17	Oranžna	Petra Kralj Novak	✓	✓	✓
ponedelje	10.12.	16-18	Oranžna	Dunja Mladenić	✓		
petek	14.12.	15-18	Oranžna	Martin Žnidaršič	✓	✓	✓
sreda	19.12.	16-18	Oranžna	Petra Kralj Novak	✓	✓	✓
četrtek	10.1.	15-17	Oranžna	Petra Kralj Novak	✓	✓	✓
ponedelje	14.1.	17-19	MPŠ	Dunja Mladenić	✓		

Data Mining: PhD Credits and Coursework

- Attending lectures
- Attending practical exercises
 - Theory exercises and hands-on (intro to WEKA by dr. Petra Kralj Novak)
- **Written exam (40%)**
- **Seminar (60%):**
 - Data analysis of your own data (e.g., using WEKA for questionnaire data analysis)
 - Implementing a selected data mining workflow in the ClowdFlows data mining platform
 - own initiative is welcome ...

Data Mining: PhD Credits and coursework

Exam: Written exam (60 minutes) - Theory

Seminar: topic selection + results presentation

- One hour available for seminar topic discussion – one page written proposal defining the task and the selected dataset
- Deliver written report + electronic copy (4 pages in Information Society paper format, instructions on the web)
 - Report on data analysis of own data needs to follow the CRISP-DM methodology
 - Report on DM SW development needs to include SW compatible with the ClowdFlows I/O requirements
 - Presentation of your seminar results (15 minutes each: 10 minutes presentation + 5 minutes discussion)

Data Mining: ICT2 Credits and Coursework

- 20 credits (8 Lavrač + 4 Cestnik + 8 Mladenić)

Course Outline

I. Introduction

- Data Mining and KDD process
- Introduction to Data Mining
- Data Mining platforms

II. Predictive DM Techniques

- Decision Tree learning
- Bayesian classifier
- Classification rule learning
- Classifier Evaluation

III. Regression

IV. Descriptive DM


- Predictive vs. descriptive induction
- Subgroup discovery
- Association rule learning
- Hierarchical clustering

V. Relational Data Mining

- RDM and Inductive Logic Programming
- Propositionalization
- Semantic data mining

VI. Advanced Topics

Part I. Introduction

- 
- Data Mining and the KDD process
 - Introduction to Data Mining
 - Data Mining platforms

Machine Learning and Data Mining

- **Machine Learning (ML)** – computer algorithms/machines that learn predictive models from class-labeled data
- **Data Mining (DM)** – extraction of useful information from data: discovering relationships and patterns that have not previously been known, and use of **ML** techniques applied to solving real-life data analysis problems
- **Knowledge discovery in databases (KDD)** – the process of knowledge discovery

Machine Learning and Data Mining

- **Machine Learning (ML)** – computer algorithms/machines that learn predictive models from class-labeled data
- **Data Mining (DM)** – extraction of useful information from data: discovering relationships and patterns that have not previously been known, and use of **ML** techniques applied to solving real-life data analysis problems
- **Knowledge Discovery in Databases (KDD)** – the process of knowledge discovery

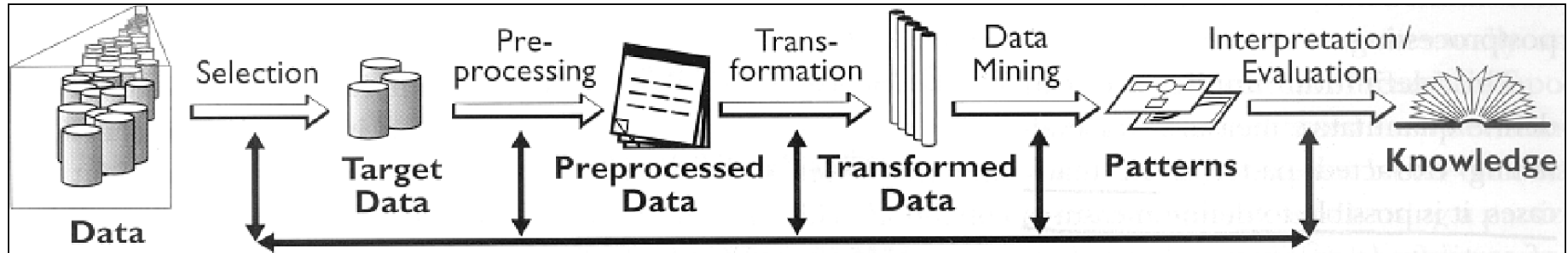
Data Mining and KDD

- Buzzword since 1996
- KDD is defined as “the process of identifying valid, novel, potentially useful and ultimately understandable models/patterns in data.” *
- Data Mining (DM) is the key step in the KDD process, performed by using data mining techniques for extracting models or interesting patterns from the data.

Usama M. Fayyad, Gregory Piatesky-Shapiro, Pedhraic Smyth: The KDD Process for Extracting Useful Knowledge from Volumes of Data. Comm ACM, Nov 96/Vol 39 No 11

KDD Process: CRISP-DM

KDD process of discovering useful knowledge from data

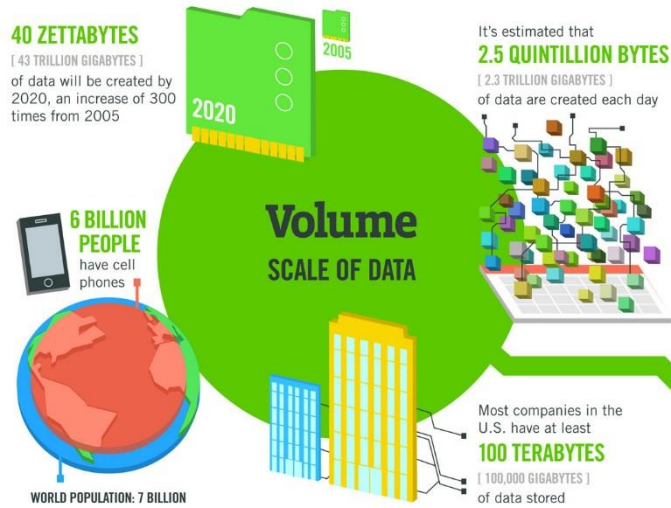


- KDD process involves several phases:
 - data preparation
 - data mining (machine learning, statistics)
 - evaluation and use of discovered patterns
- Data mining is the key step, but represents only 15%-25% of the entire KDD process

Big Data

- **Big Data** – Buzzword since 2008 (special issue of Nature on Big Data)
 - data and techniques for dealing with very large volumes of data, possibly dynamic data streams
 - requiring large data storage resources, special algorithms for parallel computing architectures.

The 4 Vs of Big Data



The FOUR V's of Big Data

From traffic patterns and music downloads to web history and medical records, data is recorded, stored, and analyzed to enable the technology and services that the world relies on every day. But what exactly is big data, and how can these massive amounts of data be used?

As a leader in the sector, IBM data scientists break big data into four dimensions: **Volume, Velocity, Variety and Veracity**

Depending on the industry and organization, big data encompasses information from multiple internal and external sources such as transactions, social media, enterprise content, sensors and mobile devices. Companies can leverage data to adapt their products and services to better meet customer needs, optimize operations and infrastructure, and find new sources of revenue.

By 2015
4.4 MILLION IT JOBS
will be created globally to support big data, with 1.9 million in the United States



As of 2011, the global size of data in healthcare was estimated to be

150 EXABYTES
[161 BILLION GIGABYTES]



30 BILLION PIECES OF CONTENT
are shared on Facebook every month



By 2014, it's anticipated there will be **420 MILLION WEARABLE, WIRELESS HEALTH MONITORS**

4 BILLION+ HOURS OF VIDEO
are watched on YouTube each month



400 MILLION TWEETS
are sent per day by about 200 million monthly active users

Variety DIFFERENT FORMS OF DATA



The New York Stock Exchange captures **1 TB OF TRADE INFORMATION** during each trading session



By 2016, it is projected there will be **18.9 BILLION NETWORK CONNECTIONS** — almost 2.5 connections per person on earth



Velocity ANALYSIS OF STREAMING DATA

Modern cars have close to **100 SENSORS** that monitor items such as fuel level and tire pressure



1 IN 3 BUSINESS LEADERS don't trust the information they use to make decisions



Poor data quality costs the US economy around **\$3.1 TRILLION A YEAR**



27% OF RESPONDENTS

in one survey were unsure of how much of their data was inaccurate

Veracity UNCERTAINTY OF DATA

Data Science

- **Data Science** – buzzword since 2012 when Harvard Business Review called it "The Sexiest Job of the 21st Century"
 - an interdisciplinary field that uses scientific methods, processes, algorithms and systems to extract knowledge and insights from data in various forms, both structured and unstructured, similar to **data mining**.
 - used interchangeably with earlier concepts like business analytics, business intelligence, predictive modeling, and statistics.

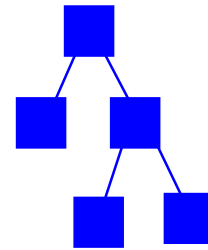
Data Mining in a Nutshell

Person	Age	Spect. presc.	Astigm.	Tear prod.	Lenses
O1	17	myope	no	reduced	NONE
O2	23	myope	no	normal	SOFT
O3	22	myope	yes	reduced	NONE
O4	27	myope	yes	normal	HARD
O5	19	hypermetrope	no	reduced	NONE
O6-O13
O14	35	hypermetrope	no	normal	SOFT
O15	43	hypermetrope	yes	reduced	NONE
O16	39	hypermetrope	yes	normal	NONE
O17	54	myope	no	reduced	NONE
O18	62	myope	no	normal	NONE
O19-O23
O24	56	hypermetrope	yes	normal	NONE

data

knowledge discovery
from data

Data Mining

model, patterns, ...

Given: transaction data table, relational database, text documents, Web pages

Find: a classification model, a set of interesting patterns

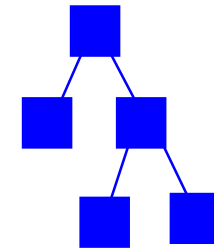
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knowledge discovery
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Data Mining

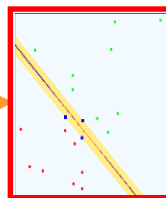


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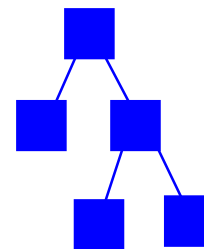
new unclassified instance



classified instance



black box classifier
no explanation



symbolic model
symbolic patterns

explanation

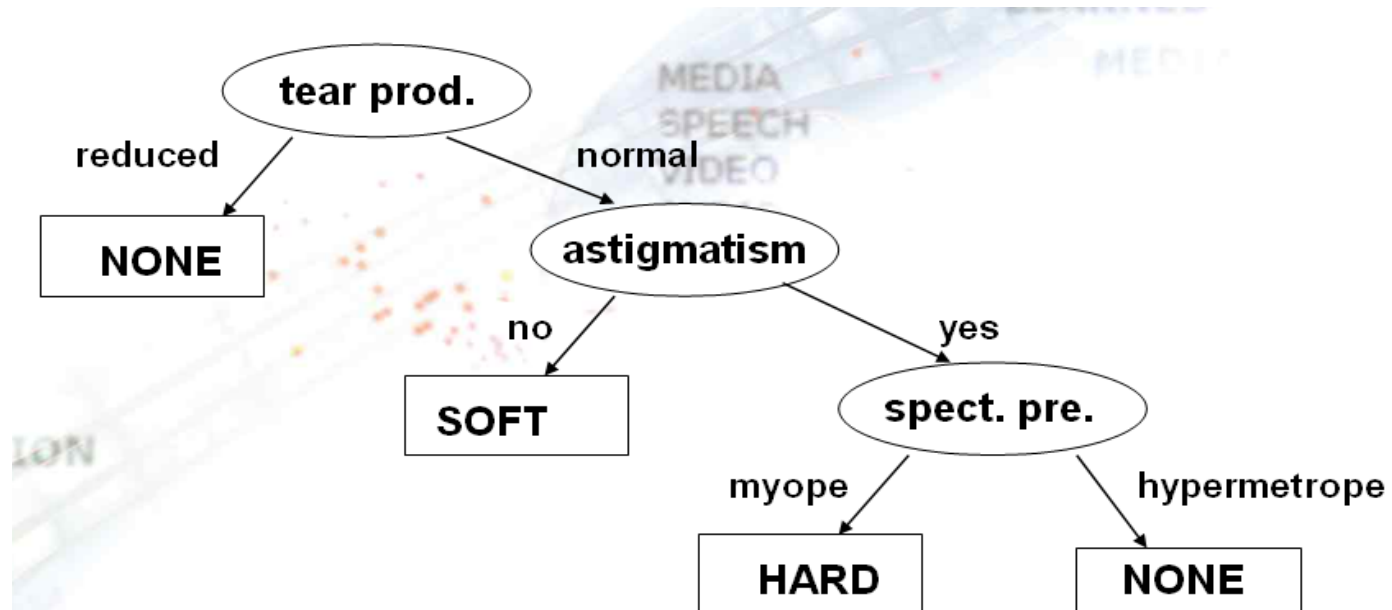


Simplified example: Learning a classification model from contact lens data

Person	Age	Spect. presc.	Astigm.	Tear prod.	Lenses
O1	17	myope	no	reduced	NONE
O2	23	myope	no	normal	SOFT
O3	22	myope	yes	reduced	NONE
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Simplified example: Learning a classification model from contact lens data

Person	Age	Spect. presc.	Astigm.	Tear prod.	Lenses
O1	young	myope	no	reduced	NONE
O2	young	myope	no	normal	SOFT
O3	young	myope	yes	reduced	NONE
O4	young	myope	yes	normal	HARD
O5	young	hypermetrope	no	reduced	NONE
O6-O13
O14	pre-presbyc	hypermetrope	no	normal	SOFT
O15	pre-presbyc	hypermetrope	yes	reduced	NONE
O16	pre-presbyc	hypermetrope	yes	normal	NONE
O17	presbyopic	myope	no	reduced	NONE
O18	presbyopic	myope	no	normal	NONE
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Task reformulation: Binary Class Values

Person	Age	Spect. presc.	Astigm.	Tear prod.	Lenses
O1	17	myope	no	reduced	NO
O2	23	myope	no	normal	YES
O3	22	myope	yes	reduced	NO
O4	27	myope	yes	normal	YES
O5	19	hypermetrope	no	reduced	NO
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O18	62	myope	no	normal	NO
O19-O23
O24	56	hypermetrope	yes	normal	NO

Binary classes (positive vs. negative examples of **Target class**)

- for Concept learning – classification and class description
- for Subgroup discovery – exploring patterns characterizing groups of instances of target class

Learning from Numeric Class Data

Person	Age	Spect. presc.	Astigm.	Tear prod.	LensPrice
O1	17	myope	no	reduced	0
O2	23	myope	no	normal	8
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O4	27	myope	yes	normal	5
O5	19	hypermetrope	no	reduced	0
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O16	39	hypermetrope	yes	normal	0
O17	54	myope	no	reduced	0
O18	62	myope	no	normal	0
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O24	56	hypermetrope	yes	normal	0

Numeric class values – regression analysis

Learning from Unlabeled Data

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Unlabeled data - clustering: grouping of similar instances
 - association rule learning

Data Mining, ML and Statistics

- All three areas have a long tradition of developing inductive techniques for data analysis.
 - reasoning from properties of a data sample to properties of a population
- **DM vs. ML - Viewpoint in this course:**
 - Data Mining is the application of Machine Learning techniques to hard real-life data analysis problems

Data Mining, ML and Statistics

- All three areas have a long tradition of developing inductive techniques for data analysis.
 - reasoning from properties of a data sample to properties of a population
- **DM vs. Statistics:**
 - **Statistics**
 - Hypothesis testing when certain theoretical expectations about the data distribution, independence, random sampling, sample size, etc. are satisfied
 - Main approach: best fitting all the available data
 - **Data mining**
 - Automated construction of understandable patterns, and structured models
 - Main approach: structuring the data space, heuristic search for decision trees, rules, ... covering (parts of) the data space

Why learn and use symbolic models

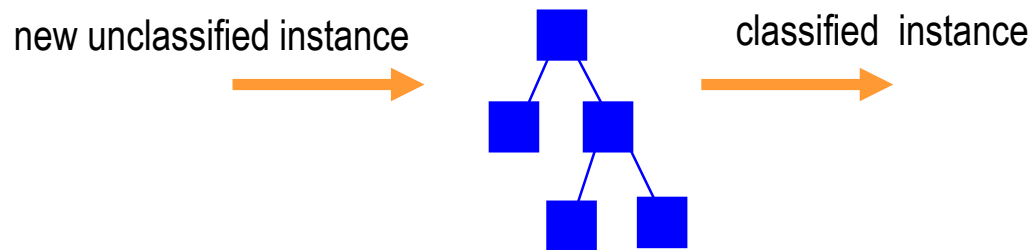
Given: the learned classification model
(a decision tree or a set of rules)

Find: the class label for a new unlabeled instance

Why learn and use symbolic models

Given: the learned classification model
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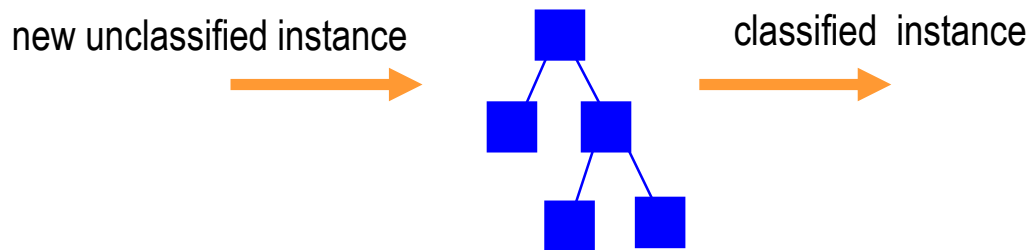
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Why learn and use symbolic models

Given: the learned classification model
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Find: - the class label for a new unlabeled instance



- use the model for the explanation of classifications of new data instances
- use the discovered patterns for data exploration

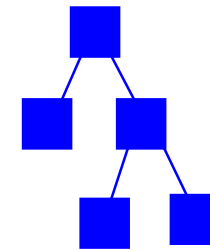
Data Mining

Person	Age	Spect. presc.	Astigm.	Tear prod.	Lenses
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knowledge discovery
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Data Mining

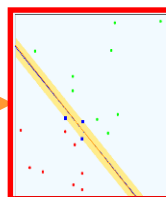


model, patterns, ...

Given: transaction data table, relational database, text documents, Web pages

Find: a classification model, a set of interesting patterns

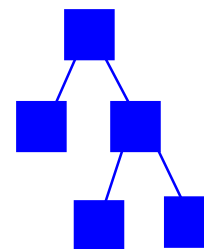
new unclassified instance



classified instance



black box classifier
no explanation



symbolic model
symbolic patterns

explanation



Contact lens data

Person	Age	Spect. presc.	Astigm.	Tear prod.	Lenses
O1	17	myope	no	reduced	NONE
O2	23	myope	no	normal	SOFT
O3	22	myope	yes	reduced	NONE
O4	27	myope	yes	normal	HARD
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O17	54	myope	no	reduced	NONE
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O19-O23
O24	56	hypermetrope	yes	normal	NONE

Pattern discovery in Contact lens data

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O1	17	myope	no	reduced	NONE
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O3	22	myope	yes	reduced	NONE
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O16	39	hypermetrope	yes	normal	NONE
O17	54	myope	no	reduced	NONE
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PATTERN

Rule:

IF

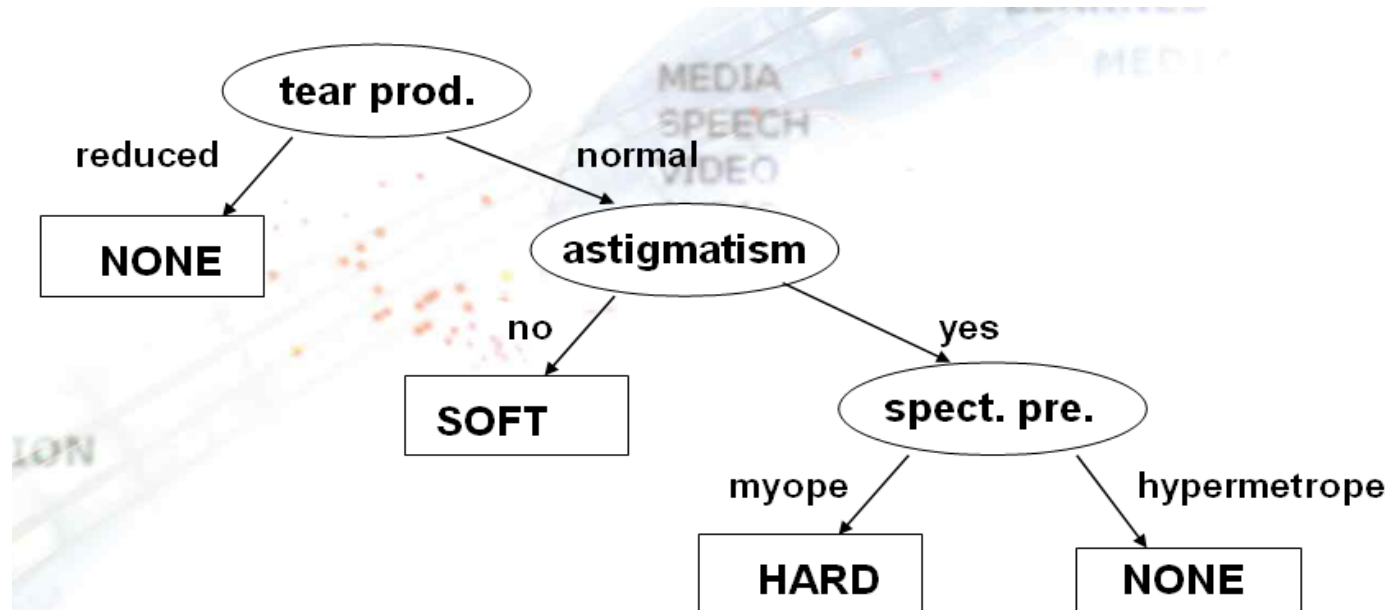
Tear prod. =
reduced

THEN

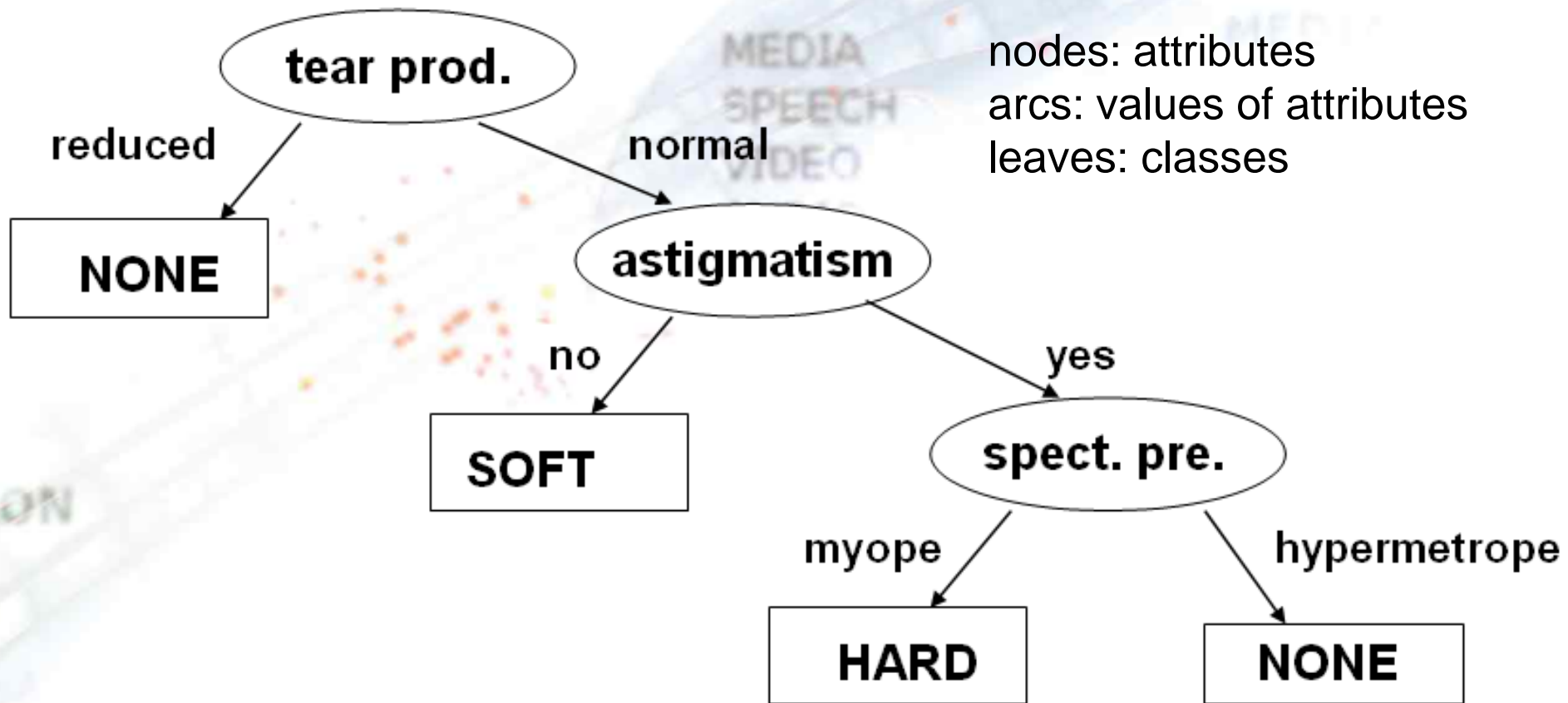
Lenses =
NONE

Learning a classification model from contact lens data

Person	Age	Spect. presc.	Astigm.	Tear prod.	Lenses
O1	young	myope	no	reduced	NONE
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O4	young	myope	yes	normal	HARD
O5	young	hypermetrope	no	reduced	NONE
O6-O13
O14	pre-presbyc	hypermetrope	no	normal	SOFT
O15	pre-presbyc	hypermetrope	yes	reduced	NONE
O16	pre-presbyc	hypermetrope	yes	normal	NONE
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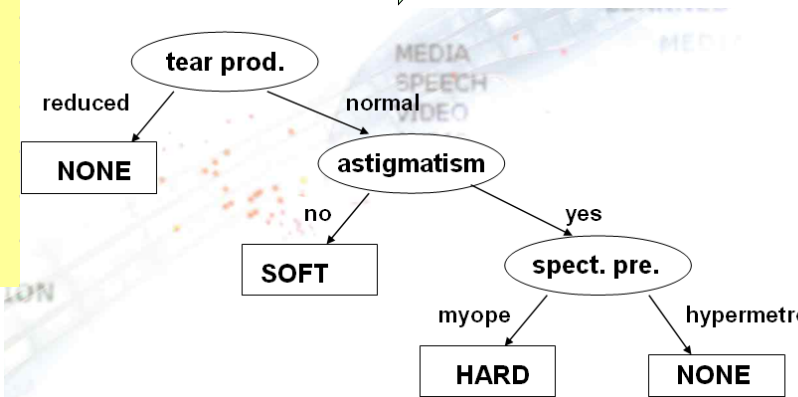


Decision tree classification model learned from contact lens data



Learning a classification model from contact lens data

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lenses=NONE ← tear production=red

lenses=NONE ← tear production=normal AND astigmatism=yes AND spect. pre.=hypermetrope

lenses=SOFT ← tear production=normal AND astigmatism=no

lenses=HARD ← tear production=normal AND astigmatism=yes AND spect. pre.=myope

lenses=NONE ←

Classification rules model learned from contact lens data

- lenses=NONE** ← tear production=reduced
- lenses=NONE** ← tear production=normal AND
astigmatism=yes AND
spect. pre.=hypermetrope
- lenses=SOFT** ← tear production=normal AND
astigmatism=no
- lenses=HARD** ← tear production=normal AND
astigmatism=yes AND
spect. pre.=myope
- lenses=NONE** ←

Task reformulation: Binary Class Values

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Binary classes (positive vs. negative examples of **Target class**)

- for Concept learning tasks
 - classification and class description
 - “one vs. all” multi-class learning
- for Subgroup discovery tasks

Learning from Numeric Class Data

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Numeric class values – regression analysis

Learning from Unlabeled Data

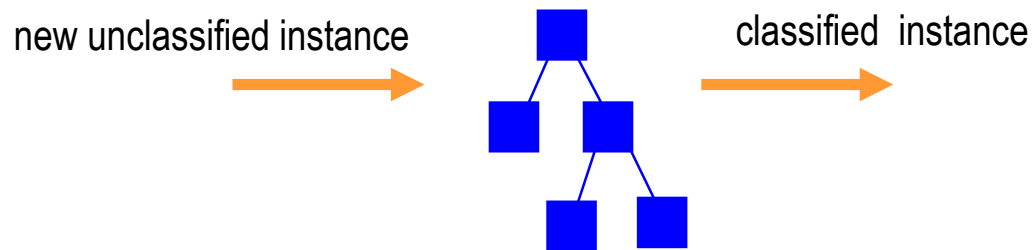
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Unlabeled data - clustering: grouping of similar instances
- association rule learning

Why learn and use symbolic models

Given: the learned classification model
(a decision tree or a set of rules)

Find: - the class label for a new unlabeled instance



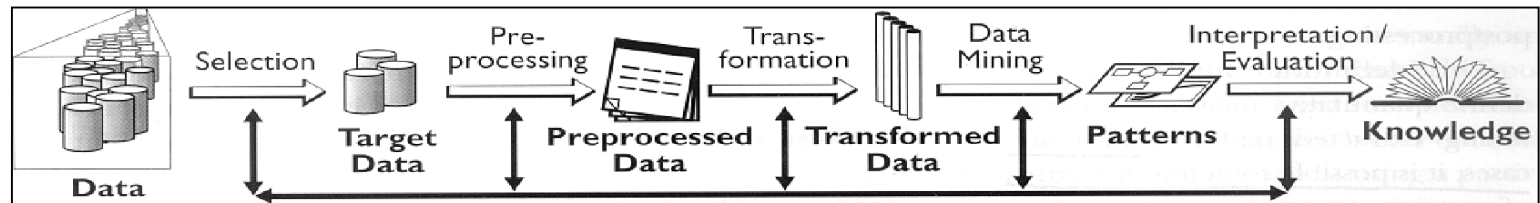
- use the model for the explanation of classifications of new data instances
- use the discovered patterns for data exploration

First Generation Data Mining

- **First machine learning algorithms for**
 - Decision tree and rule learning in 1970s and early 1980s by Quinlan, Michalski et al., Breiman et al., ...
- **Characterized by**
 - Learning from data stored in a single data table
 - Relatively small set of instances and attributes
- **Lots of ML research followed in 1980s**
 - Numerous conferences ICML, ECML, ... and ML sessions at AI conferences IJCAI, ECAI, AAAI, ...
 - Extended set of learning tasks and algorithms addressed

Second Generation Data Mining

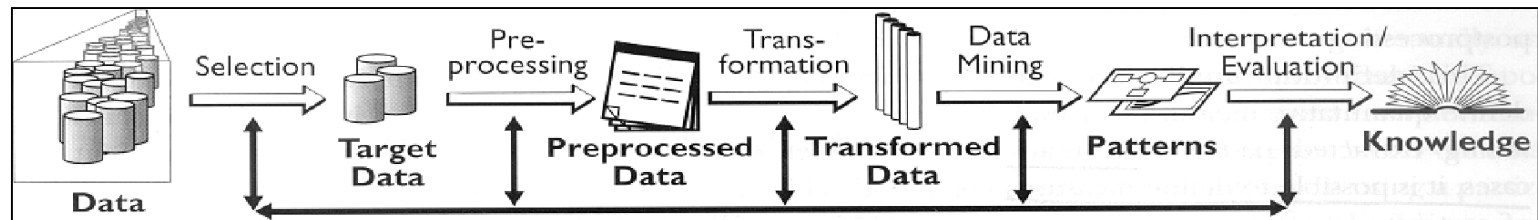
- **Developed since 1990s:**
 - Focused on data mining tasks characterized by large datasets described by large numbers of attributes
 - Industrial standard: CRISP-DM methodology (1997)



Second Generation Data Mining

- **Developed since 1990s:**

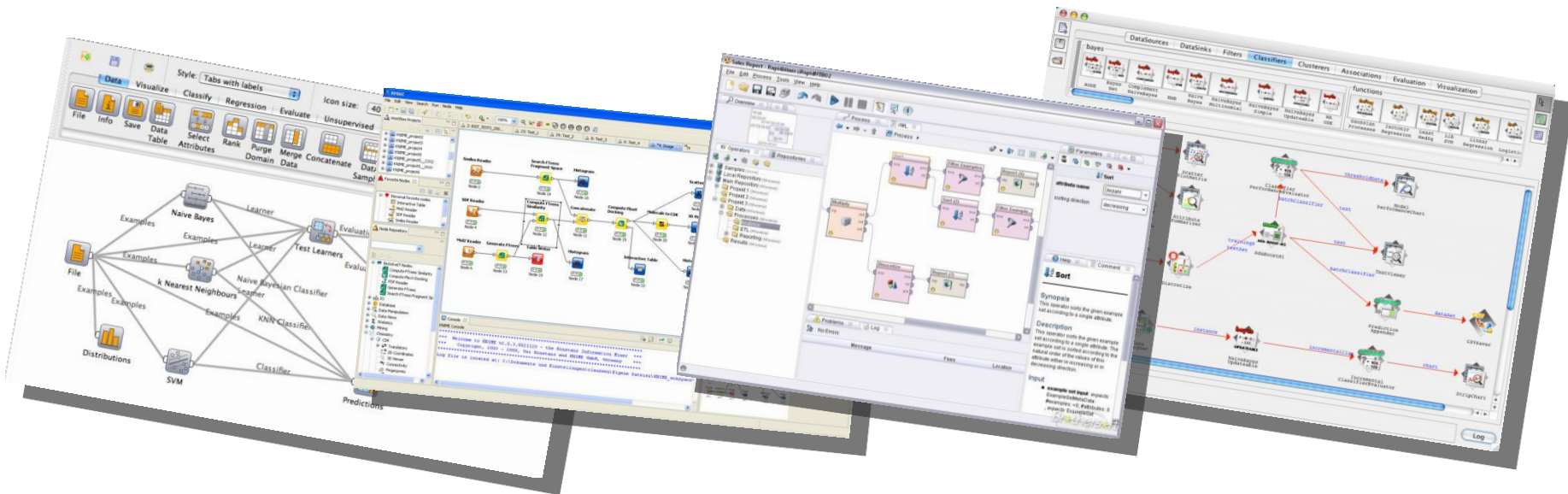
- Focused on data mining tasks characterized by large datasets described by large numbers of attributes
- Industrial standard: CRISP-DM methodology (1997)



- New conferences on practical aspects of data mining and knowledge discovery: KDD, PKDD, ...
- New learning tasks and efficient learning algorithms:
 - Learning predictive models: Bayesian network learning,, **relational data mining**, statistical relational learning, SVMs, ...
 - Learning descriptive patterns: association rule learning, **subgroup discovery**, ...

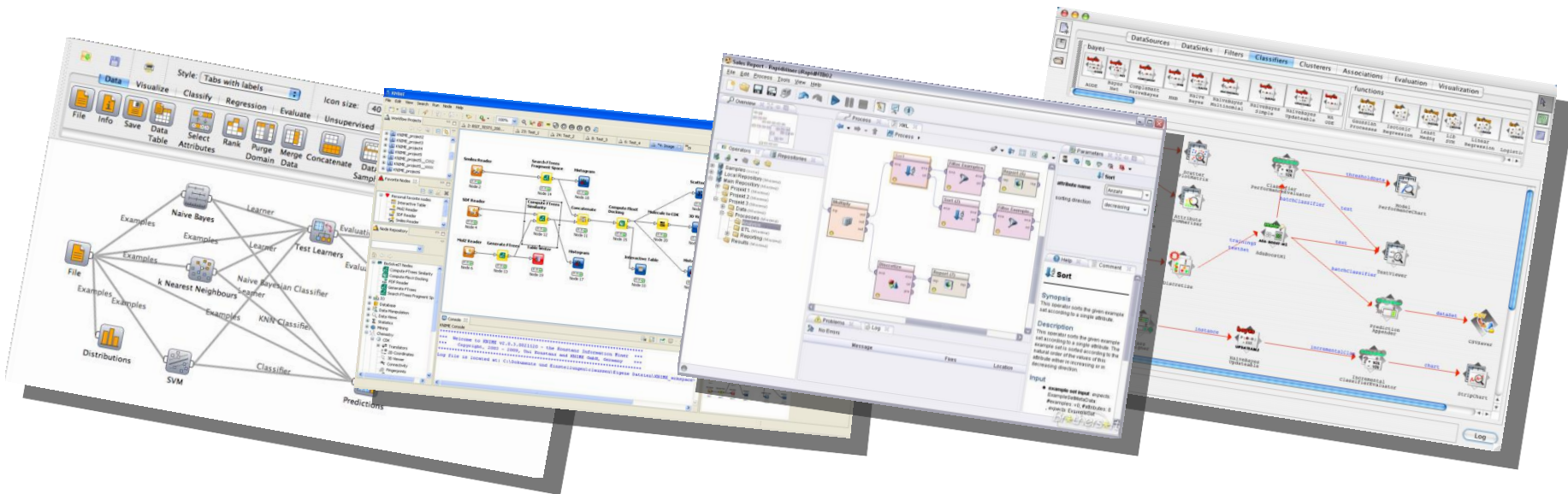
Second Generation Data Mining Platforms

Orange, WEKA, KNIME, RapidMiner, ...



Second Generation Data Mining Platforms

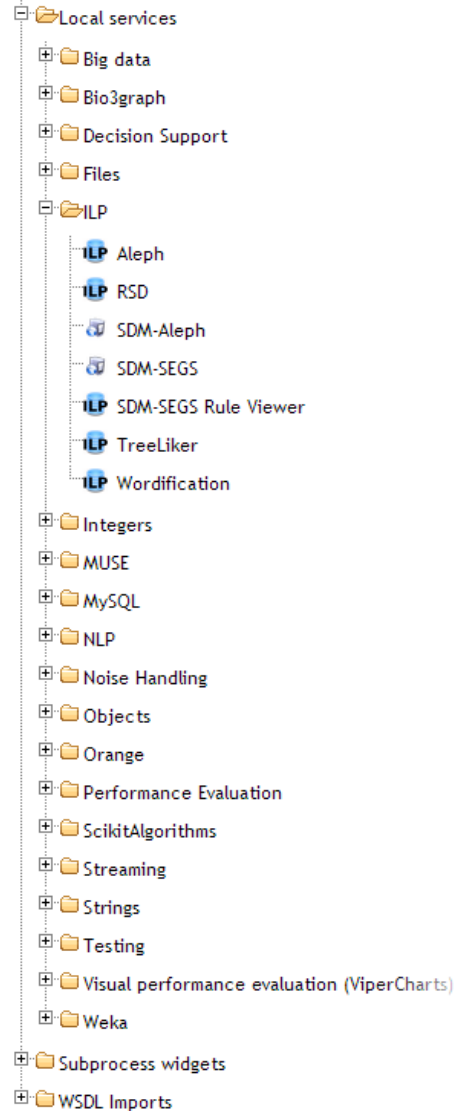
Orange, WEKA, KNIME, RapidMiner, ...



- include numerous data mining algorithms
- enable data and model visualization
- like Orange, Taverna, WEKA, KNIME, RapidMiner, also enable complex **workflow** construction

Third Generation Data Mining

- **Orange4WS** (Podpečan et al. 2009), **ClowdFlows** (Kranjc et al. 2012) and **TextFlows** (Perovšek et al. 2016)
 - are service oriented (DM algorithms as web services)
 - user-friendly HCI: canvas for workflow construction
 - include functionality of standard data mining platforms
 - WEKA algorithms, implemented as Web services
 - Include new functionality
 - relational data mining
 - semantic data mining
 - NLP processing and text mining
 - enable simplified construction of Web services from available algorithms
 - ClowdFlows and TextFlows run in a browser – enables data mining, workflow construction and sharing on the web

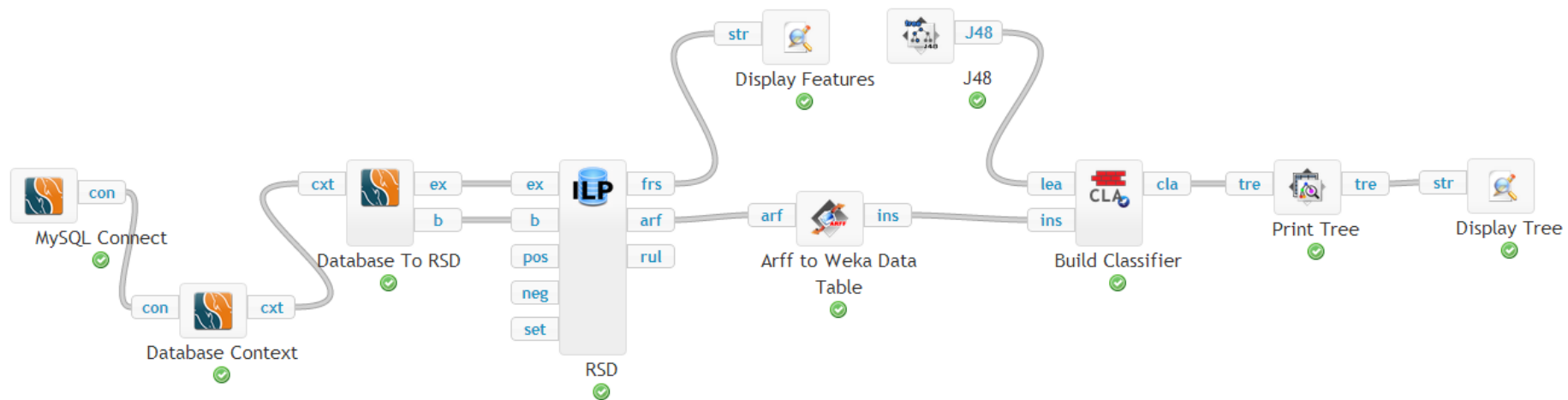


CloudFlows platform

- **Large algorithm repository**
 - Relational data mining
 - All Orange algorithms
 - WEKA algorithms as web services
 - Data and results visualization
 - Text analysis
 - Social network analysis
 - Analysis of big data streams
- **Large workflow repository**
 - Enables access to our technology heritage

CloudFlows platform

- Large repository of algorithms
- Large repository of workflows



Example workflow:

Propositionalization with RSD
available in CloudFlows at

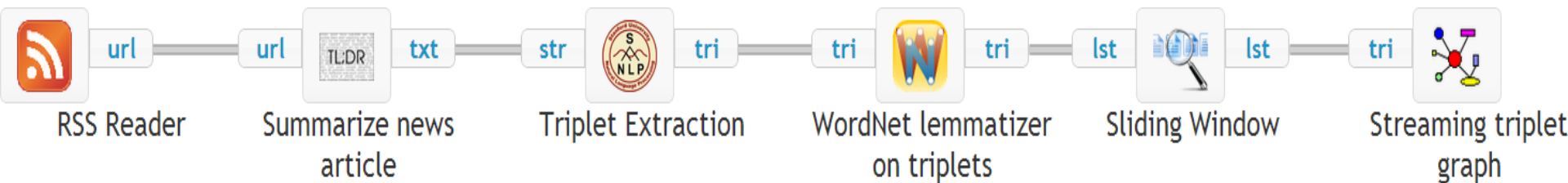
<http://clowdflows.org/workflow/611/>

TextFlows

- Motivation:
 - Develop an online text mining platform for composition, execution and sharing of text mining workflows
- TextFlows platform – fork of ClowdFlows.org:
 - Specialized on text mining
 - Web-based user interface
 - Visual programming
 - Big roster of existing workflow (mostly text mining) components
 - Cloud-based service-oriented architecture

“Big Data” Use Case

- Real-time analysis of big data streams
- Example: semantic graph construction from news streams. <http://cloudfloows.org/workflow/1729/>.



- Example: news monitoring by graph visualization (graph of CNN RSS feeds)

<http://cloudfloows.org/streams/data/31/1>



Part I: Summary

- KDD is the overall process of discovering useful knowledge in data
 - many steps including data preparation, cleaning, transformation, pre-processing
- Data Mining is the data analysis phase in KDD
 - DM takes only 15%-25% of the effort of the overall KDD process
 - employing techniques from machine learning and statistics
- Predictive and descriptive induction have different goals: classifier vs. pattern discovery
- Many application areas, many powerful tools available

Course Outline

I. Introduction

- Data Mining and KDD process
- Introduction to Data Mining
- Data Mining platforms

II. Predictive DM Techniques

- Decision Tree learning
- Bayesian classifier
- Classification rule learning
- Classifier Evaluation

III. Regression

IV. Descriptive DM

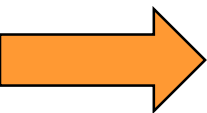
- Predictive vs. descriptive induction
- Subgroup discovery
- Association rule learning
- Hierarchical clustering

V. Relational Data Mining

- RDM and Inductive Logic Programming
- Propositionalization
- Semantic data mining

VI. Advanced Topics

Part II. Predictive DM techniques



Decision tree learning

- Bayesian Classifier
- Rule learning
- Evaluation

Predictive DM - Classification

- data are objects, characterized with attributes - they belong to different classes (discrete labels)
- given objects described with attribute values, induce a model to predict different classes
- decision trees, if-then rules, discriminant analysis, ...

Predictive DM - classification

formulated as a machine learning task

- Given a set of labeled **training examples** (n-tuples of attribute values, labeled by class name)

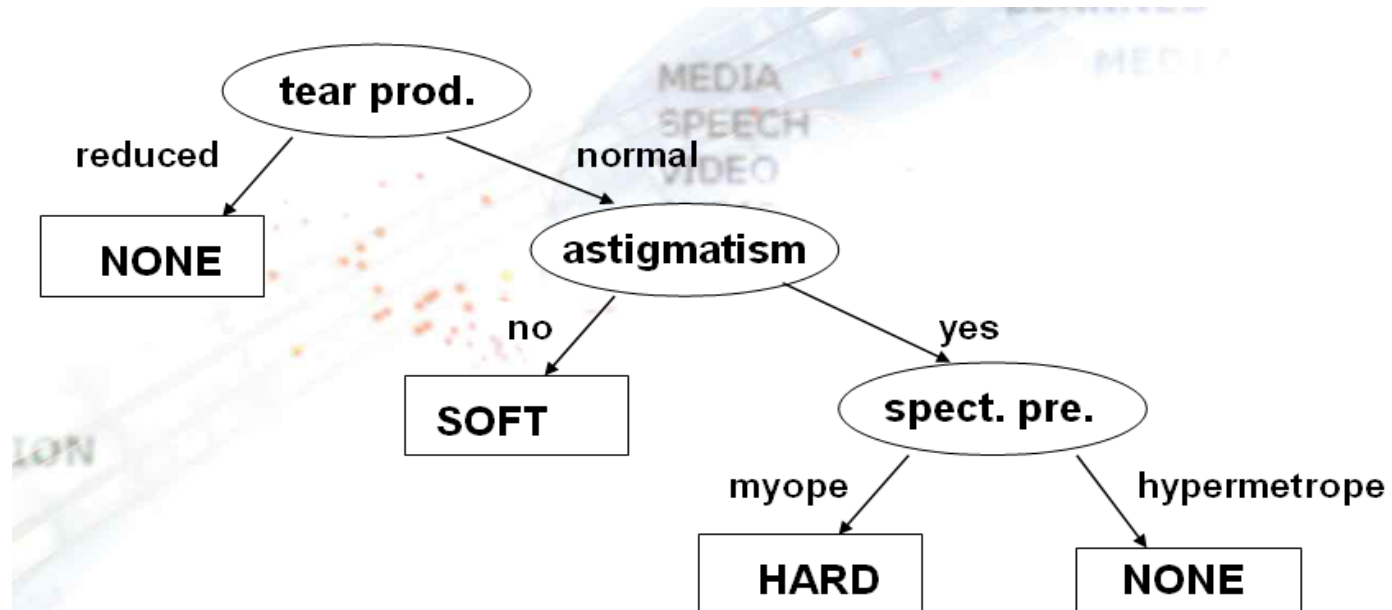
	A1	A2	A3	Class
example1	$v_{1,1}$	$v_{1,2}$	$v_{1,3}$	C_1
example2	$v_{2,1}$	$v_{2,2}$	$v_{2,3}$	C_2
..				

- Performing generalization from examples (induction)
- Find a **hypothesis** (a decision tree or classification rules) which explains the training examples, e.g. decision trees or classification rules of the form:

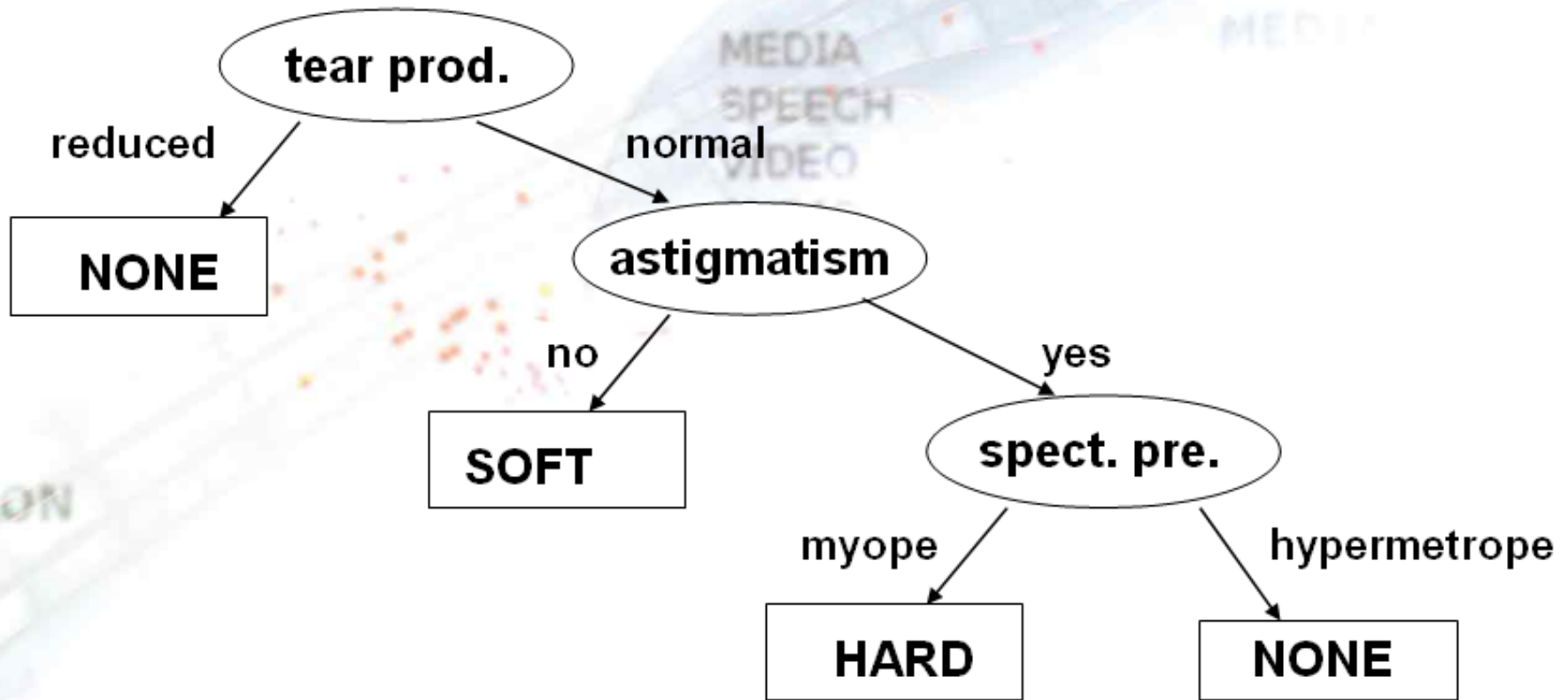
IF $(A_i = v_{i,k})$ & $(A_j = v_{j,l})$ & ... THEN Class = C_n

Decision Tree Learning

Person	Age	Spect. presc.	Astigm.	Tear prod.	Lenses
O1	young	myope	no	reduced	NONE
O2	young	myope	no	normal	SOFT
O3	young	myope	yes	reduced	NONE
O4	young	myope	yes	normal	HARD
O5	young	hypermetrope	no	reduced	NONE
O6-O13
O14	pre-presbyc	hypermetrope	no	normal	SOFT
O15	pre-presbyc	hypermetrope	yes	reduced	NONE
O16	pre-presbyc	hypermetrope	yes	normal	NONE
O17	presbyopic	myope	no	reduced	NONE
O18	presbyopic	myope	no	normal	NONE
O19-O23
O24	presbyopic	hypermetrope	yes	normal	NONE

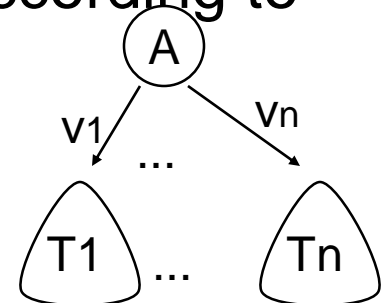


Decision Tree classifier



Decision tree learning algorithm

- ID3 (Quinlan 1979), CART (Breiman et al. 1984), C4.5, J48 in WEKA, ...
 - create the root node of the tree
 - if all examples from S belong to the same class C_j
 - then label the root with C_j
 - else
 - select the ‘most informative’ attribute A with values v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n
 - divide training set S into S_1, \dots, S_n according to values v_1, \dots, v_n
 - recursively build sub-trees T_1, \dots, T_n for S_1, \dots, S_n



Decision tree search heuristics

- Central choice in decision tree algorithms: Which attribute to test at each node in the tree ? The attribute that is most useful for classifying examples.
- Define a statistical property, called **information gain**, measuring how well a given attribute separates the training examples w.r.t their target classification.
- First define a measure commonly used in information theory, called **entropy**, to characterize the (im)purity of an arbitrary collection of examples.

Entropy

- **S** - training set, **C₁, ..., C_N** - classes
- **Entropy E(S)** – measure of the impurity of training set S

$$E(S) = - \sum_{c=1}^N p_c \cdot \log_2 p_c$$

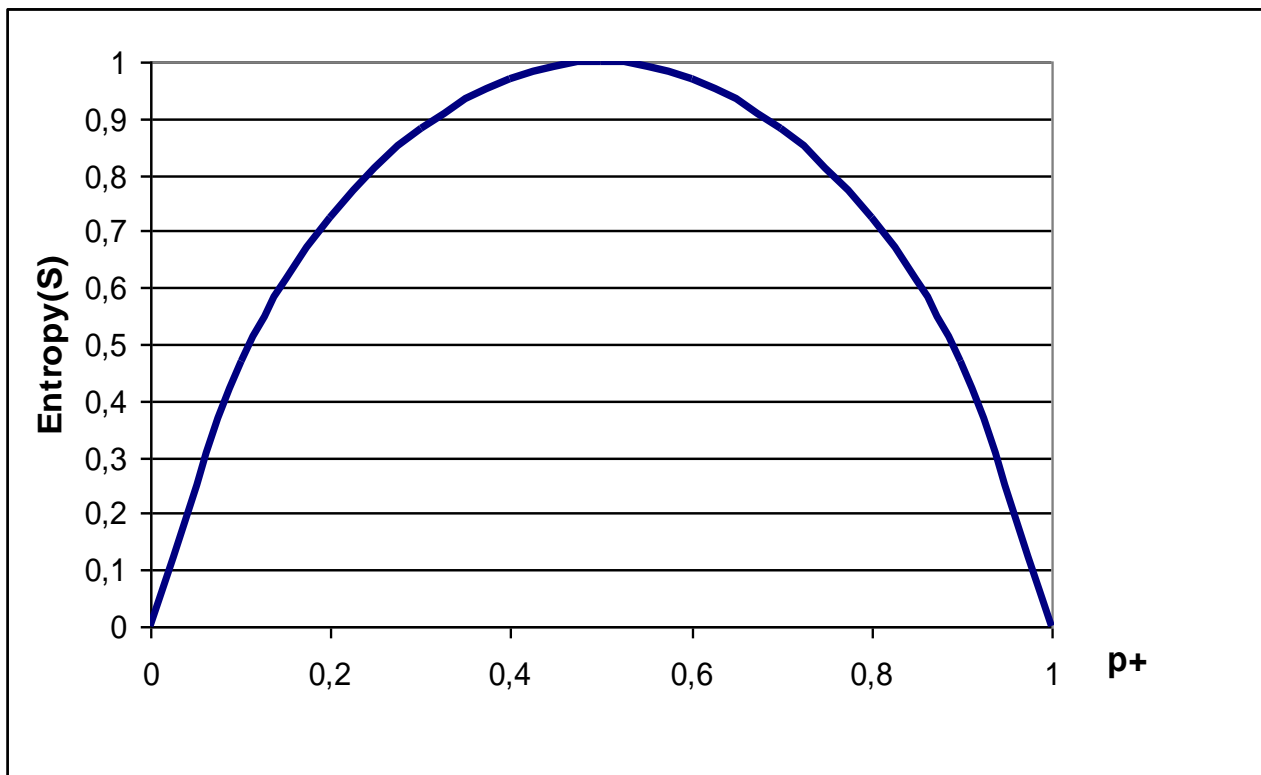
p_c - prior probability of class **C_c**
(relative frequency of **C_c** in **S**)

- Entropy in binary classification problems

$$E(S) = - p_+ \log_2 p_+ - p_- \log_2 p_-$$

Entropy

- $E(S) = - p_+ \log_2 p_+ - p_- \log_2 p_-$.
- The entropy function relative to a Boolean classification, as the proportion p_+ of positive examples varies between 0 and 1



Entropy – why ?

- **Entropy $E(S)$** = expected amount of information (in bits) needed to assign a class to a randomly drawn object in S (under the optimal, shortest-length code)
- Why ?
- Information theory: optimal length code assigns $-\log_2 p$ bits to a message having probability p
- So, in binary classification problems, the expected number of bits to encode + or – of a random member of S is:

$$p_+ (-\log_2 p_+) + p_- (-\log_2 p_-) = -p_+ \log_2 p_+ - p_- \log_2 p_-$$

Entropy – example calculation

- Training set S : 14 examples (9 pos., 5 neg.)
- Notation: $S = [9+, 5-]$
- $E(S) = -p_+ \log_2 p_+ - p_- \log_2 p_-$
- Computing entropy, if probability is estimated by relative frequency

$$E(S) = -\left(\frac{|S_+|}{|S|} \cdot \log \frac{|S_+|}{|S|}\right) - \left(\frac{|S_-|}{|S|} \cdot \log \frac{|S_-|}{|S|}\right)$$

- $E([9+,5-]) = - (9/14) \log_2(9/14) - (5/14) \log_2(5/14)$
 $= 0.940$

Information gain search heuristic

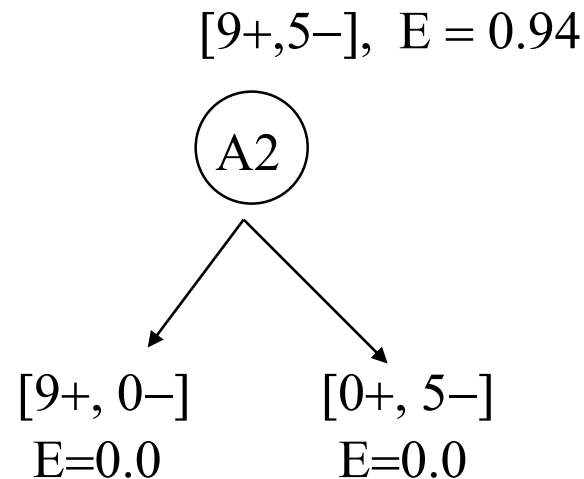
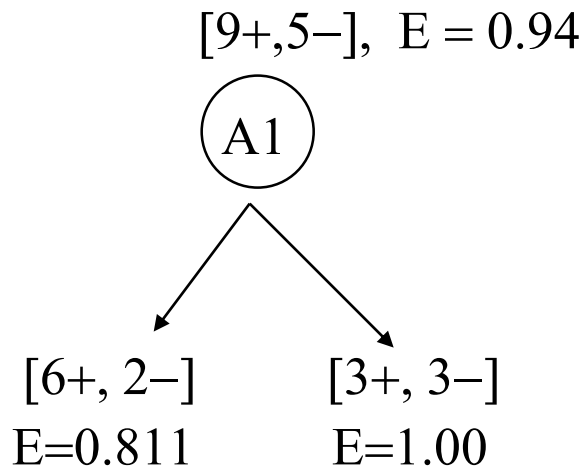
- **Information gain** measure is aimed to minimize the number of tests needed for the classification of a new object
- **Gain(S,A)** – expected reduction in entropy of S due to sorting on A

$$Gain(S, A) = E(S) - \sum_{v \in Values(A)} \frac{|S_v|}{|S|} \cdot E(S_v)$$

- **Most informative** attribute: **max Gain(S,A)**

Information gain search heuristic

- Which attribute is more informative, A1 or A2 ?



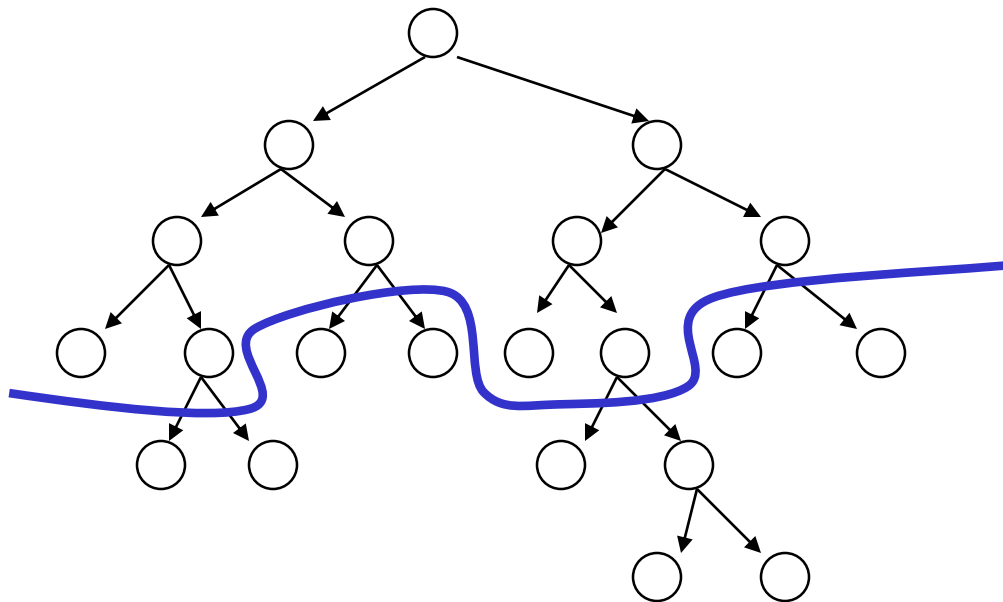
- $\text{Gain}(S, A1) = 0.94 - (8/14 \times 0.811 + 6/14 \times 1.00) = 0.048$
- $\text{Gain}(S, A2) = 0.94 - 0 = 0.94$ A2 has max Gain

Heuristic search in ID3

- **Search bias:** Search the space of decision trees from simplest to increasingly complex (greedy search, no backtracking, prefer small trees)
- **Search heuristics:** At a node, select the attribute that is most useful for classifying examples, split the node accordingly
- **Stopping criteria:** A node becomes a leaf
 - if all examples belong to same class C_j , label the leaf with C_j
 - if all attributes were used, label the leaf with the most common value C_k of examples in the node
- **Extension to ID3:** handling noise - tree pruning

Pruning of decision trees

- Avoid overfitting the data by tree pruning
- Pruned trees are
 - less accurate on training data
 - more accurate when classifying unseen data



Handling noise – Tree pruning

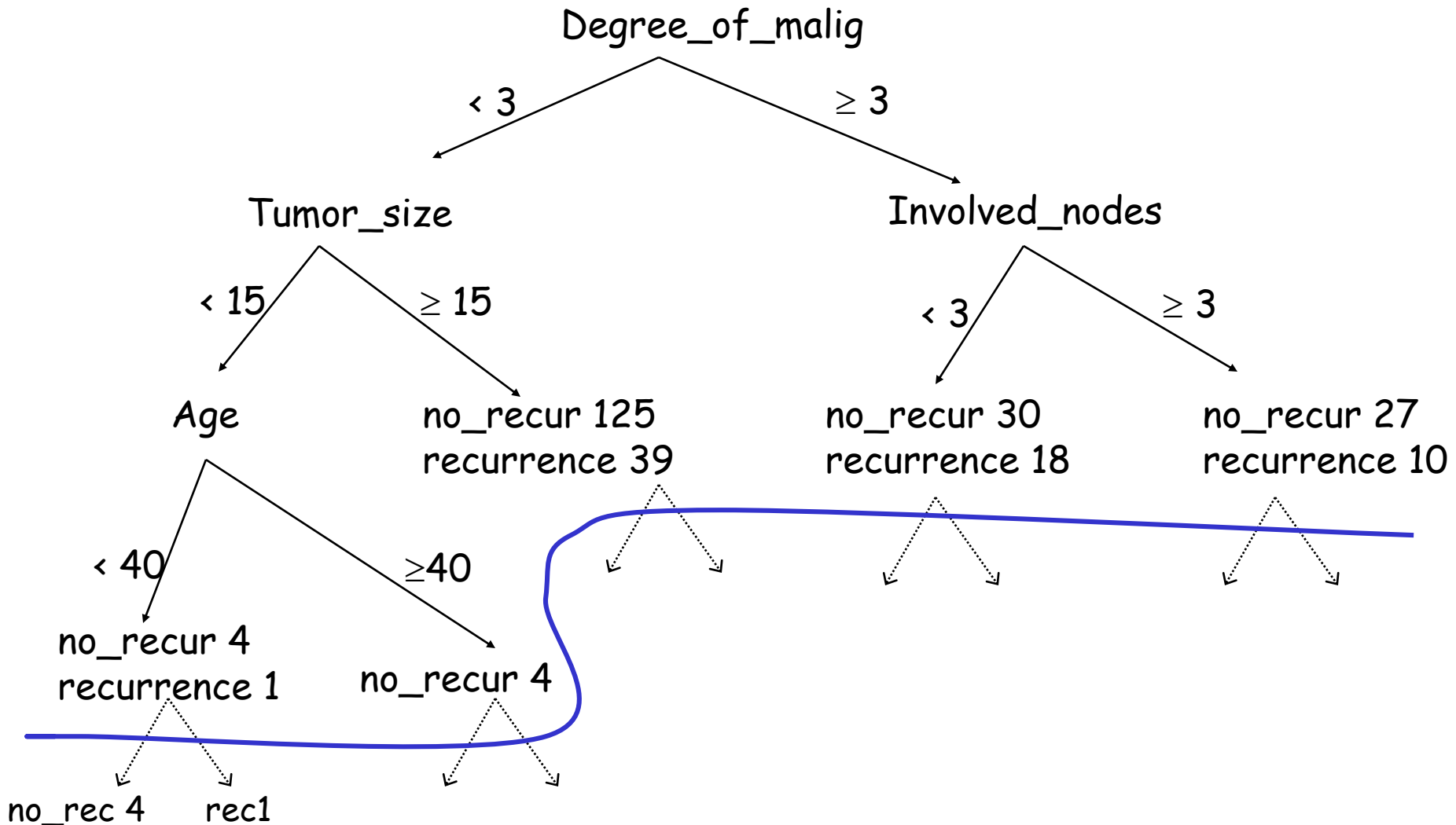
Sources of imperfection

1. Random errors (noise) in training examples
 - erroneous attribute values
 - erroneous classification
2. Too sparse training examples (incompleteness)
3. Inappropriate/insufficient set of attributes (inexactness)
4. Missing attribute values in training examples

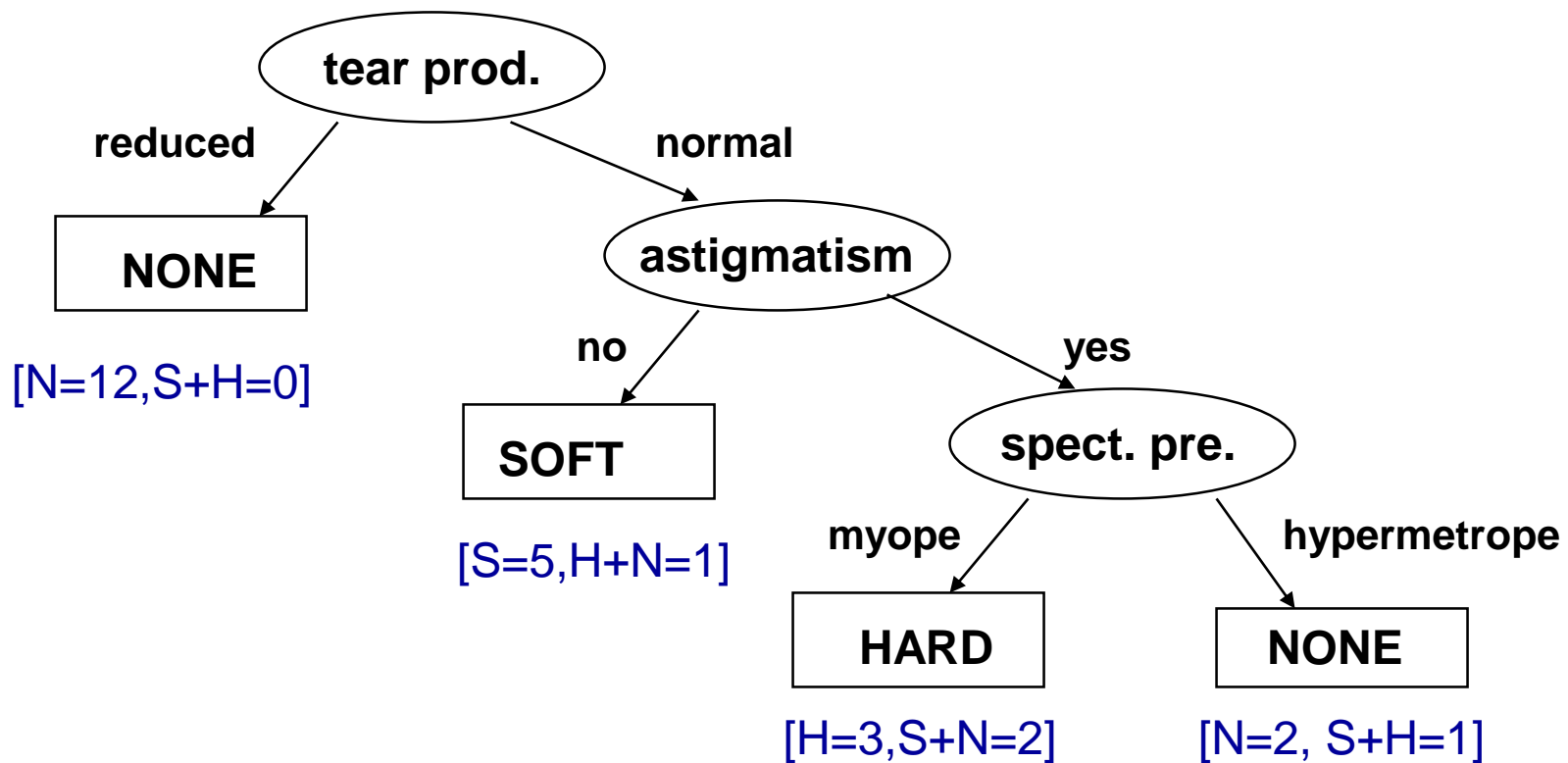
Handling noise – Tree pruning

- Handling imperfect data
 - handling imperfections of type 1-3
 - pre-pruning (stopping criteria)
 - post-pruning / rule truncation
 - handling missing values
- Pruning avoids perfectly fitting noisy data: relaxing the completeness (fitting all +) and consistency (fitting all -) criteria in ID3

Prediction of breast cancer recurrence: Tree pruning



Pruned decision tree for contact lenses recommendation

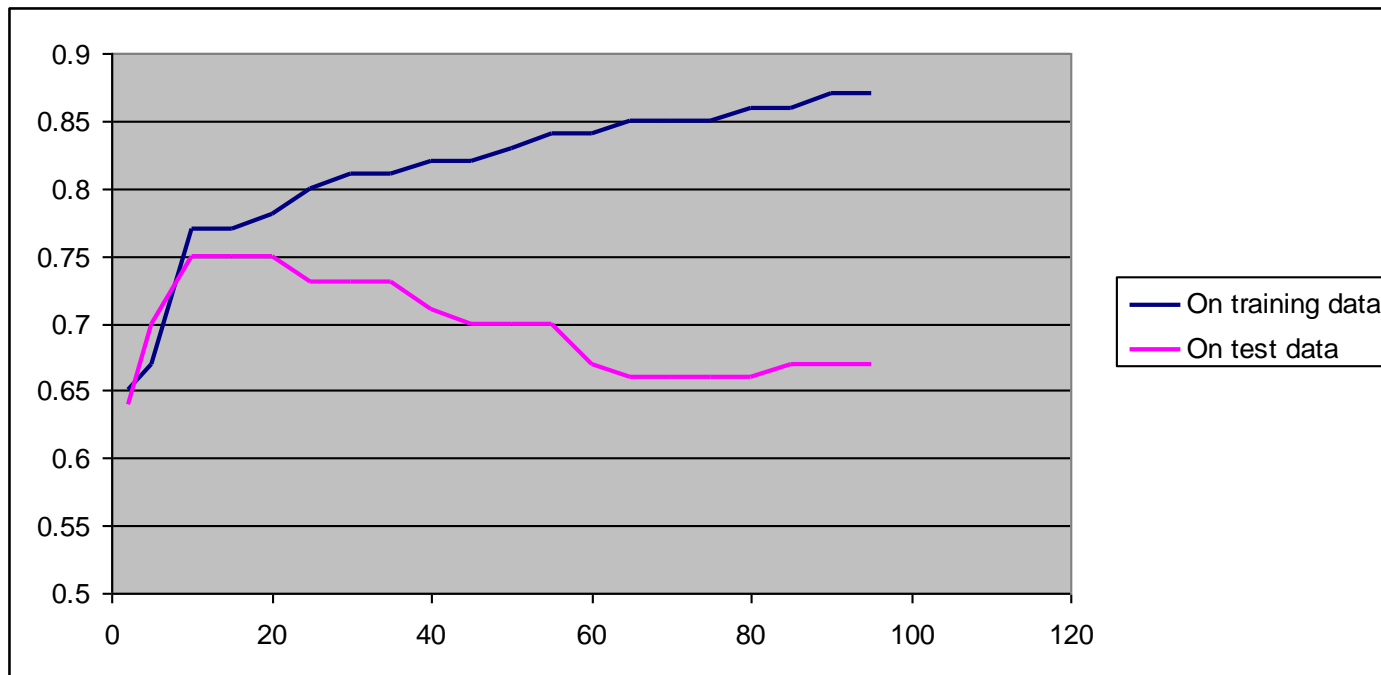


Accuracy and error

- Accuracy: percentage of correct classifications
 - on the training set
 - on unseen instances
- How accurate is a decision tree when classifying unseen instances
 - An estimate of accuracy on unseen instances can be computed, e.g., by averaging over 4 runs:
 - split the example set into training set (e.g. 70%) and test set (e.g. 30%)
 - induce a decision tree from training set, compute its accuracy on test set
- Error = $1 - \text{Accuracy}$
- High error may indicate data overfitting

Overfitting and accuracy

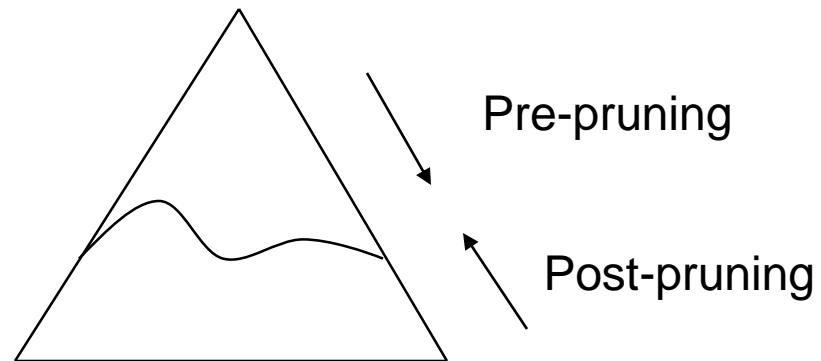
- Typical relation between tree size and accuracy



- Question: how to prune optimally?

Avoiding overfitting

- How can we avoid overfitting?
 - Pre-pruning (forward pruning): stop growing the tree e.g., when data split not statistically significant or too few examples are in a split
 - Post-pruning: grow full tree, then post-prune



- forward pruning considered inferior (myopic)
- post pruning makes use of sub trees

Selected decision/regression tree learners

- Decision tree learners
 - ID3 (Quinlan 1979)
 - CART (Breiman et al. 1984)
 - Assistant (Cestnik et al. 1987)
 - C4.5 (Quinlan 1993), C5 (See5, Quinlan)
 - J48 (available in WEKA)
- Regression tree learners, model tree learners
 - M5, M5P (implemented in WEKA)

Features of C4.5 and J48

- Implemented as part of the WEKA data mining workbench
- Handling noisy data: post-pruning
- Handling incompletely specified training instances: 'unknown' values (?)
 - in learning assign conditional probability of value v :
$$p(v|C) = p(vC) / p(C)$$
 - in classification: follow all branches, weighted by prior prob. of missing attribute values

Other features of C4.5

- Binarization of attribute values
 - for continuous values select a boundary value maximally increasing the informativity of the attribute: sort the values and try every possible split (done automatically)
 - for discrete values try grouping the values until two groups remain *
- ‘Majority’ classification in NULL leaf (with no corresponding training example)
 - if an example ‘falls’ into a NULL leaf during classification, the class assigned to this example is the majority class of the parent of the NULL leaf

* the basic C4.5 doesn't support binarisation of discrete attributes, it supports grouping

Appropriate problems for decision tree learning

- Classification problems: classify an instance into one of a discrete set of possible categories (medical diagnosis, classifying loan applicants, ...)
- Characteristics:
 - instances described by attribute-value pairs
(discrete or real-valued attributes)
 - target function has discrete output values
(boolean or multi-valued, if real-valued then regression trees)
 - disjunctive hypothesis may be required
 - training data may be noisy
(classification errors and/or errors in attribute values)
 - training data may contain missing attribute values

Classifier evaluation

- **Use of induced models**
 - discovery of new patterns, new knowledge
 - classification of new objects
- **Evaluating the quality of induced models**
 - Accuracy, Error = $1 - \text{Accuracy}$
 - classification accuracy on testing examples = percentage of correctly classified instances
 - split the example set into training set (e.g. 70%) to induce a concept, and test set (e.g. 30%) to test its accuracy
 - more elaborate strategies: 10-fold cross validation, leave-one-out, ...
 - comprehensibility (compactness)
 - information contents (information score), significance

n-fold cross validation

- A method for accuracy estimation of classifiers
- Partition set D into n disjoint, almost equally-sized folds T_i where $\bigcup_i T_i = D$
- **for** $i = 1, \dots, n$ **do**
 - form a training set out of $n-1$ folds: $D_i = D \setminus T_i$
 - induce classifier H_i from examples in D_i
 - use fold T_i for testing the accuracy of H_i
- Estimate the accuracy of the classifier by averaging accuracies over n folds T_i

Part II. Predictive DM techniques

- Decision tree learning
- Bayesian Classifier
- Rule learning
- Evaluation



Bayesian methods

- Bayesian methods – simple but powerful classification methods
 - Based on Bayesian formula

$$p(H | D) = \frac{p(D | H)}{p(D)} p(H)$$

- Main methods:
 - Naive Bayesian classifier
 - Semi-naïve Bayesian classifier
 - Bayesian networks *

* Out of scope of this course

Naïve Bayesian classifier

- Probability of class, for given attribute values

$$p(c_j | v_1 \dots v_n) = p(c_j) \cdot \frac{p(v_1 \dots v_n | c_j)}{p(v_1 \dots v_n)}$$

- For all C_j compute probability $p(C_j)$, given values v_i of all attributes describing the example which we want to classify (assumption: conditional independence of attributes, when estimating $p(C_j)$ and $p(C_j | v_i)$)

$$p(c_j | v_1 \dots v_n) \approx p(c_j) \cdot \prod_i \frac{p(c_j | v_i)}{p(c_j)}$$

- Output C_{MAX} with maximal posterior probability of class:

$$C_{MAX} = \arg \max_{c_j} p(c_j | v_1 \dots v_n)$$

Semi-naïve Bayesian classifier

- Naive Bayesian estimation of probabilities (reliable)

$$\frac{p(c_j | v_i)}{p(c_j)} \cdot \frac{p(c_j | v_k)}{p(c_j)}$$

- Semi-naïve Bayesian estimation of probabilities (less reliable)

$$\frac{p(c_j | v_i, v_k)}{p(c_j)}$$

Probability estimation

- Relative frequency:

$$p(c_j) = \frac{n(c_j)}{N}, p(c_j | v_i) = \frac{n(c_j, v_i)}{n(v_i)} \quad j = 1..k, \text{ for } k \text{ classes}$$

$$[6+, 1-] (7) = 6/7$$

problems with small samples

$$[2+, 0-] (2) = 2/2 = 1$$

- Laplace estimate (prior probability):

$$p(c_j) = \frac{n(c_j) + 1}{N + k} \quad \text{assumes uniform prior distribution of } k \text{ classes}$$

$$[6+, 1-] (7) = 6+1 / 7+2 = 7/9$$

$$[2+, 0-] (2) = 2+1 / 2+2 = 3/4$$

Probability estimation

- Relative frequency:

$$p(c_j) = \frac{n(c_j)}{N}, p(c_j | v_i) = \frac{n(c_j, v_i)}{n(v_i)} \quad j = 1..k, \text{ for } k \text{ classes}$$

- Prior probability: Laplace law

$$p(c_j) = \frac{n(c_j) + 1}{N + k}$$

- m-estimate:

$$p(c_j) = \frac{n(c_j) + m \cdot p_a(c_j)}{N + m}$$

Probability estimation: intuition

- Experiment with N trials, n successful
- Estimate probability of success of next trial
- **Relative frequency: n/N**
 - reliable estimate when number of trials is large
 - Unreliable when number of trials is small, e.g., $1/1=1$
- **Laplace: $(n+1)/(N+2)$, $(n+1)/(N+k)$, k classes**
 - Assumes uniform distribution of classes
- **m -estimate: $(n+m.p_a)/(N+m)$**
 - Prior probability of success p_a , parameter m (weight of prior probability, i.e., number of ‘virtual’ examples)

Explanation of Bayesian classifier

- Based on information theory
 - Expected number of bits needed to encode a message = optimal code length $-\log p$ for a message, whose probability is p (*)
- Explanation based of the sum of information gains of individual attribute values v_i (Kononenko and Bratko 1991, Kononenko 1993)

$$\begin{aligned} & -\log(p(c_j | v_1 \dots v_n)) = \\ & = -\log(p(c_j)) - \sum_{i=1}^n (-\log p(c_j) + \log(p(c_j | v_i))) \end{aligned}$$

* $\log p$ denotes binary logarithm

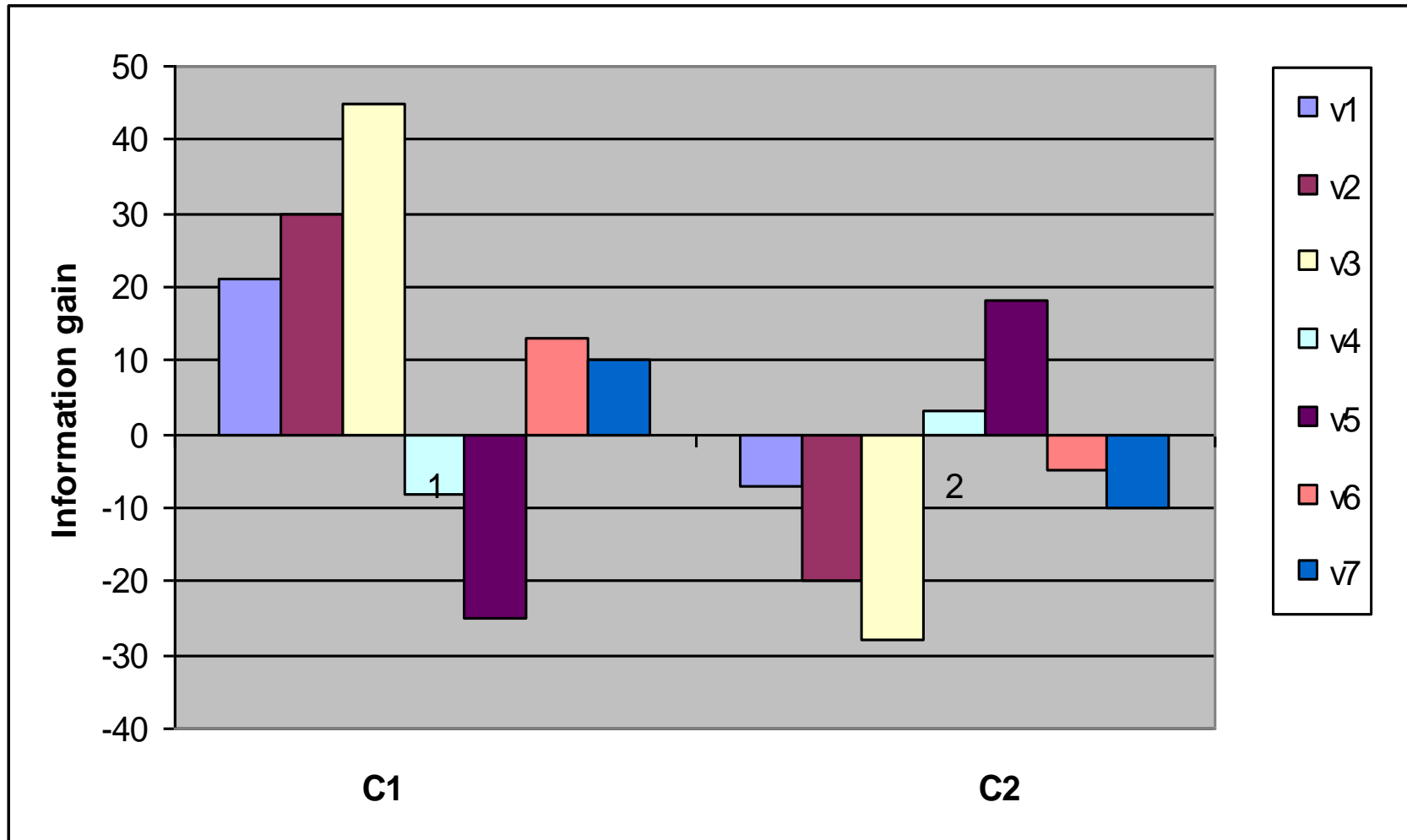
Example of explanation of semi-naïve Bayesian classifier

Hip surgery prognosis

Class = no (“no complications”, most probable class, 2 class problem)

Attribute value	For decision (bit)	Against (bit)
Age = 70-80	0.07	
Sex = Female		-0.19
Mobility before injury = Fully mobile	0.04	
State of health before injury = Other	0.52	
Mechanism of injury = Simple fall		-0.08
Additional injuries = None	0	
Time between injury and operation > 10 days	0.42	
Fracture classification acc. To Garden = Garden III		-0.3
Fracture classification acc. To Pauwels = Pauwels III		-0.14
Transfusion = Yes	0.07	
Antibiotic profilaxies = Yes		-0.32
Hospital rehabilitation = Yes	0.05	
General complications = None		0
Combination:	0.21	
Time between injury and examination < 6 hours		
AND Hospitalization time between 4 and 5 weeks		
Combination:	0.63	
Therapy = Arthroplastic AND anticoagulant therapy = Yes		

Visualization of information gains for/against C_i



Naïve Bayesian classifier

- Naïve Bayesian classifier can be used
 - when we have sufficient number of training examples for reliable probability estimation
- It achieves good classification accuracy
 - can be used as ‘gold standard’ for comparison with other classifiers
- Resistant to noise (errors)
 - Reliable probability estimation
 - Uses all available information
- Successful in many application domains
 - Web page and document classification
 - Medical diagnosis and prognosis, ...

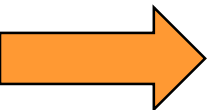
Improved classification accuracy due to using m-estimate

	Primary tumor	Breast cancer	thyroid	Rheumatology
#instan	339	288	884	355
#class	22	2	4	6
#attrib	17	10	15	32
#values	2	2.7	9.1	9.1
majority	25%	80%	56%	66%
entropy	3.64	0.72	1.59	1.7

	Relative freq.	m-estimate
Primary tumor	48.20%	52.50%
Breast cancer	77.40%	79.70%
hepatitis	58.40%	90.00%
lymphography	79.70%	87.70%

Part II. Predictive DM techniques

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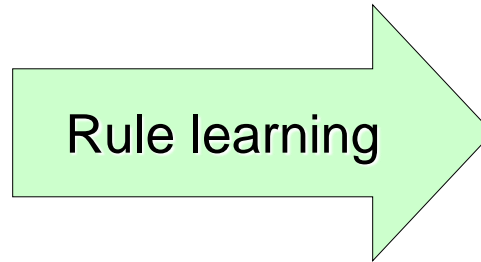


Rule Learning

Person	Age	Spect. presc.	Astigm.	Tear prod.	Lenses
O1	young	myope	no	reduced	NONE
O2	young	myope	no	normal	SOFT
O3	young	myope	yes	reduced	NONE
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O15	pre-presbyc	hypermetrope	yes	reduced	NONE
O16	pre-presbyc	hypermetrope	yes	normal	NONE
O17	presbyopic	myope	no	reduced	NONE
O18	presbyopic	myope	no	normal	NONE
O19-O23
O24	presbyopic	hypermetrope	yes	normal	NONE

data

knowledge discovery
from data



Model: a set of rules

Patterns: individual rules

Given: transaction data table, relational database (a set of objects, described by attribute values)

Find: a classification model in the form of a set of rules;
or a set of interesting patterns in the form of individual rules

Rule set representation

- Rule base is a disjunctive set of conjunctive rules
- Standard form of rules:
 - IF Condition THEN Class
 - Class IF Conditions
 - Class \leftarrow Conditions
- Form of CN2 rules:
 - IF Conditions THEN MajClass [ClassDistr]
- Rule base: {R1, R2, R3, ..., DefaultRule}

Contact lens data: Classification rules

Type of task: prediction and classification

Hypothesis language: rules $X \rightarrow C$, if X then C
X conjunction of attribute values, C class

tear production=reduced \rightarrow **lenses=NONE**

tear production=normal & astigmatism=yes &
spect. pre.=hypermetrope \rightarrow **lenses=NONE**

tear production=normal & astigmatism=no \rightarrow **lenses=SOFT**

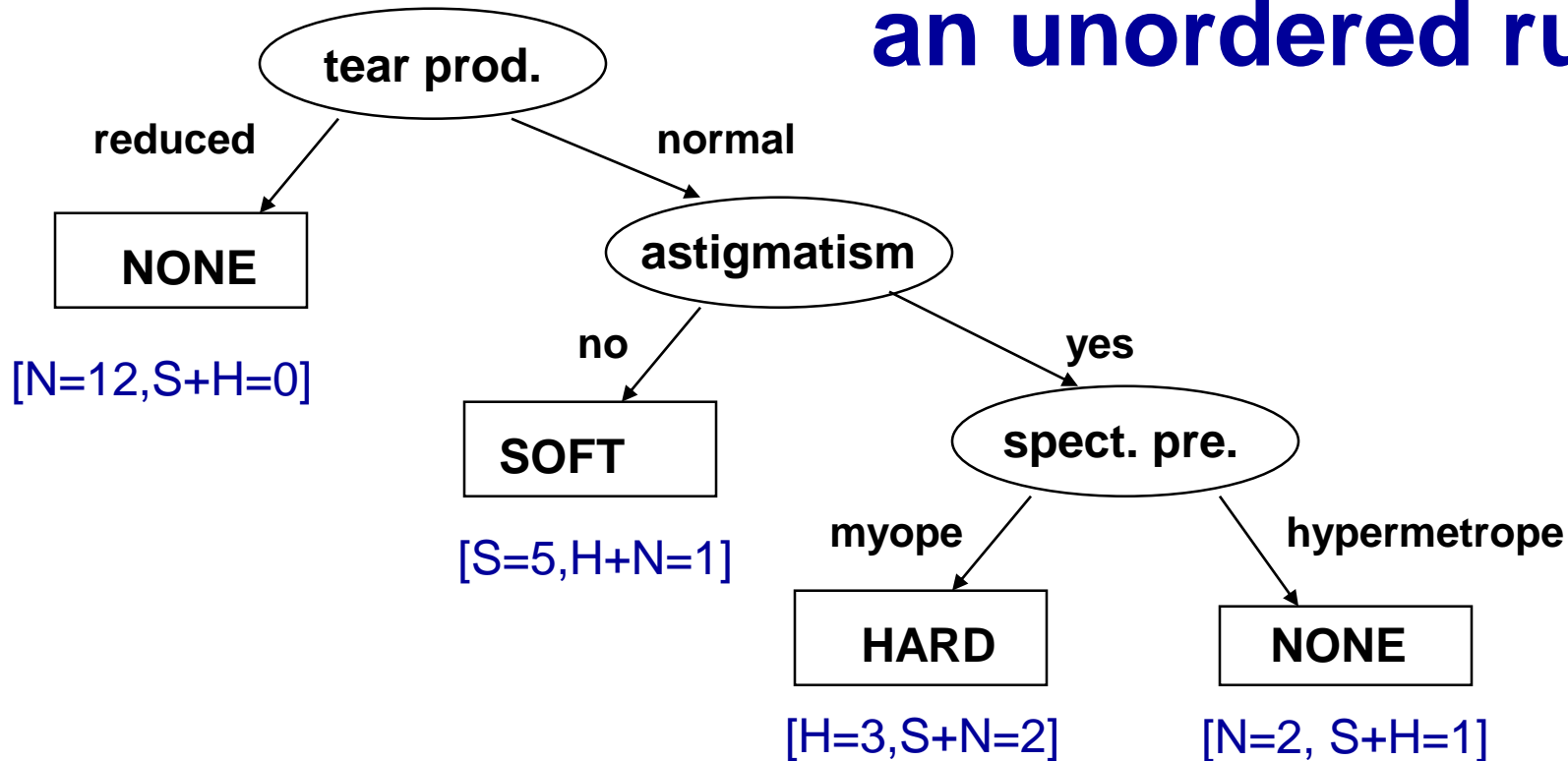
tear production=normal & astigmatism=yes &
spect. pre.=myope \rightarrow **lenses=HARD**

DEFAULT **lenses=NONE**

Rule learning

- Two rule learning approaches:
 - Learn decision tree, convert to rules
 - Learn set/list of rules
 - Learning an unordered set of rules
 - Learning an ordered list of rules
- Heuristics, overfitting, pruning

Contact lenses: convert decision tree to an unordered rule set



tear production=reduced \Rightarrow lenses=NONE $[S=0, H=0, N=12]$

tear production=normal & astigmatism=yes & spect. pre.=hypermetrope \Rightarrow
lenses=NONE $[S=0, H=1, N=2]$

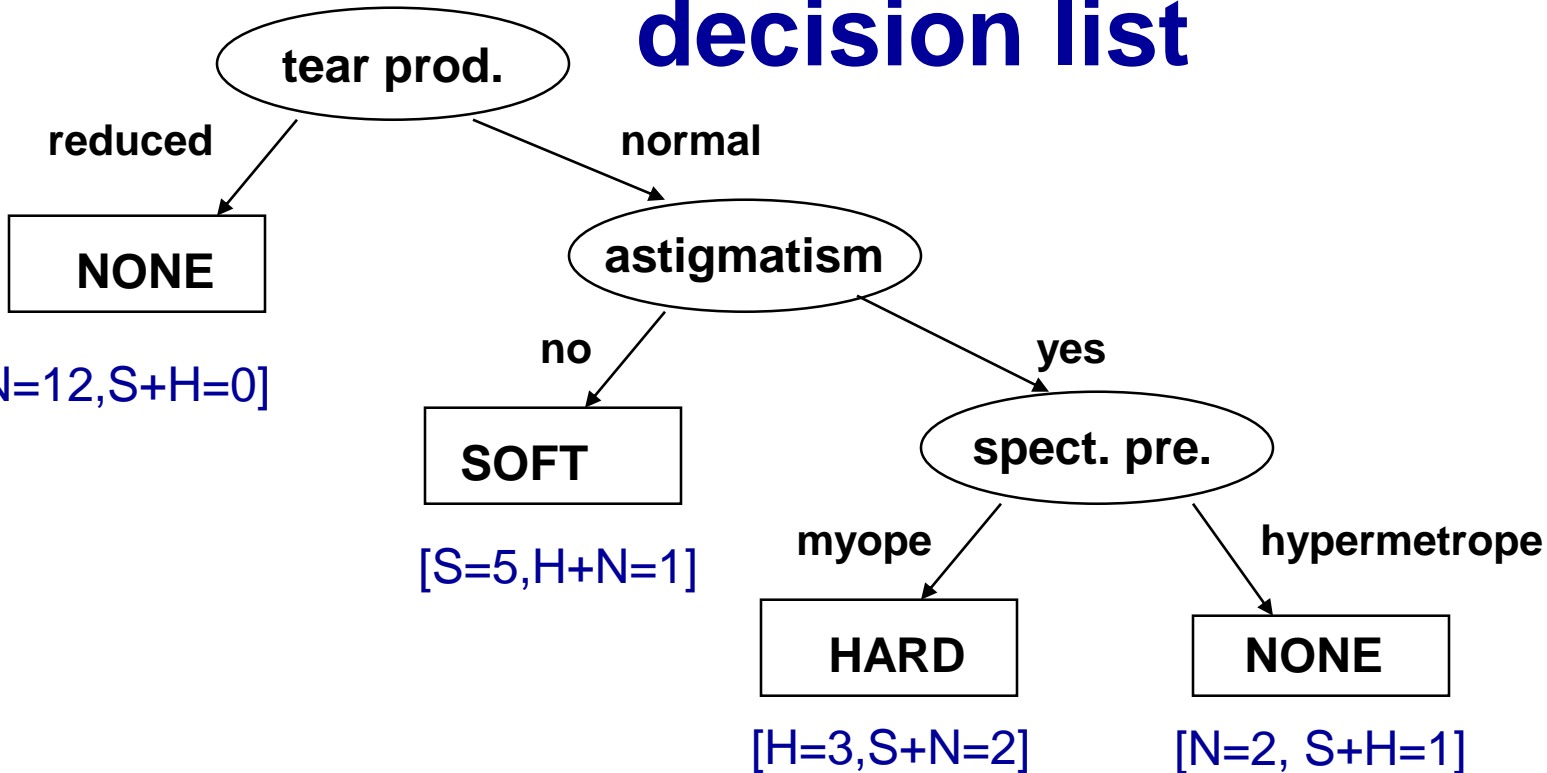
tear production=normal & astigmatism=no \Rightarrow lenses=SOFT $[S=5, H=0, N=1]$

tear production=normal & astigmatism=yes & spect. pre.=myope \Rightarrow lenses=HARD
 $[S=0, H=3, N=2]$

DEFAULT lenses=NONE

Order independent rule set (may overlap)

Contact lenses: convert decision tree to decision list



```

IF tear production=reduced THEN lenses=NONE
ELSE /*tear production=normal*/
  IF astigmatism=no THEN lenses=SOFT
  ELSE /*astigmatism=yes*/
    IF spect. pre.=myope THEN lenses=HARD
    ELSE /* spect.pre.=hypermetrope*/
      lenses=NONE
  
```

Ordered (order dependent) rule list

Converting decision tree to rules, and rule post-pruning (Quinlan 1993)

- Very frequently used method, e.g., in C4.5 and J48
- Procedure:
 - grow a full tree (allowing overfitting)
 - convert the tree to an equivalent set of rules
 - prune each rule independently of others
 - sort final rules into a desired sequence for use

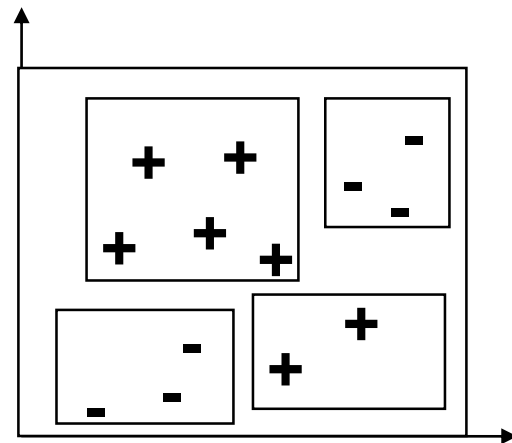
Concept learning: Task reformulation for rule learning: (pos. vs. neg. examples of Target class)

Person	Age	Spect. presc.	Astigm.	Tear prod.	Lenses
O1	17	myope	no	reduced	NO
O2	23	myope	no	normal	YES
O3	22	myope	yes	reduced	NO
O4	27	myope	yes	normal	YES
O5	19	hypermetrope	no	reduced	NO
O6-O13
O14	35	hypermetrope	no	normal	YES
O15	43	hypermetrope	yes	reduced	NO
O16	39	hypermetrope	yes	normal	NO
O17	54	myope	no	reduced	NO
O18	62	myope	no	normal	NO
O19-O23
O24	56	hypermetrope	yes	normal	NO

Original covering algorithm (AQ, Michalski 1969,86)

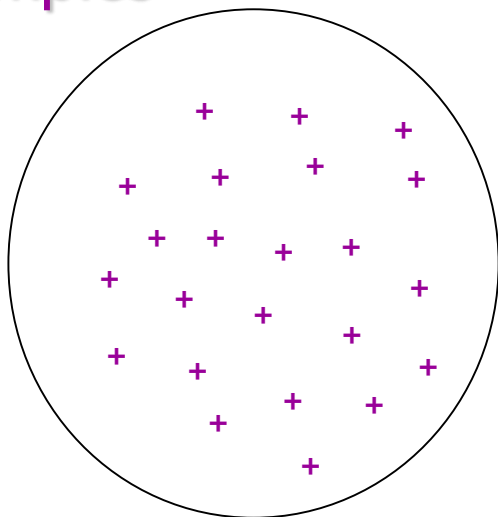
Given examples of N classes C_1, \dots, C_N
for each class C_i **do**

- $E_i := P_i \cup N_i$ (P_i pos., N_i neg.)
- $\text{RuleBase}(C_i) := \text{empty}$
- **repeat {learn-set-of-rules}**
 - **learn-one-rule** R covering some positive examples and no negatives
 - add R to $\text{RuleBase}(C_i)$
 - delete from P_i all pos. ex. covered by R
- **until** $P_i = \text{empty}$

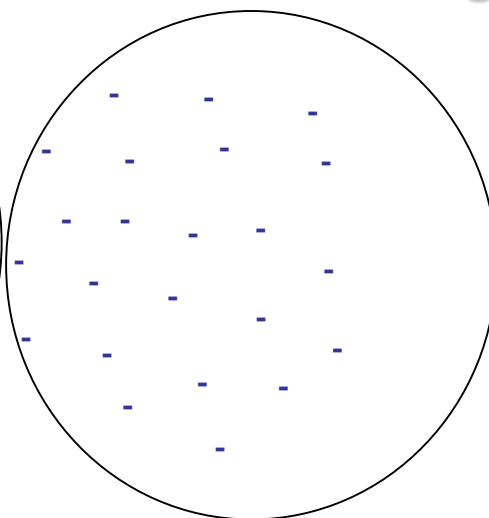


Covering algorithm

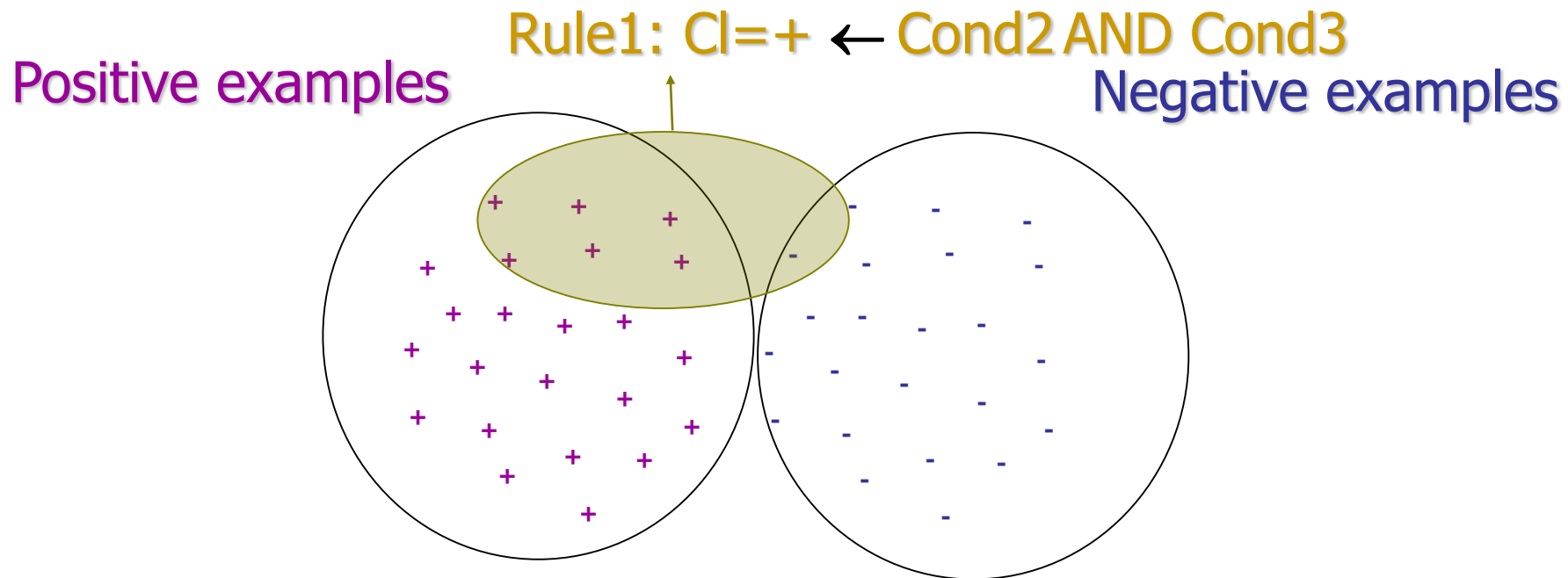
Positive examples



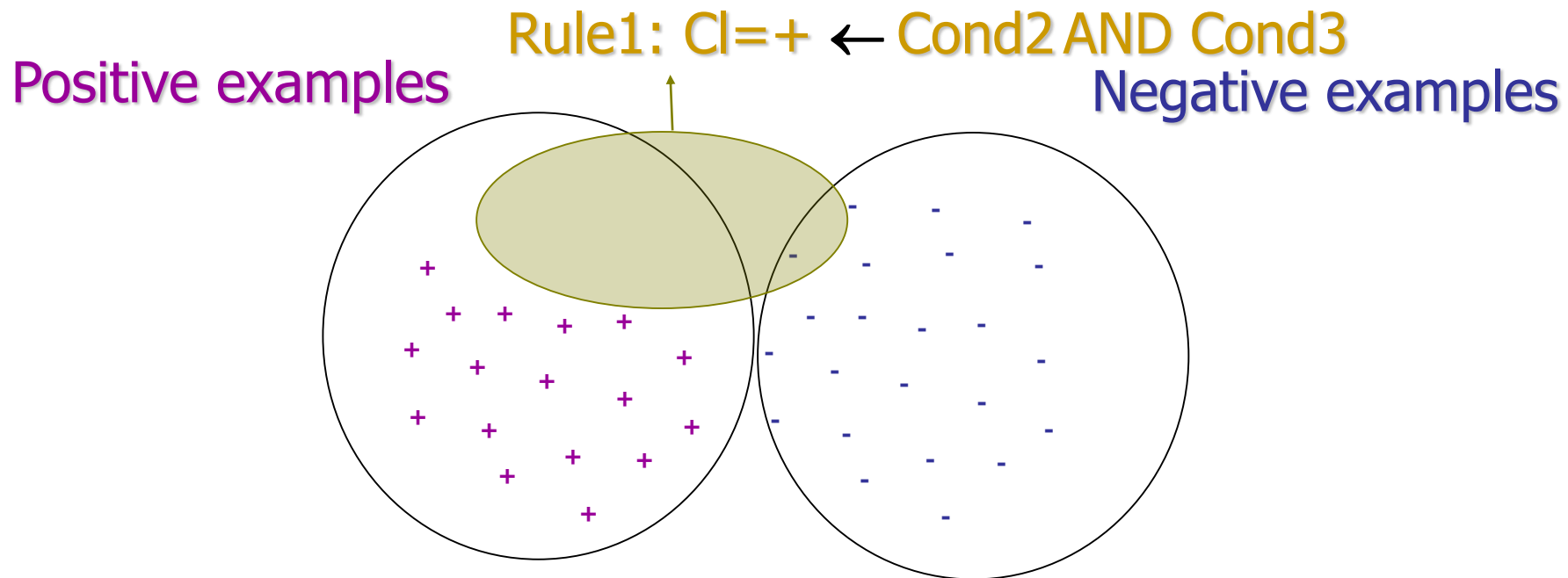
Negative examples



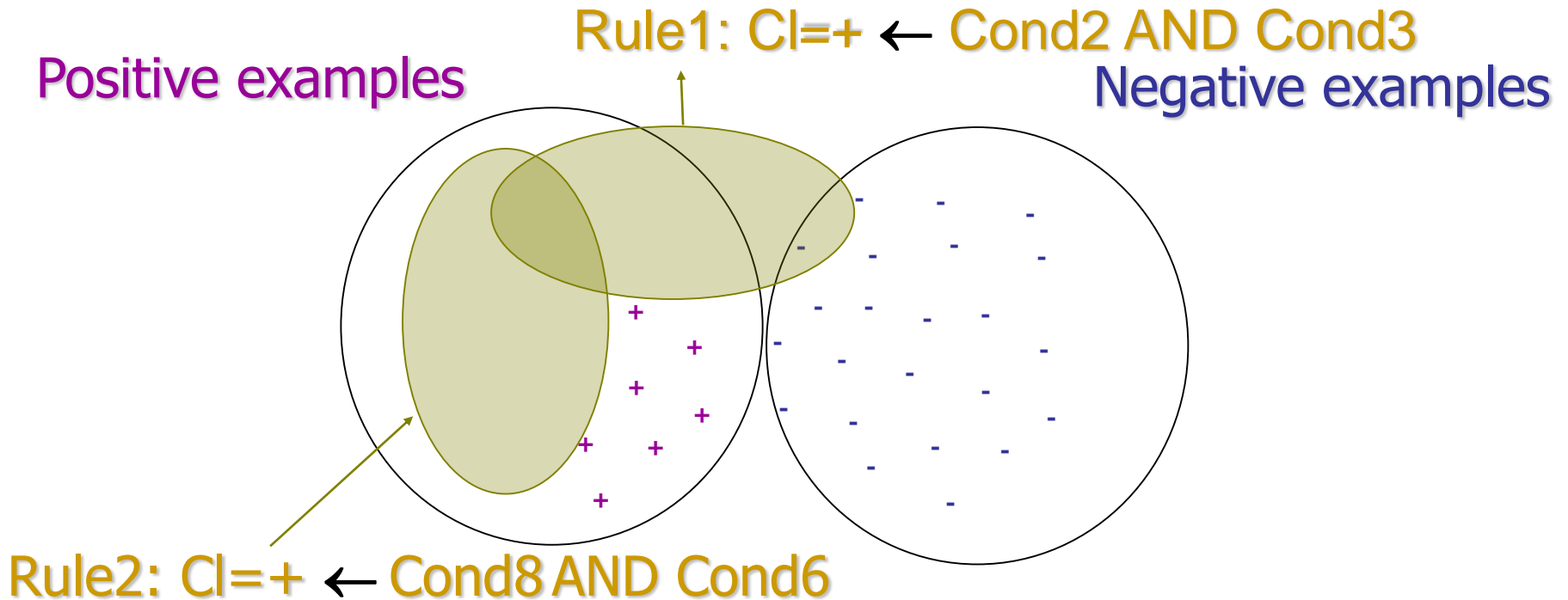
Covering algorithm



Covering algorithm



Covering algorithm



Probability estimates

- **Relative frequency :**
 - problems with small samples

$$p(\text{Class} | \text{Cond}) = \frac{n(\text{Class}.\text{Cond})}{n(\text{Cond})}$$

$$[6+,1-] (7) = 6/7$$

$$[2+,0-] (2) = 2/2 = 1$$

- **Laplace estimate :**
 - assumes uniform prior distribution of k classes

$$= \frac{n(\text{Class}.\text{Cond}) + 1}{n(\text{Cond}) + k} \quad k = 2$$

$$[6+,1-] (7) = 6+1 / 7+2 = 7/9$$

$$[2+,0-] (2) = 2+1 / 2+2 = 3/4$$

Learn-one-rule: search heuristics

- Assume a two-class problem
- Two classes (+,-), learn rules for + class (CI).
- Search for specializations R' of a rule $R = CI \leftarrow \text{Cond}$ from the RuleBase.
- Specialization R' of rule $R = CI \leftarrow \text{Cond}$
has the form $R' = CI \leftarrow \text{Cond} \ \& \ \text{Cond}'$
- Heuristic search for rules: find the 'best' Cond' to be added to the current rule R , such that rule accuracy is improved, e.g., such that $\text{Acc}(R') > \text{Acc}(R)$
 - where the expected **classification accuracy** can be estimated as $A(R) = p(CI|\text{Cond})$

Learn-one-rule: Greedy vs. beam search

- learn-one-rule by greedy general-to-specific search, at each step selecting the `best' descendant, no backtracking
 - e.g., the best descendant of the initial rule
 `lenses=NONE` ←
 - is rule `lenses=NONE` ← tear production=reduced
- beam search: maintain a list of k best candidates at each step; descendants (specializations) of each of these k candidates are generated, and the resulting set is again reduced to k best candidates

What is “high” rule accuracy (rule precision) ?

- Rule evaluation measures:
 - aimed at maximizing classification accuracy
 - minimizing Error = 1 - Accuracy
 - avoiding overfitting
- BUT: Rule accuracy/precision should be traded off against the “default” accuracy/precision of the rule **CI ← true**
 - 68% accuracy is OK if there are 20% examples of that class in the training set, but bad if there are 80%
- **Relative accuracy** (*relative precision*)
 - $\text{RAcc}(\text{CI} \leftarrow \text{Cond}) = p(\text{CI} \mid \text{Cond}) - p(\text{CI})$

Learn-one-rule: search heuristics

- Assume two classes (+,-), learn rules for + class (Cl). Search for specializations of one rule $R = Cl \leftarrow Cond$ from RuleBase.
- Expected **classification accuracy**: $A(R) = p(Cl|Cond)$
- **Informativity** (info needed to specify that example covered by Cond belongs to Cl): $I(R) = -\log_2 p(Cl|Cond)$
- **Accuracy gain** (increase in expected accuracy):
 $AG(R',R) = p(Cl|Cond') - p(Cl|Cond)$
- **Information gain** (decrease in the information needed):
 $IG(R',R) = \log_2 p(Cl|Cond') - \log_2 p(Cl|Cond)$
- **Weighted** measures favoring more general rules: WAG, WIG
 $WAG(R',R) =$
 $p(Cond')/p(Cond) \cdot (p(Cl|Cond') - p(Cl|Cond))$
- **Weighted relative accuracy** trades off coverage and relative accuracy $WRAcc(R) = p(Cond) \cdot (p(Cl|Cond) - p(Cl))$

Ordered set of rules: if-then-else rules

- rule Class IF Conditions is learned by first determining Conditions and then Class
- **Notice:** mixed sequence of classes C_1, \dots, C_n in RuleBase
- **But: ordered** execution when classifying a new instance: rules are sequentially tried and the first rule that `fires' (covers the example) is used for classification
- **Decision list** $\{R_1, R_2, R_3, \dots, D\}$: rules R_i are interpreted as **if-then-else** rules
- If no rule fires, then DefaultClass (majority class in E_{cur})

Sequential covering algorithm

- RuleBase := empty
- $E_{\text{cur}} := E$
- **repeat**
 - learn-one-rule R
 - RuleBase := RuleBase U R
 - $E_{\text{cur}} := E_{\text{cur}} - \{\text{examples covered and correctly classified by R}\}$ **(DELETE ONLY POS. EX.!)**
 - **until** performance(R, E_{cur}) < ThresholdR
- RuleBase := sort RuleBase by performance(R,E)
- return RuleBase

Learn ordered set of rules (CN2, Clark and Niblett 1989)

- RuleBase := empty
- $E_{\text{cur}} := E$
- **repeat**
 - learn-one-rule R
 - RuleBase := RuleBase U R
 - $E_{\text{cur}} := E_{\text{cur}} - \{\text{all examples covered by R}\}$
(NOT ONLY POS. EX.!)
- **until** performance(R, E_{cur}) < ThresholdR
- RuleBase := sort RuleBase by performance(R, E)
- RuleBase := RuleBase U DefaultRule(E_{cur})

Learn-one-rule: Beam search in CN2

- Beam search in CN2 learn-one-rule algo.:
 - construct BeamSize of best rule bodies (conjunctive conditions) that are statistically significant
 - BestBody - min. entropy of examples covered by Body
 - construct best rule $R := \text{Head} \leftarrow \text{BestBody}$ by adding majority class of examples covered by BestBody in rule Head
- performance $(R, E_{\text{cur}}) : - \text{Entropy}(E_{\text{cur}})$
 - performance $(R, E_{\text{cur}}) < \text{ThresholdR}$ (neg. num.)
 - Why? Ent. $> t$ is bad, Perf. = $-\text{Ent} < -t$ is bad

Variations

- Sequential vs. simultaneous covering of data (as in TDIDT): choosing between attribute-values vs. choosing attributes
- Learning rules vs. learning decision trees and converting them to rules
- Pre-pruning vs. post-pruning of rules
- What statistical evaluation functions to use
- Probabilistic classification

- Best performing rule learning algorithm: Ripper
- JRip implementation of Ripper in WEKA, available in ClowdFlows

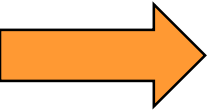
Probabilistic classification

- In the ordered case of standard CN2 rules are interpreted in an IF-THEN-ELSE fashion, and the first fired rule assigns the class.
- In the unordered case all rules are tried and all rules which fire are collected. If a clash occurs, a probabilistic method is used to resolve the clash.
- A simplified example:
 1. tear production=reduced => lenses=NONE [S=0,H=0,N=12]
 2. tear production=normal & astigmatism=yes & spect. pre.=hypermetrope => lenses=NONE [S=0,H=1,N=2]
 3. tear production=normal & astigmatism=no => lenses=SOFT [S=5,H=0,N=1]
 4. tear production=normal & astigmatism=yes & spect. pre.=myope => lenses=HARD [S=0,H=3,N=2]
 5. DEFAULT lenses=NONE

Suppose we want to classify a person with normal tear production and astigmatism. Two rules fire: rule 2 with coverage [S=0,H=1,N=2] and rule 4 with coverage [S=0,H=3,N=2]. The classifier computes total coverage as [S=0,H=4,N=4], resulting in probabilistic classification into class H with probability 0.5 and N with probability 0.5. In this case, the clash can not be resolved, as both probabilities are equal.

Part II. Predictive DM techniques

- Decision tree learning
- Bayesian Classifier
- Rule learning
- Evaluation



Classifier evaluation

- Accuracy and Error
- n-fold cross-validation
- Confusion matrix
- ROC

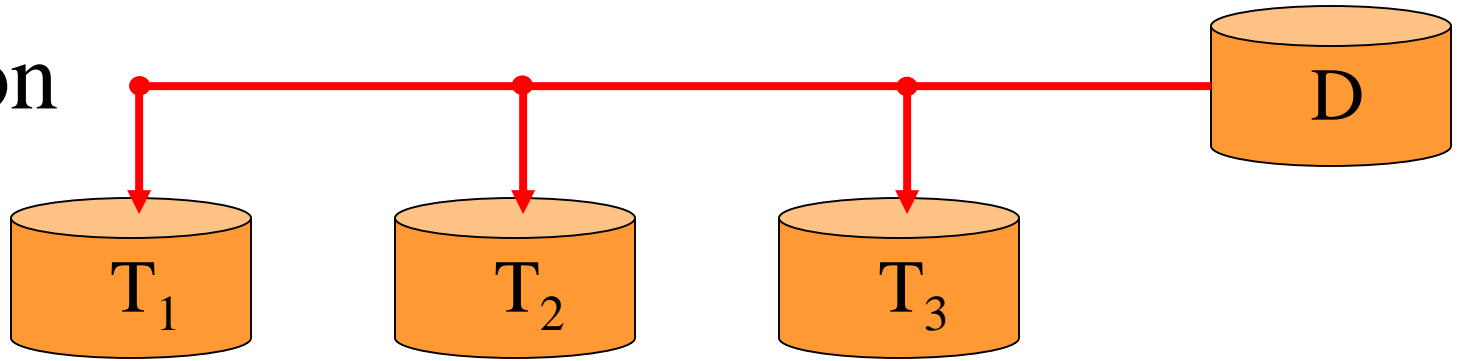
Evaluating hypotheses

- **Use of induced hypotheses**
 - discovery of new patterns, new knowledge
 - classification of new objects
- **Evaluating the quality of induced hypotheses**
 - Accuracy, $\text{Error} = 1 - \text{Accuracy}$
 - classification accuracy on testing examples = percentage of correctly classified instances
 - split the example set into training set (e.g. 70%) to induce a concept, and test set (e.g. 30%) to test its accuracy
 - more elaborate strategies: 10-fold cross validation, leave-one-out, ...
 - comprehensibility (compactness)
 - information contents (information score), significance

n-fold cross validation

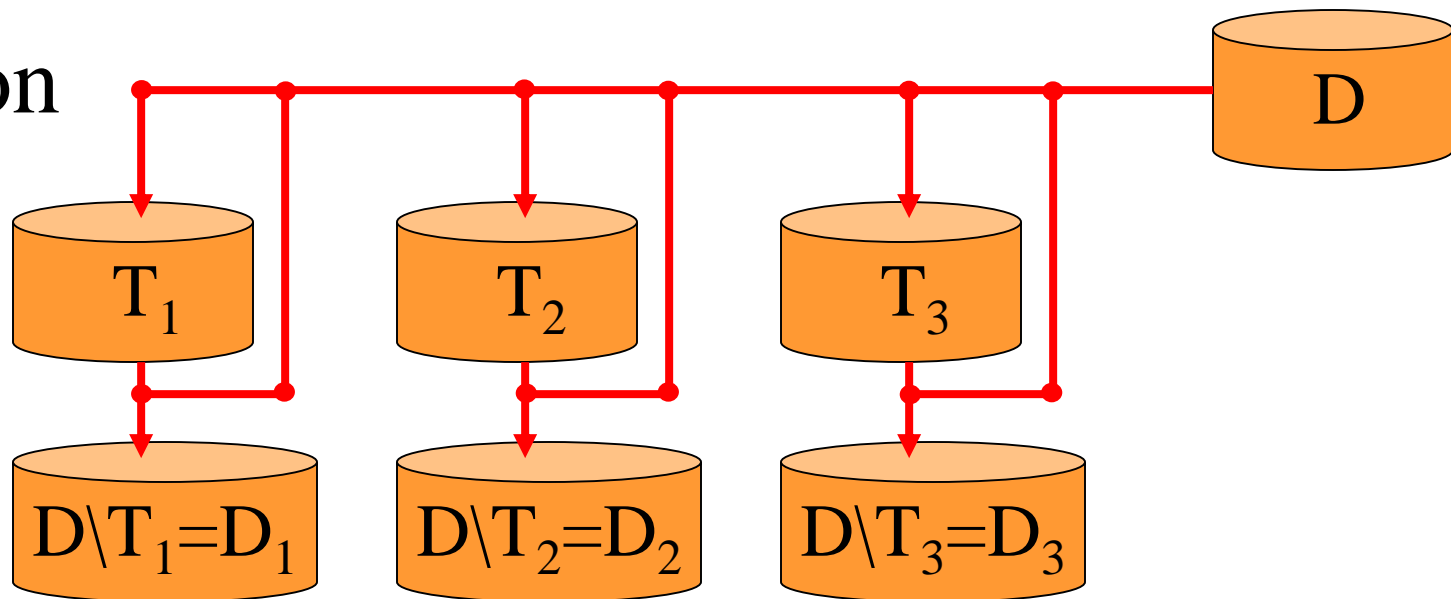
- A method for accuracy estimation of classifiers
- Partition set D into n disjoint, almost equally-sized folds T_i where $\bigcup_i T_i = D$
- **for** $i = 1, \dots, n$ **do**
 - form a training set out of $n-1$ folds: $D_i = D \setminus T_i$
 - induce classifier H_i from examples in D_i
 - use fold T_i for testing the accuracy of H_i
- Estimate the accuracy of the classifier by averaging accuracies over n folds T_i

• Partition



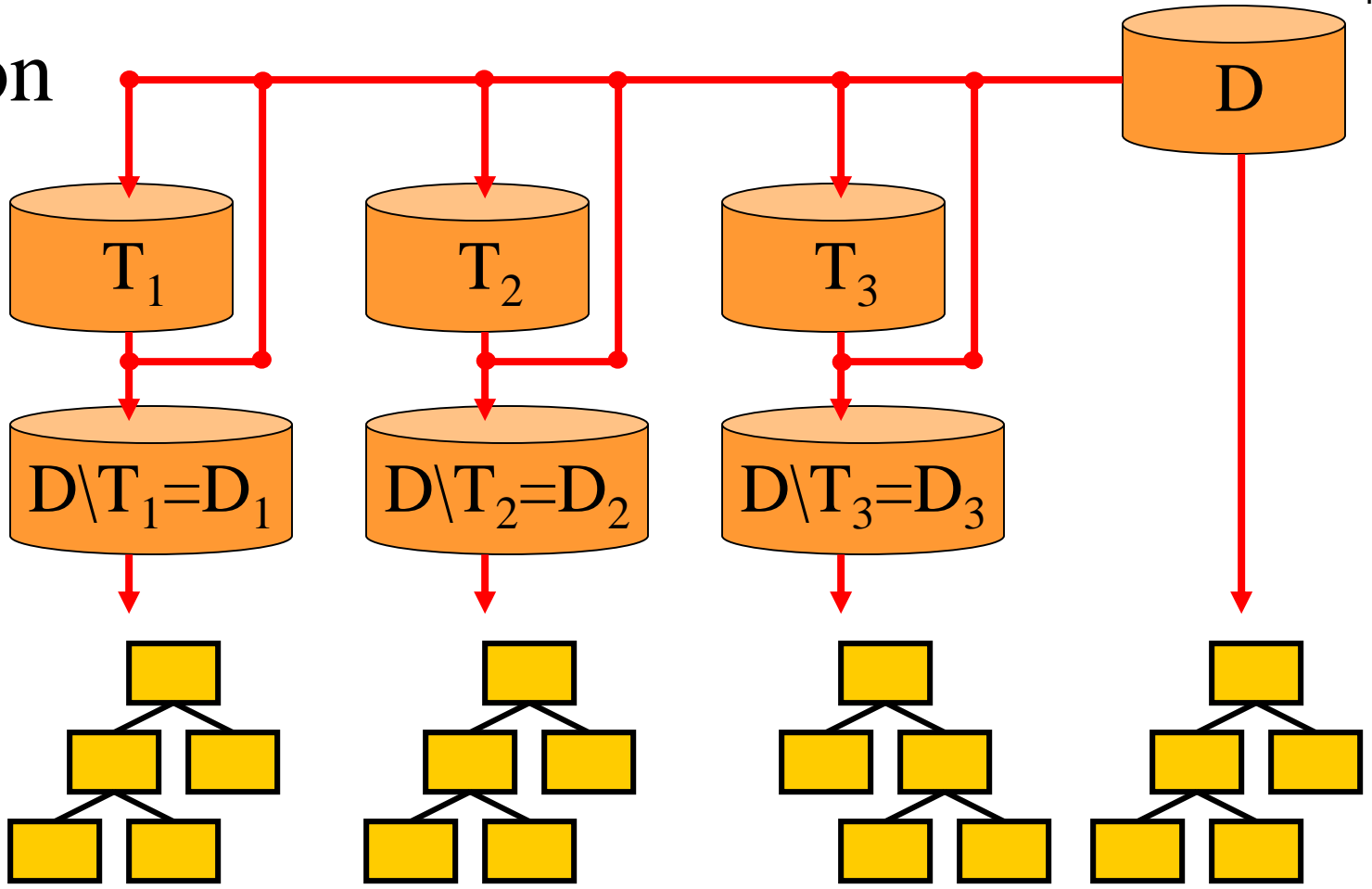
• Partition

• Train

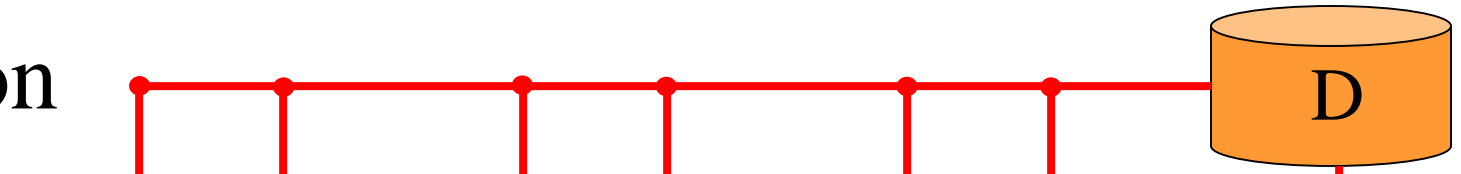


• Partition

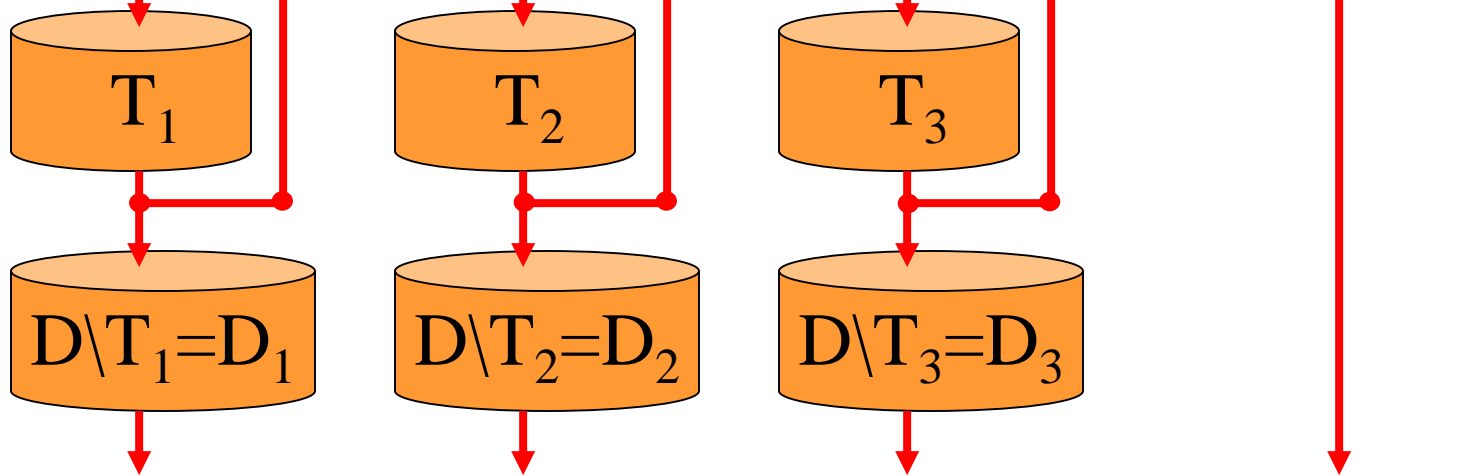
• Train



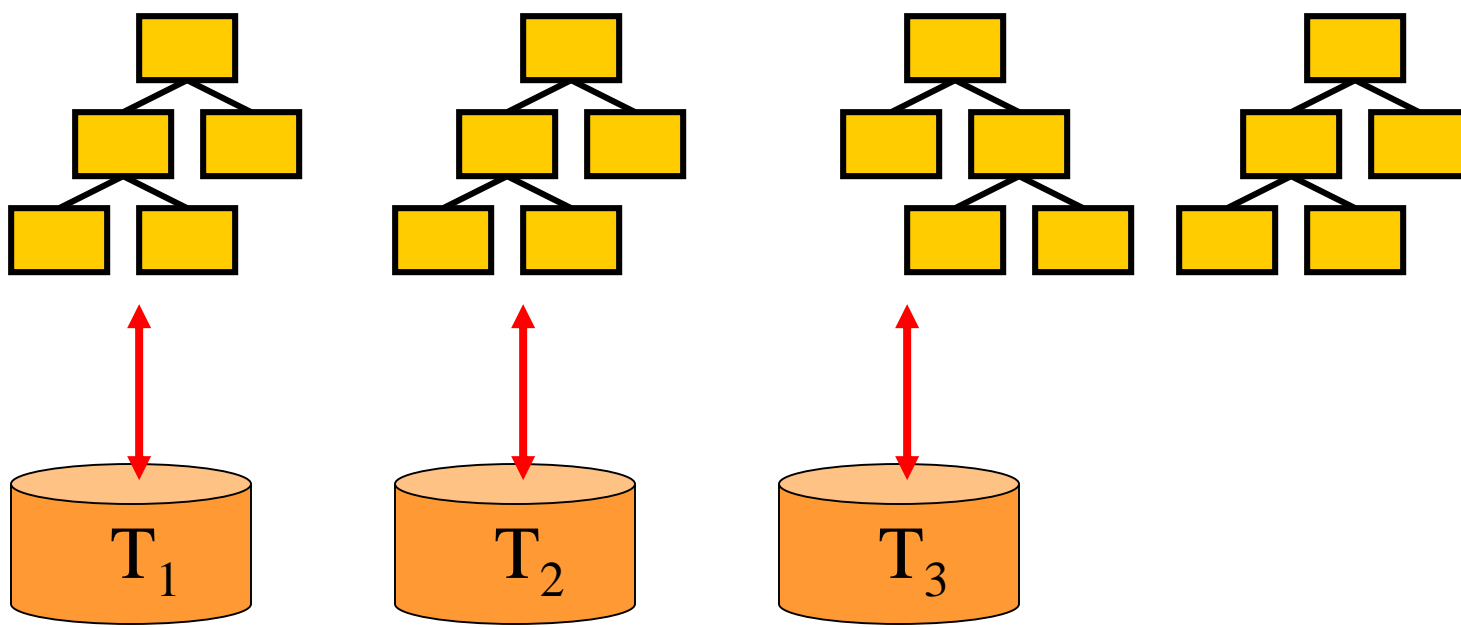
• Partition



• Train



• Test



Confusion matrix and rule (in)accuracy

- Accuracy of a classifier is measured as $TP+TN / N$.
- Suppose two rules are both 80% accurate on an evaluation dataset, are they always equally good?
 - e.g., Rule 1 correctly classifies 40 out of 50 positives and 40 out of 50 negatives; Rule 2 correctly classifies 30 out of 50 positives and 50 out of 50 negatives
 - on a test set which has more negatives than positives, Rule 2 is preferable;
 - on a test set which has more positives than negatives, Rule 1 is preferable; unless...
 - ...the proportion of positives becomes so high that the 'always positive' predictor becomes superior!
- Conclusion: classification accuracy is not always an appropriate rule quality measure

Confusion matrix

	Predicted positive	Predicted negative	
Positive examples	True positives	False negatives	
Negative examples	False positives	True negatives	

- also called *contingency table*

Classifier 1

	Predicted positive	Predicted negative	
Positive examples	40	10	50
Negative examples	10	40	50
	50	50	100

Classifier 2

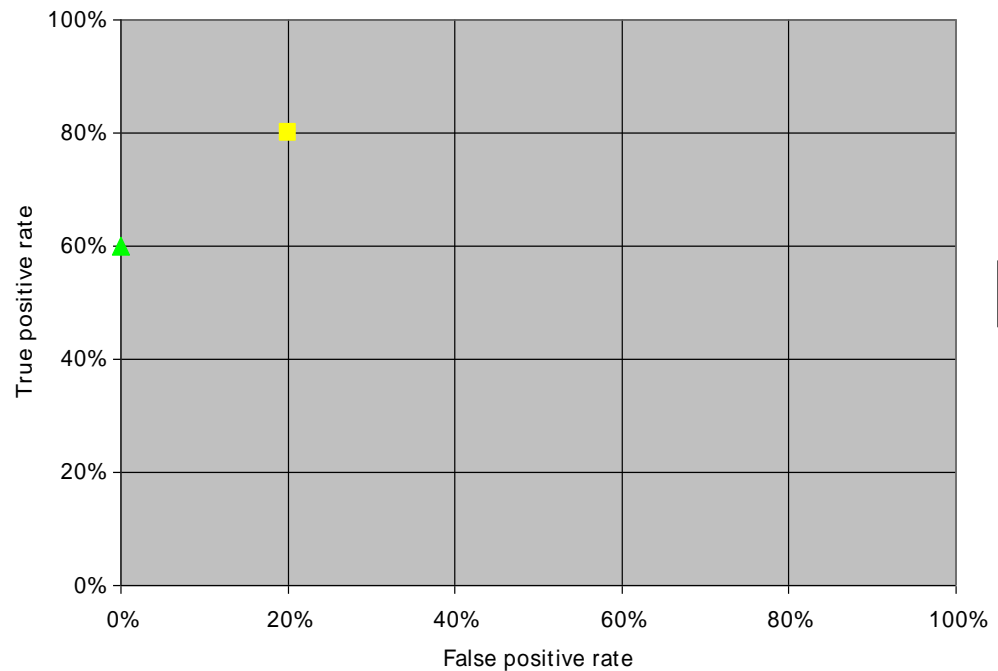
	Predicted positive	Predicted negative	
Positive examples	30	20	50
Negative examples	0	50	50
	30	70	100

ROC space

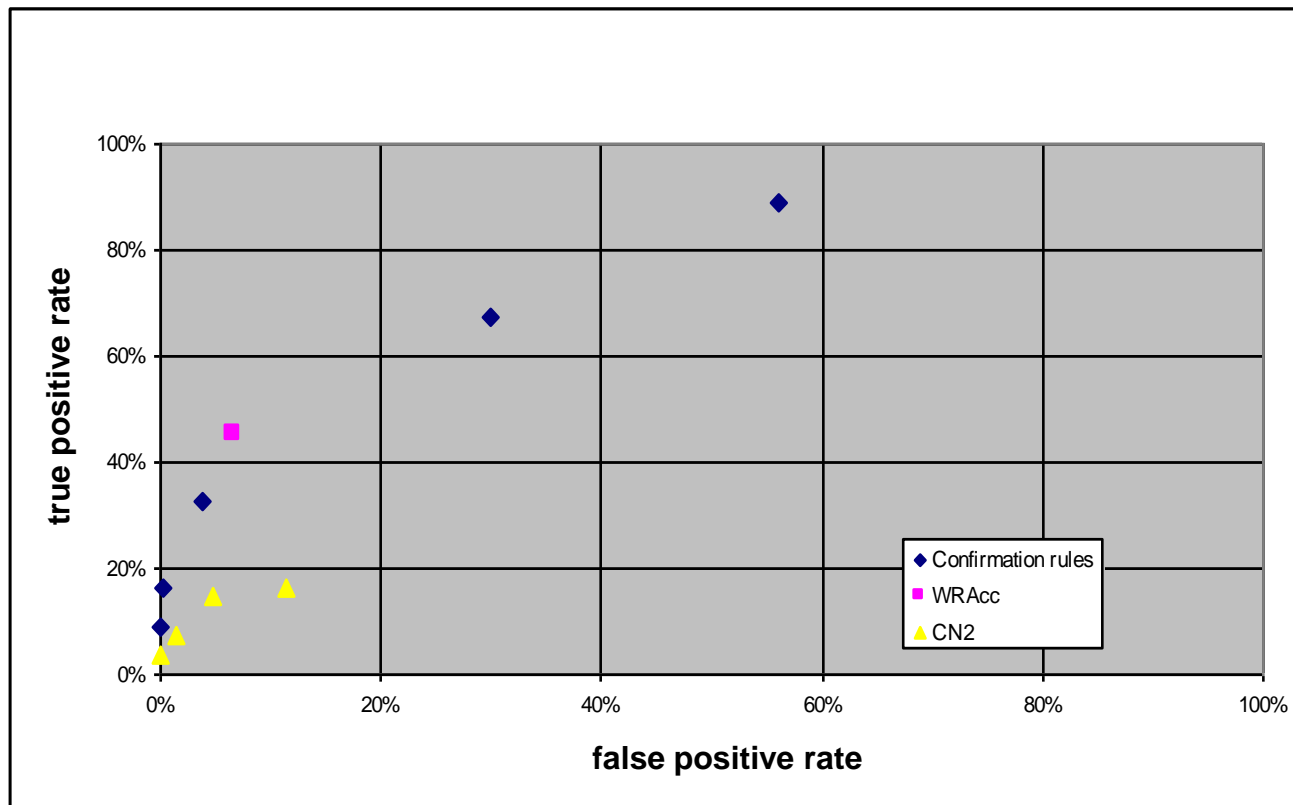
- **True positive rate** =
#true pos. / #pos.
 - $TPR_1 = 40/50 = 80\%$
 - $TPR_2 = 30/50 = 60\%$
- **False positive rate**
= #false pos. / #neg.
 - $FPR_1 = 10/50 = 20\%$
 - $FPR_2 = 0/50 = 0\%$
- **ROC space** has
 - FPr on X axis
 - TPr on Y axis

Classifier 1			
	Predicted positive	Predicted negative	
Positive examples	40	10	50
Negative examples	10	40	50
	50	50	100

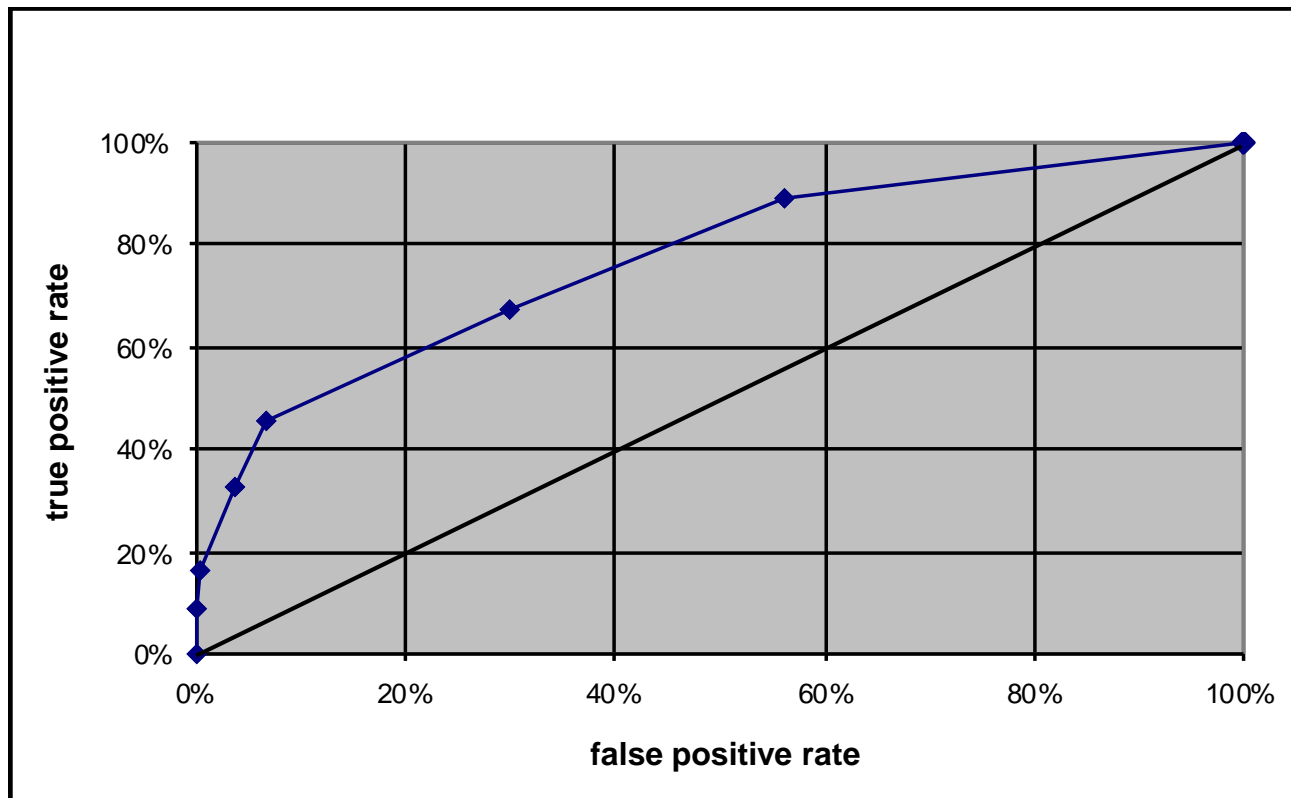
Classifier 2			
	Predicted positive	Predicted negative	
Positive examples	30	20	50
Negative examples	0	50	50
	30	70	100



The ROC space



The ROC convex hull



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- Data Mining and KDD process
- Introduction to Data Mining
- Data Mining platforms

II. Predictive DM Techniques

- Decision Tree learning
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- Classification rule learning
- Classifier Evaluation

III. Regression

IV. Descriptive DM

- Predictive vs. descriptive induction
- Subgroup discovery
- Association rule learning
- Hierarchical clustering

V. Relational Data Mining

- RDM and Inductive Logic Programming
- Propositionalization
- Semantic data mining

VI. Advanced Topics

III. Predictive DM – Regression

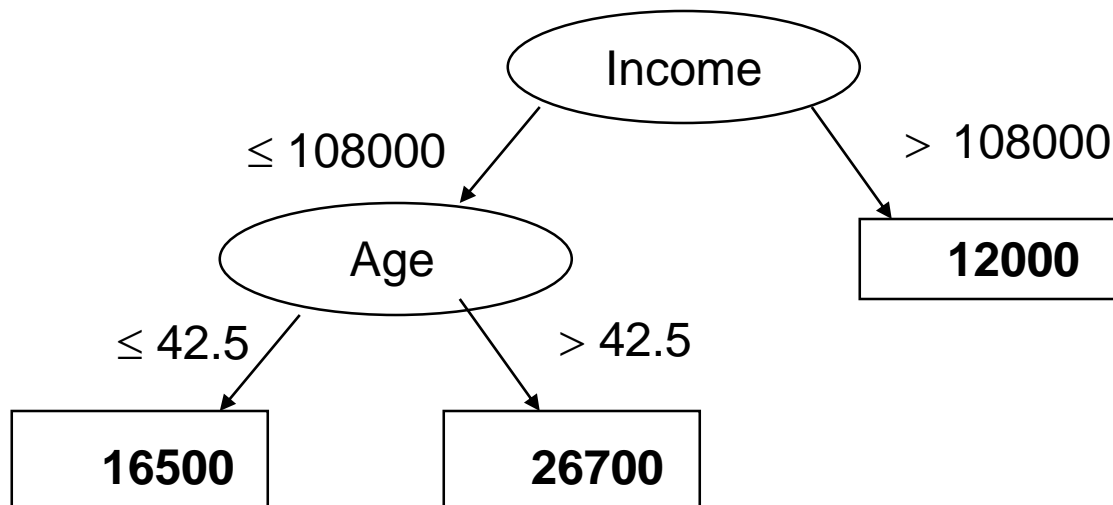
- often referred to as estimation or regression
- data are objects, characterized with attributes (discrete or continuous), classes of objects are continuous (numeric)
- given objects described with attribute values, induce a model to predict the numeric class value
- regression trees, linear and logistic regression, ANN, kNN, ...

Estimation/regression example:

Customer data

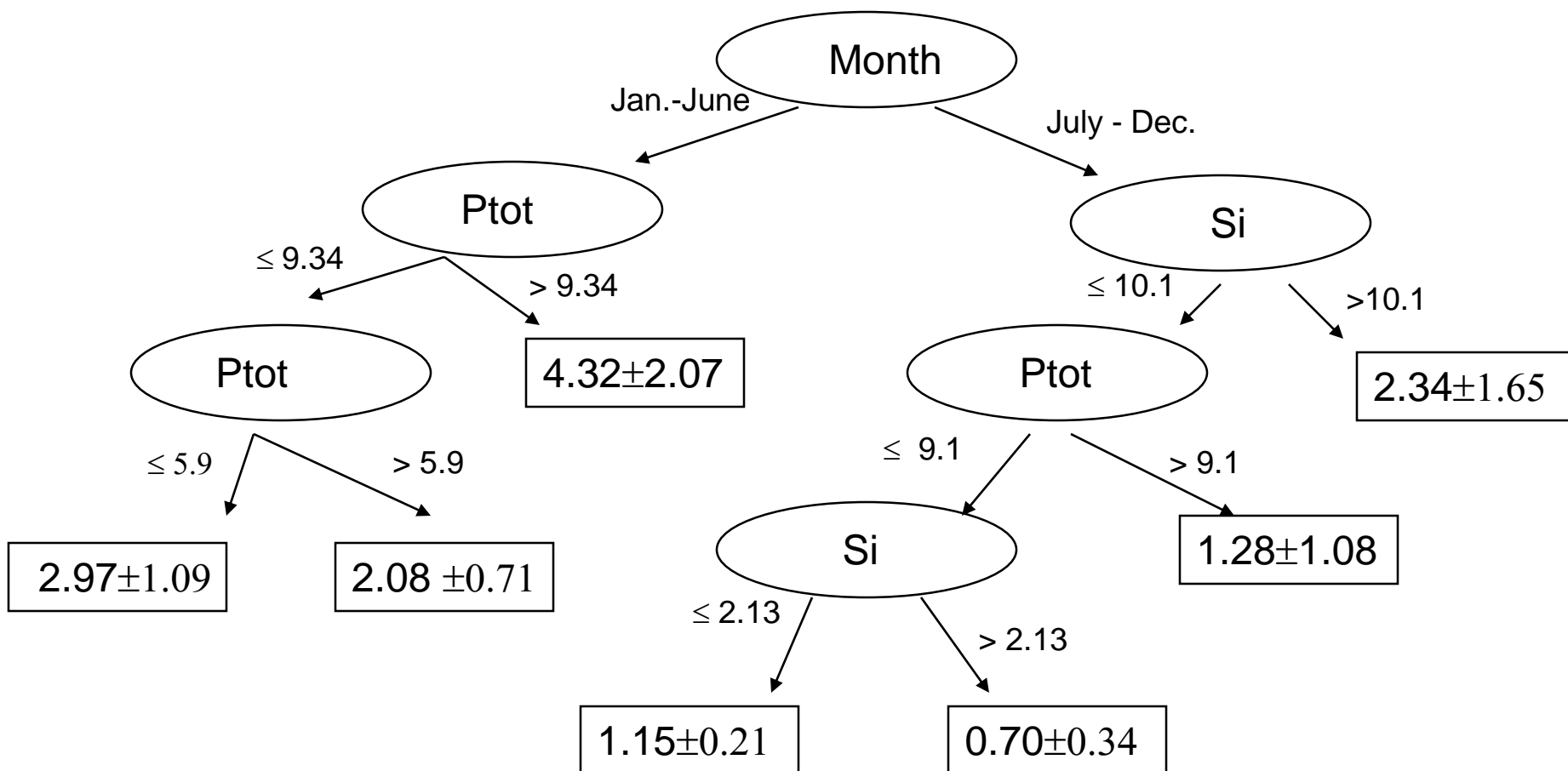
Customer	Gender	Age	Income	Spent	
c1	male	30	214000	18800	
c2	female	19	139000	15100	
c3	male	55	50000	12400	
c4	female	48	26000	8600	
c5	male	63	191000	28100	
O6-O13	
c14	female	61	95000	18100	
c15	male	56	44000	12000	
c16	male	36	102000	13800	
c17	female	57	215000	29300	
c18	male	33	67000	9700	
c19	female	26	95000	11000	
c20	female	55	214000	28800	

Customer data: regression tree

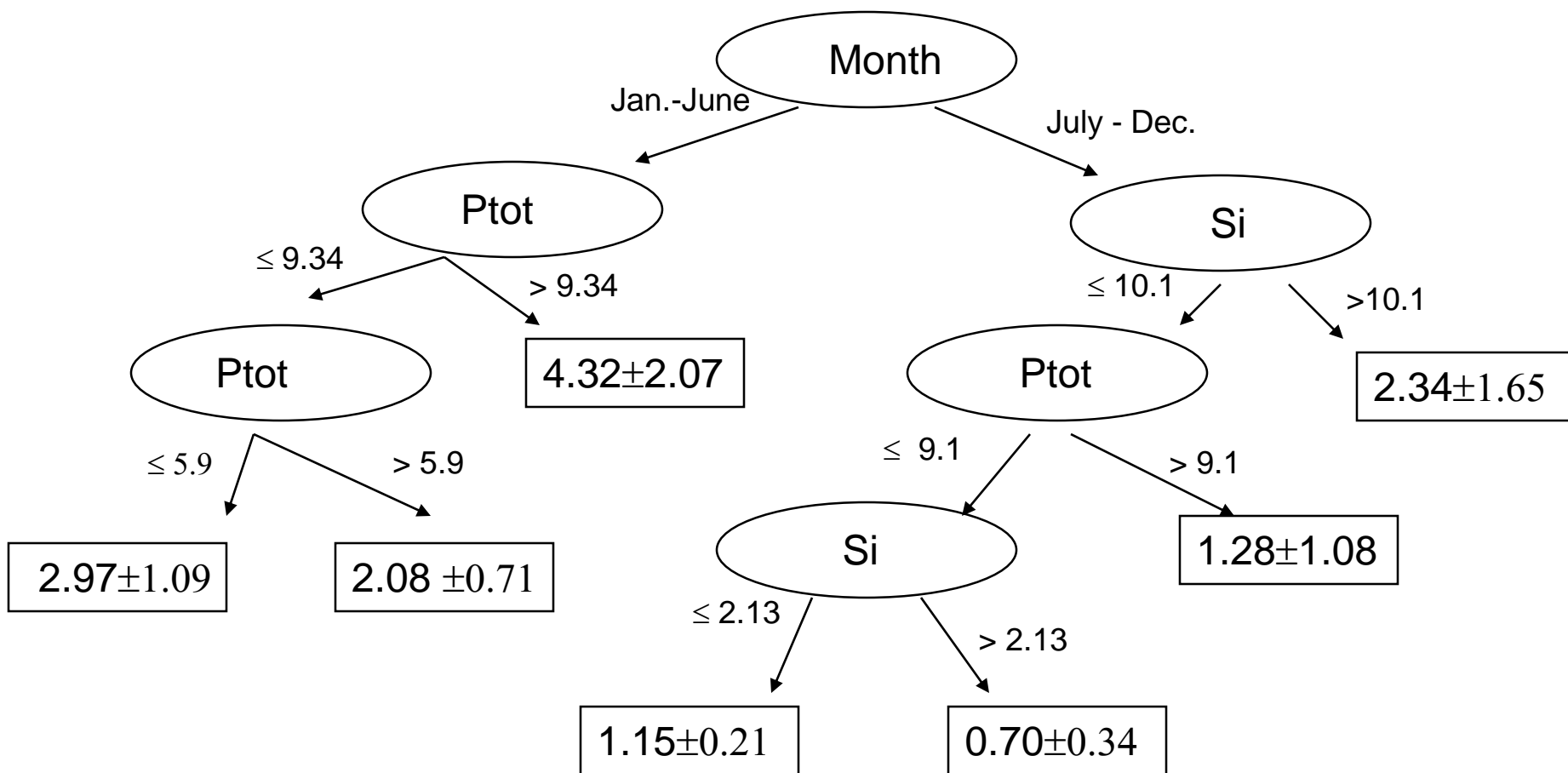


In the nodes one usually has
Predicted value +- st. deviation

Predicting algal biomass: regression tree



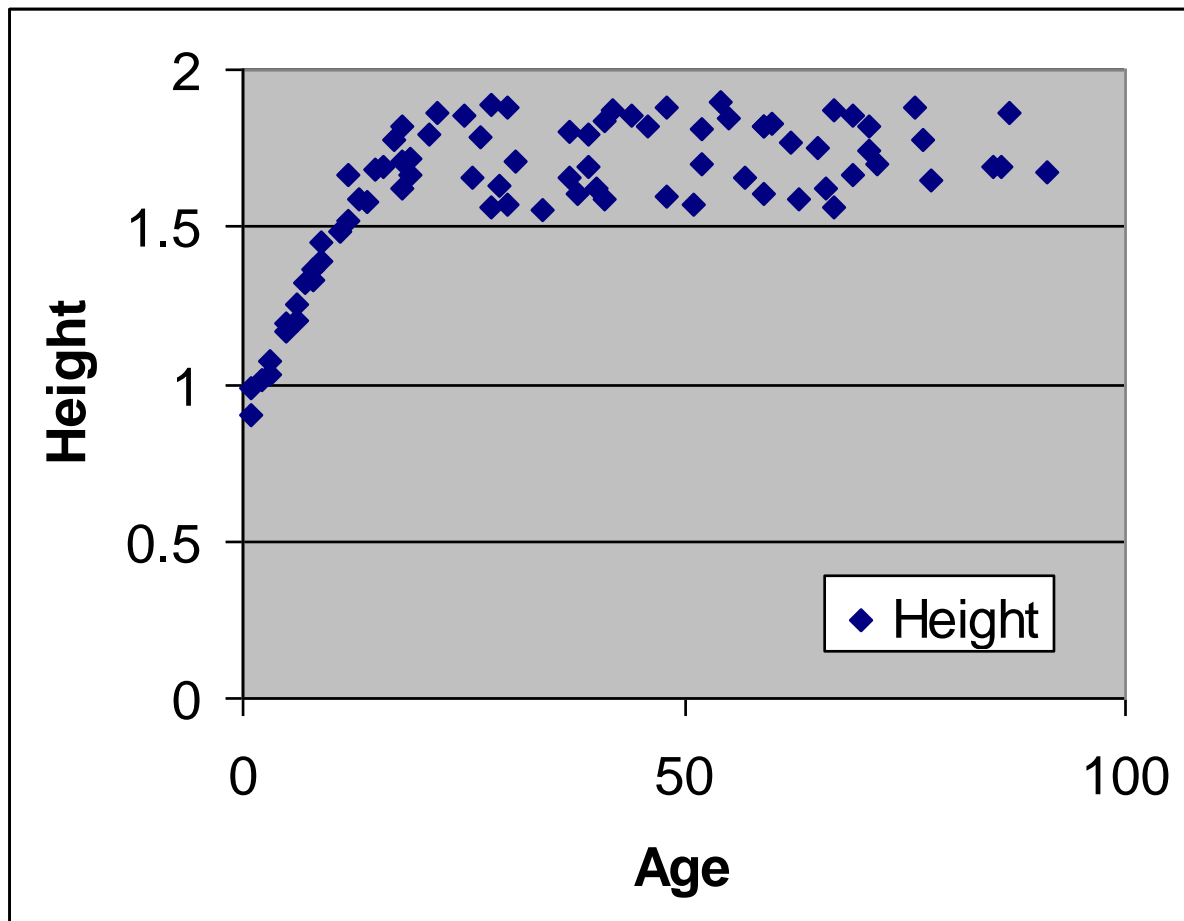
Predicting algal biomass: regression tree



Regression	Classification
Data: attribute-value description	
Target variable: Continuous	Target variable: Categorical (nominal)
Evaluation: cross validation, separate test set, ...	
Error: MSE, MAE, RMSE, ...	Error: 1-accuracy
Algorithms: Linear regression, regression trees, ...	Algorithms: Decision trees, Naïve Bayes, ...
Baseline predictor: Mean of the target variable	Baseline predictor: Majority class

Example regression problem

- data about 80 people: Age and Height



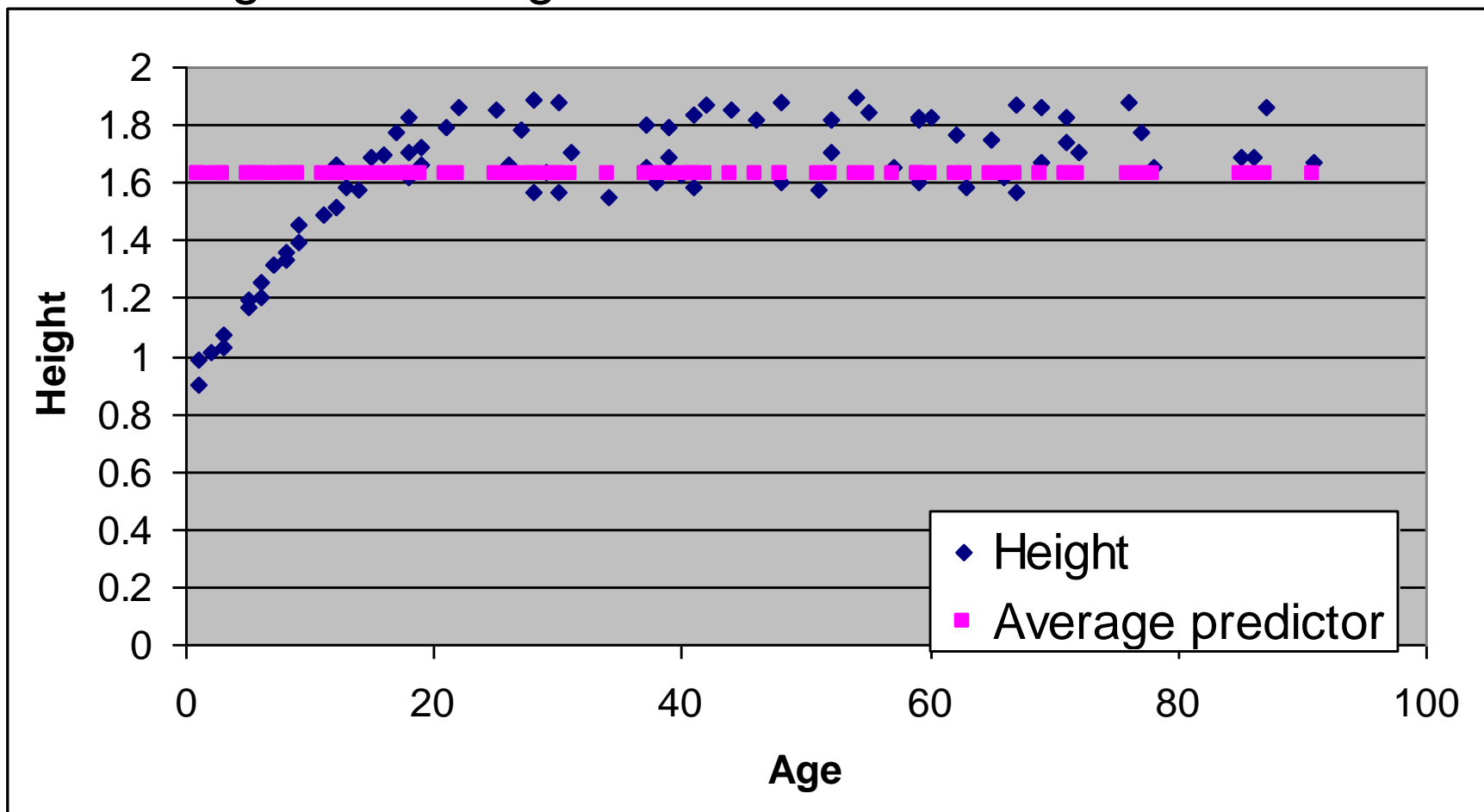
Age	Height
3	1.03
5	1.19
6	1.26
9	1.39
15	1.69
19	1.67
22	1.86
25	1.85
41	1.59
48	1.60
54	1.90
71	1.82
...	...

Test set

Age	Height
2	0.85
10	1.4
35	1.7
70	1.6

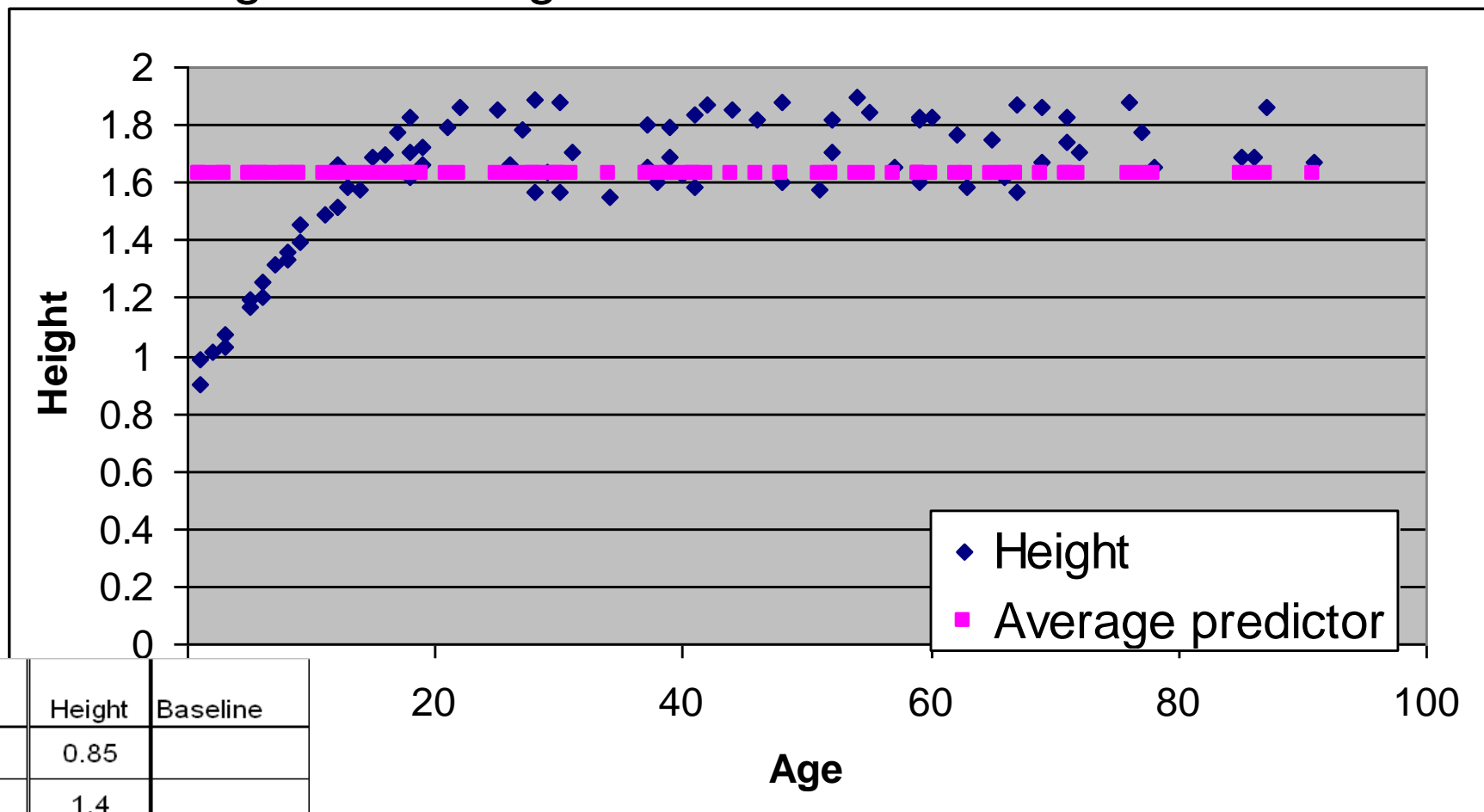
Baseline numeric model

- Average of the target variable



Baseline numeric predictor

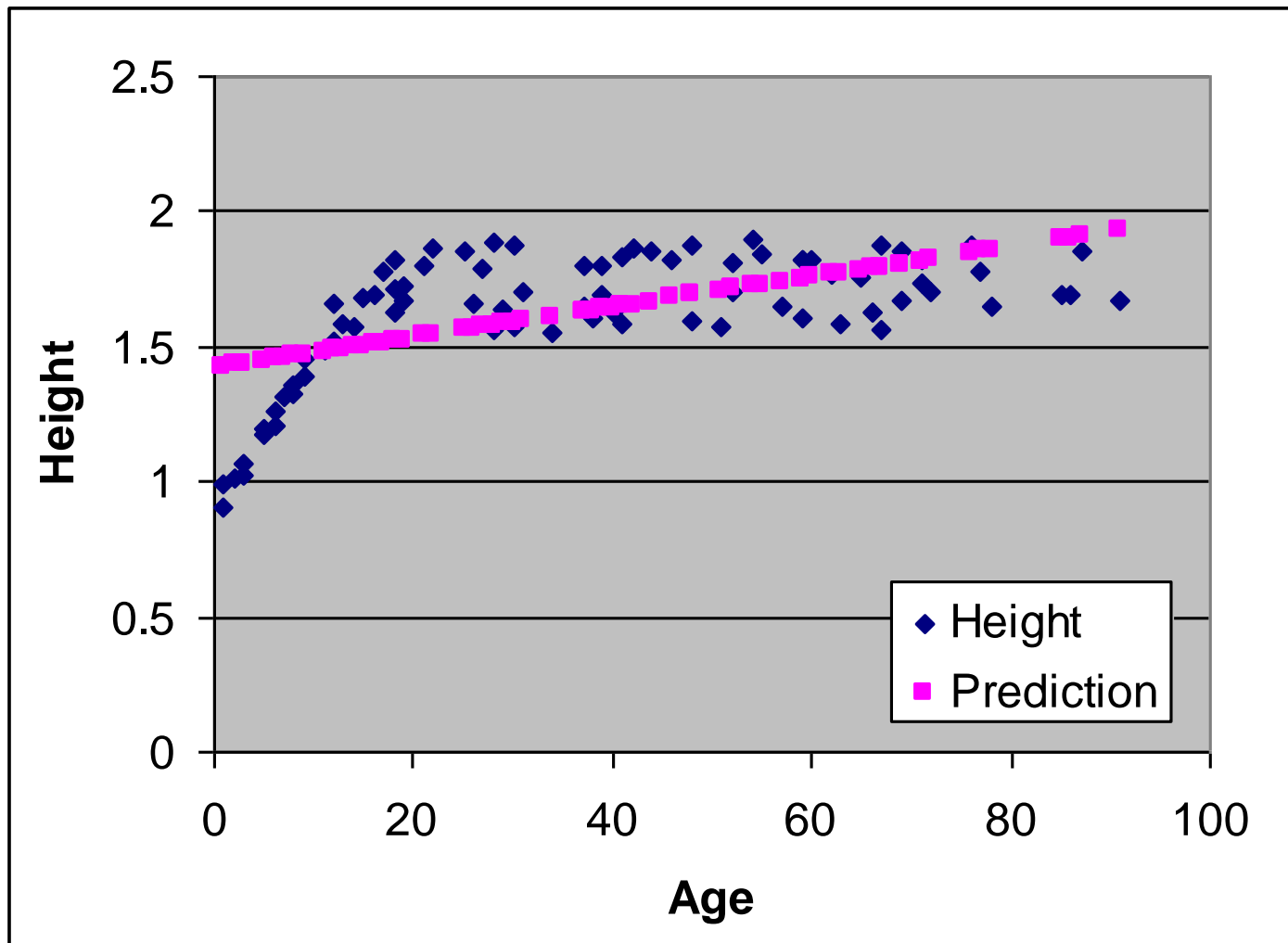
- Average of the target variable is 1.63



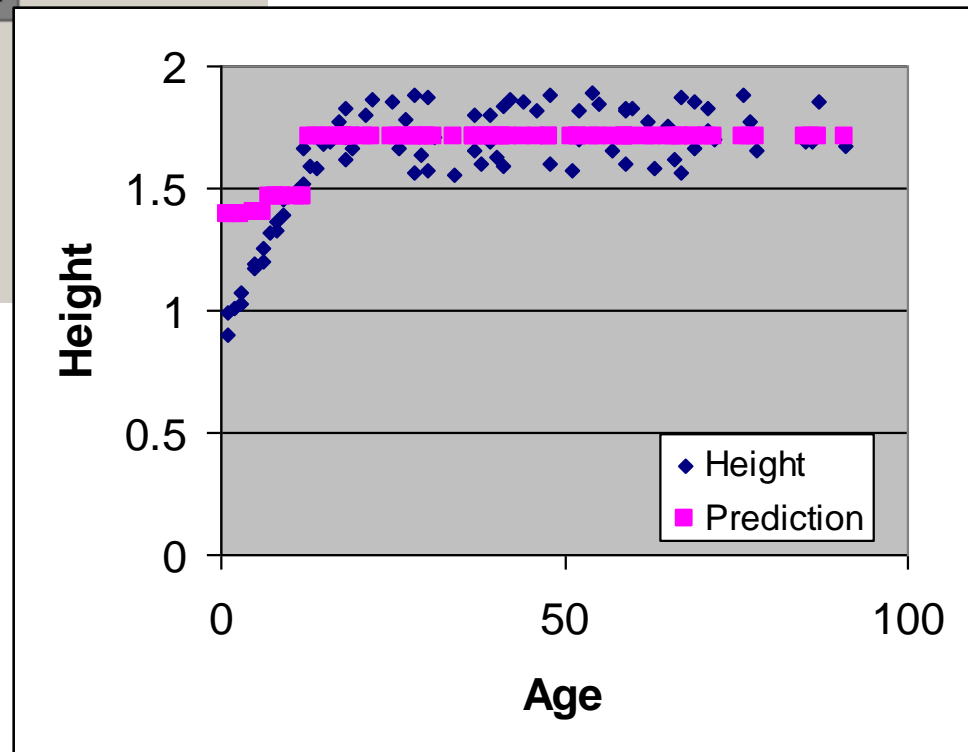
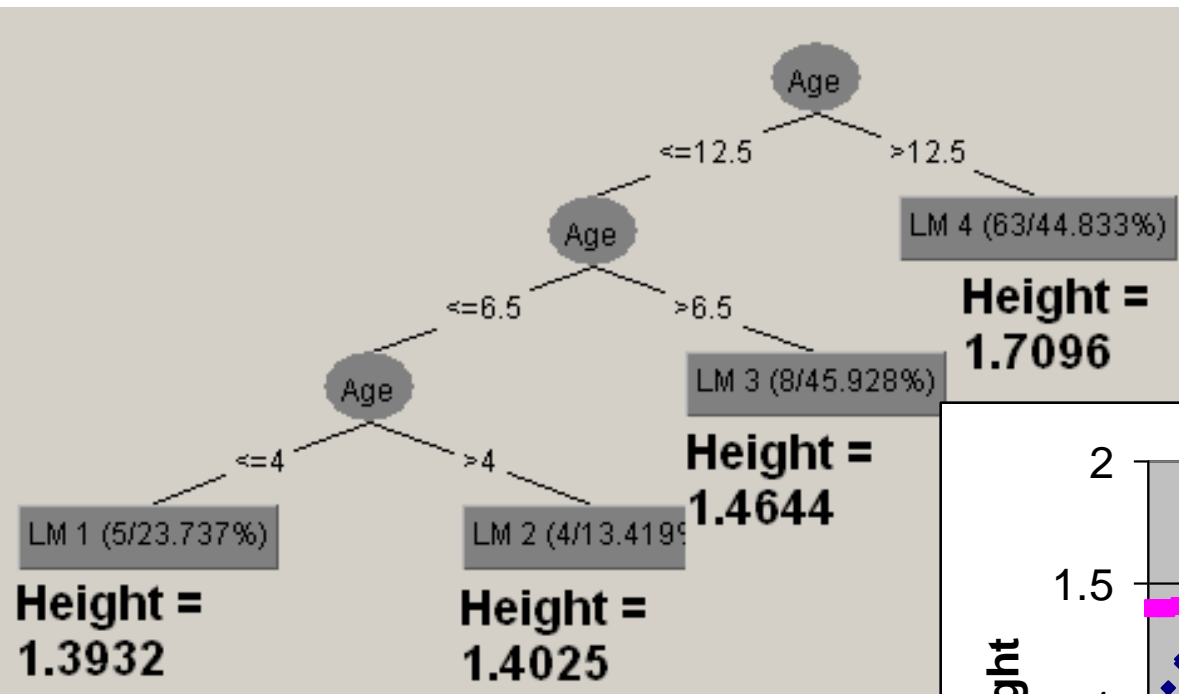
Age	Height	Baseline
2	0.85	
10	1.4	
35	1.7	
70	1.6	

Linear Regression Model

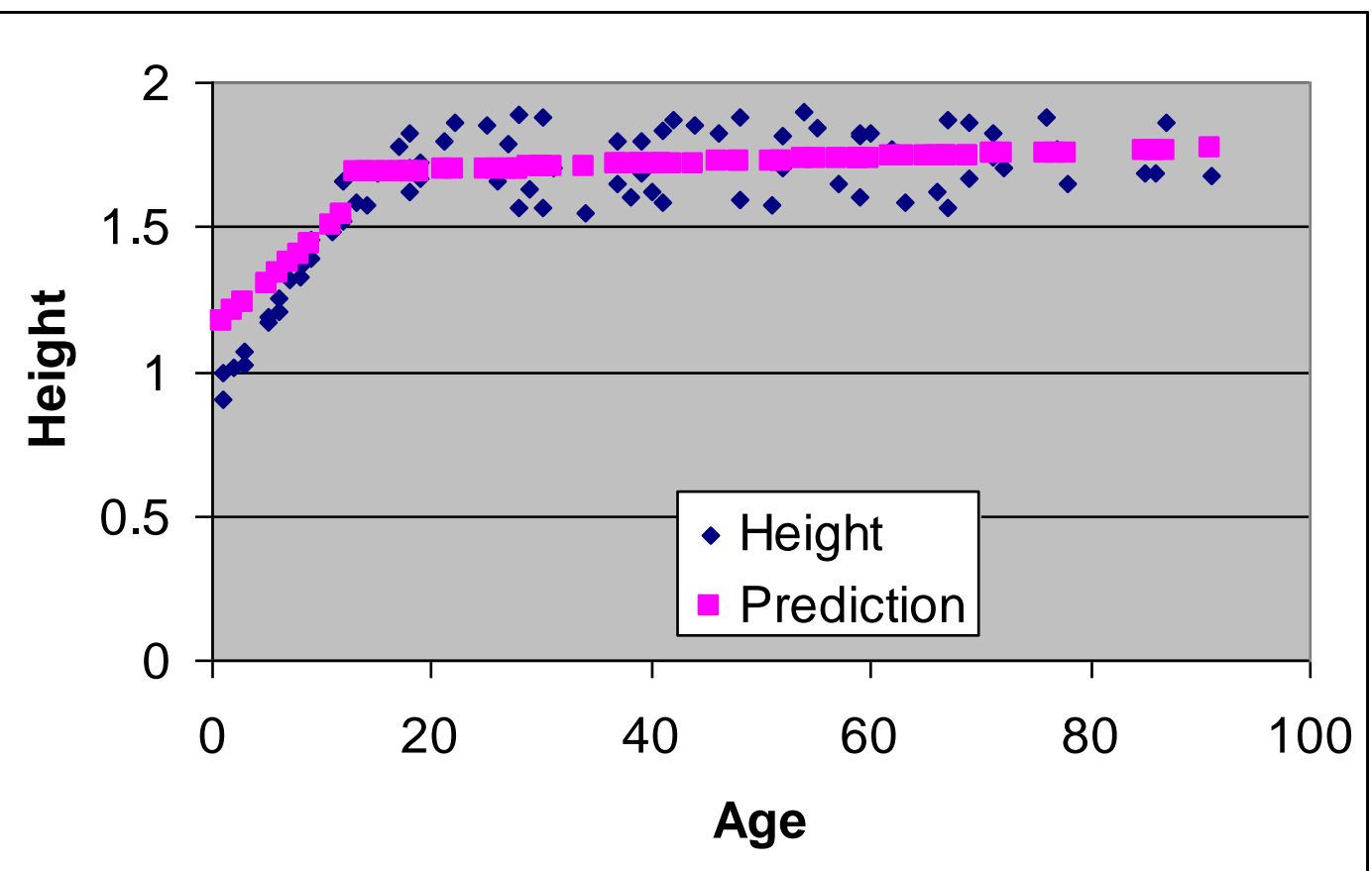
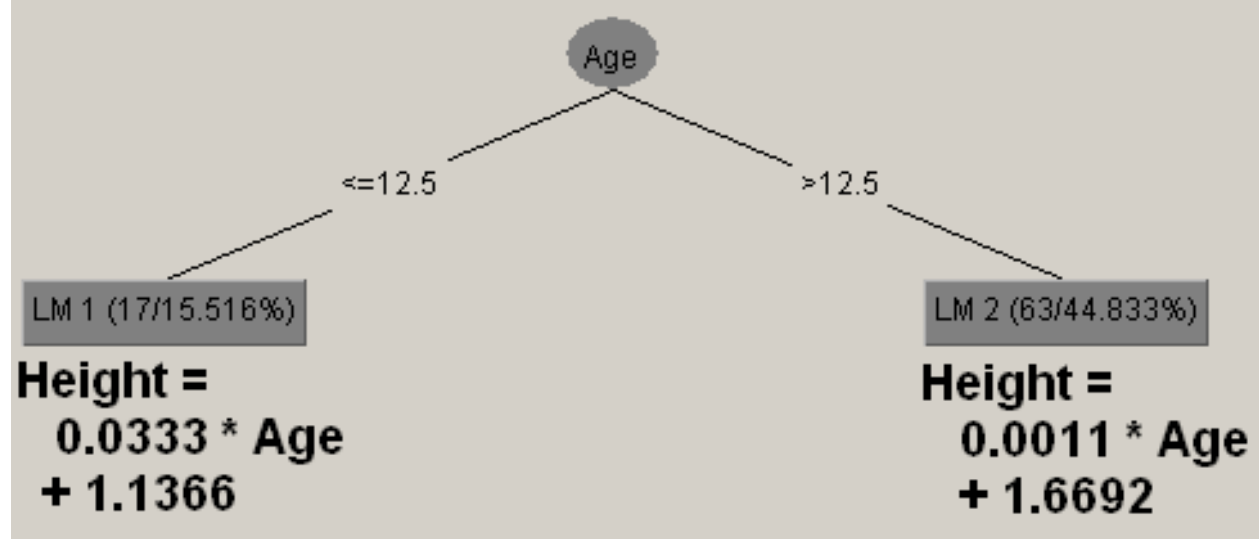
$$\text{Height} = 0.0056 * \text{Age} + 1.4181$$



Regression tree

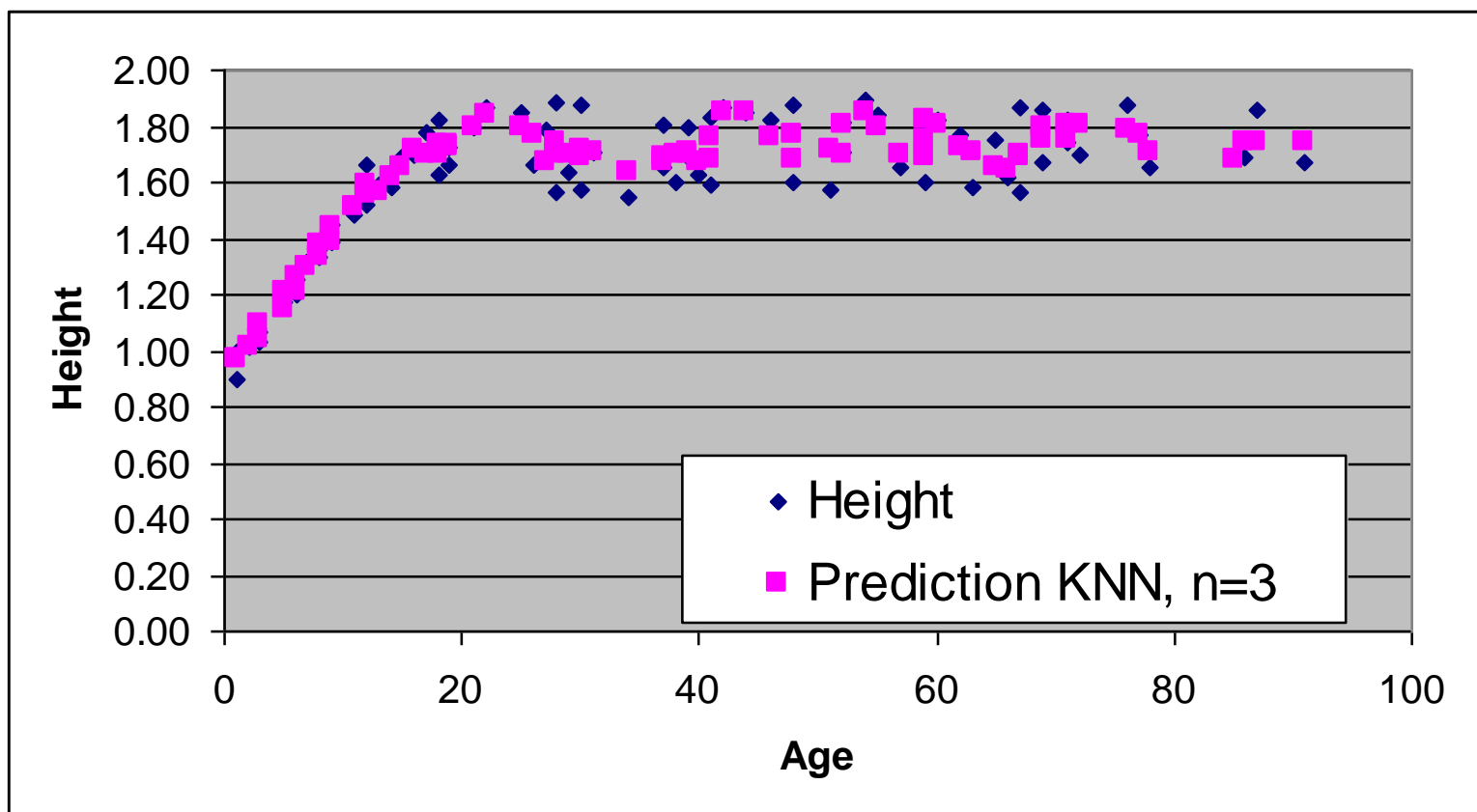


Model tree



kNN – K nearest neighbors

- Looks at K closest examples (by age) and predicts the average of their target variable
- K=3



Which predictor is the best?

Age	Height	Baseline	Linear regression	Regression tree	Model tree	kNN
2	0.85	1.63	1.43	1.39	1.20	1.01
10	1.4	1.63	1.47	1.46	1.47	1.51
35	1.7	1.63	1.61	1.71	1.71	1.67
70	1.6	1.63	1.81	1.71	1.75	1.81

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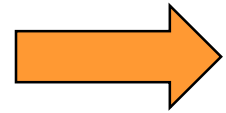
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- Subgroup discovery
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Part IV. Descriptive DM techniques



- Predictive vs. descriptive induction
- Subgroup discovery
- Association rule learning
- Hierarchical clustering

Descriptive DM:

Subgroup discovery example - Customer data

Customer	Gender	Age	Income	Spent	BigSpender
c1	male	30	214000	18800	yes
c2	female	19	139000	15100	yes
c3	male	55	50000	12400	no
c4	female	48	26000	8600	no
c5	male	63	191000	28100	yes
O6-O13
c14	female	61	95000	18100	yes
c15	male	56	44000	12000	no
c16	male	36	102000	13800	no
c17	female	57	215000	29300	yes
c18	male	33	67000	9700	no
c19	female	26	95000	11000	no
c20	female	55	214000	28800	yes

Customer data: Subgroup discovery

Type of task: description (pattern discovery)

Hypothesis language: rules $X \rightarrow Y$, if X then Y
X is conjunctions of items, Y is target class

Age > 52 & Sex = male \rightarrow BigSpender = no

Age > 52 & Sex = male & Income \leq 73250
 \rightarrow BigSpender = no

Descriptive DM:

Association rule learning example - Customer data

Customer	Gender	Age	Income	Spent	BigSpender
c1	male	30	214000	18800	yes
c2	female	19	139000	15100	yes
c3	male	55	50000	12400	no
c4	female	48	26000	8600	no
c5	male	63	191000	28100	yes
O6-O13
c14	female	61	95000	18100	yes
c15	male	56	44000	12000	no
c16	male	36	102000	13800	no
c17	female	57	215000	29300	yes
c18	male	33	67000	9700	no
c19	female	26	95000	11000	no
c20	female	55	214000	28800	yes

Customer data: Association rules

Type of task: description (pattern discovery)

Hypothesis language: rules $X \rightarrow Y$, if X then Y

X, Y conjunctions of items

1. Age > 52 & BigSpender = no \rightarrow Sex = male
2. Age > 52 & BigSpender = no \rightarrow
Sex = male & Income \leq 73250
3. Sex = male & Age > 52 & Income \leq 73250 \rightarrow
BigSpender = no

Descriptive DM:

Clustering and association rule learning

example - Customer data

Customer	Gender	Age	Income	Spent	BigSpender
c1	male	30	214000	18800	yes
c2	female	19	139000	15100	yes
c3	male	55	50000	12400	no
c4	female	48	26000	8600	no
c5	male	63	191000	28100	yes
O6-O13
c14	female	61	95000	18100	yes
c15	male	56	44000	12000	no
c16	male	36	102000	13800	no
c17	female	57	215000	29300	yes
c18	male	33	67000	9700	no
c19	female	26	95000	11000	no
c20	female	55	214000	28800	yes

Predictive vs. descriptive induction

- **Predictive induction:** Inducing classifiers for solving classification and prediction tasks,
 - Classification rule learning, Decision tree learning, ...
 - Bayesian classifier, ANN, SVM, ...
 - Data analysis through hypothesis generation and testing
- **Descriptive induction:** Discovering interesting regularities in the data, uncovering patterns, ... for solving KDD tasks
 - Symbolic clustering, Association rule learning, Subgroup discovery, ...
 - Exploratory data analysis

Descriptive DM

- Often used for preliminary explanatory data analysis
- User gets feel for the data and its structure
- Aims at deriving descriptions of characteristics of the data
- Visualization and descriptive statistical techniques can be used

Predictive vs. descriptive DM: Summary from a rule learning perspective

- **Predictive DM:** Induces **rulesets** acting as classifiers for solving classification and prediction tasks
- **Descriptive DM:** Discovers **individual rules** describing interesting regularities in the data
- **Therefore:** Different goals, different heuristics, different evaluation criteria

Descriptive DM

- **Description**

- **Data description and summarization**: describe elementary and aggregated data characteristics (statistics, ...)
- **Dependency analysis**:
 - describe associations, dependencies, ...
 - discovery of properties and constraints

- **Segmentation**

- **Clustering**: separate objects into subsets according to distance and/or similarity (clustering, SOM, visualization, ...)
- **Subgroup discovery**: find unusual subgroups that are significantly different from the majority (deviation detection w.r.t. overall class distribution)

Part IV. Descriptive DM techniques

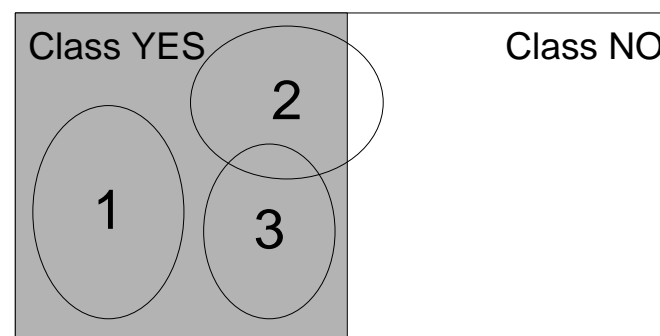
- Predictive vs. descriptive induction
- Subgroup discovery
- Association rule learning
- Hierarchical clustering



Subgroup Discovery

Person	Age	Spect. presc.	Astigm.	Tear prod.	Lenses
O1	17	myope	no	reduced	NO
O2	23	myope	no	normal	YES
O3	22	myope	yes	reduced	NO
O4	27	myope	yes	normal	YES
O5	19	hypermetrope	no	reduced	NO
O6-O13
O14	35	hypermetrope	no	normal	YES
O15	43	hypermetrope	yes	reduced	NO
O16	39	hypermetrope	yes	normal	NO
O17	54	myope	no	reduced	NO
O18	62	myope	no	normal	NO
O19-O23
O24	56	hypermetrope	yes	normal	NO

Subgroup Discovery

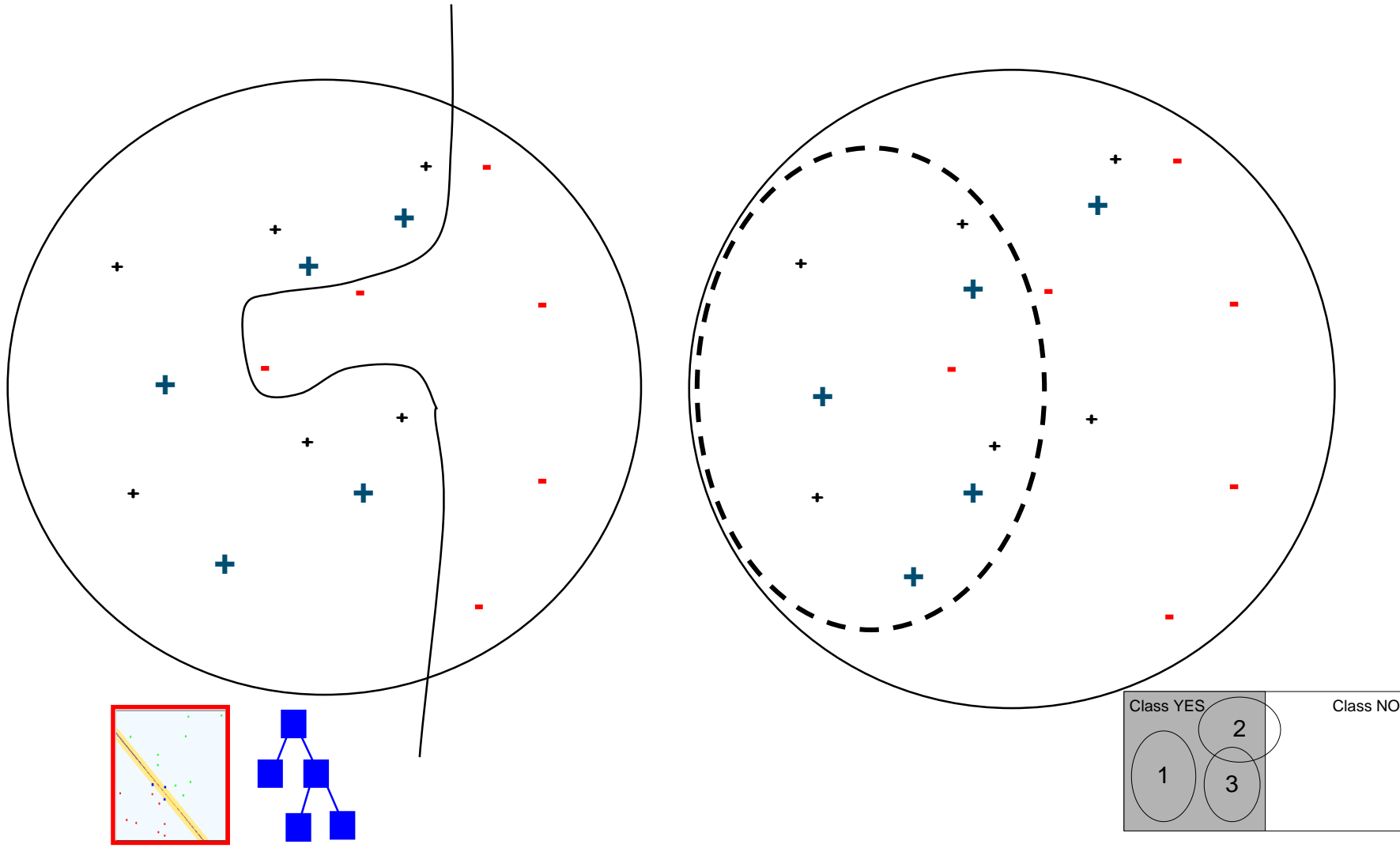


- A task in which individual interpretable patterns in the form of rules are induced from data, labeled by a predefined property of interest.
- SD algorithms learn several independent rules that describe groups of target class examples
 - subgroups must be large and significant

Classification versus Subgroup Discovery

- **Classification (predictive induction) - constructing sets of classification rules**
 - aimed at learning a model for classification or prediction
 - rules are dependent
- **Subgroup discovery (descriptive induction) – constructing individual subgroup describing rules**
 - aimed at finding interesting patterns in target class examples
 - large subgroups (high target class coverage)
 - with significantly different distribution of target class examples (high TP/FP ratio, high significance, high WRAcc)
 - each rule (pattern) is an independent chunk of knowledge

Classification versus Subgroup discovery



Subgroup discovery in High CHD Risk Group Detection

Input: Patient records described by anamnestic, laboratory and ECG attributes

Task: Find and characterize population subgroups with high CHD risk (large enough, distributionally unusual)

From **best induced descriptions**, five were selected by the expert as **most actionable** for CHD risk screening (by GPs):

high-CHD-risk ← male & pos. fam. history & age > 46

high-CHD-risk ← female & bodymassIndex > 25 & age > 63

high-CHD-risk ← ...

high-CHD-risk ← ...

high-CHD-risk ← ...

Subgroup Discovery: Medical Use Case

- **Find and characterize population subgroups with high risk for coronary heart disease (CHD)** (Gamberger, Lavrač, Krstačić)
- **A1 for males: principal risk factors**
CHD ← pos. fam. history & age > 46
- **A2 for females: principal risk factors**
CHD ← bodyMassIndex > 25 & age > 63
- **A1, A2** (anamnestic info only), **B1, B2** (an. and physical examination), **C1** (an., phy. and ECG)
- **A1: supporting factors** (found by statistical analysis):
psychosocial stress, as well as cigarette smoking, hypertension and overweight

Subgroup discovery in functional genomics

- Functional genomics is a typical scientific discovery domain, studying genes and their functions
- Very large number of attributes (genes)
- Interesting subgroup describing patterns discovered by SD algorithm

CancerType = Leukemia

IF KIAA0128 = DIFF. EXPRESSED

AND prostoglandin d2 synthase = NOT_ DIFF. EXPRESSED

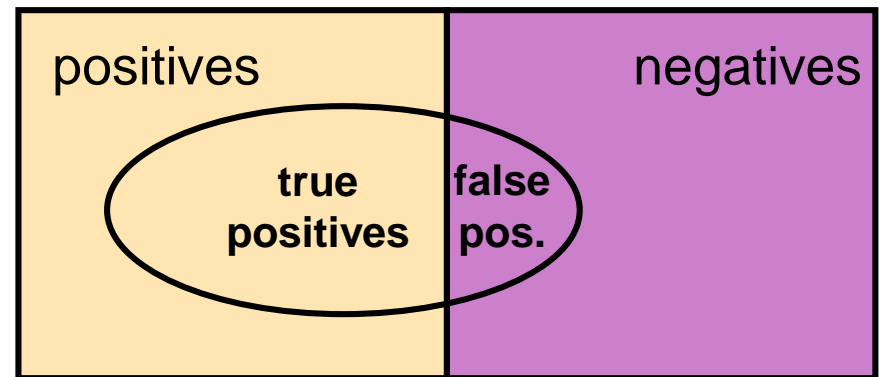
- Interpretable by biologists

D. Gamberger, N. Lavrač, F. Železný, J. Tolar

Journal of Biomedical Informatics 37(5):269-284,

Subgroups vs. classifiers

- Classifiers:
 - Classification rules aim at pure subgroups
 - A set of rules forms a domain model
- Subgroups:
 - Rules describing subgroups aim at significantly higher proportion of positives
 - Each rule is an independent chunk of knowledge
- Link
 - SD can be viewed as cost-sensitive classification
 - Instead of FN_{cost} we aim at increased TP_{profit}



Classification Rule Learning for Subgroup Discovery: Deficiencies

- Only first few rules induced by the covering algorithm have sufficient support (coverage)
- Subsequent rules are induced from smaller and strongly biased example subsets (pos. examples not covered by previously induced rules), which hinders their ability to detect population subgroups
- ‘Ordered’ rules are induced and interpreted sequentially as a **if-then-else** decision list

CN2-SD: Adapting CN2 Rule Learning to Subgroup Discovery

- Weighted covering algorithm
- Weighted relative accuracy (WRAcc) search heuristics, with added example weights
- Probabilistic classification
- Evaluation with different interestingness measures

CN2-SD: CN2 Adaptations

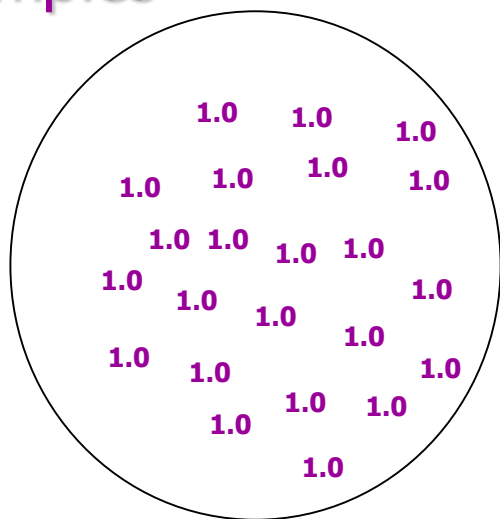
- General-to-specific search (beam search) for best rules
- Rule quality measure:
 - CN2: Laplace: $\text{Acc}(\text{Class} \leftarrow \text{Cond}) =$
 $= p(\text{Class}|\text{Cond}) = (n_c + 1) / (n_{\text{rule}} + k)$
 - CN2-SD: **Weighted Relative Accuracy**
 $\text{WRAcc}(\text{Class} \leftarrow \text{Cond}) =$
 $p(\text{Cond}) (p(\text{Class}|\text{Cond}) - p(\text{Class}))$
- **Weighted** covering approach (**example weights**)
- Significance testing (likelihood ratio statistics)
- Output: Unordered rule sets (**probabilistic classification**)

CN2-SD: Weighted Covering

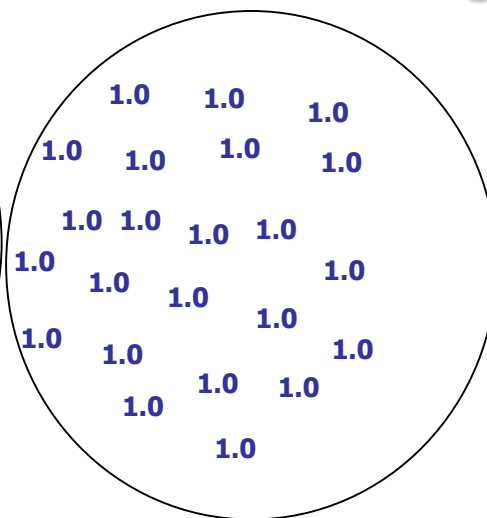
- Standard covering approach:
covered examples are **deleted** from current training set
- **Weighted covering approach:**
 - weights assigned to examples
 - covered pos. examples are **re-weighted:**
in all covering loop iterations, store count i how many times (with how many rules induced so far) a pos. example has been covered: $w(e,i)$, $w(e,0)=1$
 - **Additive weights:** $w(e,i) = 1/(i+1)$
 $w(e,i)$ – pos. example e being covered i times

Subgroup Discovery

Positive examples



Negative examples

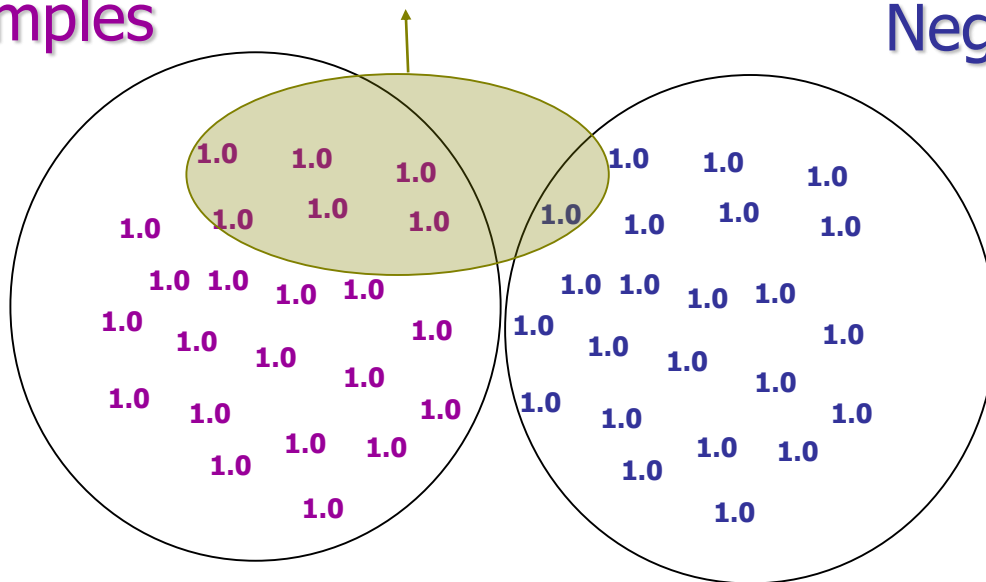


Subgroup Discovery

Positive examples

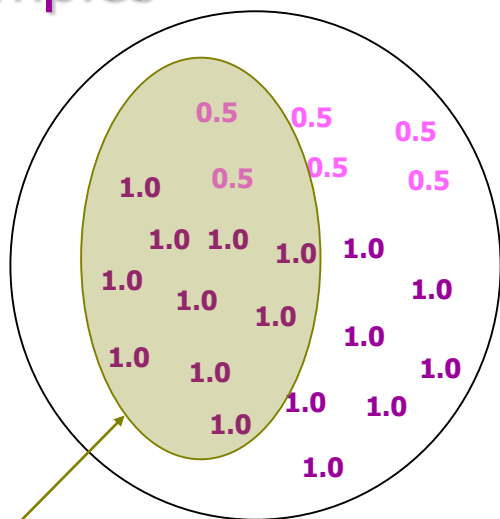
Rule1: $Cl=+$ ← Cond6 AND Cond2

Negative examples

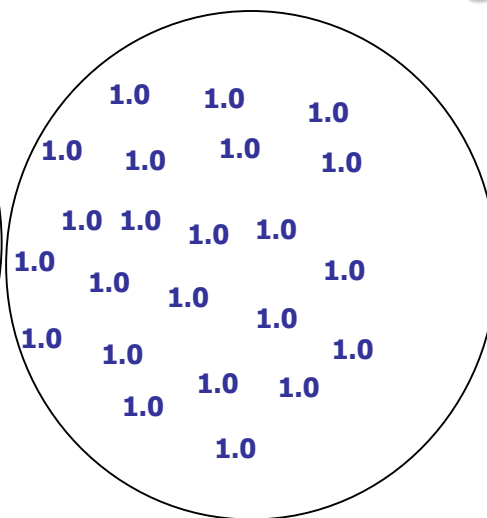


Subgroup Discovery

Positive examples



Negative examples



Rule2: $Cl=+$ ← Cond3 AND Cond4

CN2-SD: Weighted WRAcc Search Heuristic

- **Weighted relative accuracy (WRAcc) search heuristics, with added example weights**

$$\text{WRAcc}(\text{CI} \leftarrow \text{Cond}) = p(\text{Cond}) (p(\text{CI}|\text{Cond}) - p(\text{CI}))$$

increased coverage, decreased # of rules, approx. equal accuracy (PKDD-2000)

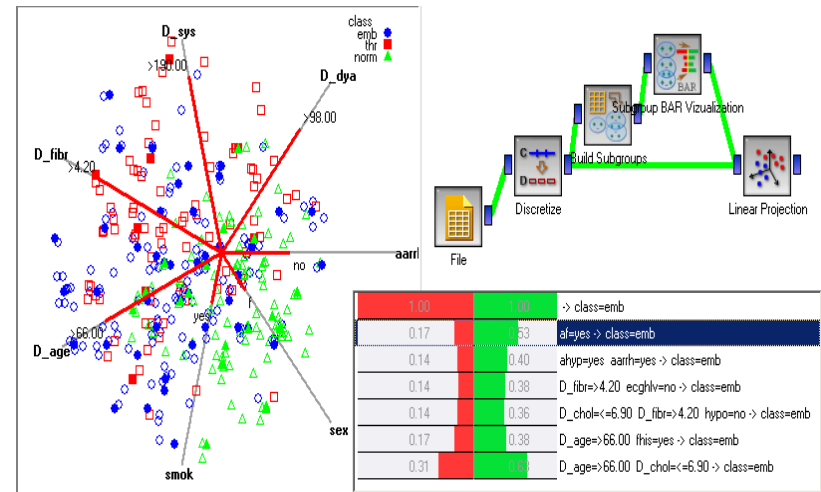
- In WRAcc computation, probabilities are estimated with relative frequencies, adapt:

$$\text{WRAcc}(\text{CI} \leftarrow \text{Cond}) = p(\text{Cond}) (p(\text{CI}|\text{Cond}) - p(\text{CI})) = \\ n'(\text{Cond})/N' (n'(\text{CI}.\text{Cond})/n'(\text{Cond}) - n'(\text{CI})/N')$$

- N' : sum of weights of examples
- $n'(\text{Cond})$: sum of weights of all covered examples
- $n'(\text{CI}.\text{Cond})$: sum of weights of all correctly covered examples

SD algorithms in the Orange DM Platform

- **Orange** data mining toolkit
 - classification and subgroup discovery algorithms
 - data mining workflows
 - visualization

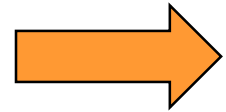


■ SD Algorithms in Orange

- SD (Gamberger & Lavrač, JAIR 2002)
- Apriori-SD (Kavšek & Lavrač, AAI 2006)
- CN2-SD (Lavrač et al., JMLR 2004): Adapting CN2 classification rule learner to Subgroup Discovery

Part IV. Descriptive DM techniques

- Predictive vs. descriptive induction
- Subgroup discovery
- Association rule learning
- Hierarchical clustering



Association Rule Learning

Rules: $X \Rightarrow Y$, if X then Y

X and Y are itemsets (records, conjunction of items), where items/features are binary-valued attributes)

Given: Transactions

	i1	i2	i50
itemsets (records)	t1	1	1	0
	t2	0	1	0

Find: A set of association rules in the form $X \Rightarrow Y$

Example: Market basket analysis

beer & coke \Rightarrow peanuts & chips (0.05, 0.65)

- Support: $\text{Sup}(X,Y) = \#XY/\#D = p(XY)$
- Confidence: $\text{Conf}(X,Y) = \#XY/\#X = \text{Sup}(X,Y)/\text{Sup}(X) = p(XY)/p(X) = p(Y|X)$

Association Rule Learning: Examples

- Market basket analysis
 - beer & coke \Rightarrow peanuts & chips (5%, 65%)
(IF beer AND coke THEN peanuts AND chips)
 - Support 5%: 5% of all customers buy all four items
 - Confidence 65%: 65% of customers that buy beer and coke also buy peanuts and chips
- Insurance
 - mortgage & loans & savings \Rightarrow insurance (2%, 62%)
 - Support 2%: 2% of all customers have all four
 - Confidence 62%: 62% of all customers that have mortgage, loan and savings also have insurance

Association Rule Learning

Given: a set of transactions D

Find: all association rules that hold on the set of transactions that have

- user defined minimum support, i.e., support $>$ **MinSup**, and
- user defined minimum confidence, i.e., confidence $>$ **MinConf**

It is a form of exploratory data analysis, rather than hypothesis verification

Searching for the associations

- Find all large itemsets
- Use the large itemsets to generate association rules
- If XY is a large itemset, compute
$$r = \text{support}(XY) / \text{support}(X)$$
- If $r > \text{MinConf}$, then $X \Rightarrow Y$ holds
(support $>$ MinSup, as XY is large)

Large itemsets

- Large itemsets are itemsets that appear in at least MinSup transaction
- All subsets of a large itemset are large itemsets (e.g., if A,B appears in at least MinSup transactions, so do A and B)
- This observation is the basis for very efficient algorithms for association rules discovery (linear in the number of transactions)

Association vs. Classification rules

- Exploration of dependencies
 - Different combinations of dependent and independent attributes
 - Complete search (all rules found)
- Focused prediction
 - Predict one attribute (class) from the others
 - Heuristic search (subset of rules found)

Part IV. Descriptive DM techniques

- Predictive vs. descriptive induction
- Subgroup discovery
- Association rule learning
- Hierarchical clustering



Hierarchical clustering

- **Algorithm** (agglomerative hierarchical clustering):

Each instance is a cluster;

repeat

find **nearest** pair C_i in C_j ;

fuse C_i in C_j in a new cluster

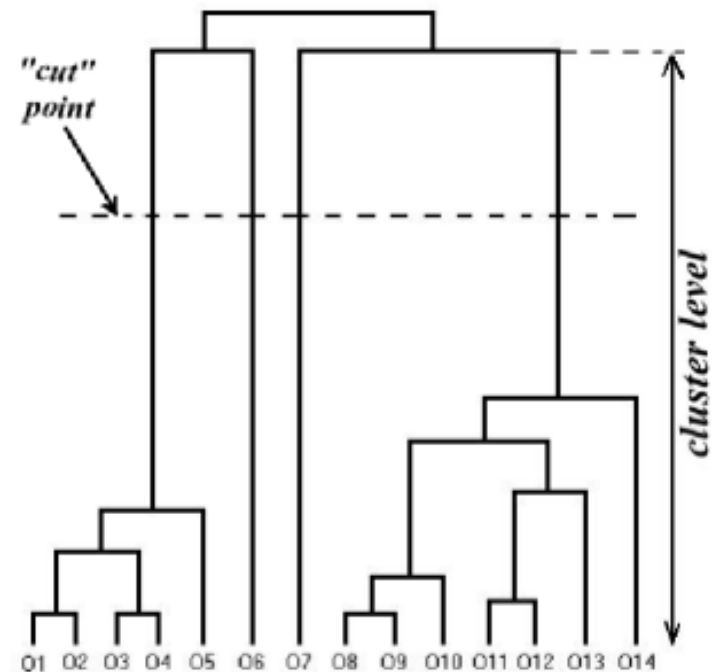
$C_r = C_i \cup C_j$;

determine **dissimilarities** between

C_r and other clusters;

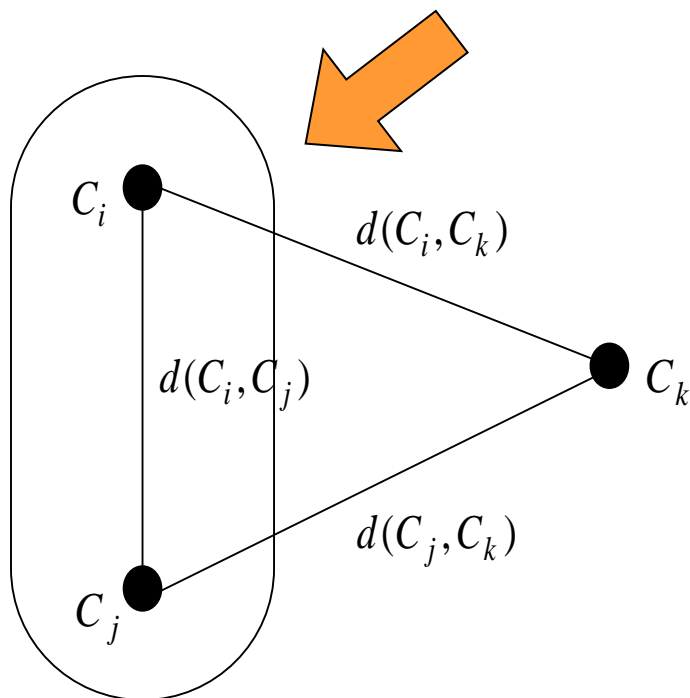
until one cluster left;

- **Dendrogram:**



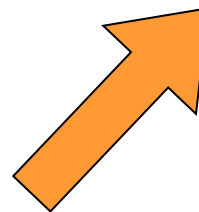
Hierarchical clustering

- Fusing the nearest pair of clusters

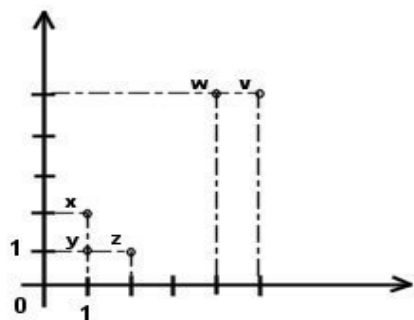


- Minimizing intra-cluster similarity
- Maximizing inter-cluster similarity

- Computing the dissimilarities from the “new” cluster



Hierarchical clustering: example



a) sample problem

	x	y	z	w	v
x	0	1	1	5	5.66
y		0	1.41	4.24	5
z			0	4.47	5
w				0	1
v					0

b) dissimilarity matrix

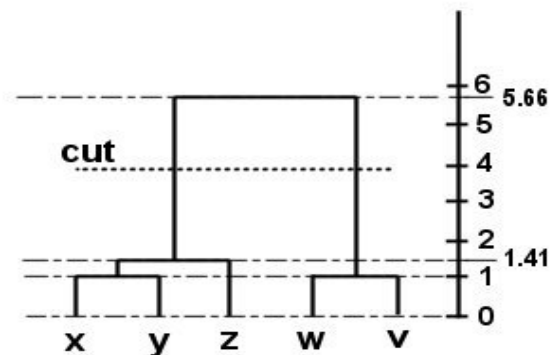
	(x,y)	z	w	v
(x,y)	0	1.41	5	5.66
z		0	4.47	5
w			0	1
v				0

c) dissimilarity matrix after 'fusing' elements **x** and **y**

	(x,y)	z	(w,v)
(x,y)	0	1.41	5.66
z		0	5
(w,v)			0

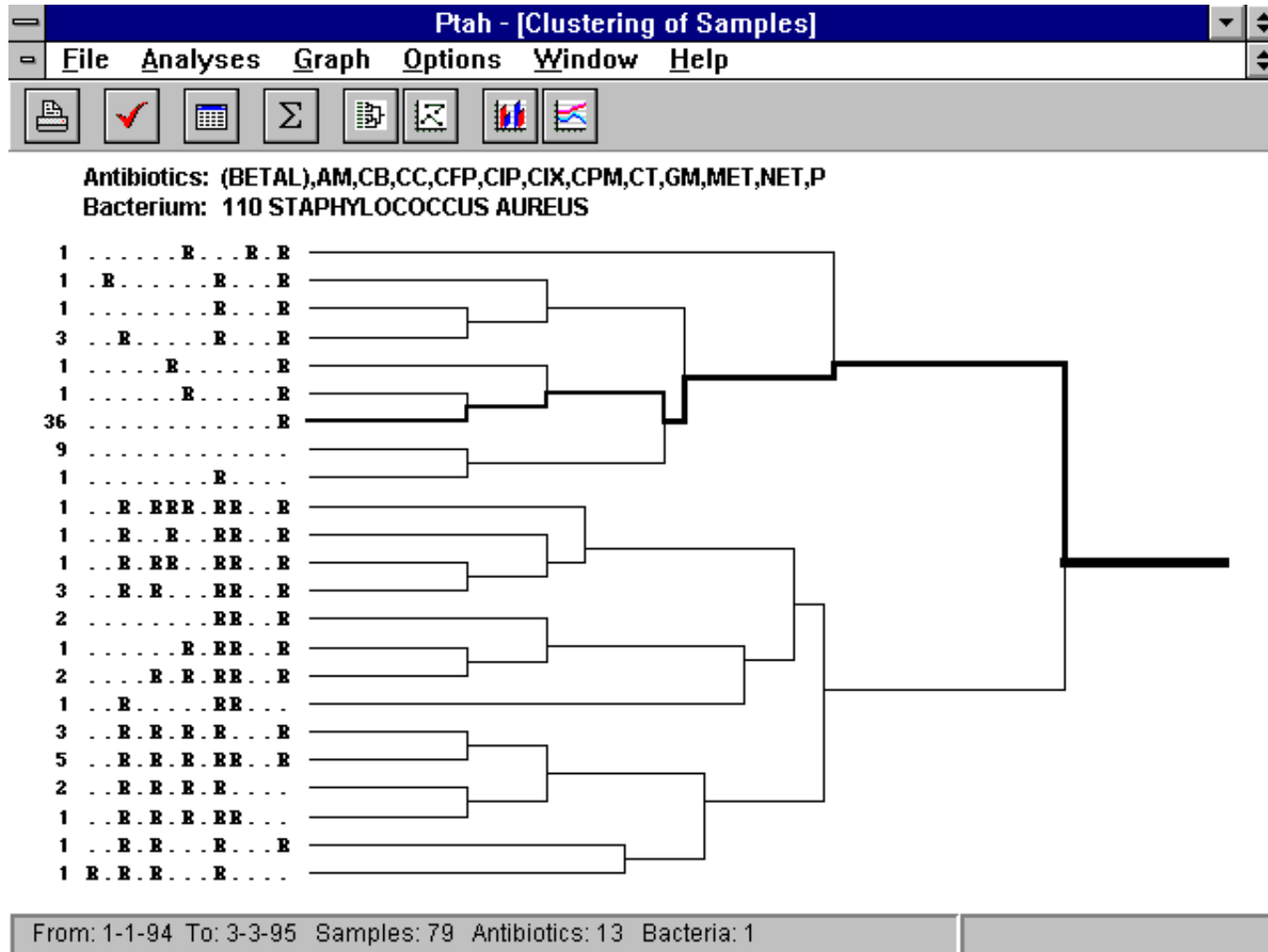
d) dissimilarity matrix after 'fusing' elements **w** and **v**

	(x,y,z)	(w,v)
(x,y,z)	0	5.66
(w,v)		0

e) dissimilarity matrix after 'fusing' cluster **(x,y)** and element **z**

f) dendrogram

Results of clustering



A dendrogram of resistance vectors

[Bohanec et al., "PTAH: A system for supporting nosocomial infection therapy", IDAMAP book, 1997]

Course Outline

I. Introduction

- Data Mining and KDD process
- Introduction to Data Mining
- Data Mining platforms

II. Predictive DM Techniques

- Decision Tree learning
- Bayesian classifier
- Classification rule learning
- Classifier Evaluation

III. Regression

IV. Descriptive DM

- Predictive vs. descriptive induction
- Subgroup discovery
- Association rule learning
- Hierarchical clustering

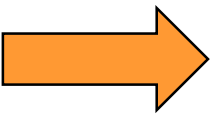
V. Relational Data Mining

- RDM and Inductive Logic Programming
- Propositionalization
- Semantic data mining

VI. Advanced Topics

Part V:

Relational Data Mining



What is RDM

- Propositionalization techniques
- Semantic Data Mining

Relational Data Mining (Inductive Logic Programming) task

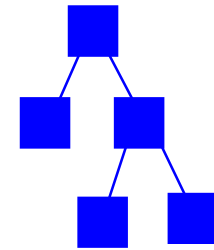
customer							
ID	Zip	Sex	SoSt	Income	Age	Club	Resp
...
3478	34677	m	si	60-70	32	me	nr
3479	43666	f	ma	80-90	45	nm	re
...

order				
Customer ID	Order ID	Store ID	Delivery Mode	Paymt Mode
...
3478	2140267	12	regular	cash
3478	3446778	12	express	check
3478	4728386	17	regular	check
3479	3233444	17	express	credit
3479	3475886	12	regular	credit
...

store			
Store ID	Size	Type	Location
...
12	small	franchise	city
17	large	indep	rural
...

knowledge discovery
from data

Relational Data Mining



model, patterns, ...

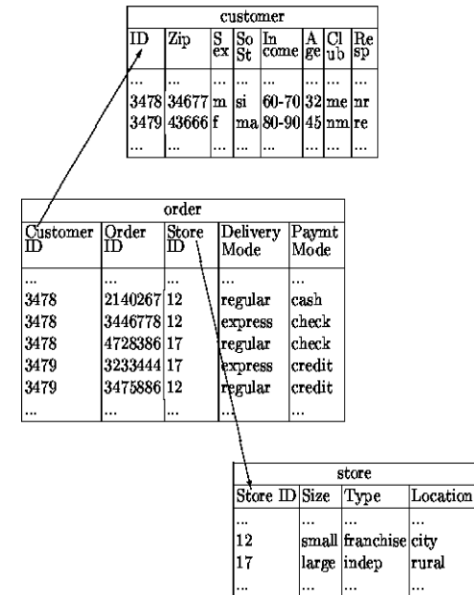
Relational representation of customers, orders and stores.

Given: a relational database, a set of tables. sets of logical facts, a graph, ...

Find: a classification model, a set of interesting patterns

Relational data mining

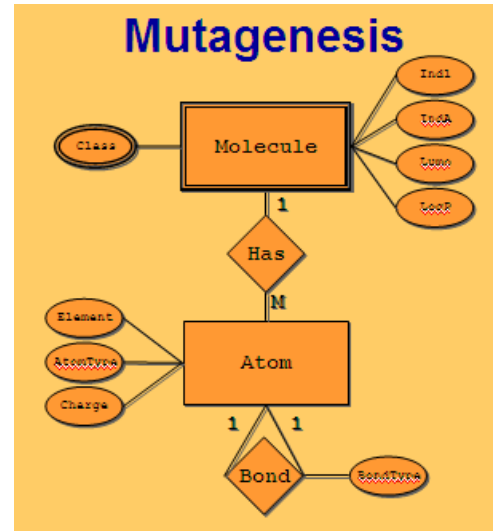
- ILP, relational learning, relational data mining
 - Learning from complex multi-relational data



Relational representation of customers, orders and stores.

Relational data mining

- ILP, relational learning, relational data mining
 - Learning from complex multi-relational data
 - Learning from complex structured data: e.g., molecules and their biochemical properties



customer							
ID	Zip	Sex	Income	Age	Club	Residence	...
...
3478	34677	m	60-70	32	me	nr	...
3479	43666	f	80-90	45	nr	re	...
...

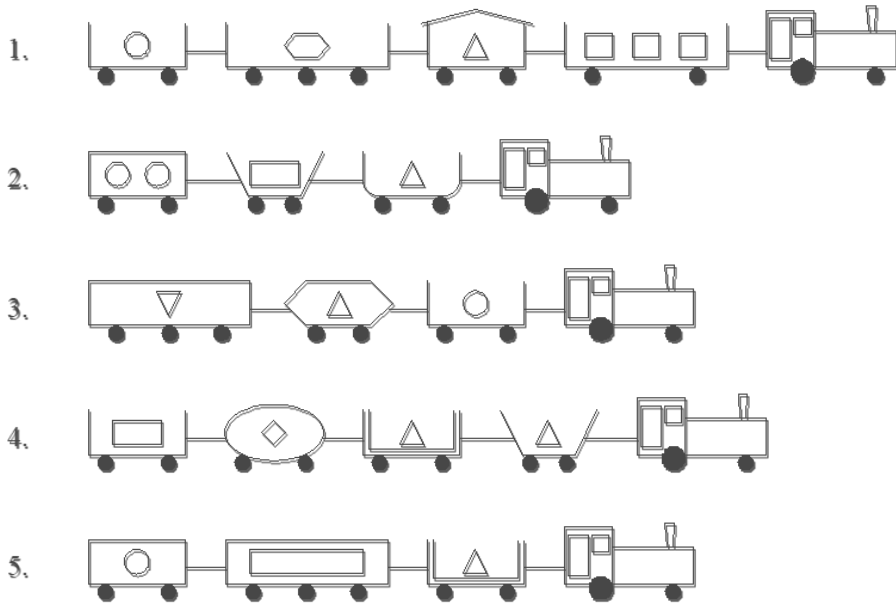
order				
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...

store			
Store ID	Size	Type	Location
...
12	small	franchise	city
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...

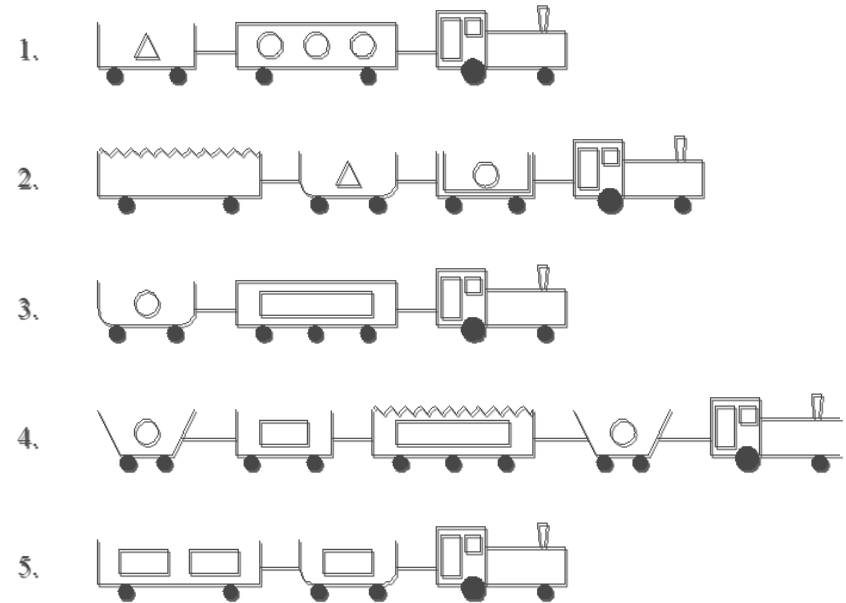
Relational representation of customers, orders and stores.

Sample problem: East-West trains

1. TRAINS GOING EAST



2. TRAINS GOING WEST



RDM knowledge representation (database)

LOAD_TABLE

<u>LOAD</u>	<u>CAR</u>	<u>OBJECT</u>	<u>NUMBER</u>
l1	c1	circle	1
l2	c2	hexagon	1
l3	c3	triangle	1
l4	c4	rectangle	3
...

TRAIN_TABLE

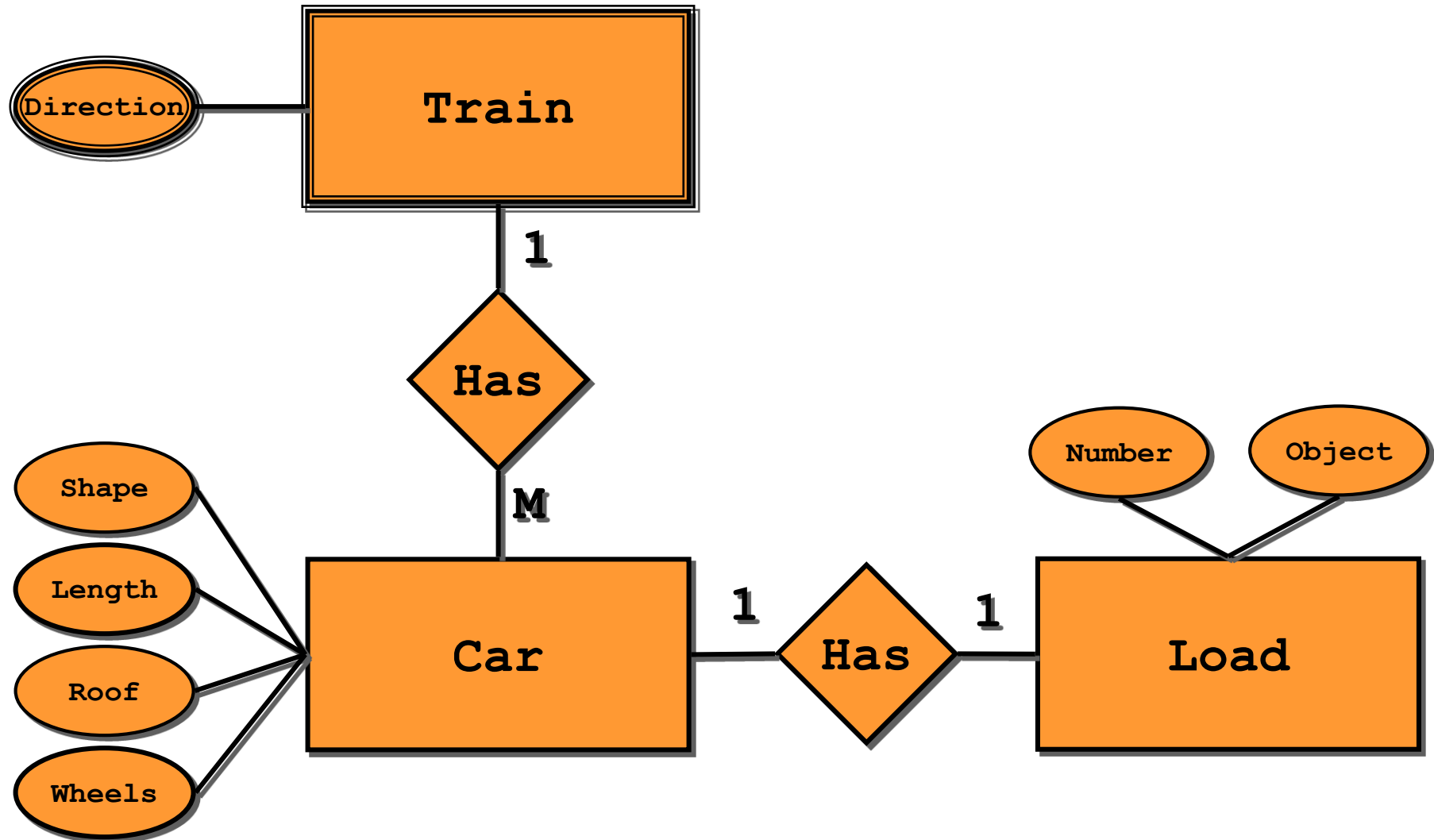
<u>TRAIN</u>	<u>EASTBOUND</u>
t1	TRUE
t2	TRUE
...	...
t6	FALSE
...	...

CAR_TABLE

<u>CAR</u>	<u>TRAIN</u>	<u>SHAPE</u>	<u>LENGTH</u>	<u>ROOF</u>	<u>WHEELS</u>
c1	t1	rectangle	short	none	2
c2	t1	rectangle	long	none	3
c3	t1	rectangle	short	peaked	2
c4	t1	rectangle	long	none	2
...



ER diagram for East-West trains



Relational data mining

- Relational data mining is characterized by using background knowledge (domain knowledge) in the data mining process
- Selected approaches:
 - Inductive logic programming - ILP (Muggleton, 1991; Lavrač & Džeroski 1994), ...
 - Relational learning (Quinlan, 1993)
 - Learning in DL (Lisi 2004), ...
 - Relational Data Mining (Džeroski & Lavrač, 2001),
 - Statistical relational learning (Domingos, De Raedt...)
 - Propositionalization approach to RDM (Lavrač et al.)

Our early work:

Semantic subgroup discovery

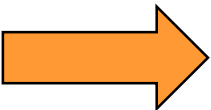
- Propositionalization approach: Using relational subgroup discovery in the SDM context
 - General purpose system **RSD** for **Relational Subgroup Discovery**, using a propositionalization approach to relational data mining
 - Applied to semantic data mining in a biomedical application by using the Gene Ontology as background knowledge in analyzing microarray data

(Železny and Lavrač, MLJ 2006)

Part V:

Relational Data Mining

- What is RDM
- Propositionalization techniques
- Semantic Data Mining



Relational Data Mining through Propositionalization

Step 1

Propositionalization

customer							
ID	Zip	Sex	St	Income	Age	Club	Resp
...
3478	34677	m	si	60-70	32	me	nr
3479	43666	f	ma	80-90	45	nm	re
...

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Customer ID	Order ID	Store ID	Delivery Mode	Paymt Mode
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...

store			
Store ID	Size	Type	Location
...
12	small	franchise	city
17	large	indep	rural
...

Relational representation of customers, orders and stores.

	f1	f2	f3	f4	f5	f6						f _n
g1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1
g2	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	0
g3	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1
g4	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0
g5	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	0
g1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
g2	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	1
g3	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0
g4	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1

Relational Data Mining through Propositionalization

Step 1

Propositionalization

customer							
ID	Zip	Sex	State	Income	Age	Club	Response
...
3478	34677	m	si	60-70	32	me	nr
3479	43666	f	ma	80-90	45	nm	re
...

order				
Customer ID	Order ID	Store ID	Delivery Mode	Paymt Mode
...
3478	2140267	12	regular	cash
3478	3446778	12	express	check
3478	4728386	17	regular	check
3479	3233444	17	express	credit
3479	3475886	12	regular	credit
...

store			
Store ID	Size	Type	Location
...
12	small	franchise	city
17	large	indep	rural
...

Relational representation of customers, orders and stores.

	f1	f2	f3	f4	f5	f6	fn
g1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1
g2	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	1
g3	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0
g4	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	1
g5	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1
g1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
g2	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	1
g3	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	0
g4	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	0

1. constructing relational features
2. constructing a propositional table

Relational Data Mining through Propositionalization

customer							
ID	Zip	Sex	St	Income	Age	Club	Rep
...
3478	34677	m	si	60-70	32	me	nr
3479	43666	f	ma	80-90	45	nm	re
...

order				
Customer ID	Order ID	Store ID	Delivery Mode	Paymt Mode
...
3478	2140267	12	regular	cash
3478	3446778	12	express	check
3478	4728386	17	regular	check
3479	3233444	17	express	credit
3479	3475886	12	regular	credit
...

store			
Store ID	Size	Type	Location
...
12	small	franchise	city
17	large	indep	rural
...

Relational representation of customers, orders and stores.

Step 1

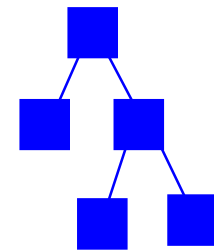
Propositionalization

	f1	f2	f3	f4	f5	f6						fn
g1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1
g2	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	0
g3	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1
g4	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0
g5	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	0
g1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
g2	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	1
g3	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0
g4	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1

Step 2

Data Mining

	f1	f2	f3	f4	f5	f6						fn
g1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1
g2	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	0
g3	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1
g4	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0
g5	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	0
g1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
g2	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	1
g3	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0
g4	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1



model, patterns, ...

Relational Data Mining through Propositionalization

customer							
ID	Zip	Sex	St	Income	Age	Club	Rep
...
3478	34677	m	si	60-70	32	me	nr
3479	43666	f	ma	80-90	45	nm	re
...

order				
Customer ID	Order ID	Store ID	Delivery Mode	Paymt Mode
...
3478	2140267	12	regular	cash
3478	3446778	12	express	check
3478	4728386	17	regular	check
3479	3233444	17	express	credit
3479	3475886	12	regular	credit
...

store			
Store ID	Size	Type	Location
...
12	small	franchise	city
17	large	indep	rural
...

Relational representation of customers, orders and stores.

Step 1

Propositionalization

	f1	f2	f3	f4	f5	f6					fn
g1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1
g2	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	1
g3	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1
g4	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	1
g5	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1
g1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
g2	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	1
g3	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	0
g4	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	1

Step 2

Data Mining

	f1	f2	f3	f4	f5	f6					fn
g1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1
g2	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	1
g3	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1
g4	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	1
g5	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1
g1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
g2	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	1
g3	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	0
g4	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	1

```
target(A) :-
    'Doctor'(A), 'Italy'(A).
```

```
target(A) :-
    'Public'(A), 'Gold'(A).
```

```
target(A) :-
    'Poland'(A), 'Deposit'(A), 'Gold'(A).
```

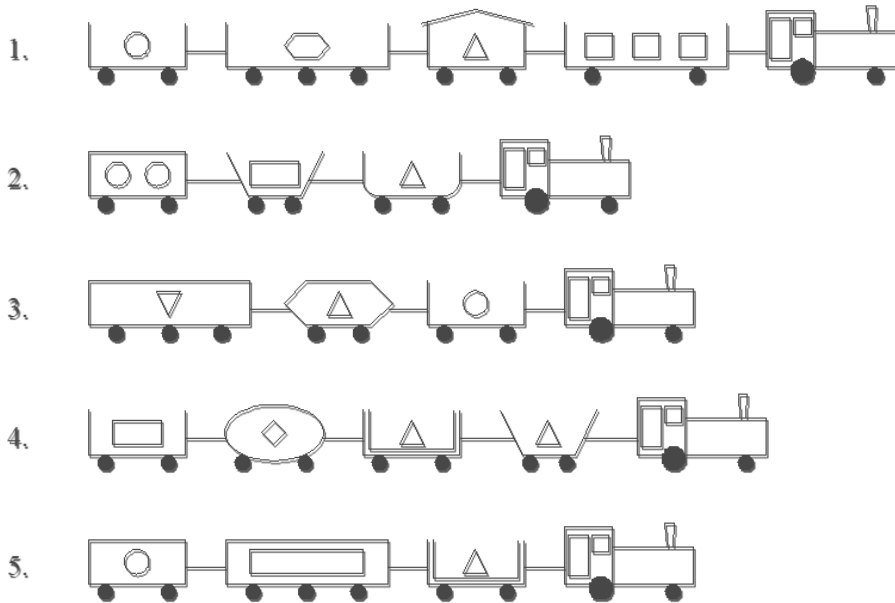
```
target(A) :-
    'Germany'(A), 'Insurance'(A).
```

```
target(A) :-
    'Service'(A), 'Germany'(A).
```

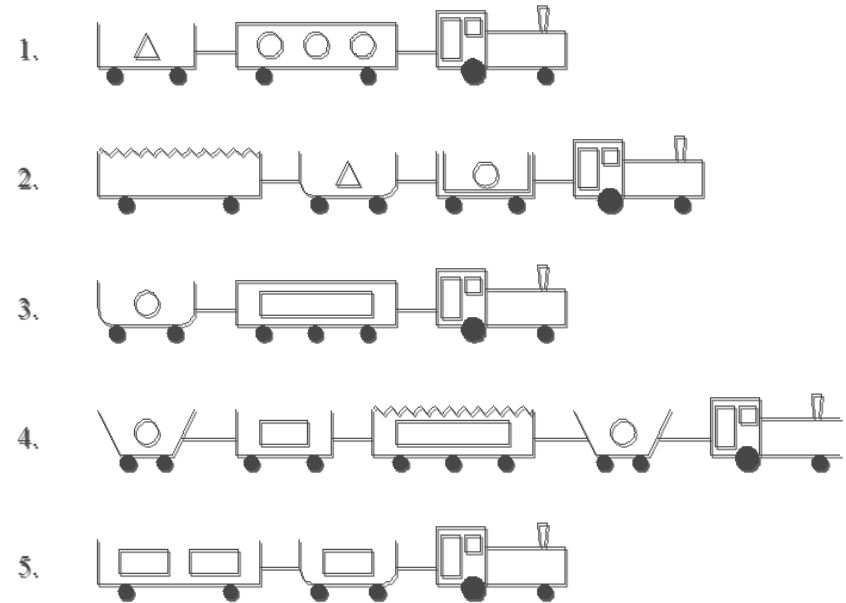
patterns (set of rules)

Sample ILP problem: East-West trains

1. TRAINS GOING EAST



2. TRAINS GOING WEST



Relational data representation



LOAD	CAR	OBJECT	NUMBER
l1	c1	circle	1
l2	c2	hexagon	1
l3	c3	triangle	1
l4	c4	rectangle	3
...

TRAIN_TABLE

TRAIN	EASTBOUND
t1	TRUE
t2	TRUE
...	...
t6	FALSE
...	...

CAR	TRAIN	SHAPE	LENGTH	ROOF	WHEELS
c1	t1	rectangle	short	none	2
c2	t1	rectangle	long	none	3
c3	t1	rectangle	short	peaked	2
c4	t1	rectangle	long	none	2
...

Propositionalization in a nutshell



Propositionalization task

Transform a multi-relational
(**multiple-table**)
representation to a
propositional representation
(**single table**)

LOAD	CAR	OBJECT	NUMBER
l1	c1	circle	1
l2	c2	hexagon	1
l3	c3	triangle	1
l4	c4	rectangle	3
...

TRAIN_TABLE

TRAIN	EASTBOUND
t1	TRUE
t2	TRUE
...	...
t6	FALSE
...	...

CAR	TRAIN	SHAPE	LENGTH	ROOF	WHEELS
c1	t1	rectangle	short	none	2
c2	t1	rectangle	long	none	3
c3	t1	rectangle	short	peaked	2
c4	t1	rectangle	long	none	2
...

Proposed in ILP systems

LINUS (Lavrač et al. 1991, 1994),
1BC (Flach and Lachiche 1999), ...

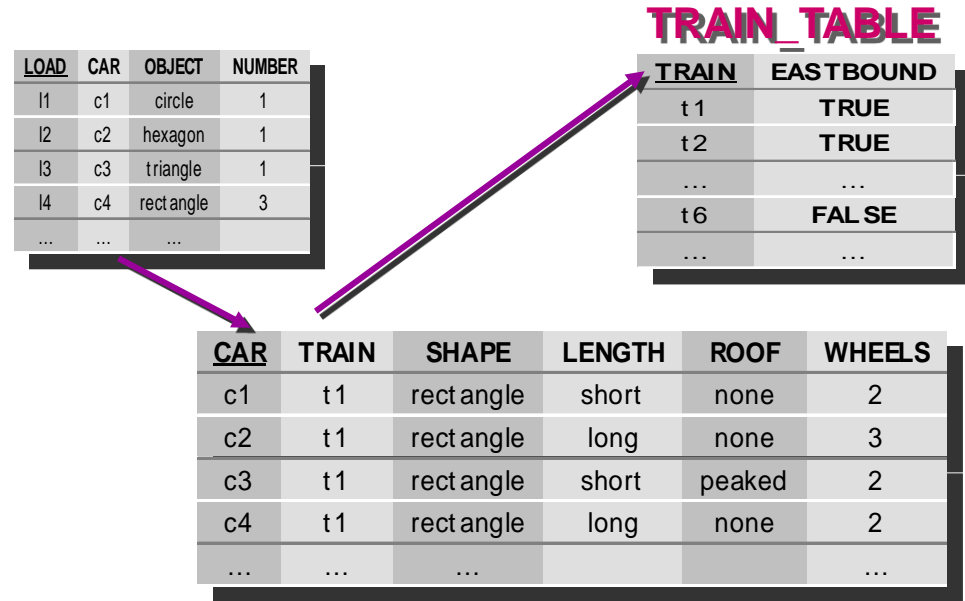
Propositionalization in a nutshell

**Main propositionalization step:
first-order feature construction**

$f_1(T) :- \text{hasCar}(T,C), \text{clength}(C, \text{short}).$

$f_2(T) :- \text{hasCar}(T,C), \text{hasLoad}(C,L),$
 $\text{loadShape}(L, \text{circle})$

$f_3(T) :- \dots$



Propositional learning:

$t(T) \leftarrow f_1(T), f_4(T)$

PROPOSITIONAL TRAIN_TABLE

train(T)	f1(T)	f2(T)	f3(T)	f4(T)	f5(T)
t1	t	t	f	t	t
t2	t	t	t	t	t
t3	f	f	t	f	f
t4	t	f	t	f	f
...

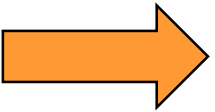
Relational interpretation:

$\text{eastbound}(T) \leftarrow$

$\text{hasShortCar}(T), \text{hasClosedCar}(T).$

Part V: Relational Data Mining

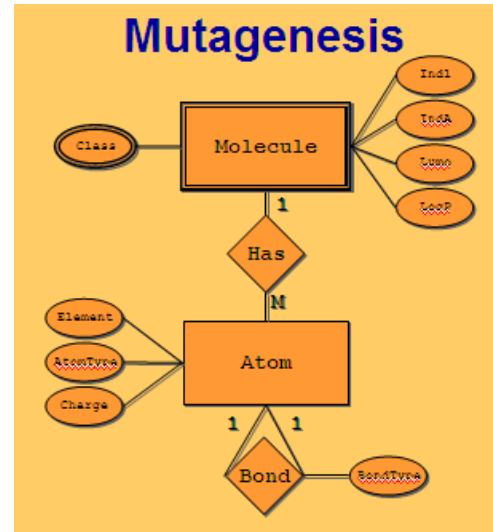
- What is RDM
- Propositionalization techniques



Semantic Data Mining

Semantic data mining

- ILP, relational learning, relational data mining
 - Learning from complex multi-relational data
 - Learning from complex structured data: e.g., molecules and their biochemical properties
 - Learning by using domain knowledge in the form of ontologies = **semantic data mining**

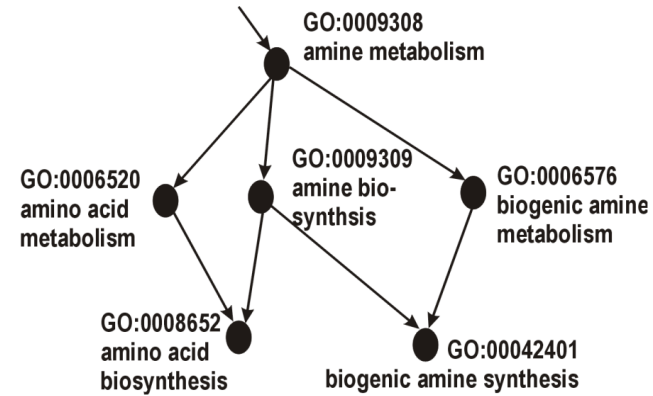


customer							
ID	Zip	Sex	SoSt	In come	Age	Cl ub	Re sp
...
3478	34677	m	si	60-70	32	me	nr
3479	43666	f	ma	80-90	45	nr	re
...

order				
Customer ID	Order ID	Store ID	Delivery Mode	Paymt Mode
...
3478	2140267	12	regular	cash
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3479	3233444	17	express	credit
3479	3475886	12	regular	credit
...

store			
Store ID	Size	Type	Location
...
12	small	franchise	city
17	large	indep	rural
...

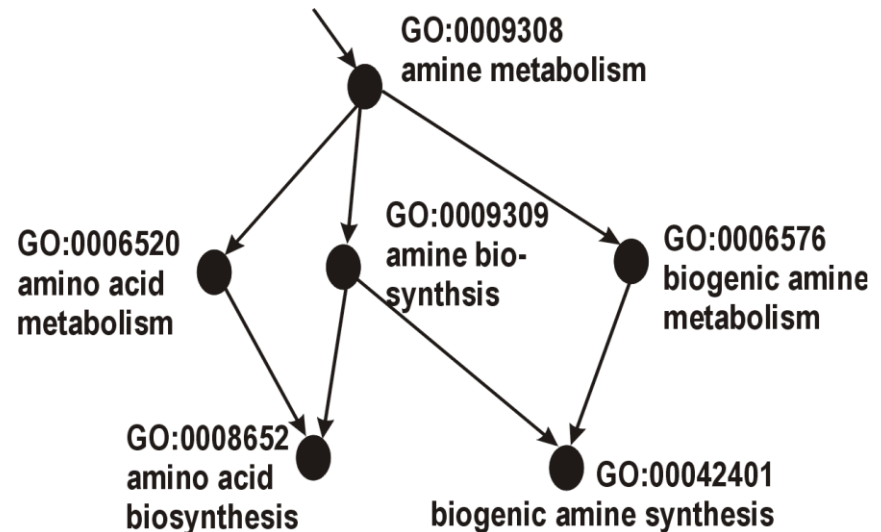
Relational representation of customers, orders and stores.



Using domain ontologies in Semantic Data Mining

Using domain ontologies as background knowledge, e.g., using the Gene Ontology (GO)

- GO is a database of terms, describing gene sets in terms of their
 - functions (12,093)
 - processes (1,812)
 - components (7,459)
- Genes are annotated to GO terms
- Terms are connected (is_a, part_of)
- Levels represent terms generality

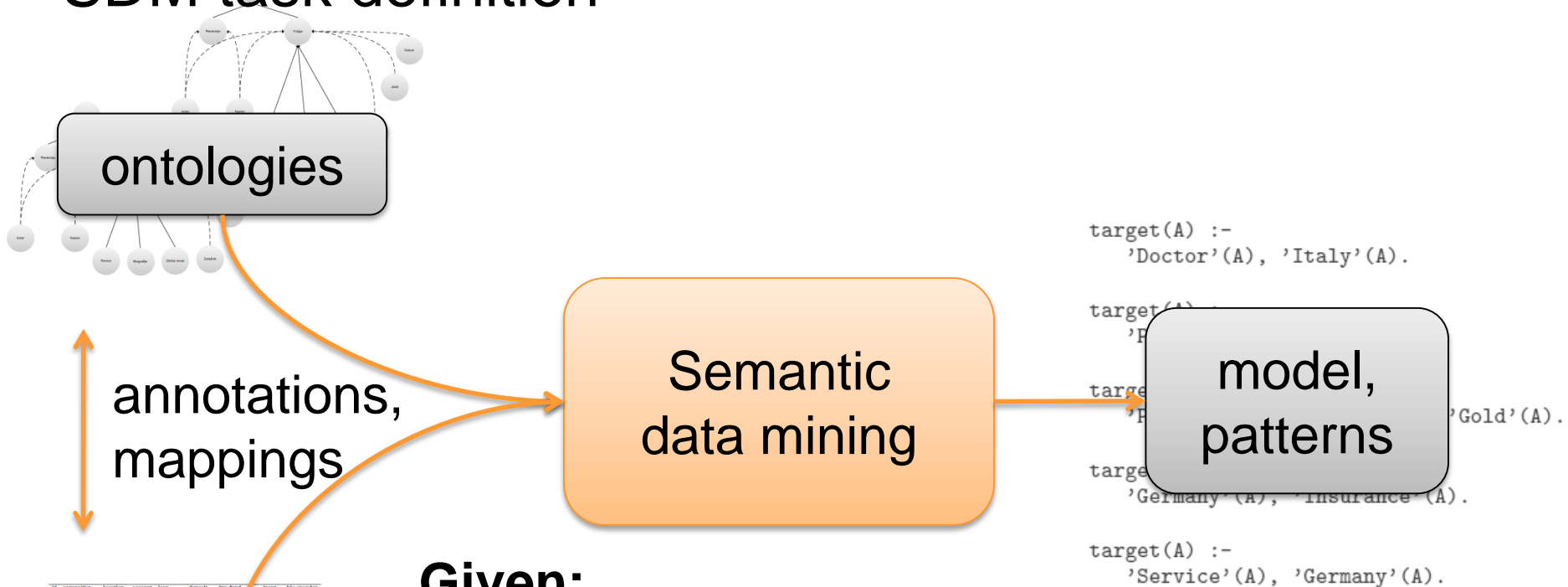


What is Semantic Data Mining

- Ontology-driven (semantic) data mining is an emerging research topic
- Semantic Data Mining (SDM) - a new term denoting:
 - the new challenge of mining semantically annotated resources, with ontologies used as background knowledge to data mining
 - approaches with which semantic data are mined

What is Semantic Data Mining

SDM task definition



Given:

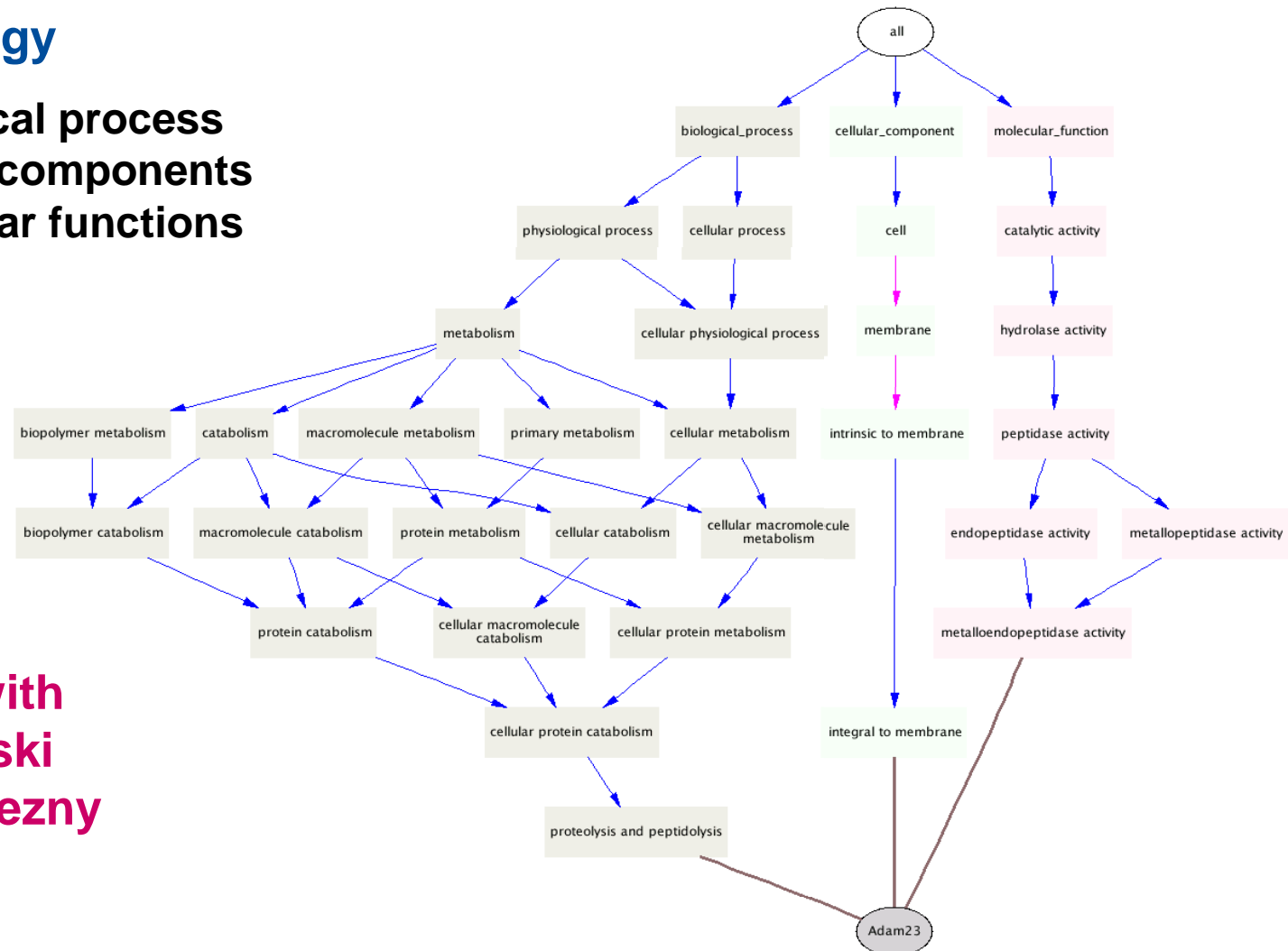
- transaction data table, relational database, text documents, Web pages, ...
- one or more domain ontologies

Find: a classification model, a set of patterns

Using domain ontologies (e.g. Gene Ontology) as background knowledge for Data Mining

Gene Ontology

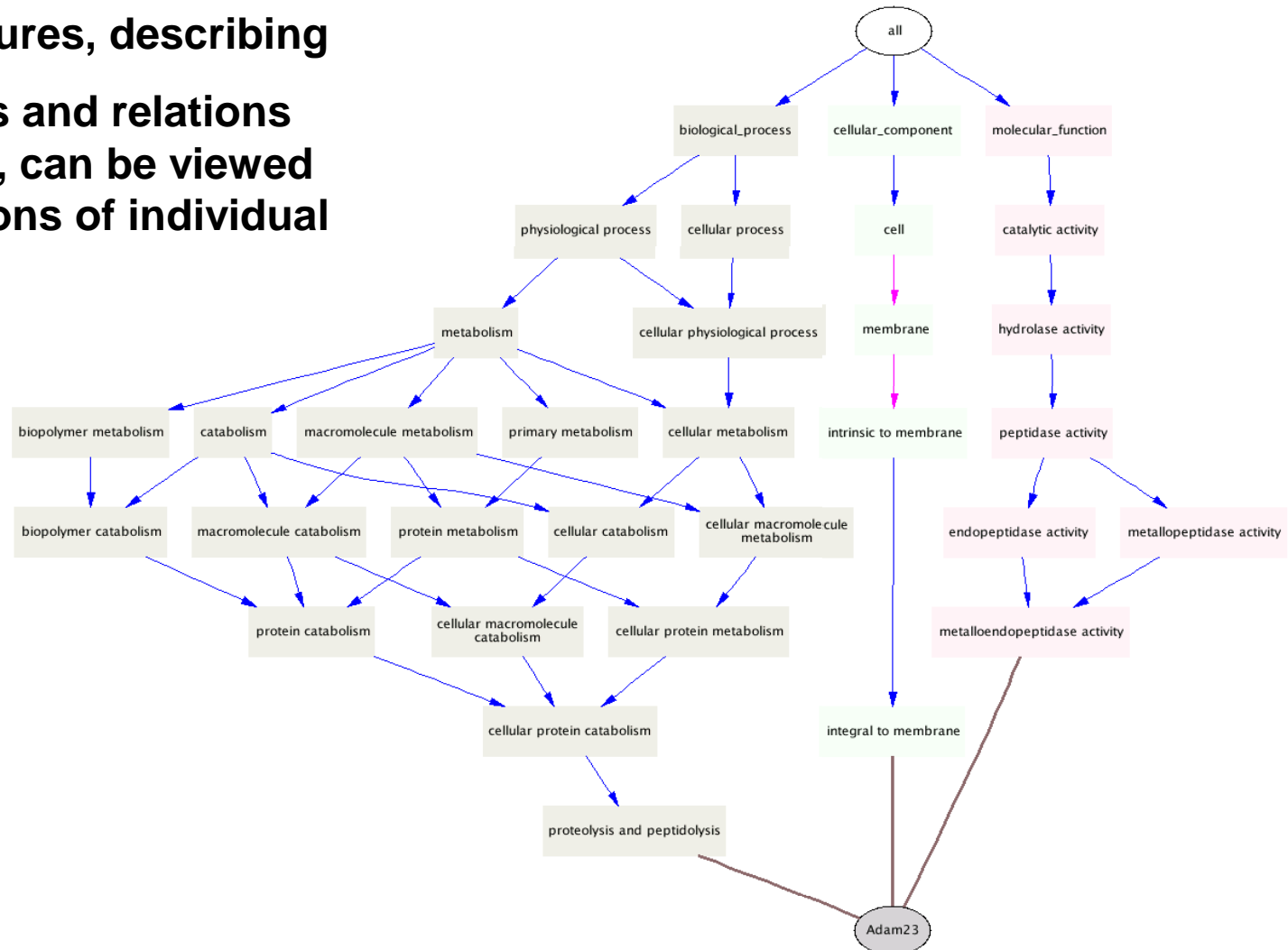
12093 biological process
1812 cellular components
7459 molecular functions



Joint work with
Igor Trajkovski
and Filip Zelezny

Using domain ontologies (e.g. Gene Ontology) as background knowledge for Data Mining

First-order features, describing gene properties and relations between genes, can be viewed as generalisations of individual genes



Semantic subgroup discovery with RSD

1. Take ontology terms represented as logical facts in Prolog, e.g.

```
component (gene2532, 'GO:0016020') .  
function (gene2534, 'GO:0030554') .  
process (gene2534, 'GO:0007243') .  
interaction (gene2534, gene4803) .
```

2. Automatically generate generalized relational features:

```
f(2,A):-component(A,'GO:0016020') .  
f(7,A):-function(A,'GO:0030554') .  
f(11,A):-process(A,'GO:0007243') .  
f(224,A):- interaction(A,B), function(B,'GO:0016787'),  
            component(B,'GO:0043231') .
```

3. Propositionalization: Determine truth values of features
4. Learn rules by a subgroup discovery algorithm CN2-SD

Step 2: RSD feature construction

Construction of first order features, with support > *min_support*

f(7,A):-function(A,'GO:0046872').

f(8,A):-function(A,'GO:0004871').

f(11,A):-process(A,'GO:0007165').

f(14,A):-process(A,'GO:0044267').

f(15,A):-process(A,'GO:0050874').

f(20,A):-function(A,'GO:0004871'), process(A,'GO:0050874').

f(26,A):-component(A,'GO:0016021').

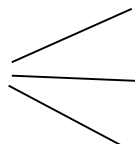
f(29,A):- function(A,'GO:0046872'), component(A,'GO:0016020')

f(122,A):-interaction(A,B),function(B,'GO:0004872').

f(223,A):-interaction(A,B),function(B,'GO:0004871'),
process(B,'GO:0009613').

f(224,A):-interaction(A,B),function(B,'GO:0016787'),
component(B,'GO:0043231').

existential



Step 3: RSD Propositionalization

diffexp g1 (gene64499)

diffexp g2 (gene2534)

diffexp g3 (gene5199)

diffexp g4 (gene1052)

diffexp g5 (gene6036)

....

random g1 (gene7443)

random g2 (gene9221)

random g3 (gene2339)

random g4 (gene9657)

random g5 (gene19679)

....

	f1	f2	f3	f4	f5	f6	fn
g1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1
g2	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	0
g3	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1
g4	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0
g5	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	0
g1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
g2	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	1
g3	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0
g4	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1

Step 4: RSD rule construction with CN2-SD

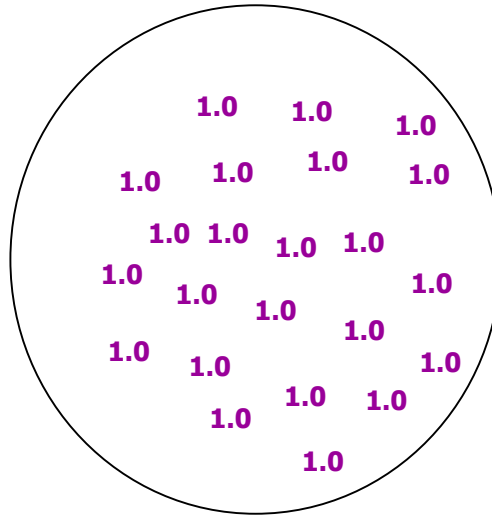
	f1	f2	f3	f4	f5	f6	fn
g1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1
g2	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	0
g3	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1
g4	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0
g5	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	0
g1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
g2	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	1
g3	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0
g4	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1

Over-
expressed
IF
f2 and f3
[4,0]

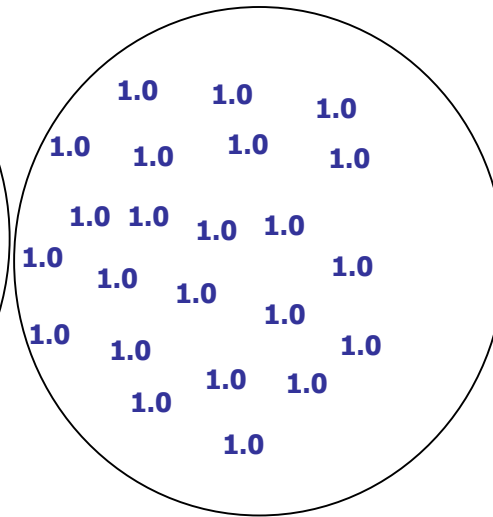
diffexp(A) :- interaction(A,B) & function(B,'GO:0004871')

Subgroup Discovery

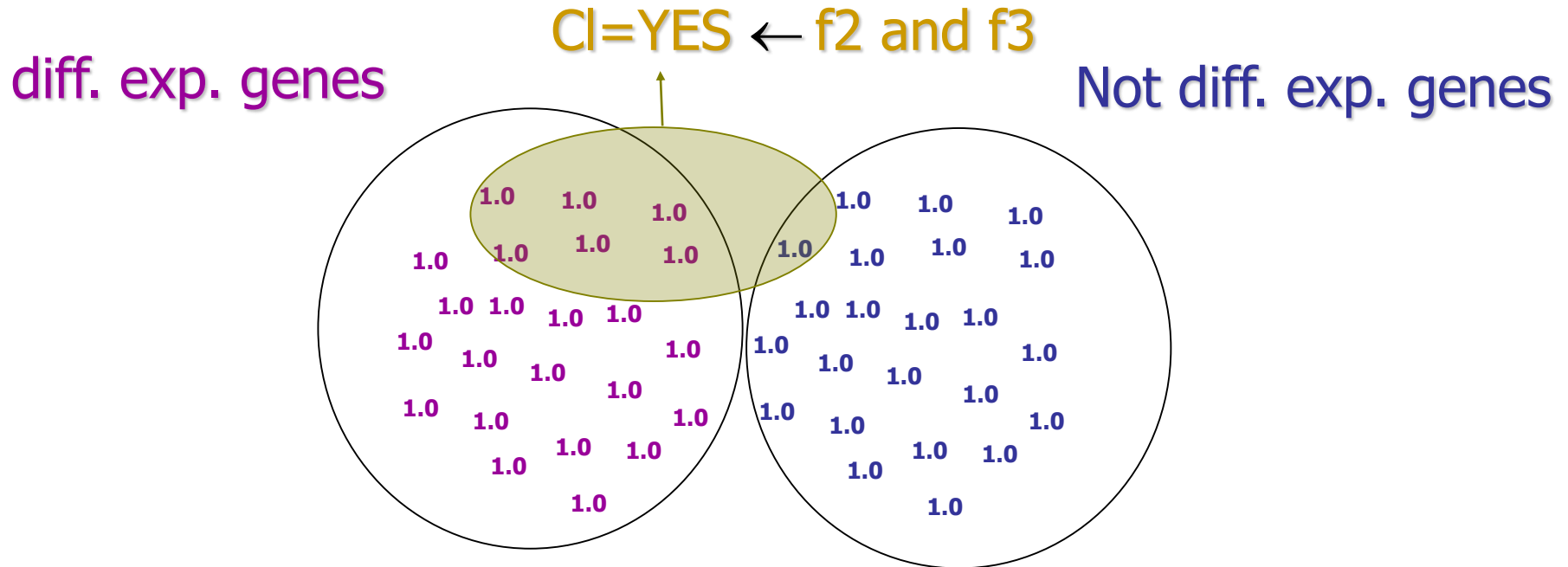
diff. exp. genes



Not diff. exp. genes



Subgroup Discovery



In RSD (using propositional learner CN2-SD):

Quality of the rules = Coverage x Precision

*Coverage = sum of the covered weights

*Precision = purity of the covered genes

RSD Lessons learned

Efficient propositionalization can be applied to individual-centered, multi-instance learning problems:

- one free global variable (denoting an individual, e.g. molecule M)
- one or more structural predicates: (e.g. `has_atom(M,A)`), each introducing a new existential local variable (e.g. atom A), using either the global variable (M) or a local variable introduced by other structural predicates (A)
- one or more utility predicates defining properties of individuals or their parts, assigning values to variables

`feature121(M):- hasAtom(M,A), atomType(A,21)`

`feature235(M):- lumo(M,Lu), lessThr(Lu,-1.21)`

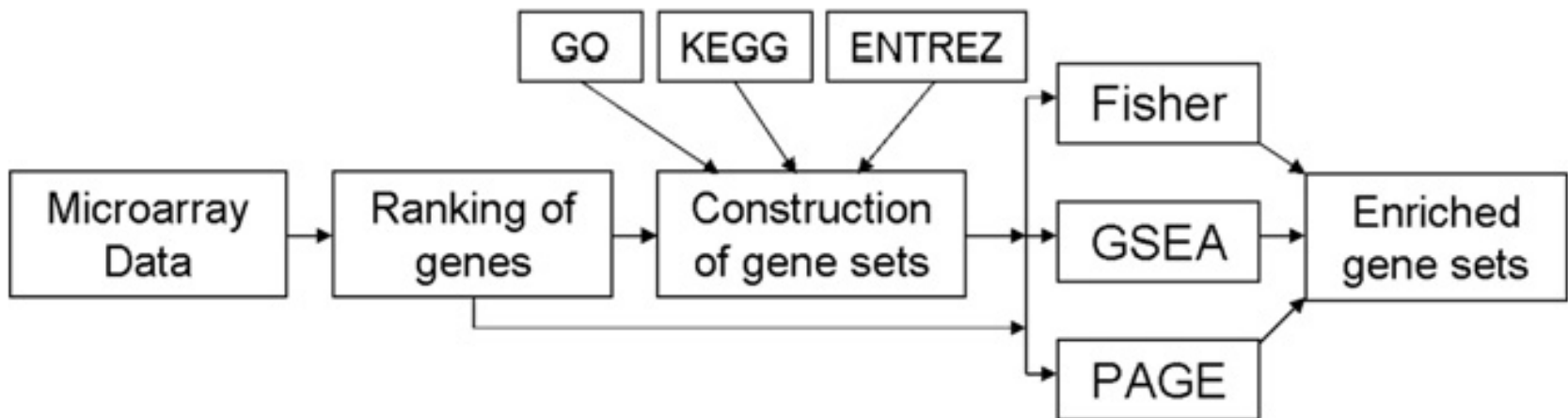
`mutagenic(M):- feature121(M), feature235(M)`

SEGS: using RSD approach

- The SEGS approach enables to discover new medical knowledge from the combination of gene expression data with public gene annotation databases
- The SEGS approach proved effective in several biomedical applications (JBI 2008, ...)
 - The work on semantic data mining - using ontologies as background knowledge for subgroup discovery with SEGS - was done in collaboration with I. Trajkovski, F. Železny and J. Tolar
- Recent work: Semantic subgroup discovery implemented in Orange4WS

Semantic subgroup discovery with SEGS

- SEGS workflow is implemented in the Orange4WS data mining environment

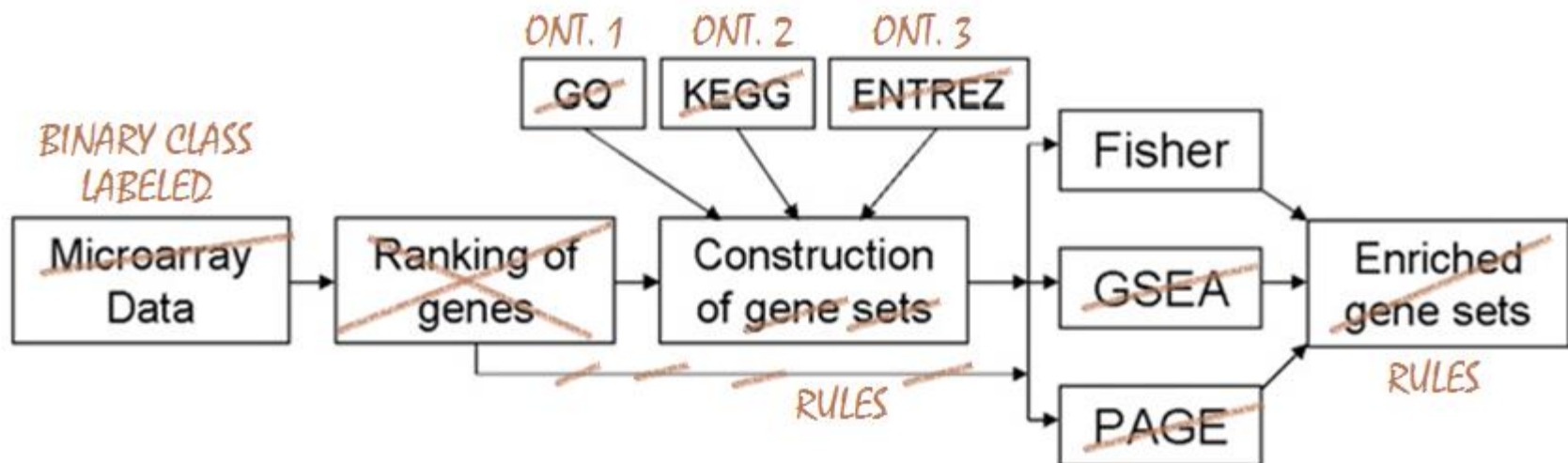


- SEGS is also implemented also as a Web applications

(Trajkovski et al., IEEE TSMC 2008, Trajkovski et al., JBI 2008)

From SEGS to SDM-SEGS: Generalizing SEGS

- SDM-SEGS: a general semantic data mining



- Discovers subgroups both for ranked and labeled data
- Exploits input ontologies in OWL format
- Is also implemented in Orange4WS

Relational Data Mining in Orange4WS

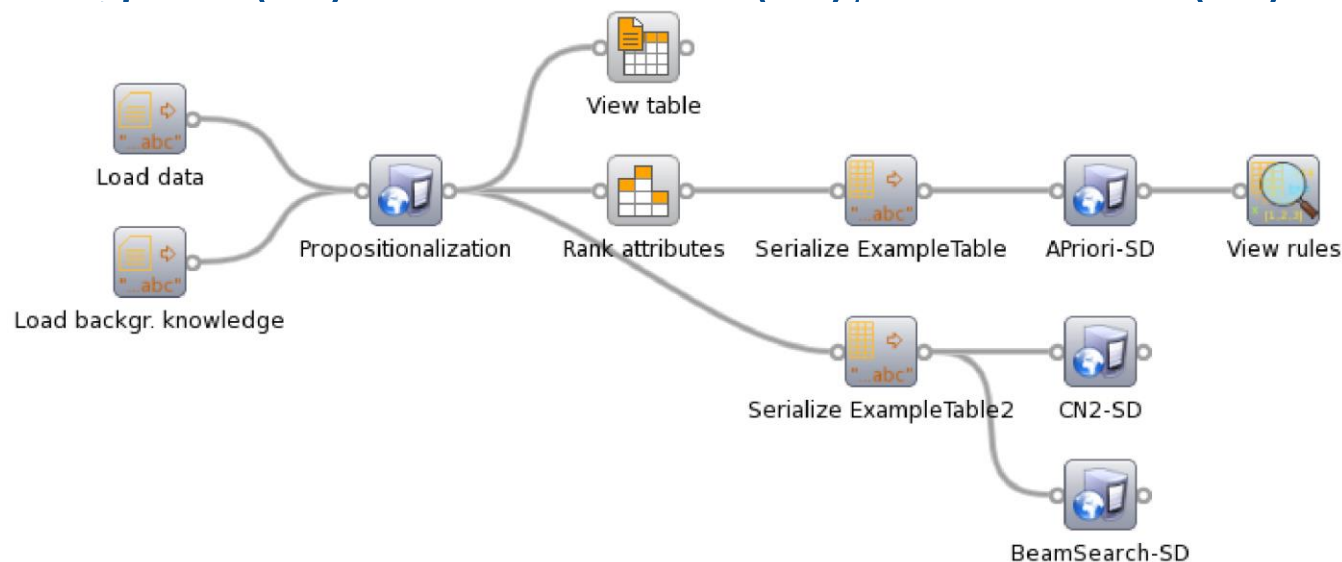
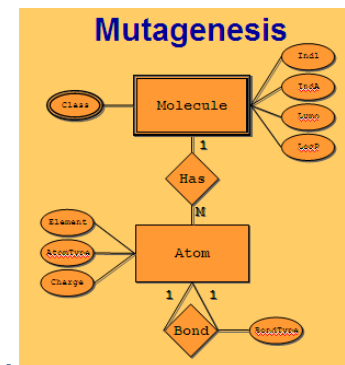
- service for propositionalization through efficient first-order feature construction (Železny and Lavrač, MLJ 2006)

$f_{121}(M):- \text{hasAtom}(M,A), \text{atomType}(A,21)$

$f_{235}(M):- \text{lumo}(M,Lu), \text{lessThr}(Lu,1.21)$

- subgroup discovery using CN2-SD

$\text{mutagenic}(M) \leftarrow \text{feature}_{121}(M), \text{feature}_{235}(M)$

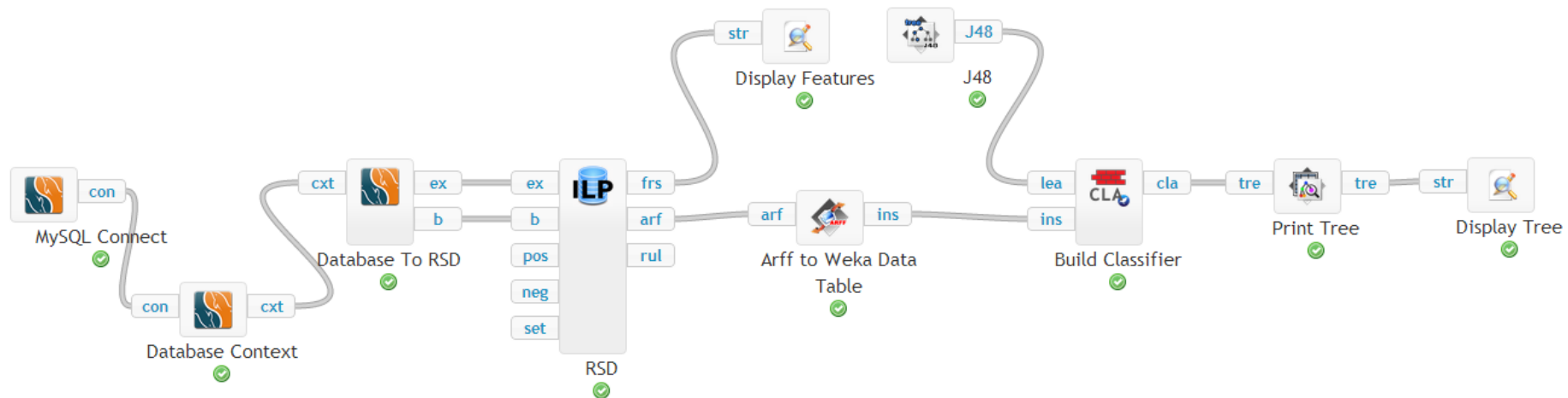


Semantic Data Mining in Orange4WS

- A special purpose Semantic Data Mining algorithm SEGS
 - discovers interesting gene group descriptions as conjunctions of ontology concepts from GO, KEGG and Entrez
 - integrates public gene annotation data through relational features
 - SEGS algorithm (Trajkovski, Železny, Lavrač and Tolar, JBI 2008) is available in Orange4WS
- Recent developments:
 - Special purpose SDM algorithms: RSD, SDM-SEGS, SDM-Aleph, Hedwig
 - Implemented in web based DM platform ClowdFlows

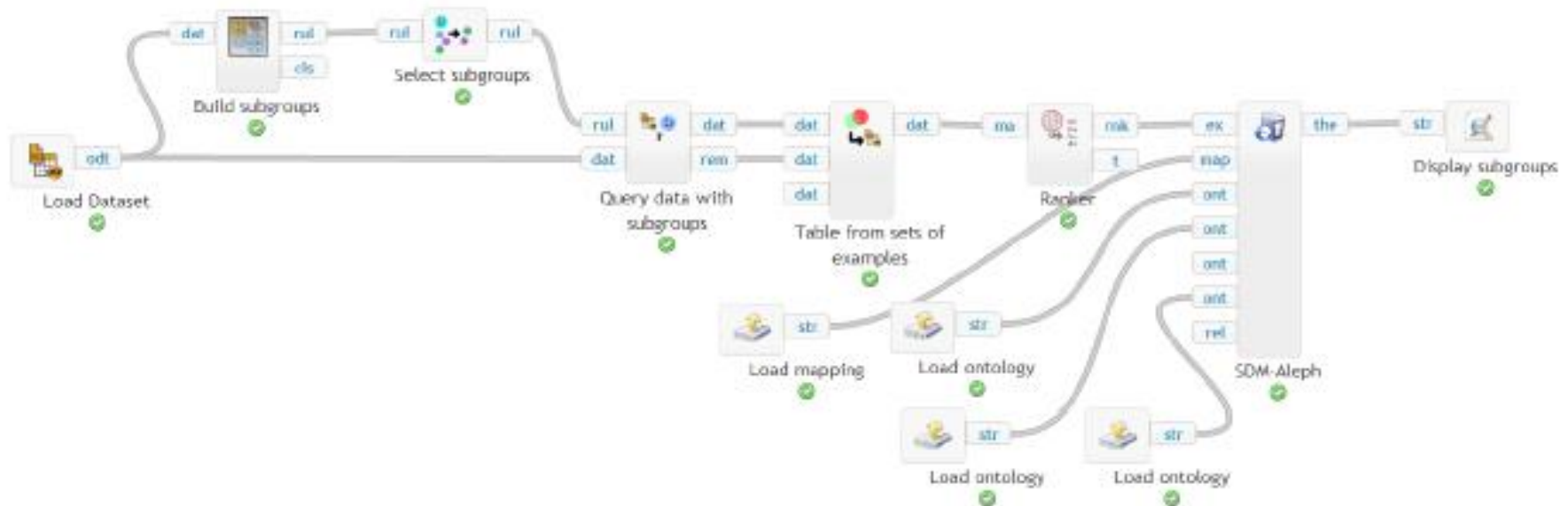
Third Generation Data Mining Platform: ClowdFlows

- **ClowdFlows** - browsed-based DM platform for data mining in the cloud and workflow sharing on the web (Kranjc et al. 2012)
- RSD, SDM-SEGS, SDM-Aleph, Hedwig are available as ingredients of elaborate data mining workflows in ClowdFlows
- **Example workflow:** Propositionalization with RSD available in ClowdFlows at <http://clowdflows.org/workflow/611/>



Sample biomedical application of Hedwig

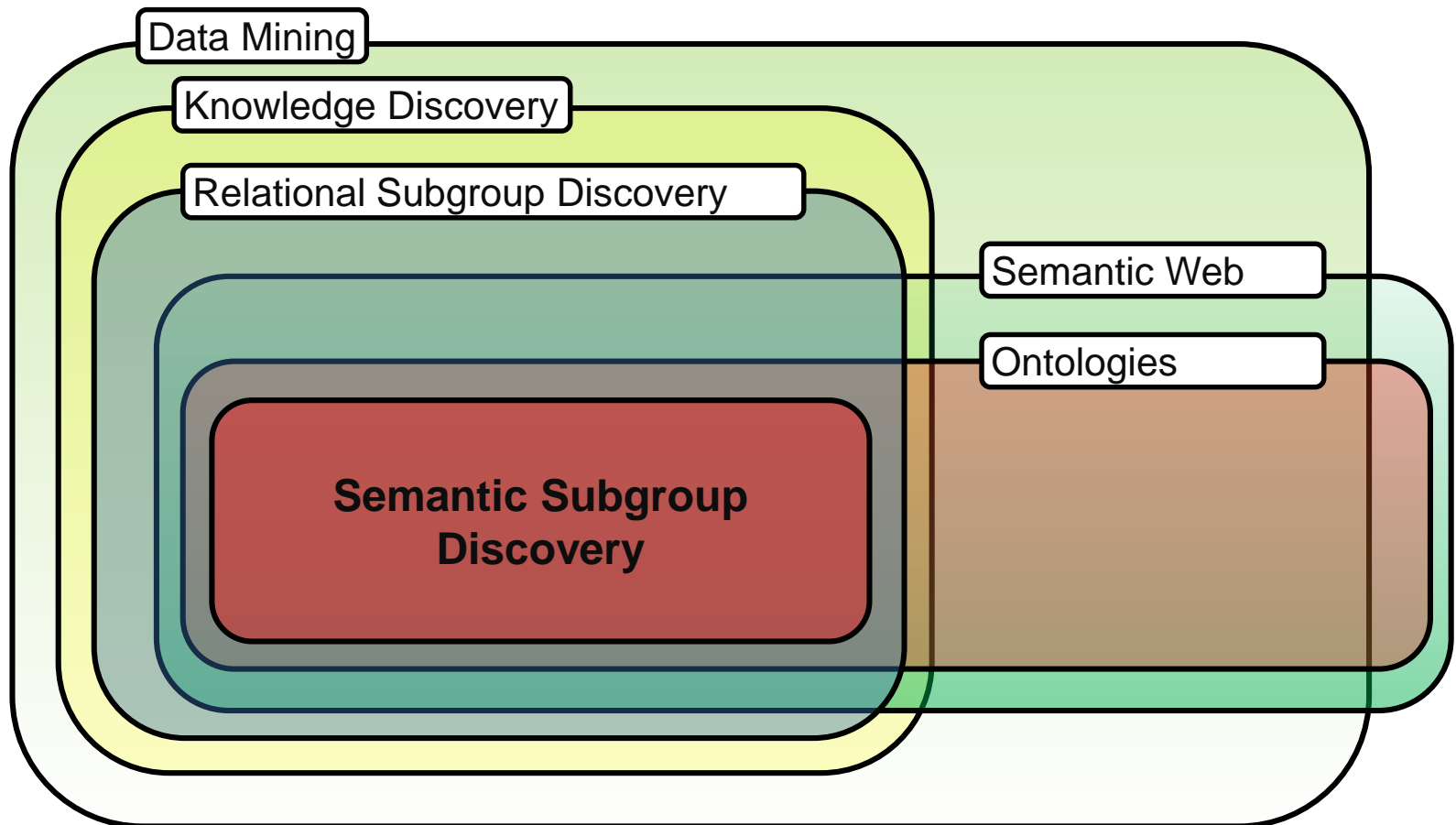
- Semantic subgroup discovery and semantic explanation of subgroups on breast cancer data (Vavpetič et al., JIIS 2014)



- The workflow, implemented in CloudFlows, is available at <http://clowdflows.org/workflow/1283/>

Semantic Data Mining

- Semantic subgroup discovery (Vavpetič et al., 2012)



Course Outline

I. Introduction

- Data Mining and KDD process
- Introduction to Data Mining
- Data Mining platforms

II. Predictive DM Techniques

- Decision Tree learning
- Bayesian classifier
- Classification rule learning
- Classifier Evaluation

III. Regression

IV. Descriptive DM

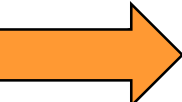
- Predictive vs. descriptive induction
- Subgroup discovery
- Association rule learning
- Hierarchical clustering

V. Relational Data Mining

- RDM and Inductive Logic Programming
- Propositionalization
- Semantic data mining

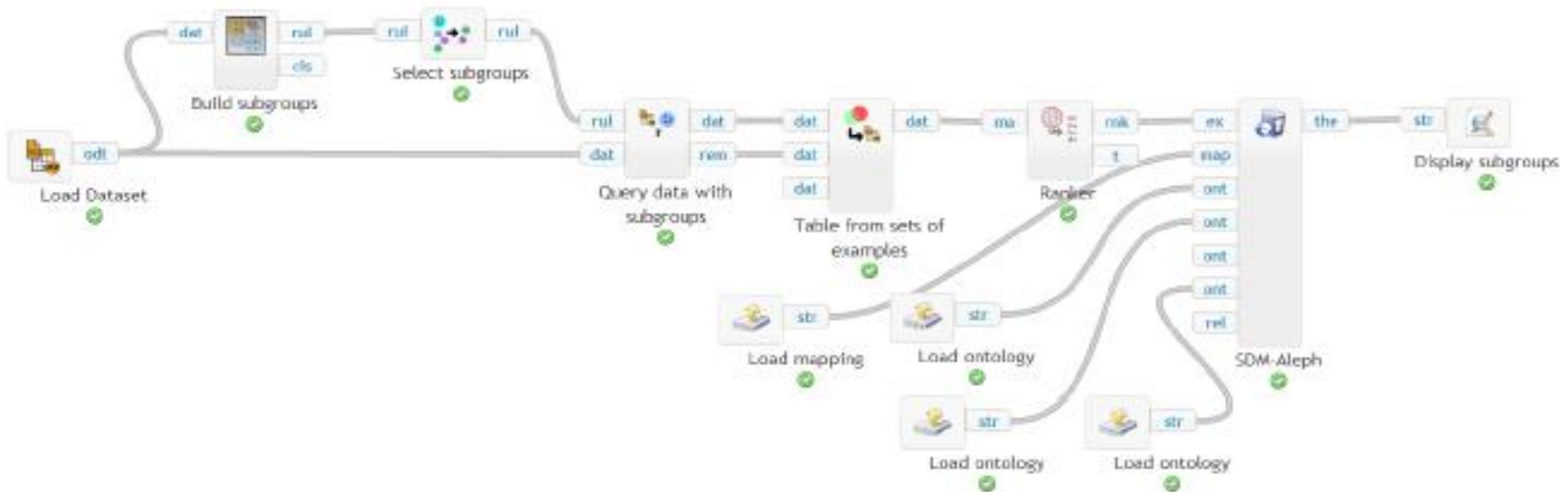
VI. Advanced Topics

Advanced Topics I.

- 
- ClowdFlows Data Mining Platform
(PhD of Janez Kranjc, demo Martin Žnidaršič)
 - Outlier detection with NoiseRank
(PhD of Borut Sluban)

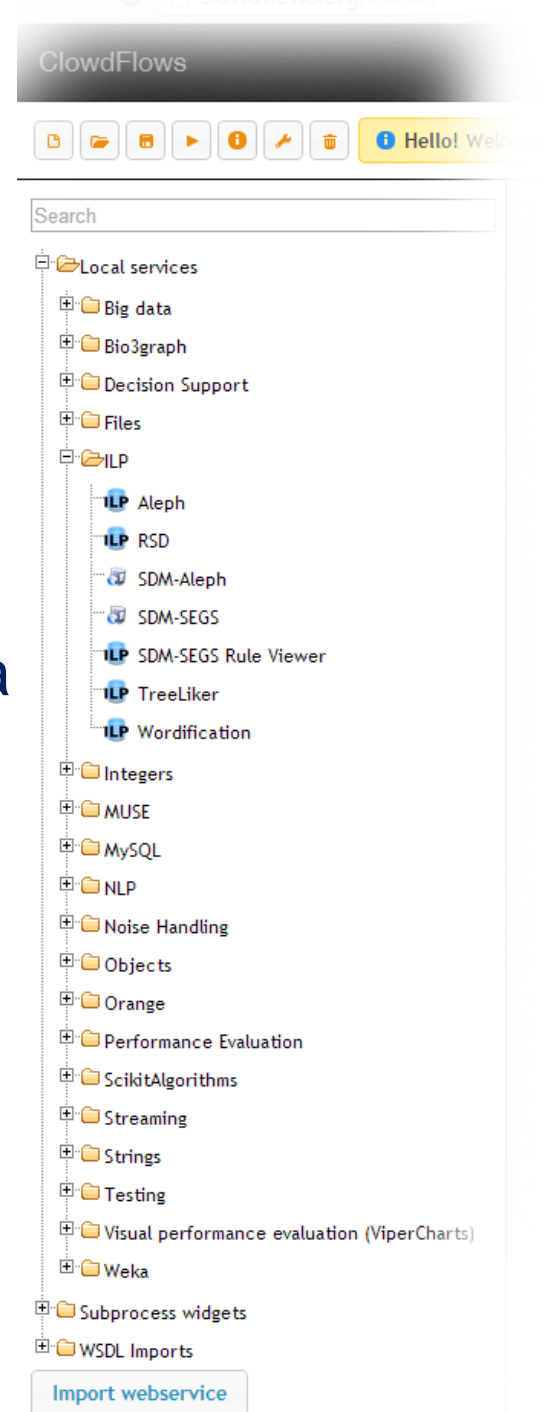
Open data science platform CloudFlows

- Third generation platform for the creation and execution of complex data mining workflows
 - Algorithms as web services (in the cloud)
 - No need for platform installation
 - Workflows are openly accessible and executable from any modern web browser by a web site click <http://clowdflows.org/workflow/1283/>



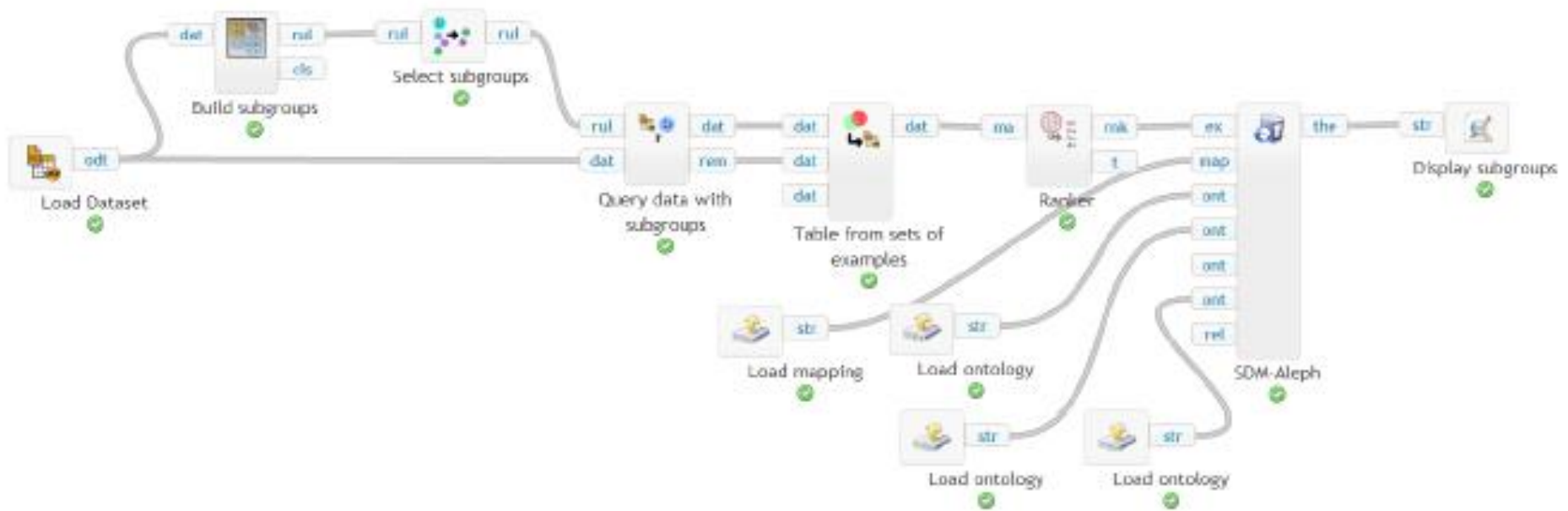
CloudFlows platform

- is service oriented (DM algorithms as web services)
- includes functionality of other DM platforms, e.g. WEKA algorithms, implemented as Web services
- includes new functionality, e.g. relational data mining, semantic data mining, big data analytics, text mining, ...
- enables simplified construction of Web services from available algorithms
- runs in any browser, enabling workflow construction and sharing on the web
- user-friendly HCI: canvas for workflow construction



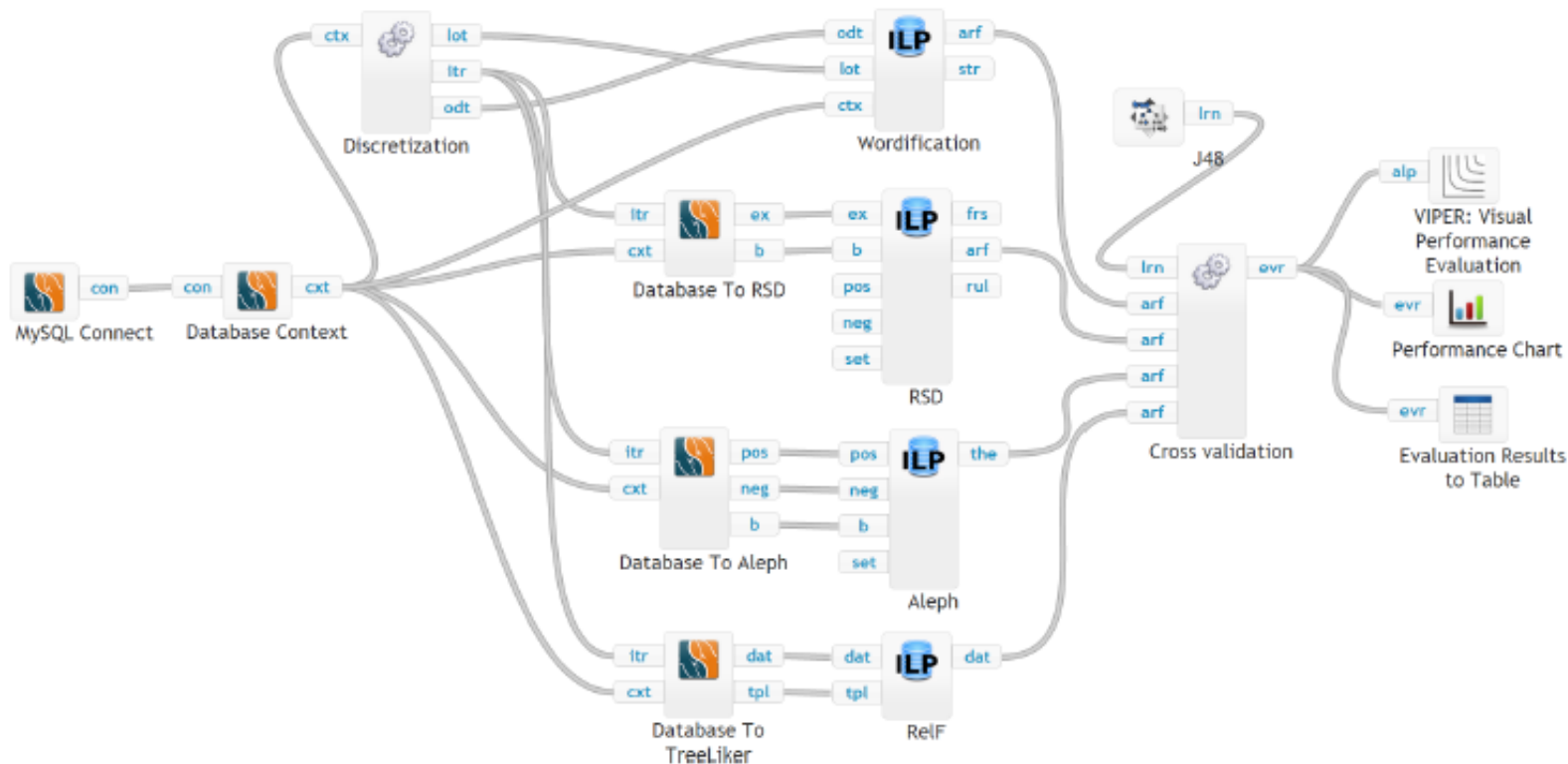
SDM in ClowdFlows

- Semantic subgroup discovery and semantic explanation of subgroups on breast cancer data (Vavpetič et al., JIIS 2014)



- The workflow, implemented in ClowdFlows, is available for sharing at <http://clowdflows.org/workflow/1283/>

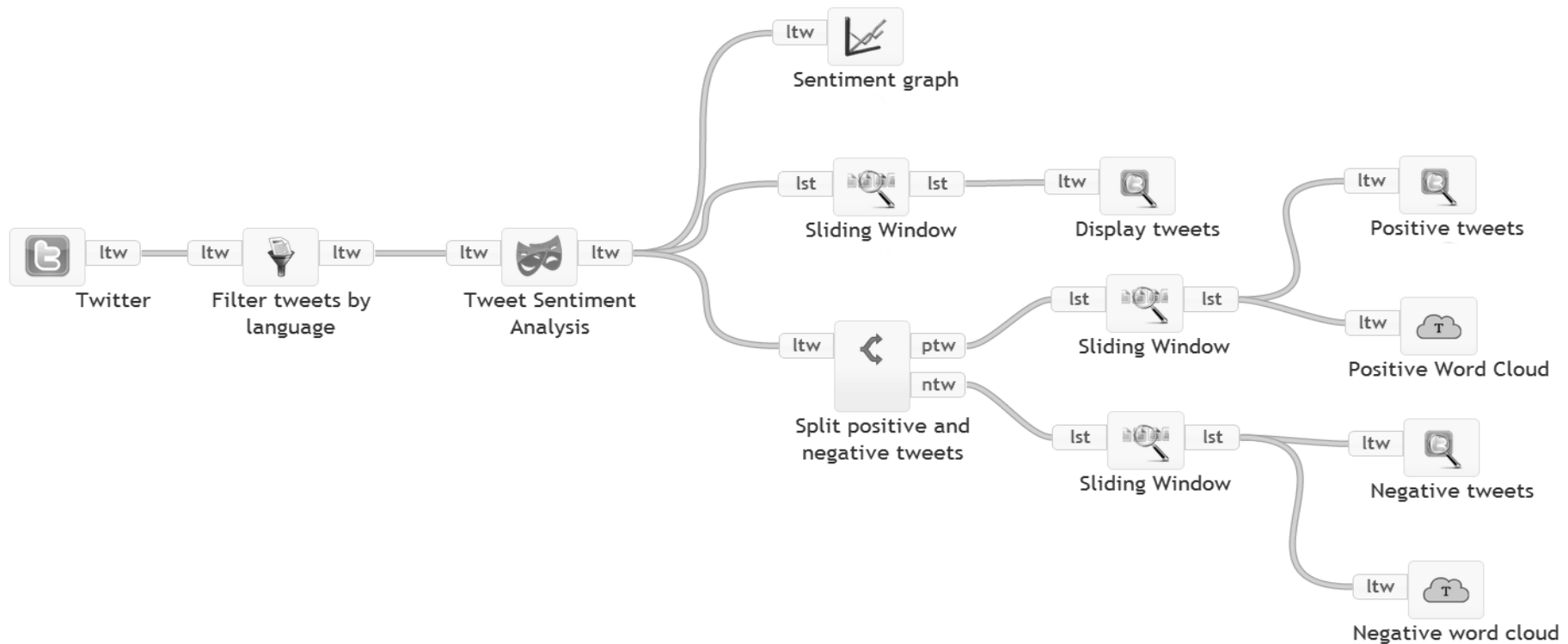
Propositionalization and Wordification in CloudFlows



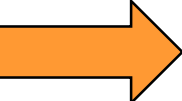
Wordification and propositionalization algorithms comparison, available at <http://cloudflores.org/workflow/1456/>

Analysis of Big data in ClowdFlows

- Analysis of positive/negative sentiment in tweets in real time <http://clowdflows.org/workflow/1041/>.



Advanced Topics I.

- ClowdFlows Data Mining Platform
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-  Outlier detection with NoiseRank
(PhD of Borut Sluban)



Noise and outliers

- Errors in the data – noise

- Animals of white color



- Exceptions or Outliers

- Herd of sheep



Noise and outlier detection

- **Noise** in data negatively affect data mining results. (Zhu et al., 2004)
- False medical diagnosis (**classification noise**) can have serious consequences (Gamberger et al. 2003)
- **Outlier** detection proved to be effective in detection of network intrusion and bank fraud. (Aggarwal and Yu, 2001)

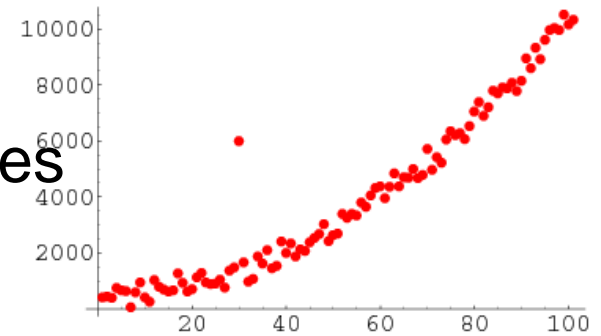
Detecting noise and outliers

- Errors and exceptions are:

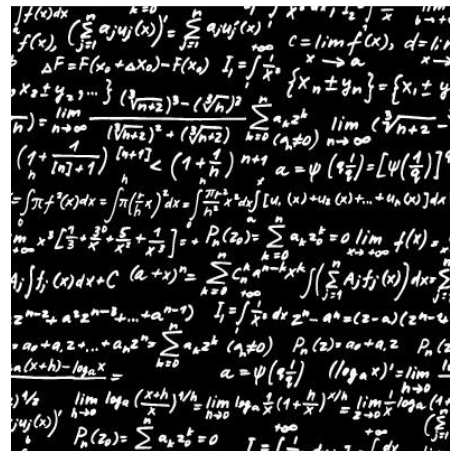


- Inconsistencies with common patterns

- Great deviations from expected values



- Hard to describe

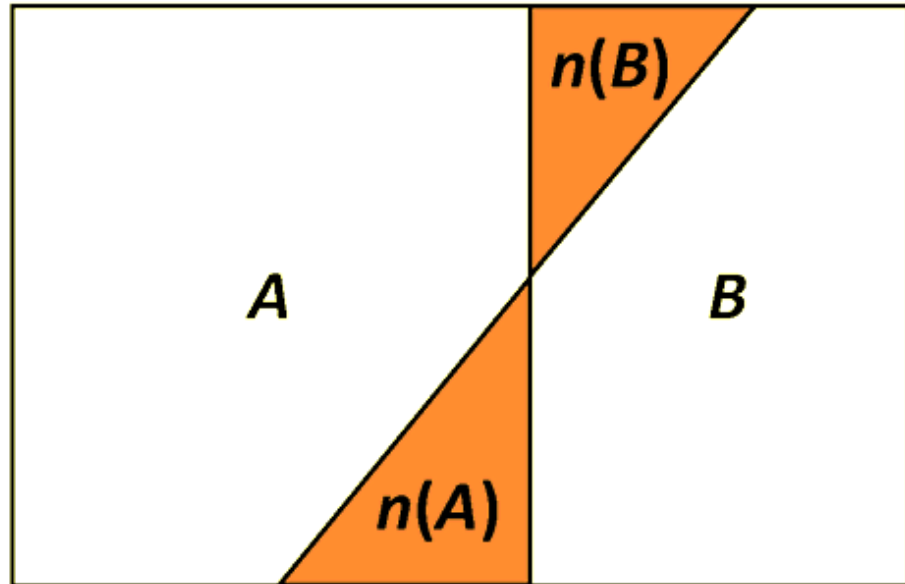
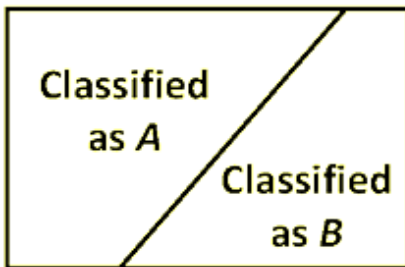
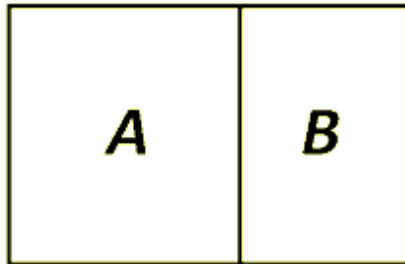


Classification noise filtering

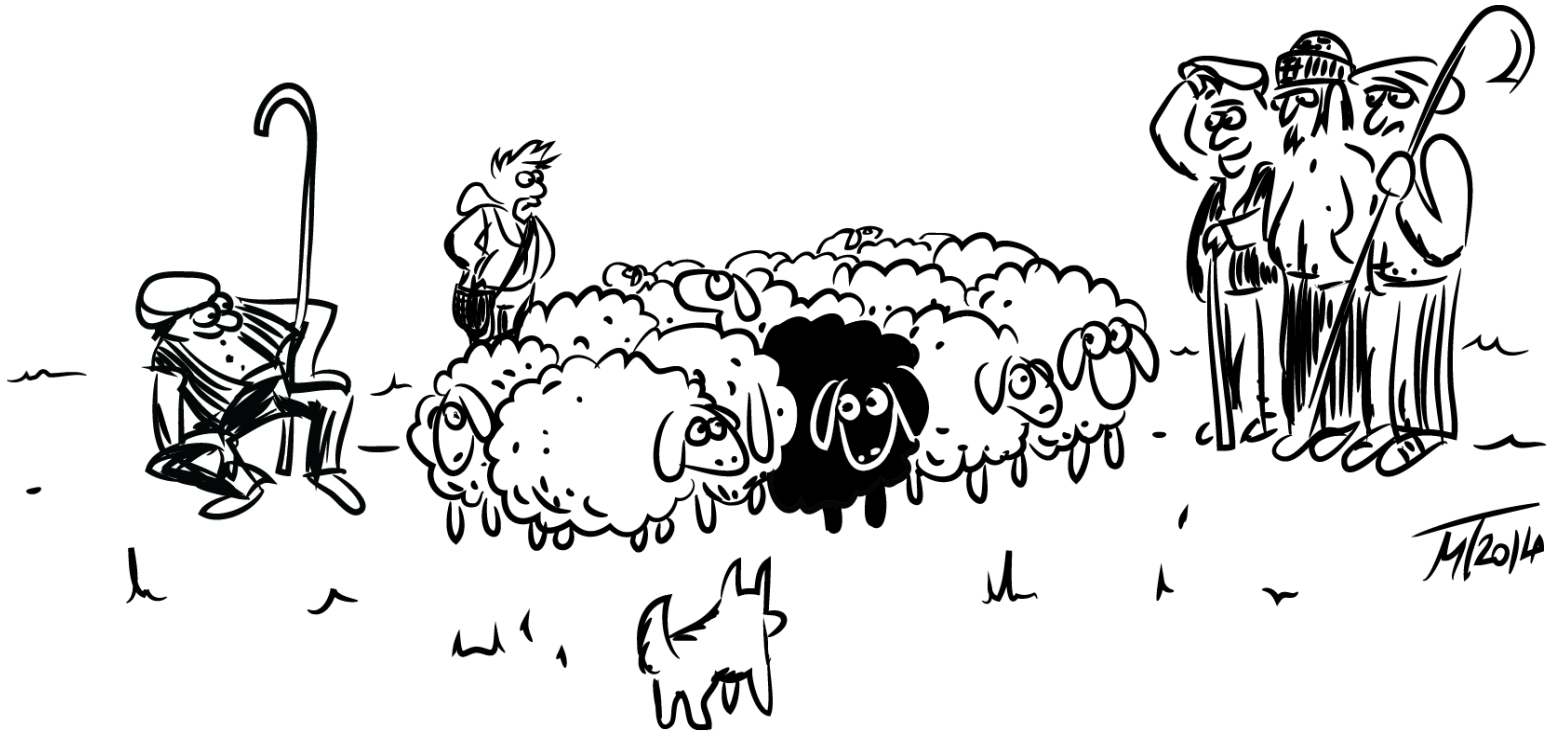
- Model the data
- What can't be modeled is considered noise

Classification noise filtering

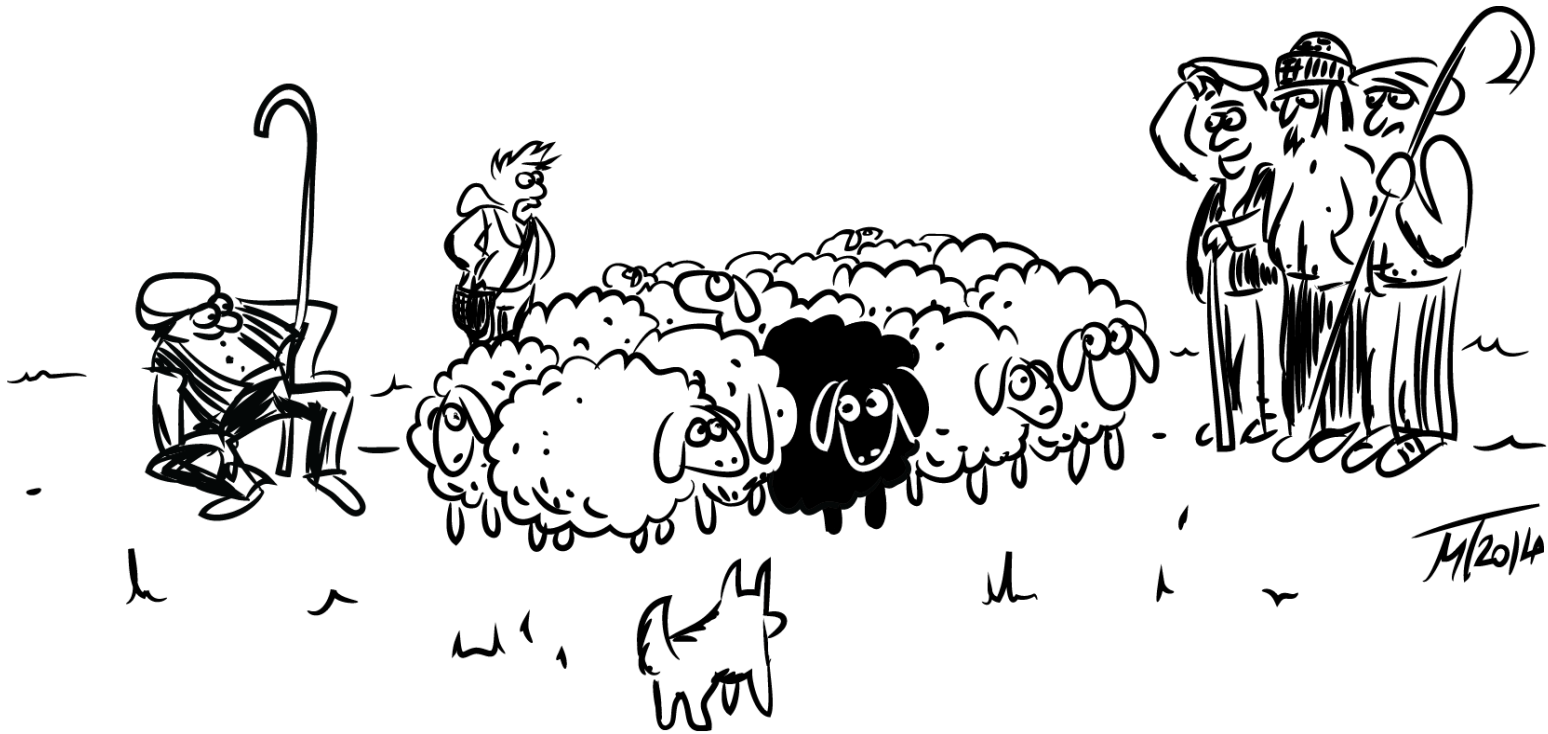
- Model the data, using any learning algorithm
- What can't be modeled is considered noise



Ensembles of classifiers



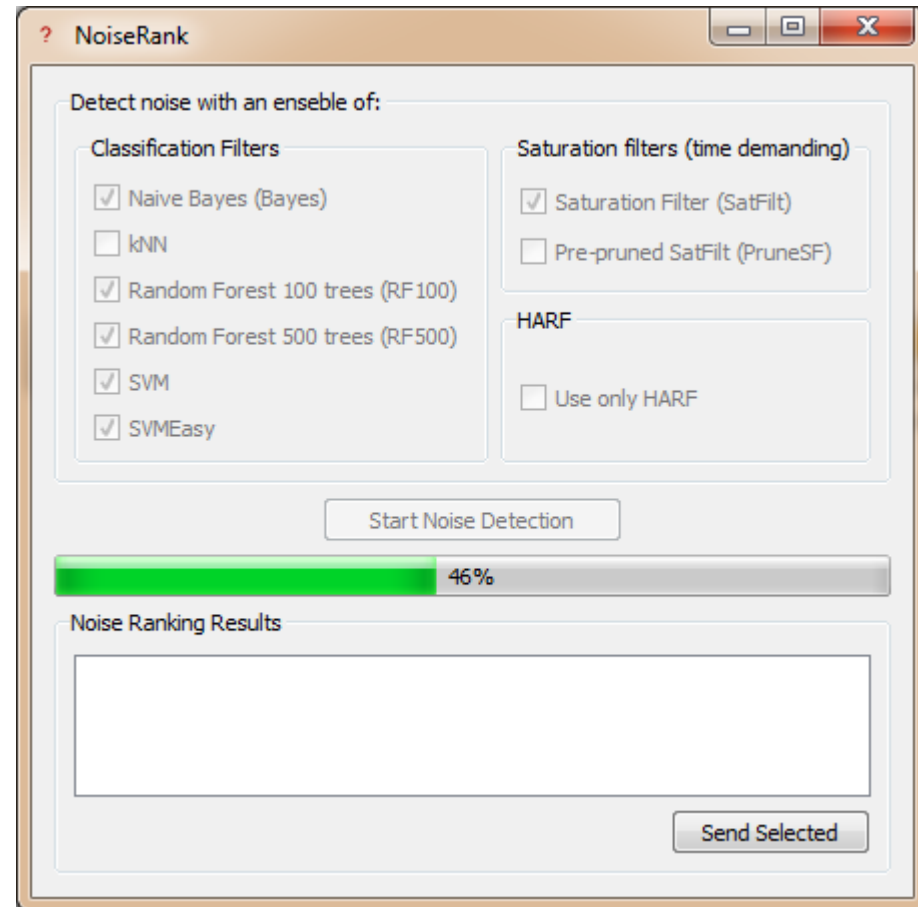
Ensembles of classifiers



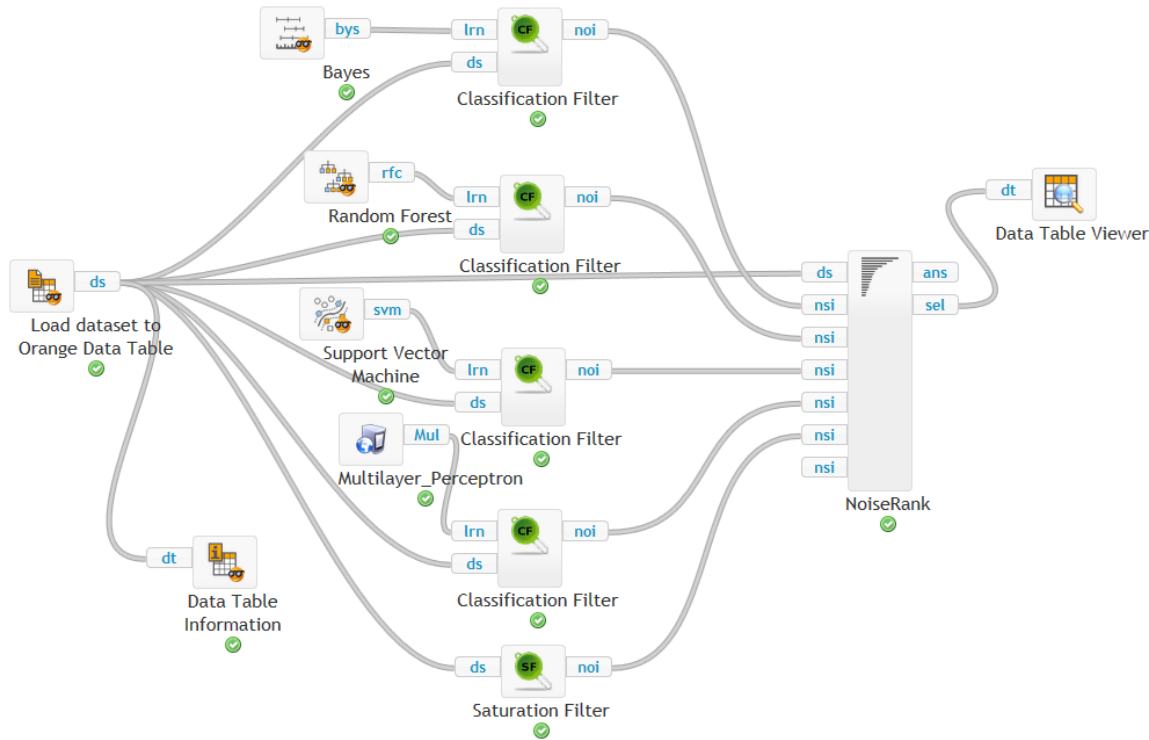
- Combine predictions of various models
- To overcome weaknesses or bias of individual models
- Averaging, Majority voting, Consensus voting, Ranking, etc.

NoiseRank: Ensemble-based noise and outlier detection

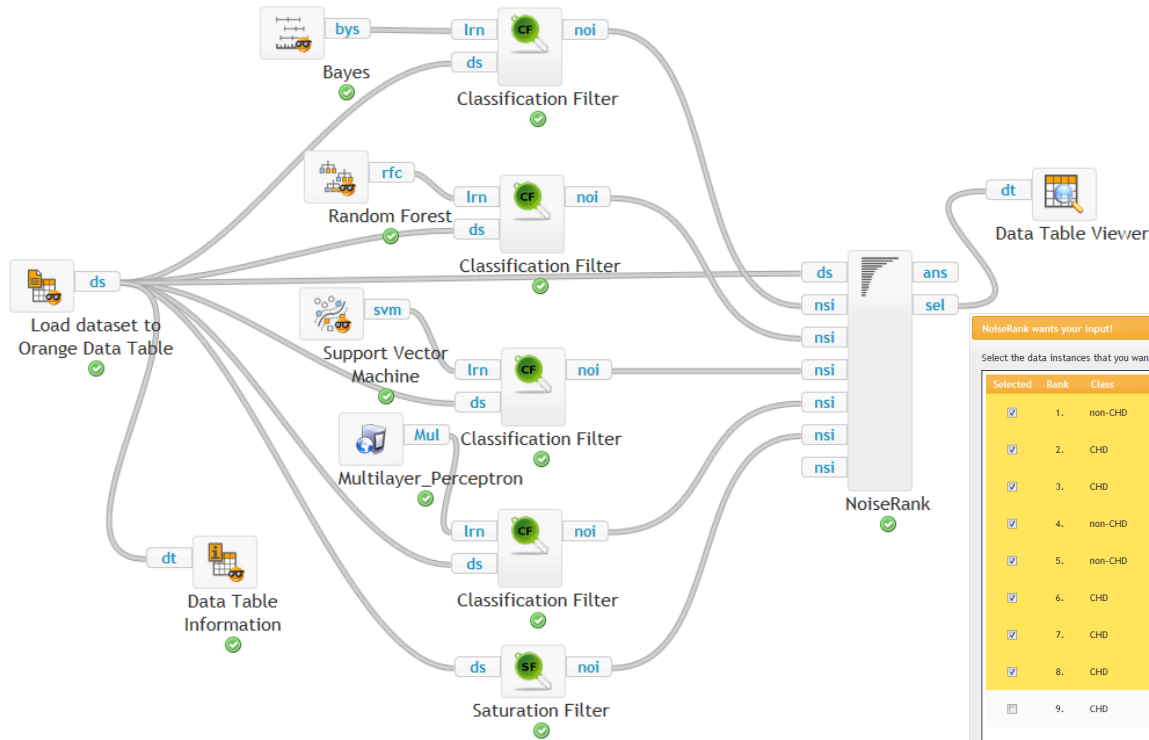
- Misclassified document detection by an ensemble of diverse classifiers (e.g., Naive Bayes, Random Forest, SVM, ... classifiers)
- Ranking of misclassified documents by “voting” of classifiers



NoiseRank Workflows



NoiseRank Workflows



NoiseRank wants your input!

Select the data instances that you want to examine in more detail.

Selected	Rank	Class	ID	Detected by:				
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	1.	non-CHD	51	Naive Bayes (Orange)	RF500 (Orange)	SVM (Orange)	Multilayer Perceptron	SF
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	2.	CHD	229	RF500 (Orange)	SVM (Orange)	Multilayer Perceptron	SF	
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	3.	CHD	0	SVM (Orange)	Multilayer Perceptron	SF		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	4.	non-CHD	27	RF500 (Orange)	Multilayer Perceptron	SF		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	5.	non-CHD	39	Naive Bayes (Orange)	SVM (Orange)	Multilayer Perceptron		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	6.	CHD	176	Naive Bayes (Orange)	SVM (Orange)	Multilayer Perceptron		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	7.	CHD	194	Naive Bayes (Orange)	SVM (Orange)	Multilayer Perceptron		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	8.	CHD	213	RF500 (Orange)	SVM (Orange)	Multilayer Perceptron		
<input type="checkbox"/>	9.	CHD	42	SVM (Orange)	Multilayer Perceptron			
<input type="checkbox"/>	10.	non-CHD	120	Naive Bayes (Orange)	SVM (Orange)			
<input type="checkbox"/>	11.	non-CHD	164	Naive Bayes (Orange)	RF500 (Orange)			
<input type="checkbox"/>	12.	non-CHD	173	RF500 (Orange)	SF			
<input type="checkbox"/>	13.	CHD	196	Naive Bayes (Orange)	SVM (Orange)			
<input type="checkbox"/>	14.	non-CHD	226	RF500 (Orange)	SF			
<input type="checkbox"/>	15.	non-CHD	30	SVM (Orange)				
<input type="checkbox"/>	16.	CHD	45	Multilayer Perceptron				

NoiseRank: Ranked List of Noisy instances/Outliers

NoiseRank wants your input! ✕

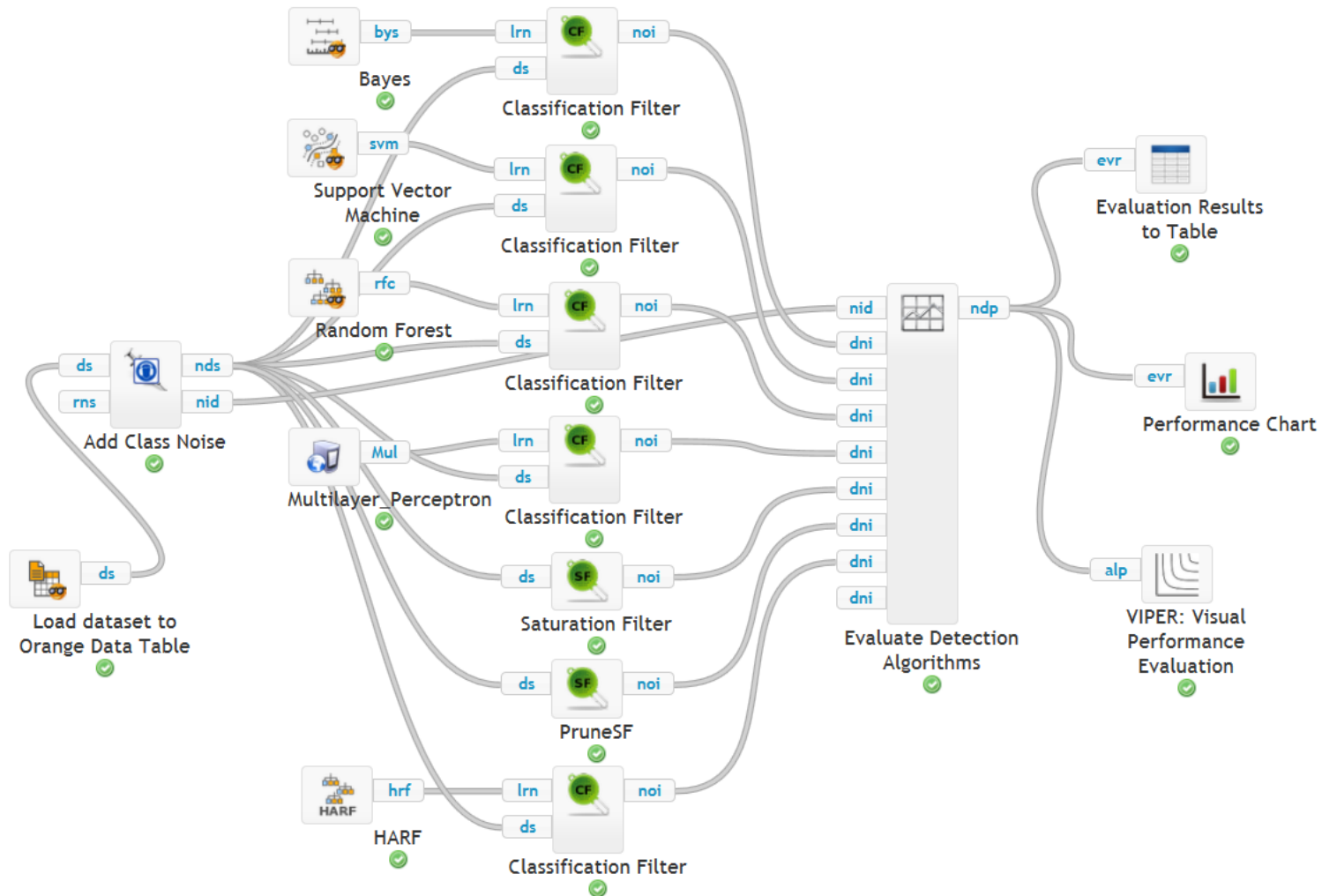
Select the data instances that you want to examine in more detail. Select all Select none

Selected	Rank	Class	ID	Detected by:				
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	1.	non-CHD	51	Naive Bayes (Orange)	RF500 (Orange)	SVM (Orange)	Multilayer Perceptron	SF
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	2.	CHD	229	RF500 (Orange)	SVM (Orange)	Multilayer Perceptron	SF	
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	3.	CHD	0	SVM (Orange)	Multilayer Perceptron	SF		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	4.	non-CHD	27	RF500 (Orange)	Multilayer Perceptron	SF		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	5.	non-CHD	39	Naive Bayes (Orange)	SVM (Orange)	Multilayer Perceptron		
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<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	7.	CHD	194	Naive Bayes (Orange)	SVM (Orange)	Multilayer Perceptron		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	8.	CHD	213	RF500 (Orange)	SVM (Orange)	Multilayer Perceptron		
<input type="checkbox"/>	9.	CHD	42	SVM (Orange)	Multilayer Perceptron			
<input type="checkbox"/>	10.	non-CHD	120	Naive Bayes (Orange)	SVM (Orange)			
<input type="checkbox"/>	11.	non-CHD	164	Naive Bayes (Orange)	RF500 (Orange)			
<input type="checkbox"/>	12.	non-CHD	173	RF500 (Orange)	SF			
<input type="checkbox"/>	13.	CHD	196	Naive Bayes (Orange)	SVM (Orange)			
<input type="checkbox"/>	14.	non-CHD	226	RF500 (Orange)	SF			
<input type="checkbox"/>	15.	non-CHD	30	SVM (Orange)				

Try it out

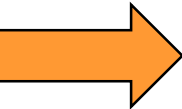
- NoiseRank
 - <http://clowdflows.org/workflow/115/>
- Clowdflows:
 - Noise Handling
 - Orange, Weka classification
 - Performance evaluation
- Noise filtering using ensembles (with performance evaluation)
 - <http://clowdflows.org/workflow/245/>

Noise filtering using ensembles (with performance evaluation)



<http://cloudflores.org/workflow/245/>

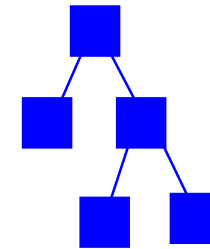
Advanced Topics II.

- 
- Text mining: An introduction
 - Document clustering and outlier detection
 - Wordification approach to relational data mining

Background: Data mining

Person	Age	Spect. presc.	Astigm.	Tear prod.	Lenses
O1	17	myope	no	reduced	NONE
O2	23	myope	no	normal	SOFT
O3	22	myope	yes	reduced	NONE
O4	27	myope	yes	normal	HARD
O5	19	hypermetrope	no	reduced	NONE
O6-O13
O14	35	hypermetrope	no	normal	SOFT
O15	43	hypermetrope	yes	reduced	NONE
O16	39	hypermetrope	yes	normal	NONE
O17	54	myope	no	reduced	NONE
O18	62	myope	no	normal	NONE
O19-O23
O24	56	hypermetrope	yes	normal	NONE

knowledge discovery
from data



model, patterns, clusters,

...

data

Given: transaction data table, a set of text documents, ...

Find: a classification model, a set of interesting patterns

Data mining: Task reformulation

Person	Young	Myope	Astigm.	Reduced tea	Lenses
O1	1	1	0	1	NO
O2	1	1	0	0	YES
O3	1	1	1	1	NO
O4	1	1	1	0	YES
O5	1	0	0	1	NO
O6-O13
O14	0	0	0	0	YES
O15	0	0	1	1	NO
O16	0	0	1	0	NO
O17	0	1	0	1	NO
O18	0	1	0	0	NO
O19-O23
O24	0	0	1	0	NO

Binary features and class values

Text mining: Words/terms as binary features

Document	Word1	Word2	...	WordN	Class
d1	1	1	0	1	NO
d2	1	1	0	0	YES
d3	1	1	1	1	NO
d4	1	1	1	0	YES
d5	1	0	0	1	NO
d6-d13
d14	0	0	0	0	YES
d15	0	0	1	1	NO
d16	0	0	1	0	NO
d17	0	1	0	1	NO
d18	0	1	0	0	NO
d19-d23
d24	0	0	1	0	NO

Instances = documents

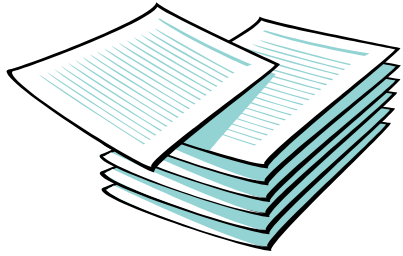
Words and terms = Binary features

Text Mining from unlabeled data

Document	Word1	Word2	...	WordN	Class
d1	1	1	0	1	NO
d2	1	1	0	0	YES
d3	1	1	1	1	NO
d4	1	1	1	0	YES
d5	1	0	0	1	NO
d6-d13
d14	0	0	0	0	YES
d15	0	0	1	1	NO
d16	0	0	1	0	NO
d17	0	1	0	1	NO
d18	0	1	0	0	NO
d19-d23
d24	0	0	1	0	NO

Unlabeled data - clustering: grouping of similar instances
- association rule learning

Text mining



Step 1

BoW vector construction

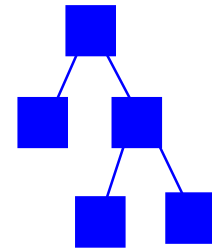
1. BoW features construction
2. Table of BoW vectors construction

Document	Word1	Word2	...	WordN	Class
d1	1	1	0	1	NO
d2	1	1	0	0	YES
d3	1	1	1	1	NO
d4	1	1	1	0	YES
d5	1	0	0	1	NO
d6-d13
d14	0	0	0	0	YES
d15	0	0	1	1	NO
d16	0	0	1	0	NO
d17	0	1	0	1	NO
d18	0	1	0	0	NO
d19-d23
d24	0	0	1	0	NO

Document	Word1	Word2	...	WordN	Class
d1	1	1	0	1	NO
d2	1	1	0	0	YES
d3	1	1	1	1	NO
d4	1	1	1	0	YES
d5	1	0	0	1	NO
d6-d13
d14	0	0	0	0	YES
d15	0	0	1	1	NO
d16	0	0	1	0	NO
d17	0	1	0	1	NO
d18	0	1	0	0	NO
d19-d23
d24	0	0	1	0	NO

Step 2

Data Mining



model, patterns, clusters,

...

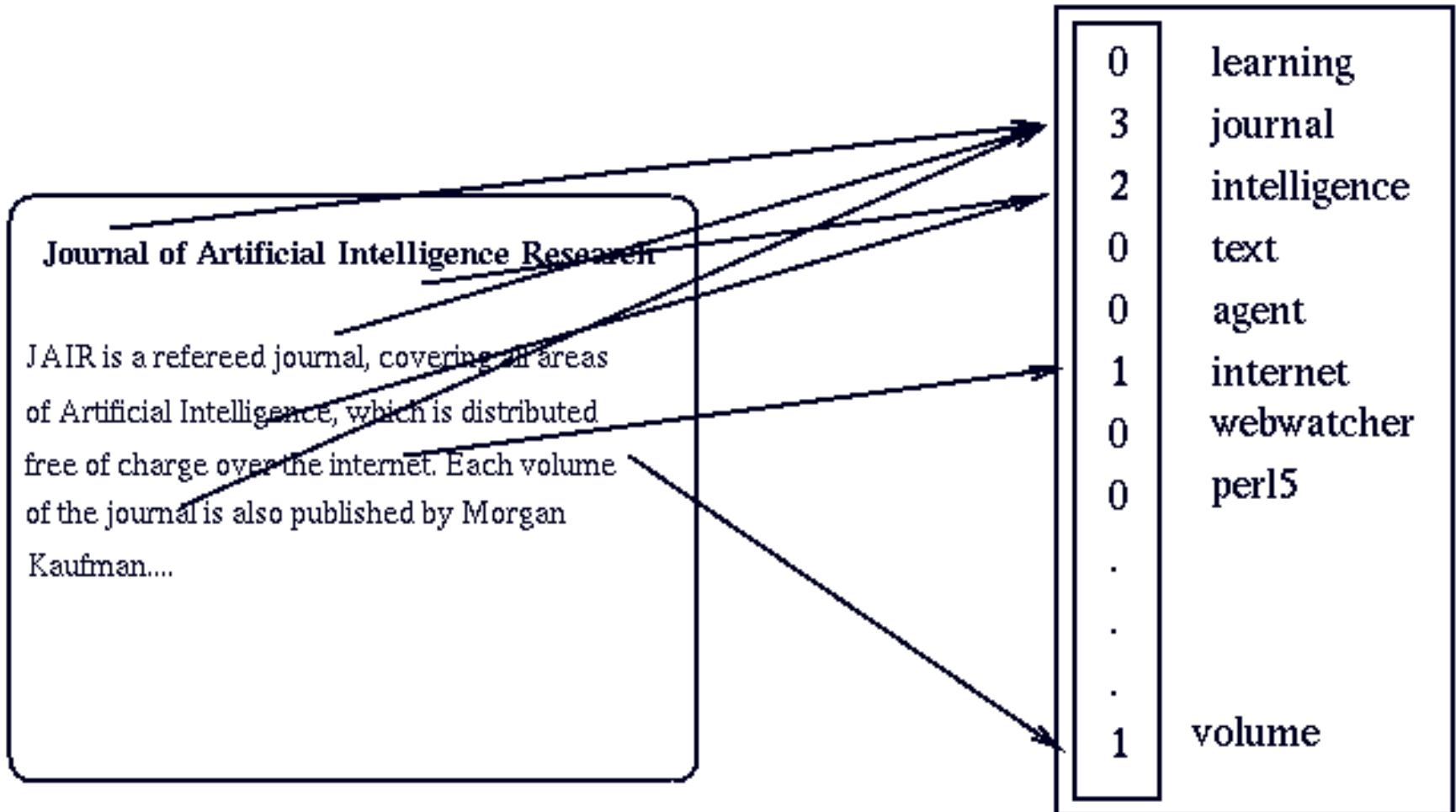
Text Mining

- Feature construction
 - StopWords elimination
 - Stemming or lemmatization
 - Term construction by frequent N-Grams construction
 - Terms obtained from thesaurus (e.g., WordNet)
- BoW vector construction
- Mining of BoW vector table
 - Feature selection, Document similarity computation
 - Text mining: Categorization, Clustering, Summarization, ...

Stemming and Lemmatization

- Different forms of the same word usually problematic for text data analysis
 - because they have different spelling and similar meaning (e.g. learns, learned, learning,...)
 - usually treated as completely unrelated words
- Stemming is a process of transforming a word into its stem
 - cutting off a suffix (eg., smejala -> smej)
- Lemmatization is a process of transforming a word into its normalized form
 - replacing the word, most often replacing a suffix (eg., smejala -> smejati)

Bag-of-Words document representation



Word weighting

- In bag-of-words representation each word is represented as a separate variable having numeric weight.
- The most popular weighting schema is normalized word frequency TFIDF:

$$tfidf(w) = tf \cdot \log\left(\frac{N}{df(w)}\right)$$

- $Tf(w)$ – term frequency (number of word occurrences in a document)
- $Df(w)$ – document frequency (number of documents containing the word)
- N – number of all documents
- $Tfidf(w)$ – relative importance of the word in the document

The word is more important if it appears several times in a target document

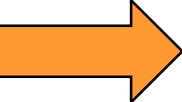
The word is more important if it appears in less documents

Cosine similarity between document vectors

- Each document D is represented as a vector of TF-IDF weights
- Similarity between two vectors is estimated by the similarity between their vector representations (cosine of the angle between the two vectors):

$$\textit{Similarity} (D_1, D_2) = \frac{\sum_i x_{1i} x_{2i}}{\sqrt{\sum_j x_j^2} \sqrt{\sum_k x_k^2}}$$

Advanced Topics II.

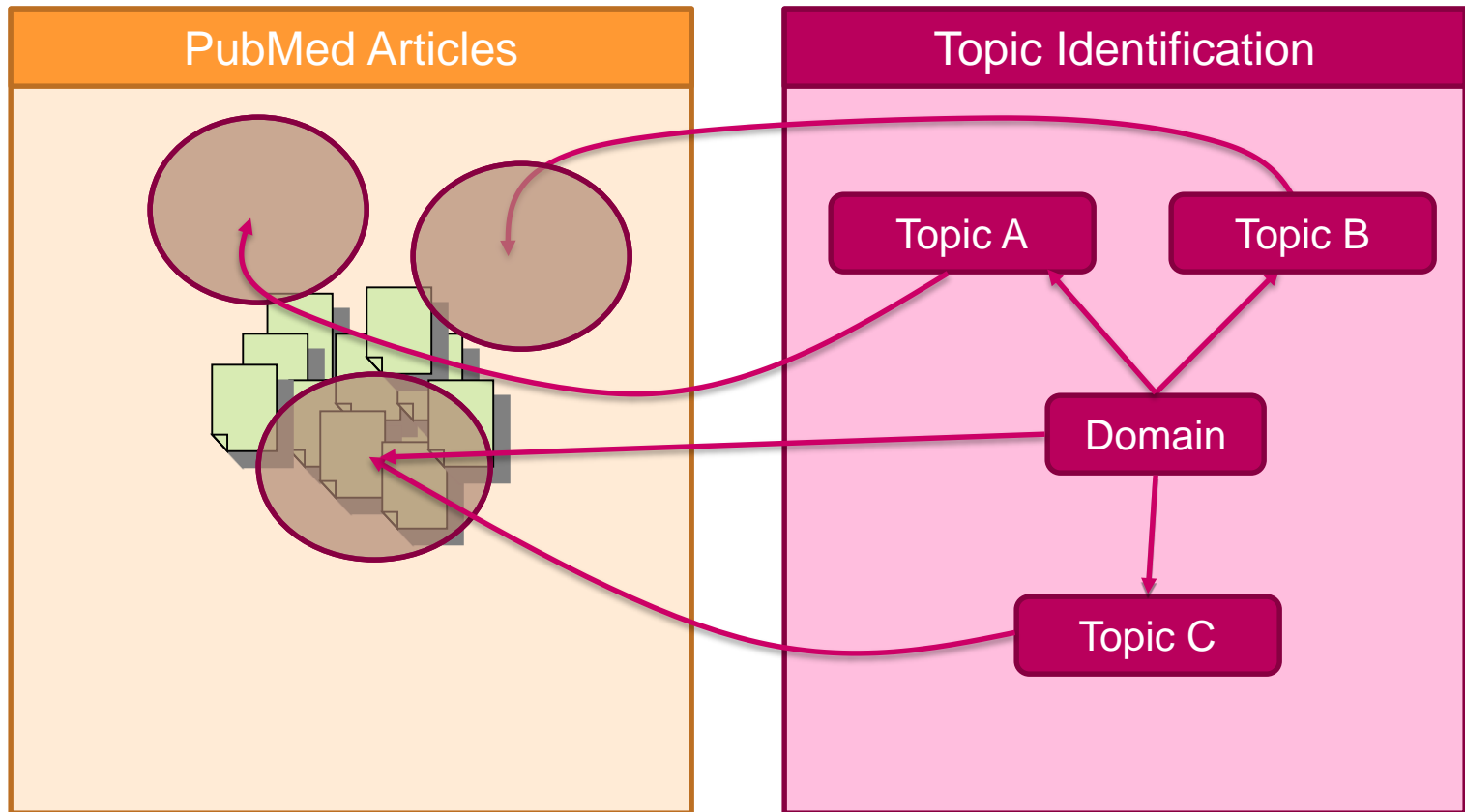
- Text mining: An introduction
-  Document clustering and outlier detection
- Wordification approach to relational data mining

Document clustering

- Clustering is a process of finding natural groups in data in a unsupervised way (no class labels pre-assigned to documents)
- Document similarity is used
- Most popular clustering methods:
 - K-Means clustering
 - Agglomerative hierarchical clustering
 - EM (Gaussian Mixture)
 - ...

Document clustering with OntoGen

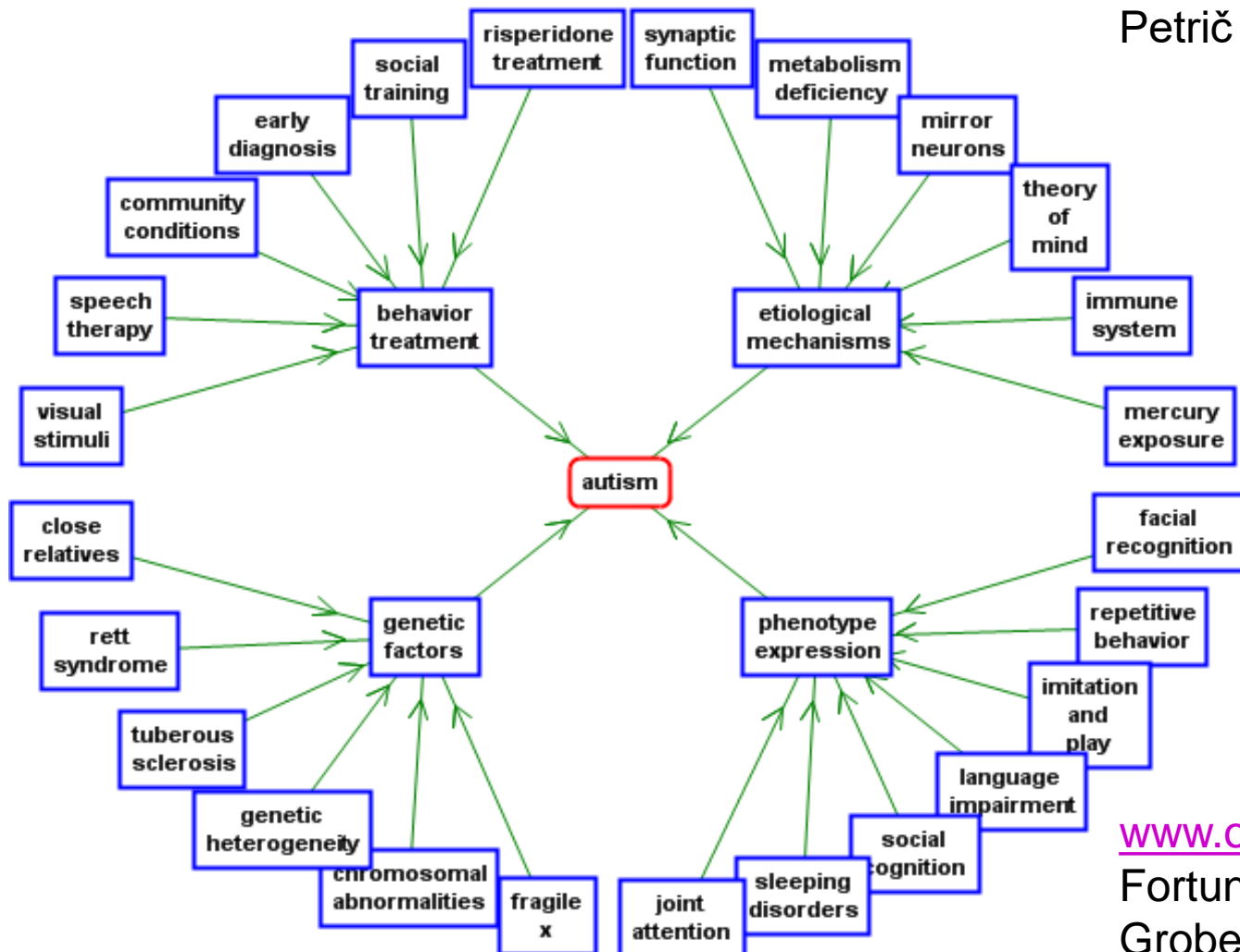
ontogen.ijs.si



Slide adapted from D. Mladenić, JSI

Using OntoGen for clustering PubMed articles on autism

Work by
Petrič et al. 2009



www.ontogen.si
Fortuna, Mladenić,
Grobelnik 2006

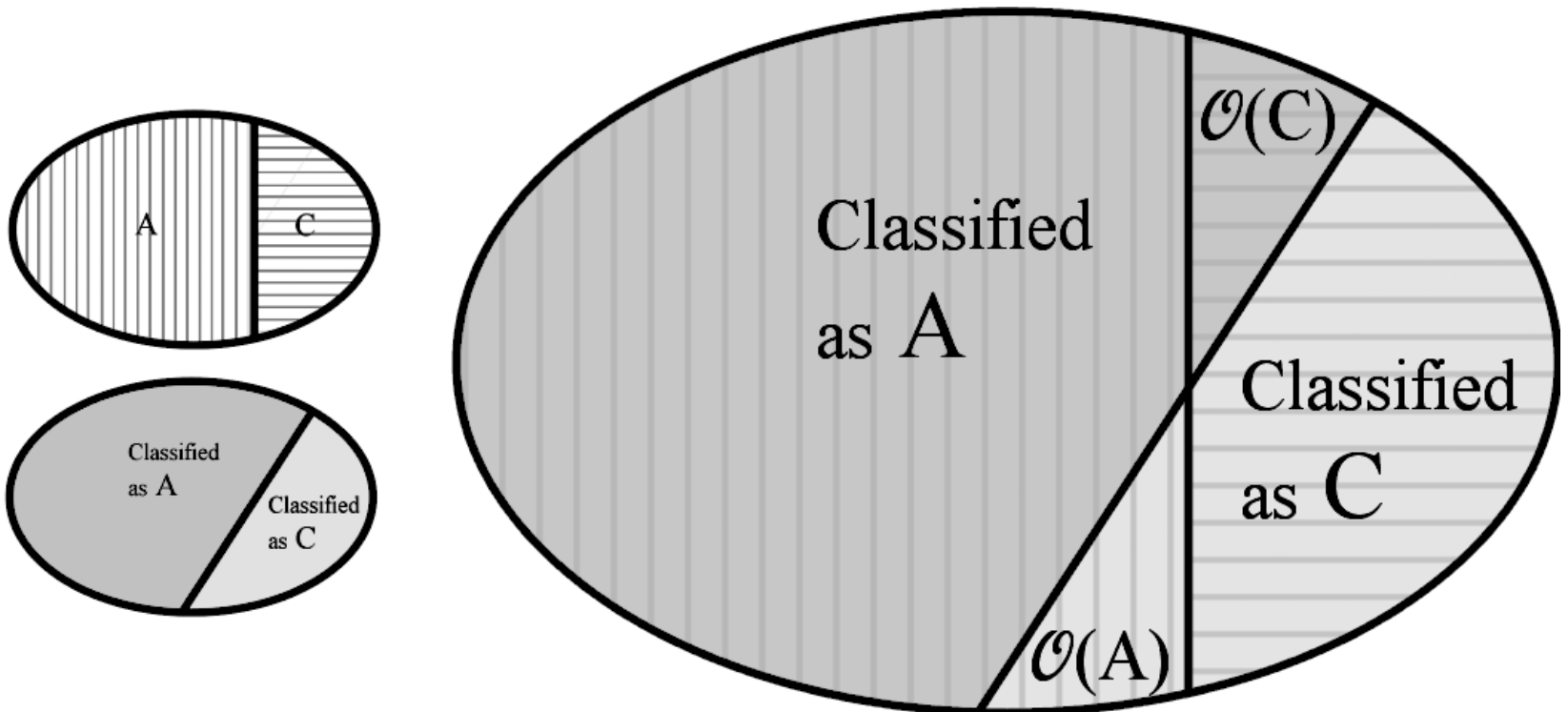
K-Means clustering in OntoGen

OntoGen uses k-Means clustering for semi-automated topic ontology construction

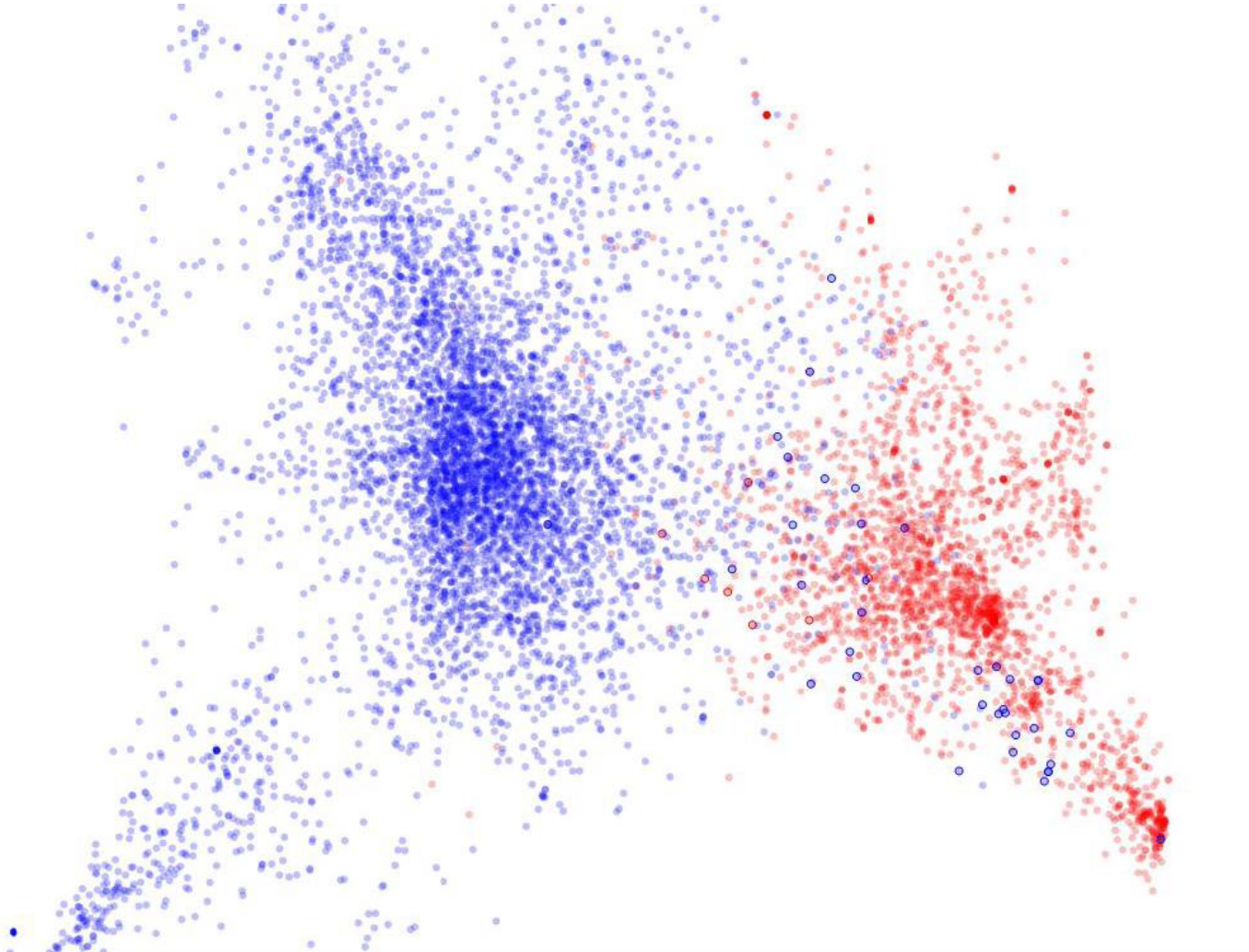
- Given:
 - set of documents (eg., word-vectors with TFIDF),
 - distance measure (eg., cosine similarity)
 - K - number of groups
- For each group initialize its centroid with a random document
- While not converging
 - each document is assigned to the nearest group (represented by its centroid)
 - for each group calculate new centroid (group mass point, average document in the group)

Detecting outlier documents

- By classification noise detection on a domain pair dataset, assuming two separate document corpora A and C



Outlier detection for cross-domain knowledge discovery

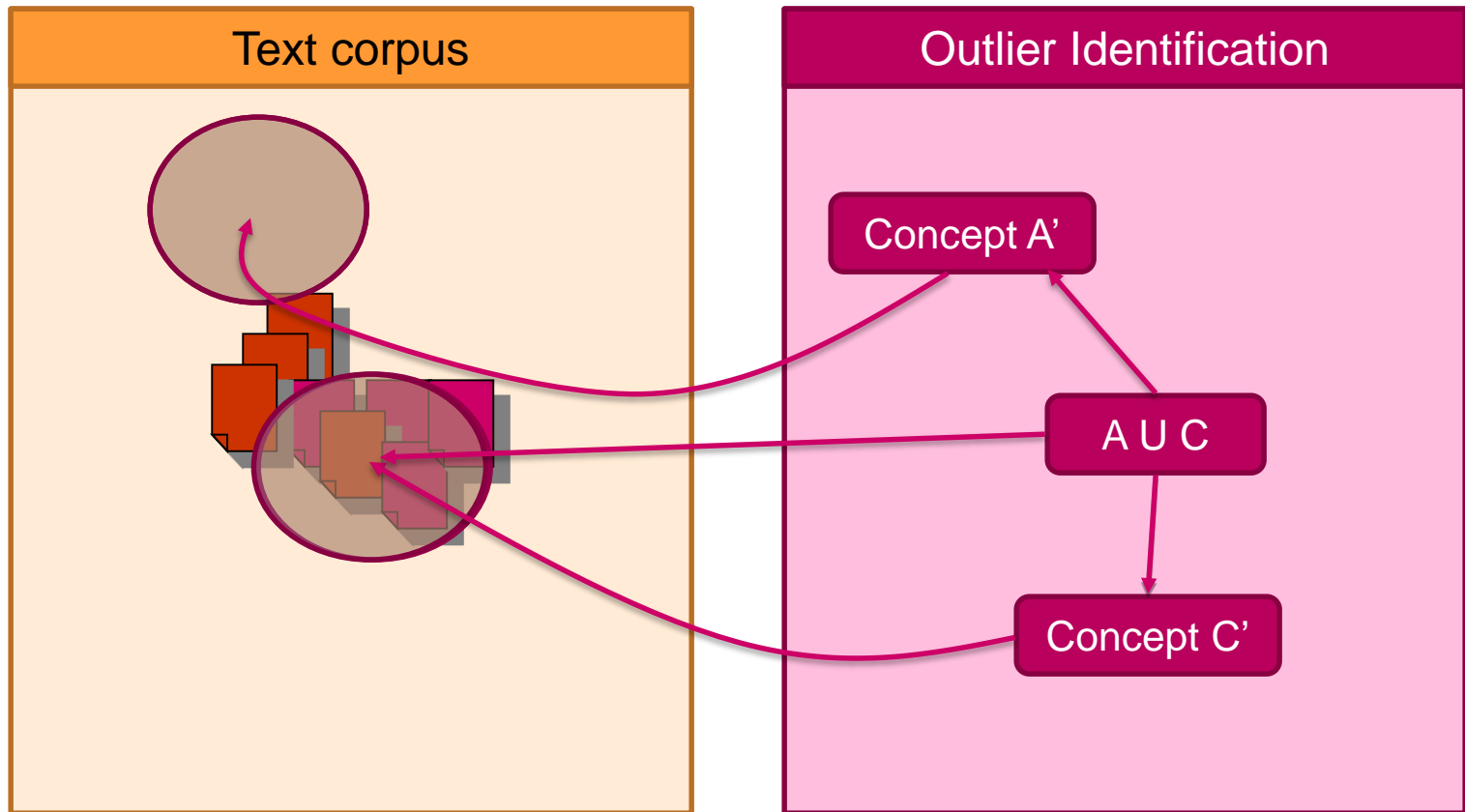


2-dimensional projection of documents (about autism (red) and calcineurin (blue). Outlier documents are bolded for the user to easily spot them.

Our research has shown that most domain bridging terms appear in outlier documents.

(Lavrač, Sluban, Grčar, Juršič 2010)

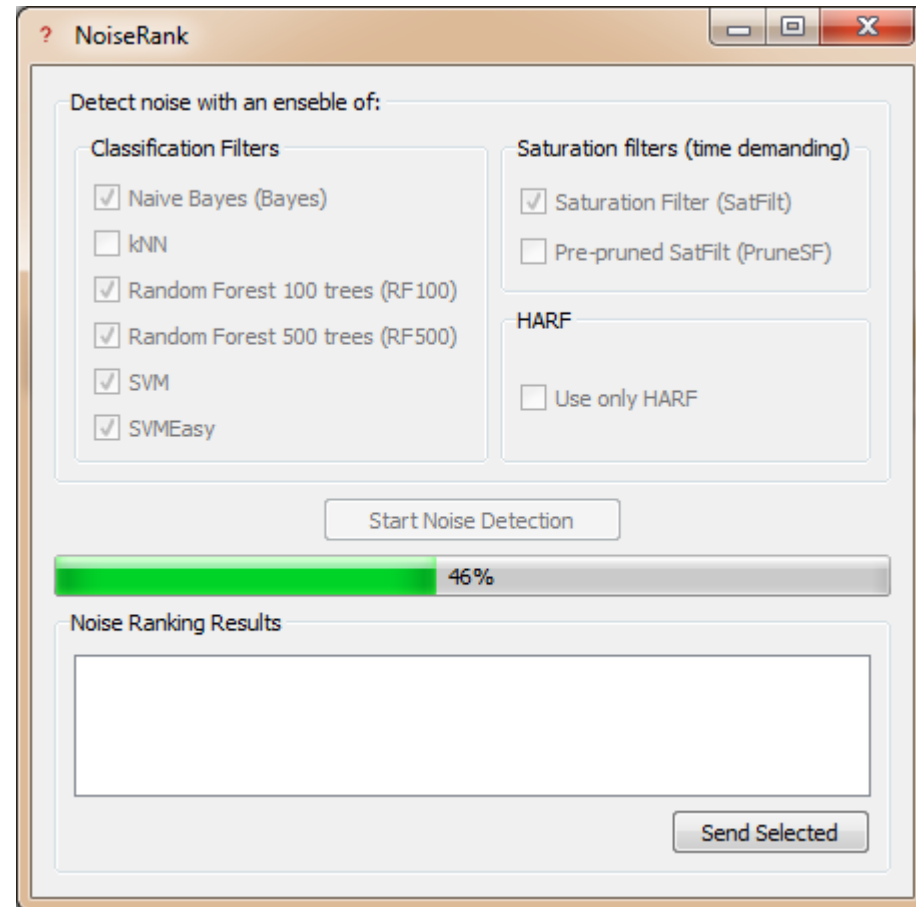
Using OntoGen for outlier document identification



Slide adapted from D. Mladenić, JSI

NoiseRank: Ensemble-based noise and outlier detection

- Misclassified document detection by an ensemble of diverse classifiers (e.g., Naive Bayes, Random Forest, SVM, ... classifiers)
- Ranking of misclassified documents by “voting” of classifiers



NoiseRank on news articles

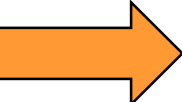
Articles on Kenyan elections: local vs. Western media

Rank	Class	ID	Detected by:					
1.	WE	352	__Bayes__	RF100	RF500	SVM	SVMEasy	satFilt
2.	LO	25	__Bayes__	RF100	RF500	SVM	SVMEasy	
3.	LO	101	__Bayes__	RF100	RF500	SVM	SVMEasy	
4.	LO	173	__Bayes__	RF100	RF500	SVM	SVMEasy	
5.	WE	348	__Bayes__	RF100	RF500	SVM	SVMEasy	
6.	WE	326	__Bayes__	RF100	RF500	SVM	SVMEasy	
7.	WE	357	__Bayes__	RF100	RF500	SVM	satFilt	
8.	WE	410	__Bayes__	RF100	RF500	SVM	SVMEasy	
9.	LO	21	__RF100__	RF500	SVM	SVMEasy		
10.	LO	4	__Bayes__	RF500	SVM	SVMEasy		
11.	LO	68	__RF100__	RF500	SVM	SVMEasy		
12.	LO	162	__Bayes__	RF500	SVM	SVMEasy		
13.	WE	358	__Bayes__	RF100	RF500	SVM		
14.	WE	464	__RF100__	RF500	SVM	SVMEasy		
15.	LO	153	__Bayes__	SVM	SVMEasy			
16.	LO	201	__RF100__	RF500	satFilt			
17.	WE	238	__RF100__	RF500	SVM			
18.	WE	364	__Bayes__	RF500	SVM			
19.	WE	370	__Bayes__	RF100	SVM			
20.	WE	379	__RF100__	RF500	SVMEasy			

NoiseRank on news articles

- **Article 352: Out of topic**
The article was later indeed removed from the corpus used for further linguistic analysis, since it is not about Kenya(ns) or the socio-political climate but about British tourists or expatriates' misfortune.
- **Article 173: Guest journalist**
Wrongly classified because it could be regarded as a “Western article” among the local Kenyan press. The author does not have the cultural sensitivity or does not follow the editorial guidelines requiring to be careful when mentioning words like tribe in negative contexts. One could even say that he has a kind of “Western” writing style.

Advanced Topics III.

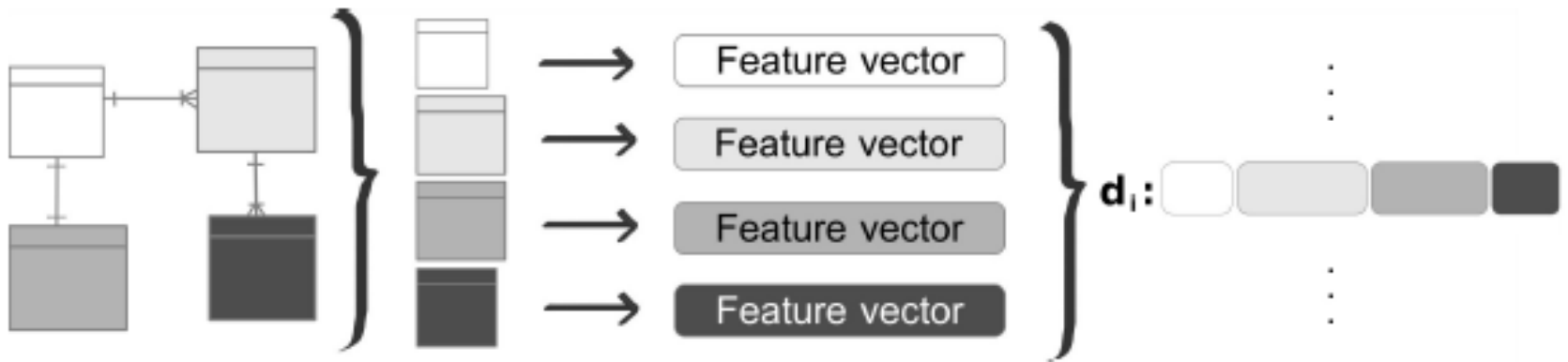
- Text mining: An introduction
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-  Wordification approach to relational data mining

Propositionalization through Wordification: Motivation

- Develop a RDM technique inspired by **text mining**
- Using a large number of simple, easy to understand features (**words**)
- **Improved scalability**, handling large datasets
- Used as a preprocessing step to propositional learners

Wordification Methodology

- Transform a relational database to a document corpus
 - For each individual (row) in the main table, concatenate words generated for the main table with words generated for the other tables, linked through external keys



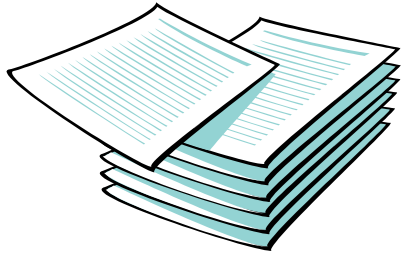
Text mining: Words/terms as binary features

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d3	1	1	1	1	NO
d4	1	1	1	0	YES
d5	1	0	0	1	NO
d6-d13
d14	0	0	0	0	YES
d15	0	0	1	1	NO
d16	0	0	1	0	NO
d17	0	1	0	1	NO
d18	0	1	0	0	NO
d19-d23
d24	0	0	1	0	NO

Instances = documents

Words and terms = Binary features

Text mining



Step 1

BoW vector construction

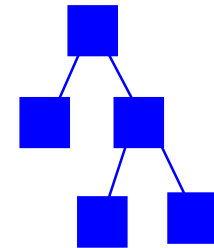
1. BoW features construction
2. Table of BoW vectors construction

Document	Word1	Word2	...	WordN	Class
d1	1	1	0	1	NO
d2	1	1	0	0	YES
d3	1	1	1	1	NO
d4	1	1	1	0	YES
d5	1	0	0	1	NO
d6-d13
d14	0	0	0	0	YES
d15	0	0	1	1	NO
d16	0	0	1	0	NO
d17	0	1	0	1	NO
d18	0	1	0	0	NO
d19-d23
d24	0	0	1	0	NO

Document	Word1	Word2	...	WordN	Class
d1	1	1	0	1	NO
d2	1	1	0	0	YES
d3	1	1	1	1	NO
d4	1	1	1	0	YES
d5	1	0	0	1	NO
d6-d13
d14	0	0	0	0	YES
d15	0	0	1	1	NO
d16	0	0	1	0	NO
d17	0	1	0	1	NO
d18	0	1	0	0	NO
d19-d23
d24	0	0	1	0	NO

Step 2

Data Mining



model, patterns, clusters,

...

Wordification Methodology

- One individual of the main data table in the relational database ~ one text document
- Features (attribute values) ~ the words of this document
- Individual words (called **word-items** or **witems**) are constructed as combinations of:

$[table\ name]_{-}[attribute\ name]_{-}[value]$

- **n-grams** are constructed to model feature dependencies:

$[witem_1]_{-}[witem_2]_{-} \dots _{[witem_n]}$

Wordification Methodology

- Transform a relational database to a document corpus
- Construct BoW vectors with TF-IDF weights on words
(optional: Perform feature selection)
- Apply text mining or propositional learning on BoW table

Wordification

TRAIN		CAR				
trainID	eastbound	carID	shape	roof	wheels	train
t1	east	c11	rectangle	none	2	t1
...	...	c12	rectangle	peaked	3	t1
...
t5	west	c51	rectangle	none	2	t5
...	...	c52	hexagon	flat	2	t5
...

t1: [car_roof_none, car_shape_rectangle, car_wheels_2, car_roof_none__car_shape_rectangle, car_roof_none__car_wheels_2, car_shape_rectangle__car_wheels_2, car_roof_peaked, car_shape_rectangle, car_wheels_3, car_roof_peaked__car_shape_rectangle, car_roof_peaked__car_wheels_3, car_shape_rectangle__car_wheels_3], **east**

TF-IDF weights

- No explicit use of existential variables in features, TF-IDF instead
- The weight of a word indicates how relevant is the feature for the given individual
- The TF-IDF weights can then be used either for filtering words with low importance or for using them directly by a propositional learner (e.g. J48)

Experiments

- Cross-validation experiments on 8 relational datasets: Trains (in two variants), Carcinogenesis, Mutagenensis with 42 and 188 examples, IMDB, and Financial.
- Results (using J48 for propositional learning)

Experiments

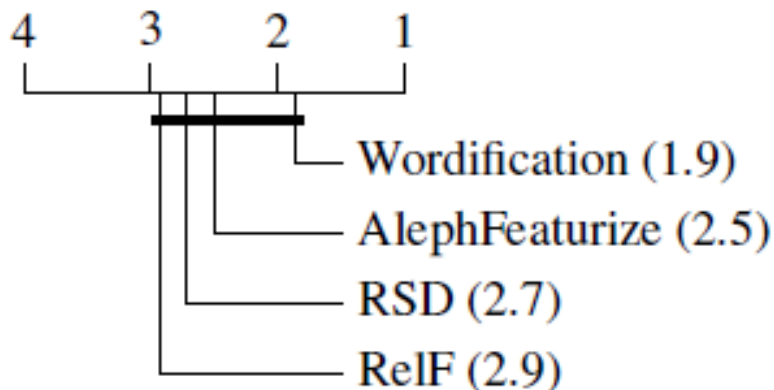
- Cross-validation experiments on 8 relational datasets: Trains (in two variants), Carcinogenesis, Mutagenensis with 42 and 188 examples, IMDB, and Financial.
- Results (using J48 for propositional learning)
 - first applying Friedman test to rank the algorithms,
 - then post-hoc test Nemenyi test to compare multiple algorithms to each other

Experiments

- Cross-validation experiments on 8 relational datasets: Trains (in two variants), Carcinogenesis, Mutagenensis with 42 and 188 examples, IMDB, and Financial.
- Results (using J48 for propositional learning)

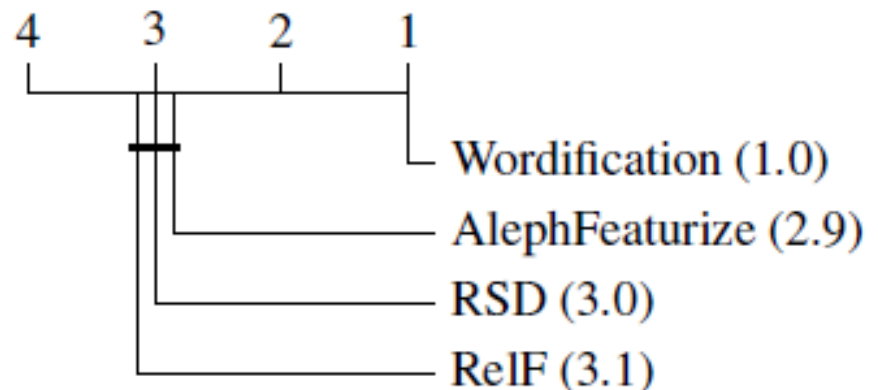
MEASURE = CA

CD = 1.77



MEASURE = RUN-TIME

CD = 1.77



Experiments

Domain	Algorithm	J48-Accuracy[%]	J48-AUC	Run-time[s]
Trains without position	Wordification	55.00	0.51	0.11
	RelF	65.00	0.65	1.04
	RSD	65.00	0.68	0.53
	AlephFeaturize	75.00	0.82	0.40
Trains	Wordification	95.00	0.91	0.12
	RelF	65.00	0.62	1.06
	RSD	50.00	0.53	0.47
	AlephFeaturize	85.00	0.74	0.38
Mutagenesis42	Wordification	97.62	0.93	0.39
	RelF	80.95	0.59	2.11
	RSD	97.62	0.93	2.63
	AlephFeaturize	97.62	0.93	2.07
Mutagenesis188	Wordification	95.74	0.90	1.65
	RelF	75.53	0.79	7.76
	RSD	94.15	0.91	10.10
	AlephFeaturize	87.23	0.88	19.27
IMDB	Wordification	84.34	0.79	1.23
	RelF	79.52	0.73	32.49
	RSD	73.49	0.47	4.33
	AlephFeaturize	73.49	0.47	4.96
Carcinogenesis	Wordification	61.09	0.62	1.79
	RelF	54.71	0.53	16.44
	RSD	58.05	0.56	9.29
	AlephFeaturize	55.32	0.49	104.70
Financial	Wordification	86.75	0.48	4.65
	RelF	97.00	0.91	260.93
	RSD	86.75	0.48	533.68
	AlephFeaturize	86.75	0.48	525.86

Use Case: IMDB

- **IMDB subset:** Top 250 and bottom 100 movies
- Movies, actors, movie genres, directors, director genres
- Wordification methodology applied
- Association rules learned on BoW vector table

Use Case: IMDB

goodMovie ← director_genre_drama, movie_genre_thriller,
director_name_AlfredHitchcock. (Support: 5.38% Confidence: 100.00%)

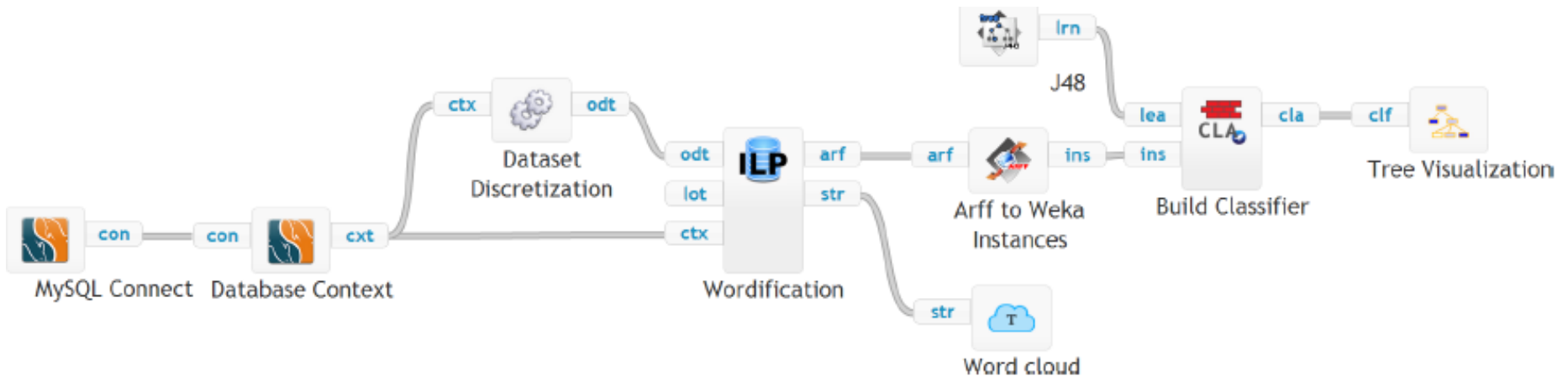
movie_genre_drama ← goodMovie, actor_name_RobertDeNiro.
(Support: 3.59% Confidence: 100.00%)

director_name_AlfredHitchcock ← actor_name_AlfredHitchcock.
(Support: 4.79% Confidence: 100.00%)

director_name_StevenSpielberg ← goodMovie, movie_genre_adventure,
actor_name_TedGrossman.
(Support: 1.79% Confidence: 100.00%)

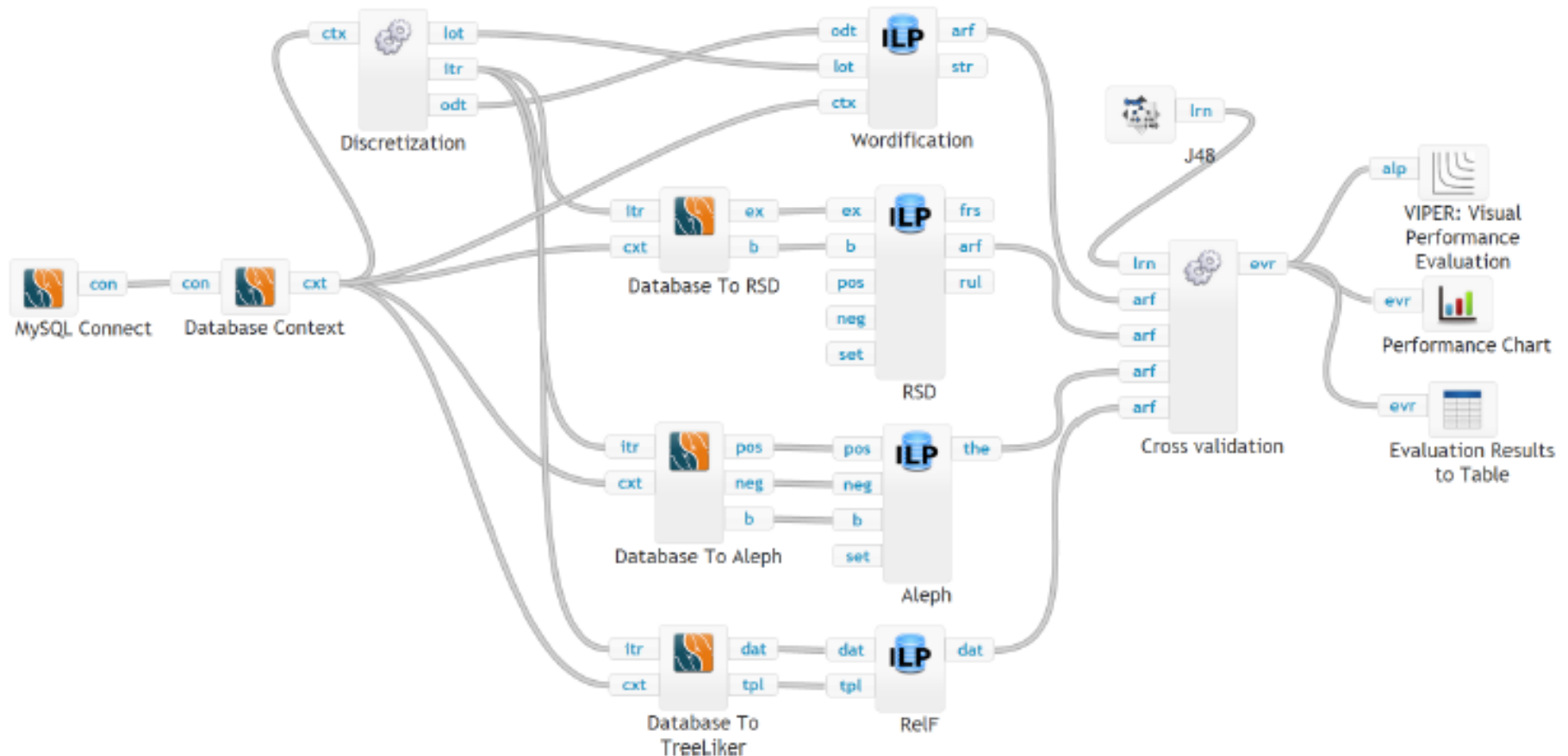
Wordification implemented in ClowdFlows

- Propositionalization through wordification, available at <http://clowdflows.org/workflow/1455/>



Evaluation implemented in ClowdFlows

- Wordification and propositionalization algorithms comparison, available at <http://clowdflows.org/workflow/1456/>



Summary

- Wordification methodology
- Implemented in ClowdFlows
- Allows for solving non-standard RDM tasks, including RDM clustering, **word cloud visualization**, **association rule learning**, topic ontology construction, outlier detection, ...

