Inductive Learning Decision Tree Learning Attribute Selection arther Issues/Summary

Knowledge Engineering Semester 2, 2004-05

Michael Rovatsos mrovatso@inf.ed.ac.uk

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Lecture 2 – Inductive Learning: Decision Trees 14th January 2005

Where are we?

- Last time . . .
 - we defined knowledge, KBS and KE
 - looked at KE process
 - identified important building blocks of KE process.
- ▶ Today ...
 - marks the beginning of the "Knowledge Acquisition" (KA) part of the module
 - we will discuss methods for automating KA
 - in particular: Decision Tree Learning

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Knowledge Acquisition

- Knowledge Acquisition generally considered bottleneck in KE process
- Informal methods:
 - Expert interviews (today developers ≠ experts)
 - · Analysis of organisational databases and documents
 - Independent analysis of domain knowledge (textbooks, online documents, etc.)
- (Although inevitable) these methods are complex, costly, and inflexible automation desirable
- Discussion of machine learning methods, in particular: inductive (symbolic) learning

Inductive Learning

- Idea: we are provided with examples (x, f(x)) where f(x) is the correct value of the target function f for input x and we want to learn f
- Task of inductive inference:

Given a collection of examples of f, return a function h that approximates f

- h is a hypothesis taken from a hypothesis space H
- (Pure) inductive inference assumes no prior knowledge
- Validation: construct/adjust h using a training set, evaluate generalisation capabilities on test set

Inductive Learning

- Inductive learning (IL) is a form of supervised learning: information about the output value f(x) of x is explicit
- Art of inductive learning: given a set of training examples, choose the best hypothesis
- h consistent: agrees with all example data seen so far (not all learning algorithms return consistent hypotheses)
- H defines the range of functions we can use and determines expressiveness of hypothesis
- Learning problem realisable if f(x) ∈ H (often this is not known in advance)

Choosing Hypotheses

- Ockham's razor: prefer the simplest hypothesis consistent with the data
- Why is this a reasonable policy?
 - Intuitively, why choose complex hypothesis if simple one does the job?
 - There exist more long (i.e. more complex) hypotheses than short ones
 - accidental choice of bad hypothesis that is consistent with data is more unlikely if the hypothesis is simple
- Problem: identifying what simple hypotheses are
- Trade-off: the more expressive the hypothesis space, the more examples are needed (and the more the complex learning algorithm)

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Example

- Curve fitting: consider real numbers x and f(x) as data points (examples)
- Assume *H* is the set of polynomials, e.g. 5x, $3x^2 + 2$, $x^5 3x^4 + 2$, etc.
- Construct h such that it agrees with f on training set



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Describing IL Methods

- What kind of information do the examples offer?
 - How much training data is available? All at once?
 - What are their attributes and those attributes' domains (boolean, discrete, continuous) ?
 - What is the range of possible classifications?
 - Do we have to consider noise in the data?
- The hypothesis space:
 - Choice of right representation
 - Questions of expressiveness vs. complexity
 - How can the learning result be used after learning?
- Choosing hypotheses:
 - Incremental vs. batch processing of examples
 - Refining an initial hypothesis vs. starting with none
 - What kind of inductive bias is applied?

Decision Trees

- Attribute-based classification learning:
 - Example input x: situation/object described in terms of attribute values
 - Example output f(x): a discrete-valued classification decision
- Here: Boolean classification, each example is classified as positive (true) or negative (false)
- Alternatively: f describes an unknown concept, and all values of x for which f(x) = true describe the instances of this concept
- Hypothesis = a decision tree (DT) whose nodes correspond to tests on attribute values to decide whether f(x) is true or false interview for the interview

Example

Assume we are given a set of situations in which a customer will or will not wait in a restaurant (examples), i.e. the **goal predicate** is WillWait(x).

		Attributes Targe							Target		
	Alt	Bar	Fri	Hun	Pat	Price	Rain	Res	Type	Est	WillWait
X_1	T	F	F	T	Some	\$\$\$	F	T	French	0-10	T
X_2	T	F	F	Т	Full	\$	F	F	Thai	30-60	F
X_3	F	Т	F	F	Some	\$	F	F	Burger	0-10	Т
X_4	T	F	T	Т	Full	\$	F	F	Thai	10-30	Т
X_5	T	F	T	F	Full	\$\$\$	F	Т	French	>60	F
X_6	F	Т	F	Т	Some	\$\$	Т	Т	Italian	0-10	Т
X7	F	Т	F	F	None	\$	Т	F	Burger	0-10	F
X_8	F	F	F	Т	Some	\$\$	Т	Т	Thai	0-10	Т
X_9	F	Т	T	F	Full	\$	Т	F	Burger	>60	F
X_{10}	T	Т	T	Т	Full	\$\$\$	F	Т	Italian	10-30	F
X11	F	F	F	F	None	\$	F	F	Thai	0-10	F
X_{12}	T	Т	T	Т	Full	5	F	F	Burger	30-60	Т
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Example

Attributes:

- Alternate: Is there an alternative restaurant nearby?
- Bar: Is there a bar that makes waiting comfortable?
- ► Fri/Sat: True if current day is Friday or Saturday
- Patrons: None or some people in the restaurant, or is it full?
- Raining: Is it raining outside?
- Reservation: Was a reservation made?
- Estimate: How long is the estimated waiting time?
- ... and some other (self-explanatory)

Example

Statistics.

Assume this is the actual decision tree used by the person in question:



- What kind of logical constraints can DTs express?
- ▶ Consider conjunction P_i of attribute values on each path leading to "Yes" and disjunction $G = P_1 \lor ... P_n$ over these conjunctions
 - ⇒ DTs can represent any formula of propositional logic
- Example: Each truth table row corresponds to one path



 Easy to build a tree that is consistent with all examples, but will it be able to generalise?

Decision Tree Learning Algorithm

- Iteratively build a tree by selecting the "best" attribute and adding descendant nodes for all its values
- If all examples on some branch have the same classification, then no more decision steps are necessary (add leaf node with this classification)
- If some examples are positive and some negative, choose a new attribute to discriminate between them
- If we run out of attributes, examples have same description but different classification (noise)
 - use majority vote as a workaround
- If we run out of examples then no data is available for current attribute value; use majority value of parent node

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The Algorithm

DECISION-TREE-LEARNING(examples, attribs, default)

- 1 inputs : examples, a set of examples , attribs, a set of attributes
- 2 default, default value for the goal predicate
- 3 if examples is empty then return default
- 4 else if all examples have same classification
- 5 then return this classification
- 6 else if attribs is empty then return MAJORITY-VALUE(examples)
- 7 else
- 8 best ← CHOOSE-ATTRIBUTE(attribs, examples)
- 9 tree ← a new decision tree with root test best
- 10 m ← MAJORITY-VALUE(examples)
- 11 for each value v_i of best do
- 12 examples_i ← { elements of examples with best = v_i}
- 13 subtree ← DECISION-TREE-LEARNING(examples, attribs best, m)
- 14 add a branch to tree with label v; and subtree subtree
- 15 return tree

Attribute Selection Heuristics

- Best way to obtain compact decision tree: find attributes that split example set into positive/negative examples
- Example:



- Information-theoretic entropy can be used as a measure for amount of information
- If v₁,... v_n attribute values with probabilities P(v_i), information content

$$I(P(v_1), ..., P(v_n)) = \sum_{i=1}^n -P(v_i) \log_2 P(v_i)$$

- For example: I(0.5,0.5)=1 (bit), I(0.01,0.99)=0.08 (bits)
- Assume we have p positive and n negative examples
 → classifying a given example correctly requires l(p/p+n, n/p+n) bits of information

Information Gain

- Attribute A splits example set into n subsets E_i containing p_i positive and n_i negative examples
- How much information do we still need after this test?
- Assumption: an example has value v_i for the attribute in question with probability <u>pi+ni</u> <u>n+n</u>
 - ➡ measure for remaining "information-to-go":

$$Remainder(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{p_i + n_i}{p + n} I(\frac{p_i}{p_i + n_i}, \frac{n_i}{p_i + n_i})$$

- ► Gain(A) = I(^p/_{p+n},ⁿ/_{p+n}) Remainder(A) provides a measure for the information gain provided by A
- Heuristics: choose A that maximises Gain(A)

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Overfitting

- Problem: If hypothesis space is large enough, there is a probability of finding "meaningless" regularities
- Example: Date of birth data as a predictor for getting an MSc in Informatics
- If the hypothesis "overfits" the learning data, it may be consistent with examples but useless for generalisation purposes
- A general problem of all learning algorithms
- One way of dealing with overfitting: decision tree pruning (e.g. use significance tests to determine irrelevance of attributes)

Validation

Typical validation for inductive learning methods:

- Split example data into training set and test set
- Train system with example data
- Evaluate prediction accuracy on test set
- Optionally: use cross-validation to prevent overfitting
 - ▶ Set a portion (e.g. 1/k of the data) aside
 - Conduct k experiments using the "left out" examples as test set (and remaining data as training set)
 - Average performance over k runs

Critique

- Many functions not easy to represent with DTs (e.g. majority function or mathematical functions)
- Best for problems with limited number of attributes and attribute values
- Assumes examples are unambiguously and completely (no missing data) described/classified (deterministic and fully observable environment)
- No use of prior knowledge => learning can be very slow
- Is DTL an (1) an incremental and/or (2) an anytime algorithm?
- Is this an adequate model of real learning?

Summary

- Inductive Learning: Inference of knowledge from examples
- Decision Trees: A simple yet effective method for attribute-based inductive inference
- Expressiveness vs. complexity, Ockham's Razor
- Entropy-based heuristics for attribute selection
- Problems of noise and overfitting

Further Issues/Si

Next lecture: Version space learning

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