

GECCO-2001 Tutorial on Data Mining with Evolutionary Algorithms

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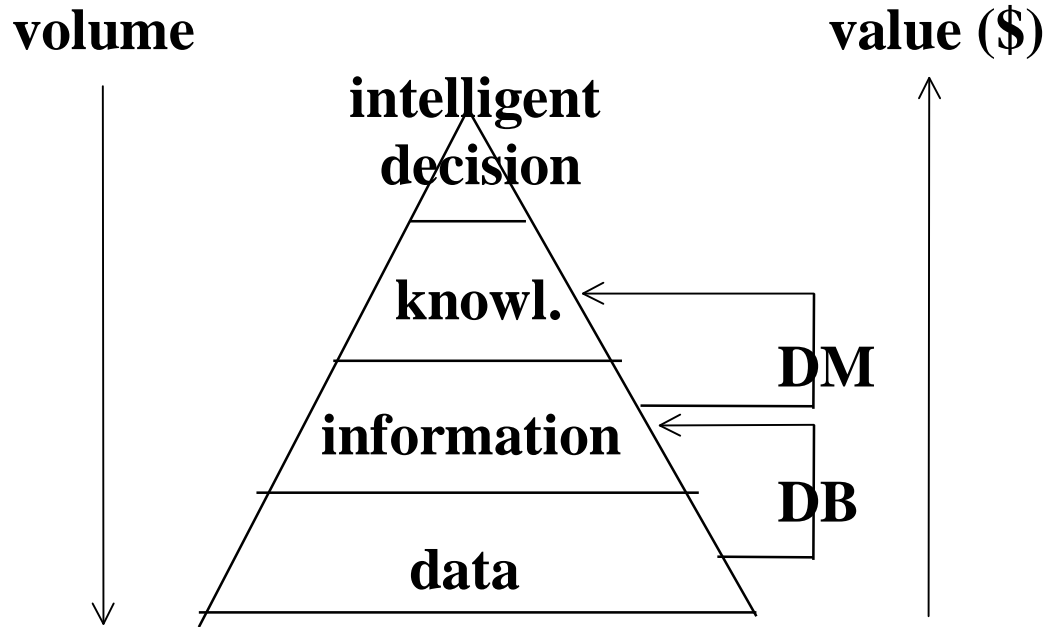
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Roadmap

- **Introduction**
Classification and Clustering
- **Genetic Algorithms for Data Mining**
Classification
Clustering
Attribute Selection
- **Genetic Programming for Classification**
Constructive Induction
- **Conclusions**

Introduction



**Information vs knowledge:
a simple example about a software house**

Consulting low-level information in the DB:

**How many videogames of type XYZ
were sold for customer ABC in 99/99/99?**

Users - low managerial level

Now suppose we extract the following high-level knowledge from the database:

**IF (Age < 18) AND (Job = student)
THEN (Buy = videogame) (prob.=90%)**

We can ask: Which customers have a high probability of buying videogames?

Users - high managerial level

Desirable Properties of the discovered knowledge

- * Accurate (as much as possible)**
- * Comprehensible by the human user**
- * Interesting (useful / new / surprising)**

Data Mining Tasks

Types of problem to be solved:

Classification

Clustering

etc., etc.

Knowledge Discovery Paradigms

Type of method used to solve the task:

rule induction and decision trees

genetic algorithms

genetic programming

etc, etc;

Classification

Each example belongs to a predefined class

Each example consists of:

- **a class (or goal) attribute**
- **a set of predicting attributes**

**The aim is to predict the class of an example,
given its predicting attributes' values**

[Hand 97], [Michie et al. 94]

Data partitioning for the classification task.

training data
(known class)

. . .	goal
	c
	b
	a
	a
	b
	c
	a

test data
(unknown class)

. . .	goal
	?
	?
	?
	?
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	?

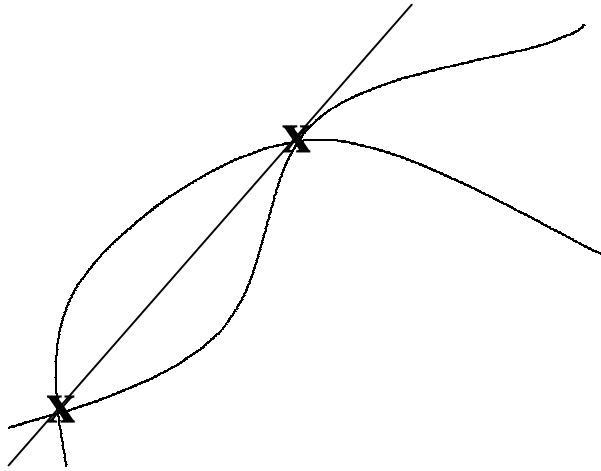
**What is the next number in the sequence:
[Bramer 96]**

1, 4, 9, 16, ? (training data)

**A possible answer is 20, based
on the generator polynomial:**

$$(-5n^4 + 50n^3 - 151n^2 + 250n - 120) / 24$$

**Both n^2 and the complex polynomial are
100% consistent with the training data**



Classification example [Freitas & Lavington 98]:

Goal is to predict whether or not a customer will buy a product, given a customer's Sex, Country and Age

Sex	Country	Age	Buy? (goal)
M	France	25	yes
M	England	21	yes
F	France	23	yes
F	England	34	yes
F	France	30	no
M	Germany	21	no
M	Germany	20	no
F	Germany	18	no
F	France	34	no
M	France	55	no

Classification rules for the above data:

IF (Country = 'Germany') THEN (Buy = 'no')

IF (Country = 'England') THEN (Buy = 'yes')

**IF (Country = 'France' & Age \leq 25)
THEN (Buy = 'yes')**

**IF (Country = 'France' & Age $>$ 25)
THEN (Buy = 'no')**

Classification regarded as data separation

2 predicting attributes (A_1 and A_2)

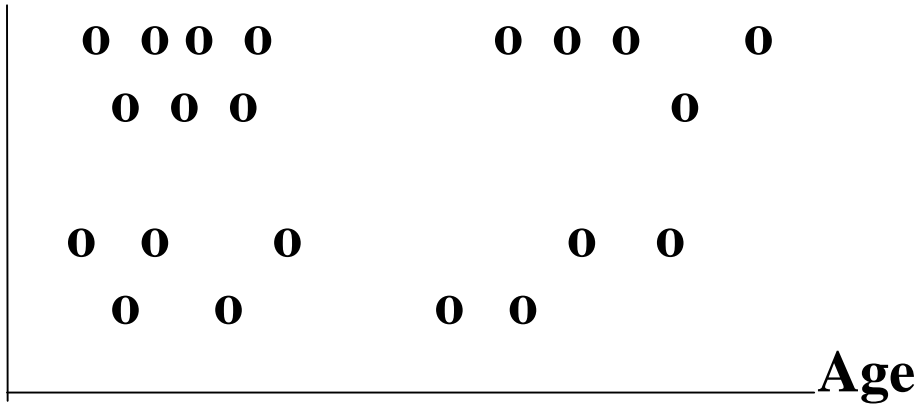
2 classes ('+' and '-')

A_2	A_2	A_2																																																																																																									
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A_1	A_1	A_1																																																																																																									
original data	separating by A_1 values	separating by A_2 values																																																																																																									

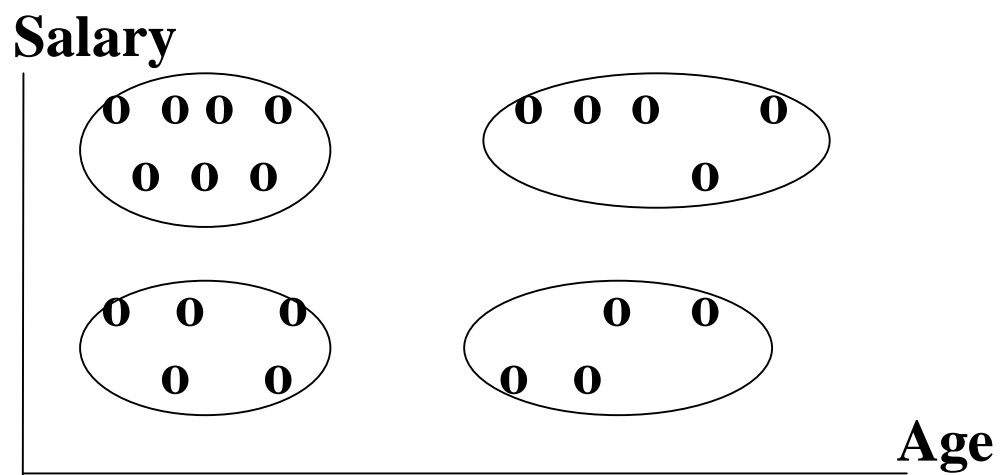
Which classifier will be more accurate on unseen test data?

Clustering

Salary



The system must “invent” classes,
by grouping similar examples



**After clustering, we can
apply classification methods**

Criteria for finding good clusters

Minimize within-cluster distance

Maximize between-cluster distance

Favor a small number of clusters

Induction of Classification Rules

Basic idea: improve candidate rules, via generalization and specialization operations

Example of specialization:

IF (Country = 'France')	THEN ...
	↓ specialization
IF (Country = 'France' & Age ≤ 25) THEN ...	

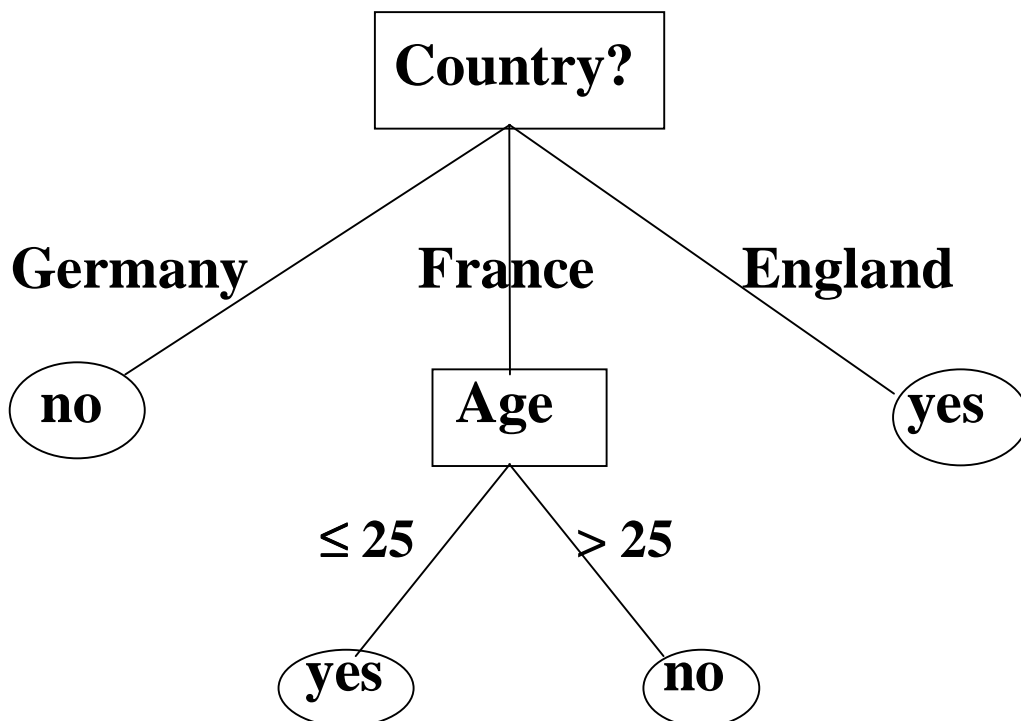
Generalization is the opposite operation

Decision Trees

internal nodes: predicting attributes

leaf nodes: predicted class

To classify a new example, push it down the tree, until reaching a leaf node



**Tree is built by selecting
one-attribute-at-a-time (local search)**

LOOP

**Select attribute that best separates classes;
Partition the set of examples in the current
node according to selected attribute's values;
Repeat this process, recursively;**

Drawback of Local search (select one-attribute-at-a-time)

Problems with attribute interaction

Exclusive OR (XOR) problem:

A₁	A₂	XOR
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0

**Looking only at one attribute gives us no
useful information for predicting XOR**

Example of Simpson's Paradox

**Renewal of magazine subscriptions, by month
and subscription category**
[Wagner 82], [Newson 91]

month	subscription category					total
	gift renewal	previous	direct mail	sub. service	catalog agent	
Jan						
total	3,954	18,364	2,986	20,862	149	45,955
renew	2,918	14,488	1,783	4,343	13	23,545
rate	0.812	0.789	0.597	0.208	0.087	0.512
Feb						
total	884	5,140	2,224	864	45	9,157
renew	704	3,907	1,134	122	2	5,869
rate	0.796	0.760	0.510	0.141	0.044	0.641

Genetic Algorithms for Data Mining

In data mining, GA can be used to:

- (a) optimize parameters for other kinds of data mining algorithm**
- (b) discover knowledge by itself**

Using GAs for parameter optimization

- (a) finding a good set of attribute weights for nearest-neighbor algorithms**
- (b) finding a good set of weights and/or a good topology for a neural network**
- (c) selecting a good set of attributes to be given to another algorithm**

GAs can also be used for rule discovery

**Why should we consider using
GAs rather than rule induction?**

**Both paradigms can discover
high-level ‘IF-THEN’ rules, but:**

Most rule induction algorithms select one-attribute-at-a-time (*local* search)

GAs perform a *global* search that copes better with attribute interaction

Rules are evaluated as a whole by the fitness function

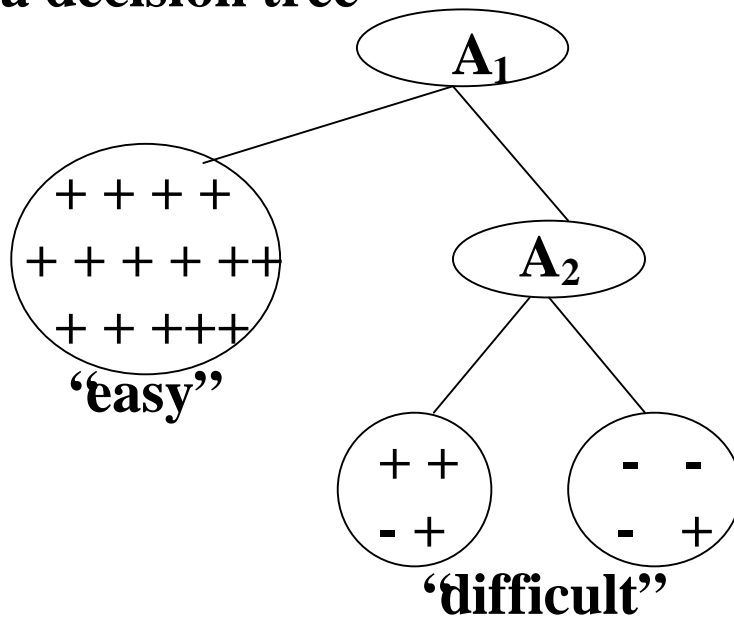
Genetic operators can modify many-attributes-at-a-time

Hybrid decision tree/GA

[Carvalho & Freitas 2000a, 2000b]

- **decision tree used to classify “easy” examples
(it exploits simplicity and efficiency
of decision tree algorithms)**
- **GA used to classify “difficult” examples
(it exploits GA ability to cope better with
attribute interaction)**

Identifying easy/difficult examples in a decision tree



Basic ideas of GAs for rule discovery:

- (a) Candidate rules are represented as individuals of a population**
- (b) Rule quality is computed by a fitness function**
- (c) Using task-specific knowledge**

Classification with Genetic Algorithms

- 1) Each individual represents a rule set,
i.e. an independent candidate solution**
- 2) Each individual represents a single rule
A set of individuals (or entire population)
represents a candidate solution (rule set)**

Individual Representation

**In GABIL, an individual is a rule set,
encoded as a bit string [DeJong et al. 93]**

**It uses k bits for the k values
of a categorical attribute**

**If all k bits of an attribute are set to 1
the attribute is not used by the rule**

Goal attribute: Buy furniture (y/n)

Marital_status: Single/Married/Divorced

House: Own/Rented/University

	Marital_status	House	Buy?
The string	011	100	1

represents the rule

IF (Marital_status = M or D) and (House = O)

THEN (Buy furniture = y)

An individual is a variable-length string representing a set of fixed-length rules

rule 1	rule 2
011 100 1	101 110 0

Mutation: traditional bit inversion

Crossover: corresponding crossover points in the two parents must semantically match

Example of crossover in GABIL

**if a parent is “cut” in the second bit of a rule,
the other parent must also be cut in the second
bit of a rule, e.g.:**

0	1		1		1	0	0		1		1	0	1		1	1	0		0										
0	1	0		1	0	1		1		1	1		1		1	0	1		1		1	0	1		1	1	1		0

Individual representation

**In GIL an individual is a set of rules,
using a high-level encoding [Janikow 93]**

rule 1	rule 2
(A=1) and (B=2 or 3)	(C=2)

**This kind of high-level encoding is
more efficient for continuous attributes**

Representing the predicted class

- **included in the genome (and evolved)**
 - **not included in the genome**
 - **all rules predict the same class**
 - **for a given rule antecedent, choose class maximizing rule quality**
- [Greene & Smith 93], [Noda et al. 99]**

Task-specific genetic operators

generalizing/specializing mutation
[Janikow 93], [Liu & Kwok 2000]

Example of specializing mutation:

IF (Age \leq 30) ... AND ... THEN ...
| specialization

IF (Age \leq 25) ... AND ... THEN ...

generalizing/specializing crossover
[Giordana et al 94], [Anglano et al. 1998]

generalizing crossover - logical OR
specializing crossover - logical AND

	generalizing	specializing
$\begin{array}{c c c c} 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c c c c} 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c c c c} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array}$

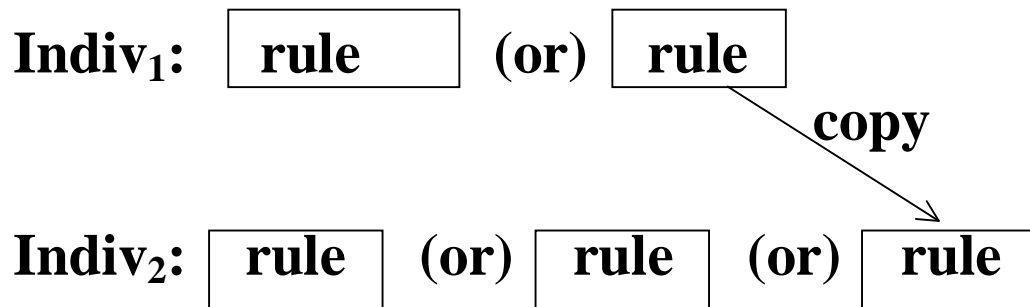
**GIL has special genetic operators
for handling: [Janikow 93]**

- **rule sets**
- **rules**
- **rule conditions**

**Operators can perform generalization,
specialization or other operation**

Generalization at the rule-set level in GIL:

Given two individuals, copy a rule from an individual to the other



Relevance-Based Rule Pruning

**remove some conditions from a rule
(simplifies and generalizes the rule)**

**Basic idea: the less relevant a rule
condition is, the higher the probability
of removing that condition**

**This basic idea was used e.g. in:
[Liu & Kwok 2000], [Carvalho & Freitas 2000a]**

Fitness Functions for Classification

- at least a measure of predictive accuracy
- possibly, also a measure of comprehensibility
(the fewer the number of rules and rule conditions, the better)

E.g.: $\text{complexity} = 2 \cdot \# \text{rules} + \# \text{conditions}$

[Janikow 93]

- possibly, also a measure of rule interestingness
[Noda et al. 1999]

motivation for interestingness measures:

IF (pregnant) THEN (sex = 'female')

(accurate, comprehensible, *uninteresting*)

- **Standard approach to combine accuracy, comprehensibility and interestingness: weighted fitness functions**
- **Problem: non-commensurate objectives**
- **Solution: multi-objective EAs**
[Bhattacharyya 2000a, 2000b], [Kim et al. 2000]
[Emmanouilidis et al. 2000]

Parallel GA

- **Parallelize fitness computation**
- **Fitness of many individuals can be computed in parallel (each processor evaluates a subset of individuals)**
- **Fitness of a single individual can be computed in parallel by p processors (data distributed across p processors)**

See [Freitas & Lavington 98], [Flockhart & Radcliffe 95], [Giordana & Neri 95],[Anglano et al 97],[Araujo et al 99]

Clustering with GA

Simple representation:

- **one gene per object to be clustered**
- **each gene = id of the cluster to which the object belongs**

E.g. - 10 objects, 4 clusters:

B C B B A D D C A D

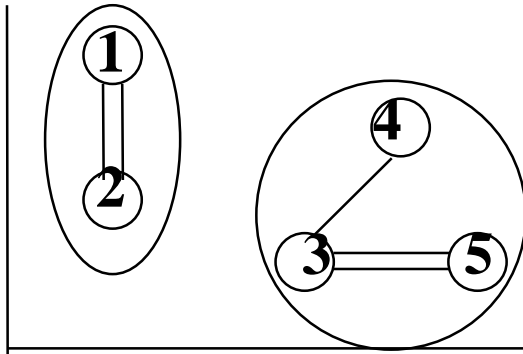
Advantage: fixed-length individual

Disadvantages [Falkenauer 98]:

- **high redundancy**
e.g. (A B B A) and (B A A B)
- **crossover and mutation problems**
- **is not scalable w.r.t. No. of objects**

Graph-based clustering [Park & Song 98]

Each data instance is a node in a graph
A cluster is a group of connected nodes



Adjacency-based representation:

**A vector of N integer elements, where
 $N = \text{No. of instances to be clustered.}$**

**i -th gene with value j means that the nodes i
and j are connected by a link in the graph**

**E.g. the above clustering could be represented
by: $I = \langle 2, 1, 5, 3, 3 \rangle$**

Search space size: $(N-1)^N$

**Extending adjacency representation
with task-specific knowledge:**

**The i -th gene can take on a value j
only if j is one of the k nearest
neighbours of the i -th instance**

search space size: k^N

Advantages of this representation:

- **does not require prespecified number of clusters**
- **does not require special genetic operators to produce valid offspring**
- **knowledge-based representation reduces the size of the search space**

Disadvantages of this representation:

- **not scalable for large data sets (genome length is N , where N is the No. of instances)**
- **redundancy - several genotypes correspond to the same phenotype**

Clustering with hybrid GA/K-means [Hall et al. 99]

GA optimizes location of cluster centroids

Individual representation:
a matrix of c x n cluster centers
(c = No. of clusters, f = No. of features)

$M_{11} \dots M_{1f}$	fitness based on distances from centroids (K-means)
\dots	
\dots	
$M_{c1} \dots M_{cf}$	

Attribute selection with GA

**Simple Individual Representation:
One gene for each predicting attribute**

**Each gene can take on 2 values:
0 (attrib. ignored), or 1 (attrib. selected)**

**Example: 0 1 1 0 1 0 0 0
(attributes 2, 3, and 5 are selected)**

See [Vafaie & DeJong 93], [Bala et al. 95]

Fitness depends on the performance of a data mining algorithm with the selected attributes (GA is a wrapper)

Fitness function can include a penalty for individuals with many attributes

**More elaborated individual encoding:
[Cherkauer & Shavlik 97]**

**Each gene can contain an
attribute (A_i) or be empty (0)**

**Ex.: 0 0 A_7 A_7 A_2 0 A_7 A_5 0 0
(selected attributes: A_2 , A_5 , A_7)**

Advantages of the elaborated encoding:

**Repeated attributes reduces
loss of genetic diversity**

**Individual' s length does not depend on
the number of attributes being mined**

**Individual contains info about relative
importance of selected attributes**

GA for selecting attributes for an ensemble of classifiers

[Guerra-Salcedo & Whitley 99]

Each GA run selects an attribute subset

**Each selected attribute subset is used
to build one classifier of the ensemble**

Genetic Programming for Classification

Standard approach:

**terminal set: predicting attributes,
random constant generator**

**function set: mathematical,
comparison and logical operators**

each individual is a ‘rule’

Classification: compare the output of the root node against a threshold

For an m class problem, run GP m times: each time we solve a 2-class problem

(one class is the “+” class and all other classes are grouped into a “-” class)

Genetic Programming for Classification

Main problems with standard approach

Closure property requires that all tree nodes return the same data type

Size and complexity of GP trees make them difficult to understand

Non-standard approaches for Classification with GP

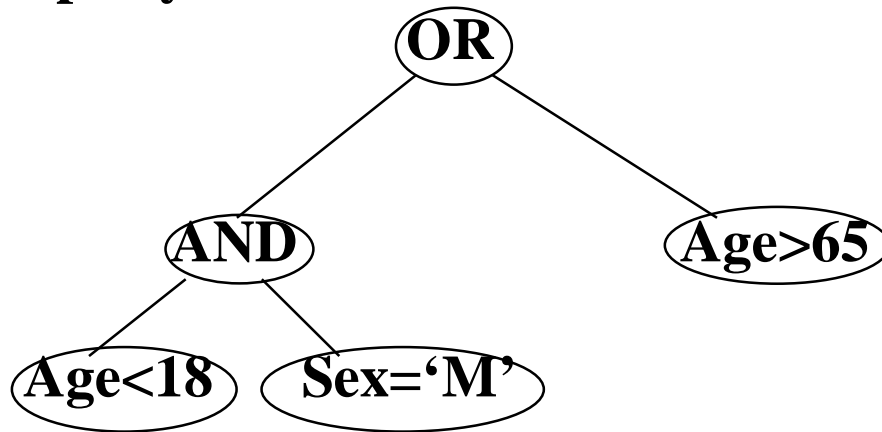
**‘Booleanize’ attributes
and function set**

Constrained-syntax GP

Grammar-based GP

Booleanize attributes and use logical operators (and, or) in the function set
[Hu 98], [Eggermont et al 99], [Bojarczuk et al 99]

Property of closure is satisfied



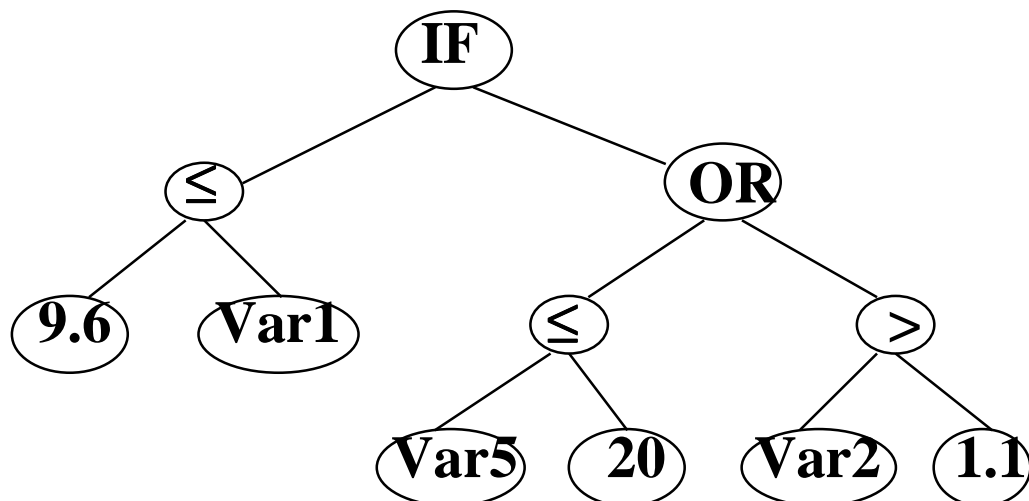
Constrained-syntax GP

**For each function used in the function set,
specify the type of its arguments and the
type of its result**

**Crossover and mutation are modified
to respect the defined restrictions**

See e.g. [Bhattacharyya et al. 98]

Functions	datatype of input arguments	datatype of output
+, -, *, /	(real, real)	real
\leq , >	(real, real)	boolean
AND, OR	(boolean, boolean)	boolean
IF	(boolean, boolean or real, boolean or real)	boolean



Grammar-based GP

Basic idea: use a grammar to define the format of rules [Wong & Leung 2000]

The placement of a symbol in the tree must be allowed by the grammar

To create an individual, a complete derivation is performed from the start symbol of the grammar

Ex.: predicting attributes: sex, age, x_ray
goal attributes: disease_1, disease_2

Rule \rightarrow Rule1 | Rule2

Rule1 \rightarrow if Antec1 then Cons1

Rule2 \rightarrow if Antec2 then Cons2

Antec1 \rightarrow Sex_cond and Age_cond

Antec2 \rightarrow Age_cond and X_ray_cond

Sex_cond $\rightarrow \emptyset$ | ‘sex = M’ | ‘sex = F’

•

•

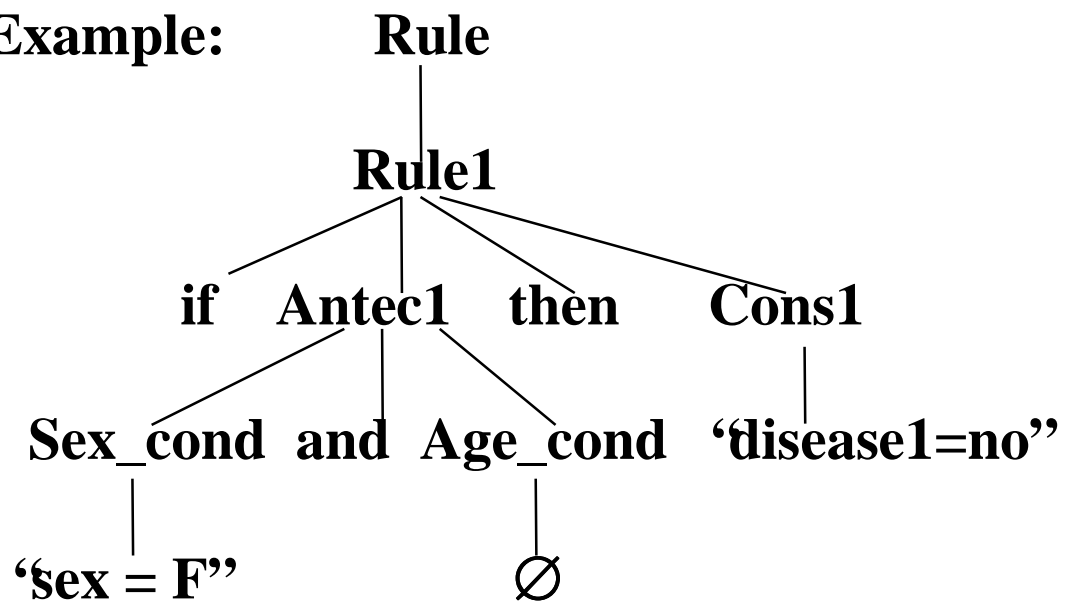
Cons1 \rightarrow Disease1

Disease1 \rightarrow ‘disease1=yes’ | ‘disease1=no’

•

•

Example:



Advantages of grammar-based GP:

- **uses domain knowledge**
- **avoids the need for closed function set**

Disadvantages of grammar-based GP:

- **grammar is domain-specific**
- **reduces the autonomy of the algorithm to discover novel, surprising knowledge**

Constructive Induction

Motivation - generate ‘higher-level’ attributes, such as:

‘Income > Expenditure?’

which can be used to generate rules such as:

IF (‘Income > Expenditure?’ = ‘yes’) ...

Note that the condition:

(‘Income > Expenditure?’ = ‘yes’)

**corresponds to an ‘infinite’ number
of conditions of the form:**

(Income > value) AND (Expenditure < value)

Constructive induction with GP [Hu 98]

1st step: ‘booleanize’ *all* the attributes

E.g.: values of attribute Age can be divided into 2 groups: $\text{Age} \leq v$, $\text{Age} > v$ (v is automatically chosen)

**2nd step:
apply GP to construct new attributes**

Each individual represents an attribute

Terminals: booleanized attributes

Functions: logical operators (and, not)

**All terminal and function
symbols return boolean values
(meets the closure requirement)**

Conclusions

- **Motivation for data mining with GA/GP:
to cope with attribute interaction better
than local, greedy rule induction methods**
- **Need for task-specific genetic operators**

- **GP's representational power is more useful to construct new attributes and discover novel knowledge**
- **Fitness function should consider accuracy, comprehensibility, and interestiness – which suggests multi-objective algorithms**

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