

ID3: Incorporation of Fuzziness and Generation of Network Architecture

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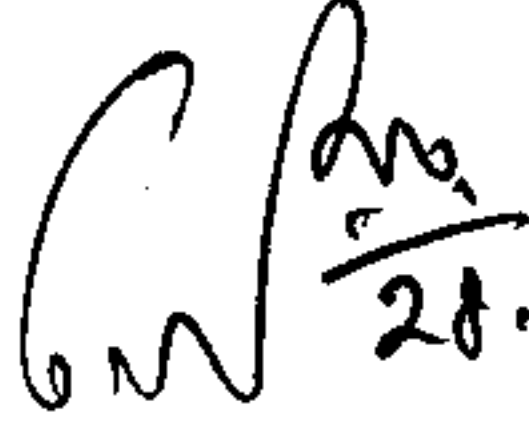
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Certificate of Approval

This is to certify that the thesis titled *ID3: Incorporation of Fuzziness and Generation of Network Architecture* submitted by **Pawan Kumar Singal** towards partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of *M. Tech. (Computer Science)* at the Indian Statistical Institute, Calcutta, embodies the work done under our supervision. His work is satisfactory.


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Abstract

A new method of generating fuzzy knowledge-based network is described. Crude domain knowledge is extracted using the *ID3* algorithm. The *ID3* approach to classification consists of a procedure for synthesizing an efficient discriminatory tree for classifying patterns that have non numeric values. One of the problems with *ID3* is that it cannot deal with numeric (continuous) data, which most practical problems have. In our work a method to use *ID3* in continuous attribute case is proposed. The rules are generated in linguistic form. They are mapped to a fuzzy neural network. Topology of the layered network is automatically determined and the net is finally pruned to generate an optimal architecture. The frequency of samples, representative of a rule, is also taken into consideration. Fuzzy membership concept is incorporated at the sample level to handle uncertainty. This involves changing the decision function at the node level. A novel approach to map confidence factors of unresolved/ ambiguous nodes directly into a fuzzy neural network is also described.

The effectiveness of the algorithm is demonstrated on a vowel recognition problem.

Chapter 1

Introduction

Today, in the mass storage era, the knowledge acquisition process represents a major knowledge engineering bottleneck. Computer programs extracting knowledge from data successfully attempt to lessen this problem. Among such systems, inducing decision trees for classification is very popular. The resulting knowledge in the form of decision trees are found to be quite comprehensible. Quinlan popularized the concept of decision trees by inducing ID3 [1], which stands for *Interactive Dichotomizer 3*. Systems based on this approach use an information theoretic measure of entropy for assessing the discriminatory power of each attribute. ID3 is a popular and efficient method of making decision for classification of *symbolic* data. A decision tree assigns symbolic design to new samples. This makes it inapplicable in cases where a numeric decision is needed. As a matter of fact, most of the real life problems deal with non symbolic (numeric, continuous) data. Recognition problem with continuous-valued attribute must, therefore, be discretized prior to attribute selection. Another problem with ID3 is, it can not provide any information in the intersection region when the classes are highly overlapping.

In recent years, neural networks have become equally popular due to their relative ease of application and ability to provide gradual responses. The back propagation algorithm [2, 3] is central to much current work on learning

in neural network. There are many theoretic questions concerning what a multi-layered perceptron [2, 3] can do and can not do; how many layers are needed for a given task; how many units per layer are necessary; and so on. It has been proved that with at most two hidden layers, arbitrary accuracy is obtainable given enough units per layer. It has also been proved that only one hidden layer is enough to approximate any continuous function. The utility of these results depends on how many hidden units are necessary and this is in general unknown. In many cases it may grow exponentially with the number of input units.

In this work we propose a scheme for discretization of continuous attribute so that the ID3 algorithm can be used in continuous attribute cases. Fuzziness is incorporated in the classical algorithm such that in the crisp cases when the classes are not overlapping it will boil down to the classical ID3. In the case of overlapping classes it provides extra information regarding the overlapped region. Keeping the decision tree generated by ID3 in the background we propose a scheme to generate a neural network architecture and a method for initial weight encoding. The method enables automatic generation of the appropriate number of hidden nodes and layer of the network. This is unlike the use of random initial weights in the conventional neural network.

The report consist of five chapters. In Chapter 2 a brief introduction to ID3 and related work is given. The scheme to generate rules from the decision tree is also explained. Method to map the generated rules on to the generated neural network architecture is discussed. In Chapter 3 the way of incorporation of fuzziness in ID3 is discussed. This is used to generate modified ID3 rules that are mapped onto the generated layered network. Chapter 4 gives a brief idea of results on Indian Telugu Vowel sounds. Conclusion and discussions are included in Chapter 5.

Chapter 2

ID3: Rule Generation and Network Architecture

In this chapter we discuss about ID3, Neural Network (in particular feed forward network), back-propagation algorithm, rule generation from ID3 and mapping of these rules onto the neural net whose topology is automatically defined. The chapter consist of four sections. Section 1 describes the decision tree, ID3 and some related works. In Section 2, a brief introduction on neural networks, particularly on MLP, is given. Section 3 deals with the proposed method of discretization of continuous attributes so that ID3 can be applied in such cases also. Rule generation from decision and mapping these rules onto the net in the form of weights is discussed in Section 4.

2.1 Decision Trees

Decision trees have extensively been used as classifiers in pattern recognition [4]. By applying the decision tree methodology, one difficult decisions can be broken into a sequence of less difficult decision. Because of the tree structure, only some of all possible questions are asked in the process of making the final decision. The final decision is made at the terminal node, which is reached

by traversing the tree, starting from the root as indicated by decision made at the internal nodes. The design is performed in top-down fashion. The nodes are split during the design procedure according to some criteria. Each node in the decision tree is either a leaf node (decision node) or an internal node (a testing node). Each leaf node represents a class (unique). If any data point reaches this node after traversing from root of the tree, we conclude that the class of the data point is that represented by the leaf node. On the other hand, each internal node will represent a test with respect to a feature. There are many algorithms in the literature to generate classification or the decision trees. Among them ID3 [1] and CART [5] are the two most important discriminative algorithms working by recursive partitioning the sample space. The basic idea is the same: partitioning the sample space in data-driven manner and representing the partition as the tree. An important property of these algorithms is that they attempt to minimize the size of the tree simultaneously they attempt to optimize some quality measure. Since in any pattern recognition problem [6] any object is characterized by a set of features, it is better to discuss about the domain type of the features before going into the detail of the said algorithm .

2.1.1 Domain Types

In general there are two different kinds of domains for features : *discrete and continuous*. In the discrete case each feature can have a number of values called attribute values, and an object or an data point is characterized by the values of these attributes. Continuous values of features have a proximity relation between them. In general a discrete domain may be unordered, partially ordered or totally ordered whereas the continuous domain is always totally ordered.

ID3 assumes discrete domains with small cardinalities. This is a great advantage as this increases the comprehensibility of the induced knowledge. But this algorithm requires priori partitioning. On the other hand, CART algorithm does not require prior partitioning. The conditions on the tree

are based on thresholds (on continuous domain) which are dynamically computed. Because of that, a condition on a path can use a feature a number of times with different thresholds and the thresholds on the different paths are very likely to be different. This idea often increases the quality of the tree but at the cost of comprehensibility. It is to be noted here that CART can be used in case of continuous attribute value but ID3 can not.

Our objective is high comprehensibility along with processing of continuous value. This is accomplished with the help of the ID3 algorithm. So before proceeding further we introduce the ID3 algorithm [7, 1]. This is followed by a brief discussion on the related work of handling continuous valued attributes.

2.1.2 Algorithm ID3

In the training set we have N patterns partitioned into sets of pattern belonging to class $C_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, l$. The population in class C_i is N_i , and each pattern has n attributes.

input: Data file D_1 with n -dimensional attribute, labeled data.

output : Decision tree.

method :

1. Calculate initial value of entropy.

For the training set, the class belonging of each pattern point is known. The initial entropy for the system consisting of N labeled pattern is :-

$$Ent(I) = \sum_{k=1}^l -\left(\frac{N_k}{N}\right) \log_2 \left(\frac{N_k}{N}\right)$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^l -p_k \log_2 p_k,$$

where p_k is the *a priori* probability of the k^{th} class.

2. Select a feature to serve as the root node of the decision tree

- (a) for each feature $F_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, n$, partition the original population into two sub partitions according to the values a_{ij} ($j=0$ or 1 , stands for the feature value 0 or 1) of the feature F_i . There are n_{ij} patterns in a_{ij} branch, but these patterns are not necessarily of any single class.
- (b) for any branch population n_{ij} , the number of patterns belonging to class C_k is $n_{ij}(k)$. Evaluate the entropy of the branch using

$$Ent(I, F_i, j) = \sum_{k=1}^l - \left(\frac{n_{ij}(k)}{n_{ij}} \right) \log_2 \left(\frac{n_{ij}(k)}{n_{ij}} \right).$$

The entropy of the system after testing on attribute F_i is then

$$Ent(I, F_i) = \sum_{j=1}^2 \frac{n_{ij}}{\sum_j n_{ij}} * Ent(I, F_i, j).$$

- (c) The decrease in entropy as a result of testing feature F_i is $\Delta Ent(i) = Ent(I) - Ent(I, F_i)$.
- (d) Select a feature F_k that yields the greatest decrease in entropy, that is for which $\Delta Ent(k) > \Delta Ent(i)$, for all $i = 1, 2, \dots, l, i \neq k$.
- (e) The feature F_k is then the root of the decision tree.

3. Build the next level of the decision tree.

Select a feature $F_{k'}$ to serve as the level 1 node such that after testing on $F_{k'}$ on all branches we obtain the maximum decrease in entropy.

4. Repeat step 1 through 3

Continue the process until all subpopulations reaching to a leaf node are of any single class or the decrease in entropy, *i.e.*, ΔEnt is zero.

5. Prune the leaf node which contains no pattern point.

2.1.3 Handling Continuous Attribute

In order to treat numeric (continuous) attribute value many investigations have been done. Among them includes Fuzzy ID3 [8], RID3 [9], Neuro-fuzzy ID3 [8]. In Fuzzy ID3 the numeric range of the attribute is divided into several fuzzy intervals. The information gain ΔEnt is calculated by incorporating membership function of fuzzy sets. In that work the *a priori* probability is replaced by relative frequency. The relative frequency of class C_k at node b is defined by:-

$$p_k^b = \frac{|D_k^b|}{|D^b|},$$

where :

- D_k^b is the data set whose elements belong to class C_k at node b ,
- D^b is the data set at node b ,
- $|D_k^b| = \sum_{x \in D_k} \prod_{(i,j) \in Q} \mu_{i,j}(x)$.
- $|D^b| = \sum_{x \in D} \prod_{(i,j) \in Q} \mu_{i,j}(x)$
- $\mu_{i,j}$ denotes membership value of the i^{th} attribute to the j^{th} fuzzy set.
- Q is the set of pair (i, j) along the branch from root node to node b .
- D is the set of all data elements.
- D_k is the set of all data element belong to class C_k .

The entropy Ent , gain in entropy ΔEnt , etc are calculated in the same manner as in original ID3.

In RID3 [9], first of all features are extracted using the fuzzy c-means (FCM) algorithm [10]. Then feature ranking is done with the principle that *good features should not show much variation within a class but should have sig-*

nificantly different values for different classes. After this, the sample space is partitioned to form a decision tree.

Ichihashi *et. al.* [8] proposed a slightly revised version of ID3. They find out the membership of each sampled data belonging to (all possible) pattern classes using a B-spline membership function of degree 3. Then they apply the fuzzy ID3 algorithm followed the ID3 algorithm with the modification that the decision will be taken after solving a nonlinear programming problem:-

$$\begin{aligned} & \max \sum_{k=1}^l -p_k \log_2 p_k \\ & \text{subject to } \sum_{c \in A_i} m(c) \leq \sum_{k \in A_i} p_k (i \in I) \\ & \text{and } \sum_{k \in A_i} p_k = 1, p_k \geq 0, \end{aligned}$$

where A_i is any subset of the universal set X and $m(c)$ is the probability assignment to c . In one of his works Janikow [11] discussed a way to incorporate fuzziness to the decision tree to handle the continuous attribute case. His way of tree building procedure is the same as that of ID3. The only difference is that a training example can be found in a node to any degree. Wang *et.al* [12] in a very recent work proposed a scheme to handle the continuous case by discretizing the attribute. A continuous valued attribute is discretized during decision tree generation by partitioning the range into two intervals with the help of a threshold value T . A threshold value T for the continuous attribute A is determined and the set $(A \leq T)$ is assigned to the left branch while the set $(A > T)$ is assigned to the right branch. This threshold is selected among several possible ones subject to the condition that the class entropy of the partition induced by the chosen point attains a minimum among all class entropies of different threshold choices. One disadvantage of this scheme is that in the process one attribute may make more than one decision in a path from the root to a leaf.

2.2 Artificial Neural Network

There was an explosive growth in the field of neural networks in the last two decades, because it is one of the best and highly useful techniques for

machine learning. An artificial neural network is represented by a labeled directed graph, where nodes perform some simple computation and each connection or link conveys a signal from one node to another, labeled by a number called the strength or weight of the link indicating the extent to which a signal is amplified or diminished by the link.

Before the neural net is able to give any decision, it must be trained with the training samples. In general there are two different learning paradigms [2, 3], namely supervised and unsupervised. In supervised learning the network has its output compared with known answers and receives a feedback about any error. On the other hand in the unsupervised learning scheme the network must discover for itself interesting categories or features in the input data. In our work we shall be dealing only with supervised learning mechanism. Among different network architectures the feed-forward network [2, 3] is the most important. The back-propagation algorithm [2, 3] is central to much current work on learning in neural networks. The algorithm gives a prescription for changing the weights w_{pq} (weight on the link from node p to node q) in any feed-forward network to learn a training set of input-output pairs. The basis of the algorithm is simply *gradient descent* which suggests changing each weight w_{ik} by an amount Δw_{ik} proportional to gradient of E (the error) at the present location, i.e.,

$$\Delta w_{ik} = -\eta \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_{ik}},$$

where η is a parameter called the *learning rate* of the network and its value lies between 0 to 1.

The weight w_{ik} will be updated by the following equation:

$$w_{ik}^{new} = w_{ik}^{old} + \Delta w_{ik}.$$

The computation done at each node can be expressed by the sigmoid function.

$$g(h) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-2\beta h)},$$

where β is called the *steepness factor* and is often set to 1 or $\frac{1}{2}$.

To avoid oscillation near some local minima some *inertia* or *momentum* is given to each connection weight. This scheme is implemented by giving a contribution from the previous time step to each weight change:

$$\Delta w_{ik}(t+1) = -\eta \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_{ik}} + \alpha \Delta w_{ik}(t),$$

where α is called *momentum parameter* and its value lies between 0 to 1.

2.2.1 Network Pruning

The above obtained network is pruned by doing the sensitivity analysis [13]. In this method we check which are the node active at any particular time. The nodes which are not active are pruned. The measure of relevance ρ of any node is calculated by inducing a gating term χ for each unit such that

$$o_j = g(\sum_i w_{ji} \chi_i o_i)$$

where o_j is the activity of the node j . The important of the unit is then approximated by the derivative

$$\rho_i = -\left(\frac{\partial E^l}{\partial \chi_i}\right) \Big|_{\chi_i=1}$$

where $E^l = \sum(|t_{pj} - o_{pj}|)$

which is computed by back propagation.

When ρ_i falls below certain threshold the unit can be deleted.

To suppress the fluctuation we use

$$\rho_i(t+1) = 0.8\rho_i(t) + 0.2\frac{\partial E^l}{\partial \chi_i}.$$

2.3 Algorithm for Discretizing Continuous Attribute

As mentioned in Section 1, ID3 algorithm for generating decision tree requires discrete valued attribute. If the pattern recognition problem characterized by continuous valued attribute, then the attribute must be discretized appropriately. Here in this section we describe a new way of discretizing the continuous attribute. Linguistic terms like low, medium and high are used in the process. This is done in two steps. In first step an n-dimensional feature space is translated to a 3n-dimensional feature by using three equidistant Π membership functions [14, 15]. In step 2, 3n-dimensional features with continuous domain is translated to 3n-dimensional binary valued features by using appropriate threshold on each dimension. The detailed algorithm of the above mentioned steps are given below:

Given an n-dimensional pattern $F = [F_1, F_2, \dots, F_n]$, it is transformed into a 3n-dimensional vector as [14, 15]

$$F = [\mu_{low}(F_1), \mu_{med}(F_1), \dots, \mu_{high}(F_n)] = [y_1, y_1, \dots, y_{3n}]$$

Where μ value indicates the membership functions of the corresponding linguistic Π -sets low, medium, high along each feature axis. The algorithm to calculate the membership of the pattern point is:-

calcInputMembership()

input : A data file D_1 consist of n-dimensional attribute, labeled data.

output : A data file D_2 consist of 3n-dimensional attribute, labeled data.

method :

for each attribute F_j do

begin

find $F_{jmin} = \min\{F_{1j}, F_{2j}, \dots, F_{kj}\}$

$$F_{jmax} = \max\{F_{1j}, F_{2j}, \dots, F_{kj}\},$$

where k is the total number of samples in the input data file.

find mean m_j of $\{F_{1j}, F_{2j}, \dots, F_{kj}\}$;

find mean m_{jl} of the attribute whose value lies in $[F_{jmin}, m_j]$;

find mean m_{jh} of the attribute whose value lies in $[m_j, F_{jmax}]$;

Centers $C_{jm} = m_j, C_{jl} = m_{jl}, C_{jh} = m_{jh}$,

Radius $\lambda_{jl} = 2 * (C_m - C_l)$

$$\lambda_{jh} = 2 * (C_h - C_m)$$

$$\lambda_{jm} = \frac{\lambda_l * (F_{jmax} - C_m) + \lambda_h * (C_m - F_{jmin})}{F_{jmax} - F_{jmin}},$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Pi(F_j, C_{ji}, \lambda_{ji}) &= 2 * \left(1 - \frac{\|F_j - C_{ji}\|}{\lambda_{ji}}\right)^2; \text{for } \frac{\lambda_{ji}}{2} \leq \|F_j - C_{ji}\| < \lambda_{ji} \\ &= 1 - 2 * \left(\frac{\|F_j - C_{ji}\|}{\lambda_{ji}}\right)^2; \text{for } 0 \leq \|F_j - C_{ji}\| < \frac{\lambda_{ji}}{2} \\ &= 0 \text{ otherwise.} \end{aligned}$$

(for $i = \text{low, medium, high.}$)

$$\mu_i(F_j) = \Pi(F_j, C_{ji}, \lambda_{ji}).$$

end

discretized()

input : data file D_1 with n -dimensional attribute labeled data.

$[T_1, T_2, \dots, T_{3n}]$ $3n$ -dimensional threshold vector.

output : data file D_2 with $3n$ -dimensional attribute with binary value.

method :

Get data file D_3 containing $3n$ -dimensional membership value by using algorithm *calcMembership()* with input file D_1 .

for $i = 1$ to k do (where k is the total number of pattern points in data file D_3)

begin

for $j = 1$ to $3n$ do

begin

if $F_{ij} < T_j$

then write $F_{ij} = 0$ in file D_2

else write $F_{ij} = 1$ in file D_2

end

end

2.4 Rule Generation and Mapping onto the Neural Network

Now we are in a position to form a decision tree for any kind of data. Once the decision tree is ready, rules from the tree can be generated in *conjunctive normal form* by using the proposed algorithm. Before going into further detail let us describe related literature on *neural trees*.

2.4.1 Neural Trees

Both decision trees and neural networks are most commonly used tools for pattern classification. In recent years enormous work has been done in an attempt to combine the advantage of neural networks and decision trees. The new architecture so obtained is called a *neural tree*. The neural tree architecture reported in literature can be grouped according to the learning paradigm employed for their training. Most of the existing neural tree architecture were directly or indirectly related to feed-forward neural networks. In fact, the characterization neural tree was indistinguishably used to describe approaches using feed-forward neural network as a building element in order to improve the decision of decision tree, along with approaches employing decision tree as a tool for building and training feed-forward network.

In the first family of approaches, one attempts to develop a tree structure containing a feed-forward neural network in the nodes. Some of the remarkable work in this area are Sankar and Mammone's *neural tree network* (NTN) [16] and *competitive neural trees* by (CNeT) Behnke *et. al* [17]. The architecture of NTN consists of single layered neural network connected in the form of tree. On the other hand CNeT has a structured architecture and performs

hierarchical clustering by employing unsupervised learning at node level.

In the second family of approaches attempt is made to build neural networks either by developing tree structured neural network or by mapping decision trees to multi layer neural network. Sethi [18] proposed a procedure for mapping a decision tree into a multi layered feed-forward neural network with two hidden nodes. The mapping rules described there can be stated as follows:

The number of neurons in the first hidden layer equals to the number of internal nodes in the tree. Each of these neurons implements one of the decision function of the internal nodes.

The number of neurons in the second hidden layer equals to the number of leaf nodes in the tree.

The number of neurons in the output layer equals to the number of distinct classes.

This method of mapping the tree onto the neural network produces a net with very high complexity.

2.4.2 Proposed Mapping Scheme

The algorithm used for rule generation is as follows:

Algorithm ruleGeneration()

input : Decision tree.

output : Set of rules.

method:

for each path from root to leaf do

begin

```

rule =  $\phi$ ; current_node = root_node;
dowhile{current_node  $\neq$  leaf_node}
  begin
    if the leaf node lies in the left subtree to the node having decisive feature  $F_i$ 
      rule = rule  $\wedge$   $\overline{F_i}$ 
    else rule = rule  $\wedge$   $F_i$ 
  end
  assign the decision of the rule by the representative class of the node
  to which it takes the sample point.
  frequency of the rule is the number of pattern points reaching to the node
  in training data assign the frequency to the rule.
end.

```

Now we will illustrate our scheme of mapping the decision tree into the neural network by the following example.

Let the training set consist of 10 sample points, to be classified into two classes according to two continuous valued feature F_1 and F_2 . These features must be discretized before being fed to the algorithm. By using the algorithm *discretized()* we get 6-dimensional features. $L_1, M_1, H_1, L_2, M_2, H_2$. With these feature let us generate a sample decision tree shown in Fig. 2.1.

The rule corresponding to the decision trees are:-

1. $\overline{L_1} \rightarrow C_1; 4$
2. $L_1 \wedge M_1 \wedge \overline{M_2} \rightarrow C_1; 2$
3. $L_1 \wedge \overline{M_1} \rightarrow C_2; 3$
4. $L_1 \wedge M_1 \wedge M_2 \rightarrow C_2; 1$

Note that the number to the right of a rule indicates the number of pattern points satisfying that rule. Each rule corresponds to one hidden node.

The corresponding mapped neural network is given in Fig.2.2:

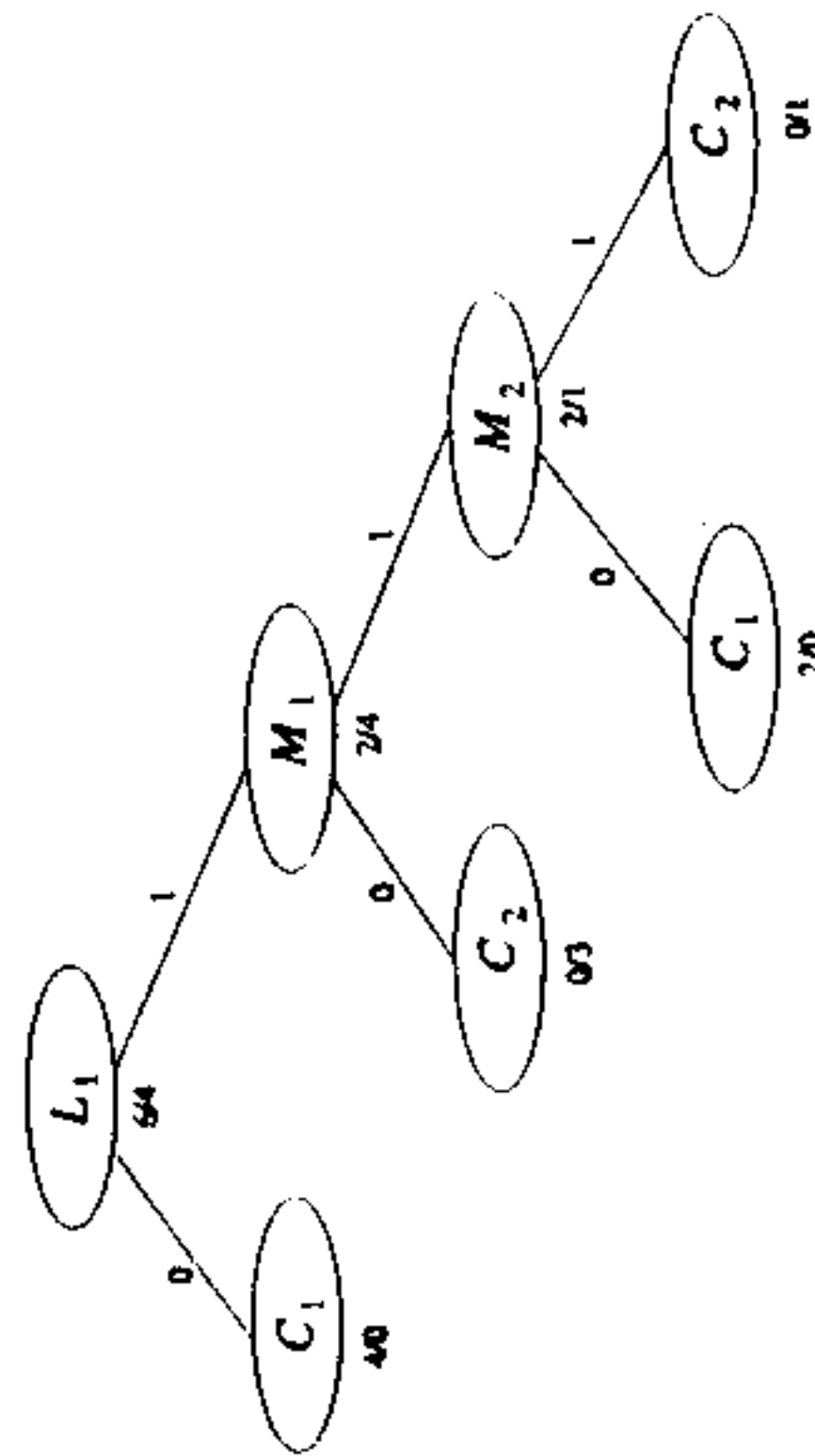


Figure 2.1: Decision tree

As class C_1 has two rules with frequencies 4 and 2, we choose 2 hidden nodes with initial output layer weights respectively,

$$\frac{4}{4+2} = \frac{2}{3}, \quad \frac{2}{4+2} = \frac{1}{3},$$

These percolate down to the weights in the input layer in proportion to the number of inputs attribute connected to that hidden node. Hence rule 1, with $\overline{L_1}$, provides a weight of $\frac{2}{-1}$ (taking account of the negative attribute L_1). Similarly the second rule of C_1 has 3 attribute. Hence the weights are $\frac{1}{3} = \frac{1}{9}$, $\frac{1}{3} = \frac{1}{9}$, $\frac{1}{-3} = -\frac{1}{9}$ respectively. The same holds for the class C_2 . This corresponds to the initial weight encoding. Backpropagation is used to train the network further. Note that the remaining links not (specified by the rules) are initiated by very small random numbers. ♣

In the proposed algorithm we handle continuous valued attribute using linguistic labels. These are mapped onto a layered network. The weight encoding procedure has been explained with an example. However, some issues like handling of overlapping classes could not be tackled. To circumvent this problem we designed the fuzzy version of the algorithm, which is discussed in the next chapter.

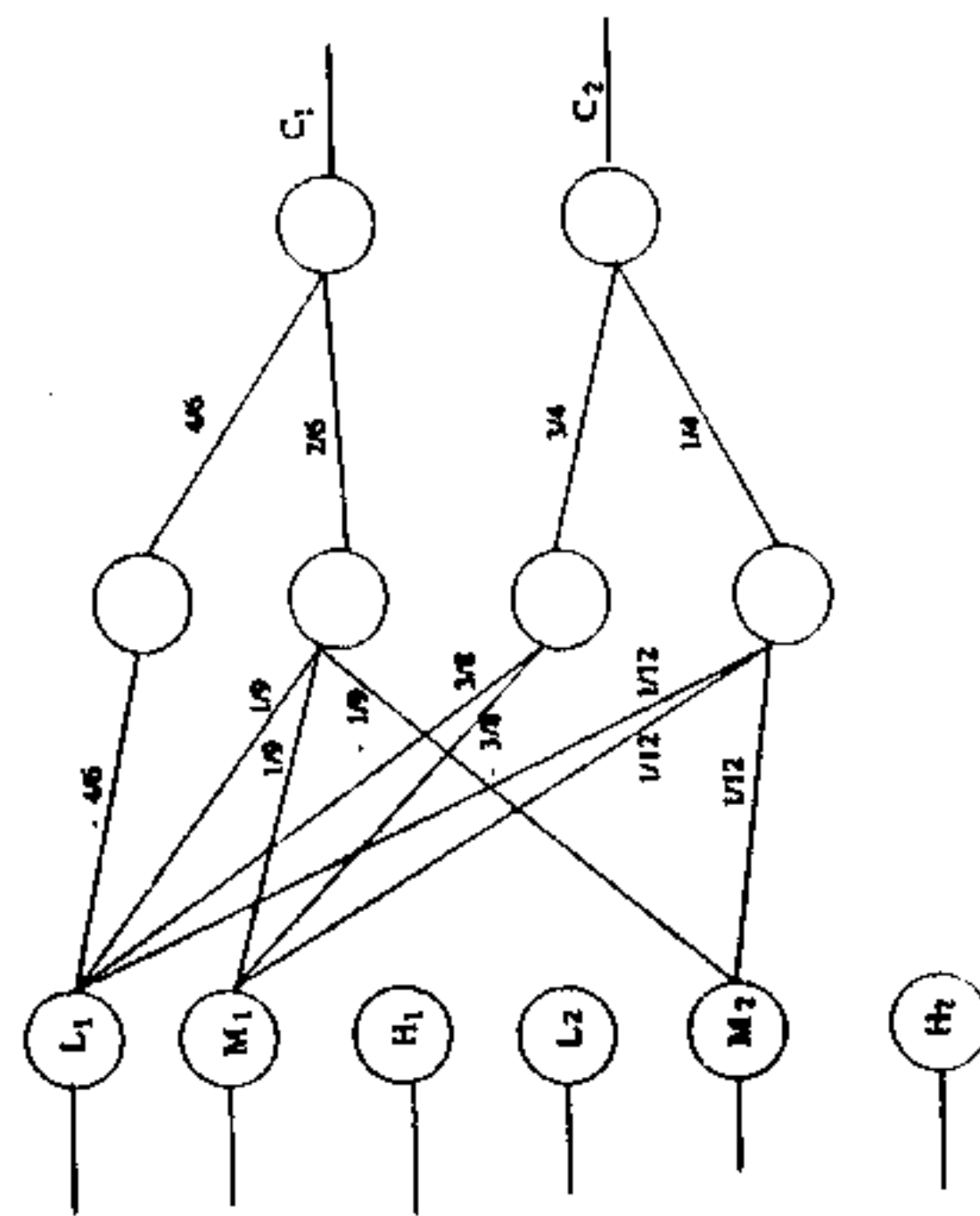


Figure 2.2: Mapped network

Chapter 3

ID3: Incorporation of Fuzziness

In Chapter 2 we have shown how the ID3 algorithm can be used in the continuous domain case by applying our proposed scheme. Another stringent requirement for ID3 is that, the classes must not be overlap. In case of overlapping, ID3 fails to give any decision. In this chapter we propose a revised version of the ID3 algorithm by incorporating fuzziness at the sample level and at the node level, such that the proposed algorithm will boil down to classical ID3 in the crisp case. Moreover when the classical ID3 fails to give any decision, our algorithm will provide more information about the overlapping area, this is useful while mapping the tree onto the neural network. This chapter consist of two sections. Section 1 deals with the incorporation of fuzziness into the ID3. Section 2 we describe the rule generation method. Section 3 provides in brief the method used to map the revised algorithm to a fuzzy MLP.

3.1 Incorporation of fuzziness

Let us concentrate on why ID3 fails to give any information when There are overlapping pattern classes. In ID3 algorithm we partition the sample space in the form of a tree by using attribute values only. When two sample

points from two different overlapping classes lie in the intersection region, the corresponding features for these samples are expected to be the same. Which implies they will travel through the same path in the decision tree and finally land onto a same node. We cannot further split the node because for such a node the gain in entropy ΔEnt will be zero, which is one of the stopping criteria during tree building. Thus in the overlapped region an attribute value fails to provide any decision about the leaf node. In order to get more information we have to dig the data further. Intuition tells us that the pattern points of any particular class must be clustered around some characteristic prototype or cluster center. We want to exploit the fact that the points nearer to the cluster center have high proximity with the cluster center as compared to the points further from it. Once we know the cluster center, we can compute the distance of any sample point from that particular center. Then conclude this less is the distance, the more is the chance of the point belonging to that cluster. Taking these facts into account we compute the membership of each pattern into any of the class using the following algorithm [14, 15]

calcClassMembership()

input: data file D_1 with n -dimensional attribute labeled data,
number of classes : l

output : data file D_2 containing class membership of each pattern.

method :

for each class C_k do

begin

Calculate n -dimensional vector $O_k = [O_{k1}, O_{k2}, \dots, O_{kn}]$ and $V_k = [V_{k1}, V_{k2}, \dots, V_{kn}]$
where O_{ki} is the mean of features i belonging to class C_k

V_{ki} is the standard deviation of features i belonging to class C_k

Calculate the weighted distances of the training pattern F_i from the class C_k as:

$$Z_{ik} = \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^n \left[\frac{F_{ij} - O_{kj}}{V_{kj}} \right]^2}$$

Calculate the membership of the i^{th} pattern in the k^{th} class as

$$\mu_k(F_i) = \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{z_{jk}}{T_d}\right)^{T_e}}$$

end

Once the membership is calculated we are in a position to decide whether we can make any decision or not. Mandal *et. al.* [19] provides a scheme to calculate the *confidence factor* (CF) and rule base to infer whether the sample point belongs to a particular class or the other. We adopt this notion of CF as:-

$$CF = \frac{1}{2} \left[\mu' + \frac{1}{l-1} \sum_{k=1}^l \{\mu' - \mu_k\} \right]$$

where $\{\mu_k\}$ are the class membership of the pattern to k^{th} class, and μ' is the highest membership value. Note that we compute CF_1 and CF_2 (when second choice is necessary), such that μ' refers to first and second membership values respectively.

Rulebase:- CF_k denotes the CF corresponding to class C_k

1. If $0.8 \leq CF_k \leq 1.0$ then *very likely* class C_k and there is no second choice.
2. If $0.6 \leq CF_k < 0.8$ then *likely* class C_k and there is second choice.
3. If $0.4 \leq CF_k < 0.6$ then *more or less likely* class C_k and there is second choice.
4. If $0.1 \leq CF_k < 0.4$ then *not unlikely* class C_k and there is no second choice.
5. If $CF_k < 0.1$ then *unable to recognize* class C_k and there is no second choice.

In our case we calculate the CF corresponding to the class with highest and second highest membership values. In case of single choice (when rule 1 fires) we update the confidence factor to one and an aggregation has been made at the node level. This is given in the following algorithm. Fuzziness is incorporated at the node level by changing the decision function from classical

entropy to a *fuzzy measure* which is defined in the algorithm itself. Property of this function is that it gives more weightage to that attribute which has a higher discriminating power. The function is designed in such a way that when the class memberships are zero or one it will boil down to classical entropy. The detailed algorithm is given below:

In the training set we have N pattern from l classes $C_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, l$. The population in class C_i is N_i , each pattern has n attributes.

rev_ID3()

input : Data file D_1 with n -dimensional attribute, labeled data.

output : Decision tree.

method :

1. Generate data file D_2 with discrete $3n$ -dimensional attribute by using algorithm *Discretize()* with input file D_1 .
2. Generate data file D_3 having class membership to each class by using algorithm *calcClassMembership()*.
3. Calculate initial value of Fuzziness measure (FM)

After step 2 for the training set, class membership is known for all the patterns, also the class belonging of each pattern point is known. The initial FM for the system consisting of N labeled pattern is :-

$$\begin{aligned}
 FM(I) &= \sum_{k=1}^l \left(\frac{1}{N} \sum_{m=1 \& c=k}^N \min(\mu_{mc}, 1 - \mu_{mc}) - \left(\frac{N_k}{N}\right) \log_2 \left(\frac{N_k}{N}\right) \right) \\
 &= \sum_{k=1}^l \left(\frac{1}{N} \sum_{m=1 \& c=k}^N \min(\mu_{mc}, 1 - \mu_{mc}) - p_i \log_2 p_i \right)
 \end{aligned}$$

where p_k is the *a priori* probability of the k^{th} class and μ_{mc} denotes the membership of the m^{th} pattern to c^{th} class.

4. Select a feature to serve as the root node of the decision tree

(a) for each feature $F_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, n$, partition the original population into two sub partitions according to the values a_{ij} ($j=0$ or 1 , stands for the feature value 0 or 1) of the feature F_i . There are n_{ij} patterns in a_{ij} branch, but these patterns are not necessarily of any single class.

(b) for any branch population n_{ij} , the number of pattern belonging to class C_k is $n_{ij}(k)$. μ_{mkj} denotes the membership of the m^{th} pattern in the k^{th} class. Evaluate the FM of the branch using

$$FM(I, F_i, j) =$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^l \left(\frac{1}{n_{ij}} \sum_{m=1 \& c=k}^{n_{ij}} \min(\mu_{mkj}, 1 - \mu_{mkj}) - \left(\frac{n_{ij}(k)}{n_{ij}} \right) \log_2 \left(\frac{n_{ij}(k)}{n_{ij}} \right) \right)$$

The FM of the system after testing on attribute F_i is then

$$FM(I, F_i) = \sum_{j=1}^2 \frac{n_{ij}}{\sum_j n_{ij}} * FM(I, F_i, j)$$

(c) The decrease in FM, as a result of testing feature, F_i is
 $\Delta FM(i) = FM(I) - FM(I, F_i)$

(d) Select a feature F_k that yields greatest decrease in FM, that is for which $\Delta FM(k) > \Delta FM(i)$, for all $i = 1, 2, \dots, l, i \neq k$.

(e) The feature F_k is then root of the decision tree.

5. *Build the next level of the decision tree.*

Select a feature $F_{k'}$ to serve as the level 1 node such that after testing on $F_{k'}$ on all branches we obtain the maximum decrease in FM.

6. *Repeat step 3 through 5*

Continue the process until all sub populations reaching to a leaf node are of any single class or decrease in FM, i.e, ΔFM is zero. Mark the node which have more than one class pattern point and which is a leaf node as a *unresolved* node.

7. (a) for each unresolved node calculate the confidence factors [19] CF_1 and CF_2 as:-

for each pattern reaching to that node calculate

$$CF = \frac{1}{2} \left[\mu' + \frac{1}{l-1} \sum_{k=1}^l \{\mu' - \mu_k\} \right]$$

where $\{\mu_k\}$ are the class membership of the pattern to k_{th} class.

if $\mu' = \max\{\mu_k\}$ then $CF = CF_1$ if $\mu' =$ second maximum of $\{\mu_k\}$
then $CF = CF_2$

- (b) Identify the class corresponding to which there is at least one CF_1 or CF_2 in the node.

- (c) for each pattern point in the node

- i. if $CF_1 \geq 0.8$ then put $CF_1 = 1, CF_2 = 0$
and consider the class wise summation of th CF value of the classes found above and take the average.
- ii. Mark the class getting maximum and second maximum CF value.
- iii. Declare the node as the representative of the classes found in the above step with membership corresponding to the CF values.

8. Prune the leaf node which contains no pattern points.

3.2 Rule Generation

The algorithm `ruleGeneration()` described in Chapter 2 is modified for generating rules from the decision tree obtained by the algorithm `rev_ID3`.

Algorithm `rev_ruleGeneration()`

input : Decision tree.

output : Set of rules.

method: for each path from root to leaf node dp

begin

$rule = \phi$; current_node =root_node;

dowhile{current_node \neq leaf_node}

begin

if the leaf node lies in the left subtree to the node having decisive feature F_i

rule = rule \wedge $\overline{F_i}$

else rule =rule \wedge F_i

end

in training data, assign the frequency to the rule.

/* Frequency of the rule is the number of pattern points reaching to the node */

For the rule which takes the sample point to the leaf node and is

not marked in step 6 of the algorithm *rev_ID3()*,

assign the confidence of the rule as 1 and decision of

the rule by the representative class of the node .

For the rule which takes the sample point to the leaf node which

is marked in step 6 of the algorithm *rev_ID3()*,

assign the confidence of the rule by CF_1 and CF_2 and

the decision of the rule by the classes having these

confidence factors. Also assign the frequency of the

corresponding satisfying this rule.

end.

3.3 Mapping of Rules

Now we will illustrate our scheme of mapping the decision tree obtained from *rev_ID3()* into the neural network by the following example.

Let the training set consist of 15 sample points, to be classified into three classes according to two continuous valued features F_1 and F_2 . These fea-

tures must be discretized before being fed to the algorithm. By using the algorithm *discretized()* described in Chapter 2 we get 6-dimensional features: $L_1, M_1, H_1, L_2, M_2, H_2$. With these features let us generate a sample decision tree shown in Fig. 3.1.

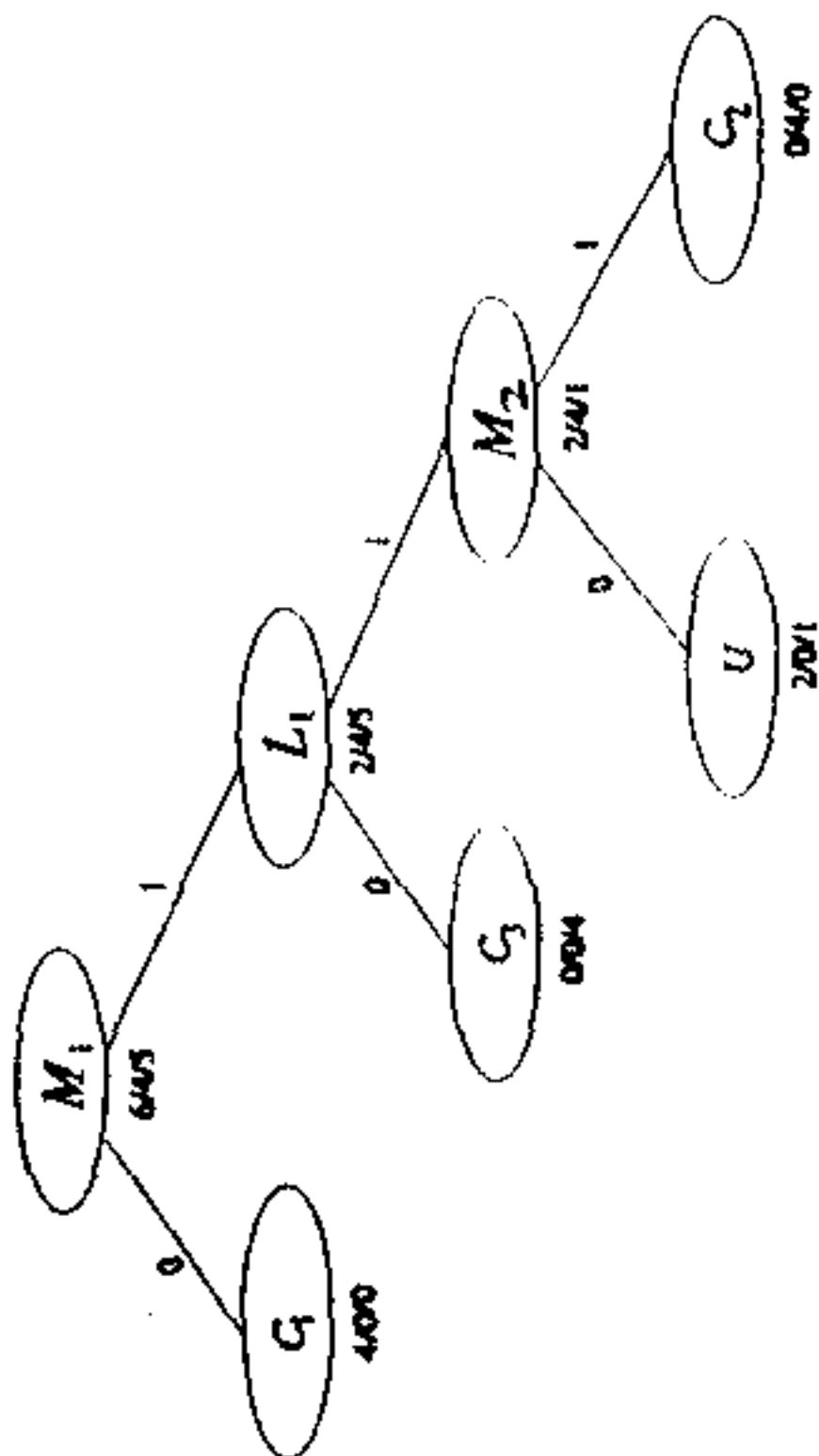


Figure 3.1: Decision tree generated by rev_ID3

Let, the data points in the unresolved node represented by "U" be d_1, d_2, d_3 . The following table indicates the membership of these data points in the three different classes:

	C_1	C_2	C_3
d_1	0.80	0.60	0.02
d_2	0.70	0.50	0.13
d_3	0.16	0.90	0.10

The CF_1 and CF_2 (sample level) of d_1, d_2, d_3 corresponding to the classes with highest and second highest frequencies are given in the table below:

	CF_1	CF_2
d_1	0.645 (C_1)	0.395 (C_3)
d_2	0.54 (C_1)	0.291 (C_3)
d_3	0.835 (C_3)	-0.09 (C_1)

As row 3 has $CF_1 = 0.835 (\geq 0.8$ by step 7(c) of algorithm rev_ID3), hence $CF_1 = 1$ and $CF_2 = 0$. Aggregated CF for class C_1 is $(0.645 + 0.54 + 0)/3 = 0.365$ while that for class C_3 is $(0.395 + 0.291 + 1)/3 = 0.562$. As class C_3 has a higher membership we put CF_1 for node "U" as 0.562 for class C_3 and $CF_2 = 0.365$ for class C_1 .

The rules corresponding to the decision trees obtained from rev_ID3 algorithm are:-

1. $\overline{M}_1 \rightarrow C_1; 4, 1.$
2. $M_1 \wedge L_1 \wedge M_2 \rightarrow C_2; 4, 1.$
3. $M_1 \wedge \overline{L}_1 \rightarrow C_3; 4, 1.$
4. $M_1 \wedge L_1 \wedge \overline{M}_2 \rightarrow 3, 0.562, 0.365, C_3, C_1, 1, 2.$

Note that:

a) the two numbers to the right of a rules (1-3) indicate the number of pattern points satisfying that rule and the confidence of the rule respectively

b) in rule number 4 the entities after " \rightarrow " indicate respectively the frequency of the rule, first and second confidence factors, classes corre-

responding to these confidence factors and the frequency of the sample belonging to these classes which satisfying this rule respectively.

The corresponding mapped neural network is given in Fig.3.2:

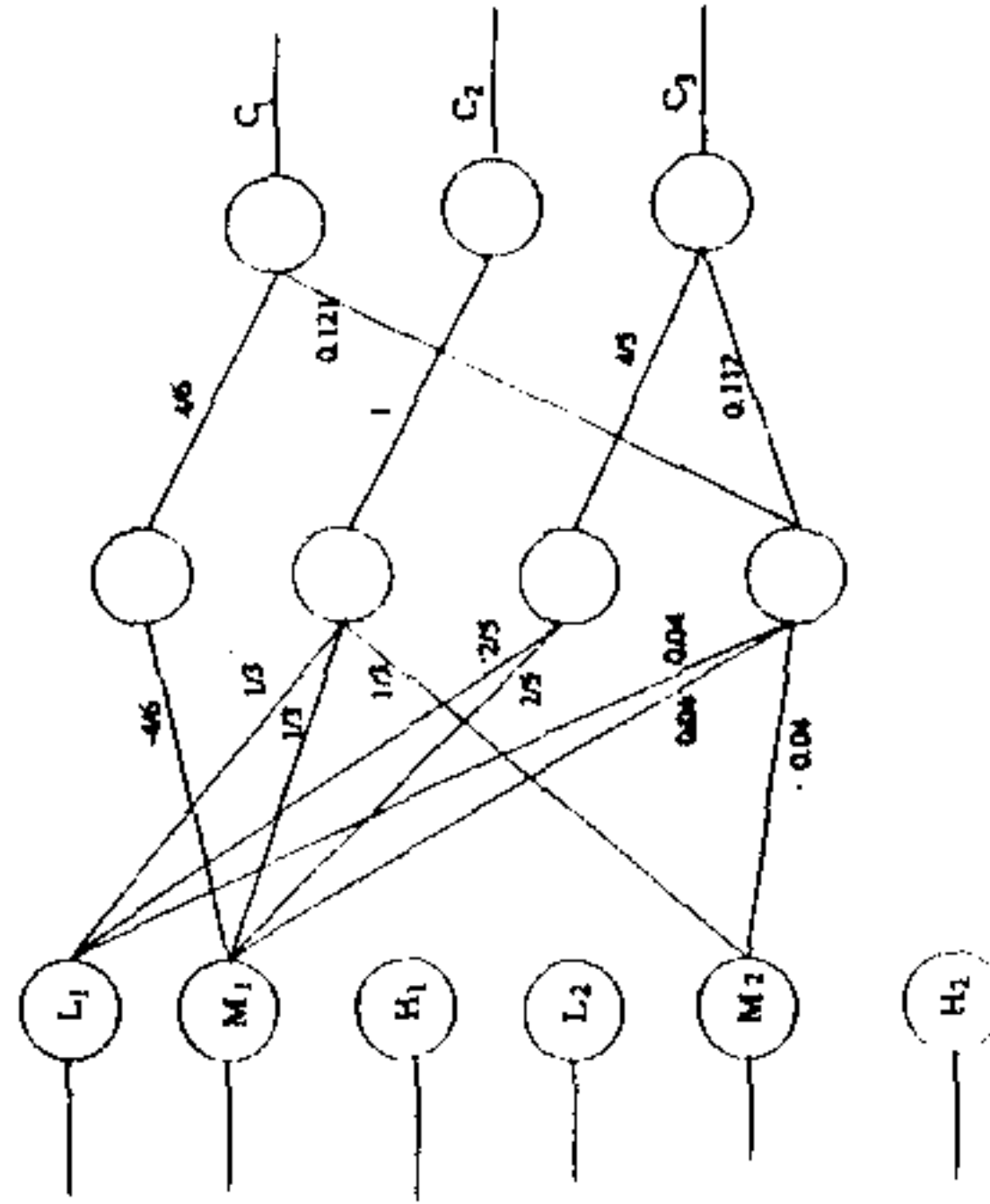


Figure 3.2: Mapped network

Since there are four rules generated in total, we have four hidden nodes. As class \$C_1\$ has two rules with frequency 4 & confidence 1 and frequency 2 & confidence 0.365, the output node will be connected to 2 hidden nodes with initial output layer weights

$$\frac{4}{4+2} * 1 = \frac{2}{3}, \quad \frac{2}{4+2} * 0.365 = 0.121 \text{ respectively.}$$

If there is only one output node connected with any hidden node, the weight on the hidden-output link will percolate down to the weights in the input layer in proportion to the number of input attributes connected to that hidden node. Hence rule 1, with \$\overline{L_1}\$, provides a weight of \$\frac{2}{-1}\$ (taking into account of the negative attribute \$\overline{L_1}\$).

When there are more than one output nodes connected to a single hidden unit (corresponding to unresolved nodes) then the maximum of all the weights on the links from that node to all connected output nodes is taken. This will

percolate down to the weights in the input layer in proportion to the number of inputs attribute connected to that hidden node. For example rule 4 shows that two output nodes denoting class C_1 and class C_3 will have a connection with one common hidden node with weights 0.121 and 0.112. Maximum of these is 0.121. Hence the weights are: $\frac{0.121}{3} = 0.04$, $\frac{0.121}{3} = 0.04$, $\frac{0.121}{-3} = -0.04$ respectively.

Now we train the MLP for the class membership of the pattern. Inferencing is done with the principle that the node which fires with higher confidence is the winner. ♣

In the proposed algorithm we are able to handle the cases overlapping classes by incorporating fuzziness to ID3. Rules are generated from the new decision tree. These are mapped onto a fuzzy MLP. The weight encoding procedure has been explained with an example. The following two chapters deal with the result and the concluding remarks.

Chapter 4

Results

Here we present some results demonstrating the effectiveness of the algorithm on a set of 871 Indian Telugu vowel sounds [14, 15]. As a comparison, the performance of the conventional MLP has also been provided.

The vowel sounds, collected by trained personnel, were uttered by three male speakers in the age group of 30 to 35 years, in a Consonant-Vowel-Consonant context. The details of the method are available in [14]. The data set has three features; F_1 , F_2 and F_3 corresponding to the first, second and third vowel formant frequencies obtained through spectrum analysis of the speech data. Note that the boundaries of the classes in the given data set are seen to be ill-defined (fuzzy). Fig. 4.1 shows a 2D projection of the 3D feature space of the six vowel classes (a, i, u, e, o) in the $F_1 - F_2$ plane, for ease of depiction.

Tables 1-3 provide the performance of the networks initially encoded using ID3 and rev_ID3 (involving fuzziness). Comparison is made with the conventional MLP, initialized using random weights. Different training set sizes 10%, 20%, 30%, 40%, 50% are used. Recognition scores (classwise and overall) for both training and test set (100% -training set) are provided. The mean square error (mse) and number of training sweeps are also included. Classes 1-6 indicate the six vowel classes mentioned above. The mse is used

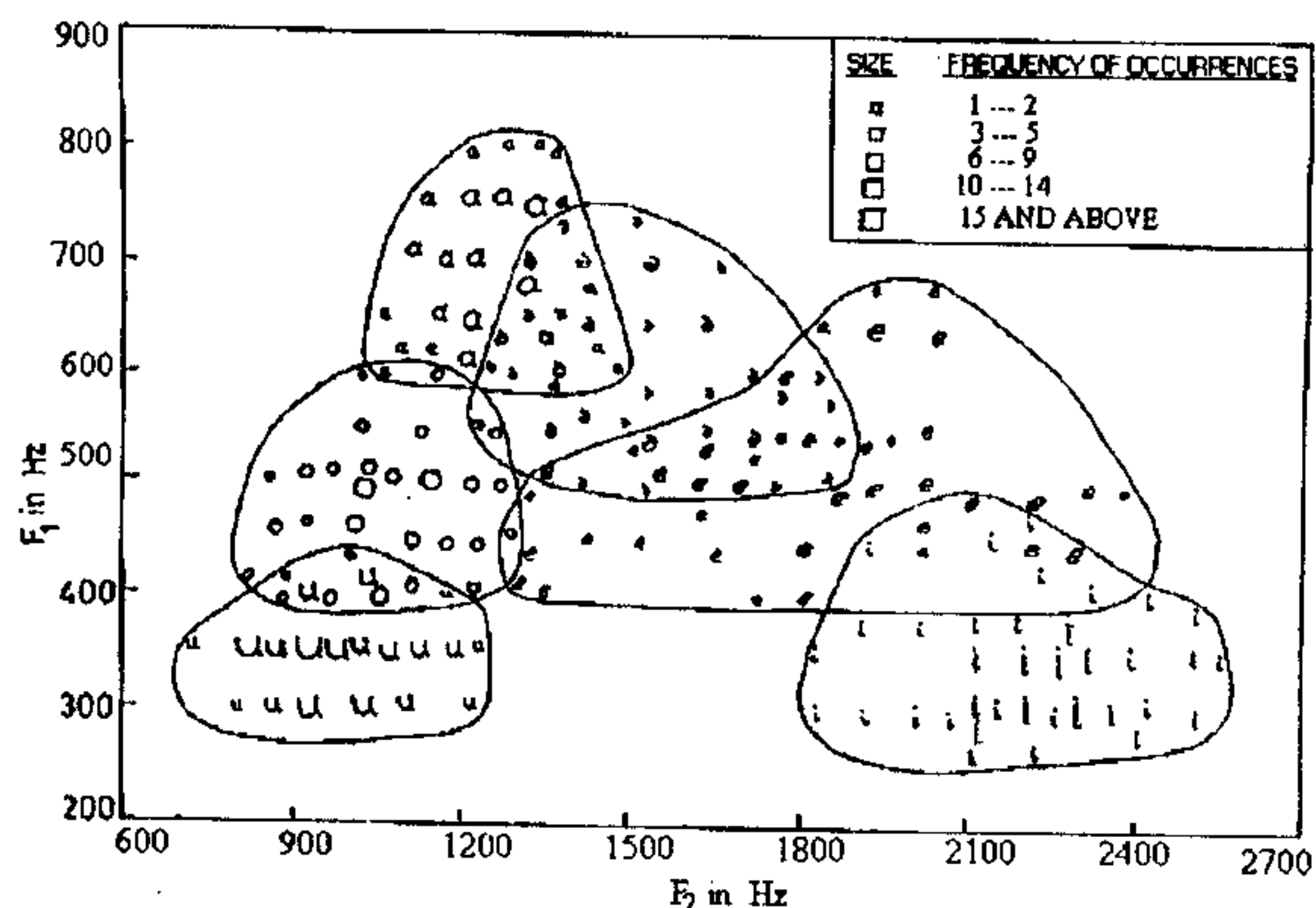


Figure 4.1: Vowel diagram in $F_1 - F_2$ plane

as the stopping criterion.

Tables 1 and 2 involve algorithm ID3 with no fuzziness. However, the frequency of the training pattern is taken into account while computing the initial weights. Table 1 considers 9 rules for the six classes. This is mapped to 9 hidden nodes. Table 2, on the other hand, considers 15 rules. Note that we consider only high frequency rule in Table 1. It is observed from Table 1 that the proposed algorithm gives better results, both in terms of recognition scores and number of training sweeps. This is because the encoding of prior knowledge results in a faster convergence. The gain in terms of recognition score is however not that explicit in Table 2 involving 15 hidden nodes.

Table 3 demonstrates the performance of the network using rev_ID3, that incorporates fuzziness in the decision tree. The use of confidence factor resulted in the generation of 25 rules. Here unresolved nodes of the decision tree were also taken into account. The performance is always better in terms of the number of training sweeps. The gain in terms of recognition score is not as evident as in Table 1. This leads to the conclusion that the smaller the network, more noticeable is the improvement of the proposed algorithm.

Table 4 shows the result using pruning. A training set size of 20% was used. It is observed that pruning results in smaller network when one uses knowledge encoding. However, the performance is not always better. More studies need to be made in this regard.

Table 1: Comparative performance with 9 hidden nodes, using knowledge encoding with ID3 and conventional MLP

Weight Encoding	Training										Testing						
	Training Set (%)	Scores(%)						mse	# sweeps	Scores(%)							
		1	2	3	4	5	6			TOTAL	1	2	3	4	5	6	TOTAL
I	10	50.0	85.7	93.7	85.7	68.4	100.0	83.5	0.0014	2550	59.0	81.7	85.9	92.0	71.2	86.5	80.9
	20	61.5	93.7	84.8	86.2	67.5	74.2	77.7	0.0014	939	74.6	78.1	84.9	91.0	74.8	79.3	80.8
	30	40.0	88.0	78.0	86.3	75.4	73.5	75.9	0.0014	507	71.15	76.56	87.0	92.5	76.7	75.6	80.7
	40	40.7	76.4	82.0	84.7	76.5	80.2	77.0	0.0014	780	68.9	83.6	86.7	91.3	76.1	78.0	81.4
	50	48.5	81.4	84.7	90.5	69.6	82.0	78.2	0.0014	451	67.6	84.8	85.1	92.2	81.9	75.8	82.2
R A N D O	10	50.0	85.7	87.5	85.7	73.7	94.1	82.2	0.0014	2632	56.0	85.3	84.6	91.2	74.4	84.0	80.9
	20	53.8	93.7	84.8	86.2	67.5	71.4	76.5	0.0014	1771	57.6	79.4	84.9	91.8	72.4	75.7	78.4
	30	40.0	88.0	78.0	84.1	70.5	77.3	75.1	0.0014	2491	59.6	79.7	86.1	90.6	76.0	74.8	79.3
	40	48.1	79.4	82.1	83.0	75.3	80.3	77.3	0.0014	2560	75.6	83.6	86.7	89.1	74.6	78.0	81.2
	50	51.4	81.4	84.7	90.5	67.6	80.9	77.8	0.0017	32300	64.6	84.8	85.0	87.0	78.1	75.8	80.1

Table 2: Comparative performance with 15 hidden nodes, using knowledge encoding with ID3 and conventional MLP

Weight Encoding	Training											Testing					
	Training Set (%)	Scores(%)						mse	# sweeps	Scores(%)							
		1	2	3	4	5	6			TOTAL	1	2	3	4	5	6	TOTAL
I	10	50.0	85.7	87.5	85.7	68.4	100.0	82.2	0.0014	970	66.7	85.3	84.6	89.0	70.7	83.4	80.4
	20	61.5	87.5	84.8	86.2	72.5	74.3	78.3	0.0014	554	61.0	79.4	84.1	91.8	73.0	80.0	79.6
	30	40.0	92.0	78.0	84.1	73.8	77.3	76.3	0.0014	434	63.5	79.7	86.1	90.6	74	79.5	80.0
D	40	44.4	79.4	82.1	81.3	75.3	80.2	76.7	0.0014	377	64.4	85.4	86.7	90.2	74.6	79.8	81.0
	50	48.6	79.1	82.3	89.2	70.6	83.1	77.8	0.0014	267	64.9	84.8	85.1	89.6	79.0	75.8	80.8
	10	50.0	85.7	87.5	85.7	68.4	100.0	82.2	0.0014	1256	59.1	82.9	84.6	89.0	74.5	85.9	80.9
A	20	61.5	93.7	84.8	86.2	75.0	74.0	79.5	0.0014	644	62.7	79.4	84.2	91.0	74.8	75.2	79.0
	30	50.0	92.0	80.0	81.8	75.4	73.6	76.7	0.0014	542	69.2	78.1	86.9	90.6	74.0	78.7	80.4
	40	40.7	79.4	82.0	84.7	72.8	80.2	76.4	0.0014	575	66.7	85.4	87.6	90.2	73.0	78.9	80.8
O	50	62.9	81.4	84.7	90.5	69.6	80.9	79.2	0.0014	444	75.6	84.8	86.2	89.6	76.1	75.8	81.2

Table 3: Comparative performance with 25 hidden nodes, using knowledge encoding with rev_ID3 and conventional MLP

Weight Encoding	Training											Testing					
	Training Set (%)	Scores(%)						mse	# sweeps	Scores(%)							
		1	2	3	4	5	6			TOTAL	1	2	3	4	5	6	TOTAL
R	10	50.0	85.7	93.7	85.7	68.4	100.0	83.5	0.0014	739	65.1	84.1	85.3	91.2	75.0	77.9	80.6
E	20	67.8	80.8	83.4	92.6	77.2	76.5	80.5	0.0014	389	69.5	78.1	84.2	91.0	77.8	77.9	80.7
V	30	40.0	88.0	80.0	86.3	75.4	73.6	76.2	0.0014	291	67.3	79.7	86.9	92.5	76.7	75.6	80.7
ID3	40	40.7	76.4	82.1	83.0	77.8	80.2	76.99	0.0014	251	71.1	85.4	85.7	90.2	77.0	78.0	81.6
	50	51.4	81.4	84.7	89.1	72.5	83.1	79.2	0.0014	180	67.6	84.8	83.9	88.3	83.8	75.8	81.7
R	10	50.0	85.7	87.5	85.7	68.4	100.0	82.2	0.0014	833	60.6	87.8	84.6	91.2	76.6	77.3	80.7
A	20	61.5	93.7	84.8	86.2	72.5	74.3	79.6	0.0014	445	61.0	78.0	85.6	91.8	74.2	77.9	79.5
N	30	40.0	88.0	80.0	84.1	75.4	77.4	76.7	0.0014	341	71.1	78.1	86.9	90.6	71.9	77.9	79.9
D	40	40.7	76.5	82.1	83.0	74.1	80.3	76.1	0.0014	267	71.1	85.4	88.6	92.4	73.0	78.0	81.5
O	50	57.1	83.7	84.7	90.5	69.6	80.9	79.0	0.0014	207	67.6	84.8	85.1	90.9	75.2	75.8	80.3

Table 4: Comparative performance using pruning

Initial # Hidden Nodes	Weight Encoding	Final # Hidden Nodes	Training						# sweeps	Testing							
			Scores(%)							Scores(%)							
			1	2	3	4	5	6		TOTAL	1	2	3	4	5	6	TOTAL
9	ID3	6	53.8	87.5	84.8	82.8	70.0	74.3	76.5	1348	59.3	69.9	84.9	88.5	75.4	78.6	78.3
	Random	9	53.8	93.7	84.8	86.2	67.5	74.3	77.1	286	52.5	79.4	85.6	92.6	76.6	75.2	79.1
	ID3	7	53.8	93.7	84.8	89.7	72.5	74.3	78.9	1139	50.8	82.2	84.9	91.8	74.8	75.9	78.7
15	Random	7	53.8	93.7	84.8	82.8	77.5	74.3	78.9	3254	50.8	79.4	84.9	88.5	73.0	77.93	77.8
	ID3	9	53.8	87.5	84.8	82.8	70.0	74.3	76.5	939	59.3	76.7	84.9	89.3	71.7	77.2	78.0
25	Random	10	53.8	93.7	84.8	82.8	80.0	74.3	79.5	973	54.2	79.4	84.1	89.3	79.0	79.3	79.8
	ID3	10	53.8	93.7	84.8	82.8	80.0	74.3	79.5	973	54.2	79.4	84.1	89.3	79.0	79.3	79.8

Chapter 5

Conclusions and Discussion

A novel method of using the ID3 algorithm to initially encode the connection weights of an MLP has been described. Continuous valued attributes are handled by the method. Crude rules are extracted from the data set using the decision tree-based approach. The rules are generated in linguistic terms, enabling a more natural representation. The frequency of the sample points, representative of a rule, is taken into account while mapping the rule onto the neural network.

Fuzziness is incorporated at the node level to tackle unresolved nodes. This novel method helps one to model real life ambiguous data involving uncertainty in the region of overlapping classes. The concept of confidence is used to arrive at a suitable decision. This scheme is directly mapped onto a fuzzy neural network architecture. Each rule corresponds to a separate hidden node.

Lucid examples are used to illustrate the mapping process. It is observed that the effectiveness of the algorithm becomes more evident in the smaller network. In other words, the fewer the number of hidden nodes, greater is the improvement shown by our algorithm as compared to that of conventional MLP involving random initial weights. This fact has also been established earlier by Banerjee *et. al.* [20]. In general, the performance is found to

improve in term of both recognition scores and as the number of training cycles.

Using the fuzzy version of ID3 resulted in a larger network. Hence the improvement is less marked. However, that the mapping procedure used can be modified in the future to generate a more compact network architecture. This would help in highlighting the utility of this fuzzy version.

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