# Theory of Belief functions : Application to Classification and Clustering

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#### Classification and clustering Classical framework

- We consider a collection  $\mathcal{L}$  of *n* objects.
- Each object is assumed to belong to one of *c* groups (classes).
- Each object is described by
  - An attribute vector  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{p}$  (attribute data), or
  - Its similarity to all other objects (proximity data).
- The class membership of objects may be:
  - Completely known, described by class labels (supervised learning);
  - Completely unknown (unsupervised learning);
  - Known for some objects, and unknown for others (semi-supervised learning).



#### Classification and clustering Problems

- Classification: predict the class membership of objects drawn from the same population as *L*.
- Clustering: Determine the class membership of objects in  $\mathcal{L}$ .

	supervised	unsupervised	semi-supervised
Classification	Х		Х
Clustering		х	Χ
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# **Motivations**

- In real situations, we may have only partial knowledge of class labels: we have uncertainty in the data → partially supervised learning.
- The class membership of objects can usually be predicted with some remaining uncertainty: the outputs from classification and clustering algorithms should reflect this uncertainty.
- The theory of belief functions provides a suitable framework for representing uncertain and imprecise class information as input and as output of classification and clustering algorithms.



### Outline

### Theory of belief functions

- Representing evidence
- Combining evidence
- Making decisions
- 2 Classification: the evidential k-NN rule
  - Principle
  - Extension to partially supervised data
  - Evidential neural network

### 3 Credal clustering

- Credal partition
- EVCLUS
- Evidential c-means



Representing evidence Combining evidence Making decisions

## Theory of belief functions

- Introduced by Dempster (1968) and Shafer (1976), further developed by Smets (Transferable Belief Model) in the 1980's and 1990's. Also known as Dempster-Shafer theory or Evidence theory.
- A formal framework for representing and reasoning from partial (uncertain, imprecise) information.
- Generalizes both Set Theory and Probability Theory:
  - A belief function may be viewed both as a generalized set and as a non additive measure.
  - The theory includes extensions of probabilistic notions (conditioning, marginalization) and set-theoretic notions (intersection, union, inclusion, etc.)



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# Mass function

Let X be a variable taking values in a finite set Ω (frame of discernment).

Representing evidence

• Mass function:  $m: 2^{\Omega} \rightarrow [0, 1]$  such that

$$\sum_{A\subseteq\Omega}m(A)=1.$$

- Every A of  $\Omega$  such that m(A) > 0 is a focal set of m.
- Interpretation: m(A) represents is the probability of knowing only that X ∈ A, given the available evidence.
- *m*(Ω) is the probability of knowing nothing (ignorance).



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# Example

- A murder has been committed. There are three suspects:  $\Omega = \{Peter, John, Mary\}.$
- A witness saw the murderer going away, but he only saw that it was a man.
- We know that this witness is drunk 20% of the time.
- This piece of evidence can be represented by

 $m(\{Peter, John\}) = 0.8,$ 

$$m(\Omega) = 0.2$$

• The mass 0.2 is not committed to {*Mary*}, because the testimony does not accuse Mary at all!



# Special cases

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- *m* may be seen as:
  - A family of weighted sets  $\{(A_i, m(A_i)), i = 1, \dots, r\}$ .
  - A generalized probability distribution (masses are distributed in 2<sup>Ω</sup> instead of Ω).
- Special cases:
  - r = 1: categorical mass function (~ set). We denote by m<sub>A</sub> the categorical mass function with focal set A.
  - |*A<sub>i</sub>*| = 1, *i* = 1,...,*r*: Bayesian mass function (∼ probability distribution).



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# **Belief function**

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• Definition:

$$bel(A) = \sum_{\substack{B \subseteq A \\ B \not\subseteq \overline{A}}} m(B) = \sum_{\emptyset 
eq B \subseteq A} m(B), \quad \forall A \subseteq \Omega$$

- Interpretation: degree of belief (support) in hypothesis
   "X ∈ A".
- bel is superadditive. In particular,

$$bel(A \cup B) \ge bel(A) + bel(B) - bel(A \cap B).$$



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# Plausibility function

Definition:

$$pl(A) = \sum_{B \cap A \neq \emptyset} m(B), \quad \forall A \subseteq \Omega$$

- Interpretation: upper bound on the degree of belief that could be assigned to A after taking into account new information.
- pl is subadditive. In particular,

$$pl(A \cup B) \leq pl(A) + pl(B) - pl(A \cap B).$$

- bel  $\leq$  pl.
- If *m* is Bayesian, bel = pl (probability measure).

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### Example

A	Ø	{ <b>P</b> }	$\{J\}$	{ <i>P</i> , <i>J</i> }	{ <b>M</b> }	{ <i>P</i> , <i>M</i> }	{ <i>J</i> , <i>M</i> }	Ω
m(A)	0	0	0	0.8	0	0	0	0.2
bel(A)	0	0	0	0.8	0	0	0	1
pl(A)	0	1	1	1	0.2	1	1	1



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### Relations between m, bel et pl

#### Relations:

$$bel(A) = pl(\Omega) - pl(\overline{A}), \quad \forall A \subseteq \Omega$$
 $m(A) = \begin{cases} \sum_{\emptyset \neq B \subseteq A} (-1)^{|A| - |B|} bel(B), & A \neq \emptyset \\ 1 - bel(\Omega) & A = \emptyset \end{cases}$ 

• *m*, *bel* et *pl* are thus three equivalent representations of a same piece of information.



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### **Inclusion relations**

- Let  $m_1$  and  $m_2$  be two mass functions on  $\Omega$ .
- In what sense can we say that m<sub>1</sub> is more committed (informative) than m<sub>2</sub>?
- Special case:
  - Let  $m_A$  and  $m_B$  be two categorical mass functions.
  - $m_A$  is more committed than  $m_B$  iff  $A \subseteq B$ .
- Generalization to arbitrary mass functions ?



# Weak inclusion

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•  $m_1$  is *pl*-more committed than  $m_2$  (noted  $m_1 \sqsubseteq_{pl} m_2$ ) if

$$pl_1(A) \leq pl_2(A), \quad \forall A \subseteq \Omega.$$

- Properties:
  - Generalization of inclusion:  $m_A \sqsubseteq_{pl} m_B \Leftrightarrow A \subseteq B$ .
  - Greatest element: m<sub>Ω</sub> such that m<sub>Ω</sub>(Ω) = 1 (vacuous mass function).



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# Strong inclusion

*m*<sub>1</sub> is a specialization of *m*<sub>2</sub> (noted *m*<sub>1</sub> ⊑<sub>s</sub> *m*<sub>2</sub>) if *m*<sub>1</sub> can be obtained from *m*<sub>2</sub> by distributing each mass *m*<sub>2</sub>(*B*) to subsets of *B*:

$$m_1(A) = \sum_{B \subseteq \Omega} S(A, B) m_2(B), \quad \forall A \subseteq \Omega,$$

with S(A, B) = proportion of  $m_2(B)$  transferred to  $A \subseteq B$ .

- S: specialization matrix.
- Properties:
  - Generalization of inclusion
  - Greatest element:  $m_{\Omega}$ .
  - $m_1 \sqsubseteq_s m_2 \Rightarrow m_1 \sqsubseteq_{pl} m_2$ .



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Example





 $m_1 \sqsubseteq_s m_2$ 



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### Least commitment principle

#### Definition (Least commitment principle)

When several mass functions are compatible with a set of constraints, the *least committed* (according to some ordering) should be chosen.

- Example: we only know that pI(A) = 0.
- The least committed mass function (according to  $\sqsubseteq_{pl}$  and  $\sqsubseteq_s$ ) satisfying this constraint is  $m_0$  such that  $m_0(\overline{A}) = 1$ . It verifies  $pl_0(A) = 0$  and  $pl_0(B) = 1$  for all  $B \not\subseteq A$ .



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# Conditioning

- Let *m* represent our state of knowledge about *X*.
- We learn that  $X \in B$  with  $B \subset \Omega$ . Impact on *m*?
- Let *m*[*B*] the updated mass function.
- Constraints:

• 
$$pl[B](\overline{B}) = 0.$$

 Least commitment principle: least committed solution according to ⊑<sub>pl</sub>:

$$m[B](A) = \sum_{\{C|C\cap B=A\}} m(C).$$

Combining evidence

# Example

- We have  $m(\{Peter, John\}) = 0.8, m(\Omega) = 0.2.$
- We learn that the murderer is blond. John and Mary are blond. *B* = {*John*, *Mary*}.

Combining evidence

- $m(\{Peter, John\}) \rightarrow \{John\}, m(\Omega) \rightarrow \{John, Mary\}.$
- New conditional mass function given B.

 $m[B]({John}) = 0.8$ 

 $m[B]({John, Mary}) = 0.2.$ 

# Properties

- Generalization of intersection:  $m_A[B] = m_{A \cap B}$ .
- Generalisation of probabilistic conditioning:
  - If  $m(\emptyset) > 0$ , the normalized mass function  $m^*$  is

$$m^*(A)=\frac{m(A)}{1-m(\emptyset)}.$$

Combining evidence

• Normalized conditioning:

$$pl^*[B](A) = rac{pl(A \cap B)}{pl(B)}$$

• If *m* is Bayesian, *pl* = *P*: same result as probabilistic conditioning.



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#### Dempster's rule Hypotheses

- Let *m*<sub>1</sub> and *m*<sub>2</sub> be two mass functions received from two reliable sources. How should they be combined?
- $m_1 * m_2$  should be more committed than  $m_1$  and  $m_2$ . We assume that

$$m_1 * m_2 = S_1 \cdot m_2, \quad m_1 * m_2 = S_2 \cdot m_1,$$

where  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  specialization matrices.

- Hypotheses:
  - Independence : S<sub>1</sub> does not depend on m<sub>2</sub>, S<sub>2</sub> does not depend on m<sub>1</sub>.
  - Generalization of conditioning:  $m * m_B = m[B]$ .
  - Commutativity:  $m_1 * m_2 = m_2 * m_1$ .
- Solution : Dempster's rule.

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# Dempster's rule

### Definition (Dempster's rule of combination)

$$(m_1 \odot m_2)(A) = \sum_{B \cap C = A} m_1(B) m_2(C), \quad \forall A \subseteq \Omega.$$

- Properties:
  - Generalization of conditioning: m<sub>☉</sub>m<sub>B</sub> = m[B].
  - Commutativity, associativity.
  - Neutral element: vacuous m<sub>Ω</sub> such that m<sub>Ω</sub>(Ω) = 1 (represents total ignorance).
- $K = (m_1 \odot m_2)(\emptyset) \ge 0$ : degree of conflict.
- Other rules exist (disjunctive rule, cautious rule, etc...).



Example

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### • We have $m_1(\{Peter, John\}) = 0.8, m_1(\Omega) = 0.2.$

 New piece of evidence: the murderer is blond, confidence=0.6 → m<sub>2</sub>({John, Mary}) = 0.6, m<sub>2</sub>(Ω) = 0.4.

	{ <i>Peter</i> , <i>John</i> }	Ω	
	0.8	0.2	
{John, Mary}	{John}	{John, Mary}	
0.6	0.48	0.12	
Ω	{ <i>Peter</i> , <i>John</i> }	Ω	
0.4	0.32	0.08	



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## Pignistic transformation

- Assume that our knowledge about X is represented by a mass function *m*, and we have to bet on the value of X.
- In order to avoid Dutch books (sequences of bets resulting sure loss), we have to base our decisions on a probability distribution on Ω.
- The pignistic transformation from *m* to a probability distribution *Betp* can be justified axiomatically:

$$\textit{Betp}(\omega) = \sum_{\{\textit{A} \subseteq \Omega | \omega \in \textit{A}\}} rac{m^*(\textit{A})}{|\textit{A}|}.$$



 Let m({John}) = 0.48, m({John, Mary}) = 0.12, m({Peter, John}) = 0.32, m(Ω) = 0.08.

We have

$$Betp({John}) = 0.48 + \frac{0.12}{2} + \frac{0.32}{2} + \frac{0.08}{3} \approx 0.73,$$
$$Betp({Peter}) = \frac{0.32}{2} + \frac{0.08}{3} \approx 0.19$$
$$Betp({Mary}) = \frac{0.12}{2} + \frac{0.08}{3} \approx 0.09$$



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# Voting k-NN rule

- Classical non parametric classification method.
- Let  $\Omega$  denote the set of classes, et  $\mathcal{L}$  the learning set

$$\mathcal{L} = \{(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{y}_i), i = 1, \dots, n\}$$

with  $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^p$  and  $y_i \in \Omega$ .

- Let **x** ∈ ℝ<sup>ρ</sup> be the feature vector for a new object, and Φ<sub>k</sub>(**x**) the set of the k nearest neighbors of **x** in L (according to some distance measure).
- Decision rule: **x** is assigned to the majority class in  $\Phi_k(\mathbf{x}) \rightarrow \text{utc}$

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# Evidential k-NN rule (1/2)

- An alternative to the voting *k*-NN rule based on the theory of belief functions.
- Each x<sub>i</sub> ∈ Φ<sub>k</sub>(x) is considered as a piece of evidence regarding the class of x.
- The strength of this evidence decreases with the distance d(x, x<sub>i</sub>) between x and x<sub>i</sub>.
- It can be represented by a mass function

$$m_i(\{y_i\}) = \alpha \cdot \varphi \left( d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_i) \right)$$

$$m_i(\Omega) = 1 - \alpha \cdot \varphi \left( d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_i) \right).$$

where  $\alpha \in (0, 1)$  is a constant, and  $\varphi$  is a decreasing function from  $\mathbb{R}_+$  to [0, 1] such that  $\lim_{d \to +\infty} \varphi(d) = 0$ .



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### Evidential k-NN rule (2/2)

• The evidence of the *k* nearest neighbors of **x** is pooled using Dempster's rule of combination:

$$m = \bigcap_{\mathbf{x}_i \in \Phi_k(\mathbf{x})} m_i$$

- *m* encodes the evidence of the learning set regarding the class of the new object.
- Practical choice for  $\varphi$ :  $\varphi(d) = \exp(-\gamma d^2)$ .
- Parameters k, α and γ can be fixed heuristically or determined from the data using cross-validation.
- Decision:

$$\widehat{y} = \arg \max_{\omega \in \Omega} Betp(\omega).$$



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### Example: Sonar data (UCI database)



Test error rates as a function of k for the voting (-), evidential (:), fuzz (-) and distance-weighted (-.) k-NN rules.



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### Example: lonosphere data (UCI database)



Test error rates as a function of k for the voting (-), evidential (:), fuzz (-) and distance-weighted (-.) k-NN rules.

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### Example: Vehicle data (UCI database)



Test error rates as a function of k for the voting (-), evidential (:), fuzz(-) and distance-weighted (-.) k-NN rules.
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## Partially supervised data

We now consider a learning set of the form

$$\mathcal{L} = \{ (\mathbf{x}_i, m_i), i = 1, \ldots, n \}$$

where

- **x**<sub>i</sub> is the attribute vector for object *o*<sub>i</sub>, and
- *m<sub>i</sub>* is a mass function representing expert knowledge about the class *y<sub>i</sub>* of object *o<sub>i</sub>*.

#### Special cases:

- *m<sub>i</sub>*({ω<sub>k</sub>}) = 1: precise labeling (supervised learning);
- $m_i(A) = 1$  for  $A \subseteq \Omega$ : imprecise (set-valued) labeling;
- *m<sub>i</sub>* is a Bayesian mass function: probabilistic labeling;



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#### Extension of the evidential k-NN rule

- Each example (x<sub>i</sub>, m<sub>i</sub>) in L is an item of evidence regarding y, whose reliability decreases with the distance d(x, x<sub>i</sub>) between x and x<sub>i</sub>.
- Each mass function *m<sub>i</sub>* is transformed (discounted) into a "weaker" mass function *m<sub>i</sub>*:

$$egin{aligned} m_i'(m{A}) &= lpha \cdot arphi \left(m{d}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}_i)
ight) m_i(m{A}), & orall m{A} \subset \Omega. \ m_i'(\Omega) &= \mathbf{1} - \sum_{m{A} \subset \Omega} m_i'(m{A}). \end{aligned}$$

The k mass functions are combined using Dempster's rule:

$$m = \bigcirc_{\mathbf{x}_i \in \Phi_k(\mathbf{x})} m'_i.$$

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#### Example: EEG data

500 EEG signals encoded as 64-D patterns, 50 % positive (K-complexes), 50 % negative (delta waves), 5 experts.





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#### Results on EEG data (Denoeux and Zouhal, 2001)

- *c* = 2 classes, *p* = 64
- data labeled by 5 experts
- Consonant mass functions computed from empirical distribution of expert labels using a probability-possibility transformation.
- *n* = 200 learning patterns, 300 test patterns

k	<i>k</i> -NN	w <i>k</i> -NN	Ev. <i>k</i> -NN	Ev. <i>k</i> -NN
			(crisp labels)	(uncert. labels)
9	0.30	0.30	0.31	0.27
11	0.29	0.30	0.29	0.26
13	0.31	0.30	0.31	0.26

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#### Evidential neural network classifier

- Implementation in a RBF-like neural network architecture with *r* prototypes: p<sub>1</sub>,..., p<sub>r</sub>.
- Each prototype **p**<sub>i</sub> has membership degree u<sub>ik</sub> to each class ω<sub>k</sub> with ∑<sup>c</sup><sub>k=1</sub> u<sub>ik</sub> = 1
- The distance between **x** and **p**<sub>i</sub> induces a mass function:

$$m_i(\{\omega_k\}) = \alpha_i u_{ik} \exp(-\gamma_i \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{p}_i\|^2) \quad \forall k$$
  
$$m_i(\Omega) = 1 - \alpha_i \exp(-\gamma_i \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{p}_i\|^2)$$

$$m = \bigcap_{i=1}^{r} m_i$$

- Initialization: *c*-means, for instance.
- Learning of parameters **p**<sub>i</sub>, u<sub>ik</sub>, γ<sub>i</sub>, α<sub>i</sub> from data by minimizing an error function



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#### Neural network architecture



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#### Results on classical data

	Classifier	test error rate
	Multi-layer perceptron (88 units)	0.49
Vowel data	Radial Basis Function (528 units)	0.47
	Gaussian node network (528 units)	0.45
c = 11, n = 10	Nearest neighbor	0.44
p = 10 n = 568	Linear Discriminant Analysis	0.56
test · 462	Quadratic Discriminant Analysis	0.53
	CART	0.56
(different	BRUTO	0.44
(uniereni	MARS (degree=2)	0.42
speakers)	Evidential NN (33 prototypes)	0.38
	Evidential NN (44 prototypes)	0.37
	Evidential NN (55 prototypes)	0.37 🔁
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### Data fusion example



- c = 2 classes
- $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^5, \mathbf{x}' \in \mathbb{R}^3$ , Gaussian distributions, conditionally independent
- Learning set: n = 60, validation:  $n_v = 100$
- test: 5000 vectors

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#### Results Test error rates: uncorrupted data

Method	<b>x</b> alone	$\mathbf{x}'$ alone	$\mathbf{x}$ and $\mathbf{x}'$
Evidental NN	0.106	0.148	0.061
MLP	0.113	0.142	0.063
RBF	0.133	0.159	0.083
QUAD	0.101	0.141	0.049
BAYES	0.071	0.121	0.028



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#### **Results** Test error rates: $\mathbf{x} + \epsilon, \epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 I)$



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Theory of belief functions

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#### **Results** Test error rates: $\mathbf{x} + \epsilon$ , $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 I)$ with rejection





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Credal partition EVCLUS Evidential *c*-means

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# Credal partition

Credal partition EVCLUS Evidential *c*-means

- *n* objects described by attribute vectors **x**<sub>1</sub>,..., **x**<sub>n</sub>.
- Assumption: each object belongs to one of *c* classes in  $\Omega = \{\omega_1, ..., \omega_c\},\$
- Goal: express our beliefs regarding the class membership of objects, in the form of mass functions m<sub>1</sub>,..., m<sub>n</sub> on Ω.
- Resulting structure = credal partition, generalizes hard and fuzzy partitions.



Example

Credal partition EVCLUS Evidential *c*-means

Α	$m_1(A)$	$m_2(A)$	$m_3(A)$	$m_4(A)$	$m_5(A)$
Ø	0	0	0	0	0
$\{\omega_1\}$	0	0	0	0.2	0
$\{\omega_2\}$	0	1	0	0.4	0
$\{\omega_1, \omega_2\}$	0.7	0	0	0	0
$\{\omega_3\}$	0	0	0.2	0.4	0
$\{\omega_1, \omega_3\}$	0	0	0.5	0	0
$\{\omega_2, \omega_3\}$	0	0	0	0	0
Ω	0.3	0	0.3	0	1



Credal partition EVCLUS Evidential *c*-means

#### • Each *m<sub>i</sub>* is a *certain mass function*:

$$m_i(\{\omega_k\}) = 1$$
 for some  $k \in \{1, ..., c\}$ 

 $\rightarrow$  crisp partition of  $\Omega$ .

Special cases

Each m<sub>i</sub> is a Bayesian mass function (focal sets are singletons) → fuzzy partition of Ω

$$u_{ik} = m_i(\{\omega_k\}), \quad \forall i, k$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^{c} u_{ik} = 1.$$

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# Algorithms

Credal partition EVCLUS Evidential *c*-means

- EVCLUS (Denoeux and Masson, 2004):
  - proximity (possibly non metric) data,
  - multidimensional scaling approach.
- Evidential *c*-means (ECM): (Masson and Denoeux, 2008):
  - attribute data,
  - HCM, FCM family (alternate optimization of a cost function).



Credal partition EVCLUS Evidential *c*-means

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**EVCLUS** 

# Proximity Data

Let  $\mathcal{P}$  be a collection of *n* objects  $\{o_i\}_{i=1}^n$ . The observations consist in pairwise dissimilarities between objects:



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## Learning a Credal Partition from proximity data

- Problem: given the dissimilarity matrix D = (d<sub>ij</sub>), how to build a "reasonable" credal partition ?
- Notion of cluster: objects within a cluster are assumed to be more similar among themselves than with objects from other clusters.
- Compatibility Principle: "The more similar two objects, the more plausible it is that they belong to the same class".



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# Formalization

- Let *S<sub>ij</sub>* be the event "objects *o<sub>i</sub>* and *o<sub>j</sub>* belong to the same class".
- Let *m<sub>i</sub>* and *m<sub>j</sub>* be mass functions regarding the class membership of objects *o<sub>i</sub>* and *o<sub>j</sub>*.
- It can be shown that

$$pl(S_{ij}) = \sum_{A \cap B 
eq \emptyset} m_i(A)m_j(B) = 1 - K_{ij}$$

where  $K_{ij}$  = degree of conflict between  $m_i$  and  $m_j$ .

• Problem: find  $M = (m_1, ..., m_n)$  such that larger degrees of conflict  $K_{ij}$  correspond to larger dissimilarities  $d_{ij}$ .

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# **Cost function**

• Approach: minimize the discrepancy between the dissimilarities *d<sub>ij</sub>* and the degrees of conflict *K<sub>ij</sub>*, up to an affine transformation (similar to Muldimensional Scaling).

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• Example of stress functions:

$$I(M, a, b) = \sum_{i < j} rac{(a \mathcal{K}_{ij} + b - d_{ij})^2}{d_{ij}}$$

• Minimization of *I* with respect to *M* and *a*, *b* using a gradient-based iterative optimization procedure.



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# Reducing the complexity

- Learning a credal partition form data may be an ill-posed problem (O(n2<sup>c</sup>) parameters, O(n<sup>2</sup>) dissimilarities)).
- Solution:
  - Reduce the number of focal elements (e.g.  $\{\omega_k\}_{k=1}^c, \emptyset$ , and  $\Omega$ )
  - Add constraints to the problem: penalize "uninformative", "complex" credal partitions

$$I' = I + \lambda \sum_{i=1}^{n} H(m_i)$$

where *H*=generalized entropy function.

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# Experiments: Butterfly example





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# Experiments: Butterfly example Results



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# Experiments: Cat cortex dataset

- Objects: 65 cortical areas
- Dissimilarities: connection strength between the cortical areas measured on an ordinal scale (0=self-connection,1=dense connection, 2=intermediate connection, 3=weak connection, 4=absence of connection)
- "True" partition: four functional regions of the cortex (A=auditory, V=visual, S=somatosensory, F=frontolimbic)
- Results:
  - only 3 misclassified regions out 64
  - similar to supervised kernel-based classification algorithms; utc

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• better than relational fuzzy clustering algorithms.

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#### Experiments: Cat cortex dataset Results



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# Experiments: Cat cortex dataset



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### Advantages and drawbacks

- Advantages
  - Applicable to proximity data (not necessarily Euclidean).
  - Robust against atypical observations (similar or dissimilar to all other objects).
  - Usually performs better than relational fuzzy clustering procedures.
- Drawback: computational complexity
  - One iteration of a gradient-based optimization procedure:  $O(f^3n^2)$  where f = number of focal sets (usually c + 2).
  - Limited to datasets of a few hundred objects and less than 20 classes.
  - Not possible to use the full expressive power of belief functions (only {ω<sub>k</sub>}, Ø and Ω as focal sets).



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## Outline

#### Theory of belief functions

- Representing evidence
- Combining evidence
- Making decisions
- Classification: the evidential k-NN rule
  - Principle
  - Extension to partially supervised data
  - Evidential neural network

### 3 Credal clustering

- Credal partition
- EVCLUS
- Evidential c-means



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# Principle

- Problem: generate a credal partition *M* = (*m*<sub>1</sub>,..., *m<sub>n</sub>*) from attribute data *X* = (**x**<sub>1</sub>,..., **x**<sub>n</sub>), **x**<sub>i</sub> ∈ ℝ<sup>p</sup>.
- Generalization of hard and fuzzy *c*-means algorithms:
  - Each class represented by a prototype
  - Alternate optimization of a cost function with respect to the prototypes and to the credal partition.



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### Fuzzy c-means (FCM)

#### Minimize

$$J_{ ext{FCM}}(U,V) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^c u_{ik}^eta d_{ik}^2$$

with  $d_{ik} = ||\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{v}_k||$  under the constraints  $\sum_k u_{ik} = 1$ ,  $\forall i$ .

• Alternate optimization algorithm:

$$\mathbf{v}_{k} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} u_{ik}^{\beta} \mathbf{x}_{i}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} u_{ik}^{\beta}} \quad \forall k = 1, \dots, c,$$

$$u_{ik} = rac{d_{ik}^{-2/(eta-1)}}{\sum_{\ell=1}^{c} d_{i\ell}^{-2/(eta-1)}}.$$



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# ECM algorithm

- Each class  $\omega_k$  represented by a prototype  $\mathbf{v}_k$ .
- Basic ideas:

  - The distance to the empty set is defined as a fixed value δ.



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### **Optimization problem**

#### Minimize

$$J_{\text{ECM}}(M, V) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{\{j/A_j \neq \emptyset, A_j \subseteq \Omega\}} |A_j|^{\alpha} m_{ij}^{\beta} d_{ij}^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \delta^2 m_{i\emptyset}^{\beta}$$

subject to

$$\sum_{\{j/A_j\subseteq\Omega,A_j\neq\emptyset\}}m_{ij}+m_{i\emptyset}=1,\quad\forall i\in\{1,\ldots,n\},$$

 J<sub>ECM</sub>(M, V) can be iteratively minimized with respect to M and V using an alternate optimization scheme.

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#### Butterfly dataset





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#### Butterfly dataset Results





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# 4-class data set





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#### 4-class data set Hard credal partition



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#### 4-class data set Lower approximation



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#### 4-class data set Upper approximation



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# Brain data

- Magnetic resonance imaging of pathological brain, 2 sets of parameters.
- Three regions: normal tissue (Norm), ventricals + cerebrospinal fluid (CSF/V) and pathology (Path).
- Image 1 highlights CSF/V (dark), image 2 highlights pathology (bright).





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# Brain data Segmentation of image 1



Initial image



 $\gamma_1 = \text{CSF/V}$ 



 $\gamma_2 = Path \cup normal$ 

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Image 1: 2 classes, coarsening of  $\Omega$ :  $\Gamma = \{\gamma_1 = CSF/V, \gamma_2 = \{Path, Normal\}\}$ 



Theory of belief functions

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# Brain data Segmentation of image 2



Initial image



 $\boldsymbol{\theta_1} = \text{norm} \cup \text{CSF/V}$ 



 $\theta_2 = Path$ 

Image 2: 2 classes, coarsening of  $\Omega$ :  $\Theta = \{\theta_1 = Path, \theta_2 = \{CSF/V, Normal\}\}$ 



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## Brain data Combining the two credal partitions

- Two credal partitions: for each pixel, two mass functions *m*<sub>1</sub> and *m*<sub>2</sub> on two different coarsenings of Ω.
- These two mass functions should be combined using Dempster's rule to recover the natural partition in three classes.
- $m_1$  and  $m_2$  need first to be expressed on a common frame  $\Omega$  (common refinement of  $\Gamma$  and  $\Theta$ ).



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#### Brain data Refinement of Г



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#### Brain data Refinement of $\Theta$



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#### Brain data Final result after combination



 $\omega_2 = Path$ 





 $\omega_3 = Normal$ 

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# Conclusion

 The theory of belief functions extends both set theory and probability theory → it allows for the representation of imprecision and uncertainty.

Evidential c-means

- In classification and clustering, belief functions may be used to represent partial knowledge of class labels.
- Many classification and clustering algorithms can be adapted to
  - handle such class labels (partially supervised learning)
  - generate them from data (credal partition)



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