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# LEARNFCA: A FUZZY FCA AND PROBABILITY BASED APPROACH FOR LEARNING AND CLASSIFICATION

by

Suraj Ketan Samal

## A THESIS

Presented to the Faculty of

The Graduate College at the University of Nebraska

In Partial Fulfilment of Requirements

For the Degree of Master of Science

Major: Computer Science

Under the Supervision of Professor Jitender Deogun

Lincoln, Nebraska

August, 2019

LEARNFCA: A FUZZY FCA AND PROBABILITY BASED APPROACH FOR

LEARNING AND CLASSIFICATION

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University of Nebraska, 2019

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Formal concept analysis (FCA) is a mathematical theory based on lattice and order

theory used for data analysis and knowledge representation. Over the past several

years, many of its extensions have been proposed and applied in several domains in-

cluding data mining, machine learning, knowledge management, semantic web, soft-

ware development, chemistry, biology, medicine, data analytics, biology and ontology

engineering.

This thesis reviews the state-of-the-art of theory of Formal Concept Analysis (FCA)

and its various extensions that have been developed and well-studied in the past sev-

eral years. We discuss their historical roots, reproduce the original definitions and

derivations with illustrative examples. Further, we provide a literature review of

it's applications and various approaches adopted by researchers in the areas of data-

analysis, knowledge management with emphasis to data-learning and classification

problems.

We propose LearnFCA, a novel approach based on FuzzyFCA and probability

theory for learning and classification problems. LearnFCA uses an enhanced version

of FuzzyLattice which has been developed to store class labels and probability vectors

and has the capability to be used for classifying instances with encoded and unlabelled

features. We evaluate LearnFCA on encodings from three datasets - mnist, omniglot

and cancer images with interesting results and varying degrees of success.

#### ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

First and foremost, I thank my advisor, Dr Jitender Deogun. He is a well-known, great mathematician, but fewer know about his dedication and his knowledge of various theories in discrete-math and theoretical computer-science. Dr Deogun is always very kind hearted and I am grateful for his valuable guidance over many years, his generosity with time, and all meetings we have had over the course of last few years, both for my professional and personal growth. He has mentored me with variety of things, including my course assignments, research topics and brings a great deal of excitement to all the research areas he works with. I am grateful for all the members of my thesis committee, including <>, <> and <> for advising me with research directions, working with me for research problems during the entire course of my program. Dr Variyam provided me with valuable support, interesting research directions and pushed my thinking abilities. Dr Hasan mentored me closely with the classes he taught, giving me opportunity for some valuable teaching experience that I will cherish my entire career.

I owe a great deal to Adam Voshall, whose vast experience, leadership and expertise in computer science and biological sciences has led to development of most of the work in this thesis. Many colleagues and members, past and present, have contributed to this work, either through collaboration, reviewing my writings, working on code together or providing valuable suggestions during discussions. I would like to thank to all the members of our group especially Mohammed Alali, Aziza Alzadali, Sairam Behera, Baset Hamza and Saravanan Raju for constant encouragement and invaluable support.

This thesis is the result of research work done as a member of Computer Science Department at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln. I am thankful to the CSE department for partially supporting this research. I also thank TRIO Programs at UNL for the assistantship support during the period of writing this thesis.

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## Chapter 1

## Introduction

## 1.1 Formal Concept Analysis

Formal Concept Analysis (FCA) was introduced in the early 1980s by Rudolf Wille as a mathematical theory of complete lattices. It builds on original theory of ordered sets and lattices developed by Garrett Birkhoff and others in the 1930s. It relies on a basic notion of concept similar to a traditional approach to concepts as in traditional logic. It is a formal way of deriving a concept hierarchy from a collection of objects and their properties.

Development of Formal concept analysis (FCA) became a well-known technique that provided real-world meaning to the mathematical order theory. This led to transformation of two dimensional data tables into algebraic structures or complete lattices, which could then be used for better visualization and interpretation of data. A data item generally represents a heterogeneous relation between object and a set of attributes, tabulating pairs of the form "object g has attribute m". A data table consists of many such data items, which when transformed is referred to as a formal context.

In this theory, a formal concept is defined to be a pair (A, B), where A is a set of objects (called the extent) and B is a set of attributes (the intent) such that

- the extent A includes all objects that have the attributes in B, and
- the intent B includes all attributes shared by the objects in A.

The formal concepts of a given formal context can be ordered in a hierarchy called a "concept lattice." Intuitively, a concept in the hierarchy is a representation of set of objects that share the same properties. Concepts at different level in the hierarchy are known as sub-concepts or super-concepts. A sub-concept represents a subset of the objects and a super-set of the properties in the concepts above it. The concept lattice enables a graphical visualization in terms of a "line diagram", which becomes very useful for providing meaning to the data. The lattice is then used to explore concepts, associations and implication rules which are more meaningful and then can be used for generating recommendations. Sometimes, the lattices can get too large for visualization, however many recent techniques like incremental algorithms, decomposing lattices into smaller sub-lattices, ice-berging have been proven useful for easier interpretation and made FCA more practical to be used in big-data applications.

The mathematical theory of Formal Concept Analysis (FCA) has been widely used since its inception to study various characteristics of data and organizing its various components, exploring relationships, mining implication rules, extracting hidden knowledge, creating learning models and even clustering and classifying data. FCA has been used in various domains including data mining, text mining, machine learning, knowledge management, semantic web, software development, chemistry ,biology, medicine, data analytics, biology and ontology engineering with varying degree of success. Various extensions of FCA have been proposed by researchers, which include Fuzzy FCA, Rough FCA, Monotone FCA, Temporal FCA, Temporal Fuzzy FCA to meet specific purposes.

We refer the reader to [2] for a comprehensive survey of state-of-art of FCA and

lattice based algorithms. Introduction and applications of FCA are reviewed thoroughly in [3], and basic mathematical foundations of FCA are covered in [4]. FCA forms an integral part of three international conferences, namely, ICFCA (International Conference on Formal Concept Analysis), CLA (Concept Lattices and Their Applications), and ICCS (International Conference on Conceptual Structures).

**Definition 1** A Formal Context is a triple K = (G, M, I), where G is a set of objects, M is a set of attributes, and I is a binary relation from G to M, where each pair  $(g,m) \in I$  has a membership value in  $\{0,1\}$ . When (gIm) = 0, object g has the attribute m and when (gIm) = 1, object g does not have attribute m.

A FCA context is a triple of sets K = (G, M, I), where  $I \subseteq G \times M$  is a binary relation. These sets are generally represented using a table consisting of set of rows G (called objects), columns M (called attributes) and crosses representing the incidence relation I. Table 1.1 shows an example of such a context where objects are some undergraduate majors, attributes are various undergraduate courses offered and the incidence relation shows the pre-requisite requirements for each undergraduate major. A student of "Computer Engineering" major needs to take pre-requisite courses namely, "Computer Architecture", "Digital Signal Processing", "Intro to Stats" and "Calculus II". When such a formal context is given, concepts are derived and ordered using a subconcept-superconcept relation. These concepts are then arranged in a lattice or more commonly called a line diagram which is easier to visualize.

Describing formally, for a set of objects  $O \subseteq G$ , the set of common attributes can be defined by:

$$A = O' = \{ m \in M | (o, m) \in I \text{ for all } o \in O \}$$

Take the attributes that describe the major "Computer Engg" in Table 1.1, for instance. By collecting all required objects of this context that share these attributes,

	Algorithm Analysis	Software Design	Computer Architecture	Digital Signal Processing	Programming Concepts	Discrete Math	$\operatorname{Cryptography}$	Systems Biology	Intro to Stats	Calculus II
Computer Science	X		X		X	X	X			
Software Engg	X	X			X	X			X	
Computational Biology	X				X	X		X		
Computer Engg			X	X					X	X
Electrical Engg			X	X					X	X
Mathematics						X	X		X	X

Table 1.1: A formal context of undergraduate majors and pre-requisite courses at UNL

we get to a set O which consists of "Computer Engg" and "Electrical Engg". This set O of objects is related to the set A consisting of the attributes "Computer Architecture", "Digital Signal Processing" and "Intro to Stats" and "Calculus II".

$$O=A'=\{o\in G|(o,m)\in I \text{ for all } m\in A\}$$

That is, O is the set of all objects sharing all attributes of A, and A is the set of all attributes that are valid descriptions for all the objects contained in O. Each such pair (O, A) is called a formal concept(or concept) of the given context. The set A = O' is called the intent, while O = A' is called the extent of the concept (O, A).

**Definition 2** A Formal Concept C of a formal context K = (G, M, I) is a pair C = (O, A), where, for  $O \subseteq G$ ,  $A \subseteq M$ , A' = O and O' = A.

There is a natural hierarchical ordering relation between the concepts of a given

context that is called the subconcept-superconcept relation.

$$(O_1, A_1) \le (O_2, A_2) \Leftrightarrow (O_1 \subseteq O_2 \Leftrightarrow A_2 \subseteq A_1)$$

A concept  $C_1 = (O_1, A_1)$  is called a sub-concept of a concept  $C_2 = (O_2, A_2)$  (or equivalently,  $C_2$  is called a super-concept of a concept  $C_1$ ) if the extent of  $C_1$  is a subset of the extent) of  $C_2$  (or equivalently, if the intent of  $C_1$  is a super-set of the intent of  $C_2$ ). For example, the concept with intent "Computer Architecture" is a sub-concept of a concept with intent "Computer Architecture", "Digital Signal Processing", "Intro to Stats" and "Calculus II." With reference to Table 1.1, the extent of the latter is composed of majors "Computer Engg" and "Electrical Engg", while the extent of the former is composed of "Computer Engg", "Electrical Engg" and "Computer Science".

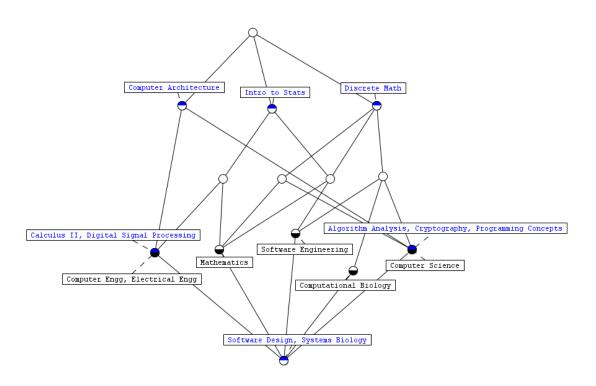


Figure 1.1: Concept Lattice corresponding to the Formal Context from Table 1

The set of all concepts of a formal context ordered by this subconcept-superconcept

relation can be organized into a lattice called the *concept lattice* of the context, i.e. every subset of concepts has a meet and join w.r.t.  $\leq$ . Since, concept lattices are ordered sets, they can be visualized by line diagrams, with nodes representing concepts and edges connecting a pair of neighboring nodes w.r.t  $\leq$ . Figure 5.1, shows the line diagram of the concept lattice of the formal context shown in Table 1.1. The circles represent the formal concepts, boxes with text in black (upwards) represent the objects used to name the concept and boxes in blue (downwards) represent the attributes used to name the concept. To retrieve the extent of a formal concept, one has to collect all objects on all paths leading down from the corresponding node. Similarly, to retrieve the intent of a formal concept, all paths leading up from the corresponding node has to be traced for collecting all attributes. The top and bottom concepts in the lattice are special called the *infimum* and *supremum* nodes. The top concept contains all objects in its extent. The bottom concept contains all attributes in its intent. A concept is a sub-concept of all concepts that can be reached by travelling upwards. This concept will inherit all attributes associated with these super-concepts.

We can derive all the information in the formal context of Table 1.1 by traversing through the line diagram and using the subconcept-superconcept relationship. For example, the major "Computer Science" is described by the attributes "Algorithm Analysis", "Computer Architecture", "Programming Concepts", "Discrete Math" and "Cryptography." An interesting aspect of FCA which has many applications is the concept of attribute implication. For subsets  $A, B \subseteq M$ , one has  $A \to B$  if  $A' \subseteq B'$ . A set of implication rules can be reduced to a minimal subset called an implication base. Some examples include Duquenne-Guigues base (Guigues, Duquenne 1986), which is cardinality minimal, and proper premise base [4]. Ganter & Wille [4] described a knowledge discovery procedure called Attribute Exploration which along with inputs

from domain expert can be used to derive a complete useful implication base from the lattice. In many cases, actual data is in the form of many-valued contexts, which can be reduced to binary contexts by a method known as conceptual scaling, first described by Ganter & Wille [4].

#### 1.2 Motivation

The area of Formal Concept Analysis (FCA) has seen a huge growth in the last 40 years. Many generalizations of FCA have been proposed and applied to applications in various domains. Use of FCA in data mining hasn't been investigated thoroughly until recent 2010's [2, 3]. Applications of generalizations of FCA like Fuzzy FCA, Monotone FCA and Temporal FCA in data analysis still needs a lot of research. The role of FCA in machine learning also needs a great deal of exploration. Interesting areas of research include integration of FCA based techniques into recent machine learning approaches like reinforcement learning, genetic algorithms and deep learning.

Additionally, with the big-data explosion in the current era, where data is a valuable resource and data analytics a critical factor, the importance of FCA and its generalizations in data analysis will further increase in the forthcoming years. FCA can be used for organizing data and generating meaningful insights to support important processes (see [5]).

## 1.3 Thesis Objectives and Scope

The prime objective of this research is to study FCA & its generalizations, and its applications in various domains with an emphasis to learning and classification problems. We propose, develop and evaluate a new classifying model called "LearnFCA",

that integrates Fuzzy FCA, probability theory for learning and classifying data. The sub-objectives are as follows:

- Survey the state of art of FCA and its generalizations with emphasis to learning and classification problems.
- Discuss a new model "LearnFCA" using Fuzzy FCA and a probabilistic approach for classifying unlabelled data into various classes.
- To propose an implementation approach and strategy for "LearnFCA".
- To demonstrate a model / proof of concept of the proposed architecture for "LearnFCA".
- To validate the proposed model by an using an experimental performance evaluation.

#### 1.4 Research Contribution

The contributions of this thesis include:

- 1. Survey of FCA and its generalizations: Survey of various generalizations of Formal Concept Analysis and their applications.
- 2. Develop LearnFCA: Propose, Develop, implement and evaluate a new approach for learning and classification problems using FCA.
- 3. Evaluate LearnFCA: Performance Evaluation of LearnFCA

## 1.5 Thesis Outline

The rest of the thesis is organized in the following way:

- Chapter 2. We discuss the various generalizations of Formal Concept Analysis (FCA), their historical backgrounds and reproduce their theory and definitions as applicable.
- Chapter 3. We present a comprehensive survey on approaches and applications of FCA and its generalizations in various fields of data analysis, knowledge discovery & representation and learning & classification problems
- Chapter 4. We present a new novel approach "LearnFCA" for classification and learning problems using Fuzzy FCA and probabilistic methods.
- Chapter 5. We describe our model, architecture, experiments, methodology, data and results in greater detail.

## Chapter 2

## Generalizations of Formal Concept Analysis

Formal concept analysis (FCA) is a method of data analysis with growing popularity across various domains. Extensive work has been done using FCA in the past five decades in variety of domains and in varied range of applications including data analysis, information retrieval, and knowledge discovery. FCA can be understood as conceptual clustering method, which clusters simultaneously objects and their descriptions. FCA can also be used for efficiently computing association rules [6]. In other words, FCA provides an inherent integration of various components of conceptual processing and visualization of data and knowledge and it's dependencies. Since its inception, researchers have incorporated ideas from other mathematical theories into FCA to get interesting extensions which have been explored and used in a wide range of applications. With the advancement of technology, availability of different data formats and explosion of big data, the role of FCA has become more interesting; substantial research has been done and many new techniques have been developed using it's various extensions. In this section, we broadly discuss various extensions of FCA that have been developed by researchers along with their historical roots and examples.

	$m_1$	$m_2$	$m_3$	$m_4$	$m_5$	$m_6$
$g_1$	0.5		0.2			0.3
$g_2$	0.1	0.5				0.2
$g_3$	0.6					0.7
$g_4$			0.3	0.4	0.6	
$g_5$			0.1	0.2	0.8	
$g_6$				0.6		

Table 2.1: An example of fuzzy formal context with  $\chi = 0.5$ 

## 2.1 Fuzzy FCA

Fuzzy set theory is an extension of classical notion of set theory where elements have degrees of membership rather than complete membership. Fuzzy set theory was introduced by Lotfi A. Zadeh [7] and Dieter Klaua [8] in 1965. Fuzzy FCA [9] uses this fuzzy set theory logic and generalizes FCA thereby representing object attribute membership using an uncertainty value. In a set of papers over the years [10, 11, 12, 13, 14], Belohlavek et al have done the major derivations for fuzzy galois connections, fuzzy closure operators, fuzzy lattices and showed how fuzzy concept lattice may be used as an ordinary concept lattice. Fuzzy FCA allows representation of strengths of relationships to various degrees (from weaker to stronger) usually in a unit interval [0, 1]. Fuzzy FCA is useful in applications where relationships between objects and attributes are incomplete. Relationships in traditional FCA are binary, either the attribute belongs or does not belong to the object. Table 2.1 shows an example of Fuzzy FCA with objects  $g_1$  to  $g_6$  and attributes  $m_1$  to  $m_6$ . In the example, the object  $g_3$  has attributes  $m_1$  and  $m_6$  with a membership value of 0.6 and 0.7 respectively. Similarly, attribute  $m_5$  belongs to objects  $g_4$  and  $g_5$  with membership values 0.6 and 0.8 respectively.

**Definition 3** A Fuzzy Formal Context is a five-tuple  $K = (G, M, I, \mu, \chi)$ , where G is a set of objects, M is a set of attributes,  $I = ((GM), \mu)$  is a fuzzy set, with each pair

 $(g,m) \in I$  has a membership value  $\mu(g,m)$  in [0,1] and  $\chi$  the confidence threshold of the context.

Each pair  $(g, m) \in I$ , where I is the fuzzy set, has a membership value  $\mu(g, m)$  in [0, 1]. In the example in Table 2.1 above,  $\mu(g_2, m_2) = 0.5$ .

For sets  $G' \subseteq G$  and  $M' \subseteq M$ , we define two sets  $G'' = \{m \in M | \forall g \in G', \mu_I(g,m) \ge \chi\}$  and  $M'' = \{g \in G | \forall m \in M', \mu_I(g,m) \ge \chi\}.$ 

**Definition 4** A Fuzzy Formal Concept(or fuzzy concept) C of a fuzzy formal context K with a confidence threshold  $\chi$ , is  $C = (I'_G, M')$ , where, for  $G' \subseteq G$ ,  $I'_G = (G', \mu)$ ,  $M' \subseteq M$ , G'' = M' and M'' = G'. Each object g has a membership  $\mu_{I'_G}$  defined as  $\mu_{I'_G}(g) = \min_{m \in M'}(\mu_I(g, m))$  where  $\mu_I$  is the fuzzy function of I.

where (g, m) is the membership value between object g and attribute m, which is defined in I. G' and M' are the extent and intent of the formal concept  $(I'_G, M')$  respectively.

# 2.2 Rough FCA

A Rough Set(RS) is an extension of basic set represented in terms of a pair of sets which give the lower and the upper approximation of the original set. In 1991, a Polish researcher Zdzislaw I. Pawlak first described this concept of rough set [15] as an approximation of a crisp set. Rough FCA [16, 17] incorporates rough set(RS) theory into traditional FCA to provide a generalization which finds applications to many real-world scenarios.

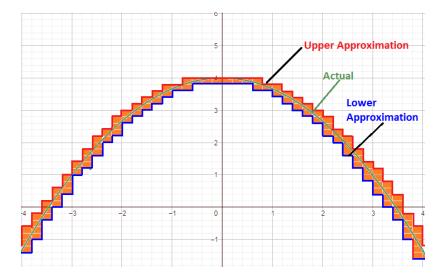


Figure 2.1: A continuous curve  $y = 4 - x^2/3$  being approximated using discrete upper and lower rough set(s)

Similar to probability theory and fuzzy set theory, rough set theory is another technique for dealing with uncertain, inconsistent and imprecise information which is very evident in today's data. Figure 2.1 shows an intuition behind rough set. Let us consider that we want to compute the area under the curve  $y = 4 - x^2/3$ . Using a rough set approach for practical purposes, a discrete approximation can be obtained either using a lower-bound approach (where we sum up the area of the rectangles bounded by blue color) or a higher-bound approach (where we sum up the area of rectangles bounded by red color). Both the approaches though not be accurate, are probably easier to compute and might be practical under certain circumstances.

In rough set theory, the data for analysis consists of universe U. By modeling indiscernibility as an equivalence relation, one can partition a finite universe of objects into pair wise disjoint subsets denoted by U/P. The partition provides a granulated view of the universe. An equivalence class is considered as a whole, instead of many individuals. For an object, the equivalence class containing x is given by  $[x]_P = \{y \in$ 

	$m_1$	$m_2$	$m_3$	$m_4$	$m_5$	$m_6$
$g_1$	Low	No	Normal	Yes	True	False
$g_2$	High	Yes	Very Low	Yes	True	True
$g_3$	Medium	No	Very High	No	False	True
$g_4$	High	Yes	Very Low	Yes	True	True
$g_5$	Medium	No	Low	Yes	False	False
$g_6$	Medium	No	Very High	No	False	True
$g_7$	Medium	No	Very High	No	False	True

Table 2.2: An example of rough set

U|xPy. Objects in  $[x]_P$  are indistinguishable from x. The empty set, equivalence classes and unions of equivalence classes form a system of definable subsets under discernibility.

**Definition of a Rough Set** Let  $X \subseteq \mathbb{U}$  be a target set of a universe  $\mathbb{U}$  that we wish to represent using attribute subset P; The set of objects X comprises a single class, and needs to be expressed using the equivalence classes induced by attribute subset P. In general, X cannot be expressed exactly, because the set may include and exclude objects which are indistinguishable on the basis of attributes P.

Consider the example in Table 2.2. Based on the properties  $m_1$  to  $m_6$ , the data can be partitioned into four equivalence classes namely

$$\{\{g_1\}, \{g_2, g_4\}, \{g_3, g_6, g_7\}, \{g_5\}\}$$

Now, consider the set  $X = \{g_2, g_3, g_4, g_5\}$ , with the full attribute set  $P = \{m_1, m_2, m_3, m_4, m_5\}$ . The set X cannot be expressed exactly, because in  $[x]_P$ , objects  $\{g_3, g_6, g_7\}$  are indiscernible. Hence, representing set X clearly such that it includes  $g_3$  but excludes objects  $g_6$  and  $g_7$  becomes impossible. However, we can approximate X using only the information contained within P by constructing the P-lower and P-upper approximations of X:

$$\underline{P}X = \{x \mid [x]_P \subseteq X\}, \overline{P}X = \{x \mid [x]_P \cap X \neq \emptyset\}$$

**Lower approximation (positive region)**. The P-lower approximation, or positive region, is the union of all equivalence classes in  $[x]_P$  which are contained by (i.e., are maximal subsets of) X. In the example above,  $\underline{P}X = \{g_2, g_4\} \cup \{g_5\}$ . Intuitively, the lower approximation is a conservative approximation, it consists of a maximal set of objects in  $\mathbb{U}/P$  that can be positively (i.e., unambiguously) classified as belonging to X.

Upper approximation (negative region). The P-upper approximation is the union of all equivalence classes in  $[x]_P$  which have non-empty intersection with the target set (i.e minimal supersets of) X. In the example,  $\overline{P}X = \{g_2, g_4\} \cup \{g_5\} \cup \{g_3, g_6, g_7\}$  which is the union of the three equivalence classes in  $[x]_P$  that having non-empty intersection with X. The upper approximation is a liberal approximation, it consists of the minimal complete set of objects that in  $\mathbb{U}/P$  that cannot be positively (i.e., unambiguously) classified as belonging to the complement  $(\overline{X})$  of the target set X (but are still possibly members of X). In other words, we can say that the set  $\mathbb{U} - \overline{P}X$  represents the negative region, which consists the set of objects that can be definitely not part of the target set.

**Boundary region**. The boundary region, given by set difference  $\overline{P}X - \underline{P}X$ , consists of those objects that can neither be ruled in nor ruled out as members of X.

The rough set and its accuracy. The tuple  $\langle \underline{P}X, \overline{P}X \rangle$  composed of the lower and upper approximation is called a rough set; it is composed of two crisp sets, one representing a lower boundary of the target set X, and the other representing an upper boundary of the target set X. From the perspective of  $\mathbb{U}/P$ , the lower approximation

contains objects that are members of the target set with certainty (probability = 1), while the upper approximation contains objects that are members of the target set with non-zero probability (probability > 0).

In [15], Pawlak provide a measure of how closely the rough set is approximating the target set. He defines the accuracy of the rough-set representation of the set X using the following:

$$\alpha_P(X) = \frac{|\underline{P}X|}{|\overline{P}X|}$$

We note that  $0 \le \alpha_P(X) \le 1$ . When the upper and lower approximations are equal (i.e., boundary region empty), then  $\alpha_P(X) = 1$ , and the approximation is perfect; at the other extreme, whenever the lower approximation is empty, the accuracy is zero (regardless of the size of the upper approximation).

Various definitions of rough set approximations have been proposed in literature, namely the subsystem-based, granule-based and element-based formulation [18]. They have been found to be particularly useful for rule induction and feature selection (semantics-preserving dimensionality reduction). The regions of rough sets can be interpreted as three different regions of acceptance, rejection and deferment which leads to a three-way decision making approach and many interesting applications. Rough set-based data analysis methods have been successfully applied in bio-informatics, economics and finance, medicine, multimedia, web and text mining, signal and image processing, software engineering, robotics, and engineering (e.g. power systems and control engineering) [18].

When combined with FCA, it is called as Rough Formal Concept Analysis (RFCA).  $\mathbb{U}/P$  is replaced by lattice L and the sets of objects by extents of formal concepts. The extents of the resulting two concepts are the lower and upper approximations of X which are defined by:

	$m_1$	$m_2$	$m_3$	$m_4$	$m_5$	$m_6$
$g_1$				X	X	
$g_2$	X	X		X	X	X
$g_3$						X
$g_4$	X	X		X	X	X
$g_5$				X		
$g_6$			X			X
$g_7$			X			X

	$m_1$	$m_2$	$m_3$	$m_4$	$m_5$	$m_6$
$g_1$			X	X	X	
$g_2$	X	X		X	X	X
$g_3$	X		X			X
$g_4$	X	X		X	X	X
$g_5$	X		X	X		
$g_6$	X		X			X
$g_7$	X		X			X

Table 2.3: Lower and upper approximation contexts using Rough Formal Concept Analysis(RFCA)

$$\underline{l}X = \{x \mid (x,y) \in L, [x]_P \subseteq X\}, \overline{l}X = \{x \mid (x,y) \in L, [x]_P \cap X \neq \emptyset\}$$

The lower approximation of a set of objects X is the extent of formal concept  $((\underline{l}X, [\underline{l}X]'))$  and the upper approximation is the extent of the formal concept  $((\overline{l}X, [\overline{l}X]'))$ .  $((\underline{l}X, [\overline{l}X]'))$  is the supremum of concepts where extents are subsets of X and  $((\overline{l}X, [\underline{l}X]'))$  is the infimum of those concepts where extents are superset of X. Table 2.3 shows an example of upper and lower approximation contexts of data shown in Table 2.2.

A number of Rough FCA techniques [19] have been developed and very useful with large and complex data in varied range of domains namely, data mining, knowledge classification, knowledge representation and discovery, machine learning, knowledge acquisition and discovery, decision analysis, expert system, decision support system, inductive inference, conflict resolution, pattern recognition and medical diagnostics applications to handle real-world data.. In [19], the authors indicate that Rough FCA still needs to be researched thoroughly in a large number of problems, such as large data sets, efficient reduction algorithm, parallel computing and hybrid algorithms.

	$m_1$	$m_2$	$m_3$	$m_4$	$m_5$
$g_1$			X	X	X
$g_2$	X	X	X	X	
$g_3$	X	X	X	X	
$g_4$	X				X
$g_5$	X				X
$g_6$	X				X

Table 2.4: A formal context used for monotone FCA

## 2.3 Monotone FCA

Deogun & Saquer [20] generalized the basic notion of formal concept to allow disjunctions in the intent and set unions in the extent. This yields in a new extension of FCA called *monotone* FCA, for which they further derive order-theoretic properties of concept hierarchies for a monotone concept.

The authors use boolean conjunctive and disjunctive expressions on attribute subsets of a formal context and first define a notion of feasibility of a Boolean conjunctive expression. They also define a monotone boolean formula as disjunction of boolean conjunctive expressions and define its feasibility. That is, if  $B_1, B_2, ..., B_n$  are Boolean conjunctive expressions, then  $F = B_1 \vee B_2 \vee \cdots \vee B_n = \bigvee_{i=1}^n B_i$  is a monotone formula. A monotone formula  $F = \bigvee_{i=1}^n B_i$  is said to be feasible if each  $B_i$  is feasible for i = 1, 2, ..., n. Otherwise, F is non-feasible. For example,  $F_1 = (m_3 \wedge m_4 \wedge m_5) \vee (m_1 \wedge m_2 \wedge m_3 \wedge m_4)$  and  $F_2 = m_1 \wedge m_5$  (also written as  $F_1 = m_3 m_4 m_5 \vee m_1 m_2 m_3 m_4$  and  $F_2 = m_1 m_5$ ) are two different feasible monotone formulas for the context given in Table 2.4.

This enables to extend the original attribute set M of a formal context (G, M, I) to a new attribute set  $\mathcal{M}$  where  $\mathcal{M}$  is the space of monotone formulas that can be built from M. That is,  $\mathcal{M} = \{F | F = \bigvee_{i=1}^n B_i\}$ , where each  $B_i$  is a Boolean conjunctive expression associated with  $B'_i \subseteq M$ . It is important to note that  $\mathcal{M}$  contains all the monotone formulas, feasible or non-feasible, that can be generated from M. A monotone context and monotone concept is then defined as follows:

**Definition 5** A monotone context is defined as a quadruple  $(G, M, \mathcal{M}, I)$  where G is a set of objects, M is a set of features,  $\mathcal{M}$  is the space of all monotone formulas that can be built from M, and I is a binary relation from G to  $\mathcal{M}$ . For  $g \in G$  and  $F \in M$ , gIF means that g satisfies F.

**Definition 6** A monotone concept in the monotone context  $(G, M, \mathcal{M}, I)$  is a pair (A, F) where  $A = \bigcup_{i=1}^{n}$  is a monotone extent,  $F = \bigvee_{i=1}^{n} B_i$  is a feasible monotone Boolean formula,  $\delta(F) = A$ ,  $\gamma(A) = F$ , and each  $(A_i, B'_i)$ , where  $B'_i$  is the set of features associated with  $B_i$ , is an elementary concept for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ .

This generalization allows knowledge to be represented as a monotone formula and querying into an information retrieval system using disjunctions in the intent of a monotone concept. The authors also show that the set of all monotone concepts of a monotone context forms a complete lattice. Combining it with rough set theory, in [21], they discuss a novel technique to find monotone concepts whose extents are approximation of a set of objects.

#### 2.4 Probabilistic FCA

Probability is a chance of occurrence of an event. The mathematical branch of probability theory expresses this in terms of a probability space, which is called a probability measure between 0 and 1, to a set of outcomes called the sample space. Any specified subset of these outcomes is called an event. Use of probability theory in FCA has yielded in a few different extensions of FCA in last few years, with [22, 23] as the most important ones.

$W_1$	$m_1$	$m_2$	$m_3$
$g_1$			
$g_2$	X	X	
$g_3$			
$g_4$	X	X	

$W_2$	$m_1$	$m_2$	$m_3$
$g_1$		X	
$g_2$	X		
$g_3$		X	
$g_4$	X	X	X

$W_3$	$m_1$	$m_2$	$m_3$
$g_1$	X		
$g_2$	X	X	
$g_3$	X		
$g_4$		X	

Table 2.5: A probablistic formal context with  $P(W_1) = 1/3$ ,  $P(W_2) = 1/4$ ,  $P(W_3) = 5/12$ .

In [23], the authors have integrated probability theory into traditional FCA leading to an interesting application of the membership relationship. They have extended the traditional binary membership relationship to a set of worlds by including a probabilistic measure which is a value between 0 and 1.

A probability measure  $\mathcal{P}$  on a countable set W is a mapping  $\mathcal{P}: \psi(W) \to [0,1]$ such that  $\mathcal{P}(\phi) = 0$ ,  $\mathcal{P}(W) = 1$ , and P is  $\sigma$ -additive, i.e., for all countable families  $(U_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  of pairwise disjoint sets  $U_n \subseteq W$  it holds that  $\mathcal{P}(\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} U_n) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \mathcal{P}(U_n)$ .

A world  $w \in W$  is possible if  $\mathcal{P}\{w\} \geq 0$ , and impossible otherwise. The set of all possible worlds is denoted by  $W_{\epsilon}$ , and the set of all impossible worlds is denoted by  $W_0$ . Obviously,  $W_{\epsilon} \uplus W_0$  is a partition of W. Of course, such a probability measure can be completely characterized by the definition of the probabilities of the singleton subsets of W, since it holds true that  $\mathcal{P}(U) = \mathcal{P}(\bigcup_{w \in U} \{w\}) = \sum_{w \in U} \mathcal{P}(w)$ .

**Definition 7** A probabilistic formal context K is a tuple (G, M, W, I, P) that consists of a set G of objects, a set M of attributes, a countable set W of worlds, an incidence relation  $I \subseteq G \times M \times W$ , and a probability measure P on W. For a triple  $(g, m, w) \in I$  we say that object g has attribute m in world w. Furthermore, the derivations in world w as operators  $I(w): \psi(G) \to \psi(M)$  and  $I(w): \psi(M) \to \psi(G)$  where  $A^{I(w)}:=\{m \in M | \forall g \in A: (g, m, w) \in I\}$  for object sets  $A \subseteq G$ , and  $B^{I(w)}:=\{g \in G | \forall m \in B: (g, m, w) \in I\}$  for attribute sets  $B \subseteq M$ , i.e.,  $A^{I(w)}$  is the set of all common attributes of all objects in A in the world w, and

W*	$m_1$	$m_2$	$m_3$
$(g_1, w_1)$			
$(g_2, w_1)$	X	X	
$(g_3, w_1)$			
$(g_4, w_1)$	X	X	
$(g_1, w_2)$		X	
$(g_2, w_2)$	X		
$(g_3, w_2)$		X	
$(g_4, w_2)$	X	X	X
$(g_1, w_3)$	X		
$(g_2, w_3)$	X	X	
$(g_3, w_3)$	X		
$(g_4, w_3)$		X	

Table 2.6: The scaled probabilistic formal context of Table 2.5

 $B^{I(w)}$  is the set of all objects that have all attributes in B in w. The formal context induced by a world  $w \in W$  is defined as K(w) := (G, M, I(w)).

A probabilistic formal context consisting of three objects  $g_1, g_2, g_3$ , three attributes  $m_1, m_2, m_3$ , and three worlds  $w_1, w_2, w_3$  is shown in Table 2.5. We note that the object  $g_2$  has the attribute  $m_1$  in all three worlds, and the object  $g_3$  has the attribute  $m_2$  only in the world  $w_2$ . The authors provide one approach of scaling the context by integrating the object-world to generate a traditional formal context using the definition below.

**Definition 8** (Scaling). Let K be a probabilistic formal context. The certain scaling of K is the formal context  $K^{\times} := (G \times W, M, I^{\times})$  where  $((g, w), m) \in I^{\times}$  iff  $(g, m, w) \in I$ , and the almost certain scaling of K is the subcontext  $K_{\epsilon} := (G \times W_{\epsilon}, M, I_{\epsilon}^{\times})$  of  $K^{\times}$ .

A scaled version of probabilistic context of Table 2.5 is shown in Table 2.6

Other approaches include [22], where Demin et al have introduced another approach for probabilistic extensions and appropriate probabilistic variants of formal

concepts and implications. An inductive probabilistic approach to formal concept analysis (FCA) is proposed in [24] where probabilistic concepts with predictive force is defined. The authors also discuss ability to handle nonclassified objects, eliminating random attributes and generating concepts robust to noise. In [25], Deogun et all present a logic model for Knowledge discovery in databases based on an integrated approach of Bacchus probability logic and formal concept analysis which they use to deduce previously unknown and potentially useful patterns in databases.

## 2.5 Temporal FCA

Temporal Concept Analysis (TCA) is the theory of temporal phenomena integrated into Formal Concept Analysis (FCA). TCA was introduced and developed by the Wolff [26], the main idea was to be able to represent a state of an object at a certain time in a temporal system into FCA. States are defined as formal concepts and 'points of time' are generalized to 'time granules', interpreted as 'pieces' of time needed for the realization of measurements. The authors in [26] discuss three important developments of TCA, namely Conceptual Time Systems with actual Objects and a Time relation (CTSOTs), Temporal Conceptual Semantic System (TCSS) and Temporal Conceptual Semantic Systems (TCSS) among others. CTSOTs use temporal objects and a time relationship, TCSS uses the notion of a distributed object which may occupy at each time granule a certain volume and TRSS integrates recent developments in theory of Temporal Conceptual Semantic Systems with conceptual scaling of formal context. Table 2.7 shows two example contexts for CTSOT and TCSS.

**Temporal Fuzzy FCA**. A very interesting and recent development in the field of TCA was the notion of Temporal Fuzzy FCA(TFCA) by De Maio et al [5], where the authors proposed integration of Temporal phenomena with Fuzzy Concept Analysis.

Obs	$m_1$	$m_2$	$m_3$	$m_4$	$m_5$	$m_6$
$t_1$				X	X	
$t_2$	X	X		X	X	X
$t_3$						X
$t_5$				X		

	$m_1$	$m_2$	$m_3$
$(g_{1t_1})$			
$(g_{2t_2})$	X	X	
$(g_{3t_3})$			
$(g_{4t_A})$	X	X	
$(g_{5t_5})$		X	

Table 2.7: Temporal FCA contexts: (i) CTSOTs where points of time (observations) are used as objects in a formal context, (ii) TCSS where entities at a particular time granule are used as objects

	$m_1$	$m_2$	$m_3$	$m_4$	$m_5$	$m_6$
$(obs_{1t_1})$	0.1	0.61	0.91		0.73	
$(obs_{2t_2})$			0.5	0.23		0.11
$(obs_{3t_3})$	1.0		0.2		0.34	
$(obs_{4t_4})$	0.1	0.63			0.71	0.21

Table 2.8: Temporal Fuzzy FCA Context with threshold  $\chi=0.5$ 

They applied TFCA on a distributed real-time computation system for big data stream analysis in a smart city context to organize the knowledge of various aspects of the city and generate temporal patterns of it's evolution. The proposed approach is similar to one in TCSSs above and index the time-stamped objects by adding a time variable to the object of the fuzzy formal context, namely  $g_{t_i}$  with  $g \in G$ .  $g_{t_i}$  represents the object  $g \in G$  at time  $t_i$ , where t is the time variable and  $t_i$  precedes  $t_j$  if  $i \leq j$ . All the time intervals  $t_i \in 1, ..., n$ , and the number of observations n made on a particular object over time form a partial order relation.

Let M be the set of formal attributes, and  $m_j$  be the  $j^{th}$  attribute, where i and j are integers.

**Definition 9** The intension of an object O at time  $t_i$  is the set of all attributes of that particular object at time  $t_i$ .

$$i\{O_{ti}\} = \{m_j \in M\}$$

**Definition 10** An evolution of an object, Ev(O), is an ordered set of sets containing all the intensions that this particular object from an arbitrary initial time  $t_0$  to a certain time  $t_i$ . The intension of the concept at time  $t_{i+1}$  is added to the resulting evolution set when we consider the evolution up to time  $t_{i+1}$ :

$$t_0 \le t_i, i\{O_{ti}\} \in Ev_{t_0-t_i}(O)$$

**Definition 11** A Timed Fuzzy Lattice  $L^t$  is a pair  $(L, E^t)$  where  $L = (C, \leq)$  is a Fuzzy Lattice and  $E^t$  is a set of temporal edges which are 2-element subsets of C.

Given  $L^t = (L, E^t)$ , the time relationship is reflected in temporal edge  $e^t_{ij} \in E^t$  between two concepts  $(C_i, C_j) \in C$  which exists iff there exist two objects  $g_{t_s} \in C_i$  and  $g_{t_k} \in C_j$  such that the time  $t_s$  precedes the time  $t_k$ .

**Definition 12** A temporal path is defined as a path  $\pi = (C_s, \dots, C_t) \in C \times C \dots \times C$ , such that exists a temporal edge  $e_{ij}^t \in E^t$  for  $s \leq i \leq j \leq t$ .

In the Temporal Fzuzzy FCA context, the observation parameters are used as attributes and observation times are used as objects. Table 2.1 shows one such example. By using an incremental algorithm for generating timed fuzzy lattice and taking snapshots at various points in time, the authors show that a temporal path can be constructed to track the growth of various city parameters. This can be further used in assisting and supporting smart city decision making processes.

# 2.6 Logical Concept Analysis

Logical Concept Analysis (LCA) is a generalization of Formal Concept Analysis proposed by Ferre in [27]. The main idea is that the attribute set in traditional FCA are

now logical expressions of arbitrarily any kind. The authors derive all order theoretic properties of this extension of FCA and show that the lattice generated is isomorphic to the original lattice.

The authors reformulate traditional FCA by replacing the traditional context (O, A, I) by  $(O, 2^A, i)$ , where  $2^A$  is the power-set of A and i is a mapping from O to  $2^A$  defined by  $i(o) := \{a \in A | (o, a) \in I\}$ . Also,  $(o, a) \in I \Leftrightarrow i(o) \supseteq \{a\}$ . Then,  $2^A$  can be considered as a logic where  $\supseteq$  is the deduction relation,  $\cap$  is the disjunctive operation, and  $\cup$  is the conjunctive operation. The power set of set of attributes  $2^A$  is replaced by a set of arbitrary logical formulas  $\mathcal{L}$ , to which are associated a deduction relation  $\models$ , a disjunctive operation  $\dot{\lor}$ , and a conjunctive operation  $\dot{\land}$ .

**Definition 13** (Logical context) A (formal) context is a triple  $(\mathcal{O}, \mathcal{L}, i)$  where:

- 1. O is a finite set of objects,
- 2.  $\langle \mathcal{L}; \models \rangle$  is a lattice of formulas, whose supremum is  $\dot{\lor}$ , and whose infimum is  $\dot{\land}$ ;  $\mathcal{L}$  denotes a logic whose deduction relation is  $\models$ , and whose disjunctive and conjunctive operations are respectively  $\dot{\lor}$  and  $\dot{\land}$ ,
- 3. i is a mapping from  $\mathcal{O}$  to  $\mathcal{L}$  that associates to each object a formula that describes the intention of the object.

**Definition 14** Let  $(\mathcal{O}, \mathcal{L}, i)$  be a context,  $O \subseteq \mathcal{O}$ , and  $f \in \mathcal{L}$ . Two applications  $\sigma$  and  $\tau$  are defined as follows:

$$\sigma: 2^{\mathcal{O}} \to \mathcal{L}, \sigma(O) := \dot{\bigvee}_{o \in O} i(o)$$

$$\tau: \mathcal{L} \to 2^{\mathcal{O}}, \tau(f) := \{ o \in \mathcal{O} | i(o) \models f \}$$

object	description
$g_1$	a
$g_2$	b
$g_3$	$a \lor c$
$g_4$	$c \wedge (a \vee b)$

	$m_1 = a$	$m_2 = b$	$m_3 = c$	$m_3 = a \vee c$	
$g_1$	X				
$g_2$		X			
$g_3$	X			X	
$g_4$	X	X			

Table 2.9: An Logical Concept Analysis(LCA) table and its transformed context to generate the logical concept lattice

 $\sigma$  and  $\tau$  form a Galois connection. In other words, the Galois connection is between sets of objects (extent) and logical formulas (intent).

**Definition 15** (Logical concept) In a context  $(\mathcal{O}, \mathcal{L}, i)$ , a concept is a pair c = (O, f) where  $O \subseteq \mathcal{O}$ , and  $f \in \mathcal{L}$ , such that  $\sigma(O) = f$  and  $\tau(f) = O$ .

The set of all concepts that can be built in a context  $(\mathcal{O}, \mathcal{L}, i)$  is denoted by  $C(\mathcal{O}, \mathcal{L}, i)$ , and is partially ordered by  $\leq^c$  to get a ordered set  $\langle C(\mathcal{O}, \mathcal{L}, i); \leq^c \rangle$  which is a complete lattice. Table 2.9 shows an example of LCA table and its reformulated context which can be used to generate the LCA lattice.

Other approaches include logical scaling of object-attribute-value relationships [28], epistemic extension based on modal logic AIK [29] and generating classification rules based on lattice [30].

## 2.7 Relational Concept Analysis

Relational Concept Analysis(RCA) was first introduced by Huchard et al [31] where the authors emphasized the role and applications of classical FCA to complex relational data. They propose a new extension that takes as a collection of contexts and inter-context relations as inputs and yields a set of lattices whose concepts are linked by relations. The main idea behind Relational concept analysis (RCA) is to allow processing of multi-relational datasets, i.e., with multiple sorts of individuals with its own set of attributes, and relationships between them.

In RCA [31, 32], data are organized within a structure composed of a set of contexts  $K = \{K_i\}$  and of a set of binary relations  $R = \{r_k\}$ , where  $r_k \subseteq O_i \times O_j$ ,  $O_i$  and  $O_j$  being sets of objects (respectively in  $\mathcal{K}_i$  and  $\mathcal{K}_j$ ). The structure (K, R) is called a relational context family (RCF) and can be compared to a relational database schema, including both classes of individuals and classes of relations.

**Definition 16** A relational context family R is a pair (K, R), where K is a set of contexts  $K_i = (O_i, A_i, I_i)$ , R is a set of relations  $r_k \subseteq O_i \times O_j$  where  $O_i$  and  $O_j$  are the object sets of the formal contexts  $K_i$  and  $K_j$ .

A relation  $r \subseteq O_i \times O_j$  can be seen as a set-valued function  $r: O_i \to 2^{O_j}$ . Two functions are defined on relation sets in RCF, domain and range:

- 
$$O = \{O_i/O_j \in \mathcal{K}_i = (O_i, A_i, I_i), \mathcal{K}_i \in K\}$$

- $r_k: O_i \rightarrow 2^{O_j}$
- $dom: R \to O$  with  $dom(r_k) = O_i$
- $ran: R \to O$  with  $ran(r) = O_j$ ,
- $rel: K \to 2^R and rel(\mathcal{K}_i) = \{r_k | dom(r_k) = O_i\}$

where O is the set of all object sets in the RCF,  $O = \{O | \mathcal{K} = (O, A, I) \in K\}$ . Moreover, an auxiliary function maps a context into the set of all relations whose domain corresponds to the object set of the context:

$$rel: K \to 2^R; rel(K == (O, A, I)) = \{r | dom(r) = O\}.$$

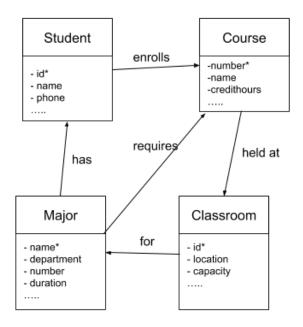


Figure 2.2: An example relational schema for Relational Concept Analysis(RCA)

Lets take an example student enrollment schema in Figure 2.2. Students "enroll" in Courses which are "held at" different classrooms. A major "requires" a set of courses and "has" a set of enrolled students. Each entity has its own set of attributes or properties. Using RCA approach, this schema can be scaled (or transformed) into a family of contexts, some of them are object/attribute contexts and others object/object contexts which are as follows:

- 1.  $K_{Student1} \in Student \times name, K_{Student2} \in Student \times phone$
- 2.  $K_{Course1} \in \text{Course} \times \text{name}, K_{Course2} \in \text{Course} \times \text{credithours}$
- 3.  $K_{Major1} \in \text{Major} \times \text{department}, K_{Major2} \in \text{Major} \times \text{duration}$
- 4.  $K_{Classroom1} \in Classroom \times location, K_{Classroom2} \in Classroom \times capacity$
- 5.  $K_{enrolls} \in \text{Student} \times \text{Course}$

	$n_1$	$n_2$	$n_3$	$n_4$
$s_1$				X
$s_2$		X		X
$s_3$			X	
$s_4$				
$s_5$		X		

	$p_1$	$p_2$	$p_3$	$p_4$
$s_1$				X
$s_2$	X	X		X
$s_3$				
$s_4$				
$s_5$				X

Table 2.10: RFCA object-attribute contexts for  $K_{Student1}$  and  $K_{Student2}$ 

	$co_1$	$co_2$	$co_3$	$co_4$
$s_1$		X		X
$s_2$		X		X
$s_3$	X		X	
$s_4$				
$s_5$	X	X		

	$cl_1$	$cl_2$	$cl_3$	$cl_4$
$co_1$			X	X
$co_2$	X			
$co_3$			X	
$co_4$				
$co_5$		X		

Table 2.11: RFCA object-object contexts for  $K_{enrolls}$  and  $K_{held}$ 

- 6.  $K_{held} \in \text{Course} \times \text{Classroom}$
- 7.  $K_{for} \in \text{Classroom} \times \text{Major}$
- 8.  $K_{has} \in \text{Major} \times \text{Student}$
- 9.  $K_{requires} \in \text{Major} \times \text{Course}$

Table 2.10 and 2.11 show few examples of object-attribute and object-object contexts generated from the relational schema. A scale attribute combining a relation r with a formal concept c = (X, Y) from the lattice  $L_j$  is assigned to an object  $o \in O_i$  whenever r(o) is "correlated" with the extent of c. In other words, given a relation r such that  $dom(r) = O_i$  and  $ran(r) = O_j$ , the target set of concepts will correspond to a concept lattice of the context underlying  $O_j$ .

Applying FCA to relational context families (RCF) results in a family of lattices due to expansion of contexts through relational scaling and a iterative process that is repeated till the lattices evolve completely. This allows for a way of representing the concepts and relations extracted with RCA in the framework of a description logic.

The authors in [31] also state and define separate modes of relational scaling called narrow (for  $\forall r.C$ ) and wide (for  $\exists r.C$ ). They implement RCA in a tool called *Galicia* [33] which offers efficient tools for knowledge and software engineering allowing reasoning and problem-solving. To address the scalability issue for RCA, recently Bazin et al [34] proposed an approach to generate only a concept and its neighbour concepts at each navigation step during the generation of the extended concept lattices.

#### 2.8 Other Generalizations

#### 2.8.1 Triadic FCA

The triadic approach to concept analysis (TrCA) was introduced by Wille and Liehman in [35]. TrCA is an extension of Formal Concept Analysis which adds an additional dimension to Formal concept analysis; resulting in a triadic relation connecting objects, attributes, and conditions.

**Definition 17** (triadic context) A triadic context is a quadruple  $\langle X, Y, Z, I \rangle$  where X, Y, and Z are nonempty sets, and I is a ternary relation between X, Y, and Z, i.e.  $I \subseteq X \times Y \times Z$ . X, Y, and Z are interpreted as the sets of objects, attributes, and conditions, respectively and I is interpreted as the incidence relation. That is,  $\langle x, y, z \rangle \in I$  is interpreted as: object x has attribute y under condition z and x, y, z are related by I.

On similar principles, a triadic concept is defined and the structure of the triadic concepts is analysed. Wille et al also show that the concepts can be organized as "complete trilattices" which is isomorphic to traditional FCA lattice. Recent developments in TrFCA include [36] where the authors provide a general approach for developing an unifying framework for concept-forming operators, [37] where fuzzy at-

tributes are handled, [38] where analysis is done on data with graded attributes and [39] where a tri-clustering approach is used.

#### 2.8.2 Pattern Structures and FCA

Pattern structures with FCA generalize traditional FCA definitions to include graphs and numeric intervals. Although pattern structures have been used since 1990's, it was formalized by Kuznetsov in [40]. Kuznetsov studies the analysis of complex data with pattern structures, indicating that pattern structures can be more efficiently computed and visualized compared to traditional FCA based methods.

Let G be a set of objects, let  $(D, \sqcap)$  be a meet-semilattice (of object descriptions) and let  $\delta: G \to D$  be a mapping. Then  $(G, \underline{D}, \delta)$  with  $\underline{D} = (D, \sqcap)$  is called a *pattern* structure, and if the set

$$\delta(G) := \{\delta(g) | g \in G\}$$

generates a complete subsemilattice  $(D_{\delta}, \sqcap)$ , of  $(D, \sqcap)$ . Thus each  $X \subseteq \delta(G)$  has an infimum  $(\sqcap X)$  in  $(D, \sqcap)$  and  $(D_{\delta}, \sqcap)$  is the set of these infima. Elements of D are called patterns and are ordered by subsumption relation  $\sqsubseteq$ : given  $c, d \in D$  one has  $c \sqsubseteq d \Leftrightarrow c \sqsubseteq d = c$ .

A pattern structure  $(G, \underline{D}, d)$  gives rise to two operators,

$$A^{\square} = \bigcap_{g \in A} \delta(g)$$
 for  $A \subseteq G, g \in A$  and  $d^{\square} = \{g \in G | d \sqsubseteq \delta(g)\}$  for  $d \sqsubseteq D$ .

These operators form a Galois connection between the powerset of G and  $(D, \sqsubseteq)$ . Pattern concepts of  $G, \underline{D}, d$  are pairs of the form  $(A, d), A \sqsubseteq G, d \in D$  such that  $A^{\square} = d$  and  $A = d^{\square}$  with extent A and intent d. The pattern lattice can then be generated by starting from descriptions in an arbitrary order  $(P, \leq)$  taking as  $(D, \sqcap)$ , the lattice of all order ideals of  $(P, \leq)$ . Pattern structures have been used on sets of graphs and vectors of intervals [41], version spaces in FCA [42] to express version spaces in FCA. Some other applications have been to mine gene expression data [43] and decision tree induction using interval pattern structures [44].

#### 2.8.3 Possibility Theory View of FCA

Possibility theory is a mathematical theory for dealing with certain types of uncertainty and is an alternative to probability theory. Professor Lotfi Zadeh [7, 45] first introduced possibility theory in 1978 as an extension of his theory of fuzzy sets and fuzzy logic. Didier Dubois and Henri Prade further contributed to its major development [46]. Possibility theory enables to retrieve an enlarged perspective for the traditional formal concept analysis.

Possibility theory is characterized by four set functions - a possibility measure  $\Pi$ , a dual measure of necessity  $\mathcal{N}$ , a measure of "actual or guaranteed possibility" · and a dual measure of "potential necessity or certainity"  $\nabla$ . A possibility distribution is defined on a universe U which represents a value of some quantity similar to a membership function of a fuzzy set E in U.

A possibility-theoretic view of formal concept analysis [46] uses particular setvalued counterparts of the four main set-functions of possibility theory. The Galois connection is based on the actual (or guaranteed) possibility function, where each object in a concept has all properties of its intent, and each property is possessed by all objects of its extent. The concepts then form a lattice or a set of sub-lattices analogous to traditional FCA.

Possibility theory with FCA has been studied in [46] for decomposing and characterizing contexts into minimal sub-contexts, [47] for uncertainty handling based on possibilistic representation framework, [48] for handling fuzzy data.

## Chapter 3

# Applications of Formal Concept Analysis and its generalizations

With ever-growing and never-ending complexity of techniques and approaches, it becomes important to classify all work-done in a field using a variety of models and methods to successfully describe the current state of research. This chapter surveys the state-of-art of approaches and applications of Formal Concept Analysis and its extensions from existing literature. We use a taxonomy to classify all relevant work into three major categories which are defined as follows:

- 1. **Data Analysis**: This category includes data clustering (Table 3.1), data mining (Table 3.2), data extraction & estimation (Table 3.3 & 3.4), data analysis and recommendation (Table 3.5), data optimization (Table 3.6), data visualization & personalization (Table 3.7) and data quality management (Table 3.8).
- 2. **Knowledge Management**: Concerning with overall transformation of knowledge from one form to other, in this category, we include discovery of knowledge, knowledge representation, learning and storage into ontologies (Table 3.9 & 3.10).
- 3. Learning and Classification: These approaches which are also applicable

to streaming or big data, include techniques to learning from existing complete data and generating efficient models which can then be used to make predictions on un-classified data. (Table 3.11~&~3.12).

# 3.1 Approaches in Data Analysis

## 3.1.1 Clustering

Authors	Methodology
	Use the Galois structure of containment among cliques
Freeman(1996) [49]	to produce clusters (communities) that are intuitive,
	and consistent with ethnographic descriptions.
Maille (2005) [50]	Use FCA to cluster incident reports based on
Maine (2003) [50]	their outcome and initial situation.
Myat and Hla (2005) [51]	Cluster textual web documents based using FCA
Myat and 111a (2003) [51]	on the terms they contain.
Okubo and	Cluster web documents using FCA and
Haraguchi (2006) [52]	provide a conceptual meaning for each cluster.
Kuznetsov et al.	Find scientific communities using FCA and using a
(2007) [53]	stability measure to select pertinent concepts.
Roth, Obiedkov,	Use FCA with nested line diagrams and concept
and Kourie (2006) [54],	stability to identify communities of researchers in
Roth, Obiedkov,	scientific papers on a well-defined topic.
and Kourie(2008) [55]	scientific papers on a wen-defined topic.

Table 3.1: FCA Applications in Data Clustering

# 3.1.2 Data Mining

Authors	Methodology
Eisenbarth et al.	Construct mapping of features to source-code
(2003) [56]	using a semi-automatic technique and FCA.
Tonella and	Aspect identification is done using FCA by means
Ceccato (2004) [57]	of dynamic code analysis of execution traces
Busch and	Use FCA for the modelling and analysis of psychological
Richards (2004) [58]	questionnaire data.
Maille, Statler, and	Use FCA in the developing a Kontex system to identify
Chaudron (2005) [50]	causes in aeronautical incident reports.
Formica (2006,2008) [59, 60]	Analyze similarity between ontology concepts using FCA
	Use concept lattices to devise an unsupervised method
Girault (2008) [61]	to analyze the relations between named entities and their
	syntactic dependencies observed in a training corpus.
Lounkine, Auer, and	Use FCA to identify molecular fragment combinations by
Bajorath (2008) [62]	analyzing structure-activity relationships between
	compounds and biological activities.
Rouane-Hacene, Toussaint,	
and Valtchev (2009) [63] and	Analyze case reports to mine adverse drug reactions
Villerd, Toussaint and	in pharmacovigilance data using formal concept analysis.
Lillo-Le Louët (2010)[64]	
Ebner et al. (2010) [65]	Analyzed twitter content generated using FCA during
Eblief et al. (2010) [00]	and after a scientific conference.
Poelmans et al. (2010) [66]	Analyze patient care activity data by combining FCA
1 definants et al. (2010) [00]	with Hidden Markov Models.
Stumpfe,Lounkine,and	Used FCA for computational selectivity studies and
Bajorath (2011)[67]	analysis of structures of chemical compounds and their
Bajoratii (2011)[01]	selectivity towards certain targets.
Egho, Jay, Raissi,	Apply sequential pattern mining to sequences of hospitals
and Napoli (2011) [68]	(represented by attributes) and patients (represented
(2011) [00]	by objects) hospitalized during their cancer treatment.
Endres, Adam, Giese, and Noppeney (2012) [69]	Analyzed fMRI scans using FCA of a human subject
	while he was viewing 72 gray-scale pictures of animate
and 1.0ppency (2012) [00]	and inanimate objects during a target detection task.
Elzinga, Wolff, Poelmans,	Used Temporal Concept Analysis(TCA) and Temporal
Viaene, & Dedene (2012) [70]	Relational Semantic Systems(TRSS) to the analysis of
. Isolo, & Bedelle (2012) [10]	chat conversations.

Table 3.2: FCA Applications in Data Mining

## 3.1.3 Extraction and Estimation

Authors	Methodology
Besson et al.	Introduced a D-miner algorithm to compute concepts under
(2004, 2005)[71]	constraints. (e.g. minimal and maximal frequency)
Mens and	Used FCA to analyze source code of a system for
Tourwé (2005) [72]	relevant concepts.
Sklenar, Zacpal, and	Used FCA to find dependencies between demographic data and
Sigmund (2005) [73]	degree of physical activity in epidemiological questionnaire data .
Old (2006) [74]	Disambiguating homographs using FCA with illustrative examples,
Old (2000) [74]	using data from Roget's Thesaurus
Breu, Zimmermann,	Extracted aspects from Eclipse by analyzing where developers
and Lindig (2006)[75]	added code to the program over time.
Fan and Xiao (2007) [76]	Proposed an FCA-based method for ontology mapping.
Beydoun, Kultchitsky,	Developed a system KAPUST to capture user trails as they
and Manasseh (2007) [77]	search the internet and learn search trails.
Del Grosso, Penta,	Identify pieces of functionality to be exported as services
and Guzman (2007) [78]	from database-oriented applications. Dynamically extract database
and Guzman (2007) [78]	queries during the execution of the application.
Belohlavek, Sklenar,	Build further on the work of Sklenar et al. (2005) and Sigmund, by
Zacpal, and Sigmund	aggregating respondents and using fuzzy values to indicate the
(2007, 2011) [79, 80]	relative frequency of attributes in the aggregated objects.
Sato, Okubo,	Use FCA to analyze similarities in the time series data
Haraguchi, and	related to medical test results.
Kunifuji (2007) [81]	
Zhao, Halang, and	Present an ontology mapping method based on rough FCA and
Wang (2007) [82]	a proposed rough similarity measure.

Table 3.3: FCA Applications in Data Extraction and Estimation - I

Authors	Methodology
Kim, Hwang, and	Used FCA for extracting internet blogs, extracted tags become
Kim (2007b) [83]	attributes and bloggers become the objects of the context.
I 1 71 (2009)	Conflict detection and elimination between two equivalent concepts
Lu and Zhang (2008)	in different source ontologies with different definitions
[84]	of value and cardinality restriction.
G 11 (2000) [07]	FCA is used in combination with association rules for fault
Cellier et al. (2008) [85]	localization in software source code.
M-11t -1 (2009) [96]	Use FCA for efficiently extracting roles from user-permission and
Molloy et al. (2008) [86]	user-attribute information.
Motameny et al.	
(2008) [87]	Use an FCA-based model to identify combinatorial biomarkers
Gebert et al.	of breast cancer.
(2008) [88]	
Fenza et al.	Present a method using fuzzy FCA for supporting the user in the
(2008, 2009)[89, 90]	discovery of semantic web services.
Bertaux et al.	Describe a method to identify ecological traits of species based on
(2009) [91]	the analysis of their biological characteristics.
Dufour-Lussier et al.	Identify ingredients which can be used to replace an ingredient
(2010)[92]	in another recipe using FCA.
Poelmans et al. (2010,	Use FCA to identify human trafficking and terrorism suspects
2011, 2012) [93, 94, 95],	_
Elzinga et al. (2010) [96]	from observational police reports.
Falk et al.	Use FCA and translation to extract most relevant verb-frame
(2010, 2011) [97, 98]	associations in language data.
	Use FCA to identify critical patient-related characteristics related
Messai et al. (2011) [99]	to physician non-compliance with Clinical Practice
	Guidelines (CPG).
	Use FCA lattice for gene associations to evaluate the complexity
Keller et al. (2012) [100]	of the relationships among diseases, and to identify concepts
	for further functional analysis.
Prigg et al (2012) [101]	Used FCA to gain insight into the conceptual structure of
Priss et al. (2012) [101]	difficulties in learning processes of students.

Table 3.4: FCA Applications in Data Extraction and Estimation -II  $\,$ 

# 3.1.4 Analysis and Recommendation

Authors	Methodology	
	Developed a web search system that reuses keywords and	
Cho et al. (2004) [102]	web pages previously entered and visited by other persons	
	and provide recommendations.	
	Propose an incremental method based on FCA which uses	
Rudolph (2004) [103]	empirical data to systematically generate hypothetical axioms	
	about the domain of interest in ontologies.	
	Use an FCA based model to mine association rules from web	
Zhou et al. (2004) [104]	usage logs and use a recommendation engine which matches	
	them with the user's recent browsing history.	
Chi et al. (2005)	Construct ontological knowledge bases for digital archive systems.	
Hauff and	Concept lattices are used for disjoint clustering of transactional	
Deogun (2007) [105]	databases and several heuristics are developed to tune the support	
Deogun (2007) [105]	parameters used in the algorithm.	
Colton and	FCA is used in combination with mathematical discovery tools	
Wagner (2007) [106]	to better facilitate mathematical discovery.	
Ignatov and	Used FCA to develop a recommender system for suggesting	
Kuznetsov (2008)[107]	potentially interesting advertisement terms that can be bought.	
Quan et al.	The authors apply a FCA based method to build an ontology	
(2006b) [108]	which can be used in a web-based help-desk application.	
Jay et al. (2008) [109]	Apply ice-berging and stability based concept lattices to choose	
3ay et al. (2006) [105]	better medical treatment trajectories for cancer patients.	
Huang (2008b) [110]	Use Rough Concept analysis for marine ontology to generate	
Huang (2000b) [110]	recommendations.	
Wang et al. (2009) [111]	Use FCA to compute the Concept- Concept similarity, the	
wang et al. (2009) [111]	Concept-Ontology similarity between two agent crawlers.	
Dau and	Apply FCA in combination with Description Logics to capture	
Knechtel (2009) [112]	the RBAC constraints and for deriving additional constraints.	
Solesvik and	Use FCA as a quantitative instrument for partner selection in the	
Encheva (2009) [113]	context of collaborative ship design.	
Ignatov et al.	Built lattice based taxonomies to represent the structure of student	
(2011) [114]	assessment data to identify the most stable student groups.	
Romashkin et al.	Analyzed university applications using lattice-based taxonomies	
(2011) [115]	derived from entrants' decisions about undergraduate programs.	

Table 3.5: FCA Applications in Data Analysis & Recommendation

## 3.1.5 Optimization

Authors	Methodology
Cole et al.(2000,2001, 2003) [116, 117, 118], Eklund (2004) [119]	Use concept lattices for email search, discovery and visualization, a Conceptual Email Manager was developed.
Stumme et al. (2001) [120], Cure and Jeansoulin (2008) [121]	Propose a solution for merging of ontologies using FCA.
Carpineto et al. (2004) [122]	System optimization for information retrieval using ice-berging of lattices.
De Souza et al. (2004a, 2004b) [123, 124]	Use ontology merging for aligning, evaluating concept similarities to process user queries.
Richards (2004) [125]	Describes a method based on Ripple-Down rules and FCA in the biology domain on four knowledge-bases about a plant.
Cole et al. (2005) [126]	FCA is used to conceptually analyze relational structures in software source code and to detect unnecessary dependencies between software parts.
Koester (2005) [127], Koester (2006) [128]	FooCA: Improving web search engine results with contexts and concept hierarchies.
Dau et al. (2008) [129] Ducrou and Eklund (2007) [130]	Build Search-sleuth using a formal context which contains the result of the query as objects and the terms found in the title & summary of each result as attributes.
Yang et al.(2008b) [131]	Build a topic-specific web crawler with concept similarity context graph which gathers only particular pages.
Du et al. (2009) [132]	Association rule mining optimization for web pages using FCA.
Boutari (2010) [133]	Use FCA to expand short texts with additional terms to reduce context sparseness.

Table 3.6: FCA Applications in Data Optimization

## 3.1.6 Visualization and Personalization

Authors	Methodology
Priss (2004) [134], Priss	Discuss how FCA can be used to visually represent lexical
and Old(2010) [135]	databases, i.e. organized collections of words in electronic
and Old(2010) [155]	form.
Vim and Compton	Combined lattice based browsing with conceptual scales to extend
Kim and Compton (2006) [136]	the search functionality by reducing the complexity of
(2000) [130]	the visualization.
Wermelinger, Yu, and	Use FCA lattices to visualize the relations between the
Strohmaier (2009)[137]	software artifacts and to indicate developers for bug-fixing.

Table 3.7: FCA Applications in Data Visualization and Personalization

# 3.1.7 Quality Management

Authors	Methodology				
Choi, et al. (2006) [138] and Choi et al. (2008) [139]	Created concept lattices from micro array data of genes and compared to each other using a distance metric.				
Choi et al. (2008) [139] and Priss and Old (2010) [135]	Investigate how FCA can be used for Roget's thesaurus and for visualizing WordNet.				
Pan et al(2009) [140]	Use FCA for comparison of radiology report content before and after adoption of PACS system.				
Le Grand et al.	Use FCA for complex systems analysis and compare different topic				
(2009) [141]	maps with each other both in terms of content and structure.				
Jiang, Pathak, and	Audit the completeness and correctness of the International				
Chute (2009) [142]	Classification of Disease (ICD) codes using FCA.				
Sertkaya (2009) [143]	Describe OntoComp, which supports ontology engineers in checking an OWL ontology for relevant information about the application domain and in extending the ontology if required.				
Jiang and Chute	Used FCA to analyze the completeness and correctness of				
(2009) [144]	SNOMED, a controlled vocabulary for the medical domain.				
Kaytoue, et al (2009 [43]), Kaytoue, et al. (2011) [145]	FCA in combination with interordinal scaling is compared to pattern structures based on interval vectors for mining gene expression data and extracting co-expressed genes.				
Kirchberg et al. (2012) [146]	Performed an in-depth comparison of all performance aspects of analyzing large amounts of sematic web data, obtained from the Internet, in real- time.				

 ${\bf Table~3.8:~FCA~Applications~in~Data~Quality~Management}$ 

# 3.2 Approaches in Knowledge Discovery, Representation and Learning

## 3.2.1 Building Knowledge Base and Ontologies

Authors	Methodology				
Jiang et al. (2003)[147]	Use FCA in combination with NLP for semi-automatically building a Japanese ontology in the cardiovascular medicine domain.				
Soon and Kuhn (2004) [148]	Use FCA for producing task-oriented ontologies.				
Cimiano et al. (2004) [149]	Discuss and present several examples on how FCA can be used to support ontology engineering and how ontologies can be exploited in FCA applications.				
Chi et al.(2005) [150]	construct ontological knowledge bases for digital archive systems				
Hwang et al. (2005) [151]	Use FCA for the construction of ontologies in the domain of software engineering.				
Xu et al. (2006) [152]	FCA is used to build an event ontology from a set of textual documents.				
Richards (2006) [153]	Build personal and ad hoc ontologies using FCA which may help gaining understanding of the research domain.				
Quan et al. (2006) [154]	Apply FCA to build an ontology which can be used in a web-based help-desk application.				
Fang et al. (2007) [76]	Integrate FCA with Protege to build a knowledge sharing platform, containing information about the acupuncture points from traditional Chinese medicine.				
Wollbold et al. (2008) [155]	Derive a knowledge base using FCA using mRNA and protein concentrations consisting of a set of transition rules between states.				
Huang (2008a) [110]	Proposed rough FCA for semi-automatically constructing a marine domain ontology.				
Wollbold et al.	Use FCA and attribute exploration for building a knowledge base				
(2009) [156]	about a gene regulatory network of a bacterium.				
Xu et al. (2009) [157]	Contemplate on how FCA can be used to build a computer network management information specification ontology.				

Table 3.9: FCA Applications in Building Knowledge base and Ontologies

# ${\bf 3.2.2} \quad {\bf Enhancing/Optimizing} \ {\bf Knowledge} \ {\bf Base} \ {\bf and} \ {\bf Ontologies}$

Authors	Methodology			
Richards and Malik	Use a method to restructure knowledge bases containing classification			
(2003) $[158]$	rules in the domain of chemical pathology.			
Cimiano, Hotho, and	Applied FCA and NLP to textual data from the tourism and finance			
Staab (2005)[159]	domain to automatically learn ontological concept hierarchies.			
Gamallo, Lopes, and	Use technical articles in computational linguistics and a list of 175			
Agustini (2007) [160]	terms to extract lexico-syntactic contexts using FCA and find which			
Agustiii (2007) [100]	terms co-occur with which lexico-syntactic contexts.			
Kim et al. (2007) [136]	Propose a method to extract ontological elements from OWL			
Kim et al. (2007) [150]	source code and create a context family of five kinds of contexts.			
Kiu and Lee	Use FCA for managing existing ontological knowledge instead of			
(2008) [161]	building an ontology.			
Bendaoud, Toussaint,	Propose an FCA-based system for semi-automatically enriching an			
and Napoli (2008)[162]	initial ontology from a collection of texts in the astronomy domain.			

Table 3.10: FCA Applications in Enhancing Knowledge base and Ontologies

# 3.3 Approaches in Learning and Classification Problems

Authors	Methodology				
Jean-Gabriel	CHARADE: constructs classification rules based on k-DNF				
Ganascia(1987)[163]	expressions built from the generated lattice.				
Carpineto et al.	GALIOS: classifies by computing similarity between				
(1993) [164]	instances and coherent maximal concepts.				
Liquiere et al.	LEGAL: searches for coherent maximal concepts and uses				
(1993) [165]	majority vote for classification				
Oosthuizen, G	GRAND: a classification strategy to use the most specific rules				
(1994) [166]	containing largest number of examples and the smallest number				
(1994) [100]	of attributes.				
Sahami, M.	RuLearner: employs an algorithm to generate rules based on				
(1995) [167]	having to find recursively the minimum set of attributes to				
(1999) [107]	classify maximum set of instances.				
Njiwoua et al.	CIBLE: adopts heuristic techniques to generate only the				
(1999) [168]	pertinent and useful concepts without constructing the entire				
(1333) [100]	lattice.				
Xie et al. (2002) [169]	CLNN & CLNB: integrated Naive Bayes and Nearest Neighbor				
	into concept lattice nodes to classify new instances.				
Ganter and	Combined version spaces from machine learning with FCA				
Kuznetsov (2003) [170]	lattices to generate new classifiers.				
Ganter and	Present a classification model of learning from positive and				
Kuznetsov(2000) [171],	negative examples using FCA lattice and and graph-theoretic				
Kuznetsov (2004a,	interpretations of concept-based classification rules.				
2004b) [172, 173]	interpretations of concept sused classification rates.				
Ganter et al.					
(2004) [174]	Introduced pattern structures and combined with JSM method				
Kuznetsov et al.	in machine learning to develop their classification model.				
(2005) [175]					
Auon-Allah et al.	Use FCA lattice to validate rules generated from a meta-classifier				
(2006) [176]	for mining very large distributed databases.				

Table 3.11: FCA Applications in Learning & Classification Problems - I

Authors	Methodology
Ricordeau (2003) [177]	Introduced Q-concept learning algorithms, by generalizing
Ricordeau and	reinforcement algorithms in machine learning using the
Liquiere (2007) [178]	standard FCA lattice.
Pudelph (2007) [170]	Present an encoding strategy for knowledge processing using
Rudolph (2007) [179]	FCA and develop a classification method using a neural network
War at al. (2007) [190]	Propose a classification algorithm by using an ontology learning
Wen et al. (2007) [180]	method and clustering on fuzzy concept lattice
Chang et al.	Propose a document classifier system by using FCA on existing
(2008) [181]	knowledge ontology and integrating with Naive Bayes Classifier.
Circult (2009) [61]	Use FCA concept lattice mining to develop an unsupervised
Girault (2008) [61]	classifier for named entity annotation.
Tsopze et al	CLANN: a two-class supervised classifier, which uses the FCA
(2009) [182]	concept lattice to directly build the network architecture of a
[2009] [182]	neural network.
Carpineto et al.	Build a classifier using FCA lattice and integrating with Support
(2009) [183]	Vector Machines (SVM).
Belohlavek et al	Proposed a classifier by constructing decision trees using nodes of
(2009) [184]	Proposed a classifier by constructing decision trees using nodes of
Lindig, (2000) [185]	concept lattice generated from input data.
Outrata (2010) [1]	Use FCA and Boolean Factor Analysis to build a classifier using
Outrata (2010) [1]	decision tree induction.
Visani et al.	NAVIGALA: uses a navigation based strategy on FCA lattice to
(2011) [186]	develop a supervised classification algorithm for noisy data.

Table 3.12: FCA Applications in Learning & Classification Problems - II

## Chapter 4

## LearnFCA - A novel approach for learning and classification

#### 4.1 Introduction

Classification problems traditionally fall into two main categories, supervised and unsupervised learning. Machine learning is a scientific study of constructing computer programs that can learn from data and improve with experience. FCA has originally been used to exploit the relationship between a set of objects and their properties, thereby learning predictable patterns from available data to build a knowledge base of the domain. Use of FCA combined with various machine learning models and domain expertise has yielded in some interesting results. These machine learning models include mining classification rules [163, 164, 165, 166, 176], decision tree induction [184, 1], artificial neural networks [168, 179], nearest neighbor algorithms [169, 186], naive bayes classifier [169, 182, 186], support vector machines [183], version spaces [170], JSM method [41] and q-concept learning [177, 178].

In this chapter, we first introduce an intuitive and naive technique of using FCA lattice for classification. We then discuss various approaches from existing literature. Finally, we propose a new model "LearnFCA" which integrates class information into the FCA lattice and uses probabilistic techniques to classify instances. The architecture and implementation of "LeanFCA" is presented with an emphasis on

our classification strategy.

## 4.2 Intuitive Example

Name	$body \ temp.$	gives birth	fourlegged	hibernates	mammal
cat	warm	yes	yes	no	yes
bat	warm	yes	no	yes	yes
salam and er	cold	no	yes	yes	no
eagle	warm	no	no	no	no
guppy	cold	yes	no	no	no

Name	bt cold	bt warm	$gb \ no$	gb yes	fl no	fl yes	hb no	hb yes	mammal
cat	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	yes
bat	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	yes
salamander	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	no
eagle	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	no
guppy	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	no

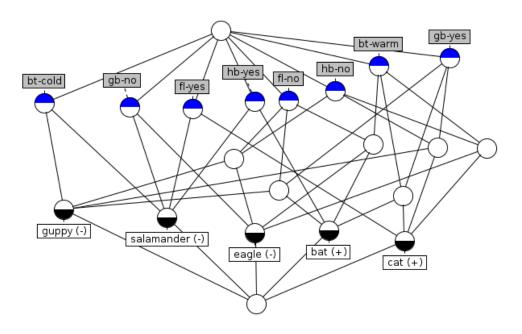


Figure 4.1: An example formal context and its concept lattice taken from [1]

Figure 4.1 shows a small formal context defined by a set of animals representing *objects* and a set of properties exhibited by them representing attributes of the domain. At first, the *attributes* are multi-valued and are scaled to binary values. The generated

lattice consists of 21 concepts. The top and the bottom nodes are trivial concepts and other concepts are identified by the labels of objects and attributes on them or inherited based on the edges connecting the nodes.

Algorithm 1: A naive algorithm to generate classification rules from a concept

lattice

**Input:** A formal context K = (G, M, I, S)

**Output:** Classification rules of form  $A \to S', S' \in \{yes, no\}$ 

- <sup>1</sup> Generate a list of concepts C and the concept-lattice L.
- 2 while all objects are not classified: do
- From the top, move right and then down to find a concept c that classifies most number of objects of a class but not the other classes.
- 4 | Include c in C'.
- Remove the classified objects and their concept from C.
- **6** Generate classification rules based on C'.

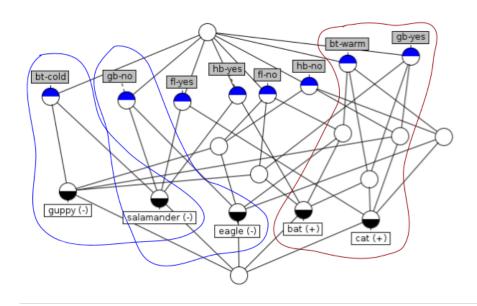


Figure 4.2: An application of the naive algorithm (Algorithm 1) on lattice to generate classification rules

A naive algorithm to generate classification rules from the concept lattice is described in Algorithm 1. The five instances (two positive and three negative) are classified into two categories (mammal or not-mammal). When Algorithm 1 is applied on the lattice (Figure 4.2), the generated classification rules are:

- 1.  $\{bt\text{-}cold\} \rightarrow no$
- 2.  $\{gb\text{-}no\} \rightarrow no$
- 3.  $\{bt\text{-}warm, gb\text{-}yes\} \rightarrow yes$

#### 4.3 Related Work

FCA has been used with machine learning as early as 1980's with work mostly concentrated around generating classification rules from the concept lattice and using them to classify new instances. Probably, the earliest model of use of FCA for classification can be seen in CHARADE [163] developed in 1987. It constructs classification rules based on k-DNF expressions built from the generated lattice and claims to have better performance than the basic machine learning ID3 algorithm. Carpineto et al [164] developed GALIOS in 1993, which computes the similarity between a new instance and a set of coherent/maximal concepts, uses a majority vote strategy to classify the instance to the most similar class. LEGAL [165] proposed in 1993, uses a similar inductive method, searches for coherent/maximal concepts and uses majority vote in the set of pertinent regularity to classify new examples. GRAND, developed in 1994 [166] employs a classification strategy to use the most specific rules which contain

the largest number of examples and the smallest number of attributes. The authors select and choose the three best rules to classify a new instance. RuLearner(1995) [167] formally defines and employs an algorithm to generate rules based on having to find recursively the minimum set of attributes to classify maximum set of instances of a specific category. CIBLE(1999) [168] adopts heuristic techniques to generate only the pertinent and useful concepts without constructing the entire lattice. It combines induction and k-NN, and one of the three distance measures: Mahalanobis, Manhattan and Euclidean to classify an new instance.

In 2002, Xie et al [169] developed new composite classifiers (CLNN and CLNB) by integrating Naive Bayes and Nearest Neighbor into the concept lattice nodes, applying constraints and a new voting strategy to classify a new instance. Similar to [168], they built only partial lattices using heuristic techniques for better efficiency of their classification algorithm. Ganter & Kuznetsov [170] in 2003, combined the model of version spaces in machine learning with FCA to generate classifiers that are closed under conjunction and apply it to an example from predictive toxicology. The authors mention in certain cases, the classifiers can be too restrictive, and suggest to use sets of hypotheses in terms of patterns structures as a possible remedy. In another series of papers by Ganter & Kuznetsov [172, 173, 171], the authors present a classification model of learning from positive and negative examples using FCA lattice and graph-theoretic interpretations of concept-based classification rules (hypothesis). Later in 2004 [174], they extended their work by introducing pattern structures and combine with JSM method in machine learning and test their classification model on Predictive Toxicology datasets.

Aoun-Allah and Mineau (2006) [176] use FCA lattice to validate rules generated from a meta-classifier for mining very large distributed databases. Ricordeau & Liquiere [177, 178] introduce Q-concept learning algorithms, by generalizing rein-

forcement algorithms in machine learning using the standard FCA lattice. In [179], Rudolph uses FCA to present an encoding strategy for knowledge processing data and provide a method to support the neural-symbolic learning cycle in a 3-feed forward neural network. Wen et al [180] propose a classification algorithm by using an ontology learning method, clustering on fuzzy concept lattice and apply it on UCI Machine learning datasets. In [181], the authors propose a document classifier system by using FCA on existing knowledge ontology and integrating with Naive Bayes Classifier with an average effectiveness of 89%. Girault [61] use FCA concept lattice mining to present an unsupervised classifier for named entity annotation to improve the existing supervised classification process. Tsopze et al [182] propose CLANN, a two-class supervised classifier, which uses the FCA concept lattice to directly build the network architecture of a neural network. The authors believe that this approach is helpful when prior knowlege of data is not available and show the soundness and efficiency using various experiments on UCI datasets.

In 2009, Caprineto et al [183] use FCA for pre-processing and generating a document lattice and integrate it with Support Vector Machines(SVM) to build a text based classifier. They show that the proposed method is better than the standard SVM when very little training data are available. Belohlavek et al [184] proposed a classifier by constructing decision trees using nodes of concept lattice generated from input data and experimentally evaluate with standard benchmark datasets. Outrata [1] in 2010, used formal concept analysis in input data preprocessing to generate formal concepts using boolean factor analysis and build a classifier using decision tree induction, They evaluate their performance with standard decision tree induction algorithms ID3 and C4.5. In 2011, Visani, Bertet, Ogier [186] proposed NAVIGALA, which uses a navigation based strategy on FCA lattice to develop a supervised classification algorithm for noisy data. The algorithm selects relevant concepts from the

huge amount of data, which then is processed by a k-nearest neighbors or the Bayesian classifier. Some quantitative and qualitative evaluations are presented.

A chronological list of the related work is presented in Table 3.11 & 3.12.

#### 4.4 Overview and Definitions

#### 4.4.1 FCA with Classes

Below, we present a formal definition of traditional FCA with integrated class information:

**Definition 18** (context) A Classed Formal Context is a four-tuple K = (G, M, I, S), where G is a set of objects, M is a set of attributes, I is a binary function from G to M and S is a set of classes. Each pair  $(g, m) \in I$  has a membership value in  $\{0, 1\}$ , with each object  $g \in S$  belonging to a particular class  $s \in S$ .

In Figure 4.1,  $G = \{cat, bat, salamander, eagle, guppy \}$ ,  $M = \{bt \ cold, \ bt \ warm, \ gb \ no, \ gb \ yes, \ fl \ no, \ fl \ yes, \ hb \ no, \ hb \ yes \}$ ,  $S = \{yes, \ no\}$ .

**Definition 19** (concept) A Formal Concept with Class  $C_c$  of a formal context K is  $C_c = (G', M', S')$  where for  $G' \subseteq G$ ,  $M' \subseteq M$ , G'' = M' and M'' = G'. Each concept  $C_c$  has a associated class  $s \in S$  which is determined by some classification strategy  $\zeta$ .

Two formal concepts with class (Figure 4.2) are  $C_{c_1} = (\{guppy\}, \{bt \ cold, \ gb \ yes, fl \ no, \ hb \ no\}, \ no)$  and  $C_{c_2} = (\{cat\}, \{bt \ warm, \ gb \ yes, fl \ yes, \ hb \ no\}, \ yes)$ . Intuitively, this means that the lattice node with the object set  $G = \{guppy\}$  has been assigned a no class using certain classification strategy  $\zeta$ . One example for  $\zeta$  could be to use the conjunction of classification rules generated earlier. Classification strategies could vary from being simple to complex.

For formal context lattices with large number of nodes, classification rules and strategies can get fairly complex and it becomes difficult to assign a concept node to a particular class s. One way to resolve this is to assign a probability vector  $\mathcal{P}$  to the concept where each item  $p_i$  is the fractional value corresponding to the class  $s_i$ ,  $s_i \in S$ .

**Definition 20** (concept probability vector) A concept probability vector  $\mathcal{P}$  for a concept C is a probability vector  $\{p_1, p_2, p_3...p_n\}$ , with each element corresponding to a class  $s \in S$ ,  $p_i \in [0, 1]$ , n = |S| such at  $\sum p_i = 1$ .

#### 4.4.2 Fuzzy FCA with Classes

In this section, we extend the notion of FCA with Classes to Fuzzy FCA with Classes by modifying the membership function to be from a fuzzy set [0,1]. To address the difficulty of assigning classes to *concepts* in the fuzzy lattice, we use a concept probability vector  $\mathcal{P}$  as discussed in the previous section.

**Definition 21** A Fuzzy Formal Context with Class (FFC<sub>c</sub>) is a six-tuple  $K = (G, M, I, S, \mu, \chi)$ , where G is a set of objects, M is a set of attributes,  $I = ((GM), \mu)$  is a fuzzy set, with each pair  $(g, m) \in I$  has a membership value  $\mu(g, m)$  in [0, 1], S is a set of classes with each object  $g \in G$  belonging to a particular class s, and  $\chi$  the confidence threshold of the context.

**Definition 22** A Fuzzy Formal Concept with Class (or classified concept)  $C_c$  of a fuzzy formal context K with class and a confidence threshold  $\chi$ , is  $C_c = (I'_G, M', \mathcal{P})$ , where, for  $G' \subseteq G$ ,  $I'_G = (G', \mu)$ ,  $M' \subseteq M$ , G'' = M' and M'' = G'. Each object g has a membership  $\mu_{I'_G}$  defined as  $\mu_{I'_G}(g) = \min_{m \in M'}(\mu_I(g, m))$  where  $\mu_I$  is the fuzzy function of I.  $\mathcal{P}$  is a probability vector of the concept C representing the chances of being classified into various classes in S.

Figure 4.3 shows a fuzzy concept lattice with probability vectors associated with each concept node.

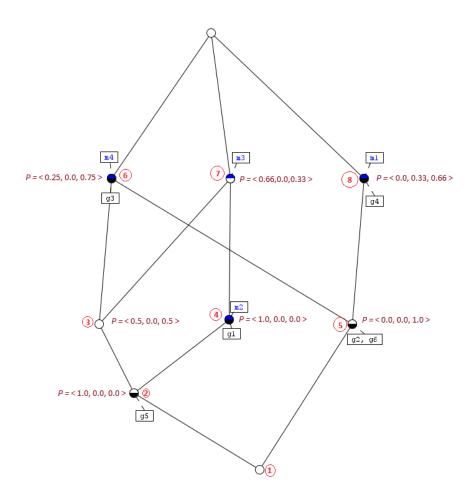


Figure 4.3: Fuzzy Concept Lattice of Context in Table 4.1 with probability concept vectors assigned to each node

## 4.4.3 Classification Strategy $\zeta$

First, we calculate the probability concept vectors by defining  $p_i \in \mathcal{P}$  of a concept  $C_c$  as the ratio of no of objects in it's extent that belong to  $s_i$  and it's extent size.

	$m_1$	$m_2$	$m_3$	$m_4$	s
$g_1$		0.6	0.4	0.1	$s_1$
$g_2$	0.4	0.3		0.7	$s_3$
$g_3$	0.1		0.4	0.8	$s_3$
$g_4$	0.6				$s_2$
$g_5$		0.7	1.0	0.6	$s_1$
$g_6$	0.7		0.3	0.5	$s_3$

Table 4.1: A fuzzy formal context with class information

$$p_i = \frac{\text{No of objects in Extent}(C_c) \text{ in class } s_i}{\text{Extent Size}(C_c)}$$

The concept lattice in 4.3 shows probability vectors associated with each concept. For example, for node 6 with extent  $O = \{g_2, g_3, g_5, g_6\}$ , intent  $A = \{m_4\}$ ;  $p_1 = \text{No}$  of objects in Extent in class  $s_1$  / Extent Size = 1/4 = 0.25. Similarly,  $p_2 = 0.0$  and  $p_3 = 0.75$ ;

Next, we present Algorithm 2 to classify all individual objects in the given context. The main idea is to traverse through the fuzzy lattice for each object (instance) o and find the relevant concept  $C_o$  that contains the object and has the maximum extent size. The predicted class of o is then assigned as the class that has the maximum value in the probability vector  $\mathcal{P}_c$  for  $C_o$ .

Algorithm 2 initializes an empty instance map "insMap" which is gradually filled with the instances o, their maximum extent size n, and the resultant probability vector (pv) for each instance. The results of applying Algorithm 2 to the fuzzy lattice in Figure 4.3 is shown in Table 4.2. The algorithm classifies 5 out of 6 objects successfully (an accuracy of 83.33%).

```
Algorithm 2: Classify Using Lattice (FuzzyL)
```

01: 1	Relevant	Probability	Predicted	Actual
Object	Concept	Vector	Class	Class
$g_1$	4	<1.0,0.0,0.0>	$s_1$	$s_1$
$g_2$	5	<0.0,0.0,1.0>	$s_3$	$s_3$
$g_3$	3	<0.5,0.0,0.5>	$s_3$	$s_3$
$g_4$	8	<0.0,0.33,0.66>	$s_3$	$s_2$
$g_5$	2	<1.0,0.0,0.0>	$s_1$	$s_1$
$g_6$	5	<0.0,0.0,1.0>	$s_3$	$s_3$

Table 4.2: Results after applying strategy  $\zeta$  to fuzzy lattice in Figure 4.3

## 4.5 LearnFCA - Architecture and Implementation

LearnFCA Model(LFM) has been developed from the java based Concept Explorer tool (conexp) [187] and the conexpng tool [188]. Both of tools have the core FCA functionality of processing contexts, generating lattices and implication rules. These tools have been modified and adapted to support Fuzzy FCA, and to construct a fuzzy lattice that can be used for classification. LFM has the capability to process classes related information and classify instances based on a probabilistic strategy described in Algorithm 2. The key characteristics of LFM are:

1. Java based implementation based on *conexp* and *conexpnq*.

- 2. Ability to support Fuzzy FCA and process classes related information.
- A text based classifier that works using a probabilistic strategy, reports accuracy
  for large datasets and has the ability to randomize and select training/test set
  for experimentation.

A copy of the implementation can be obtained from https://git.unl.edu/ssamal/conexpng.

#### 4.5.1 Fuzzy Lattice Construction

```
Algorithm 3: GenFuzzyLattice (fuzzyC)
   Input: A given Fuzzy Context fuzzyC (G, M, I, \chi)
   Output: A Fuzzy Lattice fuzzyL with fuzzy concepts, class information and
              class probabilities
1 Initialize th \leftarrow 0.5;
2 Initialize clsMap \leftarrow new \text{ empty};
3 Initialize trnMap \leftarrow new empty;
4 fuzzyC \leftarrow \text{CreateFuzzyContext}(fuzzyC);
5 foreach object o in G do
       UpdateClassMap(clsMap, o.class);
       if isTraining(o) then
          UpdateTrainingMap(trnMap, o);
9 fuzzyL \leftarrow \text{CreateLattice}(fuzzyC,th);
10 Initialize nc \leftarrow \text{size}(clsMap);
11 foreach fuzzyConcept\ fc\ in\ fuzzyL\ do
       Initialize pv \leftarrow [0.0]*nc;
12
       foreach class c in clsMap do
13
         | \quad pv[c] \leftarrow clsMap.getCount(c) \ / \ fc.getExtentSize(); 
14
       fc.setPV(pv);
15
16 return fuzzyL
```

First, we use a few new data structures to extend the capability of *conexpng* tool to support fuzzy contexts and storing classes. th is used for the threshold of the fuzzy context. clsMap and trnmap are used for storing classes and whether a given instance

is a training or a test instance. A vector pv is used for each lattice concept in the fuzzy lattice for storing the classification probability values.

The steps for construction of fuzzy lattice are detailed in Algorithm 3. We initialize the threshold th to a default value of 0.5. The data structure clsMap stores the mapping of object to their classes as observed in the given context. trnMap is a data structure to optionally separate out the training objects. The lattice is generated using standard FCA process and stored in fuzzyL. The next step involves traversing through each concept in the fuzzy lattice and adding a probability vector for each concept based on classification strategy discussed in Section 4.4.3.

#### 4.5.2 Object Classification Process

Classifying instances (objects) to various classes is done using the fuzzy lattice in a similar way as done in 4.4.3. The classification process is detailed in Algorithm 2. An instance map insMap of all objects and empty probability vectors is first initialized. We traverse through the concepts in the fuzzy lattice, and for each object in the concept, insMap is updated with the resultant probability vector if required. Finally, we loop through each object in insmap and output the predicted class associated with the maximum value in the probability vector.

## Chapter 5

## LearnFCA - Experimental Evaluation

This chapter describes in detail how we apply LearnFCA to various data, the setup and methodology used to perform the various experiments. We also discuss results, their interpretation and future work that can be done in this direction.

## 5.1 Introduction and the big picture

The use of intelligent computing to assist clinical decision making and medical procedures can be seen since early 1960's, however its use has still been profoundly limited to date due to various reasons. Healthcare procedures and clinical work-flows are known to be inherently complex. Clinical decision making often involves processing an enormous range of relevant data. Multiple terminologies and nomenclature exist in medical domain that adds to the complexity. Recent years has seen the emergence of big data, increasing risk of errors in diagnostic procedures all with a need of high accuracy in medical diagnosis procedures. Hence, the use of advanced computing technologies to assist clinicians has become almost indispensable. On the other hand, recent applications of artifical intelligence have been proven very successful in complex domains like self-driving cars, natural language processing and biological systems engineering.

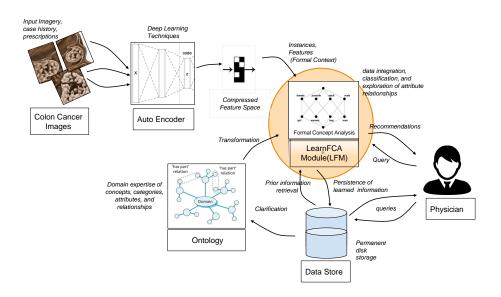


Figure 5.1: LearnFCA Model in a proposed CDSS system

"LearnFCA" is proposed to be an integral part of a clinical decision support system(CDSS) framework for physicians. The entire project aims to design and implement an intelligent computing system that would assist physicians (doctors) with decision making (treatment plan, diagnosis, other recommendations) and provide recommendations for clinical evaluation and treatment. The project uses deep learning techniques to extract and incrementally learn vital data characteristics from medical images and use LearnFCA Model (LFM) to classify, and finally provide recommendations to physicians to assist in diagnostic procedures and clinical work-flows.

## 5.2 Experimental Setup

## 5.3 Setup

We evaluate "LearnFCA" on encodings (matrices) generated from images obtained from various datasets. For the FCA context, each encoding is an object and each feature is an attribute. Originally, each encoding has 64 attributes. Experiments were run on two types of encodings, binary (values are either 0 or 1) and floating (values are between 0 to 1). Attributes were scaled from 64 to 512 using a simple binning strategy explained in Algorithm 4. Encodings are obtained from three datasets, MNIST [189] (having 10 classes), Omniglot [190] (512-659 classes), and GDC portal cancer images [191] (2 classes).

#### 5.3.1 Methodology

The entire process is composed of three steps: extending the features (optional), generation of fuzzy lattice and classification using lattice all of which is depicted in Algorithm 5. The first step involves extending the original features (attributes) of size 64 to a higher dimension (128-256) using Algorithm 4 (*ExtendFeatures*) if necessary. This is done by reducing the range of each attribute. A single attribute value between 0 to 1 can be extended to four attributes by dividing the ranges to 0 to 0.25, 0.25 to 0.5, 0.5 to 0.75 and 0.75 to 1.0.

The next step involves using the extended encodings as input for a formal context and generating a fuzzy lattice using Algorithm 3 (GenFuzzyLattice). The generation process involves tracking of training & test instances, generating fuzzy concepts and updating the probability vectors within each lattice concept. The last and final step involves traversing the lattice, using the classification strategy  $\zeta$  and predicting the

best class for each instance. This is detailed in Algorithm 2 (Classify Using Lattice).

```
Algorithm 4: ExtendFeatures (E, n)
  Input: A matrix of encodings E[i \times f] with f features
  Output: A matrix of encodings E'[i \times f'] with f' features (|f'| = |f| * n)
  /* Initialize encodings of size f * n
1 Initialize E' \leftarrow \text{empty};
n' \leftarrow |f| * n;
3 foreach encoding e in E do
      Initialize e' \leftarrow [0.0] * n';
      /* Assign the feature to appropriate bin in e'
                                                                                       */
      foreach feature e[j] in e do
         bid \leftarrow int(e[j]*n);
6
       e'[(j-1)*n+bid] \leftarrow e[j];
      Add e' to E';
9 return E'
```

#### Algorithm 5: Algorithm to classify encodings based on Fuzzy lattice

**Input:** A set of encodings matrix  $Enc[i \times f]$ , with i instances and f features.

```
i = i_1(training instances) +i_2(test instances) and F = f_1 (features) +f_2 (classes)
```

Output: instances and their classified classes

- 1  $EncX \leftarrow \text{ExtendFeatures}(Enc, n);$
- **2** FuzzyL ←GenFuzzyLattice(EncX);
- **3** ClassifyUsingLattice(FuzzyL);

#### 5.3.2 Results

#### MNIST Image Encodings [189]

MNIST is a database of handwritten digits, having a training set of 60,000 examples, and a test set of 10,000 examples and 10 classes. It is widely used for training and testing in the field of machine learning and classification problems. The digits have been size-normalized and centered in a fixed-size image of 28x28 pixels each.

We apply our classification algorithm to 100 to 500 of these images. With original set of encodings (64 attributes), our algorithm classifies about 25% of the instances accurately. On scaling the attributes to 512, the accuracy goes to as high as 96.4% (Table 4.2).

### Omniglot Data Encodings [190]

The Omniglot data set contains 1623 characters (classes) spanning 50 different alphabets and about 14000 instances. However, it has very few examples per class. We apply our classification algorithm by selecting about 1000 to 5000 images from the dataset. The accuracy is low(1.5%- 2.5%) with original set of encodings with 64 attributes, but when scaled to 512 attributes, the accuracy increases to be in the range 39% - 55% (see Table 4.2). One of the limitations of our model is the inability to handle larger number of instances.

## Colorectal Cancer Images Dataset [191]

We apply our classification alogrithm to the cancer image encodings generated from National Cancer Institute's GDC Portal [191]. The dataset consists of 1041 colon cancer images with 705 training and 336 testing images. The goal is to classify them to two classes, Colon Adenocarcinoma(CA) and Colon Mucinous Adenocarcinoma(CMA). American Cancer Society [192, 193] reports that colon cancer is responsible for one-thirds of all cancer related deaths in the country (about 101K cases and 51K deaths estimated in 2009). Use of Machine Learning Techniques with FCA is anticipated to enable faster processing and earlier detection of colateral cancer images and thereby reducing its overall risk and increasing the chances of patients survival.

The results are presented in Table 4.2. Our algorithm reported an overall accuracy of 86.84% with training accuracy of 82.84% and testing accuracy of 95.24%. When the attributes are scaled, the overall accuracy increased to 98.27%.

Dataset	Encoding Type	Total Objects	Classes	Train Size	Test Size	Scaled Attributes	Concepts	Train Accuracy	Test Accuracy	Overall Accuracy
mnist1	binary	500	10	400	100	64	2081	25.25	25.00	25.20
	floating	500	10	400	100	64	2081	25.50	23.00	25.00
						256	7996	36.75	41.00	37.60
						512	26019	96.00	98.00	96.40
mnist2	binary	100	10	80	20	64	2081	33.75	15.00	30.00
	floating	100	10	80	20	64	2081	31.25	20.00	29.00
						256	7088	93.75	100.00	95.00
						512	8249	100.00	100.00	100.00
omniglot (1000)	floating	1000	512	800	200	64	1832	2.50	1.50	2.30
	floating					256	6487	38.50	38.13	38.20
	floating					512	16411	54.50	59.00	55.40
omniglot (2000)	floating	2000	634	1600	400	64	1832	1.50	2.25	1.65
	floating					256	7091	24.31	21.00	23.65
	floating					512	18524	39.19	41.00	39.55
omniglot (3000)	floating	3000	652	2400	600	64	1832	1.75	0.83	1.56
	floating					256	7155	17.79	18.50	17.93
	floating					512	19994	32.75	35.00	33.2
omniglot (5000)	floating	5000	659	4000	1000	64	1833	1.15	0.90	1.10
	floating					256	7205	12.83	15.10	13.28
	floating					512	21870	25.58	25.80	25.62
cancer images	floating	1041	2	705	336	64	2077	82.84	95.24	86.84
	floating					256	6419	89.50	99.11	92.60
	floating					512	13164	97.59	99.70	98.27

Table 5.1: Results of applying LearnFCA onto various datasets

#### 5.3.3 Discussion

LearnFCA has proven to be successful with varying degrees on the three datasets. The following general observations were made:

- 1. Encoding Type (binary vs floating): Floating encodings represent data in a range compared to binary encodings (0 or 1) and hence are expected to capture features more efficiently. LearnFCA performs at least as better on floating encodings as compared to the binary encodings in all the three datasets (mnist 30-100%, omniglot 2-55%, cancer images 86-98%).
- 2. Scaling of Features: Feature scaling which applies to only the floating encodings proved to be another mechanism to capture relevant features efficiently.

When scaling the features to four times, the accuracy of our model increased considerably to about 100% in all the three datasets (*mnist* 29-100%, *omniglot* 38-55%, *cancer images* 92-98%).

- 3. Number of Classes: Number of classes is an very important factor for classification accuracy. It is expected, that the more the number of classes, the harder it is to classify and lower the performance. With omniglot data which had the highest number of classes (about 650), the classification accuracy was just about 33%. With the cancer images (2 classes), and mnist data (10 classes), our model performed close to 98% accurate.
- 4. Size of Dataset: The number of instances in the dataset plays a good role in the learning and classification process. With higher size of dataset, it is expected that a model would learn and classify more efficiently and perform better. LearnFCA performs better with smaller size data (till 500), but its accuracy drops with very large datasets. Building the fuzzy lattice is exponential, the process is slow and hence the classification accuracy drops. With about 5000 images from omniglot dataset, the process took about 2 hours and classification accuracy was just about 25%. Our model was not able to run the entire omniglot dataset (1623 classes,14000 instances) and this stands for further analysis for future work.

## 5.4 Conclusion

This thesis provided a comprehensive review on FCA and its generalizations and their applications in various domains related to data mining and machine learning. We reviewed about 150 papers related to FCA and categorized them into three major areas, data analysis, knowledge management and learning and classification. We also

proposed LearnFCA, a classifier based on Fuzzy FCA and probabilistic techniques for learning and classification purposes. Our proposed model was evaluated on three datasets with varying number of classes with varying degrees of success.

#### 5.5 Future Work

The work presented in this thesis can be extended in several ways. Most of them follow from our analysis and our experimental results in previous section. Following are some research directions for future work:

One improvement to our LearnFCA is to explore techniques to efficiently build the concept lattice using incremental algorithms like the AddIntent [194], InClose2 [195] and [196, 197]. This would make processing faster and help in scaling to larger datasets. Other suggested approaches are noise removal before processing, ice-berging (removal of irrelevant concepts during lattice generation) [34], and use of context reduction techniques [198].

Use of FCA with big data and streaming data has not been much until recently [5] and this is an emerging research area. There is a need to build efficient classifiers and tools to support various intelligent processes. One limitation of LearnFCA is its inability to scale to larger datasets and big data. Extending the model by using python packages, it's in-built, bench-marked tools for FCA and machine learning packages is another direction to explore, which might enable the model's usage with with big and streaming data.

Finally, LearnFCA could be combined with Temporal FCA, Ontology and RCA to enable our model have the ability to persist information, classification rules and save their changes over time. This would help us in retrieving snapshots of data at various time and even predicting changes in future.

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