Modal Symbolic Learning: A Tutorial

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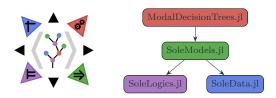
- Day 1:
 - Basic propositional logic for learning
 - Basic modal logic for learning
 - Symbolic learning: decision trees and other models

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 - Learning: symbolic feature selection
 - Learning: statistically solid, ensemble, and multi-modal models

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 - Practice: symbolic knowledge manipulation with SoleLogics.jl
 - Symbolic learning: decision trees and other models
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 - Practice: learning with Sole.jl
 - Learning: symbolic feature selection
 - Learning: statistically solid, ensemble, and multi-modal models
 - Practice: experiment with Sole.jl

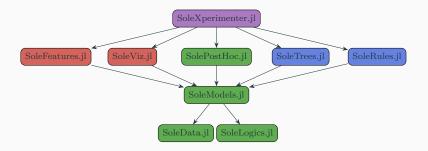
The Sole Framework



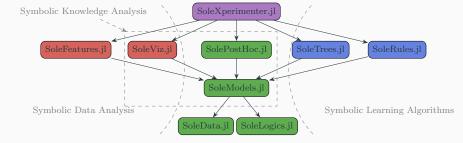
Currently released packages:

- SoleLogics.jl logical formulas;
- SoleData.jl multimodal, non-tabular datasets;
- SoleModels.jl symbolic models (decision trees, association rules, ...);
- ModalDecisionTrees.jl DT learning for multimodal, non-tabular data.

The Sole Framework tomorrow (tentative)



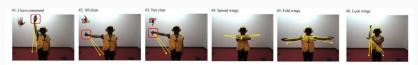
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Appetizer

NATOPS: A gesture recognition problem

- Dataset: NATOPS, public benchmark for time series classification
 - 360 instances;
 - 24 variables;
 - 51 temporal points.
- Task: Gesture recognition from position sensors;
- Input: xyz coordinates for elbows/wrists/hands/thumbs (left+right) evolving through time;
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NN	SVM (non-NN state of the art)	CART Decision Tree
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Table 1: Accuracies (10-fold cv) for non-symbolic state-of-the-art and decision tree models.

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NN	SVM	CART Decision Tree	CART Modal Decision Tree
97.1%	88.5%	70.9%	89.7%

Table 1: Accuracies (10-fold cv) for non-symbolic state-of-the-art and decision tree models.

Material

 $\label{lem:material} Material \ \& \ instructions \ for \ this \ tutorial \ are \ available \ at: \\ \texttt{https://github.com/aclai-lab/modal-symbolic-learning-course/}$

Day 1



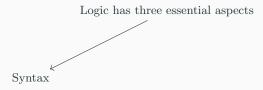
Modal symbolic learning is the **generalization** of symbolic learning to more-than-propositional languages.

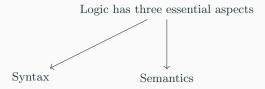
Modal symbolic learning is the **generalization** of symbolic learning to more-than-propositional languages. Symbolic learning is the set of techniques and methods that allow one to **learn** from data to produce a **logical** model.

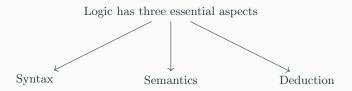
Modal symbolic learning is the generalization of symbolic learning to more-than-propositional languages. Symbolic learning is the set of techniques and methods that allow one to learn from data to produce a logical model. Logical models are logical formulas, and they describe the data from which they have been learned; they are, in fact, a theory of the underlying phenomenon. It has been known for decades that different phenomena need different logics to be described;

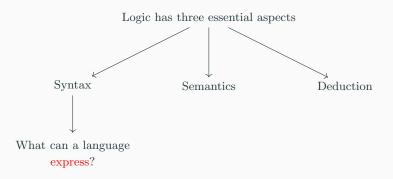
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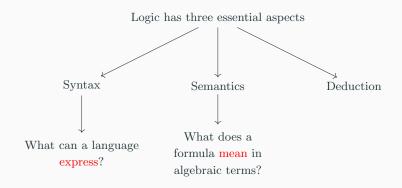
Logic has three essential aspects

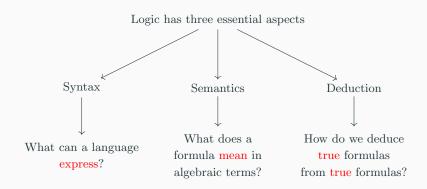


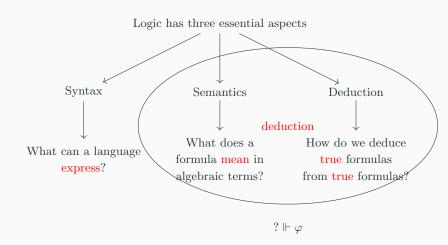


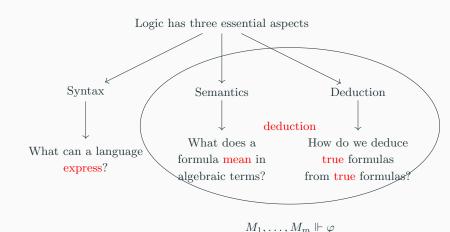


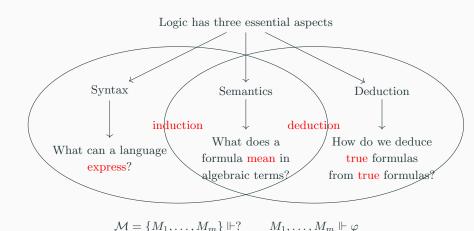


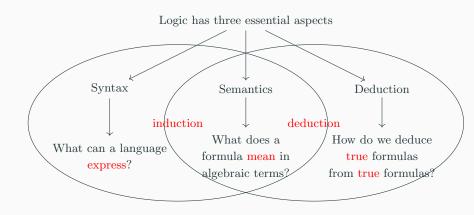




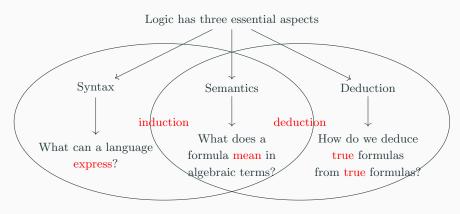






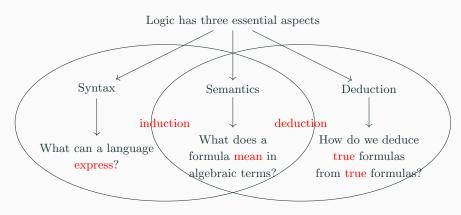


 $\mathcal{M} = \{M_1, \dots, M_m\} \Vdash \varphi \qquad M_1, \dots, M_m \Vdash \varphi$



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$$M? \varphi$$



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$$M \Vdash \varphi$$

Propositional Logic:	: Quick and Dirty
	<u> </u>

Propositional Logic: Syntax – 1

$$\varphi ::= p \mid \neg \varphi \mid \varphi \vee \varphi$$

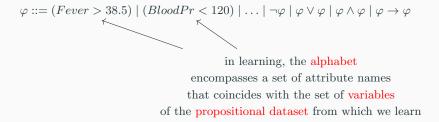
Propositional Logic: Syntax – 1

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in learning, atoms usually belong to a deeper theory that allows, at least, comparing variables with constants hereafter, $\bowtie \in \{<, \leq, =, \geq, >\}$

$$\varphi ::= (A \bowtie v) \mid \neg \varphi \mid \varphi \vee \varphi \mid \varphi \wedge \varphi \mid \varphi \rightarrow \varphi$$

in learning, we prefer non-minimal grammars, that enhance the learning phase at the expenses of the minimality



$$\varphi ::= (A \bowtie v) \mid \neg \varphi \mid \varphi \vee \varphi \mid \varphi \wedge \varphi \mid \varphi \rightarrow \varphi$$

How do we express. . . ?

$$\varphi ::= (A \bowtie v) \mid \neg \varphi \mid \varphi \vee \varphi \mid \varphi \wedge \varphi \mid \varphi \rightarrow \varphi$$

How do we express...?

Fever is higher than 38 and Blood pressure is lower than 120

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 $Fever > 38 \land BloodPr < 120$

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Fever is higher than 38 implies Blood pressure is lower than 120

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 $Fever > 38 \land BloodPr < 120$

Fever is higher than 38 implies Blood pressure is lower than 120

 $Fever > 38 \rightarrow BloodPr < 120$

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How do we express...?

Fever is higher than 38 and Blood pressure is lower than 120

 $Fever > 38 \land BloodPr < 120$

Fever is higher than 38 implies Blood pressure is lower than 120

 $Fever > 38 \rightarrow BloodPr < 120$

Fever is higher than 38 and Blood pressure is lower than 120 or higher than 145

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Fever is higher than 38 and Blood pressure is lower than 120 or higher than 145

$$Fever > 38 \land \\ (BloodPr < 120 \lor BloodPr > 145) \\ _{8/115}$$

Definition

Given a set of n names of attributes $A = \{A_1 \dots A_n\}$, such that each attribute A_i is associated to a finite domain $dom(A_i) \subset \mathbb{R}$, the set of well-formed propositional (learning) formulas is obtained by the grammar

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Here and in the rest of this notes, we use propositional letters (p, q, ...) and atoms $(A_1 \bowtie v_1, A_2 \bowtie v_2, ...)$ interchangeably. We have to remember that from an inductive point of view, this is trivial; however, from a deductive one, the difference is substantial.

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Now, we need to specify how to formally interpret propositional formulas in this setting.

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$$\begin{split} I &\models p & \text{iff} \quad \text{p is true in } I \\ I &\models \neg \varphi & \text{iff} \quad I \not\models \varphi \\ I &\models \varphi \lor \psi & \text{iff} \quad I \models \varphi \text{ or } I \models \psi \end{split}$$

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For example

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$$I_1: Fever = 38, BloodPr = 120\\$$

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For example

$$I_1: Fever = 38, BloodPr = 120$$

satisfies

Fever > 37.5

$$\varphi ::= (A \bowtie v) \mid \neg \varphi \mid \varphi \vee \varphi \mid \varphi \wedge \varphi \mid \varphi \rightarrow \varphi$$

For example

 $I_1: Fever = 38, BloodPr = 120$

 ${\rm satisfies}$

Fever > 37.5

 $I_2: Fever = 37, BloodPr = 110 \\$

$$\varphi ::= (A \bowtie v) \mid \neg \varphi \mid \varphi \vee \varphi \mid \varphi \wedge \varphi \mid \varphi \to \varphi$$

For example

 $I_1: Fever = 38, BloodPr = 120$ satisfies Fever > 37.5

 $I_2: Fever = 37, BloodPr = 110$ satisfies (BloodPr > 100)

$$\varphi ::= (A \bowtie v) \mid \neg \varphi \mid \varphi \vee \varphi \mid \varphi \wedge \varphi \mid \varphi \to \varphi$$

For example

 $I_1: Fever = 38, BloodPr = 120$ satisfies

tisfies Fever > 37.5

 $I_2: Fever = 37, BloodPr = 110$

satisfies $\frac{\neg(Fever > 37.5) \land}{(BloodPr > 100)}$

 $I_3: Fever = 39, BloodPr = 130$

$$\varphi ::= (A \bowtie v) \mid \neg \varphi \mid \varphi \vee \varphi \mid \varphi \wedge \varphi \mid \varphi \to \varphi$$

For example

$I_1: Fever = 38, BloodPr = 120$	satisfies	Fever > 37.5
$I_2: Fever = 37, BloodPr = 110$	satisfies	$\neg (Fever > 37.5) \land (BloodPr > 100)$
$I_3: Fever = 39, BloodPr = 130$	satisfies	$Fever > 37.5 \land \\ (BloodPr < 140)$

Definition

Given a set $A = \{A_1, ..., A_n\}$ of attributes, a propositional interpretation I is a function set of pairs

$$I:\mathcal{A} \to \mathbb{R}$$

A propositional interpretation I naturally induces the truth relation for a propositional formula φ , denoted $I \models \varphi$, obtained by applying the rules

$$\begin{split} I &\models (A \bowtie v) & \textit{iff} \quad A \bowtie v \; \textit{in} \; I \\ I &\models \neg \varphi & \textit{iff} \quad I \not\models \varphi \\ I &\models \varphi \lor \psi & \textit{iff} \quad I \models \varphi \; \textit{or} \; I \models \psi \\ I &\models \varphi \land \psi & \textit{iff} \quad I \models \varphi \; \textit{and} \; I \models \psi \\ I &\models \varphi \to \psi & \textit{iff} \quad I \not\models \varphi \; \textit{or} \; I \models \psi \end{split}$$

When $I \models \varphi$ we say that I satisfies φ . An interpretation that satisfies a formula is said to be a model of that formula.

	A_1	A_2	A_3	A_4
$\overline{I_1}$	5	7	10	2
I_2	3	7	12	2
I_3	10	3	6	3
I_4	9	3	1	7
I_5	12	4	6	9

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$$I_1 \models (A_1 > 4) \land (A_3 < 7)$$

	A_1	A_2	A_3	A_4
I_1	5	7	10	2
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	A_1	A_2	A_3	A_4
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I_3	10	3	6	3
I_4	9	3	1	7
I_5	12	4	6	9

$$I_3 \not\models (A_1 > 4) \land (A_2 < 5) \land (A_3 > 7)$$

	A_1	A_2	A_3	A_4
I_1	5	7	10	2
I_2	3	7	12	2
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I_5	12	4	6	9

$$I_5 \models (A_3 = 1) \land (A_4 \ge 2)$$

Propositional Logic for Learning: Summary

Propositional logic expresses propositional knowledge. A single interpretation is a fact about the universe we want to learn from, and it establishes a static situation (e.g., the fever is higher than 38).

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Propositional Logic for Learning: Summary

Propositional logic expresses propositional knowledge. A single interpretation is a fact about the universe we want to learn from, and it establishes a static situation (e.g., the fever is higher than 38). Propositional symbolic learning deals with algorithms and methods that learn from sets of propositional instances. The object of learning is both a propositional language (i.e., which are the most important atomic propositions?) and formulas (i.e., how do they combine to express the concept we want to learn?). Now, we move our attention on a very general way to express dynamic situations, in order to generalize learning to algorithms and methods that learn from sets of them.

Basic Modal Logic: Quicker and Dirtier

Modal logic generalizes propositional logic by extending its syntax and semantics.

 $Modal\ logic,$ Blackburn, De Rijke and Venema, 2001.

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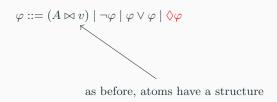
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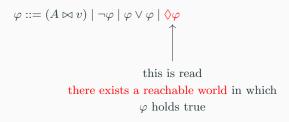
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Modal logic generalizes propositional logic by extending its syntax and semantics. In the Kripke semantics, propositions are relativized to worlds, which in turn are connected by relations. So asserting p does not mean p is true anymore; instead, it means p is true in the current world. New symbols are introduced to allow one to express facts about other worlds and, essentially, to move the focus of the discourse to other worlds. The apparent abstractness of this setting is due to its generality; modal logic is, in fact, a prototype for many languages, in which the concept of world and the concept of relation(s) between worlds become concrete and useful to describe practical situations.

Modal logic, Blackburn, De Rijke and Venema, 2001.

$$\varphi ::= p \mid \neg \varphi \mid \varphi \vee \varphi \mid \textcolor{red}{\lozenge \varphi}$$





$$\varphi ::= (A \bowtie v) \mid \neg \varphi \mid \varphi \vee \varphi \mid \Diamond \varphi \mid \Box \varphi$$
 this is read for every reachable world
$$\varphi \text{ holds true, and it is}$$
 definable in the original language
$$\Box \varphi \equiv \neg \Diamond \neg \varphi$$

$$\varphi ::= (A \bowtie v) \mid \neg \varphi \mid \varphi \vee \varphi \mid \varphi \wedge \varphi \mid \varphi \rightarrow \varphi \mid \Diamond \varphi \mid \Box \varphi$$

as before we use a non-minimal gramamr for formulas in order to ease the learning phase

$$\varphi ::= (A \bowtie v) \mid \neg \varphi \mid \varphi \vee \varphi \mid \varphi \wedge \varphi \mid \varphi \rightarrow \varphi \mid \Diamond \varphi \mid \Box \varphi$$

How do we express...?

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How do we express...?

Fever is higher than 38 in the current world

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Fever>38

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How do we express...?

Fever is higher than 38 in the current world

Fever>38

There is a reachable world in which the fever is higher than 38

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How do we express...?

Fever is higher than 38 in the current world

Fever>38

There is a reachable world in which the fever is higher than 38

 $\Diamond(Fever > 38)$

$$\varphi ::= (A \bowtie v) \mid \neg \varphi \mid \varphi \vee \varphi \mid \varphi \wedge \varphi \mid \varphi \rightarrow \varphi \mid \Diamond \varphi \mid \Box \varphi$$

How do we express...?

Fever is higher than 38 in the current world

Fever > 38

There is a reachable world in which the fever is higher than 38

 $\Diamond(Fever > 38)$

For every reachable world there exists a reachable world in which the fever is higher than 38

$$\varphi ::= (A \bowtie v) \mid \neg \varphi \mid \varphi \vee \varphi \mid \varphi \wedge \varphi \mid \varphi \rightarrow \varphi \mid \Diamond \varphi \mid \Box \varphi$$

How do we express...?

Fever is higher than 38 in the current world

Fever > 38

There is a reachable world in which the fever is higher than 38

 $\Diamond(Fever > 38)$

For every reachable world there exists a reachable world in which the fever is higher than 38

 $\Box \Diamond (Fever > 38)$

Definition

Given a set of n names of attributes $A = \{A_1 ... A_n\}$, such that each attribute A_i is associated to a finite domain $dom(A_i) \subset \mathbb{R}$, the set of well-formed modal (learning) formulas is obtained by the grammar

$$\varphi ::= (A \bowtie v) \mid \neg \varphi \mid \varphi \vee \varphi \mid \varphi \wedge \varphi \mid \varphi \rightarrow \varphi \mid \Diamond \varphi \mid \Box \varphi$$

where $A \in \mathcal{A}$, $v \in dom(A)$, and $\bowtie \in \{<, \leq, =, \geq, >\}$.

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The so-called Kripke semantics formalizes the interpretation of a modal logic formula onto a directed graph.

$$\varphi ::= (A \bowtie v) \mid \neg \varphi \mid \varphi \vee \varphi \mid \varphi \wedge \varphi \mid \varphi \rightarrow \varphi \mid \Diamond \varphi \mid \Box \varphi$$

$$\varphi := (A \bowtie v) \mid \neg \varphi \mid \varphi \vee \varphi \mid \varphi \wedge \varphi \mid \varphi \rightarrow \varphi \mid \Diamond \varphi \mid \Box \varphi$$

$$I :$$

$$w_1 : \begin{array}{c} A_1 = 2 & A_3 = 1 \\ A_2 = 5 & A_4 = 4 \end{array} \longrightarrow w_3 : \begin{array}{c} A_1 = 3 & A_3 = 6 \\ A_2 = 1 & A_4 = 2 \end{array}$$

$$w_0 : \begin{array}{c} A_1 = 3 & A_3 = 4 \\ A_2 = 1 & A_4 = 6 \end{array}$$

$$w_2 : \begin{array}{c} A_1 = 4 & A_3 = 2 \\ A_2 = 2 & A_4 = 5 \end{array}$$

$$\varphi ::= (A \bowtie v) \mid \neg \varphi \mid \varphi \lor \varphi \mid \varphi \land \varphi \mid \varphi \rightarrow \varphi \mid \Diamond \varphi \mid \Box \varphi$$

$$I:$$

$$w_1 : \begin{array}{c} A_1 = 2 & A_3 = 1 \\ A_2 = 5 & A_4 = 4 \end{array} \longrightarrow w_3 : \begin{array}{c} A_1 = 3 & A_3 = 6 \\ A_2 = 1 & A_4 = 2 \end{array}$$

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 $I, w_0 \Vdash A_1$ is higher than 1

$$\varphi ::= (A \bowtie v) \mid \neg \varphi \mid \varphi \vee \varphi \mid \varphi \wedge \varphi \mid \varphi \to \varphi \mid \Diamond \varphi \mid \Box \varphi$$

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 $I, w_0 \Vdash A_1 > 1$

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$$w_0 : \begin{array}{c} A_1 = 3 & A_3 = 4 \\ A_2 = 1 & A_4 = 6 \end{array}$$

$$w_2 : \begin{array}{c} A_1 = 4 & A_3 = 2 \\ A_2 = 2 & A_4 = 5 \end{array}$$

 $I, w_0 \Vdash$ there exists a world with A_1 is higher than 1

$$\varphi ::= (A \bowtie v) \mid \neg \varphi \mid \varphi \vee \varphi \mid \varphi \wedge \varphi \mid \varphi \rightarrow \varphi \mid \Diamond \varphi \mid \Box \varphi$$

$$I:$$

$$w_1 : \begin{array}{c} A_1 = 2 & A_3 = 1 \\ A_2 = 5 & A_4 = 4 \end{array} \longrightarrow w_3 : \begin{array}{c} A_1 = 3 & A_3 = 6 \\ A_2 = 1 & A_4 = 2 \end{array}$$

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$$w_2 : \begin{array}{c} A_1 = 4 & A_3 = 2 \\ A_2 = 2 & A_4 = 5 \end{array}$$

 $I, w_0 \Vdash \Diamond (A_1 > 1)$

$$\varphi ::= (A \bowtie v) \mid \neg \varphi \mid \varphi \vee \varphi \mid \varphi \wedge \varphi \mid \varphi \rightarrow \varphi \mid \Diamond \varphi \mid \Box \varphi$$

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$$w_2 : \begin{array}{c} A_1 = 4 & A_3 = 2 \\ A_2 = 2 & A_4 = 5 \end{array}$$

 $I, w_0 \Vdash$ for every world, every reachable world has A_2 less than 3

$$\varphi ::= (A \bowtie v) \mid \neg \varphi \mid \varphi \vee \varphi \mid \varphi \wedge \varphi \mid \varphi \rightarrow \varphi \mid \Diamond \varphi \mid \Box \varphi$$

$$I:$$

$$w_1 : \begin{array}{c} A_1 = 2 & A_3 = 1 \\ A_2 = 5 & A_4 = 4 \end{array} \longrightarrow w_3 : \begin{array}{c} A_1 = 3 & A_3 = 6 \\ A_2 = 1 & A_4 = 2 \end{array}$$

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$$I, w_0 \Vdash \Box \Box (A_2 < 3)$$

Definition

Given a set $A = \{A_1, \ldots, A_n\}$ of attributes, a modal interpretation I is a directed graph I = (W, R), where W is a set of worlds and $R \subseteq W \times W$; each world $w \in W$, in turn, is a function

$$w: \mathcal{A} \to \mathbb{R}$$
.

A modal interpretation I and a world w in it naturally induce the truth relation for a modal formula φ , denoted $I, w \Vdash \varphi$, obtained by applying the rules

$$\begin{array}{llll} I,w \Vdash (A \bowtie v) & \textit{iff} & w(A) \bowtie v \\ I,w \Vdash \neg \varphi & \textit{iff} & I,w \not\Vdash \varphi \\ I,w \Vdash \varphi \lor \psi & \textit{iff} & I,w \Vdash \varphi \ \textit{or} \ I \vdash \psi \\ I,w \Vdash \varphi \land \psi & \textit{iff} & I,w \Vdash \varphi \ \textit{and} \ I \vdash \psi \\ I,w \Vdash \varphi \to \psi & \textit{iff} & I,w \not\Vdash \varphi \ \textit{or} \ I \vdash \psi \\ I,w \vdash \Diamond \varphi & \textit{iff} & \textit{there is } w' \ \textit{s.t. } wRw' \ \textit{and} \ I,w' \vdash \varphi \\ I,w \vdash \Box \varphi & \textit{iff} & \textit{for every } w' \ \textit{s.t. } wRw' \ \textit{it happens} \ I,w' \vdash \varphi \end{array}$$

Again, if $I, w \Vdash \varphi$, then I satisfies φ at w, and I is a model of φ .

Since modal logic is more complex than propositional one a few observations are in order

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 $\Box \bot, \Box p$

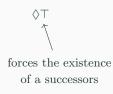
Since modal logic is more complex than propositional one a few observations are in order

 $\Box \bot, \Box p$ are true on every world with no successors

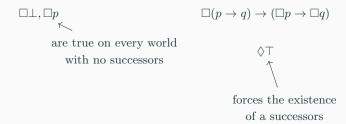
Since modal logic is more complex than propositional one a few observations are in order



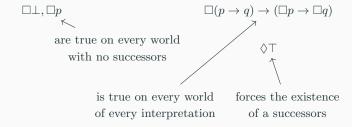
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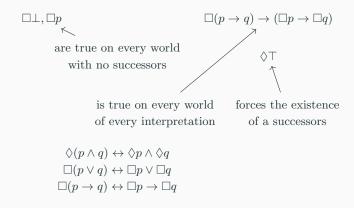


Since modal logic is more complex than propositional one a few observations are in order



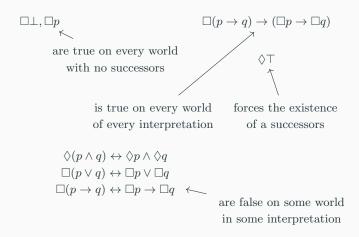
Basic Modal Logic: Semantics – 3

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Basic Modal Logic: Semantics – 3

Since modal logic is more complex than propositional one a few observations are in order



Is it true that

 $I, w_0 \Vdash \Box (A_1 > 6 \rightarrow \Diamond (A_4 > 3))$?

 $I, w_0 \Vdash \Box (A_1 > 6 \rightarrow \Diamond (A_4 > 3))$? Yes

20/115

$$w_1: A_1 = 3 \rightarrow w_3: A_1 = 4$$
 $I_1: w_0: A_1 = 2$
 $w_2: A_1 = 1$
 $w_1: A_1 = 4 \rightarrow w_3: A_1 = 1$
 $I_2: w_0: A_1 = 3$
 $w_2: A_1 = 2$
 $w_1: A_1 = 1 \rightarrow w_3: A_1 = 2$
 $I_3: w_0: A_1 = 4$
 $w_2: A_1 = 5$
 $w_1: A_1 = 2 \rightarrow w_3: A_1 = 3$
 $I_4: w_0: A_1 = 2$
 $w_2: A_1 = 3$

$$w_1: A_1 = 3 \rightarrow w_3: A_1 = 4$$
 $I_1: w_0: A_1 = 2$
 $w_2: A_1 = 1$
 $w_1: A_1 = 4 \rightarrow w_3: A_1 = 1$
 $I_2: w_0: A_1 = 3$
 $w_2: A_1 = 2$
 $w_1: A_1 = 1 \rightarrow w_3: A_1 = 2$
 $I_1, w_0 \Vdash \Box\Box(A_1 > 3)$
 $I_3: w_0: A_1 = 4$
 $w_2: A_1 = 5$
 $w_1: A_1 = 2 \rightarrow w_3: A_1 = 3$
 $I_4: w_0: A_1 = 2$
 $w_2: A_1 = 3$

$$w_1: A_1 = 3 + w_3: A_1 = 4$$
 $I_1: w_0: A_1 = 2$
 $w_2: A_1 = 1$
 $w_1: A_1 = 4 + w_3: A_1 = 1$
 $I_2: w_0: A_1 = 3$
 $w_2: A_1 = 2$
 $w_1: A_1 = 1 + w_3: A_1 = 2$
 $I_2, w_3 \Vdash \Box(A_1 < 4)$
 $I_3: w_0: A_1 = 4$
 $w_2: A_1 = 5$
 $w_1: A_1 = 2 + w_3: A_1 = 3$
 $I_4: w_0: A_1 = 2$
 $w_2: A_1 = 3$

$$w_1: A_1 = 3 \rightarrow w_3: A_1 = 4$$
 $I_1: w_0: A_1 = 2$
 $w_2: A_1 = 1$
 $w_1: A_1 = 4 \rightarrow w_3: A_1 = 1$
 $I_2: w_0: A_1 = 3$
 $w_2: A_1 = 2$
 $w_1: A_1 = 1 \rightarrow w_3: A_1 = 2$
 $I_3: w_0: A_1 = 4$
 $w_2: A_1 = 5$
 $w_1: A_1 = 2 \rightarrow w_3: A_1 = 3$
 $I_4: w_0: A_1 = 2$
 $w_2: A_1 = 3$

Basic Modal Logic for Learning: Summary

Now we know how to formalize the idea that the knowledge we want to express is dynamic. In order to keep things general enough, we did not established what a Kripke graph represents.

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Basic Modal Logic for Learning: Summary

Now we know how to formalize the idea that the knowledge we want to express is dynamic. In order to keep things general enough, we did not established what a Kripke graph represents. This problem will be considered in the next lesson, when we shall concretize basic modal logic into more useful languages that represent practical situations. It is important, however, to understand that most of the important properties emerge already at the level of the basic language, which is why we focus on it at first.

Modal Logic for Learning: Addendum

Modal logic can be multi-modal. In multi-modal logic there is a set of diamonds $\langle R_1 \rangle, \langle R_2 \rangle, \ldots$, associated to a set of relations R_1, R_2, \ldots Multi-modal logics are interpreted on multi-graphs, in which worlds are connected by more than one relation.

Modal Logic for Learning: Addendum

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Practice!

Symbolic knowledge manipulation with SoleLogics.jl

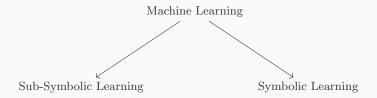
- Manipulating formulas (composing, parsing, generating);
- Checking modal and propositional formulas on models;
- Using formulas for representing and checking symbolic knowledge.

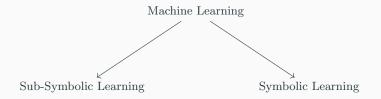
Notebook
Day1-symbolic-knowledge.ipynb

Basic Symbolic Learning with Decision Trees

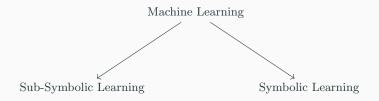
Modern AI

Machine Learning



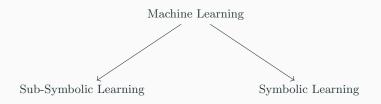


Regression



Linear regression Logistic regression SVN Neural networks

. . .

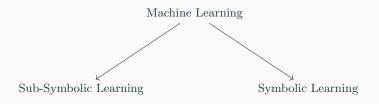


Linear regression
Logistic regression
SVN

Neural networks

. . .

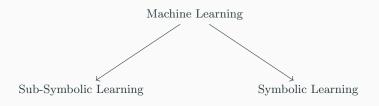
Rule-based systems



 $\begin{array}{c} {\rm Linear\ regression} \\ {\rm Logistic\ regression} \\ {\rm SVN} \\ {\rm Neural\ networks} \end{array}$

. . .

Rule-based learning Tree-based learning



Linear regression Logistic regression SVN Neural networks

. . .

Rule-based systems

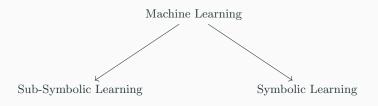
Decision trees

Random forests

Boosted trees

Association rules

. . .



Linear regression Logistic regression SVN Neural networks

. . .

Rule-based systems

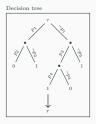
Decision trees

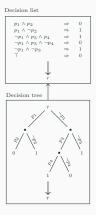
Random forests

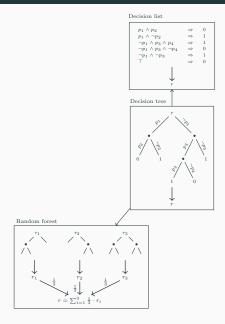
Boosted trees

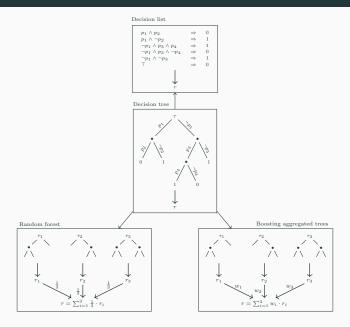
Association rules

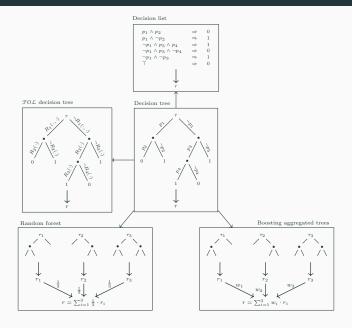
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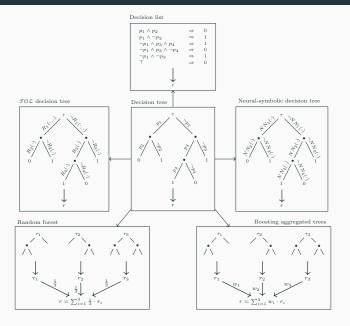






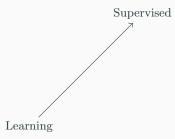


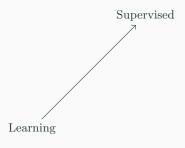




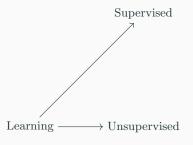
Types of Learning

Learning

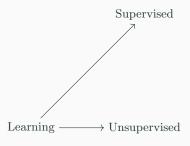




When datasets are labeled

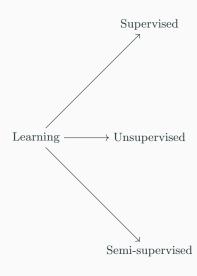


When datasets are labeled



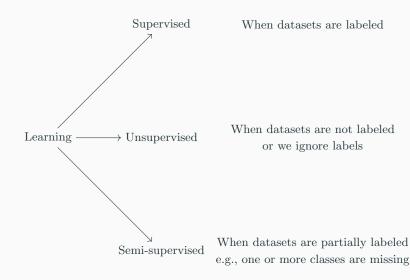
When datasets are labeled

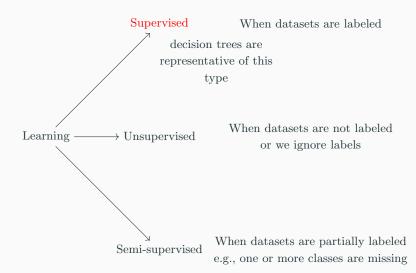
When datasets are not labeled or we ignore labels



When datasets are labeled

When datasets are not labeled or we ignore labels





Tabular/Propositional Dataset

Definition

Given a set $A = \{A_1, ..., A_n\}$ of attributes/variables, a tabular instance I is a function

$$I:\mathcal{A}\to\mathbb{R}$$

A tabular dataset, or propositional dataset is a set $\mathcal{I} = \{I_1, \ldots, I_m\}$ of tabular instances. A tabular dataset is labelled if and only if each instance is associated to a unique class or label from a set $\mathcal{L} = \{L_1, \ldots, L_k\}$.

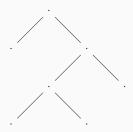
Given a labelled dataset \mathcal{I} , the classification problem is the problem of devising an algorithm that correctly classifies the instances of a dataset \mathcal{I} drawn from the same distribution as \mathcal{I} .

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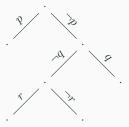
Given a labelled dataset \mathcal{I} , the classification problem is the problem of devising an algorithm that correctly classifies the instances of a dataset \mathcal{J} drawn from the same distribution as \mathcal{I} . We say that the classifier has been learned from \mathcal{I} (and tested on \mathcal{J}). The learning theory, orthogonal to the symbolic or sub-symbolic setting, offers a set of techniques to establish the quality of a classifier.

Given a labelled dataset \mathcal{I} , the classification problem is the problem of devising an algorithm that correctly classifies the instances of a dataset \mathcal{I} drawn from the same distribution as \mathcal{I} . We say that the classifier has been learned from \mathcal{I} (and tested on \mathcal{I}). The learning theory, orthogonal to the symbolic or sub-symbolic setting, offers a set of techniques to establish the quality of a classifier. Typical classification problems assume non-numerical classes; numerical classes are associated to regression problems but classification and regression can be dealt with in similar ways.

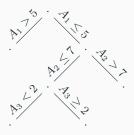
Here we focus on non-numerical symbolic classification via decision trees.



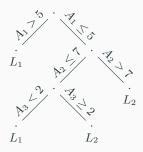
A propositional decision tree is a tree-shaped object



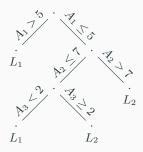
A propositional decision tree is a tree-shaped object in which edges are propositional letters called decisions



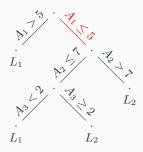
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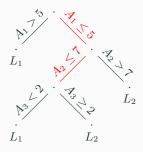
A propositional decision tree is a tree-shaped object in which edges are propostional atoms called decisions and leaves are classes



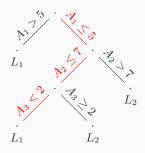
A tabular instance I is classified by a decision tree by examining each decision progressively



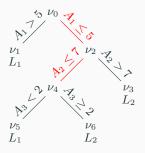
A tabular instance I is classified by a decision tree by examining each decision progressively thus building a propositional formula: $(A_1 \le 5)$



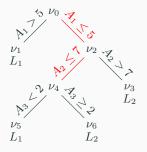
A tabular instance I is classified by a decision tree by examining each decision progressively thus building a propositional formula: $(A_1 \leq 5) \land (A_2 \leq 7)$



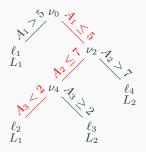
A tabular instance I is classified by a decision tree by examining each decision progressively thus building a propositional formula: $(A_1 \leq 5) \land (A_2 \leq 7) \land (A_3 > 2) \Rightarrow L_2$



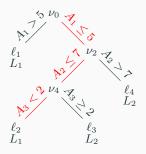
An object such as $\nu_0 \leadsto \nu_4$ is called a path



An object such as $\nu_0 \leadsto \nu_4$ is called a path and it is associated to a path-formula; in this example $\varphi_{\nu_0 \leadsto \nu_4} = (A_1 \le 5) \land (A_2 \le 7)$



An object such as $\nu_0 \leadsto \ell_2$ is called a branch



An object such as $\nu_0 \leadsto \ell_2$ is called a branch and it is associated to a branch-formula; in this example $\varphi_{\nu_0 \leadsto \ell_2} = (A_1 \le 5) \land (A_2 \le 7) \land (A_2 \le 2)$

Let $\tau = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$ be a full directed binary tree. We denote by \mathcal{V}^{ℓ} the set of its leaves, by \mathcal{V}^{ℓ} the set of its internal nodes (i.e., non-root and non-leaf nodes), and by $\rho(\tau)$ its root.

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Let $\tau = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$ be a full directed binary tree. We denote by \mathcal{V}^{ℓ} the set of its leaves, by \mathcal{V}^{ι} the set of its internal nodes (i.e., non-root and non-leaf nodes), and by $\rho(\tau)$ its root. Each non-leaf node ν left (resp. right) child $\mathcal{L}(\nu)$ (resp., $\mathcal{L}(\nu)$), and each non-root node ν has a parent $\mathfrak{Z}(\nu)$. For a node ν , the set of its ancestors (ν included) is denoted by $\xi^*(\nu)$, where ξ^* is the transitive and reflexive closure of \mathfrak{z} ; we also define $\mathfrak{z}^+(\nu) = \mathfrak{z}^*(\nu) \setminus \{\nu\}$, and we say that if $\nu' \in \mathfrak{z}^*(\nu)$, then ν is a descendant of ν' . Moreover, given a tree τ , a path $\pi = \nu_0 \rightsquigarrow \nu_h (\pi^{\tau})$ between two nodes ν_0 and ν_h is a finite sequence of h+1 nodes such that $\nu_i=\xi(\nu_{i+1})$, for each $i=0,\ldots,h-1$. We denote by $\pi_1 \cdot \pi_2$ the operation of appending the path π_2 to path π_1 . We also say that a path $\nu_0 \cdot \nu_1 \rightsquigarrow \nu_h$ is left (resp., right) if $\nu_1 = \mathcal{L}(\nu_0)$ (resp., $\nu_1 = \langle \nu_1 \rangle$. For a node ν , π_{ν} denotes the unique path $\rho(\tau) \rightsquigarrow \nu$. A branch is a path π_{ℓ} , for some ℓ . Finally, given two paths π_1, π_2 , we denote by $\pi_1 \sqsubseteq \pi_2$ the fact that π_1 is a, not necessarily proper, prefix of π_2 .

Definition

Let \mathcal{L} be a set of classes and \mathcal{P} a finite set of propositional letters, and define the set of propositional decisions as

$$\Lambda = \{ p, \neg p \mid p \in \mathcal{P} \}.$$

Then, a propositional decision tree (over \mathcal{L}) is a tuple

$$\tau = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, l, e),$$

where $(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$ is a full binary directed tree, $l: \mathcal{V}^{\ell} \to \mathcal{L}$ is a leaf-labelling function that assigns a class from \mathcal{L} to each leaf node in \mathcal{V}^{ℓ} , and $e: \mathcal{E} \to \Lambda$ is an edge-labelling function that assigns a propositional decision from Λ to each edge in \mathcal{E} , such that $e(\nu, \mathcal{E}(\nu)) \equiv \neg e(\nu, \mathcal{E}(\nu))$ for all non-leaf nodes ν . The family of propositional decision trees is denoted by \mathcal{DT} .

A decision tree is independent from the dataset from which it is learned. Thus it can be defined by fixing a set of abstract propositional letters that we call decisions.

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Definition

For a path $\pi = \nu_0 \leadsto \nu_h$ in a propositional decision tree τ , the path-formula φ_{π} is defined as

$$\varphi_{\pi} = \bigwedge_{0 \le i \le h} e(\nu_i, \nu_{i+1}).$$

Similarly, for a leaf ℓ the leaf-formula φ_{ℓ} is defined as

$$\varphi_{\ell} = \varphi_{\pi_{\ell}}.$$

Finally, for a class $L \in \mathcal{L}$ the class-formula φ_L is defined as

$$\varphi_L = \bigvee_{\{\ell \in \mathcal{V}^\ell | l(\ell) = L\}} \varphi_{\pi_\ell}.$$

Definition

Given a propositional decision tree τ , a node $\nu \in \tau$, a tabular dataset \mathcal{I} , and an instance \Im in \mathcal{I} , the run of τ on \Im from ν , denoted by $\tau(\Im, \nu)$, is defined as follows:

$$\tau(\mathfrak{I},\nu) = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} l(\nu) & \text{if } \nu \in \mathcal{V}^{\ell}; \\ \tau(\mathfrak{I}, \checkmark(\nu)) & \text{if } \mathfrak{I} \models e(\nu, \checkmark(\nu)); \\ \tau(\mathfrak{I}, \searrow(\nu)) & \text{if } \mathfrak{I} \models e(\nu, \searrow(\nu)). \end{array} \right.$$

The run $\tau(\mathfrak{I})$ of \mathfrak{I} on τ is simply $\tau(\mathfrak{I}, \rho(\tau))$. Moreover, \mathfrak{I} is classified into $L \in \mathcal{L}$ by τ if and only if $\tau(\mathfrak{I}) = L$.

Definition

A decision tree τ is said to be optimal for a labelled structured dataset \mathcal{I} if

$$\tau(\mathfrak{I}) = \mathcal{L}(\mathfrak{I})$$

for every instance $\mathfrak{I} \in \mathcal{I}$.

Definition

A family of decision trees is correct if and only if every tree classifies every instance of any labelled structured dataset into exactly one class. Furthermore, it is complete if and only if it contains an optimal decision tree for every labelled structured dataset. Finally, it is efficient if and only if there exists a polynomial-time algorithm that, given a labelled structured dataset, learns an optimal decision tree for it.

Propositional Decision Trees: Intuition – 1

Propositional decision trees are correct by definition of run: as edges are always opposite to each other, an instance can only be classified in a single way. They are also complete because every class in a propositional dataset can be captured by a propositional formula; in turn, every propositional formula can be expressed as a DNF, and every DNF corresponds to a propositional decision tree. How to prove that they are also efficient?

Propositional Decision Trees: Intuition – 2

It should be noticed that, in our context, optimal decision trees are not necessarily minimal. It is well-known that learning a minimal optimal decision tree is a NP-hard problem. The idea underlying optimality is observing that a decision tree has the ability to capture every propositionally-defined class. Learning a decision tree is an efficient, statistical process that aims at obtaining statistically well-behaved, although non-optimal, decision trees from a dataset; the fact that we can trivially modify such a learning algorithm to obtain an optimal (but not minimally so) tree is the important aspect that the concept of efficiency intends to highlight.

Propositional Decision Trees: Learning – 1

The most typical approach to decision tree learning schema is simple. At the beginning, the root is associated with the entire labelled dataset \mathcal{I} ; then, we recursively partition (or, in decision tree terms, split) \mathcal{I} into subsets $\mathcal{I}_1, \mathcal{I}_2, \ldots$, that contain progressively more similar intra-node classes and less similar inter-node classes at any given level of the tree, in such a way that the quantity of information (e.g., the entropy) carried by each (dataset associated to a) node decreases.

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Propositional Decision Trees: Learning – 2

Algorithms based on this idea are generally called information-based algorithms, the most influential being CART. Despite having been introduced in the seventies, recent results show that its performances are still superior to those of more recent proposals. Their polynomial complexity (irrespective of the stopping criteria) is also based on assuming that the number n of attributes is fixed a priori, irrespective from the number m of instances.

Propositional Decision Trees: Learning, Formally – 1

Definition

Let $\tau = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, l, e)$ be a propositional decision tree, ν a node of τ , and \mathcal{I} a labelled dataset. Then, the ν -dataset is defined as

$$\mathcal{I}_{\nu} = \{ \mathfrak{I} \in \mathcal{I} \mid \mathfrak{I} \Vdash \bigwedge_{\nu' \in \pi_{\nu}} \varphi_{\pi_{\nu'}} \}.$$

Definition

Let $\tau = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, l, e)$ be a propositional decision tree, \mathcal{I} a labelled dataset, ν a non-leaf node of τ . Then, the (binary) split of \mathcal{I}_{ν} is the pair defined as

$$(\mathcal{I}_{\mathbf{p}^{\mathbf{r}}(\nu)},\mathcal{I}_{\mathbf{k}_{\mathbf{k}}(\nu)}).$$

Propositional Decision Trees: Learning, Formally – 2

Definition

Let $\tau = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, l, e)$ be a modal decision tree, \mathcal{I} a labelled modal dataset, ν a non-leaf node of τ whose ν -dataset is defined, and $(\mathcal{I}_{\mathbf{x}^f(\nu)}, \mathcal{I}_{\neg_{\mathbf{x}}(\nu)})$ the split of \mathcal{I}_{ν} . The split information of \mathcal{I}_{ν} is defined as:

$$InfoSplit(\mathcal{I}_{\nu}) = \frac{|\mathcal{I}_{\chi^{\prime}(\nu)}|}{|\mathcal{I}_{\nu}|} \cdot Info(\mathcal{I}_{\chi^{\prime}(\nu)}) + \frac{|\mathcal{I}_{\searrow_{\chi}(\nu)}|}{|\mathcal{I}_{\nu}|} \cdot Info(\mathcal{I}_{\searrow_{\chi}(\nu)}).$$

Propositional Decision Trees: Learning, Formally – 3

The idea of the algorithm CART is simple. Let \mathcal{I} be a dataset with m instances. Then:

- If a stopping condition applies, then return;
- Find the best split $(\mathcal{I}_1, \mathcal{I}_2)$, and call CART recursively on \mathcal{I}_1 and \mathcal{I}_2 .

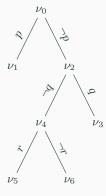
This process is polynomial and returns an optimal decision tree is the stopping conditions are precise.

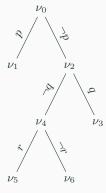
https://mlu-explain.github.io/decision-tree/

Propositional Decision Trees, Formally -6

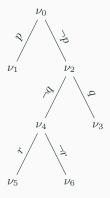
Theorem

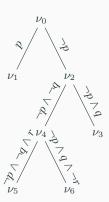
The family \mathcal{DT} of (pure) propositional decision trees is correct, complete, and efficient.

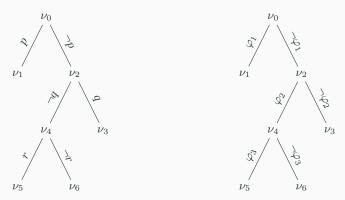




Path-formulas can be accumulated on the edges







We call this a pure decision tree

Pure Propositional Decision Trees, Formally – 1

Definition

Let \mathcal{L} be a set of classes and \mathcal{P} a finite set of propositional letters, and define the set Φ of conjunctions that can be built on it. Then, a pure propositional decision tree (over \mathcal{L}) is a tuple

$$\tau = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, l, e),$$

where $(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$ is a full binary directed tree, $l: \mathcal{V}^{\ell} \to \mathcal{L}$ is a leaf-labelling function that assigns a class from \mathcal{L} to each leaf node in \mathcal{V}^{ℓ} , and $e: \mathcal{E} \to \Phi$ is an edge-labelling function that assigns a propositional formula from Φ to each edge in \mathcal{E} , such that $e(\nu, \mathcal{F}(\nu)) \equiv \neg e(\nu, \mathcal{F}(\nu))$ for all non-leaf nodes ν .

Pure Propositional Decision Trees, Formally – 2

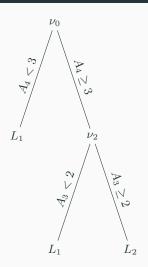
We use pure decision trees as we use non-pure ones; the concepts of optimal tree, correct, complete, and efficient family of trees transfer immediately. But non-pure decision trees allow one to see the detail of learning algorithms, and appreciate the ideas under locally optimal ones. Starting from non-pure decision trees, stepping to pure ones is trivial.

	A_1	A_2	A_3	A_4	label
I_1	5	7	10	2	L_1
I_2	3	7	12	2	L_1
I_3	10	3	6	3	L_2
I_4	9	3	1	7	L_1
I_5	12	4	6	9	L_2

	A_1	A_2	A_3	A_4	label
I_1	5	7	10	2	L_1
I_2	3	7	12	2	L_1
I_3	10	3	6	3	L_2
I_4	9	3	1	7	L_1
I_5	12	4	6	9	L_2

Draw an optimal decision tree for this tabular dataset

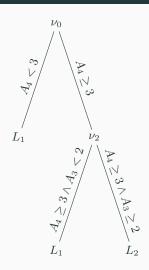
	A_1	A_2	A_3	A_4	label
I_1	5	7	10	2	L_1
I_2	3	7	12	2	L_1
I_3	10	3	6	3	L_2
I_4	9	3	1	7	L_1
I_5	12	4	6	9	L_2



	A_1	A_2	A_3	A_4	label
I_1	5	7	10	2	L_1
I_2	3	7	12	2	L_1
I_3	10	3	6	3	L_2
I_4	9	3	1	7	L_1
I_5	12	4	6	9	L_2

Draw the same tree in its pure version

	A_1	A_2	A_3	A_4	label
I_1	5	7	10	2	L_1
I_2	3	7	12	2	L_1
I_3	10	3	6	3	L_2
I_4	9	3	1	7	L_1
I_5	12	4	6	9	L_2



Day 2

Modal Decision Trees, Not So Quick

Modal symbolic learning is a framework that encompasses the generalization of symbolic learning ideas and tools to the modal level.

Decision Trees with a Modal Flavor, Proceedings of the 21st International Conference of the Italian Association for Artificial Intelligence (AIxIA), Della Monica et al., 2022.

Modal symbolic learning is a framework that encompasses the generalization of symbolic learning ideas and tools to the modal level. We shall define modal data as a way to interpret non-tabular data (which itself is a generalization of tabular data), and, then, the concept of modal learning will emerge naturally.

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Modal symbolic learning is a framework that encompasses the generalization of symbolic learning ideas and tools to the modal level. We shall define modal data as a way to interpret non-tabular data (which itself is a generalization of tabular data), and, then, the concept of modal learning will emerge naturally. Within it, we shall focus on modal symbolic classification (as a supervised problem) and, more in particular, on modal decision trees.

Decision Trees with a Modal Flavor, Proceedings of the 21st International Conference of the Italian Association for Artificial Intelligence (AIxIA), Della Monica et al., 2022.

Tabular data Instance: a set of real values



Tabular data Instance: a set of real values trivial interretation e.g.: $p = A \bowtie v$

 $\label{eq:Non-tabular} \mbox{Non-tabular data}$ Instance: a time series, an image, a graph, . . .



non-trivial intepretation obtained via a transformer that depends on the specific modal logic used

 $\label{eq:Non-tabular} \mbox{Non-tabular data}$ Instance: a time series, an image, a graph,...

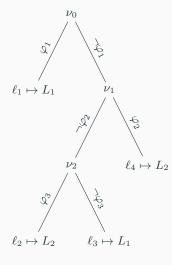
Modal Dataset

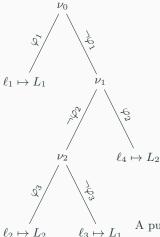
Definition

Given a set $A = \{A_1, \ldots, A_n\}$ of attributes, a modal instance I is a directed graph I = (W, R), where W is a set of worlds and $R \subseteq W \times W$; each world $w \in W$, in turn, is a function

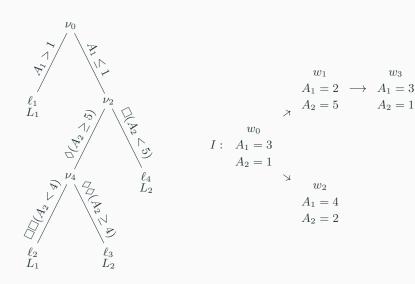
$$w: \mathcal{A} \to \mathbb{R}$$
.

A modal dataset is a set $\mathcal{I} = \{I_1, \dots, I_m\}$ of modal instances. A modal dataset is labelled if and only if each instance is associated to a unique class or label from a set $\mathcal{L} = \{L_1, \dots, L_k\}$.

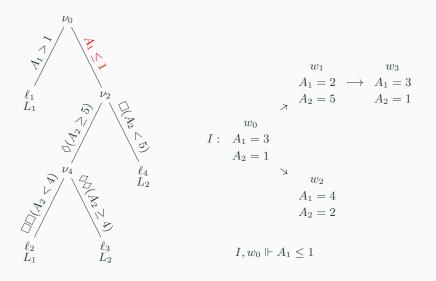


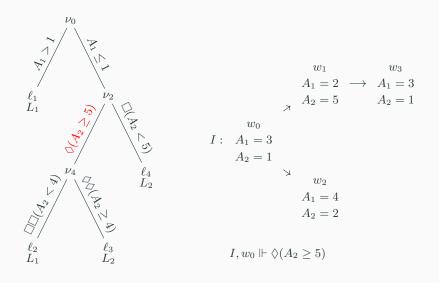


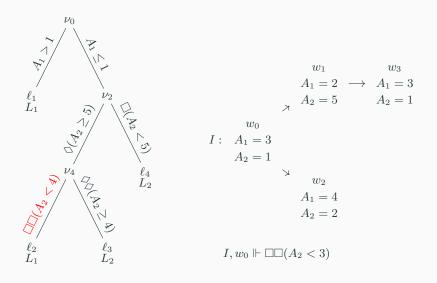
A pure modal decision tree is a tree-shaped object in which edges are labeled with modal formulas



 w_3







Pure Modal Decision Trees, Formally – 1

Definition

Let \mathcal{L} be a set of classes and \mathcal{P} a finite set of propositional letters, and define the set Φ of modal formulas from it. Then, a pure modal decision tree (over \mathcal{L}) is a tuple

$$\tau = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, l, e),$$

where $(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$ is a full binary directed tree, $l: \mathcal{V}^{\ell} \to \mathcal{L}$ is a leaf-labelling function that assigns a class from \mathcal{L} to each leaf node in \mathcal{V}^{ℓ} , and $e: \mathcal{E} \to \Phi$ is an edge-labelling function that assigns a propositional formula from Φ to each edge in \mathcal{E} , such that $e(\nu, \mathcal{I}(\nu)) \equiv \neg e(\nu, \neg(\nu))$ for all non-leaf nodes ν . The family of pure modal decision trees is denoted by \mathcal{MDT} .

Pure Modal Decision Trees, Formally – 2

Observe now that within pure modal decision trees, the concepts of correctness of a tree, and completeness and efficiency of a family of trees can be inherited from the propositional case as is.

Pure Modal Decision Trees, Formally – 2

Observe now that within pure modal decision trees, the concepts of correctness of a tree, and completeness and efficiency of a family of trees can be inherited from the propositional case as is. Unfortunately, an efficient learning algorithm for pure modal decision trees cannot be immediately designed. To this end, it is necessary to build a framework for (non-pure) modal decision trees, in which atomic elements (not necessarily atoms) decorate the edges in such a way that path- and branch-formulas can be iteratively built in such a way to guarantee the correctness of each single tree and the completeness of the family.

Pure Modal Decision Trees, Formally – 2

Observe now that within pure modal decision trees, the concepts of correctness of a tree, and completeness and efficiency of a family of trees can be inherited from the propositional case as is. Unfortunately, an efficient learning algorithm for pure modal decision trees cannot be immediately designed. To this end, it is necessary to build a framework for (non-pure) modal decision trees, in which atomic elements (not necessarily atoms) decorate the edges in such a way that path- and branch-formulas can be iteratively built in such a way to guarantee the correctness of each single tree and the completeness of the family.

In a sense, we proceed backwards: we know that we want to obtain pure modal decision trees, and we go back to defining non-pure ones with this aim.

Modal Decision Trees, Formally - 1

Definition

Let \mathcal{L} be a set of classes and \mathcal{P} a set of propositions, and define the set of modal decisions:

$$\Lambda = \{p, \neg p, | \ p \in \mathcal{P}\} \cup \{\top, \bot, \Diamond \top, \Box \bot\}.$$

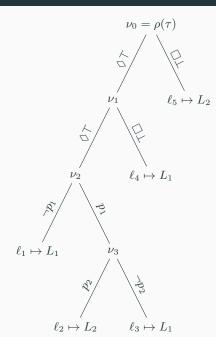
Then, a modal decision tree (over \mathcal{L}) is an object of the type:

$$\tau = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, l, e, b, f),$$

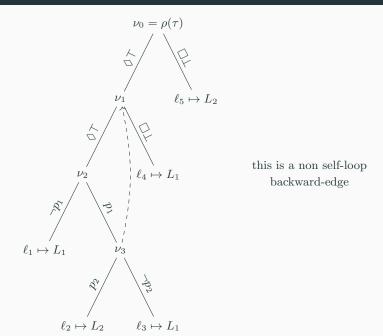
where $(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, l, e)$ is a propositional decision tree, $b: \mathcal{V}^{\iota} \to \mathcal{V}^{\iota}$ is a backward-edge function that links an internal node to one of its ancestors, and $f: \mathcal{V} \setminus \mathcal{V}^{\ell} \to \mathcal{V} \setminus \mathcal{V}^{\ell}$ is a forward-edge function that links a non-leaf node to one of its descendants, such that, for all $\nu, \nu' \nu'' \in \mathcal{V}$:

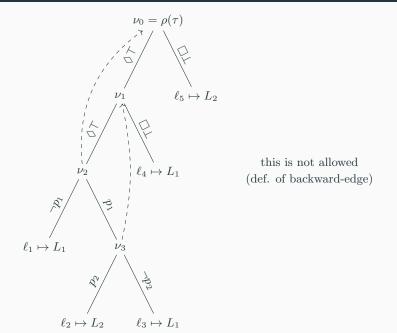
- 1. if $\nu \notin \mathcal{V}^{\ell}$, then $e(\nu, \measuredangle(\nu)) \equiv \neg e(\nu, \searrow(\nu))^{1}$;
- 2. if $\nu \neq \nu'$, $b(\nu) \neq \nu$, and $b(\nu') \neq \nu'$, then $b(\nu) \neq b(\nu')$;
- 3. if $b(\nu) = \nu', \nu' \in \xi^+(\nu'')$, and $\nu'' \in \xi^+(\nu)$, then $\nu' \in \xi^+(b(\nu''))$;
- 4. if $f(\nu) = \nu'$, $\nu \in \mathfrak{z}^+(\nu'')$, and $\nu' \notin \mathfrak{z}^+(\nu'')$, then $f(\nu'') = \nu''$;
- 5. if $(\nu, \nu') \in \mathcal{E}$, $\nu' \notin \mathcal{V}^{\ell}$, and $e(\nu, \nu') \in \{\bot, \Box\bot\}$, then $b(\nu') \neq \nu'$.

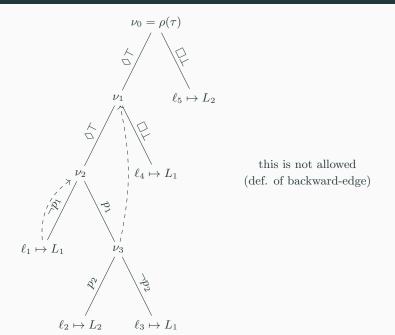
¹Only listed here for completeness of treatment.

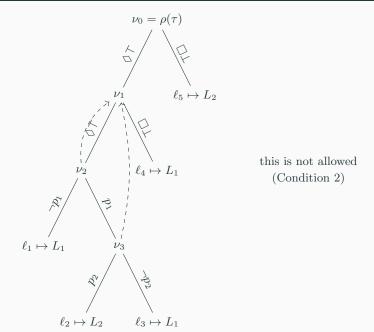


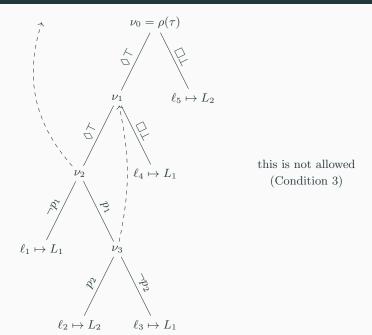
non-displayed backwardand forward-edges are self-loops











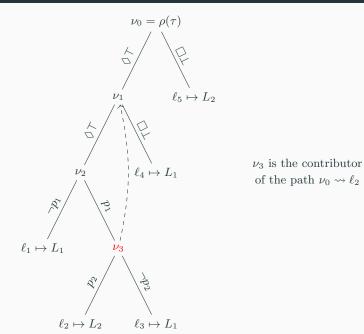
Modal Decision Trees, Formally -2

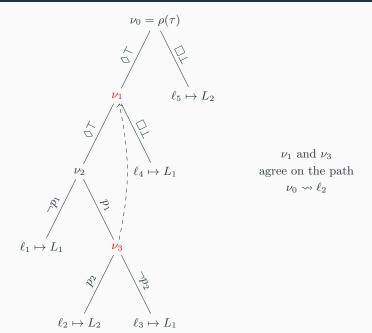
Definition

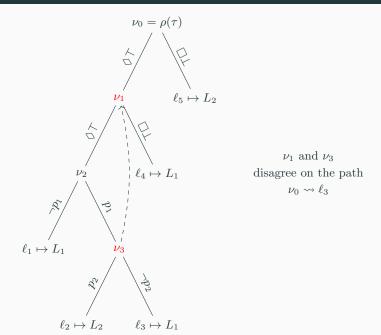
Let $\tau = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, l, e, b, f)$ be a modal decision tree, and $\pi = \nu_0 \leadsto \nu_h$ be a path in τ of length greater than 1. Then, the contributor of π , denoted by $\zeta(\pi)$, is defined as the only node $\nu_i \in \pi$ such that $\nu_i \neq \nu_1$, with 0 < i < h, and $b(\nu_i) = \nu_1$, if it exists, and ν_1 , otherwise.

Definition

Let $\tau = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, l, e, b, f)$ be a modal decision tree and $\pi = \nu_0 \leadsto \nu_h$ be a path in τ of length greater than 1. Then, given two nodes $\nu_i, \nu_j \in \pi$, with i, j < h, we say that they agree, denoted by $\mathfrak{A}(\nu_i, \nu_j)$, if $\nu_{i+1} = \varphi'(\nu_i)$ (resp., $\nu_{i+1} = \varphi(\nu_i)$) and $\nu_{j+1} = \varphi'(\nu_j)$ (resp., $\nu_{j+1} = \varphi(\nu_j)$); otherwise, we say that they disagree, denoted by $\mathfrak{D}(\nu_i, \nu_j)$.







Modal Decision Trees, Formally - 3

Definition

A modal formula φ is implicative if it has the form $\varphi_1 \to \varphi_2$ or

 $\Box(\varphi_1 \to \varphi_2)$, and we denote by Im the set of implicative formulas.

Modal Decision Trees, Formally – 3

Definition

A modal formula φ is *implicative* if it has the form $\varphi_1 \to \varphi_2$ or $\square(\varphi_1 \to \varphi_2)$, and we denote by Im the set of *implicative formulas*.

Implicative and non-implicative formulas are simply a tool to distinguish two types of modal formulas, and it will come handy as we start building path- and leaf-formulas.

Modal Decision Trees: Intuition – 1

In modal decision trees, we build path- and leaf-formulas from bottom up.

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In modal decision trees, we build path- and leaf-formulas from bottom up. Agreement and disagreement, implicative and non-implicative formulas, and the type of decision λ on an edge can be combined into several combinations. Each combination will recursively give rise to a different modal formula, and we shall show that the combinations are enough to cover the entire space of semantically different modal formulas for a given alphabet.

Modal Decision Trees, Formally – 4

Definition

Let $\tau = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, l, e, b, f)$ be a modal decision tree. Then, for each path $\pi^{\tau} = \nu_0 \leadsto \nu_h$ in τ , the path-formula φ_{π}^{τ} (or, simply, φ_{π} if τ is clear from the context) is defined inductively as:

- if h = 0, then $\varphi_{\pi}^{\tau} = \top$;
- if h = 1, then $\varphi_{\pi}^{\tau} = e(\nu_0, \nu_1)$;
- if h > 1, $\lambda = e(\nu_0, \nu_1)$, $\pi_1^{\tau} = \nu_1 \rightsquigarrow \zeta(\pi^{\tau})$, and $\pi_2^{\tau} = \zeta(\pi^{\tau}) \rightsquigarrow \nu_h$, then:

$$\varphi_{\pi}^{\tau} = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \lambda \wedge (\varphi_{\pi_{1}}^{\tau} \wedge \varphi_{\pi_{2}}^{\tau}) & if \quad \lambda \neq \Diamond \top, \mathfrak{A}(\nu_{0}, \zeta(\pi^{\tau})), \ and \ \varphi_{\pi_{2}} \not\in Im, \\ & or \quad \lambda \neq \Diamond \top, \mathfrak{D}(\nu_{0}, \zeta(\pi^{\tau})), \ and \ \varphi_{\pi_{2}} \in Im; \\ \lambda \rightarrow (\varphi_{\pi_{1}}^{\tau} \rightarrow \varphi_{\pi_{2}}^{\tau}) & if \quad \lambda \neq \Diamond \top, \mathfrak{D}(\nu_{0}, \zeta(\pi^{\tau})), \ and \ \varphi_{\pi_{2}} \not\in Im; \\ or \quad \lambda \neq \Diamond \top, \mathfrak{A}(\nu_{0}, \zeta(\pi^{\tau})), \ and \ \varphi_{\pi_{2}} \in Im; \\ \Diamond (\varphi_{\pi_{1}}^{\tau} \wedge \varphi_{\pi_{2}}^{\tau}) & if \quad \lambda = \Diamond \top, \mathfrak{A}(\nu_{0}, \zeta(\pi^{\tau})), \ and \ \varphi_{\pi_{2}} \notin Im, \\ or \quad \lambda = \Diamond \top, \mathfrak{D}(\nu_{0}, \zeta(\pi^{\tau})), \ and \ \varphi_{\pi_{2}} \notin Im; \\ \Box (\varphi_{\pi_{1}}^{\tau} \rightarrow \varphi_{\pi_{2}}^{\tau}) & if \quad \lambda = \Diamond \top, \mathfrak{D}(\nu_{0}, \zeta(\pi^{\tau})), \ and \ \varphi_{\pi_{2}} \notin Im, \\ or \quad \lambda = \Diamond \top, \mathfrak{A}(\nu_{0}, \zeta(\pi^{\tau})), \ and \ \varphi_{\pi_{2}} \notin Im. \end{array} \right.$$

Modal Decision Trees, Formally – 5

Definition

Let $\tau = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, l, e, b, f)$ be a modal decision tree. For each leaf $\ell \in \mathcal{V}^{\ell}$, the leaf-formula φ_{ℓ}^{τ} (or, simply, φ_{ℓ} if τ is clear from the context) is defined as:

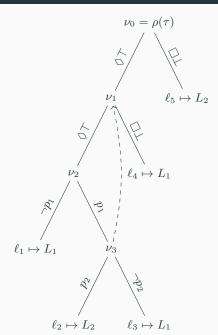
$$\varphi_{\ell}^{\tau} = \bigwedge_{\pi \vdash \pi_{\ell}} \varphi_{\pi}.$$

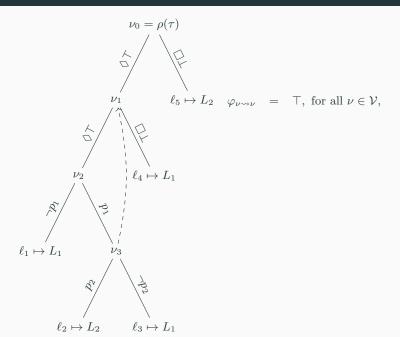
Then, for each class L, the class-formula φ_L^{τ} (or, simply, φ_L if τ is clear from the context) is defined as:

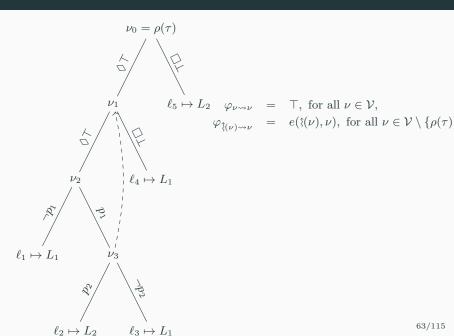
$$\varphi_L^{\tau} = \bigvee_{l(\ell) = L} \varphi_{\pi_{\ell}^{\tau}}.$$

Resulting grammar for path- (φ_{π}) , leaf- (φ_{ℓ}) , and class-formulas (φ_{L}) :

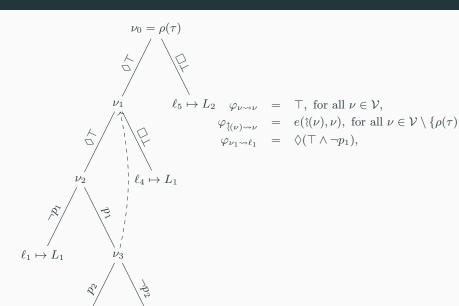
$$\varphi_{\pi} = \begin{cases} \varphi_{\pi} ::= & \lambda \wedge (\varphi_{\pi} \wedge \varphi_{\pi}) & | \\ & \lambda \to (\varphi_{\pi} \to \varphi_{\pi}) & | \\ & \Diamond (\varphi_{\pi} \wedge \varphi_{\pi}) & | \\ & \Box (\varphi_{\pi} \to \varphi_{\pi}) \\ & \varphi_{\ell} ::= & \varphi_{\pi} \mid \varphi_{\pi} \wedge \varphi_{\pi} \\ & \varphi_{L} ::= & \varphi_{\ell} \mid \varphi_{\ell} \vee \varphi_{\ell} \end{cases}$$

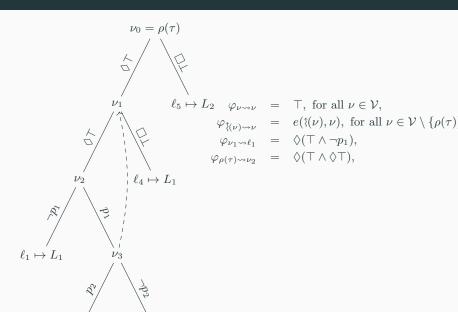






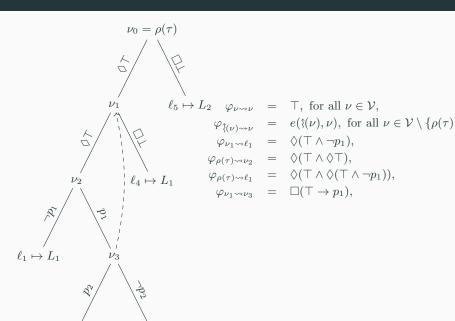
 $\ell_2 \mapsto L_2$



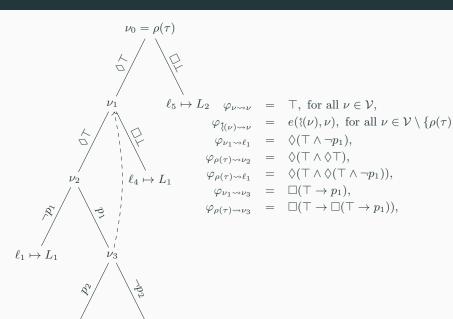


 $\ell_3 \mapsto L_1$

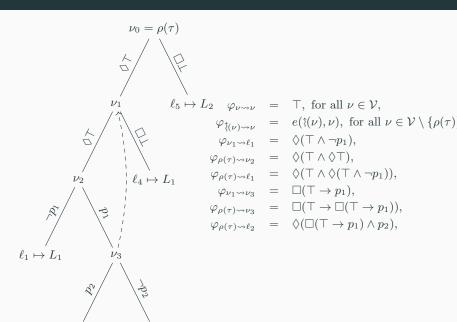
 $\ell_2 \mapsto L_2$



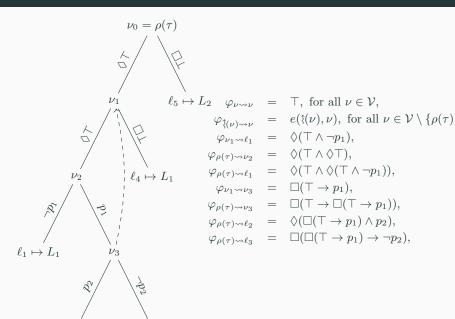
 $\ell_2 \mapsto L_2$



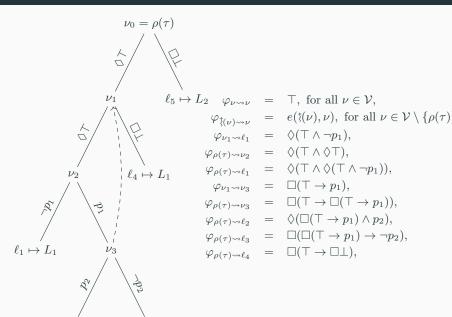
 $\ell_2 \mapsto L_2$

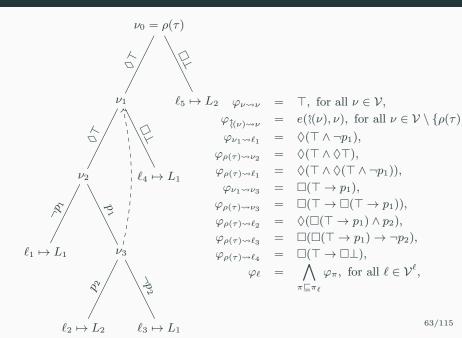


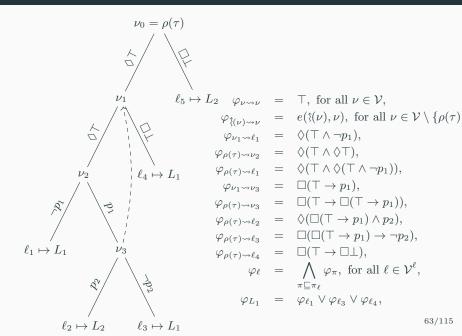
 $\ell_2 \mapsto L_2$

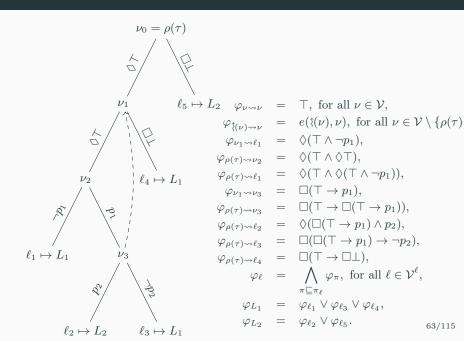


 $\ell_2 \mapsto L_2$









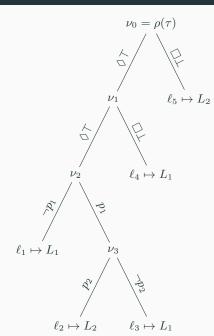
Modal Decision Trees, Formally - 6

Definition

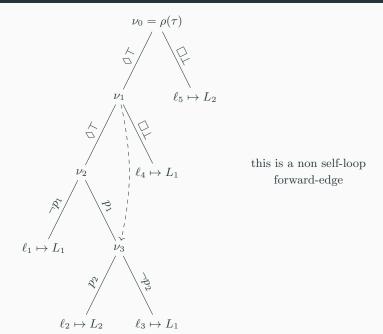
Let $\tau = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, l, e, b, f)$ be a modal decision tree, ν a node in τ , and \mathfrak{I} an instance. Then, the run of τ on \mathfrak{I} from ν , denoted by $\tau(\mathfrak{I}, \nu)$, is defined as:

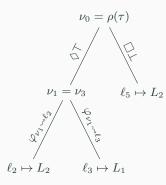
$$\tau(\mathfrak{I},\nu) = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} l(\nu) & \text{if } \nu \in \mathcal{V}^{\ell}; \\ \tau(\mathfrak{I}, \mathscr{L}(f(\nu)) & \text{if } \mathfrak{I} \Vdash \varphi_{\pi^{\tau}_{\mathscr{L}(f(\nu))}}; \\ \tau(\mathfrak{I}, \mathscr{L}(f(\nu)) & \text{if } \mathfrak{I} \Vdash \varphi_{\pi^{\tau}_{\mathscr{L}(f(\nu))}}. \end{array} \right.$$

The run of τ on \mathfrak{I} , denoted by $\tau(\mathfrak{I})$, is defined as $\tau(\mathfrak{I}, \rho(\tau))$. Moreover, \mathfrak{I} is classified into $L \in \mathcal{L}$ by τ if and only if $\tau(\mathfrak{I}) = L$.

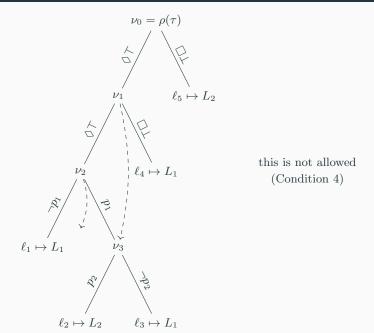


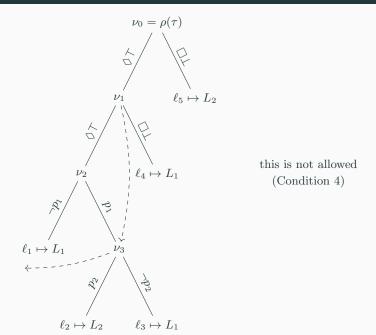
non-displayed backwardand forward-edges are self-loops





this is its semantics





Modal Decision Trees: Intuition – 2

In modal decision trees, we use backward-edges to build formulas with conjuncts at the same modal depth (e.g., $\Diamond p \land q$), and forward-edges to modify the flow of decisions. Each decision is a new modal formula; by following a non-trivial forward-edge, one can skip one or more decisions.

Modal Decision Trees: Intuition - 2

In modal decision trees, we use backward-edges to build formulas with conjuncts at the same modal depth (e.g., $\Diamond p \land q$), and forward-edges to modify the flow of decisions. Each decision is a new modal formula; by following a non-trivial forward-edge, one can skip one or more decisions. As we shall see, this is essential for guaranteeing the completeness of the method.

Modal Decision Trees: Exercise

$$w_1: A_1 = 3 \rightarrow w_3: A_1 = 4$$
 $I_1: w_0: A_1 = 2$
 $U_1: A_1 = 1$
 $U_2: A_1 = 1$
 $U_3: A_1 = 4 \rightarrow w_3: A_1 = 1$
 $U_4: A_1 = 4 \rightarrow w_3: A_1 = 1$
 $U_5: A_1 = 2$
 $U_7: A_1 = 1 \rightarrow w_3: A_1 = 2$
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 $U_7: A_1 = 2 \rightarrow w_3: A_1 = 3$
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Modal Decision Trees: Exercise

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 $I_4: w_0: A_1 = 2$
 $I_3: w_0: A_1 = 4$
 $I_4: w_0: A_1 = 2$
 $I_4: w_0: A_1 = 2$
 $I_5: A_1 = 3$
 $I_6: A_1 = 3$
 $I_7: A_1 = 3$
 $I_8: A_1 = 3$
 $I_8: A_1 = 3$
 $I_9: A_1 = 3$

draw an optimal modal decision tree for this dataset

Modal Decision Trees: Exercise

$$w_1: A_1 = 3 \rightarrow w_3: A_1 = 4$$
 $I_1: w_0: A_1 = 2$
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 $I_5: w_0: A_1 = 3$
 $I_7: w_0: A_1 = 3$
 $I_8: w_0: A_1 = 4$
 $I_9: w_0: A_1 = 3$
 $I_9: w_0: A_1 = 4$
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Modal Decision Trees, Formally - 7

Learning a modal decision tree is done exactly the same way as in the propositional case.

Modal Decision Trees, Formally – 7

Learning a modal decision tree is done exactly the same way as in the propositional case. The idea is to substitute the concept of split with a more general one.

Definition

Given a modal decision tree $\tau = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, l, e, b, f)$ and a path π_{ν}^{τ} from the root to a node ν , let $\hat{\pi}_{\nu}^{\tau} = \nu_0, \nu_1, \ldots, \nu$ (or, simply, $\hat{\pi}_{\nu}$, when τ is clear from the context) be the shortened path from $\rho(\tau)$ to ν defined as the unique sub-sequence, if any, of the path π_{ν} in which $\nu_0 = \rho(\tau)$ and, for each i, ν_{i+1} is the successor of $f(\nu_i)$ in π_{ν}^{τ} . If such a sub-sequence does not exist, then the shortened path is undefined.

Modal Decision Trees, Formally - 8

Definition

Let $\tau = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, l, e, b, f)$ be a modal decision tree, ν a node of τ for which the shortened path $\hat{\pi}_{\nu}$ is defined, and \mathcal{I} a labelled modal dataset. Then, the ν -dataset is defined as

$$\mathcal{I}_{\nu} = \{ \mathfrak{I} \in \mathcal{I} \mid \mathfrak{I} \Vdash \bigwedge_{\nu' \in \hat{\pi}_{\nu}} \varphi_{\pi_{\nu'}} \}.$$

Definition

Let $\tau = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, l, e, b, f)$ be a modal decision tree, \mathcal{I} a labelled modal dataset, ν a non-leaf node of τ whose ν -dataset is defined. Then, the (binary) (sub-tree) split of \mathcal{I}_{ν} is the pair defined as

$$(\mathcal{I}_{\swarrow}(f(\nu)),\mathcal{I}_{\searrow}(f(\nu))).$$

Modal Decision Trees, Formally - 9

Considering that the amount of information can be computed as in the propositional case, the algorithm ModalCART, for a modal dataset with m instances, works as follow:

- If a stopping condition applies, then return;
- Find the best sub-tree split $(\mathcal{I}_1, \mathcal{I}_2)$, and call ModalCART recursively on \mathcal{I}_1 and \mathcal{I}_2 .

Efficient Modal Decision Trees, Proceedings of the 22nd International Conference of the Italian Association for Artificial Intelligence (AIxIA), Manzella et al., 2023.

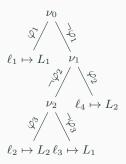
Modal Decision Trees, Formally – 10

Theorem

The family \mathcal{MDT} of (pure) modal decision trees is correct, complete, and efficient.

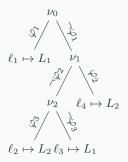
Modal Decision Trees: Summary

Pure modal decision trees, obtained from modal decision trees, do not have forward- and backward-edges, and behave exactly as pure propositional ones (except edges are labeled with modal formulas to be checked on w_0). Barring the technical complexity of their detailed definition, the overall concepts are very simple.



Modal Decision Trees: Summary

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One question remains to be answered, and it may come in many forms. One of them is: why unstructured data are modal data?

Modal Symbolic Learning at Work

A first example of how modal logics can be made concrete so that they can express practical situations is that of temporal logic.

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in point-based temporal logics worlds are linearly ordered and related to each other directly

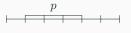
in point-based temporal logics worlds are linearly ordered and related to each other directly

Typical point-based temporal logics allow one to refer to the next world future world(s), and/or past worlds

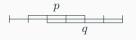




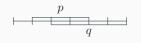
in interval-based temporal logics worlds are intervals, that is pairs of points and their relationships are not trivial



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Typical interval-based temporal logics allow one to refer to inside intervals overlapping ones, starting/ending ones, and so on

Modality	Definition			Example		
				<i>x y</i>		
$\langle A \rangle$ (after)	$[x,y]R_A[w,z]$	\Leftrightarrow	y = w	w z		
$\langle L \rangle$ (later)	$[x,y]R_L[w,z]$	\Leftrightarrow	y < w	w z		
$\langle B \rangle$ (begins)	$[x,y]R_B[w,z]$	\Leftrightarrow	$x = w \wedge z < y$	w z		
$\langle E \rangle$ (ends)	$[x,y]R_E[w,z]$	\Leftrightarrow	$y = z \wedge x < w$	w z		
$\langle D \rangle$ (during)	$[x,y]R_D[w,z]$	\Leftrightarrow	$x < w \land z < y$	w z		
$\langle O \rangle$ (overlaps)	$[x,y]R_O[w,z]$	\Leftrightarrow	x < w < y < z	w : z		

A Propositional Modal Logic of Time Intervals, *Journal of the ACM*, Halpern and Shoham, 1991.

Interval Temporal Logic for Learning: Syntax – 1

Modality	Definit	tion	Example		
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$\langle E \rangle$ (ends)	$[x,y]R_E[w,z] \Leftrightarrow$	$y = z \wedge x < w$	w z		
$\langle D \rangle$ (during)	$[x,y]R_D[w,z] \Leftrightarrow$	$x < w \wedge z < y$	w z		
$\langle O \rangle$ (overlaps)	$[x,y]R_O[w,z] \Leftrightarrow$	x < w < y < z	w : z		

Interval Temporal Logic (i.e., HS) has 13 (12+equality) relations, that correspond to 12 modal operators (i.e, 12 diamonds and 12 corresponding boxes). The relations are in the set

 $\mathcal{O} = \{A, L, B, E, D, O, \overline{A}, \overline{L}, \overline{B}, \overline{E}, \overline{D}, \overline{O}, \}. \text{ For } X \in \mathcal{O}, \ \overline{X} \text{ is the inverse relation.}$

A Propositional Modal Logic of Time Intervals, *Journal of the ACM*, Halpern and Shoham, 1991.

$$\varphi ::= (A \bowtie v) \mid \neg \varphi \mid \varphi \vee \varphi \mid \langle X \rangle \varphi \mid [X] \varphi, \quad X \in \mathcal{O}$$

$$\varphi ::= (A \bowtie v) \mid \neg \varphi \mid \varphi \lor \varphi \mid \langle X \rangle \varphi \mid [X] \varphi, \quad X \in \mathcal{O}$$

when X=A, for example, this is read there exists an interval after the current one with the endind point in common with the current one, in which φ holds true

$$\varphi ::= (A \bowtie v) \mid \neg \varphi \mid \varphi \vee \varphi \mid \langle X \rangle \varphi \mid [X] \varphi, \quad X \in \mathcal{O}$$

when X = B, again for example, this is read there exists an interval that starts the current one, in which φ holds true

$$\varphi ::= (A \bowtie v) \mid \neg \varphi \mid \varphi \vee \varphi \mid \langle X \rangle \varphi \mid [X] \varphi, \quad X \in \mathcal{O}$$

the box version of each operator allows one to capture all intervals in a specific relation

$$\varphi ::= (A \bowtie v) \mid \neg \varphi \mid \varphi \vee \varphi \mid \varphi \wedge \varphi \mid \varphi \rightarrow \varphi \mid \langle X \rangle \varphi \mid [X]\varphi, \ \ X \in \mathcal{O}$$

as always, we use a non-minimal grammar for formulas in order to ease the learning phase

$$\varphi ::= (A \bowtie v) \mid \neg \varphi \mid \varphi \vee \varphi \mid \varphi \wedge \varphi \mid \varphi \rightarrow \varphi \mid \langle X \rangle \varphi \mid [X] \varphi, \ \ X \in \mathcal{O}$$

How do we express. . . ?

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How do we express...?

The fever is over 38 in the current interval

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Fever>38

$$\varphi ::= (A \bowtie v) \mid \neg \varphi \mid \varphi \lor \varphi \mid \varphi \land \varphi \mid \varphi \to \varphi \mid \langle X \rangle \varphi \mid [X]\varphi, \ X \in \mathcal{O}$$

How do we express...?

The fever is over 38 in the current interval

Fever>38

In the current interval, while the fever is over 38, there is an interval during which pain;3

$$\varphi ::= (A \bowtie v) \mid \neg \varphi \mid \varphi \vee \varphi \mid \varphi \wedge \varphi \mid \varphi \rightarrow \varphi \mid \langle X \rangle \varphi \mid [X]\varphi, \ X \in \mathcal{O}$$

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Fever > 38

In the current interval, while interval during which pain;3

the fever is over 38, there is an $(Fever > 38) \land \langle D \rangle (Pain < 3)$

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The fever is always below 37 during the current interval

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the fever is over 38, there is an $(Fever > 38) \land \langle D \rangle (Pain < 3)$

The fever is always below 37 during the current interval

 $[D] \neg (Fever < 37)$

Interval Logic for Learning: Summary

Interval temporal logic is one way to concretize modal logic into a useful language for learning.

Interval Logic for Learning: Summary

Interval temporal logic is one way to concretize modal logic into a useful language for learning. The paradigm of modal symbolic learning is general, but the temporal case is the case in which the ideas emerge more easily. As in the cases of propositional and modal logic, in the case of interval logic too we are defining the language modulo theory;

Interval Logic for Learning: Summary

Interval temporal logic is one way to concretize modal logic into a useful language for learning. The paradigm of modal symbolic learning is general, but the temporal case is the case in which the ideas emerge more easily. As in the cases of propositional and modal logic, in the case of interval logic too we are defining the language modulo theory; this causes a difference between induction and deduction properties that must be addressed.

Definition

Given a set of n names of attributes $A = \{A_1 \dots A_n\}$, such that each attribute A_i is associated to a finite domain $dom(A_i) \subset \mathbb{R}$, the set of well-formed modal (learning) formulas is obtained by the grammar

$$\varphi ::= (A \bowtie v) \mid \neg \varphi \mid \varphi \lor \varphi \mid \varphi \land \varphi \mid \varphi \rightarrow \varphi \mid \langle X \rangle \varphi \mid [X]\varphi,$$

where $A \in \mathcal{A}$, $v \in dom(A)$, $\bowtie \in \{<, \leq, =, \geq, >\}$, and $X \in \mathcal{O}$.

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How do we concretize the Kripke semantics for this case? What are worlds? What are their relationships?

$$\varphi ::= (A \bowtie v) \mid \neg \varphi \mid \varphi \vee \varphi \mid \varphi \wedge \varphi \mid \varphi \rightarrow \varphi \mid \langle X \rangle \varphi \mid [X] \varphi$$

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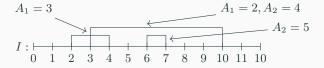


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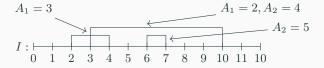
Given a linearly ordered set \mathbb{D}

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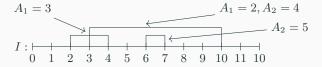
Given a linearly ordered set \mathbb{D} the set of all intervals $W = \mathbb{I}(\mathbb{D}) = \{[x,y] \mid x,y \in \mathbb{D}, x < y\}$ is the set of worlds of an interval logic interpretation

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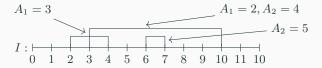
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Suppose that in I there are only two attributes A_1, A_2 , and that everywhere not specified, $A_i = 0$ for $i \in \{1, 2\}$ then:

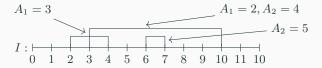
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Suppose that in I there are only two attributes A_1, A_2 , and that everywhere not specified, $A_i = 0$ for $i \in \{1, 2\}$ then:

 $I, [0,1] \Vdash$ sometimes in the future $A_1 > 1$

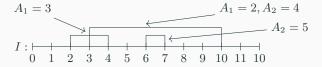
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$$I, [0,1] \Vdash \langle L \rangle (A_1 > 1)$$

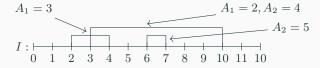
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Suppose that in I there are only two attributes A_1, A_2 , and that everywhere not specified, $A_i = 0$ for $i \in \{1, 2\}$ then:

 $I, [0,1] \Vdash$ sometimes in the future $A_1 > 1$ overlapped by $A_2 > 1$

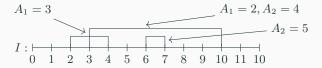
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Suppose that in I there are only two attributes A_1, A_2 , and that everywhere not specified, $A_i = 0$ for $i \in \{1, 2\}$ then:

$$I, [0,1] \Vdash \langle L \rangle ((A_1 > 1) \land \langle O \rangle (A_2 > 1))$$

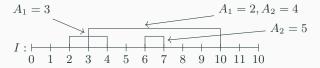
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Suppose that in I there are only two attributes A_1, A_2 , and that everywhere not specified, $A_i = 0$ for $i \in \{1, 2\}$ then:

 $I, [3, 10] \Vdash \text{it is never true within me that } A_2 > 6$

$$\varphi ::= (A \bowtie v) \mid \neg \varphi \mid \varphi \vee \varphi \mid \varphi \wedge \varphi \mid \varphi \rightarrow \varphi \mid \langle X \rangle \varphi \mid [X] \varphi$$



Suppose that in I there are only two attributes A_1, A_2 , and that everywhere not specified, $A_i = 0$ for $i \in \{1, 2\}$ then:

$$I, [3,0] \Vdash [D](A_2 \le 5)$$

Definition

Given a set $A = \{A_1, \ldots, A_n\}$ of attributes, an interval temporal interpretation I is tuple $I = (\mathbb{I}(\mathbb{D}), \mathcal{R})$, where \mathbb{D} is a linearly ordered set, $\mathbb{I}(\mathbb{D})$ is the set of all intervals on \mathbb{D} , \mathcal{R} is the set of Allen's relations, and each world w, denoted as an interval [x, y], is a valuation function:

$$w: \mathcal{A} \to \mathbb{R}$$
.

A interval temporal interpretation I and a world w = [x, y] in it naturally induce the truth relation for a formula φ $(I, w \Vdash \varphi)$, obtained by

```
\begin{split} I, w \Vdash (A \bowtie v) & \text{ iff } \quad w(V) \bowtie v \\ I, w \Vdash \neg \varphi & \text{ iff } \quad I, w \nvDash \varphi \\ I, w \Vdash \varphi \lor \psi & \text{ iff } \quad I, w \Vdash \varphi \text{ or } I \Vdash \psi \\ I, w \Vdash \varphi \land \psi & \text{ iff } \quad I, w \Vdash \varphi \text{ and } I \Vdash \psi \\ I, w \Vdash \varphi \to \psi & \text{ iff } \quad I, w \nvDash \varphi \text{ or } I \Vdash \psi \\ I, w \Vdash \langle X \rangle \varphi & \text{ iff } \quad there \text{ is } w \text{ 's.t. } wR_Xw' \text{ and } I, w' \Vdash \varphi \\ I, w \Vdash [X] \varphi & \text{ iff } \quad for \text{ every } w' \text{ s.t. } wR_Xw' \text{ it } happens I, w' \Vdash \varphi \end{split}
```

If $I, w \Vdash \varphi$ for some w, then I satisfies φ at w, and I is a model of φ .

Some relevant truths:

$$\langle L \rangle \varphi \leftrightarrow \langle A \rangle \langle A \rangle \varphi$$

$$\langle \overline{L} \rangle \varphi \leftrightarrow \langle \overline{A} \rangle \langle \overline{A} \rangle \varphi$$

$$\langle D \rangle \varphi \leftrightarrow \langle B \rangle \langle E \rangle \varphi$$

$$\langle \overline{D} \rangle \varphi \leftrightarrow \langle \overline{B} \rangle \langle \overline{E} \rangle \varphi$$

$$\langle \overline{O} \rangle \varphi \leftrightarrow \langle E \rangle \langle \overline{B} \rangle \varphi$$

$$\langle \overline{O} \rangle \varphi \leftrightarrow \langle B \rangle \langle \overline{E} \rangle \varphi$$

. . .

Interval Temporal Logic for Learning: Exercise

$$A_1 = 8$$
 $A_1 = 4, A_2 = 8$ $A_2 = 6$ $A_1 = 4$ $A_2 = 6$ $A_2 = 6$ $A_3 = 6$ $A_4 = 6$ $A_5 =$

$$A_1 = 9$$

$$I_2 \longrightarrow A_1 = 2, A_2 = 1$$

$$A_2 = 2$$

$$Class 0$$

$$A_1 = 6$$
 $A_1 = 3, A_2 = 3$
 $A_2 = 1$
class 1

$$A_1 = 10$$
 $A_1 = 6, A_2 = 7$
 $A_2 = 4$
 $A_3 = 6$

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$$A_1 = 9$$

$$I_2 \longrightarrow A_1 = 2, A_2 = 1$$

$$A_2 = 2$$

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$$A_1 = 6$$
 $A_1 = 3, A_2 = 3$
 $A_2 = 1$
class 1

$$A_1 = 10$$
 $A_1 = 6, A_2 = 7$
 $A_2 = 4$ class 0

What formula on [0,1] separates class 0 from class 1?

Interval Temporal Logic for Learning: Exercise

$$A_1 = 8$$

$$I_1 \longrightarrow A_2 = 8$$

$$A_1 = 4, A_2 = 8$$

$$A_2 = 6$$

$$Class 1$$

$$A_1 = 9$$

$$I_2 \longrightarrow A_1 = 2, A_2 = 1$$

$$A_2 = 2$$

$$Class 0$$

$$A_1 = 6$$

$$A_1 = 3, A_2 = 3$$

$$A_2 = 1$$

$$Class 1$$

$$A_1 = 10$$
 $A_1 = 6, A_2 = 7$
 $I_4 \mapsto A_2 = 4$ class 0

$$[L](A_1 > 7 \rightarrow \langle O \rangle (A_2 > 5))$$

Transformers: Introduction -1

Unstructured data comes in many forms. An (incomplete) list includes:

- Dimensional data. Typically numerical data with 0,1, or more dimensions. Examples are tabular data (dimension 0), time series (dimension 1), images (dimensions 2), videos (dimension 3).
- Textual data.
- Graph-based data.
- Multimodal data, that is data whose instances are described by more than one data type (e.g., a patient described by tabular data plus a diagnostic image).

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The underlying idea to modal symbolic learning is that an unstructured instance can be always seen as a modal one.

Transformers: Introduction – 2

Dimensional data can be seen as modal data with a quite small abstraction step. As a consequence, they are ideal to introduce the concept of transformer, as well as the idea of feature extraction.

The Voice of COVID-19: Breath and Cough Recording Classification with Temporal Decision Trees and Random Forests. *Artificial Intelligence in Medicine*, Manzella et al., 2023.

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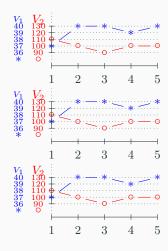
Let us focus on the case of time series (dimension 1 data).

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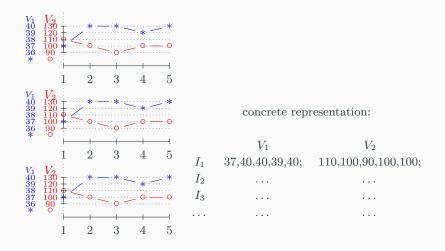
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Transformers: The Case of Time Series

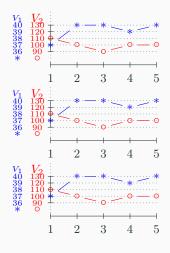


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Transformers: The Case of Time Series



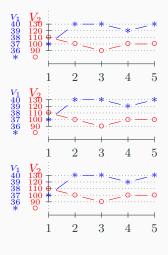
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abstract representation:

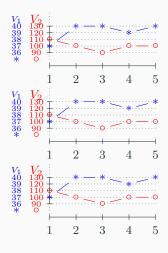
$$I_1$$
 $\mathbb{I}([1, 2, 3, 4, 5]), \mathcal{R})$
 I_2 $\mathbb{I}([1, 2, 3, 4, 5]), \mathcal{R})$
 I_3 ...

. .



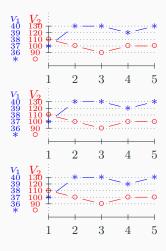
But what are the attributes? How are they extracted from the variables?

. .



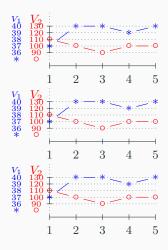
We take each variable V_i and we apply a feature extraction function $f \in \mathcal{F}$

٠.



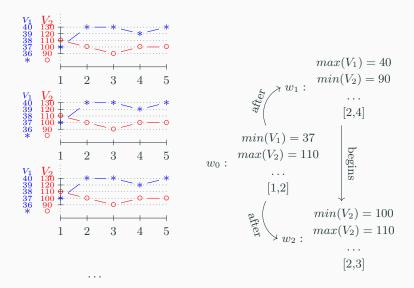
Functions are taken from the classic function vocabulary including average, min, max, as well as much more complex ones.

٠.



So, a function f applied to a variable V (that is, f(V)) becomes an attribute A.

. .



Definition

Let $\mathfrak I$ be the set of all possible datasets, $\mathfrak F$ the set of all possible sets of feature extraction functions, and $\mathfrak L$ the set of all possible (unary) (multi-)modal logics, then a transformer is a function

$$T: \mathfrak{I} \times \mathfrak{F} \times \mathfrak{L} \to \mathfrak{M}$$

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It so happens that d-dimensional data can be interpreted in the same way as 1-dimensional ones. There is an obvious generalization of the logic $\mathcal{H}S$ to d dimensions that allows one to deal with hyper-rectangles instead of intervals.

Decision Tree Learning with Spatial Modal Logics, 12th International Symposium on Games, Automata, Logics and Formal Verification (GANDALF), Pagliarini and Sciavicco, 2021.

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It so happens that d-dimensional data can be interpreted in the same way as 1-dimensional ones. There is an obvious generalization of the logic HS to d dimensions that allows one to deal with hyper-rectangles instead of intervals. The operators can be extended accordingly. Observe that the tabular case (0-dimensional) is now a special case of dimensional data. So, images, videos, and so on can be now treated in a completely uniform way. Is this the only way to modalize dimensional data? No. Using different modal languages gives rise to very different modal datasets that contain the same information but in which different details are highlighted. In the dimensional case, examples include \mathcal{HS}^d (hyper-rectangles, all qualitatively different directional relations), \mathcal{HS}^2_{RCC8} , \mathcal{HS}^2_{RCC5} (in the 2-dimensional case, hyper-rectangles related by different flavours of topological relations), among others.

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Transformers: the Other Cases

Interval temporal logic and its variants/extensions cover the whole sub-case of dimensional data; it must be stressed, however, that this is not the only way to transform dimensional data into modal data.

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Interval temporal logic and its variants/extensions cover the whole sub-case of dimensional data; it must be stressed, however, that this is not the only way to transform dimensional data into modal data. The case of textual data is currently under study. Yet, the principle can be the same: text is linearly ordered, words (or other tokens) could be the points on this linear order; intervals are determined by pairs of tokens, and feature extraction function can be NLP functions of any sort. Thus, interval temporal logics such as $\mathcal HS$ could cover the case of text data as well. Other characterizations are also possible.

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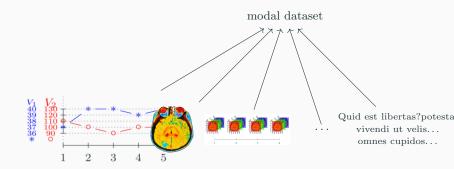
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 $[\]label{thm:conference} Towards \ {\it Symbolic Metaphor Identification}, \ {\it Proceedings of the 9th Italian} \ Conference \ on \ Computational \ Linguistics \ (CLIC-IT), \ {\it Manzella et al.}, \ 2023.$

Transformers: Summary

Transformers have the ability providing a uniform treatment of (un)structured data.



Day 3

Practice: Learning with Sole.jl

Definition

Let \mathcal{L} be a set of classes and \mathcal{P} a set of propositions, and define the set of modal decisions:

$$\Lambda = \{p, \neg p, | \ p \in \mathcal{P}\} \cup \{\top, \bot, \Diamond \top, \Box \bot\}.$$

Then, a modal decision tree (over \mathcal{L}) is an object of the type:

$$\tau = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, l, e, b, f),$$

where $(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, l, e)$ is a propositional decision tree, $b: \mathcal{V}^{\iota} \to \mathcal{V}^{\iota}$ is a backward-edge function that links an internal node to one of its ancestors, and $f: \mathcal{V} \setminus \mathcal{V}^{\ell} \to \mathcal{V} \setminus \mathcal{V}^{\ell}$ is a forward-edge function that links a non-leaf node to one of its descendants, such that, for all $\nu, \nu' \nu'' \in \mathcal{V}$:

- 1. if $\nu \notin \mathcal{V}^{\ell}$, then $e(\nu, \measuredangle(\nu)) \equiv \neg e(\nu, \searrow(\nu))^2$;
- 2. if $\nu \neq \nu'$, $b(\nu) \neq \nu$, and $b(\nu') \neq \nu'$, then $b(\nu) \neq b(\nu')$;
- 3. if $b(\nu) = \nu', \nu' \in \xi^+(\nu'')$, and $\nu'' \in \xi^+(\nu)$, then $\nu' \in \xi^+(b(\nu''))$;
- 4. if $f(\nu) = \nu'$, $\nu \in \mathfrak{z}^+(\nu'')$, and $\nu' \notin \mathfrak{z}^+(\nu'')$, then $f(\nu'') = \nu''$;
- 5. if $(\nu, \nu') \in \mathcal{E}$, $\nu' \notin \mathcal{V}^{\ell}$, and $e(\nu, \nu') \in \{\bot, \Box\bot\}$, then $b(\nu') \neq \nu'$.

²Only listed here for completeness of treatment.

Definition

Let \mathcal{L} be a set of classes and \mathcal{P} a set of propositions, and define the set of modal decisions:

$$\Lambda = \{p, \neg p, | \ p \in \mathcal{P}\} \cup \{\top, \bot, \Diamond \top, \Box \bot\}.$$

Then, a modal decision tree (over \mathcal{L}) is an object of the type:

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- 4. if $f(\nu) = \nu'$, $\nu \in {}^+(\nu'')$, and $\nu' \notin {}^+(\nu'')$, then $f(\nu'') = \nu''$;
- 5. if $(\nu, \nu') \in \mathcal{E}$, $\nu' \notin \mathcal{V}^{\ell}$, and $e(\nu, \nu') \in \{\bot, \Box\bot\}$, then $b(\nu') \neq \nu'$.

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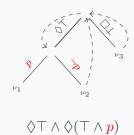
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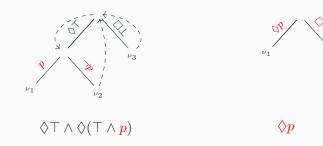
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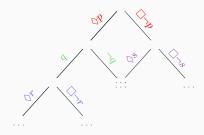
- 1. if $\nu \notin \mathcal{V}^{\ell}$, then $e(\nu, \measuredangle(\nu)) \equiv \neg e(\nu, \searrow(\nu))^2$;
- 2. if $e(\nu, \nu') = \Diamond \top$, then: $\nu' = \mathcal{L}(\nu)$, $f(\nu) = \nu'$, $e(\nu', \mathcal{L}(\nu')) \in \mathcal{P}$.
- 3. if $\searrow(\nu) = \nu'$ and $e(\mathfrak{z}(\nu), \nu) = \lozenge \top$, then $b(\nu') = \mathfrak{z}(\nu)$;
- 4. if $\searrow(\nu) = \nu'$ and $e(\mathfrak{z}(\nu), \nu) \neq \lozenge \top$, then $b(\nu') = \nu$;
- 5. if $e(\mathfrak{z}(\nu), \nu) \neq \Diamond \top$, then $f(\nu) = \nu$;

²Only listed here for completeness of treatment.





Restricted MDT

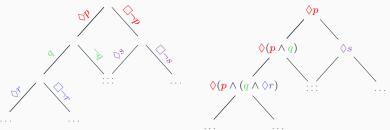


Only checks non-alternating, existential formulas of the kind:

$$\varphi_{\pi} ::= p \mid (p \land \varphi_{\pi}) \mid \Diamond p \mid \Diamond (p \land \varphi_{\pi})$$

Restricted MDT

Corresponding Pure DT



Only checks non-alternating, existential formulas of the kind:

$$\varphi_{\pi} ::= p \mid (p \land \varphi_{\pi}) \mid \Diamond p \mid \Diamond (p \land \varphi_{\pi})$$

Grammars for path- (φ_{π}) , leaf- (φ_{ℓ}) , and class-formulas (φ_{L}) :

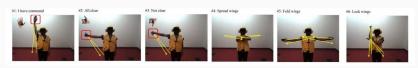
MDT

Grammars for path- (φ_{π}) , leaf- (φ_{ℓ}) , and class-formulas (φ_{L}) :

	MDT		Restricted DT
$\varphi_{\pi} ::=$	$\lambda \wedge (\varphi_{\pi} \wedge \varphi_{\pi})$	$\varphi_{\mathbf{k}^{\mathbf{r}}} ::=$	$p \mid (p \wedge \varphi_{_{\mathbb{X}^{^{T}}}}) \mid \Diamond p \mid \Diamond (p \wedge \varphi_{_{\mathbb{X}^{^{T}}}})$
	$\lambda \to (\varphi_\pi \to \varphi_\pi)$	$\varphi_{ \! \backslash \! \! \backslash} ::=$	$\neg p \mid (\neg p \to \varphi_{\searrow}) \mid \Box \neg p \mid \Box (\neg p \to \varphi_{\searrow})$
	$\Diamond(\varphi_{\pi}\wedge\varphi_{\pi})$	$\varphi_{\pi} ::=$	$\varphi_{\chi'} \mid \varphi_{\gamma_{\chi}}$
	$\Box(\varphi_\pi\to\varphi_\pi)$	$\varphi_{\ell} ::=$	$\varphi_{\pi} \mid \varphi_{\pi} \wedge \varphi_{\pi}$
$\varphi_{\ell} ::=$	$= \varphi_{\pi} \mid \varphi_{\pi} \wedge \varphi_{\pi}$	$\varphi_L ::=$	$arphi_\ell \mid arphi_\ell ee arphi_\ell$
$\varphi_L ::=$	$= \varphi_{\ell} \varphi_{\ell} \vee \varphi_{\ell}$		

Gesture recognition

- Dataset: NATOPS, public benchmark for time series classification
 - 360 instances;
 - 51 points;
 - 24 variables.
- Task: Gesture recognition from position sensors;
- Input: xyz coordinates for elbows/wrists/hands/thumbs (left+right) evolving through time;
- Output: gesture type (6 classes):



Gesture recognition

- Dataset: NATOPS, public benchmark for time series classification
 - 360 instances;
 - 51 points: using a full, interval-based frame results in $\frac{51 \times 52}{2} = 1326$ intervals;
 - 24 variables: using $\mathcal{F} = \{\min, \max\}$ results in 24 attributes.
- Task: Gesture recognition from position sensors;
- Input: xyz coordinates for elbows/wrists/hands/thumbs (left+right) evolving through time;
- Output: gesture type (6 classes):



NN	SVM (non-NN SOTA)	CART Decision Tree	CART Modal Decision Tree
97.1%	88.5%	70.9%	89.7%

Table 2: Accuracies (10-fold cv) for non-symbolic state-of-the-art and decision tree models.

What Does It Mean to Perform an Experiment?

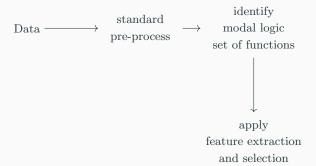
Data

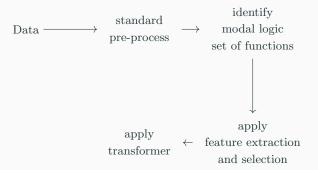
What Does It Mean to Perform an Experiment?

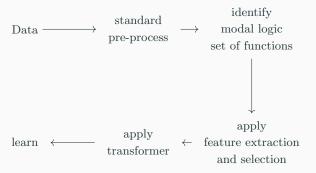
 $\text{Data} \xrightarrow{} \begin{array}{c} \text{standard} \\ \text{pre-process} \end{array}$

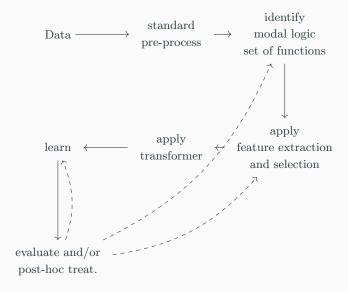
What Does It Mean to Perform an Experiment?

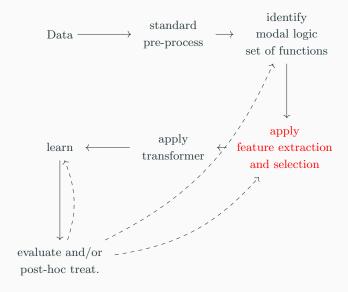


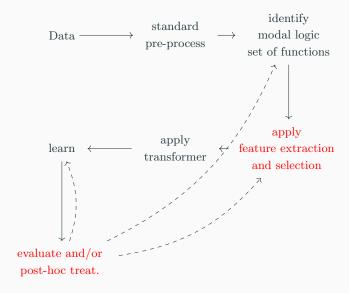












Symbolic Feature Extraction and Selection

Symbolic Feature Extraction and Selection: Introduction

Feature selection in tabular data is the process of selecting a subset of the variables, with the aim of reducing the amount of data, ease the learning process, and gain initial information on the problem at hand.

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Feature selection in tabular data is the process of selecting a subset of the variables, with the aim of reducing the amount of data, ease the learning process, and gain initial information on the problem at hand. By stepping up to the modal case, this process can be generalized, and we can ask the question of which variables, which functions (that is, which variables), and which worlds contain the most information for the problem at hand. This is symbolic feature selection.

Feature selection methods in the tabular case are usually separated into:

- filters to be applied independently from the learning model,
- wrappers that work in strict connection with a learning model, and
- embedded which are part of the learning model itself.

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Designing a wrapper method requires working with a learning model; wrapper are usually well-behaved, but computationally expensive. Embedded models are new learning models, in a sense, and the selection problem in this case is not separated from the learning one.

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Designing a wrapper method requires working with a learning model; wrapper are usually well-behaved, but computationally expensive. Embedded models are new learning models, in a sense, and the selection problem in this case is not separated from the learning one. We cover, here, the filter case, which is the simplest one, and easiest to understand and implement.

Two steps can be easily identified, already at dimension 0:

- Unsupervised: select variables with methods that are independent from the class (if it exists), and validate the selection;
- Supervised: select variables with methods that use the class information (assuming it exists), and validate the selection (in this case the validation could be, but it does not need to, a model learning step).

For higher dimensions, the schema can be generalized:

- Unsupervised: select variables/feature extraction functions/worlds with methods that are independent from the class (if it exists), and validate the selection;
- Supervised: select variables/feature extraction functions/worlds with methods that use the class information (assuming it exists), and validate the selection (again, in this case the validation could be, but it does not need to, a model learning step).

⁽Un)supervised Univariate Feature Extraction and Selection for Dimensional Data, Proceedings of the 2nd Italian Conference on Big Data and Data Science (ITADATA), Cavina et al., 2023.

	V_1	V_2
I_1	37,40,40,39,40;	110,100,90,100,100;
I_2	36,41,40,38,41;	100,110,95,95,100;
I_2	37,40,38,38,39;	120,120,100,100,95;

	V_1	V_2
I_1	37,40,40,39,40;	110,100,90,100,100;
I_2	36,41,40,38,41;	$100,\!110,\!95,\!95,\!100;$
I_2	37,40,38,38,39;	120, 120, 100, 100, 95;

Starting from the concrete representation of a dataset of time series (dimensional case, dimension 1)

	V_1	V_2
I_1	37,40,40,39,40;	110,100,90,100,100;
I_2	36,41,40,38,41;	$100,\!110,\!95,\!95,\!100;$
I_2	37,40,38,38,39;	120, 120, 100, 100, 95;

we consider the set of feature extraction functions $\mathcal{F} = \{f_1, f_2, \ldots\}$

	V_1	V_2
I_1	37,40,40,39,40;	110,100,90,100,100;
I_2	36,41,40,38,41;	$100,\!110,\!95,\!95,\!100;$
I_2	37,40,38,38,39;	120,120,100,100,95;

and we apply each one of them to each interval of each instance

	$f_1(V_1)_{[1,2]}$	$f_1(V_2)_{[3,5]}$	 $f_2(V_1)_{[1,3]}$	$f_2(V_2)_{[3,4]}$	
I_1	37	110	 40	100	
I_2	38	100	 41	110	
I_2	37.5	120	 39	105	

	$f_1(V_1)_{[1,2]}$	$f_1(V_2)_{[3,5]}$	 $f_2(V_1)_{[1,3]}$	$f_2(V_2)_{[3,4]}$	
I_1	37	110	 40	100	
I_2	38	100	 41	110	
I_2	37.5	120	 39	105	

then we apply the standard feature selection at both the unsupervised and supervised level (if applicable)

	$f_1(V_1)_{[1,2]}$	$f_1(V_2)_{[3,5]}$	 $f_2(V_1)_{[1,3]}$	$f_2(V_2)_{[3,4]}$	
I_1	37	110	 40	100	
I_2	38	100	 41	110	
I_2	37.5	120	 39	105	

to select a set of triples variable-feature-interval

	$f_1(V_1)_{[1,2]}$	$f_1(V_2)_{[3,5]}$	 $f_2(V_1)_{[1,3]}$	$f_2(V_2)_{[3,4]}$	
I_1	37	110	 40	100	
I_2	38	100	 41	110	
I_2	37.5	120	 39	105	

then we aggregate them
in order to interpret the result
and answer the question of which
variables/feature/intervals carry the most information

```
\begin{array}{ccc} & V_2 \\ I_1 & 110,100,90,100,100; \\ I_2 & 100,110,95,95,100; \\ I_2 & 120,120,100,100,95; \\ \dots & \dots \end{array}
```

```
\begin{array}{ccc} & V_2 \\ I_1 & 110,100,90,100,100; \\ I_2 & 100,110,95,95,100; \\ I_2 & 120,120,100,100,95; \\ \dots & \dots \end{array}
```

variables found to carry too few information can be excluded from the dataset

```
\begin{array}{ccc} & V_2 \\ I_1 & 110,100,90,100,100; \\ I_2 & 100,110,95,95,100; \\ I_2 & 120,120,100,100,95; \\ \dots & \dots \end{array}
```

functions found to extract too few information can be excluded from the learning process

```
\begin{array}{ccc} & V_2 \\ I_1 & 110,100,90,100,100; \\ I_2 & 100,110,95,95,100; \\ I_2 & 120,120,100,100,95; \\ \dots & \dots \end{array}
```

to ensure completeness, however intervals are kept in any case

	V_2
I_1	110,100,90,100,100;
I_2	100, 110, 95, 95, 100;
I_2	120,120,100,100,95;

nevertheless, the information gained during the process is relevant on its own, and can be validated via standard statistical univariated methods and techniques

For higher dimensions, the schema can be generalized by simply using hyper-windows instead of intervals.

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For higher dimensions, the schema can be generalized by simply using hyper-windows instead of intervals. It does not always make the same intuitive sense, and other symbolic techniques can be used. Systematic selection following the same idea has not been studied or tried yet for other types of unstructured data.

Symbolic Feature Extraction and Selection: Summary

Feature extraction and selection has the same role in modal symbolic learning as it has in standard (symbolic) learning. It should part of every serious data science/information extraction exercise, and its results are relevant on its own.

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Feature extraction and selection has the same role in modal symbolic learning as it has in standard (symbolic) learning. It should part of every serious data science/information extraction exercise, and its results are relevant on its own. At the modal level, the feature extraction functions assume a more central role, and this phase's importance grows accordingly.

Statistically Solid Results

Modal symbolic learning is about extracting models of the data. Models are subject to the same evaluation as in any other case.

Statistically Solid Results

Modal symbolic learning is about extracting models of the data. Models are subject to the same evaluation as in any other case. Let us focus, in particular, on classification problems, and let us go over classical concepts of statistical evaluation of classification models that immediately apply here.

Classical Performance Indicators and Test Modes - 1

On which instances is the learned model tested?

https://mlu-explain.github.io/cross-validation/

On which instances is the learned model tested?

the same ones from which it has been learned from



this is called full training evaluation mode, and it is not reliable

https://mlu-explain.github.io/cross-validation/

On which instances is the learned model tested?

the dataset has been used partly for learning and partly for testing

this is called training+test evaluation mode, and it is partially reliable, but it strongly depends on chance

https://mlu-explain.github.io/cross-validation/

On which instances is the learned model tested?

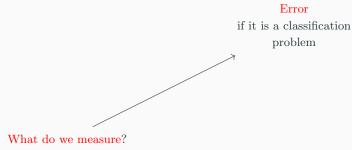
the dataset has been sliced into
several subsets, and each one of them has
played, in different moments, the role
of learning and testing dataset;
the results are averaged

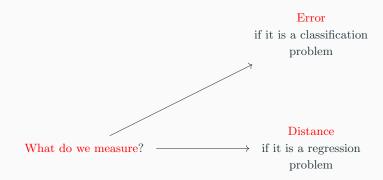


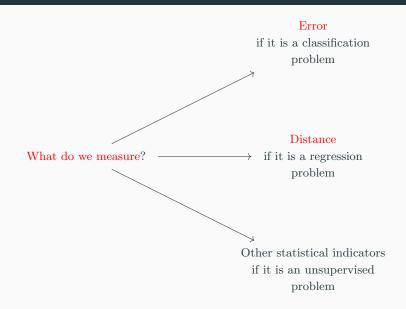
this is called cross-validation evaluation mode, and it is very reliable, not depending at all on chance

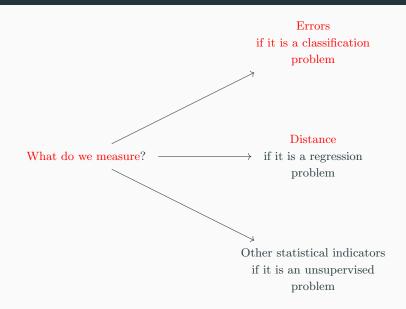
https://mlu-explain.github.io/cross-validation/

What do we measure?



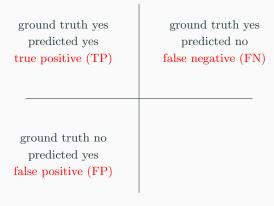






ground truth yes predicted yes rue positive (TP)	

ground truth yes	ground truth yes					
predicted yes	predicted no					
true positive (TP)	false negative (FN)					



ground truth yes predicted yes true positive (TP)	ground truth yes predicted no false negative (FN)					
ground truth no predicted yes false positive (FP)	ground truth no predicted no true negative (TN)					

TP, TN, FP, FN are combined into several metrics that give us several indications of performances

Statistically Solid Results: Summary

Models are usual learned in full training for an initial exploration of data. Then, whenever possible, experiments are run in training+test or in cross-validation to evaluate the solidity through all essential performance indicators. Finally, if applicable, models learned in full training are deployed.

Multimodal models are models designed to learn from dataset whose instances present the information in more than one way at the same time.

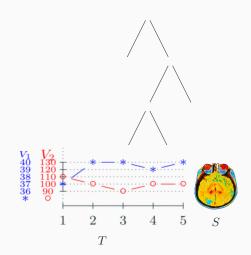
Multimodal models are models designed to learn from dataset whose instances present the information in more than one way at the same time. Typical examples include instances with temporal and image information (e.g., voice+video), but also medical cases with patients described by more than one diagnostic exam (e.g., EEG+CT SCAN).

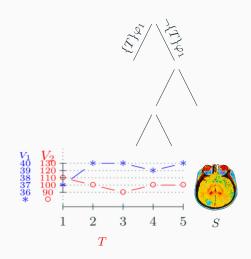
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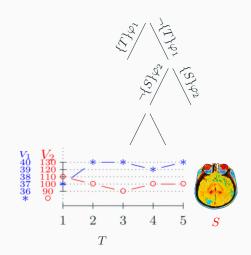
Can a single algorithm (e.g., CART) learn from more than one source at the same time?

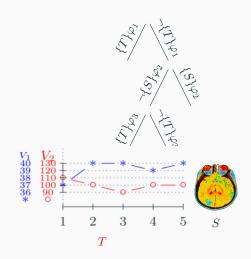
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Can a single algorithm (e.g., CART) learn from more than one source at the same time? Since modal decision trees have shown the ability of learning from unstructured data, this question is even more interesting than it was before.









Multimodal Trees: Summary

Multimodal trees learn from multimodal instances; here the word multimodal does not refer to the fact that the logic is multi-modal: each single 'mode' in which the instance is presented is described, in general, with a multi-modal logic (e.g., in the temporal 'mode' we use $\mathcal{H}8$ with 12 modalities, in the spatial 'mode' we use $\mathcal{H}8^2$, with 168).

Multi-Frame Modal Symbolic Learning. Proceedings of the 3rd Workshop on Artificial Intelligence and Formal Verification, Logic, Automata, and Synthesis (OVERLAY). Pagliarini et al., 2021.

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Ensembles

All learning models display a statistical behaviour. As such, as it is well-known, different 'copies' of the same (or even different) models learned on the same dataset, but under slightly different conditions, can be grouped together and then aggregated to take a final decision.

https://mlu-explain.github.io/random-forest/

Ensembles

All learning models display a statistical behaviour. As such, as it is well-known, different 'copies' of the same (or even different) models learned on the same dataset, but under slightly different conditions, can be grouped together and then aggregated to take a final decision. The most famous way to do this is to use random forests with several trees (usually in the hundreds); the corresponding concept at the modal level is that of modal random forests.

https://mlu-explain.github.io/random-forest/

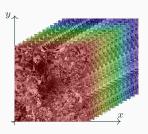
Practice: experiments with Sole.jl

Interpretable COVID-19 Diagnosis

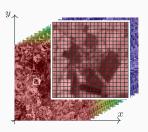
- Dataset: COVID-19 Sounds
 - 198 instances;
 - 2 modalities: cough & breath audio recordings;
 - 800 & 90 temporal points for cough & breath, respectively;
 - 30 variables.
- Task: COVID-19 diagnosis from breath+cough;
- Input: Frequency components (via Fourier transform) evolving through time during a single cough/breath event;
- Output: NEGATIVE/POSITIVE (2 classes):

Exploring automatic diagnosis of COVID-19 from crowdsourced respiratory sound data, *Proceedings of the 26th ACM SIGKDD international conference on knowledge discovery & data mining.* Brown et al., 2020.

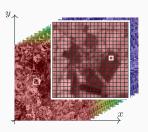
- Dataset: Pavia University, benchmark for land cover classification (LCC)
 - An 610×340 image (scene);
 - 42,776 pixel labels;
 - 103 variables (hyperspectral channels).
- Task: Image segmentation;
- Input: A pixel's coordinates;
- Output: Class label (2 classes):



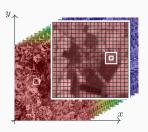
- Dataset: Pavia University, benchmark for land cover classification (LCC)
 - An 610×340 image (scene);
 - 42,776 pixel labels;
 - 103 variables (hyperspectral channels).
- Task: Image segmentation;
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Land Cover Classification via a rectangle logic (HS²)

Meet \mathcal{HS}^2 , a 2D spatial logic of rectangles with 169 directional relations:

ℋՏ**²**

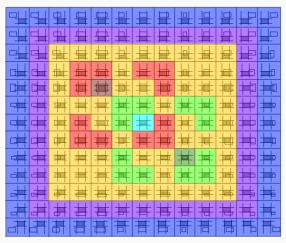
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$$\langle G \rangle \left(\neg p \wedge \langle LL \rangle q \wedge \langle AL \rangle r \right)$$

Land Cover Classification via a rectangle logic (HS²)

These relations can be combined to capture topological aspects:

$$\mathcal{HS^2}_{RCC8}$$



$$\langle G \rangle \left(\neg p \wedge \langle PO \rangle q \wedge \langle TPP \rangle r \right)$$

Land Cover Classification via a rectangle logic (\mathcal{HS}^2)

These relations can be combined to capture topological aspects:

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$\mathcal{HS}^2_{ ext{RCC8}}$ operator
$\langle DC \rangle$ (disconnected)
$\langle EC \rangle$ (externally connected)
$\langle PO \rangle$ (partially overlapping)
$\langle TPP \rangle$ (tangential proper part)
$\langle TPPi \rangle$ (tangential proper part inverse)
$\langle NTPP \rangle$ (non-tangential proper part)
$\langle NTPPi \rangle$ (non-tangential proper part inverse)

$$\langle G \rangle \left(\neg p \wedge \langle PO \rangle q \wedge \langle TPP \rangle r \right)$$

What's next?



- Minimization of logical formulas;
- Neuro-symbolic hybrids;
- Rule extraction from ensembles of trees;
- Generalization to fuzzy logics.

Modal Symbolic Learning: A Tutorial

Giovanni Pagliarini^{1,2} Guido Sciavicco¹ December 6-7-8th, 2023

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