An Ensemble Interpretable Machine Learning Scheme for Securing Data Quality at the Edge

Anna Karanika, Panagiotis Oikonomou, Kostas Kolomvatsos, Christos Anagnostopoulos

HAL Id: hal-03414739

https://inria.hal.science/hal-03414739

Submitted on 4 Nov 2021

An Ensemble Interpretable Machine Learning Scheme for Securing Data Quality at the Edge

Anna Karanika[1], Panagiotis Oikonomou[1], Kostas Kolomvatsos[1], and Christos Anagnostopoulos[2]

[1] Department of Informatics and Telecommunications, University of Thessaly
{ankaranika, paikonom, kostasks}@uth.gr
[2] School of Computing Science, University og Glasgow
christos.anagnostopoulos@gla.ac.uk

Abstract. Data quality is a significant research subject for any application that requests for analytics to support decision making. It becomes very important when we focus on Internet of Things (IoT) where numerous devices can interact to exchange and process data. IoT devices are connected to Edge Computing (EC) nodes to report the collected data, thus, we have to secure data quality not only at the IoT infrastructure but also at the edge of the network. In this paper, we focus on the specific problem and propose the use of interpretable machine learning to deliver the features that are important to be based on for any data processing activity. Our aim is to secure data quality for those features, at least, that are detected as significant in the collected datasets. We have to notice that the selected features depict the highest correlation with the remaining ones in every dataset, thus, they can be adopted for dimensionality reduction. We focus on multiple methodologies for having interpretability in our learning models and adopt an ensemble scheme for the final decision. Our scheme is capable of timely retrieving the final result and efficiently selecting the appropriate features. We evaluate our model through extensive simulations and present numerical results. Our aim is to reveal its performance under various experimental scenarios that we create varying a set of parameters adopted in our mechanism.

Keywords: Machine Learning · Interpretable Machine Learning · Ensemble Scheme · Features Selection.

1 Introduction

Nowadays we are witnessing the advent of Internet of Things (IoT) where numerous devices can interact with their environment and perform simple processing activities. Multiple services and applications are executed over humongous volumes of data collected by the IoT devices. These data are transferred to the Cloud infrastructure to be the subject of further processing. Due to the bandwidth of the network, latency and data privacy concerns, the research community has focused on the processing performed at the edge of the network. Edge Computing (EC) involves heterogeneous nodes close to IoT devices and

end users capable of performing various activities and delivering analytics over the collected data. EC nodes act as mediators between the IoT infrastructure and Cloud. They can be sensors, home gateways, micro servers, and small cells while being equipped with storage and computation capabilities.

Every EC node is 'connected' to a number of IoT devices and become the host of the collected data. We focus on a multivariate data scenario where multiple variables/dimensions/features consist of vectors reported by IoT devices. Locally, at EC nodes, an ecosystem of distributed datasets is formulated depicting the geo-located aspect of the problem. Data, before being the subject of processing, should be validated concerning their quality to support efficient analytics. A metric, among others, that secures data quality is accuracy [25]. Accuracy refers to the closeness of estimates to the (unknown) exact or true values [26]. In other words, accuracy depicts the error between the observation/estimation and the real data. We consider that maintaining accuracy in a dataset will lead to 'solid' data repositories, i.e., datasets exhibiting a limited error/deviation (around the mean). Actually, 'solid' datasets is the target of data separation algorithms proposed in the relevant literature; these algorithms aim to deliver small non-overlapping datasets and distributed on the available nodes [42]. In this paper, we propose a model for securing accuracy in datasets present in EC nodes acting proactively and rejecting any data that could jeopardize their 'solidity'. We consider a Machine Learning (ML) algorithm that decides if the incoming data should be stored locally or offloaded in peer nodes/Cloud. Actually, we propose the use of Naive Bayesian Classifier (NBC) for getting the final decision. However, this decision is made over only features that are judged as significant for each dataset. We consider that the remaining features should not be part of the decision making as they do not exhibit the appropriate and necessary characteristics that will lead to efficient analytics.

Motivating Example. Feature selection models are widely adopted to filter irrelevant or redundant features in our datasets. It is a significant technique that is, usually, incorporated in dimensionality reduction models to deal with the so-called curse of dimensionality. In general, it always helps analyzing the data up front and, then, we are ready to support any decision making process. Instead of collecting the data and performing any pre-processing/analysis action afterwards, it would be better to make the analysis during their collection. Hence, data quality and preparation can be secured before the dataset be the subject of any processing activity. This process can become the groundwork for the subsequent engineering steps providing a solid foundation for building good ML schemes for decision making. When solid datasets are the final outcome, we can easily deliver analytics based on the specific features detected during the reception of data. Hence, no need for post-processing is present while the accuracy of data is at a high level. A representative real example could be the distributed data management in a Smart City infrastructure. In this scenario, we want the data to be ready to be used by additional applications that citizens may adopt during their movement in the city.

Our intention is to provide a decision making model for securing data quality based on an ML scheme that will produce the relevant knowledge about the domain relationships during the reception of data. A set of research efforts focus on the data quality management and have identified its necessity in any application domain. However, they seldom discuss how to effectively validate data to ensure data quality [13]. The poor quality of data could increase costs and reduce the efficiency of decision making [31]. In IoT, it is often necessary to detect correlations between the collected data and external factors. We propose to secure data quality by allocating them to the appropriate datasets and select beforehand a (sub-)set of features that can be adopted in interpretable/explainable ML schemes. Explainable models can be easily 'absorbed' by humans depicting the hidden correlations between data and giving the necessary insights to understand the reasons behind the adoption of the specific ML model. The decision of the data allocation is performed over the selected features to have the delivered datasets ready to be processed by the desired ML models. Instead of performing the feature selection process after the collection of data, we go a step forward and propose the execution of the activity during the reception of data. Evidently, feature selection and data allocation are utilized at the same time to secure quality over a streaming environment. With this approach, we can save time and resources compared to a scheme where a batch processing activity is realized.

We build on an ensemble scheme, i.e., we adopt three (3) different model-agnostic approaches: the Permutation Feature Importance (PFI) [6], Shapley Values [4] and the Feature Interaction Technique (FIT) [12]. It is our strategic decision to adopt an ensemble approach to seek for a better 'predictive' performance that could be obtained from any of the individual model alone. Additionally, we could also avoid individual models' drawbacks. For instance, most permutation based techniques ignore features dependence, thus, we can combine them with techniques that deal with the correlations between features to have the optimal outcome. In addition, for delivering the final significance value for each feature through an aggregation of the three aforementioned outcomes, we adopt an Artificial Neural Network (ANN) [1]. In our case, the adopted inputs of the ANN are the outputs of the aforementioned interpretable models to efficiently combine them in a final value. The ANN undertakes the responsibility of 'aggregating' the opinion of 'experts' (i.e., our interpretable models) and deliver the final outcome. Based on these technologies, we are able to detect the most significant features in the collected data and build a powerful scheme for securing the data quality at the edge of the network. We depart from legacy solutions and instead of collecting huge volumes of data and post-process them trying to derive knowledge, we propose their real time management and allocation keeping similar data to the same partitions. We have to notice that our approach is not 'bounded' by any application domain and can be incorporated to any service that deals with the preprocessing of data before they will be the subject of further processing activities. The difference from our previous work presented in [20] is that the current work proposes an interpretable ML approach to give meaning

to the stored data and the results as delivered by the processing that end users desire. The following list reports on the advantages of the proposed model: (i) we proactively 'prepare' the data before the actual processing is applied; (ii) we offer an interpretable ML scheme for satisfying the meaningful knowledge extraction; (iii) we provide an ensemble scheme for aggregating multiple interpretable ML models; (iv) we offer an ANN for delivering the most significant features fully aligned with the collected data; (v) the proposed model proactively secures the quality of data as it excludes data that may lead to an increased error; (vi) our scheme leads to the minimum overlapping of the available datasets that is the target of the legacy data separation algorithms.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 reports on the related work while Section 3 presents the problme under consideration. In Section 4, we present the adopted interpretable ML models and our ensemble scheme for combining the provided outcomes. In Section 5, we perform an extensive evaluation assessment and Section 6 concludes our paper by giving insights in our future research plans.

2   Related Work

The interested reader can find a survey of data quality dimensions in [45]. Data mining and statistical techniques can be combined to extract the correlation of data quality dimensions, thus, assisting in the definition of a holistic framework. The advent of large-scale datasets as exposed by IoT define additional requirements on data quality assessment. Given the range of big data applications, potential consequences of bad data quality can be more disastrous and widespread [38]. In [27], the authors propose the '3As Data Quality-in-Use model' composed of three data quality characteristics i.e., contextual, operational and temporal adequacy. The proposed model could be incorporated in any large scale data framework as it is not dependent on any technology. A view on the data quality issues in big data is presented in [38]. A survey on data quality assessment methods is discussed in [7]. Apart from that, the authors present an analysis of the data characteristics in large scale data environments and describe the quality challenges. The evolution of the data quality issues in large scale systems is the subject of [3]. The authors discuss various relations between data quality and multiple research requirements. Some examples are: the variety of data types, data sources and application domains, sensor networks and official statistics.

ML interpretability is significant to deliver models that can explainable to humans, thus, to support efficient decision making. There are varying definitions of it [10], [23] without having a common ground, e.g., no formal ontology of interpretability types. However, in [23] is argued that these types can generally be categorised in (i) transparency (direct evidence of how the internals of a model work); or (ii) post hoc explanation (adoption of mapping methods to visualize input features that affect outputs) [28], [39]. A common post hoc technique incorporates explanations by example, e.g., case-based reasoning approach to select an appropriately-similar example from training set [8] or natural language

explanations [16]. The emergence of these methods shows there is no consensus on how to assess the explanation quality [9]. For instance, we have to decide the most appropriate metrics to assess the quality of an explanation. Especially, for edge computing such issues are critical; the interested reader can find a relevant survey of major research efforts where ML has been deployed at the edge of computer networks in [30].

In [51], the authors discuss the feasibility of running ML algorithms, both training and inference, on a Raspberry Pi, an embedded version of the Android operating system designed for IoT device development. The focus is to reveal the performance of various algorithms (e.g., Random Forests, Support Vector Machines, Multi-Layer Perceptron) in constrained devices. It is known that the highly regarded programming libraries consume to much resources to be ported to the embedded processors [47]. In [35], a service-provisioning framework for coalition operations is extended to address specific requirements for robustness and interpretability, allowing automatic selection of service bundles for intelligence, surveillance and reconnaissance tasks. The authors of [40] review explainable machine learning in view of applications in the natural sciences and discuss three core elements i.e., transparency, interpretability, and explainability. An analysis of the convergence rate of an ML model is presented in [50]. The authors focus on a distributed gradient descent scheme from a theoretical point of view and propose a control algorithm that determines the best trade-off between local update and global parameter aggregation.

The 'combination' between EC and deep learning is discussed in [15]. Application scenarios for both are presented together with practical implementation methods and enabling technologies. Deep learning models have been proven to be an efficient solution to the most complex engineering challenges while at the same time, human centered computing in fog and mobile edge networks is one of the serious concerns now-a-days [14]. In [36], the authors present a model that learns a set of rules to globally explain the behavior of black box ML models. Significant conditions are firstly extracted being evolved based on a genetic algorithm. In [24], an approach for image recognition having the process split into two layers is presented. In [21], the authors present a software accelerator that enhances deep learning execution on heterogeneous hardware. In [44] the authors propose the utilization of a Support Vector Machine (SVM) running on networked mobile devices to detect malware. A generic survey on employing networked mobile devices for edge computing is presented in [48]. A combination of ML with Semantic Web technologies in the context of model explainability is discussed in [43]. The aim is to semantically annotate parts of the ML models and offer the room for performing advanced reasoning delivering knowledge. All the above efforts aim at supporting the Explainable Artificial Intelligence (XAI) [22]. XAI will facilitate industry to apply AI in products at scale, particularly for industries operating with critical systems. Hence, end users will, finally, be able to enjoy high quality services and applications.

Explainable ML models are adopted in data management applications to provide outcomes that could be easily digested by end users. For this, researchers

focus, among other, on causality. Explainable models might facilitate the task of finding data relationships that, should they occur, could be tested further for a stronger causal link between the involved features [37], [49]. This way, we can build strong inference of causal relationships from data [33]. An example application is data fusion, i.e., a technique adopted to aggregate data and deliver analytics over the fused results. Future data fusion approaches may consider endowing deep learning models with explainability by externalizing domain data sources. Deep Kalman filters (DKFs) [19], Deep Variational Bayes Filters (DVBFs) [18], Structural Variational Autoencoders (SVAE) [17] or conditional random fields as Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs) [52] are some representatives. These approaches provide deep models with the interpretability inherent to probabilistic graphical models [2].

3   Problem Definition

Consider a set of N edge nodes connected with a number of IoT devices. IoT devices interact with their environment and collect data while being capable of performing simple processing activities. Data are transferred in an upwards direction towards the Cloud infrastructure where they are stored for further processing. As exposed by the research community [34], processing at the Cloud faces increased latency compared to the processing at the edge of the network. Therefore, edge nodes can maintain local datasets that can be the subject of the desired processing activities close to end users. In each local dataset $D_l, l = 1, 2, \ldots, N$, an amount of data (tuples/vectors) are stored. We focus on a multivariate scenario, i.e., D_l contains vectors in the form $\mathbf{x} = \langle x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_M \rangle$ where M is the number of dimensions/features. Without loss of generality, we consider the same number of features in every local dataset.

The upcoming intelligent edge mesh [41] incorporates the necessary intelligence to have edge nodes acting autonomously when serving end users or applications. This way, we can deliver the desired services in real time fully aligned with the needs of end users/applications and the available data. Arguably, the intelligent edge mesh provides analytics capabilities over the collected contextual data, thus, edge nodes should conclude ML models that have meaning for end users/applications. For instance, edge nodes may perform ML models for novelty or anomaly detection. When delivering ML models, a challenging problem is to extract higher-valued features that 'represent' the local dataset, thus, we can get our strategic decisions only over them and deal with the so-called curse of dimensionality. Formally, we want to detect the most significant features $x_{ij}, j = 1, 2, \ldots, M$ based on the available data vectors $\mathbf{x}_i, i = 1, 2, \ldots, |D_l|$. Hence, we will be able to 'explain' the local ML model making end users/ applications to have faith in it. This is the main motivation behind the adoption of ML model interpretability. We have to notice that the selected features are those: (i) being the most significant for each dataset, thus, they have to be part of any upcoming processing; (ii) being adopted to secure data quality by incorporating them in the decision for the allocation of the incoming data to the appropriate

datasets; (iii) being the most appropriate to support the explainability of the subsequent ML schemes.

Local datasets are characterized by specific statistical information, e.g., mean and variation/standard deviation. The aim of each node is to keep the accuracy of the local dataset at high levels. The accuracy is affected by the error between D and $\mathbf{x}$. Edge nodes should decide if $\mathbf{x}$ 'matches' D, however, based on features that are detected as significant for the local dataset (and not all of them). Through this approach, we do not take into consideration features that are not important for the local ML model as exposed by the incoming data vectors. We perform a dimensionality reduction beforehand during the collection of data. This means that our scheme is fully aligned with the needs of the environment (where edge nodes and IoT devices act) and end users/applications. If $\mathbf{x}$ deviates from D, it can 'rejected' and transferred either in a peer node (where it exhibits a high similarity) or in Cloud (as proposed in [20]); its incorporation in D will affect the local statistics 'imposing' severe fluctuations in basic statistical measures (e.g., mean, deviation). A Naive Bayesian Classifier (NBC) is adopted to deliver the decision of locally storing $\mathbf{x}$ or offloading it in peers/Cloud. The NBC reports over the probability of having $\mathbf{x}$ 'generated' by the local dataset D. However, the decision is made over the most significant features as delivered by the proposed ensemble interpretable ML model aiming at having an ML model that can be explained in end users/applications. Our ensemble scheme involves three interpretable, model agnostic techniques, i.e., the PFI, Shapley Values and the FIT.

For handling the 'natural' evolution of data in the error identification (between D and $\mathbf{x}$), we consider a novelty detection model before the incoming data being subject of the envisioned NBC (for deciding the storage locally or the offloading to peers/Cloud). The novelty detection is applied over a copy of the latest W vectors and delivers if there is a significant update in the statistics of the incoming data. When the novelty detection module identifies the discussed update, the W data vectors are incorporated in the local dataset D and the proposed interpretable ML model is fired. In this paper, due to space limitations, we do not focus on a specific novelty detection scheme and consider a indicator function $I([\mathbf{x}]^{W}) \rightarrow \{0, 1, \}$ to depict the change in the incoming data statistics. For achieving the 'final' interpretability, we propose the use of an ANN over multiple model-agnostic interpretable models. The goal is to decouple the model from the interpretation paying more attention on the significance of each feature and the amount of its contribution in the 'black box' ML model (i.e., the NBC). The ANN receives as inputs the outcomes of each interpretable technique and deliver the final value to decide over the features that are significant for the local dataset. In any case, even if ANNs are not interpretable models, the interpretability in our approach is secured by the three aforementioned explainable schemes. The ANN is adopted to 'aggregate' the 'opinion' of three different interpretable models and get the final outcome based on which we, consequently, get the significance of a feature. The ANN is there to handle possible 'disagreements' for the the significance of each feature. In Figure 1, we

can see the envisioned setup. In the first place of our future research plans is the aggregation of interpretable models originated in different edge nodes to deliver and interpretable model for a group of nodes covering a specific area.
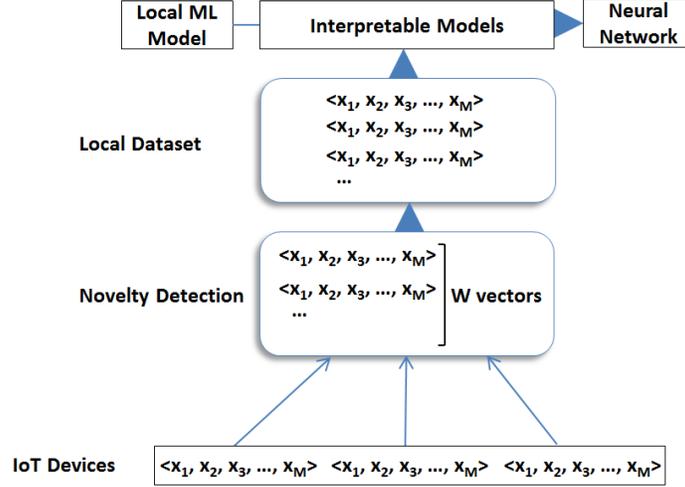

Fig. 1. The architecture of an edge node.

4   The Ensemble Scheme

4.1   Feature Effects & Selection

An NBC adopts the Bayes theorem of conditional probabilities to estimate the probability for a class given the value of the feature. This is realized for each feature independently; a similar approach as having an assumption of the independence of features. Given a dataset X and its values $[x_i]$, the probability of a class C_k is given by:

$$P\left(C_k|X\right) = \frac{1}{Q} P(C_k) \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(x_i|C_k) \tag{1}$$

where Q is a scaling parameter adopted to secure that probabilities for all the classes sum up to unity. The independence assumption leads to an interpretable model, i.e., for each classification, its contribution to the predicted class is easily perceived.

Let the dataset be $\mathbf{Z}$ $[y, X]$ where y is the output c-length vector and a cXp covariate matrix. In addition, we get the trained model f over our dataset and the $L(y, f)$ is a function delivering the error measure for our model based on

the outcome y. The PFI scheme [11] adopts a number of steps for calculating each feature's importance to finally decide the final (sub-)set of the adopted features. The training dataset is split in half and values of the jth feature are swapped between the two halfs instead of producing permutation for the feature. Initially, the model estimates the f's error notated as $e^o = L(y, f(X))$ based on any technique (e.g., we can adopt the mean squared error). Afterwards, for each feature, we generate feature permutations in data breaking the correlation between the feature and the outcome y. For this permutation, we calculate the error $e^p = L(y, f(X^p))$ where X^p is the dataset delivered after the permutation. The PFI for the feature is calculated as follows: $F_j^{PFI} = \frac{e^p}{e^o}$.

Shapley values are originated in the coalition game theory. The interpretation of a Shapley value ξ_{ij} for the feature j and the instance i of the dataset is the feature value x_{ij} contributed ξ_{ij} towards the estimation for i compared to the average prediction for the dataset. A Shapley value aims at detecting the effect of the jth feature on the prediction of a data point. For instance, in a linear model, i.e., $\hat{f}(x_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \ldots + \beta_p x_{ip}$, it is easy through the weight β_j to expose the effect of the jth feature. For retrieving the final Shapley value, we should examine all possible 'coalitions' of features which is a computational intensive task when we focus on a high number of features. In these coalitions, we have to incorporate or leave the feature in combination with other features to see its effect in the estimation of the target parameter. Hence, we rely on an approximation model proposed in [46]. The method is based on a Monte-Carlo simulation that delivers the final value, i.e., $F_j^{SV} = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^{M}] \left(\hat{f}(x^{+j}) - \hat{f}(x^{-j}) \right)$. In this equation, M is the number of iterations (we get the mean of the differences), $\hat{f}$ is the estimated value for the ith sample based on the black box ML model, x^{+j} is the selected instance with a random number of features replaced by values retrieved by a random data point x and x^{-j} is identical to x^{+j} but we exclude the jth feature. This means that we create two new instances x^{+j} & x^{-j} from the same dataset, however, performing a sampling for realizing permutations for our features. The steps of the approach are as follows: (i) select an instance of interest i and a feature j; (ii) select the number of samples M; (iii) for each sample, select a random instance and mix the order of features; (iv) create two new instances (as described above) for the ith sample; (v) get the difference of the estimated value; (vi) get the mean of the results as the final Shapley value.

We can estimate the FIT value for each feature based on the so-called Partial Dependence (PD) between features. The interaction of a feature with all the remaining ones in our model will depict the significance of the specific feature. Let two features x_j and x_k. For measuring if the jth feature interacts with the remaining features in the model, we get: $F_j^{FIT} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[\hat{f}(x^{(i)}) - PD_j(x_j^{(i)}) - PD_{-j}(x_{-j}^{(i)}) \right]}{\sum_{i=1}^{n}}$ $(-j$ represents the exclusion of the j feature from the instance). The partial function for a feature can be easily retrieved by a Monte Carlo simulation, i.e., $PD(x_j) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{f}(x_j, \dot{x})$ where $\dot{x}$ are values from the dataset for features we are not interested in.

4.2   Combination of Multiple Models

The combination of the interpretable models is performed for each feature through the use of our ANN. ANNs are computational models inspired by natural neurons. The proposed ANN is a series of functional transformations involving C combinations of input values i.e., $o_f^1, o_f^2, \ldots, o_f^{|\mathcal{O}|}$ ($o_f^k, k = 1, 2, \ldots, |\mathcal{O}|$ (o_f^k is the final fused value for each metric) [5]. The linear combination of inputs has the following form: $\alpha_j = \sum_{k=1}^{|\mathcal{O}|} w_{jk} o_f^k + w_{j0}$, where $j = 1, 2, \ldots, C$. In the above equation, w_{jk} are weights and w_{j0} are the biases. Activation parameters α_j are, then, transformed by adopting a nonlinear activation function to give $z_j = g(\alpha_j)$. In our model, $g(.)$ is the sigmoid function. The overall ANN function is given by:

$$y(\mathbf{o_f}) = s \left(\sum_{j=1}^{C} w_j g \left(\sum_{k=1}^{|\mathcal{O}|} w_{jk} o_f^k + w_{j0} \right) + w_0 \right), \qquad (2)$$

where $s(.)$ is the sigmoid function defined as follows: $s(\alpha) = \frac{1}{1+exp(-\alpha)}$. In addition, C is the combinations of input values and $\mathcal{M}$ is the number of inputs.

The proposed ANN tries to aggregate heterogeneous metrics and pays attention on their importance. We adopt a three layered ANN. The first layer is the *input layer*, the second is the *hidden layer* and the third is the *output layer*. We adopt a feed forward ANN where data flow from the input layer to the output layer. In our ANN, there are $|\mathcal{O}|$ inputs i.e., the final estimated values for each performance metric depicted by the vector $\mathbf{o_f}$. The output $y(\mathbf{o_f})$ is the aggregated value that will be the basis for deciding the significance of each feature. Actually, we fire the ANN and get the significance value of each feature creating, at the end, a sorted list. We adopt a threshold d above which a feature is considered as significant for our model. The most important part of our decision scheme is the training of the proposed ANN. In the training phase, we adopt a training dataset depicting various strategies / scenarios concerning the interpretable ML models. This training dataset contains various combinations of outcomes of the adopted interpretable models. For a number of iterations, we produce values that correspond to multiple combinations of metrics depicting various states of the network and the node. The dataset is defined by experts.

5   Performance Assessment

5.1   Indicators & Simulation Setup

We present the experimental evaluation of the proposed model through a set of simulations. It is worth noticing that our simulator was developed in R and our experiments were performed relying on WS-DREAM datasets provided in [53] [3] and more specifically the Dataset 1. This dataset describes real-world QoS measurements, including both response time and throughput values, obtained from

---
[3] https://github.com/wsdream/wsdream-dataset

339 users on 5,825 Web services. From this dataset, we adopt all the available features and apply our model.

Our evaluation process focuses on the improvement of the decision-making process when deciding whether to keep data locally based on the most important features of the incoming data as opposed to all of them, i.e., no interpretability (feature selection) process is applied. Furthermore, we are concerned with keeping locally the instances of data that preserve the solidity of the current dataset maintained by an EC node. Solidity is very important as it can be used to enhance the confidence interval of the statistical information of datasets. In our experimental evaluation, we pay attention on the specific features that are selected in every evaluation scenario. The ultimate goal is to detect if the final outcome corresponds to something valid and interesting from the application point of view (i.e., secure quality by allocating data to the appropriate datasets). Lastly, we focus on the time required for a node to make a decision.

We define the metric Δ as the percentage of correct decisions. The following equation holds true: $\Delta = |CD|/|DS|*100\%$. In the aforementioned equation, CD represents the set of correct decisions related to the storage of the appropriate data locally and DS represents the set of decisions taken in our experimental evaluation. When $\Delta \rightarrow 100\%$, it means that the model has a high accuracy, whereas as $\Delta \rightarrow 0\%$, the model's predictions are not reliable at all. Moreover, we establish the metric σ, which is depicted by the standard deviation of data and describes the 'solidity' of the local dataset. The lower the σ becomes, the more 'solid' a node's dataset is and the opposite is true when σ's value becomes high; specifically, when a dataset is quite 'solid', it means that its values are concentrated around the mean value, hence, giving us a concrete idea of the concentration of data. Having a 'solid' dataset can be highly useful in the efficient allocation of queries to datasets that can serve them in the most effective manner. In addition, we report on τ, representing the average time that is required for a decision to be made on whether a single data instance should be kept locally, or offloaded to another EC node into which it fits better or the Fog/Cloud.

We perform a set of experiments for a variety of M and w values. We adopt $M \in \{20, 50, 100\}$, i.e. different numbers of dimensions for the dataset, as well as $w \in \{10\%, 20\%, 50\%\}$, i.e. different percentages of features to be used for the final decision about a data instance's storage node.

5.2   Experimental Outcomes

We start by evaluating our model in terms of Δ (see Figure 2). In this set of experiments, we compare the performance of two models, i.e., CD and wCD. The former depicts the percentage of correct decisions made by the NBC based on all the features of the adopted dataset. This is a baseline solution where equal significance is paid for all the available features. The latter model illustrates the percentage of correct decisions made by the NBC based only on the $w*M$ most significant features of the dataset. It consists of the model where our 'reasoning' is adopted to detect the most important features of the dataset. We observe that in the majority of the experimental scenarios (except one case), the performance

of wCD is decidedly improved when compared against the CD. This is quite rational as in wCD the NBC is able to focus solely on the most important features of an instance to make a decision about whether to keep it locally or not and does not take into account features that can result in a false prediction. This provides an evidence that our mechanism is capable of efficiently detecting significant features, thus, we can adopt them to support decision making. As M increases, Δ becomes low, since an increment in the number of features used by the classifier brings about the aforementioned false predictions. Features that are not significant steer the prediction away from the actual class, and even if only $w*M$ of the features are used, the features are still too many to make the decision-making process as clear as it needs to be. In general, the performance of the proposed system is affected by M and w, i.e., increased M & w lead to lower Δ values.
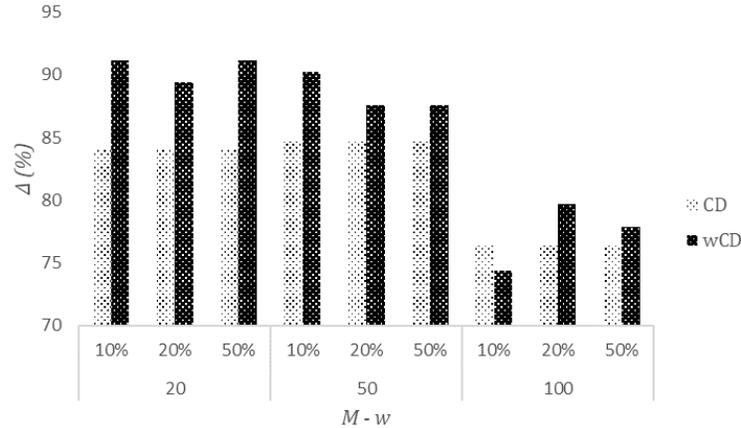

Fig. 2. Performance evaluation for the correct decisions derived by our model compared with the baseline solution, i.e., the Naïve Bayes Classifier.

In Figure 3, we present our results for the solidity of the retrieved datasets after the selection of the most significant features. In this set of experiments, we compare three models, i.e., the OS, the BNS and the NNS. OS represents the model where we deliver the σ realization based on the entire set of data available in a node. The BNS depicts the solidity of the dataset when adopting the NBC and the entire set of the available features. Finally, the NNS represents the solidity of the dataset when adopting the features selected by the proposed interpretable approach. In all the experimental scenarios, our feature selection approach (i.e., the NNS) manages to achieve the best performance. This means that the final, delivered dataset is solid and the deviation from the mean is limited. Hence, we can increase the accuracy of data as they do not deviate from

the mean limiting the possibilities of the presence of extreme values that can negatively affect the statistical characteristics of the dataset. Apart from that, in a latter step, we can create data synopses to be distributed in the upper layer of a Cloud-Edge-IoT architecture that could be characterized by an increased confidence interval. In Figure 3, we also observe that the OS exhibits the worst performance among the compared models. Finally, a low M combined with a low w leads to the best possible performance.
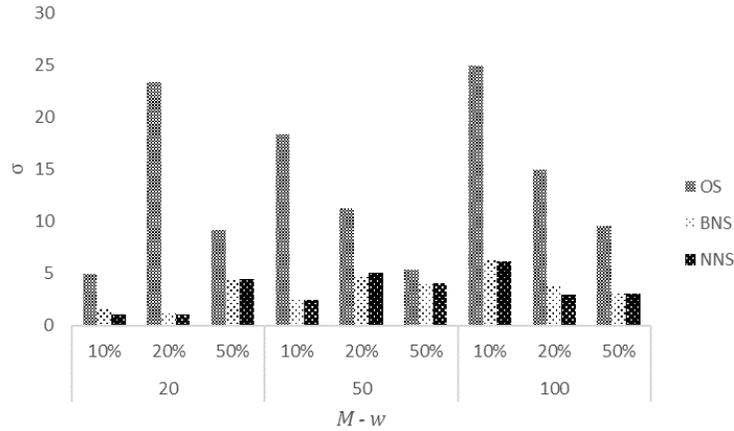

Fig. 3. Data solidity as delivered by the proposed model in comparison with other models found in the respective literature (i.e., the OS and the BNS models).

Another set of experiments deals with the time required to conclude the final sub-set of features. In Figure 4, we plot τ for various combinations of M and w. We have to notice that τ is retrieved as the mean for a number of iterations. As it can be observed, w's increment does not reflect any change to τ. This is reasonable since the model has to do calculations for each of the M features to determine the most important ones. This procedure is repeated for each instance and its total duration is higher than the decision itself. Figure 4 also depicts that τ is (approx.) linear to the total number of features M. This observation becomes the evidence of the efficiency of the proposed approach as it is 'transparent' to the total number of features taken into consideration.

We compare our wCD scheme with a model that adopts the Principal Component Analysis (PCA) for dimensionality reduction. Table 5.2 reports on the comparative outcomes related to the accuracy of the decision making, i.e., the Δ metric. We observe that the wCD outperforms the PCA in the vast majority of the adopted experimental scenarios showing the ability of the proposed approach to secure the quality of data in the available datasets under the rationale explained above. This is another evidence that our mechanism is capable
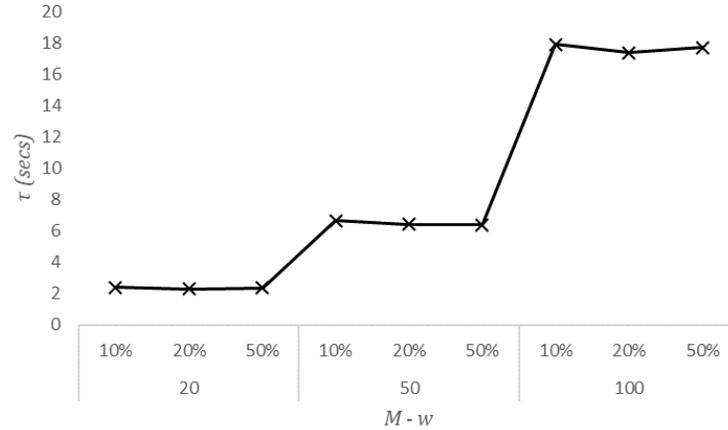
Fig. 4. Performance evaluation related to τ, i.e., the time requirements for concluding the final sun-set of features.

of efficiently detecting significant features, focusing on them and support the appropriate decision making for solving the problem under consideration.

Table 1. Comparative results for the Δ metric.

M	w	wCD	PCA
	10%	91	71
20	20%	89	89
	50%	91	84
	10%	90	81
50	20%	87	83
	50%	87	84
	10%	83	78
100	20%	79	78
	50%	77	74

6   Conclusions & Future Work

Data quality is significant because without it, we are not able to support efficient decision making. Securing data quality will give a competitive advantage especially to companies that are based on various analytics processing activities. In this paper, we focus on the management of data quality and propose that any decision related to the acceptance of incoming data should be based on specific features and not all of them. Such features will exhibit the appropriate statistical

characteristics that will make, afterwards, the desired analytics explainable to end users. We assume an edge computing environment and propose and ensemble scheme for features selection. We present the adopted algorithms and provide the aggregation process. In addition, we propose the use of a Neural Network that delivers the importance of each individual feature before we conclude the final sub-set. Based on the above, we are able to detect the most significant features for data present at edge nodes. Our experimental evaluation exhibits the performance of the system and its capability to select the proper features. Our numerical results denote the significance of our model and its capability to be adopted in real time applications. In the first place of our future research plans, we will provide a mechanism for covering the uncertainty around the significance of each feature. Additionally, we plan to incorporate into our model a scheme that delivers the selection decision based on a modelling of the available features adopting a sliding window approach.

Acknowledgment

References

1. Alpaydin, E., 'Introduction to Machine Learning', MIT Press, 2009.
2. Arrieta, A. B., et al., 'Explainable Artificial Intelligence (XAI): Concepts, taxonomies, opportunities and challenges toward responsible AI', Information FUsion, 58, 2020, pp. 82-115.
3. Batini, C., Rula, A., Scannapieco, M., Viscusi, G., 'From Data Quality to Big Data Quality', Journal of Database Management, vol. 26(1), 2015, pp. 60–82.
4. Bertini, C., 'Shapley Value', Encyclopedia of Power, 2011.
5. Bishop, C., 'Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning', Springer, 2006.
6. Breiman,, L., 'Random Forests', Machine Learning, 45 (1), Springer: 5–32, 2011.
7. Cai, L., Zhu, Y., 'The Challenges of Data Quality and Data Quality Assessment in the Big Data Era', Data Science Journal, vol. 14(2), 2015, pp. 1–10.
8. Caruana, R., Kangarloo, H., Dionisio, J., Sinha, U., Johnson, D., 'Case based explanation of non-case-based learning methods', in Proceedings of the AMIA Symposium, 1999, pp. 212–215.
9. Carvalho, D., Pereira, E., Cardoso, J., 'Machine Learning Interpretability: A Survey on Methods and Metrics', Electronics, vol. 8, 2019.
10. Doshi-Velez, F., Kim, B., 'Towards a rigorous science of interpretable machine learning," arXiv preprint arXiv:1702.08608, 2017.
11. Fisher, A., Rudin, C., Dominici, F., 'All Models are Wrong, but Many are Useful: Learning a Variable's Importance by Studying an Entire Class of Prediction Models Simultaneously', 2019, https://arxiv.org/pdf/1801.01489.pdf.
12. Friedman, J., Popescu, B., 'Predictive Learning via Rule Ensembles', The Annals of Applied Statistics, JSTOR, 2008, pp. 916–54.
13. Gao, J., Xie, C., Tao, C., 'Big Data Validation and Quality Assurance - Issues, Challenges and Needs', IEEE Symposium on Service-Oriented System Engineering (SOSE), 2016, doi: 10.1109/SOSE.2016.63.

14. Gupta, B., Agrawal, D., Yamagushi, S., 'Deep Learning Models for Human Centered Computing in Fog and Mobile Edge Networks', Journal of Ambient Intelligence and Humanized Computing, vol. 10, 2019, pp. 2907-2911.
15. Han, Y., Wang, X., Leung, V., Niyato, D., Yan, X., Chen, X., 'Convergence of Edge Computing and Deep Learning: A Comprehensive Survey', arXiv:1907.08349, 2019.
16. Hendricks, L., Akata, Z., Rohrbach, M., Donahue, J., Schiele, B., Darrell, T., 'Generating visual explanations', in European Conference on Computer Vision (ECCV 2016), Springer, 2016, pp. 3–19.
17. Johnson, M. J., Duvenaud, D. K., Wiltschko, A., Adams, R. P., Datta, S. R., 'Composing graphical models with neural networks for structured representations and fast inference', in: Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, 29, 2016, pp. 2946–2954.
18. Karl, M., Soelch, M., Bayer, J., van der Smagt, V., 'Deep Variational Bayes Filters: Unsupervised Learning of State Space Models from Raw Data', 2016.
19. Krishnan, K. R., Shalit, U., Sontag, D., 'Deep Kalman Filters', 2015.
20. Kolomvatsos, K., 'A Distributed, Proactive Intelligent Scheme for Securing Quality in Large Scale Data Processing', Springer Computing, 2019, pp. 1-24, https://doi.org/10.1007/s00607-018-0683-9.
21. Lane, N.D., Bhattacharya, S., Georgiev, P., Forlivesi, C., Kawsar, F., 'Accelerated Deep Learning Inference for Embedded and Wearable Devices using DeepX', In Proceedings of the 14th Annual International Conference on Mobile Systems, Applications, and Services Companion. pp. 109-109, 2016.
22. Lecue, F., 'On the Role of Knowledge Graphs in Explainable AI', In Proceedings of the 18th International Semantic Web Conference, 2019.
23. Lipton, Z., 'The mythos of model interpretability', in 2016 ICML Workshop on Human Interpretability in Machine Learning, 2017, pp. 96–100.
24. Liu, C., Cao, Y., Luo, Y., Chen, G., Vokkarane, V., Ma, Y., Chen, S., Hou, P., 'A New Deep Learning-based Food Recognition System for Dietary Assessment on an Edge Computing service infrastructure' IEEE Transactions on Services Computing, 2017.
25. Loshin, D. Monitoring Data Quality Performance Using Data Quality Metrics. Informatica, The Data Integration Company, White Paper, 2011.
26. Management Group on Statistical Cooperation. Report of the Sixteenth meeting. European Commission, Eurostat, 2014, Doc. MGSC/2014/14.
27. Merino, J., Caballero, I., Rivas, B., Serrano, M., Piattini, M., 'A Data Quality in Use model for Big Data', Future generation Computer Systems, Elsevier, vol. 63, 2016, pp. 123–130.
28. Montavon, G., Lapuschkin, S., Binder, A., Samek, W., Muller, K., 'Explaining nonlinear classification decisions with deep taylor decomposition', Pattern Recognition, vol. 65, pp. 211–222, 2016.
29. Murdoch, W., Singh, C., Kumbier, K., Abbasi-Asl, R., Yu, B., 'Interpretable Machine Learning: Definitions, Methods and Applications', PNAS,2019, 116 (44), 22071-22080.
30. Murshed, M., Murphy, C., Hou, D., Khan, N., Ananthanarayanan, G., Hussain, D., 'Machine Learning at the Network Edge: A Survey', arXiv:1908.00080, 2019.
31. Nelson RR, Todd PA, Wixom BH (2005) Antecedents of information and system quality: an empirical examination within the context of data warehousing. J Manag Inf Syst 21(4):199–235
32. Olah, C., Satyanarayan, A., Johnson, I., Carter, S., Schubert, L., Ye, K., Mordvintsev, A., 'The building blocks of interpretability', Distill, 2018, 10.23915/distill.00010.

33. Pearl, J., 'Causality', Cambridge University Press, 2009.
34. Pham, Q., et al., 'A Survey of Multi-Access Edge Computing in 5G and Beyond: Fundamentals, Technology Integration,and State-of-the-Art', https://arxiv.org/pdf/1906.08452.pdf, 2019.
35. Preece, A., Harborne, D., Raghavendra, R., Tomsett, R., Braines, D., 'Provisioning Robust and Interpretable AI/ML-based Service Bundles', MILCOM, 2018.
36. Puri, N., Gupta, P., Agarwal, P., Verma, S., 'MAGIX: Model Agnostic Globally Interpretable Explanations', arXiv:1706.07160, 2017.
37. Rani, P., Liu, C., Sarkar, N., Vanman, E., 'An empirical study of machine learning techniques for affect recognition in human–robot interaction', Pattern Analysis and Applications, 9(1), 2006, 58–69.
38. Rao, D., Gudivada, V. N., Raghavan, V. V., 'Data quality issues in big data', In Proceedings of the IEEE International Conference on Big Data, Santa Clara, CA, USA, 2015.
39. Ribeiro, M., Singh, S., Guestrin, C., 'Why should i trust you? Explaining the predictions of any classifier' in Proceedings of the 22nd ACM SIGKDD International Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining (KDD'16), ACM, 2016, pp. 1135–1144.
40. Roscher, R., Bihn, B., Duarte, M., Garcke, J., 'Explainable Machine Learning for Scientific Insights and Discoveries', arXiv:1905.08883, 2019.
41. Sahni, Y., Cao, J., Zhang, S., Yang, L., 'Edge Mesh: A New Paradigm to Enable Distributed Intelligence in Internet of Things', IEEE Access, vol. 5, 2017, pp. 16441-16458.
42. Salloum, S., He, Y., Huang, J. Z., Zhang, X., Emara, T., 'A Random Sample Partition Data Model for Big Data Analysis', https://arxiv.org/abs/1712.04146, 2018.
43. Seeliger, A., Pfaff, M., Krcmar, H., 'Semantic Web Technologies for Explainable Machine Learning Models: A Literature Review', 1st Workshop on Semantic Explainability, 2019.
44. Shamili, A.S., Bauckhage, C., Alpcan, T., 'Malware detection on mobile devices using distributed machine learning', In 20th IEEE International Conference on Pattern Recognition (ICPR), 2010, pp. 4348-4351.
45. Sidi, F., Panahy, P. H. S., Affendey, L. S., Jabar, M. A., Ibrahim, H., Mustapha, A., 'Data Quality: A Survey of Data Quality Dimensions', International Conference on Information Retrieval & Knowledge Management (CAMP), 2012, pp. 300–304.
46. Strumbelj, E., Komonenko, I., 'Explaining prediction models and individual predictions with feature contributions', Knowledge and Information Systems, vol. 41(3), 2014, pp. 647–65.
47. Szydlo, T., Sendorek, J., Brzoza-Wosh, R., 'Enabling Machine Learning on Resource Constrained Devices by Source Code Generation of the Learned Models', In Proceedings of the 18th International Conference on Computational Science, 2018.
48. Tran, T., Hosseini, M., Pompili, D., 'Mobile edge computing: Recent efforts and five key research directions', MMTC Communications-Frontiers 12(4), 2017, pp. 29-34.
49. Wang, H.-X., Fratiglioni, L., Frisoni, G., Viitanen, M., Winblad, B., 'Smoking and the occurence of alzheimer's disease: Cross-sectional and longitudinal data in a population-based study', American journal of epidemiology, 149(7), 1999, 640–644.
50. Wang, S., Tuor, T., Salonidis, T., Leung, K., Makaya, C., He, T., Chan, K., 'When Edge Meets Learning: Adaptive Control for Resource-Constrained Distributed Machine Learning', IEEE Infocom, 2018.

51. Yazizi, M., Basurra, S., Gaber, M. M., 'Edge Machine Learning: Enabling Smart Internet of Things Applications', Big Data and Cognitive Computing, vol. 2(26), 2018.
52. Zheng, S., Jayasumana, S., Romera-Paredes, B., Vineet, V., Su, Z., Du, D., Huang, C., Torr, P. H., 'Conditional random fields as recurrent neural networks', in Proceedings of the IEEE international conference on computer vision, 2015, pp. 1529–1537.
53. Zheng, Z., Zhang, Y., Lyu, M. R., 'Investigating QoS of Real- World Web Services', IEEE Transactions on Services Computing, vol.7, no.1, pp.32-39, 2014.